Genomic and phenotypic evolution of nematode-infecting microsporidia

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Abstract

Microsporidia are a large phylum of intracellular parasites that can infect most types of animals.

Species in the *Nematocida* genus can infect nematodes including *Caenorhabditis elegans*, which

has become an important model to study mechanisms of microsporidia infection. To understand

the genomic properties and evolution of nematode-infecting microsporidia, we sequenced the

genomes of nine species of microsporidia, including two genera, *Enteropsectra* and

Pancytospora, without any previously sequenced genomes. Core cellular processes, including

metabolic pathways, are mostly conserved across genera of nematode-infecting microsporidia.

Each species encodes unique proteins belonging to large gene families that are likely used to

interact with host cells. Most strikingly, we observed one such family, NemLGF1, is present in

both *Nematocida* and *Pancytospora* species, suggesting horizontal gene transfer between

species from different genera. To understand how *Nematocida* phenotypic traits evolved, we

measured the host range, tissue specificity, spore size, and polar tube length of several species

in the genus. Our phylogenetic analysis shows that *Nematocida* is composed of two groups of

species with distinct traits and that species with longer polar tubes infect multiple tissues.

Together, our work details both genomic and trait evolution between related microsporidia species

and provides a useful resource for further understanding microsporidia evolution and infection

mechanisms.

Author Summary

Microsporidia are microbial parasites that can infect many animals. Nematodes have become a useful system to study microsporidia as these animals are commonly infected by microsporidia and these infections can be easily studied in a laboratory environment. To better understand how microsporidia evolve and change their properties as they infect different hosts, we sequenced the genomes of nine microsporidia species which infect nematodes. We found that metabolic pathways were mostly conserved between different clades of these species. Surprisingly, we found a family of proteins predicted to facilitate host interactions that is present in two distinct genera, suggesting that these genes were transferred between microsporidia species. We also determined the hosts and tissues that these microsporidia can infect as well as morphological properties of the microsporidia. We show that these properties are quite variable in related microsporidia species. Our results provide insight into the evolution of microsporidia and also provide a resource for studying microsporidia infections in nematodes.

Introduction

Microsporidia are a large phylum of obligate intracellular parasites [1]. They were the first eukaryotic parasite to have their genome sequenced, which revealed the smallest known eukaryotic genome of 2.9 megabase [2]. In the last 20 years, genomes from ~35 microsporidian species have been sequenced, with the smallest genomes belonging to the *Encephalitozoon* which encode as few as ~1800 proteins [3]. Analysis of their genomes has shown that microsporidia are either the earliest diverging group of fungi or a sister group to fungi [4–6]. The evolution of microsporidia coincided with the loss of flagellum and the gain of a novel infection apparatus known as the polar tube [3,7]. Early-diverging microsporidian species retained a mitochondrial genome, but underwent moderate genomic loss [8,9]. Consistent with their evolution as obligate intracellular parasites, however, canonical microsporidia have undergone extensive genomic reduction, which has resulted in the loss of the mitochondrial genome and

many other metabolic and regulatory proteins [10]. Additionally, microsporidian ribosomes have

lost both proteins and ribosomal RNA expansion segments, resulting in the smallest known

eukaryotic ribosomes [11–13]. Microsporidian proteins are also reduced, being on average ~15%

shorter than their fungal orthologs [2,14]. While these larger phylogenetic changes are well

studied, it is less clear how individual microsporidia genera have evolved. One interesting

example is the *Enterocytozoon,* which have undergone a lineage-specific loss of many genes

involved in glycolysis [15].

Microsporidia have evolved to infect a wide range of different hosts [16]. Over 1400 microsporidia

species have been characterized and about half of all animal phyla as well as some protists are

reported to be infected [17]. Most individual microsporidian species only infect one or two closely

related hosts, but ~2% have been reported to infect more than five species. The genomic

differences that account for some microsporidia having a broader host range, consistent with

being a generalist, is mostly unknown, however a comparison between a pair of mosquito-

infecting species showed that the generalist contains a much smaller genome than the specialist

[14]. Once inside a host, most microsporidia only infect a single tissue, but ~11% can infect four

or more tissues. The mechanisms that restrict microsporidia infection to specific tissues are

largely unknown, but longer polar tubes correlate with infecting tissues other than the intestine,

suggesting that the longer tube is needed to access these other tissues [17,18]. Interestingly,

microsporidia that infect multiple host species are more likely to infect more tissues, suggesting

that the selective pressures for these traits may be related [17]. Microsporidia display great

diversity in their morphological (spore size, spore shape, and polar tube length) and infection

properties (hosts and host tissues), even within related clades, suggesting these parasites are

quite evolutionarily labile in their ability to evolve phenotypic traits [17].

Several species of microsporidia have been found to infect free-living nematodes [18–21]. The

first of these to be characterized was *Nematocida parisii,* which naturally infects the model

organism *Caenorhabditis elegans* [20]. This species has been used as model to understand

microsporidian infection of a host, host immune responses to infection, and identify inhibitors of

microsporidian infection [21–30]. Other species that infect the intestine, *N. ausubeli* and *N. ironsii,*

have also been identified [20,21]. Another species, *N. displodere,* was found to infect other tissues

of *C. elegans,* including the neurons, muscle, and epidermis [18]. Several other microsporidia

species that infect *C. elegans* or other free-living nematodes have also been identified [19]. In

addition to *Nematocida*, two other genera, *Enteropsectra* and *Pancytospora,* have been reported

to infect nematodes and these genera have been shown to be related to species of microsporidia
that infect humans [19].

Four species of nematode-infecting microsporidia from the *Nematocida* genus have been
sequenced, revealing moderate-sized genomes encoding between ~2300-2800 proteins. Many
of the proteins in these genomes were found to have the potential to directly interact with their
hosts, including many proteins that belong to large gene families [5,18,21]. Previous work showed
that all sequenced species of microsporidia contained at least one large gene family, and most
families were clade specific [21]. These families were also enriched for secretion signals and
transmembrane domains, suggesting that proteins in these families are used to interface with the
host [10,21]. One such large gene family, NemLGF1, contains a signal for secretion and between
~160-240 proteins have been identified in each of the *N. parisii*, *N. ironsii*, and *N. ausubeli*
genomes, including many lineage specific expansions [21]. This family has only been reported in
these *Nematocida* species [21]. Another family, NemLGF2, is present in only *N. displodere* and
contains over 230 proteins, about half of which contain a RING domain, which is thought to be
involved in protein-protein interactions [19].

Here we present a comprehensive and comparative analysis of multiple genomes of nematode-
infecting microsporidia. To elucidate the genomic properties of nematode-infecting microsporidia
and to understand evolution within *Nematocida*, we sequenced nine additional microsporidian
species, including three newly identified species. By analyzing 13 nematode-infecting
microsporidian species, we show that *Nematocida* forms two groups and that *Enteropsectra* and
Pancytospora are related to the human-infecting species *Vittaforma corneae* and together with
this species form a sister group to the marine invertebrate- and human-infecting *Enterocytozoon*.
We find that most conserved cellular processes are retained in *Nematocida* and that the metabolic
capacity is largely similar between the genera of nematode-infecting microsporidia. We identified
many novel large gene families including, surprisingly, members of NemLGF1 in *Pancytospora*
species. Finally, we characterized the phenotypic properties of *Nematocida* species and describe
the gain and loss of these traits throughout evolution. Our study reveals evolutionary relationships
of nematode-infecting microsporidia and provides a valuable resource for the use of nematodes
to study mechanisms of microsporidian infection.

Results

Sequencing, assembling, and phylogenetic analysis of microsporidian genomes

Previous efforts in discovering microsporidia in free-living terrestrial nematodes have revealed a diversity of species and four species from the genus *Nematocida* have been sequenced [5,18,19,21]. To further understand the genomic properties of nematode-infecting microsporidia, we sequenced nine additional species, including two genera that had not been previously sequenced. Six of these microsporidian species have been previously reported [19]. We recently discovered three novel species through sampling of wild nematode populations; *Nematocida ferruginous* from France, *Nematocida cider* from the United States, and *Nematocida botruosus* from Canada. To sequence these genomes, we removed contaminating bacteria from microsporidia-infected nematodes using antibiotics, cultured infections in the host animals, isolated spores, and extracted DNA. We sequenced a single isolate for each species, except for *N. ferruginous* for which we sequenced three strains that have high similarity to one another (S1 Fig). Information on each microsporidia species, host, and isolation location is presented in S1 Table. Microsporidian genomes were assembled and contaminating DNA were removed (See Methods and S2 Table). Proteins from each genome were predicted and annotated (S3 Table). These new microsporidian genome assemblies were assessed based on contig continuity and protein conservation and were demonstrated to be of high quality relative to previously assembled microsporidian genomes (Fig 1D, E, and S4 Table).

