Large DNA virus promoted the endosymbiotic evolution to make a photosynthetic

eukaryote

Authors and Affiliations

Mitsuhiro Matsuo[1], Atsushi Katahata[1], Makoto Tachikawa[1], Yohei Minakuchi[2], Hideki Noguchi[3,4], Atsushi Toyoda[2,4], Asao Fujiyama[4], Yutaka Suzuki[5], Takayuki Hata[1], Soichirou Satoh[1], Takuro Nakayama[6,7], Ryoma Kamikawa[8], Mami Nomura[8,9], Yuji Inagaki[6], Ken-ichiro Ishida[9], Junichi Obokata[1]

[1]Graduate School of Life and Environmental Science, Kyoto Prefectural University, Kyoto, 606-8522, Japan.

[2]Department of Genetics and Evolutionary Biology, National Institute of Genetics, Mishima, Shizuoka, 411-8540, Japan.

[3]Center for Genome Informatics, Joint Support-Center for Data Science Research, Research Organization of Information and Systems, Mishima, Shizuoka 411-8540, Japan.

[4]Advanced Genomics Center, National Institute of Genetics, Mishima, Shizuoka

411-8540, Japan.

[5]Graduate school of Frontier Science, University of Tokyo, Kashiwa, Chiba, 272-8562,

Japan.

[6]Center for Computational Sciences, University of Tsukuba, Tsukuba, Ibaraki,

305-8577, Japan.

[7]Graduate School of Life Sciences, Tohoku University, Sendai 980-8578,

Japan

[8]Graduate Schools Human and Environmental Studies, Kyoto University, Kyoto,

606-8501, Japan.

[9]Graduate School of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Tsukuba,

Tsukuba, Ibaraki, 305-8572, Japan.

Abstract

Chloroplasts in photosynthetic eukaryotes originated from a cyanobacterial

endosymbiosis far more than 1 billion years ago[1-3]. Due to this ancientness, it remains

unclear how this evolutionary process proceeded. To unveil this mystery, we analysed

the whole genome sequence of a photosynthetic rhizarian amoeba[4], *Paulinella*

micropora[5,6], which has a chloroplast-like organelle that originated from another

cyanobacterial endosymbiosis[7-10] about 0.1 billion years ago[11]. Here we show that the

predacious amoeba that engulfed cyanobacteria evolved into a photosynthetic organism

very quickly in the evolutionary time scale, probably aided by the drastic genome

reorganization activated by large DNA virus. In the endosymbiotic evolution of

eukaryotic cells, gene transfer from the endosymbiont genome to the host nucleus is

essential for the evolving host cell to control the endosymbiont-derived organelle[12]. In *P.*

micropora, we found that the gene transfer from the free-living and endosymbiotic

bacteria to the amoeba nucleus was rapidly activated but both simultaneously ceased

within the initiation period of the endosymbiotic evolution, suggesting that the genome

reorganization drastically proceeded and completed. During this period, large DNA

virus appeared to have infected the amoeba, followed by the rapid amplification and

diversification of virus-related genes. These findings led us to re-examine the

conventional endosymbiotic evolutionary scenario that exclusively deals with the host

and the symbiont, and to extend it by incorporating a third critical player, large DNA

virus, which activates the drastic gene transfer and genome reorganization between

them. This *Paulinella* version of the evolutionary hypothesis deserves further testing of

its generality in evolutionary systems and could shed light on the unknown roles of

large DNA viruses[13] in the evolution of terrestrial life.

Main manuscript

Our laboratory culture of *P. micropora* MYN1[5,6] (Fig. 1a) is not axenic and

contains bacteria. From this culture, we prepared the chromatins of *P. micropora* by

micromesh-aided cell isolation and chromatin immunoprecipitation using a canonical

histone antibody. Shotgun sequencing of this chromatin DNA gave us a high-quality

draft genome assembly of 967 Mb (Fig. 1, Extended Data Fig. 1, Supplementary Table

1). K-mer analysis estimated the genome size of *P. micropora* MYN1 to be 1.35 Gb

a

2 μm

b

Total Scaffold length	966,816,691 bp
Scaffolds No.	8,276
Scaffold N50	468,729 bp
%GC	44.01
Gene No.	36,763
Average Gene size (cds size)	10,400 bp (1,522 bp)
Average intron No. per gene	7.9

c

Gaps (N) (20.4%)

Non-repetitive region (19.2%)

Simple-repeat (19.6%)

Transposable elements (19.5%)

Unclassified-repeat (20.5%)

Low complexity
Satellites
Small RNA
(0.8%)

d

Simple repeat

Others

Sequence length（Gbp）

P. micropora
B.natans
P. brassicae
R. filosa

C. reinhardtii
P. patens
A. thaliana
O. sativa
Z. mays
C. crispus
C. merolae
G. sulphuraria

M. brevicollis
L. bicolor
S.cerevisiae
N. vectensis
C. elegans
C. gigas
D. melanogaster
X. tropicalis
H. sapiens

Rhizaria · Archaeplastida · Opisthokonta

Fig. 1. An overview of the *P. micropora* MYN1 draft genome. a, A SEM image of *P. micropora* MYN1. **b,** The statistics of the draft genome. **c,** The genome composition of *P. micropora* MYN1 analysed by RepeatMasker[27]. **d,** Simple repeats are extraordinarily rich in *P. micropora* MYN1 compared with other organisms.

(Extended Data Fig. 1); hence, our draft assembly covered 72% of the whole genome.

The genome is largely composed of repeated sequences, with 19.2% unique sequences

(Fig. 1c). Simple repeat sequences are extraordinarily rich, amounting to 19.6% (Fig. 1c,

1d). As much as simple repeats and transposons, 20.5% of the genome is occupied by

unclassified repeat sequences that contain notable amounts of DNA virus-like fragments

(Fig. 1c, Supplementary Table 2, 3).

A total of 36,763 protein gene models were predicted; on average, they were

10.4 kb long and contained eight introns, implying large and complex structures (Fig.

1b, Supplementary Table 4). Their gene ontology (GO) term analysis showed that

DNA-related metabolism which associated with DNA virus is significantly

over-represented compared with that of other rhizarian organisms (Extended Data Fig.

1e, Supplementary Table 5).

From the above gene set of *P. micropora*, we attempted to characterize the

genes that have been pivotal for the endosymbiotic evolution. We extracted the genes

derived from cyanobacteria as well as those derived from the rest of the bacteria; we

refer to the former as endosymbiotic gene transfer (EGT) candidates and the latter as

horizontal gene transfer (HGT) candidates in this study. We obtained 177 EGT and 248

HGT candidates (Fig. 2, Supplementary Table 6). Half of the EGT candidates are genes

for high light inducible proteins (HLIPs)[12], which are involved in the protection against

excess light energy. Phylogenetic analysis of these HLIPs showed that they are

polyphyletic, suggesting that HLIPs should have been acquired by multiple independent

gene transfers from cyanobacteria (Extended Data Fig. 2). Thus, the gain of a light

protection system should have been crucial for the predacious amoeba to evolve into a

photosynthetic organism.

HGT candidates contain genes of diverse functions, including ribosome

biogenesis, DNA synthesis and amino acid metabolism. These genes appear to be

involved in (1) endosymbiont biogenesis and (2) changes of the cellular nutrient state

from heterotrophy to photo-autotrophy. To further examine the genes essential to the

evolution of a photosynthetic organism, we compared orthologs among *P. micropora*,

primary photosynthetic eukaryotes and predaceous eukaryotes (Extended Data Fig. 3a,

3b); 12 orthologous groups are conserved in the former two but not in the latter,

including the genes for light acclimation, organelle gene expression and changes of the

Fig. 2. *P. micropora* **nuclear genes acquired by EGT/HGT. a, b,** A functional classification of the *P. micropora* nuclear genes derived from cyanobacteria (EGT candidates) (**a**), and those from other bacteria (HGT candidates) (**b**). **c, d,** The amino acid sequence identity of EGT candidates against *P. micropora* MYN1 plastid genes (**c**) and that of HGT candidates against bacterial genes of the NCBI nr database (**d**). **e, f,** An estimation of the gene transfer age for EGT candidates (**e**) and HGT candidates (**f**). The endosymbiosis initiation period is green-highlighted. The ages of gene transfer in (**e**) and (**f**) were calculated based on the divergent time points (45.7–64.7 MYA) of two *Paulinella* species; thus, a gene transfer age younger than 60 MYA (striped phase) could not be estimated.

cellular nutrient state. Some of them were obtained horizontally from eukaryotes

(Extended Data Figs. 3b–d). Therefore, *P. micropora* utilized the genes of diverse

origins for endosymbiotic evolution.

The biggest challenge of this study is to elucidate the temporal sequence of

the events that occurred at the birth of photosynthetic eukaryotes. To solve this puzzle,

we first estimated how and when EGT occurred, based upon the sequence similarity

between the EGT candidates and organelle-encoded genes. The results were surprising.

We could not find any case with more than 80% amino acid sequence identity

conserved between them (Fig. 2c), suggesting that plastidial EGT did not occur in a

recent time period (Fig. 2e). We further searched for nuclear-localized plastid DNAs

and nuclear-localized mitochondria DNAs[15,16] in the genome and found the latter but

not the former. Therefore, it is likely that plastidial EGT rapidly activated and then

ceased early in the endosymbiotic evolution in *P. micropora*, while this cool down was

not found for mitochondrial EGT (Extended Data Fig. 4).

