Genomics of Preaxostyla Flagellates Illuminates the Path Towards the Loss of Mitochondria

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Abstract

The notion that mitochondria cannot be lost was shattered with the report of an oxymonad *Monocercomonoides exilis*, the first eukaryote arguably without any mitochondrion. Yet, questions remain about whether this extends beyond the single species and how this transition took place. The Oxymonadida is a group of gut endobionts taxonomically housed in the Preaxostyla which also contains free-living flagellates of the genera *Trimastix* and *Paratrimastix*. The latter two taxa harbour conspicuous mitochondrion-related organelles (MROs). Here we report high-quality genome and transcriptome assemblies of two Preaxostyla representatives, the free-living *Paratrimastix pyriformis* and the oxymonad *Blattamonas nauphoetae*. We performed thorough comparisons among all available genomic and transcriptomic data of Preaxostyla to further decipher the evolutionary changes towards amitochondriality, endobiosis, and unstacked Golgi. Our results provide insights into the metabolic and endomembrane evolution, but most strikingly the data confirm the complete loss of mitochondria for all three oxymonad species investigated (*M. exilis*, *B. nauphoetae*, and *Streblomastix strix*), suggesting the amitochondriate status is common to a large part if not whole group of Oxymonadida. This observation moves this unique loss to 100 MYA when oxymonad lineage diversified.

Author summary

Mitochondria are nearly ubiquitous components of eukaryotic cells that constitute bodies of animals, fungi, plants, algae, and a broad diversity of single-celled eukaryotes, *aka* protists. Many groups of protists have substantially reduced the complexity of their mitochondria because they live in oxygen-poor environments, so they are unable to utilize the most salient feature of mitochondria – their ATP-producing oxidative phosphorylation metabolism. However, for a long time, scientists thought that it is impossible to completely lose a mitochondrion because this organelle provides other essential services to the cell, e.g. synthesis of protein cofactors called iron-sulfur clusters. Detailed investigation of chinchilla symbiont M. *exilis* documented the first case of an organism without mitochondrion, and it also provided a scenario explaining how this unique evolutionary experiment might have happened. In this work, we expand on this discovery by exploring genomes of multiple relatives of *M. exilis*. We show that the loss of the mitochondrion is not limited to a single species but possibly extends to its entire group, the oxymonads. We also compare the predicted metabolic capabilities of oxymonads to their closest known mitochondrion-containing relatives and map out various changes that occurred during the transition to amitochondriality.

Introduction

Multiple eukaryotic lineages have adapted to low-oxygen and/or endobiotic lifestyles by modifying their mitochondria into a wide range of mitochondrion-related organelle (MRO) types via the process of reductive and adaptive evolution [1]. The most radically modified MROs are traditionally categorized as hydrogenosomes, producing ATP by extended glycolysis, and as mitosomes with no role in energy metabolism [2]. However, exploration of a broader diversity of MRO-containing lineages makes it clear that MROs of various organisms form a functional continuum [3–6]. The extreme outcome of mitochondrial reductive evolution is the complete loss of the organelle, but so far only one organism has been conclusively shown to have reached this point, the chinchilla gut symbiont *Monocercomonoides exilis* (Oxymonadida, Preaxostyla, Metamonada). A genomic project has thoroughly corroborated the amitochondriate status of *M. exilis*, in which it failed to identify any mitochondrion-associated genes while showing multiple other eukaryotic cellular systems to be well represented [7–9].

Oxymonadida contains approximately 140 described species of morphologically divergent and diverse flagellates exclusively inhabiting the digestive tracts of metazoans, of which none has been conclusively shown to possess a mitochondrion by cytological investigations [10]. Therefore, the entire Oxymonadida group may be an amitochondriate lineage, with the mitochondrion being lost in its common ancestor. Oxymonads belong to Preaxostyla, one of the five major clades of the phylum Metamonada consisting of exclusively anaerobes or microaerophiles; the other clades are represented by Fornicata (e.g., *Giardia intestinalis*), Parabasalia (e.g., *Trichomonas vaginalis*), barthelonids and their relatives (the BRC group; [11,12]), and Anaeramoebidae (e.g., *Anaeramoeba flamelloides*; [13]). The two additional known branches of Preaxostyla, classified as the genera

Trimastix and *Paratrimastix*, split out at two successive points off the trunk leading to

Oxymonadida (Fig 1A). They are both comprised of free-living, bacterivorous flagellates

exhibiting a typical excavate morphology and ultrastructure and thriving in low-oxygen

environments [14].

Paratrimastix pyriformis has been shown to possess an MRO morphologically resembling

a hydrogenosome. However, it is likely not involved in the ATP-generating extended glycolysis

but plays a role in the one-carbon metabolism of the cell [15–17]. Putative MROs have also been

observed in electron microscopy studies of a *Trimastix* representative, *T. marina* [14], and their

nature was illuminated by transcriptomic data [5]. As a group with at least two MRO-bearing

lineages and an amitochondriate species/clade nested within, the Preaxostyla clade provides

a promising model system to study the causes, conditions, and consequences of the loss of this

ubiquitous cellular compartment.

To start answering questions about the timing and circumstances of this single evolutionary

experiment in which the mitochondrion was lost from the cell, a denser sampling of omics-level

data from Preaxostyla is needed. Currently, the available data encompasses a genome draft of

M. exilis, transcriptomes of *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina* with variable completeness, and

a fragmentary single-cell genome assembly of an oxymonad *Streblomastix strix*. As a key step

towards this end, we present high-quality genomic assemblies for another oxymonad, *Blattamonas*

nauphoetae, and for the free-living *P. pyriformis*. The distribution of mitochondrion hallmark

proteins and comparisons of gene repertoires and metabolic functions among five Preaxostyla

species of various ecology and MRO status were used to illuminate the adaptations connected to

amitochondriality, loss of stacked Golgi, and the origin of endobiotic lifestyle within the group.

Results and discussion

The genome assemblies of *Paratrimastix pyriformis* and *Blattamonas nauphoetae* are highly contiguous and nearly complete

We employed a combination of Oxford Nanopore and Illumina technologies to obtain genome assemblies of two species of Preaxostyla. As both species are grown in polyxenic cultures where the eukaryotes represent a minority of cells, we employed multiple rounds of decontamination. Prior to the genomic DNA isolation, enrichment of the sample for the eukaryotic cells was achieved using filtration, and after sequencing the data were carefully decontaminated bioinformatically, resulting in two highly contiguous eukaryotic genome assemblies (see Materials and methods). The basic characteristics of these genomic assemblies and their comparison to the previously published assemblies of Preaxostyla taxa are given in Table 1.

The *B. nauphoetae* genome was assembled into 879 contigs spanning 88,537,989 bp, with an N50 = 199,589 bp and a GC content of 44.96%. Automatic and manual gene prediction resulted in 25,221 predicted protein-coding genes. The *P. pyriformis* genome was assembled into 633 scaffolds spanning 56,627,582 bp, with an N50 = 276,605 bp and a GC content of 60.94%. Manual and automatic gene prediction resulted in 10,815 predicted protein-coding genes.

Using BUSCO v3 [18] with the eukaryota_odb9 dataset, the genome completeness was estimated to be 76.3% and 76.6% for *P. pyriformis* and *B. nauphoetae*, respectively (Table 1). BUSCO values, despite their wide usage, are not expected to reach 100% in lineages distant from model eukaryotes simply due to the true absence or high sequence divergence of some of the assessed marker genes. A detailed list of BUSCO markers in Preaxostyla and a comparison of their presence/absence in high-quality genomes of *Trypanosoma brucei*, *Giardia intestinalis*, and

Trichomonas vaginalis is given in S1 File, Sheet 1. It demonstrates that the absence of many

BUSCO markers is generally shared by the three Preaxostyla species indicating that this is true

absence of the given gene in the genome rather than reflection of data incompleteness. To avoid

a bias caused by evolutionary divergence, we also attempted to estimate genome completeness

using reference-independent approaches with Merqury [19]. Using this method, we obtained

a completeness of 94.01% and 98.24% for *P. pyriformis* and *B. nauphoetae*, respectively (Table 1).