To determine the relative relationships between microsporidia species we performed phylogenetic analysis. Using OrthoFinder [31], we identified orthologous microsporidia proteins and generated a phylogenetic tree of our nine newly assembled microsporidia species, 35 previously sequenced microsporidia genomes, and the outgroup *Rozella allomycis* (Fig 1A and Table S5). This tree shows that *Nematocida* genomes form two groups. The first identified *Nematocida* species, *N. parisii*, forms a group with *N. ausubeli*, *N. ironsii*, *N. major*, and *N. minor*; we refer to these species as the "*Parisii*" group [19–21]. The second group contains the more recently identified *N. displodere* along with *N. homosporus*, *N. cider*, *N. ferruginous,* and *N. botruosus;* we refer to these species as the "*Displodere*" group [18,19]. The relative positions of the *Nematocida* species are highly supported by several phylogenetic trees (Fig 1A and S2 Fig). As described previously from 18S rDNA and β–tubulin sequences, the species *Enteropsectra breve*, *Pancytospora philotis*, and *Pancytospora epiphaga* belong to the large group of microsporidia species referred to as the Enterocytozoonida clade [17,19,32,33]. Our whole genome based tree replicates this previously described phylogeny, demonstrating that these three non-*Nematocida* species are most closely

related to the human-infecting *V. corneae*, and together they form a sister group to the
Enterocytozoon [15,34].

Conservation and divergence of proteins in microsporidia genomes
Microsporidia have the smallest known eukaryotic genomes, but genome size and protein content
can vary greatly between species [3]. In *Nematocida,* we see consistently small genome sizes
that range from ~3.1 to 4.7 megabases. The two *Pancytospora* species genomes are similar to
each other, with sizes of 4.2 and 4.6 megabases. In contrast, the ~6.0 megabase genome of *E.*
breve is the largest of our nematode-infecting microsporidia species genomes (Fig 1C). We see
similar trends in predicted number of proteins, with *N. botruosus* having the fewest proteins (2159)
and *E. breve* having the most predicted proteins (3531) (Fig 1B). Although microsporidia species
can have large amounts of non-coding DNA that make their genomes much larger relative to their
protein content [14], we observe a strong correlation between protein content and genome size
among nematode-infecting microsporidia (S3 Fig).

Microsporidia are known to have lost many conserved eukaryotic proteins, including those
involved in metabolism [10]. To determine the conservation of metabolic function in nematode-
infecting microsporidia species, we analyzed proteins encoded by microsporidia genomes using
GO term categories. We first determined the number of proteins from each microsporidia species
that belong to a set of GO terms that cover most conserved eukaryotic cellular processes (Fig 2).
This analysis revealed that many cellular processes were either lost or greatly reduced in the
canonical microsporidia, which has been previously observed [8]. We then determined the
proteins from each microsporidian species that belonged to eight metabolic categories (S4-11
Figs, summarized in Fig 3). As has been previously observed, we see that the *Enterocytozoon*
contains many losses in metabolic pathways, and in particular those involved in energy production
[15]. As the genera *Pancytospora* and *Enteropsectra,* along with *V. cornea,* form a sister group to
the *Enterocytozoon,* we sought to determine how the metabolic capacity of these groups of
species compared. We observe that *Pancytospora* and *Enteropsectra* have a similar metabolic
capacity compared to most other microsporidia species, including the *Nematocida* (Fig 3).
However, there are several notable differences between the genera, with *Pancytospora* and
Enteropsectra having losses in glutathione biosynthesis and the *Nematocida* having losses in
phosphatidylinositol biosynthesis.

The RNAi pathway has been lost multiple times from microsporidia genomes [14,35]. *Nematocida*
was previously observed to lack this pathway [3]. However, the genomes of the three species
from *Pancytospora* and *Enteropsectra* each encode RNAi pathway proteins (S6 Table).
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Nematode-infecting microsporidia contain many large, expanded gene families
A striking feature of microsporidia genomes are abundant large gene families that contain
paralogous family members with either signal peptide or transmembrane domains [10,21]. Using
a previously described bioinformatic approach [21], we analyzed the large gene family content of
nematode-infecting microsporidia, identifying 39 families in 13 species, that were enriched in
either signal peptide or transmembrane domains [21](Figs 4, S12, and S7 Table). We observed
that every species had at least one large gene family, with six species having at least five families
with more than 10 members each. Some of these families have many members, with 5 families
(NemLGF1, NemLGF2, NemLGF11, PanLGF1, and EbrLGF1) containing more than 100
members in at least one species. Previously, we had observed that almost all large gene families
are specific to individual clades of microsporidia species [21]. Most families (30/37) in nematode-
infecting microsporidia have at least 10 members in only one species. The families we identified
in *Pancytospora* and *Enteropsectra* are also unique to these species and not found in *V. cornea*.
Some of the large gene families, such as NemLGF11, are present in small numbers in other
species, but are only greatly expanded in one of the species. To determine if any of the large
gene families identified in nematode-infecting microsporidia were present in other microsporidia
species, we searched other microsporidia genomes using family-specific models (S8 Table). The
only family with more than 10 members present in microsporidia species that don't infect
nematodes is NemLGF26, which includes the previously described InterB family that contains the
Pfam domain Duf1609.This domain is also present in NemLGF26 family members [36].
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One of the most abundant *Nematocida* large gene families is NemLGF1 [5,21]. This large family
was previously found in the genomes of *N. parisii*, *N. ausubeli*, and *N. ironsii*, with each species
containing between 160-240 proteins [21]. We also observe 105 members of this family in *N.*
major. We do not observe this family in *N. minor* or any of the genomes in the *Displodere* group,
suggesting that the family appeared in the *Parisii* group after the divergence of *N. minor*. Strikingly,
we find that the NemLGF1 family is also present in *P. philotis* (81 members) and *P. epiphaga* (45
members). We generated a phylogenetic tree using all the members from these six species, which
shows distinct expansions of NemLGF1 proteins in the *Nematocida* and *Pancytospora* species

(Fig 5A). As this family has not been previously reported in any other species of microsporidia,
we propose that this family was likely shared between clades via horizontal gene transfer.

To determine the similarity of NemLGF1 protein from *Nematocida* and *Pancytospora* species, we
used AlphaFold to model the protein structures [37,38] (Fig 5B and C). We find that NemLGF1
proteins consist of three main domains (N-terminal, middle, and C-terminal). The N-terminal and
middle domains are similar (RSDM of 1.6 Å for N-terminal domain and 1.2 Å for middle domain)
between *N. parisii* member NEPG_02057 and *P. epiphaga* member PAEPH01_0103 (Fig 5D and
E). However, the C-terminal domains form a bundle of alpha helices that are less conserved
(RSDM of 18.3 Å) (Fig 5F). We also compared an *N. ausubeli* NemLGF1 member NERG_01890
to *N. parisii* NEPG_02057, and observed similar trends, although the C-terminal domains were
more conserved (RSDM 4.5 Å) than with *P. epiphaga* PAEPH01_0103 (13A-E Fig). These high
overall structural similarities between NemLGF1 proteins exist despite the sequence identities
being only 22.03% between NEPG_02057 and PAEPH01_0103 and 27.37% between
NEPG_02057 and NERG_01890 [39].

To begin to understand the biochemical function of these nematode infecting large gene families,
we generated structural models for the four other largest families using Alphafold (S13F-I Fig).
None of these families have apparent structural similarity to other solved proteins, with the
exception of NemLGF2, which shares similarity to Leucine Rich Repeat proteins (S13I Fig), which
is a domain that has been previously observed in microsporidia proteins [21,40]. This family was
previously described in *N. displodere* and we also observe large expansions of this family in *N.*
ferruginous and *N. homosporous,* but not in *N. cider*. As previously shown, although we detect a
member of this family in the *Parisii* group species, we only observe expansions of this family within
some *Displodere* group species.

