

Transcription-dependent DNA supercoils determine the 3D organization of dinoflagellate genomes

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Abstract

Dinoflagellate chromosomes represent a unique evolutionary experiment within eukaryotes. Their chromosomes exist in a permanently condensed, liquid crystalline state, and are not packaged by nucleosomal histones but by proteins of viral and bacterial origin. Genes are organized into polycistronic arrays, and transcriptional regulation is thought to be largely absent. The physical organization of these chromosomes has long remained a mystery. Here, we analyze the 3D genome of *Breviolum minutum*, a coral symbiont dinoflagellate. We find that the genome partitions into large topologically associating domains, not associated with chromatin loops. Domain boundaries instead correspond to transitions between convergent gene arrays. Importantly, transcriptional inhibition degrades these domains. These results point to transcription-induced supercoiling as a primary topological force in dinoflagellates and torsional stress as a fundamental such force shaping the physical genome in all organisms.

The three dimensional organization of genomes and its functional consequences have attracted much attention in recent years, especially in mammalian systems. These studies have by now identified multiple physical mechanisms underlying genome folding (2). Two main topological forces are currently thought to drive 3D organization. Associations between similar chromatin states drive the formation of compartments, and this mechanism is probably present in most eukaryotes (2). Better known (and more prominent in mammalian genomes) are the constraints on cohesin-mediated loop extrusion (3), imposed by pairs of boundary elements specified by occupancy sites of the CTCF insulation factor. They drive the formation of topologically associating loop extrusion domains (TADs), approximately 100-1000 kbp in size (3).

Three-dimensional genome architecture has been proposed to have multiple important functional consequences for gene regulation (4, 5), organismal development (6), replication (7), mutational processes (8), and others. How-

ever, how functional activity in turn impacts genome organization is still poorly understood. There has also been relatively little exploration of how these biophysical properties vary across eukaryotes even though several groups exhibit major deviations from conventional eukaryotic norms, thus presenting natural experiments that can potentially reveal deeper underlying principles of genome organization that are masked in other lineages.

Dinoflagellates are the most radical such departure. They are a diverse, widespread lineage of eukaryotes that play major roles in aquatic ecosystems. As an example, the association of dinoflagellates in the Symbiodiniaceae clade (9) with reef-building coral species provides the metabolic basis for vital and highly biologically diverse reef ecosystems. They are also a unique lineage possessing numerous highly divergent molecular features (10). Nucleosomal packaging of chromatin evolved in archaea and developed into its present form prior to the time of the Last Eukaryotic Common Ancestor (LECA) (11). All living eukaryotes an-

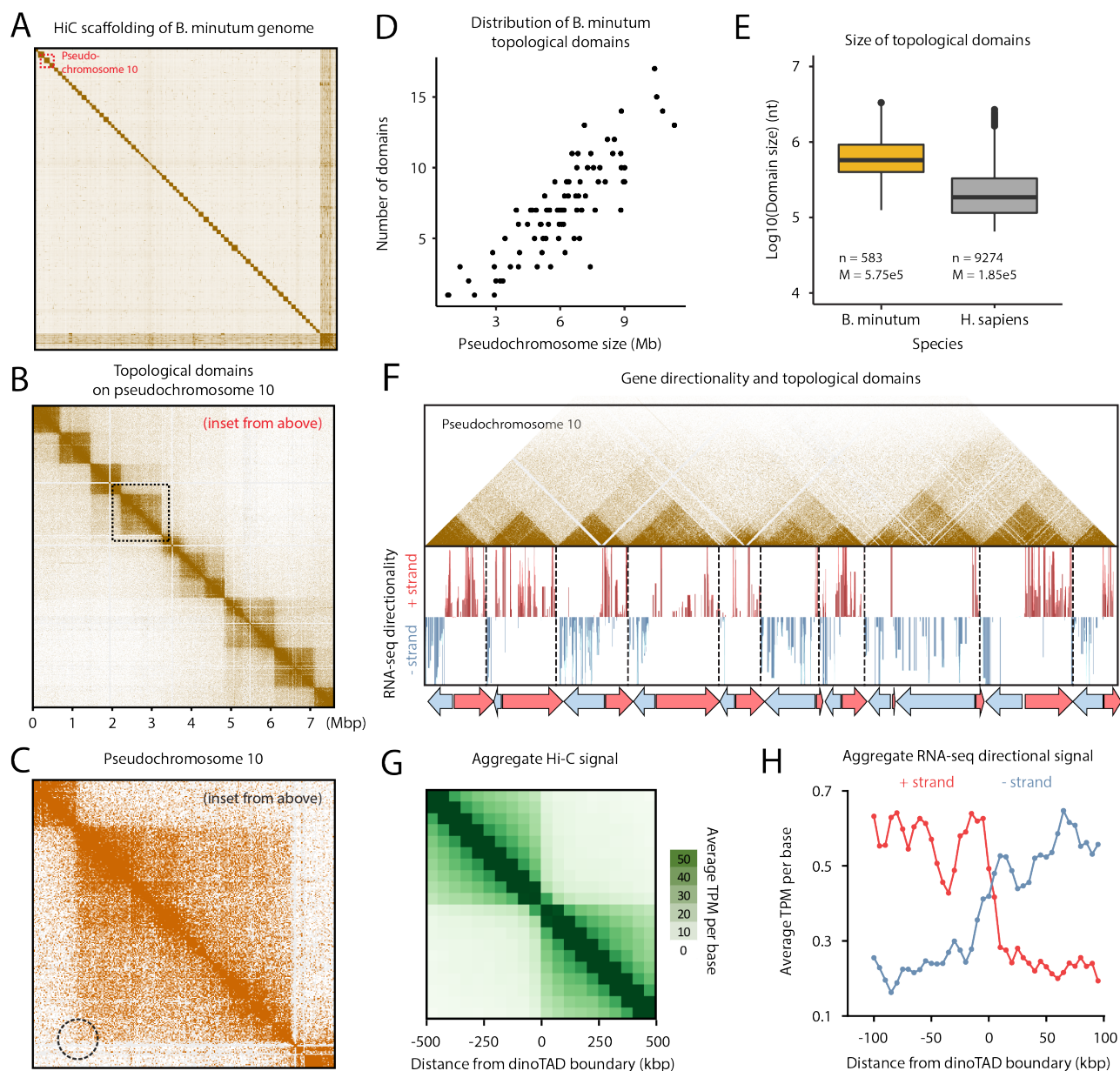


Figure 1: *B. minutum* genome is physically partitioned into topological domains defined by polycistronic gene arrays. (A-C) Organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes. (A) Hi-C scaffolding of the *B. minutum* draft genome assembly identifies 91 major pseudochromosomes ≥ 500 kb in size. (B) Inset from (A). KR-normalized (1) 5-kb resolution Hi-C map for pseudochromosome 10. Pseudochromosomes are physically partitioned into strong topological domains (“dinoTADs”). (C) Focus on a single topological domain, inset from (D). The usual signs of loop extrusion domains (presence of loops and stripes in Hi-C maps) are not observed in dinoTADs. (D) The number of dinoTADs per chromosome scales with chromosome size. (E) Comparison of *H. sapiens* (grey) and *B. minutum* (yellow) topological domain sizes. (F-H) Boundaries of dinoTADs are primarily associated with transitions between convergent polycistronic gene arrays. (F) Shown is the Hi-C map for pseudochromosome 10 together with transcript levels on the forward and the reverse strands. (G) Average Hi-C contacts across dinoTAD boundaries. (H) Average forward- and reverse-strand RNA-seq contacts across dinoTAD boundaries.

centrally possess four core nucleosomal histones (H2A, H2B, H3 and H4), each featuring long unstructured N-terminal tails. These tails, as well as a few residues in the histone fold domain, are subject to extensive posttranslational modifica-

tions, serving as recruitment platforms for effector domain-containing proteins thus forming the basis of the so called “histone code” (12) and playing important roles in essentially all biochemical processes involving chromatin. The

code’s fundamental importance is strongly underscored by the fact that key histone code residues are almost invariant across eukaryotes (13).

Dinoflagellates are the sole known exception. Their chromosomes exist in a liquid crystalline state, are permanently condensed throughout the cell cycle, and are characterized by a very low DNA to protein ratio of 1:10 (compared to the usual 1:1 (14)). This is because, even though histone genes (although highly divergent) are retained in dinoflagellate genomes (15), a combination of virus-derived dinoflagellate-specific nucleoproteins (DVNPs) and bacterial-derived histone-like proteins (HLPs) have taken over as the main DNA packaging components (16, 17).

The functional organization of dinoflagellate genomes is also unusual, though not without some parallels (18), as genes are organized into polycistronic gene arrays transcribed as a single unit, with individual mRNAs generated through *trans*-splicing; it is generally thought that transcriptional regulation is largely absent. In addition, despite being relatively small unicellular organisms, their genomes are often very large in size (up to two orders of magnitude larger than mammalian genomes).

These fascinating features of dinoflagellate nuclei simultaneously present numerous intriguing questions regarding the adaptation of the conventional eukaryotic gene regulation mechanisms to the general absence of nucleosomal chromatin, and also provide an opportunity to explore the biophysical forces underlying genomic organization in the context of such an exceptional natural experiment.

Here, we chart the 3D genome of the coral symbiont *Breviolum minutum* (previously *Symbiodinium minutum*), and uncover a novel mechanism for its organization.

We first generated three genome-wide chromosome conformation capture (Hi-C) libraries for the *B. minutum* SSB01 strain using a slight modification of the standard *in situ* Hi-C protocol (3), including one under elevated temperature conditions. We obtained between ~ 150 and 220 million distinct Hi-C contacts from each library (Supplementary Table 1). We pooled reads from all samples and processed them against the existing, highly fragmented *B. minutum* assembly (19), then used the resulting Hi-C maps to generate a chromosome-level assembly scaffolding using established methods (20) (see Supplementary Methods for details). The resulting assembly consists of 91 major pseudochromosomes ≥ 500 kbp in size, encompassing $\sim 94\%$ of the total sequence, with 85 of them ≥ 1 Mbp (Figure 1A, B and Supplementary Figure 1 A). The longest major pseudochromosomes are ~ 11 Mbp in size, with a median length of 6.7 Mbp (Supplementary Figure 1A). At 1-Mbp resolution, they exhibit a bipartite (on a few occasions tripartite) structure, with two major interacting domains (Supplementary Figure 2).

This assembly likely underestimates the total genome size, as the original set of contigs clearly contains a number of collapsed repeats, a common feature of Hi-C-based genome assemblies (Figure 1A, lower right). We note that

our assembly disagrees with published reports, which suggest ~ 20 chromosomes based on microscopy images (19). Nonetheless, Hi-C analysis strongly suggests the physical separation of a larger number of pseudochromosomes in the nucleus, as does the recent chromosome-level assembly of *F. kawagutii* (another Symbiodiniaceae species) (21). We expect truly complete assemblies that leverage a combination of long-read and Hi-C sequencing methods to become available in the near future.

High-resolution (5 kbp) maps revealed the existence of strong topological domains ranging in length from ≤ 200 kbp to ≥ 2 Mbp (Figure 1B-E, Supplementary Figures 3–12). In mammals, where TADs are best documented (3), TAD boundaries are demarcated by opposite-orientation pairs of CTCF sites blocking the process of loop extrusion by cohesin rings (2). Constraints on loop extrusion are reflected in high-resolution Hi-C maps by the presence of loops at TAD boundaries and “stripes” on the edges of TAD blocks (5). However, we observed no loop or stripe features in *B. minutum* (Figure 1C), suggesting that dinoflagellate TADs are formed by a different mechanism. We term these domains “dinoTADs” to distinguish them from the loop extrusion-related domains in vertebrates. The number of dinoTADs appears to be a function of the chromosome size (Figure 1D), while comparison with mammalian TADs reveals dinoTADs to be considerably larger (Figure 1E).

In order to understand the formation of dinoTADs, we compared Hi-C maps to available annotation features for *B. minutum*, in particular transcriptomic data (Supplementary Methods). Remarkably, we found that each dinoTAD corresponds to a pair of divergent gene arrays (Figure 1F), while boundaries between dinoTADs coincide with regions of convergence between gene arrays (Figure 1G-H).

Numerous models for dinoflagellate chromosome organization have been suggested since the 1960s, primarily based on electron microscopy. These include proposals that chromosomes are organized as “toroidal chromonemas” (23), “stacks of discs” (24), “cored pineapples” (25), or around “central core fibers” (26). Most of these models imply specific topological constraints maintaining the proposed shapes.

The Hi-C patterns we observe instead strongly suggest a role for dynamic transcription-dependent DNA supercoiling in dinoTAD formation. Studies of 3D genome organization in bacteria have suggested that transcription can cause the formation of self-interacting domains (27), and similar mechanisms have been proposed as an explanation for topological features observed in the yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (28). Transcription can affect topological features due to its effects on DNA supercoiling (29) – the torque generated by RNA polymerase causes positive supercoiling in front of the transcription bubble and negative supercoiling behind it. The resulting torsional stress triggers changes in DNA shape by altering the twist and or the writhe of the double helix, which could in turn be accommodated through the formation of plectonemes, nucleosome

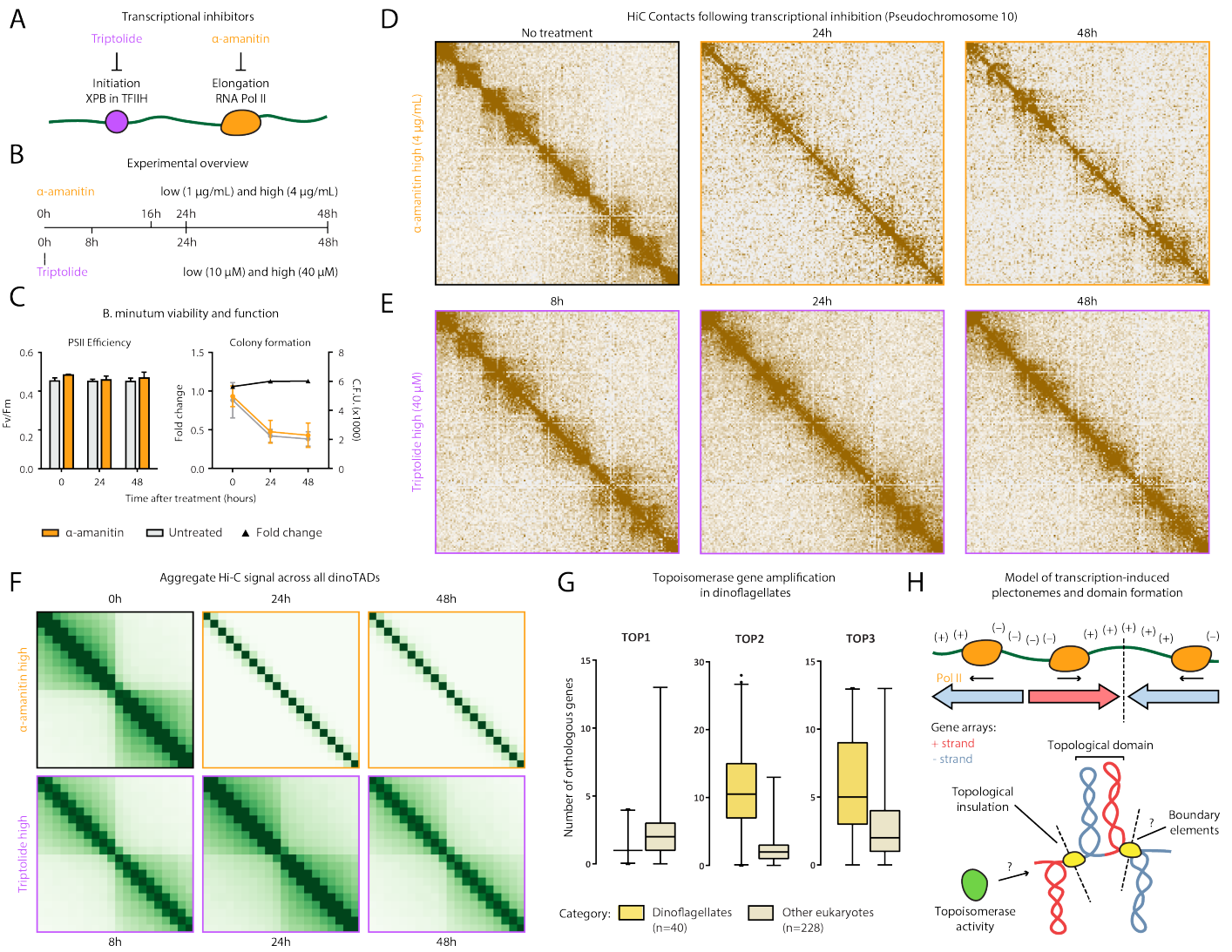


Figure 2: Decompanction of dinoTADs upon transcriptional inhibition supports the transcription-induced supercoiling model for their formation. Shown is pseudo-chromosome 10 as in Figure 1. (A) Outline of transcription inhibition experiments carried out using α -amanitin (orange) and triptolide (purple). (B) Time course and dosages of transcriptional inhibition. (C) Comparison of cell function, measured by PSII photosynthetic efficiency test (left), and cell viability, measured by a colony counting assay (right), between α -amanitin-treated and untreated samples over time. (D) KR-normalized Hi-C maps (50-kb resolution) at 0 hours, 24 hours and 48 hours (high dose) after α -amanitin treatment show marked loss of dinoTADs. (E) KR-normalized Hi-C maps (50-kb resolution) at 8 hours, 24 hours and 48 hours (high dose) after triptolide treatment show reduction of insulation at dinoTAD boundaries. (F) Metaplots of Hi-C signal around domain boundaries (50-kb resolution; see Supplementary Methods for details). (G) Amplification of *TOP2* and *TOP3* topoisomerase homolog genes in dinoflagellates compared to other unicellular eukaryotes. Transcriptome assemblies from the MMETSP (22) were used (See Supplementary Methods for details). (H) Transcription-induced supercoiling as the main topological force driving the physical organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes. Transcribing RNA Polymerase molecules introduce negative and positive DNA supercoiling behind and ahead of the transcription machinery, respectively, and the interactions of negatively supercoiled domains could explain the physical association of divergently-oriented gene arrays. Topological insulation could be driven by supercoiling-related effects, or by unknown boundary elements. Also unknown at present is the role of the expanded repertoire of topoisomerases.

remodeling, or others alterations in DNA structure (30). Transcription-driven plectoneme formation coinciding with long dinoflagellate gene arrays is an intuitive explanation for the compact dinoTADs we observe, although it is also possible that other topological constraints are responsible.

The transcription-induced supercoiling model makes a clear prediction that can distinguish these possibilities – inhibition of transcription should lead to the decompaction of dinoTADs.

We first compared Hi-C maps for *B. minutum* cells grown at 27°C and at 34°C, as exposure to heat stress could result in general reduction in transcription activity (31). Indeed, while we do not observe disappearance of dinoTADs in the 34°C sample, we do observe mild dinoTAD decompaction and an increase in interactions across dinoTAD boundaries (Supplementary Figures 18–20).

To directly test the transcription-induced supercoiling model, we carried out transcription inhibition experiments using α -amanitin and triptolide (Figure 2A-B). Triptolide prevents transcription initiation by targeting the XPB subunit of the TFIID complex, and is fast acting (within hours). In contrast, α -amanitin directly inhibits RNA Polymerase II, and usually takes ≥ 12 hours to act due to its slow uptake by cells (32). We note that well-established transcription inhibition conditions for *B. minutum* are lacking, and it is quite possible that inhibitor uptake is more difficult than in mammalian cells. It is also possible that triptolide does not strongly inhibit transcription due to the divergence of dinoflagellate transcription machinery components. We therefore carried out two sets of experiments, one using a “normal” dose for each inhibitor (the one usually used for mammalian cells) and a “high” dose (4 \times higher), harvesting cells at 0, 8, 24 and 48 hours for triptolide and at 0, 16, 24 and 48 hours for α -amanitin.

Of note, we found that even a high concentration of 4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ α -amanitin did not cause detectable decreases in photosynthetic efficiency or cell viability relative to untreated controls (Figure 2C), thus excluding increased cell death as a confounding factor in our analysis.

Strikingly, treatment with α -amanitin resulted in a progressive, near-complete disappearance of dinoTADs over 48 hours (Figure 2D and F; Supplementary Figures 21–24); the effects of a lower-dose treatment were more modest. Triptolide treatment did not trigger a disappearance of all topological structures, but nevertheless induced “blurring” of boundaries between dinoTADs (Figure 2E-F; Supplementary Figures 25–28); this milder effect, as mentioned above, is possibly the result of XPB protein divergence (19). The effects of transcriptional inhibition were observed in both technical and biological replicates (Supplementary Figures 21–24), and on aggregate across all dinoTADs (Figure 2F).

Taken together, these observations support transcription-driven supercoiling as the primary mechanism being the formation of dinoTADs. Examination of dinoflagellate gene repertoires corroborates the hypothesis that their genomes contend with elevated torsional stress. We

surveyed available transcriptome assemblies for dinoflagellates and a wide sampling of other unicellular eukaryotes (22) and uncovered a striking expansion of topoisomerase II- and topoisomerase III-like genes (but not topoisomerase I-like genes) within dinoflagellates (Figure 1D; Supplementary Figure 17; Supplementary Table 2); topoisomerases are necessary for relieving transcription-induced torsional stress (33).

We also note that topological insulation within dinoTADs is much stronger than self-interacting domains observed in bacteria or *S. pombe* (Supplementary Figures 14 and 15)), and that no such domains are observed in Hi-C datasets for kinetoplastids, the other well-known lineage of eukaryotes with highly prominent unidirectional polycistronic gene arrays and loss of transcription-level gene regulation (Supplementary Figures 16).

These differences are readily explained as the result of the unusual properties of dinoflagellates and underscore their importance as a unique natural experiment for understanding fundamental topological forces driving genome folding.

Neither bacteria nor *S. pombe* possess unidirectional gene arrays of length comparable to that of dinoflagellates; accordingly, the amount of torsional stress that can accumulate along their genomes is reduced. In addition, transcription activity in those lineages is strongly non-uniform along the length of the genome, unlike the situation in dinoflagellates.