Finally, we also searched for 79 conserved ribosomal proteins [20]. We identified 74 of them in

the predicted gene set of *P. pyriformis*, with the remaining five identified by manual searches in

the genome (S1 File, Sheet 2). A comparable result was achieved for *B. nauphoetae*, where we

identified 76 of the ribosomal proteins in the predicted gene set, and the remaining three were

identified by a manual search in the genome (S1 File, Sheet 3). Altogether our analyses suggest

that the *P. pyriformis* and *B. nauphoetae* genome drafts are highly complete.

A systematic search for proteins associated with the mitochondrion fails to identify

convincing candidates in oxymonads

The hypothesis of the mitochondrion organelle absence in *M. exilis* was postulated based on the

absence of mitochondrion-related proteins in its genome and transcriptome and led to overturning

of the paradigm that mitochondria are ubiquitous among eukaryotes [7]. Obviously, the

amitochondriate status of *M. exilis* is immediately falsifiable by finding any evidence of a putative

organelle in this species. Careful inspection of the predicted proteomes of other oxymonads for the

presence of mitochondrial hallmarks is an obvious next step that may further support, or weaken,

this hypothesis. To follow this line of investigation, we have carefully searched the genome drafts

of *P. pyriformis* and *B. nauphoetae* published in this study, the previously published genome drafts

of *Monocercomonoides exilis* [7,21] and *Streblomastix strix*, and the previously published

transcriptome of *Trimastix marina* [5], i.e., a composite dataset containing three oxymonad species

and two other free-living Preaxostyla, the latter clearly possessing an MRO [5,17].

We used several methods to identify candidate mitochondrial proteins (results for all searches are

shown in S2 File and summarized in Fig 1B and C). In most cases, proteins identified in the first

step were searched against the custom mitochondrial protein sequence database based on the

MitoMiner database [22,23] (herein referred to as MitoMiner) and those with hits were considered

as candidate mitochondrial proteins. In the last step the functional annotation of the candidates

based on NCBI best hits or additional hint, co-occurrence across Preaxostyla, were considered to

select the putative mitochondrial proteins from the candidates. For the purpose of the analyses the

predicted proteins of Preaxostyla were clustered with predicted proteins of other Metamonada into

orthologous group (S3 File).

The absence of mitochondrial hallmark genes in oxymonads extends beyond *M. exilis*

As the most obvious approach, we searched all five investigated species for homologues of nuclear

genome-encoded proteins typically associated with mitochondria or MROs in other eukaryotes

including *Paratrimastix* and *Trimastix*. In the first step, we used profile Hidden Markov Models

(HMMs) to search for components of the mitochondrion protein import and maturation machinery,

considered one of the most conserved mitochondrial features [24]. Homology searches resulted in

22 (*T. marina*) to 63 (*M. exilis*) hits, which were further evaluated by searches against the

MitoMiner resulting in 57 candidates in total. Functional annotations indicated that all candidates

recovered in oxymonad data sets are very likely false positives: mainly vaguely annotated kinases,

peptidases, and chaperones (Fig 1B, S2 File). For *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina*, the situation was

different. Out of the 11 previously identified components of the *P. pyriformis* mitochondrion

protein import and maturation machinery [16,17], 10 were found in the predicted proteomes of

these two species with this approach: the β-barrel outer membrane translocases Tom40 and Sam50

and the associated receptor Tom22, the inner membrane translocases Tim17, Tim22 and their

associated protein Pam18 and Tim44, the α and β subunit of the mitochondrial processing peptidase

(MPP), and the mitochondrial chaperone protein HSP70. Tim17 and mtHsp70 were also identified

in the *T. marina* dataset, corroborating previous findings [5]. The only exception was the

previously detected Tim23 protein (PAPYR_1418; [17]), which was missed in our new search

because of high divergence. The successful identification of the protein translocon components in

these two species validated our approach.

The sensitive HMM searches were complemented by an extensive search for putative homologues

of known mitochondrial proteins using a pipeline based on the MitoMiner database (S2 File). As

already shown for *M. exilis*, the specificity of the pipeline in organisms with divergent

mitochondria is low [7]. The search recovered a similar number of hits in all investigated species,

from 636 in *S. strix* up to 1,024 in *P. pyriformis*. An objective assessment of the localization of all

these proteins is not realistic. Many of them are clearly not mitochondrial (e.g., histones or

ribosomal proteins), and others belong to very general gene ontology categories (e.g., protein-

binding) making the assessment impossible. After individually inspecting the remaining items, we

conclude there is none among the hits from oxymonads that would raise a strong case for the

presence of mitochondria. On the other hand, reliable mitochondrial proteins were found among

hits from *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina*. The first such examples are dynamin-like proteins

(PAPYR_3413 and Gene.668::gnl|Trimastix_PCT|268). Their phylogenetic position (S4A File)

corroborates the hypothesis of Karnkowska et al. [8] that these may mediate the division of MROs

in   these   species.   Other   examples   are   proteins   (PAPYR_2826   and

Gene.3674::gnl|Trimastix_PCT|1191) orthologous to the mitochondrial outer membrane-anchored

protein MIRO (mitochondrial Rho; [25]) broadly conserved in eukaryotes but rare in

MRO-containing taxa [26,27]. Indeed, PAPYR_2826 was recently confirmed by proteomics to be

MRO-associated in *P. pyriformis* [17]. Finally, the search recovered homologues of mitochondrial

matrix chaperones Cpn60 and Cpn10 and homologues of mitochondrial carrier family proteins

used for export or import ATP and other metabolites [28]. Bacterial-type (NTT-like) nucleotide

transporters [29], sporadically used for ATP transport, were not recovered neither by this search

nor by targeted BLAST searches.

Homology-independent searches do not identify convincing candidates for mitochondrial

proteins in the sequenced oxymonad genomes

As an alternative to homology searches, we also searched our Preaxostyla sequence datasets for

several types of signature sequences typical for mitochondrion-targeted proteins. The matrix

proteins of mitochondria and MROs are expected to contain characteristic N-terminal targeting

signals (NTS) needed for the targeted import into MROs [30]. However, it has been previously

recognized that the presence of a predicted NTS by itself does not prove the targeting, as such

amino acid sequences can also appear by chance [31]. Indeed, we have previously shown that 14

M. exilis proteins are imported into hydrogenosomes when heterologously expressed in *T. vaginalis*

[32]. Here we used TargetP v1.1 and MitoFates v1.1 for mitochondrial targeting signal prediction

and identified from as little as two hits in *S. strix* up to 248 hits in *B. nauphoteae* (S2 File). Only

21 of these oxymonad sequences found hits in MitoMiner rendering them candidates which were

considered further and annotated by BLAST searches against the NCBI nr database (Fig 1B). None

of these annotations strongly suggest a mitochondrial function. As an additional hint, we

considered the conservation of NTS prediction across Preaxostyla. We reasoned that if the NTS in

the protein is real it should be detected also in orthologues from other Preaxostyla species. Only

four proteins from oxymonads (ribosomal protein L21, L23a, L34e, and tRNA-dihydrouridine

synthase) fulfilled this criterion, none of them representing a reasonable mitochondrial protein in

organisms that certainly lack a mitochondrial genome. Based on these results, we assume that all

NTS predictions on oxymonad proteins are false positives. Altogether, 50 of *P. pyriformis* and

T. marina proteins with predicted NTS found hits in MitoMiner rendering them candidates. This

probably reflects the presence of the organelle. Indeed, we identified among them, for example,

aminoadipate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase, GCS-H, and mtHSP70 proteins all previously

suggested to localize to the MRO [5].

The outer mitochondrial membrane accommodates two special classes of proteins, TA proteins and

mitochondrial β-barrel membrane proteins (MBOMPs), the former using specific C-terminal

signals [33–35]. We identified up to 475 TA hits in the predicted proteome of *S. strix* and around

100 for the rest of the species, with only 25 for *T. marina* (S2 File). Depending on the species only

five to 12 were considered as mitochondrial candidates (i.e. having hits in the MitoMiner database)

(Fig 1B) and the majority of these were Golgi apparatus/ER-related upon closer scrutiny. Like in

the case of NTS-containing proteins, we assessed if the set of predicted TA proteins contains groups

of orthologues containing more than a single Preaxostyla species. Indeed, 22 such orthologous

groups were found. These were mostly without MitoMiner hits and in most cases annotated as

SNARE or other proteins involved in vesicle trafficking outside mitochondria. This suggests that

the TA prediction did produce true positives but they most likely represent non-mitochondrial TA

proteins. The only robust mitochondrial candidate from the whole list was Fis1 (mitochondrial

fission protein 1) in *T. marina*, which is a tail-anchored (TA) protein mediating mitochondrial

fission [36].