We confirmed this hypothesis from the different angle. Phylogenetic tree

analysis of the EGT candidates showed that most of them already lost their counterparts

in the plastid genome, except for four genes; hence, we reckon that these four genes

were transferred from the plastid to the nucleus relatively recently. The divergences of

the four genes between their nuclear and plastid counterparts were estimated to have

occurred 319.8 to 98.6 million years ago (MYA) (Extended Data Fig. 5). Considering

that the photosynthetic *Paulinella* species have diverged from the heterotrophic species

141.4 to 93.6 MYA[11], even the latest EGT at 98.6 MYA had occurred within the

initiation period of the endosymbiotic evolution. Taken together, the results of this

study strongly suggest that EGT rapidly activated and ceased within the initial period of

the endosymbiotic evolution (Fig. 2e), and a similar time course was also found for

HGT (Fig. 2d, 2f).

What does this rapid and simultaneous cool-down of EGT and HGT (Figs.

2c–2f) mean? The most simple and likely explanation is that the predaceous *Paulinella*

shrank and lost phagocytic activity at this time to become a photosynthetic organism,

accompanied by the shut-down of phagocytosis-aided EGT/HGT. In reality, HGT from

prey cyanobacteria occurred in the predaceous *Paulinella* species[17]. If our assumption is

correct, the predaceous *Paulinella* should have changed its cellular, genomic and

metabolic systems very quickly in terms of the evolutionary time scale. How was this

drastic change possible? To examine this, we re-focused this study on DNA virus-like

fragments frequently found in the *P. micropora* genome.

Fig. 3a shows a genomic scaffold containing putative virus fragments that are

characterized by having from a dozen to a hundred copies, high GC content, ORFs

similar to eukaryotic virus genes, and many intron-less genes of heterogeneous origins

with unknown functions (Extended Data Fig. 6, Supplementary Table 3). In addition,

they are often intermingled with simple repeats and mobile genetic elements, i.e.,

Maverick/Polinton-type giant transposons[18,19] and retrotransposons. Most notably, the

maximum fragment size reaches 300 kb (Extended Data Fig. 6). These structural

features of the DNA virus-like fragments resemble those of nucleocytoplasmic large

DNA viruses (NCLDV)[20] whose genome size ranges from 100 kbp to 2.5 Mbp and who

have many genes of heterogenous origins with unknown functions. However, a

phylogenetic analysis based on DNA polymerases shows that those genes, encoded by

the putative viral fragments, form a monophyletic clade distant from the genes of

eukaryotes, prokaryotes and known NCLDVs (Fig. 3b). Therefore, we assume that they

Fig. 3. Putative DNA virus and mobile elements in *P. micropora* MYN1. a, A schematic view of DNA virus-like fragments and mobile elements in the *P. micropora* draft genome (Scaffold 1104). The genomic regions were coloured according to the sequence characteristics; putative dsDNA virus (pink), Polinton (light blue), retrotransposon (brass yellow) and simple repeat-rich region (grey). The copy number of the interspersed repeat elements was analysed by BLASTN against the simple-repeat-masked *P. micropora* draft genome. **b,** ML phylogenetic tree of DNA polymerases of viruses, eukaryotes and prokaryotes. **c,** Divergent time analysis of the virus-type GPCR in *Paulinella*'s lineage. **d, e,** Divergent time analysis of DNA polymerase genes of metazoa-type (**d**) and rhizarian-type (**e**) Polintons. Asterisks: the branch point of *P. micropora* and *P. chromatophora* set at 45.7–64.7 MYA. Green bands: initiation periods of endosymbiosis with cyanobacteria (93.6–141.4 MYA). *P. micropora*; *Paulinella micropora* MYN1, *P. chromatophora*; *Paulinella chromatophora* CCAC0185, *P. brassicae*; *Plasmodiophora brassicae*, *R. filosa*; *Reticulomyxa filosa*, *S. purpurgus*; *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus*.

are from a novel large DNA virus but share several properties with known NCLDVs.

Our next question was when the putative virus infected the *Paulinella* lineage.

Although ancient infection hallmarks were already smeared, we found a suggestive case

in a *Paulinella*-specific gene family (Fig. 3c, Extended Data Fig. 7). The G-protein

coupled receptor (GPCR) genes rapidly expanded and diversified within a short

evolutionary period around the endosymbiosis initiation point. Noteworthily, two genes

of this family were found only in the putative viral fragment regions (yellow squares in

Fig. 3c and Extended Data Fig. 7). This suggests that these two genes diverged from the

rest of the family around the endosymbiosis initiation point and have been inherited

from the virus genome. This indicates that the putative virus has infected the *Paulinella*

lineage around the endosymbiosis initiation point or earlier.

To further prove this, we investigated the Maverick/Polinton-type transposons

derived from a virophage[21], which parasitizes giant viruses (extremely large NCLDVs)

with its propagation depending on the host virus[21,22]. Virophages are also integrated into

the nuclear genome and could function as an anti-DNA virus system to protect

eukaryotic cells from the DNA virus[23,24]. Therefore, we hypothesized that the

emergence of Mavericks/Polintons and their amplifications have occurred concomitant

with the DNA virus infection. In the *P. micropora* genome, two distinct

Mavericks/Polintons, metazoan- and rhizaria-type, were detected in abundance

(Extended Data Fig. 8, Supplementary Table 7). The divergent time analysis showed

that both started amplification in the endosymbiosis initiation period (Fig. 3d, 3e).

These results of the Maverick/Polinton-type transposons support the hypothesis that the

large DNA virus infected the *Paulinella* lineage around the endosymbiosis initiation

period.

Recent studies of NCLDV and giant DNA virus have drastically changed our

conventional view of viruses[13], especially their huge potential to incorporate diverse

genetic materials of heterogenous origins[25,26] and to mediate their shuffling.

Considering these properties of large DNA virus and the results of this study, we could

reconstruct the initial evolutionary process of the photosynthetic *Paulinella* species as

shown in Fig. 4. In this hypothetical model, large DNA virus contributed to the

endosymbiotic evolution as a critical player, in addition to the original players of the

host and symbiont. We should note that, in general, the detection of ancient infection

Fig. 4. Initial process of the endosymbiotic evolution of photosynthetic *Paulinella* species modeled from the *P. micropora* genomic data. 1) Predacious ancestors digested prey bacteria via phagocytosis with continuing low levels of HGT. **2)** The infection of large DNA virus triggered the massive HGT/EGT to promote the rapid endosymbiotic evolution. **3)** Acquiring photosynthetic competency shrunk the phagocytic activity to shut down the source of HGT/EGT. **4)** The photo-autotrophic *Paulinella* sp. contains one photosynthetic organelle per cell, hence, release of the organelle DNA hardly occurred without losing photosynthetic activity. In this final stage, virus-mediated gene transfer continued at trace level.

178 hallmarks of large DNA virus seems difficult because (1) it could be easily lost due to

179 its harmful and undesirable effects on host proliferation, (2) of poor information of the

180 virus sequences and (3) of repeated sequences that are apt to be omitted in the assembly

181 process of the genomic sequencing projects. This *Paulinella* version of the

182 endosymbiotic evolution hypothesis deserves further examination to test its generality

183 in many evolutionary systems.

185 **Methods**

186 **Data availability**

187 The sequences of the *P. micropora* draft genome, plastid (chromatophore) genome,

188 mitochondria genome and the raw reads data set were deposited to the DDBJ

189 (Accession No. are shown in Supplemental Table 8) and DDBJ reads archives (DRA

190 Accession No. DRA003059, DRA003106, DRA008524).

192 ***P. micropora* culture and cell isolation.** The *P. micropora* MYN1 strain (NIES

193 Collection, Tsukuba, JAPAN, NIES-4060) was cultured according to Nomura et al.

(2014)[5] and harvested by low-speed centrifugation (500 × g, 2 min) at 4 °C. The

harvested cells were resuspended in the culture medium and filtrated through a 20 μm

mesh nylon filter (HD-20, Nippon Rikagaku Kikai Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) to remove

dead cell aggregates with high bacterial contamination. Recovered healthy cells were

repeatedly washed with culture medium and subjected to RNA extraction. For

extraction of chromatin DNA, the cells were subsequently washed three times with 10

mM Tris-HCL (pH 8.0), six times with 10 mM Tris-HCL (pH 8.0) plus 10 mM EDTA,

and recovered by a 5 μm mesh nylon filter (PP-5n, Kyoshin Rikoh Inc., Tokyo, Japan)

to give clean cells largely free of bacterial contamination.

Chromatin and genomic DNA extraction. Genomic DNA used for paired-end (300 b,

500 b) and mate-pair (3 kb, 5 kb) libraries for HiSeq sequencing were purified by

chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) as follows. Ten milligrams of *P. micropora* cells

were homogenized in 500 μl homogenizing buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.6), 10 mM

NaCl, 10 mM KCl, 2.5 mM EDTA, 250 mM sucrose, 0.1 mM spermine, 0.5 mM

spermidine and 1 mM DTT) using a 30μm clearance glass homogenizer (RD440911,

Teraoka Co., Ltd., Osaka, Japan). After centrifugation (1000 × g, 10 min, 4 °C), the

pellets were resuspended in 300 µl ChIP buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 500 mM

NaCl, 10 mM EDTA, 0.1% SDS, 0.5% Na-deoxycholate, 1% Triton X-100, 1 mM DTT

and 10% glycerol) with 20 µl Dynabeads protein G (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA,

U.S.A.) charged with 1 µg anti-histone H3 antibody (Ab1791) (Abcam plc, Cambridge,

UK) and incubated at 4 °C for 20 min. Dynabeads were then washed twice with ChIP

buffer, twice with glycerol-free ChIP buffer and finally suspended in DNA extraction

buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 1 mM EDTA and 1% SDS). After RNase A (10

µg/ml) and proteinase K (200 µg/ml) treatment, DNAs were purified by using Plant

DNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). For the construction of the long mate-pair

libraries (12 kb, 15 kb, 18 kb and 20 kb), the total *P. micropora* genome was extracted

without ChIP purification.

