Current Biology

Systematic Revision of Symbiodiniaceae Highlights the Antiquity and Diversity of Coral Endosymbionts

Highlights

- The micro-algal genus *Symbiodinium* is split into multiple genera
- Seven of these genera are formally described based on genetics and ecology
- Dinoflagellates in the family Symbiodiniaceae originated in the Jurassic Period
- Symbiodiniaceae diversification coincided with the radiation of reef-building corals

Authors

Todd C. LaJeunesse, John Everett Parkinson, Paul W. Gabrielson, Hae Jin Jeong, James Davis Reimer, Christian R. Voolstra, Scott R. Santos

Correspondence

tcl3@psu.edu (T.C.L.), parkinjo@oregonstate.edu (J.E.P.)

In Brief

Symbiodinium are micro-algal symbionts of reef-building corals. LaJeunesse et al. report new estimates from molecular dating, indicating that corals and Symbiodinium originated and diversified together ~140–200 mya. Divergent Symbiodinium "clades" are now partitioned into multiple genera, better reflecting their long evolutionary history.



Current Biology

Systematic Revision of Symbiodiniaceae Highlights the Antiquity and Diversity of Coral Endosymbionts

Todd C. LaJeunesse,^{1,9,*} John Everett Parkinson,^{2,*} Paul W. Gabrielson,³ Hae Jin Jeong,^{4,5} James Davis Reimer,⁶ Christian R. Voolstra,⁷ and Scott R. Santos⁸

¹Department of Biology, The Pennsylvania State University, 208 Mueller Laboratory, University Park, PA 16802, USA

²Department of Integrative Biology, Oregon State University, 3029 Cordley Hall, Corvallis, OR 97331, USA

³Herbarium and Biology Department, University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill, Coker Hall, CB 3280, Chapel Hill, NC 27599, USA

⁴School of Earth and Environmental Sciences, College of Natural Sciences, Seoul National University, Seoul 151-747, Republic of Korea ⁵Advanced Institutes of Convergence Technology, Suwon, Gyeonggi-do 16229, Republic of Korea

⁶Molecular Invertebrate Systematics and Ecology Laboratory, University of the Ryukyus, 1 Senbaru, Nishihara, Okinawa 903-0213, Japan ⁷Red Sea Research Center, Division of Biological and Environmental Science and Engineering (BESE), King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST), Thuwal 23955-6900, Saudi Arabia

⁸Department of Biological Sciences and Molette Laboratory for Climate Change and Environmental Studies, Auburn University, 101 Rouse Life Sciences Building, Auburn, AL 36849, USA

⁹Lead Contact

*Correspondence: tcl3@psu.edu (T.C.L.), parkinjo@oregonstate.edu (J.E.P.) https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2018.07.008

SUMMARY

The advent of molecular data has transformed the science of organizing and studying life on Earth. Genetics-based evidence provides fundamental insights into the diversity, ecology, and origins of many biological systems, including the mutualisms between metazoan hosts and their micro-algal partners. A well-known example is the dinoflagellate endosymbionts ("zooxanthellae") that power the growth of stony corals and coral reef ecosystems. Once assumed to encompass a single panmictic species, genetic evidence has revealed a divergent and rich diversity within the zooxanthella genus Symbiodinium. Despite decades of reporting on the significance of this diversity, the formal systematics of these eukaryotic microbes have not kept pace, and a major revision is long overdue. With the consideration of molecular, morphological, physiological, and ecological data, we propose that evolutionarily divergent Symbiodinium "clades" are equivalent to genera in the family Symbiodiniaceae, and we provide formal descriptions for seven of them. Additionally, we recalibrate the molecular clock for the group and amend the date for the earliest diversification of this family to the middle of the Mesozoic Era $(\sim 160 \text{ mya})$. This timing corresponds with the adaptive radiation of analogs to modern shallow-water stony corals during the Jurassic Period and connects the rise of these symbiotic dinoflagellates with the emergence and evolutionary success of reef-building corals. This improved framework acknowledges the Symbiodiniaceae's long evolutionary history while filling a pronounced taxonomic gap. Its adoption will facilitate scientific dialog and future research on the physiology, ecology, and evolution of these important micro-algae.

CellPress

INTRODUCTION

Symbiotic dinoflagellates in the genus Symbiodinium have been the subjects of considerable scientific investigation, especially in recent decades. Their mutualisms with many reefal invertebrates, notably stony corals, are fundamental to the existence of tropical and subtropical coral reef ecosystems worldwide. The recent, rapid decline of these marine communities emphasizes how many of Earth's ecosystems are in danger of collapse from anthropogenic global change. However, it is clear from the fossil record that some reef-building corals, and hence their obligate symbioses, have been resilient to major changes in climate [1, 2]. The specific identities of resident Symbiodinium influence their host's susceptibility to hot and cold ocean temperatures, contributing to broad disparities in thermal tolerance among individual colonies and host species [3-5]. Therefore, recognizing the diversity, physiology, and ecology of these endosymbionts is paramount for understanding how algal-invertebrate partnerships might respond to rapid shifts in Earth's climate.

Some of the earliest investigations of cultured *Symbiodinium* revealed differences in morphology (cell size, chloroplast and mitochondria volumes), biochemistry (metabolites), physiology (photosynthetic abilities), behavior (motility and host specificity), and genetics (chromosome number and variation in allozyme alleles), which collectively led to the proposition that more than a single panmictic symbiont species existed [6, 7]. Several new species were indeed described [8], but these early reports had little traction in the research community at the time. Subsequent phylogenetic analyses of *Symbiodinium* ribosomal genes (rDNA) sought to broadly characterize the diversity and evolutionary relationships among these symbionts and their hosts [9]. Phylogenetic reconstructions immediately revealed the genus *Symbiodinium* to be composed of many evolutionarily divergent lineages [9, 10]. In recognizing their phylogenetic disparity, these

lineages were provisionally designated by arbitrary letters (e.g., A, B, C) that became referred to as "clades" [11]. Historically, these clade designations often appeared in the literature as species-level equivalents. With the emergence of molecular techniques in recent decades, there has been widespread recognition that most *Symbiodinium* clades contain numerous "sub-clades," "types," or "strains." Notably, most of these within-clade entities exhibit distinct and sometimes substantial differences in their genetics, physiology, and/or ecology—attributes that fulfill the prerequisites of multiple species concepts [12].

Each year, scores of publications report on some aspect of Symbiodinium diversity, and most confirm that genetic variation within this dinoflagellate genus is abundant and evolutionarily broad. Given this, a growing number of species (currently 22) have been formally classified and named [12-20]. The same evidence used to describe these species also indicates that hundreds more Symbiodinium types are candidates for species binomials [21]. Their continued classification will be required to develop more explicit research hypotheses in fields ranging from cell biology to community ecology [22]. In the past, failing to recognize Symbiodinium species boundaries has muddled insights into ecological and evolutionary processes by combining the attributes of numerous disparate entities [14, 21, 23]. Confusion is likely to persist if only a single genus continues to encompass hundreds of both closely and distantly related species. It is therefore necessary to update Symbiodinium systematics to incorporate our modern understanding of the evolutionary relationships within the group.

There are abundant reasons, beyond alleviating confusion, to justify replacing historical *Symbiodinium* clades with formal genus names. As Rowan and Powers [10] first recognized, the genetic divergences among clades is similar to, and often much greater than, genetic distances separating other dinoflagellate genera, families, and sometimes orders [24, 25]. This is unsurprising given that provisional molecular clock estimates conservatively place the divergence among clades beginning in the early Cenozoic Era [26, 27]. Additionally, comparisons between different *Symbiodinium* clades reveal low transcript similarity, with typically <20% orthologous gene loci [28, 29]. Transcriptomes provide realistic approximations of gene number and composition for many single-celled eukaryotes; thus, these initial comparative genomic studies also support the notion that clades have undergone significant evolutionary change [30, 31].

Here, we assess genetic, morphological, physiological, ecological, and biogeographic evidence to reorganize the diversity of *Symbiodinium* into a hierarchical framework consisting of multiple genera that better reflects their distant evolutionary relationships. Furthermore, we develop a new molecular clock from the latest phylogeographic and paleontological information to recalculate origination times for each genus and for the group as a whole. These fundamental revisions to *Symbiodinium* systematics should pave the way for improved scientific discourse and future advances in coral-algal symbiosis research.

RESULTS

Times of Divergence among Clades of the Symbiodiniaceae

By using the program MrModeltest v2.3 [32, 33], the most appropriate model of evolution for the nuclear large subunit (*LSU*)

rDNA data was identified as the General Time Reversible model with a proportion of invariable sites and rate variation among sites (GTR+I+G; support values: -ln L = 23,631.97; K = 10; AIC = 47,283.94). Molecular dating using calibrations times (Figure S1) based on the separation of the Pacific and Atlantic Ocean basins in the Pliocene (5.2-3.1 mya) as well as the adaptive radiation of soritid foraminifera in the Eocene (55-42 mya; Figures S2A and S2B) in BEAST 2 [34] placed the age of the Symbiodiniaceae back to the middle Mesozoic at approximately 160 mya (posterior estimates; Figures 1A and 1B). The particular geological chronology shown in Figure 1A was generated from estimates based on "old" (or "early") calibration time "2" involving the divergence point of two distantly related Clade D lineages sharing a most recent common ancestor, but with different host specificities: one associated with foraminifera and the other with cnidarians (Figure S3). The "young" (or "late") calibration time "4" that was used involved sibling Clade C lineages associated with sibling Porites corals from the Greater Caribbean and Eastern Pacific, respectively (justifications for all calibration times are detailed in the STAR Methods section Quantification and Statistical Analysis). With these calibrations, a mean clock rate for LSU rDNA evolution was estimated at 2.08 \times 10⁻³ ($\pm 2.84 \times 10^{-4}$ Stdev) substitutions per site per million years (based on a strict clock model). Other combinations of old (early) and young (late) calibration times returned similar, and sometimes older, estimates of divergence among Symbiodiniaceae clades (data not shown).

Morphological Variation and Conservatism among Clades of Symbiodiniaceae

Mean cell sizes among Symbiodiniaceae species are small relative to other Suessiales (Figures 2A and 2B; Table S1) and range from ~6 μ m among species in Clade B to ~12 μ m in non-symbiotic *S. voratum* in Clade E. The number, shape, and arrangement of amphiesmal plates are similar across most clade representatives (Figure 2C). Differences in plate number and shape can be as great between species within a clade as they are among clades (Figure 2C). The only verified morphological autapomorphy diagnostic of any clade is the lack of a pronounced elongate apical vesicle (EAV), also called the "acrobase" or apical furrow apparatus, among members of Clade C (Figure 2C).

Genomic Divergence between and within Symbiodiniaceae Clades

We compared model-corrected inter- and intra-clade (or in some cases, sub-clade) *LSU* rDNA genetic divergence estimates for Symbiodiniaceae with inter- and intra-genus divergence estimates for other members of the class Dinophyceae (Figure 3A). The mean inter-distance values were similar among groups (25.1% \pm 7.40% between Symbiodiniaceae clades; 39.4% \pm 17.5% between Dinophyceae genera), as were the mean intra-clade values (1.41% \pm 1.06% within Symbiodiniaceae clades; 9.12% \pm 11.9% within Dinophyceae genera). Notably, all "between" values were >5% (with the exception of the Dinophyceae contrast between *Ansanella*—*Protodinium* at 4.93%). Meanwhile, all "within" values were < 5% (for all Symbiodiniaceae clades; several Dinophyceae genera had higher values). Mitochondrial *cytochrome b* (mt *cob*) analyses produced analogous results, albeit with smaller distance values. Mean inter-clade

Cell²ress

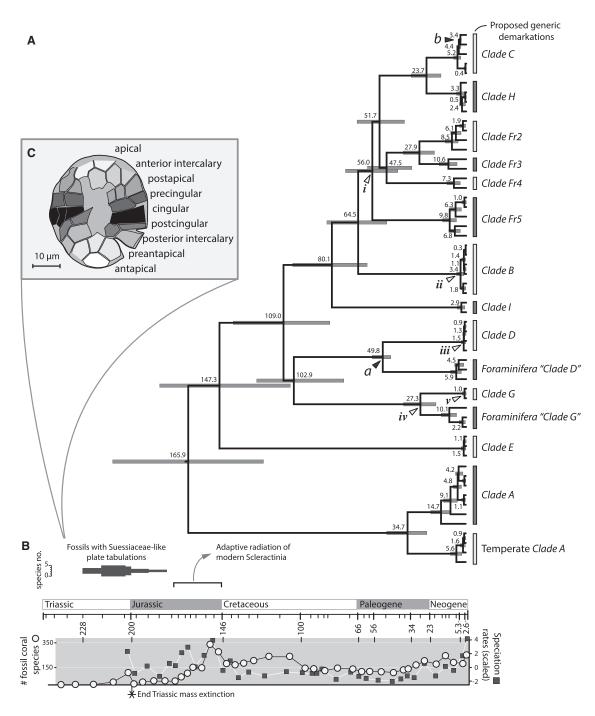


Figure 1. Ancient origins of the family Symbiodiniaceae.

(A) Evolutionary divergence times estimated among Symbiodiniaceae clades using Bayesian evolutionary analysis (employing a strict clock model) on *LSU* rDNA based on early and late calibration events (priors) from host fossil evidence (arrowhead *a*: 45.7–54.5 mya) and plate tectonic changes separating the Pacific and Atlantic Ocean basins (arrowhead *b*: 3.1–5.4 mya). Numbers located next to tree nodes are mean divergence times (millions of years) and gray bars at each branch node delineate intervals of 95% confidence. The mean clock rate was calculated at 2.1×10^{-3} (variance ± 8.0×10^{-8}) substitutions per site per million years. Prior expected ages for nodes *i* (48–56 mya), *ii* (5–7 mya), *iii* (1–3 mya), *iv* (15–34 mya), and *v* (> 3 mya) are based on available phylogeographic, pale-ontological, and plate tectonic evidence (see the Quantification and Statistical Analysis section of STAR Methods for further explanations). Vertical white and gray bars to the right of terminal nodes on the phylogram delineate candidate genera.

(B) Timeline indicating the fossil evidence for the origination of dinoflagellates similar in appearance to modern Suessiales; and the Jurassic radiation of modern Scleractinia. Coral paleontological data reproduced from Simpson et al. [35].

(C) The holotype of *Suessia swabiana* from the Late Triassic (201–208 mya), a fossil cyst (\sim 40–50 µm) with 9 rows of plates, including double row of paraplates in the cingular region (adapted from Figure 12a in Morbey [36]); it is morphologically most similar to present dinoflagellates from the order Suessiales. Relates to Figures S1, S2, S3, and S4 and to Quantification and Statistical Analysis.

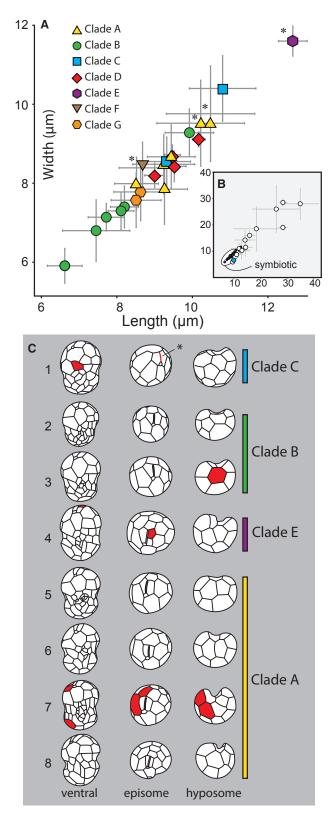


Figure 2. Morphological Differences within and among Symbiodiniaceae Clades

(A) Range of coccoid cell sizes (length and width) among described species of Symbiodiniaceae. Data points correspond to means observed for different or -genus mt *cob* estimates for Symbiodiniaceae and Dinophyceae were 7.48% \pm 2.95% and 10.5% \pm 5.10%, respectively, and intra-clade or -genus estimates for Symbiodiniaceae and Dinophyceae were 0.241% \pm 0.158% and 1.38% \pm 2.32%, respectively (Figure 3B).

To substantiate the sequence divergence observed from *LSU* rDNA and mt *cob* data (Figures 3A and 3B, Tables S2 and S3), transcriptomic comparisons were conducted between representative species from Clades A, B, and F ("sub-clade" Fr5) to identify levels of shared orthologous genes derived from a common ancestor (Figure 3C). We found a much higher proportion of orthologs within a clade (71% for Clade B *Symbiodinium minutum* versus Clade B *S. psygmophilum*) than between clades (10%–22% for pairwise contrasts of Clade A *S. microadriaticum*, Clade B *S. minutum*, and Clade F *S. kawagutii*; Figure 3C). When these values were plotted against divergence times estimated from the *LSU* rDNA data (above), there was a clear pattern of rapidly decreasing orthology with increasing time since divergence (Figure 3C).

DISCUSSION

Geological Age of the Symbiodiniaceae

The earliest comparison of rDNA sequences obtained from the algal symbionts of reef corals and other invertebrates indicated that they were the product of a long evolutionary history [10]. Our revised age for the Symbiodiniaceae coincides with the adaptive radiation of calcifying corals and reef growth during the middle Jurassic Period (Figure 1B) [35]. Therefore, these findings bring into alignment the ancient origin and success of reef-building corals with the evolution of the Symbiodiniaceae. They further imply that Symbiodiniaceae have persisted through tens of millions of years of Earth's history while enduring large and numerous environmental changes.

Independent geochemical and morphological data indicate the emergence of photosymbioses early in scleractinian evolution [37]. Changes in isotopic abundances in δ ¹⁸O and δ ¹³C [38] and characteristics of skeletal banding patterns [39] during the Late Triassic are proxies for the presence of photosynthetic biochemistry. However, early symbiotic coral species became extinct during the End-Triassic mass extinction event (Figure 1B). If our estimates placing the origination and diversification of Symbiodiniaceae in the middle to late Jurassic are accurate, modern-day coral-algal symbioses first emerged during the

species and are color coordinated (see inset). Error bars represent standard deviations. Asterisks denote species unable to colonize aposymbiotic host cnidarians.

⁽B) The cell sizes of Symbiodiniaceae (black circles) in comparison to other Suessiales (larger open circles). The only other known symbiotic species from this order (*Pelagodinium beii*, which associates with a pelagic foraminifera) is colored in blue.

⁽C) Amphiesmal plate arrangements and patterns of motile cells currently known for taxa within and between Symbiodiniaceae clades. Plates highlighted in red indicate unique differences in plate numbers among the seven latitudinal series of amphiesmal vesicles. The asterisk indicates absence, or reduction, of the elongate apical vesicle (EAV; "acrobase" or apical furrow apparatus). 1. Symbiodinium goreaui, 2. S. minutum, 3. S. psygmophilum, 4. S. voratum, 5. S. microadriaticum, 6. S. necroappetens, 7. S. tridacnidorum, 8. S. natans. Relates to Table S1 and to Quantification and Statistical Analysis.

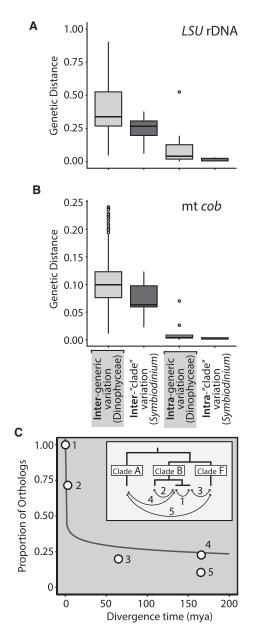


Figure 3. Genetic Distances between Historical Symbiodiniaceae Clades Correspond to Established Dinoflagellate Genera

(A and B) Mean percent divergence (model-corrected genetic distance values) between and within genera of the Dinophyceae for (A) *LSU* rDNA (n = 38 genera) and (B) mitochondrial *cob* (n = 31 genera) genes compared to divergences among and within clades in the family Symbiodineaceae.

