Psychoactive plant- and mushroom-associated alkaloids from two behavior modifying

cicada pathogens

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Abstract

Entomopathogenic fungi routinely kill their hosts before releasing infectious spores, but select

species keep insects alive while sporulating, which enhances dispersal. Transcriptomics and

metabolomics studies of entomopathogens with post-mortem dissemination from their

parasitized hosts have unraveled infection processes and host responses, yet mechanisms

underlying active spore transmission by Entomophthoralean fungi in living insects remain

elusive. Here we report the discovery, through metabolomics, of the plant-associated

amphetamine, cathinone, in four *Massospora cicadina*-infected periodical cicada populations,

and the mushroom-associated tryptamine, psilocybin, in annual cicadas infected with

Massospora platypediae or *Massospora levispora*, which appear to represent a single fungal

species. The absence of some fungal enzymes necessary for cathinone and psilocybin

biosynthesis along with the inability to detect intermediate metabolites or gene orthologs are

consistent with possibly novel biosynthesis pathways in *Massospora*. The neurogenic activities

of these compounds suggest the extended phenotype of *Massospora* that modifies cicada

behavior to maximize dissemination is chemically-induced.

Introduction

Many animal parasites including viruses, horsehair worms, protists, and fungi modulate

the behavior of their hosts, and thereby increase disease transmission (*Berdoy et al., 2000;*

Gryganskyi et al., 2017; Hoover et al., 2011; Thomas et al., 2002). Each parasite possesses

adaptive traits that maximize dispersal, and often the modification of host behavior is interpreted

as a dispersal-enhancing "extended phenotype" of the parasite (*Dawkins, 1982; Hughes et al.,*

2013). "Summit disease" (SD) behavior, is an extended phenotype of multiple species of insect-

infecting (entomopathogenic) fungi, where parasitized insects ascend and affix to elevated

substrates prior to death, which facilitates post-mortem dissemination of spores later emitted

from their mummified carcasses (*Elya et al., 2018; Gryganskyi et al., 2017; Hughes et al.,*

2016; Roy et al., 2006). A more rarely seen extended phenotype among entomopathogenic fungi

is "active host transmission" (AHT) behavior where the fungus maintains or accelerates

"normal" host activity during sporulation, enabling rapid and widespread dispersal prior to host

death (*Hughes et al., 2016; Roy et al., 2006*).

The Entomophthorales (Zoopagomycota) are among the most important insect- and non-

insect arthropod-destroying fungi and include all known species with AHT behavior (*Roy et al.,*

2006, Spatafora et al., 2017). *Massospora* is only one of two known genera where AHT is the

only reported form of behavior modification across all known species. *Massospora* contains

more than a dozen obligate, sexually transmissible pathogenic species that infect at least 21

species of cicadas (Hemiptera) worldwide (*Ciferri et al., 1957; Kobayashi, 1951; Ohbayashi et*

al., 1999; Soper, 1963; Soper, 1974; Soper, 1981). Infectious asexual spores (conidia) are

actively disseminated from the posterior end of the infected cicada during mating attempts and

flights, which are not diminished despite these conspicuous infections (*Cooley et al., 2018;*

Soper 1963; Soper, 1974; White et al., 1983; Figure 1; Movie 1). Instead, hypersexual

behaviors are observed in *Massospora*-infected cicadas, where male cicadas, in addition to

typical mating behavior, also attract copulation attempts from conspecific males (*Cooley et al.,*

2018; Murphy and Redden, 2003). *Massospora* effectively hijacks cicadas, turning them into

efficient vectors for conidial transmission (*Cooley et al., 2018*).

Because of their ephemeral nature, obligate lifestyle, and large genome size,

Entomophthorales with both SD and AHT behaviors have been grossly underrepresented in *in*

vitro lab investigations as well as in phylogenetic and phylogenomic studies (*Gryganskyi et al.,*

2017; Spatafora et al., 2017). However, recent genomic, transcriptomic, and metabolomic

approaches have further helped elucidate important aspects of SD-inducing entomopathogens

(*Arnesen et al., 2018; De Fine Licht et al., 2017; Elya et al., 2018; Grell et al., 2011;*

Małagocka et al., 2015; Wrońska et al., 2018). Likewise, -omics based investigations of SD-

inducing Hypocrealean entomopathogens have helped unravel infection processes and host

responses, especially for the "zombie ant fungus" *Ophiocordyceps unilateralis* (*De Bekker et al.,*

2014; De Bekker et al., 2017; Fredericksen et al. 2017). This pathogen is thought to modify

host behavior via fungus-derived neurogenic metabolites and enterotoxins, thus providing a

chemical basis for this behavioral phenotype (*De Bekker et al., 2014; De Bekker et al., 2017*).

The mechanisms underlying AHT are completely unexplored, largely due to the inability to

axenically culture most Entomophthorales and rear colonies of their insect hosts (such as

cicadas) under laboratory conditions. Here, we applied global and targeted liquid

chromatography–mass spectrometry (LC-MS)-based metabolomics to freshly collected and

archived parasitized cicadas in order to identify candidate small molecules potentially

contributing to a hypersexual behavioral phenotype of three *Massospora* species (*Cooley et al.,*

2018) or more broadly to AHT (*Batko and Weiser, 1965; Hughes et al., 2016; Hutchison,*

1962; Roy et al., 2006).

Results

Morphology of *Massospora* specimens

Morphological studies were conducted to permit species-level identification of collected

specimens based on previously published studies (*Soper, 1963; Soper, 1974*). Conidia (n = 37)

and resting spore (n = 13) measurements were acquired from freshly collected *Mas. cicadina*-

infected periodical cicadas (*Magicicada* spp.) and *Mas. platypediae*-infected wing-banger annual

cicadas (*Platypedia putnami*), as well as from archived *Mas. levispora*-infected *Okanagana*

rimosa and Mas. cicadina-infected periodical cicadas (*Figure 1, Table 1*). Morphology of

conidia were studied in 15, 14, and 8 specimens of *Mas. cicadina* (*Mc*), *Mas. platypediae* (*Mp*),

and *Mas. levispora* (*Ml*), respectively, while morphology of resting spores was examined in 11, 1

and 1 specimens (*Table 2, Figure 1–figure supplement 1 & 2*). The conidial specimens of *Mas.*

cicadina-infected periodical cicadas spanned eight Broods (populations of periodical cicadas that

emerge in the same year and that tend to be geographically contiguous) and six of the seven

Magicicada species collected over 38 years and distributed across the eastern U.S., while *Mas.*

platypediae- and *Mas. levispora*-infected cicadas were from a single annual cicada populations

collected in New Mexico (2017) and Michigan (1998), USA, respectively (*Table 2, Figure 1–*

figure supplement 1 & 2).

Mean conidia (Mc = 15.4 μm x 16.0 μm and Ml = 8.8 μm x 14.3 μm) and resting spore

(Mc = 42.4 μm and Ml = 39.8 μm) dimensions for *Mas. cicadina* and *Mas. levispora* overlapped

with previously reported measurements (*Table 2, Figure 1–figure supplement 1 & 2*). In

contrast, spore dimensions (8 x 13.2 μm) in the majority of *Mas. platypediae* specimens fell

completely outside the reported range for this species (*Table 2, Figure 1–figure supplement 1*).

Interestingly, all the *Mas. platypediae* measurements fell within the reported range for *Mas.*

levispora, including a single resting spore specimen, which had not been previously observed for

Mas. platypediae (*Table 2, Figure 1–figure supplement 2*).

Phylogenetic relationships among *Massospora* morphotypes

To infer evolutionary relationships among collected specimens, phylogenetic analyses were

performed. Prior to this study, *Massospora* was represented in NCBI Genbank by a total of four

DNA sequences from a single isolate (ARSEF 374) of *Mas. cicadina* (NCBI Genbank accessions

EF392377, EF392548, EF392492, and DQ177436). A total of 18 isolates representing *Mas.*

cicadina (n = 12), *Mas. levispora* (n = 3)*,* and *Mas. platypediae* (n = 3) were used for single gene

phylogenetic studies, four of which were included as representatives isolates in the combined

phylogeny (*Table 1*). Reference LSU, SSU, and EFL DNA sequences for *Mas. cicadina*, *Mas.*

platypediae and *Mas. levispora* (MI) were deposited in NCBI Genbank (MH483009 -

MH483011, MH483015-MH483023 and MH547099).

Phylogenetic analysis of the partitioned individual alignments (data not shown) and

combined dataset (LSU+SSU) using maximum likelihood (ML) resolved all sampled

Massospora in a strongly supported monophyletic group sister to a clade containing

Entomophthora and *Arthrophaga* (*Figure 2*). EFL was excluded from the concatenated dataset

on account of its heterogeneous distribution (some taxa have EF1 and others have EFL; see

James et al., 2006) across the Entomophthorales taxa included in the phylogenetics analysis.

However representative sequences were deposited into Genbank for all three *Massospora* species

(see above). *Massospora cicadina* isolates formed a single lineage that encompassed all sampled

cicada broods and *Magicicada* species (data not shown). The previously deposited *Mas. cicadina*

ARSEF 374 was one exception as it aligned with *Entomophthora,* indicating a wrongly assigned

species to previously deposited DNA sequences in Genbank. To confirm this finding, we

successfully resampled and amplified the SSU region (deposited as Genbank accession

MH483023) from the physical specimen associated with ARSEF 374, which was 100% identical

to the other *Mas. cicadina* sequences from this study. *Mas. levispora* and *Mas. platypediae* did

not form distinct clades; instead, they appeared as a single lineage sister to *Mas. cicadina*

(*Figure 2*). Coupled with the morphological data, we propose two possible scenarios: 1) *Mas.*

levispora and *Mas. platypediae* comprise a single annual-cicada infecting *Massospora* species,

which occupies a broader geographic and host range than previously reported, or 2) *Mas.*

levispora and *Mas. platypediae* are two related species capable of infecting wing-banger cicadas.

Because more sampling is needed to resolve these phylogenetic findings, subsequent mentions of

Mas. platypediae from cicada host *Platypedia putnami* from New Mexico (NM), USA will be

referred to hereafter as *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM)*,* while *Mas. levispora* sensu stricto from its

cicada host *Okanagana rimosa* in Michigan (MI), USA will retain the designation of *Mas.*

levispora (MI).

Discovery of monoamine alkaloids using global metabolomics

LC-MS-based global metabolomics using high resolution, accurate mass Quadrupole Time of

Flight Liquid Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (QToF LC/MS) was performed on conidial

plugs (=exposed mass of conidia and host tissue) excised from *Mas. cicadina*-infected periodical

cicadas (*Magicicada* spp.; *Figure 1A*) and *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM)-infected wing-banger

cicadas (*Platypedia putnami*; *Figure 1A, Table 1*). A second global comparison was also

performed on conidial and resting spore plugs from *Mas. cicadina*-infected periodical cicadas

(*Table 1*). Posterior abdominal segments from healthy cicadas of both species were also sampled

as controls (*Table 1*). Each of the three sample types produced unique metabolome profiles,

while those of conidial plugs from the two *Massospora* species were more similar compared to

the cicada control. In total, 1,176 (678 positive and 489 negative ion mode) small molecule

spectra (free amino acids, phospholipids, ceramides, alkaloids, etc.) were differentially detected

between the two *Massospora* spp. including two notable monoamine alkaloids.

The amphetamine cathinone (*m/z* 150.0912), previously reported from the plant *Catha*

edulis (*Groves et al., 2015*) was detected only in the *Mas. cicadina* samples and not in the *Mas.*

aff. *levispora* (NM) conidial plugs nor the healthy cicada controls (*Figure 3*). Cathinone was

also detected in resting spore specimens in a second global metabolomics study between *Mas.*

cicadina resting spores, an independently collected population sampled from North Carolina

(NC), USA in 2017, and the initial conidial plugs from West Virginia (WV), USA in 2016.

