Genomics of Preaxostyla Flagellates Illuminates Evolutionary Transitions and the Path Towards Mitochondrial Loss

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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 to the entire oxymonad lineage 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 note that *P. pyriformis*

possesses a set of unique or ancestral features among metamonads or eukaryotes, e.g., *p*-cresol

synthesis, NAD^+ synthesis, selenium volatilization, or mercury methylation, demonstrating the

biochemical versatility of this protist lineage. 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 may be common to Oxymonadida.

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 (Roger et al. 2017). The most radically modified MROs are traditionally categorized as hydrogenosomes, producing ATP by extended glycolysis, and as mitosomes with no role in energy metabolism (Müller et al. 2012). However, exploration of a broader diversity of MRO-containing lineages makes it clear that MROs of various organisms form a functional continuum (Stairs et al. 2015; Klinger et al. 2016; Leger et al. 2017; Onuț-Brännström et al. 2023). 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 (Karnkowska et al. 2016; Karnkowska et al. 2019; Treitli et al. 2021).

Oxymonadida contains approximately 140 described species of morphologically divergent and diverse flagellates exclusively inhabiting the digestive tracts of metazoans, of which none has been shown to possess a mitochondrion by cytological investigations (Hampl 2017). Therefore, the entire Oxymonadida group may be an amitochondriate lineage, and the mitochondrion was 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 being represented by Fornicata (e.g., *Giardia intestinalis*), Parabasalia (e.g., *Trichomonas vaginalis*), barthelonids and their relatives (the BRC group; Yazaki et al. 2020; Williams et al. 2023) and

Anaeramoebidae (e.g., *Anaeramoeba flamelloides*; Stairs et al. 2021). 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. They are both comprised of free-living,

bacterivorous flagellates exhibiting a typical excavate morphology and ultrastructure and thriving

in low-oxygen environments (Zhang et al. 2015).

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 (Hampl et al. 2008; Zubáčová et al. 2013;

Zítek et al. 2022). Putative MROs have also been observed in electron microscopy studies of a

Trimastix representative, *T. marina* (Zhang et al. 2015), and their nature was illuminated by

transcriptomic data (Leger et al. 2017). 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 former has enabled us to test the hypothesis

of amitochondriality as a shared feature of oxymonads in general, while the latter provided deeper

insights into the metabolic capabilities of free-living Preaxostyla represented by *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 and the origin of endobiotic lifestyle

within the group.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The new 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 (Simão et al. 2015) 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). It should be

noted that, despite their wide usage, BUSCO values 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. For example, various Euglenozoa representatives with highly complete genome sequences, including *Trypanosoma brucei*, have BUSCO completeness estimates in the range of 71-88% (Butenko et al. 2020), and representatives of Metamonada fall within the range of 60-91% (Salas-Leiva et al. 2021). Specifically in the case of oxymonad *M. exilis*, the improvement of the genome assembly using long-read resequencing from 2092 scaffolds to 101 contigs led to only a marginal increase of BUSCO value from 75.3 to 77.5 (Treitli et al. 2021).

Comparison of gene repertoires within Preaxostyla and contribution of LGT from prokaryotes

The data generated in this study together with the previously published data from *M. exilis* (Karnkowska et al. 2019), *S. strix* (Treitli et al. 2019), and *T. marina* (Leger et al. 2017) were exploited to define the common genetic toolkit of Preaxostyla and specific toolkits of its subgroups. We note that the analyses described below rely on a slightly outdated version of the *M. exilis* genome since they had been initiated before a more complete version (Treitli et al. 2021) became available, and we also acknowledge the limitations of employing the inherently incomplete data from *S. strix* (single-cell genome assembly) and *T. marina* (transcriptome assembly only). We created orthologous groups (OGs) from the protein-coding gene inventories of the five Preaxostyla species and 14 other metamonads, omitting the poorly sampled Anaeramoebidae and BRC clade (Stairs et al. 2021) members (Supplementary file 1), and estimated the core gene set for Metamonada and its clade-specific increments in Preaxostyla and Oxymonadida (Fig. 1 and Supplementary file 2). To account for the incomplete nature of the data sets we use the term "core

gene set" in a relaxed sense and included genes present in all main subclades (and not necessarily

in all species), e.g. in Fornicata, Parabasalia, and Preaxostyla in the case of the Metamonada core

gene set (see Material and Methods for details).

Each core set can in principle be composed of three categories of genes: 1) genes inherited by the

respective group from its earlier eukaryotic ancestors outside Metamonada, i.e., ancestral

eukaryotic genes; 2) genes gained by lateral gene transfer (LGT); and 3) group-specific genes that

originated in the respective group, i.e., truly novel genes or extremely diverged descendants of

ancient genes, the homology of which was not discerned. To roughly distinguish between these

categories within each ancestral set, we have searched for protein homologues (e-value $< 10^{-15}$) in

the NCBI non-redundant protein sequence database and in the EukProt database (Richter et al.

2022), manually investigated phylogenies of proteins with prokaryotic hits, and in parallel

employed an LGT detection pipeline. We note that we restricted the systematic search for candidate

gene transfers from prokaryotic donors into Preaxostyla, as eukaryote-to-eukaryote transfers are

generally much more difficult to detect and demonstrate conclusively. With this approach we

identified hundreds of putative LGT candidate genes in Preaxostyla (Supplementary file 3), which

probably originated from at least 190 LGT events involving various prokaryotic donors and

affecting different branches of the Metamonada phylogeny (Fig. 1). Of these, 19, 15, 19, 1, and 3

LGT events were mapped to the common ancestor of Metamonada, the Fornicata+Preaxostyla

clade, Preaxostyla, the *P. pyriformis*+Oxymonadida clade, and Oxymonadida, respectively, i.e.,

contributed to the core gene sets of these clades. The numbers of the ancestral LGTs might be

underestimated, as they require sufficient sequence similarity between extant proteins to form a

clade in a phylogenetic tree and this condition was often not fulfilled.

Of the 1,399 OGs from the Metamonada core gene set, 1,398 have homologues outside

Metamonada and just a single orthologous group, q2019831, did not have any significant hit from

NCBI nr or EukProt database at e-value $< 10^{-15}$. Interestingly, this protein identified by

InterProScan as a member of Major Facilitator Superfamily of transporters is present only in the

data set of the parabasalid *Tritrichomonas foetus*, the oxymonad *S. strix* (Streblo_st30458), and the

fornicates *Chilomastix cuspidata* and *Dysnectes brevis*. Although it may represent an innovation

arising in the common ancestor of Metamonada, its function is clearly not essential. We identified

19 LGT events that contributed to the ancestral gene set of Metamonada and further 15 LGT events

specific for the Preaxostyla+Fornicata clade. These include metabolic enzymes used in glycolysis,

amino acid metabolism and several functionally unrelated pathways. Some of these cases, e.g.,

enzymes involved in the arginine deiminase pathway, have been investigated in detail elsewhere

(Liapounova et al. 2006; Novák et al. 2016; Karnkowska et al. 2019), while others are proposed

here for the first time (Supplementary file 3).