Genome sequencing and assembly. Sequencing libraries were prepared using a

TruSeq DNA PCR-Free Library Preparation Kit and a Nextera Mate Pair

Library Prep Kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA). Two paired-end libraries with

300 and 500bp inserts and six mate pair libraries (3kb, 5kb, 12kb, 15kb,

18kb, and 20kb) were constructed and sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq

2500 sequencers with 151 cycles per run. The nuclear draft genome was

assembled by SOAPdenovo v2.04-r240[28] with a k-mer size of 121 after removing the

sequence reads of the plastid (chromatophore) and mitochondria genomes, and those of

two contaminating bacteria genomes. After the genome assembly, we checked for the

contamination of the organelle genome and the bacteria genomes again, and we

removed the contaminants from the draft genome. K-mer frequency analysis was

performed by Jellyfish[29]. Genome scaffolds longer than 1 kb were analysed in this

study.

RNA-seq and Iso-Seq analysis. RNAs were extracted from *P. micropora* cells at 0, 4,

8, 12, 16 and 20 hr of 14L/10D photoperiod by Trizol® reagent (Thermo Fisher

Scientific), and further purified using Plant RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) with RNase-free

DNase I treatment (Qiagen). Samples of the above time points were equally mixed and

subjected to RNA-seq analysis using Agilent Strand Specific RNA Library Preparation

Kit (Agilent Technologies, CA, U.S.A) and Illumina HiSeq 2500 (Illumina). The paired

end reads of RNA-seq were *de novo* assembled by Trinity[30] with the default setting or

by CLC Genomics Workbench 7.0.3 (Qiagen) using a K-mer value of 54. The RNA-seq

reads were mapped on the genome with Tophat[31] and assembled with Cufflinks[32] or

Trinity[30]. For isoform-sequencing (Iso-Seq) of full-length transcripts, cDNAs were

prepared from polyA+RNA using SMARTer® PCR cDNA Synthesis Kit (Takara Bio

Inc., Shiga, Japan). The cDNA samples were size-fractionated with the BluePippin™

system (Sage Science, MA, USA) and 700–1500 bp, 1500–3000 bp and 3000–6000 bp

fractions were analysed with a PacBio®RSII sequencer (Pacific Biosciences, CA,

U.S.A.). Iso-Seq-contigs were constructed using the RS_IsoSeq protocol in SMRT

Analysis (v2.3.0) with the parameter of estimated cDNA size. The *de novo* assembled

RNA-seq-contigs and Iso-Seq-contigs were mapped to the genome by BLAT[33], and

each contig was annotated when at least 80% of its sequence was mapped. The mapped

transcript data were used to make longer transcript models with PASA2 v. 2.0.2[34].

Annotation of repeat sequences. Repeat sequences of *P. micropora* were identified

using the RepeatModeller package (v. open-1-0-8, http://www.repeatmasker.org) and

masked by RepeatMasker v. 4.0[27], using the identified-model repeat sequences and the

repeat sequences of Repbase (ver. 20150807)[35] (https://www.girinst.org/repbase/). The

model repeat sequences were annotated based on the sequence homology search against

the NCBI nr database by BLASTX[36]. Representative Polintons and retrotransposons in

Supplementary Table 3 were identified by manual inspection of the *P. micropora* draft

genome aided by a sequence similarity search using BLAST software[36].

Gene annotation. Protein genes of *P. micropora* were annotated by a combination of

transcriptome-based gene modelling, *ab initio* gene prediction and protein

homology-based gene prediction. In the transcriptome-based gene modelling, the

transcripts were masked first by RepeatMasker because many spurious repetitive

sequences, which were not removed by genome-repeat-masking, were detected. We

discarded the transcript models when more than 80% of the region was masked by

RepeatMasker. Exceptions were made when ORFs (> 50 aa) were predicted from the

unmasked region. The ORFs and coding sequences of transcripts were predicted with

the Transdecoder Utility of Trinity[37]. *Ab initio* gene prediction was performed by

Augustus[38], whose training was performed using Iso-Seq data. Since *P. micropora*

protein genes often contain simple repeat sequences in the exon regions, we avoided

masking them for the *ab initio* gene prediction. The protein homology-based gene

prediction was performed by Exonerate[39] after masking both the simple repeat and the

interspersed repeat sequences, because the homology search in the presence of simple

repeat sequences generated an extraordinary number of meaningless candidates (data

not shown). In the Exonerate analysis, we used the protein sequences that passed the

prescreening by BLASTX search (*P. micropora* genome vs. a local protein database

composed of Uniprot and 4 rhizarian organisms, *B. natans*, *P. brassicae, P.*

chromatophore and *R. filosa*). All gene models described above were combined, and the

best one for each gene locus was chosen according to the bit score of the BLAST search,

the presence/absence of transcript and ORF length. The quality of the genome assembly

and the annotation was assessed by BUSCO v. 1[40].

Detection of DNA virus-like fragments. Genomic segments with discernible

boundaries and distinct from the rest of the genome by the following four criteria were

denoted as DNA virus-like fragments or putative DNA virus fragments: 1) repeat

sequences detected by RepeatModeller but distinct from retrotransposons and the

Maverick/Polinton-type transposons, 2) higher GC content, 3) large heterogeneous

intron-less gene clusters and 4) ORFs similar to DNA virus proteins are encoded; DNA

virus genes are found within the top 100 by BLASTP search against the NCBI nr

database. The detailed procedure is as follows. Genomic scaffolds containing repeat

sequences of the unknown class[27] were subjected to ORFfinder[41], and ORFs detected

were annotated by BLASTP[36] search against the NCBI nr database. The GC%

distribution was analysed with CLC genomic workbench 7.0.3 (Qiagen).The virus copy

number was analysed using the BLASTN[36] program searching the simple

repeat-masked draft genome for virus coding sequences (Supplementary Table 3) or 100

b fragments generated by slicing the virus-containing scaffolds (Fig. 3, Extended Data

Fig. 6). BLASTN-redundant hits were manually removed.

GO-term-, metabolism-pathway-, orthogroup- and protein-domain analysis.

GO-terms were acquired by InterproScan 5[42], and the enrichment analysis was

performed by web-based GOstat[43] (http://gostat.wehi.edu.au/) using 27,653 GO-terms

of 12,007 *P. micropora* genes and 88,634 GO-terms of 39,773 genes of 4 rhizarian

organisms (*B. natans, P. brassicae, R. filosa* and *P.micropora,*). Metabolism-pathways

were analysed using KAAS of KEGG[44] (https://www.genome.jp/kegg/kaas/).

Orthogroup-analysis of Extended Data Fig. 3 was performed by Orthofinder[45] using a

local protein database (Supplementary Table 10). Protein domain information in

Extended Data Fig. 7 was acquired by NCBI conserved domain (CD) search

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/cdd/wrpsb.cgi)[46].

nuclear-localized plastid DNA (nupDNA) and mitochondria DNA (numDNA)

analysis. Using the *P. micropora* plastid genome (DDBJ Accession No. LC490351) and

mitochondria genome sequence (DDBJ Accession No. LC490352) for queries, nupDNA

and numDNA were searched for by BLASTN against the *P. micropora* draft genome

and the raw sequence reads of Illumina HiSeq2500. In the raw read-based nupDNA and

numDNA analysis, chimeric segments of the organelle-like and non-organelle

sequences, which represent the junction region of nuclear localized organelle DNA,

were surveyed. The detected reads were assembled by CodonCode Aligner (CodonCode

Corporation, MA, U.S.A.). The chimera artefacts due to sequencing adaptors, or

contaminated bacterial and mitochondria genomes, were identified by BLAST analysis

using the NCBI database (nt, nr) and the mitochondria genome sequence (LC490352).

Phylogenetic analysis and the divergent time analysis. Multiple sequence alignment

analyses were performed by MUSCLE[47] and MAFFT[48]. The phylogenetic trees were

constructed using MEGA packages (version 6[49], 7[50] and -CC[51]) and IQ-tree[52]. The

divergent time analysis was performed using the RelTime method[53] implemented in

MEGA 6. Parameters used for phylogenetic analyses are shown in Supplementary Table

6 and 9, respectively.

Analysis of EGT/HGT candidates. *P. micropora* nuclear genes derived from

cyanobacteria are referred to as EGT, and those derived from the rest of the bacteria are

defined as HGT. To screen the EGT/HGT candidates, *P. micropora* MYN1 genes were

used as queries for the BLASTP search against the NCBI nr database with e-value ≤

$1e^{-10}$, and top-hitting genes of the *Paulinella* plastid genes or prokaryotic protein

sequences were selected. These genes were subjected to multiple alignment analyses by

MUSCLE using the protein sequences of a local protein dataset in Supplementary Table

10 and of the best BLASTP hit sequences. The obtained data sets were subjected to a

neighbour joining (NJ) phylogenetic analysis (MEGA6, 7, CC) to choose *P. micropora*

nuclear genes that form sister groups with prokaryotes or photosynthetic eukaryotes.