However, the conidial plugs contained 4.61 ± 0.28 higher fold change compared to resting spores

(*Figure 3–figure supplement 1*). Fragmentation patterns for cathinone in *Mas. cicadina* conidial

and resting spore plugs matched the experimentally observed fragmentation patterns of a

commercially available DEA-exempt analytical standard used in this study; three fragments with

m/z less than 10 ppm mass error of those obtained from the analytical standard were recovered

(*Figure 4A-C*). Several cathinone pathway intermediates, including 1-phenylpropane-1,2-dione,

the metabolite immediately preceding cathinone, were putatively identified from the global

metabolomics output but fragmentation patterns did not fall within the accepted mass error limits

when compared to experimentally observed fragmentation patterns of a commercially available

analytical standard. Other pathway intermediates, initially identified from the global

metabolomics output, including benzaldehyde, were not explored further due to their

involvement in several divergent biosynthetic pathways (*Lomascolo et al., 1999*).

Cathinone CoA-dependent pathway intermediates were also monitored using a targeted

method with a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (QQQ-MS) system. Over 10 CoA species

were monitored including all five hypothesized cathinone CoA-dependent pathway

intermediates, Trans-cinnamoyl-CoA, 3-Hydroxy-3-phenylpropionyl-CoA, 3-oxy-3-

phenylpropionyl-CoA, benzoyl-CoA (*Groves et al. 2015*). The most abundant CoAs detected

were Acetyl-CoA and Malonyl-CoA, yet none of the cathinone CoA-dependent pathway

intermediates monitored were detected (*data not shown*).

Psilocybin (*m/z* 285.0973), a psychoactive tryptamine produced by about 200

Agaricalean mushroom species (*Kosentka et al., 2013*), was among the most abundant

metabolites detected in *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) conidial plugs but was not detected in *Mas.*

cicadina or the cicada controls (*Figure 3*). Fragmentation patterns for psilocybin in *Mas.* aff.

levispora (NM) plugs matched the experimentally observed fragmentation patterns of a

commercially available DEA-exempt analytical standard used in this study; eight fragments with

m/z less than 10 ppm mass error of those obtained from the analytical standard were recovered

(*Figure 4D-F*). One intermediate in the psilocybin biosynthetic pathway in *Psilocybe cubensis*

mushrooms (*Fricke et al., 2017*), 4-hydroxytryptamine, was identified from the global

metabolomics output for both *Mas. cicadina* and *Mas*. aff. *levispora* (NM) but fragmentation

patterns could not be compared to an analytical standard since 4-HT is not commercially

available for purchase. Analytical stands for other pathway intermediates either don't exist or

lack DEA-exempt formulations.

Quantification of cathinone, psilocybin, and psilocin using targeted metabolomics

Cathinone, psilocybin, and psilocin were monitored individually using QQQ-MS (*Figure 5A*).

We performed targeted LC-MS/MS absolute quantification of cathinone, psilocybin, and

psilocybin's biologically active bioconversion product psilocin, on individual conidial and

resting spore plug extracts from all three cicada-fungal pairs (*Table 1*) including *Mas. levispora*

(MI)-infected Say's cicadas (*Okanagana rimosa*), which were excluded from the global

metabolomics on account of their previous long-term storage in ethanol. Given its taxonomic

overlap with *Mas*. aff. *levispora* (NM), we hypothesized that it might also contain psilocybin.

The posterior abdomen of cicada controls used for global metabolomics as well as independently

collected healthy *Magicicada* (n = 10) and *Platypedia* (n = 10) cicadas were assessed for all

three compounds. All samples were quantified against standard curves generated from DEA-

exempt analytical standards. Cathinone was quantified in three collections of *Mas. cicadina*: one

from Brood V (2016) in WV, one from brood VI in NC, USA in 2017, and a third from archived

collection spanning four broods (VIII, IX, XXII, and XXIII) collected from 2001-2003 (*Cooley*

et al., 2018).

Cathinone was present in 4 of 4 Brood VI *Mas. cicadina* resting spore plugs and 6 of 24

Brood V *Mas. cicadina* conidial plugs and was quantifiable in concentrations from $44.3 - 303.0$

ng / infected cicada in four of six Brood V fungal plugs (*Figure 5–figure supplement 1*). From

the archived collection, cathinone was present and quantifiable in concentrations of 68.9 and

80.1 ng / infected cicada from 2 of 13 resting spore plugs spanning two separate broods (*Figure*

5–figure supplement 1). A Brood V *Mas. cicadina* conidial plug extraction that had 4-months

earlier yielded a total of 246 ng of cathinone and served as a positive control in the absolute

quantification of archived samples was found to contain 116 ng, a notable reduction from the

previous time point (*Figure 5–figure supplement 1*). This is not unexpected given the labile

nature of amphetamines (*Kalix, 1988*).

Psilocybin was detected in 11 of 11 assayed *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) plugs and 7 of 8

assayed *Mas. levispora* (MI) plugs while psilocin was detected in 9 of 11 plugs and 0 of 8 plugs,

respectively (*Figure 5*). Of these, psilocybin was quantifiable only in *Mas. levispora* (MI), with

concentrations from 7.3 to 19.4 ng / infected cicada across 6 fungal plugs (*Figure 5–figure*

supplement 1). Psilocin was detected only in *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) in concentrations from

0.1 to 12.6 µg / infected cicada across 9 fungal plugs (*Figure 5–figure supplement 1*).

To further confirm the fungal origin of monoamine alkaloids from *Massospora*-infected

cicadas, we screened independent healthy populations of the two cicada hosts included in the

global metabolomics study, *Platypedia putnami* from CA and Brood VII *Magicicada*

septendecim from NY, for the presence/absence of cathinone, psilocybin and psilocin. These

samples were screened using a high-resolution, accurate mass Orbitrap LC-MS, which allowed

for targeted fragmentation of individual alkaloids. Sampling included five outwardly

asymptomatic males and females for each cicada species. Similar to data from cicada controls in

the global metabolomics study, results of these studies failed to detect any of the three monitored

compounds from macerated posterior abdominal sections including their bacteriomes, which in

some cicada species have been shown to contain cryptic fungal partners in the secondary-

metabolite-rich Hypocreales (*Matsuura et al., 2018; Figure 5–figure supplement 1*).

Searches for genetic mechanisms of psilocybin and cathinone biosynthesis in *Massospora*

Having confidently detected and quantified cathinone, psilocybin, and psilocin from

independently collected *Massospora* populations, we next searched for candidate genes

underlying cathinone and psilocybin biosynthesis in assembled *Mas. cicadina* and *Mas.* aff.

levispora (NM) metagenomes (*Figure 6; Figure 7*)**.**

We first used tBLASTn searches of each *Massospora* metagenome assembly using four

characterized psilocybin biosynthesis proteins from *Psilocybe cubensis* (*Fricke et al., 2017*) and

all 42 candidate cathinone biosynthesis proteins identified from RNA sequence data for *Catha*

edulis (*Groves et al., 2015*). After failing to retrieve *Massospora* sequences orthologous to genes

from the characterized *Psilocybe* psilocybin or predicted *Catha* cathinone pathways in either of

our two *Massospora* metagenomes, we developed eight primer sets with various levels of

degeneracy in attempt to amplify *Psilocybe* and *Psilocybe*-like psilocybin biosynthesis genes

from multiple fungal plugs of *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) in addition to NM-02 from which the

metagenomic data was generated (*Table S1*). Fungal plugs from *Mas. levispora* (MI) were also

screened for psilocybin biosynthesis genes using the same primer sets. No DNA sequence data

were available in GenBank for cathinone biosynthesis (only RNA sequences were deposited in

Genbank Short-Read Archive) so primers were not developed. All primer sets failed to amplify

Psi-specific PCR targets in any of the assayed *Massospora* DNA templates.

We next searched for all sequences containing protein domains found among the

enzymes of each biosynthetic pathway (*Fricke et al., 2017; Groves et al., 2015; Table S2*). In

each metagenome, we identified multiple genes representative of all classes of enzymes in each

pathway with two exceptions (*Figure 6–figure supplement 1*; *Table S3-S4*). Although at least

one candidate homolog could be identified for 7 of the 8 genes predicted to play a role in

cathinone biosynthesis in both the *Mas. cicadina* (cathinone +) and *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM)

(cathinone -) metagenomes, we failed to detect genes encoding phenylalanine ammonia-lyase

(*PAL*) in either metagenome (*Figure 6–figure supplement 2)*. Similarly, in both the *Mas.* aff.

levispora (NM) (psilocybin +) and *Mas. cicadina* (psilocybin -) metagenomes, we identified at

least one candidate homolog for 3 of the 4 genes participating in psilocybin biosynthesis, the

exception being 4-hydroxytryptamine kinase (*PsiK*) in either metagenome (*Figure 7–figure*

supplement 1). The failure to detect *PAL* and *PsiK* homologs could be attributed to the

fragmented and incomplete nature of the *Mas. cicadina* and *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM)

metagenomes (which had N50 values of 3457bp and 3707bp, respectively), evolution of an

alternate enzyme mechanism in *Massospora*, or the execution of these steps either directly or

indirectly by the host. Further investigations with higher quality genome assemblies of fungi and

hosts are needed to test these hypotheses.

To narrow down our list of candidate genes that may underlie the biosynthesis of these

natural products, we employed a two-pronged approach to gather additional lines of evidence

that would suggest participation in a common secondary metabolite pathway (*Slot, 2017; Wolf et*

al., 2015). First, we looked for evidence of coordinated regulation from shared nucleotide

sequence motifs in the upstream non-coding region of each candidate sequence (*Figure 6–figure*

supplement 1). We also looked for evidence of gene clustering among homologs of the candidate

sequences across a phylogenetically diverse database of 375 fungal genomes, since clustering

could not be assessed in the fragmented *Massospora* metagenomes (*Figure 6–figure supplement*

1; Table S5). The two candidate regulatory motifs recovered upstream of candidate cathinone

biosynthesis genes in the *Mas. cicadina* assembly (cathinone +) were found upstream of the

same predicted hydratase, transaminase and reductase genes (*Figure 6–figure supplement 3,*

Table S6). Only two of the seven candidate cathinone regulatory motifs in the *Mas.* aff. *levispora*

(NM) assembly (cathinone -) were found upstream of transaminase genes, while the rest were

not (*Figure 6–figure supplement 3, Table S6*). Two of five motifs found upstream of candidate

psilocybin biosynthesis genes in the *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) assembly (psilocybin +) were

present upstream of methyltransferase genes, while the single motif found in the *Mas. cicadina*

assembly (psilocybin -) was not (*Figure 7–figure supplement 2, Table S6*).

Searches of a local database of 375 publicly available fungal genomes identified 2396

gene clusters containing homologs of at least three candidate cathinone genes, but none

contained a transaminase, which is predicted to be required for cathinone synthesis (*Figure 6–*

figure supplement 2). We also found 309 clusters containing homologs of at least three

candidate psilocybin genes, 175 of which contain a methyltransferase, which catalyzes the

formation of psilocybin (*Figure 7–figure supplement 1; Table S7*). One notable locus in

Conidiobolus coronatus (Entomophthorales) contained four aromatic-L-amino-acid

decarboxylases and one methyltransferase (both functions are required for psilocybin

biosynthesis), in addition to one helix-loop-helix transcription factor, one inositol phosphatase,

and various amino acid, sugar and inorganic ion transporters (*Table S8*).

To test for psilocybin biosynthesis that could result from this single locus uncovered in

Conidiobolus coronatus (Entomophthorales), eight representative *C. coronatus* isolates from a

diverse set of hosts (*Table S9*) were acquired from the Agricultural Research Service Collection

of Entomopathogenic Fungal Cultures (ARSEF). The eight isolates were used in both live-

plating (direct exposure to spores) and injection entomopathogenicity assays on *Galleria*

mellonella, a model insect for entomopathogenicity studies (*Panaccione and Arnold, 2017*). By

24-hours post-inoculation, all fungus-inoculated individuals were dead and by 48-hours all live

plated individuals were symptomatic and many had died. Symptomatic individuals were

collected at 48-hour post-inoculation and immediately placed at -80°C prior to maceration to

permit screening of psilocybin and psilocin from both infected larvae and pure cultures of each

isolate using a high resolution, accurate mass Orbitrap LC-MS. Neither compound was detected

in macerated infected larvae or week-old fungal cultures of these same isolates on Sabouraud

Dextrose Yeast Agar. However, *C. coronatus* isolate ARSEF 8715 (NRRL 28638), from which

the genome and candidate locus was obtained, was not available and therefore was not included

in the study.

