Mitochondrial genome evolution in pelagophyte algae

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Abstract

The Pelagophyceae are marine stramenopile algae that include *Aureoumbra lagunensis* and *Aureococcus anophagefferens*, two microbial species notorious for causing harmful algal blooms. Despite their ecological significance, relatively few genomic studies of pelagophytes have been carried out. To improve understanding of the biology and evolution of pelagophyte algae, we sequenced complete mitochondrial genomes for *A. lagunensis* (CCMP1510), *Pelagomonas calceolata* (CCMP1756) and five strains of *A. anophagefferens* (CCMP1707, CCMP1708, CCMP1850, CCMP1984 and CCMP3368) using Nanopore long-read sequencing. All pelagophyte mitochondrial genomes assembled into single, circular mapping contigs between 39,376 base-pairs (bp) (*P. calceolata*) and 55,968 bp (*A. lagunensis*) in size. Mitochondrial genomes for the five *A. anophagefferens* strains varied slightly in length (42,401 bp – 42,621 bp) and were 99.4%-100.0% identical. Gene content and order was highly conserved between the *A. anophagefferens* and *P. calceolata* genomes, with the only major difference being a unique region in *A. anophagefferens* containing DNA adenine and cytosine methyltransferase (*dam*/*dcm*) genes that appear to be the product of lateral gene transfer from a prokaryotic or viral donor. While the *A. lagunensis* mitochondrial genome shares seven distinct syntenic blocks with the other pelagophyte genomes, it has a tandem repeat expansion comprising ~40% of its length, and lacks identifiable *rps19* and glycine tRNA genes. Laterally acquired self-splicing introns were also found in the 23S rRNA (*rnl*) gene of *P. calceolata* and the *coxI* gene of the five *A. anophagefferens* genomes. Overall, these data provide baseline knowledge about the genetic diversity of bloom-forming pelagophytes relative to non-bloom-forming species.

Keywords:
Mitochondrial genome, Stramenopila, Pelagophyceae, lateral gene transfer, evolution
Significance statement:

Pelagophytes are marine microalgae that can cause harmful algal blooms (HABs). While nuclear and mitochondrial genomes have been sequenced for the pelagophyte *Aureococcus anaphagefferens*, very little sequence data exist for other species and the molecular basis of HAB formation is poorly understood. We have sequenced the mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) of five *Aureococcus anaphagefferens* strains, as well as that of *Aureoumbra lagunensis* and *Pelagomonas calceolata*. The *A. anaphagefferens* genomes are noteworthy in possessing DNA methyltransferase genes of apparent viral origin not found in the other two species—this is potentially significant given that viruses are known to mediate HAB formation and collapse. Our data provide insight into fine-scale variation of *A. anaphagefferens* mtDNAs relative to those of their closest non-HAB-forming species.
Introduction:

The pelagophytes are marine, mostly picoplanktonic algae that branch within the stramenopiles (heterokonts). Two species of pelagophytes, *Aureoumbra lagunensis* and *Aureococcus anophagefferens*, are well known for their ability to form brown tides, a type of harmful algal bloom (HAB) that can cause significant damage to ecosystems and negatively impact fisheries (Sieburth et al. 1988; DeYoe et al. 1997; Gobler & Sunda 2012). *A. anophagefferens* HABs have occurred annually in estuaries along the northeast and mid-Atlantic coasts of the United States since 1985, and more recently have been observed off the coasts of South Africa and China (Gobler & Sunda 2012; Zhang et al. 2012). *A. lagunensis* blooms have occurred intermittently in lagoons near Texas, Florida and Cuba since 1990 (Gobler & Sunda 2012; Gobler et al. 2013; Hall et al. 2018). Given that both of the pelagophyte HABs occur in anthropogenically modified environments – likely due to the organism’s abilities to utilize particular nutrients (Gobler & Sunda 2012) – it seems probable that their respective bloom regions will continue to expand further in the future.

*A. lagunensis* and *A. anophagefferens* are small (2-4 μm), spherical, non-motile unicellular algae (Sieburth et al. 1988; DeYoe et al. 1997; Gobler & Sunda 2012). Despite their morphological similarities, they are genetically distinct (DeYoe et al. 1997). One notable difference between these two HAB-forming algae is that *A. anophagefferens* is known to associate with *Aureococcus anophagefferens* Virus (AaV), a nucleocytoplasmic large DNA virus (Gastrich et al. 1998; Moniruzzaman et al. 2014, 2016). AaV has been suggested to influence *A. anophagefferens* bloom dynamics, including their formation and collapse (Moniruzzaman et al. 2018), and the AaV genome contains several genes acquired from its host, suggesting that AaV and *A. anophagefferens* have co-evolved (Moniruzzaman et al. 2014).
Despite their obvious ecological importance, relatively little molecular data are available across the diversity of pelagophytes, limiting our knowledge of the molecular biology and evolution of this class as a whole. Based on 18S ribosomal DNA (rDNA) sequence data, the inter-species phylogenetic relationships of Pelagophyceae have been estimated and show that the HAB-forming species *A. anophagefferens* and *A. lagunensis* are not closely related and in fact belong to different orders within the class Pelagophyceae (Wetherbee et al. 2015). Other pelagophyte species not known to form HABs, such as *Pelagomonas calceolata* (Andersen et al. 1993), appear more closely related to the HAB-forming taxa. On the basis of 18S rDNA and plastid RuBiSCO genes, Bailey and Andersen (1999) suggested that *A. anophagefferens* blooms are genetically uniform and not comprised of cryptic species. A recent study of *A. anophagefferens* diversity in China by Tang et al. (2019) lends further support to this notion.