Our search for proteins with MBOMP characteristics revealed six and 23 hits in *T. marina* and

P. pyriformis, respectively, but only three of them had a hit in the MitoMiner database, including

the *P. pyriformis* Tom40, the detection of which validated our approach (Fig 1B). Among the hits

from the oxymonad genomes, only four hit a protein in the MitoMiner database rendering them

mitochondrial candidates, none of them being a known MBOMP (S2 File). Only 10 orthologous

groups predicted as MBOMPs contained representatives of more than one Preaxostyla species. The

annotations of none of them suggested a mitochondrial function: clathrin heavy chain, kelch-type

beta-propeller, EF-hand domain-containing protein, eukaryotic translation initiation factor

3 subunit B, and BTB/POZ domain-containing protein. The only positive case from this set thus

remained Tom40 in *P. pyriformis*.

Probing the oxymonad genomes with the *T. brucei* reference mitochondrial proteome

provides further support for the absence of mitochondria in oxymonads

Given the limitations of the previous searches, namely, high false-positive rates, uncertainty about

mitochondrial localization of proteins included in the MitoMiner database, and the inability to

distinguish between the cytosolic and mitochondrial isoforms, we have performed yet another

analysis in which we used a carefully curated set of queries. In this analysis, we searched for

Preaxostyla orthologues of proteins from the experimentally well-established mitochondrial

proteome of *Trypanosoma brucei* [37–40]. The selection of this organism as a reference also

considered the fact that it is a member of the eukaryotic supergroup Discoba, which frequently

forms a sister group to Metamonada in phylogenomic analyses [41], making *T. brucei* potentially

the closest relative of metamonads out of all eukaryotes with extensively studied mitochondria.

Reciprocal BLAST searches of the *T. brucei* mitochondrial proteins against the predicted proteins

of Preaxostyla revealed ~200 putative groups of orthologues and those were investigated manually.

Careful inspection of the raw localization data in *T. brucei* and protein phylogenies rejected most

cases by disputing either the mitochondrial localization in *T. brucei* or the orthology; the latter was

considered uncertain if *T. brucei* and Preaxostyla proteins were separated by prokaryotic or non-

mitochondrial eukaryotic homologues in the phylogenetic trees (S5 File). The 30 cases passing this

initial scrutiny (S2 File) were divided into two groups.

The high-confidence group comprises 17 proteins that likely share mitochondrial origin as they

formed a monophyletic cluster with other mitochondrial homologues. These were present only in

P. pyriformis and/or *T. marina* and never in oxymonads. Out of these 17 proteins, 12 were already

predicted to be mitochondrial previously [17]. The remaining proteins, such as L-threonine

3-dehydrogenase (TDH) or glycine acetyltransferase, are thus promising novel candidates for

mitochondrial proteins in these two protists.

The 13 putative mitochondrial proteins in the low confidence group clustered with known

mitochondrial proteins or proteins predicted to reside within the mitochondrion using the TargetP

v1.1 algorithm, although the support for the mitochondrial targeting of proteins within these

clusters was not consistent. All of such clusters also included cytosolic or peroxisomal isoforms or

the enzymes known to be dually localized, which questions the mitochondrial origin of these

clusters. An example of the former is isocitrate dehydrogenase, for which the yeast cytosolic,

peroxisomal, and mitochondrial proteins form a clade in the tree (S5 File). Examples of the latter

are aconitase and alanine aminotransferase, for which a dual cytosolic/mitochondrial location was

reported for various eukaryotes including trypanosomatids [42,43]. This low confidence group

contained nine proteins present also in oxymonads (S2 File), and these are discussed in more detail

below.

Aspartate and alanine aminotransferases and the two tRNA synthetases in this category are all

dually localized in the mitochondrion and the cytosol of *T. brucei*. In the case of the tRNA

synthetases, the dual localization arose specifically in trypanosomatids [39] and, consistently with

this hypothesis, Preaxostyla and *T. brucei* proteins cluster together with cytosolic tRNA

synthetases of other eukaryotes. In the case of aspartate aminotransferase, the dual localization

seems to be of a deeper evolutionary origin [44]. The two mevalonate pathway enzymes

(hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA synthase and 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA reductase) are

localized in the mitochondrion of kinetoplastids [45], however, this is a specialty of this lineage,

as eukaryotes typically run this pathway in the cytosol/ER. In all these cases, we conservatively

assume that these enzymes were localized in the cytosol in the common ancestor of Preaxostyla

and *T. brucei* and were partially or fully moved to the mitochondrion in the lineage leading to

T. brucei. The last candidate was the malic enzyme. There are two homologues of the enzyme in

kinetoplastids, one cytoplasmic and one mitochondrial, which cluster together (S4B File). Again,

it cannot be inferred what the situation in the common ancestor with Preaxostyla was, which does

not give a strong reason to assume MRO localization in Preaxostyla.

In summary, our systematic searches for MRO proteins allowed us to update the predicted set of

MRO-localized proteins of *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina* and to provide updated predictions of their

MRO proteomes (S6 File). Most critically, no reliable candidate for an MRO protein was detected

in any of the oxymonad data sets, supporting the hypothesis of the absence of the mitochondrion

in *M. exilis* and, importantly, extending the amitochondriate status to two other oxymonad species.

After this new revelation, we wondered how the loss of mitochondria in the three oxymonads

species had seeped into functions related to this organelle, namely: extended glycolysis, amino acid

metabolism, inventory of FeS cluster-containing proteins, heme synthesis, and peroxisomes.

Inventory of enzymes for extended glycolysis shows a richer diversity of FeFe hydrogenases in *Trimastix* and *Paratrimastix* than in oxymonads

Many eukaryotic anaerobes, including Preaxostyla, generate ATP using the extended glycolysis pathway, which produces acetate, CO_2, and H_2 from pyruvate while performing substrate-level phosphorylation of ADP to ATP [46]. The pathway uses pyruvate as a substrate, which is either directly sourced from glycolysis or produced by decarboxylation of malate through the activity of the malic enzyme (ME), which was identified in all five Preaxostyla species. All studied Preaxostyla species apparently rely on oxidative decarboxylation of pyruvate to acetyl coenzyme A (acetyl-CoA) and CO_2 in a reaction catalyzed by pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase (PFO; [47]), owing to the identification of three to six PFO isoforms in each species analyzed (Fig 2, S4C File, S6 File). None of the alternative enzymes mediating the conversion of pyruvate to acetyl-CoA, pyruvate:NADP+ oxidoreductase (PNO) and pyruvate formate lyase (PFL), could be detected in any of the studied species.

Both the decarboxylation of malate by ME and of pyruvate by PFO are oxidative processes that release electrons, producing NADH and reduced ferredoxin, respectively, and these electron carriers need to be reoxidized. The final fate of the electrons carried by ferredoxin often lies in the reduction of protons to molecular hydrogen through the activity of [FeFe] hydrogenases (HydA; [48]). In addition to the "simple" hydrogenases, which are present in all species of Preaxostyla, [FeFe] hydrogenases with N-terminal homology to the NuoG subunit of NADH-quinone oxidoreductase and a C-terminal homology to NADPH-dependent sulfite reductase (CysJ), were identified in the MRO-containing *T. marina* and *P. pyriformis* (Fig 3, S4D File). Similar "fused" hydrogenases have been previously reported in other eukaryotic anaerobes, including *T. vaginalis* [49], the breviate *Pygsuia biforma* [50], the jakobid *Stygiella incarcerata* [51], and the amoebozoan

Pelomyxa schiedti [52]. Although they do not belong to the group of A3 trimeric hydrogenases

[53] known to be capable of NADH oxidation via electron confurcation [54], they were

hypothesized to catalyze NAD(P)H-dependent formation of H_2 [49]. Although the presence of

these large hydrogenases correlates with the presence of MROs, they were not detected in the MRO

proteome of *P. pyriformis* [17] and their localization is unknown.