Evolution of *Nematocida* phenotypic traits
Microsporidia often only infect one or more closely related host species, but generalists that infect
many hosts have also been observed [16]. Previous work in *Nematocida* have described species
with more restricted host specificity, such as *N. parisii* and *N. ausubeli,* as well as those with a
broader host range, like *N. displodere* and *N. homosporus* [19,41]. To characterize the host range
of the novel species we isolated, we set up experimental infections against seven different
nematode hosts. As controls, we also challenged each of these hosts with *N. parisii* and *N.*
ausubeli. After 4 days of infection, we fixed and stained populations of animals using direct yellow

96 [22,42] and quantified the proportion of the population that produced microsporidia spores (Fig

6A). For *N. parisii* and *N. ausubeli*, we observed strong infection of *C. elegans* and *C. briggsae*,

as previously reported [19]. *N. ausubeli* also infected a modest percentage of *C. tropicalis* and a

small percentage of *C. nigoni*, while *N. parisii* infected a small percentage of *C. tropicalis*. These

two species could not infect any of the other hosts. These results are consistent with what has

been previously reported [19]. For *N. botruosus*, we only observed infection of its native host

(*Panagrellus* sp. 2*)*, and none of the other six host species tested. In contrast, *N. cider* could infect

all the hosts tested to some extent (Fig 6B), with *C. elegans* being the most infected at 85.6% and

Panagrellus sp. 2 being the least infected at 7.4%. For *N. ferruginous*, we were unable to observe

more than 50% of animals infected for any nematode species, even when using a high

concentration of spores. However, even at this level of infection, we observed infection of *C.*

elegans, C. briggsae, and *C. tropicalis.* Additionally, we saw infection in *C. remanei* and *Oscheius*

tipulae, which were species that none of the other microsporidia besides *N. cider* could infect (S14

Fig). Our data suggests that *N. botruosus* has a specialized host range, whereas *N. cider* and *N.*

ferruginous appear to be generalists.

Microsporidia mostly infect only one tissue, but some microsporidia, including *N. displodere*, have

been shown to infect multiple tissues [17]. During our infection experiments, we only ever

observed spore formation in the intestine for *N. botruosus,* but observed infection in other tissues

for *N. cider* and *N. ferruginous* (S15A-C Fig). Additionally, during prolonged infection with *N. cider*

or *N. ferruginous*, the entire animal turns brown, suggesting that infection is occurring throughout

the animal (S15D-E Fig). To further characterize which tissues *N. cider* and *N. ferruginous* infect,

we used *C. elegans* strains with GFP specifically expressed in either the intestine, epidermis, or

body wall muscle (Fig 6C). We observed *N. ferruginous* could infect both the muscle and the

epidermis but we did not see productive infection in the intestine. In contrast, *N. cider* infection

was seen in all three tissues, the muscle, epidermis, and intestine, although at a lower frequency

in the intestine (Fig 6D).

We recently showed that the *C. elegans* protein AAIM-1 is necessary for efficient invasion by *N.*

parisii [23]. This protein is secreted and likely functions in the intestinal lumen. Although *N.*

displodere infects other tissues besides the intestine, feeding is necessary for infection, implying

that spores need to first be in the intestinal lumen to infect tissues beyond the intestinal cells. To

determine if infection by an epidermal and muscle infecting species was also dependant upon

this protein, we infected wild-type and *aaim-1* mutant animals with *N. cider*. Similar to what was

observed with *N. parisii* infection, *aaim-1* mutant animals exposed to a high dose of *N. cider* have
a reduced prevalence of infection compared to wild-type animals (S16 Fig).

Microsporidia species have an extracellular spore form of a defined morphology which can be
used to identify species [17]. *Nematocida* spores have been shown to have a variety of sizes, with
the average size of species ranging from 1.3-2.38 µm long and 0.53-1.03 µm wide. Additionally,
some species in the *Parisii* group have been shown to have a second, larger, class of spores [19].
To determine spore sizes for the new species we identified, we examined infected animals with
stained spores (S15A-C Fig). This revealed that these species only have a single class of spores,
with *N. botruosus* measuring 1.51 x 0.76 µm, *N. cider* measuring 2.4 x 0.67 µm, and *N. ferruginous*
measuring 1.72 x 0.6 µm.

Microsporidia has a characteristic infection apparatus known as the polar tube [43]. The length of
this tube was previously shown to correlate with tissues infected [17]. For example a species with
a shorter polar tube(~ 4 µm for *N. parisii*) infects the intestine, and a species with a longer polar
tube (~ 12 µm for *N. displodere*) can infect the muscles, neurons, and epidermis [18]. This
correlation is hypothesized to be due to the requirement of longer polar tubes to access more
distal tissues from the lumen of the intestine [17,18]. We measured polar tube lengths of several
Nematocida species using a previously described freeze-thaw approach to trigger spore firing
[18] followed by staining with Nile red [44] (Fig 6E). We observed a range of lengths throughout
Nematocida, with the shortest being *N. botruosus* with a length of 2.3 µm and the longest being
the previously measured *N. displodere* [18] (Fig 6F).

To understand how various microsporidian phenotypic traits evolve, we plotted our measured
attributes onto the phylogenetic tree of *Nematocida* (Fig 7). We observe that all of the *Parisii* group
species have a specialized host range and show specificity for the intestine. In contrast, all of the
species in the *Displodere* group, except for *N. botruosus*, have a more generalist host range,
suggesting that this property was either lost in *N. botruosus*, or gained after species divergence.
Additionally, the *Displodere* group species, *N. displodere*, *N. cider*, and *N. ferruginous*, infected
other tissues besides the intestine, suggesting that the ability to infect multiple tissues was
possibly present after the divergence of *N. botruosus*, and then lost in *N. homosporus*.

We observed that spore size is variable throughout *Nematocida* species, with both *Nematocida*
groups containing species (*N. minor* and *N. botruosus*) exhibiting some of the smallest spores.

The extent of spore size variation between species exceeds the less than 10% variation that has
been reported between strains of the same species [19]. Additionally, we observed that two
classes of spores are present only in the *Parisii* group and large spore clusters were only observed
in the *Displodere* group. Finally, we observe variability of polar tube length ranging from 2.3 - 12.6
μm. Our data suggests that the last common ancestor of *Nematocida* likely had a relatively short
polar tube (less than ~ 4 μm). An increase in polar tube length then occurred in the *Displodere*
group after the divergence of *N. botruosus*. This increase in polar tube length correlates with
tissue specificity, with the three species with the longest polar tubes all infecting tissues besides
the intestine. These results provide further support for microsporidian tube length being a factor
in determining which tissues are infected and provide a resource to further understand molecular
evolution of polar tube length once polar tube proteins in *Nematocida* are identified [17,28].
Together, our results support evolutionary change in both morphological features and host
infection in *Nematocida*, notably with loss and gain of tissue specificity.

Conclusions

To understand genomic evolution of nematode-infecting microsporidia, we sequenced the
genomes of nine additional species. We then analyzed these genomes along with four previously
sequenced species. We show that core cellular processes, including metabolism, are largely
conserved (as determined by presence of proteins) between genera. Our analysis demonstrates
that *Enteropsectra* and *Pancytospora* form a sister group to the *Enterocytozoon*, but have not
undergone decay of the glycolytic pathway that has occurred in *Enterocytozoon* species [15]. This
conservation of metabolism suggests that host metabolic requirements are similar between
species and is in contrast to proteins predicted to interface with hosts, which are quite different
between different groups of microsporidia [21]. Although we present the largest comparison of
protein function between microsporidia species so far, detecting protein function from sequence
alone in microsporidia is challenging. Additional analyses taking advantage of advances in
structural prediction are likely to detect highly diverged proteins that would be missed based on
sequence similarity alone [10,45,46].

One class of proteins that contributes to diversity between microsporidian species are the large
gene families. Here we show that one of these large gene families, NemLGF1, is present in both
Nematocida and *Pancytospora* species. There are three possibilities that could explain this
observation. One, the protein family in the two groups of species could have evolved *de novo*
independently of one another. This type of convergent evolution is rare and given the high

predicted structural similarities that we observe, this scenario is unlikely [47]. Two, this protein

family could have existed in the last common ancestor of *Nematocida* and other microsporidia,

and then was lost in all lineages except for *Pancytospora* and part of *Nematocida*. From the

genomes we analyzed, this would mean that this family would have been lost 7-9 times

(*Nematocida Displodere* group, *N. minor*, *V. corneae*, *E. breve*, Enterocytozoon, Nosematida,

Glugeida, Neopereziida, and Amblyosporida) [33]. Although this explanation is also unlikely,

additional sequencing of microsporidia genomes could provide more support for or against this

scenario. Three, this family was horizontally transferred between a species in each genus, though

which genus was the recipient, and which was the donor, is not clear. Horizontal gene transfer is

increasingly being appreciated as having a role in the evolution of eukaryotic microbes and we

believe this to be the most likely explanation [48]. We also identified a family (NemLGF26) present

in *N. ferruginous* which shares similarity to the previously described InterB family found in

Encephalitozoon species [36]. Although to our knowledge, horizontal transfer of genes between

microsporidia species has not been previously reported, co-infections of multiple species are often

observed, suggesting that these types of events may be more common that previously

appreciated [49].