Gobler et al. (2011) published the first nuclear genome of a pelagophyte alga, that of *A. anophagefferens* CCMP1984. Transcriptomes have since been sequenced for both *A. anophagefferens* (Frischkorn et al. 2014) and *A. lagunensis*, as well as *Pelagomonas calceolata* and *Pelagococcus subviridis* as a part of the Marine Microbial Eukaryote Transcriptome Sequencing Project (MMETSP) (Keeling et al. 2014; Caron et al. 2017). However, while the plastid (chloroplast) genomes of both *A. lagunensis* and *A. anophagefferens* have been sequenced (Ong et al. 2010), the mitochondrial genome of *A. anophagefferens* (CCMP1984) was only recently published (Liu et al. 2020).

Mitochondria are organelles derived from an α-proteobacterial endosymbiont. A reduced version of the endosymbiont’s genome is still maintained in almost all mitochondria and mitochondria-related organelles (see Roger et al. 2018 and references therein). Across eukaryote lineages, the size, structure, and gene content of mitochondrial genomes varies quite widely (e.g.,
Smith et al. 2016). Targeted sequencing of mitochondrial genomes from under-sample lineages (e.g., Ševčíková et al. 2016; Kim et al. 2018) has allowed for a greater understanding of the evolutionary history of mitochondrial genomes across specific groups of taxa. However, with only a single mitochondrial genome available for all pelagophyte algae, we are missing a large chunk of its diversity.

We have sequenced complete mitochondrial genomes for the pelagophytes *Aureoumbra lagunensis* (CCMP1510), *Pelagomonas calceolata* (CCMP1756), and five strains of *Aureococcus anophagefferens* (CCMP1707, CCMP1708, CCMP1850, CCMP1984 and CCMP3368). These data allowed us to assess gene content and synteny, identify strain- and species-specific genomic features and, more generally, better understand how the mitochondrial genome has evolved over the course of pelagophyte and stramenopile evolution. Our *A. anophagefferens* data help define strain diversity in this important HAB-forming species.

**Methods:**

**Cell culturing and DNA extraction**

*Aureoumbra lagunensis* CCMP1510, *Pelagomonas calceolata* CCMP1756 and *Aureococcus anophagefferens* (CCMP1707, CCMP1708, CCMP1850, CCMP1984 and CCMP3368) cultures were obtained from the National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota (NCMA, East Boothbay, ME, USA). *A. lagunensis* was cultured axenically in h/2 media prepared with artificial seawater (Guillard 1975), while *A. anophagefferens* strains were maintained in axenic or uni-eukaryotic cultures in L1-Si media made with artificial seawater. All *A. lagunensis* and *A. anophagefferens* cultures were grown at 20°C under 100 µmol quanta m\(^{-2}\)s\(^{-1}\)
light on a 12h:12h light:dark cycle. Similarly, *P. calceolata* was grown axenically in L1-Si media prepared with artificial seawater at 22°C and under an identical lighting regime.

Total genomic DNA was extracted from both *A. lagunensis* and *P. calceolata* using the DNeasy PowerSoil Pro Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) with the following modifications: cells were isolated from 100 mL of liquid culture in mid-exponential growth phase by centrifugation at 4°C for 5 min at 5000 xg and cells were lysed by alternating between 5-minute inversion at room temp and 5-minute incubation at 67°C for three iterations after the addition of lysis buffer. Total genomic DNA was extracted from *A. anophagefferens* strains using the DNeasy PowerSoil Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) with the following modifications: cells were isolated from 50 mL of liquid culture in mid-exponential growth phase by centrifugation at 4°C for 5 min at 5000 xg and cells were lysed by inversion for 15 min after the addition of solution C1. DNAs extracted from *A. anophagefferens* and *A. lagunensis* samples were additionally purified using a modified CTAB protocol (Clark 1992). Prior to long read sequencing, DNA fragments below 25 kilobase pairs (kbp) were reduced in the DNA extracted from *P. calceolata* using a Short Read Eliminator (SRE) Kit (Circulomics, Baltimore, MD, USA).

**Genome sequencing and assembly**

All long-read based sequencing libraries were prepared following the SQK-LSK109 1D genomic DNA protocol and sequenced on FLO-MIN106 flow cells on the MinION device (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford, UK) for 48 hours. *A. anophagefferens* strain CCMP1984 was sequenced on its own on a single flow-cell. Other samples were barcoded and sequenced simultaneously on a single flow cell as follows: *A. lagunensis* and *P. calceolata* (EXP-NBD104); *A. anophagefferens* strains CCMP1707 and CCMP1708 (EXP-NBD104); *A.
*anophagefferens* strains CCMP1850 and CCMP3368 (EXP-NBD103). Illumina short-read sequencing was performed for all pelagophyte strains at Génome Québec (Montreal, Canada) on the NovaSeq (CCMP1707, CCMP1708, CCMP1756, CCMP1510) or HiSeq (CCMP1984, CCMP1850, CCMP3368) platforms using PCR-free, 150 bp paired-end libraries.

