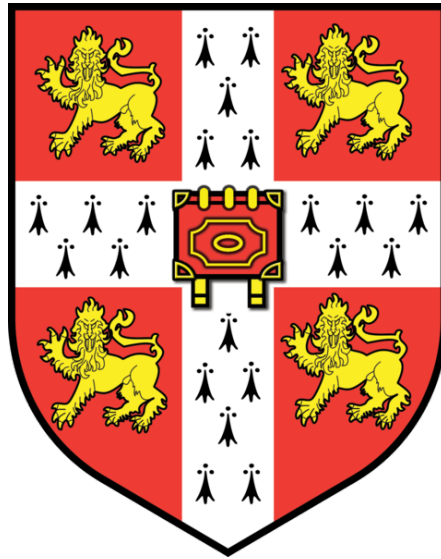


# The genome of *Euglena gracilis*: Annotation, function and expression



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**Title:** The genome of *Euglena gracilis*: Annotation, Function and Expression

## **ABSTRACT**

*Euglena gracilis* is a species of unicellular photosynthetic flagellate that inhabits aquatic ecosystems. *E. gracilis* belongs to the supergroup Excavata, and are an important component of the global biosphere, have biotechnological potential and is useful biological model due to their evolutionary history and complex biology. Whilst the evolutionary position of *E. gracilis* is now clear, their relationship with other protists such as *Naegleria*, *Giardia*, and Kinetoplastids, remains to be investigated in detail. Investigating and understanding the biology of this complex organism is a promising way to approach many evolutionary puzzles, including secondary endosymbiotic events and the evolution of parasitism, due to their relationship with Kinetoplastids. Here, I report a draft genome for *E. gracilis*, together with a high quality transcriptome and proteomic analysis. The estimated genome size is ~ 2 Gbp, with a GC content of ~ 50 % and a protein coding potential predicted at 36,526 Open Reading Frames (ORFs). Less than 25% of the genome is single copy sequence, indicating extensive repeat structure. There are evidences for large number of paralogs amongst specific gene families, indicating expansions and possible polyploidy as well as extensive sharing of genes with other non photosynthetic and photosynthetic eukaryotes: red and green algal genes, together with trypanosomes and other members of the excavates. Functional resolution into several of the biological systems indicates multiple similarities with the trypanosomatids in terms of orthology, paralogy, relatedness and complexity. Several biological systems such as nuclear architecture (e.g. chromosome segregation, nuclear pore complex, nuclear lamins), protein trafficking, translation, surface, consist of conserved and divergent components. For instance, several gene families likely associated with the cell surface and signal transduction possess very large numbers of lineage-specific paralogs, suggesting great flexibility in environmental monitoring and, together with divergent mechanisms for metabolic control, novel solutions to adaptation to extreme environments. I also demonstrate that the majority of control of protein expression levels is post-transcriptional and absence of transcriptional regulation, despite the presence of conventional introns. These data are a major advance in the understanding of the nuclear genome of Euglenids and provide a platform for investigation of the contributions of *E. gracilis* and relatives to the biosphere.

# DECLARATION

This dissertation is the result of my own work and includes nothing which is the outcome of work done in collaboration except as declared in the Preface and specified in the text.

It is not substantially the same as any that I have submitted, or, is being concurrently submitted for a degree or diploma or other qualification at the University of Cambridge or any other University or similar institution except as declared in the Preface and specified in the text. I further state that no substantial part of my dissertation has already been submitted, or, is being concurrently submitted for any such degree, diploma or other qualification at the University of Cambridge or any other University or similar institution except as declared in the Preface and specified in the text.

It does not exceed the prescribed word limit for the relevant Degree Committee – ‘except as required post examination’.

ThankGod E. Ebenezer

May, 2018

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## ABSTRACT

*Euglena gracilis* is a species of unicellular photosynthetic flagellate that inhabits aquatic ecosystems. *E. gracilis* belongs to the supergroup Excavata, and are an important component of the global biosphere, have biotechnological potential and is useful biological model due to their evolutionary history and complex biology. Whilst the evolutionary position of *E. gracilis* is now clear, their relationship with other protists such as *Naegleria*, *Giardia*, and Kinetoplastids, remains to be investigated in detail. Investigating and understanding the biology of this complex organism is a promising way to approach many evolutionary puzzles, including secondary endosymbiotic events and the evolution of parasitism, due to their relationship with Kinetoplastids. Here, I report a draft genome for *E. gracilis*, together with a high quality transcriptome and proteomic analysis. The estimated genome size is ~ 2 Gbp, with a GC content of ~ 50 % and a protein coding potential predicted at 36,526 Open Reading Frames (ORFs). Less than 25% of the genome is single copy sequence, indicating extensive repeat structure. There are evidences for large number of paralogs amongst specific gene families, indicating expansions and possible polyploidy as well as extensive sharing of genes with other non photosynthetic and photosynthetic eukaryotes: red and green algal genes, together with trypanosomes and other members of the excavates. Functional resolution into several of the biological systems indicates multiple similarities with the trypanosomatids in terms of orthology, paralogy, relatedness and complexity. Several biological systems such as nuclear architecture (e.g. chromosome segregation, nuclear pore complex, nuclear lamins), protein trafficking, translation, surface, consist of conserved and divergent components. For instance, several gene families likely associated with the cell surface and signal transduction possess very large numbers of lineage-specific paralogs, suggesting great flexibility in environmental monitoring and, together with divergent mechanisms for metabolic control, novel solutions to adaptation to extreme environments. I also demonstrate that the majority of control of protein expression levels is post-transcriptional and absence of transcriptional regulation, despite the presence of conventional introns. These data are a major advance in the understanding of the nuclear genome of Euglenids and provide a platform for investigation of the contributions of *E. gracilis* and relatives to the biosphere.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE PAGE	i
DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iii
ABSTRACT	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
LIST OF TABLES	xv
LIST OF APPENDICES	xvii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xviii
<b>1.0 INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 BACKGROUND AND CLASSIFICATION	1
1.2 GENOMIC STRUCTURES, EVOLUTION, AND FUNCTIONS	8
1.2.1 <i>Nucleus</i>	8
1.2.1.1 <i>Chromatin</i>	8
1.2.1.2 <i>Nuclear genome structure</i>	8
1.2.1.3 <i>Evolution of the nuclear genome</i>	10
1.2.1.4 <i>Nuclear genome functions</i>	13
1.2.2 <i>Chloroplast</i>	22
1.2.2.1 <i>The photosynthetic apparatus</i>	23
1.2.2.2 <i>Chloroplast genome structure</i>	24
1.2.2.3 <i>Evolution of the chloroplast genome</i>	26
1.2.2.4 <i>Chloroplast genome functions</i>	29
1.2.3 <i>Mitochondria</i>	33
1.2.3.1 <i>The mitochondria machinery</i>	33
1.2.3.2 <i>Mitochondria genome structure</i>	34
1.2.3.3 <i>Evolution of the mitochondrial genome</i>	35
1.2.3.4 <i>Mitochondria genome functions</i>	39
1.3 OTHER CELLULAR STRUCTURES AND FUNCTIONS	41

1.3.1	<i>Motor apparatus and photoreceptors</i>	41
1.3.2	<i>The pellicular complex and cytoskeleton</i>	43
1.3.3	<i>Microtubules and golgi apparatus</i>	45
1.4	METABOLISM	46
1.5	EVOLUTION OF PARASITISM	47
1.6	THE SURFACE OF KINETOPLASTIDS	49
1.7	PROJECT AIMS AND OBJECTIVES	49
<b>2.0</b>	<b>METHODS AND MATERIALS</b>	<b>51</b>
2.1	CULTIVATION OF <i>Euglena gracilis</i>	51
2.2	NUCLEIC ACID ISOLATION AND PURIFICATION	54
2.3	LIBRARY PREPARATION AND SEQUENCING	55
2.4	GENOME AND TRANSCRIPTOME ASSEMBLY	55
2.4.1	<i>Quality controls and assembly</i>	55
2.4.2	<i>Assembly Improvement and variant detection</i>	58
2.4.3	<i>Assembly evaluation and assessment</i>	59
2.4.3.1	<i>Genome</i>	59
2.4.3.2	<i>Transcriptome</i>	59
2.5	GENOME AND TRANSCRIPTOME STRUCTURAL AND FUNCTIONAL AUTOMATIC ANNOTATION	60
2.5.1	<i>Transcriptome: Gene predictions and automatic functional analysis</i>	60
2.5.2	<i>Assembling sequence data, data mining and phylogenetic inference</i>	63
2.5.3	<i>Large contigs (&gt;10kb) in the E. gracilis genome</i>	65
2.6	ORTHOLOGOUS GROUP CLUSTERING	65
2.7	GENE EXPRESSION STUDIES	66
2.7.1	<i>Transcriptomics analysis for gene expression studies</i>	66
2.7.2	<i>Proteomics analysis for gene expression studies</i>	66
2.7.3	<i>Electron microscopy of light and dark E. gracilis cells</i>	67

<b>3.0 GENOME ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTION</b>	<b>68</b>
3.1 INTRODUCTION	68
3.2 GENOME SEQUENCING AND ASSEMBLY	68
3.2.1 <i>DNA isolation and purification</i>	68
3.2.2 <i>Library preparation, Illumina, Roche 454, and PacBio sequence data</i>	74
3.2.3 <i>Genome assembly, assembly improvements and variant Detections, assembly assessments and evaluation</i>	77
3.3 GENOME STRUCTURAL AND FUNCTIONAL AUTOMATIC ANNOTATION	87
3.3.1 <i>Gene predictions and features</i>	87
3.3.2 <i>Non coding RNA genes</i>	103
3.3.3 <i>BLAST homology, InterProScan, Gene Ontology, Kegg Maps, and Enzyme Codes</i>	103
3.4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	110
3.4.1 <i>DNA isolation, sequence data quality, Assembly evaluation and assessment</i>	110
3.4.2 <i>Structural and functional genome annotation</i>	110
3.4.3 <i>Significance of findings – adaptations, functions and applications</i>	113
<b>4.0 TRANSCRIPTOME ARCHITECTURE, FUNCTION AND EVOLUTION</b>	<b>118</b>
4.1 INTRODUCTION	118
4.2 TRANSCRIPTOME SEQUENCING AND ASSEMBLY	118
4.2.1 <i>RNA isolation and purification</i>	118
4.2.2 <i>Library preparation and Illumina sequence data</i>	118
4.2.3 <i>Transcriptome assembly, assembly improvements and variant detections, assembly evaluation and assessments</i>	119
4.3 TRANSCRIPTOME STRUCTURAL AND FUNCTIONAL AUTOMATIC ANNOTATION	124
4.3.1 <i>Gene predictions, features, ORF distribution and statistics</i>	124

4.3.2	<i>BLAST homology search</i>	124
4.3.3	<i>InterProScan and Gene Ontology</i>	133
4.3.4	<i>Enzyme Code and Kegg map</i>	133
4.3.5	<i>Orthologous groups clustering and evolution</i>	134
4.3.6	<i>The Model Organism Database (MOD), EuglenaDB</i>	137
4.4	<b>DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION</b>	109
4.4.1	<i>RNA isolation, sequence data quality, assembly evaluation and assessment</i>	137
4.4.2	<i>Structural and functional transcriptome annotation</i>	138
4.4.3	<i>Significance of findings – adaptations, functions and applications</i>	138
<b>5.0</b>	<b>COMMUNITY-BASED TRANSCRIPTOME ANNOTATION</b>	<b>141</b>
5.1	<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	141
5.2	<b>CELLULAR PROCESSES AND SIGNALING</b>	141
5.2.1	<i>Protein trafficking</i>	142
5.2.2	<i>Meiosis</i>	158
5.2.3	<i>Bilobes and associated proteins</i>	162
5.2.4	<i>Nuclear cohorts, architecture, and heterochromatin organization</i>	164
5.2.5	<i>Tubulins</i>	169
5.2.6	<i>Transporters</i>	172
5.2.7	<i>Histones</i>	179
5.2.8	<i>Calmodulins and rhodopsin</i>	183
5.3	<b>INFORMATION STORAGE AND PROCESSING</b>	187
5.3.1	<i>Translational apparatus</i>	187
5.3.2	<i>Pre-initiation complex</i>	198
5.3.3	<i>Kinetochores</i>	203
5.3.4	<i>mRNA metabolism</i>	211
5.3.5	<i>Exosomes</i>	213
5.3.6	<i>Spliceosomes and related proteins</i>	215

5.3.7	<i>Editosomes and related proteins</i>	228
5.3.8	<i>TAC/CAP proteins</i>	233
5.3.9	<i>RNAi pathway</i>	233
5.4	METABOLISM	236
5.4.1	<i>GalF</i>	236
5.4.2	<i>PPG</i>	238
5.5	EVOLUTION	240
5.5.1	<i>Orthologous groups clustering</i>	240
5.6	OVERVIEW OF COMMUNITY-BASED SYSTEMS INVESTIGATED	241
5.7	DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	252
5.7.1	<i>Cellular processes and signaling</i>	252
5.7.2	<i>Information storage and processing</i>	259
5.7.3	<i>Metabolism and evolution</i>	261
5.7.4	<i>Significance of findings – adaptations, functions and applications</i>	262
<b>6.0</b>	<b>GENE EXPRESSION STUDIES</b>	<b>268</b>
6.1	INTRODUCTION	268
6.2	LIGHT AND DARK RNA-seq DIFFERENTIAL EXPRESSION ANALYSIS AND LABEL-FREE PROTEOMIC QUANTIFICATION	270
6.2.1	<i>Light and dark adaptations of E. gracilis cells and RNA-seq analysis</i>	270
6.2.2	<i>Differential Expression analysis</i>	277
6.2.3	<i>Light and dark label-free proteomic quantification</i>	
6.2.4	Evolutionary pressures and selections - dN/dS ratios	334
6.3	COMPARISON OF TRANSCRIPTOMIC AND PROTEOMIC DATA	341
6.4	ELECTRON MICROSCOPY OF <i>E. gracilis</i> CELLS UNDER LIGHT AND DARK CONDITIONS	344
6.5	DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	346
6.5.1	<i>Significance of findings – adaptations, functions and applications</i>	348

<b>7.0 CONCLUSION</b>	<b>351</b>
7.1 CONTRIBUTION OF FINDINGS TO SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE	351
7.2 RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE WORKS	357
7.3 CONCLUDING REMARKS	358
<b>8.0 APPENDICES</b>	<b>360</b>
<b>9.0 REFERENCES</b>	<b>363</b>



# LIST OF FIGURES

<b>Figure 1.1</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> is a unicellular secondary endosymbiotic green flagellate	2
<b>Figure 1.2</b> Euglenids are early diverged members of the Euglenozoans and distant relatives to the Kinetoplastids	3
<b>Figure 1.3</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> is a hybrid of three genomes: Nuclear, chloroplast, and mitochondria	7
<b>Figure 2.1</b> The standard genome and transcriptome assembly pipeline involved several bioinformatics algorithms	56
<b>Figure 2.2</b> The optimized genome assembly approach involved multiple assembly pipelines	57
<b>Figure 2.3</b> The standard genome and transcriptome structural and functional annotation involved multiple bioinformatics approaches and biological categories.	62
<b>Figure 2.4</b> Phylogenetic inference relationship is a multi-step process	64
<b>Figure 3.1</b> Nucleic acid Pulse-Field Gel Electrophoresis for <i>E. gracilis</i> DNA preparation	70
<b>Figure 3.2</b> Quality trimmed reads are within quality control thresholds	78
<b>Figure 3.3</b> Predicted <i>E. gracilis</i> genome sizes are variable	89
<b>Figure 3.4</b> Alternation between high and low coding sequence and gene density regions	91
<b>Figure 3.5</b> Gene clustering organization in <i>E. gracilis</i> are arranged in a functionally related architecture	93
<b>Figure 3.6</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> genome is replete with promoter islands compared to human, yeast, plant and african trypanosomes	98
<b>Figure 3.7</b> The <i>E. gracilis</i> predicted proteome (genome) is characteristic of moderate sequence homology	109
<b>Figure 4.1</b> The <i>E. gracilis</i> predicted proteome (transcriptome) is characteristic of high sequence homology	128
<b>Figure 4.2</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> Gene Ontology (GO) classifications are distributed across conserved eukaryotic functional categories	129

<b>Figure 4.3</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> possesses genes shared across several eukaryotic taxa	136
<b>Figure 5.1</b> The endomembrane system of <i>Euglena gracilis</i> is complex	145
<b>Figure 5.2</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> possess proportionate number of trypanosome conserved Rab protein families	146
<b>Figure 5.3</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> possess a Ran protein with similarities to trypanosomes	148
<b>Figure 5.4</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> large subunit adaptor complex possess a hybrid origin	149
<b>Figure 5.5</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> medium subunit adaptor complex possess a hybrid origin	151
<b>Figure 5.6</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> small subunit adaptor complex possess a hybrid origin	152
<b>Figure 5.7</b> The Nuclear Pore Complex of <i>E. gracilis</i> is conventional	165
<b>Figure 5.8</b> DBP5 is a characteristic feature of <i>E. gracilis</i> mRNA export mechanism	167
<b>Figure 5.9</b> The <i>E. gracilis</i> Nuclear Pore Complex are lacking in peripheral heterochromatin organisation and nuclear lamins	168
<b>Figure 5.10</b> The tubulin genes of <i>E. gracilis</i> are conventional and ancient	170
<b>Figure 5.11</b> Conventional and non conventional Kinetochores are characteristic of the <i>E. gracilis</i> Kinetochores machinery	204
<b>Figure 5.12</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> possess an unusual surface	242
<b>Figure 5.13</b> Pie chart depicting functional distribution of <i>E. gracilis</i> functional predicted chloroplastic proteins	244
<b>Figure 5.14</b> Protein transport, folding, processing and degradation, are the major biological activity of the <i>E. gracilis</i> plastid	244
<b>Figure 5.15</b> The <i>Euglena gracilis</i> plastid possesses broad metabolic potential	246
<b>Figure 5.16</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> mitochondria possess more known functional information	248
<b>Figure 5.17</b> The <i>E. gracilis</i> plastid possess core metabolic pathways	248
<b>Figure 5.18</b> A reconstruction of likely metabolic pathways present within the mitochondria organelle of <i>E. gracilis</i>	249
<b>Figure 6.1</b> Light is a catalyst for growth in <i>E. gracilis</i>	275
<b>Figure 6.2</b> Dark adapted cells lack chlorophyll	276
<b>Figure 6.3</b> Experimental triplicates are correlated	278
<b>Figure 6.4</b> Altered transcriptome of dark adapted cells	279

<b>Figure 6.5:</b> Altered proteome of dark adapted cells	281
<b>Figure 6.6</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> cellular processes, structure, and functions are influenced by light or dark external conditions	306
<b>Figure 6.7</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> possess core biological heterotrophic and photosynthetic pathways	310
<b>Figure 6.8</b> Protein coding genes in <i>E. gracilis</i> are not under selective pressure	335
<b>Figure 6.9</b> Altered transcriptomic and proteomic analysis are not correlated	342
<b>Figure 6.10</b> Chloroplast and mitochondria are morphologically influenced by light or dark	345
<b>Figure 7.1</b> <i>E. gracilis</i> possesses a complex biology	355

# LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table 2.1</b> Ingredients for phototrophic Hutner's media preparation for genome sequencing	52
<b>Table 2.2</b> Ingredients for heterotrophic Hutner's media preparation for light/dark experiment	53
<b>Table 3.1</b> DNA sequence quality control test for 40 Kb Mate pair and $\leq 800$ bp insert size	72
<b>Table 3.2</b> Data summary of <i>E. gracilis</i> whole genome and transcriptome sequencing	75
<b>Table 3.3</b> QUAST genome assembly statistics	83
<b>Table 3.4</b> Comparative statistics of the completeness of the genome and transcriptome based on 248 CEGs	86
<b>Table 3.5</b> Quantitative and functional description of gene clusters in the <i>E. gracilis</i> genome	95
<b>Table 3.6</b> Statistics of structural genome annotation	105
<b>Table 3.7</b> Statistics of functional genome annotation	107
<b>Table 4.1</b> Comparative transrate statistical description of transcriptome assembly (transcripts)	120
<b>Table 4.2</b> Transcriptome assembly statistics (CDS)	121
<b>Table 4.3</b> Statistical description of transcriptome read mapping evidences	121
<b>Table 4.4</b> Statistics of transcriptome structural annotation	126
<b>Table 4.5</b> Statistics of transcriptome functional annotation	127
<b>Table 5.1</b> The endomembrane system of <i>E. gracilis</i>	153
<b>Table 5.2</b> Meiotic genes inventoried in <i>E. gracilis</i>	161
<b>Table 5.3</b> The Bilobe proteins of <i>E. gracilis</i>	163
<b>Table 5.4</b> Tubulin gene families of <i>E. gracilis</i>	171
<b>Table 5.5</b> The transporter proteins of <i>E. gracilis</i>	173
<b>Table 5.6</b> List of histones identified in <i>E. gracilis</i>	180
<b>Table 5.7</b> Rhodopsin proteins in <i>E. gracilis</i>	184
<b>Table 5.8</b> The set of proteins for functional translational apparatus in <i>E. gracilis</i>	189

<b>Table 5.9</b> Transcription regulatory complexes (RNA Pol II and general transcription factors) in <i>E. gracilis</i>	199
<b>Table 5.10</b> Kinetochore and it's protein composition in <i>E. gracilis</i>	205
<b>Table 5.11</b> RNA metabolism proteins in <i>E. gracilis</i>	212
<b>Table 5.12</b> Exosome proteins present in <i>E. gracilis</i>	214
<b>Table 5.13</b> Spliceosomal proteins (snRNP and Trans-spliceosomes) and related factors in <i>E. gracilis</i>	216
<b>Table 5.14</b> Proteins involved in editing found in <i>E. gracilis</i> transcriptome	229
<b>Table 5.15</b> RNAi pathway proteins found in <i>E. gracilis</i> transcriptome	234
<b>Table 5.16</b> Galf biosynthesis genes in <i>E. gracilis</i>	237
<b>Table 5.17</b> Proteophosphoglycan proteins in <i>E. gracilis</i>	239
<b>Table 5.18</b> Répertoire of Dynamin proteins in <i>E. gracilis</i>	251
<b>Table 6.1</b> Pre-RNA sequence quality control test for light and dark regime RNA purification	272
<b>Table 6.2</b> Data summary of <i>E. gracilis</i> light and dark transcriptome sequencing experiment	274
<b>Table 6.3</b> Top upregulated proteins with functional information in the dark regime	282
<b>Table 6.4</b> Top upregulated proteins with functional information in the light regime	286
<b>Table 6.5</b> Enzyme Code and KEGG Pathway Maps for <i>E. gracilis</i> light and dark protein regime	315
<b>Table 6.6</b> Counts of codons, indel, synonymous, and non synonymous substitutions	336
<b>Table 6.7</b> Averages of all pairwise and first sequence comparisons	336
<b>Table 6.8</b> Top 100 comparisons from the 196,251 cumulative comparisons	337

# LIST OF APPENDICES

<b>Appendix I</b> Community-based annotation files and figures	360
<b>Appendix II</b> Differential expression analysis files	361
<b>Appendix III</b> Light and dark transcriptomic and proteomic analysis files	362

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AP	Adaptin Proteins
AT	Adenine-Thiamine
BLAST	Basic Local Alignment Search Tool
CDD	Conserved Domain Database
cDNA	complementary DNA
CEG	Core Eukaryotic Genes
CEGMA	Core Eukaryotic Gene Mapping Approach
cpDNA	chloroplast DNA
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
EBI-EMBL	European Bioinformatics Institute European Molecular Biology Laboratory
EC	Enzyme Code
EGT	Endosymbiotic Gene Transfer
ER	Endoplasmic Reticulum
EST	Expressed Sequence Tag
EuPath	Eukaryotic Pathogen Database Resources Center
FDR	False Discovery Rate
GC	Guanine-Cytosine
gDNA	genomic DNA
GMST	GeneMarkS-T
GO	Gene Ontology
gRNA	guide RNA
HMM	Hidden Markov Model
INDELS	Insertions/deletions
JGI	Joint Genome Institute
kDNA	kinetoplast DNA
KEGG	Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes
KKIP	KKT-interacting protein
KKT	Kinetoplastid Kinetochores
LECA	Last Eukaryotic Common Ancestor

LGT	Lateral Gene Transfer
DO	Dubious ORF
LHC	Light Harvesting Complexes
LSU	Large Sub Unit
mRNA	Messenger RNA
MSA	Multiple Sequence Alignment
miDNA	mitochondrial DNA
NCBI	National Center for Biotechnology Information
NGS	Next Generation Sequencing
NPC	Nuclear Pore Complex
ORF	Open Reading Frame
PIC	Pre-initiation complex
QC	Quality Control
QUAST	Quality Assessment Tool for Genome Assemblies
RBP	RNA binding protein
rDNA	Ribosomal DNA
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
RNAseq	RNA sequencing
RNP	Ribonucleoprotein
RPS-BLAST	Reverse Position Specific BLAST
RRM	RNA recognition motif
rRNA	Ribosomal ribonucleic acid
SDA-PAGE	Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis
SGA	String Graph Assembler
SL	Spliced Leader
snoRNA	Small nucleolar RNA
SNPs	Single Nucleotide Polymorphism
SSPACE	SAKE-based Scaffolding of Pre-Assembled Contigs after Extension
SSU	Small Sub Unit
TEM	Transmission Electron Microscope
TGN	Trans-Golgi Network



tRNA	transfer RNA
UTR	Untranslated region

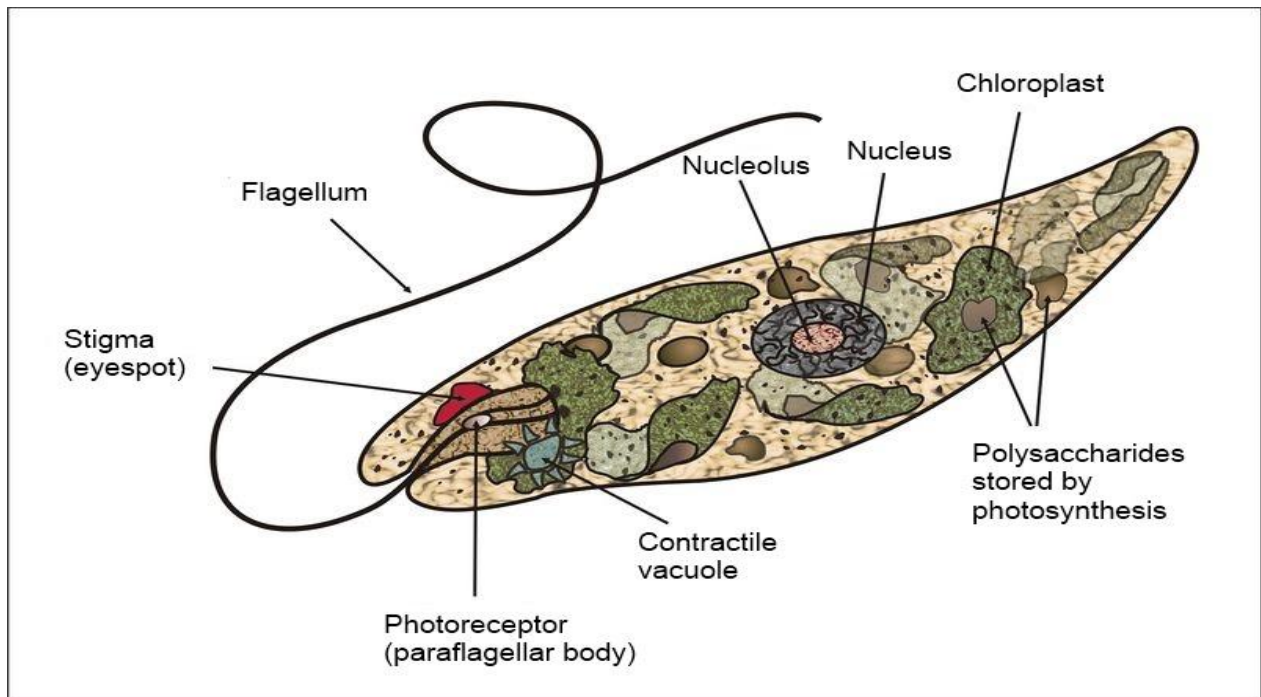
# CHAPTER ONE

## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

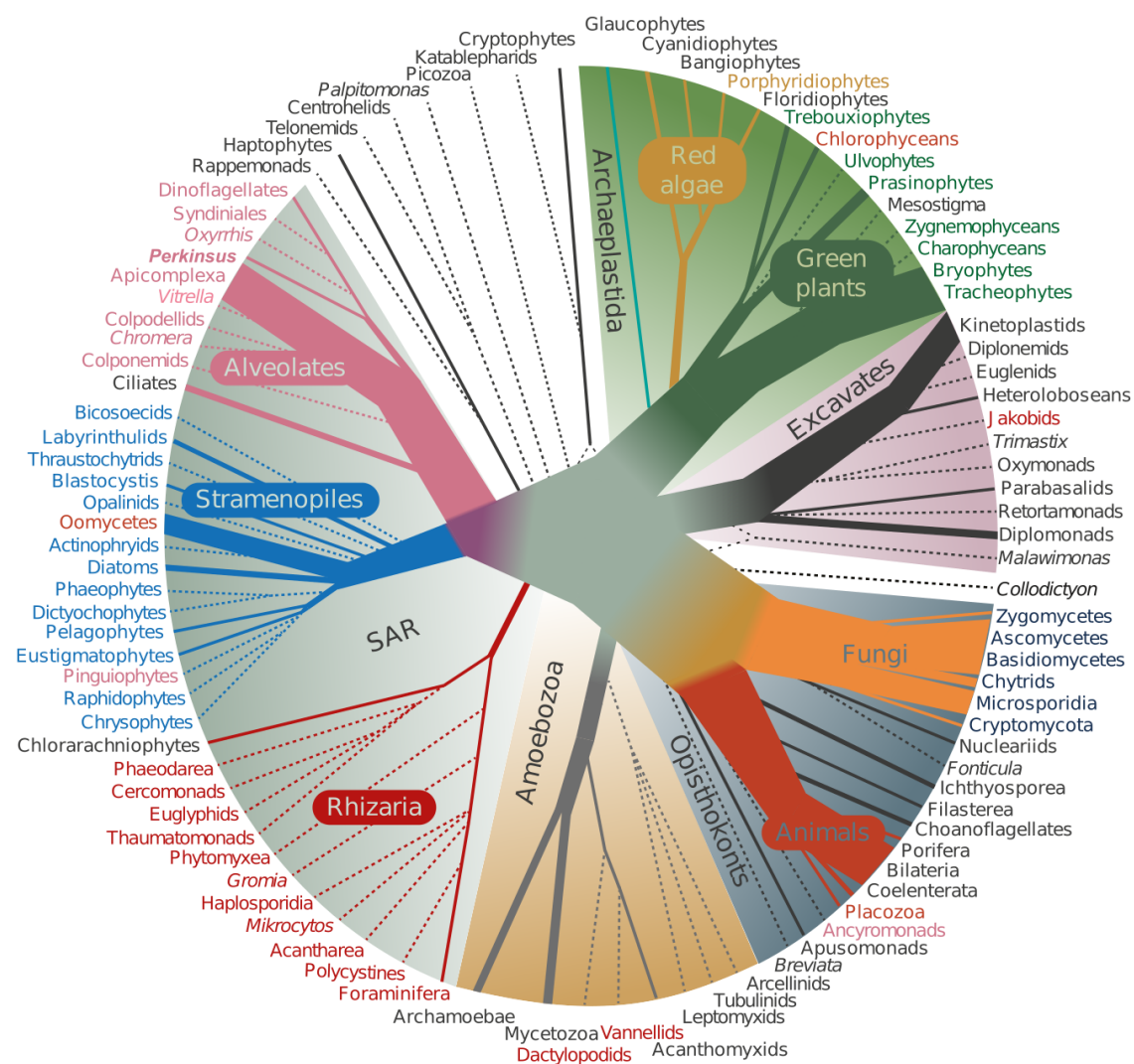
In this chapter, the biology of *Euglena gracilis* is discussed from a molecular, cellular, biochemical, genetic, and evolutionary point of view. The chapter begins with a brief on the background of the research, and concludes with specific aims and objectives. I have attempted to capture the generic and specific biology of *E. gracilis*, putting this in context and in comparison to other members of the Excavates, Plantae, and other supergroups within the eukaryotic domain as well as relating literatures with this current work.

## 1.1 BACKGROUND AND CLASSIFICATION

*Euglena gracilis* is a species of unicellular photosynthetic flagellate that inhabits aquatic ecosystems (Buetow, 1982) (Figure 1.1). The Euglenioids were first discovered by Antony van Leeuwenhoek in 1674 who referred to them as animalcules because he observed them being of diverse colours, and exhibiting movements now known as metaboly (Dobell, 1932). They were further detailed by Ehrenberg in 1830 who established the genus to accommodate those euglenoid organisms that have eyespots. *E. gracilis*, and members of its genus, may represent one of the earliest derived eukaryotic cells. Figure 1.2 presents the consensus eukaryotic and *Euglena* classifications respectively (for a detailed review see Keeling, *et al.*, 2005, and Adl, *et al.*, 2012, pages 479 - 488). This classification shows the emergence of the kingdom Excavata, superphylum Discoba, and subphylum Euglenozoa – which contains *E. gracilis* and other members of the *Euglena* genus (Euglenids), Kinetoplastids (e.g. Trypanosoma and Leishmania), and Heterolobosea (Naegleria) (Cavalier-Smith, 2002; Simpson, 2003; Keeling, *et al.*, 2005; Adl, *et al.*, 2012).



**Figure 1.1: *E. gracilis* is a unicellular secondary endosymbiotic green flagellate.** The diagram shows an *E. gracilis* cell with the organelles: Nucleus, chloroplast, polysaccharides granules, photoreceptor, contractile vacuole, stigma or eye spot, nucleolus, pellicle, and a flagellum. The chloroplast and mitochondria arose as a result of secondary endosymbiosis with a cyanobacteria and a proteobacteria respectively (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Euglena>).



**Figure 1.2: Euglenids are early diverged members of the Euglenozoans and distant relatives to the Kinetoplastids.** A view of the evolutionary relationships among eukaryotes reflecting the classification presented herein. *E. gracilis* is grouped within the Kingdom, Excavata – in light purple colouration, in the Subphylum, Discoba, and distantly related to the members of the Kinetoplastids and Heterobolosean (adapted from Burki and Keeling, 2014). Other eukaryotic groups contained herein include: Archaeplastidae, SAR, Amoebozoa, and Opisthokonts. For extensive diagrammatic annotation see Burki and Keeling, 2014.

There are well over 250 species of the genus *Euglena*, with 20 taxa being predominantly cosmopolitan, i.e. present in many habitats (Kim, *et al.*, 1998; Gojdics, 1953; Zakrys, 1986; Zakrys and Walne, 1994). The cosmopolitan groups includes, amongst others, *E. viridis*, *E. caudata*, *E. oblonga*, *E. obtusa*, *E. deses*, and *E. gracilis* (Kim, *et al.*, 1998). Of these, the most widely studied species is *E. gracilis*, which has been a useful model organism for biologists interested in understanding the biochemistry and molecular biology of living organisms due to their evolutionary history or complex biology (dos Santos Ferreira, 2007). The biological complexity of *E. gracilis* arose from secondary endosymbiosis (see sub section 1.2.2 and 1.2.3) which resulted in diverse mode of nutrition, possessing the ability to produce energy via photosynthetic and heterotrophic processes (dos Santos Ferreira, 2007). Endosymbiosis explains the origin of mitochondria and chloroplast as well as their physiological processes and functions. More interesting, are the clues they could provide to further understand the evolution of parasitism; delineating how a once free-living common ancestor of *E. gracilis* and kinetoplastids evolved into parasitic trypanosomes (see sub section 1.5).

The evolutionary position of *E. gracilis* has recently become clear, with the incorporation of new molecular and biochemical data (see Adl, *et al.*, 2012, for an extensive review). However, there are many aspects that remain puzzling, especially in their relationship with other protists such as *Naegleria*, *Giardia*, and Kinetoplastids (Tessier, 1997). According to Linton, *et al.*, 2010 and Adl, *et al.*, 2012, studies of euglenoid phylogenies have used only nuclear encoded genes. Most often this was the nuclear SSU rDNA (Busse and Preisfeld, 2002, 2003; Busse, *et al.*, 2003; Leander, *et al.*, 2001; Linton, *et al.*, 1999, 2000; Marin, *et al.*, 2003; Preisfeld, *et al.*, 2000, 2001; Von der Heyden, *et al.*, 2004) with one study (Talke and Preisfeld, 2002) using the nuclear encoded flagellar PAR1 and PAR2 genes, the results from which agreed with early nuclear SSU rDNA studies. Early molecular evidence noted that the genus, *Euglena*, is not monophyletic (Linton, *et al.*, 1999, 2000; Milanowski, *et al.*, 2001; Mullner, *et al.*, 2001), which led to several taxonomic revisions (Adl, *et al.*, 2012). An extensive recent study on the phylogeny of the genus, *Euglena*, suggests they are paraphyletic in comparison with *Naegleria* and Trypanosomes (see Linton, *et al.*, 2010; Adl, *et al.*, 2012 for an extensive review).

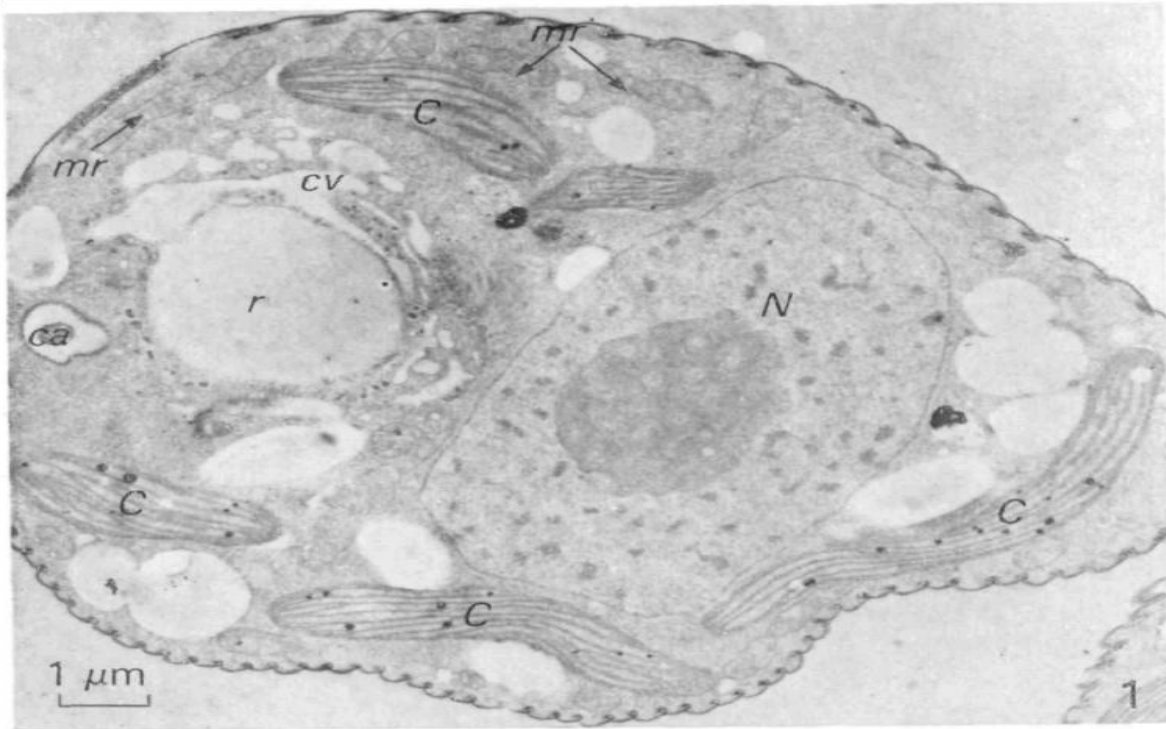
According to Gray, 1989, the *E. gracilis* photosynthetic machinery did not come directly from the primary (prokaryotic/eukaryotic) endosymbiotic event that gave rise to the chloroplasts of higher plants, as previously proposed. The host cell of the secondary endosymbiont (in which a eukaryote engulfs another eukaryote) (Palmer and Delwiche, 1996) seems to have been a protozoan which is believed to have evolved in parallel with trypanosomatids. The evolutionary relationship between *E. gracilis* and *Trypanosoma* is supported by morphological considerations (Kivic and Walne 1984), by nuclear rRNA alignments (Sogin, *et al.*, 1989), and by the addition of a leader sequence (spliced leader sequence SL) at the 5' end of the nuclear pre-messenger RNAs through a *trans*-splicing mechanism (Tessier, *et al.*, 1991) as well as the orthologous clustering analysis which is reported in this work. Considering their relative position on the eukaryotic evolutionary tree, both organisms (*E. gracilis* and *Trypanosoma*) are considered to belong to one of the earliest mitochondrion-containing branches (Sogin, *et al.*, 1986; Schnare, *et al.*, 1990). Current evidence suggests that all mitochondria have evolved from prokaryotic endosymbiont(s) that originated from within the  $\alpha$ -proteobacteria (Gray, 1992) (see section 1.2.3 for details).

Investigating and understanding the biology of this complex organism, *E. gracilis*, is a promising way to resolve several evolutionary puzzles, secondary endosymbiotic events, biological processes, as well as their theoretical and practical application in fully understanding the evolution of parasitism. The Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) era for genomes and transcriptomes provides a unique opportunity to address these issues directly; provide the information to understand genome architecture and full coding potential for this organism and to infer functions such as RNA processing, plastid evolution, cytoskeletal mechanics, mitochondria, surface proteins, membrane protein targeting, and metabolome, as will be discussed in the subsequent chapters.

The interplay between genes that are specific to *E. gracilis*, genes more general to the kinetoplastids, genes more general to other eukaryotes, and those genes acquired during secondary endosymbiosis (which are plastid associated but nuclear encoded) are unknown. Trypanosomatids are as good a model group for tracing the evolution of parasitism as is available (Lukes, *et al.*, 2014), and by analyzing the genomic information from free-living bodonid and euglenid relatives and early-

branching trypanosomatids, e.g. *P. confusum* (Flegontov, *et al.*, 2013), can provide insight into the genetic changes associated with accession of parasitism as well as a comparison to free-living but non-photosynthetic bodonids (Lukes, *et al.*, 2014).

The genome of *E. gracilis* is comprised of three elements: nuclear, chloroplast and mitochondria genomes (Figure 1.3). The *E. gracilis* chloroplast and mitochondria genomes have been sequenced (Hallick, *et al.*, 1993; Perez, *et al.*, 2014; Dobakova, *et al.*, 2015; Faktorova, *et al.*, 2016), however, little is known about the nuclear genome (Pavel and Lukes, 2012). The only available nuclear DNA sequence organization information is that described by Rawson, *et al.*, 1979, using a combination of techniques, as well as isolation and sequencing of an ORF coding for the elongation factor protein EF-1 alpha by Montandon and Stutz, 1990, and alpha- and beta-tubulin cDNA *Euglena* lambda gt11 expression library sequencing and/or hybridization to *Euglena* RNA and DNA (alpha- and beta-tubulin cDNA) by Levvasseur, *et al.*, 1994. To highlight many of these questions in more detail and to place in context with current understanding, this introductory chapter is divided into five subsections, each covering a distinct aspect of *Euglena* biology. A final section details the specific questions being addressed.



**Figure 1.3: *E. gracilis* is a hybrid of three genomes: Nuclear, chloroplast, and mitochondria.** The diagram shows the median sections of *E. gracilis* cells with spindle-shaped chloroplasts, a complex lobed one (C) and numerous mitochondrial profiles (mr). ca, canal; cv, contractile vacuole; N, nucleus; r, reservoir. Thiéry test, x 9000 (Pellegrini, 1980).



## 1.2 GENOMIC STRUCTURES, EVOLUTION, AND FUNCTION

### 1.2.1 Nucleus

#### 1.2.1.1 Chromatin

*E. gracilis* chromosomes appear heterochromatic, i.e. uniformly condensed, throughout the cell cycle (Falchuk, *et al.*, 1975), while an uncondensed state (Ebenezer, *et al.*, manuscript in preparation) has recently been reported as discussed in chapter 5 and appendices. Other Euglenidae and dinoflagellates also possess continuously condensed chromosomes. Interphase chromatin of higher eukaryotes has been fractionated into dispersed (euchromatin) and condensed (heterochromatin) fractions (Sirlin, 1972; Johmann, *et al.*, 1973). *E. gracilis* chromosomes always appear condensed under microscopy, with a portion of chromatin in an uncondensed state, which is active in RNA synthesis and likely the nucleolus (Falchuk, *et al.*, 1975). The euchromatin fraction contains only 14 % of the nuclear DNA, but shows a ten-fold increase in RNA polymerase activity compared to the heterochromatin fraction. It remains to be determined what advantage might accrue to *E. gracilis* in maintaining over 80 % of its chromatin in a condensed state, even in the period of interphase of the cell cycle, as well as what factors are responsible for condensation of chromatin (Lynch, *et al.*, 1974). Histones were suggested to be such factors (Mirskv, *et al.*, 1968), but little difference has been noted in histone content between condensed metaphase chromosomes and diffuse interphase chromatin (Comings, 1967). The modification of specific histone fractions may be instrumental in inducing chromosome condensation. The treatment of heterochromatin with trypsin causes an increased template activity for the chromatin (Lynch, *et al.*, 1974). Certain proteins do appear to mediate the degree of condensation of chromatin, but the precise mechanism involved is still open to debate, but the condensation of its chromatin could be the final result of a change in ionic content or composition of the nucleus (Lynch, *et al.*, 1974). Recent work in trypanosomes however suggests that the modification of histones and the likely mechanisms of heterochromatinisation are broadly similar to higher eukaryotes (Jack and Hake, 2014).

#### 1.2.1.2 Nuclear genome structure

Preliminary investigations into nuclear genomic DNA of *E. gracilis* have been described by James, *et al.*, 1979. They studied the sequence organization of nuclear DNA using a combination of techniques involving: the comparison of the reassociation kinetics of DNA fragments 300 bp, 2000 bp and 8100 bp nucleotides long, the reassociation of <sup>32</sup>P-labeled DNA fragments of various lengths with driver fragments 300 nucleotides long, the hyperchromicity of DNA structures formed by the reassociation of repetitive sequences, and the direct measurement of the size of the duplex regions of reassociated repetitive DNA resistant to S1 nuclease. Initial studies in characterizing the genome of *E. gracilis* by reassociation kinetics suggested that there were two kinetic components, and that only 36 % of the genome consisted of single copy DNA (Rawson, 1975) (this is similar to the 25 % reported in chapters 3 and 5 in this work). These single copy DNA sequences are approximately 1500 nucleotide pairs long and interspersed with repetitive DNA sequences. The repetitive DNA, consisting of both highly repetitive and middle repetitive sequences, comprises one fraction of nucleotide sequences (0.67) with an average size of 4900 nucleotide pairs and a second fraction (0.33) with an average size of 1000 nucleotide pairs. 34 % of the DNA consists of foldback sequences which are present on 45 % of the DNA 4000 nucleotides long. Following their investigation, other independent nuclear genome related investigation has also been carried out and includes: isolation and sequencing of an ORF coding for the elongation factor protein EF-1 alpha (Montandon and Stutz, 1990), and alpha- and beta-tubulin cDNA *Euglena* lambda gt11 expression library sequencing and/or hybridization to *Euglena* RNA and DNA (alpha- and beta-tubulin cDNA) by Levasseur, *et al.*, 1994. Overall this suggests a highly complex genome with extensive low complexity sequence.

#### Primary transcripts and splice leaders

A common euglenozoan feature is the processing of primary nuclear transcripts by spliced leader (SL) RNA-mediated trans-splicing (Frantz, *et al.*, 2000). This process includes replacement of the 5'-end of pre-mRNA by the 5'-end of SL-RNA, donating identical 5'-termini to the mRNA molecules. Similar to nuclear cis-splicing, trans-splicing process is also mediated by spliceosomes, but a Y-branch intron structure is formed instead of a lariat (Bonen, 1993). The only currently known nuclear mRNA

lacking the SL sequence in *E. gracilis* is that of the fibrillar gene (Russel, *et al.*, 2005). Since SL-trans-splicing does not occur in organelles (mitochondria and plastids), the presence (or absence) of an SL sequence at the 5'-end of a euglenozoan mRNA is diagnostic for its synthesis in the nucleus.

### Microsatellite DNA

Microsatellite DNA markers in a large range of eukaryotic organisms have proven to be a powerful tool in studies of population genetics, high-resolution genotyping, gene mapping, linkage analysis, diagnosis of parasites, phylogenetic relationships, and evolution, as well as the degree and pattern of genetic variability within and between populations. This is due to their co-dominant inheritance, easy genotyping, ubiquity, genetic neutrality, high mutation rates, and high degree of polymorphism (De Luca *et al.*, 2002; Dobrowolski *et al.*, 2002; Lai and Sun 2004; Scott, Rodney, and Ira 2005; Weissenbach, 1993). Microsatellites in *E. gracilis* have been investigated by means of randomly amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) fingerprinting. Fragments containing microsatellite loci have been detected by Southern hybridization and sequenced, revealing eight microsatellite loci in *E. gracilis* (Wuthisuthimethavee, *et al.*, 2003), however, the present *E. gracilis* genome assembly cannot support an extensive analysis for microsatellite DNA.

### rRNA

In *E. gracilis*, the cytoplasmic large subunit (LSU) rRNA is composed of 14 discrete small RNA species that must interact in the functional ribosome (Donald, *et al.*, 1999) (see sub-sections on Translation, RNA processing and modification, and Transcription in this section as well as chapter 4 and 5). The native complexes of *E. gracilis* rRNA has been isolated and the largest of these complexes contains eight of the 14 LSU rRNA species. Several of these small rRNA species are able to associate in vitro to reform an isolated domain of LSU rRNA structure. Spliceosomal GT-AG cis-splicing occurs in *E. gracilis* (see chapter 5 and appendices), in addition to the nonconventional cis-splicing and spliced leader trans-splicing previously recognized in this early diverging unicellular eukaryote (see chapter 5 on tubulins and Donald, *et al.*, 1996).

#### 1.2.1.3 Evolution of the nuclear genome

*E. gracilis* possesses some distinctive characteristics in the nucleus such as their permanently condensed chromosomes, intact nuclear envelope (Haapala and Soyer, 1975), and a nuclear matrix (see chapter 5 of this work). The permanently condensed state of the chromosome ensures that the giant DNA structures are tightly fitted into the *E. gracilis* nucleus. The nuclear matrix is relevant because it contains residual elements of the pore-complex and lamina (which is absent in *E. gracilis*, see chapter 5 of this work), the nucleolus, and an intra-nuclear fibrous network that provides the basic shape and structure of the nucleus (Plaumann and Pelzer-Reith, 1997). The 18S rRNA tree suggests that *E. gracilis* diverged very early from other eukaryotes (Cavalier-Smith, 1995). The fact that all lower unicellular and/or primitive eukaryotes possess nuclear matrix suggests that the nuclear matrix must have originated very early in the progress from prokaryotic cells to eukaryotic cells, and its origin must be an important foundation of the origin of the eukaryotic nucleus (see Nigg, 1992; Yang, *et al.*, 1997; Stick and Hausen, 1985; Lehner, *et al.*, 1987; Steward and Burke, 1987; Stick, 1992; Wen, 2000 for detailed review on nuclear matrix and lamina).

*Common and uncommon evolutionary patterns with Kinetoplastids, and other supergroups:  $\beta$ -D-glucosyl-hydroxymethyluracil or J*

*E. gracilis* also possess common and distinct evolutionary patterns with Trypanosomatids, Naegleria, and Giardia. For instance,  $\beta$ -d-glucosyl-hydroxymethyluracil or J is a DNA modification discovered in the DNA of the African trypanosome, *Trypanosoma brucei*, where it replaces 0.5 – 1.0 % of all thymines (Gommers-Ampt, *et al.*, 1993; Borst and Van Leeuwen, 1997). J has only been found in non-transcribed, and transcribed, repetitive sequences of *T. brucei* (Van Leeuwen, *et al.*, 1997) and a substantial fraction of J is present in both strands of the telomeric hexamer (GGGTTA) repeats of this organism (Van Leeuwen, *et al.*, 1996). Dooijes, *et al.*, 2000, speculated that J may have an analogous function in trypanosomes as 5-methylcytosine (5-MeC) in plants and animals, and that it is involved in transcriptional repression and/or suppression of recombination between homeologous sequences, and regions of transcriptional initiation (Liu, *et al.*, 2014; Borst and Van Leeuwen, 1997, Van Leeuwen, *et al.*, 1997, 1998).

The DNA of *E. gracilis* have been analysed for the presence of the unusual minor base J, thus far only found in kinetoplastid flagellates and in *Diplonema*. Using antibodies specific for J and post-labeling of DNA digestion followed by two-dimensional thin-layer chromatography of labeled nucleotides, Dooijes, *et al.*, 2000, demonstrated that approximately 0.2 mole percent of *Euglena* DNA consists of J, an amount similar to that found in DNA of *T. brucei*. By staining permeabilized *E. gracilis* cells with anti-J antibodies, they showed that J is rather uniformly distributed in the *E. gracilis* nucleus, and does not co-localize to a substantial extent with (GGGTTA) repeats, the putative telomeric repeats of *E. gracilis*. Hence, most of J in *E. gracilis* appears to be non-telomeric. It seems also likely that *E. gracilis* has much longer chromosomes than *T. brucei* (the reason behind this is not yet known), and that most of the J are intra-chromosomal in this organism. Their result adds to the existing evidence for a close phylogenetic relation between kinetoplastids and euglenids as well as suggesting that base J might have evolved or been present early in eukaryogenesis.

#### The impact of endosymbiosis on the nuclear genome

The impact of endosymbiosis on the euglenophyte nuclear genome is not fully understood due to its complex nature as a 'hybrid' of a non-photosynthetic host cell and a secondary endosymbiont (Maruyama, *et al.*, 2011). Morphological, biochemical, and phylogenetic analyses suggest that only the last common ancestor of the extant plastid-harboring euglenophytes experienced the secondary endosymbiosis, but not the common ancestor of Euglenozoa as a whole (Euglenida, Diplonemea and Kinetoplastea) (Leader, 2004). However, the discovery of algal-type genes and the specific features of a mitochondrion-targeted protein in Kinetoplastea showing similarity to those of euglenophytes led to the hypothesis that a plastid was present in the common ancestor of Kinetoplastida, or Euglenozoa (Bodyt, *et al.*, 2010; Krnacova, *et al.*, 2012). A preliminary expressed sequence tag (EST) analysis of *E. gracilis* showed a complex history of nuclear genes in this organism (Ahmadinejad, *et al.*, 2007), but many aspects of how the *E. gracilis* nuclear genome integrated genes from the green algal endosymbiont via secondary endosymbiosis are unclear. Moreover, recent molecular phylogenies suggested the presence of 'red lineage' genes in the nuclear genome of *E. gracilis* (as well as evidences from this work; see chapter 5), but their origins and evolutionary histories have not been

explored in detail (Petersen, *et al.*, 2006; Teich, *et al.*, 200; Frommolt, *et al.*, 2008; Sanches-Perez, *et al.*, 2008).

Genome mosaicism has also been reported in *E. gracilis* and *P. trichophorum*. *E. gracilis* acquired at least 14 genes via eukaryote-to-eukaryote lateral gene transfer from algal sources other than the green algal endosymbiont that gave rise to its current plastid (this work). Some or all of them were independently acquired by lateral gene transfer and contributed to the successful integration and functioning of the green algal endosymbiont as a secondary plastid. Alternative hypotheses include the presence of a phagocytosed alga as the single source of those genes, or a cryptic tertiary endosymbiont harboring secondary plastid of red algal origin, which the eukaryovorous ancestor of euglenophytes had acquired prior to the secondary endosymbiosis of a green alga (Maruyama, *et al.*, 2011).

#### 1.2.1.3 Nuclear genome functions

##### Life history, cell division and growth, cell control, chromosome partitioning, defense mechanisms, and apoptosis

There are three different stages in the life cycle of *E. gracilis*: The free swimming flagellated form, palmella stage, and the cyst stage (Tannreuther, 1923, Jahn, 1946). The free living flagellated forms (encysted state) refers to as the adult developmental stage (or mother cell) where the organelles and flagellar are more conspicuous with pronounced cellular movement (Tannreuther, 1923, Jahn, 1946). The palmella stage (cell division also occur here) are the non motile cells of Euglena that is covered with mucilage, and have the possibility of becoming flagellated again (Tannreuther, 1923, Jahn, 1946). The cyst stage consist of three forms: The protective form (thick-walled closed cyst), the reproductive form (thin-walled cyst), and the transitory or resting form where the cyst wall is thick but not completely closed – the cell is usually flagellated with a pronounced sense of motility and response to stimuli such as sunlight (Tannreuther, 1923, Jahn, 1946).

In *E. gracilis*, there are no confirmed reports of sexual reproduction (except a possible cytological evidence by Leedale, 1962, in the Euglenoid *Hyalophacus ocellatus*) (Jahn, 1946, Leedale, 1962), and reproduction is usually by asexual reproduction (Tannreuther, 1923, Ratcliffe, 1927, Jahn, 1946). Similarly, the question

of whether the Euglenoid cell is normally haploid or diploid has been discussed (Chadefaud, 1940, Leedale, 1962, and Rawson, 1975), however, in the absence of proof of the existence of sexual phenomena this question seems somewhat far-fetched. There are three forms of asexual reproduction propagated by *E. gracilis*: 1) Reproduction by longitudinal binary fission of the flagellated stage, 2) Division of non flagellated cells contained within reproductive or division cysts, 3) Division of cells in palmelloid stage which is common in *E. viridis*, *E. stellata*, *E. schmitzii*, and *E. pisciformis* (Tannreuther, 1923, Ratcliffe, 1927). *E. gracilis* propagates mainly by a process known as longitudinal binary fission which is a form of asexual reproduction (Tannreuther, 1923, Ratcliffe, 1927). This involves the division of the nucleus (containing the genetic material) through the process of mitosis. Mitosis involves five stages in *E. gracilis*: Interphase, prophase, metaphase, anaphase, and telophase (Ratcliffe, 1927). These stages ensure that the nuclei is duplicated and temporarily resident in the same cell. The rest of the cell is duplicated and separated through cytokinesis resulting in two identical daughter Euglenoid cells which are smaller than the mother cells. These daughter cells contain the two nuclei and equal proportion of the organelles. Under favourable conditions, in the presence of nutrients and optimum growth conditions, the growth of the daughter cell results in the development and achievement of the optimum number of organelles, and the cell division cycle is repeated (see Jahn, 1946 for an extensive review on the life history of Euglenoids).

The ploidy nature of the Euglenids have been contentious for over five decades. While there has been no recent attempt to uncover this ploidy nature, some extensive reviews and investigations have been carried out by Chadefaud, 1940, Leedale, 1962, and Rawson, 1975. Using experimental findings from Dobell, 1908, Berliner, 1909, and Biecheler, 1937, Chadefaud concluded that the Euglenids are diploids rather than haploids as seen in *Phacus spp* (Chadefaud, 1940). Leedale, 1962, suggested that the Euglenids are possibly haploid. This is because since there is a possible true meiosis in the Euglenid (*Hyalophacus spp*) and the chromosome counts in this Euglenid suggest that it is following autogamy or sexual fusion of a gamete nuclei rather than preceding the formation of a gamete implying a haploid state. Several literatures have reported high chromosome numbers, large DNA per cell, and cell morphology in most modern Euglenids which are indicative of the

presence of fairly high degrees of polyploidy (Leedale, 1958a, 1959b, and 1961, Rawson, 1975). Following from these findings, Leedale, 1962, proposed that if meiosis does occur in the Euglenids, it does this as a rare phenomenon and will possibly be a peculiar form of meiosis specific to the Euglenids as is the mitosis (Leedale, 1962). Similarly, Rawson, 1975, suggested that *E. gracilis* is not polyploid by carrying out a reassociation kinetics of *E. gracilis* DNA. He determined the  $C_{ot1/2}$  of the unique DNA of *E. gracilis* which is 2000, and the amount of DNA per cell (3 pg) to propose this suggestion. Three kinetically definable classes of DNA were observed in *E. gracilis*: a highly repetitive fraction, a middle repetitive fraction, and a non-repetitive fraction, and each fraction characterised by its melting properties. The presence of a non repetitive DNA fraction with observed  $C_{ot1/2}$  similar to that expected for diploid organism containing 3 pg of DNA, indicates that *E. gracilis* is not a polyploid, with a possible genetic recombination (see Rawson, 1975 for an extensive discussion). These studies were indicative of the diploid or polyploid nature of *E. gracilis* without strong evidences for a haploid state. The data from this work also suggests a non haploid state (see Chapter 5), and a complete *E. gracilis* genome sequence will provide further evidence to the ploidy level of *E. gracilis*.

Two principle factors actively control the cell division cycle in *E. gracilis*, these include: cell growth (stationary and logarithmic phases) and light/darkness (circadian rhythm) (see Goto and Beneragama, 2010). In autotrophic cultures, chlorophyll synthesis and growth rate is dependent on the concentration of nitrogen and carbon (Regnault, *et al.*, 1990), and cobalamin (Ross, 1952; Varma *et al.*, 1961; Watanabe, *et al.*, 1992; Watanabe *et al.*, 1988a; 1992). Dark grown cultures lose their chlorophyll, and their chloroplasts regress to form proplastids. Upon exposure to light in inorganic medium, they are able to re-differentiate chloroplasts, resuming photosynthetic functions (Buetow, 1968).

In *E. gracilis*, a number of striking chemical derangements accompany growth arrest which includes: severe repression of RNA and protein synthesis, doubling of the cellular volume, DNA contents, peptides, amino acids, nucleotides, pyrophosphates, and proteins of unusual composition accumulates, with a marked increase in the intracellular content of  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Mn^{2+}$  and  $Fe^{2+}$  (see Wacker, 1962; Wacker, Kornicker & Pothier, 1965; Falchuk, *et al.*, 1975 for extensive reviews and data). The specific



biochemical events underlying these derangements are yet unknown which will be an interesting area of research, but the profound metabolic disturbances resulting from zinc deficiency point to events critical to cellular division and nucleic acid metabolism (Wacker, 1962; Wacker & Vallee, 1959; Shin & Eichhorn, 1968a, b; Prask & Plocke, 1971; Slater, Mildvan & Loeb, 1971; Scrutton, Wu & Goldthwait, 1971; Auld, Kawaguchi, Livingston & Vallee, 1974a, b) which may provide some explanations. In *E. gracilis*, the chromosomes appear to remain condensed at interphase (as previously mentioned above), resembling the metaphase chromosomes of other organisms (Leedale 1968; Moyne et al. 1975; Pellegrini, 1980; Hayashi-Ishimaru, et al. 1993; Ueda and Hayashi-Ishimaru, 1996). The structures responsible for motive force development in cell aperiodic contraction and re-extension, cytokinesis and chromosome separation during mitosis in the unicellular euglenoid, *E. gracilis*, have not yet been identified (Vanni and Poli, 1983). However, contractile proteins, primarily actin, have been proposed to be involved in these activities considering the role of actin cytoskeleton in spindle assembly and positioning in eukaryotes (Hofmann and Bouck 1976, Lefort-Tran, et al., 1980; Bre, et al., 1981; Murray, 1981; Carter, 1967; Copeland, 1974; Brown and Spudich, 1979; Kunda and Baum, 2009). Similarly, kinetochores which are macromolecular protein complexes have been evidenced to play specific role in chromosome segregation, and the presence of the conventional and non conventional types in *E. gracilis* raises the question on the origin of the kinetochore proteins (see chapter 5 of this work for discussion).