11,854 OGs of all investigated metamonads are present only in Preaxostyla (Figure 1B) and 516

of these are widespread in this group and represent a putative Preaxostyla-specific increment to the

Metamonada core gene set (Figure 1A). 71 of these OGs seem to be indeed Preaxostyla-specific or

they have experienced rapid evolution obscuring their origin, as they have no close eukaryotic

BLAST hits (e-value $< 10^{-15}$) in any other organism. The vast majority of these have vague

annotations and their function is simply not known. We identified 19 LGT events that contributed

to the core gene set of Preaxostyla (Fig. 1, Supplementary file 2 and 3). A previously documented

case of LGT into Preaxostyla concerns the proteins involved in the SUF pathway for FeS cluster

synthesis (Vacek et al. 2018), and the respective genes are indeed among the LGT candidates

detected by our approach.

Putting aside the 71 Preaxostyla-unique OGs and the 19 putative Preaxostyla-specific LGTs, the

remaining 425 Preaxostyla-specific increments of the core gene set were likely inherited vertically

from the eukaryotic common ancestor but lost or not detected in the other metamonad lineages,

and as such they represent an interesting addition to the complexity of the common ancestor of

Metamonada revealed thanks to the sampling of Preaxostyla genomes. To provide a single specific

example, we focus on the small GTPase Rsg1 (Supplementary file 5). This protein was previously

characterized in mammalian cells as a ciliogenesis factor (Agbu et al. 2018; Langousis et al. 2022),

but its evolutionary origin and taxonomic occurrence have not been investigated. Having noticed

its putative homolog in *P. pyriformis*, we searched publicly available sequence databases to

demonstrate that Rsg1 orthologs indeed occur outside Metazoa, exhibiting a patchy distribution

across distantly related protist lineages (Supplementary file 5). In Metamonada, Rsg1 was found

in *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina*, while no orthologs were identified in oxymonads, fornicates,

Barthelona sp., parabasalids and *Anaeramoeba* spp., apparently due to multiple independent losses

of the Rsg1 gene. Notably, Rsg1 orthologs occur only in eukaryotes that are known or predicted to

have the capacity to build cilia (Supplementary file 5), indicating that the cilium-associated role

defined for the mammalian Rsg1 is likely a general and ancestral functional attribute of the protein.

The occurrence of Rsg1 in the free-living Preaxostyla thus points to specific differences in the

functioning of their flagella as compared to other metamonads. Furthermore, considering the

unsettled position of Metamonada with respect to the root of the eukaryote phylogeny (Derelle et

al. 2015), the identification of Rsg1 in metamonads, along with other phylogenetically diverse

eukaryotes, strengthens the case that the protein is an ancestral component of the eukaryotic cell

functioning already in the last eukaryote common ancestor (LECA).

Of the 9,513 OGs present only among oxymonads (Figure 1C), 8,271 seem to be species-specific

clusters or singletons while 1,242 were detected more broadly and represent a putative oxymonad-

specific increment to the Preaxostyla core gene set (Fig. 1, Supplementary file 2). Of these, 630

OGs seem to be oxymonad novelties or divergent ancestral genes, without close BLAST hits (e-

value $< 10^{-15}$) to any of these sequences. We have no or vague annotation for 580 of them which

represent a genetic dark matter supported by transcriptome data but bearing no known function.

The remaining 50 received annotations usually from KEGG or InterProScan and comprise a

mixture of putative functions noticeably enriched for Fe-S cluster containing proteins and proteins

involved in endomembrane transfer. The other 612 OGs have a homolog in eukaryotes outside

Metamonada in the NCBI non-redundant protein sequence database or EukProt database (e-value

$< 10^{-15}$). We identified three LGT events that contributed to the ancestral gene set of oxymonads

and brought proteins with unclear or mutually unrelated functions. One of them is UTP—glucose-

1-phosphate uridylyltransferase putatively involved in glycogenesis and cyst wall synthesis (Fig.

1, Supplementary file 3).

Based on orthology grouping, most of the genetic innovation is observed on the terminal branches

of Preaxostyla rather than in the ancestral nodes. Putting aside the highly incomplete transcriptome

of *T. marina* and the incomplete and fragmented genome of *S. strix*, we see that species-specific

clusters or singletons vary between 906 in *P. pyriformis* to 2,493 in *B. nauphoetae* (Figure 1C, D).

Also, 46 LGT events were mapped to the terminal branches and only five to internal nodes of

Preaxostyla, suggesting that the acquisition of genes is an ongoing phenomenon, and it might be

adaptive to the particular lifestyles of the species. Selected examples of LGTs providing unique

capabilities to *P. pyriformis* are discussed below.

P. pyriformis **possesses unexpected metabolic capacities**

The relatively complete and contiguous genomic and transcriptomic datasets for *P. pyriformis* allowed composing a more complete and more accurate inventory of the *P. pyriformis* genetic toolkit than the previous studies (Hampl et al. 2008; Zubáčová et al. 2013). Given that this species represents the first free-living representative of the Preaxostyla lineage studied at the genome level, it is not surprising that our exploration of the *P. pyriformis* genome data revealed several unusual or unexpected features of its metabolism. Below we present in detail a selection of those that are directly related to the anaerobic lifestyle or the specific ecological niche of *P. pyriformis*.

P. pyriformis encodes a complete pathway required for the biosynthesis of *p*-cresol from tyrosine (Supplementary file 6), only the second reported eukaryote with such capability. This pathway consists of three steps of the Ehrlich pathway (Hazelwood et al. 2008) converting tyrosine to 4-hydroxyphenyl-acetate (AAT, HPPD, ALDH) and the final step catalyzed by a fusion protein comprised of 4-hydroxyphenylacetate decarboxylase (HPAD) and its activating enzyme (HPAD-AE). The *P. pyriformis* HPAD sequence is closely related to its homolog in the free-living archamoebid *M. balamuthi* (Supplementary file 4 A), the only eukaryote reported so far to be able to produce *p*-cresol (Nývltová et al. 2017). Interestingly, we identified additional eukaryotic homologues of this fusion protein in the free-living fornicates *Kipferlia bialata* and *Trepomonas* sp. This distribution may be explained by LGT from prokaryotes followed by one or more LGTs between the eukaryotic lineages facilitated by a shared anaerobic habitat. Interestingly, the close endobiotic relatives of the taxa endowed for *p*-cresol synthesis (*Entamoeba*, oxymonads, and parasitic diplomonads such as *Giardia intestinalis* or *Spironucleus salmonicida*) lack this protein. Biosynthesis of *p*-cresol by *M. balamuthi* was hypothesized to confer a competitive advantage

against prokaryotes inhabiting the same environment because this compound inhibits the growth

of certain prokaryotes (Nývltová et al. 2017).

The presence of demethylmenaquinone methyltransferase / 2-methoxy-6-polyprenyl-1,4-

benzoquinol methylase (UbiE) in *P. pyriformis* (Supplementary file 6) is surprising since the

organism lacks any other enzymes involved in the ubiquinone and menaquinone biosynthesis.