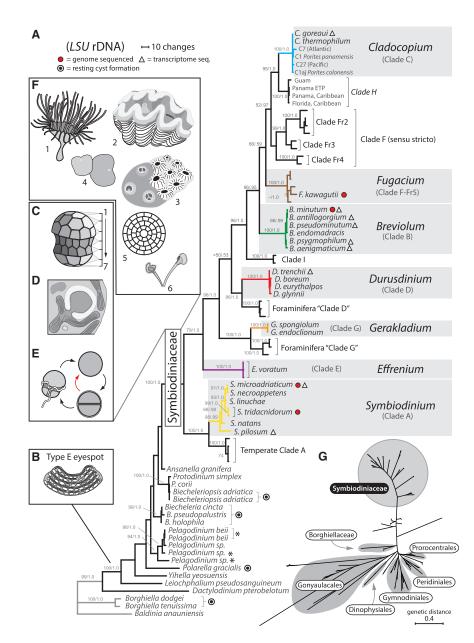
(C) Comparison of gene orthology within and between clades based on transcriptome data, showing a decline in similarity with increasing divergence time (= genetic distances between *LSU* rDNA). Transcriptomic comparisons of orthology were made between the following: (1) *Symbiodinium minutum* versus *S. minutum* (different strains of the same Clade B species); (2) *S. minutum* versus *S. psygmophilum* (within Clade B); (3) *S. minutum* versus *S. kawagutii* (Clade B versus Clade F); (4) *S. minutum* versus *S. kawagutii* (Clade B versus Clade A); and (5) *S. microadriaticum* versus *S. kawagutii* (Clade A versus Clade F). Inset: phylogram of species included in the transcriptomic analyses. Relates to Tables S2 and S3 and to Quantification and Statistical Analysis.

second, and much larger, scleractinian radiation, when communities of these animals began to build reef structures and gave rise to lineages of modern reef corals [35, 40]. These Jurassic corals evolved and rapidly diversified after a long geological dormancy—which lasted tens of millions of years, a consequence of the End-Triassic mass extinction (Figure 1B)—and were distinct from their Triassic cousins [35].

A Mesozoic origin of the Symbiodiniaceae is considerably older than previous approximations, which proposed relatively recent origins of the family in the Paleocene or Eocene epochs, 50-65 mya [26, 27]. However, our assessment of contemporary phylogenetic, geographic, and paleontological evidence identified calibration problems with these earlier molecular clocks, making the likelihood of a Cenozoic Era origination doubtful (see the STAR Methods section Quantification and Statistical Analysis). These issues included the following: (1) using sequences from geographically inappropriate origins to calibrate the separation between the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans (Figure S4); (2) relying on fossil dates from only extant host lineages that are part of a much older group (Figures S2A and S2B); and (3) using a molecular clock calibrated from fossils of a dinoflagellate order whose lineages show accelerated rates of rDNA evolution relative to other genes (Figure 4G). Ultimately, the estimates of evolutionary times presented in Figure 1A reflect a more parsimonious correspondence with the history of modern zooxanthellate shallow-water corals [41, 42]. Additionally, the dates estimated for many internal and recent branch nodes appear consistent with timings of plate tectonic changes that affected biogeographic patterns and drove shifts in paleoclimates [e.g., 43], likely influencing the emergence and success of new lineages.

The reliability of molecular dating is not only dependent on accurate calibration points but also on a relatively robust phylogeny [44]. The future use of additional genes for molecular dating will be important to test their congruence with dates based on *LSU* rDNA, as well as to evaluate the evolutionary hypotheses raised by these newest estimates [e.g., 21]. However, *LSU* rDNA is currently the most versatile gene for analyses of evolutionary history between clades of Symbiodiniaceae. It is the only gene known to provide sufficient resolution to delimit most putative species while being conserved enough to conduct a phylogenetic analysis among distantly related Dinophyceae [45]. Other widely used markers such as ITS rDNA and *cp23S* are best applied in phylogenetic analyses among species within a clade.

The long evolutionary history of the Symbiodiniaceae has generated at least fifteen extant and divergent lineages currently comprising one genus, *Symbiodinium* (Figure 1A). The ecological dominance and host prevalence of each clade is different at local, regional, and global scales and appears to have been influenced by climatic factors prevailing over the past 3–5 million years or more [46]. The apparent species diversity in each clade, mostly unrealized by formal taxonomic standards, varies considerably, but collectively, the species membership in this family likely numbers in the many hundreds [21]. A systematic revision of this complex group is an obvious necessity given the organizational challenges posed by high species diversity distributed across greatly divergent and ecologically diverse lineages.



Genetic Insights and Changes in Systematics and Taxonomy

Prior to the availability of genetic evidence, naturalists relied for centuries on morphology to produce their taxonomic descriptions. Thus, until recently, organisms with few morphological characters such as microbial eukaryotes were poorly described and relatively little was known about their diversity, ecology, and evolution. The lack of visual cues among Symbiodiniaceae constrained research on these organisms for many decades, particularly when only a single species was perceived to exist [47]. Being among the smallest of dinoflagellates [48], the group's predominant niche as endosymbionts appears to have constrained the evolution of significant morphological variation within the group and perhaps restricted the size of most species to <11 μ m (Figures 2A and 2B) [48]. Presently, only Clade C can be diagnosed by a morphological trait (Figure 2C). However,

Figure 4. Proposed New Genera in the Family Symbiodiniaceae and *LSU* rDNA Phylogeny Portraying their Evolutionary Relationships, Including Remaining Lineages that Require Generic Names

(A-E) LSU rDNA phylogeny of genera in the Order Suessiales. Symbols next to terminal branches indicate species whose genomes or transcriptomes are sequenced (red circle), which taxa form resting cysts (black circle), and non-Symbiodinaceae taxa that are endosymbionts (asterisks). Bootstrap values based on 1000 iterations and Bayesian posterior probabilities are indicated for each internal branch. The following shared ancestral traits are indicated on the tree: (B) most recent common ancestor possessing an eyespot lens comprising multiple cisternae containing uric acid crystals in a "type E" brick-like arrangement, (C) cells with mastigotes possessing only seven latitudinal series of amphiesmal vesicles, (D) cells having a single pyrenoid surrounded by starch deposits and an internal matrix devoid of thylakoid extensions, and (E) a cell life cycle with a predominant coccoid (metabolically active vegetative cell) phase, which divides in hospite producing daughter coccoid cells or transient thecate motile cells

(F) Genera in the Symbiodiniaceae are most typically symbiotic with various metazoan phyla, including the following: (1) Cnidaria, (2) Mollusca, (3) Porifera, (4) Platyhelminthes, as well as single-celled eukaryotes such as (5) Foraminifera and (6) Ciliates.

(G) Unrooted *LSU* rDNA phylogeny based on maximum likelihood showing genetic distances and evolutionary relationships among major groups of Dinophyceae in comparison to the Symbiodiniaceae. Relates to Table S2 and to Method Details. For the taxonomic summary of the Symbiodiniaceae, see Data S1.

decades of research on Symbiodiniaceae have relied on genetic delineation of distinct entities for the purposes of biochemical, physiological, and ecological study because genetic data quickly resolve these morphologically cryptic

and unambiguously r organisms.

The Family Symbiodinaceae

All Symbiodinaceae contain a type E eyespot adjacent to the sulcus groove of the motile cell, a distinctive but common trait shared with related members of the order Suessiales (Figure 4B). However, unlike other families in the order, Symbiodinaceae species do not appear capable of forming resting cysts at any point in their life cycle. Moreover, the Symbiodinaceae share several key morphological, anatomical, and ecological features that unify and distinguish them (see the Taxonomic Summary in Data S1). These include the following: (1) possession of seven latitudinal series of amphiesmal vesicles in the motile (mastigote) stage (Figure 4C); (2) possession of a single pyrenoid where the internal matrix, the site of carbon fixation in the chloroplast, is

devoid of thylakoid membrane extensions (Figure 4D); (3) a modified cell division *in hospite*, wherein metabolically active coccoid cells reproduce mitotically and the motile stage is by-passed, or significantly reduced (Figure 4E); and (4) the capability to form endosymbioses with metazoan and protistan hosts (Figure 4F).

Phylogenetics and Genomics Indicate "Clades" are Genera

For dinoflagellates, LSU rDNA currently serves as the most inclusive and effective marker for assessing phylogenetic relationships and delimiting generic groupings (see the STAR Methods section Quantification and Statistical Analysis). Mitochondrial genes such as cytochrome oxidase 1 (cox 1) and mt cob are also commonly employed in phylogenetic analyses. The tiered pattern of molecular-genetic divergence between and within clades justifies their elevation to genera and avoids ambiguity from morphological evidence. Large differences in the nucleotide sequences of nuclear rDNA (Figure 3A), mitochondrial genes (Figure 3B), and chloroplast genes [e.g., 27], are equivalent to, and sometimes greater than, differences observed among most accepted genera in the class Dinophyceae (Figures 3A and 3B). The phylogenies of several independent nuclear encoding genes [49], as well as low melting points for DNA/DNA hybridizations [50], further substantiate that Symbiodiniaceae clades are equivalent to generic divisions of other dinoflagellates.

Major differences in gene content, involving comparisons of tens of thousands of gene transcripts, further indicate considerable evolutionary divergence between clades (Figure 3C). As expected, strains from the same species and species from the same clade featured a high proportion of orthologs (homologous genes with shared ancestry), whereas species from different clades with much greater divergence times shared far fewer orthologs (Figure 3C). These results confirm the findings of several investigators, who have observed low proportions of orthologs in their comparisons of transcriptomes between members of different clades [28, 29, 31, 51] but high orthology within clades [52].

Analyses of the sequenced genomes of *Symbiodinium microadriaticum* (Clade A) [30], *S. minutum* (Clade B) [53], and *S. kawagutii* (Clade F) [54] revealed that their overall genome organization includes large differences in gene orientation and no gene synteny, along with major variations in gene content (e.g., unique numbers of bicarbonate, amino acid, and ion transporters, as well as stress-associated chaperone domains) [30]. Further comparative work suggested that additional genomic attributes are particular to each clade, which may correspond to (and potentially explain) each lineage's distinct ecological and biogeographic distribution [31]. These multi-gene analyses further support the extent of evolutionary divergence among clades and their phylogenetic positions as revealed through traditional single-gene analysis of *LSU* rDNA.

Demarcation of Symbiodiniaceae Genera Using DNA Divergence

Although we are reluctant to propose any single cutoff value, the establishment of a standard genetic distance reduces ambiguity when demarcating genera. For both *LSU* rDNA and mt *cob* markers, there is a clear separation in sequence divergence between and within established Dinophyceae genera (Figures 3A

and 3B). A 5% model-corrected genetic distance at *LSU* rDNA and a 1% distance for mt *cob* appear to be conservative upper boundaries of divergence among many (though not all) of the Dinophyceae genera examined. Current genera that do not fit within these boundaries, such as *Gymnodinium*, may require further systematic and taxonomic study to determine whether they constitute several distinct genera, and in other cases, multiple genera may require consolidation [55]. Ultimately, the gaps in sequence divergence observed within and between most species from distinct Dinophyceae genera provide a natural break for objectively delimiting new Symbiodiniaceae genera.

Thus, for the Symbiodiniaceae, applying thresholds of 5% for *LSU* rDNA and 1% for mt *cob*, we demarcate the historical *Symbiodinium* clades as new genera (Figures 3A, 3B, and 4A). In this context, the largest genetic distance measured within a Symbiodiniaceae clade is 2.9% for *LSU* rDNA (within Clade Fr3) and 0.44% for mt *cob* (within Clade C), values that are well below the proposed thresholds. Additionally, the two most closely related Symbiodiniaceae clades at present are above these values at 6.3% for *LSU* rDNA (between Clades C and H) and 2.3% for mt *cob* (between Clades C and G). While 15 clades and sub-clades within the current genus *Symbiodinium sensu lato* are candidate genera, only seven contain formally recognized type species (see below), so at present, we are restricted to proposing new genera for these lineages.

New Genera of the Symbiodiniaceae

This systematic revision converts the widely used alphabetic "clade" designations into a conventional nomenclatural framework based on the amassed body of available biological information. Here, we define six new genera (Figure 4A) and also redefine the genus Symbiodinium sensu stricto to correspond to only former Clade A (which contains the valid type species of the group, S. natans, as well as the first "invalidly" described species, S. microadriaticum). Aside from large divergences in gene composition, each genus possesses notable differences in species diversity, ecological breadth (e.g., host-range diversity and disparity), and biogeographic distribution. These include differences in prevalence among hosts from environmentally distinct reef habitats, geographic regions, and ocean basins. The new genera are summarized briefly below; formal descriptions, pertinent citations, and more extensive discussion are provided in the Taxonomic Summary in Data S1.

Symbiodinium Gert Hansen & Daugbjerg—Formerly Clade A; Type Species: S. natans

This phylogenetically basal genus (Figure 4A) contains the first invalidly described species [47, 56] and the first validly described species [57]. The redefined genus *Symbiodinium* includes species with ecologies ranging from symbiotic to opportunistic or free living. Most are adapted for living in high light or variable light conditions and appear to constitutively secrete UV-adsorbing mycosporine-like amino acids (MAAs) when in culture [58]. Its membership is globally distributed, but individual species are endemic to particular ocean basins. The genus name means "living together" and "whirling."

Breviolum J.E.Parkinson & LaJeunesse genus novum—Formerly Clade B; Type Species: B. minutum

This genus contains some of the smallest Symbiodiniaceae and its members associate primarily with cnidarians. Phylogenetically

basal lineages of this genus are often found in hosts from highlatitude coastal habitats as well as in hosts that live over wide depth ranges in the tropics. A younger, evolutionarily derived radiation of closely related species is highly prevalent in the Greater Caribbean, where they occur in numerous shallowdwelling stony and soft coral hosts. The genus name means "short" and "small ones."

Cladocopium LaJeunesse & H.J.Jeong gen. nov.—Formerly Clade C; Type Species: C. goreaui

The elongate apical vesicle is highly reduced, or lacking, in thecate motile cells (Figure 3C). This is the most species-rich, ecologically abundant, and broadly distributed genus within the Symbiodiniaceae. Members of this group associate with a broad diversity of hosts, including corals and other cnidarians, clams, ciliates, flatworms, foraminifera, and sponges. They are physiologically diverse, with members adapted to a wide range of temperatures and irradiances. Most of its members are highly host specialized, but certain host-generalist species are ecologically abundant in many Indo-Pacific reef coral communities. The name means "branch" and "plenty."

Durusdinium LaJeunesse gen. nov.—Formerly Clade D; Type Species: D. trenchii

This genus includes species that are known extremophiles with adaptations to survive in regions with large temperature and turbidity fluctuations. Symbioses involving members from this group tend to be resistant to disassociation (e.g., coral bleaching). Its diversity and distribution are centered in the Indo-West Pacific. The name means "tough" and "whirling."

Effrenium LaJeunesse & H.J. Jeong gen. nov.—Formerly Clade E; Type Species: E. voratum

This genus currently contains just one species, the exclusively free-living (non-symbiotic) *E. voratum*. This species uses its tubule peduncle to graze on bacteria and other unicellular eukaryotes, creates blooms under certain circumstances, uniquely maintains motility during the dark cycle, and has the largest cell volume when compared to other Symbiodiniaceae. It is distributed in the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans and occurs at sub-tropical and temperate latitudes. The name means "living unrestrained." **Fugacium LaJeunesse gen. nov.—Formerly "Sub-clade"**

Fr5 within Clade F; Type Species: F. kawagutii

This genus comprises species found in foraminifera and several non-symbiotic species known only from cultured isolates. They probably occur at transient, low-abundance densities in cnidarians, but their ecological attributes remain unknown. It is distinct from other "Clade F" lineages such as Fr2, Fr3, and Fr4; each of these lineages should be considered separate (as yet undescribed) genera. The name means "ephemeral."

Gerakladium LaJeunesse gen. nov.—Formerly Metazoan-Specific "Sub-clade" within Clade G, Type Species: G. endoclionum

This is one of the more basal lineages of Symbiodiniaceae. It is an ecologically rare genus, and knowledge about this group is comparatively limited. Certain species form specific associations with excavating sponges (Clionaidae) in both the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, while others associate with Pacific black corals (Antipatharia). *Gerakladium* has been detected at low, background densities in colonies of stony coral and might occur free-living in the water column or benthos. The name means "old" and "branch."

Remaining Lineages within Symbiodiniaceae Requiring Generic Names

The present effort provides a framework for future generic and species classifications in the Symbiodiniaceae. While only nine clades are acknowledged in the literature [59], these assignments are rather arbitrary. The eventual number of defined genera may reach 15 or more (Figures 1A and 4A) because several divergent lineages currently grouped together within one clade can be further separated based on phylogenetic, ecological, and biogeographic evidence. For example, genetic divergences between Fugacium and other Clade F lineages well exceed the value between Clades H and C (Table S2) [60]. Another example is the lineage closest to Durusdinium (Figure 4), which has been referred to in the literature also as Clade D [27]. However, this divergent lineage occurs in symbioses with foraminifera (Figure S3). Thus, these "orphan" lineages of Symbiodiniaceae will likely be classified as new genera once representative type species are formally described. Finally, additional divergent lineages that may constitute new genera will likely be discovered as ecological surveys continue, especially in understudied ecosystems (e.g., open ocean habitats) or hosts (e.g., foraminifera) [59, 61].

Conclusions

Taxonomic rankings above the level of species are ultimately arbitrary constructs — useful only insofar as they convey meaningful information about the relationships among organisms. Recognizing that clades and some sub-clades of Symbiodiniaceae are akin to genera provides an organized systematic framework for investigating the biodiversity and natural history of these symbionts moving forward. Good systematics improves scientific communication, enables the framing of explicit hypotheses when designing experiments, and reduces confusion by limiting the extent to which conclusions may be drawn about particular groups of organisms. As global climate change decimates coral reefs, we believe this new systematic framework is a necessary step to improve animal-algal symbiosis research at this critical juncture.

STAR***METHODS**

Detailed methods are provided in the online version of this paper and include the following:

- KEY RESOURCES TABLE
- CONTACT FOR REAGENT AND RESOURCE SHARING
- EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS
 - Culturing
 - Host Tissue Collection
- Ethics statement
- METHOD DETAILS
 - $\odot~$ DNA extraction, PCR and sequencing
 - Morphology and phylogenetic analyses
- QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS
 - Genetic distances and transcriptome comparisons
 - Divergence time calculations
 - *LSU* molecular clock calibrations
 - O Calibrations based on host fossil record
 - Estimated temporal interval for the most recent common ancestor for Clades C-F-H: MRCAs 48–56 mya

- The evolution of "Foraminifera Clade D" lineage: MRCA 48–56 mya
- Divergence time of a Clade G lineage specialized to associate with *Marginopora*: MRCA 15–34 mya
- Calibrations based on oceanic vicariance
- Clade C symbionts in sibling species *Porites panamensis* (Eastern Pacific) and *Porites colonensis* (Caribbean): MRCA 3.1–4.7 mya
- The divergence between Clade C type C27 (Pacific) and type C7 (Atlantic): MRCA 3.1 to 7.2 mya
- The separation between lineages of the B1 sub-clade from the B19 sub-clade: MRCA 5 to 7 mya
- Divergence between sibling species in Clade G associated with bioeroding clionaid sponges from the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans: MRCA 3.1–5.3 mya
- Past estimates of Symbiodiniaceae divergence times
- Limitations of LSU rDNA molecular dating
- Formal descriptions of genera
- DATA AND SOFTWARE AVAILABILITY
 - Additional Resources

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes four figures and three tables and can be found with this article online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2018.07.008.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Bob Trench and Nancy Knowlton for their encouragement, and Mike Guiry for sharing his taxonomic expertise. This research was supported by the USA National Science Foundation (0544854, 0928764, 1258058, and 1636022), Penn State University, and IOC-UNESCO-World Bank Targeted working group on coral bleaching to T.C.L. A grant from the Republic of Korea to H.J.J. provided support for morphological work (NRF-2015-M1A5A1041806, MSIP). C.R.V. acknowledges funding by King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST). This paper is dedicated to Professor Robert K. Trench and his life's work on the biology and diversity of symbiotic dinoflagellates.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, T.C.L., J.E.P., H.J.J., J.D.R, C.R.V., and S.R.S.; Methodology, T.C.L, J.E.P, H.J.J., and S.R.S; Formal Analysis, T.C.L., J.E.P., H.J.J., and S.R.S.; Investigation, T.C.L., J.E.P., P.W.G., H.J.J., and S.R.S.; Resources, T.C.L., C.R.V., and S.R.S; Writing – Original Draft, T.C.L, J.E.P, and S.R.S.; Writing – Review and Editing, T.C.L., J.E.P, P.W.G., H.J.J., J.D.R., C.R.V., and S.R.S.; Visualization, T.C.L., J.E.P, H.J.J., and S.R.S.; Project Administration, T.C.L.; Funding Acquisition, T.C.L, H.J.J., and C.R.V.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

Received: March 15, 2018 Revised: June 8, 2018 Accepted: July 3, 2018 Published: August 9, 2018

REFERENCES

- 1. Wood, R. (1998). The ecological evolution of reefs. Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst. 29, 179–206.
- Kiessling, W. (2009). Geologic and biologic controls on the evolution of reefs. Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst. 40, 173–192.