After fine taxon re-samplings from the NCBI nr database, the NJ analysis selection was

conducted again. The selected genes were finally subjected to maximum likelihood

(ML) analysis using MEGA packages (MEGA6, 7, CC). *P. micropora* nuclear genes

that satisfied at least one of the following three criteria were used as EGT and HGT

candidates. 1) BLAST analysis of the gene gave no hint of eukaryote genes in the NCBI

nr database. 2) EGT and HGT are supported by ML phylogenetic analysis with a high

bootstrap value. We adopted a bootstrap value of 95 as threshold when phylogenetically

available protein alignment sequence positions were long enough (≥ 100 aa). We

lowered the threshold to 70 when the available sites were less than 100 aa. 3) The gene

is included in the clade of photosynthetic organisms. To confirm the validity of the

above mentioned EGT candidate selection, we also screened the EGT candidates by

another independent procedure. The EGT candidates obtained by these two independent

analyses were almost overlapping and, therefore, used for the analysis (Supplementary

Table 6). The alternative analysis procedure is as follows. We performed a phylogenetic

analysis using the software of multiple alignment (MAFFT) and ML phylogenetic

analysis (IQ-tree), and alignment trimming tools (trimAI[54], BMGE[55]). We selected

genes hitting alpha-type cyanobacteria[56,57] within the top 100 by BLAST search against

a custom database, which consists of the NCBI nr database supplemented with the

protein sequences of 14 phylogenetically informative protists (Supplemental Table 10).

Estimation of EGT/HGT timing. To estimate the timing of EGT/HGT, we used *P.*

micropora genes whose counter genes of *P. chromatophora* CCAC0185 were reported

as EGT/HGT candidates[58,59]. In addition, we restricted the analysis to *Paulinella*

ortholog's pairs that form a monophyletic sister group with a high bootstrap value (≥

70). The nearest protein sequences of HGT/EGT candidates were surveyed from NCBI

nr database by BLASTP analysis. Within the top 2000 sequences of BLASTP hits, the

phylogenetically nearest gene sequences were estimated using NJ and ML phylogenetic

analysis. To estimate gene transfer timing, the branching time point when *P. micropora*

MYN1 separated from the nearest non-rhizarian organisms in the ML phylogenetic tree

was calculated using the RelTime method[55]. We used an estimated value of the

divergence of *P. micropora* and *P. chromatophora* (45.7–64.7 MYA) based on the 18S

rRNA phylogenetic tree corrected by fossil information[11,60].

Analysis of Mavericks/Polinton transposons. *P. micropora's* Mavericks/Polintons

transposons were detected from the draft genome by tBLASTN using the sequence of

the DNA polymerase (DNA-pol) domain. Thousands of DNA polymerase ORFs,

predicted from the genome sequences by Transdecoder[37], were subjected to NJ

phylogenetic analyses. We grouped highly similar copies. Representative sequences that

have long ORFs and less ambiguous amino acid residues were selected from each group

and subjected to ML phylogenetic analysis.

Divergent time analysis of the mobile elements. In the divergent time analysis of

Marvericks/Polintons DNA polymerases, representative DNA-pol sequences of *P.*

micropora MYN1 Polintons having the traits of recent amplification (nucleotide

sequence identity between the copies ≥ 90%) were used. For the DNA-pol sequences of

P. chromatophora CCAC0185 Polintons, the genome sequence-reads (SRR3217293.sra,

SRR3217303.sra) were searched by BLASTX (e-value < $1e^{-20}$) using the sequence of *P.*

micropora MYN1 Polintons, and then, the hit-reads were assembled into contigs with

CLC Genomic Workbench 7.0 (Qiagen). For the analysis of virus-type GPCR genes, in

addition to *P. micropora* MYN1 genes and *P. micropora* putative virus genes, the

translated ORFs of *P. chromatophora* CCAC0185 transcripts were analysed. The GPCR

gene family was detected by Orthofinder[45] and BLASTP[36] search. In this analysis, the

genes encoding seven intact trans-membrane domain sequences, of which all seven

trans-membrane helices can be identified by CD search[46], were used. Furthermore,

several genes predicted *ab initio* by Augustus without any supporting experimental data

were removed from the analysis, because their gene models appeared to be artificial

from applying eukaryotic splicing rules to virus-like fragments. The divergent time

points of the mobile elements and GPCR genes were calculated by setting the nearest

branching point of *P. micropora* MYN1 and *P. chromatophora* CCAC0185 at 45.7–

64.7 MYA.

Statistical analysis

In GO-term enrichment analysis, Fisher's exact test (two tailed test) was performed and

the p-values corrected with false discovery rate (Benjamini) were calculated. In the

phylogenetic analysis, bootstrap test with ≥100 replicates was performed.

References

1

Yoon, H.S., Hackett, J.D., Ciniglia, C., Pinto, G. & Bhattacharya, D. (2004) A

molecular timeline for the origin of photosynthetic eukaryotes. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **21**,

809-18, https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msh075 (2004).

2

Sánchez-Baracaldo, P., Raven, J. A., Pisani, D. & Knoll, A. H. Early photosynthetic

eukaryotes inhabited low-salinity habitats. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **114**,

E7737-E7745. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1620089114 (2017).

3

McFadden, G. I. Origin and evolution of plastids and photosynthesis in eukaryotes.

CSH Perspect Biol. **6**, a016105, https://doi.org/10.1101/cshperspect.a016105 (2014).

4

Burki, F. & Keeling, P. J. Rhizaria. *Curr. Biol.* **24**, R103-R107,

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2013.12.025 (2014).

5

Nomura, M., Nakayama, T. & Ishida, K. Detailed process of shell construction in the

photosynthetic testate amoeba Paulinella chromatophora (euglyphid, Rhizaria). *J.*

Eukaryot. Microbiol. **61**. 317-321. https://doi.org/10.1111/jeu.12102 (2014).

6

Matsuo, M. *et al.* Characterization of spliced leader trans-splicing in a photosynthetic

rhizarian amoeba, Paulinella micropora, and its possible role in functional gene transfer.

PLoS One **13**, e0200961, https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0200961 (2018).

7

Nowack, E. C., Melkonian, M. & Glöckner, G. Chromatophore genome sequence of

Paulinella sheds light on acquisition of photosynthesis by eukaryotes. *Curr. Biol.* **18**,

410-418, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2008.02.051 (2008).

8

Yoon, H. S. *et al.* A single origin of the photosynthetic organelle in different Paulinella

lineages. *BMC Evol. Biol.* **9**, 98, https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2148-9-98 (2009).

9

Reyes-Prieto, A. *et al*. Differential gene retention in plastids of common recent origin.

Mol. Biol. Evol. **27**, 1530-1537, https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msq032 (2010).

10

Nakayama, T. & Ishida, K. Another acquisition of a primary photosynthetic organelle is

underway   in   Paulinella   chromatophora.   *Curr.   Biol.*   **19**,   R284-R285,

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2009.02.043 (2009).

11

Delaye, L., Valadez-Cano, C. & Pérez-Zamorano, B. (2016) How Really Ancient Is

Paulinella   Chromatophora?   *PLOS   Curr.   Tree.   Life.*

https://doi.org/10.1371/currents.tol.e68a099364bb1a1e129a17b4e06b0c6b (2016).

12

Martin, W. *et al.* Evolutionary analysis of Arabidopsis, cyanobacterial,and chloroplast

genomes reveals plastid phylogeny and thousands of cyanobacterial genes in the

nucleus. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* **99**, 12246-12251,

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.182432999 (2002).

13

Koonin, E. V. & Yutin, N. Evolution of the Large Nucleocytoplasmic DNA Viruses of

Eukaryotes and Convergent Origins of Viral Gigantism. *Adv. Virus Res.* **103**, 167-202,

https://doi.org/10.1016/bs.aivir.2018.09.002 (2019).

14

Komenda, J. & Sobotka, R. Cyanobacterial high-light-inducible proteins--Protectors of

chlorophyll-protein synthesis and assembly. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta.* **1857**, 288-295,

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbabio.2015.08.011 (2016).

15

Matsuo, M., Ito, Y., Yamauchi, R. & Obokata, J. The rice nuclear genome continuously

integrates, shuffles, and eliminates the chloroplast genome to cause chloroplast-nuclear

DNA flux. *Plant Cell* **17**, 665-675, https://doi.org/10.1105/tpc.104.027706 (2005).

16

Smith, D. R., Crosby, K. & Lee, R. W. Correlation between nuclear plastid DNA

abundance and plastid number supports the limited transfer window hypothesis.

Genome Biol. Evol. **3**, 365-71, https://doi.org/10.1093/gbe/evr001 (2011).

17

Bhattacharya, D. *et al.* Single cell genome analysis supports a link between phagotrophy

and primary plastid endosymbiosis. *Sci Rep.* **2**, 356, https://doi.org/10.1038/srep00356

(2012).

18

Feschotte, C. & Pritham, E. J. Non-mammalian c-integrases are encoded by giant

transposable elements. *Trends Genet.* **21**, 551-552,

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tig.2005.07.007 (2005).