Interestingly, this enzyme has been shown to have an alternative function, a capability to mediate

the synthesis of volatile methylated selenium (Se) compounds, namely dimethyl selenide and

dimethyl diselenide, in bacteria and plants (Swearingen et al. 2006; Zhou et al. 2009). Selenium is

a micronutrient that becomes toxic in high concentrations. Biological Se volatilization is an

important detoxification process that converts inorganic Se compounds into volatile organic

compounds. We propose that Se volatilization might be the physiological function of the

P. pyriformis UbiE. This enzyme is another noteworthy case of prokaryotic LGT within the

P. pyriformis genome, most likely from a verrucomicrobial source (Supplementary file 4 B).

P. pyriformis has a complete pathway for biosynthesis of NAD^+ from L-aspartate and

dihydroxyacetone phosphate consisting of L-aspartate oxidase (NadB), a nicotinate-nucleotide

pyrophosphorylase-quinolinate synthase fusion protein (NadC-NadA), nicotinate-mononucleotide

adenylyltransferase (NadD), DNA-binding transcriptional repressor/NMN adenylyltransferase

(NadR), and NAD^+ synthase (NadE); at least some of these enzymes are also present in *T. marina*

(Supplementary file 6). The presence of this pathway in anaerobes is surprising because the

standard NadB reaction involves molecular oxygen (O_2). However, NadB can alternatively use

fumarate instead of oxygen (Sakuraba et al. 2002). If this is the case also in *P. pyriformis*, it would

explain the presence of fumarate hydratase (FH) in this organism: fumarate produced by FH from

malate could serve as an electron acceptor for NadB. Phylogenetic analyses of NadA, NadB, NadC,

and NadR show the Preaxostyla sequences branch separately from other eukaryotic sequences and

have an affinity to Chloroflexi (NadA, NadC) and Lentisphaerae (NadB), hinting at LGT origin

from prokaryotes. In the case of NadB, this LGT is likely shared with *M. balamuthi*, which occupies

a similar position inside Lentisphaerae. Only the Preaxostyla NadD and NadE genes branch

together with other eukaryotes (Supplementary file 4 C–H).

Uniquely among eukaryotes, *P. pyriformis* may possess enzymes for mercury (Hg) methylation.

Highly toxic methyl mercury is produced in some Bacteria and Archaea (Podar et al. 2015; Cooper

et al. 2020). The exact reason why these microorganisms methylate Hg is unknown, however, it is

widely accepted that it is not a detoxification process as these are not less susceptible to Hg

(Gilmour et al. 2011). In prokaryotes, Hg methylation is performed by two enzymes HgcA and

HgcB encoded by two independent genes, although they are often found adjacent to each other in

a single operon (Christensen et al. 2016). In contrast, *P. pyriformis* contains a single fusion protein

HgcAB (Supplementary file 6). As the order of the two parts reflects the arrangement of the genes

in bacteria, both were likely acquired *en bloc* by lateral transfer of a whole operon (Supplementary

file 4 I, J). The structure of the prokaryotic HgcAB complex was recently determined (Cooper et

al. 2020). Comparison of PAPYR_7512 to HgcA and HgcB from *Pseudodesulfovibrio mercurii*

and a selection of other prokaryotes revealed remarkable similarity and conservation and contains

all important residues necessary for methylation of Hg, a function that has not been reported in any

other eukaryote (Fig. 2).

Altogether, the gene inventory of *P. pyriformis* demonstrates that this protist possesses several

metabolic capabilities which are very rare or so far unseen in eukaryotes in general or in other

metamonads, and that LGT is a common means of their acquisition. Future explorations of

genomes of additional free-living preaxostylans will allow us to assess which of these traits are

specific for the *P. pyriformis* lineage and which are instead plesiomorphic in Preaxostyla, being

thus part of the functional context in which the evolutionary transition to oxymonads happened.

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

290 oxymonads

The collected -omic data set of Preaxostyla allows to examine several interesting evolutionary

transitions. The first of them is the transition from a free-living to an endobiotic lifestyle. As an

assessment of this, 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 (Supplementary file 7).

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*

(Carlton et al. 2007). 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 (Supplementary file 4 K–O). These two observations parallel

the findings of functional domain loss and expansion by gene duplication of transporter families in

Microsporidia (Nakjang et al. 2013), possibly hinting at a broader evolutionary pattern at the

transition to the endobiotic lifestyle.

Evidence for the Golgi complex in all 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 (O'Kelly et al. 1999; Zhang et al. 2015; Treitli et al. 2018). Nonetheless, a substantial complement of proteins associated with Golgi membrane-trafficking and transport has been previously reported, confirming at least the genomic signal for a Golgi body, in the oxymonad *M. exilis* (Karnkowska et al. 2016; Karnkowska et al. 2019). Therefore, 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 (Boncompain and Weigel 2018; Ahat et al. 2019; Kulkarni-Gosavi et al. 2019; Li et al. 2019; Park et al. 2021; Aridor 2022). 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. 3, Supplementary file 6). 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. 3, Supplementary file 6). These data, together with previously published observations (Vargová et al. 2021), 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 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. Golgin 84 was also found in *P. pyriformis* alone.

This marks the first report of CASP or golgin 84 from a metamonad (Barlow et al. 2018) 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. 3).

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

consistent with the cisternal adhesion model (Lee et al. 2014), 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 (Barlow et al. 2018).

Absence of mitochondrion and its effect on the inventory of enzymes for extended glycolysis,

amino acid metabolism and FeS cluster-containing proteins

The uniqueness of Preaxostyla lies in the fact that it includes species harbouring MROs,

exemplified by *T. marina* and *P. pyriformis* (Hampl et al. 2008; Zubáčová et al. 2013; Leger et al.

2017), and at least one species lacking any form of a mitochondrion, *M. exilis* (Karnkowska et al.

2016). In the remaining parts of the manuscript, we inspect how the loss of mitochondria has seeped

into the inventory of enzymes for extended glycolysis, amino acid metabolism and those containing

FeS clusters, as the function or maturation of these proteins is often connected to mitochondrion or

MRO. Finally, we thoroughly test the presence of mitochondrion in other investigated oxymonads

to establish whether its absence is unique for *M. exilis*.

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 (Lindmark and Müller 1973). 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 has been identified in all five

Preaxostyla species. All Preaxostyla 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; Williams et al. 1987), owing to the identification of three to six PFO

isoforms in each species analyzed (Fig. 4, Supplementary file 4 P, Supplementary file 6). 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;

Payne et al. 1993). 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 MRO containing *T. marina* and *P. pyriformis* (Fig. 5). Similar "fused"

hydrogenases (Fig. 5) have been previously reported in other eukaryotic anaerobes, including

T. vaginalis (Tachezy and Doležal 2007), the breviate *Pygsuia biforma* (Stairs et al. 2014), and the

jakobid *Stygiella incarcerata* (Leger et al. 2016). Although they do not belong to the group of A3

trimeric hydrogenases (Greening et al. 2016) known to be capable of NADH oxidation via electron

confurcation (Schut and Adams 2009), they were hypothesized to catalyze NAD(P)H-dependent

formation of H_2 (Tachezy and Doležal 2007). Although the presence of these large hydrogenases

correlates with the presence of MRO, they were not detected in the MRO proteome of *P. pyriformis*

(Zítek et al. 2022) 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 (Leger et al. 2017; Yazaki et al. 2020;

Vargová et al. 2022). 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 (Jerlström-Hultqvist et al. 2013; Leger et al. 2017). Phylogenetic analysis of Preaxostyla

ACSs (Supplementary file 4 Q) shows four unrelated clades, none in close relationship to the

S. salmonicida MRO homolog, consistent with our assumption that these enzymes are cytosolic 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

metabolic maps of the amino acid metabolism were reconstructed based on the metabolic maps in

the KEGG database and catalytic activities of enzymes reported from other metamonads (Carlton

et al. 2007; Xu et al. 2014).