- **3.** Berkelmans, R., and van Oppen, M.J. (2006). The role of zooxanthellae in the thermal tolerance of corals: a 'nugget of hope' for coral reefs in an era of climate change. Proc. Biol. Sci. *273*, 2305–2312.
- Sampayo, E.M., Ridgway, T., Bongaerts, P., and Hoegh-Guldberg, O. (2008). Bleaching susceptibility and mortality of corals are determined by fine-scale differences in symbiont type. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 105, 10444–10449.
- LaJeunesse, T.C., Smith, R., Walther, M., Pinzón, J., Pettay, D.T., McGinley, M., Aschaffenburg, M., Medina-Rosas, P., Cupul-Magana, A.L., Perez, A.L., et al. (2010). Host-symbiont recombination versus natural selection in the response of coral-dinoflagellate symbioses to environmental disturbance. Proc. Biol. Sci. 277, 2925–2934.
- Schoenberg, D.A., and Trench, R.K. (1980). Genetic variation in Symbiodinium (= Gymnodinium) microadriaticum Freudenthal, and specificity in its symbiosis with marine invertebrates. III. specificity and infectivity of Symbiodinium microadriaticum. Proc. Biol. Sci. 207, 445–460.
- Blank, R.J., and Trench, R.K. (1985). Speciation and symbiotic dinoflagellates. Science 229, 656–658.
- 8. Trench, R.K., and Blank, R.J. (1987). *Symbiodinium microadriaticum* Freudenthal, S. *goreauii* sp. nov., S. *kawagutii* sp. nov. and S. *pilosum* sp. nov.: gymnodinioid dinoflagellate symbionts of marine invertebrates. J. Phycol. 23, 469–481.
- Rowan, R., and Powers, D.A. (1991). A molecular genetic classification of zooxanthellae and the evolution of animal-algal symbioses. Science 251, 1348–1351.
- Rowan, R., and Powers, D.A. (1992). Ribosomal RNA sequences and the diversity of symbiotic dinoflagellates (zooxanthellae). Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 89, 3639–3643.
- Rowan, R., and Knowlton, N. (1995). Intraspecific diversity and ecological zonation in coral-algal symbiosis. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 92, 2850– 2853.
- LaJeunesse, T.C., Parkinson, J.E., and Reimer, J.D. (2012). A geneticsbased description of *Symbiodinium minutum* sp. nov. and *S. psygmophilum* sp. nov. (Dinophyceae), two dinoflagellates symbiotic with cnidaria. J. Phycol. 48, 1380–1391.
- Jeong, H.J., Lee, S.Y., Kang, N.S., Yoo, Y.D., Lim, A.S., Lee, M.J., Kim, H.S., Yih, W., Yamashita, H., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2014). Genetics and morphology characterize the dinoflagellate *Symbiodinium voratum*, n. sp., (Dinophyceae) as the sole representative of *Symbiodinium* Clade E. J. Eukaryot. Microbiol. *61*, 75–94.
- LaJeunesse, T.C., Wham, D.C., Pettay, D.T., Parkinson, J.E., Keshavmurthy, S., and Chen, C.A. (2014). Ecologically differentiated stress-tolerant endosymbionts in the dinoflagellate genus *Symbiodinium* (Dinophyceae) Clade D are different species. Phycologia *53*, 305–319.
- 15. Hume, B.C., D'Angelo, C., Smith, E.G., Stevens, J.R., Burt, J., and Wiedenmann, J. (2015). *Symbiodinium thermophilum* sp. nov., a thermotolerant symbiotic alga prevalent in corals of the world's hottest sea, the Persian/Arabian Gulf. Sci. Rep. 5, 8562.
- LaJeunesse, T.C., Lee, S.Y., Gil-Agudelo, D.L., Knowlton, N., and Jeong, H.J. (2015). *Symbiodinium necroappetens* sp. nov. (Dinophyceae): an opportunist 'zooxanthella' found in bleached and diseased tissues of Caribbean reef corals. Eur. J. Phycol. *50*, 223–238.
- 17. Lee, S.Y., Jeong, H.J., Kang, N.S., Jang, T.Y., Jang, S.H., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2015). *Symbiodinium tridacnidorum* sp. nov., a dinoflagellate common to Indo-Pacific giant clams, and a revised morphological description of *Symbiodinium microadriaticum* Freudenthal, emended Trench & Blank. Eur. J. Phycol. 50, 155–172.
- Parkinson, J.E., Coffroth, M.A., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2015). New species of Clade B Symbiodinium (Dinophyceae) from the greater Caribbean belong to different functional guilds: *S. aenigmaticum* sp. nov., *S. antillogorgium* sp. nov., *S. endomadracis* sp. nov., and *S. pseudominutum* sp. nov. J. Phycol. 51, 850–858.
- Wham, D.C., Ning, G., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2017). Symbiodinium glynnii sp. nov., a species of stress-tolerant symbiotic dinoflagellates from

pocilloporid and montiporid corals in the Pacific Ocean. Phycologia 56, 396–409.

- Ramsby, B.D., Hill, M.S., Thornhill, D.J., Steenhuizen, S.F., Achlatis, M., Lewis, A.M., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2017). Sibling species of mutualistic *Symbiodinium* Clade G from bioeroding sponges in the western Pacific and western Atlantic oceans. J. Phycol. 53, 951–960.
- Thornhill, D.J., Lewis, A.M., Wham, D.C., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2014). Host-specialist lineages dominate the adaptive radiation of reef coral endosymbionts. Evolution 68, 352–367.
- Davy, S.K., Allemand, D., and Weis, V.M. (2012). Cell biology of cnidariandinoflagellate symbiosis. Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev. 76, 229–261.
- Pettay, D.T., Wham, D.C., Smith, R.T., Iglesias-Prieto, R., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2015). Microbial invasion of the Caribbean by an Indo-Pacific coral zooxanthella. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *112*, 7513– 7518.
- 24. Stern, R.F., Horak, A., Andrew, R.L., Coffroth, M.A., Andersen, R.A., Küpper, F.C., Jameson, I., Hoppenrath, M., Véron, B., Kasai, F., et al. (2010). Environmental barcoding reveals massive dinoflagellate diversity in marine environments. PLoS ONE 5, e13991.
- 25. Stern, R.F., Andersen, R.A., Jameson, I., Küpper, F.C., Coffroth, M.A., Vaulot, D., Le Gall, F., Véron, B., Brand, J.J., Skelton, H., et al. (2012). Evaluating the ribosomal internal transcribed spacer (ITS) as a candidate dinoflagellate barcode marker. PLoS ONE 7, e42780.
- Tchernov, D., Gorbunov, M.Y., de Vargas, C., Narayan Yadav, S., Milligan, A.J., Häggblom, M., and Falkowski, P.G. (2004). Membrane lipids of symbiotic algae are diagnostic of sensitivity to thermal bleaching in corals. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 101, 13531–13535.
- Pochon, X., Montoya-Burgos, J.I., Stadelmann, B., and Pawlowski, J. (2006). Molecular phylogeny, evolutionary rates, and divergence timing of the symbiotic dinoflagellate genus *Symbiodinium*. Mol. Phylogenet. Evol. 38, 20–30.
- Bayer, T., Aranda, M., Sunagawa, S., Yum, L.K., Desalvo, M.K., Lindquist, E., Coffroth, M.A., Voolstra, C.R., and Medina, M. (2012). *Symbiodinium* transcriptomes: genome insights into the dinoflagellate symbionts of reef-building corals. PLoS ONE 7, e35269.
- Ladner, J.T., Barshis, D.J., and Palumbi, S.R. (2012). Protein evolution in two co-occurring types of *Symbiodinium*: an exploration into the genetic basis of thermal tolerance in *Symbiodinium* Clade D. BMC Evol. Biol. 12, 217.
- Aranda, M., Li, Y., Liew, Y.J., Baumgarten, S., Simakov, O., Wilson, M.C., Piel, J., Ashoor, H., Bougouffa, S., Bajic, V.B., et al. (2016). Genomes of coral dinoflagellate symbionts highlight evolutionary adaptations conducive to a symbiotic lifestyle. Sci. Rep. 6, 39734.
- González-Pech, R.A., Ragan, M.A., and Chan, C.X. (2017). Signatures of adaptation and symbiosis in genomes and transcriptomes of *Symbiodinium*. Sci. Rep. 7, 15021.
- Nylander, J.A.A. (2004). MrModeltest 2.3. (https://github.com/nylander/ MrModeltest2).
- Posada, D., and Crandall, K.A. (1998). MODELTEST: testing the model of DNA substitution. Bioinformatics 14, 817–818.
- Bouckaert, R., Heled, J., Kuhnert, D., Vaughan, T., Wu, C.H., Xie, D., Suchard, M.A., Rambaut, A., and Drummond, A.J. (2014). BEAST 2: a software platform for Bayesian evolutionary analysis. PLoS Comp. Biol. 10, e1003537.
- Simpson, C., Kiessling, W., Mewis, H., Baron-Szabo, R.C., and Müller, J. (2011). Evolutionary diversification of reef corals: a comparison of the molecular and fossil records. Evolution 65, 3274–3284.
- Morbey, S.J. (1975). The palynostratigraphy of the Rhaetian stage, Upper Triassic in the Kendelbachgraben, Austria. Paleontographica Abteilung B 152, 1–75.
- Stanley, G.D. (2003). The evolution of modern corals and their early history. Earth Sci. Rev. 60, 195–225.

- Stanley, G.D., and Swart, P.K. (1995). Evolution of the coral-zooxanthellae symbiosis during the Triassic: a geochemical approach. Paleobiology 21, 179–199.
- Stanley, G.D., and Helmle, K.P. (2010). Middle Triassic coral growth bands and their implication for photosymbiosis. Palaios 25, 754–763.
- Stanley, G.D., Jr. (2006). Ecology. Photosymbiosis and the evolution of modern coral reefs. Science 312, 857–858.
- Coates, A.G., and Jackson, J.B. (1987). Clonal growth, algal symbiosis, and reef formation by corals. Paleobiology 13, 363–378.
- 42. Stanley, G.D., and van de Schootbrugge, B. (2009). The evolution of the coral-algal symbiosis. In Coral Bleaching, M.J. van Oppen, and J.M. Lough, eds. (Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer), pp. 7–19.
- 43. O'Dea, A., Lessios, H.A., Coates, A.G., Eytan, R.I., Restrepo-Moreno, S.A., Cione, A.L., Collins, L.S., de Queiroz, A., Farris, D.W., Norris, R.D., et al. (2016). Formation of the Isthmus of Panama. Sci. Adv. 2, e1600883.
- 44. Smith, A.B., and Peterson, K.J. (2002). Dating the time of origin of major clades: molecular clocks and the fossil record. Annu. Rev. Earth Planet. Sci. 30, 65–88.
- 45. Moestrup, O., and Daugbjerg, N. (2007). On dinoflagellate phylogeny and classification. In Unravelling the algae: the past, present, and future of algal systematics, J. Brodie, and J. Lewis, eds. (Taylor and Francis Group), pp. 215–230.
- LaJeunesse, T.C. (2005). "Species" radiations of symbiotic dinoflagellates in the Atlantic and Indo-Pacific since the Miocene-Pliocene transition. Mol. Biol. Evol. 22, 570–581.
- LaJeunesse, T.C. (2017). Validation and description of Symbiodinium microadriaticum, the type species of Symbiodinium (Dinophyta). J. Phycol. 53, 1109–1114.
- LaJeunesse, T.C., Lambert, G., Andersen, R.A., Coffroth, M.A., and Galbraith, D.W. (2005). *Symbiodinium* (Pyrrhophyta) genome sizes (DNA content) are smallest among dinoflagellates. J. Phycol. 41, 880–886.
- Pochon, X., Putnam, H.M., Burki, F., and Gates, R.D. (2012). Identifying and characterizing alternative molecular markers for the symbiotic and free-living dinoflagellate genus *Symbiodinium*. PLoS ONE 7, e29816.
- Blank, R.J., and Huss, A.R. (1989). DNA divergency and speciation in Symbiodinium (Dinophyceae). Plant Syst. Evol. 163, 153–163.
- Rosic, N., Ling, E.Y., Chan, C.K., Lee, H.C., Kaniewska, P., Edwards, D., Dove, S., and Hoegh-Guldberg, O. (2015). Unfolding the secrets of coral-algal symbiosis. ISME J. 9, 844–856.
- Parkinson, J.E., Baumgarten, S., Michell, C.T., Baums, I.B., LaJeunesse, T.C., and Voolstra, C.R. (2016). Gene expression variation resolves species and individual strains among coral-associated dinoflagellates within the genus Symbiodinium. Genome Biol. Evol. 8, 665–680.
- 53. Shoguchi, E., Shinzato, C., Kawashima, T., Gyoja, F., Mungpakdee, S., Koyanagi, R., Takeuchi, T., Hisata, K., Tanaka, M., Fujiwara, M., et al. (2013). Draft assembly of the *Symbiodinium minutum* nuclear genome reveals dinoflagellate gene structure. Curr. Biol. *23*, 1399–1408.
- 54. Lin, S., Cheng, S., Song, B., Zhong, X., Lin, X., Li, W., Li, L., Zhang, Y., Zhang, H., Ji, Z., et al. (2015). The *Symbiodinium kawagutii* genome illuminates dinoflagellate gene expression and coral symbiosis. Science 350, 691–694.
- Hoppenrath, M. (2016). Dinoflagellate taxonomy a review and proposal of a revised classification. Marine Biodiversity 47, 381–403.
- Freudenthal, H.D. (1962). Symbiodinium gen. nov. and Symbiodinium microadriaticum sp. nov., a zooxanthella: Taxonomy, life cycle, and morphology. J. Protozool. 9, 45–52.
- Hansen, G., and Daugbjerg, N. (2009). Symbiodinium natans sp. nov.: A "free-living" dinoflagellate from Tenerife (Northeast-Atlantic Ocean). J. Phycol. 45, 251–263.
- Banaszak, A.T., LaJeunesse, T.C., and Trench, R.K. (2000). The synthesis of mycosporine-like amino acids (MAAs) by cultured, symbiotic dinoflagellates. J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol. 249, 219–233.

- Pochon, X., and Gates, R.D. (2010). A new Symbiodinium clade (Dinophyceae) from soritid foraminifera in Hawai'i. Mol. Phylogenet. Evol. 56, 492–497.
- Pochon, X., LaJeunesse, T.C., and Pawlowski, J. (2004). Biogeographic partitioning and host specialization among foraminiferan dinoflagellate symbionts (*Symbiodinium*; Dinophyta). Mar. Biol. 146, 17–27.
- Mordret, S., Romac, S., Henry, N., Colin, S., Carmichael, M., Berney, C., Audic, S., Richter, D.J., Pochon, X., de Vargas, C., and Decelle, J. (2016). The symbiotic life of *Symbiodinium* in the open ocean within a new species of calcifying ciliate (*Tiarina* sp.). ISME J. 10, 1424–1436.
- Zardoya, R., Costas, E., López-Rodas, V., Garrido-Pertierra, A., and Bautista, J.M. (1995). Revised dinoflagellate phylogeny inferred from molecular analysis of large-subunit ribosomal RNA gene sequences. J. Mol. Evol. 41, 637–645.
- 63. Zhang, H., Bhattacharya, D., and Lin, S. (2005). Phylogeny of dinoflagellates based on mitochondrial cytochrome b and nuclear small subunit rDNA sequence comparisons. J. Phycol. 41, 411–420.
- 64. Guindon, S., Dufayard, J.F., Lefort, V., Anisimova, M., Hordijk, W., and Gascuel, O. (2010). New algorithms and methods to estimate maximumlikelihood phylogenies: assessing the performance of PhyML 3.0. Syst. Biol. 59, 307–321.
- 65. Ronquist, F., Teslenko, M., van der Mark, P., Ayres, D.L., Darling, A., Höhna, S., Larget, B., Liu, L., Suchard, M.A., and Huelsenbeck, J.P. (2012). MrBayes 3.2: efficient Bayesian phylogenetic inference and model choice across a large model space. Syst. Biol. *61*, 539–542.
- Swofford, D.L. (2014). PAUP* Phylogenetic Analysis Using Parsimony (*and other methods). 4.0d, 146th Edition (Sunderland, Massachusetts: Sinauer Associates).
- Remm, M., Storm, C.E.V., and Sonnhammer, E.L.L. (2001). Automatic clustering of orthologs and in-paralogs from pairwise species comparisons. J. Mol. Biol. 314, 1041–1052.
- 68. Kearse, M., Moir, R., Wilson, A., Stones-Havas, S., Cheung, M., Sturrock, S., Buxton, S., Cooper, A., Markowitz, S., Duran, C., et al. (2012). Geneious Basic: an integrated and extendable desktop software platform for the organization and analysis of sequence data. Bioinformatics 28, 1647–1649.
- Abramoff, M.D., Magalhaes, P.J., and Ram, S.J. (2004). Image processing with imageJ. Biophoton. Int. 11, 36–42.
- Liew, Y.J., Aranda, M., and Voolstra, C.R. (2016). Reefgenomics.Org a repository for marine genomics data. Database (Oxford) 2016, baw152.
- BouDagher-Fadel, M.K. (2008). The Cenozoic larger benthic foraminifera: the Palaeogene. In Developments in Paleontology and Stratigraphy (Amsterdam: Elsevier), pp. 297–545.
- Groussin, M., Pawlowski, J., and Yang, Z. (2011). Bayesian relaxed clock estimation of divergence times in foraminifera. Mol. Phylogenet. Evol. 61, 157–166.

- Richardson, S.L. (2001). Endosymbiont change as a key innovation in the adaptive radiation of Soritida (Foraminifera). Paleobiology 27, 262–289.
- Garcia-Cuetos, L., Pochon, X., and Pawlowski, J. (2005). Molecular evidence for host-symbiont specificity in soritid foraminifera. Protist 156, 399–412.
- Pochon, X., Garcia-Cuetos, L., Baker, A.C., Castella, E., and Pawlowski, J. (2007). One-year survey of a single micronesian reef reveals extraordinarily rich diversity of *Symbiodinium* types in soritid foraminifera. Coral Reefs 26, 867–882.
- Prada, C., DeBiasse, M.B., Neigel, J.E., Yednock, B., Stake, J.L., Forsman, Z.H., Baums, I.B., and Hellberg, M.E. (2014). Genetic species delineation among branching Caribbean *Porites* corals. Coral Reefs *33*, 1019–1030.
- Jackson, J.B.C., and O'Dea, A. (2013). Timing of the oceanographic and biological isolation of the Caribbean Sea from the tropical eastern Pacific Ocean. Bull. Mar. Sci. 89, 779–800.
- Haug, G.H., and Tiedemann, R. (1998). Effect of the formation of the Isthumus of Panama on Atlantic Ocean thermohaline circulation. Nature 393, 673–676.
- LaJeunesse, T.C., and Thornhill, D.J. (2011). Improved resolution of reefcoral endosymbiont (*Symbiodinium*) species diversity, ecology, and evolution through *psbA* non-coding region genotyping. PLoS ONE 6, e29013.
- Zachos, J.C., Dickens, G.R., and Zeebe, R.E. (2008). An early Cenozoic perspective on greenhouse warming and carbon-cycle dynamics. Nature 451, 279–283.
- Zachos, J., Pagani, M., Sloan, L., Thomas, E., and Billups, K. (2001). Trends, rhythms, and aberrations in global climate 65 Ma to present. Science 292, 686–693.
- Nei, M., and Rooney, A.P. (2005). Concerted and birth-and-death evolution of multigene families. Annu. Rev. Genet. 39, 121–152.
- Dover, G. (1982). Molecular drive: a cohesive mode of species evolution. Nature 299, 111–117.
- 84. Pinzón, J.H., Devlin-Durante, M.K., Weber, M.X., Baums, I.B., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2011). Microsatellite loci for *Symbiodinium* A3 (S. fitti) a common algal symbiont among Caribbean *Acropora* (stony corals) and Indo-Pacific giant clams (*Tridacna*). Conserv. Genet. Resour. 3, 45–47.
- J. McNeill, F.R. Barrie, W.R. Buck, V. Demoulin, W. Greuter, D.L. Hawksworh, P.S. Herendeen, S. Knapp, K. Marhold, J. Prado, et al., International Code of Nomenclature for Algae, Fungi, and Plants. In Regnum Vegetabile 154 (Germany, Koeltz), 2012, ARG Gantner Verlag; Koenigstein.