Long-read sequence data from barcoded samples were demultiplexed using Deepbinner (v0.2.0) and all raw data were basecalled using Guppy (v3.3.0; Oxford Nanopore Technologies) prior to trimming adaptors using Porechop (v0.2.1; https://github.com/rrwick/Porechop). Datasets were filtered using filtlong (v0.2.0; https://github.com/rrwick/Filtlong) to remove reads below 10 kbp in length or with a phred score less than Q7. Nanopore long reads were assembled using Flye (v2.6) (Kolmogorov et al. 2019) with overlap parameters set to 10,000 bp for *A. lagunensis* and *P. calceolata*, and 6,500 bp for all *A. anophagefferens* strains. Initial genome assemblies were corrected using long-read sequence data with Nanopolish (v0.9.0; https://github.com/jts/nanopolish) and Illumina short-read sequence data with Pilon (v1.2.3) (Walker et al. 2014) as well as by manual curation. Prior to correction, Illumina sequence reads were trimmed using Trimmomatic (v0.39) (Bolger et al. 2014).

**Mitochondrial genome annotation**

For each organism, contigs corresponding to the mitochondrial genome were readily identified by assessing contig size and GC content, and were confirmed via blastn searches against the nt database (Altschul et al. 1990). To confirm that mitochondrial contigs were circular mapping, long reads were mapped to candidate contigs using ngmlr (v0.2.7) (Sedlazeck et al. 2018) and assessed manually. Preliminary mitochondrial gene annotations were performed using GeSeq (Tillich et al. 2017) with the published mitochondrial genome from *A.*
anophagefferens CCMP1984 (Liu et al. 2020) as reference and using ARAGORN (v1.2.38) (Laslett & Canback 2004) for tRNA gene predictions. 5S rRNA (rnl5) genes were annotated using Rfam (v13.0) (Kalvari et al. 2017) and based on similarity to other ochrophyte 5S rRNA genes (Liu et al. 2020; Valach et al. 2014). All gene boundaries were checked manually for accuracy and corrected as necessary using tblastx and blastp (Altschul et al. 1990) alignments as a guide. Intergenic regions were carefully scanned for additional open reading frames (ORFs) that may have been missed during initial gene identification by GeSeq using tblastx and blastp. All manual curations were made using Geneious Prime (v2020.1.2; http://www.geneious.com/). Repeats were identified using Tandem Repeats Finder (v4.09) (Benson 1999) and the EMBOSS palindrome application (Rice et al. 2000) (http://emboss.bioinformatics/cgibin/emboss/palindrome). Annotations were oriented arbitrarily to begin with coxI on the forward strand. Whole mitochondrial-genome alignments for the pelagophytes were generated using progressiveMauve with default settings (v1.1.1) (Darling et al. 2010). In the case of ORFs in A. lagunensis that were not annotated by GeSeq or blast, synteny and sequence similarity to pelagophyte homologs were assessed in order to assign gene annotations.

Phylogenetic analysis

To investigate the evolutionary history of mitochondrial genes encoded only in A. anophagefferens or P. calceolata, phylogenies were generated by first retrieving the top 1000 homologs below an e-value cut-off of 1e-10 from the nr database, the Tara Global Oceans Viromes dataset (Roux et al. 2016) and the transcriptome-based MMETSP dataset (Keeling et al. 2014; Caron et al. 2017) using blastp (Altschul et al. 1990). Sequences were then aligned using MAFFT-linsi (v7.3.1) (Katoh & Standley 2013) and ambiguously aligned regions were removed.
using BMGE with the BLOSUM30 scoring matrix (v1.1) (Criscuolo & Gribaldo 2010). Maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenetic analyses were performed using IQ-tree (v1.5.5) (Nguyen et al. 2015) with the substitution model determined to best fit the data by standard model selection using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) (Kalyaanamoorthy et al. 2017) and 100 standard bootstrap replicates.

**Results:**

Mitochondrial genomes for all three pelagophyte species assembled into single, circular mapping contigs ranging in length from 39,376 bp (*Pelagomonas calceolata*) (Figure 1) to 55,968 bp (*Aureoumbra lagunensis*) (Figure 1) (Table 1). The *Aureococcus anophagefferens* mitochondrial genome for strains CCMP1707, CCMP1984, and CCMP3368 assembled at 42,401 bp and were identical to the recently published sequence for the reference strain CCMP1984 (Liu et al. 2020) (Figure 1). The mitochondrial genomes of the two other *A. anophagefferens* strains (CCMP1708 and CCMP1850) were found to vary slightly in length and sequence, ranging from 99.4%-99.9% sequence identity to CCMP1984 (Table 1; Figure S1). Sequence differences between the strains are the result of a handful of SNPs in both non-coding and coding regions as well as variations in copy number of a tandem repeat (Table 2). The size increase of the *A. lagunensis* mitochondrial genome relative to the other pelagophytes is largely attributed to an increase in repetitive elements. Over 40% of its genome (~22 kbp) consists of nine distinct tandem repeat blocks localized to a single region (Figure 1). These blocks are comprised of repeat units ranging from 60-284 bp in length and are present in 2-117 copies (Table S1). None of the tandem repeat unit sequences were found to show similarity to the single tandem repeat
block identified in *A. anophagefferens* or *P. calceolata*. The increase in tandem repeats in *A. lagunensis* results in a mitochondrial genome that is only 61.2% coding, in contrast to *P. calceolata* and *A. anophagefferens* whose genomes are 84.9% and 86.0% coding, respectively.

A core mitochondrial gene set consisting of 33 protein-coding genes was identified in all three pelagophyte species (Table S2). *A. lagunensis* clearly lacks one ribosomal protein gene present in both *A. anophagefferens* and *P. calceolata* (*rps19*) and four ribosomal protein genes in *A. lagunensis* were found in particularly divergent forms (*rpl5*, *rps1*, *rps10* and *rps8*) that were annotated on the basis of synteny and ORF length due to low sequence similarity. Homologs with putative amino-terminal mitochondrial targeting signals to these missing / divergent mitochondrial genes could not be identified in contigs assigned to the *A. lagunensis* nuclear genome (see below).