The second reaction of the extended glycolysis, which yields ATP, acetate, and CoA, can be

catalyzed either by a two-enzyme system consisting of acetate:succinate CoA-transferase (ASCT)

and succinyl CoA synthetase (SCS) like in *T. vaginalis*, or by a single enzyme acetyl-CoA

synthetase (ACS) like in *G. intestinalis*. All five Preaxostyla species contain ACS, while neither

ASCT nor SCS was identified. ACS has a complicated evolutionary history in Metamonada

characterized by multiple LGT events and gene losses [5,11,55]. The majority of ACS homologues

in Metamonada are predicted to function in the cytosol, with the only exception of the ACS2

isoform from *S. salmonicida* that functions in the MRO [5,56]. Phylogenetic analysis of

Preaxostyla ACSs (S4E File) shows four unrelated clades, none in close relationship to the

S. salmonicida MRO homolog, hinting at a cytosolic localization of these enzymes in Preaxostyla.

Amino acid metabolism is richer in *Trimastix* and *Paratrimastix* than in oxymonads

We noticed clear differences between oxymonads on one side and MRO-containing species

T. marina and *P. pyriformis* on the other with respect to their amino acid metabolism. Hypothetical

amino acid metabolism was reconstructed based on the metabolic maps in the KEGG database and

catalytic activities of enzymes reported from other metamonads (S1-3 Fig; [57,58]). The capacity

to *de novo* synthesize protein-building amino acids seems larger in *P. pyriformis* (cysteine, serine,

glycine, threonine, and selenocysteine) than in oxymonads (cysteine, serine, and selenocysteine

only). The inferred capacity of *T. marina* to synthesize only two amino acids (cysteine and

selenocysteine) most likely reflects the incompleteness of the sequence data available. The

selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway present in *P. pyriformis*, *T. marina*, and *M. exilis* is notable,

as the capacity to synthesize this amino acid has been reported only in *S. salmonicida* among other

metamonads studied so far [58].

Like many other metamonads [59], *M. exilis* has been suggested to utilize arginine for ATP

production via the arginine deiminase pathway consisting of three enzymes: arginine deiminase

(ADI), carbamate kinase (CK), and ornithine transcarbamylase (OTC). This important metabolic

capability has been probably formed in the common ancestor of Metamonada by the acquisition of

genes for ADI and OTC via LGT [59]. Here we show the presence of the complete arginine

deiminase pathway also in *T. marina* and *B. nauphoetae*, while *P. pyriformis* and *S. strix* lack ADI

and CK, respectively. This suggests that ATP production via arginine catabolism is widespread but

not omnipresent in Preaxostyla, and it is present in both free-living and endobiotic representatives.

Other amino acids can be used in energy metabolism as well: cysteine, serine, and tryptophan can

be converted to pyruvate, while methionine can be converted to α-keto-butyrate. Both products

then can be used by PFO and ACS to generate ATP [60].

Of note is the part of amino acid metabolism connected to the folate and methionine cycle.

Methionine (in the form of S-adenosylmethionine, SAM), consumed in reactions catalyzed by

SAM-dependent methyltransferases, can be regenerated in the methionine cycle, which is present

in *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina* but not identified in any of the three oxymonads. The presence of

the methionine cycle is probably connected with the presence of MROs containing a complete

glycine cleavage system (GCS) and serine hydroxymethyl transferase (SHMT) in *P. pyriformis*

[17] and hypothetically also in *T. marina*. The methyl residues liberated from glycine and serine

inside MRO enter the folate cycle and can be later utilized for the methylation of homocysteine to

produce methionine via MetH [61]. Oxymonads lack the folate and methionine cycles as well as

GCS and SHMT, which is in line with the fact that the latter enzymes are restricted to the

mitochondrial compartment in eukaryotes. The transsulfuration pathway, associated with the folate

and methionine cycles in mammals [62], was not found in any Preaxostyla species.

Our search for components of the GCS in Preaxostyla led us to identifying a protein that constitutes

a potential adaptation to the anaerobic lifestyle more broadly shared by multiple unrelated

anaerobic eukaryote lineages. Phylogenetic analysis of homologues of the L protein (GCS-L)

divided the sequences from Preaxostyla into two clusters (S4F File). The previously characterized

MRO-localized protein of *P. pyriformis* considered to function as a bona fide GCS subunit

(PAPYR_5544; [17]) branched with sequences of *T. marina*, Parabasalia, and the fornicate

Carpediemonas membranifera, suggesting that these proteins may be localized in MRO of these

species since their common ancestor. Another *P. pyriformis* gene (PAPYR_1328) and its

homologues from the oxymonads *M. exilis* and *B. nauphoetae* branched with high statistical

support together with sequences from Archamoebae (*Mastigamoeba balamuthi* and *P. schiedti*)

and another eukaryotic anaerobe, *Breviata anathema* (Breviatea); we refer to this divergent clade

as GCS-L2. Localization of this protein in *P. pyriformis* could not be established as it was measured

only in one replicate of the proteomic experiment [17], but given the lack of an N-terminal

extension that could potentially serve as a targeting signal into the MRO, we hypothesize it is

localized outside this organelle. The well-supported relationship between the GCS-L2 sequences

from Preaxostyla, Archamoeabae, and Breviatea may be explained by a eukaryote-to-eukaryote

LGT, although the direction of the transfer among the three eukaryote lineages is unknown.

Notably, the *M. balamuthi* GCS-L2 protein was encountered before and suggested to function

outside the context of the GCS [63], a notion corroborated here by the identification of its close

relatives in oxymonads that lack homologues of the other GCS components. It should be noted

that, besides GCS, GCS-L (proper) is known to be part of three other protein complexes, pyruvate

dehydrogenase, branched-chain amino acid dehydrogenase, and 2-oxoglutarate dehydrogenase

[64], none of them being present in Preaxostyla. Outside of these typical roles or under specific

conditions, GCS-L was shown to have a moonlighting proteolytic activity [65] or a diaphorase

activity by which it oxidizes NADH using labile ferric iron [66], nitric oxide [67], or ubiquinone

[68]. It is, therefore, possible that one of these moonlighting activities may represent the primary

role of GCS-L2.

Oxymonads use almost exclusively 4Fe-4S clusters in their iron-sulfur clusters containing

proteins

Fe-S clusters are ancient and versatile inorganic cofactors used by virtually all living organisms

and in eukaryotes mostly present in the rhombic 2Fe-2S or cubane 4Fe-4S forms [69]. In a typical

eukaryotic cell, Fe-S clusters are synthesized by a combination of the mitochondrial ISC and the

cytosolic CIA pathway, but members of Preaxostyla combine the CIA pathway with the SUF

pathway acquired by LGT from bacteria to perform the same task [69,70]. The enzymes were

shown to localize in the cytosol [17] and the first functional details of the Fe-S cluster biogenesis

in this group were described recently [71]. This major pathway shift in the Preaxostyla common

ancestor was likely a preadaptation for the loss of the mitochondrion in the lineage leading to

M. exilis [7].

To assess how much the change in the Fe-S cluster assembly pathway affected the inventory of

Fe-S cluster-containing proteins in Preaxostyla, we compared the previously predicted Fe-S

proteins of *M. exilis* [8] with a set of Fe-S proteins newly predicted from *in silico* proteomes of

P. pyriformis, *T. marina*, *B. nauphoetae*, and *S. strix* (S7 File). The numbers of Fe-S cluster-

containing proteins identified in individual species varied from 48 in *T. marina* (most likely an

underestimate of the real number, owing to the incompleteness of the data) to 93 in *P. pyriformis*

and are thus not decreased in comparison to other heterotrophic eukaryotes [72]. The predicted

Fe-S proteins fell into 164 distinct orthologous groups. The numbers of these OGs shared by

different combinations of Preaxostyla species are shown in S4 Fig. The most widespread types of

Fe-S cluster-containing proteins in Preaxostyla fall into expected functional groups acting in

processes of extended glycolysis and electron transfer (PFO, HydA, ferredoxins, and flavodoxin-

ferredoxin domains containing proteins), DNA replication and repair, transcription and translation

(e.g., DNA and RNA polymerases, Rli1p), Fe-S cluster assembly itself (SufDSU, SufB, Nbp35,

and NAR-1), and nucleotide (XDH) and amino acid metabolism (L-serine dehydratase).