In *E. gracilis*, an apoptosis-like process (Gordeeva, et al., 2004; Deponte, 2008) similar to the processes in *Leishmania* and *Trypanosoma* (Nakhasi, 2003; Deponte, 2008; Ridgley, et al., 1999; Mukberiee, et al., 2002; Simpson, et al., 2004) has not been reported. It has been hypothesized that this apoptotic-like process (Scheuerlein, et al., 1995) is a derived feature in kinetoplastids rather than ancestral for all euglenozoans (Bumbulis and Balog, 2013). If it is an ancestral trait, it is expected that a similar death process in the more distantly related *E. gracilis* would have been evidenced (see Bumbulis and Balog, 2013). In *E. gracilis*, defense mechanism involves avoidance that is specific to circadian rhythm (Goto and Beneragama, 2010; Goto, et al., 1985), homeostasis (see Greer and Brunet, 2008; Kirkwood and Shanley, 2005; Goto and Beneragama, 2010), optimum strategy

adopted in the absence of increased cells mortality and reproductive overhead (Shanley and Kirkwood, 2000; Kirkwood and Shanley, 2005; Bolige, *et al.*, 2005b), the production of biofilms (Morales-Calderón, *et al.*, 2012) which is considered a metal protection mechanism, and finally, the production of algae toxins (Zimba, *et al.*, 2010) such as Euglenophycin which has been reported in *E. sanguine* and plays significant role in cellular defense (see Rodri'Guez-Zavala, 2007 for the biochemical and molecular mechanisms underpinning this processes). It is not yet fully understood which part of the *E. gracilis* genome controls cellular defence mechanism. But it's been proposed to be in the nucleus considering that the nucleus controls a majority of the cellular processes in eukaryotes, including cell division and apoptosis. This means that a susceptibility, or resistant, to external stress would most certainly be controlled by the nucleus (see Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2018, and Chapter 5, and Appendix I-a of this work).

#### Transcription, replication, recombination and repair, chromatin structure and dynamics

Comparative genomics of parasitic protists (such as trypanosomatids) and their free-living relatives (such as *N. gruberi*, *B. saltans*, and *E. gracilis*) are profoundly impacting our understanding of regulatory systems involved in transcription and chromatin dynamics (Iyer, *et al.*, 2008). While some parts of these systems are highly conserved, other parts are rapidly evolving, thereby providing the molecular basis for the variety in the regulatory adaptations of eukaryotes (Iyer, *et al.*, 2008). The gross number of specific transcription factors (promoters and repressors) and chromatin proteins are positively correlated with proteome size in eukaryotes, and the individual types of specific transcription factors and polymerases show huge variety within and across eukaryotic lineages (Iyer, *et al.*, 2008).

In Euglenids, RNA polymerases have been reported which are substantially influenced by external conditions. For instance, in *E. gracilis*, the existence of RNA Pol I and II have since been reported using zinc-sufficient cells which substantially differs from RNA polymerases species in zinc-deficient cells (Falchuk, *et al.*, 1976). This suggests that regulatory mechanisms which serve to synthesize or preferentially activate different classes of RNA polymerases appear to be called into play in zinc-deficiency, and which may potentially result to derangements in RNA metabolism,

and ultimately producing defects in protein synthesis of zinc deficient cells either during initiation, elongation, or termination (see Falchuk, *et al.*, 1976, for discussions on similar control processes in sea urchin, liver, *Helianthus tuberosus*, amoeba, and *E. coli*, with respect to the activities of RNA polymerase I and II variation as a function of the eukaryotic species stage of development).

In eukaryotes, except yeast tRNA<sup>Ser</sup>-tRNA<sup>Met</sup> gene locus, most tRNA genes so far examined are present as single transcription units (DeRobertis and Olson, 1979, Garber and Gage, 1979). In *E. gracilis* chloroplast, the processing of the chloroplast polycistronic tRNA transcript resembles those of prokaryotes (Gruissem and Prescott, 1982), and the tRNA gene cluster (tRNA<sup>Val</sup>-tRNA<sup>Asn</sup>-tRNA<sup>Arg</sup>) are faithfully transcribed into polycistronic precursor tRNAs (~ 268 nucleotides) by RNA polymerase III, by recognizing internal sequences of the prokaryotic tRNA genes for transcription initiation rather than a 5' flanking prokaryotic promoter sequence (Gruissem and Prescott, 1982). These precursor RNAs possess a consensus sequence, and are subsequently processed into the mature or nearly mature tRNAs by a defined pathway which involves trimming of the 5' leaders and 3'trailers of the primary transcript as well as the intermediates (Gruissem and Prescott, 1982).

In trypanosomes, as in *E. gracilis*, the mechanism for the control of gene expression is unusual, and transcription by RNA Polymerase II is polycistronic with only a few transcriptional units having been identified so far (Ivens, *et al.*, 2005). The sequences present in the polycistronic units code for proteins having unrelated functions or similar metabolic pathways (De Gaudenzi, *et al.*, 2011). This enhances gene expression by post-transcriptional events similar to the phenomenon in *E. gracilis* (see Chapter 6 of this work). In *T. brucei*, RNA Polymerase I transcribes the rRNA gene cluster, and this enzyme also mediates the transcription of two life cycle stage-specific mRNAs, bloodstream-form VSGs and procyclic-form procyclins (Ruan, *et al.*, 2004). During mRNA maturation in trypanosomes, polycistronic pre-mRNA units are processed into monocistrons by two coupled cleavage reactions *Trans*-splicing attaches a capped 39-nt SL (spliced leader) sequence at the 5' end of virtually all mRNAs, and the 3' end is polyadenylated (De Gaudenzi, *et al.*, 2011). The polyadenylation machinery in *E. gracilis* is not yet fully understood compared to those in trypanosomes. In *T. brucei*, a high throughput RNA sequencing has

demonstrated that most genes have between one and three alternative splice-acceptor sites, but contain several polyadenylated sites (Siegel, *et al.*, 2010).

During rRNA processing and maturation, pre-rRNA undergoes post-transcriptional modification including 2'-O-methylation and pseudouridylation events (Kiss 2001; Lafontaine and Tollervey 2001; Maden, 1990). In prokaryotes, they are primarily specified by ribonucleoprotein (RNP) complexes containing small guide RNAs associated with well-defined protein components (Bachellerie, *et al.*, 2002; Decatur and Fournier, 2003; Kiss 2002; Omer, *et al.*, 2003). In eukaryotes, these small guide RNAs localize to the nucleolus and are thus termed small nucleolar RNAs (snoRNAs), (Moore and Russell, 2012). There are two main types of snoRNAs, box C/D and box H/ACA, each classified by unique conserved sequence elements (box elements) and secondary structures (Kiss, 2002). *E. gracilis* snoRNAs display specific characteristics compared to some other eukaryotes (Moore and Russell, 2012), with significantly more O<sup>2</sup>-methyl than uridine ( $\psi$ ) sites (Schnare and Gray, 2011), and frequent gene duplication - a common mechanism driving snoRNA emergence and evolution in *Euglena* spp that has resulted in both the large number and clustered patterning of rRNA modification sites (Charette and Gray, 2009). Comparison of *E. gracilis* modified rRNA positions to those of other eukaryotes, including *Trypanosomes* (Dunbar, *et al.*, 2000; Liang, *et al.*, 2005; Uliel, *et al.*, 2004; Xu, *et al.*, 2001) indicates significant differences, including many *Euglena*-specific sites (Schnare and Gray, 2011; Russell, *et al.*, 2006) which also indicates that the large subunit (LSU) rRNA of *E. gracilis* is extensively fragmented, and that *Euglena* spp rRNA is heavily modified, containing significantly more O<sup>2</sup>-methylated nucleotides than the rRNAs of yeast or vertebrates. However, little is currently known about the mechanism producing the highly modified rRNA pattern (Moore and Russell, 2012), and the present genome data in this work does not support an extensive analysis to uncover this (see Chapter 3 and 4 of this work).

Ribonucleotide reductases (RNRs) are enzymes that provide all cells with the deoxyribonucleoside triphosphates (dNTPs) required for DNA replication and repair (Eklund, *et al.*, 2001; Jordan and Reichard, 1998; Lawrence and Stubbe, 1998, Sjoberg, 1978, 1997; Torrents, *et al.*, 2005; Reichard, 1993; Torrent, *et al.*, 2002; Stubbe, 2003; Eklund, *et al.*, 2001; Jordan and Reichard, 1998; Lawrence and

Stubbe, 1998). *E. gracilis* is an eukaryotic unicellular organism with a class II ribonucleotide reductase (Gleason and Hogenkamp, 1970; Hamilton, 1974) and represents an exception from the general rule that eukaryotes contain class I enzymes (Torrents, *et al.*, 2005). *E. gracilis* RNR belongs to the group of monomeric RNRs. Ribonucleoside triphosphates serve as the substrate and enzyme activity is absolutely dependent on adenosyl cobalamin. The structure and function of the *E. gracilis* enzyme is of interest with regard to the evolution of ribonucleotide reduction, but it also bears upon the evolution of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> dependence among eukaryotes in general (Torrents, *et al.*, 2005). Only prokaryotes synthesize B<sub>12</sub> (Roth, *et al.*, 1996), but numerous eukaryotes have a B<sub>12</sub> requirement for growth. B<sub>12</sub> dependence in *E. gracilis* relates to its B<sub>12</sub>-dependent ribonucleotide reductase (Gleason and Hogenkamp, 1970; Hamilton, 1974) and methylmalonyl-CoA mutase (Watababe, *et al.*, 1996), which likely forms the basis of the classical *E. gracilis* clinical assay for diagnosing human B<sub>12</sub> deficiency and for quantifying human serum B<sub>12</sub> levels (Mollin, *et al.*, 1976). In vitamin B<sub>12</sub>-deficient *E. gracilis*, ribonucleotide reductases are inducible enzymes and are synthesized just before and during the S-phase (Follmann, 1974). There are two possible reasons why *E. gracilis* contain a gene for a B<sub>12</sub>-dependent class II RNR (and methylmalonyl-CoA mutase) different from other eukaryotes (Watanabe, *et al.*, 1996; Torrent, *et al.*, 2005): lateral gene transfer or inheritance from the eukaryote common ancestors. The function of the nucleus also involves maintaining chromatin structure and dynamics. However, there is no recent information on the chromatin structure and dynamics of *E. gracilis* except the heterochromatin organization as reported in this work, and existing literature suggests that there are a number of descriptive responses of *E. gracilis* to deficiencies of the essential metals, for instance, zinc, iron, manganese, or magnesium or to cold shock (Falchuk, *et al.*, 1986). The effects of Zn deficiency on chromatin composition and structure are characteristic and specific. This usually results to the absence of histones in acid extracts from chromatin and an increased resistance of the latter to nuclease digestion which are unique and specific to Zn deficiency in *E. gracilis* (see Falchuk, *et al.*, 1986, for details).

#### Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis, RNA processing, and modification

The conversion of genetic information stored in DNA into a protein product proceeds through the obligatory intermediate of messenger RNA (Monde, *et al.*, 2000). The

steady-state level of an mRNA is determined by its relative synthesis and degradation rates, i.e., an interplay between transcriptional regulation and control of RNA stability. When the biological status of an organism requires that a gene product's abundance varies as a function of developmental stage, environmental factors or intracellular signals, increased or decreased RNA stability can be the determining factor. RNA stability and processing have long been known as important regulatory points in chloroplast gene expression (Monde, *et al.*, 2000). Several interesting features of rRNA biosynthesis in *E. gracilis* combine to make this organism an attractive model system for studies of ribosome biogenesis. This include few integrated chromosomal copies of rDNA (Ravel-Chapuis, 1988), 14 individual coding RNA pieces contained in the nucleocytoplasmic LSU rRNA (Schnare and Gray, 1990; Schnare, *et al.*, 1990) and processing of the SSU and LSU rRNAs from a large precursor of approximately 10.3 kb (Brown and Haselkorn, 1971).

Initial characterization of *E. gracilis* rRNA (involving chemical and/or enzymatic sequencing of 5'-end-labeled and 3'-end-labeled RNA species) (Schnare and Gray, 1990) suggested that *E. gracilis* rRNAs are highly modified (Decatur and Fournier, 2002; Schnare and Gray, 1990; Murray, *et al.*, 2011). *E. gracilis* cytoplasmic rRNAs (particularly the LSU rRNA) are the most highly modified rRNAs yet described. Comparison with previously published modification patterns for other eukaryotic rRNAs identifies conserved sites of modification (presumably ones involved in general eukaryotic ribosome function) and species-specific sites, the functional significance of which remains to be determined. In *E. gracilis*, the additional rRNA modifications are correlated with aspects of potential secondary structure, suggesting that supernumerary modification may play a role in stabilizing higher-order structure in the case of a highly fragmented rRNA.

In *E. gracilis* rRNAs, biogenesis requires a considerably larger number of snoRNAs than is the case in other eukaryotes (Murray, *et al.*, 2011). The *E. gracilis* modification maps could also aid in the prediction of modified sites in other eukaryotic rRNAs where mapping data are not yet available. The lower overall number of modified nucleosides in the cytoplasmic rRNA of other eukaryotes compared to *E. gracilis* raises the question of whether there has been an

evolutionary loss of modifications in other eukaryotes, or a gain, in *Euglena*. Some sites that are highly conserved among eukaryotes are not modified in *E. gracilis*, suggesting a specific loss in the evolutionary lineage leading to the genus *Euglena*. Modifications that are located in variable regions must represent gain; for instance, the unusual cluster of five 1-methyladenosine (m<sup>1</sup>A) residues in LSU species 6 is located in a region that is absent in most other LSU rRNAs and is not even conserved among *Euglena* species. It's been proposed that elevated levels of snoRNA gene duplication and divergence in the *E. gracilis* genome have resulted in an unusually wide array of potential snoRNAs having novel target sites within rRNA. (see Maden, 1990; Hury, *et al.*, 2006; Bokov and Steinberg, 2009; Kawai, 1992; Arnez and Steitz, 1994; Davis, 1995, 1998; Auffinger and Westhof, 1998; Davis, *et al.*, 1998; Yarian, *et al.*, 1999; Durant and Davis, 1999; Charette and Gray, 2000; Murray, *et al.*, 2011 for the most highly modified SSU and LSU rRNAs, most ancient parts of *E. gracilis* rRNA, the role of supernumerary modification in the stabilization of RNA structure, RNA modification maps and snoRNA genes in *E. gracilis*).

### Post-translational modification

ADP-ribosylation is a post-translational modification of proteins, and both poly- and mono-ADP-ribosylations have been reported in *E. gracilis* (Ueda and Hayaishi, 1985) which are cell cycle dependent (Shigeo, *et al.*, 1995). In *E. gracilis*, poly ADP-ribose (see Edmunds, 1984a & b; Matsuyama and Tsuyama, 1991; Scaife, *et al.*, 1992; Shigeo, *et al.*, 1995 for details on physiological role of mono and poly ADP-ribosylation) is synthesized only in S phase and not at the transition from the G2 to the M phase. How poly ADP-ribose is synthesized in the S phase and cleaved, as well as the function of mono ADP-ribosylation in the S phase are yet unknown (Shigeo, *et al.*, 1995). ADP-ribosylation functions specifically during the S phase in the chloroplast and mitochondrial fractions organelles, where it might be related to genome replication and/or repair. ADP-ribosyltransferase or acceptor proteins are sensitive to trypsin; thus, ADP-ribosylation is never found in organelles obtained using partial trypsin digestion (Shigeo, *et al.*, 1995).

#### 1.2.2 Chloroplast

##### 1.2.2.1 The photosynthetic apparatus

The eukaryotic chloroplast genome encodes over 30 proteins that are involved in photosynthesis, including components of photosystems I and II, cytochrome *bf* complex, ATP synthase, and one of the subunits of ribulose biphosphate carboxylase (RUBISCO). Although, chloroplasts encode more of their own proteins than mitochondria, about 90% of chloroplast proteins are still encoded by nuclear genes, suggesting that many constituents required for chloroplast development may come from outside the plastid in *E. gracilis* (Cooper, 2000). This also suggests that certain chloroplast molecules might be supplied through synthetic activities and informational contributions from outside the chloroplast. *E. gracilis* contains at least three different genomes localized in the nucleus, mitochondrion, and chloroplast respectively (Bovarnick, 1974; Schiff, 1971; Nass and Ben-Shaul, 1972), and at least two and perhaps three sets of ribosomes (Bovarnick, 1974), the 68S of the plastid, the 87S of the cytoplasm and perhaps a mitochondrial species (Bovarnick, 1974; Avadhani & Buetow, 1972a, b). The mitochondrial DNA is small (~ 19 kbp) (Shori, Ben-Shaul & Edelman, 1970; Bovarnick, 1974); it therefore possesses a very limited amount of information. Recent studies suggests there are only 7 protein-coding genes within the mitochondrial of *E. gracilis* (Dobakova, *et al.*, 2015). The nucleus and chloroplast contain relatively large amounts of DNA, and are the sources of information for plastid biosynthesis.

*E. gracilis* cells are characterized by thylakoid dismantling and chloroplast dedifferentiation (Scheer & Parthier 1982; Reinbothe, *et al.*, 1991). Thylakoid dismantling is a process whereby chloroplasts are converted to non-photosynthetically active plastids called proplastids (Ferroni, *et al.*, 2009) (see Chapter 6 of this work for current understanding on the transition from light to dark and vice versa). It characterizes processes such as the chloroplast-to-gerontoplast transition in senescing photosynthetic tissues and the chloroplast-to-chromoplast transition in reproductive structures such as petals and fruits (Cheung, *et al.* 1993; Bonora, *et al.* 2000; Thomas, *et al.*, 2003; Keskitalo, *et al.*, 2005). The removal of thylakoid components, primarily chlorophyll (chl)-protein complexes, leads to progressive changes in organisation of the inner membrane system of the organelle (Ferroni, *et al.*, 2009). The degradation of key complexes, i.e. photosystem II (PSII), photosystem I (PSI) and their light-harvesting complexes (LHC), has been mainly characterized in higher plant leaves, where senescence processes are induced



(Humbeck et al. 1996; Miersch et al. 2000; Humbeck & Krupinska 2003). Although thylakoid dismantling can vary considerably in different experimental systems, degradation of the photosynthetic complexes presents common characteristics (Ferroni, *et al.*, 2009). Chl–protein complexes are usually degraded in a multi-step fashion; in particular, LHCs normally undergo slower degradation than the photosynthetic reaction centres (RCs) (Kura-Hotta, *et al.*, 1987; Noode'n, *et al.*, 1997; Miersch, *et al.*, 2000; Humbeck & Krupinska, 2003; Tang, *et al.*, 2005).

Chloroplast differentiation occurs only in dividing cells and generally leads to the formation of plastids with nearly absent thylakoid system (Ferroni, *et al.*, 2009), which may contain internal membranes (Schiff and Epstein, 1961). Typical chloroplasts in *E. gracilis* cells (Figure 1.1, 1.3), contains long lamellae, each consisting of 2 – 3 thylakoids (Tomoko Ehara, *et al.*, 1975). *E. gracilis* acquired its chlorophyll a-b containing plastid by secondary endosymbiosis as previously mentioned; the organelle is bounded by three membrane envelope, attesting to the multiple endosymbiotic events that led to the present state (Keeling, 2004). It has been suggested that the *E. gracilis* photosystems use a common antenna system composed of both LHCI and LHCII (Doerge, *et al.*, 2000); however, the LHCI of *E. gracilis* seems to be non-homologous to LHCI of green algae (Koziol, *et al.*, 2007). When grown in the dark in the presence of organic carbon sources, *E. gracilis* is etiolated and contains about 10 small, polyp-shaped plastids, commonly called 'proplastids' (Schwartzbach & Schiff, 1983). Upon exposure to light, proplastids differentiate into photosynthetically active chloroplasts with elongated three-thylakoid lamellae. The sequence of events leading to formation of the proplastids still remains obscure in many aspects; including thylakoid re-arrangement and degradation (see Ferroni, *et al.*, 2009)

#### 1.2.2.2 Chloroplast genome structure

The only completely sequenced *E. gracilis* non nuclear DNA (to date), are the plastid and the mitochondrial genome (Hallick, *et al.*, 1993, Dobakova, *et al.*, 2015). The nuclear genomic DNA which is a focus of this work (see chapter 2 – 5) has been sequenced using Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) technology. In *E. gracilis*, the plastid genome is highly asymmetrical in its composition. One asymmetrical feature that has been noted previously is that the circular chromosome is strongly biased in

terms of which strand is the coding strand (Hallick, *et al.*, 1993), and its entire plastid genome consists of 143,170 bp, a total of 97 proteins and gene loci - 46 of these are protein-coding genes, and 51 RNA-coding genes (see Hallick, *et al.*, 1993 for details), including group II and III introns, and twintrons (i.e. introns inserted within introns) (Thomson, *et al.*, 1996). The two strands of the *E. gracilis* chloroplast genome also differ in compositional properties, and codon usage bias (Morton, 1999), and it has been proposed that this bias is due to selection to coordinate transcription and DNA replication (see Morton, 1998, 1999; Hallick, *et al.*, 1993).

#### Primary transcripts, intergenic spacers transcripts, introns and twintrons

An *E. gracilis* cell possesses approximately eight secondary plastids bounded by three membranes (Chem, *et al.*, 1977; Rawso and Boerma, 1976), as previously mentioned. The plastid genome of *E. gracilis* is circular, and the evolutionary transition from an endosymbiont to the plastid organelle was accompanied by a loss of many genes and gene transfer from the endosymbiont genome (s) (see sub section 1.2.3 for a review on endosymbiosis and evolution of the genus, *Euglena*) to the host genome (Martin and Herrman, 1998). Gene transfer from plastids and mitochondria is an ongoing process, as it has been demonstrated in animals, plants, fungi as well as other protists (Hazkani-Covo, *et al.*, 2010; Smith, *et al.*, 2011). The polyadenylation of plastid transcripts in *E. gracilis* has been previously studied by hybridization experiments of labeled plastid RNA to plastid DNA, and it was concluded that plastid rRNAs were polyadenylated to some extent, while plastid mRNAs were not (Milner, *et al.*, 1979). A small portion of plastid mRNAs has been demonstrated to be polyadenylated as well, and similar mechanism exists in secondary plastids (Zahonova, *et al.*, 2014). One of the most remarkable features of the *E. gracilis* plastid genome (cpDNA) is the presence of over 150 introns (160 total) that interrupt almost all of its protein-coding genes (Hallick, *et al.*, 1993; and GenBank X70810.2). Self-splicing catalytic ribozymes, such as these, are common in organellar genomes (Cech, 1990; Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2011), but the introns found in *E. gracilis* cpDNA are highly unusual. The majority of its introns are so-called group II introns, with several other group III introns (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004, 2011; Copertino and Hallick, 1993) (see Chapter 5 & 6 of this work for indications of novel splicing mechanisms in *E. gracilis*).

The *E. gracilis* plastid genome also contains about 15 twintrons in total. These intricate nested introns must be removed sequentially to result in accurate splicing. The unorthodox *E. gracilis* introns have been found in other *Euglena species* (Doetsch, *et al.*, 1998, 2000; Sheveleva, *et al.*, 2002) including *Euglena* (formerly *Astasia*) *longa* (Gockel and Hachtel, 2000), a close relative that has retained a plastid genome despite the loss of photosynthesis, but until recently it was not known if these peculiar genetic elements were representative of the euglenids as a whole. Early hypotheses postulated that these introns were acquired late in the evolution of photosynthetic euglenids (Thompson, *et al.*, 1995) and the subsequent finding that the plastid genome of the prasinophyte, *P. parkeae*, did not contain any highly-reduced group II introns (Turmel, *et al.*, 2009) gave further credence to the notion that these introns were gained after the secondary endosymbiotic plastid uptake. In *E. gracilis*, analysis of intergenic spacer transcripts suggests the possibility of 'read around' transcription, i.e transcription that proceeds multiple times around rDNA circle without termination (Spencer, 2001; see Yasuko, *et al.*, 1993 for studies on the structure of the nucleoids in *E. gracilis*).

#### 1.2.2.3 Evolution of the chloroplast genome

Within the photosynthetic euglenoids, the only chloroplast genome that has been sequenced is from *E. gracilis* (Hallick, *et al.*, 1993). *E. gracilis* is not a typical representative photosynthetic euglenoid due to the diversity within the lineage, and it is not closely related to the phagotrophic forms believed to have been the host for the endosymbiont (Weigert, *et al.*, 2012). The diversity of the euglenoid lineage warrants further exploration into their chloroplast evolution, which could elucidate understanding of this key basal eukaryotic lineage. To date, all inferences regarding the chloroplast donor taxon have relied on the chloroplast sequence of *E. gracilis* by Hallick, *et al.*, 1993. Based on established phylogenetic assessment of the photosynthetic euglenoids, *E. gracilis* is consistently a crown species of the lineage (Linton, *et al.*, 2010; Marin, *et al.*, 2003; Triemer, *et al.*, 2006).

There are some significant changes that have been demonstrated by the *E. gracilis* chloroplast in comparison with other photosynthetic algae. Firstly, the *E. gracilis* chloroplast genome is not divided into large and small single copy regions separated by inverted repeats containing the rRNA genes (as well as a few other genes).

Secondly, not only does *E. gracilis* lack the inverted repeats, but the ribosomal operon is organized in at least three and a half tandemly arranged copies (5S/23S/16S:5S/23S/16S:5S/23S/16S:16S, Hallick *et al.* 1993). Thirdly, the *E. gracilis* gene content appears consistent with other sequenced green algal chloroplast genomes, but the arrangement is not (Turmel, *et al.*, 2009). *E. gracilis* chloroplast DNA is the richest known source of introns, and an ideal system for studying the evolution and proliferation of group II, group III introns, and twintrons. During the evolution of the *Euglena* plastid DNA, introns were added to intronless progenitors and twintrons were formed by the insertion of one or more introns into an existing intron (Thompson, *et al.*, 1995). *E. gracilis* chloroplast introns arose late in the evolution of this lineage. The group II introns are the proposed progenitors of nuclear spliceosomal introns and are found in ancient genes from modern organisms.

#### Endosymbiosis: explanation, potential use in understanding endosymbiosis mechanisms

Several independent eukaryotic lineages have acquired their photosynthetic lifestyle from a secondary endosymbiont (Gibbs, 1978; Stoebe and Maier, 2002). Both primary and secondary endosymbiosis were accompanied by endosymbiotic gene transfer (EGT) - the relocation of genes from the organelle to the chromosomes of the host (Martin, *et al.*, 1993; Archibald, *et al.*, 2003; Timmis, *et al.*, 2004). Estimations for the frequency of EGT during the primary endosymbiosis range between 18 % of the *Arabidopsis thaliana* genome (Martin, *et al.*, 2002) and 11% of the Cyanophora genome (Reyes-Prieto, *et al.*, 2006). *E. gracilis* is well suited for the study of endosymbiosis and endosymbiotic gene transfer because its plastid was acquired by a secondary endosymbiosis, but it includes no remains of the endosymbiotic nucleus (McFadden, 2001). Moreover, *E. gracilis* shares a common ancestor with the Kinetoplastida (Adl, *et al.*, 2005, 2012), none of which seem to have experienced a secondary endosymbiosis (Rogers, *et al.*, 2006). Hence, by the sequence similarity criterion, the genome of *E. gracilis* is expected to be a hybrid composed of four main gene classes: (i) *Euglena*-specific genes, (ii) Kinetoplastida-specific genes, (iii) eukaryotic genes that are spread in other eukaryotes, and (iv) genes acquired during the secondary endosymbiosis (Ahmadinejad, *et al.*, 2007) (see Chapter 4, 5, and Appendices of this work for an extensive discussion). Clear

candidates for the latter group are genes that have homologues only in photoautotrophic eukaryotes. In some cases the acquired gene replaced an orthologous gene within the host (Henze, *et al.*, 1995). Such genes have homologues in both photoautotrophic and heterotrophic eukaryotes, but are closely related to the former. Because of these distinct gene origins, a single bifurcating tree cannot accurately describe the complex gene collection of *E. gracilis* because genome evolution by endosymbiotic gene transfer is a non tree-like process; thus buttressing that genome of *E. gracilis* is a hybrid of photoautotrophic and heterotrophic genomes (Ahmadinejad, *et al.*, 2007).

Although the majority of euglenids live in freshwater, the basal lineage of the autotrophic clade contains the marine species *Eutreptia* and *Eutreptiella*, corroborating the hypothesis of a marine origin of photosynthetic euglenids (Marin, *et al.*, 2003; Marin, 2004). Comparative studies on the plastid genomes of *E. gracilis*, *Eutreptia viridis perty*, and closely related green algal taxa have provided support for the hypothesis that a *Pyramimonas*-like alga was the euglenoid chloroplast donor via secondary endosymbiosis. Significant gene rearrangements exist between *E. gracilis* plastid genomes and that of other members of the group such as *Eutreptia viridis*; the key chloroplast genes are present and differ only in the absence of *psaM* and *roaA* in *Eutreptia viridis*, and *psal* in *E. gracilis*, suggesting a high level of gene conservation within the euglenoid lineage (Weigert, *et al.*, 2012). The comparative analysis of the gene content between the plastid genome of *Pyramimonas parkeae*, which encodes 110 conserved genes (81 protein and 29 RNA species), (Turmel, *et al.*, 2009), and *E. gracilis*, which comprises 97 conserved genes (46 protein and 51 RNA species) (Hallick, *et al.*, 1993), has revealed a substantial loss of genes (for example all genes of NADH plastoquinone oxidoreductase of the plastidial respiratory chain) happening from the common ancestor of *P. parkeae* to extant *E. gracilis*. This reduction of gene repertoire is explained as a consequence of secondary endosymbiosis, although comparable gene losses took place in the prasinophyte lineages leading to *Pycnococcus* and to the coccoid microalgae *Ostreococcus* and *Monomastix* (Turmel, *et al.*, 2009).

Further gene loss in euglenids accompanying the loss of photosynthetic activity has been observed in the closely related but non-photosynthetic *E. longa*, which has

maintained 56 conserved genes (26 protein and 30 RNA species) (Gockel and Hachtel, 2000). Despite the reduction of coding capacity of the *E. gracilis* plastid in comparison to that of *P. parkeae*, the size of the *E. gracilis* plastid genome increased (143.2 vs. 101.6 kb in *P. parkeae*). The increase in the genome size should mainly be ascribed to the expansion of self splicing introns (see Ebenezer, et al., 2017, and Chapter 3 and 4 of this work for discussion on genome sizes). While *P. parkeae* features a single group II intron, the genome of the *E. gracilis* plastid contains ~160 group II and group III introns (15 of which formed twintrons), which is by far the most of all known organellar genomes (Thompson, et al., 1996; Doetsch, et al., 1998). There are indications that the expansion of introns may be a feature specific to *E. gracilis* and its relatives (Thompson, et al., 1996; Doetsch, et al., 1998); however, no other plastid genome of euglenids has been completely sequenced, which would be necessary to enable comprehensive comparisons (Hrda, et al., 2012). This phenomenon is also true in comparison with other euglenid relatives. For instance, the plastid genome of *E. gracilis* and *Eutreptiella* also provides a window into the process of secondary endosymbiosis of plastid euglenids (Hrda, et al., 2012).

#### 1.2.2.4 Chloroplast genome functions

Insights into the overall functional organization of the *E. gracilis* plastid chromosome and the transcriptional regulation of its genes (Geimer, et al., 2009) has now been understood through a microarray-based transcriptome analysis using the complete sequence of the plastid chromosome (Hallick, et al., 1993). The plastid chromosome appears to be constitutively expressed under all chosen external conditions including stresses such as UV light, temperature, antiplastidial agents, herbicide and heavy metal exposure. The euglenoid organelle transcriptome is qualitatively relatively insensitive to the environment, but exhibits marked overall quantitative changes. Global changes in patterns of gene expressions demonstrates that RNA turnover, translational, proteolytic and/or metabolic control regulate organelle gene expression in this flagellate (Geimer, et al., 2009).

#### Intracellular trafficking and targeting, secretion and vesicular transport, posttranslational modification and protein turnover

As previously mentioned, the plastid of *E. gracilis* was acquired secondarily through an endosymbiotic event with a eukaryotic green alga, and as a result, it is

surrounded by three membranes (see Bachvaroff, *et al.*, 2005; Yoon, *et al.*, 2002). Nevertheless, the similar morphological architecture of their plastids may also require analogous transport mechanisms (Nassoury, *et al.*, 2003). The majority of the plastid proteome of these secondary plastids, as in primary plastids, is encoded in the host's nuclear genome (see Armbrust, *et al.*, 2004; Douglas, *et al.*, 2001; Gilson, *et al.*, 2006; Rogers, *et al.*, 2006, 2007). Thus, hundreds of proteins needed for essential plastid functions must cross either three or four membranes to reach their final destination in the plastid stroma (Bolte, *et al.*, 2009). The thylakoid membrane can be considered an additional membrane barrier, if the protein is destined for the thylakoid lumen. Although protein import into complex plastids is much more complicated than import into primary plastids. Recent investigations into the cellular mechanisms involved have nonetheless resulted in a preliminary albeit incomplete picture of the evolution of these import machineries (Bolte, *et al.*, 2009).

This membrane complexity raises the question of how the plastid proteins are targeted to and imported into the organelle, and the complex routes of plastid targeting that must exist in this organism (Dion, *et al.*, 2006). Many proteins synthesized in the cytoplasm are post-translationally directed to their final destination by crossing membranes, which surround specific compartments (Bolte, *et al.*, 2009). Most have to be synthesized as preproteins with one or more topogenic signals, which act like addresses for identification and targeting by specific receptors. The complexes formed in this process are directed to the target compartment and then transported by way of compartment-specific translocons. During symbiogenesis, new compartments originated, and as in mitochondria and plastids, symbiont nucleic acids were mixed intracellularly. Transport of nucleus-encoded proteins into the symbiont is a prerequisite for the maintenance of the partnership.

In *E. gracilis*, as in many other Euglenoids, pre-protein classification is generally divided into three classes (Durnford and Gray 2006; Patron *et al.* 2005). Class I pre-proteins comprises of tripartite targeting sequences, an N-terminal topogenic signal consisting of a signal peptide at the N-terminus, followed by a transit peptide domain and a predicted stop transfer sequence (hydrophobic region) in front of the coding sequence for the mature protein (Bolte, *et al.*, 2009). Class II pre-proteins; however, contain a bipartite signal sequence without the putative stop-transfer sequence

(hydrophobic region). They also possess only a signal sequence at the N terminus, followed by what, in amino acid composition, resembles a plastid transit peptide. A few unrelated plastid-targeted proteins also exhibit highly similar transit sequences, implying either a recent swapping of these domains or a conserved function (Dion, *et al.*, 2006). Despite the similarities in their sequences, pre-proteins crossing the thylakoid membrane, in addition to the three plastid-surrounding membranes, seemingly belonging to a third group, are nonetheless classified as Class Ib proteins (Durnford and Gray, 2006; Patron, *et al.*, 2005). Proteins related to these latter classes possess an additional region, which seems to be required for import into thylakoids (Inagaki, *et al.*, 2000). The transport across the plastid envelope as well as the intra-plastidal transport may be directly comparable to the situation in primary plastids (see Inagaki, *et al.*, 2000; Nassoury, *et al.*, 2003; Slavikova, *et al.*, 2005; Sulli, *et al.*, 1999; Chaal and Green, 2005; Dooren, *et al.*, 2001; Bolte, *et al.*, 2009; Osafune, *et al.*, 1991 for details and import experiments of Class I and Class II proteins).

Light-harvesting complexes (LHCs) are a superfamily of chlorophyll- and carotenoid-binding proteins that are responsible for the capture of light energy and its transfer to the photosynthetic reaction centers in *E. gracilis* (Koziol and Durnford, 2007). Unlike those of most eukaryotes, the LHCs of *E. gracilis* are translated from large mRNAs, producing polyprotein precursors consisting of multiple concatenated LHC subunits that are separated by conserved decapeptide linkers. These precursors are posttranslationally targeted to the chloroplast and cleaved into individual proteins. Several of the individual LHC-coding subunits both within and between transcriptional units evolve in concert, suggesting that gene conversion has been a significant mechanism for LHC evolution in *E. gracilis* (Koziol and Durnford, 2007). These polyproteins have previously been classified as LHCI or LHCII based upon whether their LHC subunits are predicted to associate exclusively with photosystem I (Houlne and Schantz, 1988) or with photosystem II (Houlne and Schantz, 1987; Muchhal and Schwartzbach, 1992). Additionally, both *E. gracilis* and dinoflagellates encode multiple nuclear-encoded plastid-targeted proteins translated as polyprotein precursors. These polyproteins are routed through the endomembrane system (Osafune, *et al.*, 1990) and directed to the chloroplasts via complex N-terminal targeting sequences (Durnford and Gray, 2006). Once in the chloroplast, the



individual proteins are liberated through proteolytic cleavage of conserved decapeptide linkers (polylinkers) (Muchhal and Schwartzbach, 1992; Hiller, *et al.*, 1995) as previously mentioned.

Two types of RNA polymerases are known to exist in chloroplasts (Greenberg, 1984): one is a single subunit, nuclear encoded enzyme related to various phage RNA polymerases, and multi-subunit eubacterial RNA polymerases. Genes for four subunits, *rpoA*, *rpoB*, *rpoC1* and *rpoC2*, are normally encoded by the plastid genome (Hess and Borner, 1999). When the sequence of the *E. gracilis* chloroplast genome was reported in 1993 the  $\alpha$ -subunit gene (*rpoA*) of RNA polymerase appeared to be missing, based on a comparison of all putative reading frames to the then known *rpoA* loci. The *rpoA* gene products in *E. gracilis* appear to be the most variable in this gene family when compared to the *rpoA* gene in other species of bacteria, algae and plants. Additionally, *E. gracilis* *rpoA* proteins lack a C-terminal domain required for interaction with some regulatory proteins, a feature shared only with some chlorophyte green algae. The *E. gracilis* *rpoA* gene is the distal cistron of a multigene cluster that includes genes for carbohydrate biosynthesis, photosynthetic electron transport, an antenna complex and ribosomal proteins (Sheveleva, *et al.*, 2002).

The light-induced development of proplastids into chloroplasts is a classic example of subcellular differentiation (Pathier, 1982) and protein turnover (Cushman and Price, 1986). Extremely low rates of protein synthesis by isolated proplastids from *E. gracilis* have also been reported (Miller, *et al.*, 1983). ATP combined with equimolar  $Mg^{2+}$  are capable of stimulating translation rates in pea chloroplasts in the dark to levels equal to or greater than, those observed in the light (Fish, *et al.*, 1983; Navison, 1984). In *E. gracilis* proplastids supplemented with ATP and  $Mg^{2+}$  and other external factors, can synthesize proteins (large subunit of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase (LS)) at rates about half those of light-driven chloroplasts and most translation products of proplastids are distinct from those of mature chloroplasts (Cushman and Price, 1986). The primary limiting factor in proplastid protein synthesis is energy (light, and other supplementary and inorganic elements such as amino acid,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $K^{2+}$ ) and not in the availability of transcripts (Dehesh and Apel, 1983; Liu and Jagendorf, 1984; Malek, *et al.*, 1984; Cushman and Price, 1986).

*Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis, RNA processing, and modification*

A comparison by two-dimensional gel electrophoresis of the most abundant *in vivo* and *in vitro* *Euglena* translation products indicates that translation rather than transcription is the major site of photoregulation (Monroy, *et al.*, 1987; McCarthy and Schwartzbach, 1984; Bonham-Smith and Bourque, 1989; Koo and Spremull, 1994; Kozak, 1989). Light Harvesting Chlorophyll a/b-binding protein of photosystem II(LHCPII) is one of the light-induced *E. gracilis* proteins whose synthesis is controlled at the translational rather than the transcriptional level – this phenomenon is also evident in this work (see Chapter 6 of this work). LHCPII mRNA is translated on membrane-bound polysomes in *E. gracilis*, and light regulates pLHCPII (LHCPII polysomes) synthesis at the level of polypeptide chain elongation (Kishore and Schwartzbach, 1992). Similarly, little is known of the interdependence and coordinated regulation of plastid and nuclear gene expression during light-induced chloroplast development (Parthier, 1982). Detailed analysis at the protein and RNA levels (Monroy and Schwartzbach, 1984; Monroy, *et al.*, 1986; 1987; McCarthy and Schwartzbach, 1984; Krauspe, *et al.*, 1987) merely revealed that nuclear and plastid genes for chloroplast proteins are differentially expressed during the transformation of proplastids to chloroplasts (as previously mentioned; see Chapter 6 of this work). Changes in other plastid constituents like galacto- or sulfo- lipids (Pohl, 1973), chlorophylls (Kindman, *et al.*, 1978; Gomez-Silva, *et al.*, 1985) and carotenoids (Dolphin, 1970; Cunningham, 1986) emphasized the complexity of the biochemical processes. They only reflect but do not explain how the expression of plastid and nuclear genes is coordinated (Reinbothe and Parthier, 1990). Scholarly evidences suggests that, in *E. gracilis*, translational controls and posttranslational events may also play a role in regulating the synthesis and accumulation of chloroplast localized proteins (Devic and Schantz, 1983; Dubertret and Lefort-Tran, 1982; McCarthy and Schwartzbach, 1984; Miller, *et al.*, 1983; Reardon and Price, 1983) as also evident in this work.

### 1.2.3 Mitochondria

#### 1.2.3.1 The mitochondrial machinery

The mitochondria, much like the chloroplasts, contain their own genetic system, and grow in a coordinated process that requires the contribution of two separate genetic systems - one in the organelle and one in the cell nucleus. Most of the proteins in

these organelles are encoded by nuclear DNA, synthesized in the cytosol, and then imported individually into the organelle, and are inherited by non Mendelian-mechanism (Alberts, *et al.*, 2002). The biosynthesis of new mitochondria, much like chloroplasts, requires lipids in addition to nucleic acids and proteins. Mitochondria, in contrast to chloroplasts, import most of their lipids. In animal cells, the phospholipids phosphatidylcholine and phosphatidylserine are synthesized in the endoplasmic reticulum and then transferred to the outer membrane of mitochondria (Alberts, *et al.*, 2002)

### 1.2.3.2 Mitochondrial genome structure

Mitochondrial genomes are unique and diverse across the various eukaryotic lineages. In most animals, fungi and plants, mitochondrial DNAs (mtDNAs) consist of a single chromosome whose physical structure is monomeric circular, or multimeric linear (but circular mapping; Nosek and Tomaska, 2003). Electron microscopic observations have suggested that virtually all of the *E. gracilis* mitochondrial genome is in the form of small linear pieces of average length 0.9 – 1  $\mu\text{m}$  (Spencer and Gray, 2012). Sizes of *E. gracilis* mtDNA vary from ~15 - 20 kbp to several hundred kbp. The mitochondrial genomes (mtDNA) of the kinetoplastids are referred to as the kinetoplast DNA (kDNA), consisting of a maxicircle (present in a dozen copies) and numerous minicircles (present in several thousand copies) (Lukes, *et al.*, 2005). The physical and spatial structure of kinetoplastid mtDNAs is diverse; designated as eu-kDNA in *Trypanosoma* and *Leishmania*, pro-kDNA in *Bodo saltans*, Pan-kDNA in *Bodo caudatus*, poly-kDNA in *Dimastigella mimosa*, *D. trypaniformis* and *Cruzella marina*, and finally, mega-kDNA in *Trypanoplasma* and *Jarellia* (Lukes, *et al.* 2002; Joannie, *et al.*, 2007). In a number of characteristics, *E. gracilis* mtDNA more closely resembles the mitochondrial genome found in dinoflagellates, an apparent evolutionary convergence. Nevertheless, the presence of dispersed gene fragments and their organization in *E. gracilis* mtDNA do suggest a model for the evolutionary emergence of coding sequences for the guide-type RNAs that function in mitochondrial U insertion/ deletion editing in the kinetoplastids (Spencer and Gray, 2012).

RNA species of 14S and 11S have been identified in *E. gracilis* mitochondria (Krawiec and Eisenstadt, 1970b) and shown to hybridize to the mtDNA of this

organism (Crouse, *et al.*, 1974); in contrast, 21S and 16S rRNA species having a very low G + C content (30%) have been isolated from 71S mitochondrial ribosomes composed of 50S and 32S subunits (Avadhani and Buetow, 1972). Apart from these observations, nothing is known about mitochondrial rRNA gene organization or expression in euglenid flagellates (Spencer and Gray, 2012). The *Euglena* mitochondrial genome does not appear as a compact and homogeneous structure and it possess high A+T content (about 76%) whereas this value is less than 50% in nuclear DNA, but Rawson, *et al.*, 1979, reported an overall base composition GC content of 48 %.

In the past, the mitochondrial genomes of euglenids are poorly characterized, due to several reasons, however, this has now fully been characterized (Dobakova, *et al.*, 2015). In the model organism, *E. gracilis*, mtDNA structure and size had remained elusive despite intensive studies (Buetow, 1989; Gray, *et al.*, 2004; Manning, *et al.*, 1971; Nass *et al.*, 1974; Talen, *et al.*, 1974; Yasuhira and Simpson, 1997; Lukes, *et al.*, 2005), and for the other euglenids, there is lack of established culture conditions, axenic strains, or specialized organelle isolation protocols (Joannie, *et al.*, 2007) to propel sufficient investigations. Recent observations suggest that the unusual mitochondrial genome organization seen in Kinetoplastids might occur in other Euglenozoa as well (Joannie, *et al.*, 2007), including *E. gracilis*. Earlier studies described a single ('giant') mitochondrion in *E. gracilis* (Pellegrini, 1980b). Previously, the only mitochondrial genes identified in *E. gracilis* encode fragmented LSU and SSU rRNAs (Gray, *et al.*, 2004; Buetow, 1989) and subunit 1 of cytochrome oxidase (Tessier, *et al.*, 1997; Yasuhira and Simpson, 1997). The architecture of *E. gracilis* mtDNA has now been described (Perez, *et al.*, 2014, Dobakova, *et al.*, 2015).

### 1.2.3.3 Evolution of the mitochondrial genome

In recent years, alternatives to the exclusively adaptationist evolutionary approach favored by many molecular biologists have become popular (Koonin, 2009). There is a growing understanding that mutation bias, drift and selectively neutral 'ratchets', rather than positive selection, may underpin the main evolutionary mechanisms for genomes, multi-molecular machines, and regulatory networks (Covello and Gray, 1993; Gray, *et al.*, 2010; Lukes, *et al.*, 2011; Lynch, 2007; Lynch and Conery, 2003;

Stoltzfus, 1999). It's been proposed that the model of constructive neutral evolution (Covello and Gray, 1993; Stoltzfus, 1999), recently expanded as an explanation for the seemingly 'irremediable complexity' of the molecular systems and machines characteristic of eukaryotes (Gray, *et al.*, 2010; Lukes *et al.*, 2011) is particularly well suited to explain the explosion of forms and complexities of mitochondrial genomes and their expression in euglenozoans.

The Phylum Euglenozoa comprises three groups of eukaryotic organisms (kinetoplastids, diplomemids, and euglenids; see sub-section 1.1), the mitochondrial (mt) genomes of which exhibit radically different modes of organization and expression. Gene fragmentation is a striking feature of both euglenid and diplomemid mtDNAs (Flegontov, *et al.*, 2011). To rationalize the emergence of these highly divergent mtDNA types and the existence of insertion/deletion RNA editing (in kinetoplastids) and trans-splicing (in diplomemids), Flegontov, *et al.*, 2011, proposed that in the mitochondrion of the common evolutionary ancestor of Euglenozoa, small expressed gene fragments promoted a rampant neutral evolutionary pathway. And that it is safe to predict that the biochemical mechanisms operating on mtDNA and mtRNA in diplomemids and euglenids may even surpass in complexity the biochemical mechanisms underlying kinetoplastid RNA editing and kDNA replication (see Flegontov, *et al.*, 2011 for an extensive review on the adaptationist evolutionary approach and constructive neutral evolution).

### Common and uncommon patterns: Trypanosomatids, Naegleria, Giardia, and other super groups

#### A. Respiratory complexes

Numerous additional subunits of the respiratory-chain complexes have been described in *Trypanosoma brucei* and *Trypanosoma cruzi*, and had been thought to have no counterparts in other organisms. They were interpreted as potentially associated with the parasitic trypanosome lifestyle. However, recent investigation by Perez, *et al.*, 2014, using two complementary approaches to characterize the subunit composition of respiratory complexes in *E. gracilis* revealed that at least half of the subunits recently reported in *T. brucei* and *T. cruzi* are actually not specific to Trypanosomatidae, but extend at least to other excavates (*Naegleria gruberi* and *E. gracilis*), and that their origin and function are thus not specifically associated with

the parasitic lifestyle. *E. gracilis* mitochondria contain a minimum of 40 subunits previously identified only in parasitic Trypanosomatidae (kinetoplastids). However, many of these subunits are not found beyond Euglenozoa (or Discoba), suggesting the biochemical peculiarities observed for the respiratory-chain complexes of kinetoplastids and euglenids (Perez, *et al.*, 2014).

The sequence of the *E. gracilis* *cox1* gene, encoding subunit 1 of cytochrome oxidase, has been reported (Tessier, *et al.*, 1997; Yasuhira and Simpson, 1997), and the sequence containing *cox2* (cytochrome oxidase subunit 2). The sequence information indicates the likely absence of mitochondrial U insertion/deletion editing in this organism and apparent use of the standard genetic code in mitochondrial translation. There is radically different pattern of mitochondrial genome organization in the euglenid, *E. gracilis*, compared with its kinetoplastid relatives (Spencer and Gray, 2012). COX 1 is one of the mitochondrion genes encoding subunit 1 of cytochrome c oxidase in *E. gracilis*; the nucleotide sequence does not exhibit any intron, and an amino-acid alignment of the *E. gracilis* COX1 with homologous proteins shows that the universal genetic code is used (Tessier, *et al.*, 1997). Comparisons of the genomic and cDNA sequences of *Euglena cox1* indicate that the transcript does not undergo RNA editing as found in trypanosomes and in higher plants. The phylogeny obtained using COX1 protein sequences shows similarity with that obtained with nuclear rRNA sequences and places *Euglena* and *Trypanosoma* far apart from other eukaryotes (Tessier, *et al.*, 1997). The size of the *E. gracilis* mitochondrial genome has been predicted to be between 5 kbp – 8 kbp (Dobáková, *et al.*, 2015). The presence of a single mitochondrial reticulum has been assessed by electron microscopy studies, and the structure of this reticulum has been proven to vary noticeably with growth conditions (Buetow, 1989).

### B. Glycolytic pathway

The Embden-Meyerhof-Parnas pathway of glycolysis is the backbone of energy metabolism (ATP synthesis) in eukaryotes. Enolase (2-phospho-D-glycerate hydrolase; EC 4.2.1.11), a highly conserved enzyme across eukaryotes and prokaryotes, and catalyzes the forward and reverse reaction during gluconeogenesis (Hannaert, *et al.*, 2000). In all eukaryotes and many prokaryotes, enolase is biologically active as a dimer. Catalytically active dimers may be generated with

products of different enolase genes, for example, in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (McAlister and Holland, 1982). In the vast majority of eukaryotes, such as *Giardia lamblia*, studied to date, glycolysis is a cytosolic pathway and compartmentalized (Muller, 1998; Chavez, Balamuth and Gong, 1986; Brugerolle, 1993).

However, among other protists, there are some notable exceptions to be found with regard to the compartmentation of glycolysis. In *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, for example, all glycolytic enzyme activities studied were found to be localized in the chloroplast, rather than in the cytosol (Schnarrenberger, *et al.*, 1990). A better-known and well-studied exception is the Kinetoplastids (trypanosomes and sister organisms), in which most of the glycolytic pathway is compartmentalized in specialized microbodies, glycosomes (Opperdoes and Borst, 1977; Hannaert and Michels, 1994; Clayton and Michels, 1996). In these organisms, only the last three enzymes of the pathway leading to pyruvate production, including enolase, are found in the cytosol. In relatives of the Kinetoplastids, the Euglenids, which possess plastids but not glycosomes, some of the enzymes that are common to glycolysis and the Calvin cycle occur as distinct chloroplast-cytosol isoenzyme pairs (Kitaoka, *et al.*, 1989; Henze, *et al.*, 1995; Plaumann, *et al.*, 1997), as is also found in many higher plants (Martin and Schnarrenberger, 1997).

Several key glycolytic enzymes from trypanosomes and amitochondriate protists differ in their regulatory properties from those of other eukaryotes, e.g., yeast or vertebrates, and these differences appear to correlate with the lifestyle of these organisms (Mertens, *et al.*, 1992; Mertens 1993; Hannaert and Michels, 1994; Michels and Hannaert, 1994; Clayton and Michels, 1996; Bakker, *et al.*, 1997; Park, *et al.*, 1997). In *E. gracilis*, the glycolytic pathways differ from Kinetoplastids not only with respect to compartmentation, but also with respect to regulation of the enzymes involved (Kitaoka, *et al.*, 1989; Bakker, *et al.*, 1997). Molecular analysis of cytosolic enolase from the amitochondriate protist *M. balamuthi*, and *T. brucei* and two isoenzymes of enolase from *E. gracilis* have been reported, with *E. gracilis* possessing a putative N-terminal plastid-targeting peptide. Enolase is an exception among eukaryotic glycolytic enzymes in that it does not show markedly more similarity to eubacterial homologs than it does to archaeobacterial homologs, except the enolases from *E. gracilis* (Hannaert, *et al.*, 2000).

### C. Predicted mitochondria targeting presequences

The *E. gracilis* mitochondrial genome is represented by a heterodisperse collection of short molecules (approximately 4 kb) encoding gene fragments flanked by repeats (Spencer and Gray, 2011). The nucleus-encoded mitochondrial precursor proteins in *E. gracilis* and trypanosomatids apparently possess presequences sharing common features. *E. gracilis* possess homologs of mitochondria-targeted proteins from other organisms (*T. brucei*, *T. cruzi* and *L. major*), and other trypanosomatid mitochondrial protein precursor (e.g., those involved in RNA editing). Mitochondrial presequences of *E. gracilis* and these trypanosomatids are highly variable in sequence length (5–118 aa), but share statistically significant similarities and this is probably responsible for recognition via import apparatus of mitochondrial outer membrane (Krnacova, *et al.*, 2012). In Kinetoplastids, mitochondrial transcripts encoded by maxicircles are edited by guide RNAs (gRNAs) encoded by minicircles (Hajduk, *et al.* 1993), although in some trypanosomatids a small proportion of gRNAs is also encoded by maxicircles (Simpson, *et al.*, 2000; Stuart and Panigrahi, 2002). The RNA editing in mitochondria of Kinetoplastids includes uridine insertions and deletions (Krnacova, *et al.*, 2012).

The engulfment of  $\alpha$ -proteobacterial ancestor of mitochondria by a host entity was probably a key moment in eukaryogenesis (Martin and Muller, 1998; Vesteg and Krajcovic, 2008, 2011). The acquisition of  $\alpha$ -proteobacterium and its evolution to a primitive mitochondrion was accompanied by the transfer of endosymbiont genes to the host genome and the evolution of a mechanism for import of proteins to mitochondria including the evolution of mitochondria-targeting presequences. Most of the proteins necessary for mitochondrial function were probably nucleus-encoded in LECA (Desmond, *et al.*, 2011). The potentially primitive mitochondrial import apparatus in a potentially early branching eukaryotic group (either euglenozoans or excavates) could be a good model to trace the evolution of mitochondrial import mechanism of the first eukaryote. However, the data about mitochondrial targeting presequences of Euglenozoa are fragmentary (Krnacova, *et al.*, 2012), and hopefully the *Euglena* genome data will help to address many of these gaps.

#### 1.2.3.4 Mitochondrial genome function

##### Enzymology and pathways



The glyoxylate cycle, amongst 17 other experimentally determined pathways present within *E. gracilis* (see Caspi, *et al.*, 2010 for the remaining 16 pathways), is a modified form of the tricarboxylic acid cycle, which enables organisms to synthesize carbohydrates from C2 compounds (Nakazawa, *et al.*, 2011). In *E. gracilis*, the key enzyme activities of the glyoxylate cycle, isocitrate lyase (ICL) and malate synthase (MS), are conferred by a single bifunctional protein named glyoxylate cycle enzyme (*Euglena gracilis* glyoxylate cycle enzyme [EgGCE]) with a 62-kDa N-terminal and 67-kDa C-terminal domains respectively. The N-terminal residues of EgGCE are critical for both the ICL and MS activities. The mitochondrion of *E. gracilis* is a facultatively anaerobic organelle that produces ATP in the presence and absence of O<sub>2</sub>. Unlike the mitochondria of most eukaryotes, which have a pyruvate dehydrogenase multienzyme complex, the mitochondrion of *E. gracilis* has an unusual O<sub>2</sub>-sensitive enzyme for the oxidative decarboxylation of pyruvate (i.e. pyruvate: NADP<sup>+</sup> oxidoreductase) to produce acetyl-CoA (Nakazawa, *et al.*, 2000). Acetyl-CoA regulates the ICL reaction by binding to a site other than the catalytic center of the MS reaction (Caspi, *et al.*, 2010).

*E. gracilis*, grown aerobically, expresses pyruvate dehydrogenase (PDH) in mitochondria (Hoffmeister M, *et al.* 2004) and respire O<sub>2</sub> but by using a slightly modified Krebs cycle that is also found among some  $\alpha$ -proteobacteria (Green, *et al.*, 2000) as a mechanism for energy production and conversion. The process involves the replacement of  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase by  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate decarboxylase and succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase (Buetow, 1989). When grown under anaerobic conditions *E. gracilis* uses acetyl-CoA as the terminal electron acceptor, produces wax esters as end products of metabolism (Green, *et al.*, 2000; Inui, *et al.*, 1982, 1983, 1984; Tucci, *et al.*, 2010; Teerawanichpan, 2010) and expresses pyruvate:NADP<sup>+</sup> oxidoreductase (PNO) (Inui, *et al.*, 1985, 1987; 1991), which performs the oxidative decarboxylation of pyruvate (Nakazawa, *et al.*, 2003; Rotte, *et al.*, 2001; Rotte, *et al.*, 2001; Hug, *et al.*, 2010; Horner, *et al.*, 1999; Rotter, *et al.*, 2001). Upon a return to an oxic environment, the stored waxes are degraded via aerobic dissimilation in the mitochondrion (Inui, *et al.*, 1982). Similar to the situation for anaerobic mitochondria of metazoa, wax ester fermentation of *E. gracilis* involves mitochondrial fumarate reduction and thus utilizes rhodoquinone (RQ) (Hoffmeister, *et al.*, 2004) for the synthesis of propionyl-CoA, although reduced RQ can also

donate electrons to other components of the *E. gracilis* mitochondrial respiratory chain (Castro-Guerrero, *et al.*, 2005), including the cytochrome *bc1* complex and the alternative oxidase (Castro-Guerrero, *et al.*, 2004).

In *E. gracilis*, sulphate metabolism is linked to energy metabolism. The mitochondria contain the enzymes capable of sulphate activation (ATP sulphurylase, EC 2.7.7.4; adenylylsulphate kinase, EC 2.7.1.25, and inorganic pyrophosphatase, EC 3.6.1.1) and reduction (Brunold and Schiff, 1976; Saidha, *et al.*, 1985, 1988;). Sulphate metabolizing centre in *E. gracilis* is located outside of the mitochondrial inner membrane. This centre appears to supply the mitochondrion and the rest of the cell with the products of sulphate activation as well as with reduced sulphur in the form of cystein (Saidha, *et al.*, 1985, 1998). This amino acid is incorporated into mitochondrial proteins (Saidha and Schiff, 1986), and sulphate reduction is caused by inorganic phosphates such as  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$  (Saidha, *et al.*, 1988).

### 1.3 OTHER INTRA- AND EXTRA- CELLULAR STRUCTURES AND FUNCTIONS

#### 1.3.1 Motor apparatus and photoreceptors

In *E. gracilis*, the structure of the motor apparatus consists of the canal (gullet) and reservoir, contractile vacuole, flagellar apparatus, basal bodies and related structures, transition zone, axonemes, paraflagellar rod, paraflagellar membrane, and Mastigonemes (Flagellar Hairs, Hairlike Appendages), while the structure of the photoreceptors consists of the stigma, and the paraflagellar swelling (PFS) or body (PFB) (Figure, 1.1, 1.3). The flagellar swelling plays significant role as a primary photic organelle (Lenci and Ghetti, 1989), however, two theories on the transduction mechanisms seem to have consistency, and have been referred to as the synopsis theory and the piezoelectric theory. While the former entails the role of a synopsis between the two *E. gracilis* flagella (emergent and non emergent) or between the membranes of PFS and the stigma, the latter deals with the alteration of cation flux from segment to segment of the quasi-crystalline microtubules of the emergent flagellum, driven by piezoelectric currents generated in the bending and straightening of flagellar segments in sequence which can constitute a possible mechanism of impulse transfer. (see Giovanna, *et al.*, 1991 for a detailed review of the *E. gracilis* motor apparatus and photoreceptors).

The configuration of the *E. gracilis* eyespot, photoreceptor and flagellum represents a simple but complete visual system. The photoreceptor is a three-dimensional natural crystal of about 1 x 0.7 x 0.7  $\mu\text{m}$  in dimension. This crystal is made up of a single protein and can be interpreted as a three-dimensional crystal of type I (Michel, 1990), i.e. a stack of two-dimensional crystal protein layers characterized by in-plane hydrophobic interactions and held together by hydrophilic interactions as confirmed on the basis of cryo-fractured images (Walne, *et al.*, 1998). The purification of this protein that forms the photoreceptor of *E. gracilis* has also been reported. It is a 27 kDa protein (Erh) with a photocycle resembling that of sensory rhodopsin (rhodopsin-like protein), but with at least one stable intermediate, and a simple photocycle. This protein shows optical bistability, without thermal deactivation (Walne, *et al.*, 1998).

*E. gracilis* shows pronounced movement behavior towards light and gravity (phototaxis and gravitaxis respectively). Both reactions are based on physiological mechanisms and are triggered by blue photo-activated adenylyl cyclases (PAC  $\alpha$  and PAC  $\beta$ ), which synthesizes 3'-5'-cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) from ATP upon blue light absorption (see Daiker, *et al.*, 2011) and calcium stimulation (Richter, *et al.*, 2001b; Sakato, *et al.*, 2007). Calmodulin (CaM.2), and other related potential calcium sensors (Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017), also play a crucial role in the signal transduction chain of gravitaxis in *E. gracilis* (see Toda, *et al.*, 1992; Lonergan, 1984, 1985, 1990; Fontana and Devreotes, 1984; Van Haastert, 1985; Pasquale and Goodenough, 1988, for detailed mechanisms and additional investigations on effects of calmodulin on *E. gracilis*). The proteins consist of two PACa ( $M_r$  105 kDa) and two PACb ( $M_r$  90 kDa) subunits. The proteins are believed to be located in the paraxonemal body (PAB), along the total length of the flagellum. The photoactivated adenylyl cyclase (PAC) family genes responsible for the PAC proteins in the PAB and flagella are identical but divergent, as full sequence analysis using PCR and 3' and 5' RACE had indicated a substantial divergence between strains with a homology between 45 and 100%. It's been hypothesized that in *E. gracilis* strains, there is a family of very dissimilar PAC proteins located in the PAB and the flagellum where they serve different functions in phototaxis and step-up photophobic reactions, however, their physiological roles have not yet been revealed (Ntefidou and Hader, 2005).

### 1.3.2 The pellicular complex and cytoskeleton

Eukaryotic cells are distinctive in possessing a nucleus, an endomembrane system, a complex cytoskeleton and mitochondria (or hydrogenosomes), which are modern-day descendants of proteobacterial endosymbionts (Embly and Martin, 2006). The cytoskeleton of eukaryotic cells serves a variety of functions (see Huttenlauch and Stick, 2003), although some of these functions are absent in unicellular organisms, many Excavates are among those that show the most elaborated cytoarchitecture (Huttenlauch and Stick, 2003). Microfilaments, microtubules, and intermediate filaments (IF) are the principal cytoskeletal elements in most eukaryotic cells (Huttenlauch and Stick, 2003; Honts and Williams, 1990; Levy, *et al.*, 1996) (see Grain, 1986; Peck, 1977, 1986; Bouck and Ngo, 1996; Dubreuil and Bouck, 1985; Grain, 1986; Bricheux and Brugerolle, 1986; Dubreuil and Bouck, 1985; Huttenlauch and Peck, 1991; Peck, *et al.*, 1991; Vigue, *et al.*, 1984; Huttenlauch and Stick, 2003, for detailed investigations and reviews on the cortical cytoplasm and skeletal nature of the epiplasm). It has been proposed that endosymbiosis played significant role in the evolution of *E. gracilis* cytoskeleton. Once photosynthesis was established in a previously phagotrophic cell, the evolutionary pressures on the cytoskeletal systems involved in locomotion and feeding changed, and gave rise to fundamental modifications of cell structures found in the descendants of these complex cells (see Leander, *et al.*, 2007 for the review on the current understanding of the Euglenid cytoskeleton and it's evolution, and references to their sister relatives – the Trypanosomes).

