Phylogeny, morphology, virulence, ecology, and host range of *Ordospora pajunii* (Ordosporidae), a microsporidian symbiont of *Daphnia* spp.

Marcin K. Dziuba[1,*], Kristina M. McIntire[1], Kensuke Seto[1,2], Elizabeth S. Davenport[1], Mary A. Rogalski[1,3], Camden D. Gowler[1], Emma Baird[1], Megan Vandraager[1], Cristian Huerta[1], Riley Jaye[1], Fiona E. Corcoran[1], Alicia Withrow[4], Steven Ahrendt[5], Asaf Salamov[5], Matt Nolan[5], Sravanthi Tejomurthula[5], Kerrie Barry[5], Igor V. Grigoriev[5,6], Timothy Y. James[1], and Meghan A. Duffy[1]

Affiliations

[1] Department of Ecology & Evolutionary Biology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA

[2] Faculty of Environment and Information Sciences, Yokohama National University, Yokohama, Kanagawa, 240□8502, Japan

[3] Biology Department, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, ME 04011, USA

[4] Center for Advanced Microscopy, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI, 48824 USA

[5] United States Department of Energy Joint Genome Institute, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA

[6] Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, University of California Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA

[*] Correspondence: marcind@umich.edu; marcinkdziuba@gmail.com

Running Title

O. pajunii - a symbiont of *Daphnia*

Data Availability

Life table and lake prevalence data will be deposited to a public database such as Dryad upon acceptance of the manuscript. The genetic data has been deposited in GenBank.

Abstract

Symbiosis is increasingly recognized as a dynamic relationship, with the net outcome falling along a continuum from mutualism to parasitism. A key example of this comes from a recently discovered microsporidian symbiont of *Daphnia,* the net impact of which was found to vary from negative to positive. We investigated the taxonomic position of this microsporidian and the morphology of infected hosts, as well as the virulence, ecology and host range of the symbiont; we also provide information about its culturing methods. The genetic data indicates that the microsporidian symbiont belongs to *Ordospora pajunii*, a newly described microsporidian parasite of *Daphnia*. We show that *O. pajunii* infection damages the gut, causing infected epithelial cells to lose microvilli and then rupture. The prevalence of this microsporidian can be

high (up to 100% in the lab and 77% of adults in the field). Its overall virulence seems low in
most cases, but some genotypes suffer reduced survival and reproduction. Susceptibility and
virulence are strongly host-genotype dependent. We found that North American *O. pajunii* are
able to infect multiple *Daphnia* species, including the European species *D. longispina*, as well as
the genus *Ceriodaphnia*. We propose the *Daphnia* - *O. pajunii* symbiosis as a valuable system
for studying the mechanisms of context-dependent shifts between mutualism and parasitism, as
well as for understanding how symbionts might alter host interactions with resources.
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53 **Importance**
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The net outcome of symbiosis can shift between parasitism and mutualism, but the mechanisms
underlying such changes remain cryptic. A full understanding of what drives shifts of symbiotic
relationships will require comprehensive knowledge of the biology and ecology of the symbionts.
However, we have few systems in which this is possible, especially for cases where something
that is typically a parasite becomes a mutualist. Recently, a microsporidian symbiont of *Daphnia*
was found to shift from parasitism towards mutualism, but little was known about this symbiont
(including its species identity). Here, we describe this endosymbiont of *Daphnia*, identifying it as
the microsporidium *Ordospora pajunii*. We described its phylogeny, morphology, virulence and
ecology, enabling future study of this interaction as a model for shifts along the mutualism-
parasitism continuum.
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67 **Keywords**
68 Microsporidia, mutualism-parasitism continuum, symbiosis, pathogen, zooplankton
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Introduction

Symbiotic interactions can vary from mutualistic to parasitic depending on the underlying ecological context, e.g.(1). Whether the net outcome of the interaction is positive (mutualism), neutral (commensalism) or negative (parasitism) is determined by the sum of the costs and benefits for both parties involved, and this sum can be altered by abiotic and biotic factors (2). Three examples help illustrate the context dependency of symbiotic relationships: the presence of a bird nest parasite (cuckoo) has negative effects on fitness of the host birds, but can sometimes yield a net benefit if the parasitic chicks repel nest predators, saving the entire nest from their attacks (3); the mutualistic relationship between the dinoflagellate *Symbiodinium* and its coral host shifts into parasitism under temperature increase, due to the increased uptake of nutrients by the former (4); and a fungal parasite of the plant *Brassica napus* becomes a mutualist when it is itself infected with mycovirus (5). While it is now clear that it is possible to move along the mutualism-parasitism continuum, examples with well-characterized mechanisms underlying this shift are still scarce, particularly for typically parasitic organisms moving towards mutualism. To understand the mechanism underlying these shifts, we need to develop additional model systems where comprehensive knowledge of symbiont biology and ecology will allow for uncovering the costs and benefits of the interaction and how these change with ecological context.

A recent study found that infection of *Daphnia dentifera* (an ecologically important zooplankton host) with an unknown microsporidian can be beneficial or harmful for the host depending on the ecological context (6). Microsporidia are obligately intracellular and have highly reduced metabolism (7); they steal ATP and nucleotides from their host, inflicting negative consequences to host fitness (8). Therefore, it was not surprising that the gut-infecting microsporidian was often found to have negative effects on *Daphnia*, especially when the host experienced food scarcity (6). However, infection with the microsporidian made the host's gut less penetrable by spores of highly virulent fungus *Metschnikowia bicuspidata*. Intriguingly, *Daphnia* infected with the microsporidium had a reproductive advantage over the non-infected individuals when *M. bicuspidata* was common. Overall, the net outcome of infection with the microsporidium spanned from parasitic through commensal to mutualistic, depending on the availability of food for the host and the prevalence of more virulent pathogens. Additionally, the effect size of infection with this microsporidian on the immune traits of *Daphnia* was found to be variable between lakes (9), which further indicates that the strength of the impact of the interaction on the host is context dependent. Thus, this *Daphnia*-microsporidium interaction has the potential to allow for better exploring the context dependency of symbiosis. However, while the host is a well-established model, with a wealth of information about its genetics, physiology and ecology (10, 11), little is known about the microsporidian. Indeed, in the prior studies showing context dependent outcomes (6, 9), it was referred to as "MicG" (because it is a microsporidian that attacks the gut), without a formal scientific name.

