REPORT

Metamorphosis and acquisition of symbiotic algae in planula larvae and primary polyps of *Acropora* spp.

M. Hirose · H. Yamamoto · M. Nonaka

Received: 12 June 2007 / Accepted: 8 October 2007 / Published online: 9 November 2007 © Springer-Verlag 2007

Abstract Coral planulae settle, then metamorphose and form polyps. This study examined the morphological process of metamorphosis from planulae into primary polyps in the scleractinian corals Acropora nobilis and Acropora microphthalma, using the cnidarian neuropeptide Hym-248. These two species release eggs that do not contain Symbiodinium. The mode of acquisition of freshly isolated Symbiodinium (zooxanthellae) (FIZ) by the non-symbiotic polyp was also examined. Non-Hym-248 treated swimming Acropora planulae did not develop blastopore, mesenteries or coelenteron until the induction of metamorphosis 16 days after fertilization. The oral pore was formed by invagination of the epidermal layer after formation of the coelenteron in metamorphosing polyps. At 3 days after settlement and metamorphosis, primary polyps exposed to FIZ established symbioses with the Symbiodinium. Two-four days after exposure to FIZ, the distribution of Symbiodinium was limited to the gastrodermis of the pharynx and basal part of the polyps. Eight-ten days after exposure to FIZ, Symbiodinium were present in gastrodermal cells throughout the polyps.

Keywords Metamorphosis · Planulae · *Acropora* · *Symbiodinium* · Hym-248

Communicated by Biology Editor M.P. Lesser.

M. Hirose (🖂)

Department of Chemistry, Biology and Marine Science, University of the Ryukyus, 1 Senbaru, Nishihara, Okinawa 903-0213, Japan e-mail: mhirose@zenno.jp

H. Yamamoto · M. NonakaOkinawa Churaumi Aquarium,424 Ishikawa, Motobu, Okinawa 905-0206, Japan

Introduction

Scleractinian corals are characterized by a calcium carbonate skeleton produced by the epidermis, and by symbiotic dinoflagellates (zooxanthellae, *Symbiodinium* spp.) harbored in the gastrodermal cells. Corals begin life as soft-bodied planktonic planula larvae and undergo metamorphosis to primary polyps (Harrison and Wallace 1990). Coral planulae develop some tissues but not tentacles or skeletons. In particular, the formation of the mouth and coelenteron is necessary to feed and acquire the *Symbiodinium* for nonsymbiotic planula.

Two distinct modes of sexual reproduction occur among scleractinian corals: gamete release followed by external fertilization and development (spawning); and brooding of planulae within the polyp (brooding). Brooding planulae are usually released at an advanced stage of development and possess a mouth, coelenteron and some mesenteries, and tend to already contain Symbiodinium when they are released from the parent colony (Harrison and Wallace 1990; Isomura and Nishihira 2001). On the other hand, the planulae of spawning corals usually require up to a week after fertilization to attach to the substrate and then metamorphose into primary polyps (Babcock and Heyward 1986; Harrison and Wallace 1990). Most gametes of spawning coral species do not contain symbionts (Harrison and Wallace 1990). The structure of planulae is different between different species of spawning corals (e.g., Szmant-Froelich et al. 1980; Babcock and Heyward 1986; Hayashibara et al. 1997; Hirose et al. 2000; Hirose and Hidaka 2006).

Acropora is the dominant and most speciose genus of scleractinian corals in the Indo-Pacific (Veron and Wallace 1984), and all Acropora species studied thus far have been spawners, releasing eggs that do not contain Symbiodinium. New generations of Acropora must, therefore, acquire Symbiodinium from the environment. Hayashibara et al. (1997) described the early development of four *Acropora* species (*Acropora hyacinthus, Acropora nasuta, Acropora florida,* and *Acropora secale*). The planulae of these species had an oral pore and mesogleal layer, but no *Symbiodinium* were present. Since Hayashibara et al. (1997) did not examine the process of metamorphosis, they were unable to show the order of development of a functional mouth, coelenteron, mesenteries, tentacles, and skeleton, and it is still unclear exactly when *Symbiodinium* are acquired in *Acropora* species.