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 as encoded in oxymonads. The presence of a

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* (Zítek et

al. 2022) 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 (Ducker and Rabinowitz 2017). The

transsulfuration pathway, associated with the folate and methionine cycles in mammals (Stipanuk

1986), was not found in any Preaxostyla species. It is likely that the loss of the folate and

methionine cycles in oxymonads is tightly connected with the loss of MRO.

While investigating the Preaxostyla representatives for the presence of components of the glycine

cleavage system (GCS) we encountered altogether five homologues of the L protein (GCS-L): two

in *P. pyriformis* and one in *T. marina*, *M. exilis*, and *B. nauphoetae* each. Phylogenetic analyses

placed them into two clusters (Supplementary file 4 R). The MRO-localized protein of

P. pyriformis (PAPYR_5544; Zítek et al. 2022) branched with sequences of *T. marina*, Parabasalia

and the fornicate *Carpediemonas membranifera* with moderate statistical support, suggesting a

common metamonad origin of this supposedly MRO-localized enzymes. The other *P. pyriformis*

sequence (PAPYR_1328) and the two oxymonad sequences branched with high statistical support

together with Archamoebae (*Mastigamoeba balamuthi* and *Pelomyxa 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 not measured only

in one replicate of the experiment (Zítek et al. 2022). 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. Interestingly, it has been suggested that the GCS-L2 protein could function

outside the context of the glycine cleavage system in *M. balamuthi* (Nývltová et al. 2015), which

might explain the presence of GCS-L2 protein in the amitochondriate oxymonads. It should be

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

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

(Spalding and Prigge 2010), 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

(Babady et al. 2007) or a diaphorase activity by which it oxidizes NADH using labile ferric iron

(Petrat et al. 2003), nitric oxide (Igamberdiev et al. 2004), or ubiquinone (Xia et al. 2001). It is,

therefore, possible that one of these moonlighting activities may represent the primary role of GCS-

L2.

To summarize the capacity to *de novo* synthesize protein-building amino acids, it seems richer in

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

(cysteine, serine, and selenocysteine). 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 (Supplementary figs. 1-3). 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 (Xu et al. 2014).

Like many other metamonads (Novák et al. 2016), *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 Metamonada ancestor by the

acquisition of genes for ADI and OTC via LGT (Novák et al. 2016). 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 can be used by PFO and ACS to generate ATP (Anderson and

Loftus 2005).

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

proteins

Fe-S clusters are ancient and versatile inorganic cofactors present in virtually all living organisms.

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 uniquely combine the CIA

pathway with the SUF pathway acquired by LGT from bacteria to perform the same task (Vacek

et al. 2018; Braymer et al. 2021). The enzymes were shown to localize in the cytosol (Zítek et al.

2022) and the first functional details of the Fe-S cluster biogenesis in this group were described

recently (Peña-Diaz et al. 2023). 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*

(Karnkowska et al. 2016).

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* (Karnkowska et al. 2019) with a set of Fe-S proteins newly predicted from *in silico*

proteomes of *P. pyriformis*, *T. marina*, *B. nauphoetae*, and *S. strix* (Supplementary file 8). 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 (Andreini et al. 2016). Predicted Fe-S proteins fell into 164 distinct OGs. The numbers

of these OGs shared among Preaxostyla species are shown in Supplementary Fig. S4.

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 2Fe-2S clusters are more frequent

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 organism.

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).

A systematic search for proteins associated with the mitochondrion fails to identify convincing candidates in oxymonads

The hypothesis on the absence of the organelle in *M. exilis* was postulated based on the absence of mitochondrion-related proteins in its genome and transcriptome and led to the twist in the paradigm of mitochondria as ubiquitous among eukaryotes (Karnkowska et al. 2016). 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 mitochondria is an obvious next step that may further support, or weaken, this hypothesis.

We used several different methods to identify candidates for mitochondrial proteins (results for all searches are shown in Supplementary file 9 and summarized in Fig. 6). In all cases, proteins identified in the first step were reciprocally searched against the MitoMiner (Smith et al. 2012; Smith and Robinson 2018) and NCBI databases. We considered proteins, whose functional annotation was confirmed by reciprocal BLAST as candidate mitochondrial proteins, which were further manually verified with extensive searches (see Materials and Methods). Proteins having passed this third step were classified as validated mitochondrial proteins.

We searched all five investigated species for homologues of nuclear genome-encoded proteins typically associated with mitochondria or MROs in other eukaryotes. Initially, 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 (Pfanner et al. 2019). Homology searches resulted in 22 (*T. marina*) up to 63 (*M. exilis*) hits, which were further evaluated by reciprocal searches against the MitoMiner and NCBI databases resulting in 57 candidates. Reciprocal BLASTs indicated that all the candidates recovered in oxymonad data sets

are very likely to be false positives based on the annotations of their top BLAST hits (mainly

vaguely annotated kinases, peptidases and chaperones) (Fig. 6, Supplementary file 9). For

P. pyriformis and *T. marina*, the situation was different. With the single exception of the Tim23

protein (PaPyr_1418) other 12 previously identified components of the *P. pyriformis*

mitochondrion protein import and maturation machinery (Zubáčová et al. 2013; Zítek et al. 2022)

were found in the predicted proteomes: 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 chaperone protein HSP70, Cpn60 and Cpn10. Tim17 and Hsp70, were

also identified in the *T. marina* dataset, corroborating previous findings (Leger et al. 2017). The

successful identification of protein translocon components in these two species validated our

approach.

MROs export or import ATP and other metabolites typically using transporters from the

mitochondrial carrier family (MCF) or sporadically by the bacterial-type (NTT-like) nucleotide

transporters (Tsaousis et al. 2008). We did not identify any homolog of genes encoding proteins

from these two families in any of the three oxymonads investigated. In contrast, MCF carriers, but

not NTT-like nucleotide transporters, were recovered in the number of four for each *P. pyriformis*

and *T. marina* (Supplementary file 6).

The sensitive homology-based HMM searches were complemented by an extensive search for

putative homologues of known mitochondrial proteins using a pipeline based on the MitoMiner

database (Supplementary file 9), which was enriched with identified mitochondrial proteins of

diverse anaerobic eukaryotes with MROs (see Materials and Methods). As already shown for

M. exilis, the specificity of the pipeline in organisms with divergent mitochondria is low

(Karnkowska et al. 2016). Many of the selected candidates were identified as proteins that are

obviously not mitochondrial (e.g., histones or ribosomal proteins) or belong to very general gene

ontology categories (e.g., protein-binding). The search recovered a comparable number of proteins

as candidates for functions in a putative mitochondrion in all investigated species, from 636

candidates in *S. strix* up to 1,025 candidates in *P. pyriformis*. While no reliable mitochondrial

protein was found among the oxymonad candidates, for *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina* we identified

a list of proteins previously known to be localized in their MROs as well as some new candidates,

such as mitochondrial fission protein 1 (Fis1; Gene.12785::gnl|Trimastix_PCT|4043), which is a

tail-anchored (TA) protein mediating mitochondrial fission (van der Bliek et al. 2013). The

phylogenetic pattern of dynamin-related proteins corroborates the finding of Karnkowska et al.