Here we focus on the taxonomy, morphology, virulence, host range, and ecology of this microsporidian symbiont of *Daphnia*. A very similar parasite was recently described from *Daphnia longispina* in Europe (12) and named *Ordospora pajunii*. We present sequence data from MicG from infected hosts from multiple lakes and an analysis of its full genome, with a

particular focus on comparing our MicG isolates with *O. pajunii*. Additionally, we provide light

microscopy and transmission electron microscopy images of MicG, on which we base our

description of the morphology and biology of infection. Moreover, we performed a lab

experiment investigating the effects of the microsporidian on life history parameters of its host,

Daphnia dentifera. We also provide data on the prevalence of infection in four natural *D.*

dentifera populations in the lakes of North America. Finally, we present information on the host

range of this microsporidium, including tests of whether MicG can infect *D. longispina* (the host

from which *O. pajunii* was originally described). Together, this work not only establishes the

identity of this intriguing symbiont, but also reveals more about its morphology, life history, and

ecology.

Materials and methods

Overview

During an intensive study of host-symbiont interactions (6), we noticed this microsporidian

infecting the guts of *Daphnia dentifera*. *Daphnia dentifera* Forbes is a dominant grazer in lake

food webs in stratified lakes in the Midwestern United States (13) that hosts a variety of

parasites (14, 15). The intensive study revealed that this microsporidian shifts along a

mutualism-parasitism continuum (6) and spurred the work reported in this manuscript. The data

on prevalence in four natural populations comes from the same field sampling as was reported

in Rogalski et al. (6); however, that study did not analyze the temporal dynamics of infections.

Sequencing and phylogenetic analysis

<u>SSU rRNA sequencing</u>

To investigate the phylogenetic affiliation of our microsporidian, we analyzed partial sequences

of SSU rRNA of 9 individuals of *D. dentifera* infected with MicG collected in 2021 from Crooked

Lake ("Crooked-W" in Table S1; Washtenaw County, Michigan, USA) and 9 individuals from

Walsh Lake (Washtenaw County, Michigan, USA), against the sequences available in Genbank.

DNA was extracted using DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen®). Each infected *Daphnia* was

picked from a microscope slide using jewelers forceps, placed in a 1.5 ml centrifuge tube with

100 µL and frozen until the DNA extraction was carried out. The defrosted animals were placed

(with forceps) in 180 µL of ATL buffer, 20 µL of Proteinase K was added to each tube, and all

tubes were incubated at 56°C for 24 hours. The next steps of the extraction were performed

following the protocol described by the producer.

We amplified the SSU sequence of MicG using primers V1F

(CACCAGGTTGATTCTGCCTGAC) and 530R (CCGCGGCKGCTGGCAC) (Trzebny et al.

2020) and KOD Xtreme™ Hot Start DNA Polymerase kit (Novagen®). The PCR was performed

using an initial step of 3 min at 95°C and then 35 cycles of 10 sec at 95°C followed by 30 sec at

60°C and 1 min at 72°C, and a final step of 5 min at 72°C. The PCR product was cleaned with

ExoSAP-IT™ (ThermoFisher Scientific®) kit using the manufacturer's protocol, then Sanger

sequenced by Eurofins Genomics® on an ABI 3730 XL Analyzer (Applied Biosystems) using

forward and reverse primers on each product. The sequences obtained with forward and

reverse primers were combined (after converting the reverse sequence into its reverse-
complement version) and manually corrected to eliminate any sequencing errors. The MicG
sequences were compared to sequences available in GenBank using blastn and the taxa
indicated as the most similar were used to create a phylogenetic tree. The selected sequences
were cropped to similar size and aligned using the ClustalW algorithm in MEGA X version
10.0.5 (Kumar et al. 2018). A maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree was computed in MEGA X,
using the Tamura 3-parameter model and 1000 bootstrap replicates.
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ITS sequencing
Microsporidia are closely related to (or considered to be) fungi (16, 17), and the well-established
molecular barcode for fungi is the Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) sequence (18). Therefore,
we also analyzed ITS sequences of MicG infecting 7 *D. dentifera* from Crooked W Lake, 7 from
Walsh Lake, 8 *D. dentifera* clone "S" from our lab culture of MicG isolate collected from lake
Walsh and 1 *Daphnia mendotae* from Woodland Lake (Washtenaw County, Michigan, USA), all
collected in 2021. Samples from Walsh and Crooked-W sequenced for ITS were a subset of the
same samples as used for SSU (see above). The DNA extraction was performed using the
same protocol as for SSU. The amplification was performed using primers ITSF-MicG
(GGGGTGTGAGTCTTCTGTGG) and ITSR-MicG (GTTCAGCATCACACAACCCG) and the
same PCR kit as above. The PCR parameters were an initial step of 5 min at 95°C and then 35
cycles of 30 sec at 95°C followed by 1 min at 53°C and 2 min at 72°C, and a final step of 5 min
at 72°C. The product was purified with ExoSAP-IT™ and Sanger sequenced by Eurofins
Genomics®. The sequences were manually corrected and analyzed with the same software and
methods as above, except for the alignment, which was performed with the Muscle algorithm
and manually corrected.
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Whole genome sequencing
We applied single cell genome sequencing techniques to sequence the MicG genome (19). A
single *D. dentifera* was placed on a microscope slide in a droplet of MilliQ water and her gut was
dissected, extruding the microsporidia. The spores were collected with a glass pasteur pipette
and transferred into another droplet of MilliQ water, where large host tissue particles were
removed. The spores were collected from the slide with a glass pipette and stored in a 1.5 mL
centrifuge tube. Spores were isolated using a manually prepared drawn-out glass capillary
pipette. A small amount (100–200 µL) of the spore suspension was transferred onto a petri dish
and observed under an inverted microscope. We isolated ~20 spores by pipette and put them
into a small drop of UV-sterilized water. From them, 5–10 spores were isolated by avoiding
putative contamination of host tissues and transferred into 200 µL PCR tubes with 1-2 µL of
water. DNA extraction and whole genome amplification were performed using the Qiagen
REPLI-g Single Cell kit (Qiagen, Maryland, USA). The prepared libraries were quantified using
KAPA Biosystems' next-generation sequencing library qPCR kit and run on a Roche LightCycler
480 real-time PCR instrument. Sequencing of the flowcell was performed on the Illumina
NovaSeq sequencer using NovaSeq XP V1.5 reagent kits, S4 flowcell, following a 2x151
indexed run recipe. Ten million reads were filtered for JGI process contaminants with
bbtools.Seal, subsampled using bbtools.reformat.sh (http://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap),
and assembled using SPAdes version v3.15.3 ((20) using parameters: --phred-offset 33 --cov-