Most coral planulae select a site of permanent attachment using external chemical cues that induce the metamorphosis from planulae into polyps (Morse et al. 1988, 1994, 1996; Heyward and Negri 1999; Iwao et al. 2002; Webster et al. 2004). Iwao et al. (2002) reported that Hym-248 (EPLPIGLWa), a cnidarian neuropeptide of the GLWamide family, induces the metamorphosis of planulae of the genus *Acropora*. Hym-248 appears to act as an internal mediator, after release from neurons following an external stimulus, triggering metamorphosis. Hym-248 induces synchronous metamorphosis and settlement of *Acropora* planulae, and is, therefore, a useful tool for the study of *Acropora* larval metamorphosis.

The aims of this study were (1) to examine the process of metamorphosis from planula larva into the primary polyp in the scleractinian corals *Acropora nobilis* and *Acropora microphthalma* using the cnidarian neuropeptide Hym-248, and (2) to describe the process of acquisition of the freshly isolated *Symbiodinium* (zooxanthellae) (FIZ) by the non-symbiotic polyps.

Material and methods

Preparation of planula larvae

Colonies of Acropora spp. (A. nobilis and/or A. microphthalma) were maintained in an outdoor tank (4 m \times 5 m \times 1.5 m) supplied with unfiltered running seawater at Okinawa Churaumi Aquarium. Several colonies of both coral species released egg-sperm bundles on 12 June 2006 between 2100 and 2200 hours. The two species of Acropora were kept in the same tank and spawned simultaneously, as a result, the embryos could not be differentiated into individual species. However, from preliminary observations, the embryonic development and course of metamorphosis for these two species is known to be very similar. Released gametes were collected and mixed for 1-2 h to allow fertilization, and then transferred to plastic containers filled with seawater filtered through a 0.45 µmpore (FSW). Embryos were maintained in the containers at room temperature (27-29°C) in FSW changed daily.

Hym-248 treatment

Hym-248 (EPLPIGLWamide) was purchased from Genenet Co. Ltd, Fukuoka, Japan. Swimming planulae 2– 16 days after fertilization were washed several times with FSW, and one or two planulae were then incubated in a 20– 30 µl drop of peptide solution $(4 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M Hym-248 in}$ FSW) on waterproof parafilm sheets (Parafilm, Alcan Inc., Wisconsin). The droplets containing planulae were incubated on the sheet in a moist-chamber at room temperature (27–29°C) for 24 h. The parafilm sheets were then fixed with a clamp made of silicon tube and nylon thread and incubated in small containers containing FSW.

Symbiodinium acquisition by primary polyps

In previous experiments, non-symbiotic primary polyps of *A. nobilis* initially took up freshly isolated *Symbiodinium* (zooxanthellae) (FIZ) from the bivalve *Tridacna crocea* more readily than FIZ from *A. nobilis* (parent coral colonies), the soft coral *Xenia* sp. or the sea anemone *Aiptasia* sp. (Y. Higuchi, personal communication). Consequently, in the present study, in order to examine the course of *Symbiodinium* acquisition, primary polyps of *A. nobilis* and *A. microphthalma* were exposed to FIZ from *T. crocea*.

A single specimen of *T. crocea* was collected from the shallow reef lagoon (<1 m) at Bise (26°42'32"N, 127°52'45"E) for *Symbiodinium* isolation. Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) patterns of 18S rDNA indicated that the *Symbiodinium* from *T. crocea* belonged to clade A (sensu Rowan and Powers 1991). The animal tissue (mantle) of *T. crocea* was cut out and homogenized. The *Symbiodinium* were cleaned several times with FSW and concentrated by centrifugation. Primary polyps of both *Acropora* spp. (1–2 days after Hym-248 treatment) were exposed to FIZ (10⁵ cells ml⁻¹) at 27°C under a 12:12 hours light (100 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹): dark cycle. Six hours after exposure to FIZ, the seawater in the polyp cultures was replaced with FSW. Polyp development was monitored and seawater was changed daily.

Histological observation and electron microscopy

Live planulae and polyps were fixed, dehydrated, embedded and sectioned (Hirose and Hidaka 2006). The skeleton was decalcified with 1% ascorbic acid—0.15M NaCl for 2 days. For scanning electron microscope (SEM), specimens were immersed in *t*-butanol and freeze-dried. Dried specimens were sputter-coated with gold-palladium, and examined under a scanning electron microscope (SEM; JEM-6060LV, JEOL Ltd, Tokyo).