Additional protein-coding genes in the pelagophyte mitochondrial genomes include a set of hypothetical ORFs, one of which is conserved between *A. anophagefferens* and *P. calceolata* (*orf79*), as well as a suite of putative DNA adenine and cytosine methyltransferase genes in *A. anophagefferens* (*dam1, dam2, dcm*). The *dam1, dam2, dcm*, and hypothetical ORFs unique to *A. anophagefferens* are located in a single region of the mitochondrial genome flanked by a tRNA gene (*trnF(GAA)*) on one side and the inverted repeat-containing region on the other (Figures 1 and S1). Our *A. anophagefferens* assemblies include long reads that span this unique region and upstream/downstream native mitochondrial genes (long reads spanning the entire mitochondrial genome are also present). Phylogenetic analyses revealed that the genes in this area are most closely related to various bacterial and viral genes (Figures 2 and 3), including a homolog in the algal virus AaV in the case of the *dcm* gene (Figure 3A), and have no or very few obvious homologs in the organellar or nuclear genomes of other eukaryotes. Notably, most of the inter-
strain variation in the mitochondrial genomes of *A. anophagefferens* is localized to this region. The *coxI* gene of all *A. anophagefferens* strains contains a group I intron that encodes a LAGLIDADG Homing Endonuclease (LHE) (as identified previously by Liu et al. 2020) that is closely related to LHEs found in the mitochondrial genomes of various chlorophyte algae and fungi (Figure 4A).

All the pelagophyte mitochondrial genomes analyzed herein possess three rRNA genes (including a 5S rRNA gene) and the same core set of 22 tRNA genes (Table S3), including three CAU anticodons (one of which was interpreted as *trnI*(CAU)) and no *trnT*. The sole exception was *A. lagunensis*, whose genome lacks the gene *trnG*(UCC), and does not contain any other glycine tRNA. A group II intron encoding a reverse transcriptase/maturase was identified in the *rnl* gene of *P. calceolata* that is closely related to similar *rnl* intron-encoded reverse transcriptase genes in the mitochondrial genomes of some diatoms and red algae, as well as in cyanobacteria (Figure 4B). More distantly related homologs to the reverse transcriptase/maturase were identified in the GOV dataset, which contains sequences derived from the Tara Global Oceans Viromes dataset (Roux et al. 2016) (Figure 4B).

The mitochondrial genomes of *A. anophagefferens* and *P. calceolata* share near perfect synteny (Figure 5); with exception of the unique *dam/dcm* region in *A. anophagefferens*, they have identical gene arrangements along their entire length and can be aligned in a single syntenic block. In contrast, *A. lagunensis* shares a number of similar syntenic blocks of genes with the other two pelagophytes, but the arrangement of these blocks is rather different (Figure 5). Seven larger syntenic blocks were identified, including three that have been inverted and several which have been reordered. In *A. lagunensis*, genes were evenly encoded on the positive and negative
strands in two distinct regions, while in *A. anophagefferens* and *P. calceolata*, genes are slightly more scattered over both the positive and negative strands.

**Discussion:**

**Gene presence/absence of ribosomal protein and tRNA genes**

The *Aureoumbra lagunensis* mitochondrial genome possesses four putative ribosomal protein genes (*rpl5*, *rps1*, *rps10*, and *rps8*) that are particularly divergent relative to their homologs in *Aureococcus anophagefferens* and *Pelagomonas calceolata*. While these *A. lagunensis* genes share only ~20-30% amino acid identity to homologs in the other pelagophytes, they are each positioned within syntenic blocks and encode proteins of similar lengths. Furthermore, with the exception of *rps1*, these genes are found ubiquitously (*rps8*) or nearly ubiquitously (*rpl5* and *rps10*) across the stramenopiles (Ševčíková et al. 2016). All things considered, it seems likely that the hypothetical ribosomal proteins in *A. lagunensis* are orthologous but divergent versions of the known ribosomal proteins in related pelagophytes (Huynen et al. 2000; Tamames 2001). The presence of an *rps1*-like gene in *A. lagunensis* and a clear *rps1* in *P. calceolata* suggests that within the stramenopiles, *rps1* is a unique feature of pelagophytes as a whole and not just *A. anophagefferens*. The *rps1* gene is not commonly found in the mitochondrial genomes of most eukaryotic lineages (Kannan et al. 2014) and is presumed to have been lost on multiple occasions across eukaryotes and within stramenopiles (Ševčíková et al. 2016).

Homologs to mitochondrial *rps19* are present in all stramenopiles surveyed thus far (Ševčíková et al. 2016) and could be clearly identified in the pelagophytes *A. anophagefferens* and *P. calceolata*. The absence of *rps19* in the mitochondrial genome of *A. lagunensis* suggests
that this gene has been lost at some point since this species diverged from the last common ancestor shared with *A. anophagefferens* and *P. calceolata*. As there are no additional mitochondrial genomes available from other members of the order to which *A. lagunensis* belongs (Sarcinochrysidales), the exact point at which *rps19* was lost cannot be pinpointed with certainty. Furthermore, we found no evidence that the ‘missing’ *rps19* mitochondrial gene resides in the nuclear genome in *A. lagunensis*, or indeed evidence of mitochondrial targeting signals on eukaryotic (i.e., non-mitochondrial) homologs in the nuclear genome. As such, it appears that the *A. lagunensis* mitochondrion functions without this particular ribosomal protein or imports a nucleus-encoded copy that we were unable to identify.