One cytoskeletal feature distinguishes the euglenids from all other protists-like excavates and apicomplexa: a pellicle composed of longitudinal articulated strips that arise in the reservoir and extend the length of the cell immediately beneath the membrane (Arnott & Walne, 1967; Conforti & Tell, 1989). Deep-etching technique has revealed that the ultrastructure of the pellicle of *E.gracilis* are of four different structural levels: the cell membrane, the electron opaque layer organized in ridges and grooves or proteinaceous strips, the microtubular system, and the subpellicular tubular cisternae of the endoplasmic reticulum (see Leader, *et al.*, 2007; Leander and Farmer, 2000; 2000; Dubreuil, *et al.*, 1992; Vismara, *et al.*, 2000 for detailed ultrastructural analysis of the euglenoid pellicular complex). The euglenid pellicle proteinaceous strips are helically twisted. Helically arranged strips are associated

with cell plasticity (metaboly) (Pringsheim, 1948; Arnott & Walne, 1966 and 1967) (see Chapter 5 and Appendices on subsection, Surfaceome/Surface, in this work), which is facilitated by relative translational movements between adjacent strips (Angeler, *et al.*, 1999; Suzaki and Williamson, 1985, 1986; Galo and Schrevel, 1982). The underlying mechanism for euglenoid movement, however, is not well understood. Although experiments have shown that the pellicle microtubules are controlled by calcium stored in the ER and play an important role in changing cell shape. One of the major gaps in knowledge has to do with the precise distribution and morphogenesis of the pellicle microtubules during cytokinesis (Leader, *et al.*, 2007) as well as the nature, structure, function, and organization of the euglenoids pellicle despite employing diverse techniques (Kirk & Juniper, 1964; Hofmann & Bouck, 1976; Silverman & Hikida, 1976; Miller & Miller, 1978; Lefort-Tran, *et al.*, 1980; Hilenski & Walne, 1983; Dubreuil & Bouck, 1985; Suzaki & Williamson, 1985, 1986; Dawson, *et al.*, 1988; Dawson & Walne, 1991; Zakrys & Walne, 1998).

Euglenoid flagellates have striped surface structures comprising pellicles, which allow the cell shape to vary from rigid to flexible during the characteristic movement of the flagellates (as previously mentioned). In *E. gracilis*, the pellicular strip membranes are covered with paracrystalline arrays of a major integral membrane protein, IP39, a putative four-membrane-spanning protein with the conserved sequence motif of the PMP-22/EMP/MP20/Claudin superfamily. The three-dimensional structure of *Euglena* IP39 determined by electron crystallography have been reported by Suzuki, *et al.*, 2013. Two dimensional crystals of IP39 appear to form a striated pattern of antiparallel double-rows in which trimeric IP39 units are longitudinally polymerised, resulting in continuously extending zigzag-shaped lines. Structural analysis revealed an asymmetric molecular arrangement in the trimer, and suggested that at least four different interactions between neighbouring protomers are involved. A combination of such multiple interactions would be important for linear strand formation of membrane proteins in a lipid bilayer. They concluded that the four-transmembrane protein IP39 of *E. gracilis* forms strands by a trimeric unit repeat.

The cortex of ciliates, dinoflagellates and euglenoids comprises a unique structure called the epiplasm implicated in pattern processes of the cell cortex and in

maintaining cell shape (see Bouck and Ngô, 1996, for an extensive review). While there are differences in the structural organization of the epiplasm and cortex of these organisms, articulins are the principal constituents of the epiplasm in the euglenoid, *Euglena*, and the ciliate, *Pseudomicrothorax* (Huttenlauch, *et al.*, 1998). In paramecium, epiplasmins, a group of polypeptides with common biochemical properties are the major constituents of the epiplasm. These two proteins contribute to the organization of the membrane skeleton in these protists (see Huttenlauch, *et al.*, 1998, for an extensive discussion).

### 1.3.3 Microtubules and the Golgi Apparatus

Extra-cisternal substances, known as microtubules, exist within the Golgi apparatus and have been reported in various literatures (Morre, *et al.*, 1971; Mollenhauer, 1974). These substances occupy at least 20 - 40 % of the golgi apparatus volume and take the form of zones of exclusion (Mollenhauer & Morre, 1972, 1973; Morre, *et al.*, 1971; Mollenhauer, 1974), intercisternal elements (Cunningham, *et al.*, 1966; Mollenhauer, 1965; Mollenhauer and Morre, 1966, 1972, 1973; Turner and Whaley, 1965; Mollenhauer, 1974), bonding substances (Mollenhauer and Morre, 1966; Mollenhauer, *et al.*, 1971; Mollenhauer and Morre, 1972, 1973; Mollenhauer, 1974) and other elements or structures which have been reported (Amos and Grimstone, 1968; Kartenbeck and Franke, 1971; Mollenhauer, 1974). The existence of these various constituents cannot be doubted, but what each does functionally and the mechanisms that drives them are not yet fully understood. Since they surround the Golgi apparatus (Mollenhauer and Morre, 1972, 1973; Morre, *et al.* 1971), hold dictyosomes together (Mollenhauer & Morre, 1966; Mollenhauer *et al.* 1971; Mollenhauer & Morre, 1972, 1973), and alter or position dictyosome structure (Mollenhauer, 1974; Mollenhauer & Morre, 1972), they are believed to play a significant role in functional processes of the Golgi apparatus function (Mollenhauer, 1974). Microtubules could add an element of structural rigidity or anisotropy to the Golgi apparatus and act to position dictyosomes within the cell or organize partially its internal structure (Mollenhauer, 1974). Microtubules might also serve to guide or to transport soluble precursors into or out of the Golgi apparatus in a manner similar to that in neurons and/or other cells (Burton and Fernandez, 1973; Fernandez, Burton and Samson, 1971; Lane and Treherne, 1970; Yamada, *et al.*, 1971;

Mollenhauer, 1974) or to direct the movement of secretion vesicles from the Golgi apparatus (Mollenhauer, 1974).

#### 1.4 METABOLISM

*E. gracilis* transports and metabolizes amino acids, primarily since they are not capable of utilizing nitrate, nitrite, and urea as nitrogen source. Therefore, ammonium is supplied as an N-source in the lab (provided as diammonium-hydrogenphosphate  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{HPO}_4$ ) to cell cultures. While nitrate exerts low toxicity to organisms, ammonium is harmful for many aquatic organisms especially, at high pH-values, which causes the ionic  $\text{NH}_4^+$  (low toxicity) to be partially transformed into the highly toxic ammonia,  $\text{NH}_3$ . In other reports, *E. gracilis* has been described to grow with various amino acids as sole N-source. Glycine, glutamine, glutamic acid, leucine, and threonine, and their uptake kinetic have been reported, and found to have the potential of being an alternative N-source for *E. gracilis* cultivation. Hence, these amino acids can be used as a non-toxic surrogate for  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{HPO}_4$  (Richter, *et al.*, 2015).

*E. gracilis* represents an evolutionary intermediate in a metabolic transformation (coenzyme transport and metabolism) of a primary heterotroph to a photoautotroph through secondary endosymbiosis as mentioned previously. Koreny and Obornik, 2011, noted that *E. gracilis* possess a tetrapyrrole pathway, which serves as a highly informative marker for the evolution of plastids and plays a crucial role in the loss or gain of plastids since it is involved in chlorophyll formation in photoautotrophs. Phylogenetic analyses and protein localization predictions have supported the presence of two separated tetrapyrrole pathways in *E. gracilis*. One of these pathways resembles the heme synthesis in primarily heterotrophic eukaryotes and was presumably present in the host cell prior to secondary endosymbiosis with a green alga. The second pathway is similar to the plastid-localized tetrapyrrole syntheses in plants and photosynthetic algae. It appears to be localized to the secondary plastid, presumably derived from an algal endosymbiont and probably serves only for the production of plastidial heme and chlorophyll (see Koreny and Obornik, 2011).

Inorganic ion transport and metabolism has also been reported in *E. gracilis*. It is well documented that most organisms are susceptible to heavy metals exposure,

affecting their growth, development, and morphology (Cervantes, *et al.*, 2001). However, some plants, bacteria and microalgae species are able to survive in heavy metal polluted environments by means of internal and/or external detoxification mechanisms such as: (1) diminished uptake; (2) internal binding; (3) biotransformation; (4) compartmentalization; and (5) external chelation (Yang, *et al.*, 2005). The effective onset of several resistance mechanisms of heavy metals such as chromium in *E. gracilis*, including synthesis of heavy metal-chelating molecules with thiol and carboxylate-groups, sub-cellular compartmentalization, metal chemical reduction and secretion of chelating molecules have also been reported (see Rodríguez-Zavala, *et al.*, 2007).

*E. gracilis* grows autotrophically, heterotrophically or myxotrophically (Dos Santos Ferreira, *et al.*, 2007; Matsuda, *et al.*, 2011) mainly via primary metabolites production (Bersanti, *et al.*, 2000; 2001; Rodríguez, *et al.*, 2010), but little is known about secondary metabolites biosynthesis (Tolivia, *et al.*, 2013). *E. gracilis* has a wide range of nutritional requirements, suggesting the existence of diverse physiological patterns, generating different metabolites and/or variation in the proportion they are biosynthesised. Two such biosynthetic metabolites are flavonoids and tannins, which are generally regarded to be bioactive and having free radical scavenging properties (Heim, 2002). When nutrients become scarce, *E. gracilis* cells enter stationary phase and develop a multiple-stress resistance response. The presence of flavonoids in the stationary phase may be associated to that response. In some *E. gracilis* strains (e.g. UTEX), tannins are produced in the exponential phase (Tolivia, 2013).

## 1.5 THE EVOLUTION OF PARASITISM

The most recent reviews on the evolution of parasitism is that as described by Lukes, *et al.*, 2014 and Jackson, *et al.*, 2015, 2016. Kinetoplastids are evolutionarily possibly more ancestral within the eukaryotic lineage compared to the majority of other groups of parasitic protists as well as very widespread and adaptable (Lukes, *et al.*, 2014). The proposal is that parasitism must have emerged separately in the kinetoplastid lineage, and excitingly challenging to identify genetic changes and/or inventions underlying this dramatic switch to a parasitic life style, and the Trypanosomatids might serve as a good model group for tracing the evolution of



parasitism. It is unclear how a once free living organism (Trypanosomatids) adopted a parasitic lifestyle (Lukes, *et al.*, 2014). However, this will be clear when the whole genomes for these sister clades of kinetoplastids are available (Lukes, *et al.*, 2014). Species-rich and morphologically diverse euglenids and diplomonids are almost exclusively free-living, so this life style was likely the ancestral state of early kinetoplastids (Lukes, *et al.*, 2014). Morphological and molecular evidence strongly support the origin of obligatory parasitic trypanosomatids from the clade of free-living *Bodo saltans* (Simpson, *et al.*, 2006; Jackson, *et al.*, 2008; Maslov, *et al.*, 2001; Stevens, 2014). Until recently, the most basal branch of this clade was the genus *Trypanosoma*, supporting the scenario in which ancestral trypanosomatids established themselves in vertebrates already at an early stage, and only subsequently invaded insects via their blood-sucking fellows (Minchin, 1908).

Monoxenous trypanosomatids of the genera *Crithidia*, *Leptomonas* and *Herpetomonas* can survive and multiply in their hosts anal scent glands. Monoxenous *species* could pre-adapt in this regions to the dixenous lifecycle because within the scent glands parasites are protected from the host immune system and the body temperature is lower (Deane and Jansen, 1988). Recent description of the likely monoxenous *Paratrypanosoma confusum*, which constitutes a well-supported branch between the free-living *B. saltans* on one side and *Trypanosoma* plus all other trypanosomatids on the other side (Votypka, *et al.*, 2012; Steven, 2014) supports a scenario, in which the ancestral flagellate first invaded insects or other invertebrate hosts and only subsequently, probably by blood feeding, entered vertebrates – a theory proposed by Léger in 1904. Comparative analysis of the genomes of *B. saltans* and *P. confusum* may shed key light on this dramatic change in life strategy (Lukes, *et al.*, 2014).

Within the Kinetoplastids, the Trypanosomatids might serve as a good model group for tracing the evolution of parasitism (Lukes, *et al.*, 2014). However, the solution comes in using modern methods of genome analysis which allows direct comparison of the gene content between different groups of Trypanosomatida, especially the dixenous group. By analyzing the genomic information from their free-living bodonid and euglenid relatives and early-branching trypanosomatid *P. confusum* (Flegontov, *et al.*, 2013), Parasitologist will be able to identify features shared between these

organisms as well as those representing key differences, especially in terms of gene loss and/or gain (Lukes, *et al.*, 2014, Jackson, *et al.*, 2016) (see Chapter 5 and Appendices on Orthologous Groups Clustering analysis). From the currently available data in major genome databases, most differences are associated with genes encoding metabolic and cell surface proteins (Lukes, *et al.*, 2014). The underlying assumption of this approach is that there must be some genes responsible for adaptation to the dixenous lifestyle. Those genes should exclusively be either present or absent in *Trypanosoma*, *Leishmania*, and *Phytomonas* as compared to their monoxenous kins (see Lukes, *et al.*, 2002, 2009, 2014, Waller and Jackson, 2009; Flegontov, *et al.*, 2011; Lui, *et al.*, 2006; Jensen and Englund, 2012; Noyes, 1998; Noyes, *et al.*, 1997; Croan, *et al.*, 1997 for recent reviews).

## 1.6 THE SURFACE OF KINETOPLASTIDS

In *E. gracilis*, the cell surface plays huge role in response to external factors. Similarly, in kinetoplastids, it is crucial for mediating host-parasite interactions and is instrumental to the initiation, maintenance and severity of infection (Jackson, *et al.*, 2013, 2016). Within members of the kinetoplastids physiological similarities associated with shared ancestry are common, the cell-surface architectures are highly divergent, reflecting the evolution of specific mechanisms for immune evasion and survival by each parasite, and majority of the cell surface phylome are taxon or species-specific (see Jackson, *et al.*, 2013, 2016 for an extensive discussion).

## 1.7 PROJECT AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

To understand the biology of *E. gracilis*, next generation sequencing (NGS) and multi-omics approaches are being employed, focusing on four main aims and objectives:

- i. To determine the genome and transcriptome architecture and content of *E. gracilis*, including ORF complexity, paralogy and orthology distribution, exon and intron size/length, tRNAs, rRNAs, and splice leaders locus.
- ii. To characterize the protein-coding genes, and the biological interplay of this network in *E. gracilis*; catalogue genes, gene products, and putative surface proteomes - signal peptides and transmembrane proteins, assign functions, classify enzymes based on chemical reactions they catalyze,

delineate metabolisms and pathways (biological processes), and molecular functions.

- iii. To comparatively investigate the *E. gracilis* sequenced genome with reference genomes, transcriptomes, and proteomes of other members of selected excavates (*T. brucei* and *L. major*) and chlorophytes (*C. reinhardtii* and *V. carter*); elucidate possible insights into endosymbiosis and eukaryogenesis using core eukaryotic genes, conserved Trypanosomatids specific genes, and Chlorophytes specific genes.
- iv. To determine *E. gracilis* responses to light and dark environmental conditions; investigate gene expressions in the transition from light to dark and dark to light; delineate posttranscriptional events and metabolic capacity.

# CHAPTER TWO

## 2.0 METHODS AND MATERIALS

### 2.1 CULTIVATION OF *Euglena gracilis*

The *E. gracilis* strain (Z) utilized in this project was the kind gift of William Martin (Heinrich Heine University, Düsseldorf). Cells for DNA and RNA sequencing projects (genome and transcriptome) were cultivated at room temperature under continuous illumination in photosynthetic Hutner's media (Table 2.1, Hutner, 1966), and collected at exponential phase of growth between  $7 \times 10^5$  cells/ml and  $9 \times 10^5$  cells/ml, with cell density measured using a haemocytometer counting chamber. For light/dark experiments, cells were cultivated in heterotrophic Hutner's media (Table 2.2, Hutner, 1966). To generate dark adapted cells for light/dark transcriptomics and proteomics experiments, cultures were grown in the absence of light for 16 days to produce bleached cells.

**Table 2.1:** Ingredients for phototrophic Hutner's media preparation for genome sequencing.

S/N	Compound	Concentration (grams/litre)
<i>Essential ingredients</i>		
1.	MgCO <sub>3</sub>	0.3
2.	MgSO <sub>4</sub> .3H <sub>2</sub> O	0.2
3.	CaCO <sub>3</sub>	0.03
4.	HEDTA	0.2
5.	K <sub>3</sub> Citrate	0.4
6.	Citric acid.H <sub>2</sub> O	4
7.	KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>	0.15
8.	L-Histidine HCl.H <sub>2</sub> O	1
9.	NH <sub>4</sub> HCO <sub>3</sub>	0.5
10.	Thiamine HCl	0.001
11.	Vitamin B <sub>12</sub>	0.002
12.	pH	3.2 – 3.5
<i>Trace metals</i>		
13.	Fe(NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> .H <sub>2</sub> O	0.042
14.	MnSO <sub>4</sub> .H <sub>2</sub> O	0.0155
15.	ZnSO <sub>4</sub> .7H <sub>2</sub> O	0.022
16.	(NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>6</sub> MoO <sub>24</sub> .4H <sub>2</sub> O	0.0036
17.	CuSO <sub>4</sub> (anhydrous)	0.001
18.	Na <sub>3</sub> VO <sub>4</sub>	0.0037
19.	CoSO <sub>4</sub> .7H <sub>2</sub> O	0.00048
20.	H <sub>3</sub> BO <sub>3</sub>	0.00057
21.	Pentaerythritol	0.0888

**Note:** The table above describes the ingredients utilized for the phototrophic Hutner's media preparation (Hutner, 1966). The first column describes the serial number, the second column describes the compound, while the third column indicates the concentrations which are in grams/litre except for pH without a unit.

**Table 2.2:** Ingredients for heterotrophic Hutner's media preparation for light/dark experiment.

S/N	Compound	Concentration (grams/litre)
<i>Essential ingredients</i>		
1.	$\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$	0.4
2.	$\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.1
3.	$\text{MgCO}_3$	0.4
4.	$\text{CaCO}_3$	0.1
5.	DL-Malic acid	5
6.	L-Glutamic acid	5
7.	Glucose (anhydrous)	10
8.	Urea	0.4
9.	$\text{Na}_2$ Succinate.6 $\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.1
10.	Glycine	2.5
11.	DL-Aspartic acid	2
12.	Thiamine HCl	0.0006
13.	Vitamin B12	0.0005
14.	pH	3.1 – 3.4
<i>Trace metals</i>		
15.	$\text{Fe}(\text{NH}_4)_2(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.021
16.	$\text{MnSO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.00775
17.	$\text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.011
18.	$(\text{NH}_4)_6\text{MoO}_{24} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.0018
19.	$\text{CuSO}_4$ (anhydrous)	0.0005
20.	$\text{Na}_3\text{VO}_4$	0.00185
21.	$\text{CoSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.00024
22.	$\text{H}_3\text{BO}_3$	0.000285
23.	Pentaerythritol	0.0444

**Note:** The table above describes the ingredients utilized for the heterotrophic Hutner's media preparation (Hutner, 1966). The first column describes the serial number, the second column describes the compound, while the third column indicates the concentrations which are in grams/litre except for pH without a unit.

## 2.2 NUCLEIC ACID ISOLATION AND PURIFICATION

The *E. gracilis* gDNA isolation (version 0.7) was previously performed by Lebert, *et al.*, and Field, *et al.*, (unpublished data) using the methods of Medina-Acosta and Cross (Cross, Wieland *et al.*, 1993) and TELT (Tris, LiCL, EDTA, and Triton X). *E. gracilis* genomic DNA (versions 0.8 and 0.9) was isolated using the Qiagen purification system to obtain low and high molecular weight DNA for generating Illumina paired-end and mate-pair read libraries (100bp paired-end libraries with insert sizes of 170bp, 500bp, 800bp, and mate-pair libraries with insert sizes of 2kbp, 5kbp and 40kbp) as well as PacBio libraries. The protocol for obtaining DNA fragments for the shorter-length libraries differed from that used for the 40 kb insert library. For the shorter length libraries ( $\leq 5$ kbp), cells were harvested by centrifugation for 10 min at 1000g, and DNA was extracted using the Qiagen DNAeasy extraction kit for total genomic DNA - the DNAeasy blood and tissue kit (Catalogue No. 69504) was utilized. The procedure designed for cultured animal cells was modified and involved firstly, using  $1 \times 10^7$  cells and secondly, prior to adding Buffer AL, 200  $\mu$ l of RNase A was added to eliminate RNA contamination. Immediately after the wash step with Buffer AW2, centrifugation was performed for 1 min at 20,000 g to eliminate traces of ethanol. To obtain high molecular weight DNA fragments for the  $\geq 40$ kb insert size library, the Qiagen Genomic-DNA isolation kit (Blood and Cell Culture DNA kit - Maxi, Catalogue No. 13362) was used. In this case  $1 \times 10^8$  cells were harvested. Prior to adding Buffer C1, samples were ground in liquid nitrogen using a ball mill at 300 rpm for 3 mins. Four wash steps were performed to remove contaminants including traces of RNA. To determine/estimate molecular weight, 400 ng/ $\mu$ l of DNA was loaded onto a 0.45 % agarose gel in TAE buffer/Ethidium bromide system, stained with Thermo Scientific 6X Orange Loading Dye, and electrophoresed at 80 V for 2 hours. A NanoDrop spectrophotometer was used to determine concentration and purity. Total RNA was isolated using the Qiagen RNeasy Mini kit (Cat. No. 74104). The protocol for the purification of total RNA from animal cells using spin technology was employed with minor modifications: 40  $\mu$ l of DNase I stock solution was added to the mixture to sufficiently remove any traces of DNA. RNA yield, purity, and concentration were determined as previously described above for the DNA.

## 2.3 LIBRARY PREPARATION AND SEQUENCING

Genome and transcriptome library preparation and sequencing data were performed at the Beijing Genomic Institute (BGI), Hong Kong respectively, using Illumina Genome Analyzer HiSeq 2000 and MiSeq. Paired-end genomic sequence of multiple read lengths (49 bp to 300 bp) corresponding to five insert size libraries (170 bp, 250 bp, 500 bp, 540 bp, 800 bp, 2kbp, 5 kbp, and 40 kbp) were generated with a combined length of ~ 44 Gbp. Additional PacBio libraries were generated by Peter Myler (University of Washington) and Purificación López-García and David Moreira, while the Roche454 read libraries were generated by Michael Ginger. A combined total of 914,547 PacBio sequenced reads were generated with estimated average length of 9560.59 and an estimated coverage of ~ 4.4X (see Table 3.1 and 3.2, for details on genome and transcriptome sequence data).

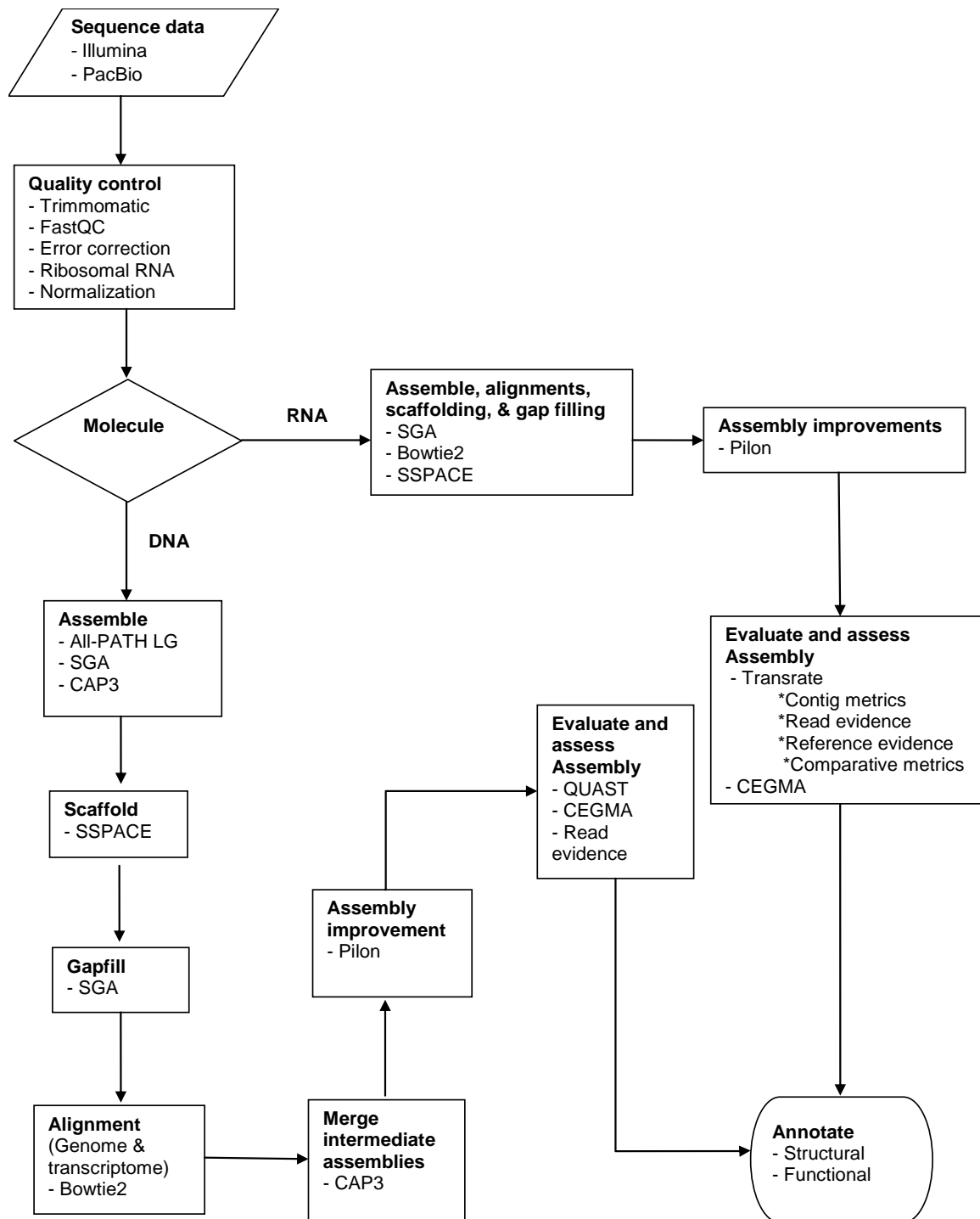
## 2.4 GENOME AND TRANSCRIPTOME ASSEMBLY

### 2.4.1 Quality controls and assembly

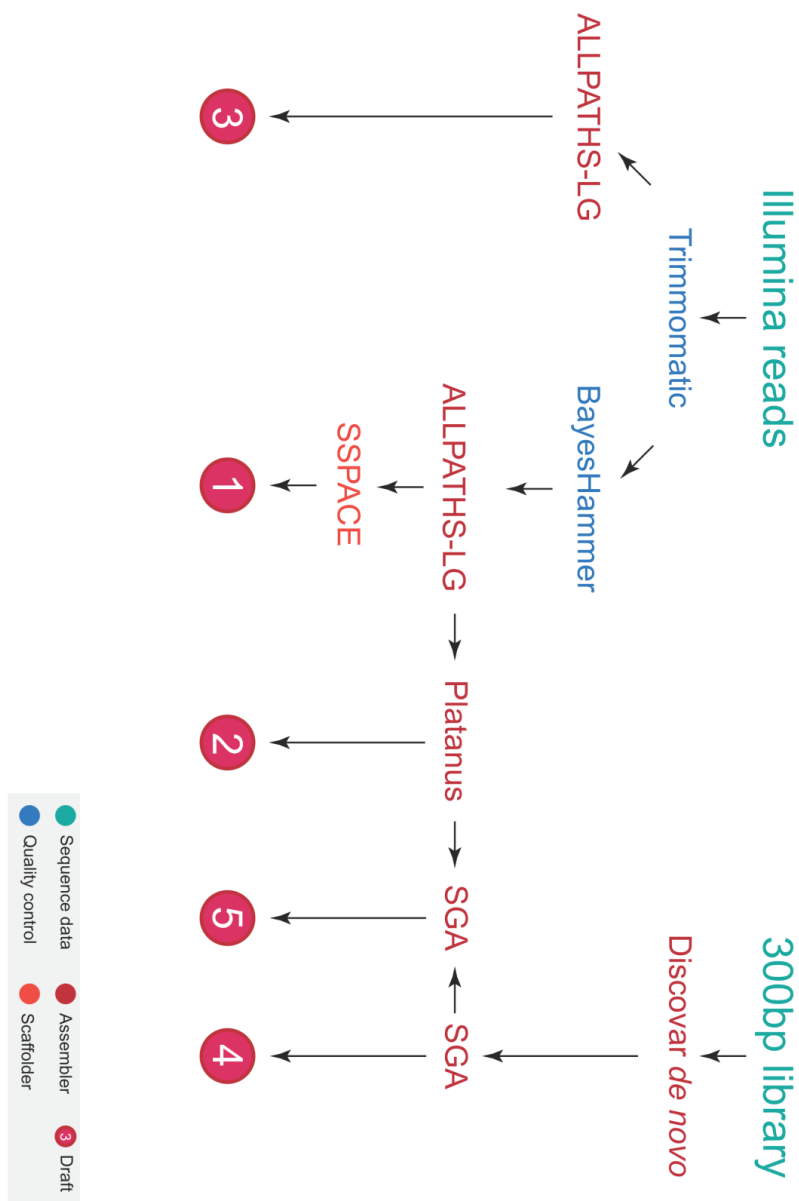
#### Genome

This analysis was carried out in collaboration with Dr. Steve Kelly at the Department of Plant Sciences, University of Oxford, UK, where I also spent 5 months (May – September 2014) assembling the initial draft of the genome. Several attempts to generate a genome assembly, using different datasets and informatics routes were explored (Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017) (Figure 2.1, 2.2). The most successful strategy, as assessed by the Core Eukaryotic Gene Mapping Approach (CEGMA) and the percentage of the RNAseq reads from the transcriptome that mapped to the assembly (Hornett and Wheat, 2012; O’Neil and Emrich, 2013), utilised Platanus, SSPACE, and SGA (Figure 2.2). Assembling the quality controlled error corrected reads with Platanus followed by subsequent rounds of scaffolding with SSPACE and gapfilling using SGA resulted in a *de novo* assembly with a scaffold N<sub>50</sub> of 955 bp, comprising 2,066,288 scaffolds. Of note with this assembly was that ~ 87 % of the RNAseq reads from the transcriptome successfully mapped to the genome.





**Figure 2.1: The standard genome and transcriptome assembly pipeline involved several bioinformatics algorithms.** Overview of the actual genome and transcriptome assembly and improvements: The workflow involves the supply of sequence data, quality control, actual assembly, alignment and re-assembly, scaffolding, gap filling, assembly improvements, assembly evaluation and assessment, and production of data for structural and functional annotation.



**Figure 2.2: The optimized genome assembly approach involved multiple assembly pipelines.** Overview of the optimized genome assembly pipelines attempted. The several genome assembly pipelines included the standard assembly pipelines (Figure 2.1) as well as the optimized pipelines. Colours highlighted represent sequence data, quality control, assembler, scaffolder, and draft genomes (5) respectively. The numbers (1 – 5) in coloured circles represent the draft genomes generated through the respective assembly pipelines. The final draft is draft genome number 5.

## Transcriptome

This analysis was carried out in collaboration with Dr. Steve Kelly at the Department of Plant Sciences, University of Oxford, UK. A transcriptome was assembled using a combination of data generously provided by Rob Field (O'Neill, *et al.*, 2015) and additional data generated in house (Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017). Quality control checks on raw sequence data from high throughput sequencing pipelines were performed using FastQC (Barbraham bioinformatics software). According to the developers, it provides a modular set of analyses which gives a quick impression about the quality of the sequenced data. Read statistics and nucleotide distribution were also determined using this toolkit (data not shown). Reads were quality filtered using Trimmomatic and searched for Illumina adaptors (the default option) with settings LEADING:10 TRAILING:10 SLIDINGWINDOW:5:15 MINLEN:50. Ribosomal RNA was removed using SortMeRNA using the default settings, before read error correction using BayesHammer with the default settings. Reads were normalized using khmer with settings -C 20 -k 21 -M 8e9 and overlapping paired-end reads joined using ALLPATHS-LG and all reads subject to *de novo* assembly using SGA, minimum overlap size of 80 nucleotides and no mismatches. These assembled contigs were reassembled using SGA, with each round reducing overlap size by 10 nucleotides. The filtered, normalized joined reads were then mapped to this assembly using Bowtie2. Reads that were absent from the assembly were identified and combined to the assembly file. The combined un-assembled reads and assembled contigs were subject to assembly using SGA with an overlap size of 70. This process of identifying unmapped reads and reassembling with SGA was repeated each time decreasing the overlap size by 10 nucleotides. Contigs were then subject to scaffolding using SSPACE and the full set of non-ribosomal, corrected, normalized paired-end reads using the settings -k 10 -a 0.7 -n 50 -o 20. Scaffolds were subject to gap filling using the SGA gap filling function. Finally, the assembled contigs were subject to base-error correction using Pilon with the default settings (see sub section 2.4.2 and Figure 2.1).

### *2.4.2 Assembly improvements and variants detections*

To make improvements to the quality of the draft genome and transcriptome assembly by recognizing and correcting errors involving: single bases and small

insertion/deletion events (indels) or gap filling, an integrated assembly improvement of all error types was performed using the Pilon software tool (Walker, *et al.*, 2014) (Figure 2.1). Pilon treats assembly improvement and variant detection as a single pipeline (see Walker, *et al.*, 2014 for details on Pilon's workflow). To greatly reduce run time, normalized sequence data (up to 20x) were used for assembly improvements.

### 2.4.3 Assembly evaluation and assessment

#### 2.4.3.1 Genome

To evaluate the performance of the assembly pipeline and the quality of the assembly, a variety of metrics were used (Figure 2.1). These include: statistical description of assembly, presence of core eukaryotic conserved genes, and calculating average predicted gene length, and transcriptome read mapping evidence (Bradnam, *et al.*, 2013). Statistical metrics were generated using the Quality Assessment Tool for Genome Assemblies (QUAST) (Gurevich, 2013). A QC pipeline using the Core Eukaryotic Gene Mapping Approach (CEGMA) (Parra and Bradnam, 2007) for eukaryotic genomes and transcriptome assemblies was utilized whereby the number of 258 core eukaryotic conserved genes mapped suggests the number of genes present in the assembly - the higher the proportion, the better (Bradnam, *et al.*, 2013). In summary, the algorithm allows assessment of the completeness of a genome or transcriptome assembly based on the percentage of core eukaryotic genes (CEG) which align to the assembled contigs or scaffolds. A cumulative contig distribution function as described by Bradnam, *et al.*, 2013, to evaluate when the maximum genome size was attained by the fewest contigs was used, where the slope of the line is proportional to fragmentation of the assembly (this approach was also used to assess the transcriptome). Finally, assessment quality was determined by mapping RNA-seq evidences to the draft genome to determine percentage of expressed transcripts in the genome assembly.

#### 2.3.3.2 Transcriptome

The criteria to assess genome assemblies are now well developed, but standards for systematically assessing the quality of transcriptome assemblies have not fully been established (Martin and Wang, 2011) (Figure 2.1). Five matrices (Martin and Wang,

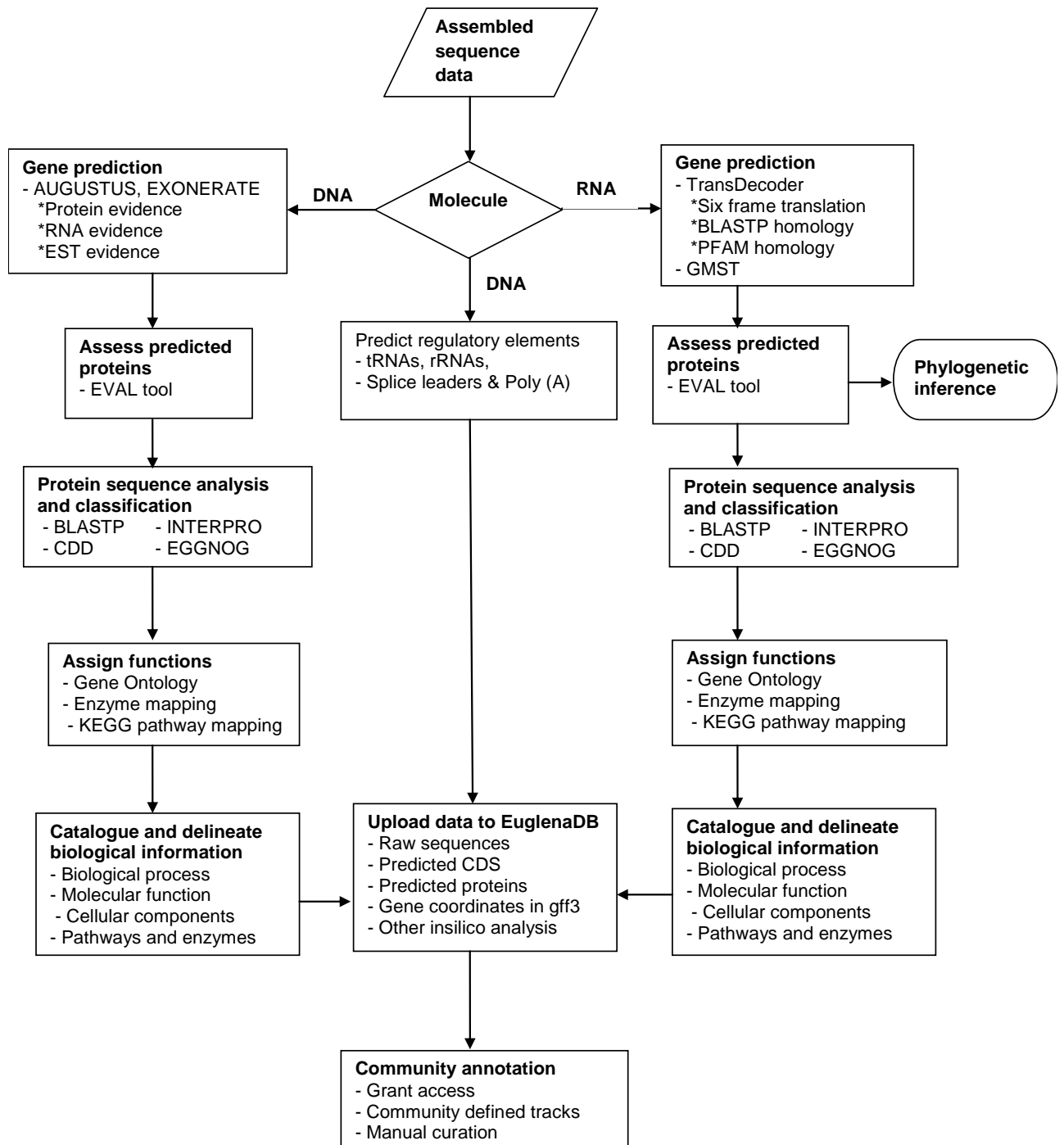
2011; O'Neil and Emrich, 2013) were taken into account in evaluating the assembly quality: accuracy, completeness, contiguity, chimerism, and variant resolution (see Martin and Wang, 2011, for extensive definitions of these terms). To achieve this aim, the Transrate algorithm (Smith-Unna, *et al.*, 2014) was used which weaves these metrics into three super metrics: contigs metrics (based entirely on analyzing the set of contigs), read mapping metrics (based on aligning the reads used in the assembly to the assembled contigs), and comparative metrics (involves comparing the assembly to a related reference species) (Smith-Unna, *et al.*, 2014). Another method of assessment was performed involving mapping cDNA or ESTs obtained from NCBI database (~ 26,131 ESTs for *E. gracilis* available at the NCBI: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nucest/?term=euglena> (as at January 4, 2015)) and 454 Roche generated transcriptome reads (Field, *et al.*, unpublished data) to the assembled transcriptome. The set of 248 CEGMA CEGs were also used to interrogate the transcriptome assembly (Hornett and Wheat, 2012).

## 2.5 GENOME AND TRANSCRIPTOME STRUCTURAL AND FUNCTIONAL AUTOMATIC ANNOTATION

### 2.5.1 Transcriptome: Gene predictions and automatic functional analysis

In silico analysis such as open reading frame (ORF) determination and gene predictions were carried out using GMST and TransDecoder, while Gene Ontology (GO), Enzyme Code, KEGG maps (biological pathways), and taxa distribution were performed as part of the automatic functional annotation previously described by Kaneshisa, *et al.*, 2004, 2010, with minor modifications (Figure 2.3). Six frame translation, ORF determination, and gene prediction of assembled transcriptome sequences were predicted using TransDecoder prediction tool (<https://transdecoder.github.io/>) and GMST (Tang, *et al.*, 2015), and the longest ORF with coding characteristics, BLAST homology, and PFAM domain were extracted (see Stein, *et al.*, 2002). The predicted ORF was queried against the NCBI non-redundant protein database using BLASTP homology searches, and the top hit for each protein with an E-value cutoff of 10 retained. Using the Blast2GO automatic functional annotation tool (Conesa, *et al.*, 2005), the GO annotations of the best BLAST results with an E-value cutoff of 10 were generated from the GO database. The protein domain, biological pathway analyses, and top species distributions were

determined using InterPro, BLAST, Enzyme code and KEGG tool - as part of the Blast2GO functions using default settings. To greatly reduce run times, BLASTP and InterProScan were processed locally prior to uploading to Blast2GO in .xml file formats.

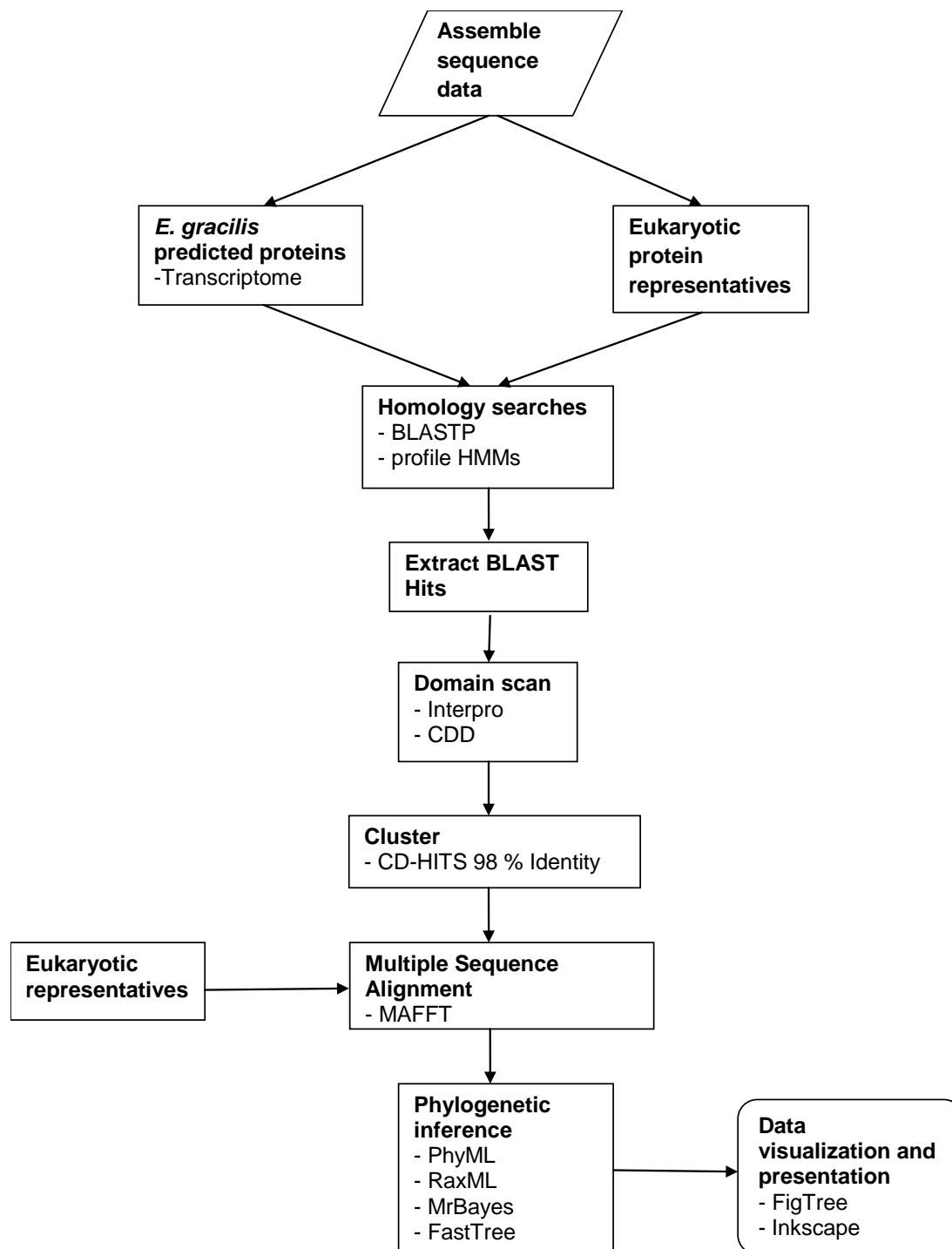


**Figure 2.3: The standard genome and transcriptome structural and functional annotation involved multiple bioinformatics approaches and biological categories.** Overview of actual genome and transcriptome structural and functional annotation: The workflow involves the production of an assembled sequenced data, gene predictions, protein sequence analysis and classifications, assignment of functions, cataloguing and delineation of biological information, upload to EuglenaDB, and community-based annotation.

### 2.5.2 Assembling sequence data, data mining and phylogenetic inference

Orthologs of reference proteins were inferred from the OrthoFinder algorithm (Emms and Kelly, 2015) predicted orthogroups, or via custom searches as highlighted: Homology searches for orthologs and paralogs were performed against the predicted proteome for *E. gracilis* using BLASTp (Figure 2.4). Clustering to 100 % identity was performed for the predicted *E. gracilis* proteins using the Cluster Database at High Identity (CD-HIT) algorithm (Li and Godzik, 2006) to remove gapped/incomplete and redundant sequences. Sequences with significant BLASTP top hit search (evalue = 1e-3) were subjected to both Reversed Position Specific Blast *RPS-BLAST* (NCBI CDD Search) and InterProScan (Chapter 5, and Appendix I-a). The annotated sequences with domain and/or protein signatures matches were extracted using a combination of UNIX command and BioPerl script (available on request), and clustered to 99 % identity using CD-HIT algorithm (Li and Godzik, 2006). The CD-HIT program outputs a set of 'non-redundant' (nr) protein representative sequences. The clustered representatives were aligned to known eukaryotic protein reference sequences using the Multiple Sequence Alignment (MSA) tool, MAFFT (Kato and Standley, 2013) and/or ClustalX2 (Larkin, *et al.*, 2007). Poorly aligned positions or gaps were removed using the gap deletion menu/command, trimmed manually in Jalview and with trimAl (Capella-Gutierrez and Silla-Martinez, 2009) prior to alignment. The final alignments were processed locally for phylogenetic inference with the PhyML Command Line Interface (CLI) using the default settings (Guindon and Gascuel, 2003; Le and Gascuel, 2008; Yang, 1993; Guindon *et al.*, 2010), RaxML (Stamatakis, 2006), FastTree (Price, *et al.*, 2010), MrBayes (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001) and/or FastTree (Price, *et al.*, 2010) as appropriate. Annotations of the trees were performed using TreeGraph2 (Stöver and Müller, 2010), InkScape (<https://inkscape.org/en/>), and Adobe Illustrator. For analytical methods of specific aspects of the biology of *E. gracilis* which include, amongst others, surfaceome, mitochondria proteome, plastid proteome see Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017, and corresponding sub subsections in Chapters 5.





**Figure 2.4: Phylogenetic inference relationship is a multi-step process.** Overview of *E. gracilis* phylogenetic inference protein annotation: *E. gracilis* predicted proteins and their respective reference proteins are assembled. Homology predictions and domain scans are carried out using BLASTP, HMMs, and InterProScan/CDD, redundancies, alignments, and phylogenetic trees are constructed using CD-HITS, MAFFT, and tree building algorithms.

### 2.5.3 Large contigs (>10kbp) in the *E. gracilis* genome

For an initial resolution into the architecture of the genome, contigs >10kbp were analysed. These contigs were interrogated using tblastn with the *E. gracilis* predicted proteome from the transcriptome. Sequences with hits were further interrogated using the Exonerate algorithm (with --protein2genome option) for a resolution into splicing mechanisms and coding regions. Pre-processing of Exonerate outputs suitable for further analysis and visualizations were performed using a combination of custom scripts, Unix/Linux commands, and the Genome Tools algorithms (Gremme, et al., 2013). Sequences, and their respective splicing coordinates in gff3, were uploaded to the IGV genome viewer. Exon and intron general statistics was performed using EVAL assessment tool (Keibler and Brent, 2003). Functional genome annotation involves BLASTP homology searches (evalue = 10) against the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) non redundant (nr) protein database (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>), protein domain scan using InterProScan (Jones, et al., 2014), and their mappings to Gene Ontology (GO) (Ashburner, et al., 2000), enzyme code and KEGG metabolic pathways (biological inference) (Kanehisa, et al., 2006; Aoki and Kanehisa, 2005; Kaas, 2007) using Blast2GO (Gotz, et al., 2008). Transmembrane helices and signal peptides were predicted using TMHMM (Krogh, et al., 2001) and SignalP (Petersen, et al., 2011) respectively, which are components of the InterPro Scan utility. Prediction of tRNAs and rRNAs were preliminary performed using tRNA-Scan (Lowe and Eddy, 1997) and rRNAmmer (Lagesen, 2007) respectively.

## 2.6 ORTHOLOGOUS GROUP CLUSTERING

This orthologous groups clustering analysis was carried out in collaboration with Dr. Steve Kelly at the Department of Plant Sciences, University of Oxford, UK. To identify orthologous genes in *E. gracilis*, across eukaryotic taxa, the *E. gracilis* proteome was clustered with thirty eukaryotic taxa using Orthofinder (Emms and Kelly, 2015) – thanks to Dr. Steve Kelly at the University of Oxford, UK. Eukaryotic groups captured in the clustering include members of the Euglenozoa, Unikonta, secondary hosts, red algae, green algae, land plants (primary hosts), and members of the Excavata (see Chapter 4, and Appendix I-a). Clustering heat maps were

produced using a custom Perl script (available on request) and annotated using Adobe Illustrator.

## 2.7 GENE EXPRESSION STUDIES

### *2.7.1 Transcriptome analysis for gene expression studies*

This transcriptome analysis for gene expression studies was carried out in collaboration with Dr. Steve Kelly at the Department of Plant Sciences, University of Oxford, UK. RNA were extracted, purified, and sequenced at the Beijing Genomics Institute (<http://www.genomics.cn/en/index>). Analysis and comparisons of the data were performed using standard bioinformatics pipelines developed by Dr Steve Kelly at the University of Oxford (scripts available on request). An estimated 62M clean reads were generated which were subject to quality filtering using trimmomatic (Bolger, et al., 2014), to remove low quality bases and read-pairs as well as contaminating adaptor sequences prior to assembly. Sequences were searched for all common Illumina adaptors and the settings used for read processing by trimmomatic were LEADING:10 TRAILING:10 SLIDING WINDOW:5:15 MIN LEN:50. The trimmed filtered reads were then used to quantify the *de novo* assembled transcriptome using Salmon (Patro, et al., 2016) with the bias Correct option. Expected counts were integerised before being subjected to differential expression testing using DESeq2 (Love, et al., 2014) using default parameters. In the transcriptomics analysis 66542 distinct sequence classes were detected and the data was reduced to 41045 applying the same rejection criteria (minimum three replicates). Evolutionary selections (dN/dS ratios) of transcripts which encode known proteins functional information (biological pathway-directed) were carried out using the Codon Alignment v2.1.0 (Codon Align tool on <https://www.hiv.lanl.gov/>) and Synonymous Non-synonymous Analysis Program (SNAP) (Korber, 2000) to investigate if regulatory response is enriched in ratio types or to provide an indication of selective pressure on protein coding genes in the light and dark experiment.

### *2.7.2 Proteomics analysis for gene expression studies*

This proteomic analysis for gene expression studies was carried out in collaboration with Dr. Martin Zoltner in Prof. Mark Fields Laboratory, University of Dundee, UK. Liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LCMS<sup>2</sup>) was performed at the University of Dundee, UK, and thanks to the Proteomic Facility team of the School of

Life Sciences for the analysis. Samples were analysed on an UltiMate 3000 RSLCnano System (Thermo Scientific) coupled to a Q-exactive mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific) and mass spectra were analysed using MaxQuant version 1.5 (Cox and Mann, 2008) searching the predicted *E. gracilis* proteome (*de novo* transcriptome assembly) reported here, Dr. Martin Zoltner performed this analysis. Minimum peptide length was set at six amino acids, isoleucine and leucine were considered indistinguishable and false discovery rates (FDR) of 0.01 were calculated at the levels of peptides, proteins and modification sites based on the number of hits against the reversed sequence database. Ratios were calculated from label free quantification intensities using only peptides that could be uniquely mapped to a given protein. If the identified peptide sequence set of one protein contained the peptide set of another protein, these two proteins were assigned to the same protein group. P values were calculated applying t-test based statistics using Perseus (Tyanova et al., 2016). 8661 distinct protein groups were identified in the MaxQuant analysis. For further analyses data were reduced to 4297 protein groups by rejecting those groups not identified at the peptide level in each of the three replicates for one state. Additionally, a cohort of 384 protein groups was extracted that were observed in only one state (232 light and 152 dark in all three respective replicates).

### 2.8.3 Electron microscopy of *E. gracilis* cells

This section was carried out in collaboration with Dr. Sue Vaughan and Alana Burrell at the Department of Biological and Medical Sciences, Oxford Brookes University, UK. 50 ml of light and dark adapted cells were grown to mid logarithmic phase and primarily fixed. These primary fixatives (glutaraldehyde) and fixing protocol were a kind gift from Dr. Sue Vaughan's laboratory. 25 % glutaraldehyde solution was added directly to the Euglena light and dark 50 ml cultures to give a final concentration of 2.5 %. The flasks were swirled gently and ensured that the cells have stopped moving. The content of the flask were then transferred to 50 ml Falcons tubes (25 ml in each) and centrifuged into pellets. The supernatant were pipette and discarded. 3 ml of the primary fixatives (2.5% glut and 2% PFA in 0.1M cacodylate buffer pH 7.2) were added and the pellet re-suspended by gentle pipetting. The light and dark primarily fixed samples were then shipped in parafilm falcon tubes and sealed box to Dr. Vaughan's laboratory for Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) analysis.

# CHAPTER THREE

## 3.0 GENOME ORGANISATION AND FUNCTION

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the genome organization and function of *E. gracilis* was investigated. There are three genetic systems in *E. gracilis*: chloroplast, mitochondria, and nuclear, with the first two already in the public domain – the focus of this genome project is on the nuclear genome. Over the course of this project, the *E. gracilis* genome was sequenced using multiple read libraries across several sequencing platforms: Roche 454, Illumina, and PacBio. Similarly, several assembly pipelines were attempted until an optimum assembly was generated. However, this assembly is ~ 20 % complete in terms of Core Eukaryotic Genes (CEGs), highly repetitive and fragmentary with over half of the assembly being < 1 kb. To understand the genome function and structure with the draft genome assembly, the > 10 kb sequences were analysed and discussed here. Part of this chapter was done in collaboration with Steve Kelly at the University of Oxford, UK, and has been published in preliminary form in Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017.

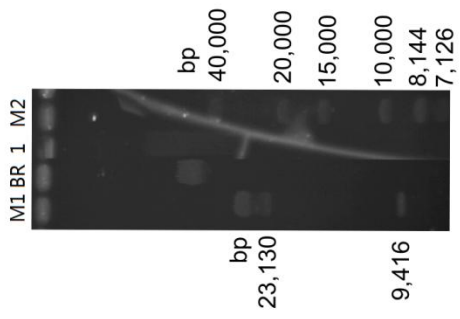
### 3.2 GENOME SEQUENCING AND ASSEMBLY

#### 3.2.1 DNA isolation and purification

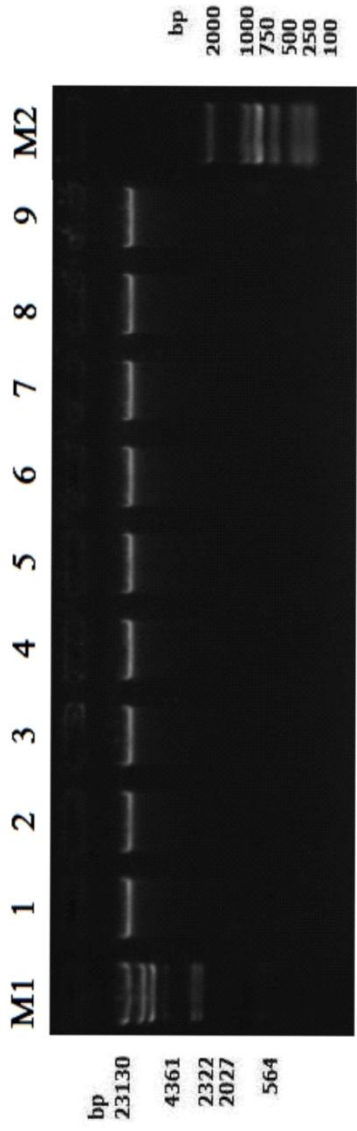
*E. gracilis* Z strain gDNA was extracted as previously described (see materials and methods) for Illumina and PacBio samples respectively. The extraction method employed produced high quality gDNAs with good and clear bands, ranging in sizes between 23 kbp and > 40 kbp for the low and high molecular weight protocols respectively (Figure 3.1). In both extraction methods, the purity of *E. gracilis* gDNA preparations were first established by the ratios of the extinction coefficients at 230, 260 and 280 nm. Concentrations and yield ranges from 47.0 – 71.6 ng/μl and 10.34 – 14.39 μg for low molecular weight isolation protocol, and 450 ng/μl and 132.75 μg for high molecular weight isolation methods respectively. DNA dissolved in Qiagen buffer AE and TE buffer shows OD260/230 ratio ranging from 2.15 – 2.81, and OD260/280 ratio ranging from 1.94 – 2.29 respectively, indicating no evident

contamination with proteins or RNA in the extraction procedures respectively (Table 3.1).

**A**



**B**



**Figure 3.1: Nucleic acid Pulse-Field Gel Electrophoresis for *E. gracilis* DNA preparation.** Panel A shows the 40 Kbp mate pair insert size. M1, M2, and BR are the various markers utilized for the analysis with their respective ladders in base pairs (bp). The *E. gracilis* DNA sample is labeled number 1. Panel B shows the  $\leq 800$  bp insert size. M1 and M2 are the various ladders utilized for the analysis with their respective ladders. Samples labeled 1-8, & 9, are represent the different DNA preparations carried out to maximize volume, yield, and quality. These are not replicates.



**Table 3.1:** Pre-DNA sequence quality control test for 40 Kb Mate pair and ≤800 bp insert size

S/No.	Sample name	Sample number	Library type	Concentration (ng/μl)	Volume (μl)	Total mass (μg)	OD260/280	OD260/230	Test result
1.	Euglena gDNA (T1)	0150208895	40K Mate pair	450	295	132.75	1.99	2.15	Level A
2.	Euglena gDNA (R1)	85215022084	≤800 bp Insert size	71.6	220	15.75	2.11	2.73	Level A
3.	Euglena gDNA (R2)	85215022085	≤800 bp Insert size	54.4	220	11.97	1.94	2.26	Level A
4.	Euglena gDNA (R3)	85215022086	≤800 bp Insert size	47	220	10.34	2.29	2.81	Level A
5.	Euglena gDNA (R4)	85215022087	≤800 bp Insert size	65.4	220	14.39	2.12	2.61	Level A
6.	Euglena gDNA (R5)	85215022088	≤800 bp Insert size	54.8	220	12.06	2.13	2.65	Level A
7.	Euglena gDNA (R6)	85215022089	≤800 bp Insert size	49.8	220	10.96	2.05	2.57	Level A
8.	Euglena gDNA (R7)	85215022090	≤800 bp Insert size	58.2	220	12.8	2.08	2.7	Level A
10.	Euglena gDNA (R9)	85215022091	≤800 bp Insert size	64.2	220	14.12	2.03	2.7	Level A
11.	Euglena gDNA (R10)	85215022092	≤800 bp Insert size	56.2	220	12.36	2.14	2.27	Level A

**Note:** The table represent the pre-sequencing result of *E. gracilis* genome for both 40K mate pair and  $\leq 800$  bp insert size libraries. *Parameter descriptions:* **Sample name** refers to the alphabetical identifier of the sample. **Sample number** refers to the numerical identifier of the sample. **Library type** refers to the specific insert size sequenced. **Concentration**, **Volume**, and **Total Mass** refers to these respective parameters for each sample. OD<sub>260/280</sub> and OD<sub>260/230</sub> refers to the **Optical Density** at wavelengths of 260/280 and 260/230. **Test Result** refers to the classification of the pre-sequencing quality control; Level A means that the sample is qualified for DNA sequencing, and the amount of sample is sufficient for two or more libraries.

### *3.2.2 Library preparation, Illumina, Roche 454, and PacBio sequence data*

The genome sequence consists of three versions: version 0.7, 0.8, and 0.9 (Table 3.1). For the genome sequence version 0.7, five paired-end reads illumina Hiseq 2000 sequencing runs using five fragment libraries with insert sizes of 170 bp, 500 bp, 800 bp, 2 kbp, and 5 kbp and one Roche 454 single read respectively were carried out. Approximately 26,905 M total clean reads were generated with read lengths ranging from 49 – 200 bp (~ 19 Gb in total bases) and an estimated coverage of 0.1X, 21.2X, and 57.59X for Roche 454 and Illumina read libraries respectively. For the genome sequence version 0.8, three paired-end reads illumina Hiseq 2000 sequencing runs using three fragment libraries with insert sizes of 250 bp, 540 bp and 40 kbp respectively were carried out. More than 442.52 M clean reads were generated with read lengths ranging from 100 – 300 bp (~ 67 Gb in total bases) and a combined estimated physical coverage of 229X. For the genome sequence version 0.9, 0.9 M clean reads was generated using the PacBio platform (Table 3.2) to produce a merged assembly using read data from the version 0.8. Overall, the qualities of these reads were satisfactory, showing phred quality values (Q20)  $\geq$  82 % and moderate GC content between 47.80 – 51.55 % (Table 3.2) (the FastQC sequence visualization .html files for all read sequences in Table 3.2 are available on request).