STAR*METHODS

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Biological Samples		
Symbiodinium iso-clonal cultures, Table S1	This study	N/A
Critical Commercial Assays		
Wizard Genomic DNA Purification Kit	Promega	Catalog number: A1120
Deposited Data		
LSU rDNA sequence matrix	This study	https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.1717129
cob sequence matrix	This study	https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.1717129
BEAST2 files	This study	https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.1717129
R code/data	This study	https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.1717129
Symbiodinium kawagutii proteome	[54]	http://web.malab.cn/symka_new/data/ Symbiodinium_kawagutii.0819.final.gene.zip
Symbiodinium microadriaticum proteome	[30]	http://smic.reefgenomics.org/download/ Smic.genome.annotation.pep.longest.fa.gz
Symbiodinium minutum transcriptome	[52]	NCBI Bioproject Accession: PRJNA274852; http://zoox.reefgenomics.org/download/ Symbiodinium_minutum.tar.gz
Symbiodinium psygmophilum transcriptome	[52]	NCBI Bioproject Accession: PRJNA274854; http://zoox.reefgenomics.org/download/ Symbiodinium_psygmophilum.tar.gz
Oligonucleotides		
28-S forward: CCCGCTGAATTTAAGCATATAAGTAAGCGG	[62]	N/A
28-S reverse: GTTAGACTCCTTGGTCCGTGTTTCAAGA	[62]	N/A
cob1-forward: ATGAAATCTCATTTACAWWCATATCCTTGTCC	[63]	N/A
cob1-reverse: TCTCTTGAGGKAATTGWKMACCTATCCA	[63]	N/A
Software and Algorithms		
PhyML v3.3.20180214	[64]	https://github.com/stephaneguindon/phyml
MrBayes v3.2.6	[65]	http://mrbayes.sourceforge.net/
MrModeltest v2.3	[32, 33]	https://github.com/nylander/MrModeltest2
PAUP* v4.0 b10	[66]	http://paup.phylosolutions.com
InParanoid v4.1	[67]	http://software.sbc.su.se/cgi-bin/ request.cgi?project=inparanoid
BEAST2 v2.4.5	[34]	http://www.beast2.org
Geneious v9.1.6	[68]	https://www.geneious.com/
ProgRes Capture Pro v2.8	N/A	https://www.jenoptik.com/
ImageJ v1.50i	[69]	https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/index.html

CONTACT FOR REAGENT AND RESOURCE SHARING

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Todd C. LaJeunesse (tcl3@psu.edu).

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Culturing

Cultures of iso-clonal *Symbiodinium* were grown in ASP-8A medium at 26° C illuminated by fluorescent tubes delivering 80–120 µmol quanta ·m⁻² ·s⁻¹ photosynthetically active radiation on a 14:10 (light:dark) photoperiod [12]. Cultures were obtained from a variety of cnidarians and giant clams collected from reefs in the Greater Caribbean, Hawaii, and Australia. Specific details about culture origin and location are provided in the original species descriptions.

Host Tissue Collection

Unculturable Symbiodinium were obtained by collecting host cnidarian tissue, which was field-preserved in 20% dimethyl sulfoxide buffer (containing 0.25 M ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid and water super-saturated with sodium chloride) and stored at $-20^{\circ}C$ [19]. Samples originate from around the world, and specific details about host species and location are provided in the original species descriptions.

Ethics statement

This study was performed on marine micro-algae exempt from ethical review. Host cnidarian specimens were collected under appropriate permits (listed in the original species descriptions).

METHOD DETAILS

DNA extraction, PCR and sequencing

Nucleic acids were extracted as described by LaJeunesse et al. [12] using the Wizard DNA prep protocol (Promega Corporation, Madison, WI). The amplifications were performed in 25 μ L reaction volumes containing 2.5 μ L of 2.5 mM dNTPs, 2.5 μ L of 25 mM MgCl₂, 2.5 μ L standard Taq Buffer (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA), 0.13 μ L of 5 U· μ L⁻¹ Taq DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs), 1 μ L of each forward and reverse primer at 10 μ M, and 1 μ L of 5–50 ng DNA template. The *LSU* region was amplified with the primers 28S-forward (5'-CCCGCTGAATTTAAGCATATAAGTAAGCGG-3') and 28S-reverse (5'-GTTA GACTCCTTGGTCCGTGTTTCAAGA-3') [62] and the following thermocycler conditions: 2 min at 90°C, followed by 35 cycles of 1 min at 94°C, 1 min at 60°C, and 1 min at 72°C, and then 5 min at 72°C. The mt *cob* region was amplified with the primers cob1-forward (5'-ATGAAATCTCATTTACAWWCATATCCTTGTCC-3') and dinocob1-reverse (5'-TCTCTTGAGGKAATTGWKMACC TATCCA-3') [63] and the following thermocycler conditions: 1 min at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles of 20 s at 94°C, 30 s at 55°C, and 40 s at 72°C. Amplification products were directly sequenced on an Applied Biosciences sequencer (Applied Biosciences, Foster City, CA, USA) at the Pennsylvania State University Genomics Core Facility. Chromatograms were checked and the sequences were aligned using Geneious v9.1.6 [68].

Morphology and phylogenetic analyses

To characterize cell size, either *in vitro* cultures or *in vivo* host tissue samples were imaged as described by LaJeunesse et al. [12]. Cells were photographed during log phase growth under bright-field illumination at a magnification of $400 \times -1000 \times$ using an Olympus BX51 compound microscope (Olympus Corp., Tokyo, Japan) with a Jenoptik ProgRes CF Scan digital camera (Jenoptik, Jena, Germany). Images were captured using the autoexposure setting within ProgRes Capture Pro 2.8 software (Jenoptik) and cell sizes were measured with the program ImageJ [69]. The calculation of mean species sizes were based on measurements of *Symbiodinium* (n > 40 cells) from *in vitro* cultures or on cells directly isolated from host tissue samples (n = 1-24 individual samples or strains were measured per species).

To characterize thecal plate patterns, motile cells from iso-clonal cultures were imaged from multiple viewpoints via electron microscopy and plate numbers and shapes tabulated as described by Jeong et al. [13]. For SEM, cells were fixed for 10 min in osmium tetroxide at a final concentration of 0.5% (v/v) in seawater. They were collected on a PC membrane filter and rinsed three times with distilled water. They were dehydrated in a graded ethanol series and dried using a critical point dryer (BAL-TEC, CPD 300, Balzers, Liechtenstein, Germany). The dried filters were mounted on a stub and coated with gold-palladium, then viewed with an FE-SEM (S-4800, HORIBA: EX-250, Hitachi, Hitachinaka, Japan) and SEM (JSM-840A, SEM. JEOL Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). The cells were photographed using a digital camera.

For TEM, cells were fixed in 2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde (final concentration) in the culture medium for 1.5–2 h. The cells were then pelleted and rinsed several times in 0.2 M sodium cacodylate buffer at pH 7.4. The cells were postfixed for 90 min in 1% (w/v) osmium tetroxide in deionized water and the pellet was then embedded in agar. Dehydration was performed in a graded ethanol series, and the material was embedded in Spurr's low-viscosity resin. Serial sections were prepared on an RMC MT-XL ultramicrotome (Boeckeler Instruments Inc., Tucson, AZ). They were stained with 3% (w/v) aqueous uranyl acetate followed by lead citrate. Finally, sections were viewed with a JEOL-1010 transmission electron microscope (JEOL Ltd., Tokyo, Japan).

A maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree was inferred from nuclear large subunit (*LSU*) rDNA sequences using the software package PhyML v3.3.20180214 [64] and the posterior probabilities of phylogenetic branching assessed using MrBayes v3.2.6 [65]. Representative sequences from *Symbiodinium* clade and "sub-clade" lineages were aligned with sequences from representative genera in the orders Suessiales, Gymnodiniales, Dinophysiales, Gonyaulacales, Prorocentralies, Peridiniales, and Thoracosphaerales, which were obtained from GenBank, for a total dataset comprising 149 sequences representing 76 species and 38 genera in addition to the Symbiodiniaceae (783 aligned base pairs available at https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.1717129). A similar, albeit smaller, dataset of 89 mt *cob* sequences from 48 species and 29 genera in addition to the Symbiodiniaceae, and representative of these dinoflagellates orders, was also assembled and used in evaluating genetic distances between and among genera (938 aligned base pairs available at https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.1717129).

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Genetic distances and transcriptome comparisons

To quantify within- and between-group genetic distances, MrModeltest v2.3 [32, 33] was used to identify the best model of nucleotide evolution on the same alignment of 143 dinoflagellate *LSU* rDNA sequences utilized in phylogenetic inference (see above). These analyses were also applied to the dataset of 89 mitochondrial *cob* (mt *cob*) sequences. For both genes (*LSU* rDNA and mt *cob*), genetic distances were calculated under the General Time Reversible model of evolution, with a proportion of invariable sites and rate variation among sites (i.e., GTR+I+G) estimated from the data, with PAUP* v4.0 b10 [66].

For transcriptomic/proteomic comparisons, orthologous genes were identified using reciprocal BLASTp searches of open reading frames within InParanoid v4.1 [67] in pairwise comparisons of amino acid data from the public repository reefgenomics.org [70] or the Symka Genome Database. Specifically, datasets for the following species were included: *S. minutum (ITS2* type B1) and *S. psygmophilum (ITS2* type B2) [52, 53], *S. kawagutii (ITS2* type F1) [54], and *S. microadriaticum (ITS2* type A1) [30]. Total counts were normalized to the smallest dataset in each comparison to calculate the proportion of orthologs.

Divergence time calculations

Multiple points of calibration for the *LSU* rDNA data were determined from timing geological dates for 1) the oceanographic and physical separation of the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans, and 2) the origination times calculated from the fossil record of symbiotic foraminifera in the family Soritidae, which uniquely harbor dinoflagellates. Detailed explanation and justification for calibrations involving each of seven phylogenetic nodes are provided below.

The program Bayesian Evolutionary Analysis by Sampling Trees (BEAST2 v2.4.5) was employed to estimate divergence times [34]. MrModeltest (see above) calculated the best model of nucleotide evolution used to parameterize the BEAST 2 analyses. Under a calibrated Yule Model, multiple pairwise combinations of priors, using one early and one late node (Figure S1), were analyzed using MCMC of chain lengths of 100 million. Clock models based on a strict clock as well as relaxed clock log normal were conducted. Mean values of node divergence times and clock rates were compared to evaluate consistency across different combinations and repeated MCMC runs.

LSU molecular clock calibrations

Heterogeneity in rates of molecular evolution across lineages can significantly affect the accuracy of divergence time estimates [44]. Given that one part of the gene tree may be evolving faster than another part, different pairwise analyses of early and late calibration times in different combinations were used to test for consistency in age estimates. Paleontological, plate-tectonic, and biogeographic evidence provide multiple independent time spans for calibrating a molecular clock to estimate rates of *LSU* rDNA evolution among the Symbiodiniaceae. Figure S1 identifies calibration times that correspond to the text below.

Calibrations based on host fossil record

The "early" (i.e., oldest) nodes for the calibration of the *LSU* rDNA molecular clock rely on the emergence of an important group of single-celled hosts, the soritid foraminifera. Entire lineages of Symbiodiniaceae appear to be associated with only these discoid shell-forming epibenthic organisms. The Paleocene–Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM) occurred about 55 million years ago (mya), lasted approximately 200,000 years, and led to extinctions of many marine organisms, including large benthic foraminifera [71]. However, after the PETM and during the Eocene Climatic Optimum, a major adaptive radiation of large milloid soritids occurred [71, 72]. This span of time experienced the most significant adaptive radiations of large benthic foraminifera during the Cenozoic (Figure S2A). The origination of new genera in the family Soritiodea (and in other families of large foraminifera) increased precipitously during the Ypresian and Lutetian epochs of the Eocene (~56–42 mya; Figure S2A).

The Eocene represents the warmest climate in the Cenozoic era, characterized by warm oceans and no polar ice caps, with proxies for atmospheric CO₂ suggesting that concentrations were double or quadruple those of current levels. Thus, sea level was at maximum height and inundated all low-lying terrestrial environments, creating large shallow seas and lagoons. Moreover, high ocean temperatures reduced rates of ocean circulation, leading to widespread and long-standing oligotrophic conditions, ideal for facilitating the evolutionary success of mutualistic symbioses. Of the many Soritoidea genera that emerged during this time, some fossils (e.g., *Orbitolites*) were attached to the surfaces of hard substrates, macro-algae seaweeds, and sea grass blades (i.e., found in fossil sea-grass environments; Figure S2B). This notable ecological shift away from soft sediments appears to correspond with the evolution of photosymbioses in foraminifera and is diagnostic of the possession of dinoflagellates endosymbionts [73].

We posit that the major Cenozoic adaptive radiation of Soritiodea, which included lineages exhibiting photosymbioses (Figures S2A and S2B), initiated a corresponding diversification of Symbiodiniaceae. The current phylogeny of Symbiodiniaceae comprises interleaved lineages, or "clades," that associate with animals, represented mostly by cnidarians, or with soritid foraminifera (Figure S1). Relying on the established concept that host availability is paramount to the evolution and success of Symbiodiniaceae lineages and vice versa [21], and grounded on the principles of cladistics, the ancestral condition among members of a clade can be determined based on prevalence of a particular character trait; in this case, associations with highly distinct groups of host taxa. There are at least 3 nodes in the phylogeny of Symbiodiniaceae that are presumed to represent independent origins of lineages corresponding to the emergence of symbiotic foraminifera during the early Eocene.

Estimated temporal interval for the most recent common ancestor for Clades C-F-H: MRCAs 48-56 mya

Clades C, F, and H are a monophyletic group whose most recent common ancestor is inferred to have originated in response to the adaptive radiation of the Soritoidea and included the emergence of *Orbitolites*, whose earliest appearance is in the Ypresian epoch [27]. The extant symbiotic soritid genus, *Sorites*, first occurs in the Oligocene fossil record, 25–30 mya. However, paleontological evidence can define only the latest possible time of divergence, but not the lower boundary, and for this reason fossil dates are always underestimates [44]. Moreover, the extinct genus *Orbitolites* existed in the early Eocene and appears to have had similar ecological distributions (living attached to phytal substrata) and resembled the morphology of modern descendent soritids bearing dinoflagellate symbionts (Figure S2B). Furthermore, the newest molecular-clock estimates of the origination of the extant soritids harboring Symbiodiniaceae places their origination back to the Eocene, well before the Oligocene [72]. This combined evidence indicates that the early Eocene was the time when large symbiotic miliolid soritids were acquiring photosymbioses and diversifying. Thus, we infer that the common ancestors of several independent lineages of Symbiodiniaceae, including the super-clade comprising Clades C, F, and H, dates back to the first epoch of the Eocene (Figure S2B).

The evolution of "Foraminifera Clade D" lineage: MRCA 48-56 mya

This is a rare and unusual lineage, known only to associate with the foraminifera genera *Amphisorus* and *Marginopora* (Figure S3). Ribosomal DNA sequences indicate that this group contains multiple species. One of these sequences was obtained from a cultured isolate putatively from the Pacific sponge *Haliclona koremella* (designated as isolate P105), but fresh samples obtained from these sponges do not contain Symbiodiniaceae (personal observation). Thus, cultured isolate P105 from a non-symbiotic sponge apparently represents a contaminant from environmental sources of Symbiodiniaceae. Here we presume that the "Foraminifera Clade D" lineage (Figure S3) evolved independently in the early Eocene concurrent with the lineage that would give rise to Clades C, F, and H (see above), in response to the adaptive radiation of Soritoidea in the early Eocene (Figure S2A). This lineage is related to, but still divergent from, Metazoan Clade D, which comprises stress-tolerant species symbiotic with cnidarians [14].

Divergence time of a Clade G lineage specialized to associate with Marginopora: MRCA 15-34 mya

During the evolutionary history of Clade G, this lineage bifurcated into lineages with distinct ecological distributions. While one lineage associates with metazoans (sponges and cnidarians), the other associates with foraminifera in the genus *Marginopora* [74]; although members of this group may occur, albeit rarely, in other soritids [75]. Thus, the evolution of the foraminifera branch of Clade G may have coincided with the emergence of this newest soritid genus. The oldest fossils of *Marginopora* conservatively date this lineage to at least the mid-Miocene (~15 mya; Figure S2), but molecular clock estimates extend the probable origin of this genus to the Oligocene at 23-34 mya [72].

Calibrations based on oceanic vicariance

The tectonic movements during the separation of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and associated shifts in ocean currents, salinity change, and changes in fossil community assemblages (marine and terrestrial), is one of the most studied and commonly used to calibrate molecular clocks [43].

Clade C symbionts in sibling species *Porites panamensis* (Eastern Pacific) and *Porites colonensis* (Caribbean): MRCA 3.1–4.7 mya

Porites panamensis shares a most recent common ancestor with Porites colonensis and other Atlantic Porites [76]. Thus, P. panamensis constitutes a relic species isolated during the separation of the Pacific from the Atlantic via uplift of the Central American Isthmus, a geological process that started \sim 11–13 mya and was complete by \sim 3 mya [77]. This close genealogical relationship is also supported by the similar identities of their symbionts. High-resolution genetic analyses indicates that their symbionts also share a most recent common ancestor, sibling lineages within Clade C and members of the "C1 radiation" [21]. This assumes that each host-symbiont partnership has remained stable for millions of years following closure of the Central American Seaway. By contrast, the more distantly related *Porites* spp. widespread throughout the Indo-Pacific are primarily symbiotic with "sub-clade" C15, which does not occur in the Atlantic.

Proxies for ocean salinities indicate the Atlantic and Pacific were separated oceanographically by 4.2–4.7 mya [78], with the physical land barriers established by 3.1 mya [77]. Given this, an offset of 3.1 mya, with maximum probability set around 4.5 mya, was used as a conservative time range spanning the point of divergence between the symbionts of *P. panamensis* and *P. colonensis*.

The divergence between Clade C type C27 (Pacific) and type C7 (Atlantic): MRCA 3.1 to 7.2 mya

This alternate calibration time point involving Clade C was included to evaluate how slight sequence differences in LSU rDNA may offset estimates of node ages among Symbiodiniaceae. The non-coding region of the *psbA* chloroplast minicircle (*psbA*^{ncr}) provides considerable genetic and phylogeographic resolution that goes well beyond the limitations of the more conserved nuclear rDNAs [79]; and was used recently to calculate a molecular clock for Clade C [21]. A comparison among putative species of Clade C from the Pacific and Atlantic identified several lineages from each ocean basin sharing a most recent common ancestor. One of these pairings included type C27, a host generalist found associated with scleractinians from the northern hemisphere of the Pacific Ocean, and type C7/C7a, a lineage evolved and specialized to massive reef-building *Orbicella* (= former *Montastraea*) from the Greater Caribbean. Molecular clock estimates based on the *psbA*^{ncr} sequences place the MRCA of these lineages at 7.7 ± 3.0 mya [21].

Thus, the divergence of these lineages likely initiated in the late Miocene as global temperatures began to cool further and oscillate with increased variation [80], but well before the complete separation of the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans [77].

The separation between lineages of the B1 sub-clade from the B19 sub-clade: MRCA 5 to 7 mya

Phylogeographic evidence of Clade B Symbiodiniaceae indicates a regional diversification, or adaptive radiation, occurred among members of the B1 "sub-clade." This radiation likely initiated during the late Pliocene and continued through the Pleistocene. Few members of the B1 sub-clade occur in the Pacific Ocean. By contrast, multiple members of the B19 sub-clade occur in both ocean basins and are often found in hosts from cold water, high latitude environments. Thus, divergence among older lineages of the B19 sub-clade likely began well before closure of the Central American Seaway and probably during the mid to late Miocene when global climate and ocean temperatures turned significantly colder [81]. These phylogenetic and biogeographic patterns conservatively place the MRCA of the B1 and B19 sub-clade at a time when both oceans were connected, probably at the end of the Miocene from 5 to 7 mya.