(2019) showing a specific *Paratrimastix+Trimastix* clade potentially mediating the division of

MROs in these species (PAPYR_3413 and Gene.668::gnl|Trimastix_PCT|268, Supplementary

file 4 S). In addition, both *T. marina* (Gene.3674::gnl|Trimastix_PCT|1191) and *P. pyriformis*

(PAPYR_2826) but none of the oxymonads exhibit an orthologue of the mitochondrial outer

membrane-anchored protein MIRO (mitochondrial Rho; Eberhardt et al. 2020) broadly conserved

in eukaryotes but rare in MRO-containing taxa (Vlahou et al. 2011; Gentekaki et al. 2017); recently

it was confirmed by proteomics to be MRO-associated in the latter species (Zítek et al. 2022).

As an alternative to homology searches, we also searched 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 mitochondrion-related organelles (Dolezal et al. 2006). As we have previously shown

that even in the amitochondriate *M. exilis*, a fraction of proteins (though less than 1%) contains

NTS recognized by the subcellular localization predicting tools (Karnkowska et al. 2016) and also

that 14 *M. exilis* protein can be successfully targeted to the hydrogenosomes of *T. vaginalis*. 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 (Lucattini et al. 2004). Here we

used up-to-date tools for targeting signal prediction and identified from two hits in *S. strix* up to

248 hits in *B. nauphoteae* (Supplementary file 9). Oxymonad species contain a lower proportion

of proteins with the putative mitochondrial NTS (always below 1%) than *Trimastix* and

Paratrimastix and most of them gave no hits in MitoMiner and the NCBI nr database; the few

candidates with good hits matched to proteins unlikely to function in mitochondria. If the NTS in

the protein is functional and not formed by chance, it is expected that the NTS will be detected also

in its orthologues from other species. With this assumption, we focused on candidates of which

more than a single Preaxostyla orthologue was predicted to contain NTS. Only four proteins from

oxymonads (ribosomal protein L21, L23a, and L34e, and tRNA-dihydrouridine synthase) fulfilled

this criterion, none of them representing a reasonable mitochondrial protein in organisms that

certainly lacks a mitochondrial genome. Based on those results, we assume that all NTS predictions

on oxymonad proteins are false positives. In *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina* the proportion of proteins

with predicted NTS is higher (1.5% and 2.7% respectively), which might reflect the presence of

the organelle. Indeed, we identified among them, for example, aminoadipate-semialdehyde

dehydrogenase and the GCS-H protein in *T. marina*, both previously suggested to localize to the

MRO (Leger et al. 2017).

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 (Borgese et al. 2007; Denic 2012; Rada et al. 2019). 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*

(Supplementary file 9). Depending on the species only five to twelve were considered as candidates

with homologues in the MitoMiner database and the majority of these were Golgi apparatus/ER-

related. A subset of the TA proteins corresponded to 22 OGs that were present in an oxymonad and

at least one more species of Preaxostyla. These were mostly without MitoMiner hits and in most

cases annotated as SNARE or other proteins involved in vesicle trafficking. This suggests that the

TA prediction did produce true positives, but they all likely represent non-mitochondrial TA

proteins. The only probable mitochondrial candidate was Fis1 identified in the predicted proteome

of *T. marina* (see above).

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

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

the *P. pyriformis* Tom40, the detection of which validates our approach. Among the 26 to 36

candidate proteins from each oxymonad genome, only four hit a protein in the MitoMiner database,

none of the hits being a known MBOMP (Supplementary file 9). Using the same logic as with the

previous categories of proteins, only four OGs predicted as MBOMPs were present in an oxymonad

and at least one other Preaxostyla species, indicating that the candidates were selected from the

species pools nonspecifically and likely do not contain a putative new MBOMP. The only

overlapping OGs represent clathrin heavy chain (two OGs), kelch-type beta-propeller, and EF-

hand domain-containing protein, which are again rather false positives than mitochondrial proteins.

Finally, 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 used also a more curated

approach and searched for orthologues of proteins from the experimentally well-established

mitochondrial proteome of *T. brucei* (Panigrahi et al. 2009; Dean et al. 2017; Peikert et al. 2017).

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 trees (Tice et al. 2021), 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 (Supplementary file 10)

rejected most cases by disputing either the mitochondrial localization in *T. brucei* or the orthology.

The gene orthology was considered uncertain if *T. brucei* and Preaxostyla proteins were separated

by prokaryotic or non-mitochondrial eukaryotic homologues in the phylogenetic trees. The 30

cases surviving the manual scrutiny (Supplementary file 9) were divided into two groups.

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

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

P. pyriformis and/or *T. marina* and never in oxymonads. Twelve out of these 17 proteins were

already predicted to be mitochondrial previously (Zítek et al. 2022). The remaining proteins, such

as L-threonine 3-dehydrogenase (TDH) or glycine acetyltransferase thus have a potential for being

novel mitochondrial proteins in those two protists.

The 13 putative mitochondrial proteins of the low confidence group cluster with mitochondrial

proteins in other eukaryotes; however, the mitochondrial origin is not well supported. They either

cluster also with cytosolic and peroxisomal isoforms, or the enzymes are known to be dually

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

peroxisomal, and mitochondrial proteins form a clade in the tree. Examples of the latter are

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

reported for various eukaryotes including trypanosomatids (Duschak and Cazzulo 1991; Saas et al.

2000). This low confidence group contains nine proteins present also in oxymonads

(Supplementary file 9), 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 cytosol of *T. brucei*. In the case of tRNA synthetases,

the dual localization arose specifically in trypanosomatids (Peikert et al. 2017) 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 deeper evolutionary origin (Yagi et al. 1990). The two mevalonate pathway enzymes

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

localized in the mitochondrion of kinetoplastids (Peña-Diaz et al. 2004), however, this is again a

speciality of this lineage, as eukaryotes typically run this pathway in the cytosol and the 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 is the malic enzyme. The

evolution of this enzyme family is complicated, and there are two homologues of the enzyme in

kinetoplastids, one cytoplasmic and one mitochondrial, which cluster together (Supplementary

file 4 T). Again, it cannot be inferred what was the situation in the common ancestor with

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 (Supplementary file 6). Notably, 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 oxymonads as a group (Fig. 6).