Results

Embryonic development and swimming planulae

The eggs of both *Acropora* species (diameter \sim 400 µm) did not contain any *Symbiodinium*. About 2 h after spawning (=fertilization), more than 90% of embryo began to cleave. Forty-eight hours after fertilization, embryos became elongated and started to swim using cilia. Gastric cavities (coelenteron) were not present in non-Hym-248 treated swimming planulae until 16 days after fertilization (Fig. 1a, b). These planulae consisted of two layers of cells; epidermis (ectoderm) and gastrodermis (endoderm), which were separated by an extracellular matrix (ECM) called the mesoglea (Fig. 1a, inset). The planula surface was completely covered with cilia surrounded by microvilli (Fig. 1c). Epidermal cells of planulae were not arranged into a monolayer. Most epidermal cells were columnar and contained round granules (ca. 1- μ m diameter) in the apical cytoplasm (Fig. 1d). Some round cells were found in the basal half of the epidermis, attached to the mesoglea (Fig. 1d). In contrast, gastrodermal cells were spherical in shape (Fig. 1e) and contained many lipid granules (Fig. 1a).

Metamorphosis of planula larvae from planula to primary polyp

When swimming planulae were exposed to the cnidarian neuropeptide Hym-248 at 4×10^{-6} M, they first moved actively for a few minutes, then, the elongated planulae



initial stages of metamorphosis of Acropora spp. a Histological section of swimming planula, square indicates the area enlarged in inset; inset: arrows indicate mesogleal layer $(bar = 10 \ \mu m)$, **b** SEM micrograph of fractured swimming planula, c highly magnified SEM micrograph of epidermal surface of planula. Cilia surrounded by microvilli (arrows). d SEM micrograph of a fractured epidermal layer of planula. Arrows indicate mesogleal layer, double arrows indicate round cells in the epidermis, arrowheads indicate columnar cells in the epidermis, and double arrowheads indicate granules in columnar cell, e SEM micrograph of a fractured gastrodermis of planula showing spherical gastrodermal cells, f elongated planula attached to parafilm (just after exposure to Hym-248), g polyp with six primary mesenteries (6 h after exposure to Hym-248). Arrowheads indicate mesenteries, h histological section of metamorphosing polyp (6 h after exposure to Hym-248), square indicates the area enlarged in inset; inset: arrow indicates the just-extended mesogleal layer $(bar = 10 \ \mu m) (ci \text{ cilium}, co$ coelenteron, ep epidermis, ga gastrodermis, mi microvilli). $Bars = 100 \ \mu m \text{ in } \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g}$ and **h**, 10 μ m in **d**, **e**, 1 μ m in **c**

Fig. 1 Swimming planula and

attached themselves perpendicularly to the waterproof parafilm sheets and stood upright (Fig. 1f). Six to nine hours after exposure to Hym-248, metamorphosing planulae spread out on the sheets and formed six primary mesenteries, which we designated the "pumpkin-stage" (Fig. 1g). These planulae metamorphosis experiments were performed a total of 12 times for 2–16 days after fertilization, and more than 1,000 planulae were treated with Hym-248. In all cases, more than 90% of the planulae metamorphosed into the "pumpkin-stage" within 9 h. In the "pumpkinstage" a cavity (coelenteron) could be seen in the larvae (Fig. 1h). This coelenteron appeared to form as a result of secondary delamination during metamorphosis.

The mesenteries were primary gastrodermal structures composed of the gastrodermis and mesoglea, and began to form from the anti-substrate side of the polyp (Fig. 1h). In the mesentery forming area, the epidermal layer was concave and gastrodermal cells were rearranged to form mesenteries (Fig. 1h, inset). About 12 h after Hym-248 treatment, secondary mesenteries appeared between each primary mesentery (Fig. 2a). As the gastrodermis was organized and the coelenteron extended, mesenteries grew inward from the body wall (Fig. 2b, c). The columnar epidermal cells tightly adhered laterally and formed a simple epidermal layer, while the granular inclusions were inconspicuous in the apical cytoplasm (Fig. 2c). The gastrodermal surface of the bottom of coelenteron was covered with cilia and there were small spheres present which were $\sim 2 4 \,\mu\text{m}$ in diameter (Fig. 2d).