cutoff auto -t 16 -m 64 --careful -k 25,55,95). After the assembly, the scaffolds < 1000bp were
removed. The genome was annotated using the JGI Annotation pipeline and shared via JGI
MycoCosm (21).
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Phylogenomic analysis was performed using a dataset of 40 Microsporidia taxa (Table S2). Two
species of Metchnikovellidae (*Amphyamblys* sp. and *Metchnikovella incurvata*) were selected as
the outgroup. The "genome mode" of BUSCO version 5 (22) was run for each microsporidian
genome using the microsporidia_odb10 database. A concatenated alignment was prepared
using the version 4 of "BUSCO_phylogenomics" pipeline
(https://github.com/jamiemcg/BUSCO_phylogenomics, (23)). Single copy BUSCO genes
present in more than 80% of 40 microsporidians ("-psc 80") were extracted from the outputs of
BUSCO. Each gene sequence was aligned with muscle v3 (Edgar 2004) and trimmed with
trimAl v1.2 (24). The final concatenated alignment comprised 102,302 amino acids from 332
genes. A maximum likelihood (ML) analysis was performed using IQ-TREE v2 (25) using the
site-heterogeneous model (LG + C60 + F + G + PMSF, (26)). The tree inferred using the LG + F
+ R9 model selected by ModelFinder (27) was used as a guide tree for PMSF model analysis. A
standard nonparametric bootstrap analysis (100 replicates) was done under the LG + C60 + F +
G + PMSF model.
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Based on phylogenetic similarity to *Ordospora pajunii* FI-F-10, we performed comparative
analyses to determine the extent of genetic differences between the genomes of *O. pajunii* and
MicG. The genomes were first compared to calculate average nucleotide identity using OAT
0.93.1 with the OrthoANI algorithm (28). Alignment of FI-F-10 and MicG was conducted using
Parsnp v1.2 (29) to identify single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). We used SnpEff 5.0e (30)
to calculate the putative function effects of the SNPs using the annotation of FI-F-10 as a
reference. PRODIGAL v2.6.3 (31) was used to annotate the genome of MicG, which was then
compared to FI-F-10 by OrthoFinder v. 2.5.2 (32) to identify genes that were missing or
duplicated in one or the other genome assemblies.
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229
230 *Microscopy*
231 We used a combination of light and transmission electron microscopy to explore the morphology
232 of MicG, as well as the symptoms associated with infection.
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<u>Light microscopy</u>
We used an Olympus DP73 camera attached to an Olympus SZX16 dissecting microscope to
take photomicrographs of *D. dentifera* infected with MicG at 4 - 11.5x magnification. In addition,
MicG spores were extracted by rupturing the gut of four infected *Daphnia* on a microscope slide;
the length and width of 25 spores from each *Daphnia* were measured using the same camera
attached to an Olympus BX53 microscope (1000x magnification) and using Olympus cellSens
Imaging Software.
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<u>Transmission electron microscopy</u>

To characterize the ultrastructure of MicG, as well as the impact on infected host cells and gut
morphology, we collected twenty MicG-infected *D. dentifera* individuals from lab cultures (see
Supplemental Materials), fixed them in 3% glutaraldehyde, and stored at 4°C for over two
weeks. After primary fixation, samples were washed with 0.1M phosphate buffer and postfixed
with 1% osmium tetroxide in 0.1M phosphate buffer, dehydrated in a gradient series of acetone
and infiltrated and embedded in Spurr's resin. 70 nm thin sections were obtained with a Power
Tome Ultramicrotome (RMC, Boeckeler Instruments, Tucson, AZ) and post stained with uranyl
acetate and lead citrate. Images were taken with a JEOL 1400Flash Transmission Electron
Microscope (Japan Electron Optics Laboratory, Japan) at an accelerating voltage of 100kV.
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Life table measures of parasite virulence
To quantify parasite virulence (with respect to reproduction and lifespan), we carried out life
table experiments with 7 genotypes of *Daphnia dentifera* (S and A43, originally isolated from
lakes in Barry County, Michigan, and M37, ML32, BD08, DW29, and DW22, originally isolated
from lakes in Sullivan and Greene Counties, Indiana). These clones were chosen as they
display varied susceptibility to other pathogens (unpublished data). We first reared individuals
from these genotypes for 3 generations in standard conditions to standardize maternal effects.
260
On experiment day 1, 0-24hr old neonates were collected and placed individually into 50mL
beakers, with 30mL filtered lake water and 1mL standard food stock (to a final concentration of
~33,000 cells/mL of *Ankistrodesmus falcatus*). Animals were assigned to one of three pathogen
treatments: MicG48, receiving one dose of MicG at 48 hr old and a placebo at 120 hr old;
MicG120, receiving a placebo at 48 hr old and one dose of MicG at 120 hr old; and Control,
receiving a placebo at 48 hr and 120 hr. Two exposure windows were chosen as previous
observations suggested MicG may more effectively infect hosts very early in the host lifespan.
There were 10 replicate individuals per clone * exposure treatment combination (210 individuals
total). Animals were housed in environmental chambers at 20°C with a 16h:8h (light:dark) cycle
for the duration of the experiment.
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On day 2, all animals were transferred to new beakers with 10mL filtered lake water and given
either a dose of MicG or a placebo. For MicG doses, a slurry was created by crushing *Daphnia*
dentifera (S clone, in which we cultivate this symbiont) with high MicG infectious burden into
10mL MilliQ water; this slurry contained a ratio of 1 high burden donor: 1 experimental animal,
with each experimental animal exposed to a portion of the slurry equivalent to 1 high burden
donor (e.g., if 10 animals were being exposed, the slurry would be created using 10 highly
infected donors, and each experimental animal would receive 1/10th of the resulting slurry). The
placebo was created and dosed in the same manner, using uninfected animals. After 48 hours,
animals were moved to new, parasite-free beakers with 30mL filtered lake water. On day 5, the
exposure treatment was repeated as above; this time, animals in the MicG120 treatment
received the spore slurry and the other two treatments received the placebo. During exposure,
animals were given 0.5mL stock food per day, all other experimental days animals received
1mL stock food daily (1,000,000 *A. falcatus* cells/mL in the stock food solution).
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286 We checked animals daily for mortality and offspring production. We recorded the date and
287 number of offspring produced (offspring were removed from the beaker) as well as the date of
288 death. Animals were checked for infection twice per week under the dissecting microscope (4-
289 10x magnification).
290
We calculated the proportion of exposed hosts that became infected for each genotype and
infection timing combination. We then tested for effects of the parasite and timing of parasite
exposure on host life history traits. We used an aligned rank ANOVA to analyze total fecundity,
a generalized linear model (GLM) to analyze body size at first reproduction, and a proportional
hazard model stratified by genotype to analyze time to death. These analyses were restricted to
the four genotypes that displayed substantial infection (BD08, DW29, DW22 and S). The
analyses included all individuals in a genotype*treatment combination; results were not
qualitatively different if only infected individuals were included for the MicG48 and MicG120
treatments.
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Prevalence in natural populations
We sampled four lake populations in Southeastern Michigan in 2016: Gosling Lake in Livingston
County and North, Pickerel, and Sullivan Lakes in Washtenaw County (Table S1). These lakes
were sampled every three days from late July through mid-November. This sampling window
was chosen because outbreaks of other *D. dentifera* parasites occur primarily in late summer
and autumn (33, 34). Each lake was sampled by taking whole water column tows with a
Wisconsin net from three locations in the deep basin of the lake. These three tows were pooled,
and then a subsample was analyzed to determine the prevalence of individuals that were
infected; this was done by examining each individual in the subsample under a dissecting
microscope at 40-50x using dark field microscopy, looking for characteristic signs of infection
along the gut (described more below). We aimed to have at least 200 *D. dentifera* individuals in
the subsample that was analyzed for infections; if there were fewer than 200 individuals in the
whole sample, we analyzed the entire sample. Over the entire study period, the median number
of *D. dentifera* that we analyzed for infection was 233.5 per lake-day combination (mean: 236,
minimum: 71, maximum: 449). Because adults are more likely to have visible signs of infection,
we focus on the proportion of the adult population that was infected in our analysis.
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318 *Host range*
319 We used a dataset from 15 inland lakes in Southeastern Michigan collected in 2021 to assess
320 which *Daphnia* species are infected by MicG in natural populations. The 15 lakes are the same
321 as those in Gowler et al. (35); more information about each can be found in Table S1.
322
To check whether MicG can infect European *D. longispina* (the host from which *O. pajunii* was
described), we exposed five clones of *D. longispina* collected from three German lakes, along
with the *D. dentifera* clone S (used as a control for infection success) to MicG spores. We
synchronized the mothers of experimental animals, and reared them until they gave birth to their
first clutch. The first clutch babies were harvested within 24 h of birth and placed singly in a 50
mL beaker filled with 20 mL of filtered lake water and fed 0.5 mL of a standard food stock
(1,000,000 *A. falcatus* cells/mL in the stock food solution) daily until the end of exposure. We