**Table 3.2:** Data summary of *E. gracilis* whole genome and transcriptome sequencing

Molecule	Version	Sequence technology	Read library (bp)	Orientation	Length	Clean reads (M)	Clean bases (Mbp)	Total clean bases (Mbp)	Q20 (%)	GC (%)	**Phys Cov. (X)	
Genome	0.9 (Merged)	PacBio	Myler	Single	9914*	561233**	5571.29	8827.11	82.8*	49.89	4.4	
			Puri/Dav		9207*	353314**	3255.82		-	50.10		
	0.8	Illumina HiSeq 2000	250	Paired-overlap	150	337.844	50675.25	67303.97	95.05	51.07	229	
			540		300	31.307	9392.17		82.93	51.55		
			40000	Paired-jump	100	72.366	7236.55		88.65	51.09		
	0.7	Illumina HiSeq 2000	Roche454	454	Single	200	493166	174	18661.67	-	54.15	0.1
			170a	Paired-overlap	100	45.926	4592.55	89.85		47.8	21.2	
			170b			51.372	5137.22	85.10		48.3		
			500			45.389	4538.90	83.80		48.65		
			800			31.682	3104.85	90		50.5		
			2000a	Paired-jump	49	26.289	1288.15	90.30		50.2	57.59	
			2000b									
			2000c									
5000												
Transcriptome	1.0	Illumina HiSeq 2000	189	Paired-overlap	100	14.549	2438.72	2822.14	97.09	58.93	21.5	
			125			450.90	383.42		93.93	55.5	7.15	

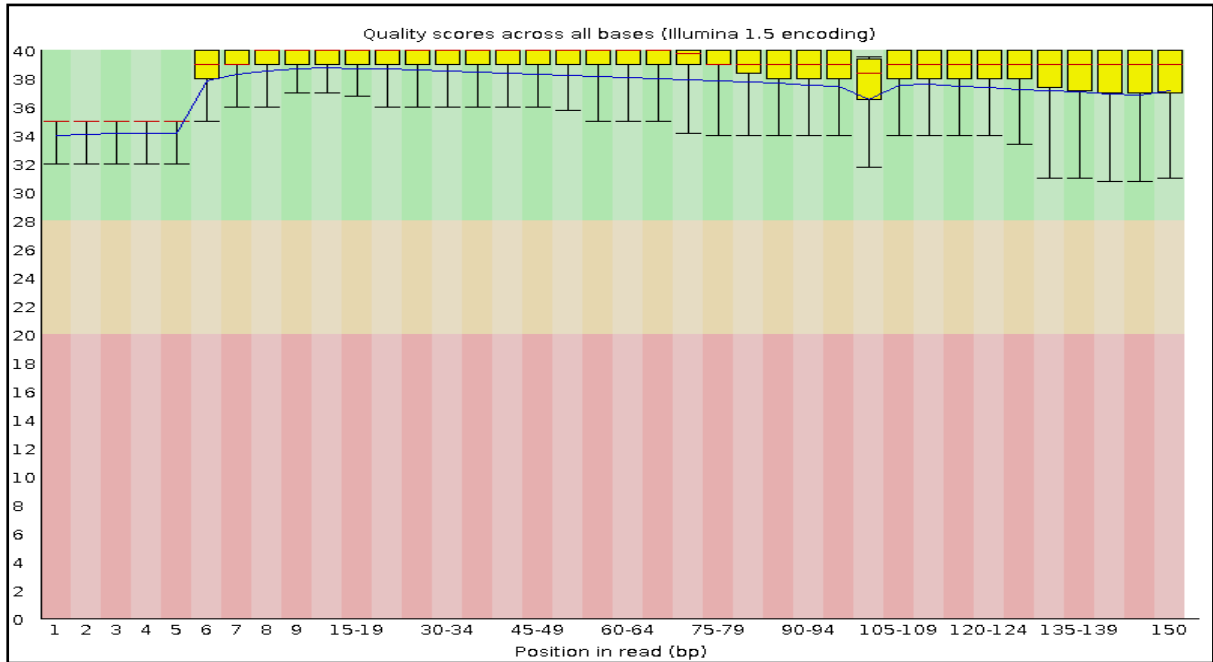
**Column description:** **Molecule** refers to either DNA (genome) or RNA (transcriptome). **Version** refers to the genome or transcriptome version produced. Orientation refers to the read orientation. **Sequence technology** refers to the sequence platform employed. **Read library** refers to the library, sequence identification number that identify the sample, or an insert size which is the distance between the forward and reverse Mate pairs (read1 and read2); **Length** is the length of the total reads (in bp); **Clean reads** refers to total reads after post sequencing quality control; **Clean bases** refers to total nucleotides (in base pair) after post sequencing quality control (sample filtration) for individual libraries; **Total clean bases** refers to total nucleotides (in base pair) after post sequencing quality control (sample filtration) for a libraries combined; **Q20 (%)** is the number of nucleotide with quality higher than 20/nucleotide (i.e. clean forward and reverse reads, R1 & R2), and **Q20** is the probability that a base is called incorrectly – probability of incorrect base is 1 in 100 with a call accuracy of 99 %. **GC (%)** is the percentage of total nucleotides with guanine-cytocine bases. **Phys. Cov. (X)** =  $L * N / G$ , where L is read length, N is number of reads, and G is genome length. M = millions. Mbp = megabases. † Average read length. \* = Mean value. \*\* Read lengths are not in Megabases. (see <http://www.illumina.com/science/education/sequencing-quality-scores.html>)

### 3.2.3 Genome assembly, assembly improvements and variant detections, assembly evaluation and assessments

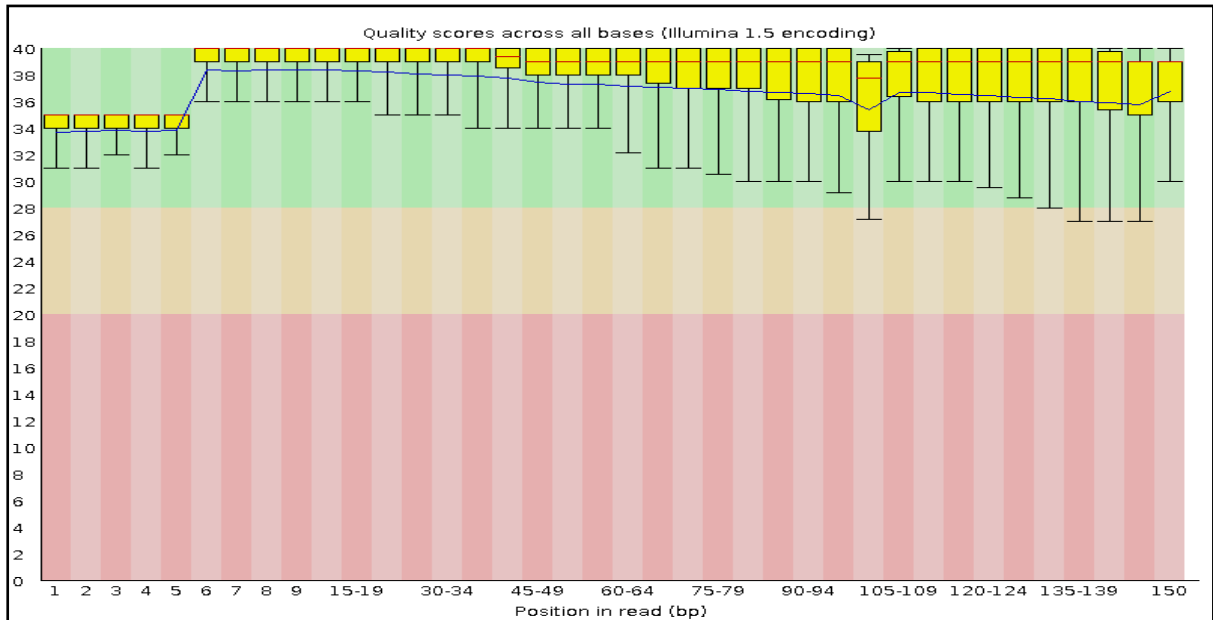
#### Quality Control

The genome was assembled as described in methods (see chapter 2). Quality control was performed using the Trimmomatic algorithm, and visualized using FastQC quality tool. There are at least eleven (11) quality parameters to take into account when performing QC for NGS data analysis. These include per base sequence quality, per tile sequence quality, per sequence quality scores, per base sequence content, per sequence GC content, per base N content, sequence length distribution, Sequence duplication levels, Overrepresented sequences, and Adapter content, and Error Correct Reads (Patel and Jain, 2012; Gnerre, *et al.*, 2011). Out of these 11, the per base sequence quality is the most important parameter because it defines the proportion of both correctly and incorrectly sequenced bases. For conciseness, the result of per base sequence quality' parameter for 250 bp library 150PE and 540 bp library 300PE sequencing will only be presented (Figure 3.2). This is because the results for the other libraries (see Table 3.2) are primarily similar after QC, and generally entails ensuring that all reads and bases (100 %) are within the acceptable threshold prior to input into the assembly pipeline (other QC files are available on request). These libraries have been chosen due to two reasons: the first figure gives a general indication of QC results for  $\leq 150$ PE sequences, while the second figure gives an indication of  $\leq 300$ PE sequences, and perhaps the role of increasing read lengths on sequence quality (as will be highlighted below).

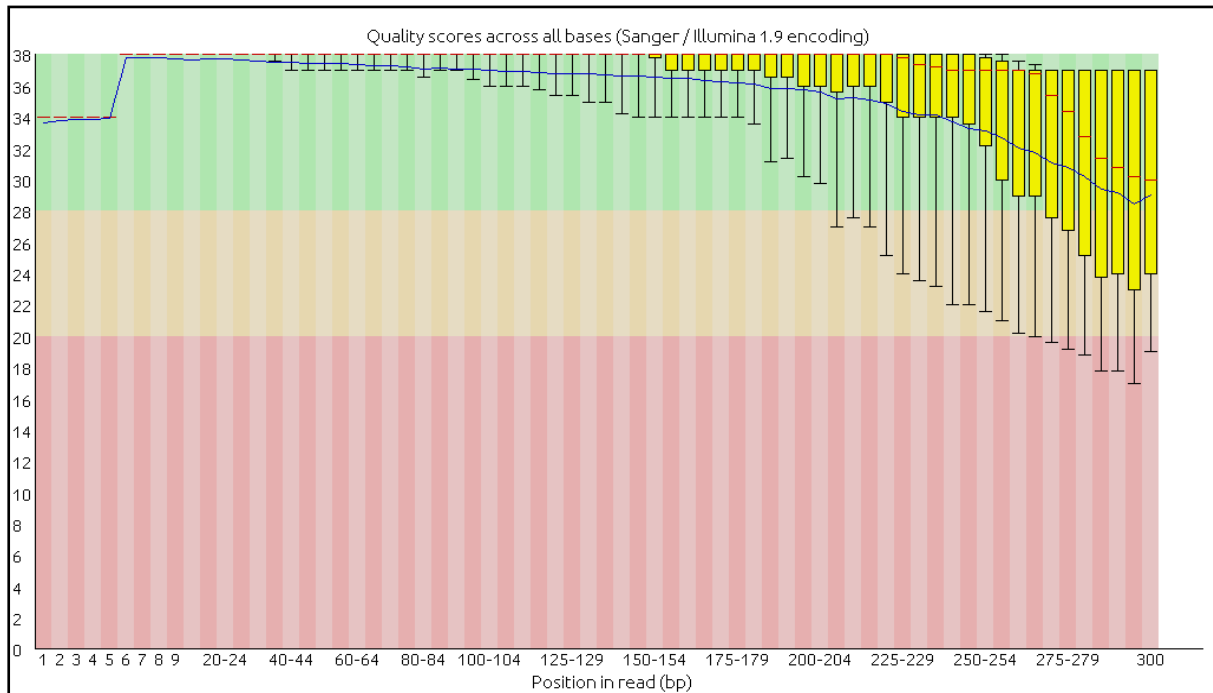
**A: 250 bp library, 150PE read (Forward, Read 1)**



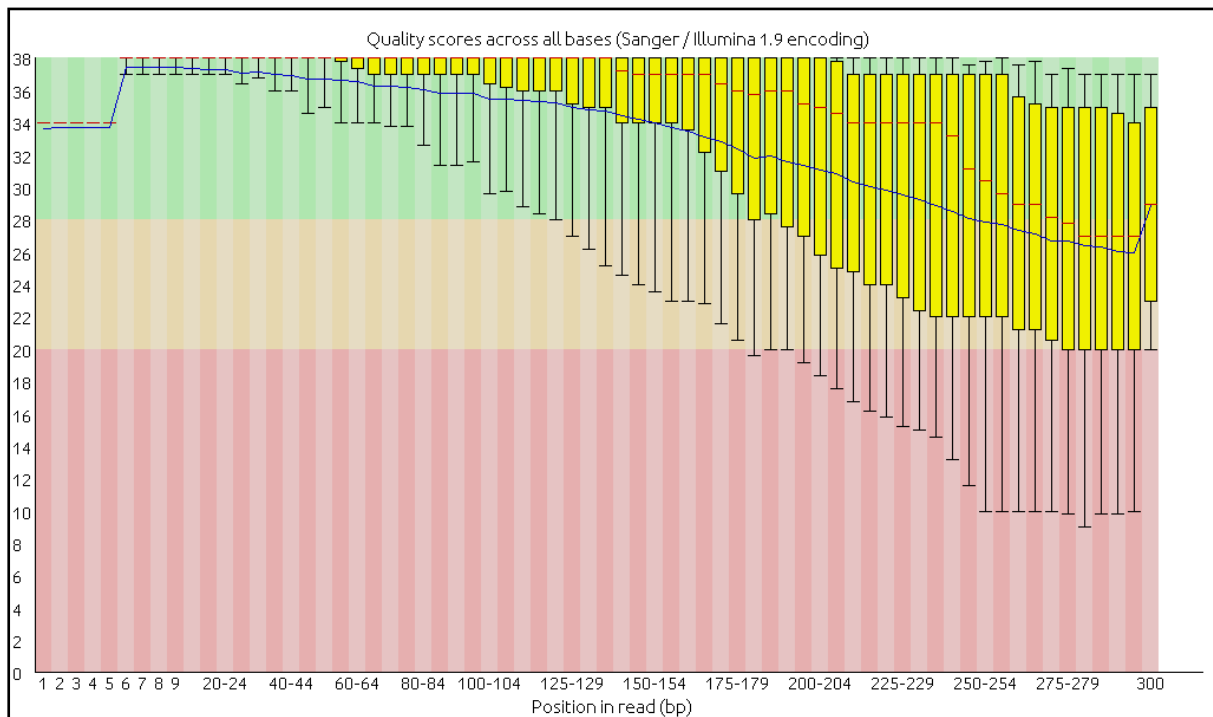
**B: 250 bp library, 150PE (Reverse, Read 2)**



### C: 540 bp library, 300PE (Forward, Read 1)



### D: 540 bp library, 300PE (Reverse, Read 2)





**Figure 3.2: Quality trimmed reads are within quality control thresholds.** The diagram shows the per base sequence quality for 250 bp and 540 bp read libraries. Panel A: Per base sequence quality for 250 bp library 150PE trimmed sequence (Forward, Read 1). Panel B: Per base sequence quality for 250 bp library 150PE trimmed sequence (Reverse, Read 2). Panel C: Per base sequence quality for 540 bp library 300PE trimmed sequence (Forward, Read 1). Panel D: Per base sequence quality for 540 bp library 300PE trimmed (Reverse, Read 2). Green zones show reads of very good quality; orange zones show read of moderate quality; red zones show reads of poor quality.

## Actual assembly

The assembly process includes a workflow that employed several assembly pipelines and intermediates to produce an optimal assembly. According to Armstrong, *et al.*, (unpublished manuscript & poster presentation), an assembly would be considered optimal if it contained the fewest contigs, the total length of the contigs or scaffolds closely matched the predicted genome or transcriptome size and the contig/scaffold N50 was larger than other assembly intermediates. The draft genome has a summary statistics as presented in Table 3.3. The assembly resulted in a set of “scaffolds”, with each scaffold made up of a set of contiguous sequences (contigs), ordered and oriented with respect to one another by mate-pairs such that the gaps between adjacent contigs are of known size or distance (using estimates from the long insert sizes of 800 bp, 2 kbp, 5 kbp, and 40 kb) and are spanned by clones with end-sequences flanking the gap (see Figure 2.1 for assembly workflow) as previously described by Myers, *et al.*, 2000. Present in the assembly are gaps of unknown base (N). The types of gaps observed were both sequence and physical gaps. According to Myers, *et al.*, 2000, “gaps within scaffolds are called sequence gaps; gaps between scaffolds are called ‘physical gaps’ because there are no clones identified spanning the gap”. The draft genome assembly has a total sequence of 2066288 sequences with an N50 of 955.

## Assembly improvements and variant detection

The Pilon algorithm was run for multiple iterations on the last Illumina assembly intermediate prior to merging with the PacBio data, and recorded changes include insertions (in), deletions (dels), gap filling, SNPs, number of sequences, insertion length, deletion length, and gap filled length. In the assembly version 0.7, Pilon made significant improvements to the contiguity of the draft assembly, increasing the genome coverage, and contig N50 size by 437 kb (data not shown). According to Walker, *et al.*, 2014, observed gains in genome coverage and contig N50s when using Pilon are principally due to Pilon’s ability to recognize and fill (or partially fill), by local assembly, “captured gaps”, i.e., missing sequence between contigs and within a scaffold (Walker, *et al.*, 2014). In the same version 0.7, Pilon completely and accurately filled 69.65 kb of the > 100,000 captured gaps (69.64 % closure rate). Pilon was able to improve the assembly and added 18.952 kb of sequence. Pilon

improved the quality of the draft assembly, resulting in fewer and longer contigs and an improved gene set as previously report by Walker, *et al.*, 2014 for other model organisms. Insertions/deletions (INDELS) and single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were identified resulting in 451.78 kb, 458.26 kb, and 3029.44 kb events respectively (data not shown).

**Table 3.3:** QUAST genome assembly statistics

Statistics without reference	<i>Euglena gracilis</i> _genome_V1
# contigs	2066288
# contigs (>= 0 bp)	2066288
# contigs (>= 1000 bp)	373610
# contigs (>= 10000 bp)	1459
# contigs (>= 100000 bp)	2
Median sequence length	457
Mean sequence length	694
Minimum sequence length	106
Largest contig	166587
Total length	1435499417
Total length (>= 0 bp)	1435499417
Total length (>= 1000 bp)	691997200
Total length (>= 10000 bp)	22999641
N50	955
N75	504
L50	399971
L75	924484
GC (%)	50.60
No. of gaps	0
No. bases in gaps	0
No. of gaps per 100 kbp	0

**Key:** Sequence here refers to contigs (nucleotides). Number of sequences (#) is the total number of contigs in the assembly; no. of sequence > x kbp is total number of contigs of length  $\geq$  x kbp - where x is 1, 10, or 100 kbp; combined sequence length is the total number of bases in the assembly; N50 is the length for which the collection of all contigs of that length or longer covers at least half an assembly; Gaps is the total number of uncalled bases (N's) in the assembly; Min and Max sequence length are the lengths of the shortest and largest contigs/proteins in the assembly respectively; Mean and Median sequence length are the average length of the sequences and the sequence length separating the minimum and maximum sequence lengths in the assembly respectively. All statistics are based on contigs of size  $\geq$  1 bp, unless otherwise noted (e.g., "# contigs (>= 0 bp)" and "Total length (>= 0 bp)" include all contigs. L50 and L75 is the number of contigs equal to or longer than N50 or N75 respectively. For example, L50 is the minimal number of contigs that cover half the size of the assembly. While N50 has to do with contig length, L50 has to do with contig numbers (for an extensive description of terminologies, see Gurevich, *et al.*, 2013).

## Assembly evaluation and assessment

The genome assembly workflow employed several QC analysis pipelines for validating assembly completeness (see Chapter 2), and these include: QUASt assessment metrics, CEGMA statistical metrics, RNA-seq reads and EST sequence mapping evidences – which are all discussed below. As a gene discovery project, the most important evaluation is the CEGMA statistical metrics since it tells us the proportion of core eukaryotic genes (CEG) present in the respective assemblies. The CEG datasets were aligned to the genome and transcriptome assembly in order to determine the percentage CEG's contained in the assembly. According to Armstrong, *et al.*, (unpublished manuscript and poster presentation), it is assumed that an assembly which is more complete will have a higher percentage of complete and partial CEG alignments than a less complete assembly (see Parra, *et al.*, 2007; and CEGMA metrics below for details).

### I. Quality Assessment Tool for Genome Assemblies (QUASt) statistical metrics

Several statistical parameters were calculated for the genome assembly (see Table 3.3). This includes number of contigs, mean sequence length, N25, N50, and N75 (see Gurevich, *et al.*, 2013 for detailed definitions of these vocabularies, and many more that are highlighted below). The most important is the N50, and according to Gurevich, *et al.*, 2013, is calculated by summing all sequence lengths, starting with the longest, and observing the length that takes the sum length past 50 % of the total assembly length. The N25, N50, and N75 metrics are based on using 25 %, 50 %, and 75 % thresholds (see Table 3.3). A recently emerging metric was also adopted in version 0.7 draft assembly intermediates (data not shown), and is called the NG50 length (Earl, *et al.*, 2011; Bradnam, *et al.*, 2013). According to Bradnam, *et al.*, 2013, this normalizes for differences in the sizes of the genome assemblies being compared. It is calculated in the same way as the N50, except that the total assembly size is replaced with the estimated genome size when making the calculation (Bradnam, *et al.*, 2013). Other parameters that were taken into account in this particular draft version 0.7 assembly (data not shown) include the NG values, NAX, NGAX, and cumulative alignment lengths (see Bradnam, *et al.*, 2013 for details of these vocabularies and their utility).

The *E. gracilis* assembly showed some significant differences in its total assembly length, contig and scaffold lengths or basic statistical matrices (Table 3.3). In the version 0.7 draft assembly, using the NGx statistical criteria, which involves assessing the size of the genome assembly in relation to the estimated genome size (~ 750 Mbp), it was evident that the draft assembly is a less competitive assembly (containing ~ 650 Mbp which is ~ 87 % of the ~ 750 Mbp estimated amount of sequence) when compared against the sequenced genomes of *T. brucei* and *L. major* as a references – even though these species may not be suitable as a reference genome since they are distantly related. The graph (data not shown) shows that *E. gracilis* draft assembly is not yet saturated when compared to the estimated genome size. This suggests that assessing and evaluating assemblies by their basic statistics may be misleading (Armstrong, *et al.*, unpublished manuscript and poster presentation), and Yandell and Ence, 2012 further implied that NG50 and N50 can be poor predictors of the suitability of an assembly for gene-finding purposes, suggesting that someone who is looking to use a genome assembly for gene finding may not need to be overly concerned by low N50 or NG50 values (Yandell and Ence, 2012).

## II. CEGMA statistical metrics

A set of 248 CEGs (Parra, *et al.*, 2007) were used to interrogate the presence of core eukaryotic genes by testing for > 70 % alignment of these genes against the contigs in the assembly. The presence, or absence, of these genes is determined by employing the statistical model called the Hidden Markov Model (HMM) approach (Eddy, 2004). This analysis was carried out using CEGMA (Parra, *et al.*, 2007; see Materials and Methods), and in comparison with other completely sequenced genomes of *T. brucei* and *L. major*. According to Bradnam, *et al.*, 2013, the CEGMA analysis can assess presence, but not accuracy of the given genes within the assemblies. *E. gracilis* draft assembly contains a total of 50 of the 248 ultra conserved eukaryotic proteins which is 20.16 %. Of these, 8.87 % are complete while 11.29 % are partial (see Table 3.4). When compared to *T. brucei* and *L. major*, the overall percentage CEG presence for these organisms are higher with 82.66 % and 82.26 % respectively. Out of these, 79.03 % and 78.23 % are complete for *T. brucei* and *L. major* respectively.

**Table 3.4:** Comparative statistics of the completeness of the genome and transcriptome based on 248 CEGs

Assembly	Organism	Gene status	#Prots	%Completeness	#Total	Average	%Ortho
Genome	<i>E. gracilis</i>	Complete	22	8.87	37	1.68	54.55
		Partial	50	20.16	89	1.78	56.00
	<i>T. brucei</i>	Complete	196	79.03	259	1.32	24.49
		Partial	205	82.66	282	1.38	28.29
	<i>L. major</i>	Complete	194	78.23	220	1.13	11.34
		Partial	204	82.26	245	1.20	15.69
Transcriptome	<i>E. gracilis</i>	Complete	187	75.40	390	2.09	65.78
		Partial	218	87.90	506	2.32	69.72
	<i>T. brucei</i>	Complete	190	76.61	393	2.07	60.00
		Partial	205	82.66	448	2.19	63.41
	<i>L. major</i>	Complete	133	53.63	275	2.07	64.66
		Partial	194	78.23	405	2.10	64.43

**Key:** Prots = number of 248 ultra-conserved CEGs present in genome; %Completeness = percentage of 248 ultra-conserved CEGs present; Total = total number of CEGs present including putative orthologs; Average = average number of orthologs per CEG; %Ortho = percentage of detected CEGs that have more than 1 ortholog; Complete = those predicted proteins in the set of 248 CEGs that when aligned to the HMM for the KOG for that protein-family, give an alignment length that is 70% of the protein length. i.e. if CEGMA produces a 100 amino acid protein, and the alignment length to the HMM to which that protein should belong is 110, then we would say that the protein is 'complete' (91% aligned); Partial = those predicted proteins in the 248 sets that are incomplete, but still exceeds a pre-computed minimum alignment score. Keys are as described by Parra, *et al.*, 2007.

### III. RNA-seq and EST mapping evidences

The completeness and correctness of protein-coding genes in assemblies is of paramount importance for diverse applications in gene discovery (Yandell and Ence, 2012). In this project, I acquired genome and transcriptome sequences in parallel, and to enable alignment of the transcriptome sequence data to the genome assembly. This directly assesses the presence of genes in terms of completeness and correctness. While ~ 23k EST sequences are available for *E. gracilis* in the NCBI database, there is no available full length transcript RNA-seq data in any of the database; hence, the production and assembling of the initial transcriptome data into draft to produce full length transcripts. To achieve this aim, RNA-seq reads and EST sequences were mapped to the genome to determine the proportion of expressed genes using the RNA-seq reads presented in Table 3.2, and NCBI EST evidences for *E. gracilis*. Mapping evidenced an overall alignment rate of  $\geq 88.05$  for all read libraries using Bowtie2.

## 3.3 GENOME STRUCTURAL AND FUNCTIONAL AUTOMATIC ANNOTATION

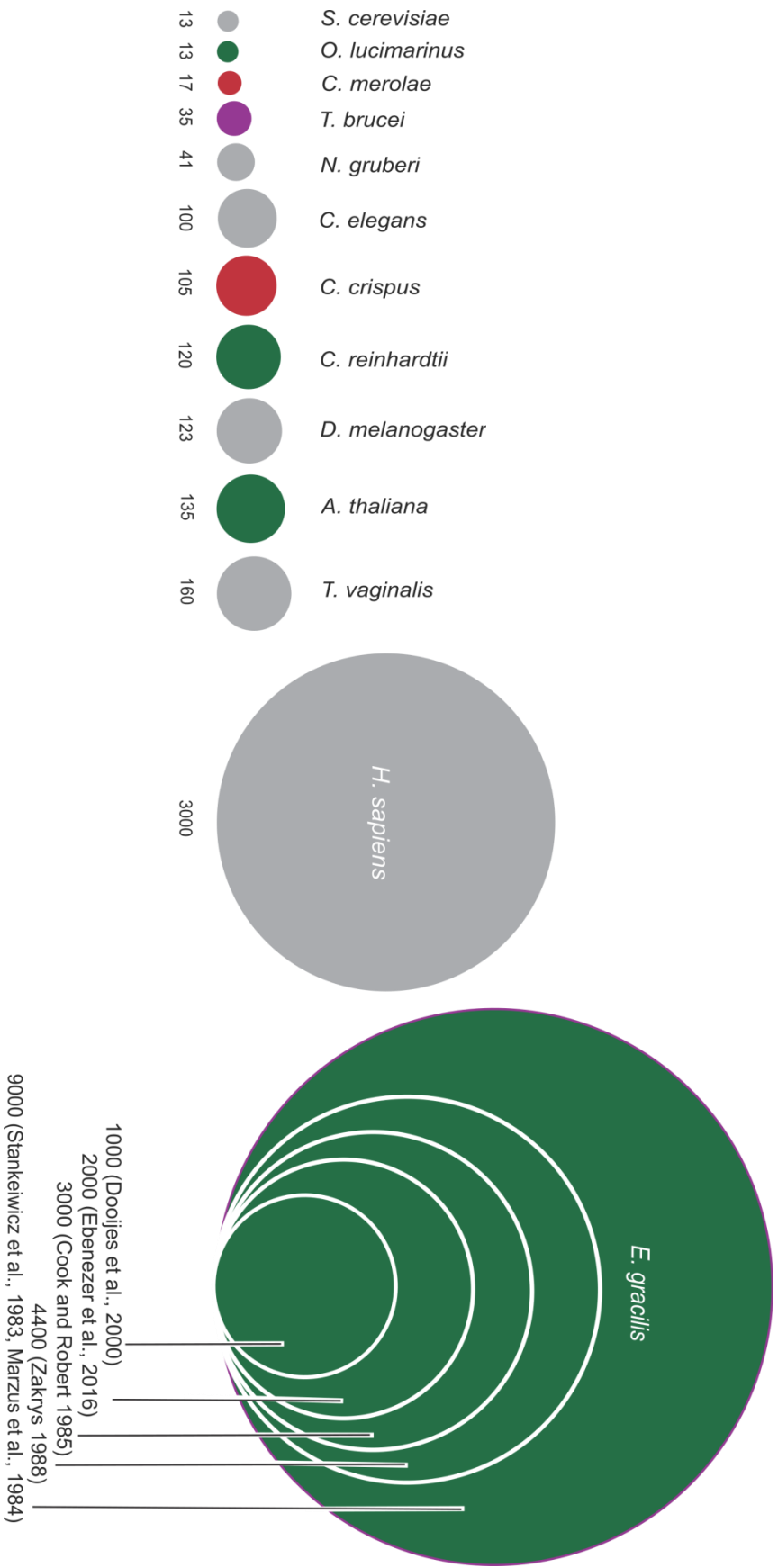
### 3.3.1 Gene predictions and features

Whole genome sequencing technology was used to determine ~ 70 % of the estimated 2 Gbp nucleotide sequence of the *E. gracilis* genome. This is an estimated 57 – 63 times the size of *T. brucei* and *L. major* genome respectively (Figure 3.3). The genome assembly is only ~ 20.16 % complete (in terms of CEGs), and can support an initial analysis of genome structure and preliminary gene annotation and interpretation (especially the > 10 kbp contigs), but not an extended analysis (for access to data see <http://euglenadb.org/> and BioProject #: PRJNA298469). The gene prediction analysis was focused on the > 10 kbp contigs (~ 1.6 % of the total assembled genome size) since these are more likely to encode genes than > 1 kbp which I already anticipate to be highly fragmentary.

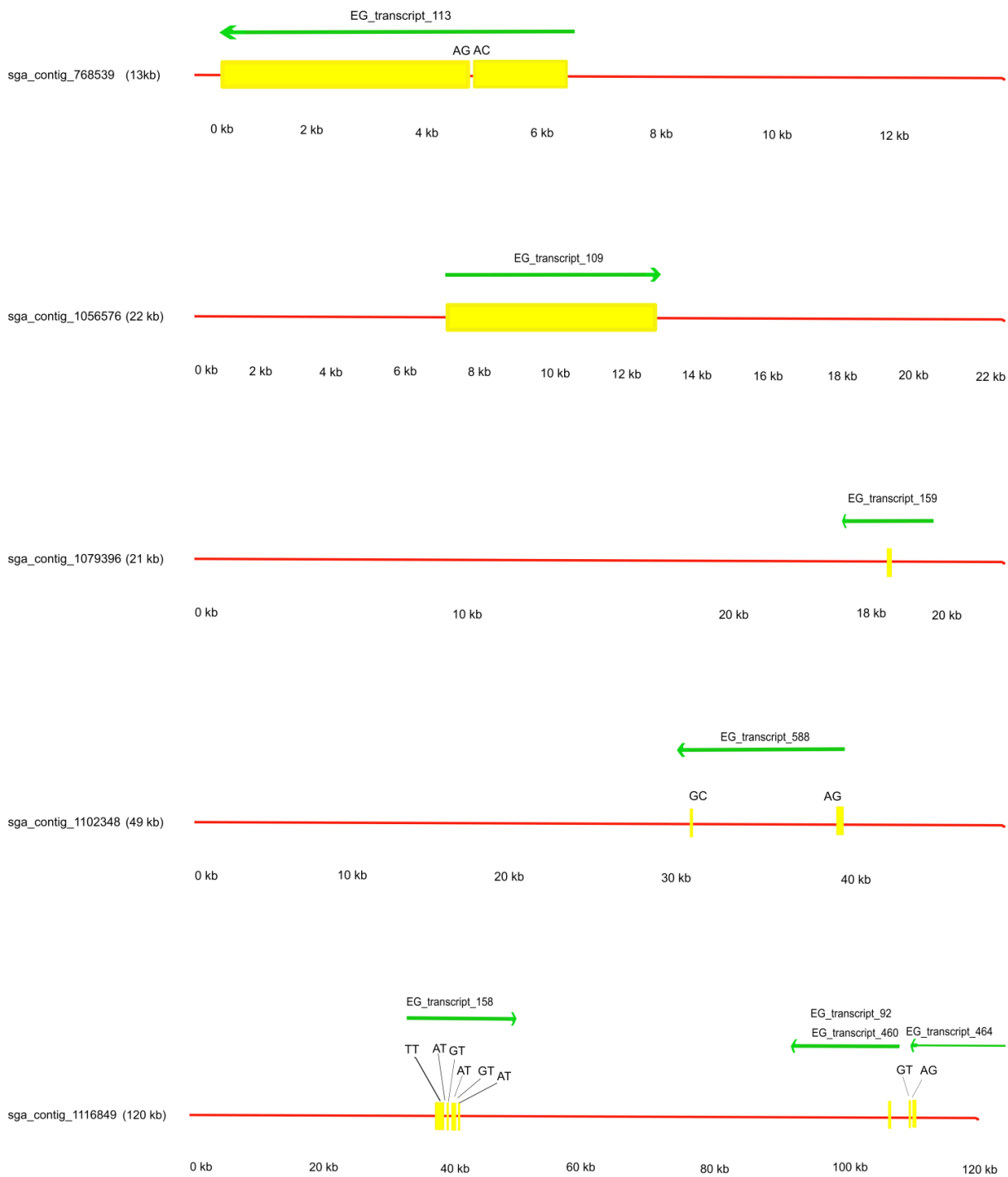
Using a combination of BLAST and Exonerate alignment algorithm (with --protein2genome option), the transcriptome was aligned to the > 10 kbp contigs (1490 sequences). Of these 1490 contigs, 267 sequences have Open Reading Frame (ORF) based on Exonerate predictions (Figure 3.4, 3.5, 3.6, and Table 3.5). These 267 sequences were then screened for chloroplast and mitochondria

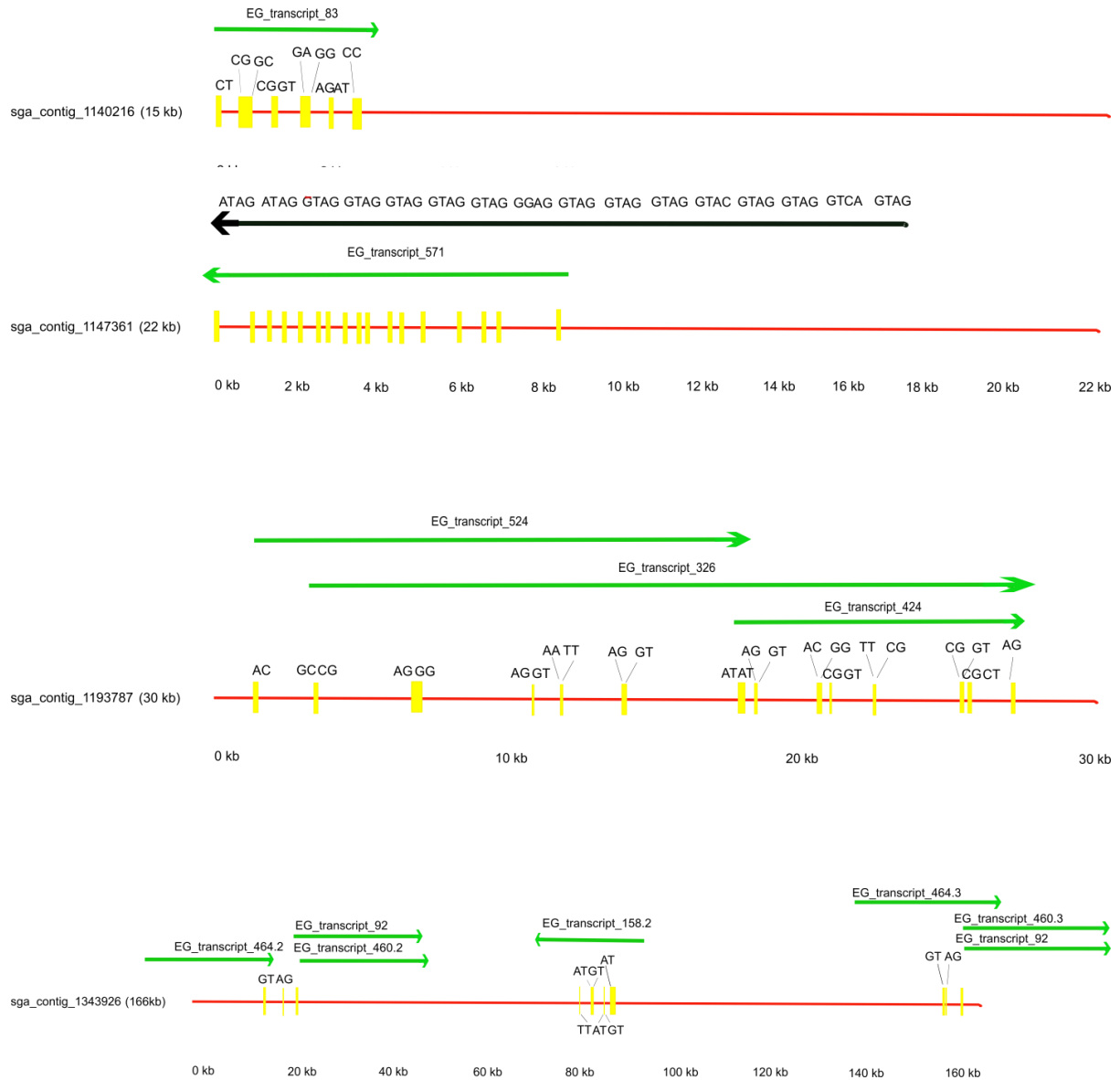


genomes (since these organellar genomes have already previously been sequenced), reducing the number to 214 contigs. Out of these 214 contigs, 135 protein-coding genes were identified with 144 transcripts (Table 3.5, Figure 3.5) and 214 translated proteins (Figure 3.5, 3.6, Table 3.5).



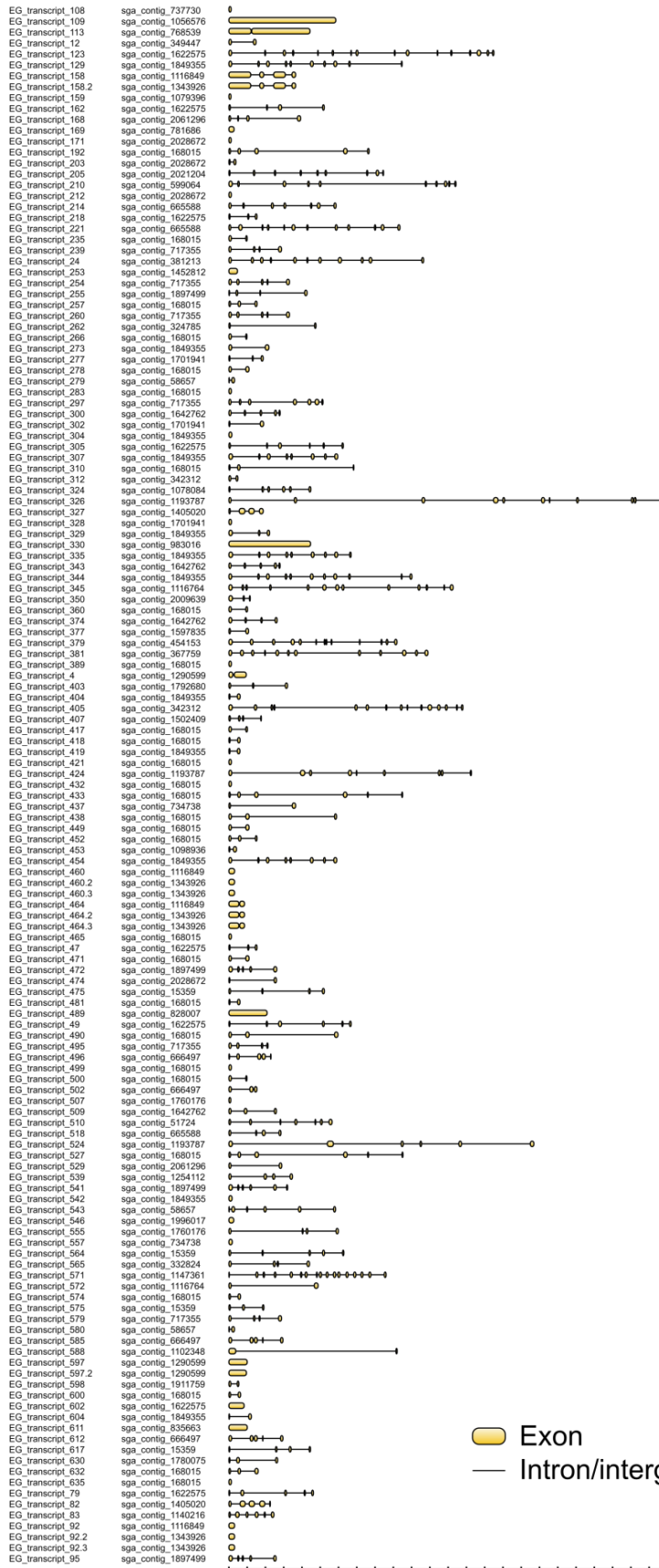
**Figure 3.3: Predicted *E. gracilis* genome sizes are variable.** The figure shows the comparison of genome sizes across selected eukaryotes. The area (×3 magnifications) of the circles represents the sizes of the selected eukaryotic genomes in megabases which are highlighted by numbers corresponding to respective circle. Color codes: *Green* photosynthetic green organisms, *red* photosynthetic red organisms, *purple* kinetoplastids, *grey* other members of the eukaryotic species. Circles embed into each other is *E. gracilis* genome sizes which are calculated/predicted estimates from Zakrys (1988), Cook and Roxby (1985), Dooijes et al. (2000), Mazus et al. (1984) and Stankiewicz et al. (1983), and Ebenezer, et al. (2017).





**Figure 3.4: Alternation between high and low coding sequence and gene density regions.** Structural representations of *Euglena gracilis* selected genes: Individual contig figures show the structural representations of selected *E. gracilis* genes. Each contig/gene structure is defined by a sequence identifier prefixed by sga\_contig\_. Numbers in bracket represent the length of the contig in kilobase pair. Lines coloured in red defines whole contigs spanned with exons/CDS (coloured yellow). Arrows (coloured green) shows orientation (+/-) of the gene. Black arrows or lines shows splicing or splice junctions. The corresponding transcriptome transcript for each contig/gene structure is prefixed EG\_transcript\_.

# Transcript Contig | Organisation



Contig length (nucleotides)

**Figure 3.5: Gene clustering organization in *E. gracilis* are arranged in a functionally related architecture.** A comprehensive representation of the Open Reading Frame Organisation of the 53 contigs possessing coding capacity. This compliments the contigs shown in Figure 3.3. The first column represent the sequence ID from the *E. gracilis* transcriptome, the second column represent the corresponding sequence ID from the *E. gracilis* genome arising from the alignment of the transcriptome to the genome. The third column represent the organization of the predicted genes showing high and low gene density regions, presence of highly variable structures, multiple transcripts corresponding respectively to different positions of the genome on a single contig, and the tandem array arrangement of genes on these contigs. Contig lengths are indicated by a scale bar (kb).

**Table 3.5:** Quantitative and functional description of gene clusters in the *E. gracilis* genome

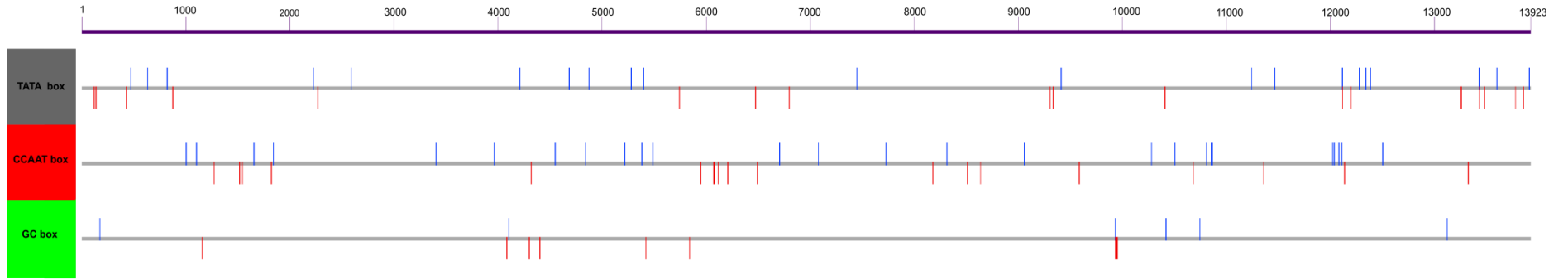
S/N	Genome Contig ID	Total number of transcripts mapped	Representative transcript ID*	Common Protein Family	Common Biological Process	Common Molecular Function	Common Cellular Component
1.	sga_contig_1622575	8	EG_transcript_123	NAD:arginine ADP-ribosyltransferase, ART (IPR000768)	GO:0006471 protein ADP-ribosylation	GO:0005515 protein binding	NP
2.	sga_contig_1849355	12	EG_transcript_129	NP	NP	GO:0005524 ATP binding	GO:0016020 membrane
3.	sga_contig_1116849	3	EG_transcript_460	NP	GO:0006351 transcription, DNA-templated	GO:0003677 DNA binding	NP
4.	sga_contig_1343926	4	EG_transcript_464	NP	GO:0006351 transcription, DNA-templated	GO:0003677 DNA binding	NP
5.	sga_contig_2061296	2	EG_transcript_168	NAD:arginine ADP-ribosyltransferase, ART (IPR000768)	GO:0006471 protein ADP-ribosylation	GO:0003956 NAD(P)+-protein-arginine ADP-ribosyltransferase activity	NP
6.	sga_contig_2028672	4	EG_transcript_171	NP	GO:0006629 lipid metabolic process	NP	NP
7.	sga_contig_168015	28	EG_transcript_235	NP	GO:0009190 cyclic nucleotide biosynthetic process	GO:0016849 phosphorus-oxygen lyase activity	NP
8.	sga_contig_665588	4	EG_transcript_171	NP	GO:0006629 lipid metabolic process	NP	NP
9.	sga_contig_717355	10	EG_transcript_239	NP	GO:0055085 transmembrane transport	GO:0005524 ATP binding	GO:0016021 integral component of membrane
10.	sga_contig_1897499	4	EG_transcript_255	Kinesin-like protein (IPR027640)	GO:0007018 microtubule-based movement	GO:0003777 microtubule motor activity	NP



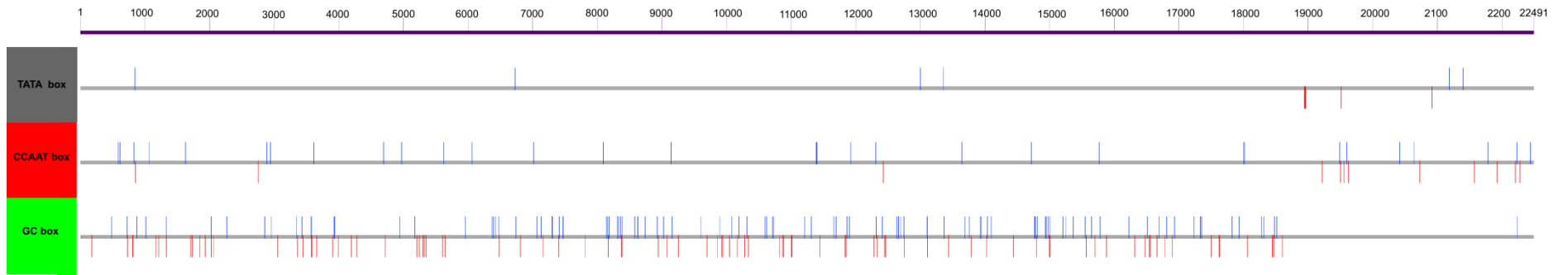
11.	sga_contig_1701941	3	EG_transcript_277	NP	NP	NP	NP
12.	sga_contig_58657	3	EG_transcript_279	NP	GO:0009190 cyclic nucleotide biosynthetic process	GO:0016849 phosphorus-oxygen lyase activity	NP
13.	sga_contig_1642762	4	EG_transcript_300	NP	NP	NP	NP
14.	sga_contig_342312	2	EG_transcript_312	NP	GO:0006629 lipid metabolic process	NP	NP
15.	sga_contig_1193787	3	EG_transcript_524	NAD:arginine ADP-ribosyltransferase, ART (IPR000768)	GO:0006471 protein ADP-ribosylation	GO:0003956 NAD(P)+-protein-arginine ADP-ribosyltransferase activity	NP
16.	sga_contig_1405020	2	EG_transcript_327	NP	GO:0008152 metabolic process	GO:0003824 catalytic activity	NP
17.	sga_contig_1116764	2	EG_transcript_345	NCFP	NCFP	NCFP	NCFP
18.	sga_contig_1290599	2	EG_transcript_4	NCFP	NCFP	NCFP	NCFP
19.	sga_contig_734738	2	EG_transcript_437	NP	NP	NP	NP
20.	sga_contig_15359	4	EG_transcript_575	NP	GO:0009190 cyclic nucleotide biosynthetic process	GO:0016849 phosphorus-oxygen lyase activity	NP
21.	sga_contig_666497	4	EG_transcript_496	NP	GO:0009190 cyclic nucleotide biosynthetic process	GO:0016849 phosphorus-oxygen lyase activity	GO:0016849 phosphorus-oxygen lyase activity
22.	sga_contig_1760176	2	EG_transcript_507	NP	GO:0009190 cyclic nucleotide biosynthetic process	GO:0016849 phosphorus-oxygen lyase activity	GO:0016849 phosphorus-oxygen lyase activity

**Note:** The table describes the clustering properties of the genome contigs predicted to possess coding characteristics. **Keys:** S/N = serial number. Genome contig ID = Sequence IDs of contigs with clustering properties. Total number of transcripts or gene mapped represents the overall number of clustering for respective contigs. Representative transcript ID or gene ID describes the sequence ID that represent the clustered transcript or gene. \*For additional members see Figure 3.4 above. Common Biological Process, Molecular Function, and Cellular Component describes the top 1% functional process common amongst the clustered transcripts/genes and genome contigs respectively. Function information were inferred using Interpro database. NP = None predicted. NCFP = No Common Property.

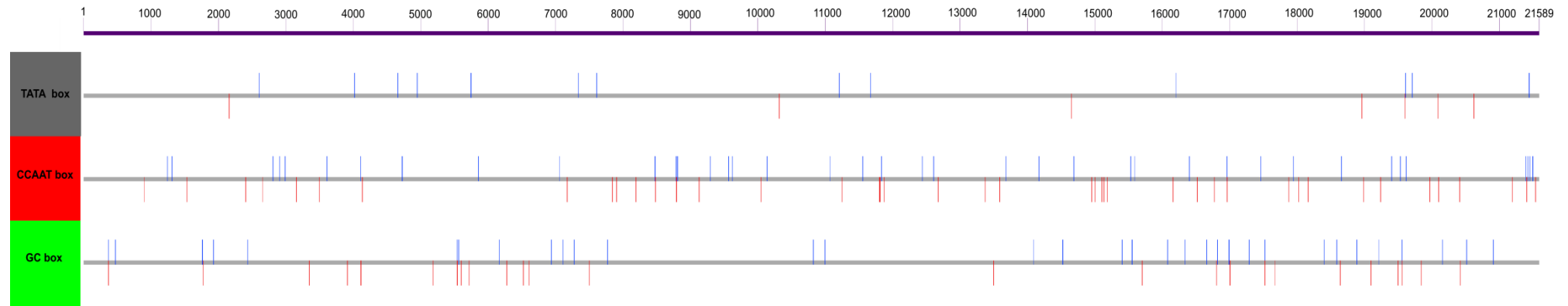
sga\_contig\_768539



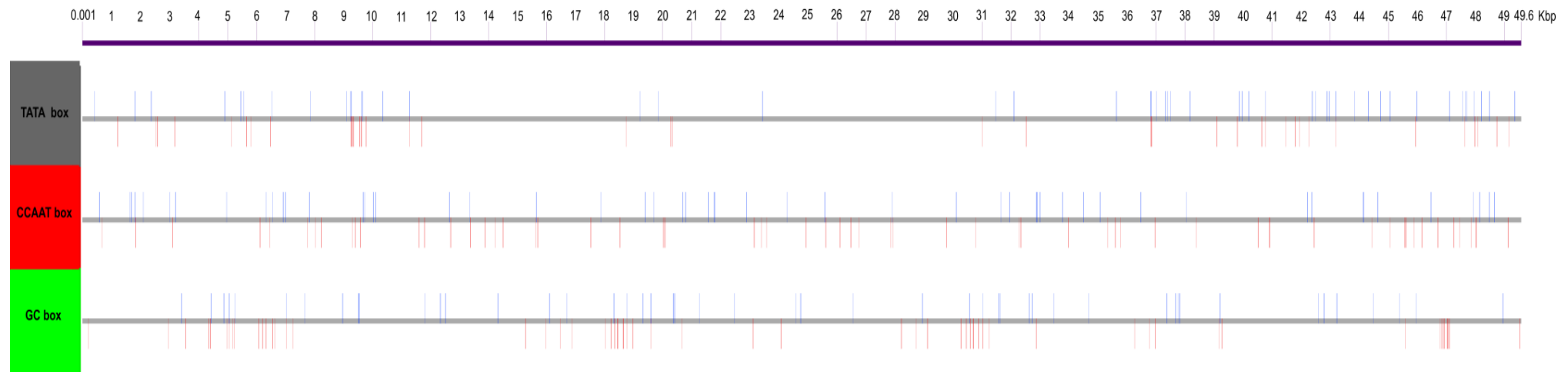
sga\_contig\_1056576



sga\_contig\_1079396

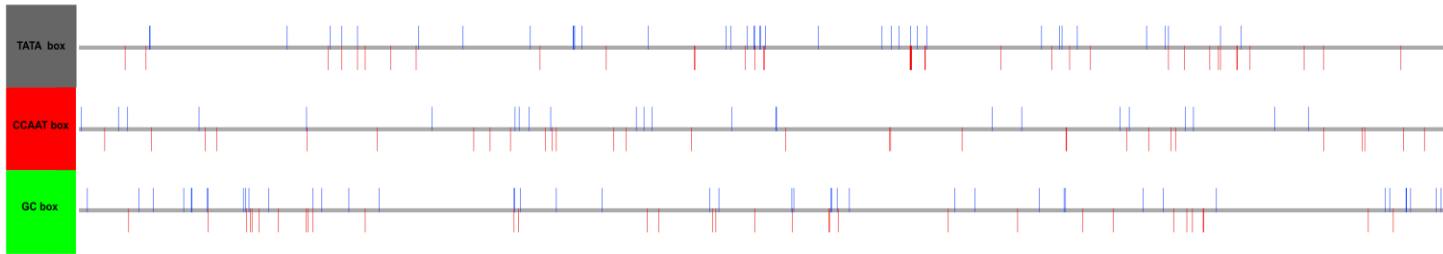


sga\_contig\_1102348



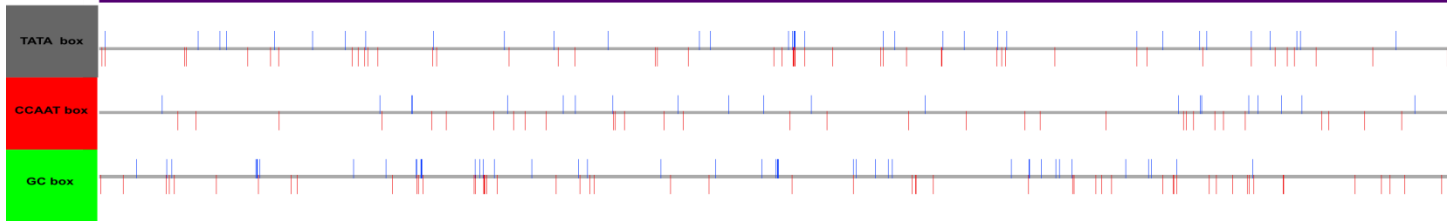
sga\_contig\_1147361

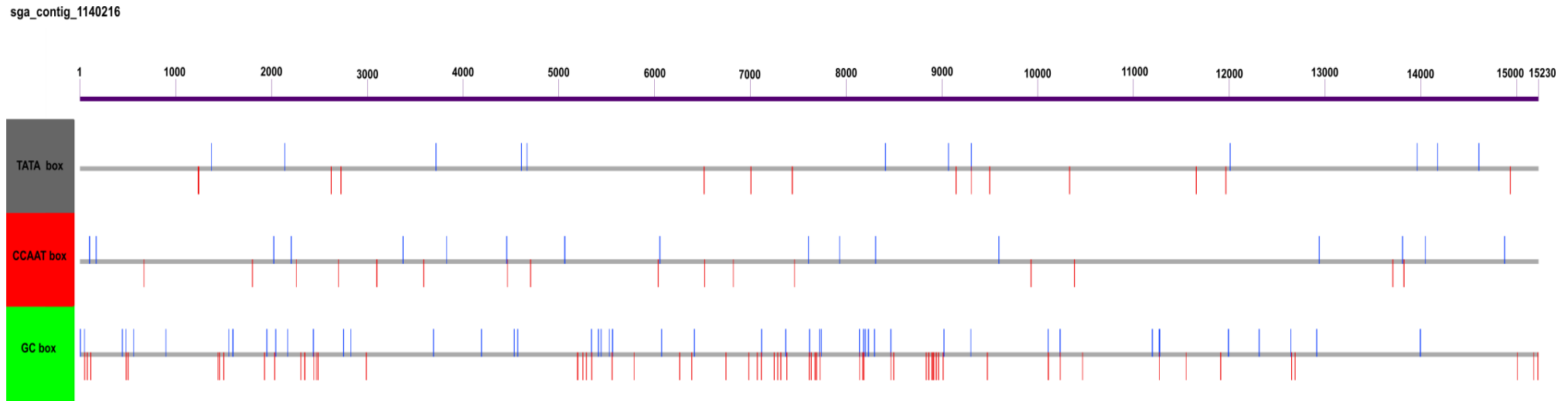
0.001 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 22.2 Kbp



sga\_contig\_1193787

0.001 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 30.1 Kbp





**Figure 3.6: *E. gracilis* genome is replete with promoter islands.** The diagrams describe the core promoter types and positions in select *E. gracilis* contigs: sga\_contig\_768539, sga\_contig\_1056576, sga\_contig\_1079396, sga\_contig\_1102348, sga\_contig\_1140216, sga\_contig\_1147361, sga\_contig\_1193787. Each respective contig number is presented at the top of each diagram. Coloured boxes represent the core promoters identified. Gray = TATA box, Red = CCAAT box, Green = GC box. Purple lines describe the length of the contig, with corresponding numbers representing scaling in base pairs (except where otherwise noted). Blue and red lines represent promoter positions in the forward and reverse strands respectively.

In these contigs, the genes are not evenly distributed across contigs - there is an alternation between high gene density regions and low gene density regions across contigs in both forward (+) and reverse (-) orientations (Figure 3.4, 3.5, 3.6, and Table 3.5). Nine (9) contigs (Figure 3.4) represent the global architecture of the *E. gracilis* genome. This include contigs with 1 or 2 large clustered and unclustered exon islands between 1 kb and 5kb in length (sga\_contig\_768539, sga\_contig\_1056576), contigs with 1 or 2 small clustered and unclustered exon islands of up to 2 kb in length (sga\_contig\_1079396, sga\_contig\_1102348), and contigs with multiple small-sized exon islands of up to 3 kb in length, with moderate and huge clustering properties (sga\_contig\_1116849, sga\_contig\_1140216, sga\_contig\_1147361, sga\_contig\_1193787, sga\_contig\_1343926). Introns occupy a significant proportion of the contigs, and spliced junctions are both conventional and unconventional as has previously been reported in this system (Figure 3.4, 3.5, 3.6, Milanowski, *et al.*, 2014). Gene arrangements in the genome are organized in long, forward- and reverse- stranded tandem arrays (Figure 3.4, 3.5, 3.6, and Table 3.5) as seen in *T. brucei* where the primary purpose is to increase gene dosage in an environment where individual gene promoters are otherwise absent. Out of the 53 contigs analysed, 22 possess gene clusters with functionally related properties while 31 possess no gene clustering properties (Figure 3.5, 3.6, and Table 3.5). For instance, 8 transcripts (EG\_transcript\_123, EG\_transcript\_162, EG\_transcript\_218, EG\_transcript\_305, EG\_transcript\_47, EG\_transcript\_49, EG\_transcript\_602, and EG\_transcript\_79) aligned to the contig sga\_contig\_1622575 with common protein family (NAD:arginine ADP-ribosyltransferase, ART), biological processes (protein ADP-ribosylation), molecular functions (protein binding), and cellular component properties (NP) (Figure 3.4 and Table 3.5). Analysis of promoters using GPMiner (Lee, *et al.*, 2012) in select contigs show the presence of the core promoter types of TATA box, CCAAT, and GC box (Figure 3.6) across the entire length of the contigs.

In the *T. brucei* genome sequence (TriTrypDB May, 2017), there are 131 contigs/sequences with 129 being greater than 10 kbp, and having ~ 12094, 9068 and 11202 transcripts, protein-coding genes and proteins respectively. This suggests that the *E. gracilis* gene contents are lesser in terms of numbers and quality when compared to *T. brucei* (Table 3.3 and 3.4). This also suggests an

average gene density of 5.87 genes/Mb in *E. gracilis*, and an overall GC composition is 51.19 % (see Table 3.3). Out of the estimated 2 Gbp of the *E. gracilis* genome, it is suggested that < 25 % of these are likely to be single copy genes – with the majority being repeats. In the > 10 kbp (22999641 sequences) contig analysis, 2.16 % are protein-coding genes. Introns occupy 57.83 % of these genes, and there are 271 introns, occupying 278354 of the sequence, with an average length of 1027.14 bases. Exons occupy 14.79 % of the genes, and there are 554 exons, occupying 73482 of the sequence, with an average length of 175 bp. The remaining parts of the contigs (outside the protein coding genes) are intergenic regions, and this is 98.84 %. So, from this analysis, if 98.84 % of the ~ 0.02 Gbp (> 10 kbp) of the genome is non-coding, this means that the actual coding sequence in the estimated 2 Gbp genome size will be < 2 %. The mean length of *E. gracilis* genes (exons or coding sequences only) is ~ 174.54 bases, substantially smaller than in the other sequenced excavates such as *T. brucei* and *L. major* where the average gene length range from 1.3 kb to 1.9 kb. This low numbers in mean length may be due to the fragmentary nature of the *E. gracilis* genome.

### 3.3.2 Non coding RNA genes

Many transcripts function at the RNA level, including rRNAs, tRNAs, snRNAs, and snoRNAs (Hillier, *et al.*, 2005). Using tRNAscan-SE and RNAmmer, I did not find tRNA and rRNA genes. I did not also progress to investigate for all other non coding RNAs since I could not find the essential ones in the > 10 kbp contigs. The present draft genome does not have enough data for investigating non coding RNAs (rRNA, tRNA, etc) as well as comparison and assessment with other sequenced species.

### 3.3.3 BLAST homology, InterProScan, gene ontology, kegg maps, and enzyme codes

Functional analysis of conserved protein signatures using InterProScan further revealed biological functions for the predicted genes in *E. gracilis*. Since the genome is only about 20.01 % complete, there was not enough protein signatures represented in the dataset (Figure 3.7), which also explain the incompleteness of the data (Table 3.6 and Table 3.7). However, the gene model is regarded as preliminary, and primarily due to the fragmented nature of the genome, insufficient sequence reads and repetitive regions. The low statistical nature of the gene models cannot



be attributed to the ESTs/RNA-seq sequences and/or protein evidences used for gene prediction with Exonerate, but an intrinsic characteristic of the present assembly.

Of the 214 predicted proteins, 33.65 % (> 72 proteins) did not have sufficient BLASTP similarity to proteins in other organisms to delineate functional information (Table 3.7 and Figure 3.7). It is not yet clear if these proteins (33.65 %) appear to be unique to *E. gracilis*. However, if this is the case, this is a moderate proportion as observed in other eukaryotes (Gardner, *et al.*, 2002). However, it will be interesting to know what proportion of the entire genome would have similarity with other known eukaryotic databases as this will reflect a greater evolutionary divergence between *E. gracilis* and other eukaryotic sequenced genomes. The *E. gracilis* complete genome sequence will provide more insight into this. About 142 proteins (~ 66.36 %) had BLASTP significant similarity to hypothetical or putative proteins in other organisms. 8.41 % (18) of the predicted proteins had InterPro domain hits, with 61.1 % (11) and 11.11 % (2) of the InterProScan annotated proteins having one or more transmembrane domains and putative signal peptides respectively (Table 3.7 and Figure 3.7). The Gene Ontology (GO) database is a controlled vocabulary that describes the roles of genes and gene products in organisms (Ashburner, *et al.*, 2000). GO terms were assigned automatically to the gene products. 33.65 % (72) of the proteins have GO terms, and revealed a total of 192 functional descriptions distributed among biological processes, molecular functions, and cellular structures (Table 3.5, 3.7, and Figure 3.7).