Microsporidia have been shown to display much variability in their phenotypic traits [17]. However,

determining how traits vary between related species has been challenging as most phylogenetic

trees are built from 18S rRNA sequences, resulting in phylogenies that are often of low accuracy

[3]. Here, we use genome assemblies to build a high-quality phylogeny for the *Nematocida*. By

mapping several phenotypic properties onto this tree, we observe examples of loss and gain of

infection properties. As more microsporidian genomes are sequenced, this approach is likely to

be useful for further understanding the evolution of microsporidia infection properties and spore

characteristics. With our data we show that a generalist host range emerged in the *Displodere*

group after the divergence of *N. botruosus*. One potential caveat to our measurements of host

range is that they are only done with a single strain for each microsporidia and host species [16].

However, we see similar results to what was reported with other *N. parisii* and *N. ausubeli* strains,

and nematode-infecting microsporidia have been observed to mostly infect different host strains

at similar levels [19]. Previously, the size of generalist microsporidia genomes were suggested to

be smaller than genomes of species that had a more narrow host range [14]. Although the

generalist *Nematocida* have some of the smallest genome sizes, they are about the same size

as *N. botruosus*, which has a narrow host range. This suggests that other forces can be involved

in sculpting microsporidia genomes.

Although *C. elegans* has become an important model in which to study many aspects of microsporidia infection, there are currently no tools for genetically perturbating microsporidia that infect this host [50]. Knockdown of genes using RNAi has been demonstrated in microsporidia that infect honey bees, silkworms, fish, and locusts and is becoming a powerful method to investigate the function of microsporidia proteins, including those that are secreted or surface exposed [51–56]. So far, this approach has not been amenable to species that infect *C. elegans*, as *N. parisii* and the other *Nematocida* don't encode the machinery necessary to carry out RNAi [3]. Here we report that *P. epiphaga,* which infects *C. elegans* [19,26], encodes this machinery, suggesting RNAi may be possible in this species. *C. elegans* may be particularly useful for microsporidian RNAi knockdown, as RNAi of genes in *C. elegans* is highly efficient and can be carried out by feeding bacteria expressing double stranded RNA against the target transcript, resulting in dozens of successful whole genome screens [57]. Additionally, *P. epiphaga* is more closely related to several human pathogens than *N. parisii* and our genomic data will provide a useful resource for further investigations using this species.

Material and methods

Isolation of infected animals

Sampling of nematodes was done similar to as described previously [18]. Briefly, samples of rotting fruit or vegetation were placed on 6-cm NGM plates seeded with 10x saturated cultures of OP50-1 for 16-48 hours. Rotting matter was then removed. *N. ferruginous* was identified using differential interference contrast microscopy to identify animals displaying meronts and/or spores. *N. cider* and *N. botruosus* were identified by growing animals at 21-23°C, washing animals off plates in M9/0.1% Tween-20, and fixing animals in 800 µl acetone. Samples were then stained with Direct yellow 96 (DY96) staining solution (M9, 0.1% SDS, and 20 µg/ml DY96) for 30 min. Samples were resuspended in EverBrite Mounting Medium (Biotium #23002) with DAPI and placed onto microscope slides. Microsporidia-containing animals were identified as those containing DY96 stained spores. Nematode host species were determined using sequencing primers as described previously [58].

Removal of contaminating bacteria from microsporidia-infected nematodes

Infected nematodes isolated in this work and previously [19] were grown on 10-cm NGM plates

seeded with 10x OP50-1 until populations of worms had ingested all available bacteria. Animals

were then washed off plates with M9/0.1% Tween-20 and frozen at -80°C. 2.0 mm zirconia beads

were then added and samples vortexed at 3,000 for 5 min in a bead disrupter. The supernatant

was then placed onto 6-cm NGM plates containing antibiotics (50 μg/ml carbenicillin, 25 μg/ml

kanamycin, 12.5 μg/ml tetracycline, 37.5 μg/ml chloramphenicol, 200 ug/ml cefotaxime, and 100

μg/ml gentamycin) for 24-48 hours. Either the native nematode host strain that the microsporidia

species was isolated in or *C. elegans* N2 animals were used to cultivate each species (See Table

S1). Mixed populations of nematodes were bleached (~4% sodium hypochlorite and 1 M NaOH)

for 2-3 minutes to extract embryos which were hatched at 21°C for 18-24 hours. L1 stage worms

were then added to the antibiotic containing plates along with 10X OP50-1. After several days

animals were chunked onto new NGM plates containing antibiotics. After several days animals

were chunked onto NGM plates without antibiotics. If no contamination was detected, then

samples were used to prepare spores. If not, the above procedure was repeated until there was

no contamination.

Preparation and DNA sequencing of microsporidian spores

Spores were prepared similar to as previously described [22]. Briefly, contaminate-free, infected

populations of worms were chunked onto 12-48 10-cm OP50-1 seeded NGM plates and grown

at 21°C for 5-10 days. After worms had consumed all the OP50-1 bacteria, worms were washed

off plates with M9 and frozen at -80°C. Spores were extracted from worms as described above

and then filtered through a 5 μm filter (Millipore). The concentrations of spore extracts were

determined by staining spores with DY96 and counting spores on a sperm counting slide (Cell-

VU) using a 20X objective on a Axio Imager.M2 (Zeiss). DNA was extracted using a MasterPure

yeast DNA purification kit (Lucigen) according to manufacturer instructions using 10-50 million

spores per microsporidia species. DNA libraries were prepared by The Centre for Applied

Genomics (TCAG) and each species was sequenced using 2 lanes of a NovaSeq 6000 SP flow

cell to produce 250 bp paired-end reads.

Genome assembly & annotation

Adapter sequences ('AGATCGGAAGAG') were removed from paired-end raw reads using

cutadapt v21 [59]. Leading and trailing low quality (quality < 3) or N bases were removed, low

quality bases (quality < 30, except for *P. epiphaga* where 36 was used) were cut using a 4-base

sliding window and reads less than 36 bases were dropped using Trimmomatic v0.36 [60]. Reads

were mapped to the corresponding host genome (except for *N. botruosus* which was mapped to

C. elegans) as well as the *Escherichia coli* genome using bowtie2 v2.3.4.1 [61]. Reads were

assembled into contigs and scaffolds using Abyss v2.02 [62] with a Kmer of 128. Only scaffolds

greater than 500 bp were retained. Assemblies were then filtered for contaminants (bacteria and

host) using BlobTools v1.0.1 [63]. For some samples (S2 Table), subsampling was done prior to

removing contaminants with BlobTools. Each assembly was run through Redundans v0.14a [64]

with a minimum identity value of 0.85, to remove duplication. Because the laboratory the

microsporidia species were cultured in regularly uses ERTm1 for experiments, there exists the

possibility of minor contamination of other microsporidia genomes. To correct for this, assemblies

were filtered for ERTm1 [5] contamination if they met the following criteria: 99% identity and 80%

query coverage. Additional filtering was done for size and coverage: scaffolds less than 750 bp

were removed and those between 750 bp – 1 kbp were removed if they had less than 5X median

coverage of the largest 5 scaffolds. NCBI nucleotide blast (BLASTn) [65] was used to filter

remaining scaffolds that had >98% identity and >50% query cover to ERTm1/ERTm2 assemblies.

Manual filtering of select scaffolds not captured in previous filtering steps was done for six of the

samples (See S2 Table). Protein coding genes were predicted using Prodigal v2.6.3 [66] using

translation table 1. Proteins with less than 100 amino acids were kept only if they had a significant

(E=0.001) hit to the Uniref90 protein database or Pfam hit using the hmmscan function in HMMER

package v3.1b2 [67] and E-value cutoff of 0.001. The final list of proteins were annotated with

Pfam [68] domains using hmmscan, signal peptides using SignalP v4.1f [69], and transmembrane

domains using TMHMM v2.0c [70]. Functional annotation of proteins was also done using

BlastKOALA [71] (S3 Table).

Phylogeny and genome characterization of microsporidia species

The phylogenetic tree (Fig 1A) was generated using 45 species. Species whose proteome was

downloaded from NCBI are listed in S5 Table. The remaining proteomes were predicted from the

genomes assembled in this study. In addition, proteins were predicted from two assemblies

available on NCBI for the following species: *Metchnikovella incurvata*, and *Enteropsora canceri*.

Orthofinder v2.5.2 [31] was used with -M msa option to obtain a MSA species tree with a minimum

of 77.8% of species having single copy genes in an orthogroup. Tree was rooted using *Rozella*

Allomycis [72] in FigTree v1.4.4. Protein content, genome size, as well as genome completeness

statistics were computed for each species using BUSCO v3.1.0 [73] and microsporidia odb9.