Conclusions

In this manuscript we report the genome sequences of *P. pyriformis* and *B. nauphoetae*, adding to

the previously published genomes of *M. exilis* and *S. strix*, thus doubling the number of available

annotated genomes of Preaxostyla protists. By comparing the proteomes predicted from these data

to available genomes and transcriptomes of metamonads we were able to define the core gene

inventories of Metamonada, Preaxostyla, and Oxymonadida, and to detect LGT contributions to

them. Based on its genetic toolkit, *P. pyriformis* is endowed with several functions unique among,

or rare in, eukaryotes – synthesis of *p*-cresol, mercury methylation, and Se volatilization, or

preforms some of the common functions in an unusual way, exemplified by the predicted fumarate-

dependent NAD^+ synthesis. We identified differences in inventories of membrane transporters

between free-living *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina* and oxymonads that potentially reflect the

transition from the free-living to the endobiotic lifestyle at the origin of oxymonads. 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 (Lee et al. 2014). The switch

to the SUF pathway in these species has apparently not affected the number of Fe-S-containing

proteins but led to a decrease in the usage of 2Fe-2S clusters. The loss of MRO impacted

particularly the pathways of amino acid metabolism and might relate also to the loss of large

hydrogenases in oxymonads.

The findings of multiple exclusively mitochondrion-associated proteins in the two studied free-

living species, *T. marina* and *P. pyriformis*, corroborate the presence of unique types of MROs in

these organisms. Contrarily, the thorough search for mitochondrion-associated proteins has failed

to uncover any convincing candidates in the studied oxymonads, further supporting the hypothesis

that not only *M. exilis* but at least a large part of oxymonads has completely lost the mitochondrion.

This fact moves this unique loss to at least 100 MYA deep past, when oxymonads had been already

diversified (Poinar 2009), and shows that a eukaryotic lineage without mitochondria can thrive for

eons and undergo pronounced morphological evolution, as is apparent from the range of shapes

and specialized cellular structures exhibited by extant oxymonads (Hampl 2017).

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 1 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 (Treitli et al. 2018) was cultured in a similar way as described above

but using a modified TYSGM media (Diamond 1982).

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

(Karnkowska et al. 2016). After filtration, the cells were collected at 1200×g for 10 min at 4°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) The eukaryotic mRNA was selected using the

Dynabeads mRNA Purification Kit for mRNA Purification from Total RNA preps (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). cDNA was synthesized by the SMARTer PCR cDNA Synthesis Kit (Takara Bio Group)

and sequenced using the Illumina HiSeq 2000 sequencer at the Beijing Genomics Institute (BGI).

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 (Karnkowska et al. 2016), and the cells

were harvested by centrifugation at 1200×g for 10 min at 4°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 (ThermoFisher) according

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

sequencing performed at the Beijing Genomics Institute (BGI).

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 4 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 (Andrew 2010). For the Illumina data,

adapter and quality trimming were performed using Trimmomatic 0.36 (Bolger et al. 2014), with

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

performed using Porechop v0.2.3 (https://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 (Koren et al. 2017), with corMinCoverage and corOutCoverage set to 0 and

100000 respectively. After assembly, the data was binned using tetraESOM (Haddad et al. 2009).

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. (2019). After

binning, the resulting genomic bins were polished in two phases. In the first phase, the scaffolds

were polished with Nanopolish (Loman et al. 2015) 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 (Walker et al. 2014). Finally, the genome assembly of

P. pyriformis was further scaffolded with raw RNA-seq reads using Rascaf (Song et al. 2016).

Repeat masking, gene prediction, and annotation of the genomes

Repetitive elements in the genomic assembly were identified using RepeatModeler v1.0.11

(Tarailo-Graovac and Chen 2009), 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 (Stanke and Waack 2003). 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 (Haas et al. 2003) and the

resulting assembled transcripts were used as evidence for gene model polishing with EVM (Haas

et al. 2008). 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. Details of the BUSCO analysis are given in Supplementary file 11.

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

Annotation Server (Moriya et al. 2007), 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 (Eddy 2011), 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*.

Defining groups-specific gene sets

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

the *M. exilis* genome under NCBI BioProject PRJNA304271, the *S. strix* genome under NCBI

BioProject PRJNA524138, and the *T. marina* transcriptome-derived predicted proteome in

EukProt EP00771, Richter et al. 2022) with 14 other metamonads for which the genome or

transcriptome drafts were available when the study was initiated (Supplementary file 1, 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 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) (Supplementary file 1, Sheet 2). Proteins

belonging to these OGs were automatically annotated using BLASTp searches against the NCBI

nr protein database to acquire functional annotation (Supplementary file 1, Sheet 3). Venn diagrams

were generated using InteractiVenn (Heberle et al. 2015).

A relaxed core gene set for Metamonada and its Preaxostyla- and Oxymonadida-specific

increments were estimated based on the presence/absence of each OG in the analyzed species

(Supplementary file 2). 1,399 OGs present in at least one member of each of the three main

metamonad clades represented in the analysis (Parabasalia, Fornicata, and Preaxostyla) were

considered as the relaxed core Metamonada gene set. The Preaxostyla specific increment was

determined as a union of two sets determined by two different strategies to minimize the effect of

data incompleteness: i) the set of 285 OGs present in representatives of all three lineages of

Preaxostyla (at least one oxymonad, *P. pyriformis*, and *T. marina*), and ii) the set of 460 OGs

present in any four out of the five Preaxostyla species in the analysis. Out of these, 169 OGs were

present in all five Preaxostyla species. The Oxymonadida-specific increment was determined as a

set of 1,242 OGs present in at least two out of the three oxymonad species yet lacking representative

genes in other metamonads analyzed.

Detection of lateral gene transfer candidates

To identify candidate LGT events from prokaryotic donors into Preaxostyla species or any of their

metamonad ancestors, we used a phylogenetic approach based on the identification of protein

phylogenies in which Preaxostyla sequences (and their other metamonad homologues if they exist)

appear nested within a clade of prokaryotic counterparts with strong statistical support. We aimed

to be strict in our criteria, preferring underdetection to overprediction of LGT cases.

We first discarded predicted Preaxostyla proteins of size smaller than 80 amino acids, since the

corresponding phylogenies are unlikely to contain a strong and reliable signal. Given the large

number of remaining proteins (109,359), and in order to reduce computational burden, we carried

out a preliminary screen to discard sequences without detectable prokaryotic homologues. For this,

each preaxostyla sequence was used as a query for a similarity search using DIAMOND (Buchfink

et al. 2014) against the GTDB database (release 95; Parks et al. 2022) spanning 194,600 proteomes

representing known prokaryotic diversity as of July 2020 (e-value cut-off = 1e-10; identity

percentage >25%; query coverage >50%; subject coverage >50%). The query and subject coverage

criteria were chosen to ensure we did not consider spurious hit over a short part of the protein.

Metamonad sequences with significant hits against the GTDB were then used for a more exhaustive

homolog search by using them as queries for DIAMOND searches against the NCBI nr database

(same cut-offs as before; 10,000 hits were retained) in order to retrieve both prokaryotic and

eukaryotic homologues. To reduce computational burden, we then reduced the number of

sequences retrieved from NCBI nr by running CD-HIT (-c 0.7; Li and Godzik 2006) to keep a

single representative sequence for clusters of sequences displaying >70% identity. We then

retrieved the NCBI taxonomy associated with each sequence.

Protein superfamilies were assembled by first running DIAMOND searches of all metamonad

sequences against all (-e 1e-20 --id 25 --query-cover 50 --subject-cover 50). Reciprocal hits were

gathered into a single FASTA file, as well as their NCBI nr homologues. We also added all

metamonad sequences belonging to the same OGs into a single FASTA file.