exposed 10 individuals from each of the 6 clones. After 48 h, all animals were dosed with a
MicG spore slurry; each animal was exposed to a spore suspension equivalent to one donor
individual, similar to the approach used in the life table experiment above. Exposure lasted 48 h,
after which we transferred *Daphnia* to new beakers filled with 40 mL of filtered lake water, fed
them 1 mL of stock food daily and checked for mortality until the end of the experiment. We
initially checked *Daphnia* for infection under the dissecting microscope 7 days after exposure,
then checked them twice a week thereafter. The experiment ended on day 30. The S clone
individuals that we used as a positive control had 100% MicG infection prevalence in this trial.
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Results
Sequencing and phylogenetic analysis
The SSU and ITS sequences of MicG suggest a very close affinity with *Ordospora pajunii*
(Figure 1), a microsporidian species recently described from *Daphnia longispina* in Finland (12).
Moreover, there was no variation within the MicG isolates at SSU or ITS, and very little between
MicG and the published sequences of *O. pajunii* (Figure 1A,B). There was a clear separation
from the *Ordospora colligata* clade, however, at both loci.
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We assembled the MicG genome into 42 contigs of total length 2.24 Mb with a contig n50 of 133
kb. A phylogenomic analysis using the amino acid sequences of 332 genes corroborated the
high genetic similarity of MicG to *O. pajunii* (Figure 1C). The average nucleotide identity
between MicG and *O. pajunii* was 99.84%, which is well within the 95% limit recently suggested
for species (12). The MicG genome annotation revealed 1946 protein coding genes. Alignment
of the MicG and *O. pajunii* genomes uncovered 2,666 SNPs and 1,004 bp associated with
indels differing between the strains. 12.8% of the SNPs were intergenic, and, of the SNPs in
exons, 55.3% were missense, and 8 total nonsense SNPs were observed. Comparison of the
two largest contigs of MicG to *O. pajunii* revealed colinearity of chromosomes (Figure 2), with
most of the variation between the two genomes appearing at the ends of contigs. High variability
of the genome in the subtelomeric regions with associated repeat regions and a ribosomal RNA
gene array is also observed for other microsporidia (36). Ribosomal RNA, however, was not
associated with the ends of contigs in *O. pajunii* or MicG and mostly absent from the genome
assemblies save one small contig in each genome, suggesting our assemblies are incomplete
towards the telomeres. Beyond the subtelomeric regions, we inspected genes with the highest
number of amino acid changing SNPs between the strains. The highest number of missense
mutations (Figure S1) were in: an alpha/beta hydrolase (20 SNPs; *O. pajuni* protein accession
number: KAH9410807.1), a hypothetical protein (11 SNPs; KAH9411254.1), a DEAD/DEAH box
helicase (7 SNPs; KAH9411242.1), and an aminopeptidase (7 SNPs; KAH9410533.1). There
was no evidence for genes present in one strain but not the other when only considering the
large contigs (>10 kb).

Figure 1. Phylogenetic analyses suggest a close affinity of MicG and the recently described *O.*
pajunii. A) A maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of partial SSU ribosomal RNA sequences
reveals no variation within MicG, and high similarity to *O. pajunii*. The sequence labeled
"Microsporidium sp. MicG MH635259.1" was previously sequenced as part of the Rogalski et al.
(6) study. B) ITS sequences of MicG were also identical and very similar to that of *O. pajunii*. In
A&B, the branch support is based on 1000x bootstrap replicates, and the scale corresponds to
the branch length and represents the number of substitutions per site. C) A maximum likelihood
phylogenetic tree of 332 genes from the microsporidia_odb10 database also supports very high
similarity between MicG and *O. pajunii*; branch support is based on 100x bootstrap replicates.
MicG and *O. pajunii* are indicated with orange and purple rectangles, respectively.
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Figure 2. Comparison of two largest contigs of MicG with homologous contigs of *O. pajunii*
shows conserved gene order. The outer band shows the lengths of chromosomes, and the inner
rings are the locations of the genes, arbitrarily split into three lines to prevent overlap for clarity
(black markers are on + strand and orange markers on - strand). Links connect SNPs identified
following alignment and are indicated as amino acid changing (orange) or silent (black). Plot
generated using Circos (37).
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Microscopy
We observed the first symptoms of infection about 7-10 days after exposure. Infection is visible
as white globular structures embedded within the host's gut epithelium (Figure 2A, B). At first,
only several clusters of the parasite spores are visible. Spores initially occupy the central part of
the host's cell (Figure 2G), but as they grow and divide, the vacuole containing them starts