The general absence of nucleosomes is the second, and perhaps more important key variable. In mammals, where genes as long as dinoTADs are quite common (due to the presence of extremely long introns), transcription-dependent DNA supercoiling is nevertheless not directly apparent as a topological force in Hi-C maps, nor is it seen in kinetoplastids, which lack transcriptional regulation and have long gene arrays, but have otherwise mostly conventional nucleosomal chromatin. However, as discussed above, the main topological force in most eukaryotes appears to be the interactions between similar chromatin states, while in metazoans loop extrusion domains are also observed (2). But these interactions are not present in dinoflagellates as their genomes are not packaged by nucleosomes. The model emerging is therefore one in which transcription-induced plectonemes are free to form in dinoflagellate genomes but not in other eukaryotes, where nucleosomal chromatin prevents that, and they can also be quite large due to the long length of dinoflagellate gene arrays (Figure 2H).

In summary, we have presented the first map of the physical organization of a dinoflagellate genome using modern molecular tools and have found unexpected links to the functional organization of the genome. The folding of the dinoflagellate genome in 3D space appears to be primarily dependent on transcription, and more specifically, transcription-dependent DNA supercoiling. This model is supported by the co-association of topological domains with pairs of divergent unidirectional gene arrays, the large ex-

pansion of topoisomerase genes in dinoflagellate genomes, and, most importantly, the disappearance of dinoTADs upon general inhibition of transcription. As the only known eukaryotes that do not use histones to package DNA, dinoflagellates represent a unique evolutionary experiment that reveals aspects of genome biology that are otherwise masked by nucleosomal chromatin and insulation. This natural experiment also highlights the potential magnitude of transcription-induced supercoiling as a general organizing force for genomes given that transcription-induced torsional stress is present in all organisms.

A number of open questions remain. It is possible that as-yet unidentified functional boundary elements of markedly different chromatin state exist at the boundaries of gene arrays; it is also currently unclear what exactly role histones play in dinoflagellate genomes. Answers to these questions, together with understanding the specific actions and genomic localization of the large repertoire of topoisomerase enzymes, will be critical for fully clarifying the interplay between nucleosomes, other packaging proteins, torsional stress and genome folding in dinoflagellates.

Our results also point to understanding the consequences of transcription-induced torsional stress in conventional eukaryotes as a key direction of future studies of the physical genome given that the strength of dinoTADs reveals its potential magnitude as a topological force. The question of how exactly it is accommodated in other eukaryotes then naturally emerges. There are multiple possibilities, not mutually exclusive. Interactions between nucleosomes likely prevent torsion from translating into large plectonemes, while chromatin fibers have also been proposed to act as a torsional twist buffer (34). The precise *in vivo* amount and relative distribution into twist and writhe of torsion in mammalian genomes, as well as its consequences for regulatory protein occupancy, transcriptional activity and other chromatin processes are to be fully mapped in the future.

Author contributions

G.K.M. performed Hi-C experiments. G.K.M and A.E.T. analyzed the data. A.E.T. and T.X. carried out transcription inhibition experiments and cell viability experiments. T.X. carried out *S. minutum* culture and heat stress treatment. W.J.G., A.R.G., A.K. and J.R.P. supervised the study. G.K.M., A.E.T. and T.X. interpreted data and wrote manuscript with input from all authors.

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Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Methods

Except where otherwise stated, computational analyses were carried out using custom-written Python scripts.

B. minutum cell culture

The clonal axenic *Symbiodinium/Breviolum minutum* strain SSB01 was used in all experiments. Stock cultures were grown as previously described(35, 36) in Daigo’s IMK medium for marine microalgae (Wako Pure Chemicals) supplemented with casein hydrolysate (IMK+Cas) at 27 °C at a light intensity of 10 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ from Philips ALTO II 25-W bulbs on a 12-h-light:12-h-dark cycle. The medium was prepared in artificial seawater (ASW).

Transcription inhibition experiments

For α -amanitin treatment, *Breviolum minutum* cells at a density of $\sim 1 \times 10^6$ cells/mL were treated with α -amanitin (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat # A2263) at concentrations of 1 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (“normal” dose) and 4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (“high”) dose.

Samples were harvested at 0, 24, and 48 hours after treatment.

For triptolide treatment, *Breviolum minutum* cells at a density of $\sim 1 \times 10^6$ cells/mL were treated with triptolide (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat # T3652) at concentrations of 10 μM (“normal” dose) and 40 μM (“high”) dose.

Samples were harvested at 0, 8, 24 and 48 hours after treatment.

Cell viability measurements

Photosynthetic activity

Maximum quantum yields of photosystem II, $F_v/F_m = (F_m - F_0)/F_m$ was used to indicate photosynthetic function. *S. minutum* cultures (approximately 10^6 cells/mL) were collected and dark adapted for 5 min, and F_v/F_m was determined using a Dual Pam-100 fluorometer (Heinz Walz).

Colony formation assay

Fresh SSB01 cells were sampled at 0, 24 and 48 hours after the treatment of transcription inhibitor α -amanitin. For each condition, cell suspensions were diluted 1:5 and 1:10 before plating 1 μL of each dilution on marine broth (BD) agar plates. Plates were incubated at 27 °C at a light intensity of 10 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Cell numbers on each plate were counted after three weeks.

Hi-C experiments

The in situ Hi-C procedure used to map 3D genomic interactions in *Symbiodinium* was adapted from previous studies(3, 37) as follows:

Symbiodinium minutum SSB01 cells were first crosslinked using 37% formaldehyde (Sigma) at a final concentration of 1% for 15 minutes at room temperature. Formaldehyde was then quenched using 2.5 M Glycine at a final concentration of 0.25 M. Cells were subsequently centrifuged at 2,000 g for 5 minutes, washed once in 1 \times PBS, and stored at -80 °C.

Cell lysis was initiated by incubation with 250 μL of cold Hi-C Lysis Buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 10 mM NaCl, 0.2% Igepal CA630) on ice for 15 minutes, followed by centrifugation at 2,500 g for 5 minutes, a wash with 500 μL of cold Hi-C Lysis Buffer, and centrifugation at 2,500 g for 5 minutes. The pellet was resuspended in 50 μL of 0.5% SDS and incubated at 62 °C for 10 minutes. SDS was quenched by adding 145 μL of H₂O and 25 μL of 10% Triton X-100 and incubating at 37 °C for 15 minutes.

Restriction digestion was carried out by adding 25 μL of 10 \times NEBuffer 2 and 100 U of the MboI restriction enzyme (NEB, R0147) and incubating for ≥ 2 hours at 37 °C in a Thermomixer at 900 rpm. The reaction was then incubated at 62 °C for 20 minutes in order to inactivate the restriction enzyme.

Fragment ends were filled in by adding 37.5 μL of 0.4 mM biotin-14-dATP (ThermoFisher Scientific, # 19524-016), 1.5 μL each of 10 mM dCTP, dGTP and dTTP, and 8 μL of 5U/ μL DNA Polymerase I Large (Klenow) Fragment (NEB M0210). The reaction was incubated at 37 °C in a Thermomixer at 900 rpm for 45 minutes.

Fragment end ligation was carried out by adding 663 μL H₂O, 120 μL 10 \times NEB T4 DNA ligase buffer (NEB B0202), 100 μL of 10% Triton X-100, 12 μL of 10 mg/mL Bovine Serum Albumin (100 \times BSA, NEB), 5 μL of 400 U/ μL T4 DNA Ligase (NEB M0202), and incubating at room temperature for ≥ 4 hours with rotation.

Nuclei were then pelleted by centrifugation at 3,500 g for 5 minutes; the pellet was resuspended in 200 μL ChIP Elution Buffer (1% SDS, 0.1 M NaHCO₃), Proteinase K was added, and incubated at 65 °C overnight to reverse crosslinks.

After addition of 600 μL 1 \times TE buffer, DNA was sonicated using a Qsonica S-4000 with a 1/16” tip for 3 minutes, with 10 second pulses at intensity 3.5, and 20 seconds rest between pulses. DNA was then purified using the MinElute PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen #28006), with elution in a total volume of 300 μL 1 \times EB buffer.

For streptavidin pulldown of biotin-labeled DNA, 150

μL of 10 mg/mL Dynabeads MyOne Streptavidin T1 beads (Life Technologies, 65602) were separated on a magnetic stand, then washed with 400 μL of 1 \times TWB (Tween Washing Buffer; 5 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5; 0.5 mM EDTA; 1 M NaCl; 0.05% Tween 20). The beads were resuspended in 300 μL of 2 \times Binding Buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA; 2 M NaCl), the sonicated DNA was added, and the beads were incubated for ≥ 15 minutes at room temperature on a rotator. After separation on a magnetic stand, the beads were washed with 600 μL of 1 \times TWB, and heated at 55 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ in a Thermomixer with shaking for 2 minutes. After removal of the supernatant on a magnetic stand, the TWB wash and 55 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ incubation were repeated.

Final libraries were prepared on beads using the NEB-Next Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit (NEB, #E7645) as follows. End repair was carried out by resuspending beads in 50 μL 1 \times EB buffer, and adding 3 μL NEB Ultra End Repair Enzyme and 7 μL NEB Ultra End Repair Enzyme, followed by incubation at 20 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 30 minutes and then at 65 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 30 minutes.

Adapters were ligated to DNA fragments by adding 30 μL Blunt Ligation mix, 1 μL Ligation Enhancer and 2.5 μL NEB Adapter, incubating at 20 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 20 minutes, adding 3 μL USER enzyme, and incubating at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 15 minutes.

Beads were then separated on a magnetic stand, and washed with 600 μL TWB for 2 minutes at 55 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, 1000 rpm in a Thermomixer. After separation on a magnetic stand, beads were washed in 100 μL 0.1 \times TE buffer, then resuspended in 16 μL 0.1 \times TE buffer, and heated at 98 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 10 minutes.

For PCR, 5 μL of each of the i5 and i7 NEB Next sequencing adapters were added together with 25 μL 2 \times NEB Ultra PCR Mater Mix. PCR was carried out with a 98 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ incubation for 30 seconds and 12 cycles of 98 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 10 seconds, 65 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 30 seconds, and 72 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 1 minute, followed by incubation at 72 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 5 minutes.

Beads were separated on a magnetic stand, and the supernatant was cleaned up using 1 \times AMPure XP beads.

Libraries were sequenced in a paired-end format on a Illumina NextSeq instrument using NextSeq 500/550 high output kits (either 2 \times 75 or 2 \times 36 cycles).

Hi-C data processing and assembly scaffolding

As an initial step, Hi-C sequencing reads from all libraries were trimmed of adapter sequences, pooled together, and processed against the previously published *B. minutum* assembly (19) using the Juicer pipeline (38) for analyzing Hi-C datasets (version 1.8.9 of Juicer Tools).

The resulting Hi-C matrices were then used as input to the 3D DNA pipeline (20) for automated scaffolding with the following parameters:

```
--editor-coarse-resolution 5000
--editor-coarse-region 5000 --polisher-input-size 100000
--polisher-coarse-resolution 1000
--polisher-coarse-region 300000
--splitter-input-size 100000
```

```
--splitter-coarse-resolution 5000
--splitter-coarse-region 300000 --sort-output
--build-gapped-map -r 10 -i 5000.
```

Manual correction of obvious assembly and scaffolding errors was then carried out using Juicebox (38).

After finalizing the scaffolding, Hi-C reads were reprocessed against the new assembly using the Juicer pipeline. This was done individually for each library as well as together for the pooled set of reads.

Data was extracted from the final read matrices using the Juicer suite of tools for Hi-C data analysis.

Identification of Hi-C domains

Hi-C matrices were first converted to *cool* format using HiCEXplorer (?) "hicConvertFormat" with parameters `--inputFormat hic --outputFormat h5` and default resolutions. Subsequent HiCEXplorer commands were carried out at 10 kb, 25 kb, and 50 kb resolutions with similar results. Matrices were normalized using "hicNormalize" with parameter `--normalize smallest`, and corrected using "hicCorrectMatrix correct" with parameters `--correctionMethod KR`. Hi-C domains were computationally identified using the "hicFindTADs" from HiCEXplorer with parameter `--correctForMultipleTesting fdr`.

RNA-seq datasets

Approximately 5×10^7 cells were collected by centrifugation at 100 *g* for 5 minutes at room temperature. Total RNA was extracted and libraries were constructed for RNA-Seq using the TruSeq RNA Library Prep Kit V2 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer protocol. All of the raw sequencing reads are available at Sequence Read Archive (SRA) with accession number SRX7258938.

RNA-seq data analysis

RNA-seq reads were aligned against the corresponding assemblies using the STAR aligner (39) (version 2.5.3a) with the following settings: `--limitSjdbInsertNsjs 10000000 --outFilterMultimapNmax 50 \verb-outFilterMismatchNmax— 999 --outFilterMismatchNoverReadLmax 0.04 --alignIntronMin 10 --alignIntronMax 1000000 --alignMatesGapMax 1000000 --alignSJoverhangMin 8 --alignSJDBoverhangMin 1 --sjdbScore 1 --twopassMode Basic --twopass1readsN -1`. As available RNA-seq datasets for *B. minutum* are not strand-specific, the strand orientation of the transcriptome was visualized as follows. Aligned reads were first *de novo* assembled into transcripts and quantified at the transcript level using Stringtie (40) (version 1.3.3.b); the orientation of splice junctions serves as a reliable guide for the directionality of these transcripts. Open reading frames (ORFs) were identified for each transcript, and transcripts with ORFs shorter than 60 amino acids were filtered out of the transcript

set. Strand-specific genomic tracks were then generated by assigning to each basepair covered by at least one exon in that set the sum of the TPM (Transcript Per Million transcripts) values of all transcripts it is included in.

External Hi-C datasets

Hi-C data for *Trypanosoma brucei* was obtained from GEO accession GSE118764.

Hi-C data for *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* was obtained

from GEO accession GSE57316.

Hi-C data for *Caulobacter vibrioides* CB15 was obtained from GEO accession GSE45966.

Sequence Analysis

Topoisomerase and other replication-related proteins were identified in annotated MMETSP transcriptome assemblies using HMMER3.0 (41) and the Pfam 27.0 protein domain database (42) as previously described (15).

Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 1: Summary of Hi-C datasets used in this study

Hi-C library	Number raw read pairs	Estimated library com- plexity	Number Hi-C contacts
L142-SSBO1-HIC	534,609,924	920,112,029	220,908,462
L533-SSBO1.27C.Hi-C	556,089,015	1,513,268,498	151,618,419
L534-SSBO1.34C.Hi-C	531,461,453	2,971,291,849	165,231,965
L1240-SSBO1- α _amanitin-0h-Hi-C	111,333,226	233,525,989	34,384,671
L1241-SSB01- α _amanitin-16h-Hi-C-rep1	60,696,609	317,650,525	24,238,281
L1242-SSB01- α _amanitin-16h-Hi-C-rep2	67,376,168	227,736,960	25,551,603
L1243-SSB01- α _amanitin-24h-Hi-C-rep1	81,532,584	235,898,386	29,748,439
L1244-SSB01- α _amanitin-24h-Hi-C-rep2	106,381,220	110,607,925	28,845,306
L1245-SSB01- α _amanitin-48h-Hi-C-rep1	90,180,763	155,046,434	27,045,343
L1246-SSB01- α _amanitin-48h-Hi-C-rep2	78,982,528	152,703,652	22,153,117
L1247-SSB01- α _amanitin_high-48h-Hi-C	110,015,013	157,350,902	28,138,017
L1332-SSB01- α _amanitin-0h-Hi-C-technical_rep	117,543,007	182,213,300	34,089,285
L1333-SSB01- α _amanitin-48h-Hi-C-rep1-technical_rep	117,821,773	82,740,021	23,654,760
L1334-SSB01- α _amanitin_high-48h-Hi-C-technical_rep	95,662,202	164,149,035	23,944,231
L1336-SSB01- α _amanitin_high-24h-Hi-C-second_time_course	58,747,402	103,174,104	15,663,160
L1337-SSB01- α _amanitin_high-48h-Hi-C-second_time_course	83,691,617	62,658,394	14,523,464
L1344-SSB01- α _amanitin/triptolide_0h_NT-Hi-C	79,383,186	208,157,102	23,592,335
L1346-SSB01-triptolide_8h_normal_dose-Hi-C	81,731,190	193,514,340	22,700,096
L1347-SSB01-triptolide_8h_high_dose-Hi-C	112,753,865	187,235,670	28,552,855
L1348-SSB01-Triptolide_24h_NT-Hi-C	52,148,987	166,057,825	15,674,551
L1349-SSB01-triptolide_24h_normal_dose-Hi-C	132,715,807	206,778,720	36,745,591
L1350-SSB01-triptolide_24h_high_dose-Hi-C	98,429,444	265,027,975	32,121,298
L1351-SSB01-Triptolide_48h_NT-Hi-C	96,846,551	240,797,245	28,296,251
L1352-SSB01-triptolide_48h_normal_dose-Hi-C	85,347,611	255,500,603	25,051,605
L1353-SSB01-triptolide_48h_high_dose-Hi-C	99,978,207	215,504,692	26,572,806

Supplementary Table 2: Inventory of topoisomerases and some other proteins involved in DNA replication in dinoflagellates and other eukaryotes as annotated by transcriptome assemblies in the MMETSP databases

clade	species	TOP1	TOP2	TOP3	MCM	PCNA	RPA1	RPA2	RPA3	RFC1
Amoebozoa	<i>Stereomyxa ramosa</i> Chinc5	1	2	2	6	2	3	0	2	1
Amoebozoa	<i>Veillifera</i> sp. DIVA3 564 2	1	2	2	7	1	2	0	0	1
Apicomplexa	<i>Lankesteria abbotii</i> Grappler Inlet BC	1	1	0	12	5	1	0	0	1
Bicosoecid	Bicosoecid sp ms1	1	0	0	3	1	1	1	1	0
Bicosoecid	<i>Cafeteria roenbergensis</i> E4 10	1	0	2	6	1	0	0	1	0
Bicosoecid	<i>Cafeteria</i> sp. Caron Lab Isolate	1	1	4	15	1	1	0	1	1
Bolidophyte	<i>Bolidomonas pacifica</i> CCMP 1866	2	5	7	8	1	1	0	0	1
Chlorarachniophyte	<i>Bigelowiella natans</i> CCMP1258.1	1	1	9	3	1	4	1	0	0
Chlorarachniophyte	<i>Bigelowiella natans</i> CCMP1259	1	1	6	7	1	4	1	0	1
Chlorarachniophyte	<i>Bigelowiella natans</i> CCMP 2755	0	0	4	5	1	4	1	0	1
Chlorarachniophyte	<i>Bigelowiella natans</i> CCMP623	1	3	7	9	1	2	1	0	1
Chlorarachniophyte	<i>Chlorarachnion reptans</i> CCCM449	2	4	8	11	2	3	1	0	1
Chlorarachniophyte	<i>Lotharella amoebiformis</i> CCMP2058	2	6	5	10	1	4	1	0	1
Chlorarachniophyte	<i>Lotharella globosa</i> CCCM811	1	2	1	0	1	1	1	1	1
Chlorarachniophyte	<i>Lotharella oceanica</i> CCMP622	1	0	0	1	1	2	1	1	1
Chlorarachniophyte	<i>Norrisiella sphaerica</i> BC52	1	0	3	0	1	2	1	1	0
Chlorarachniophyte	<i>Partenskyella glossopodia</i> RCC365	1	2	1	7	1	3	1	2	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Bathycoccus prasinus</i> CCMP1898	1	2	3	9	1	2	0	0	0
Chlorophyte	<i>Bathycoccus prasinus</i> RCC716	1	2	3	7	1	3	0	0	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Chlamydomonas</i> cf sp CCMP681	1	0	0	5	2	1	0	0	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Crustomastix stigmata</i> CCMP3273	1	2	4	10	1	1	1	0	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Cyanoptycha gloeocystis</i> SAG4.97	1	0	0	4	1	1	1	0	0
Chlorophyte	<i>Dolichomastix tenuilepis</i> CCMP3274	1	1	3	1	2	1	0	1	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Dunaliella tertiolecta</i> CCMP1320	1	2	3	10	1	2	0	1	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Mantoniella antarctica</i> SL 175	1	8	4	13	1	2	2	1	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Mantoniella</i> sp CCMP1436	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Micromonas</i> sp CCMP2099	1	2	2	9	1	2	0	1	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Micromonas</i> sp NEPCC29	1	2	3	7	1	2	0	1	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Micromonas</i> sp RCC472	1	2	2	7	1	2	1	0	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Nephroselmis pyriformis</i> CCMP717	1	4	8	10	1	2	0	1	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Picochlorum oklahomensis</i> CCMP2329	1	2	2	6	2	2	1	0	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Picochlorum</i> sp. RCC944	1	1	2	6	1	2	0	2	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Picocystis salinarum</i> CCMP1897	1	2	1	8	2	2	1	2	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Polytomella parva</i> SAG 63 3	1	5	3	18	2	3	0	0	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Prasinoderma coloniale</i> CCMP1413	1	2	0	2	1	1	0	0	0
Chlorophyte	<i>Prasinoderma singularis</i> RCC927	1	1	1	7	1	1	0	1	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Pterosperma</i> sp. CCMP1384	1	0	0	3	1	1	1	1	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Pycnococcus provasolii</i> RCC2336	1	1	0	9	1	1	0	0	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Pycnococcus provasolii</i> RCC931	1	0	0	7	1	1	0	0	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Pyramimonas parkeae</i> CCMP726	1	0	4	7	1	2	1	1	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Stichococcus</i> sp RCC1054	1	1	1	8	1	1	0	0	1
Chlorophyte	<i>Tetraselmis chunii</i> PLY429	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	2
Chlorophyte	<i>Tetraselmis striata</i> LANL1001	1	4	4	11	1	2	0	1	1
Choanoflagellata	<i>Acanthoeca</i> like sp 10tr	1	3	4	10	1	1	0	1	1
Chromerida	<i>Chromera velia</i> CCMP2878	1	1	3	10	2	2	0	0	1
Chromerida	<i>Vitrella brassicaformis</i> CCMP3346	1	1	2	9	2	1	0	0	1
Chrysophyte	<i>Chromulina nebulosa</i> UTEXLB2642	1	1	1	2	1	1	0	0	1
Chrysophyte	<i>Dinobryon</i> sp UTEXLB2267	1	3	0	8	1	1	0	0	1
Chrysophyte	<i>Mallomonas</i> Sp CCMP3275	1	2	1	9	1	1	0	1	1
Chrysophyte	<i>Ochromonas</i> sp CCMP1393	1	2	2	7	1	1	0	0	1
Chrysophyte	<i>Paraphysomonas bandaiensis</i> Caron Lab Isolate	1	2	3	9	2	1	1	1	1
Chrysophyte	<i>Paraphysomonas imperforata</i> PA2	0	1	3	6	1	1	1	1	1
Chrysophyte	<i>Pelagococcus subviridis</i> CCMP1429	1	1	2	11	1	0	0	0	1
Chrysophyte	<i>Spumella elongata</i> CCAP 955 1	1	1	3	10	4	3	0	1	1
Ciliate	<i>Aristerostoma</i> sp. ATCC 50986	2	1	1	0	2	1	0	0	2
Ciliate	<i>Blepharisma japonicum</i> Stock R1072	0	0	0	7	4	1	0	0	0