**Table 3.6:** Statistics of structural genome annotation

Molecule	Feature	<i>E. gracilis</i>	
		Counts	%
DNA	<b>Nucleotide stats</b>		
	Contigs		
	- Total contigs analysed (>10bp)	1459	
	- Length	22999641	-
	- Base composition (GC)*		
	Overall	11773516	51.19
	Coding <sup>††</sup>	36837	0.31
	Non coding <sup>††</sup>	11736679	99.69
	- Contigs with CDS	53	
	Genes		
	- Number of genes	135	-
	- Gene density (genes per Mb)	5.87	-
	- Total gene length*	497008	2.16
	- Average gene length (bp)	3475	-
	- Number of transcripts	143	-
	- Transcripts per gene	1.06	-
	Transcript		
	- Average Length	3475.58	
	- Total Length	497008	
	- Average Coding Length	620.91	
	- Ave. exons per transcript	3.87	
	- Total Coding Length	88790	
	Exons		
	- Number of exons	554	-
	- Total length (bp) <sup>†</sup>	73482	14.79
	- Average exon per transcript	3.87	-
	- Average size/length (bp)	174.54	-
	Introns		
	- Number of introns	271	-
	- Total length (bp) <sup>†</sup>	278354	56.01
	- Average introns per transcript	1.90	
	- Average size/length (bp)	1027.14	-
	- Introns per CDS	0.64	
	- Conventional introns	218	
	- Intermediate non conventional	30	
	- Non conventional introns	23	
	UTRs		
	- Number of 5' UTR	264	
	- Number of 3' UTR	266	

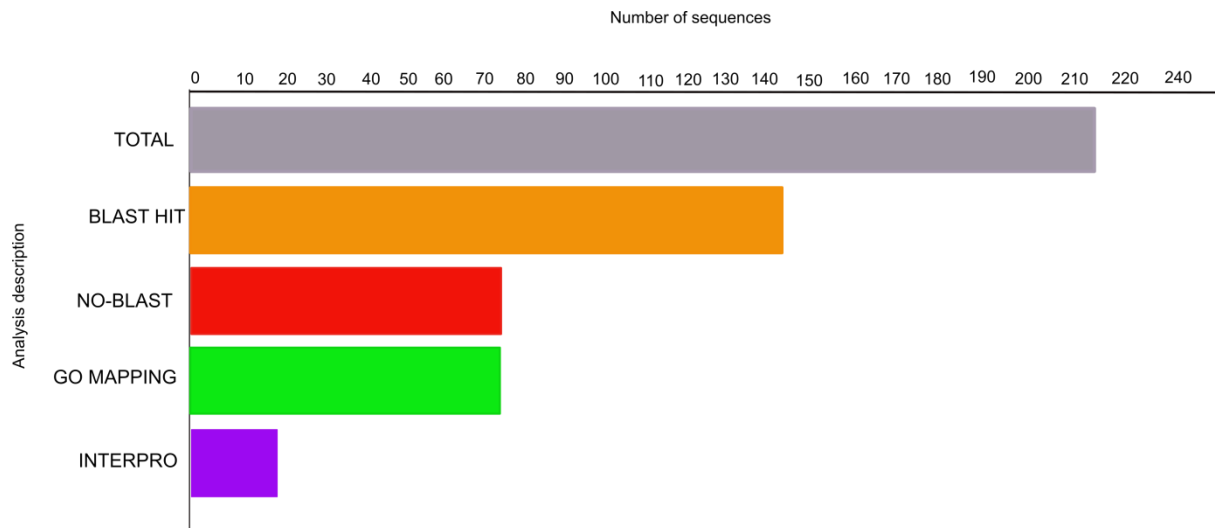
- Total length (bp) <sup>†</sup>	1060	
- Average size/length (bp)	2	
Intergenic regions	22502633	98.84
tRNAs		
- Total tRNAs	0	-
- tRNAs with introns	0	-
rRNAs		
- Total rRNAs	0	-
- Number of 8S rRNAs	0	-
- Number of 28S rRNAs	0	-
- Number of 18S rRNAs	0	-
Splice Leaders (SL) and PolyA <sup>†††</sup>	-	-

**Summary gene statistics of *E. gracilis* draft genome (nt):** Analysis is based on > 10 kbp contigs. Counts = finite numbers; % = percentage. nt = nucleotides. \*In percentage of actual assembly size; <sup>†</sup>In percentage of total gene size; <sup>††</sup> In percentage of overall GC length. <sup>†††</sup>Analysis not done due to incomplete genome.

**Table 3.7:** Statistics of functional genome annotation

Molecule	Feature	<i>E. gracilis</i>	
		Counts	%
Proteome	<b>Protein Stats</b>		
	<i>Without chloroplast and mitochondria screening</i>		
	Total proteins	267	-
	Average length	160	-
	Total length	42737	-
	<i>Screened for chloroplast and mitochondria</i>		
	Total proteins	214	
	Average length	155	
	Total length	33290	
	<b>BLAST</b>		
	<b>With BLAST hits*</b>	<b>142</b>	<b>66.34</b>
	Top 7 species distribution <sup>†</sup>		
	* <i>Genlisea aurea</i>	16	11.27
	* <i>Albugo laibachii</i>	8	5.63
	* <i>Acanthamoeba castellanii</i>	5	3.52
	* <i>Aureococcus anophagefferens</i>	4	2.82
	* <i>Trypanosoma cruzi</i>	3	2.11
	* <i>Guillardia theta</i>	3	2.11
	* <i>Euglena gracilis</i>	3	2.11
	*Other species	100	70.42
	<b>InterProScan</b>		
	<b>With Interpro Domain*</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>8.41</b>
	With atleast one TM domain <sup>†</sup>	11	61.11
	With putative signal peptides <sup>†</sup>	2	11.11
	<b>Functional Classification</b>		
	<b>Total annotated sequences based on GO Mapping</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>33.65</b>
	- Biological processes <sup>††</sup>	82 BP	-
- Molecular functions <sup>††</sup>	57 MF	-	
- Cellular components <sup>††</sup>	53 CC	-	
Kegg maps			
- Pathways	3	-	

**Summary comparative statistics of *E. gracilis* draft genome (aa) Keys:** signal peptides have > 0.95 % specificity; aa = amino acid; \*percentages are with respect to total protein sequences (267). †percentages are with respect to total BLAST hits (142), total InterProScan hits (85). ††Number of identified processes, functions, and components. BP – Biological Process; MF = Molecular Function; CC = Cellular Component.



**Figure 3.7: The *E. gracilis* predicted proteome (genome) is characteristic of moderate sequence homology.** The figure shows the data distribution of functional genome annotation. TOTAL (gray) = total number of protein sequences for analysis; BLAST HIT (orange) = proportion of protein sequences with BLAST hits against the NCBI NR database; NO-BLAST HIT (red) = proportion of sequences without a BLAST hit against the NCBI NR database; GO MAPPING (green) = proportion of BLASTed sequences with Gene Ontology (GO) mapping; INTERPRO (purple) = proportion of protein sequences with InterProScan hits.

## 3.4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

### 3.4.1 DNA isolation, sequence data quality, Assembly evaluation and assessment

The *E. gracilis* genome has been sequenced; with multiple illumina, Roche 454, and Pacbio libraries, and an assembly of the data into draft. The sequenced data is of moderate quality. The assembly improvement and evaluation for the genome shows that it's only ~ 20.01 % complete. The genome could only support an initial or preliminary resolution into gene structure and products, and could not support an extensive annotation analysis as well as comparison with other eukaryotic/kinetoplastid taxa such as *T. brucei*, and *L. major*. The GC content of *E. gracilis* genome is 50.60 % (Table 3.6) which is also at par with the GC content of *T. brucei* and *L. major*, and suggesting that the complete *E. gracilis* genome may be more GC rich than AT rich. This also suggests that most Excavates are likely to have an average GC content of ~ 50 %. In terms of the contig metrics assessment, *T. brucei* and *L. major* had larger N50, and > 36 % of their genome coding for proteins (data not shown). It is not yet known what proportion of the *E. gracilis* genome codes for proteins until the genome is fully sequenced. However, this proportion is < 2 % (< 40 Mb) of the estimated 2 Gbp. In the present data of 1.4 Gbp actual genome size, this will be ~ 28 Mbp that are coding while the remaining are non coding sequences.

### 3.4.2 Structural and functional genome annotation

#### In silico analysis

The predicted genome sizes of *E. gracilis* are variable in comparison with other members of the eukaryotes (see Figure 3.3 and Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017 for details). The number of chromosomes in *E. gracilis* has also been somewhat contentious for over half a century, with estimates varying between four (O'Donnell 1965) and forty-five (Leedale, 1958a, b). In addition to the uncertainty concerning chromosome number, the size of the nuclear genome remains unknown, with estimates varying by an order of magnitude in *E. gracilis* (Zakrys, 1988, Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017), variations and surprisingly large genome sizes within members of the *Euglena* genus (Zakrys, 1988), extensive repeat elements (Rozby, 1985), and changes in genome sizes within a single species with respect to environmental perturbations (see Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017 for details). While *E. gracilis* is distantly related to the kinetoplastids, it is

also not yet known if *E. gracilis* also retains some level of higher order gene organisation that is similar to that in the kinetoplastids.

The most basic metrics for genome assemblies involves the size of the assembled sequence in relation to the inputted reads. This includes intrinsic statistics such as the assembly size, percentage of reads assembled into contigs, and counts of contigs and/or scaffold. As the *E. gracilis* genome reads coverage increased, the percentage of reads incorporated into the assembly increased proportionately in the assembly (Table 3.2, 3.3). Other statistical parameters includes the inherent properties of the assembled sequences including length, coverage, and N50 which are all satisfactory (except for the N50) considering the amount of sequence data and coverage. The comparison of distantly related eukaryotic genomes (*T. brucei* and *L. major*, and other super groups) provided a useful opportunity for further interpretation – suggesting overall that the genomes of *T. brucei* and *L. major* are much better (data not shown) when compared with the present genome data.

Generally, the assembled draft genome provides a slight overview of gene content, functions, and scaffold organization in the *E. gracilis* 2066288 supercontigs, spanning ~ 1.4 Gbp of DNA. The subjection of the sequenced genome assemblies to multiple insilico analysis also revealed several protein-coding genes (but not non coding RNAs such as tRNA and rRNA) genes, similarities to ESTs and other proteins in protein databases. The ~ 1.4 Gbp total sequences showed that 22 Mbp are > 10 kbp, which contain 135 predicted protein-coding genes. All the genes have been evaluated, and revealed an average density of 5.87 predicted gene per Megabases. Each gene has an average of 2.01 introns, and 0.32 % (73482) of the genome (> 10 kbp) resides in predicted exons. The number of genes is less than those found in *L. major* and *T. brucei* (the > 10 kbp sequences). However, it is predicted that the number of genes present in the actual *Euglena* genome sequence will most likely be more than that observed in *T. brucei*, *L. major*, and the human genomes (IHGC, 2004). This prediction stems from the analysis of the version 0.7 genome assembly which produced 44,162 protein-coding genes as the then actual and estimated genome sizes of 650 Mb and 750 Mb respectively. If this is the case, then the predicted protein-coding genes for *Euglena* will be about that observed in the human genome (IHGC, 2004). This high number may be due to its huge genome



size, but this preliminary in silico analysis is not linear considering that the human genome is ~ 3 Gb in size.

Similarities to known proteins provide an understanding into the possible functions of the predicted genes. Top BLASTP hits shows protein products have close matches within the Excavates and related supergroups (Table 3.7); most of these matches contain functional information. In addition to the protein-coding genes, the draft genome (> 10 kbp) does not contain any gene for non-coding RNAs such as tRNAs and rRNAs. The structural and functional preliminary genome annotation revealed the presence of several genes and pathways. Among these, and most represented, are the genes involved in purine metabolism, pyrimidine metabolism, and thiamine metabolism (see Table 3.7). The *E. gracilis* genome sequences provide insights not only into the unique aspects of the biology of this complex organism, but also eukaryote evolution, given their early divergence. The availability of the entire or complete gene content of *E. gracilis* will provide the platform for the identification and wholistic functional analysis of eukaryotic evolution due to their position in the eukaryotic phylogenetic tree. Sequence comparisons to sister supergroups within Excavates and Chlorophyte, may provide useful information on the evolution of parasitism and endosymbiosis. To this end, the genome is ~ 20.01 % complete; and there are several reasons for completely sequencing a genome, however, the most important over time and as described by Hillier, *et al.*, 2005 is that the whole is an archive for the future, containing all the genetic information required.

It is not fully clear why the *E. gracilis* genome (version 0.9) is about 20.01 % complete in terms of core eukaryotic genes. However, there are three possible reasons for this, and none of these is as a result of assembly protocols, rather it may be that the *E. gracilis* genome may require a novel bioinformatics assembly algorithm. First, the estimated coverage of the *E. gracilis* genome version 0.9 is likely to be realistically low, or perhaps undercovered by the version 0.9 sequenced reads, when compared to the actual genome size (this value is in the order of 2 Gb) of *E. gracilis*. Though 1 Gbp – 9 Gbp have been reported in many scientific literatures (Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017); thus missing key genes. Secondly, the fragmented nature of the genome and the unavailability of long insert size libraries ( $\geq 100$  kb) means that genes spanning fragmented scaffold lengths tend not to be contiguous, with many

scaffolds not containing either of the genetic bases (A, C, T, or G) or containing missing bases represented by Ns. This instance is over half of the genome, meaning that half of the genome is gapped or have unknown base representation and are replaced by gaps (called N's). This long insert reads may be obtained from either sufficient PacBio or Oxford Nanopore sequencing – but this will be very expensive, with the PacBio having a high error rate. Thirdly, the insufficient huge data of short insert sizes (250 bp – 540 bp) means that gapped regions (or regions with unknown bases) cannot be completely filled. Even with huge illumina short reads data, I still expect that this will be highly fragmentary; hence the solution lies with longer reads. Fourth, are the potential issues of repeats and Base J that has also been reported in scholarly articles. While the repeat challenge are evident from the genome assembly (whereby some genes do have multiple repeats) and will require development of novel bioinformatics assembly pipelines to deal with polyploidy in *E. gracilis*, I do not yet have clear evidence yet for the later. However, I sent some DNA samples to Peter Myler at the University of Washington for PacBio sequencing and Base J investigation. He could not find any evidence for problems arising from Base J, partly due to low coverage – but this will be worth investigating extensively. These points need to be factored in the provision of a high quality genome for *E. gracilis* in the future.

### *3.4.3 Significance of findings – adaptations, functions, and applications*

The genomic organization and function of the *E. gracilis* genome was investigated to understand its structure and content. This is useful in understanding the organization of its genes, splicing mechanisms, intron and exon architecture and sizes, genome size, size of intergenic regions, repeat elements, as well as the proportion of GC:AT content. The understanding of this utility play specific roles in understanding how the *E. gracilis* genome structure and content influence biological functions in this model organism. Over the next several paragraphs, I will discuss the significance of the findings in the *E. gracilis* genome with reference to adaptations, functions (biology), and applications.

*Large genome size, repetitive elements, large and unusual introns correlate with increased biological complexity and function:* There are several factors that could affect biological complexity in an organism: Genome size, number of genes, large

introns (in terms of size and numbers), and repetitive/selfish DNA (see Latorre and Silva, 2013, Pray, 2008, Gregory, 2005, for extensive reviews). In prokaryotes (Archae and Bacteria), there is a linear correlation between genome size, biological complexity, number of genes and lifestyle. For instance, bacteria with smaller genomes are specialists, such as obligate parasites and endosymbionts, and bacteria with larger genomes are generalists, and may even have a certain degree of development, such as sporulation in *Bacillus* (Latorre and Silva, 2013). In eukaryotes, there is no linear correlation between genome sizes and biological complexity (known as the C-value paradox) (Latorre and Silva, 2013). For instance, the marbled lungfish, *Protopterus aethiopicus*, has more than 40 times the amount of DNA per cell than humans. One haploid copy of this fish's genome is composed of a whopping 132.8 billion base pairs, while one copy of a human haploid genome has only 3.5 billion base pairs. It is also clear that the biology of the marbled lungfish cannot be more complex than humans, otherwise, humans would have at least as much DNA as the marbled lungfish, although probably much more. Therefore, genome size is clearly not an indicator of the genomic or biological complexity of an organism (Latorre and Silva, 2013). On the contrary, in eukaryotes, number of genes correlates with increased biological complexity (Latorre and Silva, 2013), though contrary opinions had previously been reported (Pray, 2008). For instance, the nematode worm *C. elegans* has 18,000 genes, about 5,000 more than *Drosophila*, a more complex organism. *H. sapiens* has ~2000 genes more than *C. elegans*, with the biology of *H. sapiens* being more complex. In *E. gracilis*, while the large genome size may be attributed to repetitive sequences and hybrid genome phenomenon, there are more than 35,000 predicted genes suggesting that the biology of *E. gracilis* may be more complex than the kinetoplastids and *H. sapiens* with smaller and moderately large genomes respectively, following this assumption or theory. *E. gracilis* may be one of the eukaryotic members to demonstrate the linear relationship between genome size and biological complexity. While I have also reported varying predicted genome sizes in *E. gracilis* (Figure 3.3), mutational mechanisms leading to whole genome duplications (or loss and gain of nucleotides) (Latorre and Silva, 2013) and varying analytical technologies may be attributed to this variance in predicted genome sizes. The size of intergenic/non genic DNA also correlates with the genome sizes. This is because intergenic/non genic DNA are not only accumulated but lost during evolution, since the continuous accumulation would

create a metabolic and structural burden on the organism (Floreano and Mattiussi, 2008). It has also been argued that spontaneous deletion of intergenic regions/non genic DNA (mutational and deletion bias, and recombination phenomenon) may be a major factor to account for different genome sizes (Hartl, 2000, Ometto, *et al.*, 2005) which play roles in several evolutionary adaptations (Floreano and Mattiussi, 2008). This could explain the variations in genome sizes between *E. gracilis* (2 Gbp) and trypanosomatids (e.g. *T. brucei* = 35 Mbp). Similarly, the presence of both the conventional and non conventional introns in *E. gracilis* shows the presence and utility of several regulatory mechanisms within this system. The alternation between high and low gene density regions in the *E. gracilis* genome (Figure 3.4, 3.5, and 3.6) has been suggested to be common in plants with large genomes such as *Glycine max* (1,115 Mb) and *Zea mays* (2,300 Mb) (Pingault, *et al.*, 2015). This predicts a non-random distribution of genes along chromosomes in a complete *E. gracilis* genome, resulting in clusters of genes sharing the same expression profile, the same function or involved in the same metabolic pathway (Lee and Sonnhammer, 2003, Liu and Han, 2009, Ren, *et al.*, 2005, 2007, Williams and Bowles, 2004, Xu, *et al.*, 2008, Zhan, *et al.*, 2006).

*Moderate sequence homology and low database annotation information reaffirms Euglena biological uniqueness:* As previously mentioned, *E. gracilis* genome analysis showed low to moderate protein database (NCBI, InterPro, GO) hits. The fact that some of the proteins have moderate BLAST (66.34 %), low InterPro (8.41) and Gene Ontology hits show that there is a low sequence homology and protein domain annotations representation for *Euglena* on the protein databases. Many of these proteins are classified as hypotheticals, with about 33.66 % not showing sequence similarity. While these sequences do have predicted ORFs/proteins, it remains to be investigated if these are real proteins or artifacts. The orthologous group clustering (Chapter 4) analysis suggest that an estimated 150 orthologous groups are *Euglena*-specific. If this is the case, the predicted ORFs/proteins in the genome data without protein database hits might be some of the *Euglena*-specific proteins. It is fair to anticipate the absence of these *Euglena*-specific proteins considering that there are no comprehensive sequence data for *E. gracilis* on any of the protein databases.

*Nucleotide and protein statistics, introns, exons, and scaffold structure predicts chromosome architecture and function:* Of the several statistical parameters, GC content is one of the most important. GC content has been predicted to affect genome functioning and species ecology (Smarda, *et al.*, 2014), with several hypothesis linking GC content variation with several biological fundamental processes. In prokaryotes, several lines of evidences exists to suggest that GC content variation is governed by genome replication and DNA repair mechanisms (see Wu, *et al.*, 2012 for details). In eukaryotes, and most prokaryotes, the variations in GC content is correlated with genome size, ecological and evolutionary adaptations, and natural selection (gene mutation). They could either play subsidiary roles or rely indirectly on different mutator genes to fine-tune the GC content (Wu, *et al.*, 2012). Very high GC content may mean large genome size, while very low GC content may mean small genome size. The moderate GC content of *E. gracilis* genome (though higher GC content in the transcriptome) may provide explanations for it's large genome size, ecological adaptability and resilience (and survivability through natural selection). In higher plants, such as monocots, GC content has been associated with holocentric chromosomal structure (entire length of the chromosome acts as the centromere) (Smarda, *et al.*, 2014).

*Introns, exons, and transcripts play huge functional benefits in gene expression.* In Table 3.6, transcript arrangement shows an average of 1.06 transcript per gene. One explanation for this is the presence of alternative splicing events in the genome (which is not evident in the transcriptome, see Chapter 4). This is important considering the role of alternative splicing in genetic control, and a crucial step in gene expression (see Chapter 6). Introns are predicted to occupy 56.01 % of the *E. gracilis* genome (Table 3.6). This means that the *E. gracilis* cell will require an extensive amount of energy to splice out these introns during transcription, considering that the density of introns (i.e., the genic regions consuming large amounts of energy for nothing in terms of protein synthesis) is greater than that of exons in genomes. However, introns are of huge utility in eukaryotic organisms where they perform putative functional roles in splicing, mRNA transport, nonsense mediated decay, expression regulation as well as mutational buffers (see Jo, *et al.*, 2015, for details). This means that there is an extensive biological benefit of *E. gracilis* intron:exon ratio that has a huge energy cost, implying that high intron:exon

load results in specific and efficient gene expression and a greater transcriptional complexity (Pingault, *et al.*, 2015). How *E. gracilis* generate this massive amount of energy will be an interesting area of investigation.

*Genome coverage may be an imperfect 'numerator' for E. gracilis genome sequencing:* Genome coverage is one of the factors considered when carrying out a Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) project. As a rule of thumb, it is believed that genome coverages of up to 20X provides strong evidences for the presence of conserved genes (Sims, *et al.*, 2014). However, this is not the case with *E. gracilis* genome where > 200X coverage still lacks core eukaryotic genes (as evident from the CEGMA score and read mapping evidence) – this may be due to other factors such as read length and sequencing platforms, suggesting that genome coverages may be an imperfect singular criteria for genome sequencing. This also means that genome coverage required to capture more than 90 % of genes in an organism may be different across taxa. Other indirect numerators would include a combination of the contig matrix, CEGMA, and read mapping evidence which have proven to present a reasonably precise test for assembly quality, though these are less likely prior to sequencing.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## 4.0 TRANSCRIPTOME ARCHITECTURE, FUNCTION AND EVOLUTION

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the *E. gracilis* transcriptome organization, function and evolution were investigated. The *E. gracilis* transcriptome was sequenced using the Illumina sequencing platform as well as the acquisition of multiple sources from sequence databases and kind donations. The final transcriptome is ~ 90 % complete in terms of Core Eukaryotic Genes. Approximately 90 % of all the transcriptome reads (including 23k ESTs on NCBI) map back to the transcriptome assembly. Part of this chapter was done in collaboration with Steve Kelly at the Department of Plant Sciences, University of Oxford, UK. In this chapter, the focus will be on the transcriptome assembly and automatic structural and functional annotation. The community-based manual functional curation will be discussed in more details in chapter 5.

### 4.2 TRANSCRIPTOME SEQUENCING AND ASSEMBLY

#### 4.2.1 RNA isolation and purification

RNA isolation and purification for K1E (sample name) reads were previously performed by Carrington, *et al.*, in 2012 and sequenced at the Beijing Genomic Institute (BGI), Hong Kong.

#### 4.2.2 Library preparation and Illumina sequence data

For the transcriptome sequence, two paired-ends reads illumina Hiseq 2000 sequencing runs were carried out using two fragment libraries with insert sizes of ~ 125 bp and 189 bp respectively (Table 3.1). Approximately 466 M reads were generated with read lengths of 100 bp (> 3 Gb in total clean bases). In general, the qualities of these reads were satisfactory, showing phred quality values (Q20) ≥ 90 % and moderate GC content between 55 – 60 % (see Table 3.1). To validate the quality of the transcriptome assembly, one Roche/454 GS FLX runs single-end read was acquired, and ~23k EST sequences were obtained from the NCBI database for transcriptome assembly probing and read/sequence mapping or alignment. The

Roche/454 GS FLX dataset consists of 582, 319 reads, and 214 Mbp in total length, with an average read length of 367 bp (data not shown) (the FastQC sequence visualization .html files for all read sequences in Table 3.1 are available on request).

#### 4.2.3 *Transcriptome assembly, assembly improvements and variant detections, and assembly evaluation and assessments*

##### Quality control and actual assembly

To completely assemble the transcriptome, quality trimmed and error corrected reads of the KIE\_I1 illumina and DOHN9ACXX (sample name) illumina read libraries (kind donation by Rob Field) (see Table 3.1) were assembled into final/complete transcriptome (Figure 2.2). The final assembly consisted of a total of 72509 sequences, with a total length and N50 of 63050794 and 1242 respectively (see Table 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 and Chapter 2, sub section 2.4).

##### Assembly evaluation and assessment

More like the genome, the transcriptome assembly workflow employed several QC analysis pipelines for validating assembly completeness, and these include: Transrate statistical metrics, CEGMA statistical metrics, RNA-seq reads and EST sequence mapping evidences. As a gene discovery project, the most important evaluation is the CEGMA statistical metrics since it tells us the proportion of core eukaryotic genes (CEG) present in the respective assemblies. The CEG datasets were aligned to the transcriptome assembly in order to determine the percentage CEG's contained in the assembly. According to Bradnam, *et al.*, 2013, it is assumed that an assembly which is more complete will have a higher percentage of complete and partial CEG alignments than a less complete assembly (see Parra, *et al.*, 2007; and CEGMA metrics below for details).



**Table 4.1:** Comparative transrate statistical description of transcriptome assembly (transcripts)

Metrics	Parameter	<i>E. gracilis</i>	<i>T. brucei</i>	<i>L. major</i>
Contigs/Transcripts	n seqs	72509	12094	9378
	smallest	202	3	54
	largest	25763	66816	52179
	n bases	63050794	22255660	16084351
	mean_len	869.55818	1834.86	1706.75
	n under 200	0	628	878
	n over 1k	19740	8585	5679
	n over 10k	25	66	69
	n with orf	30467	9855	7764
	mean orf percent (%)	78.77	73.47	99.13
	N50	1242	2425	2511
	gc (%)	60.9	48.32	62.44
	bases n	0	1054	2

**Keys:** **n** = numbers; **p** = proportion; **bases\_n** = number of bases that are N or number of bases with gap; Smallest = minimum contig length; Largest = maximum contig length; Mean\_len = mean sequence length; Mean ORF percent (%) = percentage sequences with open reading frame; N50 = proportion of sequences that makes up half the size of the genome; gc (%) = percent proportion of Guanine and Cytosine. Contig metrics are measures based entirely on analysing the set of contigs or the intrinsic statistical characteristics of a contig. Read mapping metrics are based on aligning the reads used in the assembly to the assembled contigs. Comparative metrics involve comparing the assembly to a related reference species. See Smith-Unna, *et al.*, 2015 for detail definition of the vocabularies and statistical parameters in this table. This table contains the most basic parameters; additional statistical parameters are available on request. Keys are as described by Smith-Unna, *et al.*, 2016.

**Table 4.2:** Transcriptome assembly statistics (CDS)

Parameter	CDS	Proteins
Number of sequences	36526	36526
Median sequence length	765	254
Mean sequence length	1041	346
Max. sequence length	25218	8406
Min. sequence length	297	98
No. sequence > 1kbp	13991	1290
No. sequence > 10kbp	24	-
N50	1413	471
Combined sequence length	38030668	-

**Keys:** Sequences refer to either nucleotide or protein sequence. Max. and Min. = Maximum and Minimum respectively; No. sequence > X kbp = number of sequences greater than length X; N50 = proportion of sequences that makes up half the size of the genome.

**Table 4.3:** Statistical description of transcriptome read mapping evidences

Sequencing technology	Read library ID*	Total number of reads aligned	% paired/unpaired	Overall alignment rate (%)
Illumina HiSeq 2000	KIE_I1	13412134	100	88.05
Illumina HiSeq 2000	DOHN9ACXX	9924418	100	92.13
Roche/454	A107065	587000	100	91.45
NCBI ESTs	ESTs	23394	100	91.99

**Keys:** Sequencing technology means platform where sequencing was carried out. Read library ID designates the unique identifier for the sequencing experiment. Total number of aligned reads = number of reads from the corresponding read library that maps to the transcriptome assembly using Bowtie2; % paired/unpaired = proportion of sequences that are either paired or unpaired; Overall alignment rate (%) = proportion of corresponding read libraries that maps to the transcriptome assembly. See Table 3.1 for a description of these read libraries.

## Transrate

The final transcriptome assembly was assessed comparing three standard metrics: the contig metrics, read mapping metrics, and the comparative metrics (Smith-Unna, *et al.*, 2015) commonly used in ascertaining the quality of an assembly (see Table 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 and Chapter 2, sub section 2.4). In general, statistical parameters include: total number of contigs; longest contig length; mean and median contig length; N50 (the median contig size, length weighted); and the summed contig lengths, or the raw size of the draft transcriptome assembly (see Smith Smith-Unna, *et al.*, 2015 for detail definition of these vocabularies and statistical parameters). According to Hornett and Wheat, 2012, the contrasting insights provided by the basic metrics illustrate their limited utility. They argued that metrics based upon contig lengths (e.g. mean, median, N50) do not provide quantitative insights into how much of the target species transcriptome is represented in the de novo transcriptome assembly.

Another metric adopted from Hornett and Wheat, 2012, is the calculation of additional metric to gauge the quality of the transcriptome assembly by taking advantage of the genomic information of reference species such as predicted proteomes. Bradnam, *et al.*, 2013 proposed that an optimal assembly will have near full length contigs similar to that expected from the actual transcriptome of the target species. In this instance, annotated transcripts from *T. brucei* and *L. major* were used as references (see Table 4.1). For the contig metrics, the numbers of sequences are 72509, 12094, and 9378 for *E. gracilis*, *T. brucei*, and *L. major* respectively, the N50 is 1242, 2425, and 2511 for *E. gracilis*, *T. brucei*, and *L. major* respectively (see Table 4.1 for additional details), meaning that 50 % of the assembled sequences are longer than these respective values. For the read mapping metrics, the number of read pairs mapping in a way indicative of good assembly (good mappings), as defined by Smith-Unna, *et al.*, 2015, for *E. gracilis*, *T. brucei*, and *L. major* respectively (data not shown) was satisfactory for *E. gracilis* but not for the Kinetoplastids – hence suggesting possible evolutionary divergence. The GC content of predicted open reading frames (see Materials and Methods) of the final assembly is 60.90 %, which is relatively at par value compared to the coding sequence GC content of *T. brucei* (48.32 %) and *L. major* (62.44 %) transcripts. Why *E. gracilis* and other Excavates maintain a low GC content is still not yet understood.

Generally, it has been shown that coding regions are more GC-rich compared to surrounding genomic regions (Eyre-Walker and Hurst, 2001; Lander, *et al.*, 2001). To estimate the sequencing depth in the assembled transcriptome (see Materials and Methods), all read libraries and ESTs were mapped to the final assembly and assessed. Out of 40780.72 Megabases of inputted reads, 63 Megabases (2.23 %) of these have matching transcriptome assembly sequences (Table 3.1 and Table 4.1), while direct RNA-seq read and EST mapping with Bowtie2 suggests that > 88 % are represented in the assembled transcriptome (Table 4.3).

#### Core Eukaryotic Gene Mapping Approach (CEGMA)

Table 3.2 presents the proportion of CEGs contained in the *E. gracilis* transcriptome assembly (87.90 %), as well as when compared with *T. brucei* (82.66 %) and *L. major* (78.23 %) respectively. Out of these, 75.40 %, 76.61 %, and 53.63 % are complete respectively. Bradnam, *et al.*, 2013, posited that the performance of CEGMA in determining complete or partial genes differ, and could be attributable to several reasons, including fracturing of a given genic region across multiple scaffolds within an assembly, or exons lying in gaps within a single scaffold. They further suggested that it is also possible that for some, highly paralogous genes, CEGMA is detecting a paralog and not the true ortholog - this means that the assemblies likely contain additional core genes that are too fragmented to be detected by the original analysis as proposed for other eukaryotic transcriptomes.

## 4.3 TRANSCRIPTOME STRUCTURAL AND FUNCTIONAL AUTOMATIC ANNOTATION

### 4.3.1 Gene predictions, features, ORF distribution and statistics

Gene prediction was carried out using GMST and TransDecoder. The transcriptome assembly recorded a GC base composition of 60.87 % (38379018) out of the 63 Mbp transcript sequences, with 26.26 % (25096438) coding. ORF distribution and statistics are presented in Table 4.1 and 4.2. The number of transcript with open reading frames and mean ORF percent in the transcriptome assembly is 36526 and 73.38 % respectively. These values are a little and much lower in *T. brucei* and *L. major* 9855 (73.47 %) and 7764 (99.13 %) respectively, implying that *E. gracilis* is likely to have more protein-coding genes than *T. brucei* and *L. major*, and other sister groups. There were 36526 predicted genes with a corresponding 36526 transcripts – 1 transcript per gene. The gene density, average gene length and total gene length are 1.36 per Mbp, 1266 bp, and 46269013 bp respectively. There were 36526 coding sequences with an average length and total length of 1072.08 and 27790548 respectively. ORFs and exons make up 73.38 % and 60.06 % of the transcriptome assembly and genes respectively. There were 5280 and 13013 5'UTR and 3'UTR respectively (Table 4.4). tRNA and rRNA non coding candidate genes were not found.

### 4.3.2 Blast homology search

The assembly was annotated using Blast2GO automatic functional annotation tool (see Materials and Methods). The results of each step of Blast2GO annotation of the transcriptome assembly are summarized in Table 4.4, 4.5, and Figure 4.1, 4.2. All 36,526 predicted proteome (translated transcripts) of the final assembly were interrogated against the NCBI non-redundant protein database (nr) using BLASTP. 82.22 % (30033) of all translated transcripts (Table 4.4 and 4.5) showed similarity to at least one protein in the nr database (Figure 4.1), with an evaluate cutoff of 10. A reduction in the number of genes predicted in the transcriptome is anticipated; this is taking into account the < 2 % of the genome size which is coding as well as the ~ 25 % of the total genes that are single copies. I anticipate that the production of a complete *E gracilis* genome will reveal the actual number of genes present in this

species. Top taxa distribution or best BLAST hit was also populated. The top or highest proportion of best BLAST hit include: *Bodo saltans*, *Guillardia theta*, *Naegleria gruberi*, *Chrysochromulina spp.*, and *Euglena gracilis*, suggesting a high level of relatedness to other sister groups or other photosynthetic groups (Table 4.5).

**Table 4.4:** Statistics of transcriptome structural annotation

Molecule	Feature	<i>E. gracilis</i>	
		Counts	%
	<b>Nucleotide stats</b>		
	Transcriptome assembly		
DNA/RNA	- Length	63050794	-
	- Base composition (GC)*		
	Overall	38379018	60.87
	Coding	25096438	26.26
	Non coding	13282580	34.61
	Genes		
	- Number of genes	36526	
	- Gene density (genes per Mb)	1.36	
	- Total gene length*	46269013	73.38
	- Average gene length (bp)	1266	
	- Number of transcripts	36526	
	- Transcripts per gene	1.00	
	Transcripts (based on ORF)		
	- Average Length	1266.74	-
	- Total Length	46269013	-
	- Average Coding Length	1072.08	-
	- Average exons per transcript	3.82	
	- Total Coding Length <sup>†</sup>	39158820	77.75
	Exons		
	- Number of exons	36526	-
	- Total length (bp) <sup>†</sup>	27790548	60.06
	- Average exon per transcript	1	-
	- Average size/length (bp)	1181.32	-
	UTRs		
	- Number of 5' UTR	5280	
	- Number of 3' UTR	13013	-
	- Total length (bp) <sup>†</sup>	4721467	10.20
	- Average size/length (bp)	229	-
	tRNAs		
	- Total tRNAs	0	0
	- tRNAs with introns	0	
rRNAs			
- Total rRNAs (8s_rRNA)	0	0	

**Summary gene statistics of *E. gracilis* transcriptome assembly (nt). Keys:** nt = nucleotides; \*In percentage of actual assembly size; <sup>†</sup>In percentage of total gene or transcript size; ORF = Open Reading Frame; UTR = UnTranslated Region.

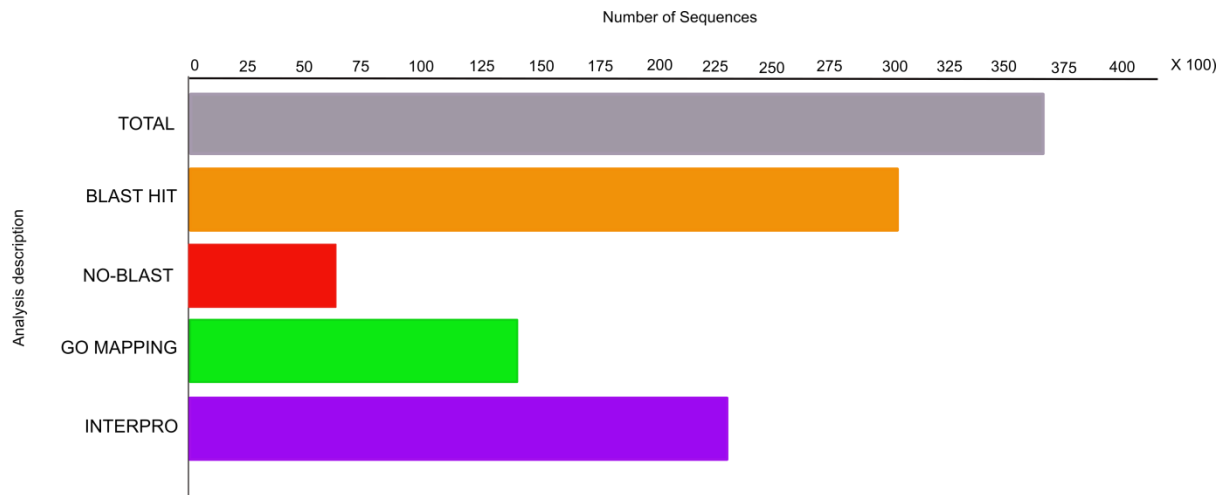
**Table 4.5:** Statistics of transcriptome functional annotation

Molecule	Feature	<i>E. gracilis</i>	
		Counts	%
Proteome	<b>Protein stats</b>		-
	Total proteins	36526	-
	Average length	346	-
	Total length	12655111	-
	<b>BLAST</b>		
	<b>With BLAST hits*</b>	30033	82.22
	Top 5 species distribution <sup>†</sup>		
	* <i>Bodo saltans</i>	1220	4.06
	* <i>Guillardia theta</i>	591	1.97
	* <i>Naegleria gruberi</i>	574	1.91
	* <i>Chrysochromulina sp.</i>	564	1.88
	* <i>Euglena gracilis</i>	471	1.57
	<b>InterProScan</b>		
	With INTERPRO DOMAIN*	23866	65.34
	With atleast one TM domain <sup>†</sup>	6442	26.98
	With putative signal peptides <sup>†</sup>	2551	6.98
	<b>Functional Classification</b>		
	<b>Total annotated sequences based on GOs Mapping</b>	14112	38.64
	- Biological processes	40 BP	-
	- Molecular functions	12 MF	-
	- Cellular components	22 CC	-
	Kegg maps		
	- Pathways	89	-

**Summary comparative statistics of *E. gracilis* transcriptome assembly (aa).**

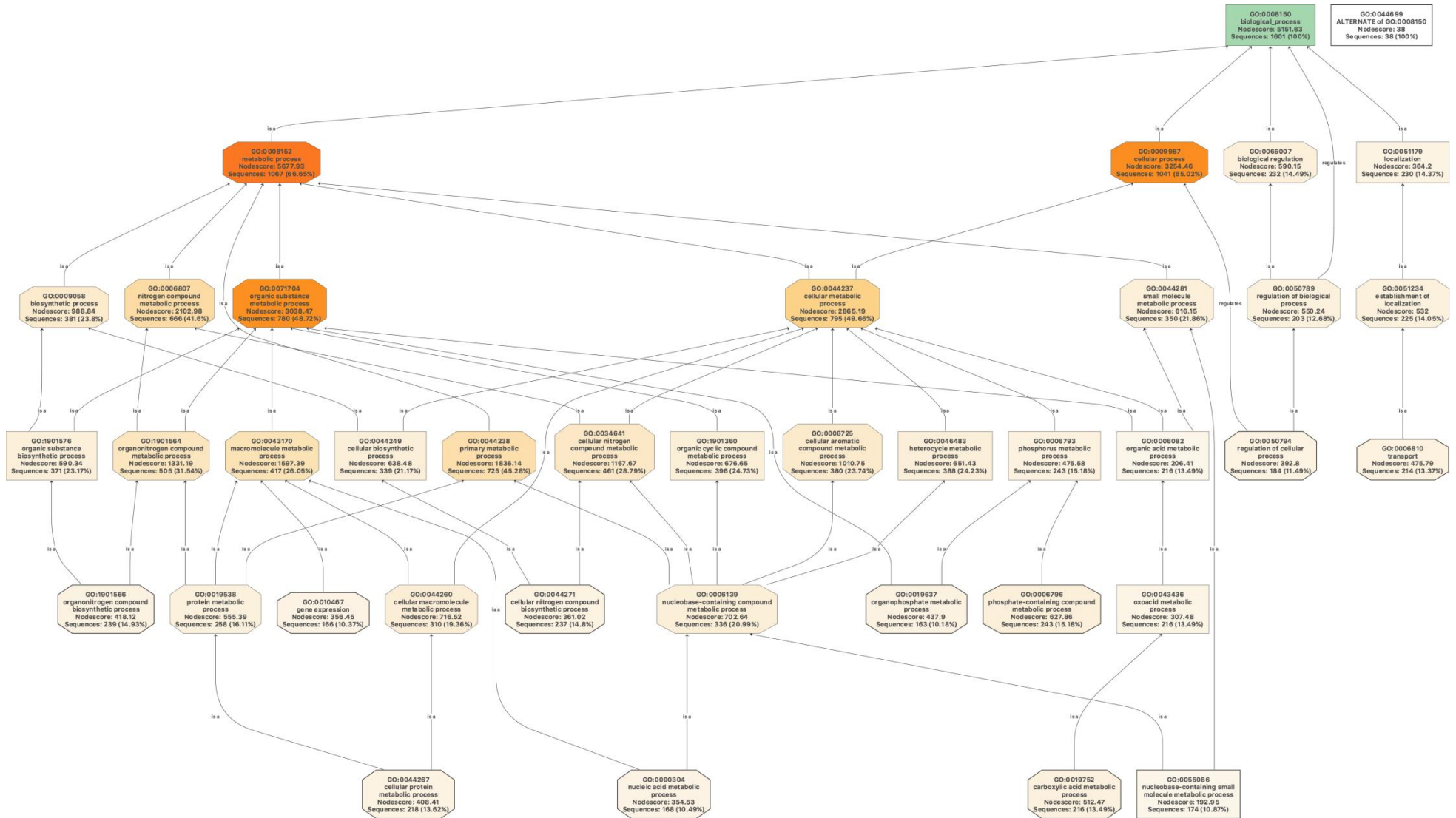
Key: aa = amino acid; \*percentages are with respect to total protein sequences. <sup>†</sup>percentages are with respect to total BLAST hits, total INTERPRO hits, or total annotated sequences. TBD = to be determined. BP = Biological Processes, MF = Molecular Function, CC = Cellular Component.



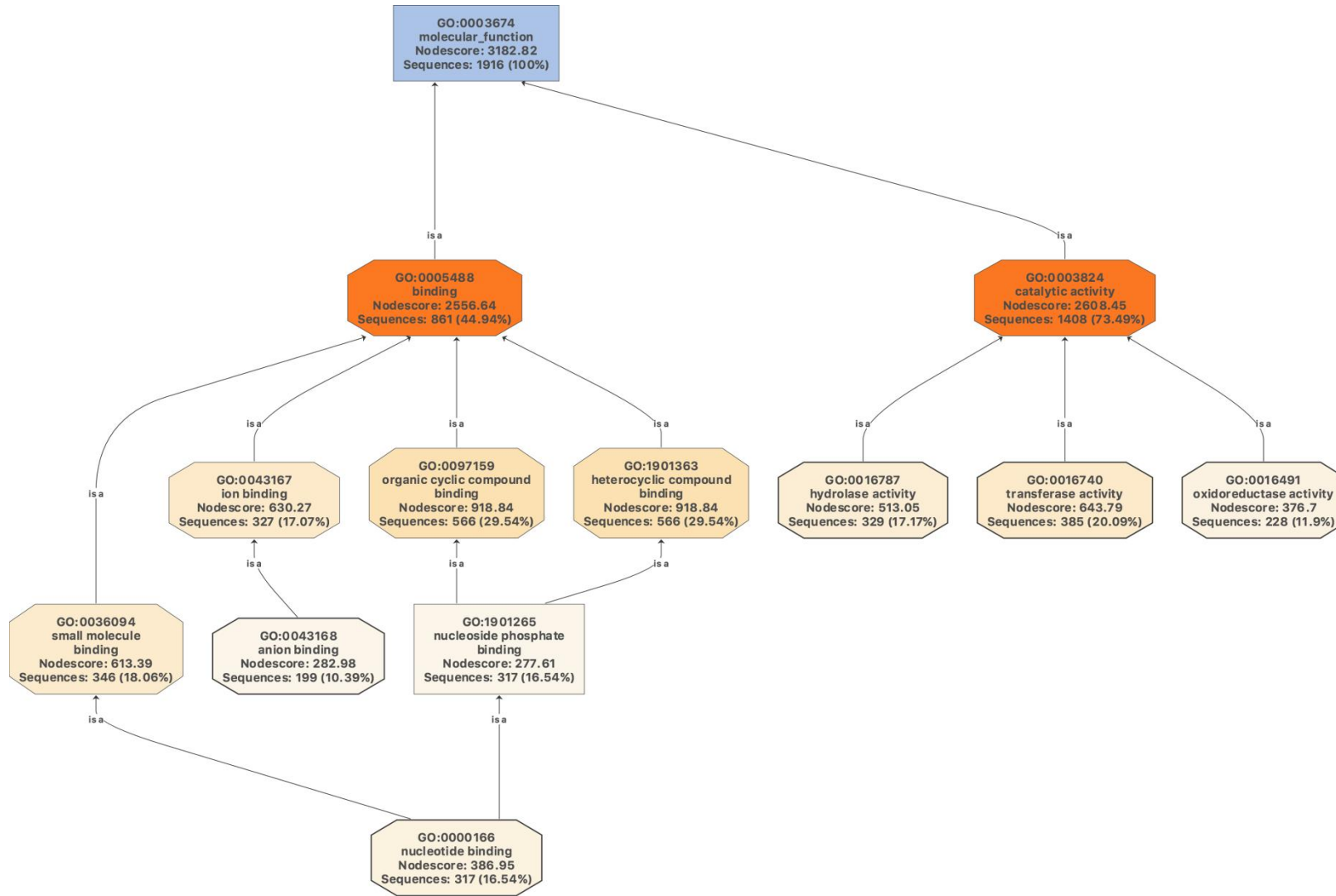


**Figure 4.1: The *E. gracilis* predicted proteome (transcriptome) is characteristic of high sequence homology.** Data Distribution of functional transcriptome annotation. TOTAL (gray) = total number of protein sequences for analysis; BLAST HIT (orange) = proportion of protein sequences with BLAST hits against the NCBI NR database; NO-BLAST HIT (red) = proportion of sequences without a BLAST hit against the NCBI NR database; GO MAPPING (green) = proportion of BLASTed sequences with Gene Ontology (GO) mapping; INTERPRO (purple) = proportion of protein sequences with InterProScan hits.

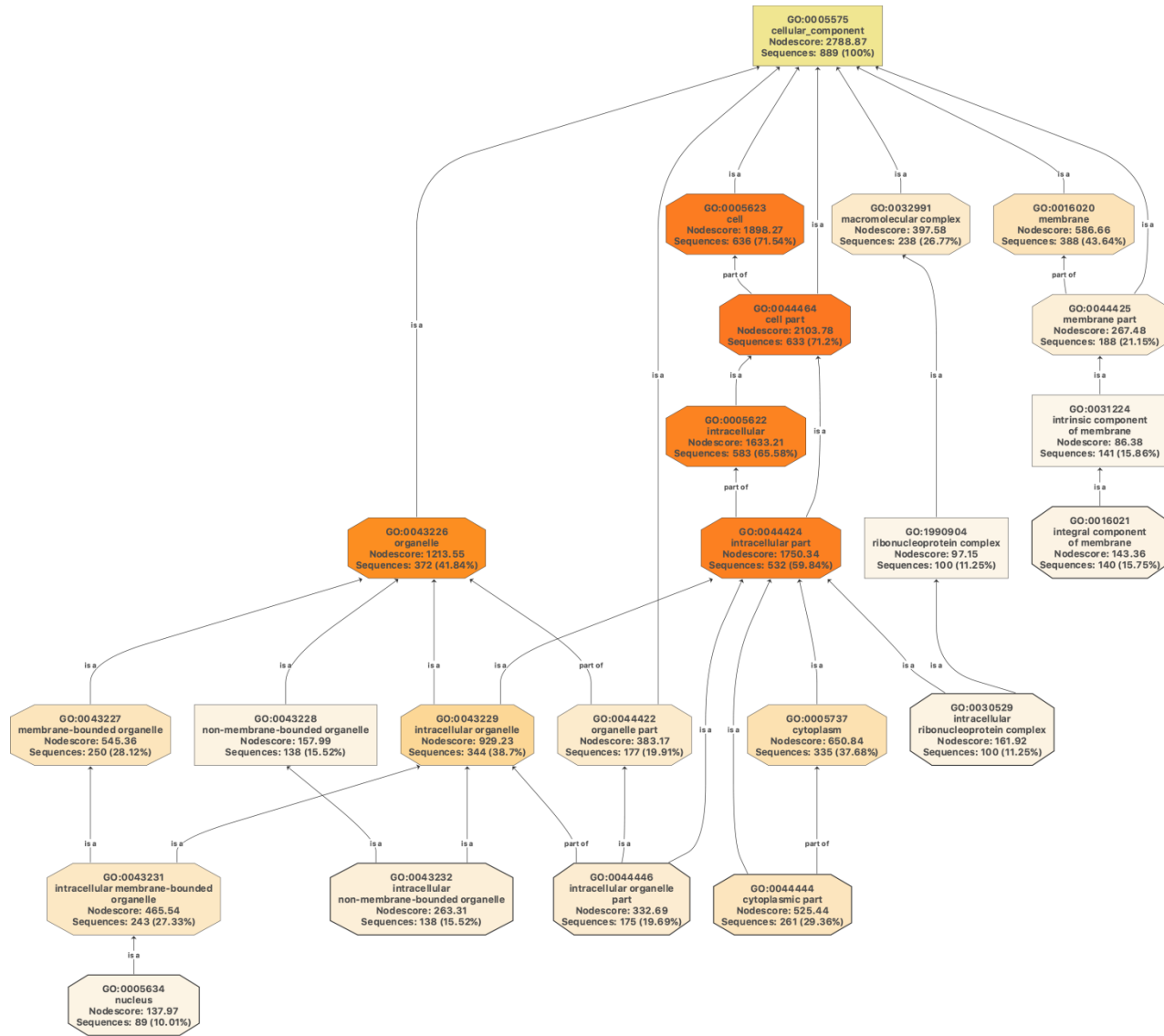
# A: Biological process



## B: Molecular function



## C: Cellular component



**Figure 4.2: *E. gracilis* Gene Ontology (GO) classifications are distributed across conserved eukaryotic functional categories.** The chart describes the functional categorization of *E. gracilis* gene ontology. Panel A: Biological Processes (BP) showing the weighted GO number, nodescore, number of sequences, associated hierarchy, and respective biological process. Panel B: Molecular Functions (MF) showing the weighted GO number, nodescore, number of sequences, associated hierarchy, and respective molecular function. Panel C: Cellular Components (CC) showing the weighted GO number, nodescore, number of sequences, associated hierarchy, and respective cellular component. Colour codes are indicative of the positional hierarchies. Green (BP), Blue (MF), and Yellow (CC) represent top level or higher hierarchy. Orange (BP, MF, CC) represent middle level hierarchies. Light and dark brown (BP, MF, CC) represent lower level hierarchies.

### 4.3.3 InterProScan and Gene Ontology

The mapping (NCBI NR BLAST) and InterPro analysis of Blast2GO identified 14112 (38.64) sequences with GO terms (Figure 4.1, 4.2 and Table 4.5). The proteins were assigned terms with specific GO term weighted average per protein (Figure 4.2 and Table 4.5). Significant amounts of mapping data (sequences with mapping information) were derived from multiple databases (Figure 4.1). A query with InterProScan increased the number of annotated proteins by ~ 20 % (data not shown). Characterization of cellular components, molecular functions, and biological processes revealed the presence of 40 biological process (BP), 12 molecular functions (MF), and 22 cellular components (CC) (see Figure 4.2 and Table 4.5). Out of the 14112 sequences with InterProScan hits, 6442 (26.98 %) had transmembrane domain while 2551 (6.98 %) had signal peptides. This suggests that ~ 27 % of the predicted proteins are membrane or organelle associated. The reasons for low frequency of signal peptides are unclear. However, since signal peptides are present at the N-terminus of proteins destined towards the secretory pathways (Blobel and Dobberstein, 1975), two factors could explain this low frequency: 1) This may be due to truncation (at the N-terminus) of the potential signal peptides sequences in the transcriptome assembly, thereby reducing the signal peptide candidacy of a sequence. 2) Signal peptides function to prompt cells to translocate synthesized proteins to cell membranes. In eukaryotes, signal peptides directs newly synthesized proteins to sec61 channel (translocons) in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) in a process known as translocation. So, it may mean that there is no active translocation activity, no active protein secretion, or perhaps, less protein secretion going on within this system. If this is the case, then this may suggest evidence of the utility of unconventional secretion mechanism (Interleukin, Galectin) in *E. gracilis* in a process known as unconventional protein secretion (UPS) (Nickel and Seedorf, 2008, Agrawal, *et al.*, 2010).

### 4.3.4 Enzyme Code ad Kegg map

To delineate information on the possible biological pathways, and to populate these pathways and their involvement in biological processes and functions, the KEGG database (through BLAST2GO) was searched without restriction to prior knowledge of biological pathways specific to *E. gracilis*. About 89 pathway components were

found in the *E. gracilis* transcriptome. This is similar but substantially lower when compared to the pathways found in the kinetoplastid genomes (Berriman, *et al.*, 2005, Ivens, *et al.*, 2005, El-Sayed, *et al.*, 2005), and distribution across metabolism and transport, carbohydrate metabolism, electron transport and oxidative phosphorylation, glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchor biosynthesis, amino acid metabolism, amongst others. A comparison of metabolic pathways encoded by the genomes of *T. brucei*, *T. cruzi*, and *Leishmania major* reveals the least overall metabolic capability in *T. brucei* and the greatest in *L. major* (Berriman, *et al.*, 2005).

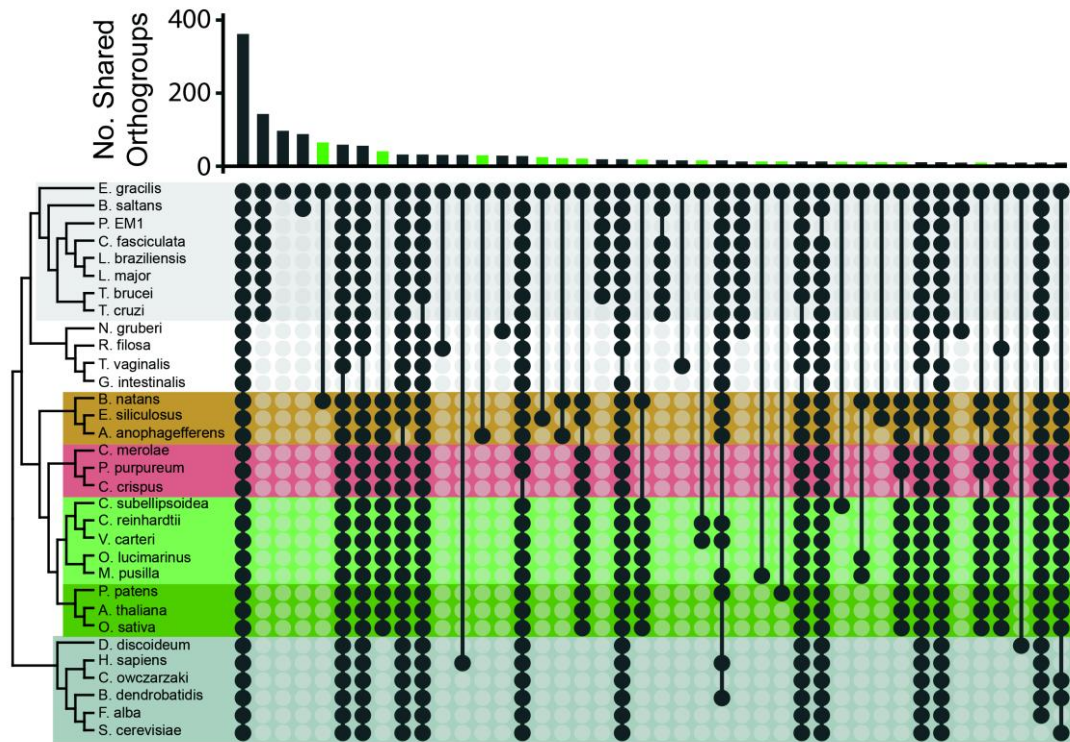
#### 4.3.5 Orthologous groups clustering and evolution

Orthologous groups clustering was carried out as previously described in Chapter 2. The distribution of the *E. gracilis* orthogroups across selected eukaryotes suggest the hybrid and pan eukaryotic nature of the Euglena genome. The conserved nature of the eukaryotic core genes is consistent with other members of the eukaryotes. While there are conserved eukaryotic genes as well as genes shared with select eukaryotic taxa, there are also genes unique to *E. gracilis*. It is not yet clear the functions of these genes in Euglena – partly due to insufficient Euglena information on the protein databases. A third cohort represents nuclear transfer of endosymbiotic genes as a result of acquisition of the plastid or mitochondrion (see Figure 4.3 for genes shared specifically with plants/algae). Significantly, I was able to confirm earlier work by Ahmadinejad, *et al.*, 2007, and Maruyama, *et al.*, 2011, that suggests a complex acquisition in terms of gene complement, with contributions from green, red and brown plastids as shown in Figure 4.3.

More than 20 different versions of endosymbiotic theory have been presented in literatures to explain the origin of eukaryotes and their mitochondria (Martin, *et al.*, 2015). Given the complex history of the secondary endosymbiotic event leading to the current configuration in *E. gracilis* (Ahmadinejad, *et al.*, 2007) it is not yet clear which of these surveys of the endosymbiotic theories for the origin of eukaryotes and mitochondria, plastid, and for the origin of eukaryotic nucleus (Martin, *et al.*, 2015) *E. gracilis* subscribes to? To understand the origin of these complexities in *E. gracilis*, whether these were all present in the endosymbiont, or have been picked up over multiple events, will require the incorporation of lateral gene transfer among prokaryotes, endosymbiosis and gene transfer from the organelles to the nucleus

(Martin, *et al.*, 2015). However, individual genes have individual and multiple origins meaning that this may be challenging, thus, there is need to integrate all individual gene trees taking the evolutionary affinities of the plastid (a cyanobacterium), the mitochondrion (a proteobacterium) and the host (an archaeon) into account (Martin, *et al.*, 2015). This is particularly important since genome evolution by endosymbiotic gene transfer is a non tree-like process (Ahmadinejad, *et al.*, 2007).





**Figure 4.3: *E. gracilis* possesses genes shared across several eukaryotic taxa.** The diagram depicts the Orthogroup clusters in *E. gracilis*. Orthogroups shared between *E. gracilis* and additional taxa are shown, together with numerical group descriptors for comparison to data. The top diagram (histogram) shows the proportion of shared orthogroups while the bottom diagram (phylogenetic tree and dot plot) shows the presence or absence of these orthogroups in respective eukaryotic taxa. X-axis = proportion of shared orthogroups, y-axis = orthogroup type. Gray = Kinetoplastids. White = Other members of the Excavates. Brown = secondary host. Pink = red algae. Light green = green algae. Darker green = land plants. Light blue = Unikonts. Black circle and connecting lines = presence of corresponding orthogroup. Gray circle without connecting lines = absence of corresponding orthogroup.

#### 4.3.6 The Model Organism Database (MOD), EuglenaDB

To make these information available to the community, I set up the Model Organism Database (MOD), EuglenaDB (Ebenezer, *et al.*, unpublished data; <http://euglenadb.org/>), which is a web resource for the genome, and transcriptome of *E. gracilis*. Employing the methods as previously described by Hillier, *et al.*, 2005, EuglenaDB was set up, or developed, as part of the *E. gracilis* genome project to integrate the genome and transcriptome assembled sequence with manually expert curated biological information by providing public access to the data. The database is BLASTable, downloadable, and currently contains information about the genome and transcriptome of *E. gracilis*. However, it is expected that a wide range of information will be contained within the Euglena database as the complete *E. gracilis* genome sequence becomes available (which may eventually be donated to Eukaryotic Pathogen (EuPath) for further curation after publishing the genome paper). Presently, EuglenaDB acts as the repository for all preliminary structural genome and transcriptome annotation for *E. gracilis*, and provides a platform to reconcile automatic annotations with community manual curation. EuglenaDB supports four different methods of user access through its graphical web interface, which are also access restricted, and these methods are as previously applied in similar community directed genome projects (Hillier, *et al.*, 2005). Currently, EuglenaDB contains 2066288 DNA Sequences, 36,526 Proteins, *E. gracilis* genome raw assembled sequences, and final transcriptome assembled sequences as BLASTable resource, as well as predicted proteins (amino acids), the General Feature Files (GFF) delineating coordinates and corresponding coding sequences.

#### 4.4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

##### 4.4.1 RNA isolation, sequence data quality, assembly evaluation and assessment

The *E. gracilis* transcriptome was sequenced with multiple illumina libraries, and an assembly of the data into a final/complete assembly. The sequenced data is of good quality. The assembly improvement and evaluation for the transcriptome is ~ 90 % complete in terms of the presence of core eukaryotic genes. When compared to *T. brucei* and *L. major* curated transcripts, the *E. gracilis* transcriptome appears to be at par. The GC content of *E. gracilis* transcriptome is 60.90 % respectively, which is also at par with the GC content of *T. brucei* and *L. major* which are 48.32 % and

62.44 % respectively. This suggests that most Excavates are likely to have an average GC content of ~ 55 %. In terms of the contig metrics assessment, *T. brucei* and *L. major* had larger N50, and > 36 % of their transcripts coding for proteins (data not shown).