Since genes encoding the synthesis of specialized secondary metabolites are occasionally

inherited through non-vertical means, we assessed the potential for horizontal gene transfer of

cathinone and psilocybin biosynthesis genes by constructing maximum likelihood phylogenetic

trees for 22 high quality candidate pathway genes from *Mas. cicadina* and *Mas.* aff. *levispora*

(NM) (*Figure 6–figure supplement 4; Figure 7–figure supplement 3; Table S10-S11*). High

quality candidate genes were defined as sharing putative regulatory motifs in their 5' upstream

non-coding regions with either a transaminase or methyltransferase gene (which encode enzymes

that produce cathinone or psilocybin, respectively), or homologous to genes in the cluster of

interest in *C. coronatus*. All gene trees of these candidates had topologies consistent with vertical

inheritance among the Entomophthorales with highly similar homologs present in other

Entomophthoralean fungi. The phylogenies of candidate psilocybin pathway sequences gleaned

from the preliminary metagenomic data are consistent with an origin of psilocybin biosynthesis

independent from mushroom-forming Basidiomycetes, but other evolutionary origins cannot be

ruled out until the exact genes underlying this pathway are confirmed.

Phylogenomic resolution of Entomophthorales fungi and their behavior-modifying

lifestyles

The metabolomics-based discovery of cathinone and psilocybin production in *Massospora* raises

interesting questions about the broader evolutionary history of behavior-modifying traits across

the Entomophthorales. In order to model evolution of such traits and establish whether AHT

behavior seen in *Massospora* and other close relatives, including the only other known AHT-

exclusive genus *Strongwellsea* (*Batko and Weiser, 1965; Roy et al., 2006*), reflects a single

origin or multiple independent origin events, we conducted a phylogenetic analysis of a genome-

scale data set of > 200 conserved orthologous proteins deduced from the *Mas. cicadina* and *Mas.*

aff. *levispora* (NM) metagenomes along with 7 other representative taxa (*Figure 8–figure*

supplement 1). These taxa span 6 of 20 described Entomophthorales genera and 3 of 4 genera

with known active host transmission (*Hodge et al., 2017; Humber, 2012; Roy et al., 2006*).

Mapping of behavioral traits and external sporulation patterns onto the inferred

phylogeny from the concatenated genome-wide alignment revealed three possible parsimonious

reconstructions of AHT in Entomophthorales fungi (*Figure 8*). These topologies include either

two independent gains of AHT, one of which is followed by a single loss, or a single gain in the

most recent shared ancestor of *Massospora*, *Entomophthora*, and *Strongwellsea* followed by

three losses, the latter of which suggests this behavior modification may have been the key

innovation that led to the diversification of the Entomophthorales. At the same time, AHT

entomopathogens exhibit a high degree of host specificity compared to their summit disease

pathogens (*Figure 8–figure supplement 2*).

Follow-up metabolomics studies of other AHT fungi will likely help resolve these

relationships especially if AHT was independently acquired by *Strongwellsea*.

Discussion

One of the least explored frontiers in host-parasite interactions is the molecular basis for

behavioral modification of hosts by fungal pathogens that promotes disease transmission. Recent

studies of entomopathogenic *Ophiocordyceps* (Ascomycota) have identified neurogenic

metabolites and enterotoxins that are possibly contributing to host manipulation (*De Bekker et*

al., 2017; Hughes, 2013). Here, we report the surprising discovery that two species of

Massospora, a genus of obligate entomopathogenic fungi infecting cicadas, produce

psychoactive compounds during infection. These compounds are cathinone, an amphetamine

only previously known from plants, and psilocybin, a tryptamine only previously known from

Basidiomycete mushrooms. Prior work has demonstrated that *Massospora* can modify host

behavior and we provide evidence for a chemical basis for this manipulation. This is the first

evidence of amphetamine production in fungi and of psilocybin production outside the

Basidiomycota.

Without exposure studies involving healthy cicadas (nymphs and adults), the

mechanism(s) by which monoamine alkaloids modify cicada behaviors cannot be fully resolved.

However, previous arthropod exposure studies have provided extensive insight into the effects of

amphetamine and psilocybin on various behaviors (*Brookhart et al., 1987; Frischknecht and*

Waser, 1978; Witt, 1971). For example, low doses (1-12 μg) of amphetamine similar to the

cathinone levels detected in *Mas. cicadina* increased intraspecific aggression in ants

(*Frischknecht and Waser, 1978*) and significantly depleted biogenic amines, altering feeding

behavior in adult blow flies (*Phormia regina*) by decreasing responsiveness to weak gustatory

stimuli (*Brookhart et al., 1987*). Psilocybin ingestion had less observable impact on behavior

compared to amphetamine for the limited number of arthropods observed (*Witt, 1971*), but still

may antagonize certain mycophagous insects that feed broadly on dung-loving basidiomycetes,

thus conferring an evolutionary advantage to psilocybin-producing mushrooms (*Reynolds et al.,*

2018). Psilocybin may also confer protection against predation, competition, and/or parasitism

for a select few insects that exhibit indifference to psilocybin. For example, the dark-winged

fungus gnat (Sciaridae), can successfully complete its lifecycle in fruiting bodies of psilocybin-

containing *Psilocybe cyanescens* (*Awan et al., 2018*). Likewise, leafcutter ants (*Acromyrmex*

lobicornis) have been observed actively foraging on *Psilocybe coprophila* fruiting bodies in

Argentina, transporting basidiocarps back into the nest, possibly for defense purposes

(*Masiulionis et al., 2013*). Although the effect of psilocybin on *Mas. levispora* (MI) differs

somewhat in that the production of these compounds seem to benefit the parasite more than the

host, the psilocybin may offer the insect some protection against attacks by the parasitoid fly

Emblemasoma auditrix (Diptera: Sarcophagidae) (*Soper et al., 1976*).

While these secondary metabolites from *Massospora*, especially cathinone, may help

improve endurance required to engage with other conspecifics given their debilitating infections,

activity-level effects of amphetamine and psilocybin cannot easily explain the display of female-

typical courtship behaviors by male cicadas (*Cooley et al., 2018*), except possibly in *P. putnami*

(*Murphy and Redden, 2003*). Infected *P. putnami* males were found to produce significantly

fewer crepitations (wing tapping behaviors required for mating) per observation period (*Murphy*

and Redden, 2003). Fewer crepitations are associated with female-typical behavior, and the

manifestation of these behaviors in males may indicate impaired temporal processing, a known

effect of psilocybin in vertebrates (*Wittmann et al., 2007*). However, the atypical mating

behaviors of other cicada species may be better explained by *Massospora*-mediated hormonal

changes incidental to amphetamine and psilocybin production. For example, 2-hydroxyestradiol,

a catechol estrogen and metabolite of estradiol and 3-O-acetylecdysone 2-phosphate, a

metabolite of ecdysone, a steroidal prohormone of the major insect molting hormone 20-

hydroxyecdysone, were both detected based on *m/z* and found to be upregulated in male

Platypedia putnami with *Mas*. aff. *levispora* (NM)-infections compared to a mixed sex group

Magicicada septendecim with *Mas. cicadina*-infections and healthy controls using global

metabolomics (data not shown). These hormones may accumulate as a result of disruption of

typical pathways (i.e. castration of testis) or they may be fungus-derived. Comparisons of *Mas.*

aff. *levispora* (NM) fragmentation patterns with experimentally observed analytical standards are

needed to validate these preliminary findings. Nevertheless, the differentially expressed

"hypersexualization" between conidial- and resting spore-infected cicadas seems to support the

latter hypothesis since changes in male behaviors cannot be incidental effects of castration or

infection, or the observed behaviors would be seen in hosts accumulating either spore type. The

basis of hypersexualization remains unknown; the compounds we identified may be involved

wholly or partly in this phenomenon, and/or may serve other roles outside this observed

phenotype.

Culturable fungi have yielded many antimicrobial drugs, medications, and industrial

enzymes over the last century. The discovery of amphetamine production in fungi as well

psilocybin production in the Zoopagomycota is consistent with the breadth of diverse secondary

metabolite synthesis pathways that have evolved in fungi. However, the discovery of these

alkaloids with limited genetic evidence of a common biosynthetic pathway raises questions about

their proposed enzymatic route. The lack of evidence of a fungal kinase, an enzyme class which

catalyzes the phosphotransfer step in psilocybin biosynthesis and of phenylalanine ammonia

lyase (PAL), an enzyme class that catalyzes a reaction converting L-phenylalanine to ammonia

and trans-cinnamic acid in the early steps of cathinone biosynthesis, coupled with the lack of

many of these same pathway metabolites seems to support novel or altered biosynthetic

pathways for both compounds.

Convergent pathways for de novo metabolite synthesis are known from fungi, such as

pyridoxine biosynthesis in the phytopathogenic fungus *Cercospora nicotianae* (*Ehrenshaft et*

al., 1999). Likewise, psychoactive cannabinoids, well known from *Cannabis sativa*, have been

recently confirmed from liverwort, providing a marked example of convergent evolution of

bioactive plant secondary metabolites (*Chicca et al. 2018*). Similarly, β-carboline alkaloids, are

found in both plants and fungi, including in the Entomophthoralean fungus, *Conidiobolus*

coronatus, where it is thought to interfere with insect serotonin levels and larval development

(*Wrońska et al., 2018*).

The discovery of cathinone in *Massospora*-infected cicadas also raises interesting

questions about the biological origin of amphetamine production in *Catha* plants and the

possibility of cryptic fungal partners possibly related to *Massospora* involved in its biosynthesis.

Over the last few decades, fungal endophytes have been identified as the source of ergot alkaloid

production in fescue *(Festuca* spp.) and morning glories (*Ipomoea* spp.) (*Kucht et al., 2004;*

Lyons et al., 1986). Culture-based studies of *Catha edulis* (*Alhubaishi and Abdel-Kader, 1991;*

Mahhoud, 2000) and ephedrine-producing *Ephedra nebrodensis* (*Peláez et al., 1998*), have

uncovered a diverse assortment of fungi, none of which have been screened for cathinone

production. Interestingly, at least two cicada genera have been reported feeding on *Ephedra*

plants (*Sanborn and Phillips, 2011; Wang et al., 2017*), which may indicate a tolerance to these

compounds that are known to be toxic to other insects including bees (*Detzel and Wink, 1993*).

The results of this study provide a strong impetus for enhanced screening of

Ephedraceous and Celastraceous plants for alkaloid-producing endophytes that may also have

entomopathogenic capabilities. Interestingly, several recent studies have elucidated such

tripartite relationships between insects, entomopathogenic fungi with known endophytic

capability, and plant hosts whereby plants supply fungi with photosynthate in exchange for

insect-derived nitrogen (*Barelli et al., 2015; Behie et al., 2012; Behie et al., 2017*).

Similarly, despite the very recent discovery of Hypocrealean fungal symbionts from the

fat bodies surrounding the bacteriomes and/or the well-developed surface sheath cells of more

than a dozen cicada species native to Japan (*Matsuura et al., 2018*), our results do not support

the presence of cryptic domesticated monoamine alkaloid-producing fungal symbionts in the

posterior region of healthy or outwardly asymptomatic wing-banger and periodical cicadas.

Further studies should focus on resolving whether such domesticated symbionts are present in

any North American cicada and how these fungi, if present, may interact with obligate pathogens

such as *Massospora*.

The obligate lifestyle and ephemeral nature of many Entomophthoralean fungi have long

constrained our understanding of these early diverging entomopathogens despite up to a century

of observational studies into their behavior-modifying capabilities. We anticipate these

discoveries will foster a renewed interest in early diverging fungi and their pharmacologically

important secondary metabolites, which may serve as the next frontier for novel drug discovery

and pave the way for a systems biology approach for obligate fungal pathogens spanning the

known diversity of Kingdom Fungi.

Methods

Sampling of healthy and fungus-infected cicadas

Sampling of freshly infected and asymptomatic wing-banger cicadas and Brood VII periodical

cicadas was carried out on private lands in CA (2018), NM (2017), and NY (2018) with

permission from individual landowners. Infected Say's cicada and Brood V periodical cicadas

were collected from university-owned properties in MI (1998) and WV (2016), respectively.