Continued on next page

Supplementary Table 2 – Continued from previous page

clade	species	TOP1	TOP2	TOP3	MCM	PCNA	RPA1	RPA2	RPA3	RFC1
Ciliate	<i>Climacostomum virens</i> Stock W 24	1	2	2	9	3	1	0	0	3
Ciliate	<i>Condylostoma magnum</i> COL2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
Ciliate	<i>Euplotes focardii</i> TN1	1	0	0	5	2	1	0	2	0
Ciliate	<i>Euplotes harpa</i> FSP1.4	2	0	5	3	1	0	0	1	0
Ciliate	<i>Fabrea salina</i> Unknown	1	1	3	7	2	3	0	0	2
Ciliate	<i>Favella taraikaensis</i> FeNarragansettBay	0	1	2	7	3	0	0	0	0
Ciliate	<i>Litonotus pictus</i> P1	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ciliate	<i>Mesodinium pulex</i> SPMC105	2	13	2	16	9	4	0	0	6
Ciliate	<i>Myrionecta rubra</i> CCMP2563	0	1	4	11	1	1	0	1	0
Ciliate	<i>Platyophrya macrostoma</i> WH	4	4	4	23	4	6	0	0	3
Ciliate	<i>Protocruzia adherens</i> Boccale	3	1	0	9	3	3	0	0	1
Ciliate	<i>Pseudokeronopsis</i> sp. OXSARD2	1	1	1	6	1	0	0	1	1
Ciliate	<i>Strombidinopsis acuminatum</i> SPMC142	2	6	0	32	10	5	0	0	0
Ciliate	<i>Strombidinopsis</i> sp. SopsisLIS2011	1	0	0	8	3	2	0	0	0
Ciliate	<i>Strombidium inclinatum</i> S3	1	1	2	8	1	1	0	0	1
Ciliate	<i>Strombidium rassoulzadegani</i> ras09	1	0	1	6	1	1	0	1	0
Ciliate	<i>Tiarina fusus</i> LIS	1	7	3	16	3	4	2	1	1
Cryptophyte	<i>Chroomonas mesostigmatica</i> cf CCMP1168	1	5	4	8	1	2	2	0	1
Cryptophyte	<i>Cryptomonas curvata</i> CCAP979 52	2	0	2	0	1	1	0	1	0
Cryptophyte	<i>Cryptomonas paramecium</i> CCAP977 2a	3	2	2	5	1	1	0	0	1
Cryptophyte	<i>Geminigera cryophila</i> CCMP2564	2	1	5	11	1	2	0	1	2
Cryptophyte	<i>Geminigera</i> sp. Caron Lab Isolate	1	3	5	18	1	5	0	1	1
Cryptophyte	<i>Goniomonas pacifica</i> CCMP1869	8	4	4	12	1	5	1	3	7
Cryptophyte	<i>Guillardia theta</i> CCMP 2712	1	0	2	3	1	1	0	1	0
Cryptophyte	<i>Hemiselmis andersenii</i> CCMP644	1	2	5	12	1	2	0	1	1
Cryptophyte	<i>Hemiselmis rufescens</i> PCC563	1	0	3	7	1	1	1	1	1
Cryptophyte	<i>Hemiselmis tepida</i> CCMP443	3	2	0	3	1	1	1	1	1
Cryptophyte	<i>Hemiselmis virescens</i> PCC157	1	0	0	7	1	1	0	1	0
Cryptophyte	<i>Palpitomonas bilix</i> NIES 2562	0	1	2	13	4	3	0	1	3
Cryptophyte	<i>Proteomonas sulcata</i> CCMP704	0	1	0	3	1	1	0	0	1
Cryptophyte	<i>Rhodomonas lens</i> RHODO	2	3	2	2	2	2	0	1	0
Cryptophyte	<i>Rhodomonas</i> sp. CCMP768	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
Diatome	<i>Amphiprora</i> sp.	1	4	3	9	1	1	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Amphora coffeaeformis</i> CCMP127	1	1	0	4	1	1	0	0	0
Diatome	<i>Asterionellopsis glacialis</i> CCMP134	1	7	1	10	1	1	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Astrosyne radiata</i> 13vi08 1A	1	8	3	6	3	2	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Attheya septentrionalis</i> CCMP2084	1	2	0	9	1	1	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Aulacoseira subarctica</i> CCAP 1002 5	1	2	3	8	2	1	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Chaetoceros affinis</i> CCMP159	1	3	1	8	1	1	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Chaetoceros curvisetus</i>	1	4	4	6	1	3	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Chaetoceros debilis</i> MM31A_1	1	3	1	12	1	1	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Chaetoceros neogracile</i> CCMP1317	1	9	3	10	1	1	0	1	1
Diatome	<i>Coscinodiscus walesii</i> CCMP2513	1	3	6	10	1	1	0	1	1
Diatome	<i>Craspedostauros australis</i> CCMP3328	1	0	0	4	0	1	0	0	0
Diatome	<i>Cyclophora tenuis</i> ECT3854	1	1	0	3	1	1	0	0	0
Diatome	<i>Cyclotella meneghiniana</i> CCMP 338	1	4	3	8	1	1	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Cylindrotheca closterium</i> KMMCC:B 181	3	7	3	14	1	2	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Dactyliosolen fragilissimus</i> Unknown	1	3	3	8	1	1	0	1	1
Diatome	<i>Ditylum brightwellii</i> GSO103	1	4	3	11	1	1	0	1	1
Diatome	<i>Ditylum brightwellii</i> GSO104	1	4	5	10	1	1	0	1	1
Diatome	<i>Ditylum brightwellii</i> GSO105	1	2	3	11	2	1	0	1	1
Diatome	<i>Entomoneis</i> sp. CCMP2396	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
Diatome	<i>Eucampia antarctica</i> CCMP1452	1	3	0	5	1	1	1	1	1
Diatome	<i>Extubocellulus spinifer</i> CCMP396	1	4	10	13	2	5	3	1	2
Diatome	<i>Fragilariopsis kerguelensis</i> L2_C3	1	3	3	11	1	1	2	0	1
Diatome	<i>Fragilariopsis kerguelensis</i> L26_C5	1	3	5	22	1	1	3	0	1
Diatome	<i>Grammatophora oceanica</i> CCMP 410	1	1	3	5	1	1	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Helicotheca tamensis</i> CCMP826	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0
Diatome	<i>Leptocylindrus danicus</i> var. apora B651	3	5	3	0	3	2	0	1	1

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clade	species	TOP1	TOP2	TOP3	MCM	PCNA	RPA1	RPA2	RPA3	RFC1
Diatome	<i>Leptocylindrus danicus</i> var. <i>danicus</i> B650	3	11	3	19	1	1	0	1	2
Diatome	<i>Licmophora paradoxa</i> CCMP2313	1	1	3	7	1	2	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Minutocellus polymorphus</i> CCMP3303	0	0	0	3	1	1	1	1	0
Diatome	<i>Minutocellus polymorphus</i> NH13	2	8	7	21	1	0	1	0	3
Diatome	<i>Minutocellus polymorphus</i> RCC2270	1	2	1	7	1	1	1	1	1
Diatome	<i>Nitzschia punctata</i> CCMP561	1	2	2	9	1	1	1	1	1
Diatome	<i>Odontella aurita</i> isolate 1302 5	1	3	7	11	2	2	1	1	1
Diatome	<i>Odontella sinensis</i> Grunow 1884	1	3	0	2	1	1	1	1	1
Diatome	<i>Proboscia alata</i> PLD3	1	7	2	21	1	1	2	0	1
Diatome	<i>Pseudo-nitzschia australis</i> 10249.10.AB	1	3	4	8	1	1	1	0	1
Diatome	<i>Pseudo-nitzschia fradulenta</i> WWA7	2	11	6	24	4	5	0	0	3
Diatome	<i>Rhizosolenia setigera</i> CCMP 1694	1	7	4	18	1	2	0	0	2
Diatome	<i>Skeletonema dohrnii</i> SkelB	1	2	0	14	1	1	2	1	1
Diatome	<i>Skeletonema marinoi</i> SkelA	1	1	2	7	1	1	2	0	1
Diatome	<i>Skeletonema menzelii</i> CCMP793	1	4	4	8	1	1	2	0	1
Diatome	<i>Stauroneis constricta</i> CCMP1120	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
Diatome	<i>Stauroneis complex</i> sp. CCMP2646	1	3	4	8	1	1	0	1	1
Diatome	<i>Stephanopyxis turris</i> CCMP 815	2	0	1	7	3	2	0	1	1
Diatome	<i>Striatella unipunctata</i> CCMP2910	4	2	1	6	3	0	1	0	2
Diatome	<i>Synedropsis recta</i> cf CCMP1620	1	2	0	1	1	1	1	1	0
Diatome	<i>Thalassionema frauenfeldii</i> CCMP 1798	1	5	7	15	1	3	1	1	2
Diatome	<i>Thalassionema nitzschioides</i> L26.B	1	3	4	8	1	1	1	1	1
Diatome	<i>Thalassiosira antarctica</i> CCMP982	1	4	2	12	1	1	3	1	1
Diatome	<i>Thalassiosira gravida</i> GMp14c1	1	1	3	13	1	1	2	1	1
Diatome	<i>Thalassiosira miniscula</i> CCMP1093	1	13	6	10	1	1	2	1	1
Diatome	<i>Thalassiosira oceanica</i> CCMP1005	1	10	1	10	1	1	0	0	1
Diatome	<i>Thalassiosira rotula</i> CCMP3096	1	5	3	11	1	1	2	1	1
Diatome	<i>Thalassiosira rotula</i> GSO102	1	3	2	11	1	1	1	1	1
Diatome	<i>Thalassiosira weissflogii</i> CCMP1010	1	4	1	9	1	0	1	0	1
Diatome	<i>Thalassiosira weissflogii</i> CCMP1336	1	4	1	8	1	0	1	0	1
Diatome	<i>Thalassiothrix antarctica</i> L6.D1	1	2	4	6	1	1	0	1	1
Diatome	<i>Triceratium dubium</i> CCMP147	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0
Dinoflagellata	<i>Alexandrium temarense</i> CCMP1771	3	18	12	45	18	10	3	4	2
Dinoflagellata	<i>Amphidinium carterae</i> CCMP1314	2	5	5	8	2	4	0	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Azadinium spinosum</i> 3D9	1	12	13	35	11	6	0	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Brandtodinium nutriculum</i> RCC3387	1	13	9	30	21	4	0	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Ceratium fusus</i> PA161109	1	15	10	18	12	9	1	1	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Crypthecodinium cohnii</i> Seligo	1	6	5	15	2	4	0	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Dinophysis acuminata</i> DAEP01	4	15	9	29	13	8	0	0	2
Dinoflagellata	<i>Durinskia baltica</i> CSIRO_CS 38	2	12	9	18	9	8	0	0	4
Dinoflagellata	<i>Gambierdiscus australes</i> CAWD 149	1	5	0	9	14	6	0	0	2
Dinoflagellata	<i>Glenodinium foliaceum</i> CCAP1116.3	2	9	3	23	7	6	0	1	4
Dinoflagellata	<i>Gonyaulax spinifera</i> CCMP409	1	2	0	10	10	8	1	1	1
Dinoflagellata	<i>Heterocapsa rotundata</i> SCCAP K 0483	2	19	4	12	6	4	0	0	6
Dinoflagellata	<i>Heterocapsa triquetra</i> CCMP 448	1	8	5	13	5	4	0	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Karenia brevis</i> CCMP2229	1	14	8	10	8	7	0	1	4
Dinoflagellata	<i>Karenia brevis</i> SP1	1	14	13	16	6	8	0	1	4
Dinoflagellata	<i>Karenia brevis</i> SP3	1	12	9	13	8	10	0	1	4
Dinoflagellata	<i>Karenia brevis</i> Wilson	1	14	7	14	9	8	0	2	5
Dinoflagellata	<i>Karlodinium micrum</i> CCMP2283	2	9	7	46	13	31	2	0	5
Dinoflagellata	<i>Kryptoperidinium foliaceum</i> CCMP1326	4	14	11	64	16	10	1	0	7
Dinoflagellata	<i>Lingulodinium polyedra</i> CCMP1738	1	17	8	19	11	11	1	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Noctiluca scintillans</i> Unknown	1	7	3	9	1	6	0	1	1
Dinoflagellata	<i>Oxyrrhis marina</i>	1	2	5	9	7	3	0	1	2
Dinoflagellata	<i>Oxyrrhis marina</i> CCMP1795	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
Dinoflagellata	<i>Oxyrrhis marina</i> LB1974	1	2	4	10	4	2	0	0	2
Dinoflagellata	<i>Pelagodinium beii</i> RCC1491	1	8	2	12	11	4	0	0	4
Dinoflagellata	<i>Peridinium aciculiferum</i> PAER.2	1	7	5	11	6	5	0	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Polarella glacialis</i> CCMP 1383	1	28	5	23	5	5	0	0	8

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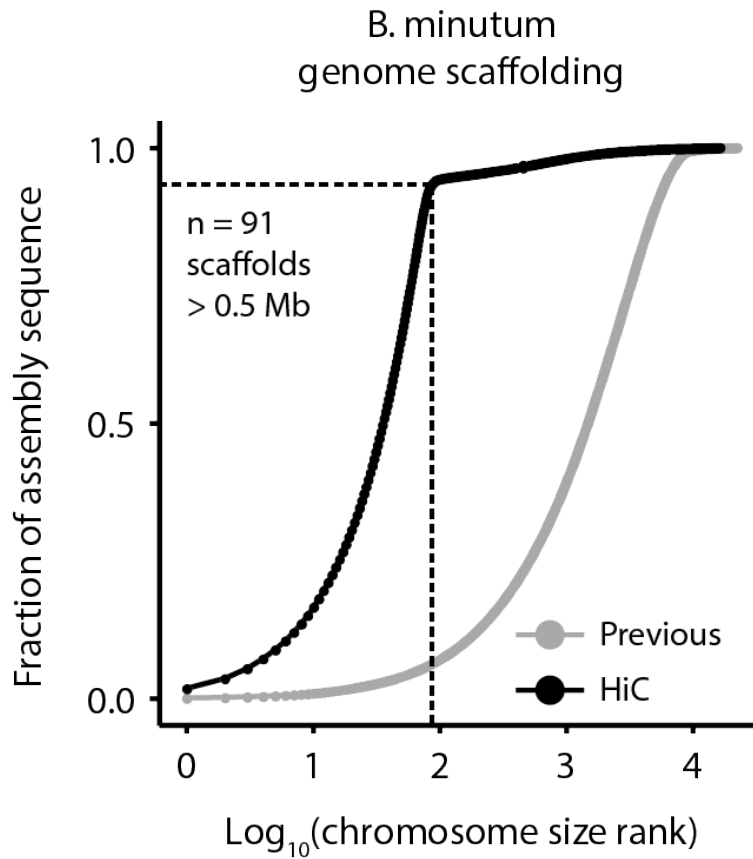
clade	species	TOP1	TOP2	TOP3	MCM	PCNA	RPA1	RPA2	RPA3	RFC1
Dinoflagellata	<i>Prorocentrum minimum</i> CCMP1329	1	15	6	29	13	6	0	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Prorocentrum minimum</i> CCMP2233	1	14	4	29	12	5	0	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Protoceratium reticulatum</i> CCCM 535 CCMP 1889	2	20	9	18	11	10	0	0	2
Dinoflagellata	<i>Pyrodinium bahamense</i> pbaha01	1	21	8	29	19	11	0	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Scrippsiella hangoei</i> like SHHL4	1	8	6	22	6	16	0	2	2
Dinoflagellata	<i>Scrippsiella hangoei</i> SHTV5	1	8	11	14	3	5	0	0	2
Dinoflagellata	<i>Scrippsiella trochoidea</i> CCMP3099	1	27	10	38	12	8	1	1	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Symbiodinium kawagutii</i> CCMP2468	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
Dinoflagellata	<i>Symbiodinium</i> sp. C1	1	9	4	9	6	4	0	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Symbiodinium</i> sp. C15	1	7	2	12	3	4	1	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Symbiodinium</i> sp. CCMP2430	1	7	2	10	7	4	0	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Symbiodinium</i> sp. Mp	1	7	3	13	6	3	0	0	3
Dinoflagellata	<i>Togula jolla</i> CCCM 725	1	17	3	21	3	6	0	0	4
Discosea	<i>Mayorella</i> sp. BSH 02190019	1	3	2	5	1	1	0	1	1
Discosea	<i>Neoparamoeba aestuarina</i> SoJaBio B1 5 56 2	3	3	3	12	3	3	0	1	1
Discosea	<i>Paramoeba atlantica</i> 621 1 CCAP 1560 9	1	3	2	8	3	2	0	1	1
Discosea	<i>Pessonella</i> sp. PRA 29	1	1	3	0	1	5	0	2	3
Discosea	<i>Stygamoeba regulata</i> BSH 02190019	3	8	2	7	2	4	0	0	2
Discosea	<i>Trichosphaerium</i> sp. Am I 7 wt	2	0	0	1	2	3	0	0	2
Euglenophyta	<i>Eutreptiella gymnastica</i> like CCMP1594	1	1	1	5	2	1	0	1	1
Foraminifera	<i>Ammonia</i> sp. Unknown	1	1	3	9	5	2	0	1	1
Foraminifera	<i>Elphidium margaritaceum</i> Unknown	1	1	2	8	3	1	1	0	1
Foraminifera	<i>Rosalina</i> sp. Unknown	1	0	0	9	5	0	2	0	1
Foraminifera	<i>Sorites</i> sp. Unknown	3	3	0	27	12	3	0	0	2
Fungi	<i>Debaryomyces hansenii</i> J26	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	1
Glaucophyte	<i>Gloeochara wirockiana</i> SAG46_84	2	2	3	9	2	2	1	1	1
Haptophyte	<i>Calcidiscus leptoporus</i> RCC1130	1	3	0	7	1	1	1	0	1
Haptophyte	<i>Chrysochromulina brevifilum</i> UTEX LB 985	1	2	1	4	1	3	0	1	0
Haptophyte	<i>Chrysochromulina ericina</i> CCMP281	2	1	0	10	1	3	1	1	2
Haptophyte	<i>Chrysochromulina polylepis</i> CCMP1757	1	3	5	9	1	2	1	1	1
Haptophyte	<i>Chrysoculter rhomboideus</i> RCC1486	1	0	0	9	1	0	0	1	0
Haptophyte	<i>Coccolithus pelagicus</i> ssp <i>braarudi</i> PLY182g	1	3	0	7	1	2	1	1	0
Haptophyte	<i>Emiliana huxleyi</i> 374	1	2	1	9	1	1	0	0	0
Haptophyte	<i>Emiliana huxleyi</i> 379	1	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	0
Haptophyte	<i>Emiliana huxleyi</i> CCMP370	1	3	5	9	0	2	1	1	1
Haptophyte	<i>Emiliana huxleyi</i> PLYM219	1	3	4	10	0	2	1	1	1
Haptophyte	<i>Exanthemachrysis gayraliae</i> RCC1523	1	2	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
Haptophyte	<i>Gephyrocapsa oceanica</i> RCC1303	1	3	5	11	1	1	0	0	1
Haptophyte	<i>Imantonia</i> sp. RCC918	3	1	1	4	2	1	1	1	0
Haptophyte	<i>Isochrysis galbana</i> CCMP1323	2	5	6	13	2	3	1	0	2
Haptophyte	<i>Isochrysis</i> sp. CCMP1244	1	2	5	11	1	1	0	1	1
Haptophyte	<i>Isochrysis</i> sp. CCMP1324	1	2	0	12	1	2	1	0	1
Haptophyte	<i>Pavlova</i> sp. CCMP459	1	2	1	6	2	1	2	1	1
Haptophyte	<i>Phaeocystis antarctica</i> Caron Lab Isolate	3	7	2	12	1	3	2	0	2
Haptophyte	<i>Phaeocystis</i> sp. CCMP2710	1	0	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
Haptophyte	<i>Pleurochrysis carterae</i> CCMP645	3	2	1	7	1	2	1	1	1
Haptophyte	<i>Prymnesium parvum</i> Texoma1	1	6	4	1	1	2	1	1	1
Haptophyte	<i>Scyphosphaera apsteinii</i> RCC1455	1	3	1	7	1	2	1	0	1
Heterolobosea	<i>Percolomonas cosmopolitus</i> AE 1 ATCC 50343	1	4	2	9	2	2	0	0	1
Heterolobosea	<i>Percolomonas cosmopolitus</i> WS	1	3	1	12	1	2	0	0	3
Khakista	<i>Corethron pennatum</i> L29A3	2	5	5	16	1	1	1	0	1
Khakista	<i>Detonula confervacea</i> CCMP 353	1	3	2	9	1	1	2	1	1
Kinetoplastida	<i>Neobodo designis</i> CCAP 1951 1	1	1	4	8	1	1	0	0	1
Labyrinthulida	<i>Aplanochytrium</i> sp. PBS07	1	2	1	3	1	1	1	2	1
Labyrinthulida	<i>Aplanochytrium stocchinoi</i> GSBS06	1	2	0	7	1	1	1	1	1
Pelagophyte	<i>Aureococcus anophagefferens</i> CCMP1850	6	2	3	45	1	2	0	0	1
Pelagophyte	<i>Aureoumbra lagunensis</i> CCMP1510	1	2	2	9	1	2	1	0	1
Pelagophyte	<i>Chrysoyctis fragilis</i> CCMP3189	2	0	2	6	1	1	1	0	1