#### 4.4.2 Structural and functional transcriptome annotation

##### In silico analysis

Among euglenoids, many studies have focused on the genus *Euglena*, but none of them involved large-scale genomic and transcriptomic sequencing (Jonathan and Badger, 2013). The insufficient genomic and transcriptomic data for this unique organism, might explain why a moderate proportion (20 - 25 %) of the total sequences had no matches to proteins in the database, BLAST and InterProScan respectively. This might define an extensive catalogue of novel or putative protein-coding genes in *E. gracilis*. According to Jonathan and Badger, 2013, many genes are known to encode poorly conserved and short polypeptides, with no significant BLAST hits on the database, and this is likely the case with the present data. Many genes without a BLAST hit tend to also have InterProScan domains (and vice versa), but with no GO terms. It is likely that these are all novel genes that are not yet available on these databases, since there are ~ 39k GO terms.

#### 4.4.3 Significance of findings – adaptations, functions and applications

In order to validate the quality and utility of the genome, a transcriptome assembly was produced simultaneously alongside the genome assembly. Since the transcriptome contains information for expressed transcript, it provides a great deal of information for validating the assembly – not just in terms of expressed transcripts, but in terms of structure and content – complementary to the genome data. It also provides an indication into genome organization and function and overall biology drawing from transcriptome structure and function which are discussed below.

*Transcriptome sizes correlates with genome sizes:* A positive correlation exists between whole transcriptome size and whole genome size. This means that transcriptome sizes, contents and structures are indicative of genome architectures

(taking expression/transcripts profiling into account). So, in future genome projects (intra- and inter- species), it will be relevant to carry out an initial transcriptome studies in order to understand the magnitude, depth, and forecast of genome architectures. This is useful to reduce time and cost. For instance, while the estimated genome size for *E. gracilis* is 2 Gbp, the genome size for *T. brucei* is approximately 35 Mbp - this is 57 times less than the *E. gracilis* genome. In the present genome studies, the transcriptome size is larger than the transcriptome size of other members of the Kinetoplastids (Table 4.1), being more than twice the size of *T. brucei* transcripts. This further provides insights into the chromosome architecture of *E. gracilis* in comparison to kinetoplastids, suggesting that majority of the *E. gracilis* genome are either repetitive or contains more introns/intergenic regions than expressed genes. Increase in transcriptome size or output may also be correlated with the capacity to deal with inherently complex biological processes. This suggests that the *E. gracilis* transcriptome data (in the present studies) may be mined for future comparative study, and as an annotation tool for a complete *E. gracilis* whole genome sequencing project (Jensen, *et al.*, 2015).

*Mean sequence length is not a direct function of transcriptome size:* Comparatively, across species, the *E. gracilis* mean sequence length is much shorter than those of other members of the kinetoplastids (Table 4.3 and 4.4). Since the size of *E. gracilis* transcriptome is larger than the other members of the kinetoplastids (Table 4.3 and 4.4), I anticipate that the mean transcript/gene length will be larger (Hou and Lin, 2009) - however, this is not the case. Two possible explanations may be available for this: Truncations arising from assembly processes or non transcript length bias inherent in RNA-seq data (Oshlack and Wakefield, 2009). To provide evidence for truncations, about a third of the transcriptome sequences are missing an N-terminal, C-terminal, or both. Similarly, a recent study showed that a technical feature of using high-throughput sequencing to interrogate full length transcripts is that longer transcripts produce more reads relative to short transcripts of similar expression (Oshlack and Wakefield, 2009). This higher sampling means that there is more statistical power to detect differential expression for long transcripts compared to short ones. Since the later may now be ruled out, it is evident that the short mean transcript length compared with kinetoplastids may be due to truncations and may not suggest any biological function.

*Nucleotide and protein statistics are pointers to gene functions and evolutionary characteristics:* Nucleotide and protein statistics such as GC content, gene density, average gene length and protein length play significant role in delineating biological functions in eukaryotes and prokaryotes. For instance, GC content is correlated with various genomic features, including repeat element distribution, methylation pattern, and, most remarkably, gene density (Galtier, *et al.*, 2001). GC-rich regions include many genes with short introns while GC-poor regions are essentially deserts of genes (Galtier, *et al.*, 2001). In higher eukaryotes, such as mammals, the distribution of GC content could have some protein-coding functional relevance, raising the issue of origin and evolution (Galtier, *et al.*, 2001). In Bacteria and Archaea, several environmental factors (e.g. oxygen, nitrogen) and mutational bias (GC-biased gene conversion) potentially affecting genomic GC-content have been proposed (Lassalle, *et al.*, 2015). For instance, it has been proposed that GC content plays an adaptive role to temperatures. *E. gracilis* possesses an overall GC content of 60.87 % (Table 4.4), suggesting a strong coding potential for the transcriptome and one of the explanations for its adaption to extreme conditions. Similarly, comparative mean ORF and GC percentage may be an evolutionary characteristics within the Euglenozoa. For instance, similar mean ORF and GC percentage (Table 4.1 and 4.4) exists among *E. gracilis*, *T. brucei* and *L. major*. This is similar to the evidence in virtually all bacteria where two independent analyses have shown that, independently of their genomic GC-content, there is an excess of G/C→A/T mutations (Lassalle, *et al.*, 2015).

*Top species BLAST hits moderately correlate with orthologous groups clustering analysis:* In the orthologous groups clustering analysis (see Chapter 5 and Appendix I-a), the highest number of shared orthogroups are conserved across eukaryotes, the second largest are shared with the Kinetoplastids while the third largest are shared with *Bodo saltans*. In the top species distribution (Table 4.5), *B. saltans* shows the highest distribution, and twice the value recorded for the next top hits (*Guillardia theta*, *Naegleria gruberi*, *Chrysochromulina sp.*, and *Euglena gracilis*). In *E. gracilis* and *B. saltans*, these orthology and homology may suggest some evolutionary relationship in the genes playing some specific roles in adaptive responses to freelifing lifestyles.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## 5.0 COMMUNITY-BASED TRANSCRIPTOME ANNOTATION

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the community-based annotation of the *E. gracilis* transcriptome taking into account the various aspects of its biology such as cellular processes and signaling, information storage and processing, metabolism, and evolution (see paragraphs below). The community-based annotation was carried out in collaboration with 13 researchers. The researchers and their respective analysis are listed therein: ThankGod Ebenezer (meiosis, protein trafficking, bilobes, nuclear cohorts, tubulins, transporters, histones, rhodopsin, translational apparatus, pre-initiation complex, kinetochores, ribosome, mRNA metabolism, exosomes, spliceosomes and related proteins, TAC/CAP proteins, RNAi pathway, GalF, PPG, heterochromatin, and orthologous groups clustering), Andrew Jackson (surfaceome), Vladimir Hampl (plastid proteome), Julius Lukes (mitochondrial genes), Sam Obado and Carlos Santana and Mark Field (nuclear cohorts), Michael Lebert (signal transduction), Mukund Thattai (dynamins), Ellis O'Neil (glycosylation machinery, carbohydrate active enzymes), Michael Ginger (glycosomes, metabolic control), Steve Kelly and Carlos Santana (orthologous groups clustering), Joel Dacks (protein trafficking), Steve Kelly (Horizontal Gene Transfer) and Sue Vaughan (heterochromatin electron microscopy). The biological aspects that I specifically investigated in this work were performed under the supervision of Prof. Mark Field and Professor Mark Carrington (see above). The other biological aspects listed above which I did not specifically investigate were coordinated by me with supervision from Prof. Mark Field. In this Chapter, I will discuss the community based annotation that I carried out (or contributed directly in the analysis) with supervision from Prof. Mark Field and Prof. Mark Carrington, and except where otherwise stated, standard analytical approach involved the generation of an eukaryotic reference set, homology and orthology searches using BLAST and OrthoFinder, and quality functional delineation and control using protein and/or conserved domain databases such as InterPro, CDD, and Uniprot. I have also dedicated a sub section (see sub section 5.6) where I will discuss briefly the analysis

I only coordinated but was not involved in the direct analysis or investigation. For access to sequence data files, visit: <http://euglenadb.org/> using the following log-in details - Username: guest; Password: frid@y80. For an extensive discussion of these analysis (including additional statistical parameters employed), see the pre-print version of the paper, Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2018, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/228015> and Appendix-Ia).

## 5.2 CELLULAR PROCESSES AND SIGNALING

All eukaryotic organisms contain a nucleus from whence most cellular processes are directed. These cellular processes are essential as well as form fundamental system that involves multiple biochemical reactions and signaling pathways, and include, protein trafficking, meiosis, bilobes, nuclear cohorts, tubulins, transporters, histones, and calmodulins and rhodopsins. In this section, and over the next paragraphs, these cellular processes and signaling pathways in *E. gracilis* will be discussed.

### 5.2.1 Protein trafficking

Proteins associated with the endomembrane systems were investigated to understand the function of the organelles (e.g. Golgi apparatus, endoplasmic reticulum, etc), compartmentalization and transport/trafficking system in *E. gracilis*. More importantly, it provides specific insight into the nuclear envelope with demonstrated understanding in the nuclear matrix. To delineate the role of the Ras superfamily, Adaptor complexes, Coatomer complexes, TSETS, TSPOON, SNARE, and SNAP superfamilies in protein trafficking in my model organism, the *E. gracilis* transcriptome was analyzed using homology, orthology-based searches and phylogenetic inference (Dacks and Field, 2007, Emms and Kelly, 2015; see Chapter 2) to achieve this purpose. A combined BLAST homology search and InterPro domain/Conserved Domain scan was performed to preliminarily identify the homologs in the transcriptome assembly. Protein families investigated include those as highlighted in section 5.1 above, and similar methodology and result analysis output exists for these protein families. With respect to the trafficking proteins, specific orthologs were not able to be identified in some cases.

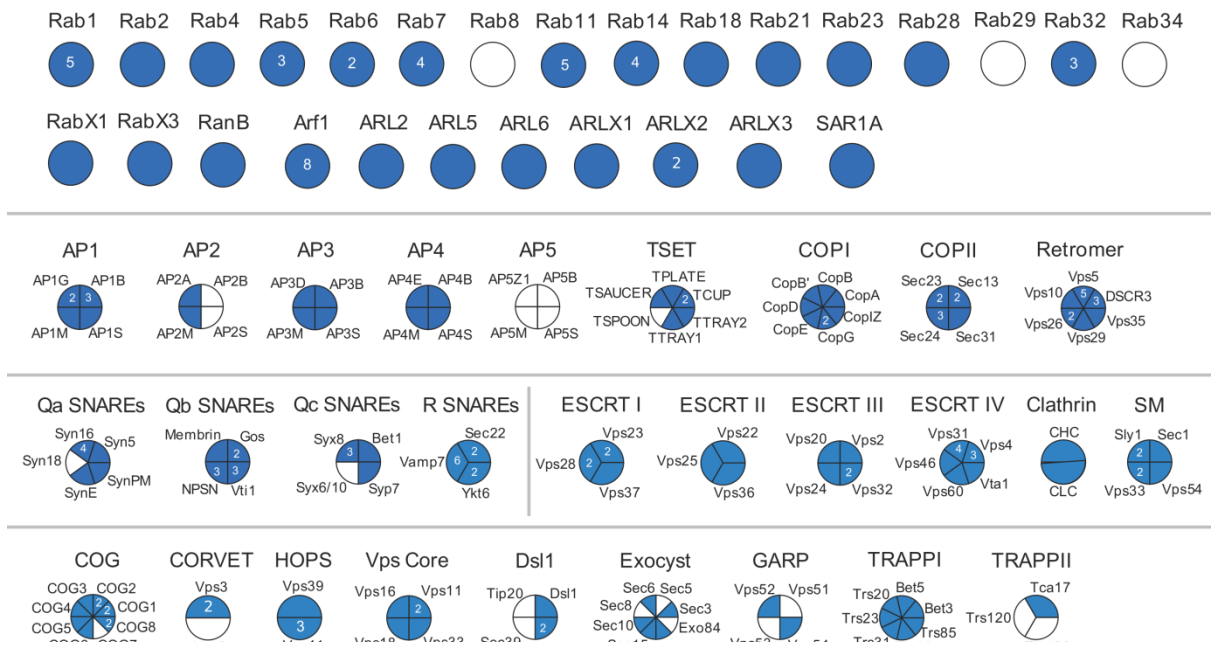
An eukaryotic reference dataset of manually curated protein trafficking genes (e.g. small GTPases, adaptor complexes and coats; Elias, *et al.*, 2012; Rojas, *et al.*, 2012,

Abbasi, *et al.*, 2011, Manna, *et al.*, 2013), Perez, *et al.*, 2014 were assembled and used to interrogate the transcriptome assembly with functional phylogenetic inference carried out using maximum likelihood (PhyML, RaxML, FastTree) and posterior probability approaches (MrBayes), as previously reported. Query taxa distribution was widely spread across selected eukaryotic kingdoms (*T. brucei*, *L. major*, *T. cruzi*, *N. gruberi*, *H. sapiens*, *D. melanogaster*, and *S. cerevisiae*), except for the Rab small GTPases where a narrow distribution specific to the trypanosomatids (*T. brucei* and *T. cruzi*) was utilized since these reference sets have experimentally been tested (Figure 5.1, Table 5.1; Elias, *et al.*, 2012) as well as being closely related to *E. gracilis*. *E. gracilis* possesses a near complete set of membrane trafficking machinery as that of the query organisms, but there are instances where an entire complex is missing such as in APs, TSET, and COG (Figure 5.1, Table 5.1). This may represent lineage-specific losses, or failure of our methods to detect the protein sequence due to divergence in sequence or length of sequence.

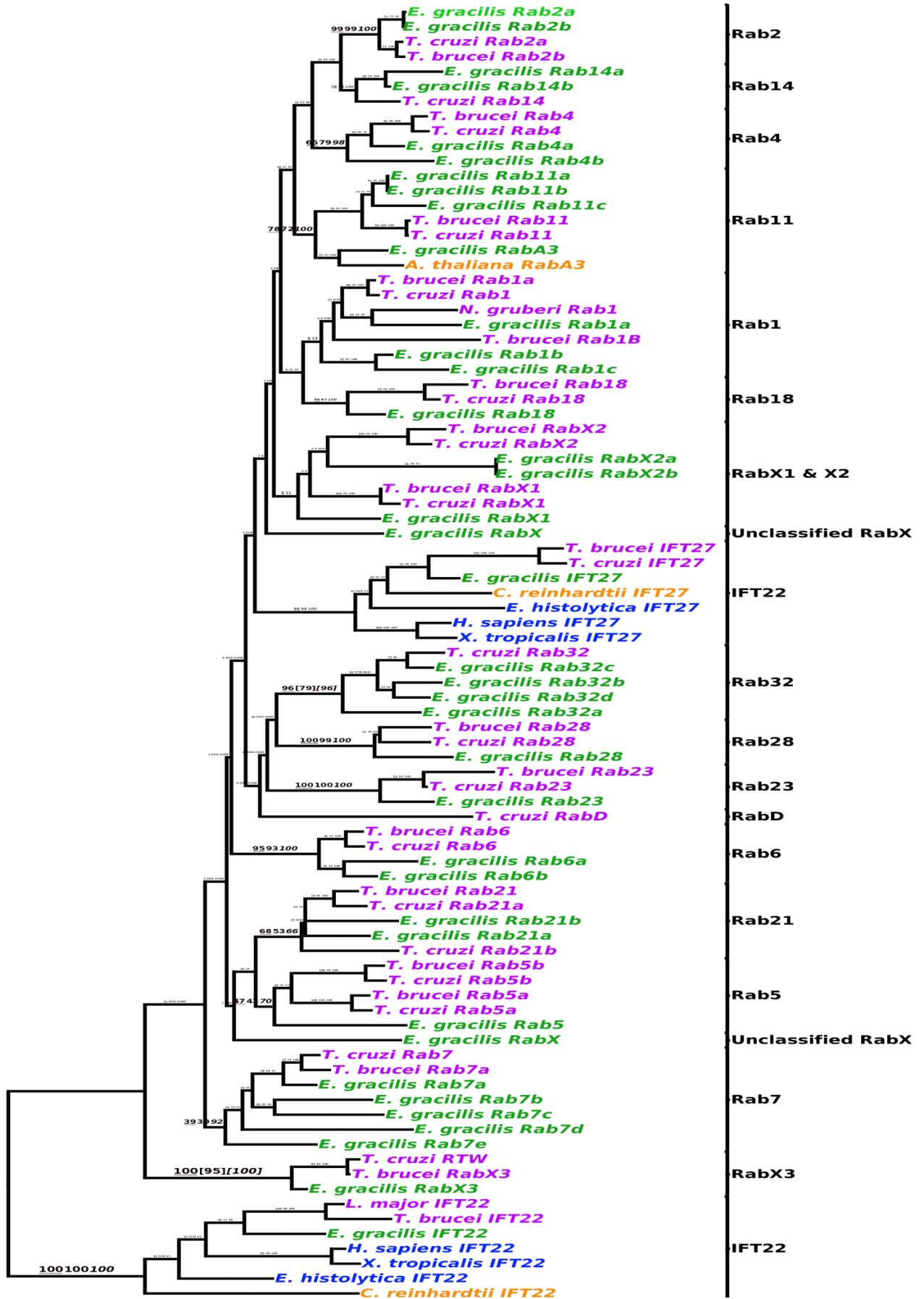
Phylogenetic inference show statistical supports ranging from moderate to strong values (Figure 5.2 – 5.6). Analyses of the small GTPases provided some resolutions into 16 Rab subfamilies which are also present in trypanosomatids. The Rab subfamilies in *E. gracilis* constructed possesses Rabs 1, 2, 18, 14, 4, 11, 5, 21, 23, 6, 32, 28, 7, X1, X2, and X3 (Figure 5.1, 5.2). This is between 48 - 58 % (19 – 23) of the minimum distinct Rab and Rab-related proteins proposed by Elias, *et al.*, 2012 to be represented in the Last Eukaryotic Common Ancestor (LECA). Rab 11 and 32 which are conserved across all eukaryotes were also found in the *E. gracilis* transcriptome (Figure 5.1, 5.2). Two unclassified Rabs were found in *E. gracilis* which are not present in trypanosomatids (Figure 5.1, 5.2). Interrogation of these two Rab sequences against a database of Rabs (Rabifier) and NCBI nr database suggested that it is a different kind of Rab X. Rab clade was defined as containing sequences from at least one or two supergroups (Bright, *et al.*, 2010; Pereira-Leal, 2008; Pereira-Leal and Seabra, 2001), supported by at least an average of 0.50 posterior probabilities (PP) and/or 50 % bootstrap (BP) support by the Maximum Likelihood method, and possessing a GTP binding domain.



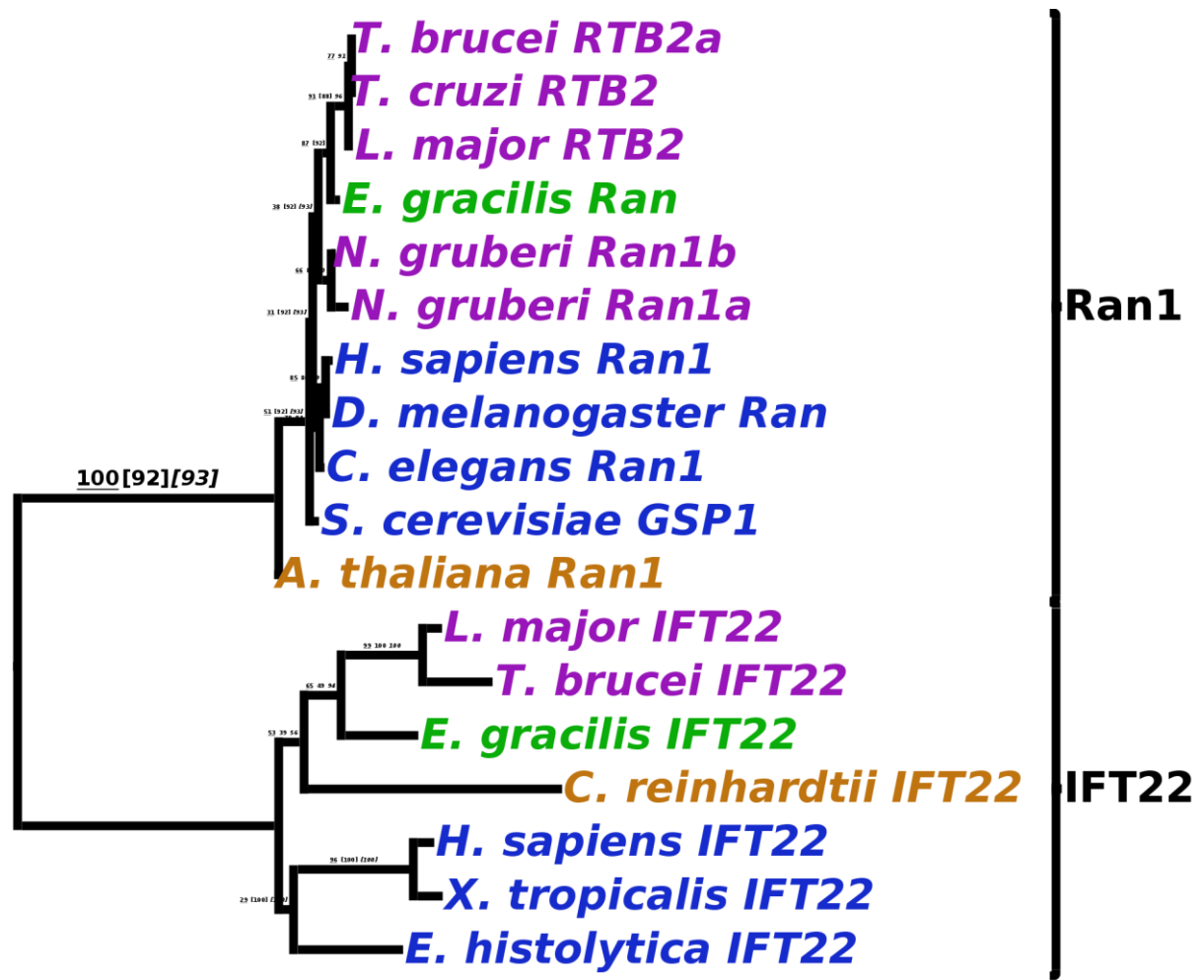
Within the ARFs protein family, only two ARFs (Arf1, and Arf 7&8) were found (Figure 5.1). Nine (9) Arf-like (Arl5, Arl1, Arl7&8, Arl2, Arl3, Arl6, Arl8, Arl X1 & X2) subfamilies were found with one Sar1 subfamily. Of all the ARFs found in *E. gracilis*, only Arf1, Arl1, Arl2, Arl3, and Sar1 are present in kinetoplastids. No Rho protein was found in *E. gracilis*; this is consistent with other kinetoplastids where a Rho protein is missing, except for the mitochondria Rho (Miro). Only one Ran protein was found in *E. gracilis* which is also consistent with other eukaryotes. The Ran present shows similarity to kinetoplastids than to any other eukaryotes.



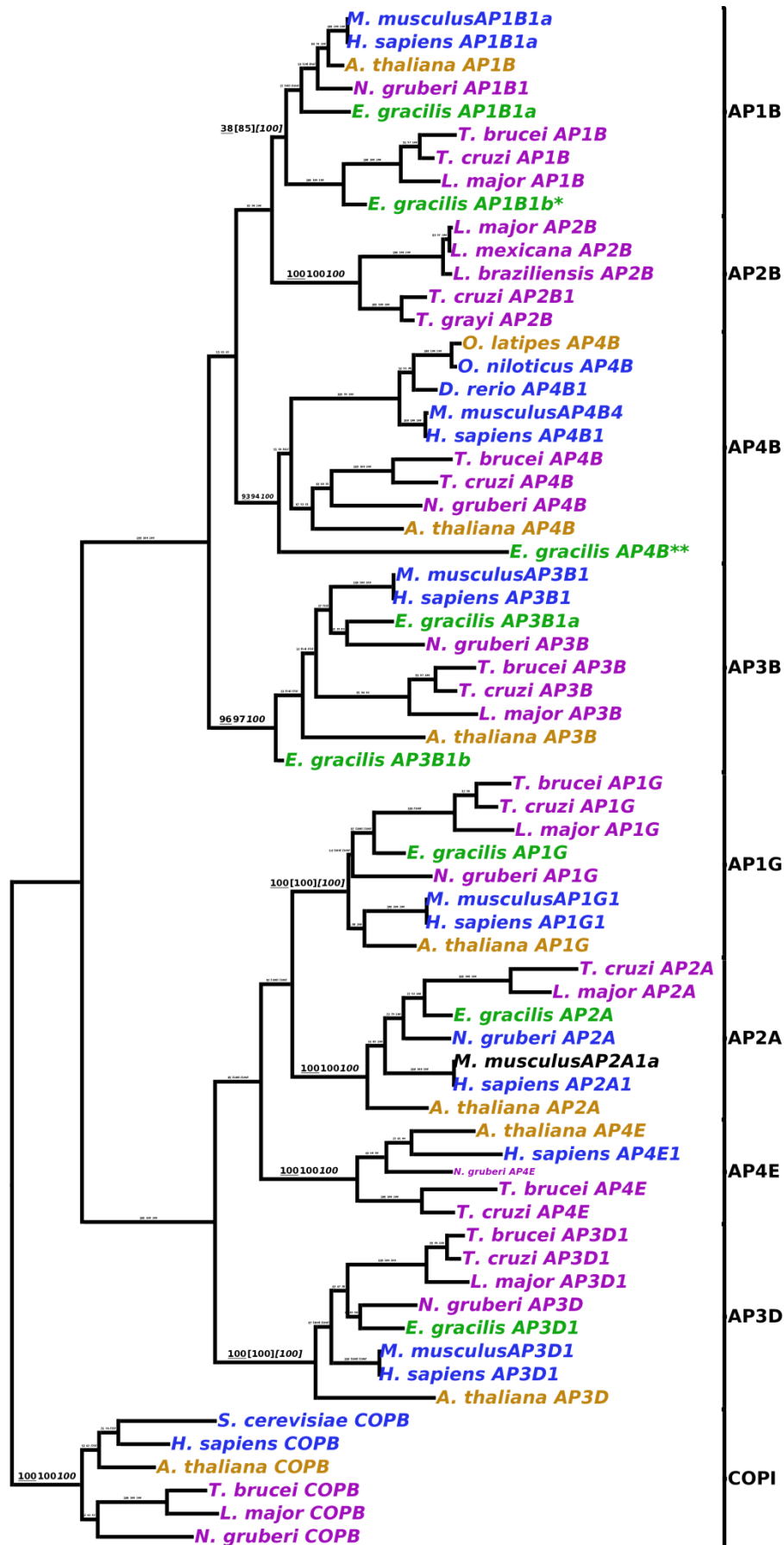
**Figure 5.1: The endomembrane system of *Euglena gracilis* is complex.** Blue circles represent the presence of the protein while white represents proteins that were not retrieved by search methods. Paralog numbers are shown in white within circles for, from the top Rab, Arf, ARL, and Sar proteins families, adaptin and coatomer protein complexes, SNARE proteins, endosomal protein complexes and multi-subunit tethering complexes.



**Figure 5.2: *E. gracilis* possess proportionate number of trypanosome conserved Rab protein families.** The figure describes the *E. gracilis* Rab proteins identified utilizing mainly trypanosomes as reference sets. Statistical supports are in the order PhyML, RaxML, and MrBayes (in %), and visible for major nodes. [#] = conflicting topology; where # are values. IFT22 was used as the outgroup. Where available, taxa color codes is as described: green = *E. gracilis*; purple = Excavates; orange = Plants/Algae; blue = other eukaryotes. Colours do not have specific connotation except for green which shows *E. gracilis* is a photosynthetic green organism. Other Chlorophytes/Plants are in orange colour to differentiate from the species of interest – *E. gracilis*.

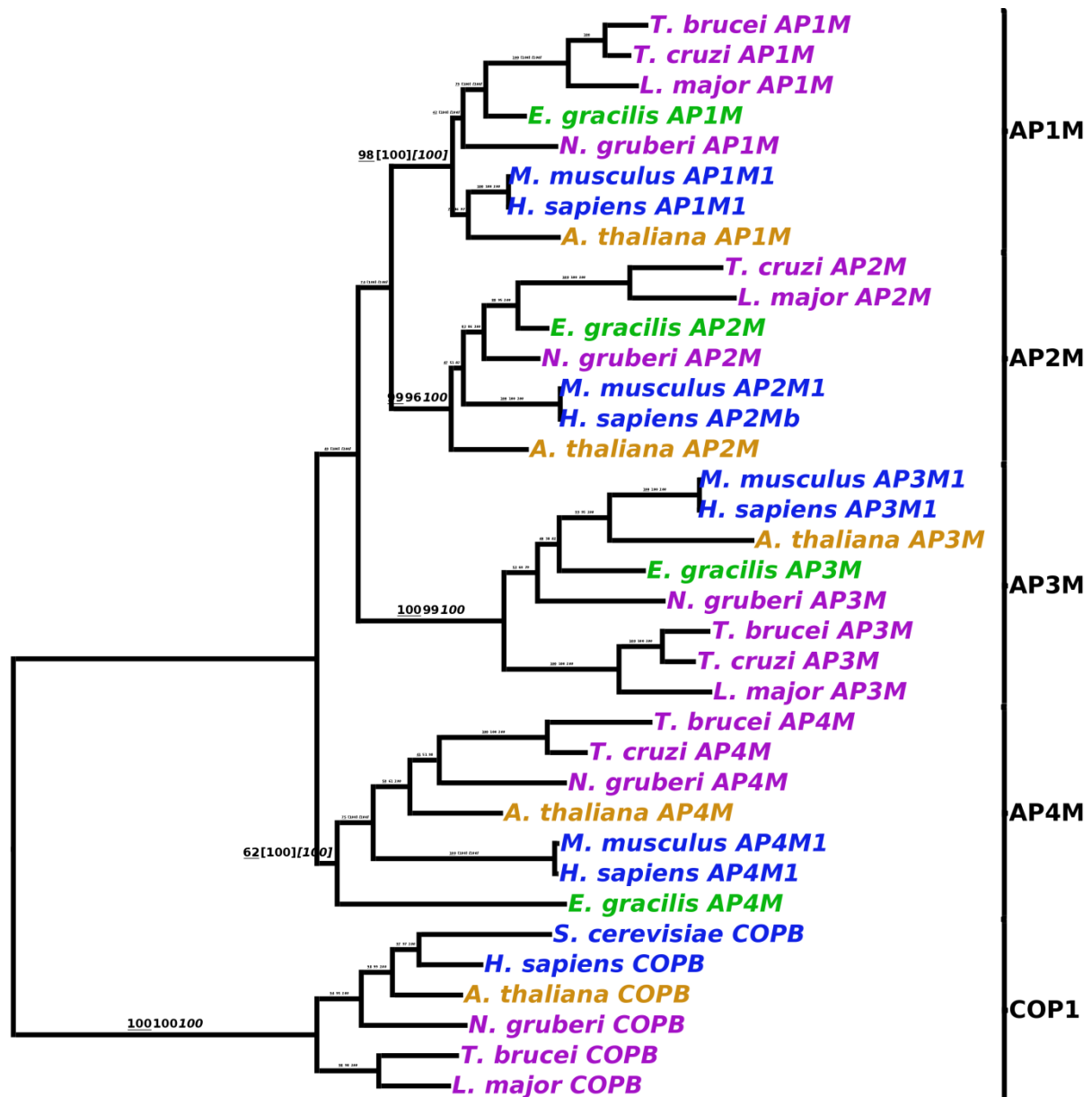


**Figure 5.3: *E. gracilis* possess a Ran protein with similarities to trypanosomes.** The figure describes the *E. gracilis* Ran proteins identified utilizing mainly eukaryotic reference sets. Statistical supports are in the order PhyML, RaxML, and MrBayes (in %), and visible for major nodes. [#] = conflicting topology; where # are values. IFT22 was used as the outgroup. Where available, taxa color codes is as described: green = *E. gracilis*; purple = Excavates; orange = Plants/Algae; blue = other eukaryotes. Colours do not have specific connotation except for green which shows *E. gracilis* is a photosynthetic green organism. Other Chlorophytes/Plants are in orange colour to differentiate from the species of interest – *E. gracilis*.



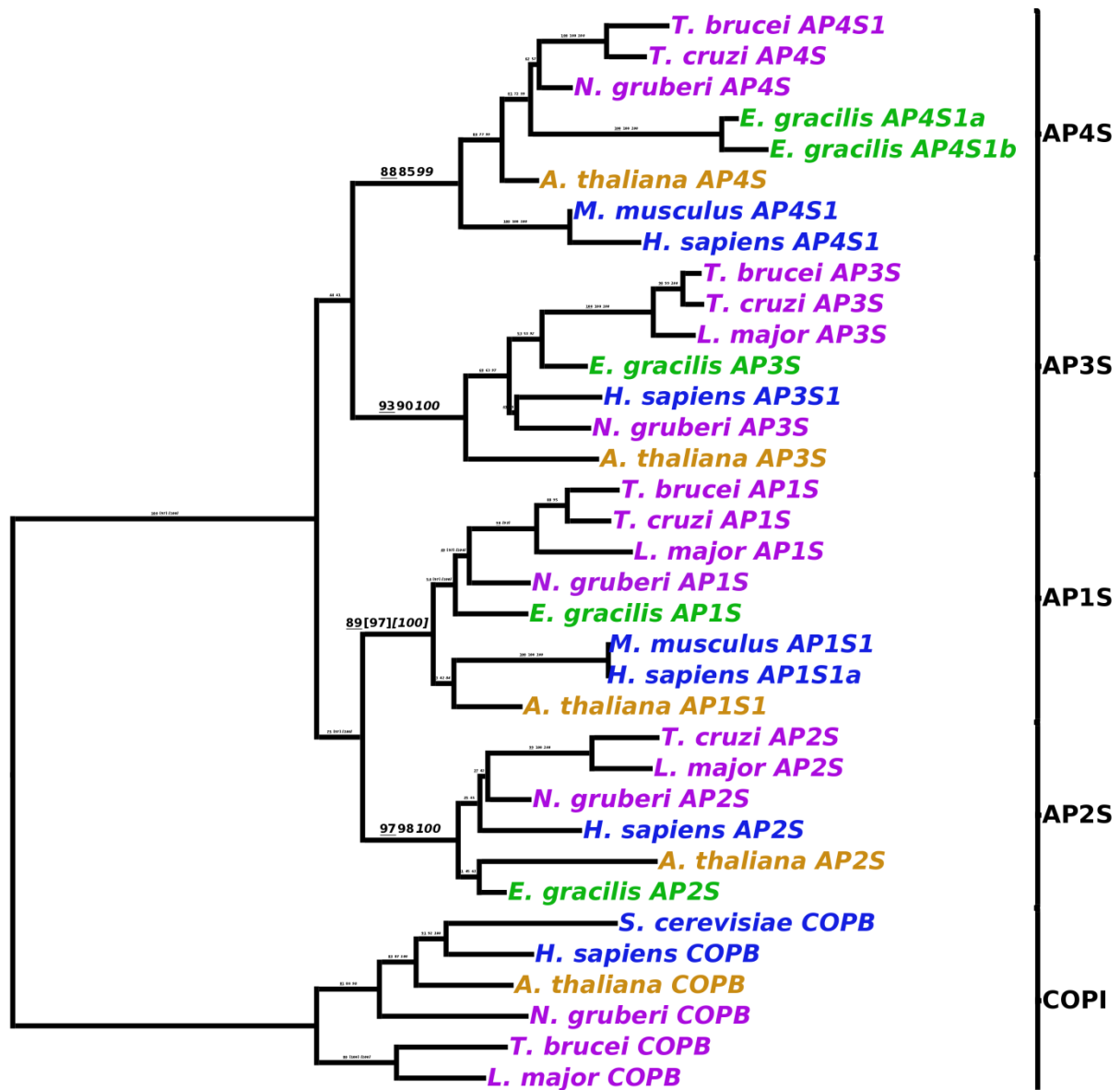
**Figure 5.4: *E. gracilis* large subunit adaptor complex possess a hybrid origin.**

The figure describes the *E. gracilis* large adaptor proteins identified utilizing select eukaryotes as reference sets, showing relatedness of some adaptor large subunits to either plant and/or animal. Statistical supports are in the order PhyML, RaxML, and MrBayes (in %), and visible for major nodes. [#] = conflicting topology; where # are values. COPI was used as the outgroup. Where available, taxa color codes is as described: green = *E. gracilis*; purple = Excavates; orange = Plants/Algae; blue = other eukaryotes. Colours do not have specific connotation except for green which shows *E. gracilis* is a photosynthetic green organism. Other Chlorophytes/Plants are in orange colour to differentiate from the species of interest – *E. gracilis*.



**Figure 5.5: *E. gracilis* medium subunit adaptor complex possess a hybrid origin.** The figure describes the *E. gracilis* medium adaptor proteins identified utilizing select eukaryotes as reference sets, showing relatedness of some adaptor medium subunits to either plant and/or animal. Statistical supports are in the order PhyML, RaxML, and MrBayes (in %), and visible for major nodes. [#] = conflicting topology; where # are values. COPI was used as the outgroup. Where available, taxa color codes is as described: green = *E. gracilis*; purple = Excavates; orange = Plants/Algae; blue = other eukaryotes. Colours do not have specific connotation except for green which shows *E. gracilis* is a photosynthetic green organism. Other Chlorophytes/Plants are in orange colour to differentiate from the species of interest – *E. gracilis*.





**Figure 5.6: *E. gracilis* small subunit adaptor complex possess a hybrid origin.** The figure describes the *E. gracilis* small adaptor proteins identified utilizing select eukaryotes as reference sets, showing relatedness of some adaptor small subunits to either plant and/or animal. Statistical supports are in the order PhyML, RaxML, and MrBayes (in %), and visible for major nodes. [#] = conflicting topology; where # are values. COPI was used as the outgroup. Where available, taxa color codes is as described: green = *E. gracilis*; purple = Excavates; orange = Plants/Algae; blue = other eukaryotes. Colours do not have specific connotation except for green which shows *E. gracilis* is a photosynthetic green organism. Other Chlorophytes/Plants are in orange colour to differentiate from the species of interest – *E. gracilis*.

**Table 5.1:** The endomembrane system of *E. gracilis*

Reference sequence ID	Paralogous sequence ID	Final classification
EG_transcript_22226	EG_transcript_23097, EG_transcript_24244, EG_transcript_39897, EG_transcript_40714, EG_transcript_51388, EG_transcript_68851, EG_transcript_28124	Rab1
EG_transcript_20574		Rab2
EG_transcript_13352		Rab4
EG_transcript_19330	EG_transcript_23555	Rab5
EG_transcript_16137	EG_transcript_19234, EG_transcript_27572, EG_transcript_33556, EG_transcript_23166	Rab6
EG_transcript_19917	EG_transcript_28802, EG_transcript_33428, EG_transcript_40039, EG_transcript_30017	Rab7
EG_transcript_12480	EG_transcript_12776, EG_transcript_22338, EG_transcript_23728, EG_transcript_25212, EG_transcript_58838, EG_transcript_23963	Rab11
EG_transcript_20767	EG_transcript_21965, EG_transcript_21965, EG_transcript_23506	Rab14

EG_transcript_25311		Rab18
EG_transcript_29860		Rab21
EG_transcript_19532		Rab23
EG_transcript_19476		Rab28
EG_transcript_21240	EG_transcript_23963, EG_transcript_29393	Rab32
EG_transcript_30796		RabX1
EG_transcript_7088	EG_transcript_20384, EG_transcript_26047, EG_transcript_26290, EG_transcript_31729, EG_transcript_33105, EG_transcript_40926	Arf1
EG_transcript_10906	EG_transcript_17530	Arf4
EG_transcript_45648		Arf8
EG_transcript_1688		ARLX1
EG_transcript_26745		ARL2
EG_transcript_18062		ARL6
EG_transcript_22239		Sar1
EG_transcript_8695	EG_transcript_14956, EG_transcript_10202, EG_transcript_63537	AP1B
EG_transcript_5122		AP1G
EG_transcript_8953		AP1M
EG_transcript_35562		AP1S
EG_transcript_1519	EG_transcript_52977	AP2A
EG_transcript_10768	EG_transcript_62169	AP2M
EG_transcript_3438	EG_transcript_51116	AP3B
EG_transcript_1077		AP3D
EG_transcript_10486		AP3M

EG_transcript_36248		AP3S
EG_transcript_35588	EG_transcript_46098	AP4B
EG_transcript_10404		AP4M
EG_transcript_22484		AP4S
EG_transcript_12790	EG_transcript_24023	TCUP
EG_transcript_1367		TPLATE1
EG_transcript_5169		TSAUCER1
EG_transcript_517		TTRAY1
EG_transcript_4777		TTRAY2
EG_transcript_12005		Syn5
EG_transcript_13070	EG_transcript_22398	Syn16.1B
EG_transcript_11115	EG_transcript_29436	Syn16.2B
EG_transcript_17067	EG_transcript_41040	SynPM.1
EG_transcript_10123	EG_transcript_25281, EG_transcript_25867	NPSN1
EG_transcript_22629	EG_transcript_23411, EG_transcript_29398	Vti1.1
EG_transcript_18194	EG_transcript_19152	Gos
EG_transcript_60540		Membrin
EG_transcript_63709		Bet1
EG_transcript_13273		Syp7
EG_transcript_19260	EG_transcript_23261, EG_transcript_20573	Syx8
EG_transcript_23133	EG_transcript_37021	Sec22
EG_transcript_36195	EG_transcript_21972, EG_transcript_15955, EG_transcript_17762, EG_transcript_22047, EG_transcript_22965	VAMP7
EG_transcript_47648	EG_transcript_15564,	Ykt6

	EG_transcript_22181, EG_transcript_72155	
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**Note:** The table shows the trafficking proteins inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = Reference sequence ID. Column 2 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 3 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name.

Discerning the membrane trafficking proteins possessed by *E. gracilis* provides insight into the evolutionary loss of certain protein families within the Excavate supergroup. Phylogenetic inference yielded well conserved adaptin subunit homologues in the transcriptome assembly, and using wide sampling dataset representing a broad range of eukaryotic diversity as described by Dacks, *et al.*, 2008 and Manna, *et al.*, 2013, all members of the Adaptor complexes (large-, medium-, and small- subunits) were found except for AP1B2, AP4E, and AP5 (Figure 5.1, 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6). The analysis of the adaptin subunits produced well supported clades, which in all cases corresponded to four AP complexes I - IV subunits totaling 16 AP subunits in *E. gracilis* (see Figure 5.1, 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6). There are five separate complexes, each composed of four subunits (small-  $\Sigma$ , medium-  $\mu$ , and the large  $\delta$ -,  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -and  $\gamma$ -subunits) (Dacks, *et al.*, 2007). Proportion of AP complexes identified in *E. gracilis* include seven large subunits (AP1B1, AP2B1, AP3B1/2, AP4B, AP3D1, AP1G1, AP2A1/2), three medium subunits (AP2M, AP1M, and AP3M), and five small subunits (APS1, AP4S2, AP3S, AP2S, and AP1S) (Figure 5.1, 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6). Complexes which were not found in the present assembly include AP2B and AP5 (Figure 5.1, 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6). The presence of AP I - IV complexes in the present assembly, suggests that overall, all the AP complexes appear to have been present very early, and likely in the LECA (Field, *et al.*, 2007; Nevin and Dacks, 2009). In the resulting dataset, the AP complexes each formed separate clades with PhyML, RaxML, and/or MrBayes bootstrap and posterior probability statistical support values of > 50 %, and distributed amongst the various subunits of small-  $\Sigma$ , medium-  $\mu$ , and the large  $\delta$ -,  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -and  $\gamma$ -subunits. The AP5 complex is lost in Kinetoplastid organisms such as *T.brucei* and *Leishmania major* (Hirst, *et al.*, 2011). However, some subunits ( $\mu$  and  $\beta$ ) are still expressed in the Heterolobosea; *N. gruberi*. The loss of all AP5 subunits in *E. gracilis*, suggests that the loss of the AP5  $\mu$  and  $\beta$  subunits occurred in the common ancestor of the Euglenozoa, following their divergence from their common ancestor with the Heterolobosea.

Similar to the distribution of AP5, TSET is present in the Heterolobosea but lost in the Kinetoplastids (Hirst, *et al.*, 2014). However, *E. gracilis* contains the complete set of TSET subunits, except for TSPOON. This infers that the loss of TSET occurred

after divergence of the euglenids, in the common ancestor of the Kinetoplastids. The same conclusion can be reached for the TRAPP1 component Tca17 which is present in *N. gruberi* (Klinger, *et al.*, 2013) and *E. gracilis* but not present in any of the Kinetoplastid organisms.

All members of the coatamer complex were found having the same copy numbers as that of their distant relatives, the kinetoplastids (Figure 5.1). At least one copy of subfamilies were found and include: COP1 (COPG, COPB1, COPE, COPA and COPB2), COPII (SEC13, SEC31, SEC23 and SEC24) and Clathrin (CHC and CLC) (Schlacht and Dacks, 2015, Adung'a, *et al.*, 2013; van Dam, *et al.*, 2013; Hirst, *et al.*, 2011; McMahon, *et al.*, 2011), suggesting that these subfamilies were present in LECA (Schlacht and Dacks, 2015). The medium and small subunits of the COP1 subfamily were missing. I was unable to identify SEC12 and SEC16 which is consistent with the results across several eukaryotic genomes (Schlacht and Dacks, 2015). Overall, there are strong evidences of kinetoplastid sister relatedness, Endosymbiotic Gene Transfer and paralogous gene expansions within the *E. gracilis* protein sub family clades across all the trafficking genes investigated. For instance, 9 Rab subfamilies show paralogous expansions, *E. gracilis* AP1G is more related to trypanosome AP1G, while *E. gracilis* AP4B is more related to *A. thaliana* AP4B (Figure 5.4). The paralogous gene expansion result is particularly intriguing given the fact that protein targeting to the secondary plastid in euglena has been shown to involve trafficking via the Golgi body. Therefore, this implies that at least two novel membrane-trafficking pathways should exist in Euglena, one anterograde TGN to plastid and a retrograde Plastid to TGN pathway (Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017). We predict that the relevant machinery for such pathways would be produced via two potential mechanisms, either EGT from the green algal host or via gene duplications of host membrane-trafficking machinery.

### 5.2.1 Meiosis

The inventory of ciliate meiotic genes from Chi, *et al.*, 2013 and *T. brucei* genomes (Berriman, *et al.*, 2005) in the Tritryp database (Aslett, *et al.*, 2010) were used to interrogate the *E. gracilis* transcriptome using a combination of BLASTp, PSI-BLAST, and the OrthoFinder algorithm (Emms and Kelly, 2015). Chi, *et al.*, 2013, inventoried 11 meiosis-specific genes. Seven (7) of these genes are conserved in at

least one of the ciliates. Of these 7 conserved genes, 6 were found and classified into functions in *E. gracilis* and include: SPO11/REC12, DMC1, HOP2/TBP1, MND1, MSH4 and MSH5 (Table 5.2), suggesting the presence of conserved meiotic activities in *E. gracilis* as present in most eukaryotes. REC8 which is present in only *Tetrahymena thermophila* is absent in the *E. gracilis* transcriptome. REC8 is the only conserved meiotic specific gene I could not find. The absence of this gene may be due to the incomplete dataset or that *E. gracilis* may have a different way of regulating sister chromatid cohesion and recombination between its homologous chromosomes (Parisi, *et al.*, 1999).

Functional analysis suggests that SPO11 product initiates recombination by forming double-strand breaks in DNA (Chi, *et al.*, 2013); DMC1 is essential for the homolog (nonsister) bias in meiotic recombination (Bugreev, *et al.*, 2011); HOP2 and MND1 protein products form a complex that stabilizes the association of DMC1 with DNA (Chen,*et al.*, 2004), while MSH4 and MSH5 products act as a heterodimer (Snowden,*et al.*, 2004) and are believed to stabilize recombination intermediates (Nishant,*et al.*, 2010). Additional meiosis-related genes were found within our dataset, and include genes involved in bouquet formation, DNA damage sensing/response, double-strand break repair (nonhomology end join), recombinational repair and meiotic entry (Chi, *et al.*, 2013; Hanson, *et al.*, 2013; Akiyoshi, *et al.*, 2013; Peacock, *et al.*, 2011; and Passoss-Silva, *et al.*, 2010). Overall, multiple copies of HOP2 (meiosis-specific) and meiosis related (RAD23, RAD50, KU70, LIG4/DNL, EXO1, and MSH2) genes were identified in the *E. gracilis* transcriptome suggesting high degrees of expansions in copy numbers. Multiple copies of meiotic genes have also recently been associated with parthenogenesis, asexual reproduction, which is present in major lineages (Schurko, *et al.*, 2015). This suggests that reproduction in *E. gracilis* may be a combination of sexual and asexual.



**Table 5.2:** Meiotic genes inventoried in *E. gracilis*

Category/complex	Gene/convention	nrBLAST evalue	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
Double-strand break formation	SPO11/REC12				
Crossover regulation	DMC1	2E-95	EG_transcript_23829		RAD51
	HOP2/TBP1	0.00005	EG_transcript_36872	EG_transcript_16379	HOP2
	HOP1	6E-43	EG_transcript_10398		HOP1
	MND1	2E-57	EG_transcript_22650		MND1
Double-strand break repair and meiotic divisions	REC8				
Bouquet formation	MPS3/SUN-1(c)/SAD1(m)	5E-37	EG_transcript_24787		MPS3/SUN-1(c)/SAD1(m)
DNA damage sensing/response	MEC1/ATR	0	EG_transcript_350		MEC1/ATF
	MRE11	2E-131	EG_transcript_8155		MRE11
	RAD17				
	RAD23	2E-32	EG_transcript_24159	EG_transcript_55709	RAD23
	RAD24	2E-122	EG_transcript_19426		
	RAD50	3.00E-093	EG_transcript_10538	EG_transcript_2370	RAD50
Double-strand break repair (nonhomology end join)	KU70	3E-42	EG_transcript_4457	EG_transcript_3154	
	KU80	4E-137	EG_transcript_2345		
	LIG4/DNL1	6E-12	EG_transcript_14285	EG_transcript_14864, EG_transcript_1394	
Recombinational repair	BRCA2	8E-44	EG_transcript_13110		BRCA2
	DNA2	9.00E-111	EG_transcript_2563		
	MMS4/EME1				
	EXO1		EG_transcript_8622	EG_transcript_11040	EXO1

	MSH2	0	EG_transcript_2281	EG_transcript_29157	MSH2
	MSH3	0	EG_transcript_1023		MSH3
	MSH4	3.00E-161	EG_transcript_5741		MSH2
	MSH5	3.00E-172	EG_transcript_5382		MSH2
Cell cycle control	CDC2				
Meiotic entry					

**Note:** The table shows the meiotic genes inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = category or complex. Column 2 = gene/convention. Column 3 = nrBLAST evaluate for the reference sequence. Column 4 = Reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 6 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name. Empty white cells in columns means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

### 5.2.3 Bilobes and associated proteins

The bilobe is a discrete cytoskeletal structure and tightly associated with flagellar skeleton (Esson, *et al.*, 2012; Morriswood, *et al.*, 2013; Wang, *et al.*, 2012; Zhou, *et al.*, 2010; McAllaster, *et al.*, 2015; Aslett, *et al.*, 2010; Bugreev, *et al.*, 2011). In kinetoplastids, the bilobe plays a central role in Golgi, flagellar pocket collar and flagellum attachment zone biogenesis (Zhou, *et al.*, 2010). Five (MORN1, RRP1, BILBO1, and Centrin-4) of the six proteins which localizes within the bilobe structure were found in *E. gracilis* in multiple copies, with PLK proteins missing in the dataset (Table 5.3). Centrinins are integral to the discovery of the bilobe, as it was first observed using the pan-centrin monoclonal antibody 20H5 (Esson, *et al.*, 2012). The bilobe architecture in *E. gracilis* is similar to that found in trypanosomatids and it's proteins possibly performs similar functions which include precise positioning, biogenesis, and inheritance of single-copied structures of the Golgi apparatus during cell cycle (Gheiratmand and He, 2014). This is significant because the bilobe structure and it's associated proteins play a role in facilitating protein entry into the cell, thus providing a link between the cytoskeleton and the endomembrane system (Morriswood, 2015), bilobe and FAZ biogenesis, consequently affecting flagellum-driven cell motility and division (Brasseur, *et al.*, 2014).

**Table 5.3:** The Bilobe proteins of *E. gracilis*

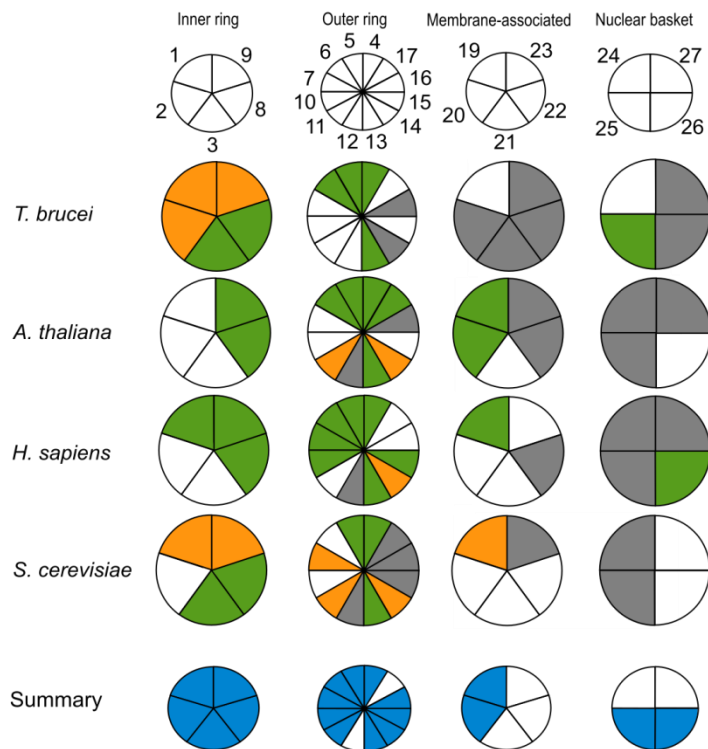
Category/complex	Gene/convention	nrBLAST evalue	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
MORN1	MORN1	5.00E-164	EG_transcript_12856	EG_transcript_1091, EG_transcript_23152, EG_transcript_27434, EG_transcript_32257, EG_transcript_5232, EG_transcript_5370, EG_transcript_55440, EG_transcript_6309, EG_transcript_6990, EG_transcript_8913	MORN1
LRRP1	LRRP1	1E-64	EG_transcript_16676		LRRP putative
Centrin2	Centrin2				
Centrin4	Centrin4	3E-121	EG_transcript_27131	EG_transcript_21599, EG_transcript_30159, EG_transcript_30159, EG_transcript_31683, EG_transcript_41051	Centrin4/Centrin/Centrin2
BILBO1	BILBO1	4E-25	EG_transcript_29908		
PLK1	PLK1				
Plectin	Plectin				
Tbccd1	ccd1	1.00E-040	EG_transcript_7280		

**Note:** The table shows the meiotic genes inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = category or complex. Column 2 = gene/convention. Column 3 = nrBLAST evalue for the reference sequence. Column 4 = Reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 6 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name. Empty white cells in column 3 and 4 means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

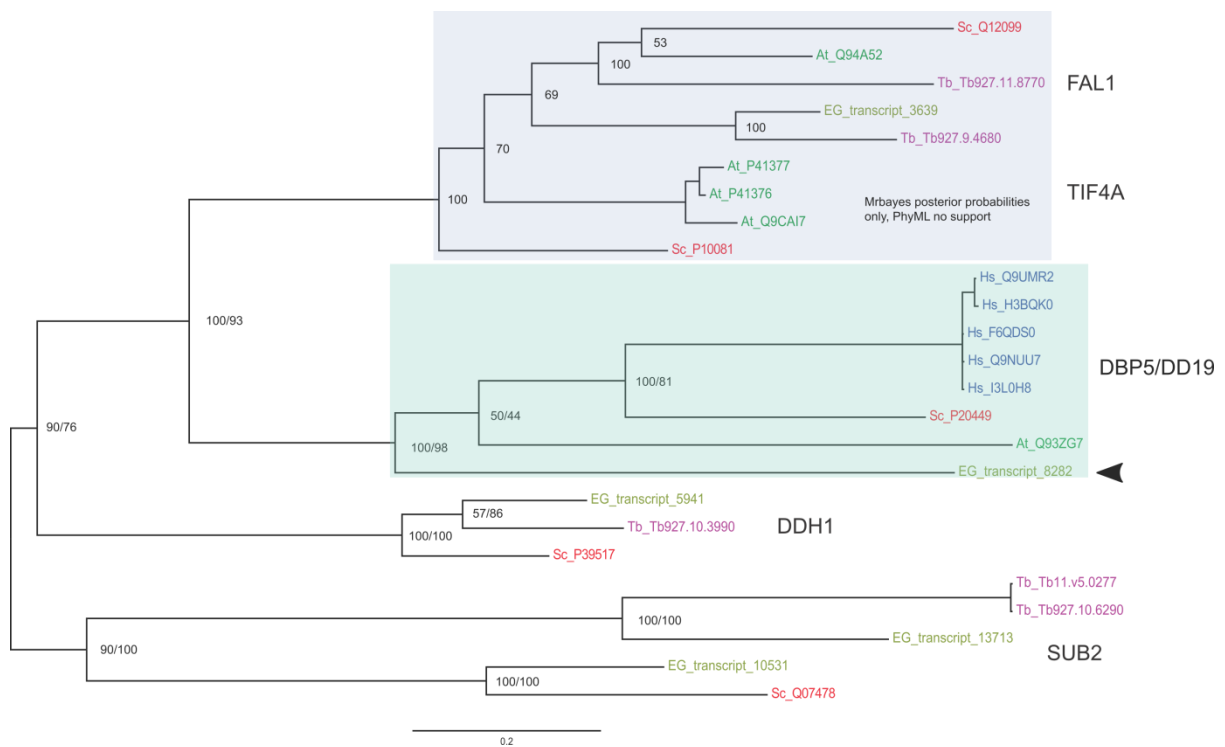
#### 5.2.4 Nuclear cohorts, architecture, and chromatin organization

*T. brucei*, *A. thaliana*, *S. cerevisiae* and *H. sapiens* nucleoporin and lamina proteins were used to interrogate (BLAST and HMMER) the *E. gracilis* transcriptome dataset for the presence of the lamina proteins (NUPs/Nuclear Pore Complex) and nucleoporins (Nups). All the instances of the Nucleoporins/NPC subcomplexes were found except the lamina proteins (NUP-1 and NUP-2) (Figure 5.7). Nucleoporins not found in *E. gracilis* include Mlp2, ScNup133, ScNup159, ScNup42, HsNup43, HsNup37, ScNup2, TbNup109, TbNup37, ScPom34, ScPom121, TbNup110, and ScNDC1 (see Figure 5.7 for additional Nucleoporins). In some cases where a Nucleoporin not listed here may be absent in *E. gracilis*, this data may not have been shown. All the nucleoporins found in *E. gracilis* are also conserved across *T. brucei*, *S. cerevisiae*, and *H. sapiens*, except TbNup48, TbNup109, TbNup41, ScPom152, TbNup140, FGNup153, Mex67a, Mex67b, Gle2a, Gle2b, and ScDBP6 (see Figure 5.7 for additional Nucleoporins) (Obado, *et al.*, 2016; Kabachinski, *et al.*, 2015; Neumann, *et al.*, 2010; Holden, *et al.*, 2014; Koreny and Field, 2016; Dubois, *et al.*, 2012; Wilson and Dawson, 2011; Curtis, *et al.*, 2012; and Ibarra, *et al.*, 2015). Protein structure of the Nucleoporin found include  $\alpha$ -solenoid,  $\beta$ -propeller, transmembrane, and coiled coil (see Figure 5.7 for details). DBP5/DD19 which is present in *H. sapiens* and *S. cerevisiae* but absent in trypanosomes was also found in the dataset (Figure 5.8). While the nuclear cohorts found in *E. gracilis* are conventional with other reference eukaryotes, the nuclear lamins (NUP-1 and NUP-2) were not found. Similarly, analysis of the heterochromatin organization (Figure 5.9) shows a less condensed heterochromatin and the absence of peripheral heterochromatin around the nuclear envelope.

Protein structure	No.	Tb	At	Hs	Sc	Eg	NPC subcomplex
α-solenoid	1	TbNup225	Nup205	Nup205	Nup192	EG_transcript_112	Inner ring
	2	TbNup181	Nup188	Nup188	Nup188	EG_transcript_119	
	3	TbNup96	Nup93	Nup93	Nic96	EG_transcript_2443	
	4*	TbNup158	Nup98	Nup98	Nup145N	EG_transcript_2261	Outer ring
	5	TbNup158	Nup96	Nup96	Nup145C	EG_transcript_4195	
	6	TbNup89	Nup75	Nup75	Nup85	EG_transcript_5081	
	7	TbNup82	Nup107	Nup107	Nup84	EG_transcript_2952	
β-propeller α-solenoid (β-α)	8	TbNup144	Nup155	Nup155	Nup170	EG_transcript_351	Inner ring
	9	TbNup119	Nup155	Nup155	Nup157	EG_transcript_351	Outer ring
	10	TbNup152	Nup160	Nup160	Nup120	EG_transcript_636	
	11	TbNup132	Nup133	Nup133	Nup133	EG_transcript_1761	
	12	TbNup109					
13	TbSec13	Sec13	Sec13	Sec13	EG_transcript_21910		
β-propeller	14		Seh1	Seh1	Seh1	EG_transcript_15911	Outer ring
	15	TbNup41	Nup43	Nup43		EG_transcript_14251	
	16			Nup37			
β-propeller, coiled coil	17	TbNup48	ALADIN	ALADIN		EG_transcript_10094	
RRM, ALPS motif, TM (Trypanosomes)	18	TbNup76	Nup88	Nup88	Nup82	EG_transcript_3164	Cytoplasmic (opisthokonts), Symmetric (Trypanosomes)
Trans-membrane	19	TbNup65	Nup35	Nup35	Nup53/59	EG_transcript_16344	Inner ring
	20	x	Gp210	Gp210	Pom152	EG_transcript_157	Pore membrane ring
	21	x	NDC1	NDC1	NDC1		
	22	x	x	x	Pom34		
	23	x	x	Pom121	x		
24	TbNup110	x	x	x			
Coiled Coils	25	TbNup92	x	x	x	EG_transcript_2749	Nuclear basket
	26	x	NUA	TPR	Mlp1	EG_transcript_9861	
	27	x	x	x	Mlp2		

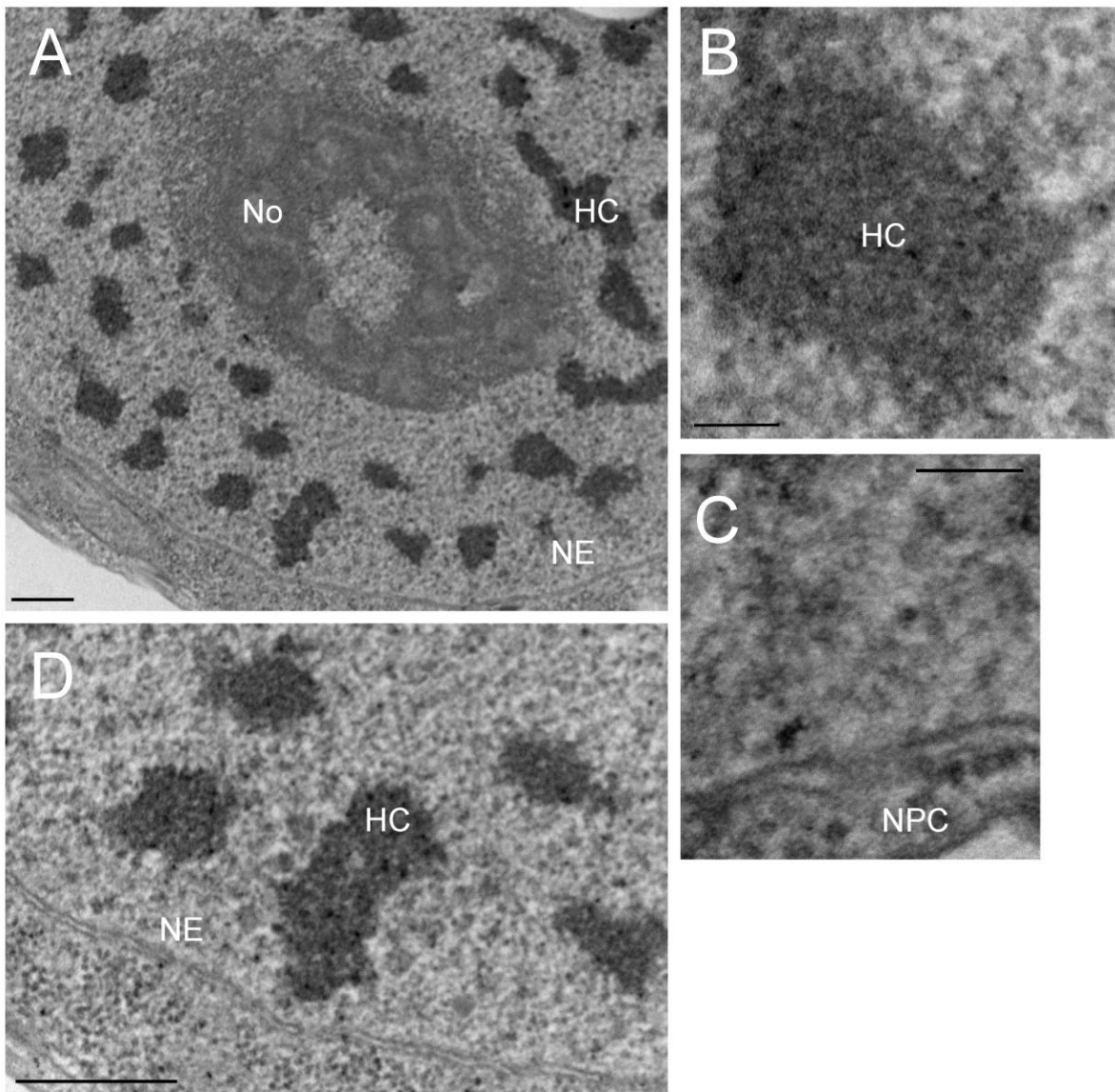


**Figure 5.7: The Nuclear Pore Complex of *E. gracilis* is conventional.** Predicted orthology relationships for *E. gracilis* nucleoporins compared to human, yeast, plant and African trypanosomes. Nuclear pore proteins are grouped according to secondary structural architecture (left) and subcomplex (right) and color coded for clarity. Orthologs for each reference species together with the predicted *E. gracilis* accession are shown. Open (white) cells indicate absence of an *E. gracilis* candidate and empty colored cells where a reference species lacks a known candidate. The lower panel is a Coulson plot for subcomplexes using the numerical scheme in the table. Colors indicate the confidence with which *Euglena* orthologs are ascribed against each reference species, with white, orange, green, and gray (for blastp= 1e-04 and psi-blast = 1e-05) respectively. Gray = absence of gene in reference proteome. White = presence of gene in reference proteome but no detection of homologs through blastp nor psi-blast. Green = homolog found through reciprocal blastp (most confident). Yellow = homolog found through psi-blast (less confident). The summary (blue; found) is the most parsimonious interpretation of the presence or absence of the NPC subunits based on the above.