Collection of infected and healthy cicadas from all locations did not require permits. In CA,

cicadas were collected under Exemption 5 of California Code of Regulations Section 650, Title

14 (https://nrm.dfg.ca.gov/FileHandler.ashx?DocumentID=157389&inline).

From May 28 to June 6, 2016, newly emerged Brood V 17-year periodical cicadas were

visually inspected for *Massospora* fungal infections on the campus of West Virginia University

in Morgantown, West Virginia, USA. Individuals with visible fungal plugs were transferred

individually to sterile 20 mL vials, transported to the laboratory, and stored in a -20 C freezer

until processing. Samples were obtained from 95 infected cicadas, of which 47 were from *Mag.*

cassini, 41 from *Magicicada septendecim*, and seven from *Mag. septendecula*. A similar number

of males and females were sampled across the three Brood V species, with 53 from females and

50 from males.

On June 1, 2016, additional geographically separated Brood V cicada populations were

visually inspected for fungal infections. Seven infected specimens of *Mag. septendecim* and one

of *Mag. cassini* were recovered from Hocking Co., OH. Concurrently, a co-author provided an

additional 34 infected Brood V specimens of *Mag. septendecim* collected from across five OH

counties including Ashland, Cuyahoga, Hocking, Licking, and Lorain counties. Eight female,

Massospora-infected, Brood VI specimens of *Magicicada septendecim* were collected in June,

2017 from North Carolina. All samples were collected and stored as previously described.

Twenty-three *Mas. cicadina*-infected specimens of *Magicicada* collected from 1978-

2002 were provided from the University of Connecticut, where they had been stored at room

temperature, dried and pinned, since their collection. A second collection from Mount St. Joseph

University provided fungal plugs from seven *Mas. cicadina*-infected specimens of *Magicicada*

collected from 1989-2008, three of which were 13-year cicadas and four were 17-year cicadas.

In addition to periodic cicadas, two species of annual cicadas also were sampled and

included in this study. On June 4, 2017, newly emerged banger-wing cicadas (*Platypedia*

putnami) were inspected for *Massospora* infections 12 km northeast of Gallina, NM along the

Continental Divide Trail. Sixteen infected individuals and one outwardly asymptomatic

individual (to serve as a negative control) were identified and sampled as described above.

Nine *Mas. levispora*-infected specimens of *Okanagana rimosa* were collected by John

Cooley from the University of Michigan Biological Station, Cheboygan and Emmet Counties,

MI on June 20, 1998 (*Cooley et al., 2018; Cooley, 1999*). Infected individuals as well as

outwardly asymptomatic individuals were placed immediately in individual 20-ml screw-cap

vials containing 95% ethanol. Specimens were completely submerged and stored at 4 C until

October 2017, when specimens were sent to WVU for processing.

Two independent populations of healthy cicadas, wing-banger cicadas from Trinity

County, CA, USA and Brood VII periodical cicadas (*Mag. septendecim*) from Onondaga Hill,

NY were sampled in early June, 2018 to serve as negative controls for targeted metabolomics.

Five males and five female cicadas were collected for each cicada species, transferred

individually to sterile 25-50 mL vials, and stored in a -80 C freezer until processing.

Cicadas were processed aseptically, with half of the visible fungal plug removed with a

sterile scalpel and transferred to a 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube for DNA extraction. Controls

were processed similarly, where half of the most posterior segments as well as underlying host

tissues were sampled. A majority of the remaining plug from infected individuals were used for

global metabolomics analyses. Dry plugs were transferred aseptically to sterile 1.5 mL

microcentrifuge tubes and stored at -80 C. A small sampling of spores was retained for

morphological studies, although not all specimens were examined.

Morphological studies of *Massospora* spp.

Given the scarcity of *Massospora* sequences from NCBI GenBank, morphological comparisons

were necessary to determine if data on putatively assigned *Massospora* species agreed with that

of previously reported measurements for conidial and resting spore stages (*Soper, 1963; Soper,*

1974). A portion of select fungal spore masses was harvested with a sterile scalpel and mounted

in lactophenol for examination with light field microscopy. Slip covers were fastened with nail

polish to allow slides to be archived and reexamined when necessary. Mean conidial/resting

spore length x width and cicada host provided the main criteria to differentiate *Massospora*

species. Slides were examined and photographed using a Nikon Eclipse E600 compound

microscope (Nikon Instruments, Melville, New York) equipped with a Nikon Digital Sight DS-

Ri1 high-resolution microscope camera. A sampling of 25 spores from each slide mount were

measured using Nikon NIS-Elements BR3.2 imaging software. A total of 51 *Massospora*-

infected cicadas were examined including 26 *Mas. cicadina* (15 conidial and 11 resting spore

isolates), nine *Mas. levispora* (eight conidial and one resting spore isolates), and 15 *Mas.*

platypediae (14 conidial isolates and one resting spore isolate).

DNA extraction, amplification, sequencing, and assembly

Fungal genomic DNA was extracted from harvested fungal plugs using a modified Wizard kit

(Promega, Madison, WI, USA) as previously described (*Short et al., 2015*). DNA was suspended

in 75 µl Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer and stored at -20 C. Portions of the nuclear 18S (SSU) and 28S

(LSU) ribosomal DNA regions were amplified with the primer combinations NS24/NSSU1088R

(*Hodge et al., 2017*) and LR0R/LR5 (*Vilgays and Hester, 1990*) using BioLine PCR kits

(Bioline USA Inc.,Taunton, MA, USA). EFL, an EF-like gene found in some groups of early

diverging fungi including the Entomophthorales, was amplified using primers EF1-983F and

EF1aZ-1R (*James et al., 2006*). Eight degenerate primers pairs (*Table S1*), three of which were

validated against a positive control, were designed to target three psilocybin biosynthesis

enzymes, PsiD (l-tryptophan decarboxylase), PsiK (4-hydroxytryptamine kinase), and PsiM

(norbaeocystin methyltransferase), described from hallucinogenic mushrooms, *Psilocybe*

cubensis and *Psilocybe cyanescens* (*Fricke et al., 2017, Reynolds et al., 2018*), were used to

attempt to amplify *Psilocybe* psilocybin biosynthesis genes in *Mas. platypediae*.

PCR conditions were as follows. LSU: initial denaturation at 94°C for 2 minutes, 35

cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 seconds, annealing at 51.1°C for 45 seconds, and

elongation at 72°C for 90 seconds, and final elongation at 72°C for 5 minutes; SSU: initial

denaturation at 94°C for 5 minutes, 36 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 seconds, annealing

at 49°C for 30 seconds, and elongation at 72°C for 60 seconds, and final elongation at 72°C for 7

minutes. EFL: initial denaturation at 94°C for 5 minutes, 30 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 60

seconds, annealing at 54°C for 60 seconds, and elongation at 72°C for 90 seconds, and final

elongation at 72°C for 7 minutes. PsiD: initial denaturation at 95°C for 4 minutes, 30 cycles of

denaturation at 95°C for 45 seconds, annealing at 61°C for 45 seconds, and elongation at 72°C

for 45 seconds, and final elongation at 72°C for 7 minutes. PsiK: initial denaturation at 95°C for

5 minutes, 35 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 45 seconds, annealing at 52.5°C for 50 seconds,

and elongation at 72°C for 50 seconds, and final elongation at 72°C for 5 minutes. PsiM: initial

denaturation at 95°C for 5 minutes, 35 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 45 seconds, annealing

at 54°C for 50 seconds, and elongation at 72°C for 40 seconds, and final elongation at 72°C for 5

minutes.

Amplified products were visualized with SYBR gold (Invitrogen, Grand Island, NY,

USA), and then were loaded onto a 1.0-1.5%, wt/vol agarose gel made with 0.5-1% Tris-borate-

EDTA buffer (Amresco, Solon, OH, USA). Psilocybin biosynthesis (Psi) products were cleaned

with Zymo Research (Irvine, CA, USA) DNA Clean and Concentrator-5 kit. All products were

purified with ExoSAP-IT (Affymetrix, Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA) and submitted to Eurofins

MWG Operon (Huntsville, AL, USA) for Sanger sequencing. Chromatograms were assembled

and inspected using Codon Code aligner and phylogentic analyses conducted using MEGA 7

(*Kumar et al., 2016*).

The *Mas. platypediae* (syn. *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM)) metagenome assembly was

generated from 390 Million 2x150 bp raw reads. Reads were quality trimmed with sickle using

default parameters (*Joshi and Fass, 2011*). Metagenome assembly was performed with megahit

with "--presets meta-sensitive" option and utilizing GPU cores for accelerated matching speed to

produce a genome assembly of ~3 Gb (2.1 million contigs; N50= 2784 bp). The *Mas. cicadina*

assembly was generated with SPAdes using default parameters. Both assemblies were further

cleaned for vector and primer contamination with NCBI vecscreen protocol

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/vecscreen/) and implemented in package

(https://github.com/hyphaltip/autovectorscreen). Several rounds of BLASTN based screening

were applied to remove contaminated contigs or regions. Further screening of contigs were

performed during genome submission process to NCBI to remove highly similar matches to

plant or insect sequences. These Whole Genome Shotgun projects have been deposited at

DDBJ/ENA/GenBank under the accessions QKRY00000000 (*Mas. platypediae*) and

QMCF00000000 (*Mas. cicadina*). The versions described in this paper are versions

QKRY01000000, QMCF01000000.

Phylogenetic analysis of *Massospora* spp.

Phylogenetic trees were constructed using LSU, SSU, and EFL sequences generated from 22, 26,

and 20 *Massospora* sequences, respectively, representing three *Massospora* species, *Mas.*

cicadina, *Mas. levispora* and *Mas. platypediae*. The concatenated set (LSU+SSU) consisted of

four sequences, two from *Mas. cicadina* and one each from *Mas. levispora* and *Mas.*

platypediae. Nine additional published sequences spanning the known diversity of the

Entomophthorales were included to help resolve relationships among *Massospora* and its close

allies (*Hodge et al., 2017*). One isolate of *Conidiobolus pumilus* (strain ARSEF 453) served as

an outgroup. Sequences were aligned using CLUSTAL-W (*Larkin et al., 2007*). Alignments

were visually inspected, after which optimized nucleotide substitution model (Tamura 3-

parameter + G) was selected using ModelTest (*Posada and Crandall, 1998*). Partial deletion

with site coverage cutoff of 95% was used. Maximum likelihood (ML) trees were estimated

using MEGA 7. Phylogenetic support was assessed by bootstrap analysis with 1000 replicates

using MEGA 7.

Phylogenomic analyses of Entomophthoralean fungi

Multi-gene phylogenetic analysis of protein coding genes was also performed to assess

confidence in the phylogenetic relationships. Since the metagenome assemblies were highly

fragmented due to high repetitive sequence content, a complete genome annotation was not

undertaken. Instead a targeted similarity search identified contigs encoding homologs of a

collection of generally single copy protein coding genes developed for the 1000 Fungal genomes

project. These 434 "JGI_1086" markers are available as Hidden Markov Models

(https://github.com/1KFG/Phylogenomics_HMMs). Consensus sequences generated from the

JGI_1086 markers using hmmemit (HMMER v3) (*Eddy, 1998*) were used as queries in a

translated search of the *Massospora* metagenome assemblies with TFASTY (*Pearson et al.,*

1997) using a permissive expectation cutoff value of '0.001'. These candidate contigs were then

annotated with funannotate pipeline (https://github.com/nextgenusfs/funannotate) with informant

protein sequences of a collection Zoopagomycota fungi, *de novo* gene prediction tools Augustus

(*Stanke and Waack, 2003*) and GeneMark ES+ET (*Lomsadze et al., 2005*).