With the exception of a missing glycine tRNA gene in *A. lagunensis*, all three pelagophyte species examined herein have identical mitochondrial tRNA gene sets encoding tRNAs for all standard amino acids except threonine. A gene for tRNA-Thr is not encoded in any other stramenopile mitochondrial genome except for a single eustigmatophyte species (*Monodopsis*) and is thought to have already been lost from the organelle in the common ancestor of all stramenopiles (Ševčíková et al. 2016; Burger and Nedelcu 2012). A gene for tRNA-Gly, on the other hand, has been found in all stramenopile mitochondrial genomes examined thus far (Ševčíková et al. 2016) and appears to be a unique loss in *A. lagunensis*. As the amino acid threonine (and glycine in the case of *A. lagunensis*) is still present in pelagophyte mitochondrial-encoded proteins (~5% of amino acid residues in both cases), it is likely that nuclear-encoded tRNAs are imported into mitochondria from the cytosol, as occurs across the eukaryotic tree (Salinas-Giegé et al. 2015). Even when there is a corresponding mitochondrial-encoded tRNA, some species have been shown to import a cytosolic version of a given tRNA into the organelle (e.g., Vinogradova et al. 2009). The decreased use of glycine in mitochondrial
protein coding sequences in *A. lagunensis* (4.8% of sites) compared to that of the other pelagophytes (6.3% of sites) may be related to the lack of a mitochondrial encoded tRNA-Gly and import of cytosolic tRNA-Gly; the mitochondrial genome could have evolved by fine-tuning codon usage to reflect availability of tRNA-Gly rather than adopting cytosolic tRNA import (Salinas-Giegé et al. 2015).

Three CAU anticodons were identified in all the pelagophyte mitochondrial genomes considered here, one of which likely corresponds to *trnI*(CAU) rather than *trnM*(CAU), as has been suggested in a variety of stramenopiles, including *Aureococcus anophagefferens* (Cai et al. 2020, Ševčíková et al. 2016). Transcribed *trnI*(CAU) is thought to be post-transcriptionally modified from cytosine to lysidine at the first position of the anticodon such that it acts as *trnI*(AUA) (Lang et al. 2012; Grosjean and Björk 2004).

**Presence of dam and dcm genes in *Aureococcus anophagefferens***

We have shown that a unique ~6.8 kbp region in the *A. anophagefferens* mitochondrial genome contains a set of *dam* and *dcm* genes, as well as a hypothetical protein(s) with homology to a DNA methyltransferase and other hypothetical ORFs (note that our sequence data include numerous long reads that span this entire region and indeed the entire mitochondrial genome). *Dam* and *dcm* genes are generally unique to bacteria and viruses, although one has been identified in the mitochondrial genome of the bloom-forming haptophyte alga *Emiliania huxleyi* (Sánchez-Puerta et al. 2004) and some streptophyte green algae (Turmel et al. 2013). Intriguingly, *A. anophagefferens* has multiple *dam* genes and a *dcm* gene, whereas the aforementioned mitochondrial genomes have either a single *dam* or *dcm* gene. It is worth noting that most of the intra-species sequence variation observed across the five *A. anophagefferens*
mitochondrial genomes sequenced herein is localized to the dam/dcm-containing region. This region is also flanked by a tRNA gene and an inverted repeat region on either end (Figures 1, 5 and S1), both of which have been linked to the insertion of foreign DNA (e.g., Juhas et al. 2009).

Phylogenetic analysis of each of these dam and dcm genes strongly suggests that they are the result of one or more lateral gene transfer (LGT) events (Figures 2-3), either directly to the mitochondrial genome or by an initial transfer to the nuclear genome followed by subsequent relocation to the organellar genome. While homologs of each of these genes are almost exclusively found in various bacteria and viruses, their precise origin(s) in A. anophagefferens is unclear. The genome of AaV – the dsDNA virus that infects A. anophagefferens – has a dcm gene that branches robustly with the A. anophagefferens mitochondrial homolog (Figure 3A), but this is not in the case for the other genes. The A. anophagefferens and AaV dcm genes are the only closely related, non-prokaryotic sequences that we could identify, suggesting that the mitochondrial homolog was obtained from a bacterium, but it remains unclear if the gene was first picked up by AaV and then transferred to A. anophagefferens during viral infection or vice versa. Interestingly, a single base-pair mutation in strain CCMP1850 from G to A at position 497 results in an early stop codon and thus a truncated version of the dcm gene product; the latter third of the putative protein is encoded by a separate, stand-alone ORF (with its own start codon). While a dcm gene has been observed in the mitochondrial genomes of two streptophyte algae (Klebsormidium flaccidum and Micrasterias stagnorum) that are thought to be a result of a viral-to-host LGT (Turmel et al. 2013), the dcm gene found in A. anophagefferens is not at all closely related to these green algal homologs (data not shown) and appears to have a separate origin.
While *dam1* and *dam2* genes are not found in the AaV genome, close homologs were identified in the genomes of a number of other large double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) viruses as well as in various bacterial species and in metagenomics-derived viral contigs present in the Tara Oceans Global Ocean Viromes (GOV) dataset (Roux et al. 2016) (Figure 2). Interestingly, as noted above there is a *dam2* homolog in the mitochondrial genome of *E. huxleyi*, which was suggested to be a result of LGT when it was originally identified (Sánchez-Puerta et al. 2004). As is the case for *A. anophagefferens*, *E. huxleyi* has its own dsDNA virus that is thought to play a role in controlling its bloom dynamics (e.g., Bratbak et al. 1993). As such, it was previously speculated that the *dam2* gene in *E. huxleyi* could control the virulence of its virus and possibly other pathogens, or be related to mitochondrial genome replication or gene expression (Sánchez-Puerta et al. 2004), processes known to involve adenine methylation in *E. coli* (Heithoff et al. 1999). It is thus possible that the *dam* genes play similar functional roles in *A. anophagefferens*, although there is no evidence for this at the present time.