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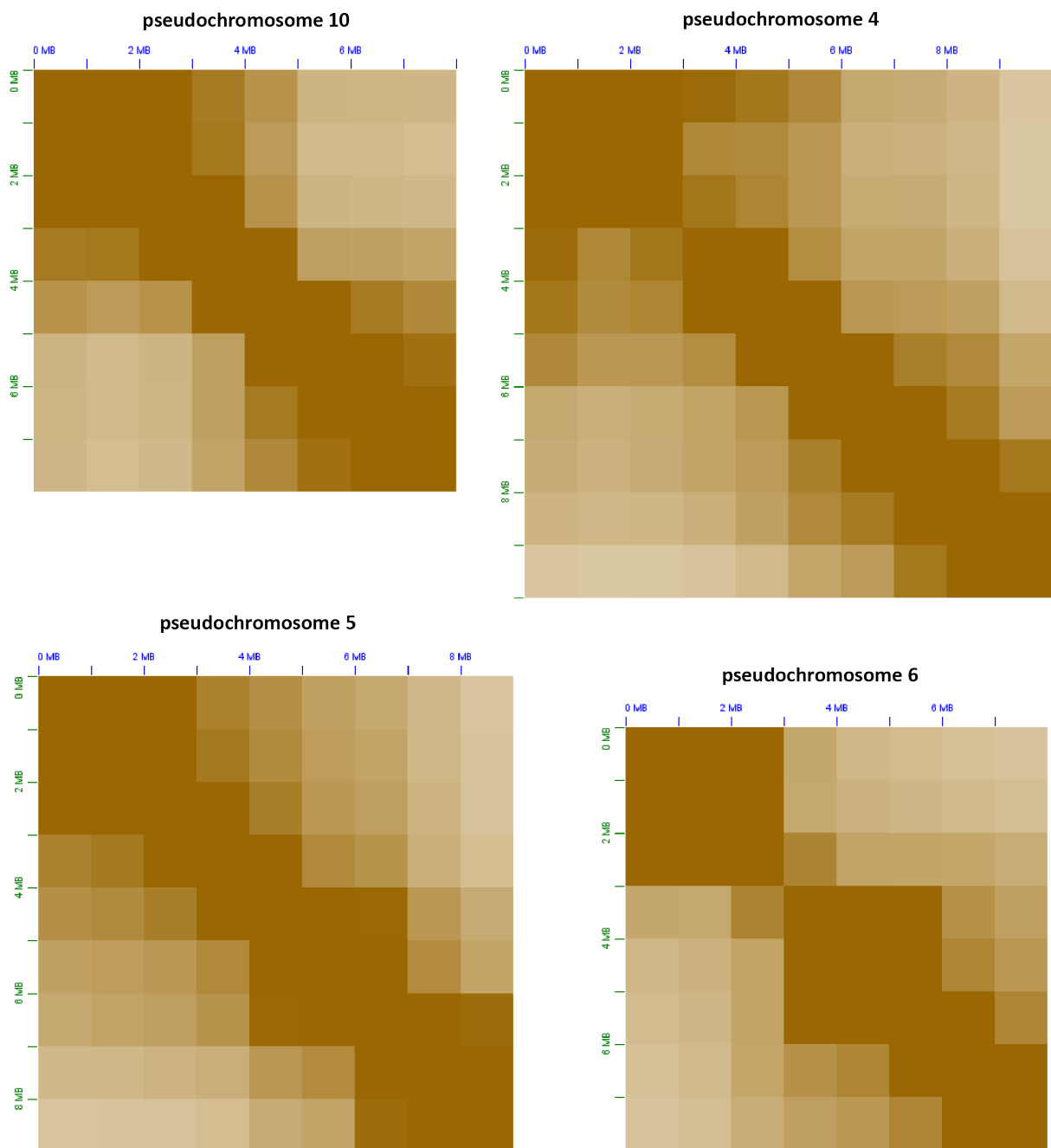
Supplementary Table 2 – Continued from previous page

clade	species	TOP1	TOP2	TOP3	MCM	PCNA	RPA1	RPA2	RPA3	RFC1
Pelagophyte	<i>Chrysoreinhardia</i> sp. CCMP2950	1	2	1	5	0	1	0	0	1
Pelagophyte	<i>Chrysoreinhardia</i> sp. CCMP3193	1	3	2	10	1	2	1	0	1
Pelagophyte	<i>Pelagomonas calceolata</i> CCMP1756	1	2	1	9	1	1	2	0	1
Pelagophyte	<i>Sarcinochrysis</i> sp. CCMP770	0	0	0	2	1	1	1	1	0
Perkinsid	<i>Perkinsus chesapeaki</i> ATCC_PRA.65	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Perkinsid	<i>Perkinsus marinus</i> ATCC50439	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
Pinguiophyte	<i>Phaeomonas parva</i> CCMP2877	1	3	1	5	3	1	0	1	0
Pinguiophyte	<i>Pinguicoccus pyrenoidosus</i> CCMP2078	1	2	3	0	1	1	0	1	0
Raphidophyte	<i>Chattonella subsalsa</i> CCMP2191	1	3	0	5	1	1	1	0	1
Raphidophyte	<i>Fibrocapsa japonica</i> CCMP1661	0	1	1	5	1	1	0	1	0
Raphidophyte	<i>Heterosigma akashiwo</i> CCMP2393	1	4	2	11	2	1	0	1	1
Raphidophyte	<i>Heterosigma akashiwo</i> CCMP3107	1	7	2	0	1	1	0	0	0
Raphidophyte	<i>Heterosigma akashiwo</i> CCMP452	0	1	0	4	1	1	0	0	0
Raphidophyte	<i>Heterosigma akashiwo</i> NB	1	6	1	8	1	1	0	1	1
Rhodophyte	<i>Compsopogon coeruleus</i> SAG 36.94	1	3	2	11	1	1	0	0	1
Rhodophyte	<i>Erythrolobus australicus</i> CCMP3124	1	2	3	0	1	1	0	1	1
Rhodophyte	<i>Erythrolobus madagascarensis</i> CCMP3276	1	1	1	3	1	2	0	1	0
Rhodophyte	<i>Madagascaria erythrocladiodes</i> CCMP3234	3	4	5	12	1	2	0	1	2
Rhodophyte	<i>Porphyridium aerugineum</i> SAG 1380 2	2	1	2	5	1	2	1	0	1
Rhodophyte	<i>Rhodella maculata</i> CCMP736	1	3	3	12	1	1	0	0	1
Rhodophyte	<i>Rhodorus marinus</i> CCMP 769	1	8	6	17	0	3	0	0	2
Rhodophyte	<i>Timpurckia oligopyrenoides</i> CCMP3278	1	2	4	6	1	2	1	1	1
Silicoflagellates	<i>Dictyocha speculum</i> CCMP1381	1	4	2	9	1	2	1	1	1
Silicoflagellates	<i>Pseudopedinella elastica</i> CCMP716	1	5	6	9	1	1	1	1	1
Silicoflagellates	<i>Pteridomonas danica</i> PT	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	0
Silicoflagellates	<i>Rhizochromulina marina</i> cf CCMP1243	1	5	2	8	2	2	1	1	1
Synchromophyceae	<i>Synchroma pusillum</i> CCMP3072	1	0	1	3	3	1	0	1	1
Syndinian	<i>Amoebophrya</i> sp. Ameob2	2	8	1	13	0	1	0	0	0
Thraustochytrid	<i>Aurantiochytrium limacinum</i> ATCCMYA1381	1	3	2	9	1	1	0	1	1
Thraustochytrid	<i>Schizochytrium aggregatum</i> ATCC28209	1	1	1	4	1	1	0	0	1
Thraustochytrid	<i>Thraustochytrium</i> sp. LLF1b	1	2	1	9	1	1	0	1	1
Tubulinid	<i>Filamoeba nolandii</i> NC AS 23 1	2	4	1	13	0	3	1	0	1
Tubulinid	<i>Sexangularia</i> sp. ATCC50979	0	6	7	14	2	2	1	0	3
Vanellinid	<i>Vannella robusta</i> DIVA3 518 3 11 1 6	1	2	3	6	1	2	1	1	1
Vanellinid	<i>Vannella</i> sp. DIVA3 517 6 12	6	6	9	13	1	1	0	1	1
Xantophyte	<i>Vaucheria litorea</i> CCMP2940	1	2	0	6	1	1	0	1	1

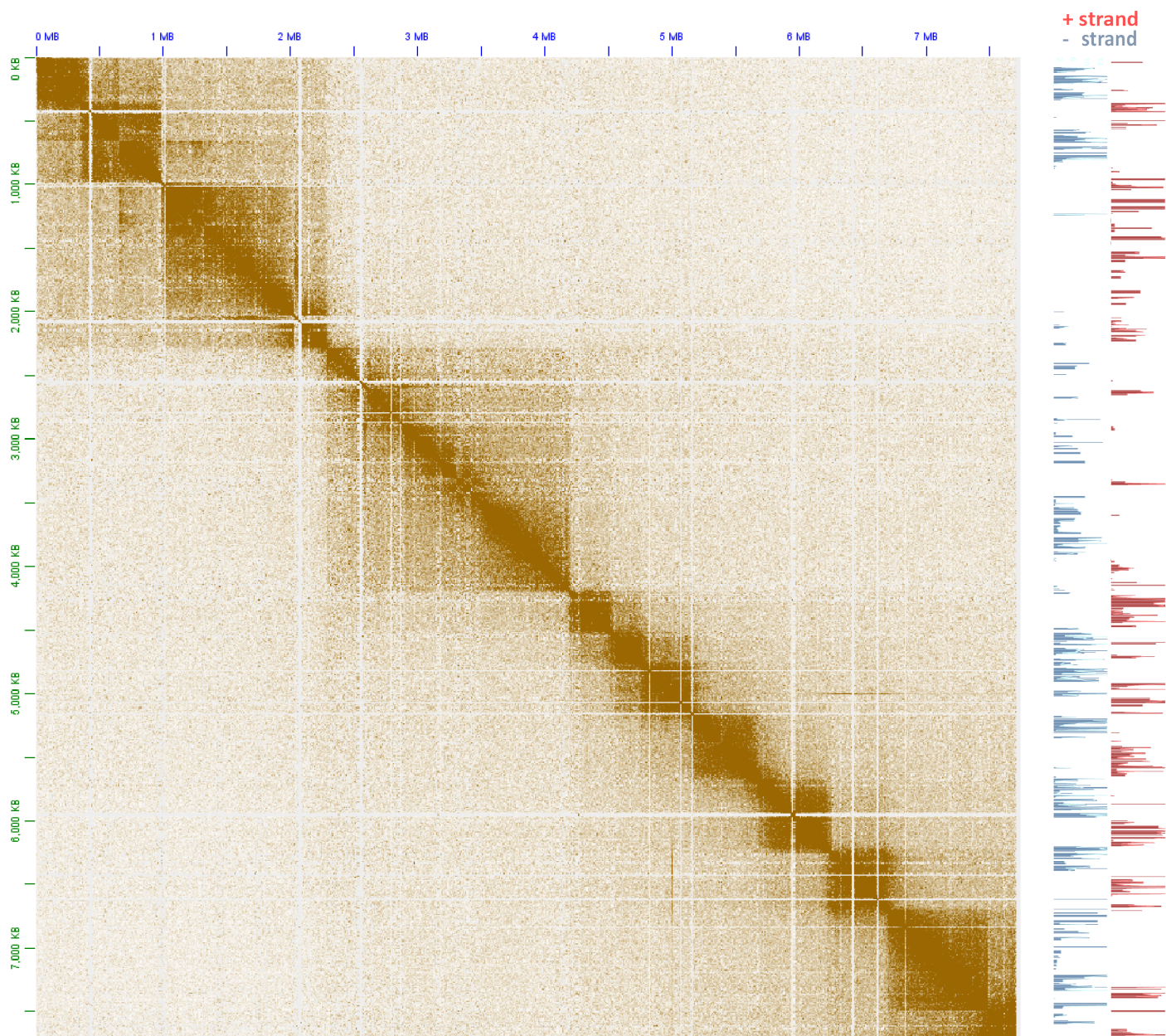
Supplementary Figures



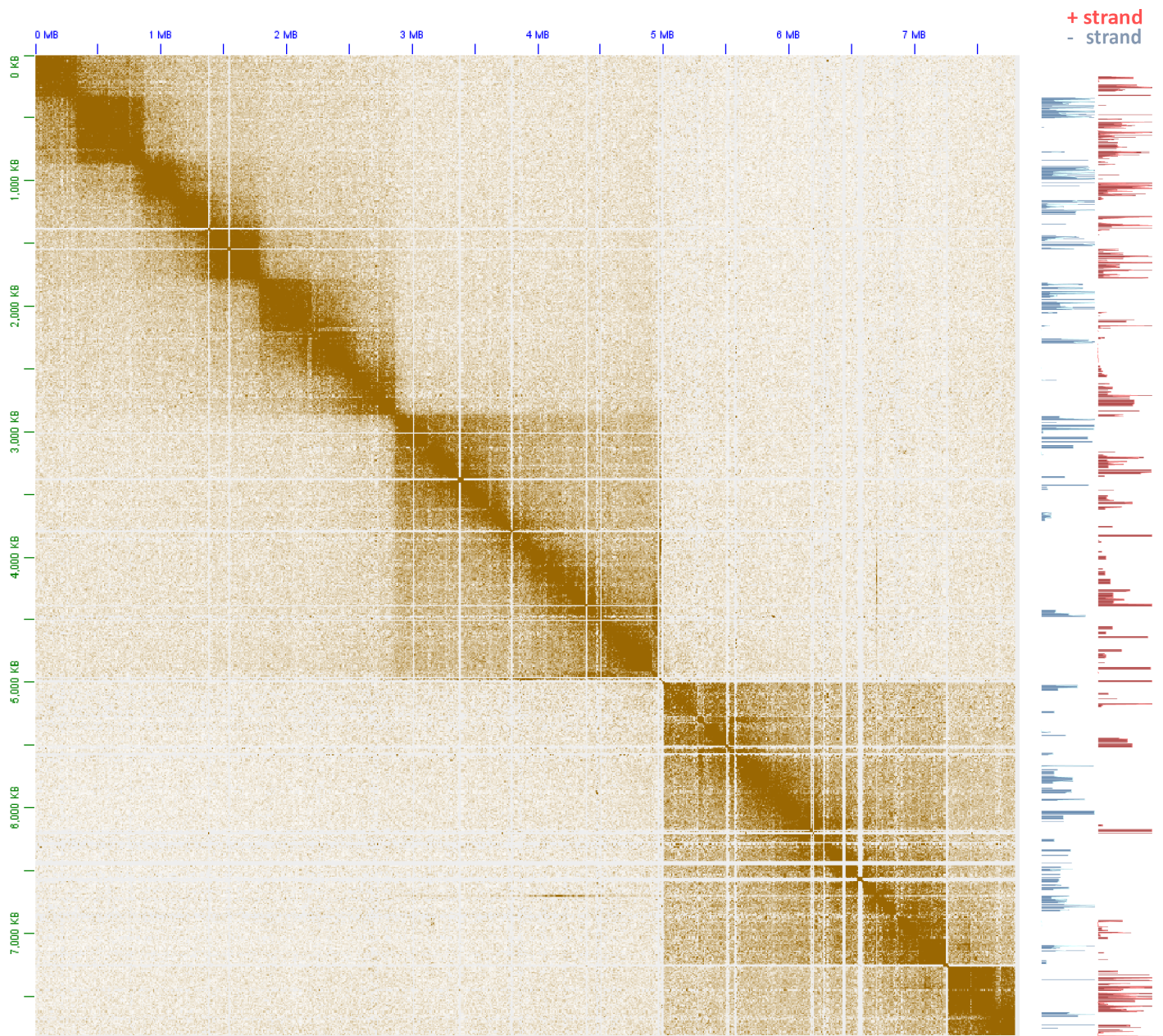
Supplementary Figure 1: Cumulative distribution of scaffolds and pseudochromosome sizes before and after Hi-C scaffolding of the draft *Breviolum/Symbiodinium minutum* assembly (19). 3D DNA(20) scaffolding of the assembly results in 91 major pseudochromosomes ≥ 500 kb encompassing $\sim 94\%$ of the assembled sequence.



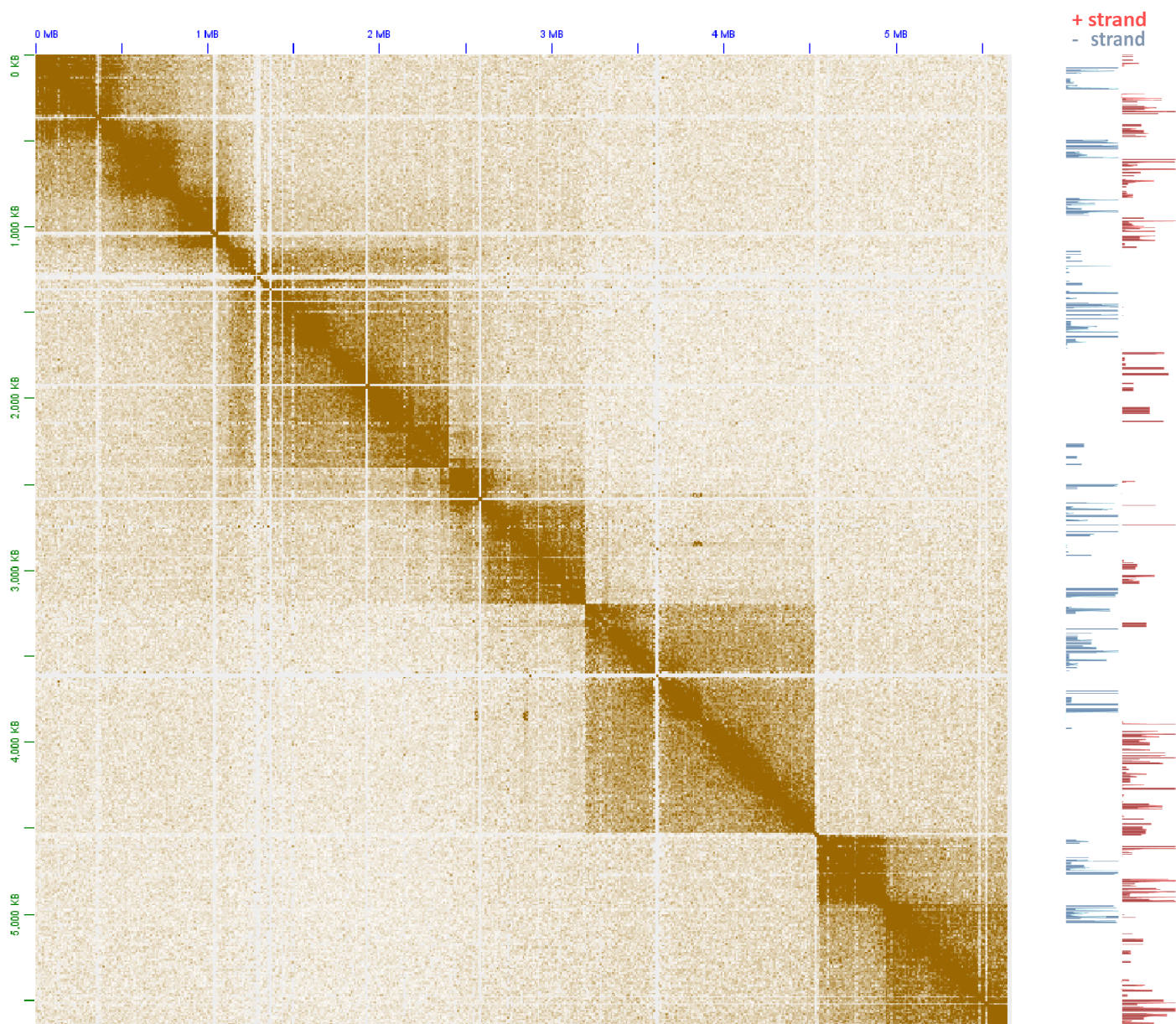
Supplementary Figure 2: Broad-level bipartite to tripartite topological structure of dinoflagellate. Shown are 1Mbp-resolution KR-normalized(1) Hi-C matrices for four of the *B. minutum* pseudochromosomes.



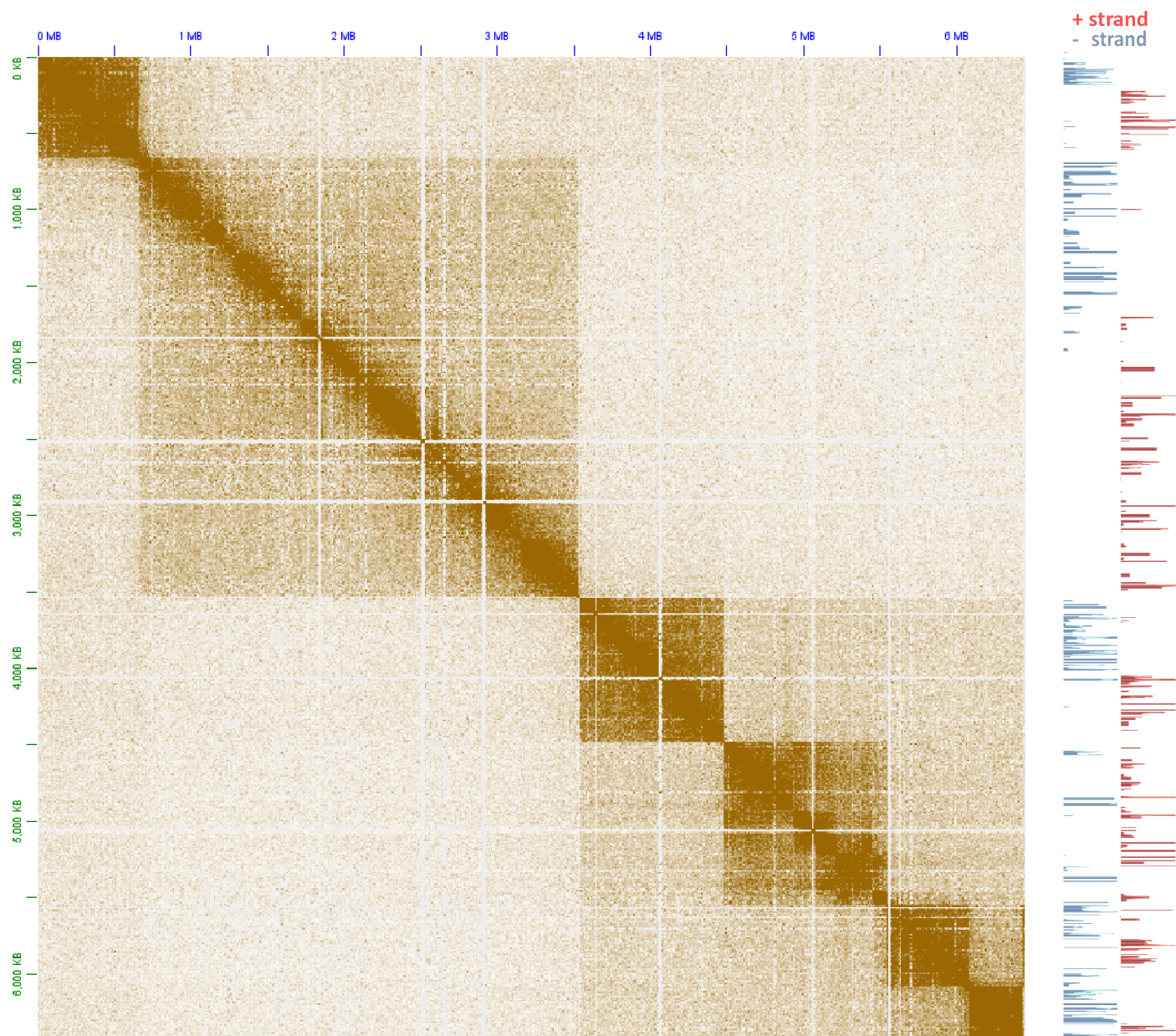
Supplementary Figure 3: The topological domain organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes is related to polycistronic gene array orientation. Shown is the 5kb-resolution KR-normalized Hi-C map together with strand-specific RNA expression levels for pseudochromosome 17.