The predicted proteins for the targeted *Massospora* contigs were analyzed in the PHYling

pipeline with proteins from the annotated genomes of the Kickxellomycotina fungus *Coemansia*

reversa NRRL 1564, the Entomophthoromycotina fungi, *Conidiobolus coronatus* NRRL 28638,

Conidiobolus incongruus B7586, *Conidiobolus thromboides* FSU 785) and the predicted ORFs

from assembled transcriptomes of Entomophthoromycotina *Entomophthora muscae*, *Pandora*

formicae, *Strongwellsea castrans*, *Zoophthora radicans* ATCC 208865. Briefly PHYling

(https://github.com/stajichlab/PHYling_unified; DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.1257002) uses a

preselected marker set of HMMs (https://github.com/1KFG/Phylogenomics_HMMs; DOI:

10.5281/zenodo.1251477) to identify best homologous sequences, aligns, trims, and builds a

concatenated phylogenetic tree or individual gene trees. Searches of the annotated genomes of

most species identified between 397 (*C. coronatus*) and 427 (*S. castrans*) of the 434 marker

genes in each species. Searches of the *Mas. cicadina* and *Mas. platypediae* targeted annotation

set identified 202 and 237 of the 434 marker sets respectively. This lower number indicates a

less complete and highly fragmented metagenome assembly but these ~200 protein coding genes

provide sufficient phylogenetic information to reconstruct species relationships. The 10-taxon

tree was constructed with IQ-TREE (v1.6.3; *Hoang et al., 2017; Nguyen et al., 2014*) using the

concatenated alignment and 433 partitions and 1000 ultrafast bootstrap support computation (-bb

1000 -st AA -t BIONJ -bspec GENESITE). All marker gene sequences, alignment and partition

files are available at DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.1306939.

Fungal metabolite extraction from *Massospora* plugs and healthy cicadas

Fungal plugs or healthy cicada abdomens were weighed and transferred into sterile 1.5 mL

microcentifuge tubes. Metabolite extracts from each fungal sample were normalized to a final

concentration of 10 mg of fungal tissue to 1 mL and polar metabolites were extracted in a buffer

consisting of 80% HPLC grade methanol and 20% water. Samples then were sonicated for 10

minutes. The sonicated samples were centrifuged at 14,000 x g for 15 minutes at 4℃ to pellet

proteins and cellular debris. The supernatant was removed and dried down using lyophilization

prior to analysis. Samples were reconstituted in 100 μL of 50% methanol and 50% water for

mass spectrometry analysis.

Mycelia from cultures of *Conidiobolus coronatus* were harvested by scraping 7-day old

cultures grown on ½ strength Sabouraud dextrose agar amended yeast extract. Whole *Con.*

coronatus-infected greater wax moth larvae (*Galleria mellonella*) were harvested at 48 hours

post inoculation. Both tissues were macerated in a buffer as previously described.

Analytical procedure and LC-MS conditions for metabolomics

The Agilent LC-MS system (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) included an Agilent

1290 Infinity quaternary ultra-high pressure liquid chromatography (UHPLC) pump. This LC

system was coupled to an Agilent 6530 quadrupole time of flight (Q-ToF) mass spectrometer

with electrospray ionization. The chromatographic separations were performed using a Merck

polymeric bead based ZIC-pHILIC column (100mmx2.1mm, 5μm).

Mobile phase A consisted of 10 mM ammonium acetate and mobile phase B consisted of

100% acetonitrile. Metabolites were separated on a gradient that went from 95% mobile phase B

to 5% mobile phase B over 20 minutes with 7-minute re-equilibration at the end of the

chromatographic run.

The mass spectrometer was operated alternately in positive and negative ion mode for the

analyses. Samples for global metabolomics consisted of fungal plug extracts from 5 *Mas.*

cicadina-infected Brood V periodical cicadas, 5 *Mas. platypediae*-infected wing-banger cicadas

from NM, and 4 technical reps of excised posterior segments from a single healthy brood V

periodical cicada or a healthy *P. putnami* from NM. Data dependent MS/MS was performed on

triplicate pooled samples for fragmentation and library searching. For *Mas. cicadina*, pooled

samples consisted of 5 independently extracted Brood V periodical cicadas collected on the

campus of WVU in 2016. For *Mas. platypediae* pooled sampled consisted of 5 independently

extracted *P. putnami* annual cicadas collected in NM in 2017. Controls consisted of excised

posterior segments from two healthy brood V periodical cicada or a healthy *P. putnami* from

NM.

Data processing, metabolite identification, and statistical data analysis for global

metabolomics

The LC-MS/MS data acquired using Agilent Mass Hunter Workstation were processed in

Agilent Profinder software version 2.3.1 for batch analysis. The datasets were subjected to

spectral peak extraction with a minimum peak height of 600 counts and the charge state for each

metabolite was restricted to two. Further, retention time and mass alignment corrections were

performed using Agilent Profinder software version 2.3.1 on the runs to remove non-

reproducible signals. The resulting features then were exported to Mass Profiler Professional

(MPP) software version 2.4.3 (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) for statistical

analysis. The extracted features were imported into MPP software for statistical analysis.

Principle Component Analysis (PCA) was performed to check the quality of the samples after

which the data containing filtered features were processed by one-way ANOVA to ascertain

differences between control and fungal groups. Only the analytes with p values < 0.05 and fold

change (FC) > 20 were treated as statistically significant. Additionally, multiple test corrections

using Bonferroni were applied to reduce false positives and false negatives in the data.

Targeted metabolomics

The absolute quantification of cathinone, psilocin and psilocybin from the *Mas. cicadina* and

Mas. platypediae fungal plug metabolite extracts described above, *Mas. levispora* extracts that

were stored long-term were not able to be analyzed for global metabolite changes were able to be

analyzed in this targeted experiment. This analysis was performed using a 5500 QTRAP mass

spectrometer (SCIEX Inc., Concord, Ontario, Canada). Chromatographic separations were

performed using an HPLC system consisting of two Shimadzu LC 20 AD pumps that included a

degasser and a Shimadzu SIL 20 AC auto sampler (Shimadzu Corp. Kyoto, Kyoto Prefecture,

Japan). Analytes were separated on a 3.0x150 mm Imtakt Scherzo SW-C18 column (Imtakt

USA, Portland, Oregon). The HPLC column oven was set to 40°C for the analysis, with an 8 μL

injection volume for each sample. Mobile phase A consisted of HPLC grade H2O with 0.1%

formic acid, while mobile B consisted of acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid. The LC gradient

started 5% B for 0.5 minutes and then increased to 95% B over 5 minutes followed by a re-

equilibration to starting conditions for a period of 2.1 minutes. The flow rate was set to 0.3

mL/minute.

Targeted metabolites were quantified using multiple reaction monitoring. The transitions

that were monitored for cathinone were m/z 150.1→106.3. The transitions that were monitored

for psilocybin were m/z 284.5→205.2 and 240.1. Psilocin was monitored at m/z 205.2→116.3.

Mass spectrometer source conditions were set to the following: curtain gas = 15, ion spray

voltage= 4800 V, temperature= 600 °C, gas 1= 45, gas 2= 50. Calibration samples were prepared

in 50 % methanol/H_2O. Calibration concentrations ranged from 0.05 to 10 ng/mL of both

psilocin and psilocybin and 1.25-25 ng/mL for cathinone. In order to assess variation in the assay

duplicate standard curves were analyzed at the beginning and at the end of the analytical run.

Absolute quantification data was processed using Analyst software ver. 1.6.3 (SCIEX Inc.,

Concord, Ontario, Canada).

Targeted quantification of CoA dependent pathway intermediates

Targeted detection of CoA dependent pathway intermediates including trans-cinnamoyl- CoA, 3-

hydroxy-3-phenylpropionyl-CoA, 3-oxy-3-phenylpropionyl-CoA, and benzoyl-CoA was

performed using a 5500 QTRAP mass spectrometer (SCIEX Inc., Concord, Ontario, Canada).

Chromatographic separations were performed using an HPLC system consisting of two

Shimadzu LC 20 AD pumps that included a degasser and a Shimadzu SIL 20 AC auto sampler

(Shimadzu Corp. Kyoto, Kyoto Prefecture, Japan). Analytes were separated on a 3.0 x 150 mm

Imtakt Imtrada column (Imtakt USA, Portland, Oregon). Mobile phase A consisted of 10 mM

ammonium acetate at pH 9.0 and mobile phase B consisted of 100% acetonitrile. CoA

intermediates were separated on a gradient that went from 95% mobile phase B to 5% mobile

phase B over 15 minutes with 3-minute re-equilibration at the end of the chromatographic run.

Absolute quantification data was processed using Analyst software ver. 1.6.3 (SCIEX Inc.,

Concord, Ontario, Canada).

Targeted screening of psilocybin and psilocin from *Conidiobolus coronatus* and 2018-

collected healthy *Platypedia putnami* (CA) and cathinone from *Magicicada septendecim*

(Brood VII)

Targeted cathinone, psilocybin and psilocin experiments were performed using an Accela 1250

UHPLC coupled to a Q Exactive Orbitrap Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, San Jose, CA)

operating in positive ion mode. An Agilent Zorbax C18 column (2.1 mm diameter by 10cm

length) was loaded with 2 µL of extracts. Separations were performed using a linear gradient

ramping from 95% solvent A (water, 0.1% formic acid) to 90% solvent B (acetonitrile, 0.1%

formic acid) over 6 minutes, flowing at 300 µL/min.

The mass spectrometer was operated in targeted-SIM/data-dependent MS2 acquisition

mode. Precursor scans were acquired at 70,000 resolution with a 4 *m/z* window centered on

285.1005 *m/z*, 205.1341 *m/z*, and 150.0913 *m/z* (5e5 AGC target, 100 ms maximum injection

time). Charge states 2 and higher were excluded for fragmentation and dynamic exclusion was

set to 5.0 s.

Search for candidate psilocybin and cathinone biosynthetic genes

We used multiple approaches to identify candidate psilocybin and cathinone biosynthetic genes

(*Figure 6–figure supplement 1*). We first performed tBLASTn searches of *Massospora*

metagenome assemblies using four characterized psilocybin biosynthesis proteins from

Psilocybe cubensis (*Fricke et al., 2017*) (norbaeocystin methyltransferase (accession

P0DPA9.1); L-tryptophan decarboxylase (accession P0DPA6.1); 4-hydroxytryptamine kinase

(accession P0DPA8.1); cytochrome P450 monooxygenase (accession P0DPA7.1)) and all 42

candidate cathinone biosynthesis proteins identified in a transcriptomic study of *Catha edulis*

(retrieved from S1 dataset and Table 2 of *Groves et al., 2015*). We next subtracted aligned

sequences between the two assemblies using NUCmer and PROmer from MUMMER

v.4.0.0beta2 in order to identify sequence unique to each assembly (*Marçais et al., 2018*).

Finally, we used profile HMM of the protein family (Pfam) domains found in characterized

psilocybin and cathinone biosynthetic genes to search the 6-frame amino acid translations of the

Massospora metagenomic assemblies with HMMER3 v.3.1b2 (*Eddy, 2011; Table S2*). We

searched with all SAM and SAM-like methyltransferase domains because many are similar to

the S-adenosyl-l-methionine (SAM)-dependent methyltransferase domain in the psilocybin

pathway's norbaeocystin methyltransferase. Unless stated otherwise, all BLAST searches were

conducted using the BLAST suite v.2.2.25+ with a max. evalue threshold=1e-4 (*Altschul et al.,*

1990) against a local database containing 375 publically available fungal genomes (*Table S5*).

All subsequent steps were performed on the set of sequences retrieved by profile HMM

search. We filtered out bacterial, protist and insect sequences by aligning hits to NCBI's non-

redundant protein database (last accessed March 14th, 2018) using BLASTp. We annotated

contigs containing filtered hits using WebAUGUSTUS with *C. coronatus* species parameters

using the option "predict any number of (possibly partial) genes" and reporting genes on both

strands (*Hoff and Stanke, 2013*). We manually verified the coordinates of CDS regions by using

the hits as queries in a BLASTx search (min similarity=45%) to the local proteome database.

The predicted amino acid sequences of all candidate genes, as well as the nucleotide sequences

and coordinate files of annotated contigs are available at DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.1306939.

To investigate putative ungapped regulatory motifs associated with candidate gene

sequences, we used a custom Perl script to extract up to 1500bp upstream of each gene's start

codon and submitted each set of extracted sequences to command line MEME v.4.12.0 (max

evalue=5e-2; min width=25; max width=100; max motifs=10) (*Bailey and Elkan, 1994*). Motifs

were manually inspected and those consisting solely of homopolymer repeats were discarded.