Liu et al. (2020) noted that the *A. anophagefferens* CCMP1984 mitochondrial genome encodes a putative DNA methyltransferase in which the N and C terminal portions are the product of two separate ORFs, with a single T insertion at position 294 presumed to have given rise to the split gene. In addition to confirming the results of Liu et al. for CCMP1984, the same ‘split’ genotype was observed here in the mitochondrial genomes of CCMP3368 and CCMP1708. Notably, however, strains CCMP1850 and CCMP1707 possess an intact T294 insertion-lacking version of the gene, as predicted to exist by Liu et al. (2020), thus giving rise to a single ORF that encodes a partial type II restriction m6 adenine DNA methyltransferase domain. As with the *dam* and *dcm* genes mentioned above, molecular phylogenies show that this DNA methyltransferase gene is closely related to homologs in dsDNA viruses, in viral-derived
contigs in the GOV dataset, and in bacteria, with specific branching patterns suggesting that it is the result of LGT directly from a virus (that may have originally obtained the gene from a bacterial species) or from a bacterium after a series of LGTs between multiple bacteria and viruses (Figure 3B). While homologs to most of the methyltransferase genes are not present in the genome of the AaV isolate that was sequenced (Moniruzzaman et al. 2014), it is possible that the *A. anophagefferens* genes were acquired from AaV isolates that have not yet been sampled. The plethora of *dam* and *dcm* homologs we retrieved from the GOV database make this a distinct possibility (Figures 2 and 3).

**Mitochondrial encoded introns**

Group I and II introns are mobile elements that can move readily both within and between genomes. We found a group I intron encoding a LAGLIDADG homing endonuclease (LHE) in the mitochondrial *coxI* gene of *A. anophagefferens*. Phylogenetic analysis of the LHE shows that it is closely related to homologs in green algae and fungi, many of which are also found in the mitochondrial *coxI* gene (Figure 4A). That said, outside of green algae and fungi, an LHE homolog has thus far only been found in the mitochondrial *coxI* gene of the centrohelid *Marophrys* sp., the katablepharid *Leucocryptos marina*, and a few bacteria. While group II introns have been identified in the mitochondrial *coxI* gene (as well as the *rnl* gene) of various stramenopiles, group I introns are relatively rare (Guillory et al. 2018). It is unclear whether or not this intron is found only in *A. anophagefferens* (amongst stramenopiles) due to recurrent loss or LGT. Its presence is not obviously an invasion from a nuclear version of the LHE, as a homolog in the nuclear genome was not readily identified in our *A. anophagefferens* genomic data or that of the other pelagophytes examined here (data not shown). A lateral transfer of a *coxI*
A group II intron was previously suggested to have occurred from diatoms to raphidophytes belonging to the genus *Chattonella* (Kamikawa et al. 2009; Guillory et al. 2018); a similar lateral transfer may have occurred here, but with a group I intron in the *coxI* gene between green algae and *A. anophagefferens*. Interestingly, homing endonucleases have been identified in the genomes of ‘giant’ viruses (e.g., Gallot-Lavallée et al. 2017; Deeg et al. 2018), including two putative HNH homing endonucleases in the *A. anophagefferens* virus genome (Moniruzzaman et al. 2014). While homologs of the LHE encoded in the *A. anophagefferens* mitochondrial genome were not identified in any published viral genome or in the GOV dataset, it is possible that this gene was acquired from a giant virus that has not yet been sampled, or that has lost the corresponding homolog.

A group II intron was identified in the mitochondrial *rnl* gene of *P. calceolata*; this intron encodes a reverse transcriptase/maturase. Similar group II introns have been identified in the mitochondrial genomes of various stramenopiles, including in the *rnl* gene of diatoms (Guillory et al. 2018). Group II introns are also common in the mitochondrial *rnl* gene of red algae (Yang et al. 2015) and particularly common in *coxI*, as mentioned above, where they have been identified in red algae (Yang et al. 2015), diatoms (Guillory et al. 2018) and raphidophycean flagellates (*Chattonella* spp.; Kamikawa et al. 2009). Phylogenetic analysis of the reverse transcriptase encoded in *P. calceolata*’s mitochondrial *rnl* intron shows that it is most closely related to a reverse transcriptase encoded in the *rnl* gene of the diatoms *Psammoneis japonica* (Guillory et al. 2018) and *Navicula ramosissima* (An et al. 2016) and the bacterium *Winogradskyella* sp., as well as in the red algae *Pyropia* spp. (Figure 4B). Numerous close homologs are also found in cyanobacterial species, suggesting (in combination with its sparse distribution amongst eukaryotes) that this intron was initially acquired in a eukaryote lineage via
LGT from cyanobacteria, either the result of multiple recent lineage-specific acquisitions or a single acquisition followed by eukaryote-eukaryote LGTs (unrelated to plastid establishment). It is also conceivable that the reverse transcriptase-encoding intron was transferred from the plastid to the mitochondrial genome (on one or multiple occasions) and/or recurrently lost in the majority of plastid-bearing lineages. Interestingly, more distantly related reverse transcriptase homologs were identified in viral contigs present in the GOV dataset; none of these viral sequences, however, are closely related to the *P. calceolata* reverse-transcriptase gene and all branch together at the base of the tree.