expanding and growing towards the inside of the host's gut (Figure 2H). At the late stage of
cluster development, the cluster is visible as a bubble-shaped sac (Figure 2C, D) waved by the
peristalsis of the host's gut. The vacuole eventually bursts, releasing the spores into the gut
lumen (Figure 2C, I). The spores are then shed into the environment, although it is possible that
some reinfect the same host prior to release into the environment. Interestingly, electron
microscopy revealed that the microvilli are absent from the epithelial cells in these later stages
of cluster development, when the cluster has moved towards (or into) the gut lumen (Figure 2F,
H, I).
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Initial infections most frequently occur in the upper part of the midgut and diverticula. Over time,
the number of clusters and general coverage of the gut by the parasite increases, resulting in
tens to hundreds of clusters spread across the gut, frequently merging into an indistinguishable
mass (Figure 2A, B). The spores are about 3.03 µm long (range: 2.57-3.71, n=100) and 1.66 µm
wide (range: 1.45-1.96, n=100), initially oval (Figure 2J, K) and pyriform when mature (Figure
2D, E). The size of MicG spores overlaps with *O. colligata* and the *O. pajunii* isolate described
by de Albuquerque et al. (12); however, unlike those, MicG does not form chains when extruded
from the host (Figure 2E).

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Figure 2. A) *D. dentifera* infected with *O. pajunii* (on the right) vs. uninfected *Daphnia* (on the
left), B) the same infected *Daphnia* as in 'A', at higher magnification, C) upper part of midgut of
an infected *Daphnia*, with a mature spore cluster (cr) and visible spores coming from a burst
cluster (sp), D) a cluster of *O. pajunii* spores extracted from the gut, E) free floating spores
extruded from the gut - after extracting a host's gut, the clusters rapidly burst and release the

spores, F) cross section of an infected host's gut with visible microvilli (mv), peritrophic
membrane (pm) and a maturing spore cluster (cr), G) a spore cluster in a central part of the
epithelial cell, H) a more advanced spore cluster growing towards the inside of the gut lumen, I)
spores released from the host's cell after a cluster burst, J) a single cell of *O. pajunii*, and K) a
late stage of cell division.
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Life table measures of parasite virulence
Infection prevalence varied across genotypes from 0-100% infected individuals (Figure 3A).
Early exposure to parasite spores tended to result in higher infection success among the
susceptible clones, although in the case of clone BD08 higher prevalence was observed in the
late exposure treatment. Additionally, we observed consistent variation in the morphology of
infection across genotypes (Figure 3B). Infection in the S clone manifests as densely filled
globules with defined edges; in BD08, infection frequently manifests with a grainy appearance
where the clusters are much smaller and more dispersed; finally, in DW22, infection manifests
as an amorphous cloudy patch in the gut.
438
Total lifetime fecundity varied depending on parasite treatment and clone (interaction:
$F_{6,108}$=5.945, P<0.0001). More specifically, the S genotype produced fewer offspring than the
controls if they had been exposed early in life (i.e., the MicG48 treatment; T_{108}=4.908,P=0.0002)
and marginally fewer if they were exposed later (i.e., the MicG120 treatment; T_{108}=3.297,
P=0.076, Figure 3C). In addition, the DW29 genotype differed between parasite treatments, with
early exposure animals (i.e., the MicG48 treatment) producing fewer offspring compared to later
exposure (i.e., MicG120, T_{108}=4.082, p=0.006, Figure 3C). Host body size did not differ
depending on parasite treatment ($F_{2,69}$= 0.1482, P=0.8626). Host time to death differed due to
parasite treatment, but only for the S genotype; the lifespan of this genotype was significantly
shorter in the early parasite exposure compared to the no parasite treatment (hazard
ratio=4.577, 95%CI=1.616-12.964, P=0.0042, Figure 3D).
450
451

Figure 3. Genotypes differed in their likelihood of becoming infected, in the morphology of infection in the gut, and in the impact of infection. A) Varying proportion of animals of each clone (clone name indicated on top) displaying visible infection. The point and error bar represents the binomial mean and standard error. B) Morphology of infection with MicG in three of the susceptible clones: S, BD08, DW22. The red arrows indicate examples of MicG clusters. C) The parasite impacts lifetime total reproduction (that is, the total number of offspring produced across the experiment) in genotypes differently. The horizontal line represents a median, the boxes show first and third quartile and the whiskers represent the 1.5*IQR from the top and bottom. Raw data are overlaid in red. D) Time to event analysis for mortality indicated that only the lifespan of the S genotype was impacted by MicG. S genotype lifespan was significantly shortened with early exposure (solid black line) compared to no parasite exposure (dashed line).

Parasite prevalence in natural populations
Two of the four lakes, North and Pickerel, had sustained outbreaks of MicG (Figure 4). North Lake already had ~20% of *D. dentifera* adults infected at the beginning of the sampling period (in late July and early August). In North Lake, infection prevalence reached its maximum in mid-September (48% of the total *D. dentifera* population, 77% of adult females); in Pickerel, infection prevalence reached its maximum in the first half of October (57% of the total *D. dentifera* population, 70.5% of adult females). Infections were much lower in the other two lakes, except for a spike in infections in Sullivan near the end of the sampling period (in November); the population size remained high through this time, so this increase is not an artifact of low sample sizes (Figure S3).

480
Figure 4. The proportion of *D. dentifera* adults that were infected with MicG varied over time
and across lakes. Data come from four lakes (Gosling, North, Pickerel, and Sullivan) in
Southeast Michigan, USA, that were sampled every three days in 2016.

Host range
We observed MicG infections in *Ceriodaphnia dubia*, *Daphnia ambigua*, *D. dentifera*, *D. dubia*,
D. mendotae, *D. parvula*, *D. pulicaria* and *D. retrocurva* – that is, all of the *Daphnia* and
Ceriodaphnia species in our study lakes. In addition, in our laboratory infection assay, MicG
infected two out of the five *D. longispina* clones. Similar to *D. dentifera*, exposed *D. longispina*
clones varied in their susceptibility to MicG (spanning 0% to 90%, Table S3).