Twelve to twenty-four hours after Hym-248 treatment, the polyps had six tentacular grooves around their mouth and skeletons developed (Fig. 2e, f). The oral pores of two species *Acropora* were formed as simple openings through invagination of the epidermal layer after the formation of the coelenteron in the polyps (Fig. 2g). Some small particles (2–4 μ m in diameter) were discharged from the coelenteron through the oral pore (Fig. 2g, h).

Three days after Hym-248 treatment, the gastrodermal layer became thinner and the mesenteries developed (Fig. 2i). Many small particles (2–5- μ m diameter) appeared in marginal parts of the coelenteron (Fig. 2j). Although the epidermal surfaces of polyps were covered with cilia and microvilli, the epidermis of the side towards the substrate had a smooth surface without any cilia and microvilli (Fig. 2k).

Symbiodinium acquisition by primary polyp

When non-symbiotic primary polyps (2–3 days after metamorphosis) were exposed to freshly isolated *Symbiodinium* (zooxanthellae) (FIZ) from *T. crocea* (10^5 cells ml⁻¹), FIZ were taken into the coelenteron through the mouth by water currents produced by the cilia on the tentacles (Fig. 3a). Six hours after exposure to FIZ, infected polyps were transferred to FSW. One-two days after exposure to FIZ, many brown cell masses were present in the coelenteron (Fig. 3b). Histological examination showed these brown cell masses to comprise intact *Symbiodinium* and cell debris from both *T. crocea* and *Symbiodinium* (Fig. 3c, d). Some *Symbiodinium* were trapped by cytoplasmic processes from the gastrodermal cells (Fig. 3e). The cilia of the gastrodermal cells were elongated, and sometimes caught some of the *Symbiodinium* in the coelenteron (Fig. 3f).

Two-three days after exposure to FIZ, the cell masses in the coelenteron disappeared, and *Symbiodinium* appeared in the mesenteries and at the bottom of the gastrodermal layer (Fig. 3g–j). The gastrodermis of the aboral region of polyps was thickened and one gastrodermal cell contained *Symbiodinium* (Fig. 3j).

Four-five days after exposure to FIZ, many Symbiodinium were visible in the tentacles (Fig. 3k). Four days after exposure to FIZ, the percentage of Symbiodinium undergoing cell division (MI) in the both Acropora species polyps were $1.4 \pm 0.3\%$ (mean \pm SD, n = 6). Seven-ten days after exposure to FIZ, Symbiodinium were distributed in gastrodermal cells throughout the polyps (Fig. 31-n). Eight days after exposure to FIZ, the percentage of MI in the both Acropora species polyps was $1.3 \pm 0.3\%$ (n = 9). The number of symbionts were counted at a longitudinal section (including mouth and mesenteries) of the polyps. Four days after exposure to FIZ, 36.5 ± 11.9 algal cells were seen in polyp sections (n = 4); 21.8, 68.3, and 9.9% of the symbionts were distributed in the gastrodermis of the aboral region of polyps, the mesenteries, and the gastrodermis of the oral region (=body wall) of the polyps (n = 4), respectively. Eight days after exposure to FIZ, 82.3 ± 18.8 algal cells were seen in polyp sections (n = 3); 16.2, 47.6, 0.3, and 35.8% of symbionts were distributed in the gastrodermis of the aboral region of polyps, the mesenteries, the gastrodermis of tentacles, and the gastrodermis of the oral region (=body wall) of the polyp (n = 3), respectively.

Discussion

Metamorphosis of *Acropora* spp. from planula to primary polyp

Observing larval settlement in nature is inherently difficult, as a result, direct information is very limited. In the laboratory, Babcock and Heyward (1986) observed *Acropora millepora* in culture jars starting to metamorphose 4.5 days after fertilization. Hayashibara et al. (1997) reported that first settlement on plastic walls began 6 days after fertilization in *A. nasuta*, 7 days in *A. hyacinthus*, and 21 days in *A. florida*. In the present study, non-Hym-248 treated planulae

tentacular grooves.

in a, b, e, f and

 $1 \ \mu m \text{ in } \mathbf{k}$



from A. nobilis and A. microphthalma in the culture container began to metamorphose on plastic walls or the water surface 5 days after fertilization. However, metamorphosis in both species of the planulae could be induced by Hym-248 treatment after 48 h, continuing until at least 16 days after fertilization. This observation indicates that planulae of Acropora spp. acquire the ability to settle and metamorphose just after beginning to swim.