Most of the predicted Fe-S proteins in oxymonads contain 4Fe-4S clusters, with the single

exception of xanthine dehydrogenase (XDH), which contains both 2Fe-2S and 4Fe-4S clusters.

The free-living *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina* furthermore contain other proteins with 2Fe-2S

clusters, such as [FeFe] hydrogenases and 2Fe-2S ferredoxin. As the 2Fe-2S cluster occur more

frequently in mitochondrial proteins, the higher number of 2Fe-2S proteins in *P. pyriformis*

compared to the oxymonads may reflect the presence of the MRO in this species and its absence

in oxymonads.

Peroxisomes and pathways for the synthesis of heme are absent in all Preaxostyla

Besides modifications or a complete loss of mitochondria, living in low-oxygen environments

and/or living inside hosts typically impacts also peroxisomes. While in most

anaerobic/microaerophilic species, including all previously investigated Metamonada, the

peroxisomes are absent, both free-living and parasitic Archamoebae recently turned out to possess

modified versions of this organelle [73–75], as does *Proteromonas lacertae*, a stramenopile that

possesses the most reduced but seemingly functional peroxisomal organelle yet reported [76].

Specific genetic markers for the presence of peroxisomes are peroxins, a set of proteins involved

in peroxisome biogenesis [77]. Peroxins are absent in the genome of the oxymonad *M. exilis* with

a single exception of a divergent homologue of Pex19 [8]. This protein acts as a soluble cytoplasmic

receptor for peroxisomal tail-anchored (TA) membrane proteins, which are inserted into the

peroxisomal membrane with the help of the Pex3 anchor. The absence of a discernible Pex3

homologue in *M. exilis* indicates that the Pex19 homologue is involved in another cellular process.

To map the situation in other Preaxostyla, we searched all datasets for homologues of human

peroxins (S8 File). Besides putative homologues of Pex19, which were recovered in all species

besides *S. strix*, and a Pex3 homologue recovered in *P. pyriformis*, no other peroxins were detected.

The Pex3/Pex19 pair in *P. pyriformis* was already reported by Zítek et al. [17], who provided

proteomic evidence for Pex3 being localized in the MRO and hypothesized that the Pex3/Pex19

system is involved in the targeting of TA proteins into the outer MRO membrane. Altogether, the

results of our searches do not indicate the presence of peroxisomes in Preaxostyla lineage. Thus,

the apparent absence of Pex3 in oxymonads seems to be another trait linked to the loss of the

mitochondrion in these organisms.

The modification of mitochondria for life in low-oxygen environments typically leads to the loss

of the capacity for the synthesis of heme [78], a cofactor of many proteins involved in redox

reactions, namely the complexes of the respiratory chain. Preaxostyla are no exception in this

respect as no homologues of these enzymes were identified in their datasets. Still, cytochrome b5

domain-containing proteins were recovered in all Preaxostyla (S6 File) indicating that they use

hemoproteins and likely sequester heme from the food.

Membrane transporter complement may reflect adaptation to an endobiotic lifestyle in oxymonads

The collected -omic data set from Preaxostyla allows us to examine two other evolutionary changes besides the loss of the mitochondrion, the transition from a free-living to an endobiotic lifestyle and the loss of stacked Golgi. Although all three events occurred on the same branch of the phylogenetic tree, leading to the common ancestor of the three analyzed oxymonads, we have no clear evidence that they are directly related. However, an indirect link between them is possible. For example, the transition to an endobiotic mode of life could cause the loss of the methionine cycle in oxymonads. This change might subsequently allow for the loss of mitochondria, whose only essential role in free-living Preaxostyla species is to provide methyl groups for this cytosolic cycle [17].

To assess genetic trace of the transition to endobiotic lifestyle, we examined proteins responsible for the transport of metabolites and other chemicals across the plasma membrane and other cell membranes. We searched for a broad spectrum of transmembrane transporters (except for transporters of MROs) using homology-based methods in order to compare the repertoire of functional types as well as the number of paralogues between the five species of Preaxostyla (S9 File).

The most gene-rich group of membrane transporters identified in Preaxostyla is the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) superfamily represented by MRP and pATPase families, just like in *T. vaginalis* [57]. Altogether, representatives of 19 transporter families have been identified in Preaxostyla. All of them are present in both free-living species *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina*, while four families (PotE, SPNS, RFC, and TauE) are missing in all three endobiotic oxymonads investigated. On the other hand, transporters of nucleosides, sugars, amino acids, choline, and phospholipids have

consistently higher numbers of paralogues in the genomes of the oxymonads *M. exilis* and

B. nauphoetae than in *P. pyriformis* and their phylogenetic trees are consistent with gene family

expansion in oxymonads (S4G–K File). These two observations parallel the findings of functional

domain loss and expansion by gene duplication of transporter families in Microsporidia [79],

possibly hinting at a broader evolutionary pattern at the transition to the endobiotic lifestyle.

Indeed, gene duplication in specific types of transmembrane transporters may be a common

adaptation at the transition to a new environment in eukaryotes; for example, expansion in gene

families encoding ion transporters has been observed in halophilic organisms [80–82] when

compared to their mesophilic relatives.

Evidence from the Golgi complex-associated protein complement in Preaxostyla is consistent

with the cisternal adhesion model of Golgi stacking

Another evolutionary transition addressable by our results is the presence of a morphologically

identifiable Golgi body in *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina* versus the lack in oxymonads [14,21,83].

This absence of a morphologically identifiable Golgi-homologue and yet the detection of

a substantial complement of proteins associated with Golgi membrane-trafficking and transport

was used in the initial Karnkowska et al. 2016 paper to provide evidence for a Golgi body, in the

oxymonad *M. exilis* [7,8], serving as a positive control for the informatic ability to detect genomic

signals of cryptic organelles. Golgi bodies with non-canonical morphologies are relatively rare in

eukaryotes, as compared with the hallmark stacked cisternal form [84]. However, such organelles

are well-documented [84]. Surprisingly, the molecular basis for the canonical eukaryotic stacked

morphology is unclear. Many proteins have been implicated in Golgi stacking, though none yet

found to be universal. At the same time the cisternal adhesion model [85], an emerging but still

relatively controversial theory, proposes that a sufficient amount of any one of several putative

stacking factors could provide the adhesive property to keep the stacks together. A 2018 study by

Barlow et. al. [86], looked for all proposed Golgi-stacking factors at the time by sampling genomic

data from across eukaryotes possessing stacked and unstacked Golgi morphologies. No protein was

found in a pattern that supported it as a necessary and sufficient for Golgi stacking, although the

complement of Golgins inferred to be present in LECA did support the functional distinction of cis

vs trans-Golgi. This finding was most consistent with the cisternal adhesion model. Nonetheless,

the organisms sampled with divergent Golgi morphologies were still quite distantly related and

thus the evidence supporting the model was still relatively weak.

By contrast, our dataset represents one of the tightest samplings to date where genomic data is

available for the closest known species on both sides of the divide between stacked and unstacked

Golgi morphology. Consequently, we searched in our datasets to assess the Golgi complement in

the additional Preaxostyla representatives, particularly to see whether the complement was more

extensive in the organisms possessing stacked Golgi bodies.

The scope of our examination included proteins involved in vesicle formation, vesicle fusion, and

the golgin proteins implicated in Golgi structure [87–92]. We observed near complete complements

of the COPI, AP1, AP3, AP4, and Retromer vesicle coats, as well as the GARP complex, Trs120,

and syntaxins 5 and 16 (Fig 4, S6 File). We also noted at least one golgin protein in each of the

organisms. Indeed, we observed additional paralogues of the vesicle trafficking machinery (e.g.,

AP1, Retromer, GARP/EARP) in oxymonads compared to *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina*, (Fig 4, S6

File). These data, together with previously published observations [93], are indicative of Golgi

bodies with multiple anterograde and retrograde pathways entering and exiting the organelle

present in all Preaxostyla species.