19

Kapitonov, V. V. & Jurka, J. Self-synthesizing DNA transposons in eukaryotes. *Proc.*

Natl. Acad. Sci. USA **103**, 4540-4545, https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0600833103 (2006).

20

Koonin, E. V. & Yutin, N. Multiple evolutionary origins of giant viruses. *F1000Res.* **7**,

F1000 Faculty Rev-1840, https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.16248.1 (2018).

21

Fischer, M. G. & Suttle, C. A. A virophage at the origin of large DNA transposons.

Science **332**, 231-234, https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1199412 (2011).

22

La Scola, B. *et al.* The virophage as a unique parasite of the giant mimivirus. *Nature*

455, 100-104. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature07218 (2008).

23

Fischer, M. G. & Hackl, T. Host genome integration and giant virus-induced

reactivation of the virophage mavirus. *Nature* **540**, 288-291.

https://doi.org/10.1038/nature20593 (2016).

24

Blanc, G., Gallot-Lavallée, L. & Maumus, F. Provirophages in the Bigelowiella genome

bear testimony to past encounters with giant viruses. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **112**,

E5318-5326, https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1506469112 (2015).

25

Boyer, M. *et al*. Giant Marseillevirus highlights the role of amoebae as a melting pot in

emergence of chimeric microorganisms. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **106**, 21848-21853,

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0911354106 (2009).

26

Piskurek, O. & Okada, N. Poxviruses as possible vectors for horizontal transfer of

retroposons from reptiles to mammals. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **104**, 12046-12051

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0700531104 (2007).

27

Smit, AFA, Hubley, R. & Green, P. *RepeatMasker Open-4.0*. 2013-2015,

http://www.repeatmasker.org.

Method-only references

28

Luo, R. *et al.* SOAPdenovo2: an empirically improved memory-efficient short-read de

novo assembler. *GigaScience* **1**, 18, https://doi.org/10.1186/2047-217X-1-18 (2012).

29

Marçais, G. & Kingsford, C. A fast, lock-free approach for efficient parallel counting of

occurrences of k-mers. *Bioinformatics* **27**, 764–770,

https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btr011 (2011).

30

Grabherr, M. G. et al. Full-length transcriptome assembly from RNA-Seq data without a

reference genome. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **29**, 644–652, https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.1883

(2011).

31

Trapnell C., Pachter L. & Salzberg, S. L. TopHat: discovering splice junctions with

RNA-Seq. *Bioinformatics* **25**, 1105-1111, https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp120

(2009).

32

Trapnell, C. *et al.* Transcript assembly and quantification by RNA-Seq reveals

unannotated transcripts and isoform switching during cell differentiation. *Nat.*

Biotechnol. **28**, 511–515, https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.1621 (2010).

33

Kent W. J. BLAT--the BLAST-like alignment tool. *Genome Res.* **12**, 656-664,

https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.229202 (2002).

34

Haas, B.J. *et al.* Improving the Arabidopsis genome annotation using maximal

transcript alignment assemblies. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **31**, 5654-5666,

https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkg770 (2003).

35

Bao, W., Kojima, K. K., & Kohany, O. Repbase Update, a database of repetitive

elements in eukaryotic genomes. *Mob. DNA* **6**, 11,

https://doi.org/10.1186/s13100-015-0041-9 (2015).

36

Camacho C. *et al.* BLAST+: architecture and applications. *BMC Bioinformatics* **10**, 421,

https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2105-10-421 (2009).

37

Haas, B.J. *et al.* De novo transcript sequence reconstruction from RNA-seq using the

Trinity platform for reference generation and analysis. *Nat. Protoc.* **8**, 1494-1512,

https://doi.org/10.1038/nprot.2013.084 (2013).

38

Stanke, M., Diekhans, M., Baertsch, R. & Haussler, D. Using native and syntenically

mapped cDNA alignments to improve de novo gene finding. *Bioinformatics* **24**, 637–

644, https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btn013 (2008).

39

Slater, G. S. & Birney, E. Automated generation of heuristics for biological sequence

comparison. *BMC Bioinformatics* **6**, 31, https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2105-6-31 (2005).

40

Simão, F. A., Waterhouse, R. M., Ioannidis, P., Kriventseva, E. V. & Zdobnov E. M.

BUSCO: assessing genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-copy

orthologs. *Bioinformatics* **31**, 3210-3212, https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btv351

(2015).

41

David, L. *et al.* Database resources of the National Center for Biotechnology. *Nucleic*

Acids Res. **31**, 28–33, https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkg033 (2003).

42

Jones, P. et al. InterProScan 5: genome-scale protein function classification.

Bioinformatics **30**, 1236–1240, https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btu031 (2014).

43

Beissbarth, T. & Speed, T. P. GOstat: Find statistically overrepresented Gene

Ontologies   within   a   group   of   genes.   *Bioinformatics*   **20**,   1464-1465,

https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bth088 (2004).

44

Moriya, Y., Itoh, M., Okuda, S., Yoshizawa, A., & Kanehisa, M. KAAS: an automatic

genome annotation and pathway reconstruction server. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **35**,

W182-W185, https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkm321 (2007).

45

Emms, D. M. & Kelly S. OrthoFinder: solving fundamental biases in whole genome

comparisons dramatically improves orthogroup inference accuracy. *Genome Biol.* **16**,

157, https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-015-0721-2 (2015).

46

Marchler-Bauer, A. et al. CDD/SPARCLE: functional classification of proteins via

subfamily domain architectures. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **45**, D200-D203,

https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkw1129 (2017).

47

Edgar R. C. MUSCLE: multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high

throughput. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **32**, 1792-1797, https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkh340

(2004).

48

Katoh, K., Misawa, K., Kuma, K. & Miyata T. MAFFT: a novel method for rapid

multiple sequence alignment based on fast Fourier transform. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **30**,

3059-3066, https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkf436 (2002).

49

Tamura, K., Stecher, G., Peterson, D., Filipski, A. & Kumar, S. MEGA6: Molecular

Evolutionary Genetics Analysis Version 6.0. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **30**, 2725-2729,

https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/mst197 (2013).

50

Kumar, S., Stecher, G., & Tamura, K. (2016) MEGA7: Molecular Evolutionary

Genetics Analysis Version 7.0 for bigger datasets. Mol. Biol. Evol. 33, 1870-1874,

https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msw054 (2016).

51

Kumar, S., Stecher, G., Peterson, D. & Tamura, K. MEGA-CC: Computing Core of

Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis Program for Automated and Iterative Data

Analysis. *Bioinformatics* **28**, 2685-2686, https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bts507

(2012).

52

Nguyen, L.-T., Schmidt, H.A., von Haeseler, A. & Minh, B.Q. IQ-TREE: A fast and

effective stochastic algorithm for estimating maximum likelihood phylogenies. *Mol.*

Biol. Evol. **32**, 268-274, https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msu300 (2015).

53

Tamura, K, Tao, Q. & Kumar S. Theoretical Foundation of the RelTime Method for

Estimating Divergence Times from Variable Evolutionary Rates. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **35**,

1770–1782, https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msy044 (2018).

54

Capella-Gutiérrez S., Silla-Martínez, J. M. & Gabaldón, T. trimAl: a tool for automated

alignment trimming in large-scale phylogenetic analyses. *Bioinformatics* **25**, 1972-1973,

https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp348 (2009).

55

Criscuolo, A. & Gribaldo, S. BMGE (Block Mapping and Gathering with Entropy): a

new software for selection of phylogenetic informative regions from multiple sequence

alignments. *BMC Evol. Biol.* **10**, 210, https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2148-10-210 (2010).

56

Badger M. R., Hanson, D. & Price G. D. Evolution and diversity of CO2 concentrating

mechanisms in cyanobacteria. *Funct. Plant Biol.* **29**, 161–173,

https://doi.org/10.1071/PP01213 (2002).

57

Marin, B., Nowack, E. C., Glöckner, G. & Melkonian, M. The ancestor of the Paulinella

chromatophore obtained a carboxysomal operon by horizontal gene transfer from a

Nitrococcus-like gamma-proteobacterium. *BMC Evol. Biol.* **7**, 85,

https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2148-7-85 (2007).

58

Nowack, E. C. *et al.* Gene transfers from diverse bacteria compensate for reductive

genome evolution in the chromatophore of Paulinella chromatophora. *Proc. Natl. Acad.*

Sci. USA **113**, 12214-12219, https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1608016113 (2016).

59

Nowack, E. C. et al. Endosymbiotic gene transfer and transcriptional regulation of

transferred genes in Paulinella chromatophora. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **28**, 407-422,

https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msq209 (2011).

60

Lhee, D. *et al.* Diversity of the Photosynthetic Paulinella Species, with the Description

of Paulinella micropora sp. nov. and the Chromatophore Genome Sequence for strain

KR01. *Protist* **168**, 155–170, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.protis.2017.01.003 (2017).

Acknowledgements

We thank Dr. Terabayashi T. for his kind instructions in SEM analysis.

Computations were partially performed on the NIG supercomputer at ROIS National

Institute of Genetics. This work was supported by JSPS KAKENNHI grants: 221S0002,

15K14554, 1 and 6K14788, and by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research on

Innovative Areas 3308 of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and

Technology of Japan.

711   Author contributions

M. M. prepared the *P. micropora* MYN1 genome samples, identified the

putative virus sequence in the *P. micorpora* MYN1 genome and wrote the draft

manuscript. M. M. and A. K. performed the RNA sample preparation. Y. M., H. N., A.