The coelenteron is formed during the planula stage in Fungia scutaria (Krupp 1983; Schwarz et al. 1999), Montipora verrucosa (Máte et al. 1998), Pocillopora verrucosa, Pocillopora eydouxi (Hirose et al. 2000) and Porites cylindrica (Hirose and Hidaka 2006). In contrast, Hayashibara et al. (1997) reported that the coelenteron or gut did not develop in the planulae of four species of Acropora (A. hyacinthus, A. nasuta, A. florida, and A. secale) until



Fig. 3 Symbiodinium aqcuistion of primary polyp. a Polyp taking up freshly isolated zooxanthellae (FIZ) (10 min after exposure to FIZ). Arrows indicate Symbiodinium. b Polyp showing a clumped cell mass (arrows) in the coelenteron (1 day after exposure to FIZ), c histological section of primary polyp containing cell mass (arrow) in its coelenteron, d enlargement of c, the cell mass was composed mainly of degraded Symbiodinium and other materials, e high magnification of histological section of coelenteron, f SEM micrograph of fractured polyp. Arrow indicates elongated cilia of gastrodermal cells. g Polyp with several Symbiodinium in basal tissue of coelenteron (3 days after exposure to FIZ), h Histological section of primary polyp with Symbiodinium

in gastrodermal cells. Arrowheads indicate Symbiodinium, **i** high magnification of histological section of oral regional body wall, **j** high magnification of histological section of aboral region, **k** polyp with many Symbiodinium in tentacles (5 days after exposure to FIZ), **l** polyp with Symbiodinium in body wall and initiating skeletal formation (9 days after exposure to FIZ). **m** Histological section of polyp. Arrowheads indicate Symbiodinium. **n** SEM micrograph of fractured mesentery with Symbiodinium (co coelenteron, ep epidermis, ga gastrodermis, me mesentery (=gastrodermal tissue), mo mouth, ms mesogleal layer, sk skeleton, te tentacle, zo zooxanthella(e) (=Symbiodinium). Bars = 100 µm in **a**, **b**, **c**, **g**, **h**, **k**, **l** and **m**, 50 µm in **f**, 10 µm in **d**, **e**, **i**, **j** and **n**

30 days after insemination, and they found a coelenteron only in metamorphosing planulae. In the present study, the non-Hym-248 treated swimming planulae did not have a coelenteron until 16 days after fertilization. However, following the induction of metamorphosis by Hym-248, the polyps formed coelenterons and mesenteries. This suggests that settlement may be a cue for the formation of coelenteron and mesenteries in *Acropora* spp.

In planulae from *Favia fragum* (Szmant-Froelich et al. 1985), *Porites porites* (Tomascik and Sander 1987), and *Montipora digitata* (Hirose and Hidaka 2006), the formation of the oral pore occurs by invagination of part of the epidermal layer before the coelenteron (gastric cavity) starts to appear. In the present study, the oral pore of two species *Acropora* was formed by invagination after the formation of the coelenteron in polyps. This suggests that the oral pore or mouth does not need to be psesent in order for the coelenteron to form in *Acropora* spp.

In polyps, the cilia were found in the gastrodermis (Fig. 2d). This is similar to the findings of Benayahu et al. (1988) in planulae and polyps of the octocorallia, *Xenia unbellata*. These ciliated gastrodermal cells probably produce water currents to move material into the coelenteron. The mesenteries consisted of the elongated endodermal layer together with the mesoglea. Although little is known about the syntheses of mesoglea components in cnidarians, the result of this study indicates that the mesoglea in *Acropora* may be synthesized by gastrodermal cells forming mesenteries during metamorphosis.

Acquisition of Symbiodinium by Acropora spp.

Non-Hym-248 treated swimming planulae of the two species of Acropora did not establish symbioses with Symbiodinium until at least 16 days after fertilization even if the swimming planulae were exposed to freshly isolated Sym*biodinium* (zooxanthellae) (FIZ). Hayashibara et al. (1997) also reported in four species of Acropora that no Symbiodinium were acquired during the planula period until 30 days after formation. However, van Oppen (2001) found that cultured A. millepora planulae established stable symbioses and that these symbiotic larvae survived for more than 4 months, although she did not show any histological data or describe the culture conditions. Whether there is in fact variation between acroporids in the timing of initial infection, or whether reported differences in timing of infection reflect differences in experimentation or culturing, remains to be determined.