Because the *Massospora* assemblies were themselves too fragmented to assess if candidate genes

were found in clusters, we searched for evidence of clusters containing candidate gene homologs

retrieved from the local fungal genome database using BLASTp and a custom Perl script

(available at https://github.com/egluckthaler/cluster_retrieve). Homologs were considered

clustered if separated by 6 or fewer intervening genes. Only clusters with at least 3 genes were

retained. Genes at clustered loci of interest were annotated with eggNOG-mapper v.0.99.1

(*Huerta-Cepas et al., 2017*) based on orthology data from the fungal-specific fuNOG database

(*Huerta-Cepas et al., 2016*).

We designated genes as "high-quality" candidates of interest if their upstream regions

contained a motif also present in the upstream region of a predicted transaminase or

methyltransferase gene. We used these criteria to help define candidates of interest because

methyltransferase and transaminase enzymes catalyze the formation of psilocybin and cathinone,

respectively.

To investigate the evolution of the 22 high quality candidate gene sequences (*Table S10*),

we first divided sequences into groups based on the profile HMM that initially retrieved them.

Sequences from each group were used as queries to retrieve hits from the local fungal genome

database (*Table S5*) which was modified at this point to also include all candidate genes

identified from both *Massospora* assemblies, as well as the metatranscriptomes of *Conidiobolus*

incongruus B7586, *Entomophthora muscae* (ARSEF 13376), *Zoophthora radicans* ATCC

208865, *Strongwellsea* sp. (HHDFL040913-1), and *Pandora formicae* (*Małagocka et al., 2015*)

using BLASTp.

The *Strongwellsea* sp. transcriptome was based on total RNA extracted from a single

infected *Delia radicum* caught in an organically grown cabbage field in Denmark: Sørisgaard

(55.823706, 12.171149). The fly had the characteristic *Strongwellsea*-caused open hole on the

side of the abdomen and was snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen as quickly as possible. Illumina

sequencing yielded ca. 20 million 150 bp paired-end reads that were assembled using Trinity

2.2.0 (*Grabherr et al., 2011*). Transcripts were filtered so that only the highest expressed isoform

for each transcript and transcripts assigned to kingdom Fungi using MEGAN4 (*Huson et al.,*

2011) were retained.

Each set of queries and associated hits (with two exceptions, see below) were then

aligned with MAFFT v.7.149b using the --auto strategy (*Katoh and Standley, 2013*), trimmed

with TrimAL v.1.4 using the –automated1 strategy (*Capella-Gutiérrez et al., 2009*), and had

sequences composed of >70% gaps removed. Sets of sequences retrieved using candidates with

the 'p450' or 'aldo_ket_red' Pfam HMMs were too large to construct initial alignments. Instead,

all retrieved hits and queries were first sorted in homolog groups by submitting the results of an

all vs. all BLASTp to OrthoMCL v.2.0 (inflation = 1.5) (*Li et al., 2003*). All sequences in the

homolog groups containing the query candidate genes were then aligned and trimmed as above.

Each trimmed alignment was then used to construct a phylogenetic tree with FASTTREE

v.2.1.10 using default settings that was then midpoint rooted (*Price et al., 2010*). For each high

quality query sequence present in the tree, a strongly supported clade containing the query

sequence and closely related Entomophthoralean sequences was extracted. Sequences in the

extracted clade were re-aligned and trimmed (as above) and used to build final maximum

likelihood trees using RAxML v8.2.11 with 100 rapid bootstraps (*Stamatakis, 2014*; *Figure 6–*

figure supplement 4; Figure 7–figure supplement 3). Final RAxML trees were rooted based on

the outgroup in the clade extracted from the midpoint rooted FASTTREE.

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1100 **Figures**

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Figure 1. *Massospora*-infected cicadas with associated spore morphology. (A) From left to right:

Mas. cicadina-infected periodical cicada (*Magicicada septendecim*), *Mas. levispora*-infected

Say's cicada (*Okanagana rimosa*), and *Mas. platypediae* infected wing-banger cicada

(*Platypedia putnami*) with a conspicuous conidial "plugs" emerging from the posterior end of the

cicada; (B) close-up of conidia for each of three *Massospora* spp.; (C) posterior cross-section

showing internal resting spore infection; and (D) close-up of resting spores for each of three

Massospora spp. Specimens in B-D appear in same order as A.

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Massospora spp.	Fungal ID	Cicada host	Gender	Brood	Location	Collected	Conidia measurements
M.platypediae	NM01	*Platypedia putnami*	male	n/a	NM, USA	2017	6.4 − 9 µm x 10.49 − 19.7 µm (8.0 x 15.0 µm)
M. platypediae	NM02	*Platypedia putnami*	male	n/a	NM, USA	2017	7.7 − 10.5 µm x 10.3 − 17.1 µm (9.1 x 13.1 µm)
M. platypediae	NM03	*Platypedia putnami*	female	n/a	NM, USA	2017	5.6 − 9.2 µm x 8.3 − 17.7 µm (7.2 x 12.0 µm)
M. platypediae	NM04	*Platypedia putnami*	male	n/a	NM, USA	2017	6.8 − 9.4 µm x 9.2 − 14.7 µm (7.7 x 11.7 µm)
M. platypediae	NM05	*Platypedia putnami*	male	n/a	NM, USA	2017	7.0 − 9.1 µm x 11.7 − 17.1 µm (7.9 x 13.8 µm)
M. platypediae	NM06	*Platypedia putnami*	male	n/a	NM, USA	2017	6.8 − 9.3 µm x 9.2 − 16.2 µm (8.2 x 12.4 µm)
M. platypediae	NM07	*Platypedia putnami*	male	n/a	NM, USA	2017	5.5 − 8.8 µm x 12 − 19.3 µm (7.1 x 15.2 µm)
M. platypediae	NM08	*Platypedia putnami*	male	n/a	NM, USA	2017	5.2 − 7.5 µm x 8.9 − 15.1 µm (6.5 x 11.6 µm)
M. platypediae	NM09	*Platypedia putnami*	male	n/a	NM, USA	2017	7.2 − 10.1 µm x 10.3 − 16.9 µm (8.1 x 13.3 µm)
M. platypediae	NM10	*Platypedia putnami*	male	n/a	NM, USA	2017	6.8 − 10.8 µm x 9.6 − 19.4 µm (9.0 x 14.6 µm)
M. platypediae	NM16	*Platypedia putnami*	male	n/a	NM, USA	2017	6.4 − 9.1 µm x 9.0 − 13.6 µm (7.7 x 10.9 µm)
M. platypediae	NM13	*Platypedia putnami*	male	n/a	NM, USA	2017	5.4 − 10.6 µm x 10.3 − 18.7 µm (8.0 x 14.2 µm)
M. platypediae	NM14	*Platypedia putnami*	female	n/a	NM, USA	2017	7.4 − 10.2 µm x 9.9 − 18.9 µm (8.6 x 13.9 µm)
M. platypediae	NM15	*Platypedia putnami*	female	n/a	NM, USA	2017	7.1 − 10.9 µm x 9.6 − 20 µm (8.8 x 13.7 µm)
M. levispora	ML01	*Okanagana rimosa*	female	n/a	MI, USA	1998	7.5 − 10.5 µm x 10.5 − 17.4 µm (8.8 x 12.9 µm)
M. levispora	ML02	*Okanagana rimosa*	female	n/a	MI, USA	1998	7.4 − 10.8 µm x 12.4 − 20.9 µm (9.2 x 16.6 µm)
M. levispora	ML04	*Okanagana rimosa*	female	n/a	MI, USA	1998	7.5 − 9.9 µm x 10.4 − 16.3 µm (8.8 x 13.4 µm)
M. levispora	ML06	*Okanagana rimosa*	female	n/a	MI, USA	1998	7.6 − 10.3 µm x 11.7 − 19.5 µm (8.7 x 14.1 µm)
M. levispora	ML07	*Okanagana rimosa*	female	n/a	MI, USA	1998	7.1 − 9.5 µm x 11.3 − 17.9 µm (8.6 x 14.2 µm)
M. levispora	ML08	*Okanagana rimosa*	female	n/a	MI, USA	1998	7.0 − 10.2 µm x 11.8 − 19.6 µm (8.6 x 14.4 µm)
M. levispora	ML10	*Okanagana rimosa*	female	n/a	MI, USA	1998	7.2 − 9.6 µm x 10.8 − 16.5 µm (8.2 x 13.2 µm)
M. levispora	ML05	*Okanagana rimosa*	female	n/a	MI, USA	1998	8.5 − 10.6 µm x 13.2 − 18.6 µm (9.4 x 15.3 µm)
M. cicadina	MCH21	*Magicicada septendecula*	female	I	WV, USA	1978	11.3 − 18.1 µm x 9.7 − 14.4 µm (14.4 x 12.1 µm)
M. cicadina	ARSEF 374	*Magicicada septendecim*	female	II	NY, USA	1979	16.2 − 24.5 µm x 14.1 − 20.5 µm (19.9 x 17.4 µm)
M. cicadina	MCH14	*Magicicada cassini*	female	II	NY, USA	1979	13.4 − 19.1 µm x 12.4 − 17.3 µm (16.0 x 14.7 µm)
M. cicadina	MCH12	*Magicicada septendecim*	female	II	CT, USA	1979	15.3 − 22.7 µm x 13.8 − 18.2 µm (18.4 x 15.7 µm)
M. cicadina	MCH16	*Magicicada septendecula*	male	IV OR XIX	MO, USA	1998	12.2 − 20.8 µm x 12.1 − 17.3 µm (16.6 x 14.6 µm)
M. cicadina	MC46	*Magicicada septendecula*	male	V	WV, USA	2016	11.8 − 18.5 µm x 11.5 − 15.1 µm (15.4 x 13.7 µm)
M. cicadina	MC95	*Magicicada cassini*	male	V	WV, USA	2016	12.9 − 15.6 µm x 13.3 − 17.3 µm (14.3 x 15.4 µm)
M. cicadina	MC94	*Magicicada cassini*	female	V	WV, USA	2016	13.3 − 16.9 µm x 13.6 − 18.5 µm (14.6 x 16.2 µm)
M. cicadina	MC33	*Magicicada septendecula*	male	V	WV, USA	2016	11.8 − 15.9 µm x 12.8 − 17.3 µm (13.7 x 14.9 µm)
M. cicadina	MC136	*Magicicada septendecim*	female	V	OH USA	2016	13.7 − 18.9 µm x 14.4 − 25.5 µm (16.5 x 19.4 µm)
M. cicadina	MCH15	*Magicicada septendecim*	male	VIII	PA, USA	2002	11.1 − 15 µm x 13.6 − 19.7 µm (13.4 x 16.2 µm)
M. cicadina	GK05	*Magicicada cassini*	male	X	OH, USA	2004	13.4 − 18.5 µm x 12.5 − 16.3 µm (16.2 x 14.6 µm)
M. cicadina	GK04	*Magicicada septendecula*	female	XIV	OH, USA	2008	12.6 − 19.3 µm x 12.3 − 17.0 µm (16.1 x 14.3 µm)
M. cicadina	GK01	*Magicicada tredecula*	female	XXIII	IL, USA	1989	14.3 − 20.1 µm x 14 − 19.4 µm (17.3 x 15.9 µm)
M. cicadina	GK02	*Magicicada tredecassini*	female	XXIII	IN, USA	2015	14.8 − 19.7 µm x 13.6 − 17.7 µm (17.4 x 16.0 µm)

Figure 1–figure supplement 1. *Massospora* spp. conidial measurements based on the average of 25 measured spores per fungal isolate. Underlined mean values in parentheses denote that mean length and width fell within the previously reported ranges for that given species.