T. and A. F. performed the genome sequencing, the genome assembly and the Iso-Seq

analysis. Y. S. performed the RNA-seq sequencing analysis. M. N. and K. I. cultured *P.*

micorpora MYN1. M. M., A. K., M. T., H. N., H. T., S. S., M. N. and K. I. annotated

the *P. micropora* MYN1 genome. M. M., T. N. and R. K. performed the phylogenetic

analysis. T. N., R. K. and Y. I. analysed the organelle (chromatophore, mitochondria)

genome. J. O. organized and managed the *P. micropora* MYN1 genome project and

finalized the manuscript. We thank the members of Comparative Genomics

Laboratory in National Institute of Genetics for technical and computational

assistance.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Materials & Correspondence

Junichi Obokata

Email: obokata@kpu.ac.jp

Tel/Fax: +81-75-703-5164

Graduate School of Life and Environmental Science,

Kyoto Prefectural University, Kyoto, 606-8522, Japan

Figure Legends

Fig. 1. An overview of the *P. micropora* MYN1 draft genome. a, A SEM image of *P.*

micropora MYN1. **b,** The statistics of the draft genome. **c,** The genome composition of

P. micropora MYN1 analysed by RepeatMasker[27]. **d,** Simple repeats are extraordinarily

rich in *P. micropora* MYN1 compared with other organisms.

Fig. 2. *P. micropora* nuclear genes acquired by EGT/HGT. a, b, A functional

classification of the *P. micropora* nuclear genes derived from cyanobacteria (EGT

candidates) (**a**), and those from other bacteria (HGT candidates) (**b**). **c, d,** The amino

acid sequence identity of EGT candidates against *P. micropora* MYN1 plastid genes (**c**)

and that of HGT candidates against bacterial genes of the NCBI nr database (**d**). **e, f,** An

estimation of the gene transfer age for EGT candidates (**e**) and HGT candidates (**f**). The

endosymbiosis initiation period is green-highlighted. The ages of gene transfer in (**e**)

and (**f**) were calculated based on the divergent time points (45.7–64.7 MYA) of two

Paulinella species; thus, a gene transfer age younger than 60 MYA (striped phase)

could not be estimated.

Fig. 3. Putative DNA virus and mobile elements in *P. micropora* MYN1. a, A

schematic view of DNA virus-like fragments and mobile elements in the *P. micropora*

draft genome (Scaffold 1104). The genomic regions were coloured according to the

sequence characteristics; putative dsDNA virus (pink), Polinton (light blue),

retrotransposon (brass yellow) and simple repeat-rich region (grey). The copy number

of the interspersed repeat elements was analysed by BLASTN against the

simple-repeat-masked *P. micropora* draft genome. **b,** ML phylogenetic tree of DNA

polymerases of viruses, eukaryotes and prokaryotes. **c,** Divergent time analysis of the

virus-type GPCR in *Paulinella*'s lineage. **d, e,** Divergent time analysis of DNA

polymerase genes of metazoa-type (**d**) and rhizarian-type (**e**) Polintons. Asterisks: the

branch point of *P. micropora* and *P. chromatophora* set at 45.7–64.7 MYA. Green

bands: initiation periods of endosymbiosis with cyanobacteria (93.6–141.4 MYA). *P.*

micropora; *Paulinella micropora* MYN1, *P. chromatophora*; *Paulinella*

chromatophora CCAC0185*, P. brassicae*; *Plasmodiophora brassicae, R. filosa*;

Reticulomyxa filosa, S. purpurgus; *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus*.

Fig. 4. Initial process of the endosymbiotic evolution of photosynthetic *Paulinella*

species modeled from the *P. micropora* genomic data. 1) Predacious ancestors

digested prey bacteria via phagocytosis with continuing low levels of HGT. **2)** The

infection of large DNA virus triggered the massive HGT/EGT to promote the rapid

endosymbiotic evolution. **3)** Acquiring photosynthetic competency shrunk the

phagocytic activity to shut down the source of HGT/EGT. **4)** The photo-autotrophic

Paulinella sp. contains one photosynthetic organelle per cell, hence, release of the

organelle DNA hardly occurred without losing photosynthetic activity. In this final

stage, virus-mediated gene transfer continued at trace level.

a

b

	Plastid (Chromatophore)	Mitochondria
Genome size (bp)	977,199	37,153
GC%	39.3	23.6
Protein coding gene	874	23
rRNA gene	3 (X2)	2
tRNA gene	42	20

c

Mapped cDNA-region (%)	No. of the mapped cDNAs	Percent (%) of the mapped cDNAs
>80	13747	99.7 (%)
>90	13606	98.7
>95	13279	96.3
100	10532	76.4

d

Species name	*P. micropora* MYN1	*A. thaliana*	*P. brassicae*
Complete BUSCOs	388 (90%)	401 (93%)	392 (91%)
Complete Duplicated BUSCOs	139 (32%)	268 (62%)	95 (22%)
Fragmented BUSCOs	19 (4.4%)	10 (2.3%)	17 (3.9%)
Missing BUSCOs	22 (5.1%)	18 (4.1%)	20 (4.6%)

e

Biological process

GO ID	Description	p-value
GO:0015074	DNA integration	0
GO:0006259	DNA metabolic process	0
GO:0006260	DNA replication	0
GO:0006139	nucleobase, nucleoside, nucleotide and nucleic acid metabolic process	0
GO:0043283	biopolymer metabolic process	4.39E-65
GO:0043170	macromolecule metabolic process	6.18E-36
GO:0009186	deoxyribonucleoside diphosphate metabolic process	7.42E-21
GO:0009262	deoxyribonucleotide metabolic process	3.35E-17
GO:0009132	nucleoside diphosphate metabolic process	7.65E-17
GO:0000160	two-component signal transduction system (phosphorelay)	4.40E-15

Cellular component

GO ID	Description	p-value
GO:0005578	proteinaceous extracellular matrix	6.52E-05
GO:0000785	chromatin	0.009764
GO:0000786	chromatin#nucleosome	0.009764

Molecular function

GO ID	Description	p-value
GO:0003688	DNA replication origin binding	2.85E-77
GO:0043565	sequence-specific DNA binding	2.39E-59
GO:0008270	zinc ion binding	1.73E-41
GO:0046914	transition metal ion binding	8.56E-36
GO:0004930	G-protein coupled receptor activity	3.70E-22
GO:0003899	DNA-directed RNA polymerase activity	1.67E-20
GO:0004888	transmembrane receptor activity	1.10E-17
GO:0016775	phosphotransferase activity, nitrogenous group as acceptor	3.57E-16
GO:0004673	protein histidine kinase activity	3.57E-16
GO:0000155	two-component sensor activity	3.57E-16

Extended Data Fig. 1. Information of the *P. micropora* MYN1 genome. a, Estimation of the *P. micropora* MYN1 genome by K-mer frequency analysis. Single peak at 39 of the multiplicity are detected with 31-mer, utilizing 52,592,411,100 b from Illumina 500b pair-end reads. From the peak value and the used reads length, 1.35 Gb genome size was estimated. **b,** Summary of the *P. micropora* MYN1 organelle genome. **c,** Validation of the genome assembly by mapping of the sequences of the isoform sequencing (Iso-Seq) transcripts. 13787 non-redundant Iso-Seq sequences of the intron-containing genes, either hitting protein sequences of the Swiss-Prot database by BLASTX search (e-value ≤ 1e^{-60}) or containing long ORFs (≥ 300 amino acids), were mapped on the draft genome. **d,** Assessment of the genome assembly using 429 BUSCO v. 1 (Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs) genes. In comparison with other eukaryote genome assemblies, the BUSCO values of a photosynthetic organism (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) and that of the well-assembled genome of a rhizarian organism (*Plasmodiophora brassicae*) are shown. **e,** The top 10 GO-terms that are significantly overrepresented in the *P. micropora* MYN1 genome compared with other rhizarian organisms (*Bigelowiella natans*, *Plasmodiophora brassicae*, *Reticulomyxa filosa*). Fisher's exact test p-values corrected with false discovery rate (Benjamini) are represented.