Intact *Symbiodinium* and cell debris from both *T. crocea* and *Symbiodinium* were found in the coelenteron during this study. However, most *Symbiodinium* in the gastrodermal cells of the polyps were intact. Lesser (1997) reported that damaged *Symbiodinium* were discharged selectively by

adult corals. Young polyps may also have the ability to differentiate between intact and damaged Symbiodinium. The percentage of Symbiodinium MI in both Acropora species polyps was 1.3–1.4%, which is consistent with previous reports of MI indexes of 0.5-7.0% in Acropora spp. (e.g., Wilkerson et al. 1988; Jones and Yellowlees 1997; Cervino et al. 2003), and 0.8–11.5% in Tridacna spp. (Ambariyanto and Hoegh-Guldberg 1997; Maruyama and Heslinga 1997). Most algal symbioses are characterized by relatively constant densities of symbionts (e.g., Muscatine and Pool 1979; Jones and Yellowlees 1997; Smith and Muscatine 1999; Fitt and Cook 2001; Titlyanov et al. 2004), giving rise to the hypothesis that symbiont numbers are regulated by their hosts. Young polyps may also regulate the density of Symbiodinium. Recently, Yuyama et al. (2005) reported host genes involved in the establishment or maintenance of Symbiodinium symbiosis in Acropora tenuis. These molecular tools might assist in future analyses of ontogenic establishment of symbioses between coral and Symbiodinium.

Acknowledgments The authors thank Dr. S. Uchida and the staff of the Okinawa Churaumi Aquarium (Motobu, Okinawa) for assistance with gamete fertilization. The authors also thank the staff of Sesoko Station, Tropical Biosphere Research Center, University of the Ryukyus (Motobu, Okinawa), where parts of this study were conducted. The authors appreciate the advice and help of Dr. E. Hirose. The authors also appreciate Dr. J.D. Reimer for helpful suggestions for the manuscript. This study was partly supported by the Twenty-first century COE Program of the University of the Ryukyus.

References

- Ambariyanto, Hoegh-Guldberg O (1997) Effect of nutrient enrichment in the field on the biomass, growth and calcification of the giant clam *Tridacna maxima*. Mar Biol 129:635–642
- Babcock RC, Heyward AJ (1986) Larval development of certain gamete-spawning scleractinian corals. Coral Reefs 5:111–116
- Benayahu Y, Achituv Y, Berner T (1988) Embryogenesis and acquisition of algal symbionts by planulae of *Xenia umbellata* (Octocorallia: Alcyonacea). Mar Biol 100:93–101
- Cervino JM, Hayes RL, Honovich M, Goreau TJ, Jones S, Rubec PJ (2003) Changes in zooxanthellae density, morphology, and mitotic index in hermatypic corals and anemones exposed to cyanide. Mar Pollut Bull 46:573–586
- Fitt WK, Cook CB (2001) The effects of feeding or addition of dissolved inorganic nutrients in maintaining the symbiosis between dinoflagellates and a tropical marine cnidarian. Mar Biol 139:507–517
- Harrison PL, Wallace CC (1990) Reproduction, dispersal and recruitment of scleractinian corals. In: Dubinsky Z (ed) Coral reefs, ecosystem of the world 25. Elsevier, Amsterdam, pp 133–207
- Hayashibara T, Ohike S, Kakinuma Y (1997) Embryonic and larval development and planula metamorphosis of four gamete-spawning *Acropora* (Anthozoa, Scleractinia). Proc 8th Int Coral Reef Symp 2:1231–1236
- Heyward AJ, Negri AP (1999) Natural inducers for coral larval metamorphosis. Coral Reefs 18:273–279