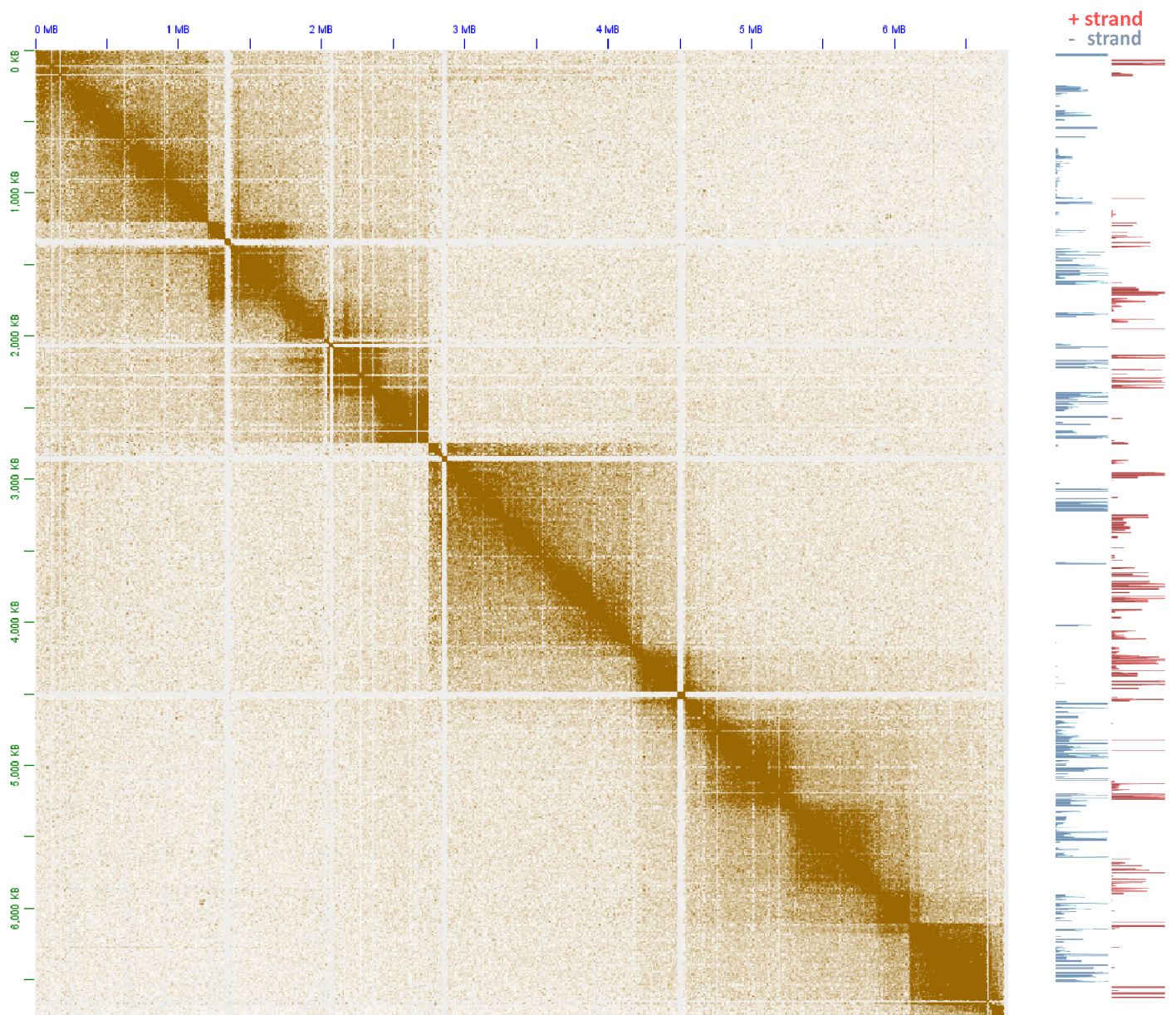
Supplementary Figure 4: The topological domain organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes is related to polycistronic gene array orientation. Shown is the 5kb-resolution KR-normalized Hi-C map together with strand-specific RNA expression levels for pseudochromosome 18.



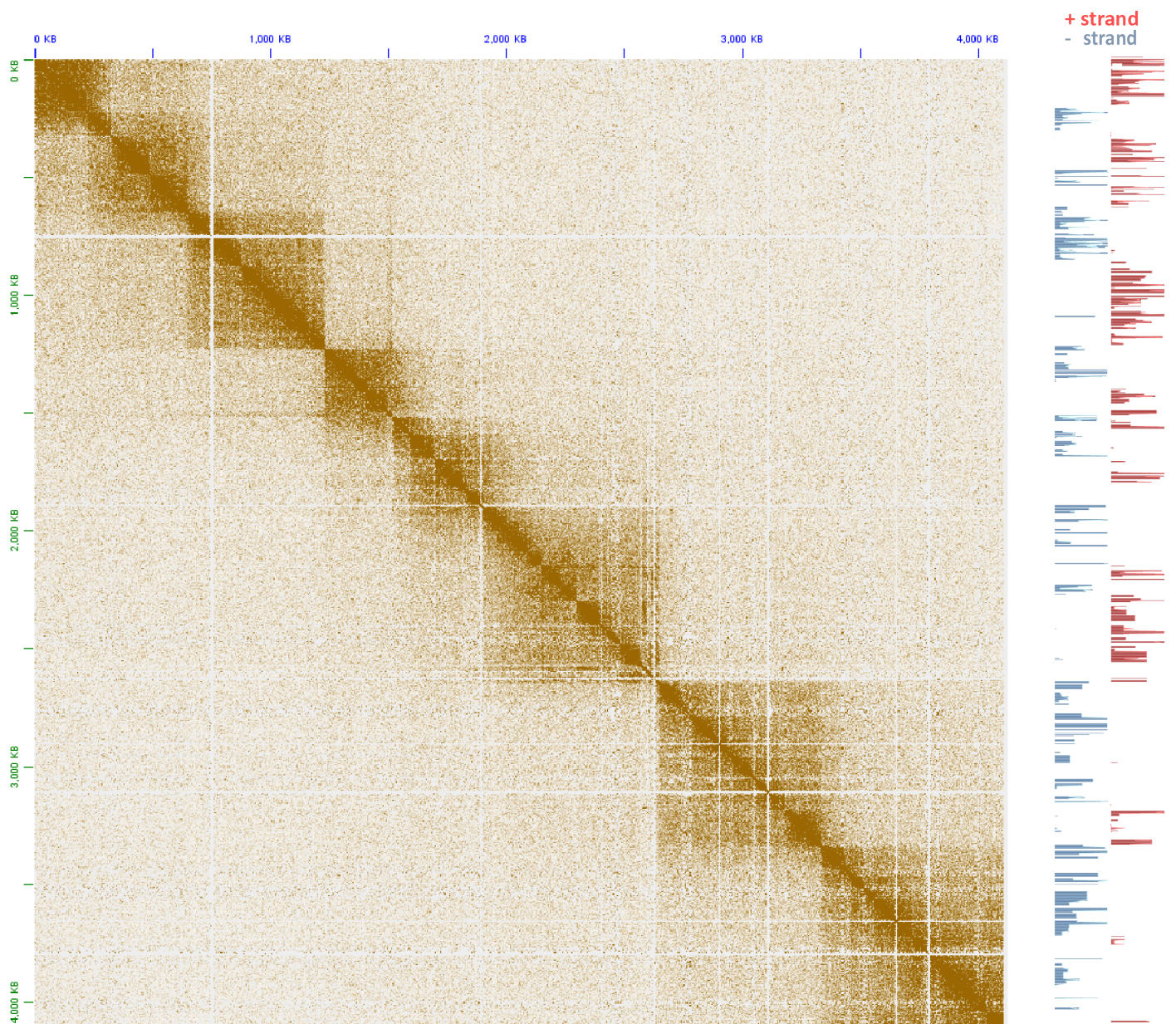
Supplementary Figure 5: The topological domain organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes is related to polycistronic gene array orientation. Shown is the 5kb-resolution KR-normalized Hi-C map together with strand-specific RNA expression levels for pseudochromosome 21.



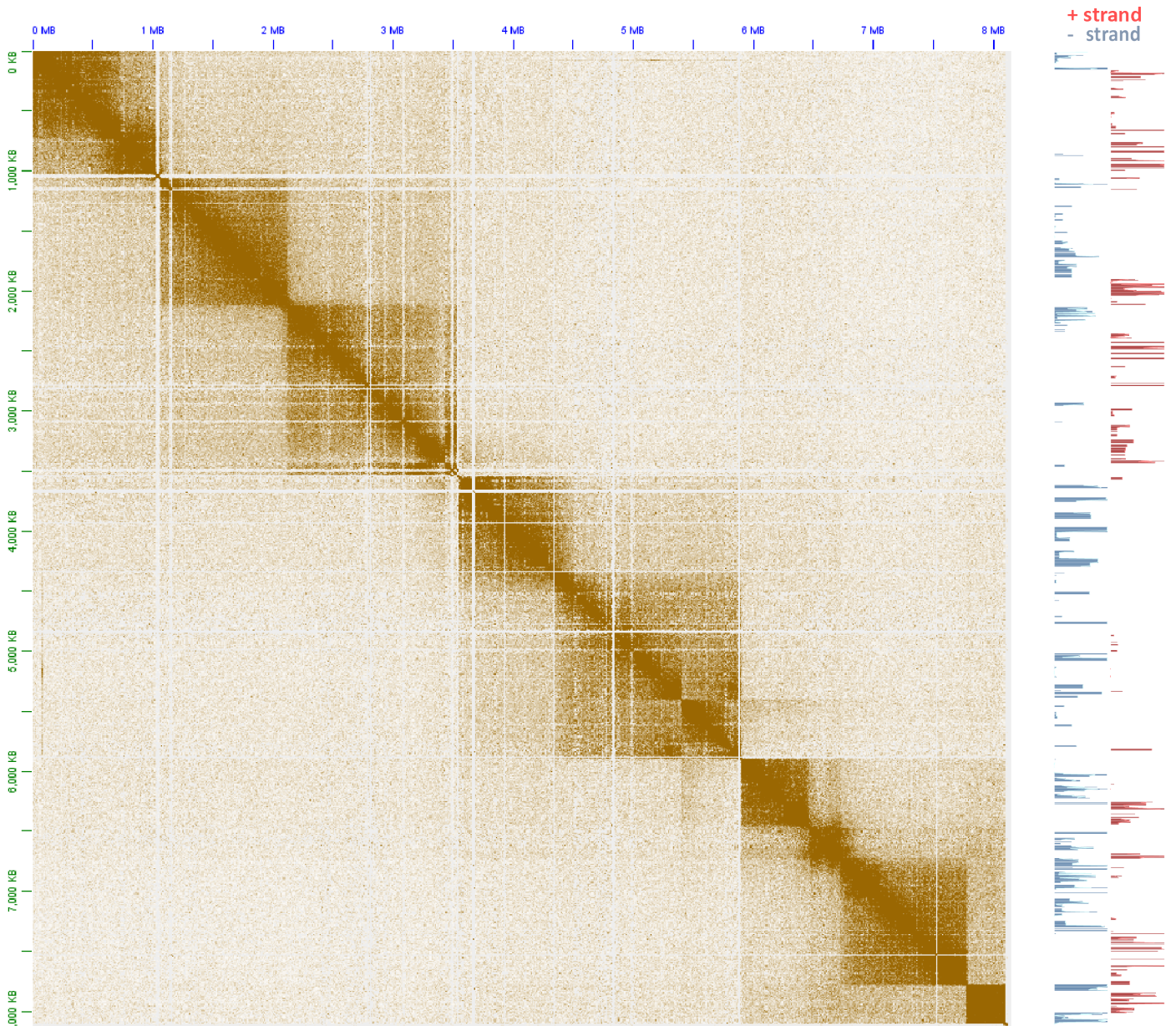
Supplementary Figure 6: The topological domain organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes is related to polycistronic gene array orientation. Shown is the 5kb-resolution KR-normalized Hi-C map together with strand-specific RNA expression levels for pseudochromosome 26.



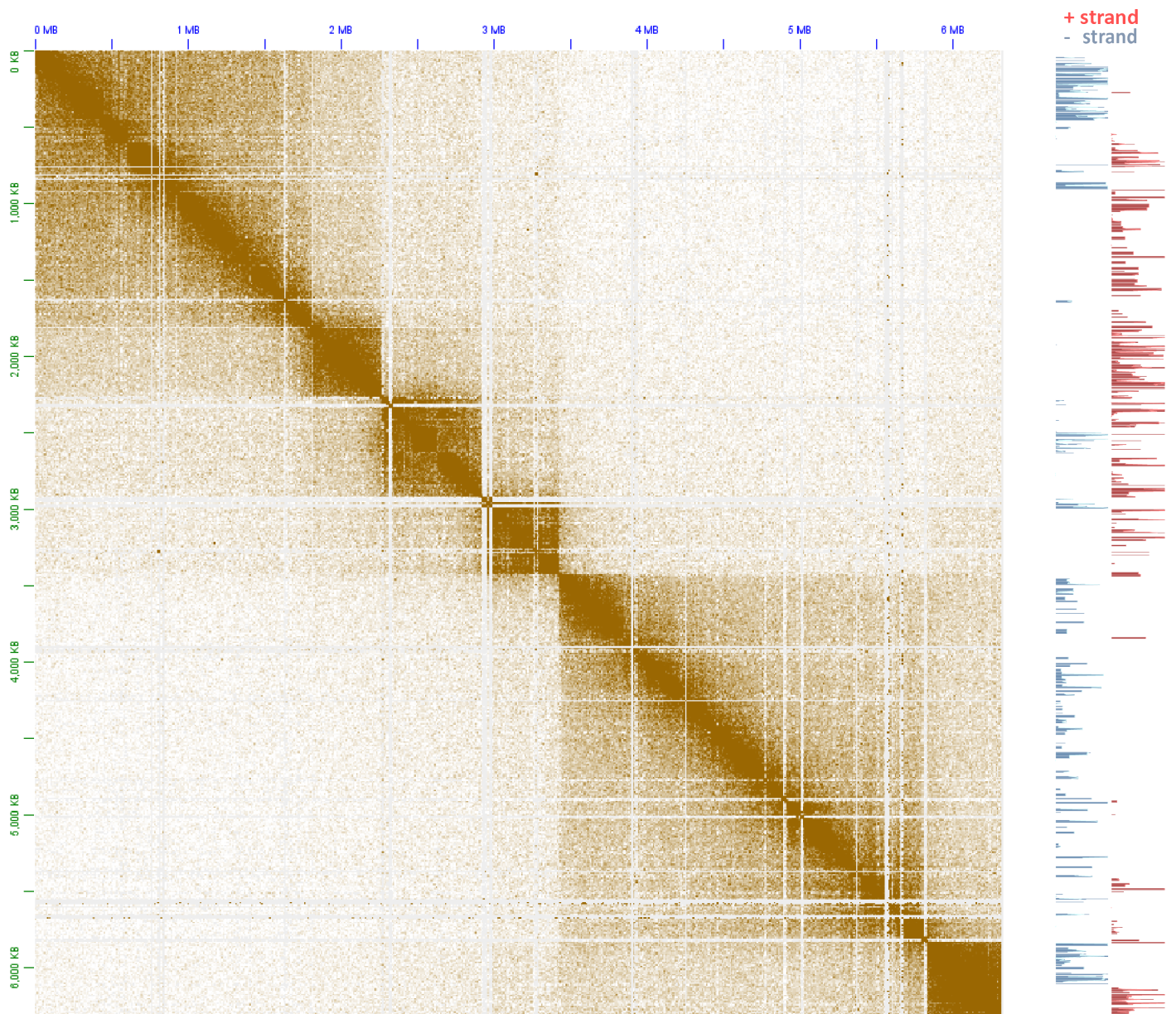
Supplementary Figure 7: The topological domain organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes is related to polycistronic gene array orientation. Shown is the 5kb-resolution KR-normalized Hi-C map together with strand-specific RNA expression levels for pseudochromosome 32.



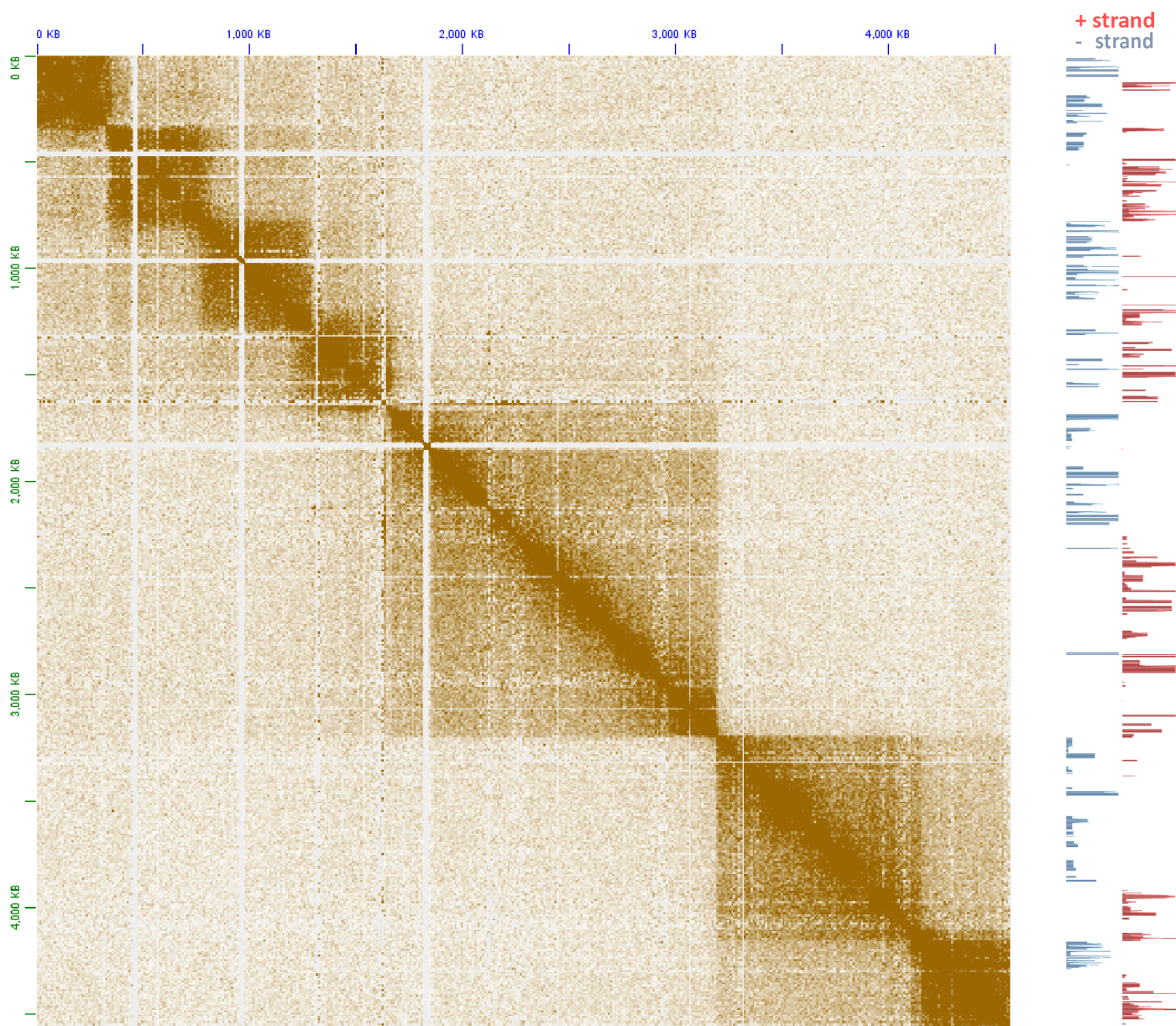
Supplementary Figure 8: The topological domain organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes is related to polycistronic gene array orientation. Shown is the 5kb-resolution KR-normalized Hi-C map together with strand-specific RNA expression levels for pseudo-chromosome 36.