We did observe two clear differences in the sets of Golgi-associated proteins between the stacked

and unstacked Golgi-possessing organisms. Firstly, *P. pyriformis* encodes seven of the eight

Conserved Oligomeric Golgi (COG) complex proteins, while only a sparse representation of the

COG complex was seen in the oxymonads. Secondly, the golgin CASP was found in both

P. pyriformis and *T. marina*, but in none of the oxymonad genomes. The same was true for Golgin

84. This marks the first report of CASP or Golgin 84 from a metamonad [86] suggesting

independent losses of these proteins in the Oxymonadida, Parabasalia, and Fornicata lineages.

While caution is warranted when reporting the absence of any given single protein from any given

genome, our observations do show a greater number of encoded Golgi-structure implicated proteins

in the stacked-Golgi possessing lineages than in the oxymonads (4, 7 vs 1, 4, 3 respectively; Fig 4).

Though expression levels would need to be taken into account, this observation is nonetheless

consistent with the cisternal adhesion model [85], i.e., that it is the amount of adhesive golgin-type

proteins that regulate stacking rather than the identity of any given Golgi-stacking protein [86].

Conclusions

In this manuscript we report thorough searches for mitochondrion-associated proteins, which failed

to uncover any convincing candidates in the three investigated oxymonads but corroborate the

presence of a unique MRO type in *T. marina* and *P. pyriformis*. This shows that the absence of

mitochondria is not a unique feature of a single species, *M. exilis*, but applies to a wider range of

oxymonads, putatively the whole group. This fact moves this unique loss back to at least 100 MYA,

when oxymonads had been already diversified [94], and shows that a eukaryotic lineage without

mitochondria can thrive for a long time and undergo pronounced morphological evolution, as is

apparent from the range of shapes and specialized cellular structures exhibited by extant

oxymonads [10]. We also noticed that the loss of mitochondrion has not greatly affected the counts

of Fe-S cluster-containing proteins but led to a decrease in the usage of 2Fe-2S cluster types. On

the other hand, it might relate to the loss of large hydrogenases in oxymonads and the simplification

of their amino acid metabolism, which lacks the glycine cleavage system, a connection to one

carbon pool. The latter is considered the only essential function of MRO in *P. pyriformis* [17] and

its removal was probably the last step towards amitochondriality.

We also identified differences in inventories of membrane transporters between free-living

P. pyriformis and *T. marina* and oxymonads which we ascribe to the transition from the free-living

to the endobiotic lifestyle at the origin of oxymonads. Finally, proteins involved in the formation

and regulation of the Golgi structure have a patchy distribution and show a trend towards loss in

oxymonads, which is consistent with the lack of ultrastructural evidence for the presence of

a stacked Golgi in oxymonads, but also with an emerging cell biological model for how Golgi

maintain their hallmark morphology of stacked cisternae [85].

Materials and methods

Cell culture, DNA and RNA isolation

Monoeukaryotic, xenic culture of *P. pyriformis* (strain RCP-MX, ATCC 50935) was maintained

in the Sonneborn's Paramecium medium ATCC 802 at room temperature by serial transfer of one

ml of well-grown culture (approximately 5×10^4 cells/ml) into a 15 ml test tube containing 10 ml of

fresh, bacterized medium every week. The medium was bacterized 24 hours before the transfer.

B. nauphoetae strain NAU3 [21] was cultured in a similar way as described above but using

a modified TYSGM media [95].

For DNA isolation, 15 liters of *P. pyriformis* and 32 liters of *B. nauphoetae* culture were used. To

remove most of the bacterial contamination, the cells were filtered as described previously [7].

After filtration, the cells were collected at 1200×g for 10 min at four °C. The DNA was isolated

using two different kits. The gDNA samples for PacBio, Illumina HiSeq, and Illumina MiSeq

sequencing were isolated using the Qiagen DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen). The isolated

gDNA was further ethanol-precipitated to increase the concentration and remove any contaminants.

For Nanopore sequencing DNA was isolated using Qiagen MagAttract HMW DNA Kit (Qiagen)

according to the manufacturer's protocol.

RNA for Illumina transcriptome sequencing of *P. pyriformis* was isolated from 10 liters of a well-

grown culture using TRI reagent (Sigma-Aldrich). Eukaryotic mRNA was selected from total RNA

using Dynabeads Oligo(dT) beads (Thermo Fisher Scientific). cDNA was synthesized using the

SMARTer PCR cDNA Synthesis Kit (Takara Bio Group) and sequenced using the Illumina HiSeq

2000 sequencer at the Beijing Genomics Institute (BGI; Shenzhen, People's Republic of China).

For RNA isolation of *B. nauphoetae* we used 500 ml of a well-grown culture. Prior to RNA

isolation, the culture was filtered as described previously [7], and the cells were harvested by

centrifugation at 1200×g for 10 min at four °C. The total RNA was isolated using TRI reagent

(Sigma-Aldrich) according to the manufacturer's protocol. From the total RNA, mRNA was

isolated using two rounds of Dynabeads Oligo(dT) beads (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to

the manufacturer's protocol. The purified mRNA was used for *de novo* whole transcriptome

sequencing performed at the Beijing Genomics Institute (BGI; Shenzhen, People's Republic of

China).

Library preparation, Illumina, and Nanopore sequencing

For *P. pyriformis* PacBio sequencing was performed at SEQme s.r.o. (Dobříš, Czech Republic)

using a PacBio RSII sequencer, whereas Illumina sequencing was performed using Illumina HiSeq

and MiSeq sequencers at the Institute of Molecular Genetics of the ASCR, v. v. i. (Prague, Czech

Republic). For *B. nauphoetae*, one pair-end and two mate-pair libraries were prepared and

sequenced on Illumina MIseq PE 2x300bp at Beijing Genomics Institute (BGI; Shenzhen, People's

Republic of China).

Libraries for Nanopore sequencing were prepared from four µg of gDNA for each library. DNA

was sheared at ~20kbp using Covaris g-TUBES (Covaris Ltd, UK) and the library was prepared

using the ligation sequencing kit from Oxford Nanopore Technologies (SQK-LSK108) according

to the manufacturer's protocol. The prepared libraries were loaded onto a R9.4 Spot-On Flow cell

(FLO-MIN106) and sequencing was performed on a MinION Mk1B machine for 48 hours using

MinKNOW 2.0 software with live base calling enabled. In total we prepared four libraries and used

four flow-cells for sequencing, two for *P. pyriformis,* and two for *B. nauphoetae.*

Genome assembly binning and decontamination

The quality of sequencing data was assessed with FastQC (Babraham Bioinformatics, USA). For

the Illumina data, adapter and quality trimming were performed using Trimmomatic 0.36 [96], with

a quality threshold of 15. For the Nanopore data, trimming and removal of chimeric reads were

performed using Porechop v0.2.3 (github.com/rrwick/Porechop).

The initial assembly of the genomes was made only with the Nanopore and PacBio reads using

Canu v1.7.1 assembler [97], with corMinCoverage and corOutCoverage set to zero and 100,000

respectively. After assembly, the data was binned using tetraESOM [98]. The resulting eukaryotic

bins were also checked using a combination of BLASTn and a scoring strategy based on the identity

and coverage of the scaffold as described in Treitli et al. [99]. After binning, the resulting genomic

bins were polished in two phases. In the first phase, the scaffolds were polished with Nanopolish

[100] using the raw reads generated by Nanopore. In the second phase, the resulting scaffolds

generated by Nanopolish were further corrected using Illumina short reads with Pilon v1.21 [101].

Finally, the genome assembly of *P. pyriformis* was further scaffolded with raw RNA-seq reads

using Rascaf [102].

Repeat masking, gene prediction, and annotation of the genomes

Repetitive elements in the genomic assembly were identified using RepeatModeler v1.0.11 [103],

and only repeats that are members of known repeat families were used for masking the genome

assemblies prior to gene prediction. For the *P. pyriformis* and *B. nauphoetae*, we used Augustus

3.2.3 for gene prediction [104]. For *de novo* prediction of genes, Augustus was first re-trained using

a set of gene models manually curated by considering information from mapped transcriptomic

sequences and sequence conservation with homologous protein-coding genes. In the next step,

intron hints were generated from the RNAseq data and gene prediction was performed on repeat-

masked genomes using Augustus. Next, transcriptome assemblies were mapped to the genomes

using PASA [105] and the resulting assembled transcripts were used as evidence for gene model

polishing with EVM [106]. The genome completeness for each genome was estimated using

BUSCO v3 with the Eukaryota odb9 dataset and the genome completeness was estimated on the

sets of EVM-polished protein sequences as the input. Reference-independent genome

completeness estimation was performed using Merqury [19] with the Illumina decontaminated

reads. To avoid bias in the results, the read decontamination was performed by removing only those

reads that mapped to the contaminants identified during genome decontamination.