Pathway conservation in microsporidia species

InterProScan v5.51-85.0 [74] was run on all species with -goterms option. A database was made

with POMBE GO-slim terms (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/QuickGO/slimming) and their descendants

(found   using   QuickGO   API   using   the   'find   descendants'   option,

https://www.ebi.ac.uk/QuickGO/api/index.htmllar#!/gene_ontology/). For each species, protein to

GO term annotations from InterProScan were mapped to the above-mentioned database while

retaining count of proteins mapping to each GO-term. Since multiple GO terms map to a single

GO slim, a unique protein count was obtained for each GO-slim. Using *Rozella allomycis* as the

base species, a subset of the POMBE GO-slim terms were obtained and the subset was then

searched against the remaining species to compare pathway conservation across species.

507   Identifying large gene families

OrthoMCL v2.0.9 [75] was run using all proteomes and with the following configuration settings:

percentMatchCutoff=50 and evalueExponentCutoff=-5, suggested minimum protein length and

maximum percent stop codons, and MCL inflation value of 1.5. Paralogous orthogroups were

extracted (at least 10 members in a single genome). The genome with the highest number of

paralogs for a specific gene family was used as the seed sequences to expand gene families.

Seed sequences were searched against each microsporidia genome iteratively using the

jackhmmer function in HMMER and an E-value cutoff of 10-5. All resulting large gene families

were assessed for signal peptides, transmembrane domains, and Pfam domains. A family was

classified as having signal peptides if >50% of the proteins in the family had a signal peptide. The

same criteria were applied for transmembrane domains. Families that did not contain either signal

peptides or transmembrane domains in greater than >50% of proteins were not included in our

analysis. All families with 90% or greater protein overlap were collapsed, with the exception of

NemLGF2 and NemLGF20 which were collapsed with less than 90% overlap in some cases. We

used OrthoMCL to assign membership with families with >5% Pfam representation in either LRR,

ZF, or peptidase domains [21]. To determine if these large gene families were present in other

microsporidia species, we searched the microsporidia genomes in Figure 1 with family-specific

HMM models using HMMER. Protein sequences that had at least an E-value of 10-5 were

considered as belonging to that family.

527   Structural modeling of large gene families

Models of members of large gene families were generated using AlphaFold as implemented in

ColabFold   [37,38]

(https://colab.research.google.com/github/sokrypton/ColabFold/blob/main/AlphaFold2.ipynb).

Default settings were used for NEPG_02057, and for the other proteins PSI-BLAST [65] was used
to identify members and multiple sequence alignments were generated using HHblits
(https://toolkit.tuebingen.mpg.de/tools/hhblits) [76]. All the models analyzed have overall pLDDT
scores over 85. Alignments of NemLGF1 domains were performed using PyMOL v2.5.3
(https://pymol.org). Structural similarity to solved structures was determined using Dali
(http://ekhidna2.biocenter.helsinki.fi/dali/) [77]. The percent identity between proteins was
determined using MUSCLE (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/muscle/) [78].
538

Host specificity assays
The following nematode species (strains) were used for infection assays: *C. elegans* (N2),
Caenorhabditis briggsae (JU2507), *Caenorhabditis nigoni* (JU1422), *Caenorhabditis remanei*
(JU2796*), Caenorhabditis tropicalis* (JU1373), *Oscheius tipulae* (JU1505), and *Panagrellus* sp. 2
(AWR79). Mixed populations of nematodes were maintained on 10-cm seeded NGM plates for at
least three generations without starvation at 21°C. Animals were then washed off plates and
embryos extracted with bleach as described above, except for *Panagrellus* sp. 2. Synchronized
animals of *Panagrellus* sp. 2 were prepared by washing animals with M9 three times and then
filtering through a 20 µm nylon filter (Millipore SCNY00020). This filtering was then repeated a
second time. 400 L1 stage animals of each species were infected with the following microsporidia
species (strain [spore amount]): *N. parisii* (JUm1248[3 million]), *N. ausubeli* (ERTm6[0.8 million]),
N. cider (AWRm77[4 million]), *N. ferruginous* (LUAm3[20 or 40 million]), and *N. botruosus*
(AWRm80[28 million]). These doses were chosen so that average percentage infection was
between 80-99% in either *C. elegans* or the host species the microsporidia was found in, with the
exception of *N. ferruginous* where this level of infection was not possible to achieve. Animals and
spores were mixed with 400 µl 10X OP50-1 and placed onto 6-cm NGM plates. Plates were dried
in a clean cabinet and incubated at 21°C for 96 hours. Animals were then washed off plates, fixed,
stained, and placed onto slides as described above. The percentage of animals infected was
determined by counting the number of P0 animals that contained newly formed clusters of
microsporidia spores.
559

Microsporidia spore size measurements
Infected, fixed, and stained animals were prepared as described above. Images of these infected
animals were taken using an 63X objective on an apotome-equipped Axio Imager.M2 (Zeiss).
Images were taken as z-stack maximum intensity projections. These images were analyzed using
the straight line tool in ImageJ 1.52 [80] to measure the length and width of each spore. Only

spores that were not immediately adjacent to other spores were measured. At least 40 spores

were measured for each species from a minimum of two infected worms. Presence of large spore

clusters was based on visual inspection of either DY96 stained spores in S15 Fig or from

previously published images [19].

Infection of *aaim-1* mutants

N2 and *aaim-1* mutants (kea22 and kea28) [23] were infected with *N. cider* (4 million spores) as

described above. To quantify pathogen burden within animals (GFP), regions of interest were

used to outline individual worms followed by subjection to the "threshold" followed by "measure"

tools in FIJI [79].

Tissue specificity determination

Strains of *C. elegans* each expressing GFP specifically in the intestine (ERT413), epidermis

(ERT446), or muscle (HC46) were grown on standard NGM plates seeded with OP50-1 to the

gravid adult stage. Gravid adults were then harvested in M9 and transferred to 15 mL conical

tubes, washed three times to reduce bacterial excess, and pelleted by centrifuging at 3000 x g.

The pellets were resuspended in 1 mL of M9 buffer and added with 1 mL of bleach solution (1:4

volume ratio of 5M NaOH: 6% NaClO; final concentration of 0.5M NaOH, 2.4% NaClO), incubated

for 2 min at room temperature, and washed three times with 13 mL of M9. After the final wash,

the solutions containing embryos were incubated overnight on a rotator at room temperature to

synchronize to the L1 stage.

~1000 L1 stage animals of each strain were plated onto a 6-cm NGM plate with either 1 million

N. ferruginous or *N. cider* spores. Infection plates were allowed to dry and kept at 20°C. At 3 days

post infection, animals were harvested in M9 buffer and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBST

(1x PBS, 0.1% Tween-20) at room temperature for 40 min on a rotator for fluorescent in situ

hybridization. Fixed animals were then washed four times, each with 1 mL of PBST, then

incubated overnight with a mixture of CAL Fluor Red 610 (CF610)-tagged microsporidian probes,

including MicroA-CF610 (CTCTGTCCATCCTCGGCAA), MicroB-CF610

(CTCTCGGCACTCCTTCCTG), MicroD-CF610 (CGAAGGTTTCCTCGGATGTC), and MicroF-

CF610 (AGACAAATCAGTCCACGAATT), each at a final concentration of 2.5 ng/mL in

hybridization buffer (900 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris pH 7.5, 0.01% SDS) on a thermal shaker at 46°C,

1000 rpm. After hybridization, animals were washed with FISH wash buffer (hybridization buffer,

5mM EDTA) for three times, each for 30 min, on a thermal shaker at 48°C, 1000 rpm. After

washing, animals were rinsed once with PBST, mounted, and imaged with confocal microscope

Leica Stellaris 5. Each sample was scanned randomly for 30 infected worms and images were

taken in different planes to examine all the infection areas in a single worm. For each strain,

infected animals were binned into "yes" or "no" respective to the fluorescent tissue. An infected

animal was considered to have a specific tissue type infected if there was at least one infection

area colocalized with the tissue marker.

***N. cider* and *N. ferruginous* assays to measure change in host color**

~1000 N2 animals at L1 stage on a 10-cm NGM plate were infected with 3 million spores of

either *N. ferruginous* or *N. cider*. As the animals grew, plates were monitored to add more food

(1 mL of 10x OP50-1 concentrated from a culture of OD_{600} of 0.5-0.7) to prolong the infection in

the population. After 7-10 days post infection, some animals appeared brown compared to other

animals on the same plate and uninfected control under standard dissection microscope.