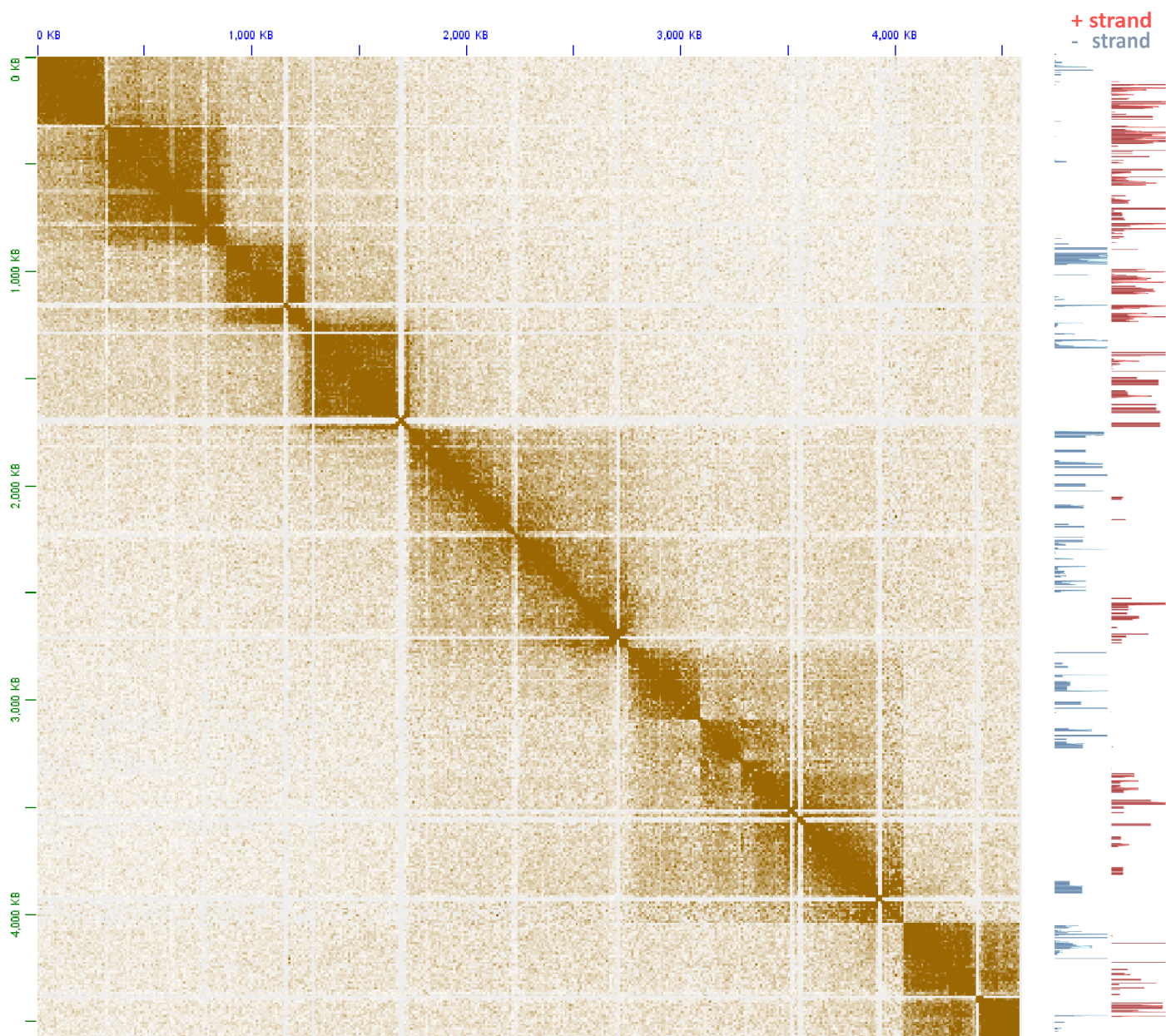
Supplementary Figure 9: The topological domain organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes is related to polycistronic gene array orientation. Shown is the 5kb-resolution KR-normalized Hi-C map together with strand-specific RNA expression levels for pseudochromosome 71.



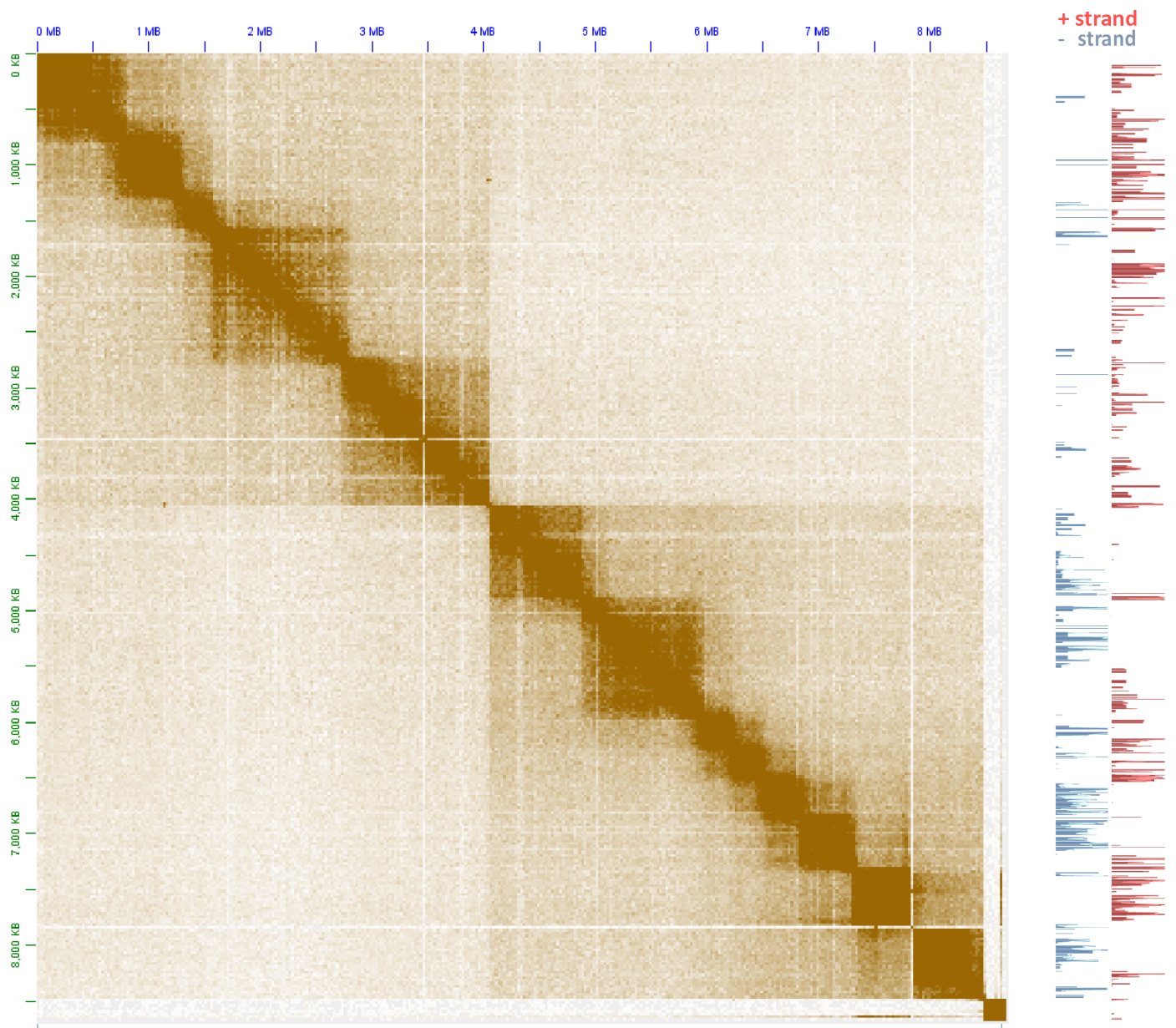
Supplementary Figure 10: The topological domain organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes is related to polycistronic gene array orientation. Shown is the 5kb-resolution KR-normalized Hi-C map together with strand-specific RNA expression levels for pseudo-chromosome 77.



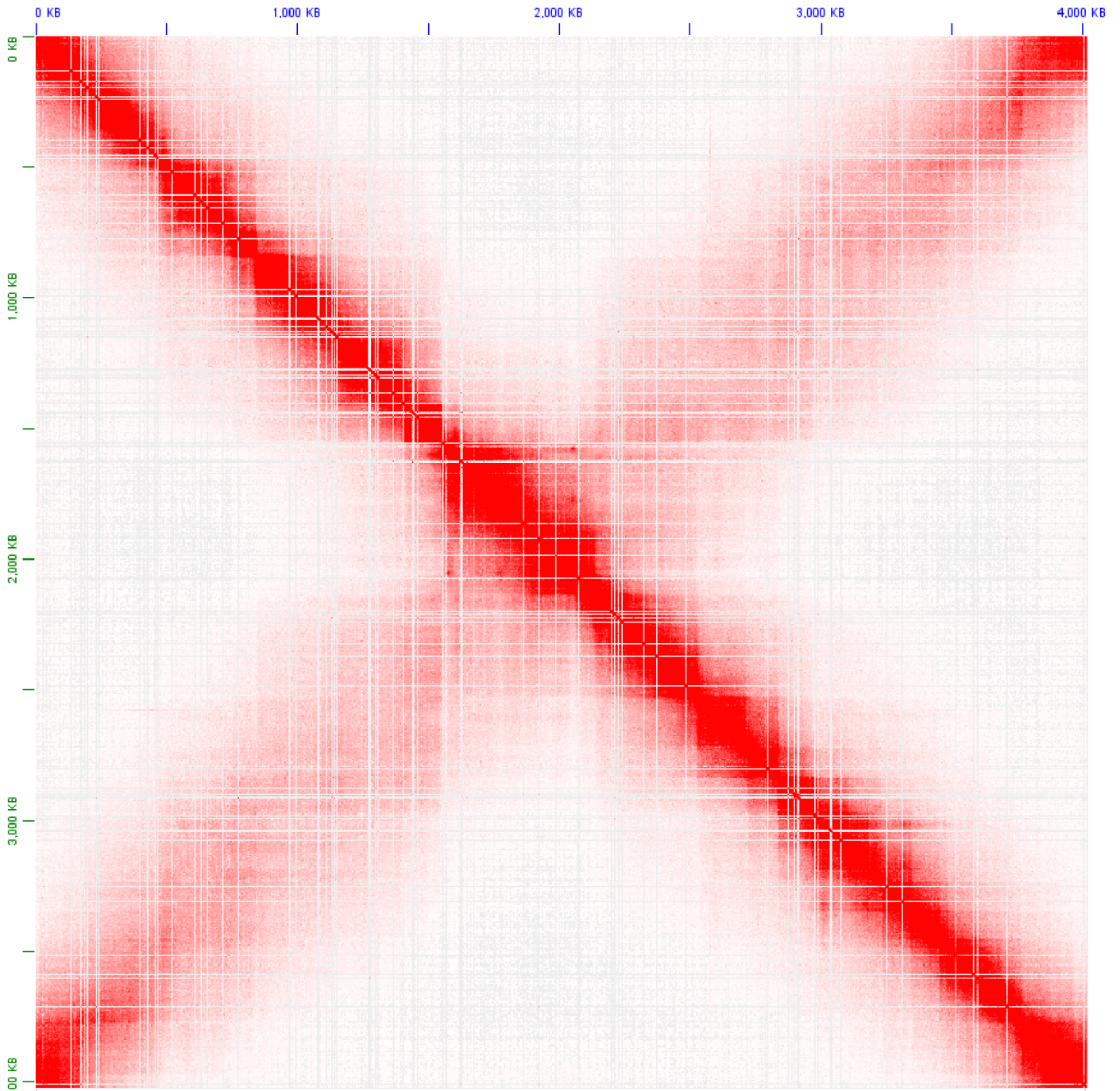
Supplementary Figure 11: The topological domain organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes is related to polycistronic gene array orientation. Shown is the 5kb-resolution KR-normalized Hi-C map together with strand-specific RNA expression levels for pseudochromosome 78.



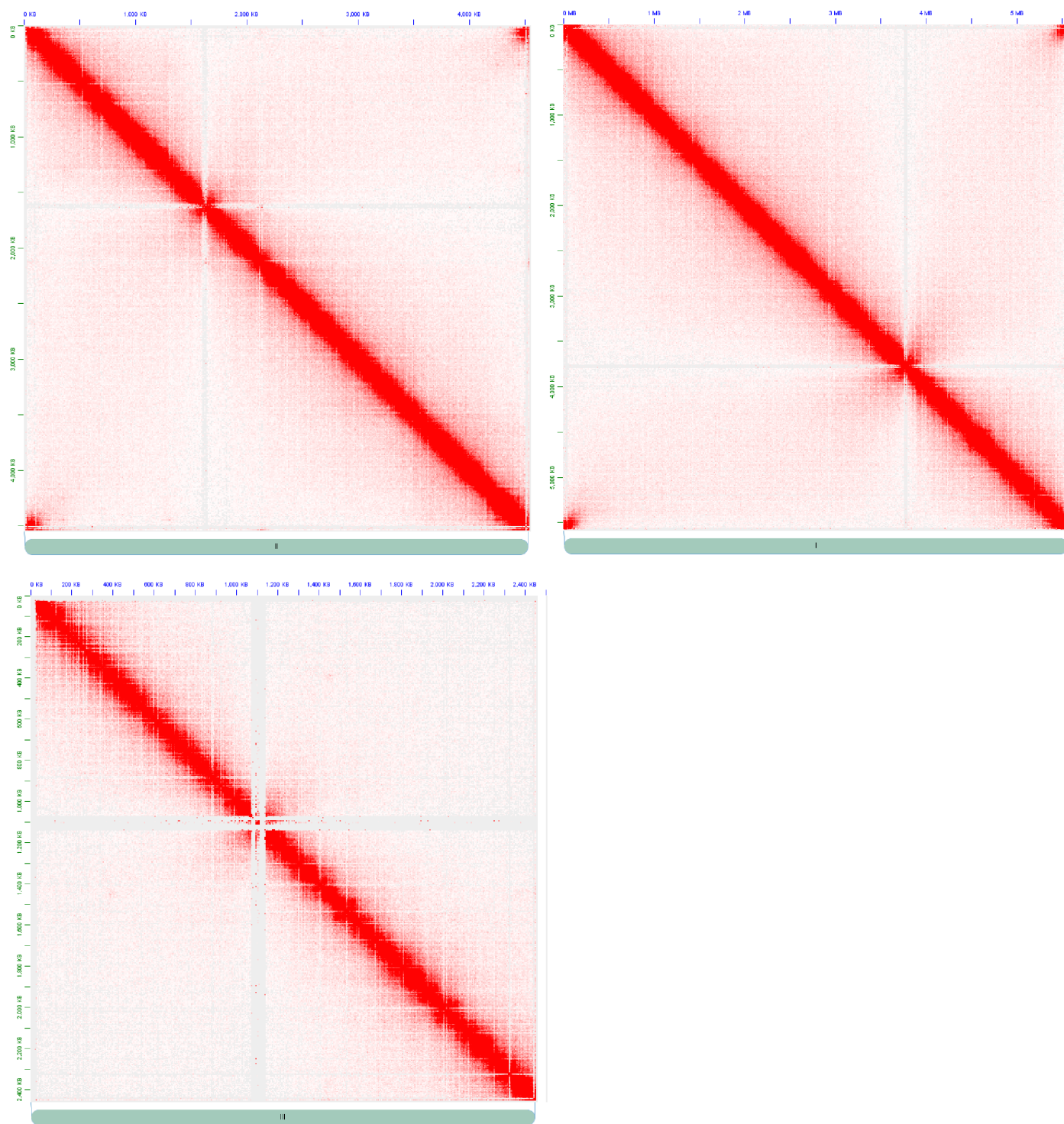
Supplementary Figure 12: The topological domain organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes is related to polycistronic gene array orientation. Shown is the 5kb-resolution KR-normalized Hi-C map together with strand-specific RNA expression levels for pseudochromosome 88.



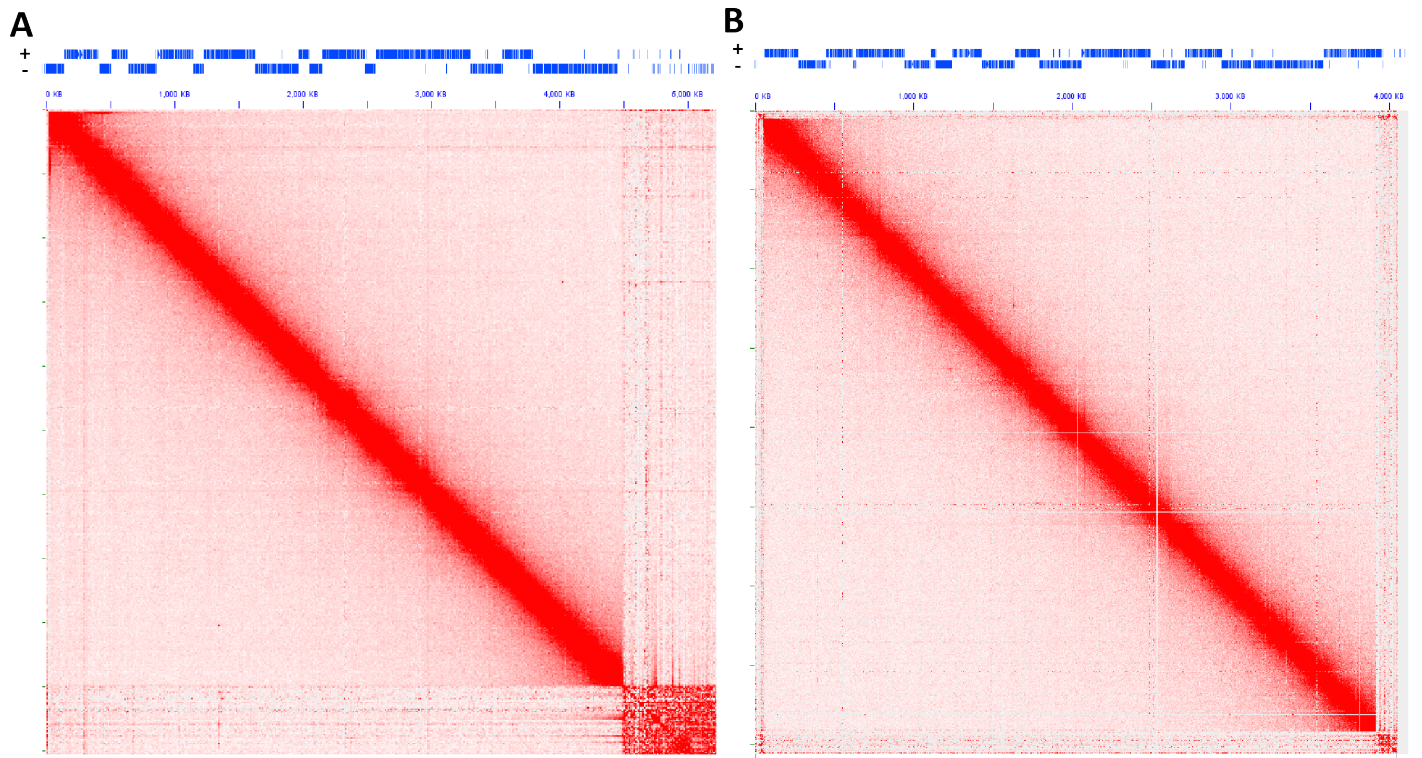
Supplementary Figure 13: The topological domain organization of dinoflagellate chromosomes is related to polycistronic gene array orientation. Shown is the 5kb-resolution KR-normalized Hi-C map together with strand-specific RNA expression levels for pseudochromosome 89.



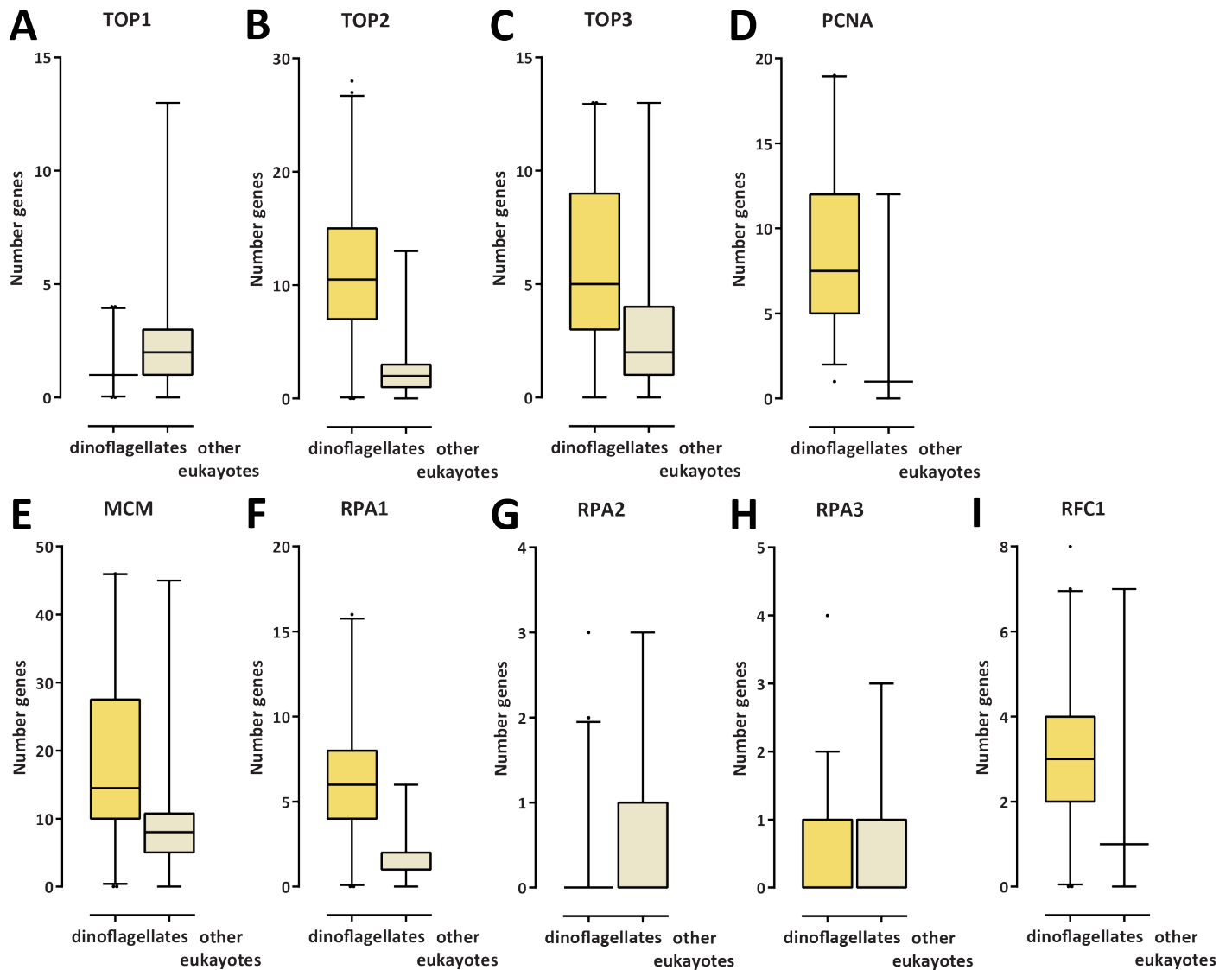
Supplementary Figure 14: Topological structure of the *Caulobacter crescentus* CB15 genome. Shown is the KR-normalized 5-kb resolution maps for the whole *Caulobacter* chromosome (GEO accession GSM1120448).