Automatic functional annotation of the predicted genes was performed using the KEGG Automatic

Annotation Server [107], in parallel to similarity searches against NCBI nr protein database using

BLASTp. If both gave functional annotation, BLAST was preferred if the e-value was lower than

10^{-30}. Otherwise KEGG was used. Targeted analyses of genes and gene families of specific interest

were performed by manual searches of the predicted proteomes using BLASTp and HMMER

[108], and complemented by tBLASTn searches of the genome and transcriptome assemblies to

check for the presence of individual genes of interest that were potentially missed in the predicted

protein sets (single digits of cases per set). Gene models were manually refined for genes of interest

when necessary and possible. The annotated genomes were deposited in NCBI under accession

number JAPMOS000000000 for *P. pyriformis* and JARBJD000000000 for *B. nauphoetae*.

Orthology grouping

We combined the gene inventories of five Preaxostyla species (the two genomes presented here,

the *M. exilis* genome GiardiaDB-46_MexilisPA203 in GiardiaDB release 46, the *S. strix* genome

under NCBI BioProject PRJNA524138, and the *T. marina* transcriptome-derived predicted

proteome in EukProt EP00771, [109]) with 14 other metamonads for which the genome or

transcriptome drafts were available when the study was initiated (S3 File, Sheet 1). To optimize

the inflation parameter value of OrthoMCL, we performed multiple clustering runs with different

inflation parameter values in the range 1.01 to 30.0 and calculated the number of OGs containing

genes from all Preaxostyla but no other taxa and from all oxymonads but no other taxa. We chose

to proceed with the value of inflation parameter=4, because under this setting the sum of these two

numbers was the highest, so the strength of the clustering should be optimal for our purpose. Under

this setting, the complete set of proteins from the 19 species (337,300 items) was assigned to 37,923

groups of genes or singletons (OGs) (S3 File, Sheet 2). Proteins belonging to these OGs were

automatically annotated using BLASTp searches against the NCBI nr protein database to acquire

functional annotation (S3 File, Sheet 3). Venn diagrams were generated using InteractiVenn [110].

Search for mitochondrial proteins

The comprehensive search for putative mitochondrial protein was performed for all five

Preaxostyla species, including the previously analyzed *M. exilis* [7] as a control. The general design

of the search followed the previously described methodology [7]. Briefly, a custom mitochondrial

protein sequence database was compiled using the MitoMiner v4.0 database [22,23] as the core

and supplemented with MROs proteins from sixteen different organisms [5,50,51,63,111–116],

herein referred to as MitoMiner. Redundant homologues (90% similarity threshold) were removed

from the database using CD-HIT. The resulting non-redundant database contained 6,979 proteins.

Most searches were divided in three phases. 1) hits generated by HMM searches, predictions

mitochondrial targeting sequence, transmembrane domains of TA proteins or mitochondrial β-

barrel outer membrane proteins, were in (2) narrowed down to candidates, proteins with hits in the

MitoMiner database. 3) All candidates were BLAST-searched against the NCBI nr database and

the best hits with the descriptions not including the terms 'low quality protein', 'hypothetical',

'unknown', etc. were kept. Gene Ontology categories were assigned using InterProScan-5.36-75.0.

If the annotations received from BLAST or InterProScan corresponded to the originally suggested

reliably mitochondrial function, the candidates were considered as mitochondrial proteins.

HMM searches using HMMER 3.1b2 and profile HMMs previously employed by Karnkowska et

al. [7] were performed to specifically identify proteins involved in mitochondrial protein import

and translocation, as these were shown to be often divergent [51]. Mitochondrial targeting signals

were detected using TargetP v1.1 [117] and MitoFates v1.1 [118]. Both programs indicate

a probability of mitochondrial localization of the protein. Hits with the probability of mitochondrial

localization indicated to be >0.5 by both programs were considered for manual verification. To

find tail-anchored proteins, transmembrane domains (TMDs) were predicted using TMHMM2.0

[119] for all analyzed proteins. Hits with a TMD within 32 amino acid residues from the C-terminus

were kept for verification. The mitochondrial β-barrel outer membrane proteins (MBOMPs) search

has been conducted using the pipeline described by Imai et al. [120]. The pipeline firstly identifies

a β-signal ($P_oxGh_yxH_yxH_y$ motif), required for the insertion into the membrane, in the C-terminus

of the query protein. Subsequently, the secondary structure of the stretch of 300 amino acid residues

preceding the β-signal is analyzed using PSIPRED [121] to check for a typical β-structure.

Significant hits, with at least 25% of the sequence predicted to form β-strands, no more than 10%

assumed by an α-helical structure, and no more than 50% of the eight residues of the β-signal

predicted as an α-helical structure, were analyzed further.

On the top of the three-phase searches, we have also performed one extensive but low specificity

homology search in which reciprocal BLAST analysis using the MitoMiner database was

performed for each predicted proteome of Preaxostyla species with an e-value threshold of 0.001.

Functional annotation of the reciprocal hits was assessed by NCBI BLAST and items were

inspected for cases of reliable mitochondrial proteins.

***Trypanosoma brucei* mitoproteome-guided comparative analyses**

Predicted proteomes of *T. marina*, *P. pyriformis*, *S. strix*, *B. nauphoetae,* and *M. exilis* were

individually reverse BLAST-searched against the proteome of *T. brucei* (downloaded from

Tritrypdb.org; November 2019; [122]). Only reciprocal best BLAST hits that were identified in

any of the previously published mitochondrial proteomes of *T. brucei* [37,39] were subjected to

further phylogenetic analysis. For each such protein, the data set for the tree construction was

composed of hits from a custom BLAST database of selected protist proteomes (downloaded from

UniProt, November 2019; [123]). Protein sequence sets were automatically aligned with MAFFT

v7.453 using the L-INS-i refinement and a maximum of 1,000 iterations, followed by trimming of

sites with >70% gaps. ML trees (S5 File) were inferred by IQ-TREE v 1.6.12 using the Posterior

Mean Site Frequency (PMSF) empirical model with the ultrafast bootstrapping strategy (1,000

replicates) and a LG4X guide tree [124]. Subcellular targeting of all proteins in the tree was

predicted by using TargetP-1.1; the presence of a signal peptide, a chloroplast targeting peptide or

a mitochondrial targeting peptide in the respective proteins is marked by the letters S, C, or M,

respectively, at the very beginning of the sequence names.

Prediction of proteins containing Fe-S clusters

Fe-S cluster containing proteins were predicted with MetalPredator webserver [125]. Predicted

proteins were functionally annotated by BLAST searches against the NCBI nr database and by

InterProScan against the InterPro database [126]. KEGG categories were assigned by

GhostKOALA searches against the KEGG database [127]. Orthologous groups were created with

the OrthoFinder 2 software [128] and the Venn diagram of OG sharing among Preaxostyla was

visualized using InteractiVenn.

Search for Peroxins and enzymes for the heme synthesis

The peroxins and the proteins involved in heme biosynthesis were identified by BLASTp searches.

All BLASTp hits with an e-value of less than 0.1 were further analyzed by reciprocal BLASTp and

HHpred [129].

Single gene phylogenies

The phylogenies of the genes of interest were analyzed individually using the methodology

described below. Eukaryotic homologues of the Preaxostyla genes were gathered by taxonomically

constrained iterative BLAST search against publicly available sequence databases in order to

sample as broad eukaryotic diversity as possible. In the cases of overrepresented taxa of low interest

(e.g. Metazoa, land plants), only a small number of representative sequences were selected

arbitrarily. In order to detect potential LGT from prokaryotes while keeping the number of included

sequences manageable, prokaryotic homologues were gathered by a BLASTp search with each

eukaryotic sequence against the NCBI nr database with an e-value cutoff of 10^{-10} and max. 10 target

sequences. The sequences were aligned using MAFFT and automatically trimmed using trimAl

v1.2 [130]. Phylogenetic analyses were performed simultaneously using IQ-TREE v2.0.5 [124]

and RAxML-HPC2 on v8.2.12 [131] with the LG4X model on the Cyberinfrastructure for the

Phylogenetic Research (CIPRES) Science Gateway [132]. Substitution models were inferred using

IQ-TREE TESTNEW function for IQ-TREE.