- Hirose M, Hidaka M (2006) Early development of zooxanthellacontaining eggs of the corals *Porites cylindrica* and *Montipora digitata*: the endodermal localization of zooxanthellae. Zool Sci 23:873–881
- Hirose M, Kinzie III RA, Hidaka M (2000) Early development of zooxanthella-containing eggs of the corals *Pocillopora vertucosa* and *P. eydouxi* with special reference to the distribution of zooxanthellae. Biol Bull 199:68–75
- Isomura N, Nishihira M (2001) Size variation of planulae and its effect on the lifetime of planulae in three pocilloporied corals. Coral Reefs 20:309–315
- Iwao K, Fujisawa T, Hatta M (2002) A cnidarian neuropeptide of the GLWamide family induces metamorphosis of reef-building corals in the genus Acropora. Coral Reefs 21:127–129
- Jones RJ, Yellowlees D (1997) Regulation and control of intracellular algae (=zooxanthellae) in hard corals. Phil Trans R Soc Lond B 352:457–468
- Krupp DA (1983) Sexual reproduction and early development of the solitary coral *Fungia scutaria* (Anthozoa: Scleractinia). Coral Reefs 2:159–164
- Lesser MP (1997) Oxidative stress cause coral bleaching during exposure to elevated temperatures. Coral Reefs 16:187–192
- Maruyama T, Heslinga GA (1997) Fecal discharge of zooxanthellae in the giant clam *Tridacna derasa*, with reference to their in situ growth rate. Mar Biol 127:473–477
- Mate JL, Wilson J, Field S, Neves EG (1998) Fertilization dynamics and larval development of the scleractinian coral *Montipora verrucosa* in Hawai'i. In: Cox EF, Krupp DA, Jokiel PL (eds) Reproduction in reef corals. Hawaii Institute of Marine Biology, Kaneohe, Technical report 42, pp 27–39
- Morse ANC, Iwao K, Baba M, Shimoike K, Hayashibara T, Omori M (1996) An ancient chemosensory mechanism brings new life to coral reefs. Biol Bull 191:149–154
- Morse DE, Hooker N, Morse ANC, Jensen RA (1988) Control of larval metamorphosis and recruitment in sympatric agariciid corals. J Exp Mar Biol Ecol 116:193–217
- Morse DE, Morse ANC, Raimondi PT, Hooker N (1994) Morphogenbased chemical flypaper for *Agaricia humilis* coral larvae. Biol Bull 186:172–181

- Muscatine L, Pool RR (1979) Regulation of numbers of intracellular algae. Proc R Soc Lond B 204:131–139
- Rowan R, Powers DA (1991) A molecular genetic classification of zooxanthellae and the evolution of animal-algal symbioses. Science 251:1348–1351
- Schwarz JA, Krupp DA, Weis VM (1999) Late larval development and onset of symbiosis in the scleractinian coral *Fungia scutaria*. Biol Bull 196:70–79
- Smith GJ, Muscatine L (1999) Cell cycle of symbiotic dinoflagellates: variation in G1 phase-duration with anemone nutritional status and macronutrient supply in the *Aiptasia pulchella-Symbiodinium pulchroroum* symbiosis. Mar Biol 134:405–418
- Szmant-Froelich AM, Yevich P, Pilson MQ (1980) Gametogenesis and early development of the temperate coral *Astrangia danae* (Anthozoa: Scleractinia). Biol Bull 158:257–269
- Szmant-Froelich A, Reutter M, Riggs L (1985) Sexual reproduction of *Favia fragum* (Esper): Lunar patters of gametogenesis, embryogenesis and planulation in Puerto Rico. Bull Mar Sci 37:880–892
- Titlyanov EA, Titlyanova TV, Kalita TL, Yakovleva IM (2004) Rhythmicity in division and degradation of zooxanthellae in the hermatypic coral *Stylophora pistillata*. Symbiosis 36:211–224
- Tomascik T, Sander F (1987) Effects of eutrophication on reef-building corals III. Reproduction of reef-building coral *Porites porites*. Mar Biol 94:77–94
- van Oppen M (2001) In vitro establishment of symbiosis in Acropora millepora planulae. Coral Reefs 20:200
- Veron JEN, Wallace CC (1984) Scleractinia of Eastern Australia. Part 5. Family Acroporidae. Aust Inst Mar Sci Monogr 6:1–422
- Webster NS, Smith LD, Heyward AJ, Watts JE, Webb RI, Blackall LL, Negri AP (2004) Metamorphosis of a scleractinian coral in response to microbial biofilms. Appl Environ Microbiol 70:1213– 1221
- Wilkerson FP, Kobayashi D, Muscatine L (1988) Mitotic index and size of symbiotic algae in Caribbean Reefs corals. Coral Reefs 7:29–36
- Yuyama I, Hayakawa H, Endo H, Iwao K, Takeyama H, Maruyama T, Watanabe T (2005) Identification of symbiotically expressed coral mRNAs using a model infection system. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 336:793–798