Discussion
Prior ecological studies on this microsporidian have shown a clear impact on its host and on
other symbionts competing for the same host (6, 9), as well as shifts along a mutualism-
parasitism continuum; this all suggests promise as an interesting study system, especially since
the host is already a model organism (10, 11, 38). In the present study, we characterized the
phylogeny, morphology, virulence, ecology, and host range of this symbiont, with a goal of
facilitating future work. Our phylogenetic analyses indicate very high similarity between MicG
and *Ordospora pajunii,* a microsporidian recently described from *Daphnia longispina* in Europe
(12). The spore morphology of both microsporidians is alike and both infections have similar
presentation in the host's gut, overgrowing the epithelium and being successively shed and
excreted with feces. We found MicG infections to be capable of reducing reproduction and
lifespan of the most susceptible hosts, but the susceptibility to infection can strongly vary

between host genotypes. The host range of MicG spans across multiple *Daphnia* species; we
also found it was also able to infect members of a second genus, *Ceriodaphnia* sp.. Moreover,
MicG was capable of infecting *D. longispina*, the host from which *O. pajunii* was described (12),
which is not present in North America. Overall, our data indicates that MicG and *O. pajunii* are
the same species, hence the microsporidium previously called "MicG" (6, 9, 35) should be
considered *Ordospora pajunii*.
510
The high similarity across the entire genomes of MicG and *O. pajunii*, as well as complete
concordance of sequences at the SSU region and minimal difference at the ITS locus between
MicG and *O. pajunii* from Europe, lead us to conclude that they are the same species.
Nonetheless, we found some differences between North American and European *O. pajunii*. We
identified genetic divergence in some of the coding regions – most notably a 30 bp indel in the
chitin synthase gene. The sequence of the MicG *chitin synthase* gene in this region is almost
identical to that of *O. colligata* (Figure S2), suggesting a deletion in European *O. pajunii*. We
also identified multiple missense and nonsense mutations in other genes, when comparing the
genomes of MicG with *O. pajunii*. There are also some phenotypic differences, including that
spores of both *O. colligata* and *O. pajunii* isolated from Europe form chains (12), whereas MicG
spores do not; this is particularly notable, as the formation of chains has been proposed as
diagnostic for the genus *Ordospora* (12). In addition, *O. pajunii* infections are much less
pronounced in the hepatic caeca of the host than in the main midgut epithelium (12), and *O.*
colligata frequently develops intensively in the caeca (12); in contrast, MicG infects the caeca as
frequently as the midgut epithelium, and the intensity of the infection can vary temporally
between the two parts of the host's gut. Last but not least, MicG seems to have a much broader
range of susceptible host species than initially found for the described isolate of *O. pajunii* and
O. colligata (12).
529
The number of host species that we observed infected (all nine of the host species studied,
including those that were rare, such as *D. mendotae*) is also interesting because most
microsporidia are highly host species specific (39), with only 2.2% being able to infect >4 host
species (40). Prior studies on the genus *Ordospora* also suggested high specificity with regards
to host species: *O. colligata* is found only in *Daphnia magna* (41), and the initial study describing
O. pajunii found it was easily transmittable between clones of *D. longispina*, but not infectious to
the two genotypes of *Daphnia magna* that were tested in lab assays (12). We confirmed MicG
infections in 8 host species from two different genera in nature, and we found that it is capable
of infecting allopatric *D. longispina* despite substantial geographic isolation. The broad host
range found for MicG is atypical but not unknown for microsporidia. For example, members of
the genus *Encephalitozoon* are able to infect a broad spectrum of mammalian and avian hosts
(42). *Encepahliozoon* spp. and *Ordospora* spp. form a common clade, indicating high genetic
relatedness of the two genera; it is possible that their mechanisms of infection and interaction
with host immune defense are similar. The specific determinants of infection success and host
specificity in microsporidia are still being discovered, but molecular mechanisms and specifically
genetic matching seem to be the most obvious target of further investigation (39).
546

Broadly speaking, studies of molecular patterns of infection have provided substantial evidence
for the importance of genetic compatibility between host and parasite (43). More specifically,
gene-by-gene interactions have been found to determine successful infection of *Daphnia* by its
parasites. For example, infections by two microsporidia, *O. colligata* and *Hamiltosporidium*
tvaerminnensis, were found to be largely determined by very few host resistance genes, with
some of the genes being common for infections with both parasites (44, 45). Similarly, infection
of a bacterial parasite of *Daphnia*, *Pasteuria ramosa*, is determined by several genes regulating
the host's resistance (46, 47) and few genes determining the parasite's infectivity (44, 48). *P.*
ramosa, similarly to MicG, is found to infect multiple *Daphnia* species (49, 50). The likelihood of
multiple host species being susceptible to the same parasite species increases with increasing
relatedness of the hosts (51, 52). As pathogens tend to consistently interact with the same
genes across the host species (53), it is likely that high similarity of immunity genes/proteins
among related host species enables a pathogen to infect multiple species. In the case of *P.*
ramosa, not only the genes but also the alleles that determine whether a spore can attack a
particular host individual are maintained across the *Daphnia* genus (54, 55). Hence the
bacterium is infectious to multiple *Daphnia* species, including a single strain being capable of
infections across host species, albeit rarely (54, 55). Given the substantial variation in
susceptibility to MicG among the tested *D. dentifera* (from 0 to 100% infection prevalence) and
D. longispina (0 to 90%) clones, and the broad range of host species of this microsporidium, it
seems plausible that alleles involved in susceptibility to MicG could be conserved across host
species, like in the case of *P. ramosa*. Future studies that explore the degree of host-parasite
genotype specificity (as done, for example, in Carius et al. (56)), as well as the structuring of the
genetic variation of the parasite by host species and geography (as done by Shaw et al. (57))
would help uncover the factors determining the likelihood of infection within and across host
species.
572
Genetic matching between host and parasite is just one of many factors determining infection
success in microsporidia (39); factors such as developmental stage and feeding behavior of the
host also seem relevant to the *Daphnia* - MicG interaction. For example, some microsporidia are
more infectious to their host in its early larval stages (58) whereas others are more successful
infecting older life stages (59). Our results indicate that MicG is generally more infectious to
younger *Daphnia*, although this effect seems to be clone-specific. The sister-microsporidian *O.*
colligata was also found to be more successful infecting younger *D. magna* than older ones
(60). A similar pattern of higher susceptibility of a younger host was found in *D. magna* exposed
to the bacterium *P. ramosa*, and the proposed explanation was that immune defense
mechanisms are less efficient in younger instars of *Daphnia* (61). In contrast, older *D. dentifera*
are more susceptible to the fungus *Metschnikowia bicuspidata*, possibly due to the higher
feeding rates of older (and, therefore, larger) hosts (62). Because *Daphnia* encounter parasites
while foraging for phytoplankton, feeding rates determine the contact rate of the host with many
parasites, including bacteria, fungi and microsporidia (60, 62–64). Even in cases where younger
hosts are more susceptible to parasites, variation in feeding rates might still play an important
role in determining patterns of infection. As higher contact rate with infectious spores can
increase the likelihood of becoming infected (62, 63, 65), host genotypes with higher feeding
rates (63, 66) can be more susceptible to parasitic infections than the slow feeders (63). Hence,