Divergence between sibling species in Clade G associated with bioeroding clionaid sponges from the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans: MRCA 3.1–5.3 mya

The "metazoan Clade G" sub-clade, a rare group of endosymbionts, currently contains two sibling species, *Symbiodinium endoclionum* and *S. spongiolum*, that associate with *Cliona orientalis* and *C. varians* from the Pacific and Greater Caribbean, respectively [20]. The common ancestor of these Clade G species probably evolved prior to the separation of the two ocean basins (3.1–5.3 mya). Therefore, DNA sequence divergence between *S. endoclionum* and *S. spongiolum* has resulted from millions of years of isolation. The 3.1–5.3 mya time span since the MRCA is a conservative range because the Pacific species is based solely on collections from the western Pacific. Therefore, the genetic isolation of these lineages could have begun well before closure of the Central American Seaway.

Past estimates of Symbiodiniaceae divergence times

There are two studies which estimate that the evolution of *Symbiodinium* clades has occurred in the Cenozoic < 65 mya. One used calibration times based on plate-tectonic and host origination events [27] similar to those proposed in this study, while a second used rates of rDNA (*LSU*) evolution calculated for a distantly-related group of "armored" dinoflagellates with a fossil record [26].

In their development of a molecular clock, Pochon and coauthors employed early and late calibration points to estimate divergence times among clades of *Symbiodinium sensu lato* [27]. When selecting their early calibration time point, Pochon et al. [27] also targeted the MRCA of Clades C, F, and H (same as time point 1 in Figure S1), but used the range 25–30 mya, a period when species identifiable to the extant soritid genus, *Sorites*, are known to have first occurred in the fossil record. However this time frame was overly-conservative given that fossil data only delimit the upper bounds of an origination, that the presence of *Orbitolites* in the Eocene was not considered (see above), and that new molecular clock estimates places the origination of extant soritid foraminifera back to the Eocene [72].

The late calibration time frame of 3-4 mya used by Pochon et al. [27] was based on the latest physical separation of the Pacific and Atlantic ocean basins by a continuous isthmus [43]. When comparing genetic distances in *LSU* rDNA, they used sequences obtained from Clade H of *Sorites* sp. from Guam in the western Pacific and from *Sorites* sp. of Panama in the Atlantic Ocean [60, 74], but it would have been more suitable to use Clade H found in *Sorites* obtained from the Eastern Pacific side of Panama in calibrating a molecular clock based on this plate-tectonic event [60]. However, Clade H *LSU* rDNA sequences from Eastern Pacific and Western Caribbean *Sorites* are identical (Figure S4), further highlighting that rDNA may not change for million years. The inability of this pairing to calibrate a molecular clock probably explains why Pochon et al. [27] resorted to the sequence from Guam, which differs from the Western Caribbean Clade H sequence by 5 nucleotides (Figure S4). Using sequences from a Symbiodiniaceae obtained from the western Pacific questions the appropriateness of an assigned 3–4 mya calibration time frame.

In summarizing the molecular dating by Pochon et al. [27], the divergence between Clade H lineages in the western Pacific and in the Greater Caribbean could very well have occurred long before the separation of the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans. Moreover, new and additional evidence indicates an early Eocene, rather than an Oligocene, origin of symbiotic soritids. Thus, the origination and divergence times between clades calculated by Pochon et al. [27] are likely underestimated by at least a factor of two. Our revision of their time estimates using a molecular clock incorporating new paleontological data along with DNA from appropriate sibling species spanning the Pacific and Atlantic Ocean basins places the origin of Symbiodiniaceae well into the Mesozoic.

Tchernov et al. [26] presented a second age estimation of Symbiodiniaceae clades and used an *LSU* molecular clock calibrated from fossil data of the Gonyaulacales. However, sequence divergence of rDNA among genera from this order is high (by a factor of 2-3 times or more) relative to other orders in the Class Dinophyceae (Figure 4F), but such divergence is not observed for other DNA markers such as mitochondrial genes. The application of this molecular clock on other dinoflagellate lineages would thus significantly underestimate times of evolution. Indeed, their chronology places the evolution of Symbiodiniaceae at 65 mya. Use of a rough correction factor \sim 2x, accounting for differences in rates of evolution, again places the origination of the Symbiodiniaceae back well into the Mesozoic.

Limitations of LSU rDNA molecular dating

Variation in rates of molecular evolution, both through time and among lineages, affects the accuracy of estimates for origination times using gene sequence data. Such data from the LSU rDNA is currently considered the most versatile for analyses of

Symbiodiniaceae diversity since they provide sufficient resolution to delimit most putative species within a given clade but are conserved enough to permit phylogenetic comparisons to distantly related species in other dinoflagellate orders [45]. While the internal transcribed spacers 1 and 2 (*ITS*) rDNA are used extensively to delimit various types, or species, of Symbiodiniaceae, these rDNA regions are problematic to align with confidence between members of different clades. Furthermore, the hypervariable region (\sim 100 bases) of the chloroplast *cp23S* gene must be excluded before sequences from different clades can be unambiguously aligned. Finally, the mitochondrial *cob* gene is often too conservative to resolve most species within a clade.

By its very nature of containing 100's to 1000's of intragenomic copies, rDNA evolves differently than single, or low-copy, nuclear genes [82]. Genes of the ribosomal operon change via concerted evolution and thus the whole array evolves in tandem as populations become reproductively isolated, more accurately recording the evolutionary history of a lineage [83]. However, concerted evolution also acts to slow, or prevent, sequence divergence in reproductively isolated species over relatively long periods of time. Therefore, despite its exceptional utility as a phylogenetic marker, rDNA exhibits some variation in rates of evolution over time and among lineages of Symbiodiniaceae. The molecular evolution of rDNA can proceed slowly over several millions of years in some lineages [46] and indeed, rDNA has not changed, or changed very little, in some species separated for 3-4 million years or more. For example, rDNA sequences of Symbiodinium tridacnidorum (ITS2 type A3^{Pacific}) are identical to lineages of A3 from the Caribbean, as are sequences of Clade H from Sorites in the Western Caribbean and Eastern Pacific (Figure S4). However, fixed nucleotide differences in chloroplast (*cp23S*) and mitochondrial (*cob*) genes clearly separate these A3 lineages phylogenetically and differences in microsatellite alleles substantiate their genetic isolation and long evolutionary divergence [84]. Clade B Symbiodiniaceae type B1 also contains multiple cryptic species that have diversified during the Late Pliocene or Pleistocene but show no differences in rDNA [18]. For this reason, multiple possible calibration points were independently employed here across the *LSU* rDNA phylogeny of Symbiodiniaceae and utilized in independent BEAST 2 analyses to test for consistency in age estimates and to compare expected versus observed ages.

Formal descriptions of genera

Data summarized as support for each genus were based on the comparative genetic analyses presented here and on previously published data, particularly from many of the recent species descriptions (cited within each section in the Taxonomic Summary in Data S1). Refer to the primary literature for additional details on sample acquisition, nucleotide sequencing, and specific ecological and biogeographic data.

DATA AND SOFTWARE AVAILABILITY

LSU rDNA and mt *cob* alignments, BEAST2 files, and R scripts for transcriptome comparisons are available from the Dryad Digital Repository: https://doi.10.5061/dryad.1717129.

Additional Resources

The taxonomic summary of the family Symbiodiniaceae is provided as Data S1. The taxonomic revisions therein are based in part on phylogenetic analyses of DNA sequences from nuclear, chloroplast, and mitochondrial markers, as well as available morphological, physiological, biogeographic, and ecological (e.g., host organism) information. An emended description is provided for the family. Six new genera are named and described, while *Symbiodinium* is more narrowly defined to correspond to only one evolutionarily divergent lineage (Clade A). Fifteen new genus-species combinations are proposed. All taxonomic descriptions were conducted following rules established by the International Code of Nomenclature for Algae, Fungi, and Plants [85].

Current Biology, Volume 28

Supplemental Information

Systematic Revision of Symbiodiniaceae Highlights

the Antiquity and Diversity of Coral Endosymbionts

Todd C. LaJeunesse, John Everett Parkinson, Paul W. Gabrielson, Hae Jin Jeong, James Davis Reimer, Christian R. Voolstra, and Scott R. Santos

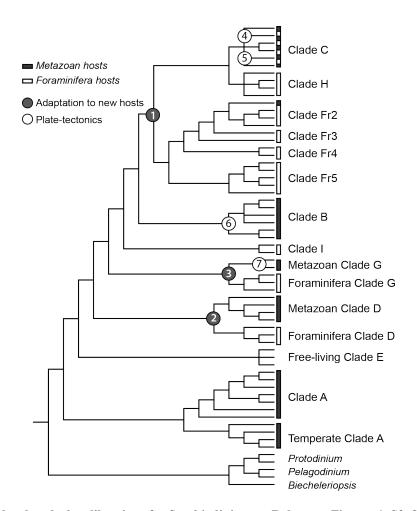


Figure S1. Molecular clock calibrations for Symbiodiniaceae. Relates to Figures 1, S2, S3, and S4, and to STAR Methods Section 4: Quantification and Statistical Analysis. Calibrations using paleontological evidence, plate-tectonic events, and biogeographic data to establish an rDNA-based molecular clock for estimating times of origination and divergence among Symbiodiniaceae clades.

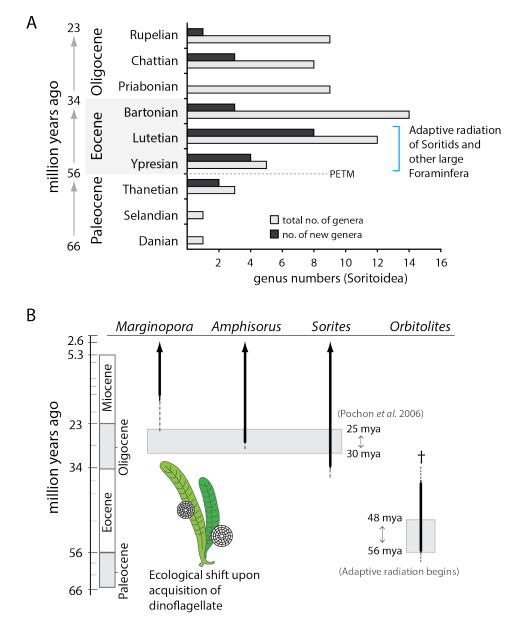


Figure S2. Calibration times for the radiation of symbiotic dinoflagellates specialized for soritid foraminifera. Relates to Figures 1, S1, S3, and S4, and to STAR Methods Section 4: Quantification and Statistical Analysis. (A) The major adaptive radiation of large foraminifera, including Soritoidea, occurred during the Eocene Climactic Optimum. Timing of the Paleocene–Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM) is indicated. (B) The Eocene occurrence and ecology of *Orbitolites*, the adaptive radiation of Soritoidea, and new molecular clock estimates for *Sorites* place the most likely time of origin for these symbiont lineages in the early Eocene. Solid lines are based on paleontological evidence, which defines the latest possible time of origin. The dashed portion of each line indicates earlier times of emergence likely predate estimates based on available fossil evidence. Times of origination and extinctions (cross symbol) were obtained from BouDagher-Fadel [S1].

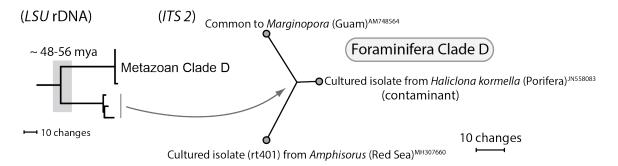


Figure S3. Proposed calibration time of two distantly related lineages previously grouped together and subjectively designated as "Clade D" based on RFLP digestions of small subunit ribosomal DNA (SSU rDNA). Relates to Figures 1, S1, S2, and S4, and to STAR Methods Section 4: Quantification and Statistical Analysis. One lineage is common to various cnidarians, including stony and soft corals, and is known for exhibiting high thermal tolerances. The other lineage is specific to soritid foraminifera and hence designated here as "Foraminifera Clade D".

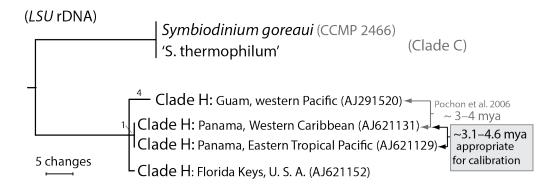


Figure S4. Phylogeny of the diversity of Clade H from the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans inferred by Maximum Parsimony (MP). Relates to Figures 1, S1, S2, and S3, and to STAR Methods Section 4: Quantification and Statistical Analysis. Sequences used by Pochon et al. [S2] are specified and contrasted with sequences identified to be more appropriate for molecular clock calibrations based on the geological separation of Pacific and Atlantic Ocean biota.

					Cell L (µ1	0	Cell Width (µm)		
<i>Sym</i> . Clade	Genus*	Species	Ref.	Ν	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
A	Symbiodinium	linucheae	DM	1	8.52	0.58	7.99	0.67	
A	Symbiodinium	microadriaticum	$[S3]^{1}$	6	9.44	0.63	8.67	0.81	
А	Śvmbiodinium	natans	DM	3	10.22	1.16	9.52	1.09	
А	Śymbiodinium	necroappetens	[S4] ¹	4	9.24	0.82	8.48	0.75	
А	Symbiodinium	pilosum	DM	5	10.48	1.17	9.76	1.21	
А	Symbiodinium	tridacnidorum	$[S3]^{1}$	5	9.26	0.61	7.85	0.89	
В	Śymbiodinium	aenigmaticum	[S5] ¹	4	7.45	0.89	6.80	0.78	
В	Śymbiodinium	antillogorgium	[S5] ¹	4	7.72	0.48	7.14	0.35	
В	Symbiodinium	endomadracis	$[S5]^{1}$	4	6.62	0.46	5.91	0.44	
В	Symbiodinium	minutum	$[S6]^1$	5	8.20	0.37	7.40	0.53	
В	Symbiodinium	pseudominutum	$[S5]^1$	4	8.11	0.34	7.30	0.47	
В	Symbiodinium	psygmophilum	$[S6]^1$	9	9.92	0.64	9.28	0.60	
С	Symbiodinium	goreaui	DM	1	10.80	0.88	10.40	0.83	
С	Symbiodinium	thermophilum	DM	4	9.32	0.63	8.55	0.62	
D	Symbiodinium	boreum	$[S7]^{1}$	7	9.47	0.21	8.72	0.25	
D	Symbiodinium	eurythalpos	$[S7]^{1}$	11	9.00	0.26	8.20	0.31	
D	Symbiodinium	glynnii	$[S8]^{1}$	24	9.52	0.31	8.43	0.39	
D	Symbiodinium	trenchii	$[S7]^{1}$	16	10.17	0.17	9.11	0.19	
Е	Symbiodinium	voratum	$[S9]^{1}$	6	12.66	0.38	11.60	0.38	
F	Symbiodinium	kawagutii	DM	1	8.68	0.62	8.39	0.65	
G	Symbiodinium	endoclionum	$[S10]^{1}$	6	8.51	0.66	7.57	0.69	
G	Symbiodinium	spongiolum	$[S10]^{1}$	NA	8.63	0.71	7.78	0.73	
N/A	Ansanella	granifera	$[S11]^2$	NA	12.50	2.50	10.50	1.50	
N/A	Asulcocephalium	miricentonis	$[S12]^2$	NA	13.00	3.00	10.25	3.25	
N/A	Biecheleria	baltica	$[S13]^{2,3}$	NA	26.00	9.00	26.00	9.00	
N/A	Biecheleria	brevisulcata	$[S14]^{2,3}$	NA	14.25	3.75	14.25	3.75	
N/A	Biecheleria	cincta	$[S15]^2$	NA	12.00	3.00	11.00	2.00	
N/A	Biecheleria	halophila	$[S16]^{3}$	NA	18.50	8.50	18.50	8.50	
N/A	Biecheleria	natalensis	$[S17]^{2,3}$	NA	16.00	2.00	16.00	2.00	
N/A	Biecheleria	pseudopalustris	[S18] ^{2,3}	NA	28.50	1.50	28.50	1.50	
N/A	Biecheleriopsis	adriatica	[S19]	NA	13.10	1.00	10.30	1.50	
N/A	Leiocephalium	pseudosanguineum	$[S12]^2$	NA	35.00	7.00	28.00	6.00	
N/A	Pelagodinium	beii	[S20]	NA	10.00	0.80	6.60	0.40	
N/A	Polarella	gracialis	$[S21]^2$	NA	14.50	2.50	11.50	3.50	
N/A	Protodinium	corii	$[S15]^{2}$	NA	28.50	1.50	19.00	1.00	
N/A	Protodinium	simplex	$[S15]^2$	NA	11.10	1.60	8.70	1.50	
N/A	Yihiella	yeosuensis	[S22]	NA	9.60	0.10	5.90	0.10	

* Genus Symbiodinium to be retained only for Clade A.

¹Supplemented with additional measurements that may not have appeared in the original publication.

² Sizes were reported as ranges, mean was inferred as the average of the extremes and SD as half of the range.

³Only length was reported, width was inferred to be identical.

Table S1. Suessiales cell size measurements. Relates to Figure 2 and to STAR Methods Section 3: Method Details. Morphological measurements (cell length and width) for each Symbiodiniaceae species, and other related dinoflagellates, included in this study. N = number of independent *in vitro* cultures or *in hospite* tissue samples measured (>40 cells each); DM = direct measurement; SD = standard deviation; NA = not applicable.

	Clade A (Symbiodinium)	Clade A (Temperate)	Clade B (Breviolum)	Clade C (Cladocopium)	Clade D (Durusdinium)	Clade D (Foraminifera)	Clade E (<i>Effrenium</i>)	Clade Fr2	Clade Fr3	Clade Fr4	Clade Fr5 (Fugacium)	Clade G (Foraminifera)	Clade G (<i>Gerakladium</i>)	Clade H	Clade I
Clade A (Symbiodinium)	0.03														
Clade A (Temperate)	0.10	0.01													
Clade B (Breviolum)	0.37	0.36	0.01												
Clade C (<i>Cladocopium</i>)	0.31	0.32	0.17	0.01											
Clade D (Durusdinium)	0.29	0.31	0.27	0.23	0.01										
Clade D (Foraminifera)	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.21	0.15	0.02									
Clade E (<i>Effrenium</i>)	0.29	0.29	0.34	0.29	0.29	0.31	0.01								
Clade Fr2	0.33	0.33	0.23	0.14	0.30	0.24	0.31	0.02							
Clade Fr3	0.31	0.32	0.18	0.13	0.27	0.23	0.28	0.09	0.03						
Clade Fr4	0.32	0.31	0.20	0.13	0.25	0.23	0.29	0.16	0.12	0.03					
Clade Fr5 (Fugacium)	0.35	0.34	0.18	0.15	0.26	0.24	0.32	0.18	0.13	0.16	0.02				
Clade G (Foraminifera)	0.35	0.37	0.33	0.28	0.28	0.25	0.34	0.31	0.30	0.29	0.33	0.03			
Clade G (Gerakladium)	0.35	0.37	0.31	0.29	0.26	0.24	0.34	0.30	0.28	0.28	0.31	0.09	0.01		
Clade H	0.28	0.28	0.16	0.06	0.21	0.19	0.27	0.14	0.11	0.12	0.14	0.25	0.24	0.01	
Clade I	0.31	0.30	0.23	0.20	0.23	0.23	0.29	0.24	0.21	0.20	0.20	0.30	0.28	0.18	0.01

Table S2. Genetic distances of *LSU* **rDNA between Symbiodiniaceae. Relates to Figures 3A and 4 and to STAR Methods Section 4: Quantification and Statistical Analysis.** Corrected pairwise genetic distances among *LSU* rDNA sequences from new genera and genus-level groups of Symbiodiniaceae. Values were generated under the General Time Reversible model of evolution, with a proportion of invariable sites and rate variation among sites (i.e. GTR+I+G) estimated from the data, and averaged over all sequences within each genus/group. Shaded values on the diagonal represent the within-genus divergence among species. Estimates <0.01 were rounded up to this minimum value.