**Genome structure**

Mitochondrial gene order is perfectly conserved between *A. anophagefferens* and *P. calceolata* (Figure 5), reflecting their close phylogenetic relationship within the same phylogenetic order (Pelagomonadales). In comparison, several genome rearrangements have occurred since these organisms diverged from the more distantly related pelagophyte *A. lagunensis* (order Sarcinochrysidales). Seven blocks of fully collinear genes between *A. lagunensis* and *P. calceolata / A. anophagefferens* were identified, each with 2-6 core protein-coding genes. The relative arrangement of these blocks suggests that they are the result of three inversions and at least two translocations. Other mitochondrial comparative genomic studies of stramenopile lineages have shown similar patterns in the number of gene rearrangements between classes of algae, noting highly conserved or identical gene order within a given order (Ševčíková et al. 2016; Liu et al. 2019, 2020).

Other than the unique *dcm/dam* gene-containing region found in *A. anophagefferens* (discussed above), the only substantial difference between the pelagophyte mitochondrial
genomes is the addition of a large tandem repeat region in *A. lagunensis*. This region consists of nine distinct repeat units that together comprise ~40% of the *A. lagunensis* mitochondrial genome. While this is an unusual feature compared to the other pelagophytes investigated here, similar observations have been made in other algal lineages. For example, large tandem repeat regions have been identified in the mitochondrial genomes of algal species ranging in length from 3.3 kbp in the diatom *Synedra acus* (10.6% of its mitochondrial genome) (Ravin et al. 2010) to 9.3 kbp in the haptophyte *Chrysochromulina tobin* (28% of its mitochondrial genome) (Hovde et al. 2014) and 35.4 kbp in the diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* (45.5% of its mitochondrial genome) (Secq & Green 2011). In any given case the exact origin(s) of these repeats is usually unclear, but it is generally assumed that they are the product of strand slippage during recombination, as the repeats are direct, with few inversions. Once in place, the repeat tract can expand or contract over short evolutionary timescales, and serve as a hot spot for genome rearrangements, as observed here in the pelagophytes.

**Conclusion**

The formation of harmful algal blooms by pelagophyte algae is a problem of increasing ecological and economic significance (Gobler and Sunda 2012; Hall et al. 2018; Tang et al. 2019). Answers to the ‘who’, ‘how’, and ‘why’ questions of bloom establishment and collapse rely on a detailed understanding of pelagophyte biology and the viruses that prey upon them. Laboratory experiments have shown strain-specific differences in resistance to viral infection in the pelagophyte *Aureococcus anophagefferens* (e.g., Gobler et al. 2007), and genome sequences provide an important reference point for understanding these differences. We have analyzed the mitochondrial genomes of five different *A. anophagefferens* strains, three of which have identical
sequences. Interestingly, all five genomes contain DNA adenine and cytosine methyltransferase
genomes with distinct viral affinities, genes that are absent in the mitochondrial genomes of *P. calceolata* and *A. lagunensis* (and indeed any other known stramenopiles). Exactly how these
genes came to reside in the *A. anophagefferens* genome is unclear, as is their biological relevance – these are important topics for future research. Nevertheless, the presence of viral
genes in *A. anophagefferens* provides further evidence for host-viral co-evolution in pelagophytes, as suggested previously by the presence of host genes in the AaV genome (Moniruzzaman et al. 2014). Moving forward, nuclear genomic data from multiple *A. anophagefferens* strains as well as *P. calceolata*, *A. lagunensis* and other pelagophytes will be needed to provide a much stronger foundation for understanding pelagophyte-specific bloom dynamics and, more generally, harmful algal blooms caused by other algae.

**Data availability**

Mitochondrial genomes for *Aureococcus anophagefferens* (CCMP1984, CCMP3368, CCMP1707, CCMP1708; CCMP1850), *Aureoumbra lagunensis* (CCMP1510) and *Pelagomonas calceolata* (CCMP1756) are available in the GenBank database under accessions: MW438348, MW438347, MW438345, MW4383446, MW438344, MW438350, and MW438349, respectively. Raw sequence datasets are available in the SRA repository under accession numbers: SRR13386523 (CCMP1984), SRR13386499 (CCMP3368), SRR13386516 (CCMP1707), SRR13386522 (CCMP1708), SRR13386728 (CCMP1510) and SRR13386796 (CCMP1756).

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Figure Legends:

Figure 1. Circular maps of the mitochondrial genome of *Aureoumbra lagunensis* (CCMP1510), *Pelagomonas calceolata* (CCMP1756) and *Aureococcus anophagefferens* (CCMP1984/3368/1708). Genes transcribed in the clockwise direction are shown as blocks on the outside of the circle, while genes transcribed in the counter-clockwise direction are shown as blocks on the inside of the circle. Genes are color-coded according to functional categories as indicated in the legend. Hash marks in an individual gene block indicates that a gene is particularly divergent and has been annotated based on the presence of an ORF, nucleotide alignments and synteny with other pelagophyte mitochondrial genomes.

Figure 2. Maximum-likelihood phylogeny of (A) *dam1* and (B) *dam2* genes. *Aureococcus anophagefferens* sequences are bolded and colored red. Bacterial/archaeal homologs are indicated in grey, while viral homologs are indicated in pink (nr database) or purple (Tara Global Ocean Viromes (GOV) dataset). Other colours represent eukaryotic homologs. Numbers in brackets indicate the number of homologs collapsed at a given node. Numbers on branches indicate standard bootstrap support; only values higher than 80 are shown and black circles indicate maximal support for a particular node. The tree is midpoint rooted and was inferred using 238 (*dam1*) and 268 (*dam2*) unambiguously aligned sites. The scale bar shows the number of inferred amino acid substitutions per site.