Massospora spp.	Fungal ID	Cicada host	Gender	Brood	Location	Collected	Resting spore measurements
M. platypediae	NM11	*Platypedia putnami*	male	n/a	NM, USA	2017	40.5 µm x 41.4 µm (40.9 µm)
M. levispora	ML03	*Okanagana rimosa*	female	n/a	MI, USA	1998	38.8 µm x 40.7 µm (39.8 µm)
M. cicadina	MC138 (BVI-01)	*Magicicada septendecim*	female	VI	NC, USA	2017	39.2 µm x 41.3 µm (40.2 µm)
M. cicadina	MC142 (BVI-05)	*Magicicada septendecim*	female	VI	NC, USA	2017	42.1 µm x 43.5 µm (42.8 µm)
M. cicadina	MC141 (BVI-06)	*Magicicada septendecim*	female	VI	NC, USA	2017	39.8 µm x 41.0 µm (40.4 µm)
M. cicadina	MC139 (BVI-07)	*Magicicada septendecim*	female	VI	NC, USA	2017	41.8 µm x 42.8 µm (42.3 µm)
M. cicadina	MC140 (BVI-08)	*Magicicada septendecim*	female	VI	NC, USA	2017	39.7 µm x 41.0 µm (40.4 µm)
M. cicadina	MC138 (BVI-03)	*Magicicada septendecim*	female	VI	NC, USA	2017	42.1 µm x 43.3 µm (42.8 µm)
M. cicadina	MC143 (BVI-02)	*Magicicada septendecim*	female	VI	NC, USA	2017	43.0 µm x 45.1 µm (44.1 µm)
M. cicadina	MC144 (BVI-04)	*Magicicada septendecim*	male	VI	NC, USA	2017	43.7 µm x 45.5 µm (44.6 µm)
M. cicadina	MCH17	*Magicicada tredecim-like*	female	XIX	IL, USA	1998	41.0 µm x 42.6 µm (41.8 µm)
M. cicadina	MCH05	*Magicicada tredecim*	male	XIX	IL, USA	1998	42.8 µm x 43.7 µm (43.2 µm)
M. cicadina	MCH06	*Magicicada tredecim*	female	XIX	IL, USA	1998	43.1 µm x 45.0 µm (44.1 µm)

1116   **Figure 1–figure supplement 2**. *Massospora* spp. resting spore measurements based on the average

1117   of 25 measured spores per fungal isolate for *Mas. cicadina* and 50 spores per isolate for *Mas.*

1118   *levispora* and *Mas. platypediae*. Underlined mean values in parentheses denote that mean length

1119   and width fell within the previously reported ranges for that given species.

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1123 **Figure 2.** Concatenated LSU+SSU maximum likelihood (ML) tree consisting of *Massospora*

1124 species and related species in the Entomophthorales. Given that *Mas. levispora* and *Mas.*

1125 *platypediae* were not genealogically exclusive, *Mas. platypediae* will be hereafter referred to as

1126 *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM). Bootstrap support is indicated near each node and only values greater

1127 than 70% are shown.

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Figure 3. Global metabolomics fold-change comparisons of (A) cathinone and (B) psilocybin among healthy cicada controls (posterior sections), *Mas. cicadina* (*Mc*), and *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) (*Mal*) conidial plugs. Fold change ± standard error based on comparisons with control. Value is average of five biological replicates.

1136 **Figure 3–figure supplement 1.** Global metabolomics fold-change comparisons of cathinone

1137 between *Mas. cicadina* conidal plugs (*Mc1*) and resting spore plugs (*Mc2*). Value is average of

1138 five biological replicates.

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Figure 4. Representative LC-MS/MS spectra for A) cathinone DEA-exempt analytical standard

B) cathinone-positive *Mas. cicadina* conidial plugs from infected *Magicicada* spp., B) cathinone-

negative *Magicicada septendecim* abdominal sample, D) psilocybin DEA-exempt analytical

standard, E) psilocybin-positive *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) conidial plugs from infected

Platypedia putnami, F) psilocybin-negative *Platypedia putnami* abdominal sample. *M/z* in red

denote precursor fragment while *m/z* in black denote observed fragments. All labeled *m/z* values

from *Massospora* plugs (B and E) are within 10 ppm mass error compared to analytical standard.

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Figure 5. Absolute quantification of (A-B) cathinone, (C-D) psilocybin, and (E-F) psilocin from

Massospora fungal plugs using Q-TOF LC/MS. A, C, and E show extracted ion chromatograms

with retention times for (A) cathinone with an *m/z* of 150.0913 from *Mas. cicadina* plugs (C)

psilocybin with an *m/z* of 285.0973 from *Mas. levispora* (MI) plugs, and (E) psilocin with an *m/z*

of 205.1319 from *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) plugs. For cathinone, two different transitions were

monitored concurrently. RA denotes relative abundance. B, D, and F show the concentration of

each alkaloid for across the same sample sets determined from peak area measured against

standard curves generated using DEA-exempt analytical standards. Each sample was injected a

single time per run. Each of the three compounds were monitored individually in independent

runs. Rows showing short unfilled (white) bars denote the presence of the compound from the

sample but concentrations below the limit of quantification. Gray-background denotes samples

with resting spore fungal plugs while white background denotes conidial fungal plugs. Asterisk

on the far left denote samples used in both global and targeted metabolomics runs. Order of

Massospora samples from top to bottom as are they appear in *Figure 5–figure supplement 1*.

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Sample type	Strain ID	Brood (Loc.*/Year)	Spore type	Psilocybin [m/z 285] Present	Conc. [ng/mL]	ng/plug	Psilocin [m/z 205] Present	Conc. [µg/g]	ng/plug	Cathinone [m/z 150] Present	Conc. [ng/mL]	ng/plug
M. cicadina	MC139‡	VI (NC; 2017)	Resting spore	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	Yes	BLQ	BLQ
M. cicadina	MC140‡	VI (NC; 2017)	Resting spore	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	Yes	BLQ	BLQ
M. cicadina	MC141‡	VI (NC; 2017)	Resting spore	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	Yes	BLQ	BLQ
M. cicadina	MC142‡	VI (NC; 2017)	Resting spore	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	Yes	BLQ	BLQ
M. cicadina	MC10	V (WV; 2016)	Conidia	–	–	–	–	–	–	Yes	BLQ	BLQ
M. cicadina	MC19	V (WV; 2016)	Conidia	–	–	–	–	–	–	Yes	BLQ	BLQ
M. cicadina	MC23‡	V (WV; 2016)	Conidia	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	Yes	24.3 / 11.6†	246.2 / 116.0†
M. cicadina	MC33‡	V (WV; 2016)	Conidia	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	Yes	29.9	303.0
M. cicadina	MC99	V (WV; 2016)	Conidia	–	–	–	–	–	–	Yes	22.2	134.7
M. cicadina	MC40	V (WV; 2016)	Conidia	–	–	–	–	–	–	Yes	7.3	44.3
M. cicadina	G	VIII (PA; 2002)	Resting spore	–	–	–	–	–	–	Yes	7.9	80.1
M. cicadina	M	XXIII (IN; 2002)	Resting spore	–	–	–	–	–	–	Yes	6.8	68.9
M. levispora (MI)	ML03	(MI; 1998)	Resting spore	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
M. levispora (MI)	ML01	(MI; 1998)	Conidia	Yes	1.2	7.3	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
M. levispora (MI)	ML02	(MI; 1998)	Conidia	Yes	2.3	13.9	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
M. levispora (MI)	ML04	(MI; 1998)	Conidia	Yes	1.8	10.9	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
M. levispora (MI)	ML05	(MI; 1998)	Conidia	Yes	2.2	13.3	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
M. levispora (MI)	ML06	(MI; 1998)	Conidia	Yes	BLQ	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
M. levispora (MI)	ML07	(MI; 1998)	Conidia	Yes	3.2	19.4	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
M. levispora (MI)	ML08	(MI; 1998)	Conidia	Yes	2.8	17	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
M. aff. levispora (NM)	NM01	(NM; 2017)	Conidia	Yes	–	–	Yes	2.6	7.0	ND	–	–
M. aff. levispora (NM)	NM02‡,§	(NM; 2017)	Conidia	Yes	–	–	Yes	1.2	3.1	ND	–	–
M. aff. levispora (NM)	NM03‡	(NM; 2017)	Conidia	Yes	–	–	Yes	0.2	0.5	ND	–	–
M. aff. levispora (NM)	NM04‡	(NM; 2017)	Conidia	Yes	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
M. aff. levispora (NM)	NM05‡	(NM; 2017)	Conidia	Yes	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
M. aff. levispora (NM)	NM06‡	(NM; 2017)	Conidia	Yes	–	–	Yes	0.02	0.1	ND	–	–
M. aff. levispora (NM)	NM07	(NM; 2017)	Conidia	Yes	–	–	Yes	0.3	0.8	ND	–	–
M. aff. levispora (NM)	NM08	(NM; 2017)	Conidia	Yes	–	–	Yes	4.7	12.6	ND	–	–
M. aff. levispora (NM)	NM09	(NM; 2017)	Conidia	Yes	–	–	Yes	1.4	3.7	ND	–	–
M. aff. levispora (NM)	NM10	(NM; 2017)	Conidia	Yes	–	–	Yes	0.7	1.8	ND	–	–
M. aff. levispora (NM)	NM14	(NM; 2017)	Conidia	Yes	–	–	Yes	0.5	1.3	ND	–	–
Healthy cicada	MCNC1	V (WV; 2016)	*M. spetendecim*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy cicada	MCNC2	V (WV; 2016)	*M. spetendecim*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy cicada	MLNC1	(MI; 1998)	*O. rimosa*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy cicada	MPNC01	(NM; 2017)	*P. putnami*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy male	MM1	VII (NY; 2018)	*M. spetendecim*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy male	MM2	VII (NY; 2018)	*M. spetendecim*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy male	MM3	VII (NY; 2018)	*M. spetendecim*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy male	MM4	VII (NY; 2018)	*M. spetendecim*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy male	MM5	VII (NY; 2018)	*M. spetendecim*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy female	MF1	VII (NY; 2018)	*M. spetendecim*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy female	MF2	VII (NY; 2018)	*M. spetendecim*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy female	MF3	VII (NY; 2018)	*M. spetendecim*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy female	MF4	VII (NY; 2018)	*M. spetendecim*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy female	MF5	VII (NY; 2018)	*M. spetendecim*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy male	PM1	(CA; 2018)	*P. putnami*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy male	PM2	(CA; 2018)	*P. putnami*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy male	PM3	(CA; 2018)	*P. putnami*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy male	PM4	(CA; 2018)	*P. putnami*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy male	PM5	(CA; 2018)	*P. putnami*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy female	PF1	(CA; 2018)	*P. putnami*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy female	PF2	(CA; 2018)	*P. putnami*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy female	PF3	(CA; 2018)	*P. putnami*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy female	PF4	(CA; 2018)	*P. putnami*	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–
Healthy female	PF5	(CA; 2018)	P. putnami	ND	–	–	ND	–	–	ND	–	–

1174 **Figure 5–figure supplement 1.** Isolate table for absolute quantification of psilocybin, psilocin,

1175 and cathinone by LC-MS/MS. Samples that fell outside the limit of quantification were scored as

1176   either present or absent only. ND, not detected; BLQ, below limit of quantification; * U.S. state

1177   abbreviation, † indicates samples were included in two independent runs, ‡ isolates used in

1178   global metabolomics studies, § isolate from which metagenome was sequenced.

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Figure 6. A) Predicted cathinone biosynthesis pathways from *Catha edulis* (*Groves et al. 2016*),

B) Putative regulatory motifs found upstream of candidate cathinone biosynthesis genes from

1183   *Mas. cicadina* and *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) assemblies. Sequences were retrieved using profile

1184   HMMs of enzymes predicted for each pathway step. Candidate gene co-regulation was predicted

1185   by shared nucleotide motifs within 1500bp upstream of predicted translational start sites. Only

1186   motifs associated with transaminase genes (predicted to catalyze the production of cathinone) are

1187   shown.

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1190 **Figure 6–figure supplement 1.** Cathinone and psilocybin biosynthesis pathway gene discovery

1191 pipeline.