Control animals and brown, infected animals were picked and mounted onto a 2% agarose pad

and imaged with Eclipse Ni microscope (Nikon). All images were taken at the same light

intensity and white balanced.

Measurements of polar tube lengths

Polar tube lengths were measured for *N. parisii* (ERTm1), *N. ausubeli* (ERTm2), N. minor

(JUm1510), N. major (JUm2507), *N. homosporus (*JUm1504*)*, *N. cider* (AWRm77), *N. ferruginous*

(LUAm3), and *N. botruosus* (AWRm80). To encourage polar tube extrusion, microsporidia spores

in microcentrifuge tubes were exposed to two freeze thaw cycles, after the initial thaw from -80°C.

This was done by freezing at -80°C for 10 minutes followed by thawing at room temperature for

10 minutes. Nile red (Sigma-Aldrich 72485) (1mg/ml in acetone) was prepared, sequentially

diluted to 100 μg/ml in M9, and added to a final concentration of 10 μg/ml in freeze-thaw treated

spores. Spores were incubated with Nile red for 30 minutes in the dark followed by 2 μl of

Calcofluor White (Sigma-Aldrich 18909). Polar tubes were imaged at 63x magnification using an

Axio Imager.M2 (Zeiss). Polar tube measurements were performed on FIJI [79], using the

freehand line tool to trace polar tubes followed by selecting the Analyze → Measure option.

Data availability

All samples were deposited under NCBI BioProject PRJNA579982 and genome accession and

Sequence Read Archive numbers are listed in S1 Table. Data from all the infection experiments

is in S1 Data.

Taxonomic Summaries.

Phylum: Microsporidia Balbiani 1882

Species: *Nematocida cider* n. sp. Wadi et al. 2022.

The type strain AWRm77 was found in 2017 inside of its type host nematode *Caenorhabditis* sp.

8 strain AWR77, which was isolated from rotting apples in Stow, Massachusetts, United States.

The type material is deposited in the collection of the corresponding author (AWR). The genome

of this microsporidia strain has been sequenced and deposited in Genbank under accession

JALPNA000000000. This is a new species based on the divergence of the genome from other

sequenced species. This species has been observed to infect the intestinal, muscle and

epidermal tissues of *C. elegans*. Experimental infection has been observed in *C. elegans* (N2),

Caenorhabditis briggsae (JU2507), *Caenorhabditis nigoni* (JU1422), *Caenorhabditis remanei*

(JU2796*)*, *Caenorhabditis tropicalis* (JU1373), *Oscheius tipulae* (JU1505), and *Panagrellus* sp. 2

(AWR79). Transmission occurs horizontally. The spores are ovoid and measure as 2.4 x 0.67 μm.

The fired polar tube measures 8.3 μm. This species is named after the brown color the animals

display after being infected for several days and this color resembles that of cider donuts available

in the area where the specimen was found.

Species: *Nematocida ferruginous* n. sp. Wadi et al. 2022.

The type strain LUAm1 was found in 2017 inside of its type host nematode *C. elegans* strain

LUA1, which was isolated from a rotting *Heracleum* sp. stem in Santeuil, France (GPS

coordinates 49° 7' 16.99" N, 1° 57' 3.918" E). The type material is deposited in the collection of

the corresponding author (AWR). The genome of this strain has been sequenced and deposited

in Genbank under accession JALPMW000000000. This is a new species based on the divergence

of the genome from other sequenced species. This species has been observed to infect the

muscle and epidermal tissues of *C. elegans*. Experimental infection has been observed in *C.*

elegans (N2), *Caenorhabditis briggsae* (JU2507), *Caenorhabditis remanei* (JU2796*)*,

Caenorhabditis tropicalis (JU1373), *Oscheius tipulae* (JU1505). Transmission occurs horizontally

and is likely via a fecal-oral route. The spores are ovoid and measure as 1.72 x 0.6 μm. The fired

polar tube measures 6.2 μm. This species is named after the rust-like brown color the animals

display after being infected for several days.

Species: *Nematocida botruosus* n. sp. Wadi et al. 2022.

The type strain AWRm80 was found in 2018 inside of its type host *Panagrellus* sp. 2 strain
AWR80, which was isolated from rotting apples in Georgina, Ontario, Canada. The type material
is deposited in the collection of the corresponding author (AWR). The genome of this strain has
been sequenced and deposited in Genbank under accession JALPMX000000000. This is a new
species based on the divergence of the genome from other sequenced species. This species has
only been observed to infect the intestine of this animal and transmission occurs horizontally. The
spores are ovoid and measure as 1.51 x 0.76 μm. The fired polar tube measures 2.3 μm. This
species was named after the prominent large spore clusters formed.

Acknowledgements

We thank Yin Chen Wan, Edward James, and Winnie Zhao for providing helpful comments on
the manuscript. We thank Marie-Anne Félix for providing previously published microsporidia
species and for providing support to R. L. during isolation of *N. ferruginous*. This work was
supported by a Canadian Institutes of Health Research grant no. 400784 (to A.R.), an Alfred P.
Sloan Research Fellowship FG2019-12040 (to A.R.), and an NSF IOS CAREER grant 2143718
(to R.L). T.T was supported by SDSU Rees-Stealy Fellowship and H.T.E.J was supported by a
University of Toronto Open Fellowship. Some strains were provided by the CGC, which is funded
by NIH Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440).

Author contributions: L.W. and A.R. conceived of the project. L.W. performed all genomic
analysis. N. I. contributed code to the genomic analysis. T.T., H.T.E.J., R. L, and A. R. performed
experiments. R.L. and A. R. provided mentorship and acquisition of funding. L.W and A.R. co-
wrote the paper with edits from T.T., H.T.E.J., N.I., and R. L.

Competing Interests: The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

699 **Figures**

Fig 1. Phylogeny and properties of microsporidia genomes. (A) Phylogenetic tree of 44 microsporidia species and the outgroup *Rozella allomycis* was constructed from orthologous proteins using Orthofinder [31]. Bootstrap values less than 1.0 are indicated at each node. Scale indicates changes per site. Previously sequenced species are shown in black and newly sequenced genomes presented in this paper are shown in yellow. Species are grouped into four classes (Rozella, early diverging microsporidia, metchnikovellids, and canonical microsporidia) as previously described [3]. **(B)** number of predicted proteins encoded by each genome. **(C)** Genome assembly size of each species. **(D)** Genome assembly N50 values. The scaffold N50

value is shown, except for those indicated by an * which are the contig N50 values. **(E)** Presence

of conserved microsporidian orthologs measured as the percent BUSCOs present in each

genome.

Fig 2. Conservation of protein function across microsporidian genomes. Membership of

proteins from *R. allomycis* and 40 microsporidia species in Pombe GO-slim categories was

determined. The number of proteins from each species determined to belong to each GO slim

category is shown as a heatmap with GO-slim categories in rows and species in columns. Only GO slim categories that contain at least one protein from any of these species are shown. Legend for the number of proteins in each cell is shown at the right. Phylogenetic tree, shown at bottom, was constructed using Orthofinder [31]. Several species (*Pseudoloma neurophilia, Dictyocoela roeselum*, *Cucumispora dikerogammari*, and *Nosema apis*) were excluded due to poorer quality genome assemblies (See Fig 1). *Nematocida* species are highlighted with a blue box. *Enteropsectra* and *Pancytospora* species are highlighted with a green box.

Fig 3. Presence of metabolic enzymes in microsporidia species. Membership of proteins from *R. allomycis* and 40 microsporidia species in eight GO-slim metabolic categories was determined. The number of proteins from each species determined to belong to each category is shown as a stacked bar graph, with the legend for each metabolic Go-slim shown at the right. Phylogenetic tree, shown at bottom, was constructed using Orthofinder. Several species (*Pseudoloma neurophilia, Dictyocoela roeselum*, *Cucumispora dikerogammari*, and *Nosema apis*) were excluded due to poorer quality genome assemblies (See Fig 1). *Nematocida* species are highlighted with a blue box. *Enteropsectra* and *Pancytospora* species are highlighted with a green box.

Fig 4. Nematode infecting microsporidia contain many diverse large gene families.