variation among genotypes in feeding behavior could be another factor driving the variation in
susceptibility to MicG observed among our *D. dentifera* clones.
593
While the infectivity of MicG largely varied between tested clones, the virulence was rather
uniform. We found a significant reduction in lifespan and reproduction of the host in only one
genotype; the other *Daphnia* genotypes seemed largely unaffected by MicG. Low virulence
could be one of the critical traits enabling MicG to generate a net positive outcome to its host
when a more virulent parasite is in the environment (as found by Rogalski et al. (6)) — low basal
virulence would require much less positive impact to tip the scale from parasitism to mutualism.
However, a different study on this system found a novel phenomenon of transgenerational
virulence, where the offspring of hosts exposed to MicG suffered reduced fitness; this indicates
that the virulence of MicG might primarily manifest in the progeny of exposed hosts (67).
Therefore, we recommend interpreting the findings of low within-generation virulence cautiously,
and at the same time recommend considering the impact of any symbiont on its host not only
based on a within-generation snapshot, but across generations as well. The clone that
expressed the strongest transgenerational virulence effect, the S clone (referred to as "S" also
in (67)), was also the most susceptible to MicG and suffered most from virulent effects of
infection in this study. The particularly strong effect on that host may be due to unintended
selection imposed as a result of our culturing – we maintain our lab *O. pajunii* culture in the S
clone; therefore, the parasite isolate that we used in this study is likely strongly adapted to
exploit this clone. While the high virulence in this host genotype might reflect selection in the
lab, that does not mean that such virulence is not also occurring in nature — it is likely that each
outbreak is composed of multiple MicG strains varying in their infectivity and virulence to
different clones, potentially leading to selection favoring the parasite strains best adapted to
exploit the most abundant hosts (48, 68). Future studies that explore variation in virulence of
different *O. pajunii* isolates, as well as the potential for rapid adaptation on the part of the
parasite, would help us better understand the ecological and evolutionary dynamics of this
system. Moreover, it will help determine whether some of the variation in fitness impacts of
infection observed in the field (6) result from variation in the virulence of the parasite due to host
and/or parasite genetic variation.
621
The virulence of MicG might be a result of its direct impact to the host's gut. The microsporidium
frequently covers most of the midgut area in heavily infected hosts. An earlier study found that
O. pajunii reduces the penetrability of the guts of infected hosts to other parasites (6), and our
study found changes in the morphology of the gut. Most notably, microvilli were not visible next
to epithelial cells with more developed infections, when the cluster had moved towards or into
the gut lumen. These changes are intriguing, as they suggest that *O. pajunii* infections should
strongly alter host interactions with other parasites and resources — both the reduced
penetrability and the loss of microvilli should impair resource assimilation. This would be further
accentuated if *Daphnia* infected with *O. pajunii* lower their feeding rate; illness mediated
anorexia is common in hosts (69), including *Daphnia* infected with other parasites (63, 70).
Diminished feeding rate would reduce the contact rate of the host with other parasites (thus
reducing the likelihood of infection (62–64, 71)) and host nutrition (which decreases host fitness
(63, 64)), making the beneficial impact of MicG contingent upon the presence of other parasites

and food resources. Together, these impacts on gut morphology – as well as potential impacts on feeding rate – have the potential to impact not only host fitness, but also ecosystem-level processes such as primary productivity and nutrient cycling. Given that *Daphnia* are the dominant grazers in many lakes, and the very high prevalence of infection in some populations (Figure 4), we propose that *O. pajunii* outbreaks might have important ecosystem-level consequences.

Our genetic analyses of the microsporidian symbiont of *Daphnia* formerly referred to as "MicG" (6, 9, 35) revealed that it belongs to *Ordospora pajunii* (12). It is found in North American lakes as well as coastal ponds in Finland, which suggests a very broad geographical distribution. It also has an intriguingly broad host distribution, infecting a wide range of *Daphnia* species as well as *Ceriodaphnia*. Our study found *O. pajunii* has modest effects on survival and reproduction within a generation, and prior work suggested context dependence of the fitness impact on hosts (6); moreover, other evidence suggests virulent effects might primarily occur in the next generation (67). Some of the virulence might relate to the destructive effects of the microsporidian on host gut morphology, with the potential for this to substantially alter interactions of this dominant herbivore with its resources. Altogether, this *Daphnia*-microsporidian system seems highly promising for future studies aimed at uncovering the ecology and evolution of host-parasite interactions in the wild.

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900   **Supplemental Materials**
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Cultivating MicG in the laboratory
Establishing lab cultures
We established protocols for maintaining MicG in the *D. dentifera* clone S. These cultures were
established in water from North Lake (Washtenaw County, Michigan, USA) that was filtered
(with Pall AE glass microfiber filters) in order to remove algae, cyanobacteria, and debris from
the water. To establish the MicG culture, we collected *D. dentifera* visibly infected with MicG
from Walsh Lake (Washtenaw County, Michigan, USA). We grouped >10 individuals in a 1.5 mL
centrifuge tube and ground them using a plastic pestle. We filled 24 centrifuge tubes (1.5 mL
volume capacity), each with 1 mL of filtered lake water and introduced a single 0-2 day old *D.*
dentifera (S clone) to each tube. Individuals were left in their tubes for 48 h to ingest the parasite
spores. After two days we transferred each host individual to a separate 50 mL beaker, which
we fed 20,000 cells/mL of *Ankistrodesmus falcatus* 3 times a week. We screened for infection
after seven days, then checked at 3 day intervals. Each individual that was found to be infected
was used to establish a separate 'farm'. New farms were started by moving a heavily infected
Daphnia (i.e. *Daphnia* having tens to hundreds of microsporidian spore clusters) into a 300 mL
beaker and adding 5 juveniles of the S clone. As the MicG farm grew, we increased its volume
to 1 L.
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Culture observations