Phylogenetic analysis of Golgi-related proteins

Comparative genomics was carried out using HMM searches. Pan-eukaryotic query sequences

analyzed and curated for previous pan-eukaryotic vesicle coat, multisubunit tethering complexes,

and golgins were used to build profile HMMs. Query sequences were obtained from the

supplementary material of previous papers dealing specifically with Adaptins and COPI [133],

multisubunit tethering complexes [134], and golgins [86]. Individual components and proteins

from each sub-complex were aligned using MUSCLE v.3.8.31 and the resulting alignment files

were used to generate HMM matrices using the HMMBUILD option available through the

HMMER package. HMMER searches were carried out in the predicted proteomes of *P. pyriformis*,

B. nauphoetae, and *S. strix*, whereas for *T. marina* the transcriptome assembly was first translated

in all six open reading frames using the *ab initio* gene prediction program GeneMarkS-T using the

default parameters [135] and the longest resulting predicted protein sequences were used for the

searches. Forward hits meeting an e-value cutoff of 0.05 were subject to reciprocal BLASTp

analyses against the *Homo sapiens* and *M. exilis* predicted proteomes as well as the NCBI nr

database. Any absent components were also subject to additional tBLASTn searches in the

nucleotide scaffolds. Hits were deemed positive if both forward hits and at least two of three

reciprocal BLAST results retrieved the correct orthologue with an e-value cutoff of 0.05.

Paralogous gene families were subject to further phylogenetic analyses.

Phylogenetic analyses were undertaken for the large, medium, and small subunits from identified

AP1-4 and CopI families, as well as Syntaxin16 and Syntaxin5. Resolved backbone alignments

from the dataset curated for Karnkowska et al. [8] were used and sequences from *T. marina*,

P. pyriformis, *B. nauphoetae*, and *S. strix* were iteratively aligned with the backbone alignment

using the profile option available through MUSCLE v3.8.31 [136]. All alignments were

subsequently inspected and manually trimmed using Mesquite v. 3.5 (mesquiteproject.org) to

remove heterogeneous regions lacking obvious homology and partial or misaligned sequences.

Maximum likelihood analyses were carried out using RAxML-HPC2 on XSEDE v.8.2.10 for non-

parametric bootstrap replicates [137]. The best protein matrix model for RAxML was tested using

ProtTest v.3.4.2 [138], set to account for Gamma rate variation (+G), invariant sites (+I), and

observed frequency of amino acids (+F) with default tree and a consensus tree was obtained using

the Consense package, available through the Phylip v.3.66 [139].

Bayesian inference was carried out using MRBAYES on XSEDE v3.2.6 [140]. Parameters

specified included 10 million Markov Chain Monte Carlo generations under a mixed amino acid

model with the number of gamma rate categories set a 4. The sampling frequency was set to occur

every 1000 generations with a burn-in of 0.25. Tree convergence was ensured with the average

standard deviation of split frequency values below 0.01. Both RAxML and MRBAYES analyses

were performed on the CIPRES webserver. RAxML bootstrap values as well as Bayesian posterior

probabilities were overlaid on the best Bayes topology with combined values of >50 and >0.80,

respectively, indicating branch support. All alignments are available upon request.

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Tables

Table 1. General features of the Preaxostyla genomes discussed in this study

Sample	Scaffolds	Total length (bp)	N50 (kbp)	Completeness (%; BUSCO odb9)	Completeness (%; Merqury)	G+C content (%)	Protein-Coding Loci	Source
P. pyriformis	633	56,627,582	276.6	76.3	94.01	60.94	10,815	NCBI JAPMOS000000000
B. nauphoetae	879	88,537,989	199.5	76.6	98.24	44.96	25,221	NCBI JARBJD000000000
M. exilis	2,092	74,712,536	71.44	75.3	n/a	36.8	16,768	GiardiaDB release 46 GiardiaDB-46_MexilisPA203
S. strix	50,889	152,152,197	5.18	69.6	n/a	26.6	56,706	NCBI SNRW00000000

Figure legends

Fig 1. Summary of the searches for proteins physically associated with MROs. (A) Schematic representation of the position of Preaxostyla in the eukaryotic tree of life and the topology within the group. Representative non-preaxostylan organism silhouettes are from PhyloPic (phylopic.org). (B) Results of fours searches for putative mitochondrial proteins are summarized and species are color-coded as in A. Detailed information on the three steps of the searches and candidates is given in S2 File. (C) Mitochondrion hallmark proteins detected in the data sets of *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina* are shown in blue/green. No such candidate was recovered for any oxymonad representative.

Fig 2. Hypothetical reconstruction of the extended glycolysis in Preaxostyla. Bold outline indicates alternative glycolytic enzymes. Abbreviations and Enzyme Commission numbers are given in S6 File. Presence of the enzymes in Preaxostyla data sets is indicated by a color code.

Fig 3. Phylogenetic relationship among hydrogenases of Preaxostyla. (A) Schematic representation of domain architectures of hydrogenases in Preaxostyla species. HydA: [FeFe] hydrogenase; CysJ: NADPH-dependent sulfite reductase; NuoG: NADH-quinone oxidoreductase. (B) Detailed view of the part of a hydrogenase phylogenetic tree that corresponds to a clade including long hydrogenases. The domain architecture of the proteins is indicated by color bars. The full tree is given in S4D File.

Fig 4. Complement of Golgi-associated proteins in Preaxostyla. This Coulson plot shows the set of proteins present in the Preaxostyla predicted proteomes. Empty segments denote failure to identity a candidate orthologue, while filled segments denote success, with paralog numbers inset as relevant. Candidate proteins are identified by homology-searching and verified by phylogenetics

1216 as relevant. Details are given in S6 File.

Supplementary figure legends

S1 Fig. Hypothetical map of the amino acid metabolism in *P. pyriformis*. Brown color indicates
enzymes possibly involved in amino acid biosynthesis pathways. Red color indicates enzymes
possibly involved in ATP production. Note that some of the connections between metabolites
correspond to the mere transfer of the amino group rather than conversion of the carbon backbone
of the molecule (green color). Cyan color is used for remaining enzymes. Abbreviations and
Enzyme Commission numbers are given in S6 File.

S2 Fig. Hypothetical map of the amino acid metabolism in *T. marina*. Brown color indicates
enzymes possibly involved in amino acid biosynthesis pathways. Red color indicates enzymes
possibly involved in ATP production. Note that some of the connections between metabolites
correspond to the mere transfer of the amino group rather than conversion of the carbon backbone
of the molecule (green color). Cyan color is used for remaining enzymes. Abbreviations and
Enzyme Commission numbers are given in S6 File.

S3 Fig. Hypothetical map of the amino acid metabolism in *M. exilis*, *B. nauphoetae*, and
***S. strix*.** Brown color indicates enzymes possibly involved in amino acid biosynthesis pathways.
Red color indicates enzymes possibly involved in ATP production. Note that some of the
connections between metabolites correspond to the mere transfer of the amino group rather than

conversion of the carbon backbone of the molecule (green color). Cyan color is used for remaining

enzymes. Abbreviations and Enzyme Commission numbers are given in S6 File.

S4 Fig. Venn diagram showing the distribution of orthologous groups (OGs) of Fe-S cluster-

containing proteins among the species of Preaxostyla. The identity of the OGs and of the

component proteins are provided in S7 File.

Supplementary files

S1 File. Genome completeness analyses.

S2 File. Results of searches for mitochondrial candidates in Preaxostyla.

S3 File. Orthologous groups analysis.

S4 File. Phylogenetic trees of selected genes individually discussed in this work.

S5 File. Phylogenetic trees of mitochondrial candidates.

S6 File. Manual annotation of protein-coding genes in Preaxostyla.

S7 File. Results of searches for FeS-cluster containing proteins in Preaxostyla.

S8 File. Results of searches for peroxins in Preaxostyla.

S9 File. Results of searches for transmembrane transporters in Preaxostyla.