Large gene families and the number of proteins from each species that belongs to each family

was determined (See methods). The number of members of each large gene family (listed in

rows) in each species (listed in columns) is shown as a heatmap according to the scale at the top

right. The presence of predicted signal peptides (green), transmembrane domains (yellow), or

Pfam domains (purple gradient) are shown to the right. Families containing the Pfam domains

peptidase (P), Zinc finger (Z), LRR(L) or DUF1609(D) are indicated. Domain types are displayed

only for those families with more than one annotated Pfam domain. Families that were determined

using OrthoMCL are indicated with * (See methods). Species are arranged according to the

phylogenetic tree shown in Figure 1. *V. corneae* is included as an outgroup species of

Enteropsectra and *Pancytospora*

A

N. major
N. parisii
N. ironsii
N. ausubeli
P. philotis
P. ephiphaga

0.9

B NEPG_02057

N   M

C

C PAEPH01_0103

N   M

C

D N-Terminal
NEPG_02057
PAEPH01_0103

N

E Middle
NEPG_02057
PAEPH01_0103

M

F C-Terminal
NEPG_02057
PAEPH01_0103

C

Fig 5. The large gene family NemLGF1 has likely been horizontally transferred between genera. (A) Phylogenetic tree of NemLGF1 family members, colored by species according to the legend in the middle of the tree. Scale indicates changes per site. (B-C) AlphaFold models of *N. parisii* NEPG_02057 (B) and *P. epiphaga* PAEPH01_0103 (C). (D-F) Aligned structures of the N-terminal (D), middle (E), and C-terminal (F) domains. N, N-terminal. M, middle. C, C-terminal.

Fig 6. Determination of host range, tissue specificity, and polar tube length of *Nematocida* species. (A-B) Seven species of L1 stage nematodes were infected with the following species (spore concentration): *N. parisii* (3 million), *N. ausubeli* (0.8 million), *N. cider* (4 million), and *N. botruosus* (28 million). After 96 hours of incubation with spores, animals were fixed and stained with direct yellow 96. **(A)** Representative images of *C. elegans* infected with *N. cider* and *Panagrellus* sp. 2 infected with *N. botruosus*. Scale bars, 100 µm. **(B)** Percentage of each population of animals infected with each species of microsporidia. Data is displayed as a heat

map with host species in rows, microsporidia species in columns, and the value of each cell being the percentage of each population that displayed newly formed microsporidia spores. Legend is displayed on the right. Data shown are the average of two biological replicates with 20-391 animals counted for each sample. **(C-D)** L1 stage *C. elegans* strains expressing GFP in either the intestine, epidermis, or body wall muscle were infected with either 1 million *N. cider* or *N. ferruginous* spores. After 72 hours animals were fixed and stained with a *Nematocida* 18S RNA FISH probe and DAPI. Note that for *N. ferruginous* infection of the GFP-intestinal strain (top), that the infection is seen to lie outside of the GFP indicating a lack of intestinal infection. **(C)** Representative images of infection of each species in each strain. Scale bars, 20 µm. **(D)** The percentage of the population of each strain containing microsporidia infection within the marked tissue. Data are from over 2 biological replicates and a total of 60 animals examined for each condition. Graphs show mean with SD error bars. **(E-F)** Spores of *Nematocida* species were induced to fire through repeated freeze thawing and then stained with Nile red and calcofluor white. **(E)** Representative image of a stained *N. cider* polar tube. Scale bars, 5 µm. **(F)** The length of polar tubes of each species is displayed. 26-41 polar tubes were measured for each species. Mean ± SEM represented by horizontal bars.

	Host range	Tissues infected	Spore size classes	Large spore clusters	Spore length (µm)	Spore width (µm)	Estimated spore volume (µm³)	Polar tube length (µm)	Genome size (Mb)
N. parisii	Specialist	Intestine	2	No	2.18	0.8	0.73	3.3	4.1
N. ironsii	Specialist	Intestine	2	No	2.26	0.68	0.55	N/A	4.4
N.ausubeli	Specialist	Intestine	2	No	2.04	0.53	0.30	4.4	4.7
N. major	Specialist	Intestine	2	No	2.3	0.54	0.35	3.5	3.8
N.minor	Specialist	Intestine	2	No	1.3	0.55	0.21	3.7	3.7
N. displodere	Generalist	Epidermis, Muscle	1	Yes	2.38	1.03	1.32	12.6	3.1
N. cider	Generalist	Intestine, Epidermis, Muscle	1	Yes	2.4	0.67	0.56	8.3	3.4
N. homosporus	Generalist	Intestine	1	Yes	2	0.72	0.54	5.1	4.3
N. ferruginous	Generalist	Epidermis, Muscle	1	Yes	1.72	0.6	0.32	6.2	3.1
N. botruosus	Specialist	Intestine	1	Yes	1.51	0.77	0.46	2.3	3.2

Parisii group / *Displodere group*

Fig 7. *Nematocida* phenotypic properties. Table of phenotypic properties for *Nematocida* species, arranged according to the phylogenetic tree (left) determined in Fig 1. Host range, tissues infected, spore size classes, presence of large spore clusters, spore size, and polar tube length was determined in this paper and from several previously published studies [18–20]. Estimated spore volume was calculated for spore length and width measurements as previously described [17]. N/A, Not available.

Supplemental material:

S1 Fig. Similarity of *N. ferruginous* assemblies.

S2 Fig. Phylogenetic tree of *Nematocida* species.

S3 Fig. Genome size and number of encoded proteins are correlated in nematode-infecting microsporidia.

S4 Fig. Conservation of carbohydrate metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes.

S5 Fig. Conservation of generation of precursor metabolites and energy pathways across microsporidia genomes.

S6 Fig. Conservation of tRNA metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes.

S7 Fig. Conservation of cellular amino acid metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes.

S8 Fig. Conservation of lipid metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes.

S9 Fig. Conservation of sulfur compound metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes.

S10 Fig. Conservation of mRNA metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes.

S11 Fig. Conservation of nucleobase-containing small molecule metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes.

S12 Fig. Signal peptides and transmembrane domains in Nematode-infecting microsporidia genomes.

S13 Fig. Structural models of nematode-infecting microsporidia large gene families.

S14 Fig. *N. ferruginous* infects multiple host species.

S15 Fig. Spore formation observed in the intestine for *N. botruosus* and throughout the animal for *N. cider* and *N. ferruginous*.

S16 Fig. AAIM-1 is necessary for efficient infection by *N. cider.*

S1 Table. Summary of microsporidia species and their hosts.

S2 Table. Methods used to assemble each microsporidia genome.

S3 Table. Annotation of microsporidia genomes.

S4 Table. Summary of genome assembly statistics.

S5 Table. List of genome assemblies used.

S6 Table. RNAi pathway proteins in *Pancytospora* and *Enteropsectra.*

S7 Table. List of large gene family proteins*.*

S8 Table. NemLGF26 proteins present in other microsporidia species.

S1 Data. All infection experiment data.

843 **S1 Fig. Similarity of *N. ferruginous* assemblies.**

844 The pairwise nucleotide identify of the three *N. ferruginous* assemblies (LUAm1-3) were

845 calculated and displayed as heat map. The similarity between each assembly is colored according

846 to the legend at the right.

S2 Fig. Phylogenetic tree of *Nematocida* species. The phylogeny of 10 *Nematocida* species
was determined from single-copy orthologs identified using OrthoMCL. Phylogenetic tree was
generated using RaxML. *M. daphniae* is shown as an outgroup. Bootstrap values are indicated at
each node. Scale indicates changes per site.

S3 Fig. Genome size and number of encoded proteins are correlated in nematode-infecting microsporidia. The correlation between genome size and protein number in 13 nematode-infecting microsporidia genomes is shown as a scatter plot. Pearson correlation coefficient and p-value are shown in the top left.

S4 Fig. Conservation of carbohydrate metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes. Membership of proteins from *R. allomycis* and 40 microsporidia species in descendant GO terms from the Pombe GO-slim category "carbohydrate metabolic process" was determined. The number of proteins from each species determined to belong to each Go term is shown as a heatmap with GO-slim categories in rows and microsporidia species in columns. Only descendant GO terms that contain at least one protein from any of these species is shown. Legend for the number of proteins in each cell is shown at the right. Phylogenetic tree, shown at bottom, was constructed using Orthofinder. Several species (*Pseudoloma neurophilia, Dictyocoela roeselum, Cucumispora dikerogammari*, and *Nosema apis*) were excluded due to poorer quality genome assemblies (See Fig 1). *Nematocida* species are highlighted with a blue box. *Enteropsectra* and *Pancytospora* species are highlighted with a green box.