Files with 30 sequences or fewer were discarded, as the chance directionality of the transfer can be

determined with any confidence is low when the gene family is represented by a small number of

representatives. In addition, files with more eukaryotic homologues than prokaryotic ones were

also discarded from follow-up analyses, as they were unlikely to represent a clear case of

prokaryote-to-eukaryote gene transfer. Sets of sequences in the remaining files were individually

aligned using MAFFT v7.221 (Katoh and Standley 2013), the alignments were trimmed using

BMGE (Criscuolo and Gribaldo 2010), and the corresponding phylogenies were inferred using

FastTree v.2 (Price et al. 2010).

To investigate the potential cases of prokaryotes-to-metamonads LGT, we analysed the unrooted

gene trees with the use of the R package PhySortR (Stephens et al. 2016) to identify well-supported

clans (potentially monophyletic tree partitions) comprised of metamonad sequences nested within

prokaryotic ones. This non-trivial task was done in a stepwise manner by first identifying clans

with a statistical support (Shimodaira-Hasegawa test) >0.8 and containing at least 90% of

prokaryotes and metamonads. The reason for the latter threshold is to allow for cases of taxonomic

misannotation, or for the presence of a few homologues from other eukaryotes, themselves

potentially resulting from LGT. After this first assessment, we checked which metamonad

sequences formed a clan separated from the rest of the tree by a well-supported bipartition (i.e., a

clan with >90% of metamonads with statistical support >0.8) in order to infer if they likely

corresponded to a single LGT even within their last common ancestor, or if they were dispersed in

the tree suggesting multiple independent transfers of homologous genes.

However, when metamonad sequences were detected as paraphyletic (regardless of the possible

position of the root), and in order to avoid overestimating the number of LGT events, we manually

inspected all phylogenies in order to distinguish most accurately between probable independent

cases of LGTs and paraphyly resulting from an overall lack of phylogenetic resolution. For this,

our manual inspection took into account: 1) the overall number of sequences in the tree (i.e., a

small number can be indicative that only a few homologues passed our DIAMOND threshold

because this protein family is fast evolving and that, consequently, the corresponding phylogeny

might be poorly resolved and/or not contain representatives of the true diversity of homologues);

2) the branch length separating the metamonad sequences (i.e., short branch lengths can be

suggestive of an unreliably resolved backbone); 3) the overall taxonomic coherence of the tree (i.e.,

do the various clades display taxonomic homogeneity or are the lineages interspersed all over the

tree, suggestive of a poorly resolved phylogeny?); 4) the taxonomic affiliation of the prokaryotic

neighbors of each independent metamonad clan in the tree (i.e., if they are similar, this is more in

favor of a single LGT event ancestral to all metamonad represented in the tree, which phylogenetic

reconstructions have not resolved properly); 5) the overall branch support across the tree (i.e., some

trees might show a few well supported branches suggestive of paraphyletic metamonads but if the

overall backbone of tree is generally poorly supported, we were cautious about the weakness of the

phylogenetic signal). Taking all this into account, in case of doubt, we always minimized the

number of inferred LGT events by assuming a single event in the last common ancestor of the

metamonad sequences in a tree. All phylogenies can be found in Supplementary file 12 (ultrafast

Bootstrap support values are indicated at branches. Teal tips represent bacteria, purple are archaea,

and coral tips are eukaryotes. Preaxostyla are displayed with a red font).

Single gene phylogenies

The phylogenies of the genes of interest (Supplementary file 4) 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 (Capella-Gutiérrez et al. 2009).

Phylogenetic analyses were performed simultaneously using IQ-TREE v2.0.5 (Nguyen et al. 2015)

and RAxML-HPC2 on v8.2.12 (Stamatakis 2014) with the LG4X model on the Cyberinfrastructure

for the Phylogenetic Research (CIPRES) Science Gateway (Miller et al. 2010). Substitution models

were inferred using IQ-TREE TESTNEW function for IQ-TREE.

Analysis of the Rsg1 gene

Candidate Rsg1 orthologues were identified in a variety of databases and other sequence resources (Supplementary file 5) using a combination of BLAST (BLASTp or tBLASTn, depending on the target database) and HMMER searches. The taxon selection essentially followed the list of taxa employed in a recent study of the distribution of the cilium-associated Ras superfamily GTPase Arl16 (Dewees et al. 2022), with further expansion to include additional metamonads and recently sequenced species of isolated phylogenetic position. Additional taxa were added based on searching the newly released EukProt database (Richter et al. 2022) such that representatives of broader taxa consistently possessing or lacking a discernible Rsg1 orthologue were selected and including the final list. Significant BLAST hits retrieved from searches with reference queries (the human sequence – GenBank accession number NP_112169.1, or another already validated sequence from a given taxon to increase the sensitivity of the search in a taxon-specific manner) were evaluated by BLAST searches against a large custom manually annotated database of Ras superfamily genes to distinguish Rsg1 orthologues from other GTPase types. The discrimination was facilitated by Rsg1 having low sequence similarity to other Ras superfamily members (such as Rab GTPases). A set of confidently identified Rsg1 sequences was then used for building a custom profile HMM, which was employed in searches with HMMER to identify possible divergent Rsg1 orthologues missed by BLAST searches. The candidates were again evaluated by BLAST-based comparisons against the custom GTPase database.

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 (Hirst et

al. 2014), multisubunit tethering complexes (Klinger et al. 2013), and golgins (Barlow et al. 2018).

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 (Tang et al. 2015) 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. (2019) 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 (Edgar 2004). All alignments were

subsequently   inspected   and   manually   trimmed   using   Mesquite   v.   3.5

(https://www.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 (Stamatakis 2006). The best protein matrix model for RAxML was

tested using ProtTest v.3.4.2 (Abascal et al. 2005), 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 (Baum 1989).

Bayesian inference was carried out using MRBAYES on XSEDE v3.2.6 (Huelsenbeck and

Ronquist 2001). 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.

Prediction of proteins containing Fe-S clusters

Fe-S cluster containing proteins were predicted with MetalPredator webserver (Valasatava et al.

2016). Predicted proteins were functionally annotated by BLAST searches against the NCBI nr

database and by InterProScan against the InterPro database (Blum et al. 2021). KEGG categories

were assigned by GhostKOALA searches against the KEGG database (Kanehisa et al. 2016).

Orthologous groups were created with the OrthoFinder 2 software (Emms and Kelly 2019) and the

Venn diagram of OG sharing among Preaxostyla was visualized using InteractiVenn.

Search for mitochondrial proteins

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

Preaxostyla species, including previously analyzed *M. exilis* (Karnkowska et al. 2016) as a control.

Predicted proteins of each species were independently searched for similarity to known

mitochondrial/MRO-related proteins and the presence of mitochondrial signature sequences. The

general design of the search followed the previously described methodology (Karnkowska et al.