▲ *P. micropora* plastid (chromatophore) gene
● *P. micropora* nuclear gene
● *P. chromatophora* nuclear gene

Extended Data Fig. 2. A ML phylogenetic tree of Hlips of *P. micropora* MYN1 and *P. chromatophora*. Hlips of cyanobacteria, photosynthetic eukaryotes and cyanophages are used as a reference for operational taxonomy units. Sixty-four *P. micropora* Hlip genes were subjected to phylogenetic analysis and grouped according to the clade. The redundant paralogs of identical sequences were removed. Asterisks: *Paulinella* ortholog-pair supported by a bootstrap value >70. Blue and red circle: nuclear encoded Hlip of *P. micropora* and *P. chromatophora*. Light-blue triangle: *P. micropora* plastid (chromatophore) Hlip. Phylogenetic branch of the *Paulinella* gene (light blue), virus (grey) and eukaryote Hlip-like gene (orange) are highlighted.

a

9,487 orthogroups in *P. micropora*

5242

3153

1080

18353

1,234 orthogroups conserved in 13 primary photosynthetic eukaryotes

22,662 orthogroups in 14 predator-type's eukaryotes

b

Orthogroup ID	Function	No. of *P. micropora* genes	Cellular localization of the orthologs in *A. thaliana*	Estimated origin
OG0000217	Chlorophyll A-B binding family protein (High light inducible protein)	81	Plastid	Cyanobacteria or Photosynthetic-eukaryote
OG0000633	Probable plastid-lipid-associated protein	4	Plastid	Cyanobacteria or Photosynthetic-eukaryote
OG0000868	Zeta-carotene desaturase	1	Plastid	Bacteria
OG0001101	Acetylglutamate kinase	1	Plastid	Bacteria
OG0001187	Arogenate dehydratase/prephenate dehydratase	1	Plastid	Unknown
OG0001403	Unknown	3	unknown	Cyanobacteria
OG0001742	Plastid stem-loop binding protein of 41kDa	1	Plastid	Haptophyta
OG0001936	SOUL heme-binding family protein	2	Plastid, golgi, vacuole	Bacteria and eukaryote
OG0002023	Biotin synthase	1	Mitochondoria	Stramenopiles
OG0003327	Unknown	1	Plastid	Cyanobacteria or Photosynthetic-eukaryote
OG0004091	Unknown	1	Plastid	Photosynthetic-eukaryote
OG0005438	Probable glutamyl endopeptidase,	1	Plastid	Rhizaria

c **d**

Extended Data Fig. 3. Comparison of the orthogroups of *P. micropora*, primary photosynthetic eukaryotes and predator-type eukaryotes. a, Venn diagram of *P. micriopora* orthogroups with the predator-type eukaryote orthogroups and the conserved orthogroups in primary photosynthetic eukaryotes. Orthogroups were detected by Orthofinder from the gene sets of *P. micropora* MYN1, 14 predator eukaryotes (*Acanthamoeba castellanii*, *Dictyostelium discoideum*, *Entamoeba histolytica HM-1*, *Bodo saltans*, *Naegleria gruberi*, *Caenorhabditis_elegans*, *Drosophila melanogaster*, *Monosiga brevicollis MX1*, *Oxytricha trifallax, Paramecium tetraurelia*, *Stylonychia lemnae*, *Tetrahymena thermophila*, *Reticulomyxa filosa*, *Thecamonas trahens ATCC50062*) and 13 photosynthetic eukaryotes (*Arabidopsis thaliana*, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, *Coccomyxa subellipsoidea C-169*, *Klebsormidium nitens*, *Micromonas pusilla CCMP1545*, *Oryza sativa*, *Ostreococcus tauri*, *Physcomitrella patens*, *Selaginella moellendorffii*, *Chondrus crispus*, *Cyanidioschyzon merolae*, *Galdieria sulphuraria*, *Cyanophora paradoxa*). **b,** Annotations of 12 orthogroups conserved in primary photosynthetic eukaryotes, but not in predator eukaryotes. The functional annotation and the cellular localization were based on UniprotKB information of *Arabidopsis thaliana* orthologs, and manual annotations are represented in parenthesis. The estimated origins were based on the ML phylogenetic analysis. Genes involved in light acclimation (cyan), nutrient auxotrophy (yellow) and organelle gene expression (magenta) are highlighted. **c** and **d,** ML phylogenetic trees of orthogroup genes acquired by HGT from other eukaryotes; Haptophyta (**c**, OG0001742) and Stramenopiles (**d**, OG0002023). The phylogenetic analysis of **c** and **d** were performed using a LG+G (**c**) and a LG+G+I model (**d**), respectively. Photosynthetic *Paulinella* species are boxed.

a

Analysis flow of nupDNA and numDNA with Illumina paired-end reads

① **Detection of the reads similar to plastid- and mitochondria-genome**

BLASTN hit (e-value ≤1e-10)

BLAST Database sequence
P. micropora plastid genome
P. micropora mitochondria genome
Two contaminated bacteria genome

No. of Candidates

nupDNA	numDNA
14,272,422 (reads)	3,019,020 (reads)

② **Chimeric reads having at least 5b non-organelle genome sequence**

(organelle genome like sequence)

non organelle genome sequence

nupDNA	numDNA
57,845 (reads)	32,824 (reads)

③ **The reads whose pair are less similar to the organelle genome**

BLASTN hit length < 100b or the sequence identity <95%

nupDNA	numDNA
6,821 (reads)	9,236 (reads)

④ **The junction contigs, assembled with at least 5 reads**

nupDNA	numDNA
35 (contigs)	58 (contigs)

⑤ **nupDNA- and numDNA-contigs after removal of the contamination**

Contaminants
• Bacteria genomes
• Mitochondria genome variants
• Artificial sequences fused to HiSeq-adapter sequence

nupDNA	numDNA
0 (contigs)	42 (contigs)

c

37,153 0

P. micropora MYN1 mitochondria genome [37,153bp]

d

Sequence identity of numDNA to mitochondria genome (%)

numDNA ID: A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z AA AB AC

b

S W N   R X M   V   H C U   Q Y   P J   A   K   (Scaffold0154 numDNA: 718563-720425)

AB   AC   (Scaffold0303: 596893-596987, 597839-597935)

AA   (Scaffold0318: 476933-477322)   Z   (Scaffold1059: 160754-161026)

D   (Scaffold1127: 157412-157646)   T   (Scaffold0921: 246749-246950)

O   (Scaffold1496: 76687-76798)   F   (Scaffold0108: 39594-39731)

B   (Scaffold0105: 325729-325821)   L   (Scaffold0365: 8236-8315)

I   (Scaffold0053: 273680-273751)   G   (Scaffold0483: 47485-47561)

E   (Scaffold0458: 444898-444945)

200b

Extended Data Fig. 4. Analysis of nuclear-localized plastid DNA (nupDNA) and mitochondria DNA (numDNA) in *P. micropora*. a, Analysis of the junction sequences of nupDNA and numDNA using Illumina raw-reads sequences. 902,121,079 quality-trimmed HiSeq paired-end sequence reads (insert size: 300 b, 500 b) were analysed. **b,** numDNA sequence structures in the *P. micropora* draft genome. **c**, Distribution of numDNA sequences in mitochondrial genome positions. **d,** Nucleotide percent identity of numDNA compared with the mitochondria genome sequence. NumDNA directions are represented by right and left arrows which denote clockwise- and anti-clockwise directions of the mitochondria genome sequence (**c**), respectively.

Extended Data Fig. 5. ML phylogenetic trees of four EGT candidates whose counterpart orthologs are found in the plastid (chromatophore) genome of *P. micropora*. The clades of the *Paulinella* plastid and cyanobacteria are highlighted in green. Blue circle: *P. micropora* nuclear gene, red circle: *P. chromatophora* nuclear gene, blue triangle: *P. micropora* plastid gene, red triangle: *P. chromatophora* plastid gene, unmarked: cyanobacterium gene. The branch of *P. micropora* and *P. chromatophora* nuclear genes supported by high bootstraps (numbers in the parenthesis) is represented as a red line. The divergence time of *Paulinella* nuclear genes from the plastid- or other cyanobacterial-genes (yellow stars) were estimated by RelTime methods of MEGA6 using the divergent time of *P. micropora* and *P. chromatophora* (45.7–64.7 MYA) (blue cross). Psak: Photosystem I subunit K, CcmL: CO_2 concentrating mechanism protein, Hlip: High light inducible protein. Brackets mean the substitution model used in the phylogenetic analysis. Trees with species names are available at the repository (https://figshare.com/s/a665678c48d0af073894).

Extended Data Fig. 6. Putative DNA virus fragments detected in the *P. micropora* draft genome. ORF structures, GC%, copy number and sequence gaps are represented as described in the legend to Fig. 3.

Extended Data Fig. 7. Characteristics of virus-type GPCRs of *P. micropora* and *P. chromatophora*. a, A ML phylogenetic tree of seven transmembrane domains of GPCRs. GPCRs in *P. micropora, P. chromatophora, P. brassicae* (CEO98393.1, CEO98395.1), and those detected in DNA viral fragments were analysed using a LG+G+F model. Branches with bootstrap values <50 are condensed. **b,** Existence of the transcript. **c,** GC% of the coding sequence of GPCR genes. **d,** Exon/intron structures of the genes. **e,** Protein domain structures. Protein domains were detected by CD search[48]. GPCRs in putative DNA viruses are boxed with a blue line.

Extended Data Fig. 8. ML phylogenetic tree of DNA polymerases of Polintons. a, DNA polymerase sequences of *P. micropora* Polintons (No. 2766 and No. 3055), *R. filosa'* Polintons (Genbank, ETO12468.1, ETO19856.1, ETO13433.1)*,* metazoan Polintons in Repbase [37] and Mavirus (Genbank, YP 004300281.1) were analysed with a LG+G+I model. The metazoan and rhizarian groups are highlighted in green and yellow, respectively.

Extended Data legends

Extended Data Fig. 1. Information of the *P. micropora* MYN1 genome. a,

Estimation of the *P. micropora* MYN1 genome size by K-mer frequency analysis.