**Figure 5.8: DBP5 is a characteristic feature of *E. gracilis* mRNA export mechanism.** The tree shows the phylogenetic evidence for the presence of a Euglenid Dbp5 RNA helicase. A maximum-likelihood/MrBayes phylogenetic reconstruction of selected taxa, containing Dpb5 orthologs and their closest relatives is shown. Contrary to African trypanosomes, *E. gracilis* has a clear Dbp5 ortholog (arrowhead), consistent with the more complex mRNA splicing pathways present in *S. cerevisiae*; red, *A. thaliana*; green, *E. gracilis*; Khaki, *T. brucei*; purple, *H. sapiens*; blue.

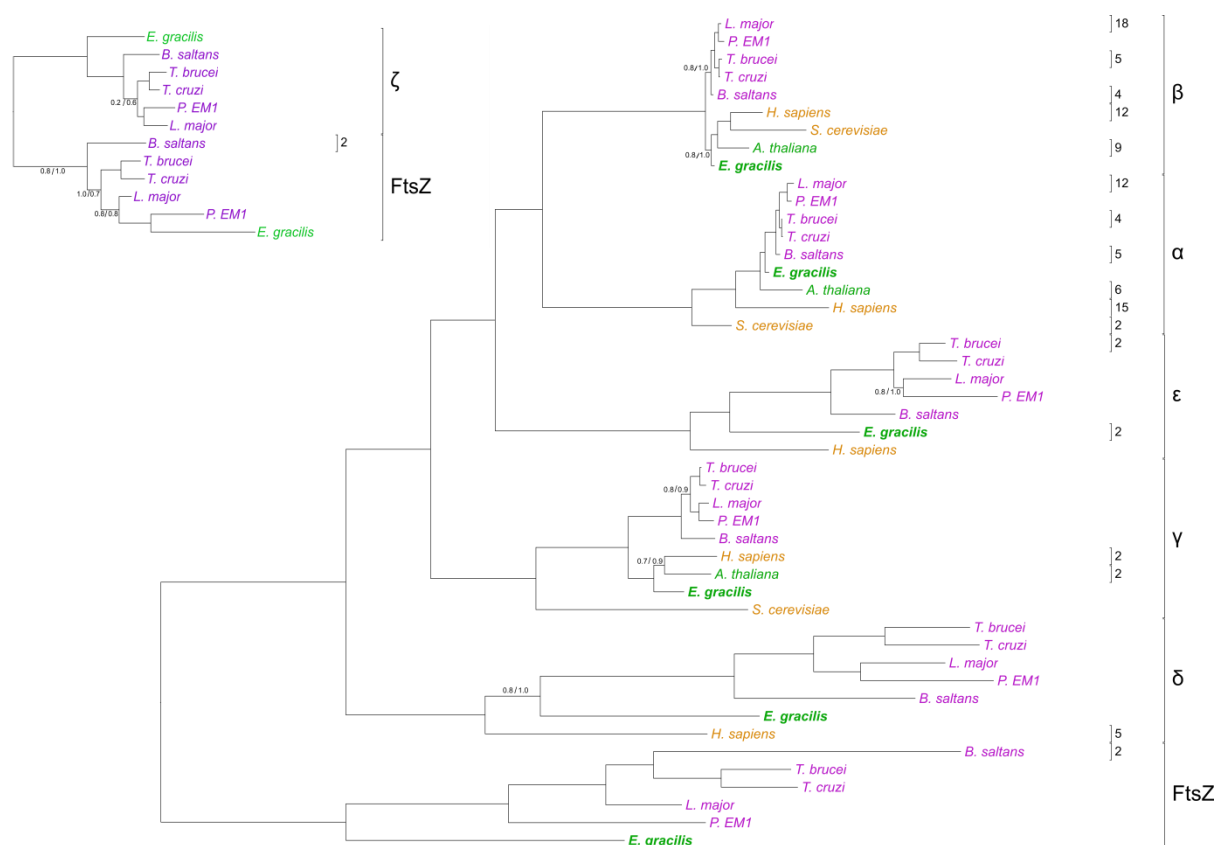




**Figure 5.9: The *E. gracilis* Nuclear Pore Complex are lacking in peripheral heterochromatin organisation and nuclear lamins.** Gallery of electron micrographs illustrating the unusual 'currant bun' arrangement of heterochromatin in *E. gracilis*. NE; nuclear envelope, HC; heterochromatin, No; nucleolus and NPC; nuclear pore complex.

### 5.2.5 Tubulins

Reference tubulin genes from eight (8) eukaryotic taxa (*L. major*, *P. EM1*, *T. brucei*, *T. cruzi*, *B. saltans*, *H. sapiens*, *S. cerevisiae*, and *A. thaliana*) were utilized to interrogate the *E. gracilis* transcriptome and genome for the instances of tubulin gene families ( $\beta$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\zeta$ , and FtsZ). The beta-, alpha-, epsilon- (2 copies), gamma-, delta-, zeta-, and FtsZ-tubulin gene families were all found within the transcriptome assembly with strong statistical supports (Figure 5.10, Table 5.4). The *E. gracilis* tubulin genes showed similarity to orthologs from the kinetoplastids than they do to *A. thaliana*, *H. sapiens*, and *S. cerevisiae*, except for beta- and gamma-tubulins which are closely related to *A. thaliana* than to the kinetoplastids. The FtsZ tubulin genes (outgroup in Figure 5.10) that are mostly found in prokaryotes and other lower eukaryotes is also found in *E. gracilis*, suggesting that the prokaryotic and eukaryotic homologs of the cell division machineries may well be present in *E. gracilis*. Finally, there are 18 introns in the *E. gracilis* tubulin genes which are conventional, intermediate non conventional, or non conventional introns (see Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017, for an extensive discussion). Hence, demonstrating some novel splicing mechanism within this biological system (Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017, Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2018).



**Figure 5.10: The tubulin genes of *E. gracilis* are conventional and ancient.** The phylogenetic tree shows α-, β-, γ-, ε-, δ-, ζ-, and FtsZ tubulin genes in selected eukaryotes. The tree at the top left corner of the diagram depicts ζ-tubulin genes while larger tree depicts α-, β-, γ-, ε-, and δ-tubulin genes. In both instances, FtsZ tubulin family was used as the outgroup. Statistical support are in the order FastTree/MrBayes, and generated using Maximum Likelihood based on 1000 bootstrappings and Posterior Probability respectively. Nodes without statistical support implies that this is above the threshold of  $\geq 99/99$ . The numbers on the right of the tree, corresponding to specific taxa name, represent the copies of the tubulin sub family found in that taxa. Each clade correspond to each tubulin sub family and are classified as either α-, β-, γ-, ε-, δ-, ζ-, or FtsZ tubulin. Color codes: *Green* photosynthetic organisms, *purple* kinetoplastids, *orange* other members of the eukaryotes. I decided to show the phylogenetic tree for the transcriptome since all tubulin subfamilies were found in this dataset, and it is a global representatives of the tubulin genes in *E. gracilis*.

**Table 5.4:** Tubulin gene families of *E. gracilis*

Reference Seq ID	Final classification
EG_transcript_14010	Beta-, $\beta$ -
EG_transcript_10562	Alpha-, $\alpha$ -
EG_transcript_10714	Gamma-, $\gamma$ -
EG_transcript_18972	Epsilon-, $\epsilon$ -
EG_transcript_17300	Epsilon-, $\epsilon$ -
EG_transcript_7888	Delta-, $\delta$ -
EG_transcript_10899	Zeta-, $\zeta$ -
EG_transcript_23781	FtsZ tubulin family

**Note:** The table shows the tubulin gene families inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = Reference sequence ID. Column 2 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name respectively.

### 5.2.6 Transporters

Members of the transporter superfamilies (ATP binding, SLC, ion channels, and phosphotransferase system (PTS)) (Elboune, *et al*, 2017) were investigated using *T. cruzi*, *T. brucei*, *L. major*, *B. saltans*, *N. gruberi*, and *H. sapiens* orthologs as a reference set. Members of the ATP superfamilies were all found (Table 5.5, and Appendix I-a) as evident in other eukaryotic taxa, suggesting a conserved transport activities in *E. gracilis*. However, some families within these superfamilies were not present, but consistent with the reference taxa.

**Table 5.5:** The transporter proteins of *E. gracilis*

Reference sub family	<i>E. gracilis</i> Ref. Seq. ID	Final Euglena classification
ABCA2	EG_transcript_559	
ABCB11	EG_transcript_634	
ABCC10 (MRP7)	EG_transcript_260	
ABCD2	EG_transcript_2824	
ABCG2	EG_transcript_3327	
	EG_transcript_2841	
F-type ATPase $\alpha$ subunit	x	
V-type ATPase V1 motor E2 subunit	EG_transcript_21665	V-type ATPase V1 motor E2 subunit
sodium/potassium-transporting ATPase subunit $\beta$ -2	x	
PMCA1	EG_transcript_950	PMCA1
ATP12A	EG_transcript_2393	ATP12A
ATP7B	EG_transcript_901	ATP7B
ATP8B3 (Phospholipid-transporting ATPase IK)	EG_transcript_907	ATP8B3 (Phospholipid-transporting ATPase IK)
synaptic vesicle glycoprotein 2A	EG_transcript_9149	synaptic vesicle glycoprotein 2A
EAAT5 (Excitatory amino acid transporter 5 / SLC1A7)	x	
ASCT2 (Alanine/serine/cysteine transporter 2 / SLC1A5)	x	
GLUT2 (Glucose transporter 2 / SLC2A2)	EG_transcript_9149	GLUT2 (Glucose transporter 2 / SLC2A2)
GLUT8 (Glucose transporter 8 / SLC2A8)	EG_transcript_9149	-
HMIT (Proton myo-inositol cotransporter / SLC2A13)	EG_transcript_9149	-
rBAT / SLC3A1	x	
xCT (Cystine/glutamate transporter / SLC7A11)	EG_transcript_6332	xCT (Cystine/glutamate transporter / SLC7A11)

AE2 (Anion exchange protein 2 / SLC4A2)	x	
BTR1 (NaBC1 / SLC4A11)	x	
SGLT1 (Sodium/glucose cotransporter 1 / SLC5A1)	EG_transcript_495	
CHT / SLC5A7	x	
SMCT1 / SLC5A8	x	
SMIT1 (SMIT / SLC5A3)	x	
DAT / SLC6A3	x	
GAT3 / SLC6A11	x	
PROT / SLC6A7	EG_transcript_5892	
NTT5 / SLC6A16	x	
NCX1 (Sodium/calcium exchanger 1 / SLC8A1)	x	
NHE9 (Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 9 / SLC9A9)	EG_transcript_4181	NHE9 (Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 9 / SLC9A9)
P5 (Sodium/bile acid and sulphated solute cotransporter 5 / SLC10A5)	EG_transcript_21665	
DMT1 / SLC11A2	x	
NKCC1 (Basolateral Na-K-Cl symporter / SLC12A2)	EG_transcript_6332	
NaC3 (Na+/dicarboxylate cotransporter 3 / SLC13A3)	EG_transcript_4581	NaC3 (Na+/dicarboxylate cotransporter 3 / SLC13A3)
UT-A (Kidney urea transporter / SLC14A2)	x	
PHT2 (Peptide transporter 3 / SLC15A3)	EG_transcript_5713	PHT2 (Peptide transporter 3 / SLC15A3)
MCT8 (Monocarboxylate transporter 8 / SLC16A2)	x	
NPT1 (Sodium/phosphate cotransporter 1 / SLC17A1)	EG_transcript_33365	
AST (Sialin / SLC17A5)	EG_transcript_11531	AST (Sialin / SLC17A5)
VGLUT3 (Vesicular glutamate transporter 3 / SLC17A8)	EG_transcript_11531	VGLUT3 (Vesicular glutamate transporter 3 / SLC17A8)
VNUT (Vesicular nucleotide transporter / SLC17A9)	EG_transcript_11531	VNUT (Vesicular nucleotide transporter / SLC17A9)

VACHT (Vesicular acetylcholine transporter / SLC18A3)	EG_transcript_8497	
FOLT (Reduced folate transporter 1 / SLC19A1)	EG_transcript_6540	
PiT1 (Sodium-dependent phosphate transporter 1 / SLC20A1)	EG_transcript_9187	PiT1 (Sodium-dependent phosphate transporter 1 / SLC20A1)
OCT3 (Organic cation transporter 3 / SLC22A3)	EG_transcript_9149	OCT3 (Organic cation transporter 3 / SLC22A3)
OCTN2 (Organic cation/carnitine transporter 2 / SLC22A5)	EG_transcript_5405	OCTN2 (Organic cation/carnitine transporter 2 / SLC22A5)
OAT5 (Organic anion transporter 5 / SLC22A10)	EG_transcript_5393	OAT5 (Organic anion transporter 5 / SLC22A10)
URAT1 (Urate anion exchanger 1 / SLC22A12)	EG_transcript_9149	
SLC22A24	EG_transcript_5393	
SVCT2 (Sodium-dependent vitamin C transporter 2 / SLC23A2)	x	
NKCX4 (Sodium/potassium/calcium exchanger 4 / SLC24A4)	x	
OGC (Mitochondrial oxoglutarate carrier / SLC25A11)	EG_transcript_15350	
CAC (Carnitine/acylcarnitine carrier / SLC25A20)	EG_transcript_17132	CAC (Carnitine/acylcarnitine carrier / SLC25A20)
PHC (Mitochondrial phosphate carrier / SLC25A3)	EG_transcript_11544	PHC (Mitochondrial phosphate carrier / SLC25A3)
APC2 (Mitochondrial phosphate carrier 2 / SLC25A23)	EG_transcript_11597	APC2 (Mitochondrial phosphate carrier 2 / SLC25A23)
UCP1 (Uncoupling protein 1 / SLC25A7)	EG_transcript_14195	UCP1 (Uncoupling protein 1 / SLC25A7)
SLC25A46	EG_transcript_14195	SLC25A46
Sat-1 / SLC26A1	EG_transcript_6540	
Pendrin / SLC26A4	EG_transcript_6540	Pendrin / SLC26A4
SLC26A9	EG_transcript_6540	SLC26A9



Tat1 / SLC26A8	EG_transcript_6540	Tat1 / SLC26A8
FATP2 (Fatty acid transport protein 2 / SLC27A2)	EG_transcript_6570	FATP2 (Fatty acid transport protein 2 / SLC27A2)
CNT2 (Sodium/nucleoside cotransporter 2 / SLC28A2)	x	
ENT3 (Equilibrative nucleoside transporter 3 / SLC29A3)	EG_transcript_7890	ENT3 (Equilibrative nucleoside transporter 3 / SLC29A3)
ZnT4 (Zinc transporter 4 / SLC30A4)	EG_transcript_6135	ZnT4 (Zinc transporter 4 / SLC30A4)
CTR2 (Copper transporter 2 / SLC31A2)	x	
VIAAT (Vesicular inhibitory amino acid transporter / SLC32A1)	EG_transcript_8425	VIAAT (Vesicular inhibitory amino acid transporter / SLC32A1)
ACATN1 (AcetylCoA transporter / SLC33A1)	x	
NaPi-IIc (Sodium phosphate 3 / SLC34A3)	x	
YEA / SLC35B4	EG_transcript_17625	YEA / SLC35B4
PAT4 (Proton-coupled Amino acid Transporter 4 / SLC36A4)	EG_transcript_8073	PAT4 (Proton-coupled Amino acid Transporter 4 / SLC36A4)
SPX4 (Glucose-6-phosphate transporter / SLC37A4)	EG_transcript_11531	SPX4 (Glucose-6-phosphate transporter / SLC37A4)
SNAT1 (sodium-coupled neutral amino acid transporter 1 / SLC38A1)	EG_transcript_8425	SNAT1 (sodium-coupled neutral amino acid transporter 1 / SLC38A1)
SNAT3 (Sodium-coupled neutral amino acid transporter 3 / SLC38A3)	EG_transcript_8425	SNAT3 (Sodium-coupled neutral amino acid transporter 3 / SLC38A3)
PP1744 (Putative sodium-coupled neutral amino acid transporter 10 / SLC38A10)	EG_transcript_8425	PP1744 (Putative sodium-coupled neutral amino acid transporter 10 / SLC38A10)
ZIP6 (Zinc transporter 6 / SLC39A6)	x	
IREG1 (Ferroportin / SLC40A1)	x	

MgtE (Solute carrier family 41 member 1 / SLC41A1)	x	
RhCG (Ammonium transporter Rh type C / SLC42A3)	EG_transcript_5298	RhCG (Ammonium transporter Rh type C / SLC42A3)
EEG1 (Solute carrier family 43 member 3 / SLC43A3)	x	
CTL3 (Choline transporter-like 3 / SLC44A3)	EG_transcript_4904	CTL3 (Choline transporter-like 3 / SLC44A3)
Membrane-associated transporter protein / SLC45A2	x	
SLC46A3	x	
MATE1 (Multidrug and toxin extrusion / SLC47A1)	EG_transcript_7180	
HRG1 (Heme transporter / SLC48A1)	EG_transcript_239	
DIRC2 (Disrupted in renal carcinoma 2 / SLC49A4)	EG_transcript_9532	DIRC2 (Disrupted in renal carcinoma 2 / SLC49A4)
RAG1AP1 (SLC50 sugar exporter / SLC50A1)	EG_transcript_24253	RAG1AP1 (SLC50 sugar exporter / SLC50A1)
OST $\beta$ (Organic solute transporter subunit $\beta$ / SLC51A1BP)	x	
RFVT2 (solute carrier family 52 member 2 / SLC52A2)	x	
OATP4C1 / SLCO4C1	EG_transcript_5393	
ACC	x	
Amt	EG_transcript_5298	Amt
annexin	x	
Bcl-2	x	
	x	
CD20	x	
connexin	x	
Calcium release-activated calcium channel protein 1	x	
E-CIC	x	
ENaC	x	
GIC	x	

Hsp70	EG_transcript_8430	Hsp70
ICC	x	
innexin	x	
IRK-C	x	
Acetylcholine receptor subunit alpha	x	
Mid1	x	
aquaporin 9	EG_transcript_19390	aquaporin 9
CorA	EG_transcript_8861	
MscL	x	
MscS	EG_transcript_6444	MscS
NSCC2	x	
PCC	x	
PLM	x	
RIR-CaC	EG_transcript_43	RIR-CaC
TRP-CC	x	
UAC	x	
UT	x	
VIC	EG_transcript_18356	VIC

**Note:** The table shows the transporter genes inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = Reference sub family. Column 2 = *E. gracilis* Reference sequence ID. Column 3 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name respectively. Empty white cells or “x” means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

### 5.2.7 Histones

Five major families of histones exist: H1/H5, H2A, H2B, H3, and H4 (Cox, *et al.*, 2005; Bhasin, *et al.*, 2006; Hartl, *et al.*, 1988). Histones H2A, H2B, H3 and H4 are known as the core histones, while histones H1 and H5 are known as the linker histones (Tilber, *et al.*, 2012). In the *E. gracilis* transcriptome, I found all of the core histones (Table 5.6), suggesting eukaryotic conservation activity (Tilber, *et al.*, 2012). The analysis also revealed other histone variants (macroH2, H3.2, and H3.3), with strong statistical confidence for H3.2 and H3.3, and low statistical confidence for macroH2 (Table 5.6, and Appendix-Ia). The number of histone variants in *E. gracilis* is quite low compared to those found in other taxa (Tilber, *et al.*, 2012).

**Table 5.6:** List of histones identified in *E. gracilis*

Category/complex	Convention	nrBLAST evalue	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
<i>Canonical/replication coupled histones</i>					
H1	H1	2E-10	EG_transcript_37574	EG_transcript_53416	H1
H2A	H2A	1E-88	EG_transcript_34406	EG_transcript_25106	H2A
H2B	H2B	9.00E-047	EG_transcript_48180	EG_transcript_67478	H2B
H3	H3	5.00E-34	EG_transcript_63430	EG_transcript_27533, EG_transcript_30647, EG_transcript_33619	H3
H4	H4	7.00E-48	EG_transcript_37574	EG_transcript_53416	H4
H5	H5				
<i>Variant histones</i>					
H1	H1.0				
	H1.10				
	OO H1.8				
	scH1				
	TS H1.6				
	TS H1.7				
	TS H1.9				
H2A	H2A.X				
	H2A.Z.1				
	H2A.Z.2.1				
	H2A.Z.2.2				
	H2A.Bbd/H2A.B				
	macroH2A1.1				
	macroH2A1.2				
	macroH2A2				
	H2A.Z				

	H2A.1				
	H2A.L				
	H2A.P				
	H2A.W				
	macroH2A	6E-43	EG_transcript_8713		
H2B	H2B.W (H2B type WT)				
	H2B type 1A (TSH2B)				
	H2B.1				
	H2B.W				
	H2B.Z				
	Sperm H2B subH2B				
H3	H3.3		EG_transcript_64233	EG_transcript_21219	H3.3
	H3.2		EG_transcript_29591		H3.2
	CENP-A/cenH3				
	H3.1T				
	H3.5				
	H3.X/H3.Y.2				
	H3.Y/H3.Y.1				
	H3.V				
	TS H3.4				
H2B.V					
H4	H4.V				

**Note:** The table shows the meiotic genes inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = category or complex. Column 2 = gene/convention. Column 3 = nrBLAST evaluate for the reference sequence. Column 4 = Reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 6 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name. Empty white cells in column 3 and 4 means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

### 5.2.8 Calmodulins and Rhodopsins

Analysis of the genome and transcriptome suggests the presence of calmodulin genes and the absence of rhodopsin genes. Interrogation of the data suggests the absence of camodulin 1 – 7 in the genome, with a single copy present in the transcriptome. Forty four CaM-related potential calcium sensors (McCormack and Braam, 2003) were found in the *E. gracilis* transcriptome, while only 23 were found in the genome (Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017, 2018), suggesting a highly complex mechanism for the control of signal transduction and that CaM/CaM-related proteins likely have very important roles in the responses of *E. gracilis* to environmental and other cues (see Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017, for extensive discussion, data, and publication of full result). Analysis for the presence of rhodopsin did not reveal any strong rhodopsin candidate (Table 5.7. Genes found include the Adenylyl/Guanylyl cyclase and the Rhodopsin-guanylyl cyclase (RhGC) (see Table 5.7, and Appendix I-a).



**Table 5.7:** Rhodopsin proteins in *E. gracilis*

Category/complex	Gene		nrBLAST evalue	Ref. Seq. ID	Final classification
	Microbial or animal convention	Reference seqid			
Adenylyl/Guanylyl cyclase	HsGC1	Q02846	2.00E-015	EG_transcript_2162	GC1
	HsGC2	P51841	2.00E-015	EG_transcript_9517	GC2
	EgPACA	Q8S9F2	0	EG_transcript_1073	PACA
	EgPACB	Q8S9F1	0	EG_transcript_2020	PACB
Histidine kinase (CheA)	DmCheA	Q4AB33			
	EcCheA	P07363			
	HsCheA	B0R4J9			
Histidine Kinase rhodopsin (HKR)	CrHKR	Q6WRU3	6.00E-060	EG_transcript_1624	
Rhodopsin-guanylyl cyclase (RhGC)	SrGC	F2TZN0	2.00E-117	EG_transcript_12299	GC
Visual pigment rhodopsin (G protein coupled receptor)	Homo sapiens rhodopsin	P08100			
	Danio	P35359			
	Gallus	P22328			
Retinochrome (G protein coupled receptor)	Homo sapiens rhodopsin	P47804			
G protein arrestin (GPCR)	ARRB2	P32121	7.00E-014	EG_transcript_11761	ARRB1
	ARRB1	P49407	1.00E+000	EG_transcript_11761	
Sensory rhodopsin (SR)	HsSRI	P0DMH8			
	HvSRI	M0IXQ5			
	SrSRI	D5HC99			
	HsSRII	P71411			
	NpSRII	P42196			
	HvSRII	P42199			
Bacteriorhodopsin (BR): H+	GR	Q7NP59			

Pump	XR	Q2S2F8			
	GPR1	EAQ40507			
	GPR2	ZP_02194911			
	GPR3	Q4FMZ3			
	BPR4	BAL68143			
	BPR5	AAK30179			
	GPR6	AAG10475			
	GPR7	AAK30176			
	LR	Q9HGT7			
	Ph2	Q0V5A7			
	NR	Q9UW81			
	Ph1	Q0V6M3			
	Ace1	AEF12206			
	Ace2	AEF12207			
	MR	WP_011570314.1			
	BR	P02945			
	AR2	P29563			
AR1	P69051				
AR3	P96787				
Halorhodopsin (HR): Cl- Pumps	NpHR	P15647			
	SrHR	Q5UNE6			
	HsHR	B0R2U4			
Krokinobacterhodopsin (KR): Na+ pumps	Krodi_2220	F4AZU8			
	Krodi_0510	F4AYM8			
Cation Conduction Channel Rhodopsin (ChR)	VcChR2	ABZ90902			
	CrChR2	XP_001701725			
	VcChR1	ABZ90900			
	CrChR1	AAL08946			
	MvChR1	AEI83869			
Anion Conduction Channel Rhodopsin (ACR)	GtACR1	L1J207			
	GtACR2	L1IFZ3			

**Note:** The table shows the Rhodopsin genes inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = Category/complex. Column 2 = Gene name. Column 3 = nr BLAST. Column 4 = *E. gracilis* reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name respectively. Empty white cells in column 3 and 4 means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence. Colour codes in column 1: Orange = present in both microbes, fungi and algae. Purple = present in only animals.

### 5.3 INFORMATION STORAGE AND PROCESSING

The reception, storage and processing of information by cellular organisms (within and outside their surroundings) is an essential cellular activity. A biological cell can be viewed as a dynamic information-processing system that responds to and interacts with a varied and changing environment (D'Onofrio and An, 2010). Cellular actions rely on a set of operations between the genetic information encoded in the cell's DNA and its intracellular information-processing infrastructure (RNA and proteins) (D'Onofrio and An, 2010). The structure and function of this information processing complex are of great interest in the study of both normal cellular functions (such as differentiation and metabolism) and pathological conditions (such as oncogenesis and dysregulation) (D'Onofrio and An, 2010). In eukaryotes, many of these information storage and processings include, transcription, translation, splicing, RNA editing, and RNAi pathway. In this section, these information storage and processes in *E. gracilis* will be discussed.

### 5.3.1 Translational apparatus

The characterized *T. brucei* translational apparatus reference sets (Aslett, *et al.*, 2010) were used to predict the minimal translational apparatus in *E. gracilis* using BLAST, OthorFinder and phylogenetic inference (Table 5.8 and Appendix-1a). Overall, 158 translational genes were found in *E. gracilis* and this include: Ribosomal proteins (70), Aminoacyl-tRNA (50), translational initiation (18), elongation (6), and termination (3) (Grosjean, *et al.*, 2014; Hernández, 2012; Hernández, *et al.*, 2012). RPL37, RPL37a, RPL38, RPL39, RPP0b, RPP0c, RPS21, RPS27, RPS30, RPS33, glycyl-tRNA synthetase, the recycling factor (RF) were not found (Table 5.8). These are also consistent with the translational apparatus evident in other members of the kinetoplastid and eukaryotes.

**Table 5.8:** The set of proteins for functional translational apparatus in *E. gracilis*.

Category/complex	Gene/convention	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
LSU (60S)	Nop53			
	RPL10			
	RPL10a	EG_transcript_29418		RPL10a
	RPL11	EG_transcript_31984	EG_transcript_26203, EG_transcript_4233	RPL11
	RPL12	EG_transcript_26978		RPL12
	RPL13	EG_transcript_43409	EG_transcript_43409, EG_transcript_18309, EG_transcript_31449	RPL13
	RPL13a	EG_transcript_33082		RPL13a
	RPL14	EG_transcript_29685		RPL14
	RPL15	EG_transcript_49234	EG_transcript_54111	RPL15
	RPL16	EG_transcript_26376		RPL16
	RPL17	EG_transcript_45600	EG_transcript_10319, EG_transcript_26134	RPL17
	RPL18	EG_transcript_45000		RPL18
	RPL18a	EG_transcript_41078		RPL18a
	RPL18b			
	RPL19	EG_transcript_23570		RPL19
	RPL2	EG_transcript_25307		RPL2
	RPL21e	EG_transcript_36505		RPL21e
	RPL22	EG_transcript_35834		RPL22
	RPL23	EG_transcript_56253		RPL23
	RPL23a	EG_transcript_42001		RPL23a
	RPL24	EG_transcript_30802	EG_transcript_63500	RPL24
	RPL25	EG_transcript_42001		RPL25
	RPL26	EG_transcript_48931		RPL26
	RPL27			
	RPL27a	EG_transcript_34772	EG_transcript_31697, EG_transcript_71017	RPL27a
	RPL28	EG_transcript_34772	EG_transcript_31697, EG_transcript_71017	RPL28
	RPL29	EG_transcript_34772	EG_transcript_31697, EG_transcript_71017	RPL29
	RPL3	EG_transcript_14730	EG_transcript_18974	RPL3

	RPL30		RPL30
	RPL32		
	RPL34		
	RPL35	EG_transcript_52389	RPL35
	RPL35a		
	RPL36		
	RPL37	EG_transcript_32885	RPL37
	RPL37a		
	RPL38		
	RPL39		
	RPL4	EG_transcript_15379	EG_transcript_15615
	RPL40	EG_transcript_12396	EG_transcript_35776, EG_transcript_45651, EG_transcript_55709
	RPL44	EG_transcript_56296	
	RPL5	EG_transcript_22286	
	RPL51	EG_transcript_30305	
	RPL6	EG_transcript_34325	
	RPL7	EG_transcript_30542	
	RPL7a	EG_transcript_26369	
	RPL7Ae	EG_transcript_23482	
	RPL9	EG_transcript_35793	
	RPL-like	EG_transcript_42748	
	RPP0	EG_transcript_54363	EG_transcript_17739
	RPP0b		
	RPP0c		
	RPP2	EG_transcript_61646	EG_transcript_50867
SSU (40S)	RPS10	EG_transcript_38985	EG_transcript_38627, EG_transcript_17391
	RPS11	EG_transcript_40456	EG_transcript_68512
	RPS12		
	RPS13	EG_transcript_33850	
	RPS14		

	RPS15	EG_transcript_43430	EG_transcript_37274	RPS15
	RPS15a	EG_transcript_52704		RPS15a
	RPS16	EG_transcript_43548		RPS16
	RPS17			
	RPS18			
	RPS19	EG_transcript_41111		RPS19
	RPS2	EG_transcript_23458	EG_transcript_10203	RPS2
	RPS21	EG_transcript_31840		RPS21
	RPS23	EG_transcript_41429		RPS23
	RPS24E	EG_transcript_59714		RPS24E
	RPS25	EG_transcript_53666		RPS25
	RPS26			
	RPS27	EG_transcript_52992		RPS27
	RPS27a	EG_transcript_12396		RPS27a
	RPS3	EG_transcript_34746		RPS3
	RPS30			
	RPS33	EG_transcript_26209		RPS33
	RPS3a	EG_transcript_26209		RPS3a
	RPS4	EG_transcript_25958		RPS4
	RPS5	EG_transcript_50540		RPS5
	RPS6	EG_transcript_34339	EG_transcript_33134	RPS6
	RPS7	EG_transcript_30512	EG_transcript_50050	RPS7
	RPS8	EG_transcript_19137	EG_transcript_24975, EG_transcript_27678	RPS8
	RPS9	EG_transcript_51504		RPS9
	RPSa	EG_transcript_32698		RPSa
Class I (tRNA synthetase)	alanyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_3246	EG_transcript_1083	alanyl-tRNA synthetase
	antigenic protein	EG_transcript_2790		antigenic protein
	arginyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_2535	EG_transcript_3489	arginyl-tRNA synthetase
	asparagine			



synthetase a			
asparaginyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_2696		asparaginyl-tRNA synthetase
aspartyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_3395	EG_transcript_7672	aspartyl-tRNA synthetase
bifunctional aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_4109	EG_transcript_9052	bifunctional aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase
Biotin--acetyl-CoA-carboxylase ligase	EG_transcript_5040		Biotin--acetyl-CoA-carboxylase ligase
cysteinyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_11617	EG_transcript_24982, EG_transcript_3436	cysteinyl-tRNA synthetase
D-tyrosyl-tRNA deacylase	EG_transcript_26133	EG_transcript_28837	D-tyrosyl-tRNA deacylase
glutaminyl-tRNA synthetase			
glutamyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_5201		glutamyl-tRNA synthetase
glycyl-tRNA synthetase			glycyl-tRNA synthetase
histidyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_10079	EG_transcript_7879	histidyl-tRNA synthetase
isoleucyl-tRNA synthetase, putative (IleRS)	EG_transcript_971		isoleucyl-tRNA synthetase, putative (IleRS)
leucyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_1177		leucyl-tRNA synthetase
lipoate-protein ligase	EG_transcript_29972		lipoate-protein ligase
lysyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_14094	EG_transcript_3471	lysyl-tRNA synthetase
methionyl-tRNA	EG_transcript_22934	EG_transcript_3873	methionyl-tRNA

synthetase, putative (MetRS)			synthetase, putative (MetRS)
Octanoyltransferase	EG_transcript_19552		Octanoyltransferase
peptidyl-tRNA hydrolase	EG_transcript_21075	EG_transcript_31253, EG_transcript_33263, EG_transcript_34638	peptidyl-tRNA hydrolase
phenylalanyl-tRNA synthetase (beta subunit)	EG_transcript_10635		phenylalanyl-tRNA synthetase (beta subunit)
phenylalanyl-tRNA synthetase alpha chain	EG_transcript_7994		phenylalanyl-tRNA synthetase alpha chain
RF-1 domain containing protein	EG_transcript_29168		RF-1 domain containing protein
selenophosphate synthetase, putative (SPS2)	EG_transcript_17462		selenophosphate synthetase, putative (SPS2)
seryl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_26096		seryl-tRNA synthetase
Threonyl and Alanyl-tRNA synthetase			
threonyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_2180	EG_transcript_4373	threonyl-tRNA synthetase
tryptophanyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_17328	EG_transcript_7320, EG_transcript_7650	tryptophanyl-tRNA synthetase
tyrosyl/methionyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_22934		tyrosyl/methionyl-tRNA synthetase
tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase	EG_transcript_11394	EG_transcript_26133, EG_transcript_27695, EG_transcript_28837	tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase
valyl-tRNA synthetase,	EG_transcript_1453	EG_transcript_1687	valyl-tRNA synthetase, putative (ValRS)

	putative (ValRS)			
Class II (tRNA-ligases)	Alanine--tRNA ligase			
	Asparagine--tRNA ligase, cytoplasmic			
	asparaginyl-tRNA synthetase 2			
	Bifunctional glutamate/proline--tRNA ligase			
	Glycine--tRNA ligase	EG_transcript_3792	EG_transcript_4976	Glycine--tRNA ligase
	Lysine--tRNA ligase	EG_transcript_21843		Lysine--tRNA ligase
	Lysine--tRNA ligase, cytoplasmic			
	Lysine--tRNA ligase, mitochondrial			
	Phenylalanine--tRNA ligase alpha subunit			
	Phenylalanine--tRNA ligase beta subunit	EG_transcript_31175		Phenylalanine--tRNA ligase beta subunit
	Tyrosine--tRNA ligase, cytoplasmic	EG_transcript_17808		Tyrosine--tRNA ligase, cytoplasmic
	Phenylalanine--tRNA ligase, mitochondrial	EG_transcript_8464	EG_transcript_66085	Phenylalanine--tRNA ligase, mitochondrial
	Serine--tRNA ligase	EG_transcript_7877		Serine--tRNA ligase

	Serine--tRNA ligase, mitochondrial			
	Cysteine--tRNA ligase	EG_transcript_8663		Cysteine--tRNA ligase
	Glutamate--tRNA ligase	EG_transcript_4918		Glutamate--tRNA ligase
	Glutamine--tRNA ligase	EG_transcript_4663	EG_transcript_6722	Glutamine--tRNA ligase
	Leucine--tRNA ligase	EG_transcript_1718		Leucine--tRNA ligase
	Isoleucine--tRNA ligase, cytoplasmic	EG_transcript_1330		Isoleucine--tRNA ligase, cytoplasmic
	Methionine--tRNA ligase	EG_transcript_1145		Methionine--tRNA ligase
	Threonine--tRNA ligase			
Initiation Factors	eIF2a	EG_transcript_9985		eIF2a
	eIF2B	EG_transcript_9484		eIF2B
	eIF2B-alpha	EG_transcript_6440		eIF2B-alpha
	eIF2B-beta	EG_transcript_24882		eIF2B-beta
	eIF2B-delta	EG_transcript_9484		eIF2B-delta
	eIF2B-epsilon	EG_transcript_5123		eIF2B-epsilon
	eIF2G	EG_transcript_10211		eIF2G
	eIF4a	EG_transcript_10211	EG_transcript_6824, EG_transcript_8282, EG_transcript_9065, EG_transcript_23012, EG_transcript_52954	eIF4a
	eIF4e (1 - 6)	EG_transcript_23493	EG_transcript_5504, EG_transcript_9983, EG_transcript_12176, EG_transcript_12824, EG_transcript_13797, EG_transcript_14547, EG_transcript_20040, EG_transcript_20943, EG_transcript_23493, EG_transcript_27095	eIF4e (1 - 6)

	eIF4G1	EG_transcript_11223		eIF4G1
	eIF4G2	EG_transcript_10211		eIF4G2
	eIF4G3	EG_transcript_4306		eIF4G3
	eIF4G4	EG_transcript_4306	EG_transcript_735	eIF4G4
	eIF4G5	EG_transcript_4306		eIF4G5
	K1	EG_transcript_388		K1
	K2	EG_transcript_1834	EG_transcript_19804	K2
	K3	EG_transcript_1834		K3
			EG_transcript_12193, EG_transcript_21222, EG_transcript_21345, EG_transcript_21408, EG_transcript_2280, EG_transcript_23784, EG_transcript_43186, EG_transcript_45856, EG_transcript_5117, EG_transcript_5441, EG_transcript_9154	
	PAPB1	EG_transcript_3151		PAPB1
	PAPB2	EG_transcript_19503	EG_transcript_4302	PAPB2
Elongation Factors (EF)	EF-1-alpha (TEF1a)	EG_transcript_12357	EG_transcript_18855, EG_transcript_45355, EG_transcript_5617	EF-1-alpha (TEF1a)
	EF-1-beta (TEF1b)	EG_transcript_64722	EG_transcript_20319	EF-1-beta (TEF1b)
	EF-1-gamma (TEF1g)	EG_transcript_11223		EF-1-gamma (TEF1g)
	EF-2 (TEF-2)	EG_transcript_5039	EG_transcript_51028	EF-2 (TEF-2)
	GTP-binding EF-Tu family	EG_transcript_6874	EG_transcript_8722, EG_transcript_1495	GTP-binding EF-Tu family
	selenocysteine-tRNA-specific EF	EG_transcript_6473		selenocysteine-tRNA-specific EF
Termination Release Factors	eukaryotic peptide chain release factor subunit 1, putative (ERF1)	EG_transcript_5686		eukaryotic peptide chain release factor subunit 1, putative (ERF1)
	eukaryotic release factor 3, putative (ERF3)	EG_transcript_4245		eukaryotic release factor 3, putative (ERF3)

	RF-1 domain containing protein	EG_transcript_6340		RF-1 domain containing protein
Recycling	RRF1			

**Note:** The table shows the sets of proteins for functional translational apparatus inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = Reference sub family. Column 2 = Gene convention. Column 3 = *E. gracilis* Reference sequence ID. Column 4 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 4 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name respectively. Empty white cells in columns means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

### 5.3.2 Pre-initiation complex (Transcription regulatory complexes)

Using BLAST, PSI-BLAST and OrthoFinder, I found the core transcriptional pre-initiation complex proteins (Table 5.9). Proteins found include the core promoters (TATA-binding protein), the general transcription factors (TFIIA - GTF2A1, GTF2A2; TFIIB - GTF2B; TFIID - TAF1-7, 10 – 12; and TFIIH - CDK7/cyclin H kinase complex), DNA helicase, RNA Polymerase (RPB1 and RPB2) and the Activators and Repressors (Ctk1, CDK7, CDK8, CCNC, MEDs, CCNT, and TLF). TFIIA, B –TFIID, TFIID (BTAF1, BTF3, BTF3L4, EDF1, 6L, 7L, 11L), TFIIIE, TFIIF, TFIIJ, TFIIK, other members of the RNA Polymerase (RNAP), and the Activators and Repressors (CBP-1 and CTD kinases) (Maree and Patterson, 2014; Blackwell and Walker, 2006; Samorodnitsky and Pugh, 2010; Yin and Wang, 2014; Poss, *et al.*, 2013; Rhess and Pugh, 2012; Afek and Lukatsky, 2013; Lauberth, *et al.*, 2013; and Murakami, *et al.*, 2013). The absence of the proteins may be due to incomplete dataset and not due to incomplete transcriptional machinery in *E. gracilis*.

**Table 5.9:** Transcription regulatory complexes (RNA Pol II and general transcription factors) in *E. gracilis*.

Category/complex	Gene/convention	nrBLAST evalue	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
Core Promoters	TATA-binding protein (TBP)	3.00E-052	EG_transcript_17190	EG_transcript_16379	TATA-binding protein (TBP)
TFIIA	GTF2A1				
	GTF2A2	2.00E-006	EG_transcript_63671		GTF2A2
TFIIB	GTF2B	1.00E-062	EG_transcript_21874		RNA polymerase III transcription factor IIIB
B-TFIID	BTA1	0	EG_transcript_588	EG_transcript_11305, EG_transcript_1160, EG_transcript_15685, EG_transcript_1871, EG_transcript_2607, EG_transcript_6408, EG_transcript_744, EG_transcript_993	
TFIID	BTA1				
	BTF3	3.00E-043	EG_transcript_32626		BTF3
	BTF3L4	3.00E-043	EG_transcript_32626		BTF3L4
	EDF1	1.00E-041	EG_transcript_25186		EDF1
	TAF1 – 15	1.00E-018	EG_transcript_31652	EG_transcript_17472, EG_transcript_31652, EG_transcript_3972, EG_transcript_10703, EG_transcript_6811, EG_transcript_28897, EG_transcript_17038, EG_transcript_31437, EG_transcript_63637, EG_transcript_20588, EG_transcript_27352, EG_transcript_11294, EG_transcript_16079, EG_transcript_20105, EG_transcript_26855, EG_transcript_27352, EG_transcript_31447, EG_transcript_36755	TAF1-15 (except for TAF3, TAF4, TAF10, TAF11, and TAF13)
	6L	6.00E-046	EG_transcript_6811		6L
	7L				



	11L				
TFIIE	$\alpha$ -subunit	1.00E-008	EG_transcript_18459		$\alpha$ -subunit
	$\beta$ -subunit	3.00E-043	EG_transcript_32626		
TFIIF	RAP30 (large subunit)				
	RAP74 (small subunit)				
TFIIH	CDK7/cyclin H kinase complex	1.00E-015	EG_transcript_4913	EG_transcript_24942, EG_transcript_12795, EG_transcript_17017, EG_transcript_15271, EG_transcript_9986, EG_transcript_18332, EG_transcript_27826	Cyclin H kinase complex
DNA Helicase	DNA Helicase	0	EG_transcript_2707	EG_transcript_1436,	RPB1 (POLR2A)
RNA Polymerase (RNAP)	RPB1 (POLR2A)	0	EG_transcript_92	EG_transcript_26129, EG_transcript_30765, EG_transcript_40868, EG_transcript_54794	RPB2 (POLR2B)
	RPB2 (POLR2B)	0	EG_transcript_464	EG_transcript_1166, EG_transcript_15521, EG_transcript_20482	RPB3 (POLR2C)
	RPB3 (POLR2C)	4.00E-081	EG_transcript_15850		RPB4 (POLR2D)
	RPB4 (POLR2D)	2.00E-020	EG_transcript_32084		RPB5 (POLR2E)
	RPB5 (POLR2E)	7.00E-065	EG_transcript_23275		RPB6 (POLR2F)
	RPB6 (POLR2F)	4E-39	EG_transcript_35731		RPABC2/RPB6
	RPB7 (POLR2G)	3.00E-050	EG_transcript_24901		RPB7 (POLR2G)

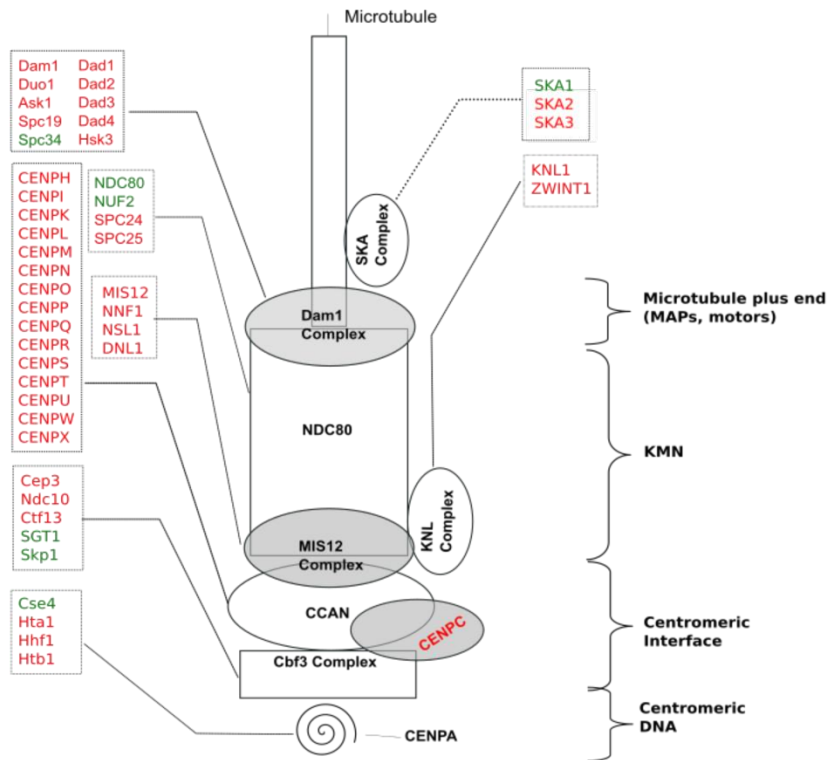
	RPB8 (POLR2H)	1.00E-033	EG_transcript_26233		RPB8 (POLR2H)
	RPB9 (POLR2I)	4.00E-034	EG_transcript_26985		RPB9 (POLR2I)
	RPB10 (POLR2L)				
	RPB11-a (POLR2J)	3.00E-028	EG_transcript_26129		RPB11-a (POLR2J)
	RPB11-b (POLR2J2)				
	RPB11-c (POLR2J3)				
	RPB12 (POLR2K)				
	RNAPII0				
	RNAPIIA				
	RNA POL I (Subunit 1)	2.00E-101	EG_transcript_2051	EG_transcript_7627	RNA POL I (Subunit 1)
	RNA POL III	0	EG_transcript_460		RNA POL III
Activators and Repressors	Ctk1 (CDK9)	3.00E-116	EG_transcript_20268		Ctk1 (CDK9)
	CDK7	6E-144	EG_transcript_12795		CDK2
	CDK8	6E-144	EG_transcript_12795		
	cyclin C (CCNC)	6E-144	EG_transcript_10654	EG_transcript_12795	
	CBP-1				
	CTD kinases	2.00E-097	EG_transcript_15279	EG_transcript_15687, EG_transcript_15863, EG_transcript_17202, EG_transcript_17838, EG_transcript_14503	CTD kinases
	MED1 to MED 31	2.00E-011	EG_transcript_41685	EG_transcript_26163, EG_transcript_3741, EG_transcript_2126	MED6, MED7, MED12 & MED14 (MED1-5, 8-11, 13, 15 -

					13 absent)
cyclin T (CCNT)			EG_transcript_31481		cyclin T/Cyclin L (CCNT)
TLF	3.00E-052		EG_transcript_17190		TLF
Cyclin 1 - 10	5.00E-144		EG_transcript_12795	EG_transcript_12795, EG_transcript_20268	CDK1, CDK7, CDK8, CDK9 (CDK2,3,4,5 absent)

**Note:** The table shows the sets of proteins for transcription regulatory complexes (RNA Pol II and general transcription factors) inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = Reference sub family. Column 2 = Gene convention. Column 3 = nrBLAST evalue for the reference sequence. Column 4 = *E. gracilis* Reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Paralogous sequence IDs. Column 6 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name respectively. Empty white cells in columns means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

### 5.3.3 Kinetochores

To identify proteins that are relevant for mitosis (conventional kinetochores), I used BLAST, PSI-BLAST and OrthoFinder clustering algorithms, using the 19 KKTs and 7 KKIPs reported in *T. brucei* (Akiyoshi and Gull, 2014; D'Archivio and Wickstead, 2016) and a selection of eukaryotic conventional kinetochores (Lampert and Westerman, 2011, Meraldiet al. 2006, Kitagawa and Heiter, 2001) as a reference set. Out of the 19 KKTs and 7 KKIPs present in *T. brucei*, I found three of them in the *E. gracilis* transcriptome (KKT10, KKT19, and KKIP7) with multiple copies for KKT10/19 (Figure 5.11, Table 5.10). The KKT proteins show clear homology to KKT10 than they did to KKT19. The KKTs found showed huge sequence similarity and conservation when aligned with MAFFT, however, additional analysis will be required to confirm the classification of *E. gracilis* KKT10 and KKT19. Protein families of members of the microtubule plus-end, KMN, and centromeric interface, and centromeric DNA were found. Some of the *E. gracilis* kinetochores do not show similarity to two of the conventional kinetochore complexes in other eukaryotes (Lampert and Westerman, 2011, Meraldiet al. 2006, Kitagawa and Heiter, 2001), however, I found members of the KMN and CCAN which are core multi-protein complexes of the kinetochores (Figure 11, Table 5.10, and Appendix-Ia). Three complexes, MIS12, CCAN, and the CENPC, were not found in our dataset, suggesting a rather incomplete dataset or truncations of sequences as no *E. gracilis* sequences showed significant similarities to these complexes. Other proteins found are those involved in microtubule attachment, regulatory and signaling checkpoints.



B

MT attachment, regulatory, and checkpoint signalling proteins			
PLC-61	BUB1	KIF2A	PCNA
Ch-TOG/Mor1	BUB3	Aurora A	$\alpha$ -tubulin
Bim1	MAD1	Survivin/BIRC5	SRP54
CLIP170 (CLIP1)	MAD2A	NCOG	EB1
IAK1	MSP1	Zw10	BIR1
Sli15p	Cdc20	LIS1	
<b>Kinetoplastid Kinetochore (KKT)</b>			
KKT10/19			
<b>Kinetoplastid-specific phospho-protein phosphatase (KKIP)</b>			
KKIP7			

**Figure 5.11: Conventional and non conventional Kinetochores are characteristic of the *E. gracilis* Kinetochore machinery.** Architectural representation of *E. gracilis* Kinetochores. Panel A: Showing the general structure of the kinetochore highlighting the microtubule plus-end (Dam1 and SKA1), the KMN (NDC80, MIS12 complex, KNL1 complex), the centromeric interface (CCAN, CENPC, Cbf3 complex), and the centromeric DNA (CENPA). Boxes linked to these respective complexes shows the proteins associated with it. Text coloured green means presence in *E. gracilis* whilst those coloured red indicate absence in *E. gracilis*. Diagram is as previously described by Lampert and Westerman, 2011, and superimposed. Panel B: Showing the microtubule attachments, regulatory and checkpoint signalling, kinetoplastid kinetochores (KKT) and kinetoplastid-specific phosphor protein phosphatase proteins (KKIP) associated with the kinetochores. The KKTs and KKIPs are restricted to the kinetoplastids but some sub families (KKT10/19 and KKIP7 respectively) are also found in *E. gracilis*. Conventions and classifications are as designated by Lampert and Westerman, 2011, Meraldiet al. 2006, Kitagawa and Heiter, 2001, Akiyoshi and Gull, 2014 (Kinetoplastid Kinetochores, KKT), D'Archivio and Wickstead, 2016 (Kinetoplastid-specific phosphor protein phosphatase, KKIP).

**Table 5.10:** Kinetochores and its protein composition in *E. gracilis*.

Kinetochores complex	Baker's yeast proteins	H. sapiens proteins	nrBLAST evalue	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
<b>Ndc80 complex</b>	Ndc80p	NDC80 (Hec1)	2.00E-016	EG_transcript_7526	N/A	<b>NDC80</b>
	Spc24p	SPC24				
	Spc25p	SPC25	2.00E-016	EG_transcript_7526	N/A	
	Nuf2p	NUF2R	2.00E-018	EG_transcript_11202	N/A	<b>NUF2</b>
<b>MIS12 (Mtw12)</b>	Mtw1p	Mis12				
	Nnf1p	NNF1				
	Nsl1p	NSL1				
	Dsn1p	DSN1				
<b>Spc105 complex</b>	Spc105p	KNL1 (Blinkin)				
	Ydr532p	ZWINT1				
<b>CENPA</b>					EG_transcript_21219, EG_transcript_27533, EG_transcript_29591, EG_transcript_30647, EG_transcript_33619, EG_transcript_64233	<b>Histone H3</b>
	Cse4p	CENPA	1.00E-085	EG_transcript_21219		
	Cbf1p	TFE3	1.00E-074	EG_transcript_3336	N/A	
<b>CENPC</b>	Mif2p	CENPC				
<b>CCAN (Human)</b>		CENPK				
		CENPL				
		CENPM				
		CENPN				
		CENPO				
		CENPP				
		CENPQ				
		CENPR				
		CENPS				
	CENPT					

		CENPU				
		CENPW				
		CENPX				
		CENPB				
		CENPE				
<b>CCAN (Yeast)</b>	Ctf19p	N/A				
	Okp1p	CENPF				
	Mcm21p	Mal2				
	Ame1p	N/A				
	Ctf3p	CENPI				
	Plc	PLC- $\delta$ 1	2E-83	EG_transcript_1338	N/A	PLC- $\delta$ 1
	Mcm16p					
	Mcm22p					
	Chl4p					
	Iml3p					
	Nkp1p					
	Nkp2p					
	Cnn1p					
	Slk19p	CENPF				
	Sim4					
	Fta1					
	Fta3	CENPH				
Fta4						
<b>DASH (Dam1) complex</b>	Ask1p	N/A				
	Dam1p	N/A				
	Dad1p	N/A				
	Dad2p	N/A				
	Dad3p	N/A				
	Dad4p	N/A				
Duo1p	N/A					

	Hsk3p	N/A				
	Spc19p	N/A				
	Spc34p	N/A	8.00E-124	EG_transcript_9981	N/A	Spc34
<b>SKA Complex</b>	N/A	SKA1	4.00E-036	EG_transcript_17333	EG_transcript_50775	SKA1
	N/A	SKA2				
	N/A	SKA3				
<b>CBF3</b>	Ndc10p	N/A				
	Ctf13p	N/A				
	Cep3p	N/A				
	Sgt1p	SGT1	8.00E-061	EG_transcript_13576	EG_transcript_13576, EG_transcript_16816, EG_transcript_17578, EG_transcript_22504, EG_transcript_22585, EG_transcript_24612, EG_transcript_39776	Protein SGT1
	Skp1p	P19/SKP1	2.00E-085	EG_transcript_13383	N/A	Skp1
<b>Regulatory proteins (Sli15 complex)</b>	Ipl1p	IAK1	0	EG_transcript_13984	N/A	Ipl1 protien kinase
	Sli15p		5.00E-095	EG_transcript_1470	N/A	Sli15
	Borealin	Borealin				
	Bir1p	BIR1	6.00E-011	EG_transcript_4348	N/A	Bir1
	Bub1p	BUB1	6.00E-029	EG_transcript_4679	EG_transcript_4679, EG_transcript_15337,	Bub1
	Bub3p	BUB3	3.00E-091	EG_transcript_15004	N/A	Bub3
	Mad1p	MAD1	2.00E-012	EG_transcript_3089	N/A	MAD1
	Mad2p	MAD2 (MAD2L1)	7.00E-094	EG_transcript_22781	N/A	MAD2A
	Mad3p	MAD3 (BUB1R)	6.00E-029	EG_transcript_15337	N/A	Bub1
	Mps1p	MPS1 (PYT/TTK1)	1.00E-075	EG_transcript_10874	EG_transcript_10874, EG_transcript_24615	Msp1
	Cdc20	Cdc20	3.00E-158	EG_transcript_8342	N/A	Cdc20
<b>MT attachment,</b>	Plc	PLC- $\delta$ 1	2E-83	EG_transcript_1338	N/A	PLC- $\delta$ 1
	Stu2p	Ch-TOG	3.00E-148	EG_transcript_458	N/A	MOR1



**regulatory,  
and  
checkpoint  
signalling  
proteins**

Bim1p		2.00E-054	EG_transcript_24591	N/A	Bim1
Bik1p	CLIP170 (CLIP1)	8.00E-063	EG_transcript_1988	N/A	Bik1
	KIF2A	1E-62	EG_transcript_2827		
	KIF2B				
	KIF2C/MCAK				
	INCENP				
	Aurora B				
	Aurora A	0	EG_transcript_13984	N/A	Aurora A
	Survivin/BIRC5	3.00E-017	EG_transcript_18602	EG_transcript_22643	BIRC5
	ICIS/MTUS1				
	ICIS/MTUS2				
Glc7	PP1 (PPP1CC)	0	EG_transcript_6968	N/A	PP1 (PPP1CC)
	Zw10	2E-21	EG_transcript_7524	N/A	Zw10
	Zwint-1				
	Rod (CCHCR1)				
	LIS1 (PAFAH1B1)	2E-126	EG_transcript_11974	N/A	LIS1 (PAFAH1B1)
	CLASP1	3E-18	EG_transcript_1303		
	CLASP2				
	CLIP-170 (CLIP1)	8E-63	EG_transcript_1988		
	EB1 (MAPRE1)	2E-54	EG_transcript_24591	N/A	EB1 (MAPRE1)
PCNA	N/A	6.00E-124	EG_transcript_24437	N/A	PCNA
a-tubulin	a-tubulin	0	EG_transcript_10562	N/A	a-tubulin
Srp54p	SRP54	0	EG_transcript_8662	N/A	SRP54
<i>T. brucei</i>					

<b>Kinetoplastid Kinetochore (KKT)</b>	KKT1					
	KKT2		3.00E-108	EG_transcript_16061		Protein kinase
	KKT3		2.00E-144	EG_transcript_14276		polo-like protein kinase
	KKT4		4.00E-083	EG_transcript_6409		Ankyrin repeat protein
	KKT5					
	KKT6					
	KKT7					
	KKT8					
	KKT9					
	KKT10		7.00E-090	EG_transcript_18328	EG_transcript_18328, EG_transcript_13506, EG_transcript_18595	KKT10, putative
	KKT11					
	KKT12					
	KKT13		5.00E-012	EG_transcript_11775		
	KKT14					
	KKT15					
	KKT16					
	KKT17					
	KKT18					
	KKT19		1.00E-090	EG_transcript_18328	EG_transcript_24137	KKT10/KKT19, putative
<b>Kinetoplastid- specific phospho- protein phosphatase (KKIP)</b>	KKIP1					
	KKIP2					
	KKIP3					
	KKIP4					
	KKIP5					
	KKIP6					
	KKIP7		8.00E-101	EG_transcript_3659	EG_transcript_5075, EG_transcript_9673	KKIP7 putative

**Note:** The table shows the protein composition of the *E. gracilis* kinetochore. Column 1 = Reference sub family. Column 2 = Gene convention. Column 3 = nrBLAST evaluate for the reference sequence. Column 4 = *E. gracilis* Reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 6 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name respectively. Empty white cells in column 3 and 4 means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

#### 5.3.4 mRNA metabolism

I analyzed the *E. gracilis* transcriptome for mRNA metabolism gene candidates: DHH1, SCD6, XRNA, XRNB, XRNC, XRND, NOT1, and UPF1. Using a BLAST, PSI-BLAST and OrthoFinder searches of reference *T. brucei* mRNA metabolism genes, I found the entire mRNA metabolism proteins (except XRNC) from the reference set with moderate sequence similarity and amino acid conservation (Table 5.11).

**Table 5.11:** RNA metabolism proteins in *E. gracilis*.

Category/complex	Gene/convention	nrBLAST evalue	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
DHH1	DHH1	0.0		EG_transcript_5941	DHH1
SCD6	SCD6	2E-26	EG_transcript_4567	EG_transcript_7661, EG_transcript_16210, EG_transcript_16290, EG_transcript_27759	SCD6
XRNA	XRNA	0	EG_transcript_425	EG_transcript_16941, EG_transcript_4369	XRNA
XRNB	XRNB	5.00E-115	EG_transcript_3595	EG_transcript_3555, EG_transcript_5287, EG_transcript_3611	XRNB
XRNC	XRNC				
XRND	XRND	9.00E-104	EG_transcript_2132	EG_transcript_2268	XRND
NOT1	NOT1	4E-148	EG_transcript_467		NOT1
UPF	UPF	0	EG_transcript_1144		UPF1

**Note:** The table shows the protein composition of the *E. gracilis* kinetochore. Column 1 = Reference sub family. Column 2 = Gene convention. Column 3 = nrBLAST evalue for reference sequence. Column 4 = *E. gracilis* Reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 6 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name respectively. Empty white cells in column 3 and 4 means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

### 5.3.5 Exosomes

Exosome, which are 40-100 nm vesicles of endocytic origin that are formed within multivesicular bodies (MVBs) (Eliaz, *et al.*, 2017), were identified in the *E. gracilis* proteome using *T. brucei* reference sets. Exosomes found include: RRP41A, RRP41B, RRP45, EAP4, RRP4, RRP40, DIS3-L, CSL4/5, RRP44, and RRP6. EAP1 - 3 were not found (Table 5.12).