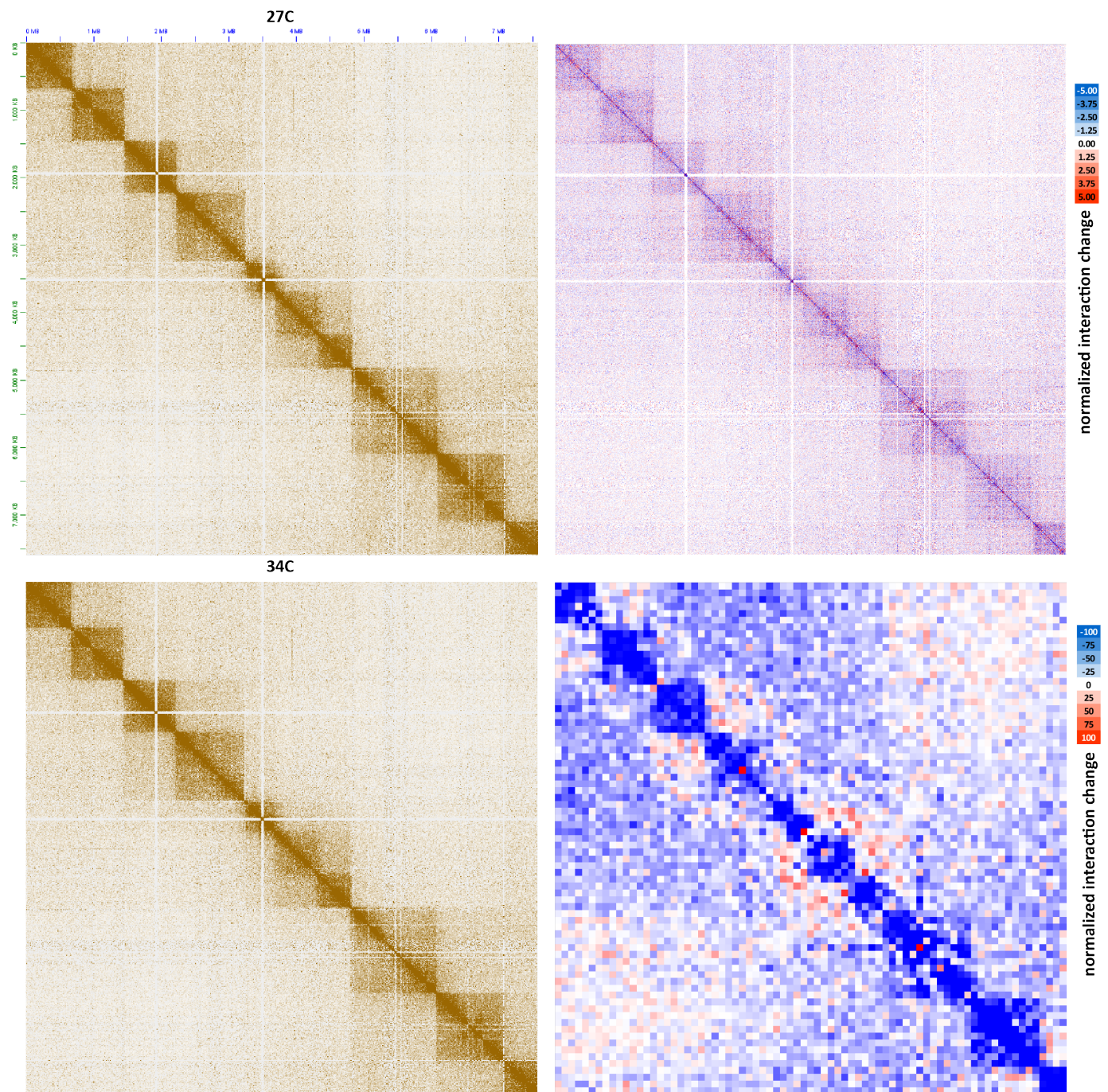
Supplementary Figure 15: Topological structure of the *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* genome. Shown are the KR-normalized 5-kb resolution maps for all three *S. pombe* chromosome (GEO accession GSM1379427).



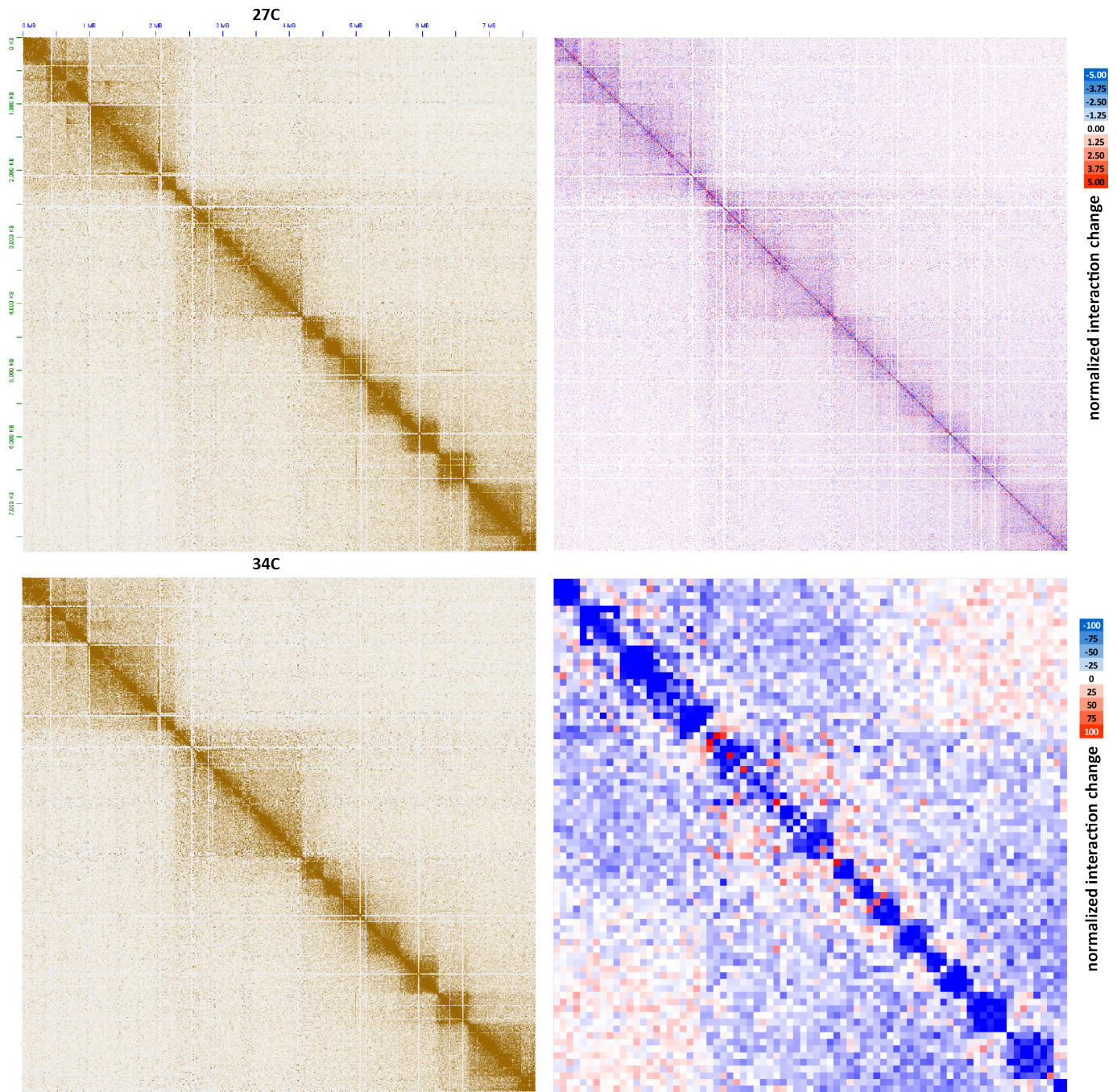
Supplementary Figure 16: No topological domains associated with gene arrays are observed in the kinetoplastid *Trypanosoma brucei*. Shown are KR-normalized 10-kb resolution maps for chr11 (A) and chr10 (B) for GEO accession GSM3346690.



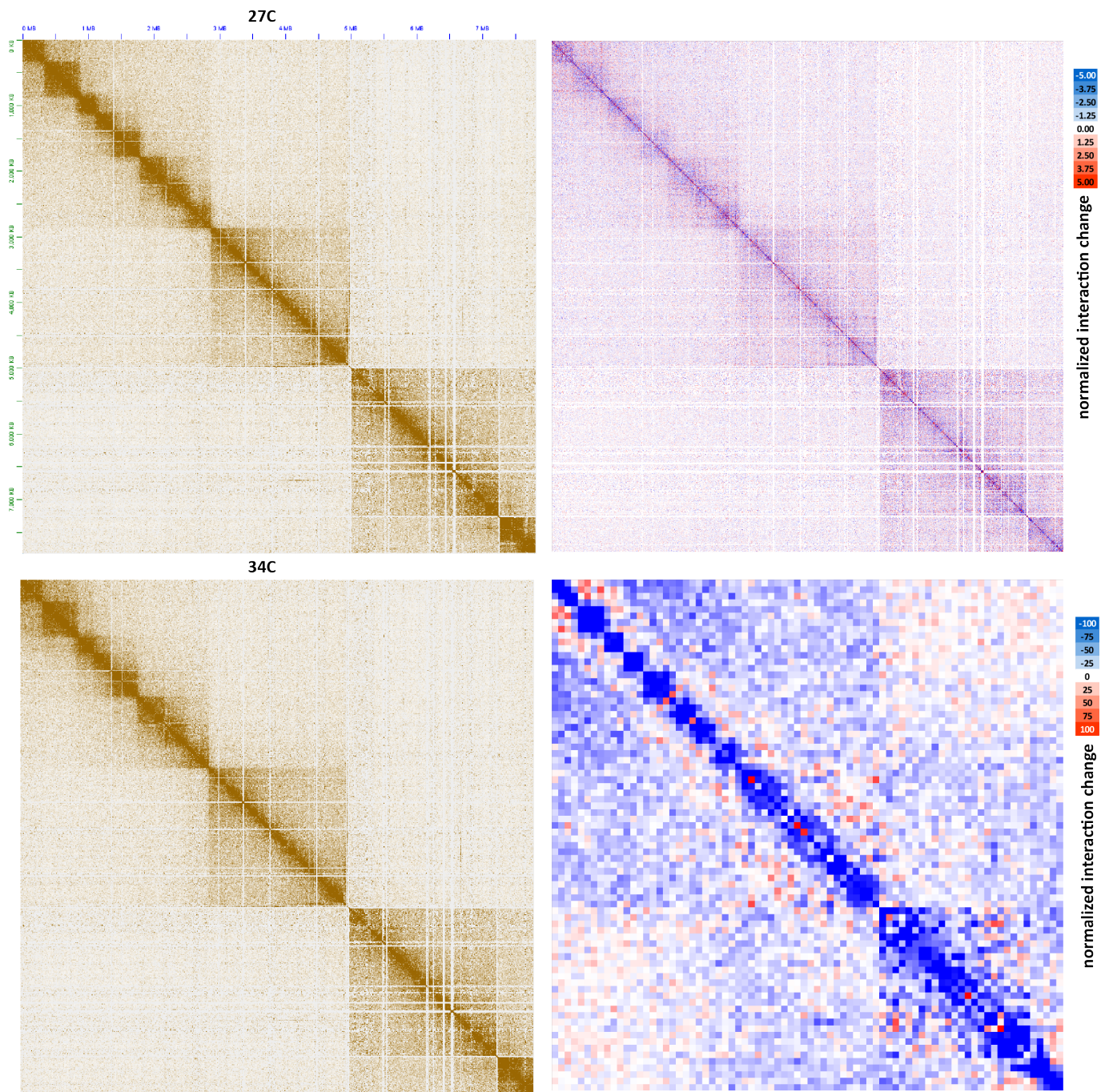
Supplementary Figure 17: Expansion of the Type II and III topoisomerase gene repertoire as well as of certain other replication-related proteins in dinoflagellates. Shown are the number of genes annotated in MMETSP transcriptome assemblies of dinoflagellates and other eukaryotes. (A) Number of Type I topoisomerase genes; (B) Number of Type II topoisomerase genes; (C) Number of Type III topoisomerase genes; (D) Number of PCNA genes; (E) Number of MCM genes; (F) Number of RPA1 genes; (G) Number of RPA2 genes; (H) Number of RPA3 genes; (I) Number of RFC1 genes.



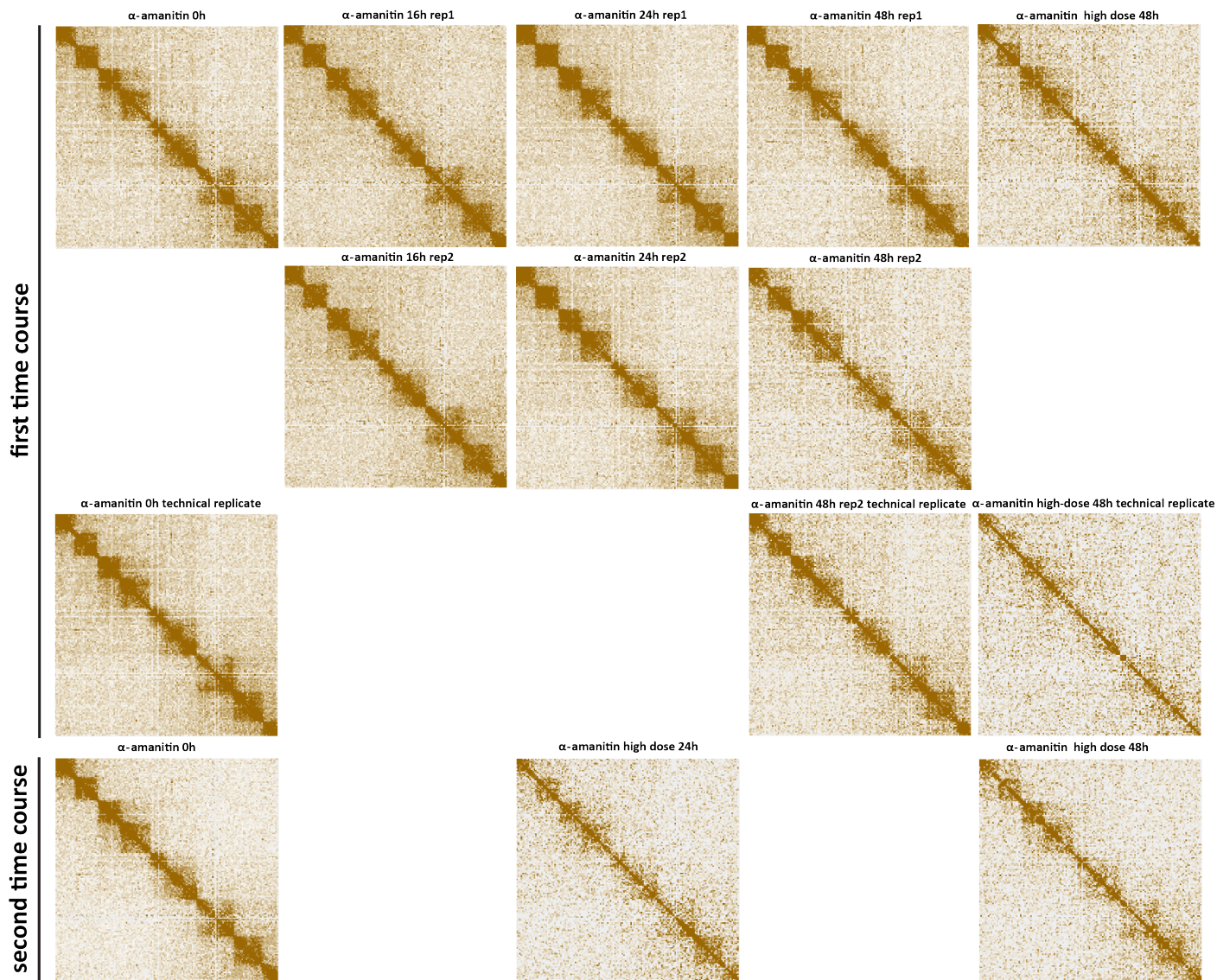
Supplementary Figure 18: Moderate decompaction of dinoTADs upon exposure to elevated temperatures. Shown is pseudo-chromosome 10 (KR-normalized) and the difference between the KR-normalized Hi-C maps generated from *B. minutum* grown at 34°C and at 27°C at 100-kb resolution (lower right) and 5-kb resolution (upper right).



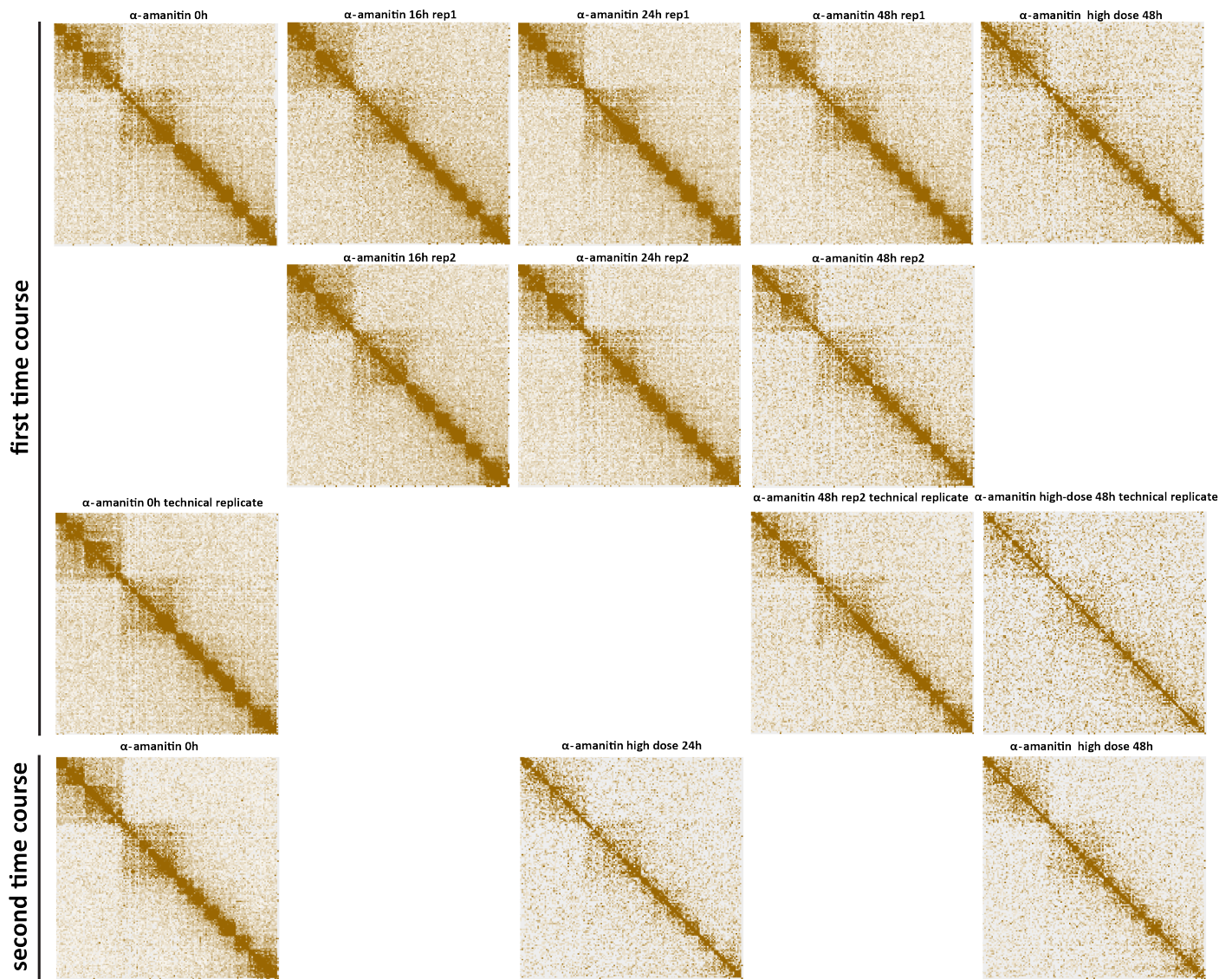
Supplementary Figure 19: Moderate decompaction of dinoTADs upon exposure to elevated temperatures. Shown is pseudo-chromosome 17 (KR-normalized) and the difference between the KR-normalized Hi-C maps generated from *B. minutum* grown at 34°C and at 27°C at 100-kb resolution (lower right) and 5-kb resolution (upper right).