Single peak at 39 of the multiplicity are detected with 31-mer, utilizing 52,592,411,100

b from Illumina 500b pair-end reads. From the peak value and the used reads length,

1.35 Gb genome size was estimated. **b,** Summary of the *P. micropora* MYN1 organelle

genome. **c,** Validation of the genome assembly by mapping of the sequences of the

isoform sequencing (Iso-Seq) transcripts. 13787 non-redundant Iso-Seq sequences of

the intron-containing genes, either hitting protein sequences of the Swiss-Prot database

by BLASTX search (e-value $\leq$ 1e^{-60}) or containing long ORFs ($\geq$ 300 amino acids),

were mapped on the draft genome. **d,** Assessment of the genome assembly using 429

BUSCO v. 1 (Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs) genes. In comparison

with other eukaryote genome assemblies, the BUSCO values of a photosynthetic

organism (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) and that of the well-assembled genome of a rhizarian

organism (*Plasmodiophora brassicae*) are shown. **e,** The top 10 GO-terms that are

significantly overrepresented in the *P. micropora* MYN1 genome compared with other

rhizarian organisms (*Bigelowiella natans*, *Plasmodiophora brassicae*, *Reticulomyxa*

filosa). Fisher's exact test p-values corrected with false discovery rate (Benjamini) are

represented.

Extended Data Fig. 2. A ML phylogenetic tree of Hlips of *P. micropora* MYN1 and

P. chromatophora. Hlips of cyanobacteria, photosynthetic eukaryotes and cyanophages

are used as a reference for operational taxonomy units. Sixty-four *P. micropora* Hlip

genes were subjected to phylogenetic analysis and grouped according to the clade. The

redundant paralogs of identical sequences were removed. Asterisks: *Paulinella*

ortholog-pair supported by a bootstrap value >70. Blue and red circle: nuclear encoded

Hlip of *P. micropora* and *P. chromatophora*. Light-blue triangle: *P. micropora* plastid

(chromatophore) Hlip. Phylogenetic branch of the *Paulinella* gene (light blue), virus

(grey) and eukaryote Hlip-like gene (orange) are highlighted.

Extended Data Fig. 3. Comparison of the orthogroups of *P. micropora*, primary

photosynthetic eukaryotes and predator-type eukaryotes. a, Venn diagram of *P.*

micriopora orthogroups with the predator-type eukaryote orthogroups and the

conserved orthogroups in primary photosynthetic eukaryotes. Orthogroups were

detected by Orthofinder from the gene sets of *P. micropora* MYN1, 14 predator

eukaryotes (*Acanthamoeba castellanii, Dictyostelium discoideum, Entamoeba*

histolytica HM-1, Bodo saltans, Naegleria gruberi, Caenorhabditis_elegans,

Drosophila melanogaster, Monosiga brevicollis MX1, Oxytricha trifallax, Paramecium

tetraurelia, Stylonychia lemnae, Tetrahymena thermophila, Reticulomyxa filosa,

Thecamonas trahens ATCC50062) and 13 photosynthetic eukaryotes (*Arabidopsis*

thaliana, Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, Coccomyxa subellipsoidea C-169,

Klebsormidium nitens, Micromonas pusilla CCMP1545, Oryza sativa, Ostreococcus

tauri, Physcomitrella patens, Selaginella moellendorffii, Chondrus crispus,

Cyanidioschyzon merolae, Galdieria sulphuraria, Cyanophora paradoxa). **b,**

Annotations of 12 orthogroups conserved in primary photosynthetic eukaryotes, but not

in predator eukaryotes. The functional annotation and the cellular localization were

based on UniprotKB information of *Arabidopsis thaliana* orthologs, and manual

annotations are represented in parenthesis. The estimated origins were based on the ML

phylogenetic analysis. Genes involved in light acclimation (cyan), nutrient auxotrophy

(yellow) and organelle gene expression (magenta) are highlighted. **c** and **d,** ML

phylogenetic trees of orthogroup genes acquired by HGT from other eukaryotes;

Haptophyta (**c**, OG0001742) and Stramenopiles (**d**, OG0002023). The phylogenetic

analysis of **c** and **d** were performed using a LG+G (**c**) and a LG+G+I model (**d**),

respectively. Photosynthetic *Paulinella* species are boxed.

Extended Data Fig. 4. Analysis of nuclear-localized plastid DNA (nupDNA) and

mitochondria DNA (numDNA) in *P. micropora.* a, Analysis of the junction sequences

of nupDNA and numDNA using Illumina raw-reads sequences. 902,121,079

quality-trimmed HiSeq paired-end sequence reads (insert size: 300 b, 500 b) were

analysed. **b,** numDNA sequence structures in the *P. micropora* draft genome. **c**,

Distribution of numDNA sequences in mitochondrial genome positions. **d,** Nucleotide

percent identity of numDNA compared with the mitochondria genome sequence.

NumDNA directions are represented by right and left arrows which denote clockwise-

and anti-clockwise directions of the mitochondria genome sequence (**c**), respectively.

Extended Data Fig. 5. ML phylogenetic trees of four EGT candidates whose counterpart orthologs are found in the plastid (chromatophore) genome of *P. micropora*. The clades of the *Paulinella* plastid and cyanobacteria are highlighted in green. Blue circle: *P. micropora* nuclear gene, red circle: *P. chromatophora* nuclear gene, blue triangle: *P. micropora* plastid gene, red triangle: *P. chromatophora* plastid gene, unmarked: cyanobacterium gene. The branch of *P. micropora* and *P. chromatophora* nuclear genes supported by high bootstraps (numbers in the parenthesis) is represented as a red line. The divergence time of *Paulinella* nuclear genes from the plastid- or other cyanobacterial-genes (yellow stars) were estimated by RelTime methods of MEGA6 using the divergent time of *P. micropora* and *P. chromatophora* (45.7–64.7 MYA) (blue cross). Psak: Photosystem I subunit K, CcmL: CO_2 concentrating mechanism protein, Hlip: High light inducible protein. Brackets mean the substitution model used in the phylogenetic analysis. Trees with species names are available at the repository (https://figshare.com/s/a665678c48d0af073894).

Extended Data Fig. 6. Putative DNA virus fragments detected in the *P. micropora*

draft genome. ORF structures, GC%, copy number and sequence gaps are represented

as described in the legend to Fig. 3.

Extended Data Fig. 7. Characteristics of virus-type GPCRs of *P. micropora* and *P.*

***chromatophora.* a,** A ML phylogenetic tree of seven transmembrane domains of

GPCRs. GPCRs in *P. micropora, P. chromatophora, P. brassicae* (CEO98393.1,

CEO98395.1), and those detected in DNA viral fragments were analysed using a

LG+G+F model. Branches with bootstrap values <50 are condensed. **b,** Existence of the

transcript. **c,** GC% of the coding sequence of GPCR genes. **d,** Exon/intron structures of

the genes. **e,** Protein domain structures. Protein domains were detected by CD search[48].

GPCRs in putative DNA viruses are boxed with a blue line.

Extended Data Fig. 8. ML phylogenetic tree of DNA polymerases of Polintons. a,

DNA polymerase sequences of *P. micropora* Polintons (No. 2766 and No. 3055), *R.*

filosa' Polintons (Genbank, ETO12468.1, ETO19856.1, ETO13433.1)*,* metazoan

Polintons in Repbase[37] and Mavirus (Genbank, YP 004300281.1) were analysed with a

LG+G+I model. The metazoan and rhizarian groups are highlighted in green and yellow,

respectively.

Supplementary information

Supplementary Table 1. Summary of the raw sequence data of the *P. micropora*

genome.

Supplementary Table 2. Annotation and categorization of the *P. micropora*

RepeatModeller sequences. *The categorization is based on the sequence similarities

with the manually curated repeat sequences in Supplementary Table 3 by BLASTX

search (e-value $< 1e^{-5}$).

Supplementary Table 3. Annotation of the repeat elements manually identified

from the *P. micropora* draft genome. *The copy number of the repeat elements was

estimated by BLASTN search against the *P. micropora* genome. Redundant BLASTN

hits at the same genome locus were manually removed.

Supplementary Table 4. *P. micropora* MYN1 gene list.

Supplementary Table 5. GO-terms over- and under-represented in the *P.

micropora MYN1 genome compared with the genome of other rhizarian organisms**

(*B. natans, P. brassicae* and *R.filosa*). Significantly enriched GO-terms with Fisher's

exact test p-value less than 0.01 are represented.

Supplementary Table 6. EGT and HGT candidates in *P. micropora* MYN1. Genes

satisfying at least one of the following criteria were considered as EGT and HGT

candidates. 1) No hits to eukaryote genes of the NCBI nr database by BLAST analysis*

2) EGT and HGT are supported by ML phylogenetic analysis with a high bootstrap

value ($\geq$95) except when the phylogenetically available protein alignment sequences

were short (< 100 amino acids)** 3) *P. micropora* genes were embedded in the clade of

photosynthetic organisms in the phylogenetic tree. * BLASTP top 1000 hits (NCBI nr,

e-value < $1e^{-10}$) were classified. A: Archaea, B: Bacteria, E: Eukaryotes, V: Viruses, O:

Others, U: Unknown. ** We lowered the threshold of the bootstrap value to 70 when

the alignment sequence positions available for the phylogenetic analysis were less than

100 amino acids.

Supplementary Table 7. Detection of P. *micropora* Polintons by tBLASTn search

using DNA polymerase domain sequences. A tBLASTn search was performed against

the *P. micropora* draft genome (e-value < $1e^{-10}$). The draft genome sequences and the

query   sequences   are   available   at   the   repository

(https://figshare.com/s/a665678c48d0af073894).

Supplementary Table 8. Accession numbers of P. micropora MYN1 genome

sequences.

Supplementary Table 9. Parameters of the ML phylogenetic analysis by MEGA6.

Supplementary Table 10. Sequence data used in this study.

945