2016). Briefly, a custom mitochondrial protein sequence database was compiled using the

MitoMiner v4.0 database (Smith et al. 2012; Smith and Robinson 2018) as the core. Experimentally

confirmed mitochondrial proteins (at least one GFP tagging experiment or three different MS

experiments) coming from *H. sapiens*, *Mus musculus*, *Rattus norvegicus*, *Danio rerio*,

Saccharomyces cerevisiae, and *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* were used and supplemented with the

MROs proteins from sixteen different organisms (Stechmann et al. 2008; Mi-ichi et al. 2009;

Barberà et al. 2010; Alcock et al. 2012; Stairs et al. 2014; Noguchi et al. 2015; Nývltová et al.

2015; Leger et al. 2016; Leger et al. 2017; Pyrihová et al. 2018). Redundant homologues (90%

similarity threshold) were removed from the database using CD-HIT. The resulting non-redundant

database contained 6,979 proteins. Reciprocal BLAST analysis was performed for each predicted

proteome of Preaxostyla species with an e-value threshold of 0.001.

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

al. (2016) were performed to specifically identify proteins involved in protein import and

translocation, as these were shown to be often divergent (Leger et al. 2016). Mitochondrial

targeting signals were detected using TargetP v1.1 (Emanuelsson et al. 2007) and MitoFates v1.1

(Fukasawa et al. 2015). 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 (Krogh et al. 2001) 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. (2011). 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 (McGuffin et al. 2000) 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.

Any hits received by the methods described above were considered candidates and were further

inspected as follows. All candidates were BLAST-searched against NCBI-nr and the best hits with

the descriptions not including the terms 'low quality protein', 'hypothetical', 'unknown', etc. were

kept. For each hit, the Gene Ontology categories were assigned using InterProScan-5.36-75.0. If

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

function, the candidates were considered as verified. Otherwise they were considered as false

positives.

***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; Aslett et al. 2010). Only reciprocal best BLAST hits that were

identified in any of the previously published mitochondrial proteomes of *T. brucei* (Panigrahi et al.

2009; Peikert et al. 2017) 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; Bateman 2019). 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

(Supplementary file 10) 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. 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.

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1397

 FIGURE LEGENDS

 Figure 1. Distribution of orthologous groups + singletons (OGs) and other discussed features

 among metamonads. **A)** Schematic phylogenetic tree of Preaxostyla within Metamonada (based on

 the topology of the phylogenomic tree reported by Stairs et al. (2021) showing the distribution of

 categories of OGs, lateral gene transfer events, and key biological features mapped to nodes. Core

 set: estimated relaxed core gene set for Metamonada; increment: clade-specific increment of the

 relaxed core gene set; specific: unique OGs for the external leaves (species); new: novel or

 extremely divergent genes detected in the species or lineage; LGT: lateral gene transfer events;

 SUF: iron-sulfur cluster assembly SUF system; L2: glycine cleavage system protein L2 (GCS-L2);

 FF: flavodoxin-ferredoxin fusion protein; FH: fused hydrogenase; FC: folate cycle; MC:

 methionine cycle; PotE: b(0,+)-type amino acid transporter; SPNS: sphingolipid transporter; RFC:

 Reduced Folate Carrier; TauE: sulfite exporter TauE/SafE family protein; SP: sugar porters; Hg:

 mercury methylation; Se: selenium volatilization; pC: *p*-cresol synthesis; ADI: arginine deiminase;

 ADIp: arginine deiminase pathway; CK: carbamate kinase. **B)** Venn diagram showing the

 distribution of OGs among the three main analyzed lineages of Metamonada. **C)** Venn diagram

 showing the distribution of Preaxostyla-specific OGs among the three lineages of Preaxostyla. **D)**

 Venn diagram showing the distribution of Oxymonadida-specific OGs among the three studied

 species of Oxymonadida. The IDs and functional annotation of OGs is given in Supplementary file

 2. The IDs and functional annotation of LGT events is given in Supplementary file 3.

 Figure 2. Schematic representation of the structure of HgcAB protein in *P. pyriformis* and its

 comparison to the prokaryotic HgcA-HgcB operon. **A)** gives the overview of the full alignment,

 which reveals remarkable similarity and conservation in both HgcA and HgcB parts. **B)** Zooms on

 the primary structure of the functionally most important regions predicted, namely corrinoid

binding domain (CMD) in HgcA part including the well-conserved corrinoid binding alpha-helix

and cobalamin binding residues (Thr60, Thr66, Val91, Cys93, and Ala153 in *P. mercurii*), an N-

terminal transmembrane domain (with four transmembrane domains in contrast to five in *P.*

mercurii), and a conserved motif (NVWCAAGKG) at the positions 97 – 105. The *P. mercurii*

HgcB shares with the *P. pyriformis* sequence the bacterial 4Fe-4S ferredoxin and two strictly

conserved CxxCxxCxxxCP 4Fe-4S binding motifs, conserved C-terminal cysteine residues, and a

cysteine residue (Cys73 in *P. mercurii*) at the beginning of an alpha-helix. **C)** Displays the

complete domain structure.

Figure 3. 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 as relevant. Details are given in Supplementary file 6.

Figure 4. Preaxostyla_Glycolysis. Hypothetical reconstruction of the extended glycolysis in

Preaxostyla. Bold outline indicates alternative glycolytic enzymes. Abbreviations and Enzyme

Commission numbers are given in Supplementary file 6. Presence of the enzymes in Preaxostyla

data sets is indicated by a color code.

Figure 5. 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 Supplementary file 4 U.

Figure 6. Summary of the searches for proteins physically associated with MROs. In the upper

panel, the numbers of candidates recovered by the four strategies for the five Preaxostyla species

(color-coded) are summarized. Detailed information on the searches and candidates is given in

Supplementary file 9. In the lower panel, the mitochondrion hallmark proteins detected in the data

sets of *P. pyriformis* and *T. marina* are shown in blue. No such candidate was recovered for any

oxymonad representative.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure S1. 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. Grey outline shows MRO

localization based on Zítek et al. (2022). Abbreviations and Enzyme Commission numbers are

given in Supplementary file 6.

Figure S2. 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. Striped outline shows

putative MRO localization based on comparison with *P. pyriformis*. Abbreviations and Enzyme

Commission numbers are given in Supplementary file 6.

Figure S3. 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 Supplementary file 6.

Figure S4. 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 Supplementary file 8.

TABLES

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

Sample	Scaffolds	Total length (bp)	N50 (kbp)	Completeness (%; BUSCO odb9)	G+C content (%)	Protein - Coding Loci	NCBI Accession
P. pyriformis	633	56,627,582	276.6	76.3	60.94	10,815	JAPMOS000000000
B. nauphoetae	879	88,537,989	199.5	76.6	44.96	25,221	JARBJD000000000
M. exilis	2,092	74,712,536	71.44	75.3	36.8	16,768	LSRY00000000
S. strix	50,889	152,152,197	5.18	69.6	26.6	56,706	SNRW00000000

1476

1478 **Figure 1**

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Figure 2

Figure 3

1484   **Figure 4**

1485

1486   **Figure 5**

A

B

1487

Figure 6

A

B

1491 **Supplementary figure 1**

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 Supplementary figure 2

Trimastix marina

 Supplementary figure 3

Monocercomonoides exilis

Blattamonas nauphoetae

Streblomastix strix

1497   **Supplementary figure 4**

1498