	Clade A (Symbiodinium)	Clade B (Breviolum)	Clade C (Cladocopium)	Clade D (Durusdinium)	Clade E (<i>Effrenium</i>)	Clade Fr5 (Fugacium)	Clade G (<i>Gerakladium</i>)
Clade A (Symbiodinium)	0.01						
Clade B (Breviolum)	0.09	0.01					
Clade C (<i>Cladocopium</i>)	0.05	0.06	0.01				
Clade D (Durusdinium)	0.06	0.08	0.03	0.01			
Clade E (<i>Effrenium</i>)	0.06	0.11	0.06	0.06	NA		
Clade Fr5 (Fugacium)	0.12	0.12	0.08	0.10	0.12	0.01	
Clade G (Gerakladium)	0.06	0.08	0.02	0.03	0.06	0.10	0.01

Table S3. Genetic distances of mitochondrial *cob* between Symbiodiniaceae. Relates to Figure 3B and to STAR Methods Section 4: Quantification and Statistical Analysis. Corrected pairwise genetic distances among mitochondrial *cob* sequences from new genera and genus-level groups of Symbiodiniaceae. Values were generated under the General Time Reversible model of evolution, with a proportion of invariable sites and rate variation among sites (i.e. GTR+I+G) estimated from the data, and averaged over all sequences within each genus/group. Shaded values on the diagonal represent the within-genus divergence among species. Estimates <0.01 were rounded up to this minimum value. NA = not applicable (for genera represented by one species).

Supplemental References

- S1. BouDagher-Fadel, M.K. (2008). Chapter 6: The Cenozoic larger benthic foraminifera: the Palaeogene. *21*, 297-545.
- S2. Pochon, X., Montoya-Burgos, J.I., Stadelmann, B., and Pawlowski, J. (2006). Molecular phylogeny, evolutionary rates, and divergence timing of the symbiotic dinoflagellate genus *Symbiodinium*. Mol. Phylogenet. Evol. 38, 20-30.
- S3. Lee, S.Y., Jeong, H.J., Kang, N.S., Jang, T.Y., Jang, S.H., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2015). *Symbiodinium tridacnidorum* sp nov., a dinoflagellate common to Indo-Pacific giant clams, and a revised morphological description of *Symbiodinium microadriaticum* Freudenthal, emended Trench & Blank. Eur. J. Phycol. 50, 155-172.
- S4. LaJeunesse, T.C., Lee, S.Y., Gil-Agudelo, D.L., Knowlton, N., and Jeong, H.J. (2015). Symbiodinium necroappetens sp nov (Dinophyceae): an opportunist 'zooxanthella' found in bleached and diseased tissues of Caribbean reef corals. Eur. J. Phycol. 50, 223-238.
- S5. Parkinson, J.E., Coffroth, M.A., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2015). New species of Clade B Symbiodinium (Dinophyceae) from the greater Caribbean belong to different functional guilds: S. aenigmaticum sp. nov., S. antillogorgium sp. nov., S. endomadracis sp. nov., and S. pseudominutum sp. nov. J. Phycol. 51, 850-858.
- S6. LaJeunesse, T.C., Parkinson, J.E., and Reimer, J.D. (2012). A genetics-based description of *Symbiodinium minutum* sp. nov. and *S. psygmophilum* sp. nov. (dinophyceae), two dinoflagellates symbiotic with cnidaria. J. Phycol. 48, 1380-1391.
- S7. LaJeunesse, T.C., Wham, D.C., Pettay, D.T., Parkinson, J.E., Keshavmurthy, S., and Chen, C.A. (2014).
 Ecologically differentiated stress-tolerant endosymbionts in the dinoflagellate genus *Symbiodinium* (Dinophyceae) Clade D are different species. Phycologia *53*, 305-319.
- S8. Wham, D.C., Ning, G., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2017). Symbiodinium glynnii sp. nov., a species of stresstolerant symbiotic dinoflagellates from pocilloporid and montiporid corals in the Pacific Ocean. Phycologia 56, 396-409.
- S9. Jeong, H.J., Lee, S.Y., Kang, N.S., Yoo, Y.D., Lim, A.S., Lee, M.J., Kim, H.S., Yih, W., Yamashita, H., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2014). Genetics and morphology characterize the dinoflagellate *Symbiodinium voratum*, n. sp., (Dinophyceae) as the sole representative of *Symbiodinium* Clade E. J. Eukaryot. Microbiol. 61, 75-94.
- S10. Ramsby, B.D., Hill, M.S., Thornhill, D.J., Steenhuizen, S.F., Achlatis, M., Lewis, A.M., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2017). Sibling species of mutualistic *Symbiodinium* Clade G from bioeroding sponges in the western Pacific and western Atlantic Oceans. J. Phycol. 53, 951-960.
- S11. Jeong, H.J., Jang, S.H., Moestrup, Ø., Kang, N.S., Lee, S.Y., Potvin, É., and Noh, J.H. (2014). Ansanella granifera gen. et sp. nov. (Dinophyceae), a new dinoflagellate from the coastal waters of Korea. Algae 29, 75.
- S12. Takahashi, K., Moestrup, Ø., Jordan, R.W., and Iwataki, M. (2015). Two new freshwater woloszynskioids Asulcocephalium miricentonis gen. et sp. nov. and Leiocephalium pseudosanguineum gen. et sp. nov. (Suessiaceae, Dinophyceae) lacking an apical furrow apparatus. Protist 166, 638-658.
- S13. Kremp, A., Elbrächter, M., Schweikert, M., Wolny, J.L., and Gottschling, M. (2005). Woloszynskia halophila (Biecheler) comb. nov.: a bloom-forming cold-water dinoflagellate co-ocurring with Scripsiella hangoei (Dinophyceae) in the Baltic Sea. J. Phycol. 41, 629-642.
- S14. Takahashi, K., Sarai, C., and Iwataki, M. (2014). Morphology of two marine woloszynskioid dinoflagellates, *Biecheleria brevisulcata* sp. nov. and *Biecheleriopsis adriatica* (Suessiaceae, Dinophyceae), from Japanese coasts. Phycologia 53, 52-65.
- S15. Siano, R., Kooistra, W.H., Montresor, M., and Zingone, A. (2009). Unarmoured and thin-walled dinoflagellates from the Gulf of Naples, with the description of *Woloszynskia cincta* sp. nov. (Dinophyceae, Suessiales). Phycologia 48, 44-65.
- S16. Biecheler, B. (1952). Recherches sur les Péridiniens, Volume 36, (Laboratoire d'évolution des êtres organisés.).
- S17. Horiguchi, T., and Pienaar, R. (1994). *Gymnodinium natalense* sp. nov.(Dinophyceae), a new tide pool dinoflagellate from South Africa. Japanese Journal of Phycology *42*, 21-28.
- S18. Moestrup, Ø., Lindberg, K., and Daugbjerg, N. (2009). Studies on woloszynskioid dinoflagellates IV: The genus *Biecheleria* gen. nov. Phycol. Res. *57*, 203-220.

- S19. Moestrup, Ø., Lindberg, K., and Daugbjerg, N. (2009). Studies on woloszynskioid dinoflagellates V. Ultrastructure of *Biecheleriopsis* gen. nov., with description of *Biecheleriopsis adriatica* sp. nov. Phycol. Res. 57, 221-237.
- S20. Siano, R., Montresor, M., Probert, I., Not, F., and de Vargas, C. (2010). *Pelagodinium* gen. nov. and *P. béii* comb. nov., a dinoflagellate symbiont of planktonic foraminifera. Protist *161*, 385-399.
- S21. Montresor, M., Procaccini, G., and Stoecker, D.K. (1999). *Polarella glacialis*, gen. nov., sp. nov. (Dinophyceae): Suessiaceae are still alive! J. Phycol. 35, 186-197.
- S22. Jang, S.H., Jeong, H.J., Moestrup, Ø., Kang, N.S., Lee, S.Y., Lee, K.H., and Seong, K.A. (2017). *Yihiella yeosuensis* gen. et sp. nov. (Suessiaceae, Dinophyceae), a novel dinoflagellate isolated from the coastal waters of Korea. J. Phycol. 53, 131-145.
- S23. Guiry, M.D., and Andersen, R.A. (2018). Validation of the generic name *Symbiodinium* (Dinophyceae, Suessiaceae) revisited and the reinstatement of *Zooxanthella* K.Brandt. Notulae algarum, 1-5.
- S24. McNeill, J., Barrie, F.R., Buck, W.R., Demoulin, V., Greuter, W., Hawksworh, D.L., Herendeen, P.S., Knapp, S., Marhold, K., Prado, J., et al. (2012). International Code of Nomenclature for Algae, Fungi, and Plants (Melbourne Code). In Regnum Veg, Volume 154. (Koenigstein: ARG Gantner Verlag).
- S25. Daugbjerg, N., Hansen, G., Larsen, J., and Moestrup, O. (2000). Phylogeny of some of the major genera of dinoflagellates based on ultrastructure and partial LSU rDNA sequence data, including the erection of three new genera of unarmoured dinoflagellates. Phycologia *39*, 302-317.
- S26. Banaszak, A.T., LaJeunesse, T.C., and Trench, R.K. (2000). The synthesis of mycosporine-like amino acids (MAAs) by cultured, symbiotic dinoflagellates. J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol. 249, 219-233.
- S27. LaJeunesse, T.C. (2001). Investigating the biodiversity, ecology, and phylogeny of endosymbiotic dinoflagellates in the genus *Symbiodinium* using the ITS region: in search of a "species" level marker. J. Phycol. 37, 866-880.
- S28. Taylor, D.L. (1971). Ultrastructure of the 'Zooxanthella' *Endodinium Chattonii* in situ*. J. Mar. Biol. Assoc. U.K. *51*, 227-234.
- S29. Loeblich III, A.R., and Sherley, J.L. (1979). Observations on the theca of the motile phase of free-living and symbiotic isolates of *Zooxanthella microadriatica* (Freudenthal) comb. nov. J. Mar. Biol. Assoc. U.K. 59, 195-205.
- S30. Blank, R.J., and Huss, A.R. (1989). DNA divergency and speciation in *Symbiodinium* (Dinophyceae). Plant Syst. Evol. *163*, 153-163.
- S31. Banaszak, A.T., Iglesias-Prieto, R., and Trench, R.K. (1993). Scrippsiella vellae sp. nov. (Peridiniales) and Gloeodinium viscum sp. nov (Phytodiniales), dinoflagellate symbionts of two hydrozoans (Cnidaria). J. Phycol. 29, 517-528.
- S32. LaJeunesse, T.C., Loh, W., and Trench, R.K. (2009). Do introduced endosymbiotic dinoflagellates 'take' to new hosts? Biol. Invasions *11*, 995-1003.
- S33. Banaszak, A.T., Barba Santos, M.G., LaJeunesse, T.C., and Lesser, M.P. (2006). The distribution of mycosporine-like amino acids (MAAs) and the phylogenetic identity of symbiotic dinoflagellates in cnidarian hosts from the Mexican Caribbean. J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol. 337, 131-146.
- S34. Iglesias-Prieto, R., and Trench, R.K. (1994). Acclimation and adaptation to irradiance in symbiotic dinoflagellates. I. Responses of photosynthetic unit to changes in photon flux density. Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser. 113, 163-175.
- S35. LaJeunesse, T.C. (2017). Validation and description of *Symbiodinium microadriaticum*, the type species of *Symbiodinium* (Dinophyta). J. Phycol. *53*, 1109-1114.
- S36. Lesser, M.P., Stat, M., and Gates, R.D. (2013). The endosymbiotic dinoflagellates (*Symbiodinium* sp.) of corals are parasites and mutualists. Coral Reefs *32*, 603-611.
- S37. Toller, W., Rowan, R., and Knowlton, N. (2001). Repopulation of zooxanthellae in the caribbean corals *Montastrea annularis* and *M. faveolata* following experimental and disease-associated bleaching. Biol. Bull. 201, 360-373.
- S38. Grottoli, A.G., Warner, M.E., Levas, S.J., Aschaffenburg, M.D., Schoepf, V., McGinley, M., Baumann, J., and Matsui, Y. (2014). The cumulative impact of annual coral bleaching can turn some coral species winners into losers. Glob. Chang. Biol. 20, 3823-3833.
- S39. Lee, M.J., Jeong, H.J., Jang, S.H., Lee, S.Y., Kang, N.S., Lee, K.H., Kim, H.S., Wham, D.C., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2016). Most low-abundance "background" *Symbiodinium* spp. are transitory and have minimal functional significance for symbiotic corals. Microb. Ecol. 71, 771-783.
- S40. Takabayashi, M., Adams, L.M., Pochon, X., and Gates, R.D. (2011). Genetic diversity of free-living *Symbiodinium* in surface water and sediment of Hawai'i and Florida. Coral Reefs *31*, 157-167.

- S41. LaJeunesse, T.C. (2002). Diversity and community structure of symbiotic dinoflagellates from Caribbean coral reefs. Mar. Biol. *141*, 387-400.
- S42. Frade, P.R., Englebert, N., Faria, J., Visser, P.M., and Bak, R.P.M. (2008). Distribution and photobiology of *Symbiodinium* types in different light environments for three colour morphs of the coral *Madracis pharensis*: is there more to it than total irradiance? Coral Reefs *27*, 913-925.
- S43. Silverstein, R.N., Correa, A.M.S., LaJeunesse, T.C., and Baker, A.C. (2011). Novel algal symbiont (*Symbiodinium* spp.) diversity in reef corals of Western Australia. Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser. 422, 63-75.
- S44. LaJeunesse, T.C., and Trench, R.K. (2000). Biogeography of two species of *Symbiodinium* (Freudenthal) inhabiting the intertidal sea anemone *Anthopleura elegantissima* (Brandt). Biol. Bull. *199*, 126-134.
- S45. LaJeunesse, T.C., Lambert, G., Andersen, R.A., Coffroth, M.A., and Galbraith, D.W. (2005). Symbiodinium (Pyrrhophyta) genome sizes (DNA content) are smallest among dinoflagellates. J. Phycol. 41, 880-886.
- S46. Shoguchi, E., Shinzato, C., Kawashima, T., Gyoja, F., Mungpakdee, S., Koyanagi, R., Takeuchi, T., Hisata, K., Tanaka, M., Fujiwara, M., et al. (2013). Draft assembly of the *Symbiodinium minutum* nuclear genome reveals dinoflagellate gene structure. Curr. Biol. 23, 1399-1408.
- S47. LaJeunesse, T.C. (2005). "Species" radiations of symbiotic dinoflagellates in the Atlantic and Indo-Pacific since the Miocene-Pliocene transition. Mol. Biol. Evol. 22, 570-581.
- S48. Thornhill, D.J., Kemp, D.W., Bruns, B.U., Fitt, W.K., and Schmidt, G.W. (2008). Correspondence between cold tolerance and temperate biogeography in a western Atlantic *Symbiodinium* (Dinophyta) lineage. J. Phycol. 44, 1126-1135.
- S49. Van Oppen, M.J., Mieog, J.C., Sanchez, C.A., and Fabricius, K.E. (2005). Diversity of algal endosymbionts (zooxanthellae) in octocorals: the roles of geography and host relationships. Mol. Ecol. *14*, 2403-2417.
- S50. Finney, J.C., Pettay, D.T., Sampayo, E.M., Warner, M.E., Oxenford, H.A., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2010). The relative significance of host-habitat, depth, and geography on the ecology, endemism, and speciation of coral endosymbionts in the genus *Symbiodinium*. Microb. Ecol. 60, 250-263.
- S51. Goulet, T.L., LaJeunesse, T.C., and Fabricius, K.E. (2008). Symbiont specificity and bleaching susceptibility among soft corals in the 1998 Great Barrier Reef mass coral bleaching event. Mar. Biol. *154*, 795-804.
- S52. LaJeunesse, T.C., Pettay, D.T., Sampayo, E.M., Phongsuwan, N., Brown, B., Obura, D.O., Hoegh-Guldberg, O., and Fitt, W.K. (2010). Long-standing environmental conditions, geographic isolation and host-symbiont specificity influence the relative ecological dominance and genetic diversification of coral endosymbionts in the genus *Symbiodinium*. J. Biogeogr. 37, 785-800.
- S53. Thornhill, D.J., Xiang, Y., Pettay, D.T., Zhong, M., and Santos, S.R. (2013). Population genetic data of a model symbiotic enidarian system reveal remarkable symbiotic specificity and vectored introductions across ocean basins. Mol. Ecol. 22, 4499-4515.
- S54. Wham, D.C., Carmichael, M., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2014). Microsatellite loci for *Symbiodinium goreaui* and other Clade C *Symbiodinium*. Conserv. Gen. Res. *6*, 127-129.
- S55. González-Pech, R.A., Ragan, M.A., and Chan, C.X. (2017). Signatures of adaptation and symbiosis in genomes and transcriptomes of *Symbiodinium*. Scientific Reports 7.
- S56. Hume, B.C., D'Angelo, C., Smith, E.G., Stevens, J.R., Burt, J., and Wiedenmann, J. (2015). *Symbiodinium thermophilum* sp. nov., a thermotolerant symbiotic alga prevalent in corals of the world's hottest sea, the Persian/Arabian Gulf. Sci. Rep. *5*, 8562.
- S57. Thornhill, D.J., Lewis, A.M., Wham, D.C., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2014). Host-specialist lineages dominate the adaptive radiation of reef coral endosymbionts. Evolution *68*, 352-367.
- S58. Lien, Y.T., Fukami, H., and Yamashita, Y. (2012). *Symbiodinium* clade C dominates zooxanthellate corals (Scleractinia) in the temperate region of Japan. Zoolog Sci 29, 173-180.
- S59. Macdonald, A.H.H., Sampayo, E.M., Ridgway, T., and Schleyer, M.H. (2008). Latitudinal symbiont zonation in *Stylophora pistillata* from southeast Africa. Mar. Biol. *154*, 209-217.
- S60. Iglesias-Prieto, R., Beltran, V.H., LaJeunesse, T.C., Reyes-Bonilla, H., and Thome, P.E. (2004). Different algal symbionts explain the vertical distribution of dominant reef corals in the Eastern Pacific. Proc. Proc. R. Soc. Lond., Ser. B: Biol. Sci. 271, 1757-1763.
- S61. Berkelmans, R., and van Oppen, M.J. (2006). The role of zooxanthellae in the thermal tolerance of corals: a 'nugget of hope' for coral reefs in an era of climate change. Proc. R. Soc. Lond., Ser. B: Biol. Sci. 273, 2305-2312.