Figure 3. Maximum-likelihood phylogeny of (A) *dcm* and (B) DNA methyltransferase genes. *Aureococcus anophagefferens* sequences are bolded and colored red. Bacterial/archaeal homologs are indicated in grey, while viral homologs are indicated in pink (nr database) or purple (Tara Oceans Global Ocean Viromes (GOV) dataset). Numbers in brackets indicate the number of homologs collapsed at a given node. Numbers on branches indicate standard bootstrap support; only values higher than 70 are shown. The tree is midpoint rooted and was inferred using 304 (*dcm*) and 368 (DNA methyltransferase) unambiguously aligned sites. The scale bar shows the inferred number of amino acid substitutions per site.
Figure 4. Maximum-likelihood phylogeny of (A) the group I intron LAGLIDADG homing endonuclease (LHE) encoded in *coxI* in *Aureococcus anophagefferens* and (B) the group II intron encoded reverse transcriptase (RT) in the *rnl* gene in *Pelagomonas calceolata*. Pelagophyte sequences are bolded and colored red. Cyanobacterial homologs are indicated in orange, while other bacterial/archaeal homologs are indicated in grey. Viral homologs are indicated in pink (nr database) or purple (Tara Global Ocean Viromes (GOV) dataset). Other colours represent eukaryotic homologs. Numbers in brackets indicate the number of homologs collapsed at a given node. Numbers on branches indicate standard bootstrap support; only values higher than 70 are shown and black circles indicate maximal support for a particular node. The tree is midpoint rooted and was inferred using 159 (LHE) and 587 (RT) unambiguously aligned sites. The scale bar shows the number of inferred amino acid substitutions per site.

Figure 5. Synteny map of pelagophyte mitochondrial genomes. Whole mitochondrial genomes were linearized starting at the *coxI* gene and aligned using progressiveMauve. Corresponding synteny blocks are shown in the same color. Mitochondrial genomes of *A. anophagefferens* and *P. calceolata* align fully along their entire length in a single synteny block. For simplicity, a single *A. anophagefferens* mitochondrial genome is shown and the ~22 kbp tandem repeat region unique to *A. lagunensis* is shown below its linear map. Hash marks in an individual gene block indicates that a gene is particularly divergent and has been annotated based on the presence of an ORF, nucleotide alignments and synteny to other pelagophytes.
Table 1  Summary of pelagophyte mitochondrial genomes.

| Species                              | Length (bp) | GC (%) | Number of genes | Overlap (bp) | Percent coding (%)* |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|--------|-----------------|--------------|---------------------|
| *Aureoumbra lagunensis* CCMP1510     | 55,968      | 29.3   | 22              | 3            | 33                  | 5       | 94 | 61.2 |
| *Pelagomonas calceolata* CCMP1756    | 39,376      | 35.6   | 23              | 3            | 35                  | 2       | 47 | 84.9 |
| *Aureococcus anophagefferens* CCMP1984 | 42,401    | 34.7   | 23              | 3            | 38                  | 6       | 73 | 86.0 |
| CCMP1984                             |             |        |                 |              |                     |         |    |     |
| CCMP3368                             |             |        |                 |              |                     |         |    |     |
| CCMP1708                             |             |        |                 |              |                     |         |    |     |
| CCMP1850                             | 42,621      | 34.6   | 23              | 3            | 33                  | 4       | 73 | 86.0 |
| CCMP1707                             | 42,586      | 34.7   | 23              | 3            | 32                  | 4       | 73 | 86.0 |

* Percent coding was determined using protein coding genes as well as rRNA and tRNA genes.
Table 2 Intra-species variation in the mitochondrial genomes of *Aureococcus anophagefferens* strains CCMP1707, CCMP1708, CCMP1850, CCMP1984 and CCMP3368. All variation is presented relative to strain CCMP1984. Where SNPs/indels have consequences on the overall structure of a protein coding gene, the resulting changes are noted.

|                      | CCMP1850 | CCMP1707 |
|----------------------|----------|----------|
| # differences / %    | CCMP1984 | 235 / 99.4% |
| identity to          | CCMP1708 | 198 / 99.5% |
|                      | CCMP3368 | -        |
|                      | CCMP1707 | 45 / 99.9% |
|                      | CCMP1850 | -        |
| Silent mutations     |          |          |
| (relative to         | Non-coding | 4        |
| CCMP1984)            | regions   |          |
|                      | Coding    | 5        |
|                      | regions   |          |
| Missense mutations   |          |          |
|                      | 3         | 1        |
| Nonsense mutations   | 1         | 0        |
| - dcm gene truncated,|
| split into two partial|
| dcm genes
| Indels               | 2         | 2        |
| - 1 bp deletion      | - 1 bp deletion |
| resulting in         | resulting in |
| complete viral       | complete viral |
| methyltransferase     | methyltransferase |
| domain                | domain     |
| - tandem repeat       | - tandem repeat |
| expansion (17 bp      | expansion (17 bp |
| repeat x 19 copies,   | repeat x 17 |
| CCMP1984 has 6 copies)| copies)      |
| resulting in longer  | resulting in |
| hypothetical protein  | longer     |
| protein              | hypothetical |

http://mc.manuscriptcentral.com/gbe
Figure 1
Figure 2

352x248mm (300 x 300 DPI)
Figure 3

352x235mm (300 x 300 DPI)
Figure 4

352x298mm (300 x 300 DPI)