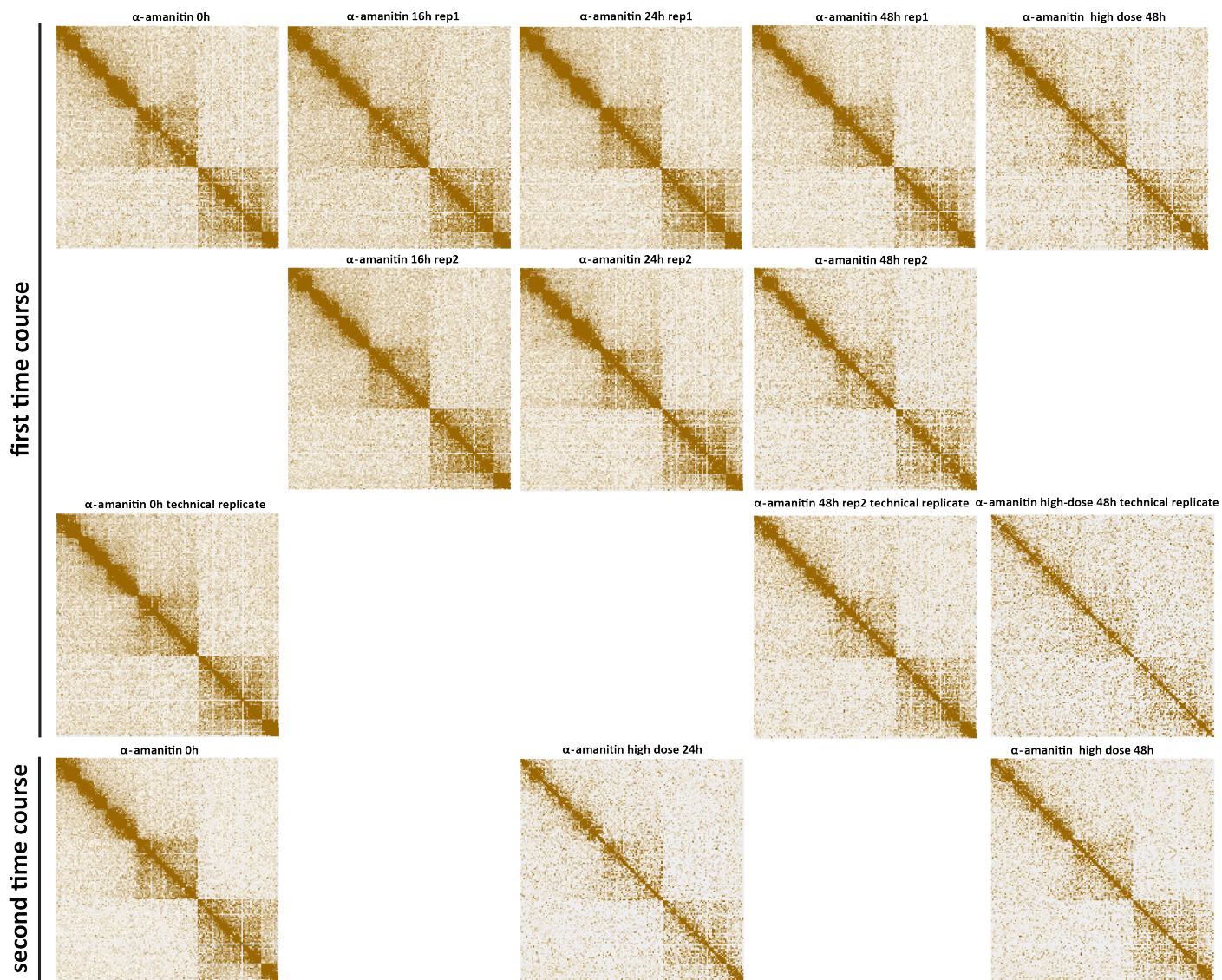
Supplementary Figure 20: Moderate decompaction of dinoTADs upon exposure to elevated temperatures. Shown is pseudo-chromosome 18 (KR-normalized) and the difference between the KR-normalized Hi-C maps generated from *B. minutum* grown at 34°C and at 27°C at 100-kb resolution (lower right) and 5-kb resolution (upper right).



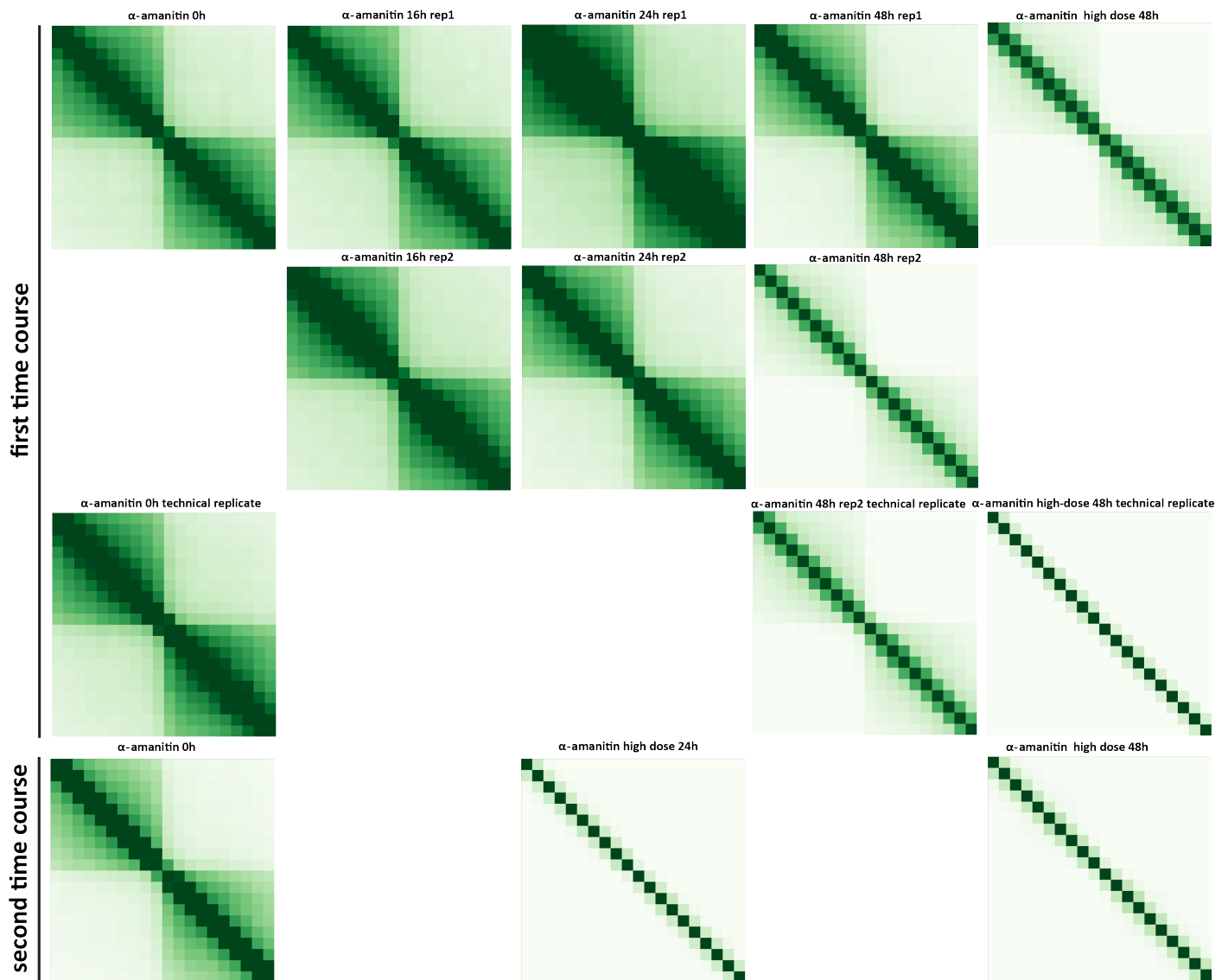
Supplementary Figure 21: Decompaction of dinoTADs upon transcriptional inhibition using α -amanitin.
 Shown is pseudochromosome 10. Two time courses were carried out following the outline presented in Figure 2B.



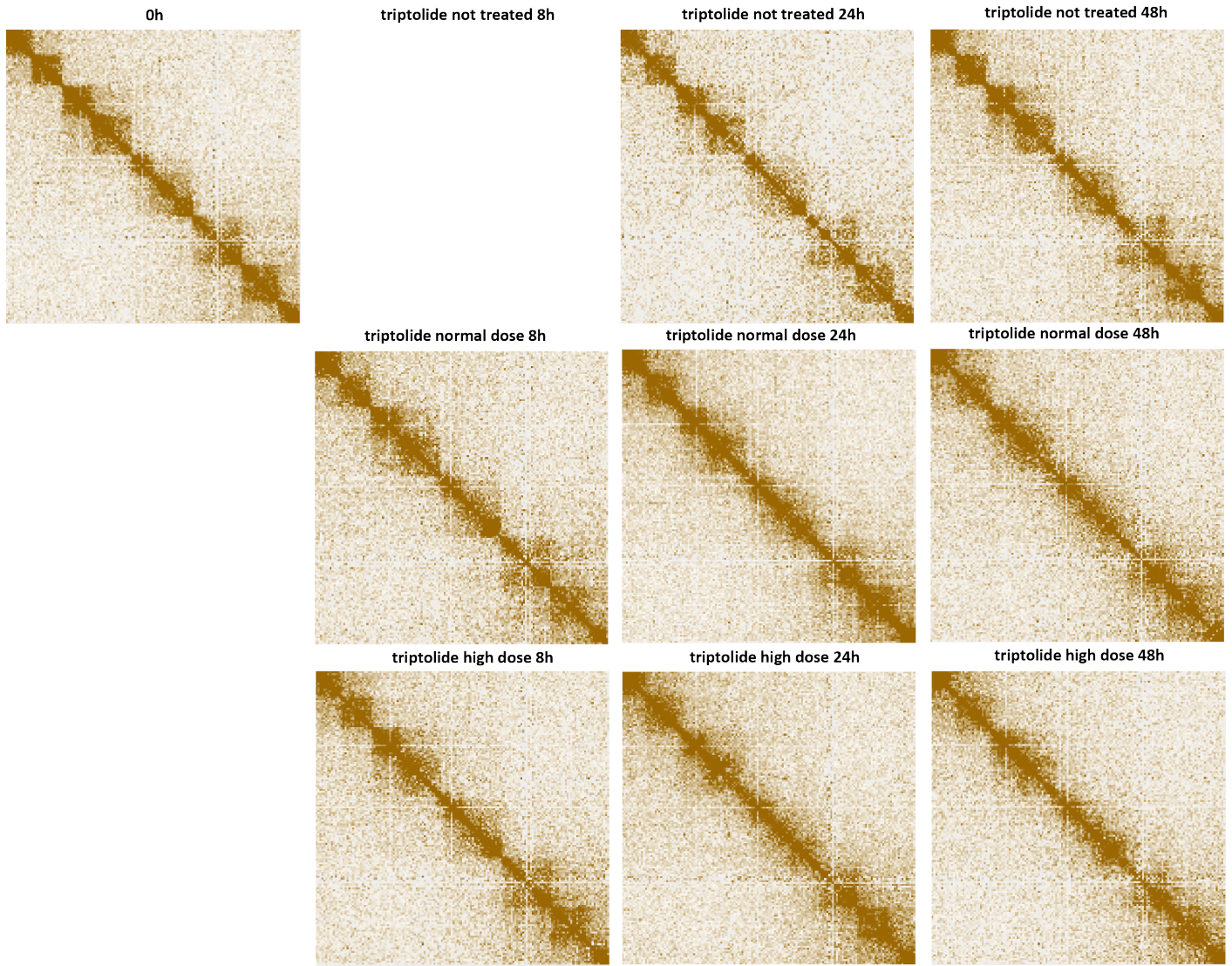
Supplementary Figure 22: Decompaction of dinoTADs upon transcriptional inhibition using α -amanitin. Shown is pseudo-chromosome 17. Two time courses were carried out following the outline presented in Figure 2B.



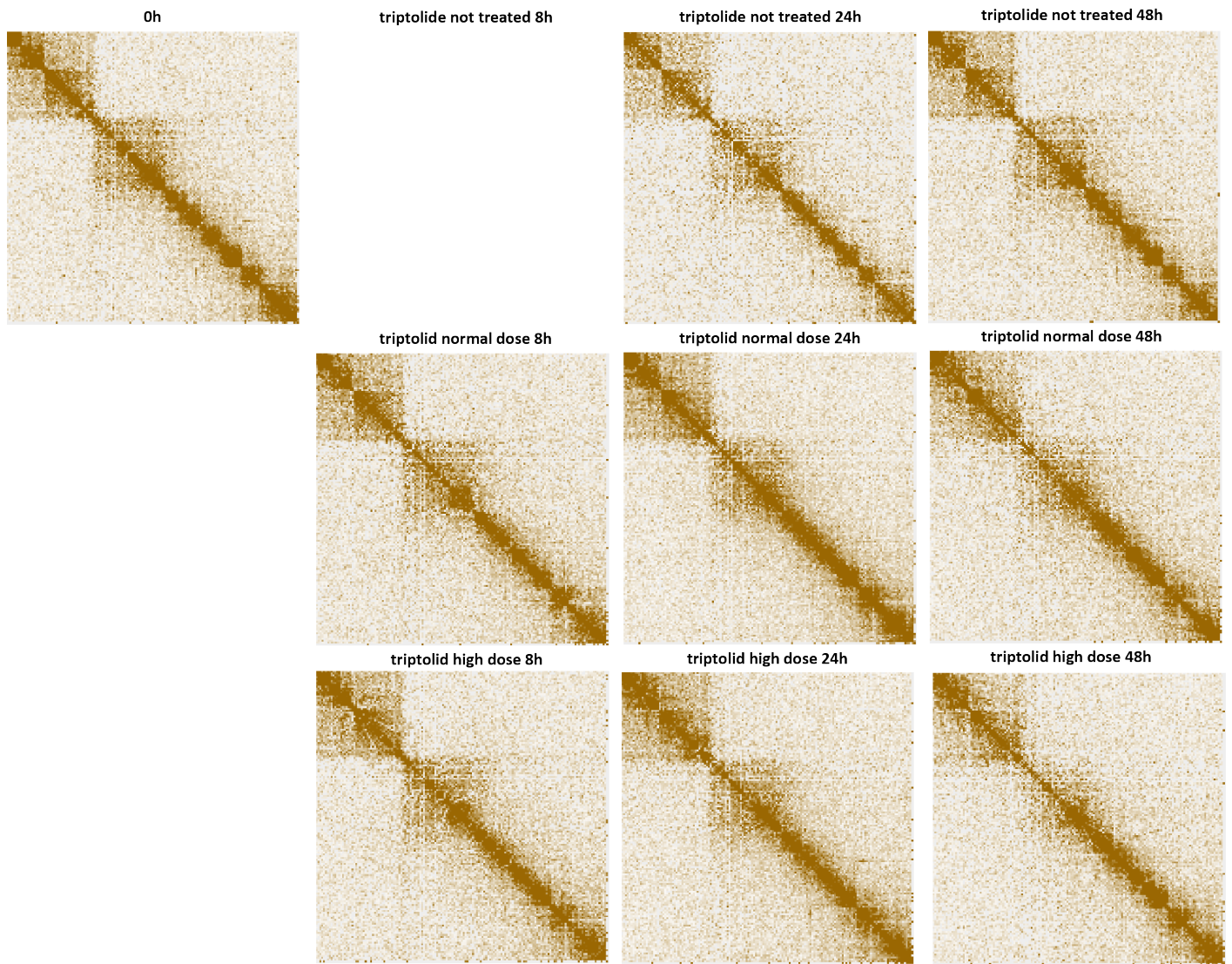
Supplementary Figure 23: Decompaction of dinoTADs upon transcriptional inhibition using α -amanitin. Shown is pseudo-chromosome 18. Two time courses were carried out following the outline presented in Figure 2B.



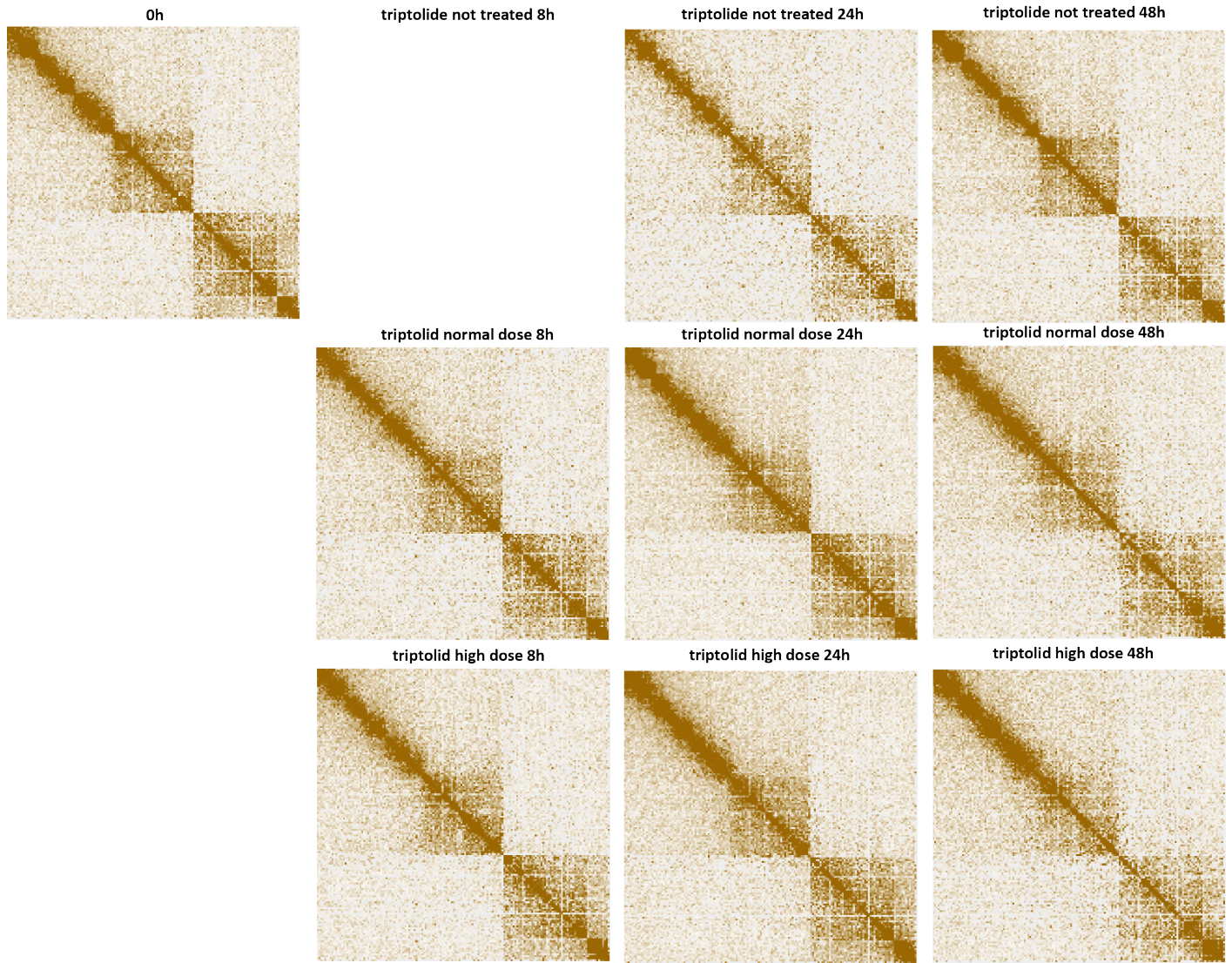
Supplementary Figure 24: Decompaction of dinoTADs upon transcriptional inhibition using α -amanitin. Shown are 50-kb resolution metaplots centered on dinoTAD domain boundaries. Two time courses were carried out following the outline presented in Figure 2B.



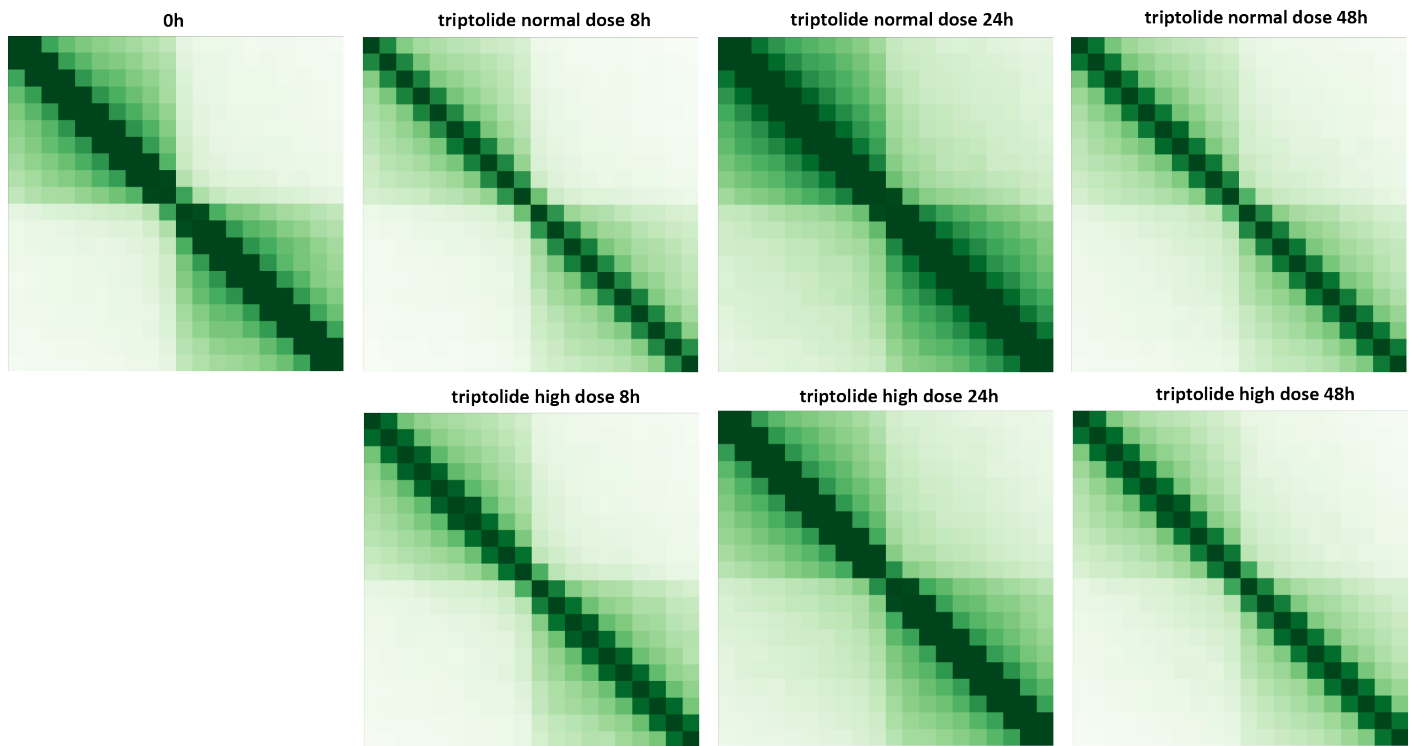
Supplementary Figure 25: Blurring of dinoTAD boundaries upon transcriptional inhibition using triptolide. Shown is pseudochromosome 10. The triptolide time course was carried out following the outline presented in Figure 2B.



Supplementary Figure 26: Blurring of dinoTAD boundaries upon transcriptional inhibition using triptolide. Shown is pseudo-chromosome 17. The triptolide time course was carried out following the outline presented in Figure 2B.



Supplementary Figure 27: Blurring of dinoTAD boundaries upon transcriptional inhibition using triptolide. Shown is pseudochromosome 18. The triptolide time course was carried out following the outline presented in Figure 2B.



Supplementary Figure 28: Blurring of dinoTAD boundaries upon transcriptional inhibition using triptolide. Shown are 50-kb resolution metaplots centered on dinoTAD domain boundaries. The triptolide time course was carried out following the outline presented in Figure 2B.