- S62. Warner, M.E., LaJeunesse, T.C., Robison, J.D., and Thur, R.M. (2006). The ecological distribution and comparative photobiology of symbiotic dinoflagellates from reef corals in Belize: Potential implications for coral bleaching. Limnol. Oceanogr. *51*, 1887-1897.
- S63. Fitt, W.K., Gates, R.D., Hoegh-Guldberg, O., Bythell, J.C., Jatkar, A., Grottoli, A.G., Gomez, M., Fisher, P., LaJeunesse, T.C., Pantos, O., Iglesias-Prieto, R., Franklin, R., Rodrigues, D. J., Torregiani, L.J., van Woesik, J.M., and Lesser, M. P. (2009). Response of two species of Indo-Pacific corals, *Porites cylindrica* and *Stylophora pistillata*, to short-term thermal stress: The host does matter in determining the tolerance of corals to bleaching. J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol. 373, 102-110.
- S64. Abrego, D., Ulstrup, K.E., Willis, B.L., and van Oppen, M.J. (2008). Species-specific interactions between algal endosymbionts and coral hosts define their bleaching response to heat and light stress. Proc. R. Soc. Lond., Ser. B: Biol. Sci. 275, 2273-2282.
- S65. Krueger, T., and Gates, R.D. (2012). Cultivating endosymbionts host environmental mimics support the survival of *Symbiodinium* C15 *ex hospite*. J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol. *413*, 169-176.
- S66. McNaughton, S.J., and Wolf, L.L. (1970). Dominance and the niche in ecological systems. Science 167, 131-139.
- S67. Voris, H.K. (2000). Maps of Pleistocene sea levels in Southeas Asia: shorelines, river systems and time durations. J. Biogeogr. 27, 1153-1167.
- S68. Pettay, D.T., Wham, D.C., Smith, R.T., Iglesias-Prieto, R., and LaJeunesse, T.C. (2015). Microbial invasion of the Caribbean by an Indo-Pacific coral zooxanthella. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *112*, 7513-7518.
- S69. Jeong, H.J., Yoo, Y.D., Kang, N.S., Lim, A.S., Seong, K.A., Lee, S.Y., Lee, M.J., Lee, K.H., Kim, H.S., Shin, W., et al. (2013). Heterotrophic feeding as a newly identified survival strategy of the dinoflagellate *Symbiodinium*. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 12604–12609.
- S70. Chang, F. (1983). Winter phytoplankton and microzooplankton populations off the coast of Westland, New Zealand, 1979. N. Z. J. Mar. Freshwat. Res. *17*, 279-304.
- S71. Wolfowicz, I., Baumgarten, S., Voss, P.A., Hambleton, E.A., Voolstra, C.R., Hatta, M., and Guse, A. (2016). *Aiptasia* sp. larvae as a model to reveal mechanisms of symbiont selection in cnidarians. Sci. Rep. 6.
- S72. Lin, S., Cheng, S., Song, B., Zhong, X., Lin, X., Li, W., Li, L., Zhang, Y., Zhang, H., and Ji, Z. (2015). The Symbiodinium kawagutii genome illuminates dinoflagellate gene expression and coral symbiosis. Science 350, 691-694.
- S73. Pawlowski, J., Holzmann, M., Fahrni, J.F., Pochon, X., and Lee, J.J. (2001). Molecular identification of algal endosymbionts in large miliolid foraminifera: 2. Dinoflagellates. J. Eukaryot. Microbiol. *48*, 368-373.
- S74. LaJeunesse, T., Thornhill, D., Cox, E., Stanton, F., Fitt, W., and Schmidt, G. (2004). High diversity and host specificity observed among symbiotic dinoflagellates in reef coral communities from Hawaii. Coral Reefs.
- S75. Yuyama, I., Hayakawa, H., Endo, H., Iwao, K., Takeyama, H., Maruyama, T., and Watanabe, T. (2005). Identification of symbiotically expressed coral mRNAs using a model infection system. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 336, 793-798.
- S76. Pochon, X., Pawlowski, J., Zaninetti, L., and Rowan, R. (2001). High genetic diversity and relative specificity among *Symbiodinium*-like endosymbiotic dinoflagellates in soritid foraminiferans. Mar. Biol. *139*, 1069-1078.
- S77. Schönberg, C.H.L., and Loh, W.K.W. (2005). Molecular identity of the unique symbiotic dinoflagelates found in the bioeroding demosponge *Cliona orientalis*. Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser. *299*, 157-166.
- S78. Granados, C., Camargo, C., Zea, S., and Sanchez, J.A. (2008). Phylogenetic relationships among zooxanthellae (*Symbiodinium*) associated to excavating sponges (*Cliona* spp.) reveal an unexpected lineage in the Caribbean. Mol. Phylogenet. Evol. 49, 554-560.
- S79. Hill, M., Allenby, A., Ramsby, B., Schönberg, C., and Hill, A. (2011). Symbiodinium diversity among host clionaid sponges from Caribbean and Pacific reefs: Evidence of heteroplasmy and putative host-specific symbiont lineages. Mol. Phylogenet. Evol. 59, 81-88.
- S80. Bo, M., Baker, A.C., Gaino, E., Wirshing, H.H., Scoccia, F., and Bavestrello, G. (2011). First description of algal mutualistic endosymbiosis in a black coral (Anthozoa: Antipatharia). Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser. 435, 1-11.
- S81. Thomas, L., Kendrick, G.A., Kennington, W.J., Richards, Z.T., and Stat, M. (2014). Exploring Symbiodinium diversity and host specificity in Acropora corals from geographical extremes of Western Australia with 454 amplicon pyrosequencing. Mol. Ecol. 23, 3113-3126.

S82. Granados-Cifuentes, C., Neigel, J., Leberg, P., and Rodriguez-Lanetty, M. (2015). Genetic diversity of free-living *Symbiodinium* in the Caribbean: the importance of habitats and seasons. Coral Reefs 34, 927-939.

Data S1: Systematic Revision of the Family Symbiodiniaceae.

TAXONOMIC SUMMARY

Note: Guiry and Andersen [S23] cited ICN Article 40.6 (Melbourne Code; [S24]) to argue that Daugbjerg *et al.* [S25] inadvertently validated the generic name *Symbiodinium*. They also recognized that *Zooxanthella* was the earliest available name for these species, and they transferred validly published *Symbiodinium* species to *Zooxanthella*. Based on our phylogenetic analyses of partial *LSU* sequences that included these same species as well as other symbiotic dinoflagellates (Figure 4G), we recognized that *Zooxanthella* is restricted to the order Peridiniales, whereas the family Symbiodiniaceae is in the order Suessiales.

Description of the Family Symbiodiniaceae.

All Symbiodinaceae contain a type E eyespot adjacent to the sulcus groove of the motile cell (Figure 4B). Genera in the family Symbiodiniaceae possess several morphological, anatomical, and ecological features that distinguish them from other members of the order Suessiales (Figures 4B-F). The Symbiodiniaceae motile stage (mastigote) uniquely possesses only seven latitudinal series of amphiesmal vesicles (Figure 4C). A single pyrenoid that contains an internal matrix devoid of thylakoid membrane extensions also appears diagnostic of the Symbiodiniaceae (Figure 4D). The cell sizes of Symbiodiniaceae range from 6 to 12.5 µm in mean cell length and are among the smallest dinoflagellates (Figures 2A and 2B). Most lineages of the Symbiodiniaceae have the capacity to form endosymbioses with metazoan or protistan hosts (Figure 4F). During in hospite cell division, metabolically active coccoid cells reproduce mitotically and the motile stage is bypassed or significantly reduced (Figure 4E). These basic changes in life history traits probably explain in part the ability of these dinoflagellates to proliferate in host tissues. Symbiodiniaceae do not appear capable of forming recognizable dormant cysts (Figure 4A).

Descriptions of Genera in the Symbiodiniaceae.

Symbiodinium Gert Hansen & Daugbjerg 2009

- **Description.** Single cells of the coccoid phase spherical to broadly ellipsoidal. Mean coccoid cell sizes range from 8 to 10 µm. Nucleus contains ~ 78 to 98 condensed chromosomes. Phylogenetically basal genus (Figure 4A), includes species ecologies ranging from symbiotic to opportunistic or free-living. Globally distributed, most species regionally endemic. Constitutively release UV-adsorbing mycosporine-like amino acids when in culture [S26]. Many grow in culture media. Dinoflagellates whose partial sequences of *LSU* rDNA (containing the variable domains D1/D2) vary in nucleotide differences by no more than 5% from that of *S. microadriaticum* [KM972549] are defined as members of this genus.
- **Genus etymology.** From the Greek symbion meaning 'living together' and *dinos* meaning 'whirling.'

Type species. S. natans Gert Hansen & Daugbjerg

S. natans Gert Hansen & Daugbjerg 2009: 253.

- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella natans* (Gert Hansen & N.Daugbjerg) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 3.
- Circumscription: Note that this taxon's *ITS2* type lacks a specific alphanumeric designation.

Other species belonging to Symbiodinium: S. linucheae (Trench & Thinh) LaJeunesse, comb. nov.

- Basionym: *Gymnodinium linucheae* Trench & Thinh (1995) *European Journal of Phycology* 30: 150.
- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella linucheae* (Trench & Thinh) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 3.
- Circumscription: Here limited to type A4 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping as designated by LaJeunesse [S27]. The earlier transfer of *Gymnodinium linucheae* to *Symbiodinium* by LaJeunesse [S27] created an invalid name because *Symbiodinium* was invalid at that time.

S. microadriaticum LaJeunesse 2017: 1112.

- Homotypic synonym: Zooxanthella microadriatica (La-Jeunesse) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 3.
- Circumscription: Here limited to type A1 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from *cob* and *cp23S* rDNA genes as designated by Lee *et al.* [S3]. This species has been referred to in the literature by the binary designations 'Symbiodinium microadriaticum' Freudenthal, 'Gymnodinium microadriaticum' (Freudenthal) D.L.Taylor [S28], 'Zooxanthella microadriatica' (Freudenthal) A.R.Loeblich.& Sherley [S29], and 'Symbiodinium microadriaticum subsp. microadriaticum' R.J.Blank & V.Huss [S30], all invalid names.
- S. necroappetens LaJeunesse, S.Y.Lee, N.Knowlton & H.J.Jeong 2015: 226.
- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella necroappetens* (La-Jeunesse, S.Y.Lee, N.Knowlton & H.J.Jeong) Guiry & R.A. Andersen 2018: 3.
- Circumscription: Here limited to type A13 or A1.1 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from *cob* and *cp23S* rDNA genes as designated by LaJeunesse *et al.* [S4]. This taxon has been referred to in the literature by the invalid names 'Symbiodinium microadriaticum subsp. condylactis' or 'Symbiodinium cariborum' [S30, 31].
- S. pilosum Trench & R.J.Blank sp. nov.
- Holotype designated here: US Alg. Coll. # 223539 (Algal Collection of the National Herbarium, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC, USA), cells from culture CCMP 2461 (rt-185) chemically fixed (Dimethysulfoxide-EDTA-NaCl) and cryo-preserved.
- Description: *Symbiodinium* A2 as defined by *ITS* rDNA genotyping as designated by LaJeunesse [S27]. The mean maximum diameter of non-dividing coccoid cells in log-phase growth is $10.5 \pm 1.2 \mu$ m. Smaller motile (mastigote) cell stage ~ 7.5 microns. Defined by particular sequences of the *ITS1-5.8S-ITS2* (Genbank: AF333506), ribosomal large subunit (*LSU*; Genbank: KF740671), mitochondrial cytochrome b (mt *cob*; Genbank: KF206026), and chloroplast ribosomal large subunit gene (*cp23S*; Genbank: KF740694). Chromosomes number 78 ± 2. Surface of coccoid cells covered by tufts of hair-like projections arising from the cell wall. See additional information and images in Trench & Blank (1987), *Journal of Phycology*, vol. 23, pp. 479-480, Figs 5a-c, under the description of the effectively

- Etymology: Named for the pili covering the surface of metabolically active coccoid cells.
- Circumscription: This taxon has been referred to in the literature by the binary designations 'Symbiodinium corculorum' and 'Symbiodinium meandrinae' [S31], both invalid. It has been obtained through the culturing process numerous times and from different host sources, but has yet to be identified as a dominant presence in field collected specimens of Cnidaria, or any other potential host. None of the strains growing in culture are capable of colonizing and establishing stable symbioses with experimental cnidarian hosts [S27]. It appears to be a free-living non-symbiotic species.
- S. tridacnidorum S.Y.Lee, H.J.Jeong, N.S.Kang & La-Jeunesse 2015: 158.
- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella tridacnidora* (S.Y.Lee, H.J.Jeong, N.S.Kang & LaJeunesse) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 4.
- Circumscription: Here limited to types A3^{Pacific}, or A3*, or A3a, or A3x, or A6 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from *cob* and *cp23S* rDNA genes as designated by Lee *et al.* [S3]. Note that the *ITS2* A3 sequence is also found in the entity with the binary designation 'Symbiodinium fitti' (also referred to as A3^{Caribbean}), an invalid name.

Genus circumscription. The phylogenetically basal genus *Symbiodinium* (pronounced sim-bī-ō-dǐn'-ē-əm; corresponds to "Clade A" from tropical and subtropical regions) is represented by species found in a variety of shallow dwelling hosts in all ocean basins [S32]. Tentative estimates of species numbers based on sampling from diverse host communities suggest *Symbiodinium sensu stricto* diversity is highest in the Red Sea followed by the Caribbean Sea [S32].

Certain physiological attributes may also be generalizable to *Symbiodinium sensu stricto*. Most appear adapted for living in high light or variable light conditions. For example, they constitutively express UV adsorbing mycosporine-like amino acids (MAAs) [S26] while in culture, whereas expression of these compounds requires exogenous cues (e.g. UV, high irradiance) in other Symbiodiniaceae [S33]. Along with this, the depth-limited distributions reported for most *Symbiodinium* implies that many in the genus are adapted to high light, but the physiological basis may vary among its species [S34].

Most Symbiodinium are ecologically specialized, having evolved to associate with specific kinds of host taxa, and most appear to be regionally endemic. For several decades all cnidarian 'zooxanthellae' were presumed to belong to one species [S35], the invalid binary designation 'Symbiodinium microadriaticum' Freudenthal [also referred to as ITS2 type A1]. Symbiodinium microadriaticum LaJeunesse is now recognized as a host-specific symbiont of the jellyfish Cassiopea xamachana. Symbiodinium species are relatively rare in the Pacific and Indian Oceans where they form mutualisms with Tridacna (giant clams), Millepora (fire corals) and Cassiopea (jellies). Symbiodinium tridacnidorum [ITS2 type A3^{Pacific}] from the Pacific Ocean occurs often with giant clams (Tridacna) and jellyfish (genus Cassiopea) [S3]. Several genetically distinct lineages are mutualistic with Indo-Pacific fire corals (*Millepora*), but lack formal species binomials [S32].

Past research has inaccurately described "Clade A" (= Symbiodinium sensu stricto) as parasitic or non-

mutualistic [S36]. This confusion stems from a taxonomic problem, since these ecological traits pertain to just some species. For example, Symbiodinium necroappetens [ITS2 type A13], endemic to the Caribbean, is occasionally detected in bleached or diseased host tissues [S37, 38] and has arisen in culture from independent and repeated attempts to isolate the normal symbiont from healthy cnidarian tissues (e.g. anemones and gorgonians) [S4]. Thus, this species, which exhibits apparent ecological opportunism in animals suffering from stress, may occur at low background densities in a variety of Caribbean hosts [S4]. Although the full scope, or breadth, of its ecological niche is unknown, S. necroappetens can establish seemingly non-parasitic relationships with experimental Cassiopea (unpublished data), but, as indicated above, is probably of minor mutualistic importance in nature [S39].

Free-living species in Symbiodinium, including S. pilosum [ITS2 type A2] and S. natans [no ITS2 designation], have yet to be identified through comprehensive surveys of symbionts from whole communities of symbiotic cnidarians. Furthermore, both species are unable to colonize and proliferate inside experimental aposymbiotic anemones (Exaiptasia, formerly Aiptasia) and scyphozoan jellyfish (Cassiopea) [S27]. However, each has been cultured multiple times from environmental and animal sources obtained from geographically different locales, and thus appear to be environmentally common. Defining the ecological niche of these and other non-mutualistic species of Symbiodinium in particular, and additional members of the Symbiodiniaceae more broadly, may require the analysis of DNA obtained from temporallyvaried, spatially-explicit samplings of the water column, sediment, and host tissues, as well as from organized and regular culturing of these algae from various reef environments (e.g. [S40]).

Breviolum J.E.Parkinson & LaJeunesse, gen. nov.

- **Description.** Single cells of the coccoid phase spherical to broadly ellipsoidal. Mean cell sizes range from 6 to 10 μ m. Associated with cnidarian hosts, diversity high and ecologically abundant in Atlantic Ocean. Contains many cold-water adapted species common to hosts in high coastal latitudes. Many species grow in culture media. Dinoflagellates whose partial sequences of *LSU* rDNA (containing the variable domains D1/D2) vary in nucleotide differences by no more than 5% from that of type species *B. minutum* [KT149349] are defined as members of this genus.
- **Genus etymology.** From the Latin *brevis* meaning 'short' and the suffix *–ulum* meaning 'small one(s).'
- **Type species.** *B. minutum* (LaJeunesse, J.E.Parkinson & J.Reimer) J.E.Parkinson & LaJeunesse, *comb. nov.*
- *B. minutum* (LaJeunesse, J.E.Parkinson & J.D.Reimer) J.E.Parkinson & LaJeunesse, *comb. nov.*
- Basionym: Symbiodinium minutum LaJeunesse, J.E.Parkinson & J.D.Reimer (2012) Journal of Phycology 48: 1383.
- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella minuta* (LaJeunesse, J.E.Parkinson & J.D.Reimer) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 3.
- Circumscription: Here limited to type B1 or B1¹ organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from *cob*, *cp23S* rDNA, and *Sym15* genes as designated by LaJeunesse *et al.* [S6]. Nucleus contains ~ 18

condensed chromosomes. This taxon was previously referred to by the invalid binary designation 'Symbiodinium pulchrorum' [S31]. Note that the *ITS2* B1 sequence is also found in other species including *B. antillogorgium* and *B. pseudominutum*.

Other species belonging to Breviolum:

B. aenigmaticum (J.E.Parkinson, Coffroth & LaJeunesse) J.E.Parkinson & LaJeunesse, comb. nov.

- Basionym: *Symbiodinium aenigmaticum* J.E.Parkinson, Coffroth & LaJeunesse (2015) *Journal of Phycology* 51: 852.
- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella aenigmatica* (J.E.Parkinson, Coffroth & LaJeunesse) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 2.
- Circumscription: Here limited to organisms defined by sequences from *cob*, *cp23S* rDNA, *LSU* rDNA, and *Sym15* genes as designated by Parkinson *et al.* [S5]. This taxon lacks an *ITS2* alphanumeric designation.
- B. antillogorgium (J.E.Parkinson, Coffroth & LaJeunesse) J.E.Parkinson & LaJeunesse, comb. nov.
- Basionym: *Symbiodinium antillogorgium* J.E.Parkinson, Coffroth & LaJeunesse (2015) *Journal of Phycology* 51: 852.
- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella antillogorgia* (J.E.Parkinson, Coffroth & LaJeunesse) Guiry & R.A. Andersen 2018: 2.
- Circumscription: Here limited to type B1 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from *cob*, *cp23S* rDNA, *LSU* rDNA, and *Sym15* genes as designated by Parkinson *et al.* [S5]. Note that the *ITS2* B1 sequence is also found in other species including *B. minutum* and *B. pseudominutum*.
- B. endomadracis (J.E.Parkinson, Coffroth & LaJeunesse) J.E.Parkinson & LaJeunesse, comb. nov.
- Basionym: *Symbiodinium endomadracis* J.E.Parkinson, Coffroth & LaJeunesse (2015) *Journal of Phycology* 51: 853.
- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella endomadracis* (J.E.Parkinson, Coffroth & LaJeunesse) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 3.
- Circumscription: Here limited to type B7 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from *cob*, *cp23S* rDNA, *LSU* rDNA, and *Sym15* genes as designated by Parkinson *et al.* [S5].
- B. pseudominutum (J.E.Parkinson, Coffroth & LaJeunesse) J.E.Parkinson & LaJeunesse, comb. nov.
- Basionym: *Symbiodinium pseudominutum* J.E.Parkinson, Coffroth & LaJeunesse (2015) *Journal of Phycology* 51: 854.

Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella pseudominuta* (J.E.Parkinson, Coffroth & LaJeunesse) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 3.

- Circumscription: Here limited to type B1 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from *cob*, *cp23S* rDNA, *LSU* rDNA, and *Sym15* genes as designated by Parkinson *et al.* [S5]. Note that the *ITS2* B1 sequence is also found in other species including *B. antillogorgium* and *B. minutum*. This taxon was also referred to by the invalid binary designation 'Symbiodinium bermudense' in an earlier paper [S31].
- *B. psygmophilum* (LaJeunesse, J.E.Parkinson & J.D.Reimer) J.E.Parkinson & LaJeunesse, *comb. nov.*
- Basionym: Symbiodinium psygmophilum LaJeunesse, J.E.Parkinson & J.D.Reimer (2012) Journal of Phycology 48: 1383.

- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella psygmophila* (LaJeunesse, J.E.Parkinson & J.D.Reimer) Guiry & R.A.Andersen
- Circumscription: Here limited to type B2 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from *cob*, *cp23S* rDNA, and *Sym15* genes as designated by LaJeunesse *et al.* [S6].

Genus circumscription. Based on available genetic and ecological evidence, the genus *Breviolum* (pronounced brĕ-vi-ō'-ləm; corresponds to "Clade B") may contain more than 40 mostly undescribed species, including endosymbionts typical of many host taxa of the Greater Caribbean [S5, 41, 42]. While extremely rare throughout the Indo-Pacific, several species are regionally endemic and found in particular host species living in high latitude coastal habitats around Australia [S43] and the north Atlantic Ocean [S44]. The genus includes species that are among the smallest in the family Symbiodiniaceae (Figure 2A), which also possess some of the smallest genome sizes [S45, 46].

Genus *Breviolum* is phylogenetically divisible into two major groupings, provisionally termed the "Pliocene" (or "B19") and "Pleistocene" (or "B1") radiations [S47]. The "B19" Pliocene radiation is phylogenetically basal (ancestral) and contains many genetically well-defined lineages, many of which associate with host taxa from high latitudes in the southern Indo-Pacific (Australia), northeastern Pacific (California to Washington state), and Atlantic Oceans (including the Mediterranean). High latitude *Breviolum* are probably cold water adapted and most are taxonomically undescribed [S48]. Some from this group dwell in the tropics and occur in specific host species found at depths ranging from 5-30 m [S5, 6].