Initially the number of infected *Daphnia* increases as the host population size increases. Due to
the near-constant shedding of spores, host offspring quickly become infected, increasing the
number of infected hosts. Soon after the host population size approaches the carrying capacity
of the farm, the infection prevalence among adults frequently reaches 90-100%. In high
prevalence farms, we tend to observe infection symptoms even in juveniles. We hypothesize
that this is due to high spore concentrations in the environment. If prevalence is low, infections
are infrequent in juveniles. The demography of the farm quickly shifts as the adults start
producing non-viable embryos or stop producing embryos. Shortly thereafter, the host
population collapses.
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932   **Molecular analyses**
933   *Accession numbers*
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935   **SSU: OQ754180**
936   **ITS: OQ754181**
937   **Whole genome:** In process
943   **Figure S1.** Alignment of proteins with the highest number of missense mutations (additional
944   file).
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948   **Figure S2.** Chitin synthase gene sequence alignment of *O. colligata*, MicG, *O. pajunii* and *E.*
949   *cuniculi*.
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951   **Parasite prevalence in natural populations**
952   The data on host range for daphnids in Southeastern Michigan came from a dataset that
953   focused on 15 lakes in Livingston and Washtenaw Counties (Table S1). All of these lakes are
954   stratified and include *D. dentifera* as a dominant member of the zooplankton. We also analyzed
955   one sample from Lake Erie.
956
957   **Table S1.** Lakes sampled from 2016-2022 that provided information on host range (all 15
958   lakes), on the dynamics of infection (lakes in blue), and from which samples were collected for
959   molecular analysis (lakes in red). Walsh Lake was the source of the MicG-infected individuals
960   that were used to start the lab cultures.
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Lake Name	Site	County	Latitude & Longitude	Max depth (m)
Appleton	Brighton	Livingston	42°30'37"N, 83°50'03"W	11.5
Bishop	Brighton	Livingston	42°30'04"N, 83°50'24"W	16.5
Bruin	Pinckney	Washtenaw	42°25'07"N, 84°02'23"W	14.5
Cedar	Waterloo	Washtenaw	42°18'52"N, 84°04'45"W	7
Crooked P	Pinckney	Washtenaw	42°25'11"N, 83°58'57"W	12
Crooked W	Waterloo	Washtenaw	42°19'32"N, 84°06'43"W	6
Gosling	Pinckney	Livingston	42°26'22"N, 84°00'12"W	6
Little Appleton	Brighton	Livingston	42°30'24"N, 83°50'19"W	6
Mill	Waterloo	Washtenaw	42°19'46"N, 84°05'27"W	6
North	Pinckney	Washtenaw	42°23'35"N, 84°00'23"W	17
Pickerel	Pinckney	Washtenaw	42°24'37"N, 83°58'58"W	16
Sullivan	Pinckney	Washtenaw	42°23'55"N, 84°03'25"W	6.5
Walsh	Waterloo	Washtenaw	42°20'15"N, 84°04'4"W	6
Whitmore	Brighton	Livingston & Washtenaw	42°25'42"N, 83°45'08"W	19.5
Woodland	Brighton	Livingston	42°33'12"N, 83°46'29"W	10.5

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965 **Figure S3.** Number of *D. dentifera* individuals that were examined for infection on each date in
966 the four study lakes.

972 **Table S2.** List of genomic data used for the phylogenomic analysis
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Genus	Species	Strain	Source	Accession
Ordospora	pajunii	MicG	JGI	
Ordospora	pajunii	FI-F-10	NCBI	GCA_021821965.1
Ordospora	colligata	OC4	NCBI	GCA_000803265.1
Ordospora	colligata	GB-EP-1	NCBI	GCA_004324935.1
Ordospora	colligata	FI-SK-17-1	NCBI	GCA_004325055.1

Ordospora	colligata	NO-V-7	NCBI	GCA_004324945.1
Encephalitozoon	cuniculi	GB-M1	NCBI	GCA_000091225.2
Encephalitozoon	intestinalis	ATCC50506	NCBI	GCA_000146465.1
Encephalitozoon	romaleae	SJ-2008	NCBI	GCA_000280035.2
Encephalitozoon	hellem	ATCC50504	NCBI	GCA_000277815.3
Nosema	apis	BRL01	NCBI	GCA_000447185.1
Nosema	ceranae	BRL	NCBI	GCA_004919615.1
Nosema	bombycis	CQ1	NCBI	GCA_000383075.1
Nosema	granulosis	Ou3-Ou53	NCBI	GCA_015832245.1
Enterospora	canceri	GB1	NCBI	GCA_002087915.1
Enterocytozoon	bieneusi	H348	NCBI	GCA_000209485.1
Enterocytozoon	hepatopenaei	CIBAehp1	NCBI	GCA_026692725.1
Hepatospora	eriocheir	GB1	NCBI	GCA_002087885.1
Vittaforma	corneae	ATCC50505	NCBI	GCA_000231115.1
Anncaliia	algerae	PRA339	NCBI	GCA_000385875.2
Edhazardia	aedis	USNM41457	NCBI	GCA_000230595.3
Tubulinosema	ratisbonensis	Franzen	NCBI	GCA_004000155.1
Thelohania	contejeani	T1	NCBI	GCA_014805555.1

Hamiltosporidium	magnivora	BE-OM-2	NCBI	GCA_004325065.1
Hamiltosporidium	tvaerminnensis	FI-OER-3-3	NCBI	GCA_022605425.1
Cucumispora	dikerogammari	Dv6	NCBI	GCA_014805705.1
Spraguea	lophii	Celtic_Deep	NCBI	GCA_001887945.1
Trachipleistophora	hominis		NCBI	GCA_000316135.1
Vavraia	culicis	floridensis	NCBI	GCA_000192795.1
Pseudoloma	neurophilia	MK1	NCBI	GCA_001432165.1
Nematocida	displodere	JUm2807	NCBI	GCA_001642395.1
Nematocida	parisii	ERTm1	NCBI	GCA_000250985.1
Nematocida	ausubeli	ERTm6	NCBI	GCA_000738915.1
Nematocida	ironsii	ERTm5	NCBI	GCA_001642415.1
Dictyocoela	roeselum	Ou19	NCBI	GCA_016255985.1
Dictyocoela	muelleri	Ou54	NCBI	GCA_016256075.1
Antonospora	locustae	CLX	NCBI	GCA_007674295.1
Amphiamblys	sp.	WSBS2006	NCBI	GCA_001875675.1
Metchnikovella	incurvata	LNA5	NCBI	GCA_003600395.1

980   **Host range**

981   **Table S3.** Proportion of clone S and *D. longispina* clones displaying visible infection.

Genotype	Proportion Infected
S	1
OLCH 17	0
STEC 8	0
STEC 49	0.8
WALD 12	0
WALD 37	0.9

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