S5 Fig. Conservation of generation of precursor metabolites and energy pathways across microsporidia genomes. Membership of proteins from *R. allomycis* and 40 microsporidia species in descendant GO terms from the Pombe GO-slim category "generation of precursor metabolites and energy" was determined. The number of proteins from each species determined to belong to each Go term is shown as a heatmap with GO-slim categories in rows and microsporidia species in columns. Only descendant GO terms that contain at least one protein from any of these species is shown. Legend for the number of proteins in each cell is shown at the right. Phylogenetic tree, shown at bottom, was constructed using Orthofinder. Several species (*Pseudoloma neurophilia, Dictyocoela roeselum, Cucumispora dikerogammari*, and *Nosema apis*) were excluded due to poorer quality genome assemblies (See Fig 1). *Nematocida* species are highlighted with a blue box. *Enteropsectra* and *Pancytospora* species are highlighted with a green box.

S6 Fig. Conservation of tRNA metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes.

Membership of proteins from *R. allomycis* and 40 microsporidia species in descendant GO terms

from the Pombe GO-slim category "tRNA metabolic process" was determined. The number of

proteins from each species determined to belong to each Go term is shown as a heatmap with

GO-slim categories in rows and microsporidia species in columns. Only descendant GO terms

that contain at least one protein from any of these species is shown. Legend for the number of

proteins in each cell is shown at the right. Phylogenetic tree, shown at bottom, was constructed

using Orthofinder. Several species (*Pseudoloma neurophilia, Dictyocoela roeselum*,

Cucumispora dikerogammari, and *Nosema apis*) were excluded due to poorer quality genome

assemblies (See Fig 1). *Nematocida* species are highlighted with a blue box. *Enteropsectra* and

Pancytospora species are highlighted with a green box.

S7 Fig. Conservation of cellular amino acid metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes. Membership of proteins from *R. allomycis* and 40 microsporidia species in descendant GO terms from the Pombe GO-slim category "cellular amino acid metabolic process" was determined. The number of proteins from each species determined to belong to each Go term is shown as a heatmap with GO-slim categories in rows and microsporidia species in columns. Only descendant GO terms that contain at least one protein from any of these species is shown. Legend for the number of proteins in each cell is shown at the right. Phylogenetic tree, shown at

920 *Dictyocoela roeselum*, *Cucumispora dikerogammari*, and *Nosema apis*) were excluded due to
921 poorer quality genome assemblies (See Fig 1). *Nematocida* species are highlighted with a blue
922 box. *Enteropsectra* and *Pancytospora* species are highlighted with a green box.

S8 Fig. Conservation of lipid metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes.

Membership of proteins from *R. allomycis* and 40 microsporidia species in descendant GO terms
from the Pombe GO-slim category "lipid metabolic process" was determined. The number of
proteins from each species determined to belong to each Go term is shown as a heatmap with
GO-slim categories in rows and microsporidia species in columns. Only descendant GO terms
that contain at least one protein from any of these species is shown. Legend for the number of
proteins in each cell is shown at the right. Phylogenetic tree, shown at bottom, was constructed
using Orthofinder. Several species (*Pseudoloma neurophilia, Dictyocoela roeselum,*
Cucumispora dikerogammari, and *Nosema apis*) were excluded due to poorer quality genome

S9 Fig. Conservation of sulfur compound metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes. Membership of proteins from *R. allomycis* and 40 microsporidia species in descendant GO terms from the Pombe GO-slim category "sulfur compound metabolic process" was determined. The number of proteins from each species determined to belong to each Go term is shown as a heatmap with GO-slim categories in rows and microsporidia species in columns. Only descendant GO terms that contain at least one protein from any of these species is shown. Legend for the number of proteins in each cell is shown at the right. Phylogenetic tree, shown at bottom, was constructed using Orthofinder. Several species (*Pseudoloma neurophilia, Dictyocoela roeselum*, *Cucumispora dikerogammari*, and *Nosema apis*) were excluded due to poorer quality genome assemblies (See Fig 1). *Nematocida* species are highlighted with a blue box. *Enteropsectra* and *Pancytospora* species are highlighted with a green box.

S10 Fig. Conservation of mRNA metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes.
Membership of proteins from *R. allomycis* and 40 microsporidia species in descendant GO terms
from the Pombe GO-slim category "mRNA metabolic process" was determined. The number of
proteins from each species determined to belong to each Go term is shown as a heatmap with
GO-slim categories in rows and microsporidia species in columns. Only descendant GO terms
that contain at least one protein from any of these species is shown. Legend for the number of
proteins in each cell is shown at the right. Phylogenetic tree, shown at bottom, was constructed
using Orthofinder. Several species (*Pseudoloma neurophilia, Dictyocoela roeselum*,
Cucumispora dikerogammari, and *Nosema apis*) were excluded due to poorer quality genome
assemblies (See Fig 1). *Nematocida* species are highlighted with a blue box. *Enteropsectra* and
Pancytospora species are highlighted with a green box.

S11 Fig. Conservation of nucleobase-containing small molecule metabolic processes across microsporidia genomes. Membership of proteins from *R. allomycis* and 40 microsporidia species in descendant GO terms from the Pombe GO-slim category "nucleobase-containing small molecule metabolic process" was determined. The number of proteins from each species determined to belong to each Go term is shown as a heatmap with GO-slim categories in rows and microsporidia species in columns. Only descendant GO terms that contain at least one protein from any of these species is shown. Legend for the number of proteins in each cell is shown at the right. Phylogenetic tree, shown at bottom, was constructed using Orthofinder. Several species (*Pseudoloma neurophilia, Dictyocoela roeselum, Cucumispora dikerogammari*, and *Nosema apis*) were excluded due to poorer quality genome assemblies (See Fig 1).

982   *Nematocida* species are highlighted with a blue box. *Enteropsectra* and *Pancytospora* species

983   are highlighted with a green box.

990   **S12 Fig. Signal peptides and transmembrane domains in Nematode-infecting**

991   **microsporidia genomes.** The percentage of proteins in each genome predicted to contain either

992   signal peptides or transmembrane domains is shown.

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1002 **S13 Fig. Structural models of nematode-infecting microsporidia large gene families.** (A-B)

1003 AlphaFold models of *N.* parisii NEPG_02057 (B) and *N. ausubeli* NERG_01890 (B). (C-E) Aligned

1004 structures of the N-terminal (C), middle (D), and C-terminal (E) domains. N, N-terminal. M, middle.

1005 C, C-terminal. (F-I) AlphaFold models of PanLGF1 member PAPHI01_0471 (F), NemLGF11

1006 NEMIN01_1006 (G), EbrLGF1 ENBRE01_2406 (H), and NemLGF2 NEDG_02234 (I).

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Nematode species	*N. ferruginous* replicate 1	*N. ferruginous* replicate 2		Percent infected	
C. elegans				>75	(black)
C. briggsae				50-75	(dark olive)
C. remanei				25-50	(gold)
C. tropicalis				5-25	(yellow)
O. tipulae	N/A			1-5	(pale yellow)
P. sp. 2				<1	(white)

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S14 Fig. *N. ferruginous* infects multiple host species. Six species of L1 stage nematodes
were infected with either 20 (replicate 1) or 40 million (replicate 2) *N. ferruginous (*LUAm3) spores.
After 96 hours of incubation with spores, animals were fixed and stained with direct yellow 96.
Percent of each population of animals infected with each species of microsporidia. Data is
displayed as a heat map with host species in rows, each *N. ferruginous* replicate in columns, and
the value of each cell being the percent of each population that displayed newly formed
microsporidia spores. Legend is displayed at the right. 50-196 animals were counted for each
sample.

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S15 Fig. Spore formation observed in the intestine for *N. botruosus* and throughout the

animal for *N. cider* and *N. ferruginous*. **(A-C)** L1 stage animals were exposed to spores and

incubated for 96 hours, fixed, and stained with DY96. Representative images were taken with the

apotome module of a ZEISS Axio Imager at 63x magnification. Multiple z-planes were imaged,

and a maximum intensity projection is displayed for each sample. Scale bars, 20 µm. **(A)**

Panagrellus sp. 2 infected with 28 million *N. botruosus* spores. **(B)** *C. elegans* N2 infected with 4

million *N. cider* spores. **(C)** *C. elegans* N2 infected with 40 million *N. ferruginous* (LUAm3) spores.

(D) *C. elegans* N2 animals were either infected with 3 million *N. cider* spores or 3 million *N.*

ferruginous spores for 5 days. Images taken with Nikon Eclipse Ni at 10 x magnification.

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1036 **S16 Fig. AAIM-1 is necessary for efficient infection by *N. cider.*** N2 and *aaim-1* mutant animals

1037 infected with 4 million *N. cider* spores, fixed at 96 hours, and stained with direct-yellow 96 (DY96).

1038 20-30 worms quantified per replicate. The percentage of the animal containing DY96 signal is

1039 shown. Mean ± SEM represented by horizontal bars. P-values determined via One-way Anova

1040 with post hoc. Significance defined as **** $p < 0.0001$.

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