The second phylogenetic grouping (the "B1" Pleistocene radiation) comprises numerous closely related species lineages that adaptively radiated during the recent Pleistocene epoch. This group dominates shallow water cnidarian communities, including many scleractinians (stony corals) and gorgonians (sea fans and sea rods), from the western tropical and subtropical Atlantic Ocean [S41, 49, 50]. There is at least one Pacific warm water species from this group that associates with the soft coral genus Nephthea [S51]. Breviolum minutum [ITS2 type B1] is the only member of the genus previously observed in the eastern and western Indian Ocean [S52]. Its occurrence in this region corresponds to the distribution of the invasive sea anemone *Exaiptasia pallida* [S53], and thus B. minutum's presence in the Indian and Pacific Ocean basins is a consequence of the host's introduction across these regions. Two species, B. aenigmaticum [no ITS2 designation] and B. pseudominutum [also ITS2 type B1] from the Greater Caribbean, known only from culture, have yet to be detected in host samples, but appear able to colonize experimental Exaiptasia pallida and Cassiopeia xamachana under controlled conditions (unpublished data); at present they are considered free-living.

Cladocopium LaJeunesse & H.J.Jeong, gen. nov.

Description. Single cells of the coccoid phase spherical to broadly ellipsoidal. Mean coccoid cell sizes range from 9 to 11 μm. Thecate motile cells lack EAV (=acrobase) suture (Figure 2C). Nucleus contains ~ 74 condensed chromosomes. Genome size is largest (~ 5 GB) relative to other Symbiodiniaceae and appears to have undergone a duplication event prior to the radia-

tion of this genus [S54]. Genome contains the highest number of gene families in the Symbiodiniaceae [S55]. Associates with a broad range of hosts, including corals and other cnidarians, clams, ciliates, flatworms, foraminifera, and sponges. Physiologically diverse, adapted to a wide range of temperatures and irradiance levels [e.g. S56]. Most are host-specialized, but some are ecologically abundant host-generalists [S57]. Dinoflagellates whose partial sequences of *LSU* rDNA (containing the variable domains D1/D2) vary in nucleotide differences by no more than 5% from that of type species *C. goreaui* [FJ529545] are defined as members of this genus.

- Genus etymology. From the Latin word *clado* meaning 'branch', 'twig' or 'stem' and *copia* meaning 'plenty' or 'many.'
- Type species. C. goreaui LaJeunesse & H.J.Jeong sp. nov.
- C. goreaui LaJeunesse & H.J.Jeong sp. nov.
- Holotype designated here: US 223457 (Algal Collection of the National Herbarium, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC, USA), cells from culture CCMP 2466 (rt-152) chemically fixed (Dimethysulfoxide-EDTA-NaCl) and cryo-preserved.
- Description: Symbiodinium C1 as defined by ITS rDNA genotyping [S27]. Mean maximum diameter of nondividing coccoid cells in log-phase growth is 10.8 ± 0.9 µm. Smaller motile (mastigote) cell stage ~7 microns. Species defined by sequences of the ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 (Genbank: AF333515), ribosomal large subunit (LSU; Genbank: FJ529523), mitochondrial cytochrome b (mt cob; Genbank: KF206028), chloroplast ribosomal large subunit gene (cp23S; Genbank: FJ529545), and the psbA (D1 protein of photosystem II) mini circle noncoding region (psbAncr; Genbank: JQ043677). Chromosome number 74 ± 2. See additional information and images in Trench and Blank (1987), Journal of Phycology, vol. 23, p. 479, Figs 3a-f, under the description of the effectively published, but invalid, binary designation 'Symbiodinium goreaui.'
- Etymology: Named in honor of Thomas Fritz Goreau, a pioneer in the study of reef coral physiology and ecology.
- Circumscription: Here limited to type C1 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping. Note that the *ITS2* C1 sequence is also found in numerous other undescribed species [S57]. This particular species is common to zooanthids, anemones, corallimorphs and some scleractinians from the Atlantic Ocean and appears to also occur in the Pacific Ocean [S57].

Genus circumscription. The genus *Cladocopium* (pronounced klā-də-kō'-pē-əm; corresponds to "Clade C") surpasses the combined membership of all other Symbiodiniaceae in terms of diversity, ecological dominance, and geographical prevalence. While only one valid species and one invalid species are currently listed for this genus, hundreds await formal description [S57]. There exists a multitude of host-specialized species along with a small number of host-generalists. Few species are known to grow in culture. The ecological niches occupied by the combined membership of this genus are far-reaching and include hosts comprising many anthozoans (Cnidaria), giant clams (Mollusca: Bivalvia), foraminifera, ciliates, sponges (Porifera: Clionaidae), and flatworms (Platyhelminthes: Convolutidae) (Figure 4F). Moreover, they are symbiotic with hosts across depths ranging from the intertidal zone to the mesophotic zone. They occur in hosts living in warm waters along the equator [S52] as well as in high latitudes [S58, 59]. *Cladocopium* is noticeably absent from mutualisms with symbiotic cnidarians in temperate latitudes of the Atlantic Ocean and Mediterranean Sea.

Given such broad ecological distributions, the physiological variation among Cladocopium species must be extensive. Researchers have recognized high- and lowlight adapted species [S60], as well as ones that are thermally sensitive and thermally tolerant [S56, 61-64]. However, relatively few physiological studies of these organisms exist because members of this genus are difficult to culture [S65], implying a high degree of hostspecialization and coevolution. Cladocopium appears to have diversified to present species levels during adaptive radiations during the middle to late Miocene (~7-15 Ma) as ocean temperatures cooled precipitously [S57]. Many species in this group may be the most susceptible to a "bust" (e.g. mass extinctions) as mean temperatures rise and annual ranges become more variable-conditions that favor physiological generalists over specialistsunder current global climate change scenarios [S66].

Durusdinium LaJeunesse gen. nov.

- **Description.** Single cells of the coccoid phase spherical to broadly ellipsoidal. Mean coccoid cell sizes range from 9 to 10.5 μ m. Nucleus contains ~ 60 condensed chromosomes. Extremophile symbionts, found primarily in host cnidarians, in shallow marine habitats with large fluctuations in temperature and turbidity. Diversity and ecological prevalence centered in the Indo-West Pacific. Mutualisms with hosts generally resistant to disassociation ("coral bleaching"). No known species native to the Atlantic Ocean, though at least one has been introduced to the region. Dinoflagellates whose partial sequences of *LSU* rDNA (containing the variable domains D1/D2) vary in nucleotide differences by no more than 5% from that of type species *D. trenchili* [KF740689] are defined as members of this genus.
- **Genus etymology.** From the Latin word *durus* meaning 'hard' or 'tough' and *dinos* meaning 'whirling.'
- Type species. Durusdinium trenchii (LaJeunesse) La-Jeunesse, comb. nov.

D. trenchii (LaJeunesse) LaJeunesse, comb. nov.

Basionym: Symbiodinium trenchii LaJeunesse (2014) Phycologia 53: 311.

- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella trenchii* (LaJeunesse) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 4.
- Circumscription: Here limited to type D1a (or D1-4) organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from *cob*, *cp23S* rDNA, *D1Sym88*, *D1Sym93*, and *LSU* rDNA genes as designated by LaJeunesse *et al.* [S7].

Other species belonging to Durusdinium:

- D. boreum (LaJeunesse & C.A.Chen) LaJeunesse, comb. nov.
- Basionym: *Symbiodinium boreum* LaJeunesse & C.A.Chen (2014) *Phycologia* 53: 311.
- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella borea* (LaJeunesse & C.A.Chen) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 3.
- Circumscription: Here limited to type D15 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from

cob, cp23S rDNA, *D1Sym88, D1Sym93,* and *LSU* rDNA genes as designated by LaJeunesse *et al.* [S7].

- D. eurythalpos (LaJeunesse & C.A.Chen) LaJeunesse, comb. nov.
- Basionym: Symbiodinium eurythalpos LaJeunesse, & C.A.Chen (2014) Phycologia 53: 311.
- Homotypic synonym: Zooxanthella eurythalpos (LaJeunesse, Wham, Pettay, J.E.Parkinson, Keshavmurthy & C.A.Chen) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 3.
- Circumscription: Here limited to type D8, or D12-13, or D13 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from *cob*, *cp23S* rDNA, *D1Sym88*, *D1Sym93*, and *LSU* rDNA genes as designated by LaJeunesse *et al.* [S7].
- D. glynnii (Wham & LaJeunesse) LaJeunesse, comb. nov.
- Basionym: *Symbiodinium glynnii* Wham & LaJeunesse (2014) *Phycologia* 56: 400.
- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella glynnii* (Wham & La-Jeunesse) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 3.
- Circumscription: Here limited to type D1 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from *cob*, *cp23S* rDNA, *LSU* rDNA, and *psbA* genes as designated by Wham *et al.* [S8].

Genus circumscription. The genus *Durusdinium* (pronounced dū-rŭs-dĭ'-nē-əm; corresponds to "Clade D") are typically found in symbiosis with animals living under stressful environmental conditions involving large diurnal or seasonal shifts in temperature and/or broad fluctuations in water turbidity [S7]. Field observations and experimental manipulations show that corals harboring these symbionts can tolerate stressful environments, and such partnerships are resistant to disassociation (i.e. "coral bleaching"). Thus, *Durusdinium* is perceived as an extremophile genus whose species likely share adaptations that allow them to endure environments that would otherwise be stressful for most other Symbiodiniaceae.

Durusdinium appears to have undergone a recent (Pleistocene) adaptive radiation centered in the Indo-West Pacific [S52]. The phylogenetic diversity of this group is centered in Southeast Asia-Indonesia, a region historically affected by large and frequent oscillations in sea level that began in the Pleistocene [S67]. Most Durusdinium species exhibit high specificity for particular host species or genera [S7, 8]. However, Durusdinium trenchii [ITS2 type D1a or D1-4] is a geographically widespread host-generalist capable of associating with a broad diversity of scleractinians with open modes of symbiont acquisition (i.e. horizontal symbiont transfer), as well as certain kinds of zoantharians (e.g. Palythoa) and Corallimorpharia. It is also prevalent in the northwestern tropical Atlantic Ocean and arrived there in recent decades, most likely from human-vectored introductions [S68].

Effrenium LaJeunesse & H.J.Jeong, gen. nov.

Description. Single cells of the coccoid phase spherical to broadly ellipsoidal. Mean coccoid cell length ranges from 12.5 to 13.0 μm. Motile cells gymnodinioid, motility in culture maintained during the dark cycle [S9]. Nucleus contains ~ 74 condensed chromosomes. Possesses prominent tubule peduncle to graze on bacteria and other unicellular eukaryotes [S69]. Non-symbiotic, may form planktonic blooms. Dinoflagellates whose partial sequences of *LSU* rDNA (containing the variable do-

mains D1/D2) vary in nucleotide differences by no more than 5% from that of type species *E. voratum* [KF364603] are defined as members of this genus.

- **Genus etymology.** From the Latin *effrenus* meaning '(living) free from bridle, unrestrained.'
- Type species. E. voratum (H.J.Jeong, S.Y.Lee, N.S.Kang & LaJeunesse) LaJeunesse & H.J.Jeong comb. nov.
- *E. voratum* (H.J.Jeong, S.Y.Lee, N.S.Kang & LaJeunesse) LaJeunesse & H.J.Jeong *comb. nov.*
- Basionym: Symbiodinium voratum H.J.Jeong, S.Y.Lee, N.S.Kang & LaJeunesse (2014) Journal of Eukaryotic Microbiology 61: 82.
- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella vorata* (H.J.Jeong, S.Y.Lee, N.S.Kang & LaJeunesse) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 4.
- Circumscription: Here limited to type E1 organisms as defined by *ITS2* rDNA genotyping and sequences from *cob*, *cp23S* rDNA, *LSU* rDNA, and small subunit (*SSU*) rDNA genes as designated by Jeong *et al.* [S9]. This taxon was previously referred to by the invalid binary designation 'Symbiodinium californium' and was misidentified as *Gymnodinium varians* [S31, 70].

Genus circumscription. The genus *Effrenium* (pronounced ě-frě'-nē-əm; corresponds to "Clade E") may comprise just a single geographically widespread species, *E. voratum* [*ITS2* type E1]. *Effrenium voratum* has been cultured from temperate latitudes of the western Pacific (China, Korea, Japan), southwest Pacific (New Zealand), northeastern Pacific (California, USA), eastern Atlantic (Massachusetts, USA), and Mediterranean Sea (Spain). It is common in temperate environments where mean summer highs and winter lows range between 15– 26°C. Along with *Symbiodinium sensu stricto*, this genus is phylogenetically basal (Figure 4A).

Examining cultures of E. voratum, Jeong et al. [S69] showed that it uses the peduncle to graze bacteria as well as prey on other single-celled eukaryotes. Cultured cells are comparatively large (mean lengths 12 - 14 µm; Figure 2A) with high motility in light (~80 %), and although they remain motile throughout the dark phase of a diurnal cycle, proportions of swimming cells are lower (~20%) [S9]. Collections of *Effrenium* from the Pearl River, China, indicate that E. voratum is likely capable of forming blooms under certain circumstances [S9]. Along with its ubiquity in the water column and on macrophytic algal surfaces, the species may occur transiently in the tissues of symbiotic cnidarians at low background densities [S39]. The recognition that E. voratum is non-symbiotic and free-living is further validated by failed attempts to experimentally colonize aposymbiotic cnidarian hosts under controlled experimental conditions [S9, 71]. It also has the largest cell volume among the Symbiodiniaceae.

Fugacium LaJeunesse gen. nov.

Description. Single cells of the coccoid phase spherical to broadly ellipsoidal. Mean coccoid cell length ranges from 8.0 to 9.0 μ m. Nucleus contains ~ 26 condensed chromosomes. Symbionts of foraminifera, also free-living and non-symbiotic species. Dinoflagellates whose partial sequences of *LSU* rDNA (containing the variable domains D1/D2) vary in nucleotide differences by no more than 5% from that of type species *F. ka*-

wagutii [AF427462] are defined as members of this genus.

Genus etymology. From the Latin word *fugacis* meaning 'fleeting' or 'ephemeral.'

Type species. F. kawagutii LaJeunesse sp. nov.

F. kawagutii LaJeunesse sp. nov.

- Holotype designated here: US Alg. Coll. # 223538 (Algal Collection of the National Herbarium, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC, USA), cells from culture CCMP 2468 (rt-135) chemically fixed (Dimethysulfoxide-EDTA-NaCl) and cryo-preserved.
- Description: *Symbiodinium* F1 as defined by *ITS* rDNA genotyping as designated by LaJeunesse [S27]. Mean maximum diameter of non-dividing coccoid cells in logphase growth is 8.7 ± 0.6 μm. Smaller motile (mastigote) cell stage ~5 microns. Defined by sequences of the *ITS1-5.8S-ITS2* (Genbank: AF333517), ribosomal large subunit (*LSU*; Genbank: AF427462), mitochondrial cytochrome b (mt *cob*; Genbank: KF206029), and chloroplast ribosomal large subunit gene (*cp23S*; Genbank: KF740700). Chromosomes number 26. See additional information and images in Trench and Blank (1987), *Journal of Phycology*, vol. 23, p. 479 Figs. 4a-b, under the description of the effectively published, but invalid, binary designation 'Symbiodinium kawagutii.'
- Etymology: Named in honor of Siro Kawaguti, a pioneer in the study of reef coral physiology and ecology.
- Circumscription: The strain (CCMP 2468) has had its genome sequenced [S72]. It appears incapable of colonizing and establishing a stable symbiosis with experimental cnidarian hosts (T.C. LaJeunesse personal observation).

Genus circumscription. The genus Fugacium (pronounced fū-gă'-sē-əm; corresponds to the Fr5 lineage within "Clade F") is a divergent dinoflagellate group first reported by Pawlowski et al. [S73]. Isolates of members of this genus (one described species and several undescribed) have originated from culturing attempts from various reef corals, but are unrelated to the numerically dominant and temporally stable symbionts found in those source host tissues. This is exemplified by the type species of the genus, F. kawagutii [ITS2 type F1], which was isolated from the Hawaiian scleractinian Montipora capitata (= verrucosa), but is not detected in this animal in abundances that would indicate its functional importance [S74]. Other members of Fugacium have been also unintentionally cultured from Meandrina meandrites and Orbicella (= Montastraea) in the Greater Caribbean and Acropora from the Great Barrier Reef, Australia [S41], but do not occur as abundant symbionts in field-collected samples of these corals.

Members of this group appear incapable of forming mutualistic symbioses with animal hosts because attempts to experimentally colonize aposymbiotic cnidarians with cultured *Fugacium* have failed [S75]. Thus their existence with cnidarians is likely to be at low-abundance and highly transitory. Other members of this genus have been recovered from field–collected foraminifera and possess *LSU* rDNA sequences that distinguish them as species separate from *F. kawagutii* [S76]. Lastly, this genus does not include other major "Clade F" lineages primarily associated with foraminifera, such as Fr2, Fr3, and Fr4 [S73]. These groups should be considered separate and as yet undescribed genera unto themselves.

Gerakladium LaJeunesse gen. nov.

- **Description.** Single cells of the coccoid phase spherical to broadly ellipsoidal. Mean coccoid cell length ranges from 8.0 to 8.5 μ m. Mutualistic with excavating sponges (Clionaidae) in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, shallow Indo-west Pacific black corals (Antipatharia), extremely rare in colonies of stony corals (Scleractinia). Low abundance background cells in some cnidarians and free-living in water column. Dinoflagellates whose partial sequences of *LSU* rDNA (containing the variable domains D1/D2) vary in nucleotide differences by no more than 5% from that of type species *G. endoclionum* [MF322789] are defined as members of this genus.
- Genus etymology. From the Greek geras meaning 'old aged' and klados meaning 'branch.'

Type species. *G. endoclionum* (Ramsby & LaJeunesse) LaJeunesse *comb. nov.*

G. endoclionum (Ramsby & LaJeunesse) LaJeunesse comb. nov.

Basionym: Symbiodinium endoclionum Ramsby & La-Jeunesse (2017) Journal of Phycology 53: 951-960.

- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella endocliona* (Ramsby & LaJeunesse) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 3.
- Circumscription: Here limited to organisms defined by sequences from *cob*, *cp23S* rDNA, *LSU* rDNA, and *psbA* genes as designated by Ramsby *et al.* [S10]. Note that this taxon's *ITS2* type lacks a specific alphanumeric designation.

Other species belonging to Gerakladium:

- G. spongiolum (M.S.Hill & LaJeunesse) LaJeunesse comb. nov.
- Basionym: Symbiodinium spongiolum M.S.Hill & LaJeunesse (2017) Journal of Phycology 53: 951-960.
- Homotypic synonym: *Zooxanthella spongiola* (M.S.Hill & LaJeunesse) Guiry & R.A.Andersen 2018: 3.
- Circumscription: Here limited to organisms defined by sequences from *cob*, *cp23S* rDNA, *LSU* rDNA, and *psbA* genes as designated by Ramsby *et al.* [S10]. Note that this taxon's *ITS2* type lacks a specific alphanumeric designation.

Genus circumscription. The genus *Gerakladium* (pronounced gě-rə-klā'-dē-əm) corresponds to one of two sub-clades comprising "Clade G," the one whose species associate with metazoans. Ecological rarity and lack of cultured isolates for detailed study has meant that little biological data are available for this particular genus. From what is known, some *Gerakladium* species appear specialized to atypical host taxa including species of the excavating sponge in the family Clionaidae in the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans [S77-79].

Exceedingly few cnidarians are known to harbor *Gerakladium* at densities sufficient to provide nutrients for a functional mutualism. Notable exceptions are the Indo-Pacific black coral *Cirrhipathes* sp. from Indonesia [S80] and the soft coral *Capnella* sp. from Honshu Island, Japan [S10]. *Gerakladium* have been detected occasionally as a co-dominant entity among intertidal colonies of *Coeloseris* (Scleractinia) from Thailand [S52] and found at low-abundance background levels in several unrelated and non-symbiotic species of Alcyonacea on the Great Barrier Reef [S49], deep dwelling (> 70 m) colonies of *Madracis asanoi* from Palau [S79], and also at low abundances in some corals from western Australia [S81].

Surveys examining the distribution of free-living Symbiodiniaceae have detected "Clade G" in the water column, coral rubble and sediment [S40, 82], and on the surfaces of turtle grass blades [S82]. However it is uncertain whether these correspond to *Gerakladium*, the Foraminifera lineage of Clade G (Figure 4A), and/or possibly another distinct group.

REFERENCES

The bibliography for the Taxonomic Summary can be found in the Supplemental References section of the Supplemental Information file.