Pathway	Gene function	# of gene homolog groups (# of genes in groups)			Cluster search	
		Mal unique	*Mc* unique	Both	# of clustered genes (# of clusters with ≥ 3 genes)	Total clusters
Cathinone	Ammonia lyase	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2396
	Co-A ligase	6 (6)	6 (6)	4 (14)	1184 (806)	
	Hydratase	1 (1)	1 (1)	1 (2)	58 (55)	
	Dehydrogenase	8 (8)	3 (3)	2 (4)	915 (686)	
	Thiolase	1 (1)	1 (1)	2 (5)	98 (87)	
	Carboligase	1 (1)	0 (0)	1 (2)	142 (108)	
	Transaminase	5 (5)	6 (6)	5 (11)	414 (358)	
	Reductase	10 (10)	4 (4)	8 (20)	5582 (2103)	

1192

1193 **Figure 6–figure supplement 2.** Unique and shared cathinone biosynthetic pathway candidate

1194 gene sequences, evidence of co-regulation, and number of gene clusters among containing

1195 various candidate cathinone pathway genes from the *Mas. cicadina* and *Mas*. aff. *levispora* (NM)

1196 assemblies Mas. cicadina assembly.

1197

Figure 6–figure supplement 3. Logos of putative regulatory motifs found in the 5' upstream

regions of candidate genes in the cathinone biosynthetic pathway retrieved from the *Mas.*

cicadina (cathinone +) and *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) (cathinone -) assemblies. Only motifs found

upstream of a predicted transaminase are shown. The median starting positions of motifs 1 and 2

from *Mas. cicadina* and motifs 1 and 2 from *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) are 345bp, 405bp, 224bp

and 796bp upstream of predicted translational start sites, respectively.

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Figure 6–figure supplement 4. Candidate ML gene phylogenies potentially involved in

cathinone biosynthesis pathway from *Mas. cicadina* and *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM). Phylogenies

include (A) one acetyl-coenzyme A acetyltransferase (Thiolase_N), (B) one Enoyl-(Acyl carrier

protein) reductase (adh_short_C2), (C) one Aminotransferase class I and II (Aminotran_1_2),

(D) one 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase, NAD binding domain (3HCDH_N), and (E) one

Aldo-keto reductase (Aldo_ket_red).

1216

Figure 7. A) Psilocybin biosynthesis pathway from Basidiomycete fungi, B) Putative regulatory

motifs found upstream of candidate psilocybin biosynthesis genes from both *Mas. cicadina* and

Mas. aff. *levispora* (NM) assemblies. Sequences were retrieved using profile HMMs of enzymes

predicted for each pathway step. Candidate gene co-regulation was predicted by shared

nucleotide motifs within 1500bp upstream of predicted translational start sites. Only motifs

associated with methyltransferase genes (which catalyzes the formation of psilocybin) are

shown.

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		# of gene homolog groups (# of genes in groups)			Cluster search	
Pathway	Gene function	*Mal* unique	*Mc* unique	Both	# of clustered genes (# of clusters with ≥ 3 genes)	Total clusters
Psilocybin	Decarboxylase	4 (4)	0 (0)	4 (11)	395 (191)	309
	Methyltransferase	13 (14)	12 (12)	9 (18)	321 (175)	
	Kinase	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	
	Monooxygenase	8 (12)	5 (5)	10 (42)	828 (272)	

1227

1228   **Figure 7–figure supplement 1.** Unique and shared psilocybin biosynthetic pathway candidate

1229   gene sequences, evidence of co-regulation, and number of gene clusters among containing

1230   various candidate psilocybin pathway genes from the *Mas. cicadina* and *Mas*. aff. *levispora*

1231   (NM) assemblies

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1233

Figure 7–figure supplement 2. Logos of putative regulatory motifs found in the 5' upstream

regions of candidate genes in the cathinone biosynthetic pathway retrieved from the *Mas.*

cicadina (psilocybin -) and *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) (psilocybin +) assemblies. Only motifs

found upstream of a predicted methyltransferase are shown. The median starting positions of

motifs 1 and 2 from *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) are 581bp and 1080bp upstream of predicted

translational start sites, respectively. No putative regulatory motifs were found upstream of

candidate methyltransferase genes in *Mas. cicadina*.

E

methyltransferase in putative
C. coronatus cluster

Homologous to methyltransferase in
putative C. coronatus cluster

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1252   **Figure 7–figure supplement 3.** Candidate ML gene phylogenies potentially involved in

1253   psilocybin biosynthesis pathway from *Mas. cicadina* and *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM). Phylogenies

1254   include (A-C) three Group II pyridoxal-dependent decarboxylases (Pyridoxal_deC), (D) one

1255   Phosphatidylserine decarboxylase (PS_Dcarbxylase), (E-G) three methyltransferases

1256   (Methyltransf), and (H-K) ten Cytochrome P450 (p450).

1257

Figure 8. Phylogenomic relationships among behavior-modifying Entomophthoralean fungi, the

behavioral and morphological host modifications they impose, and their host specificity. (A)

RAxML phylogenetic tree of Entomopthoralean fungi (Zoopagomycota) based on the

concatenated alignment of >200 conserved orthologous protein sequences with overlaid

behavioral modification in infected hosts. Actual number of protein sequences per taxon denoted

in gray. (B) External sporulation patterns, (C) Heat map showing both the host range within and

across select insect orders: Col: Coleoptera, Dip: Diptera, Hem: Hemiptera, Hym: Hymenoptera,

Iso: Isoptera, Lep: Lepidoptera, Ort: Orthoptera, and Thy: Thysanoptera. The species *Z. radicans*

and *C. thromboides* may represent broader species complexes, of which each phylogenetic

species may have a narrower host spectrum. Photos used with permission from co-authors as

well as Florian Freimoser, Joanna Małagocka, Judith Pell, and Ruth Ahlburg.

Fungus	Strain ID	Host	Country of origin	No. of conserved orthologous protein sequences recovered
Strongwellsea castrans	HHDFL040913-1 (DrSc)	*Delia radicum*	Denmark	427
Pandora formicae		*Formica polyctena*	Denmark	425
Zoophthora radicans	ATCC 208865	*Crocidosema aporema*	Uruguay	416
Entomophthora muscae	ARSEF 13376	*Musca domestica*	Denmark	419
Entomophthora erupta	n/a	*Lygocoris communis*		−
Entomophthora thripidum	n/a	*Thrips tabaci*		−
Entomophaga kansasa	n/a	*Phormia regina*		−
Massospora aff. *levispora* (NM)	NM02	*Platypedia putnami*	USA	237
Massospora cicadina	MICH231384	*Magicicada septendecim*	USA	202
Conidiobolus thromboides	FSU 785			421
Conidiobolus coronatus	NRRL 28638		Sweden	397
Conidiobolus incongruus	B7586	*Homo sapiens*	Thailand	414
Coemansia reversa	NRRL 1564			422

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1271 **Figure 8–figure supplement 1.** Strain histories for genome-wide phylogeny

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Fungus ID	Col.	Dip.	Hem.	Hym.	Iso.	Lep.	Ort.	Thy.
Strongwellsea castrans		1						
Pandora formicae				1				
Zoophthora radicans		2	7	1		8		
Entomophthora erupta		1						
Entomophthora thripidum								1
Entomophaga kansana			3					
Entomophthora muscae		4						
Massospora aff. *levispora* (NM)			1					
Massospora cicadina			1					
Conidiobolus thromboides		3	2				1	
Conidiobolus coronatus	1	2	4		1	3		1
Conidiobolus incongruus								
Coemansia reversa								

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1274 **Figure 8–figure supplement 2.** Number of susceptible insect families per order based on previously
1275 reported data from ARS Collection of Entomopathogenic Fungal Cultures (ARSEF)

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Table 1. Sample size for morphological, molecular, metabolomics, and genomic studies of *Massospora*-infected cicadas and their asymtomatic counterparts.

Sample origin refers to the authors/lab who collected specimens. Numbers before the slash denote conidial isolates whereas those after denote resting spore isolates. Bracketed numbers denote isolates for which sequences were deposited in NCBI Genbank.

Cicada host/ population	*Massospora* sp.	Year collected	Sample origin	Morphology	Phylogenetics	Global Metabolomics	Targeted Metabolomics	Genomics
Magicicada septendecula Brood I (WV, USA)	Mas.cicadina	1978	JRC/CS	1/0	1/0	−	−	−
Magicicada spp. Brood II (NY & CT, USA)	Mas.cicadina	1979	JRC/CS, RAH	3/0	1/0	−	−	−
Magicicada septendecula Brood IV or XIX (MO, USA)	Mas.cicadina	1998	JRC/CS	1/0				
Magicicada spp. Brood V (OH & WV, USA)	Mas.cicadina	2016	MTK, NA, WJD	5/0	3/0 [1]	5/0	20/0	1/0
Magicicada septendecim Brood VI (NC, USA)	Mas.cicadina	2017	TG	0/8	0/3	0/4	0/4	−
Magicicada septendecim Brood VIII (PA, USA)	Mas.cicadina	2002	JRC/CS	1/0	−	−	0/5	−
Magicicada cassini Brood IX (NC, USA)	Mas.cicadina	2003	JRC/CS				0/1	
Magicicada cassini Brood X (OH, USA)	Mas.cicadina	2004	GK	1/0	1/0	−	−	−
Magicicada septendecula Brood XIV (OH, USA)	Mas.cicadina	2008	GK	1/0	1/0	−	−	−

Magicicada septendecula Brood XIX (IL, USA)	*Mas.cicadina*	1998	JRC/CS	0/3	1/0			
Magicicada tredecim Brood XXII (MS, USA)	*Mas.cicadina*	2001	JRC/CS	–	–	–	3/0	
Magicicada spp. Brood XXIII (IL & IN, USA)	*Mas.cicadina*	1989, 1998, 2002, 2015	JRC/CS, GK	2/0	1/0 [1]	–	0/4	–
Okanagana rimosa (MI)	*Mas. levispora*	1998	JRC/CS	8/1	3/0 [1]	–	7/1	–
Platypedia putnami (NM)	*Mas. platypediae*	2017	MTK	14/1	3/0 [1]	5/0	11/0	1/0
Magicicada spp. Brood V	None	2016	MTK	–	–	2	2	–
Okanagana rimosa (MI)	None	1998	JRC/CS	–	–	–	1	–
Platypedia putnami (NM)	None	2017	MTK	–	–	1	1	–
Magicicada sp. Brood VII	None	2018	MTK	–	–	–	10	–
Platypedia putnami (CA)	None	2018	MTK	–	–	–	10	–
Total				50	18	17	80	2

Table 2. Mean (A) conidia and (B) resting spore dimensions for three *Massospora* species sampled from infected cicadas. Twenty-five conidia or resting spores were measured for each specimen except for *Mas. levispora* (MI) and *Mas.* aff. *levispora* (NM) resting spores, in which 50 spores were measured.

Massospora sp.	Reference	N	Conidia	N	Resting spores
Mas. cicadina	Soper 1976		10 − 17 μm x 14 − 20 μm (avg. 15.5 x 18.5 μm)		33.5 μm x 47.5 μm (avg. 40.5 μm)
	This study	15	12.9 − 18.1 μm x 13.2 − 18.9 μm (15.4 x 16.0 μm)	11	41.7 μm x 43.2 μm (avg. 42.2 μm)
Mas. levispora (MI)	Soper 1963		6.0 − 11.0 μm x 9.5 − 23.0 μm (8.0 x 15.0 μm)		(avg. 34.0 μm)
	This study	8	7.5 − 10.2 μm x 11.5 − 18.3 μm (8.8 x 14.3 μm)	1	38.8 μm x 40.7 μm (avg. 39.8 μm)
Mas. aff. *levispora* (NM)	Soper 1976		5.2 − 7.7 μm x 6.5 − 12.9 μm (avg. 6.0 x 9.9 μm)		not previously reported
	This study	14	6.5 − 9.6 μm x 9.9 − 17.5 μm (8 x 13.2 μm)	1	40.5 μm x 41.4 μm (avg. 40.9 μm)

Supplementary Figures

Movie 1. Living Brood V *Magicicada septendecim* with conidial spore infection. [This image is a placeholder for the actual movie, which will be uploaded separately. IT can be viewed here: 10.6084/m9.figshare.6855215]

Tables S1-S11 are available here: https://datadryad.org/review?doi=doi:10.5061/dryad.n9p1k0d