**Table 5.12:** Exosome proteins present in *E. gracilis*.

Category/complex	Gene/convention	nrBLAST evalue	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
RRP41A	RRP41A	7E-78	EG_transcript_19722		RRP41A
RRP41B	RRP41B	6.00E-033	EG_transcript_29615		RRP46
RRP45	RRP45	3E-76	EG_transcript_12341	EG_transcript_22407	RRP45
EAP1	EAP1				
EAP2	EAP2	3E-76	EG_transcript_12341		
EAP3	EAP3				
EAP4	EAP4	5E-48	EG_transcript_29813		EAP2
RRP4	RRP4	3E-51	EG_transcript_18024		RRP4
RRP40	RRP40	5E-49	EG_transcript_23635		RRP40
CSL4	CSL4	1E-50	EG_transcript_24025		CSL5
DIS3-L	DIS3-L	9E-113	EG_transcript_1172		DIS3-L
RRP44	RRP44	0	EG_transcript_1783		RRP44
RRP6	RRP6	7E-115	EG_transcript_4586		RRP6

**Note:** The table shows the Exosome proteins found in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = Reference sub family. Column 2 = Gene convention. Column 3 = nrBLAST evalue for reference sequence. Column 4 = *E. gracilis* Reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 6 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name respectively. Empty white cells in column 3 and 4 means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

### 5.3.6 Spliceosomes and related proteins

Spliceosomal and related proteins were predicted using BLAST and the OrthoFinder algorithm. The reference protein sequences are as contained in Yu, *et al.*, 2011 and Preußner, *et al.*, 2012. All subfamilies of the spliceosomal and related proteins were found except for the hnRNPs which I could not find (Table 5.13). Some specific proteins within the subfamilies were not found. For example, proteins missing are Sm D2, Sm N, SF3b145 (U2) U11/U12, U4atac, U6atac, Prp19 (fSap33, PRP19, CRN, SYF1) sub families. Subfamilies found include: SNRNPs (core proteins, major U2 type snRNP, minor U2 type snRNP, Tri-snRNP), non-snRNP (SR, PRP19 complex proteins, catalytic step II and late acting proteins, EJC, others with known motifs, others without know motifs), hnRNP proteins associated with the spliceosomes, and additional splicing regulators (Table 5.13).



**Table 5.13:** Spliceosomal proteins (snRNP and Trans-spliceosomes) and related factors in *E. gracilis*.

Category/complex	Gene/convention	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
Sm/Lsm	Sm B/B'	EG_transcript_22228	EG_transcript_31945	Sm B/B'
	Sm D1	EG_transcript_36320		Sm D1
	Sm D2			
	Sm D3	EG_transcript_19730		Sm D3
	Sm F	EG_transcript_49700		Sm F
	Sm N			
	LSm2	EG_transcript_32750		LSm2
	LSm4	EG_transcript_43397		LSm4
	LSm5	EG_transcript_34490		LSm5
U1	U1-70K	EG_transcript_11874		U1-70K
	CROP	EG_transcript_16849		CROP
	U1 A	EG_transcript_54080		U1 A
	U1 C	EG_transcript_32896	EG_transcript_1536	U1 C
	Fnbp3 (Prp40)	EG_transcript_27104	EG_transcript_15196	Fnbp3 (Prp40)
U2	U2 A'	EG_transcript_22467	EG_transcript_10571, EG_transcript_13248, EG_transcript_16069, EG_transcript_16828, EG_transcript_18804, EG_transcript_20962, EG_transcript_22467, EG_transcript_22868, EG_transcript_7776	U2 A'
	U2 B''	EG_transcript_4302		U2 B''
	SF3a120 (Prp21)	EG_transcript_12396	EG_transcript_35518, EG_transcript_35776, EG_transcript_45651	SF3a120 (Prp21)

	SF3a66 (Prp11p)	EG_transcript_8543		SF3a66 (Prp11p)
	SF3b155 (Hsh155p)	EG_transcript_34272		SF3b155 (Hsh155p)
	SF3b145 (Cus1p)			
	SF3b130 (Rse1p)	EG_transcript_1075		SF3b130 (Rse1p)
	SF3b49 (Hsh49p)	EG_transcript_40823	EG_transcript_17860	SF3b49 (Hsh49p)
	SF3b10	EG_transcript_33121	EG_transcript_5552	SF3b10
	SF3b14a			SF3b14a
	SF3b14b Rds3p)	EG_transcript_32818		SF3b14b Rds3p)
U5	U5-220 kDa	EG_transcript_261	EG_transcript_12019, EG_transcript_20164, EG_transcript_21910, EG_transcript_33457, EG_transcript_42349, EG_transcript_5130, EG_transcript_5786,	U5-220 kDa

			EG_transcript_6032, EG_transcript_6256, EG_transcript_6622, EG_transcript_8280	
	U5-200 kDa	EG_transcript_141	EG_transcript_261	U5-200 kDa
	U5-116 kDa	EG_transcript_1536	EG_transcript_59471	U5-116 kDa
	U5-102 kDa	EG_transcript_2027		U5-102 kDa
	U5-100 kDa		EG_transcript_33457, EG_transcript_5130	U5-100 kDa
	U5-40 kDa	EG_transcript_42349		U5-40 kDa
	U5-15 kDa	EG_transcript_32934		U5-15 kDa
	U5-52 kDa	EG_transcript_23482		U5-52 kDa
U4/U6	U4/U6-90 kDa	EG_transcript_8282	EG_transcript_12249, EG_transcript_13536, EG_transcript_47952, EG_transcript_7007	U4/U6-90 kDa
	U4/U6-60 kDa (Prp4)	EG_transcript_6069		U4/U6-60 kDa (Prp4)
	U4/U6-61 kDa (Prp31)	EG_transcript_11058	EG_transcript_8570	U4/U6-61 kDa (Prp31)
	U4/U6-20 kDa	EG_transcript_21220		U4/U6-20 kDa
	U4/U6-15.5 kDa	EG_transcript_34339		U4/U6-15.5 kDa
U11/U12	U11-25			

	U11-35			
	U11-48			
	U11-59			
	U11/U12-20			
	U11/U12-31			
	U11/U12-65			
	C114			
	YB1			
	Toe-1			
U4atac	U4atac			
U6atac	U6atac			
U4/U6.U5 tri- snRNP-specific	Tri-snRNP 110 kDa	EG_transcript_7210		Tri-snRNP 110 kDa
	Tri-snRNP 65 kDa	EG_transcript_31193		Tri-snRNP 65 kDa
	Tri-snRNP 27 kDa	EG_transcript_29809		Tri-snRNP 27 kDa
SR	9G8	EG_transcript_20514		9G8
	Tra2-beta	EG_transcript_21345		Tra2-beta
	Tra2-alpha	EG_transcript_21345		Tra2-alpha
Prp19 complex	CDC5	EG_transcript_13535		CDC5
	PRP5	EG_transcript_2790		PRP5

	PRP46	EG_transcript_12337		PRP46
	fSap33			
	PRP19			
	CRN			
	SYF1			
Catalytic step II & late-acting	Prp22 (DHX8)	EG_transcript_5745		Prp22 (DHX8)
	Prp43	EG_transcript_3381		Prp43
	Prp16	EG_transcript_2127		Prp16
	MCG9280			MCG9280
	Prp17			Prp17
	Prp18	EG_transcript_17464		Prp18
Exon junction complex (EJC)	SRm160	EG_transcript_19739	EG_transcript_3865, EG_transcript_5276	SRm160
	UAP56	EG_transcript_10531		UAP56
	LDC2	EG_transcript_29944		LDC2
	Y14	EG_transcript_35526		Y14
	Magoh	EG_transcript_32711		Magoh
DexD/H	DDX3			
	DBY			
	p68	EG_transcript_6137		p68
	p72			
	Dbp5			
	DICE1	EG_transcript_3163		DICE1
	FLJ41215			
	DDXL			
	Abstrakt			

	NMP265	EG_transcript_23012	EG_transcript_3639, EG_transcript_11281	NMP265
	RHA	EG_transcript_759		RHA
	Prp2			
	DDX 35	EG_transcript_4862		DDX 35
	fSAP118	EG_transcript_1831		fSAP118
	FLJ21972	EG_transcript_8077		FLJ21972
	SF3b125			
	SKI2W	EG_transcript_6545	EG_transcript_8090	SKI2W
Cyclophilins	CyPL1	EG_transcript_27668		CyPL1
	CyP60	EG_transcript_27668		CyP60
	CyPJ	EG_transcript_6327		CyPJ
	CyP64	EG_transcript_14492		CyP64
	NY-CO-10	EG_transcript_8339		NY-CO-10
WD40s	TEX1	EG_transcript_9419		TEX1
	fSAP57	EG_transcript_10335	EG_transcript_57994	fSAP57
	fSAP35	EG_transcript_13815		fSAP35
	MGC4238	EG_transcript_17141		MGC4238
Cap Binding	CBP80	EG_transcript_7013	EG_transcript_10490, EG_transcript_22536	CBP80
	CBP20	EG_transcript_19699	EG_transcript_22332	CBP20
Polyadenylated machinery	PAB1	EG_transcript_2280	EG_transcript_12193, EG_transcript_23784, EG_transcript_45856, EG_transcript_47270, EG_transcript_5101, EG_transcript_5441	PAB1

	PAB2	EG_transcript_27391		PAB2
Znf motif	CPSF 160			
	ZNF183	EG_transcript_18213	EG_transcript_36959	ZNF183
	fSAP47			
	ZNF207			
	FLJ31121	EG_transcript_26007		FLJ31121
Other motifs	U2 AF35	EG_transcript_46732	EG_transcript_20807, EG_transcript_20361, EG_transcript_20135	U2 AF35
	U2 AF65	EG_transcript_2354		U2 AF65
	fSAP164	EG_transcript_514	EG_transcript_64781	fSAP164
	fSAP152			
	SPF45			
	fSAP94			
	ZFM1	EG_transcript_12083		ZFM1
	fSAP	EG_transcript_16024	EG_transcript_25189, EG_transcript_4423, EG_transcript_71966	fSAP
	TAT-SF1			TAT-SF1
	fSAP59	EG_transcript_27544	EG_transcript_39982, EG_transcript_44698, EG_transcript_46762	fSAP59
	SKIP	EG_transcript_11585		SKIP
	Hpr1	EG_transcript_8521		Hpr1
	fSAPb			fSAPb
	CRK7	EG_transcript_44387	EG_transcript_54791, EG_transcript_57218, EG_transcript_29712, EG_transcript_27768, EG_transcript_24615, EG_transcript_18904,	CRK7

		EG_transcript_15534, EG_transcript_14792, EG_transcript_13734	
	TIP39		
	Prp4 kinase		
	CPSF5		
	fSAPc		
	FLJ10374	EG_transcript_17862	FLJ10374
	RRP6		RRP6
	SMC1	EG_transcript_318	SMC1
	CAPE	EG_transcript_864	CAPE
	HUB1		
	Prp38		
	Prp39		
	fSAP17		
	MRPS4	EG_transcript_51504	MRPS4
	fSAP113		
	SPF30		
	CGI-25		
Other spliceosomes with unknown motifs	ASR2		
	THO2	EG_transcript_72417	THO2
	fSAP24	EG_transcript_28851	fSAP24
	fSAP71		
	MFAP1		
	FEM-2		
	fSAP105	EG_transcript_8429	fSAP105
	CCAP2		



	DGSI	EG_transcript_11864		DGSI
	NAP	EG_transcript_5609		NAP
	SPF27	EG_transcript_14165		SPF27
	LUCA15			
	KIAA0122	EG_transcript_62587		KIAA0122
	Lupus La Kin17			
	G patch containing 1	EG_transcript_53097		G patch containing 1
	FLJ39430	EG_transcript_17764		FLJ39430
	fSAP23	EG_transcript_14588		fSAP23
	fSAP29			
hnRNPs	hnRNP L			
	hnRNP R	EG_transcript_23877		hnRNP R
	hnRNP Q			
	Bub3	EG_transcript_15004	EG_transcript_20441, EG_transcript_12355	Bub3
	HSP70			
	HSP71			
	HSP90	EG_transcript_5918	EG_transcript_4403, EG_transcript_3387, EG_transcript_1060	HSP90
	GRP78	EG_transcript_5458	EG_transcript_5157, EG_transcript_3371	GRP78
	RNPL	EG_transcript_12387	EG_transcript_18218	RNPL

	hnRNP M	EG_transcript_10425		hnRNP M
	hnRNP H2	EG_transcript_14181		hnRNP H2
	hnRNP A0	EG_transcript_15874	EG_transcript_16348, EG_transcript_18642, EG_transcript_20926	hnRNP A0
	hnRNP A1	EG_transcript_40301	EG_transcript_20570	hnRNP A1
	hnRNP R	EG_transcript_23877		hnRNP R
	hnRNP U	EG_transcript_26337		hnRNP U
	hnRNP I			
	hnRNP K			
	hnRNP C			
	HNRNPA2B1	EG_transcript_9473		HNRNPA2 B1
	PTBP2 (nPTB)	EG_transcript_9729	EG_transcript_6757, EG_transcript_6546, EG_transcript_2834	PTBP2 (nPTB)
	PTBP3	EG_transcript_22826	EG_transcript_46910, EG_transcript_8244	PTBP3
	HuR			
	HuB			
	HuC			
	HuD			
	Ku70			
Additional splicing	CUG-BP	EG_transcript_13296	EG_transcript_5117	CUG-BP

regulators	ETR3			
	CAGH4	EG_transcript_5985		CAGH4
	Bruno-like 4			
	Bruno-like 5	EG_transcript_32788		Bruno-like 5
	Bruno-like 6	EG_transcript_4547		Bruno-like 6
	SFRSK1	EG_transcript_46064		SFRSK1
	SFRSK2			
	CDC-like kinase 1			
	CDC-like kinase 2			
	CDC-like kinase 3	EG_transcript_6191	EG_transcript_12549	CDC-like kinase 3
	CDC-like kinase 4	EG_transcript_24137		CDC-like kinase 4

**Note:** The table shows the meiotic genes inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = category or complex. Column 2 = gene/convention. Column 3 = nrBLAST evaluate for the reference sequence. Column 4 = Reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 6 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name. Empty white cells in columns means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

### 5.3.7 Editosomes and related proteins

I predicted the repertoire of editosome proteins in *E. gracilis* using *T. Brucei* (Salavati, *et al.*, 2012, Deschamps, *et al.*, 2011, and Goring, 2012) and *A. thaliana* reference sets (Takenaka, 2014). All editosome subfamilies and related proteins were found except for GAP2, MORF1 (recently discovered in *A. thaliana*), and some members of the 20S which do not have any *E. gracilis* ortholog (Table 5.14).

**Table 5.14:** Proteins involved in editing found in *E. gracilis* transcriptome

Category/complex	Gene/convention	nrBLAST evalue	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
Accessory protein	Cobalt ion binding				
	DAG				
	DAL1				
KPAP1	EF-Tu	0	EG_transcript_8722	EG_transcript_1495, EG_transcript_45355	KPAP1 (EF-Tu)
MRB1	GAP2				
Accessory protein	GR-RBP3	6E-24	EG_transcript_39982	EG_transcript_40823, EG_transcript_43186, EG_transcript_44698, EG_transcript_46762, EG_transcript_47270, EG_transcript_54308	GR-RBP3
KPAF	KPAF1	4E-74	EG_transcript_3221	EG_transcript_56042	KPAF1
	KPAF2	8E-44	EG_transcript_12380		KPAF2
KPAP1	KPAP1				
20S Editosomes	KREL1				
	KREN1				
	KREN2				
	KREN3				
	KREPA1				
	KREPA2	3E-25	EG_transcript_1612		
	KREPA3				
	KREPA4				
	KREPA5				
	KREPB4				
	KREPB5				
KREPB6					

KREPB7				
KREPB8				
KRET1	2E-25	EG_transcript_1661	EG_transcript_10831	KRET1
KRET2	3E-25	EG_transcript_9521		KRET2
KREX1	6E-23	EG_transcript_4534		KREX1
KREX2	6E-23	EG_transcript_4534		KREX2
KRIPP1	6E-24	EG_transcript_3096		KRIPP1
LETM1				
MEAT1				
MHEL61	0	EG_transcript_2406	EG_transcript_11281, EG_transcript_12010, EG_transcript_1328, EG_transcript_13713, EG_transcript_14317, EG_transcript_15110, EG_transcript_23012, EG_transcript_2748, EG_transcript_2752, EG_transcript_2769, EG_transcript_2790, EG_transcript_2941, EG_transcript_2951, EG_transcript_3119, EG_transcript_3639, EG_transcript_3822, EG_transcript_3940, EG_transcript_4123, EG_transcript_4811, EG_transcript_5115, EG_transcript_5184, EG_transcript_5242, EG_transcript_52954, EG_transcript_5308, EG_transcript_5350, EG_transcript_5511, EG_transcript_5632, EG_transcript_5792 EG_transcript_5941, EG_transcript_5967, EG_transcript_6094, EG_transcript_6137, EG_transcript_6232, EG_transcript_6255, EG_transcript_6824, EG_transcript_6868, EG_transcript_6971, EG_transcript_7161 EG_transcript_7389, EG_transcript_7490, EG_transcript_7585, EG_transcript_7645,	MHEL61

				EG_transcript_7679, EG_transcript_7901, EG_transcript_8174, EG_transcript_8744, EG_transcript_9013, EG_transcript_9065	
MRB1	MRB1 (MRB3010)	1.00E-044	EG_transcript_1813	EG_transcript_19151 EG_transcript_39166 EG_transcript_56935 EG_transcript_59715	MRB1 (MRB3010)
	MRB4150				
	MRB4160				
	MRB8170				
	MRB8620				
	MRG	7.00E-013	EG_transcript_9906		MRG/bromodomain putative
	MSSU				
	REH2		EG_transcript_1067		REH2
	RGG		EG_transcript_763		RGG
	RGG2		EG_transcript_31056		RGG2
RRM/RBD/RNP		EG_transcript_39982		RRM/RBD/RNP	
MORF Family	MORF1				
	MORF2				
	MORF3				
	MORF4				
	MORF5				
	MORF6				
	MORF7				
	MORF8				
	MORF9				
	MORF10				



**Note:** The table shows the meiotic genes inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = category or complex. Column 2 = gene/convention. Column 3 = nrBLAST evaluate for the reference sequence. Column 4 = Reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 6 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name. Empty white cells in columns means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

### 5.3.8 TAC/CARP proteins

Using eukaryotic TAC/CAP reference sets (Zhou, *et al.*, 2012 and Lopez-Bellido, *et al.*, 2015), I could not predict the Tachykinin proteins: TAC1, TAC3s, TAC4, TACR1, TACR2, TACR3, and TACR4 as well as the Tripartite Attachment Complex (Appendix-Ia). This also include additional Tachykinin related proteins: TACL, TACL-86, substance-P receptor, substance-K receptor, protachykinin-1 isoform X1, peptides receptor 99D like, peptides receptor 99D, neuromedin-K receptor, and (Tachykinin-like) G protein-coupled receptor. I only found two CARPs and include CARP1 and 4 (Appendix I-a). The absence of Tachykinin and Tripartite Attachment Complex in *E. gracilis* is understandable since these proteins are unique to mammals and kinetoplastids (due to the presence of a kinetoplast) respectively.

### 5.3.9 RNAi pathway

I searched for all the members of the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) using eukaryotic reference sets (Owens and Malham, 2015; Dunoyer, *et al.*, 2015; and Dang, *et al.*, 2011). Present are all the subfamilies of the Dicer and Drosha - RNase III proteins, Argonaute proteins (except PIWI and Zwillie), small ncRNAs (except ssRNA binding), and Eri-1 like nuclease. dsRBM, RdRP, sid-1-like, AGO2 and AGO3 were not found (Table 5.15).

**Table 5.15:** RNAi pathway proteins found in *E. gracilis* transcriptome

Category/complex	Gene/convention	nrBLAST evalue	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
Dicer and Drosha - RNase III proteins	DCR1/DCL1	7E-38	EG_transcript_14317		DCR1/DCL1
	DCR2/DCL2	0	EG_transcript_2748		DCR2/DCL2
	DCR3/DCL3	4E-87	EG_transcript_7679		DCR3/DCL3
	DCR4/DCL4	1E-127	EG_transcript_12010		DCR4/DCL4
	Drosha	4E-13	EG_transcript_20514		
Argonaute proteins	AGO1 (PAZ, PIWI-PAZ domains)	1E-113	EG_transcript_1984		AGO1 (PAZ, PIWI-PAZ domains)
	PIWI				
	Zwille				
	PIWI-like 1	1E-113	EG_transcript_1984		AGO1 (PAZ, PIWI-PAZ domains)
	PIWI-like 2	9E-18	EG_transcript_7865		
	AGO3				
	AGO2				
small ncRNAs	dsRNA binding/Sid-1	2E-111	EG_transcript_5115		RNA helicase
	ssRNA binding				
dsRBM	dsRBM				
RdRP	RdRP				
Sid-1-like	Sid-1-like				

**Note:** The table shows the meiotic genes inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = category or complex. Column 2 = gene/convention. Column 3 = nrBLAST evaluate for the reference sequence. Column 4 = Reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 6 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name. Empty white cells in columns means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

## 5.4 METABOLISM

Cellular metabolism, represented by complements of enzymatic and transport reactions, is a fundamental biological system required for sustaining life (Peregrín-Alvarez, et al., 2009), and involves glycolysis and gluconeogenesis. Glycolysis (the Embden–Meyerhof–Parnas pathway) and gluconeogenesis are common to all domains of life and play fundamental roles in essential cellular processes. Some specific metabolic pathways are common to members of the kinetoplastids, and possibly, Excavates and other members of the eukaryotic kingdom. For instance, the carbohydrates (Galactofuranose, Galf) present in glycoconjugates of the cell surface of trypanosomatids are essential to a variety of cell events, including infectivity and/or virulence in insect vectors and mammalian hosts (Stoco, *et al.*, 2012). Similarly, a common feature of *Leishmania*-infected sand flies is the presence of a mass of parasites embedded within a gel-like material called the promastigote secretory gel (PSG), which contains proteophosphoglycans (PPGs) and lipophosphoglycan (LPG) (Stierhof, *et al.*, 1999). In this section, these processes (Galf and PPGs) will be discussed in *E. gracilis* (see section 5.6 for an extensive community discussion of the additional processes).

### 5.4.1 GalF

I found the Gipl galf transferase (GIPL galf), galactofuranosyltransferase lpg1-like protein (LPG1L), beta galactofuranosyl glycosyltransferase (B-GalF), and beta galactofuranosyl transferase (B-GalFT) (Stoco, *et al.*, 2012; Tefsen, *et al.*, 2012; Matsunaga, et al., 2015; Komachi, et al., 2013), which are conserved and consisted with the eukaryotic reference sets (Table 5.16).

**Table 5.16:** Galf biosynthesis genes in *E. gracilis*

Category/complex	Gene/convention	nrBLAST evalue	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
Gipl galf transferase	GIPL galf				
Galactofuranosyl transferase lpg1-like protein	LPG1L	6E-14	EG_transcript_14245	EG_transcript_5711, EG_transcript_6863	beta galactofuranosyl transferase
Beta galactofuranosyl glycosyltransferase	B-GalF	2E-19	EG_transcript_10895	EG_transcript_15940, EG_transcript_16921	glycosyltransferases
Beta galactofuranosyl transferase	B-GalT	6E-14	EG_transcript_14245		
Galactofuranosyl transferase A	glfA	1E-150	EG_transcript_1069	EG_transcript_1167, EG_transcript_751	Galactofuranosyl transferase A/udp-galactopyranose mutase

**Note:** The table shows the meiotic genes inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = category or complex. Column 2 = gene/convention. Column 3 = nrBLAST evalue for the reference sequence. Column 4 = Reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 6 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name. Empty white cells in columns means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.

#### 5.4.2 PPG

Multiple copies of Phosphoglycan beta (PPG) were found: PPG1, PPG3, PPG4, and PPG5, except for PPG2 which was not found (Table 5.17) (Satheesh, et al., 2014; Rogers, 2012; Secundino, *et al.*, 2010; Gabriela, et al., 2015). The presence of LPG and PPGs in *E. gracilis* may suggest a novel mechanism for resistance to external stressors as evident in *L. major*. They postulate that parasitism evolved at least four times in kinetoplastids, suggesting that obligate parasitic trypanosomatids are a relatively 'derived' group within kinetoplastids; their closest relative is likely to be the free-living *Bodo saltans*, and the ancestral trypanosomatids were probably parasites of insects.

**Table 5.17:** Proteophosphoglycan proteins in *E. gracilis*

Category/complex	Gene/convention	nrBLAST	Ref. Seq. ID	Paralogous Seq. ID	Final classification
Phosphoglycan beta 1	PPG1	0	EG_transcript_9168	EG_transcript_9330, EG_transcript_12167	Protein kinase/LRRP
Phosphoglycan beta 2	PPG2				
Phosphoglycan beta 3	PPG3	7.00E-75	EG_transcript_4652		Leucine Rich Repeat Protein
Phosphoglycan beta 4	PPG4	2.00E-17	EG_transcript_14557	EG_transcript_34202	Leucine Rich Repeat Protein
Phosphoglycan beta 5	PPG5	2.00E-17	EG_transcript_14557		Leucine Rich Repeat Protein

**Note:** The table shows the meiotic genes inventoried in *E. gracilis*. Column 1 = category or complex. Column 2 = gene/convention. Column 3 = nrBLAST evalue for the reference sequence. Column 4 = Reference sequence ID. Column 5 = Paralogous sequence ID. Column 6 = Final classifications. Green coloured cell and corresponding text means the presence of the corresponding protein and the protein name. Empty white cells in columns means that the corresponding protein /process was not found or that a final classification could not be made due to insufficient statistical confidence.



## 5.5 EVOLUTION

Members of Euglenozoa have diverse modes of nutrition, including predation, parasitism, and photoautotrophy (Lukes, et al., 2009). Little is known about the evolution of parasitism in kinetoplastids: According to Simpson, *et al.*, 2006, recent improvements in the taxon sampling for nuclear rRNA genes and several protein markers have transformed this understanding. Similarly, the genetic basis for parasitism is not yet known, however, it is possible that the loss and gain in parasitic lifestyle within the Euglenozoans may be due to Horizontal Gene Transfer (HGT) (Soucy, *et al.*, 2015). Many apparent gene duplications events, for example, are now known to be the result of HGT, not autochthonous gene duplication, resulting in a 'web of life' rather than in a steadily bifurcating tree (Treangen, and Rocha, 2011; Swithers, *et al.*, 2012). In this section, the results of the orthologous groups clustering will be discussed putting in context the endosymbiotic phenomenon and the transfer of genes.

### 5.5.1 Orthologous groups clustering

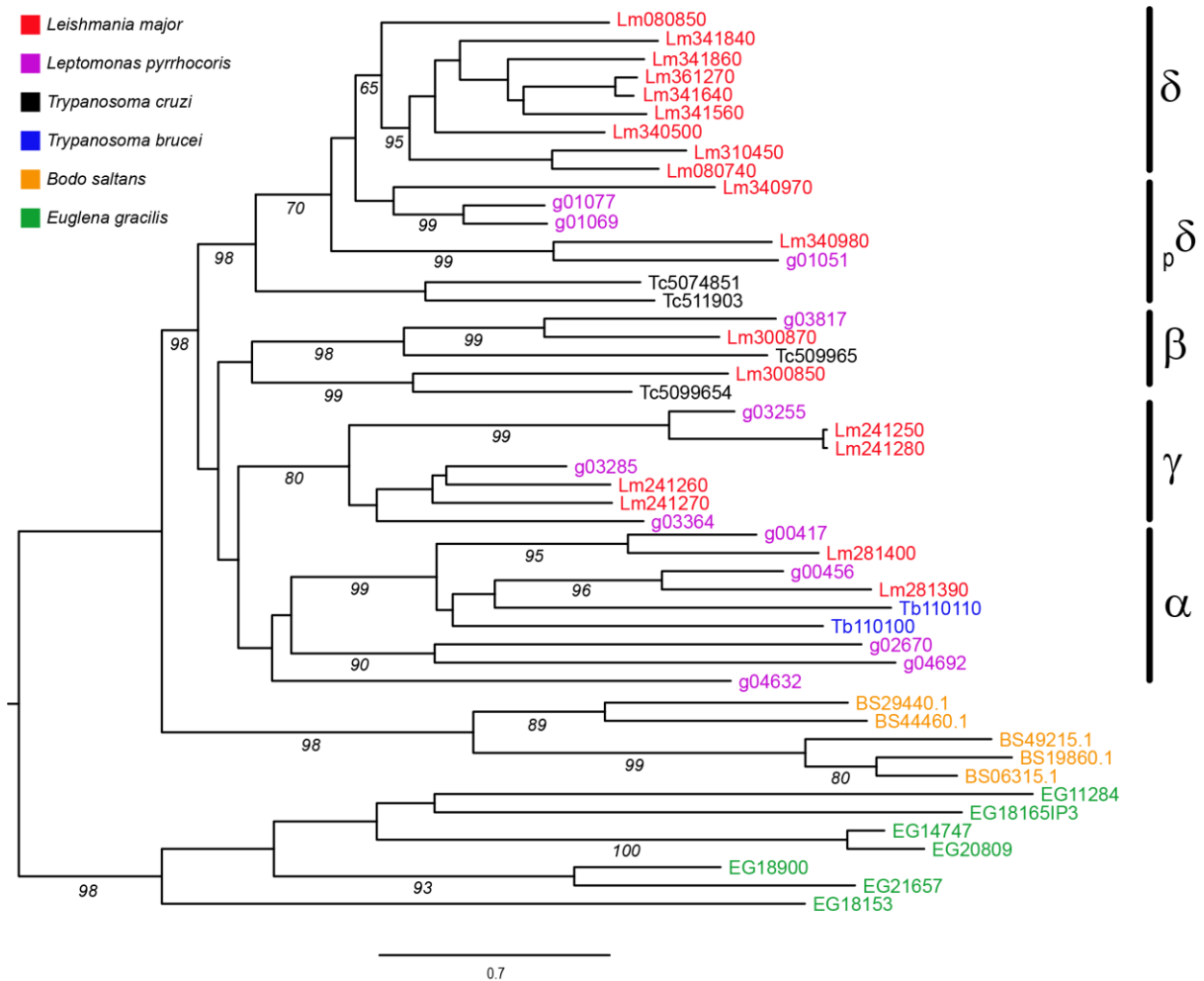
To depict orthology accross the eukaryotic kingdom such as families shared across eukaryotes and those restricted to specific taxonomic groupings, a set of 30 eukaryotic taxa was assembled which were then clustered with the *E. gracilis* transcriptome using the OrthoFinder algorithm (Emms and Kelly, 2015). This clustering analysis is important to understand the origin of the genes in *E. gracilis* as well as its hybrid nature. Overall, of the 36,526 *E. gracilis* predicted proteins, ~ 20,000 (55 % ; orthogroups n = 400) have orthology to one or more of the 30 eukaryotic reference sets, and are responsible for core metabolic, structural and informational processes - these are referred to as pan eukaryotic genes while about 45 % are shared accross selected eukaryotes (other euglena shared genes). Within this sets, euglena have genes specifically shared with trypanosomatids, broader sets of excavates, unikonts, land plants, red algae, secondary hosts, and green algae as well as genes unique to *E. gracilis* (see Chapter 5, Figure 4.3). For example, 82 orthogroups were found in common with *Bodo saltans*, 245 shared across all other sampled kinetoplastids and 36 across the kinetoplastids, *E. gracilis* and the heterolobosid *Naegleria gruberi* (or Excavates). These classes are broadly within the relative frequencies of what was expected from previous analysis of Excavate

genomes (Simpson, *et al.*, 2006) and consistent with the phylogenetic positions of the relevant taxa (see Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2018, for an extensive discussion).

## 5.6 OVERVIEW OF COMMUNITY-BASED SYSTEMS INVESTIGATED

In this section, the community based annotation which I coordinated but did not directly analyse, will be discussed briefly. For an extensive discussion, see Ebenezer *et al.*, 2018, and Appendix I. Biological aspects and the name of the corresponding Annotator/PI that will be discussed briefly include : Surfaceome (Andrew Jackson), plastid proteome (Vladimir Hampl), mitochondrial genes (Julius Lukes), signal transduction (Michael Lebert), dynamins (Mekund Thattai), and metabolism (Ellis O'Neill).

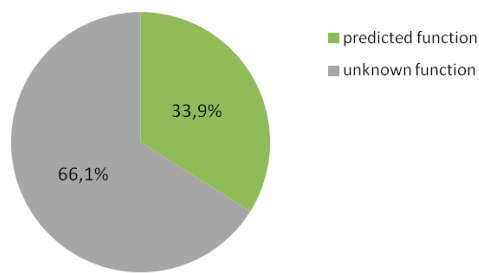
Surface protein predictions were estimated for *E. gracilis* employing the method as described in Jackson, *et al.*, 2013 using *T. brucei*, *T. cruzi*, *L. major*, and *B. saltans* as a reference set. The main criteria to classify surface genes were the presence of signal peptides and corresponding orthologous clustering annotation criteria when available (see the supplementary section of the main genome paper, Ebenezer, *et al.*, manuscript in preparation). Out of the 36,526 *E. gracilis* predicted proteins, 3259 (9 %) were putative surface proteins. Generally, protein families existing in most organisms were found in *Euglena*. These include, amongst others, ABC transporters, adenylyl cyclases, amino acid transporters and ATP-binding cassette proteins (Jackson, *et al.*, 2013; Jackson, 2016; Jackson, *et al.*, 2015; Wang, *et al.*, 2010; Jackson, *et al.*, 2012; Depledge, *et al.*, 2010). In common with *B. saltans*, it appears that *E. gracilis* has a distinct class of amastin; a major surface protein common to the kinetoplastids, but that arose from a single ancestral form shared with the last common ancestor of euglenids (Figure 5.12). It is also of interest in this regard that gp63, a major surface protein from *Leishmania* and present in nearly all eukaryotes, is absent from the genome, and hence must represent a secondary loss following separation from the kinetoplastid lineage.



**Figure 5.12: *E. gracilis* possess an unusual surface.** The diagram shows the Neighbor Joining phylogeny of Amastin protein sequences from *Euglena* and diverse kinetoplastids. Colour codes: Taxa highlighted in red, purple, black, orange, and green represent *L. major*, *L. pyrrocoris*, *T. cruzi*, *T. brucei*, *B. saltans*, and *E. gracilis* respectively. Bars in front of taxa nodes represent the classifications of the Amastin protein identified:  $\delta$ ,  $\rho\delta$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ , and  $\alpha$ .

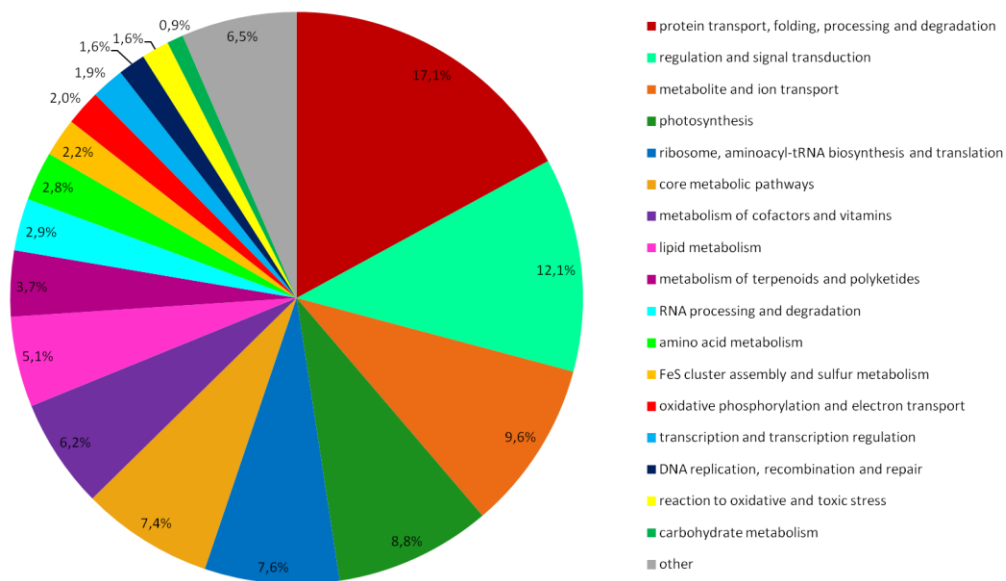
Plastid proteome was predicted in *E. gracilis* using automatic functional pipelines (SignalP, PrediSI, ChloroP; Petersen, *et al.*, 2011; <http://www.predisi.de/home.html>; Emanuelsson, *et al.*, 1999) and a set of reference (*A. thaliana* chloroplast genes) (<https://www.arabidopsis.org/>). Out of the 36,526 *E. gracilis* predicted proteome, 1906 were predicted to be plastid associated (Figure 5.13, 5.14, 5.15). 1179 of these are hypothetical, 475 were annotated and sorted to categories, while 252 were annotated but could not be sorted to categories. To further ascertain the reliability of our annotated dataset, the data were analyzed using proteins generated through Mass Spectrometry. 472 sequences overlap between the In silico and Mass Spectrometry proteomes, and they show similar patterns in terms of proportion annotated and categorized – except that there are lower numbers of hypothetical proteins in the MS proteome as well as bias towards better annotated sequences. The plastid protein sequences were sorted into 24 categories and these include photosynthesis, carbohydrate metabolism, and ion transport (Figure 5.14).

1902 proteins predicted as chloroplastic



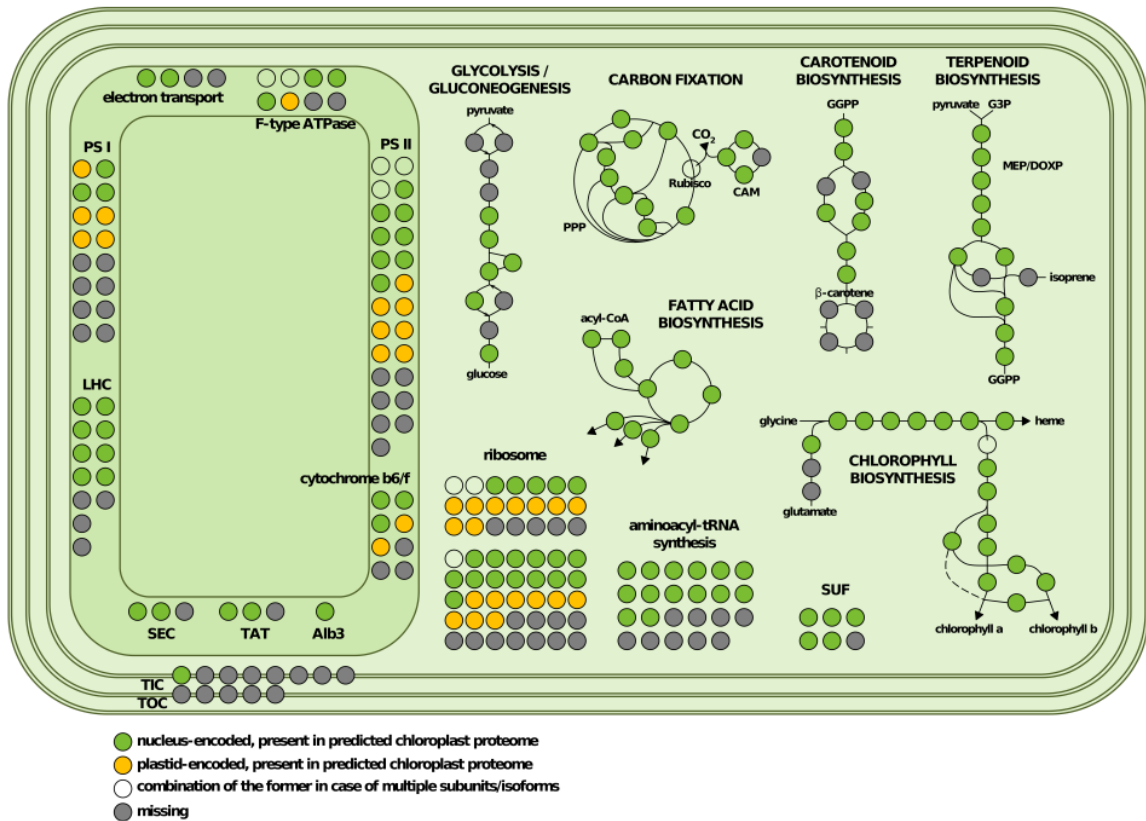
**Figure 5.13: Pie chart depicting functional distribution of *E. gracilis* functional predicted chloroplastic proteins.** The ratio between annotated proteins with a certain predicted function and proteins of unknown homology and/or function. In the set of 1,902 plastid candidates, 1,257 proteins (66.1 %) remained without a predicted function, 1,008 being completely unidentifiable with no homologs in bioinformatic databases and 249 having unclear or completely unknown function.

645 proteins with functional annotation



**Figure 5.14: Protein transport, folding, processing and degradation, are the major biological activity of the *E. gracilis* plastid.** Pie chart depicting functional annotation of *E. gracilis* predicted chloroplastic proteins. The remaining 645 (33.9 %) proteins with predicted function were used for metabolic and cellular pathways reconstruction and sorted into 18 functional categories. The largest portion of proteins were those involved in the synthesis, post-translational modification and folding of newly synthesized proteins and with regulatory and/or signalling functions. Other major categories include photosynthesis and chlorophyll biosynthesis,

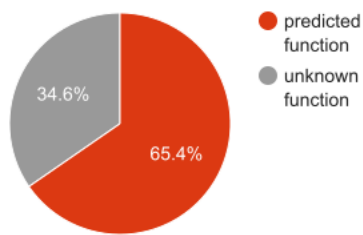
ribosome biogenesis and protein synthesis and transport of ions and non-protein molecules.



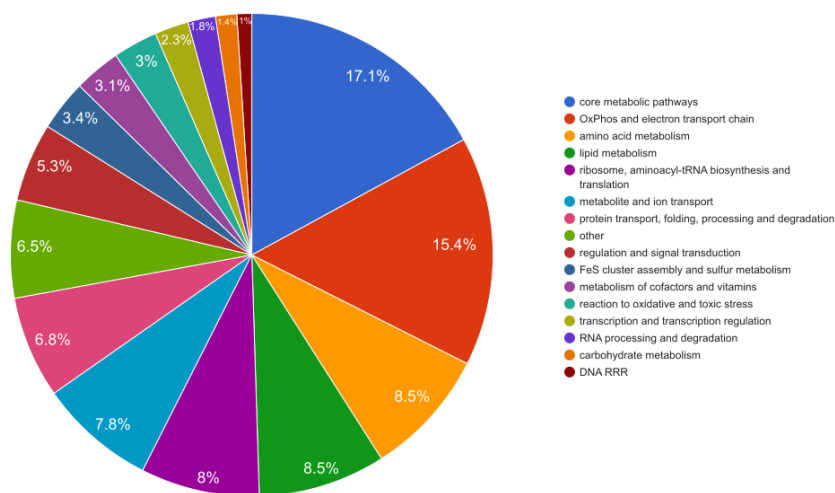
**Figure 5.15: The *Euglena gracilis* plastid possesses broad metabolic potential.** Proteins involved in core plastid metabolic pathways were identified and include: glycolysis/gluconeogenesis, carbon fixation, fatty acid biosynthesis, carotenoid biosynthesis, terpenoid biosynthesis, and chlorophyll biosynthesis. Colour codes: green, nucleus encoded, present in predicted chloroplast proteome; amber, plastid encoded, present in predicted chloroplast proteome; light green/white, combination of green and amber in case of multiple subunits/isoforms and grey, expected but not found.

There are three ways mitochondrial protein localization were predicted in the dataset: Blast2GO (<https://www.blast2go.com/>), TargetP (Emanuelsson, *et al.*, 2000), and BLASTP searches against the *T. brucei*, *H. sapiens*, and *S. cerevisiae* mitoproteomes (Appendix I). Out of the 36,526 predicted *E. gracilis* proteome, 900 proteins were finally predicted to be mitochondrial associated with 37 pathways annotated from KEGG (Figure 5.16 – 5.18). The list of proteins found associated with mitochondria localization also include the seven protein-coding genes recently published by Dobakova, *et al.*, 2015 (Faktorová, *et al.*, 2016; Buhrman, *et al.*, 2013; Zhang, *et al.*, 2010; and Lukes, 2014).

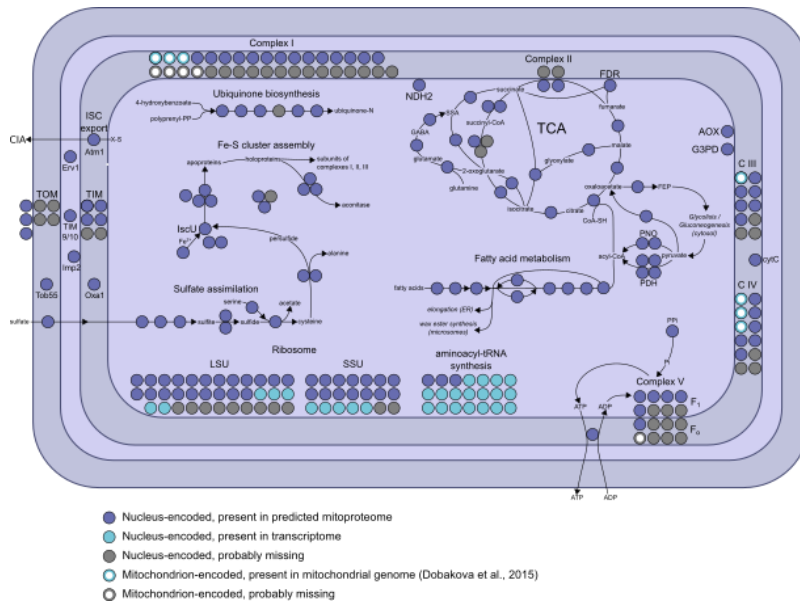




**Figure 5.16: *E. gracilis* mitochondria possess more known functional information.** The predicted mitochondrial proteome of *E. gracilis*. The ratio between annotated proteins with a certain predicted function and proteins of unknown homology and/or function. In the set of 1075 mitochondrial candidates, 703 (65.4 %) remained with a predicted function while 372 (34.6) do not possess a predicted function.



**Figure 5.17: The *E. gracilis* plastid possess core metabolic pathways.** The predicted mitochondrial proteome of *E. gracilis* with predicted functions were used for metabolic and cellular pathways reconstruction and sorted into 16 functional categories as shown in the diagram. These functional categories are highlighted in colour codes above.



**Figure 5.18: A reconstruction of likely metabolic pathways present within the mitochondria organelle of *E. gracilis*.** The diagram shows the five mitochondrial complexes found in *E. gracilis*: Complex I, II, III, IV, and V, alongside LSU and SSU rRNAs, and accessory plastid proteins.

Signal transduction genes were identified in *E. gracilis* using BLAST and Blast2GO (<https://www.blast2go.com>). Out of the 36,526 protein sequences in *E. gracilis*, 1495 matched proteins with annotated signal transduction functions. The distribution of the predicted signal transduction genes include, amongst others, protein kinase (14%) and cyclase (13%) (Appendix I-b). The distribution of the top BLASTP hits shows a distribution across the kingdoms of life (data not shown), highlighting the diversity of possible origins of genetic material present in the *Euglena* genome, which have been integrated through its complex phenotypic and genotypic history (Ahmadinejad, *et al.*, 2007; O'Neill, *et al.*, 2015).

Members of the dynamin superfamily are characterized by three major domains: an N-terminal GTPase domain (ND), a stalk region formed by helices of the middle domain (MD), and a GTPase effector domain (GED) that folds back across the stalk to regulate GTPase activity (Purkanti and Thattai, 2015). A detailed annotation of dynamins encoded by the *E. gracilis* genome was carried out using Pfam Hidden Markov Models and HMMER (Finn,*et al.*, 2014) to find proteins containing the GTPase domain (Pfam PF00350), middle domain (Pfam 01031), and the GTPase effector domain (Pfam PF02212) (Table 5.18). It was found that *E. gracilis* has 20 potential dynamins (after resolving splice isoforms): 3 Class A, 6 Class B, 1 Class C, with the remaining 10 unclassified (Table 5.18). Only one member each from Class A (EG\_transcript\_8006) and Class B (EG\_transcript\_3945) have complete dynamin-like architectures with all three domains. I found one FtsZ homolog in the *E. gracilis* genome (using BLAST OrthoFinder algorithm and phylogenetic analysis) and all evidence suggest that this is mitochondrial associated as the *E. gracilis* FtsZ homolog shows similarities to kinetoplastids than to red or green photosynthetic algae/prokaryotes orthologs, suggesting a mitochondrial origin.

**Table 5.18.** Répertoire of Dynamin proteins in *E. gracilis*.

Transcript ID	Splice isoforms	Domain architecture	Class	Signature
EG_transcript_8006		Dynamin_N-- Dynamin_M-- COMP--GED	Class A	:AAAAAAA
EG_transcript_3945	EG_transcript_41670, EG_transcript_45081	Dynamin_N-- Dynamin_M-- GED	Class B	B::B:::K
EG_transcript_7126		Dynamin_N	Class C	:M:-----
EG_transcript_6599		Dynamin_N-- Dynamin_M	Class A	:F:::-
EG_transcript_16277		Dynamin_N	Class A	:F:-----
EG_transcript_6469		Dynamin_N	Class B	:B:-----
EG_transcript_14051		Dynamin_N-- Dynamin_M	Class B	B:BB:::-
EG_transcript_18246		Dynamin_M-- GED	Class B	---:::K
EG_transcript_29706		Dynamin_N	Class B	:B:-----
EG_transcript_6775	EG_transcript_21609	Dynamin_N-- DUF4351-- DUF2366	Class B	BB:-----
EG_transcript_28821		Dynamin_N	Unclassified	:::-----
EG_transcript_14648		Dynamin_N	Unclassified	:::-----
EG_transcript_60550		GED	Unclassified	-----:
EG_transcript_4990		Dynamin_N-- AAA_25	Unclassified	:::-----
EG_transcript_561		Dynamin_N	Unclassified	:::-----
EG_transcript_3279		Dynamin_N-- DUF2552	Unclassified	:::-----
EG_transcript_1987		PRA-PH-- Dynamin_N-- DUF2205	Unclassified	:::-----
EG_transcript_2596		SAM_1-- Dynamin_N-- PI3K_p85B	Unclassified	:::-----
EG_transcript_12528	EG_transcript_25672	Dynamin_N	Unclassified	:::-----
EG_transcript_8748		Dynamin_N	Unclassified	:::-----

**Note:** Colume 1 = *E. gracilis* transcript ID. Column 2 = Spliced isoforms. Column 3 = Domain architecture. Column 4 = Class of dynamins. Column 5 = dynamin signature. Domains are according to Pfam. Signatures correspond to the notation used in Purkanti and Thattai, 2015.

Using BLAST searches and the CAZy database, three superfamilies of the Carbohydrate Active Enzymes: Glycoside Hydrolase (GH), Glycosyltransferases (GTs), and the distant relatives of the Glycosyltransferases (GT-related) were found (Yoshida, *et al.*, 2016; O'Neill and Field, 2015; Takeda, *et al.*, 2015; Grimma, *et al.*, 2015; O'Neill, *et al.*, 2015a&b; Lombard, *et al.*, 2013; Kuhaudomlarp, *et al.*). 32, 36 and 10 families that are associated with the GHs, GTs, and GT-related were found respectively, with corresponding enzymatic activities ranging from 5'-AMP-activated protein kinase beta-subunit to Glycosyltransferase (Appendix I-a). Many of these has the N-, O- and C-linked glycosylated sites (Chauhan, *et al.*, 2013; Li, *et al.*, 2015; Caragea, *et al.*, 2007; Martínez-Duncker, *et al.*, 2014; Aebi, 2013; Ulvskov, *et al.*, 2013; Moremen, *et al.*, 2012).

## 5.7 DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

### 5.7.1 Cellular processes and signaling

The analysis of the protein trafficking pathways in *E. gracilis* provides a detail insight into the evolution of genes involved in this pathway across eukaryotes (Elias, *et al.*, 2012; Rojas, *et al.*, 2012 ; van Dam, *et al.*, 2013; Abbasi, *et al.*, 2011; Manna, *et al.*, 2013; Hirst, *et al.*, 2011; Schlacht and Dacks, 2015; Adunga, *et al.*, 2013; McMahon, H. T. and Boucrot, 2011). In the Rab protein family, which provides a potent force for endomembrane and cellular evolution across the entire range of Eukaryota (Elias, *et al.*, 2012), there are multiple conserved paralogues of some specific subfamilies such as Rab32, Rab11 and Rab7. The presence of the core endocytic and exocytic pathways in *E. gracilis* suggests details of cellular complexity in LECA (Elias, *et al.*, 2012) as previously described in *N. gruberi* (Fritz-Laylin, *et al.*, 2010; Koonin, 2010). The multiple Rab paralogues in *E. gracilis* indicate the presence of potentially multiple anterograde routes, and also implies the presence of active autophagic systems, while other trafficking pathways identified include complex endosomal network containing multiple sorting and recycling steps (Rab5, 21 and 22), late endosomal and/or lysosomal trafficking (Rab7, 2 and 32), retrograde transport through the Golgi complex (Rab2 and 6) and the endosomal recycling and exocytic system (Rab4, 11). This clearly indicate that bidirectional movement of molecules through the endomembrane system was firmly established in the LECA (Elias, *et al.*, 2012). The presence of IFT27, IFT22, Rab23, Rab8 and Rab11, all suggest multiple

transport pathways integrating the endomembrane system and the flagellum (Elias, *et al.*, 2012). The detection of several ancestral, widely distributed Rabs with no known function (e.g. RabX1, RabX2, and RabX3) suggests that there remain many fundamental aspects of Rab biology that are yet to be described (Elias, *et al.*, 2012).

The presence of IFT22 and IFT27 in this dataset also supports the role of these proteins in intraflagellar transport as well as the complex evolution of the IFT and its origin from a protocoatmer complex which corroborates the involvement of IFT components in vesicle transport (van Dam, *et al.*, 2013). It is not yet clear the significance of the absence of the Rho family in *E. gracilis*, however, while animals and fungi possess multiple Rho paralogous involved in signal transduction, cytoskeletal function and cellular proliferation, the trypanosomatids possess a much simpler Rho-signaling system (Abbasi, *et al.*, 2011). For instance, *T. brucei* genome contains only a single divergent Rho-related gene which has recently been found to play important role in spindle formation and mitosis (Abbasi, *et al.*, 2011).

The absence of AP4E and AP2B (and the presence of all members of the AP subunits) may be due to slight fragment of the transcriptome assembly but these proteins are also absent in some trypanosomatids such as *T. congolense* (Manna, *et al.*, 2013), suggesting that the pathway that mediate selective transport to the endosome rather than exocytose (Burgos, *et al.*, 2010) may have been lost in *E. gracilis* and reflecting a simplification in post-Golgi transport events (Manna, *et al.*, 2013). The recently discovered AP5 subunit which is absent in all kinetoplastids (Manna, *et al.*, 2013) but present in *N. gruberi* was also not found in *E. gracilis*. While Manna, *et al.*, 2013, proposed that the AP5 arose after the separation of the kinetoplastids from the main eukaryotic lineage, the absence of AP5 in *E. gracilis* have pushed the root of this protein further up the eukaryotic tree, suggesting an ancient ancestral divergence of AP5 after the separation of the Euglenozoans from the main eukaryotic lineage (Manna, *et al.*, 2013). The AP5 is involved in endosomal sorting (Hirst, *et al.*, 2011) and appears to mediate trafficking of the cation independent mannose-6-phosphate receptor, a specialised lysosomal pathway that is absent from the trypanosomes (Manna, *et al.*, 2013), suggesting that this pathway may also be absent in *E. gracilis*.

The distribution of the coat complex suggests that these proteins were present in LECA (Neumann, *et al.*, 2010). It is not yet clear the significance of the absence of Sec12 and Sec16, however, very few organisms are missing both subunits and could suggest that lower levels of ER to Golgi trafficking are necessary in these organisms or that, given the appropriate cellular conditions, these factors are not necessary for the formation of COPII-coated vesicles (Schlacht and Dacks, 2015). In this scenario, Sec12 and Sec16 would serve to increase the speed and efficiency of coat formation, rather than acting as integral steps in the process or the other GEFs/scaffold proteins may have functionally replaced Sec12 or Sec16 (see Schlacht and Dacks, 2015, and Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2018, for an extensive discussion).

The results of this investigation indicate that an expansion in the membrane trafficking proteins partially facilitates a plastid directed membrane trafficking pathway. Trafficking proteins from the ER to the Golgi is facilitated by an increase in COPII to allow for vesicle formation (Robinson, 2004), and Rab1; to target the vesicle to the Golgi and recruit the necessary tethers (Stenmark, 2009; Brocker, *et al.*, 2010). At the cis-Golgi the additional Sly1 homolog can function to regulate the SNARE-SNARE interactions (Dulubova, *et al.*, 2002; Yoshizawa, *et al.*, 2006) of the additional SNARE proteins Gos and Sec22.

Meiotic sex, the fusion of haploid meiotic products from different individuals, is thought to have originated in the common ancestor of all eukaryotes (Dacks and Roger, 1999), are particularly present in *E. gracilis*, except for REC8 which is involved in double-strand break repair and meiotic divisions. However, this is consistent with published studies which found that although meiosis-specific and meiosis-related genes are generally conserved across all the major clades of eukaryotes (Schurko and Logsdon, 2008), absence of one or several of them is common and may be present in paralogs (see Chi, *et al.*, 2013 for details). For example, DMC1, HOP2, MER3, and MND1 are missing in *Caenorhabditis elegans* and *Drosophila melanogaster* (Masson and West, 2001; Pezza, *et al.*, 2007); while REC8 which is also involved in mitosis in *Tetrahymena thermophila* (Howard-Till, *et al.*, 2013) but absent in *Paramecium tetraurelia*, *Ichthyophthirius multifiliis*, and *Oxytricha trifallax*. Almost all eukaryotes capable of meiosis form synaptonemal complex (SC) (see Wettstein, *et al.*, 1984 for details) which are protein complexes

that consist of two parallel axial elements that form along the axes of paired chromosomal partners (Chi, *et al.*, 2014). They are thought to provide a tight physical link between homologous chromosomes and are involved in crossover regulation. Three meiosis-specific proteins (Hop1, Red1, and Zip1) are major components of the canonical SC, and none of these SC-related genes are present in *E. gracilis*. This is not unusual as only a few eukaryotes are able to perform crossing over in their absence (Chi, *et al.*, 2014).

The Bilobe was first discovered in trypanosomes, however, the cryptic nature of this cytoskeletal structure and the fact that it evaded detection for decades raise the question of whether there are homologous structures in other taxa (Esson, *et al.*, 2012). For a clear understanding whether these bilobe associated proteins found in *E. gracilis* are true homologs to the trypanosomatids counterparts since bioinformatics analysis as well as existing methods of cytoskeletal protein identification such as generation of monoclonal antibody panels, proteomics, affinity purification, and yeast two-hybrid screens, all have drawbacks (Morriswood, *et al.*, 2013), Esson, *et al.*, 2012, have proposed that examining whole mounts of the flagella and associated structures, especially using Proximity-dependent biotin identification (BioID) (Morriswood, *et al.*, 2013) in euglenozoan taxa such as *Leishmania*, *Bodo*, *Diplonema*, and *Euglena* might be a way to resolve this. If indeed the centrin and bilobe associated proteins are present in *E. gracilis*, then it may not be playing a role in parasitic lifestyle as previously proposed by Esson, *et al.*, 2012. The presence of the flagellar pocket collar protein BILBO1 indirectly supports the notion that the flagellar pocket collar and the bilobe are non distinct structures (Esson, *et al.*, 2012). In yeast and mammals, centrins and Polo-like Kinase (PLK) are important for organelle duplication and/or subsequent cell division (Zhou, *et al.*, 2010). The absence of PLK in *E. gracilis* suggests these functions are possibly reduced.

In *T. brucei*, and other protistan parasites, the cell surface is crucial for mediating host-parasite interactions and is instrumental to the initiation, maintenance and severity of infection (Jackson, *et al.*, 2013). In *E. gracilis*, the cell surface may well play sensory and defense roles. Two previously identified *Bodo* sequences belong to 2 different lineages, only one of which has been inherited by trypanosomatids.



Disulphide isomerases appear to be reduced in trypanosomatids compared to *Bodo*. The introduction of the *Euglena* repertoire allows to test whether this is due to loss in trypanosomatids or gain in *Bodo*. This gene loss or gain is also evident in other families as well as in the ABC transporters, and the combined effects of these gene loss or gain is reflected in the topologies of the phylogenies (see Figure 5.12).

The complex evolutionary history of plastid acquisition in *Euglena* suggests a possible equally involved relationship between the photosynthetic organelle and the gene complement encoded in the nucleus. The categories distributions, pathways, and complexes present are also consistent with other plastid containing organisms: The metabolic pathways expected in the plastid, based on previous studies are present in the predicted set with a few proteins missing (such as glucose-6-phosphate isomerase in glycolysis/gluconeogenesis or 15-*cis*-phytoene desaturase in carotenoid biosynthesis pathway): these gaps are likely false negatives arising from incomplete sequence data, since both of these pathways function normally in *Euglena* (Figures, 5.13, 5.14, and 5.15) (Hallick, *et al.*, 1993).

Members of the euglenozoans carry a highly diverse array of mitochondrial genomes (Dobakova, *et al.*, 2015). Overall, 2629 protein groups were found and these also include the seven mitochondria resident protein-coding genes and single rRNA previously reported by Dobakova, *et al.*, 2015 (Figures 5.16, 5.17, and 5.18). The remaining are associated with the mitochondria and possibly imported from the nucleus (Dobakova, *et al.*, 2015, Perez, *et al.*, 2014). For example, the ATP synthase (complex V, *atp6*) which are missing in the mitochondria genome but found in the dataset.

*E. gracilis* is an exception amongst excavates, as evident from this work, both in terms of number of dynamins as well as their diversity, with dynamins from all three functional classes found (Table 5.18). The complete Class A dynamin might be a bi-functional protein involved in both vesicle scission as well as mitochondrial division. The single Class C dynamin is closely related to cytokinetic dynamins of Amoebozoans (Miyagishima, *et al.*, 2008). Most excavates appear to have lost FtsZ at their root, however, an FtsZ-like tubulin family is present and/or found in kinetoplastids and *E. gracilis*, and lost Class B and Class C dynamins on multiple independent occasions.

The presence of many characterized members of the CAZy glycosyl hydrolase and transferase families suggest an active carbohydrate metabolism and paramylon synthesis (Cantarel, *et al.*, 2009) in *E. gracilis*, encoding a wide array of carbohydrate active enzymes. The enzymes likely to be involved in  $\beta$ -glucan synthesis and degradation can be predicted, based on similarity to those used in plants and fungi for cell wall metabolism (O'Neill, *et al.*, 2015). Many enzymes involved in the synthesis and degradation of complex plant cell wall type carbohydrates, including galactosidases, xylosidases and rhamnosidases, are encoded in the *Euglena* transcriptome, suggesting they are capable of digesting complex plant material.

The extreme size of the *E. gracilis* genome, together with a rather complex splicing machinery (Breckenridge, *et al.*, 1999, Milanowski, *et al.*, 2016), suggests unusual mechanisms may be present for organization of chromatin, mRNA processing and transcription. Regulatory mechanisms, for example, are expected to be rather more complex than those reported for kinetoplastids, as both *trans* and *cis* splicing are known to be present (Günzl, 2010, Michaeli, 2011). Furthermore, the ultrastructure of the *E. gracilis* nucleus suggests a rather unusual heterochromatin organization, where electron-dense regions of the nucleus appear as numerous foci throughout the nucleoplasm, rather than as predominantly peripheral, as is the case in trypanosomatids and most organisms (Figure 5.9), and inspection of the genome revealed multiple significant features.

It was found that the two known proteins (NUP1 and NUP2) of the nuclear lamina of trypanosomes are absent, as is the more widespread lamin system of metazoan and other lineages (Koreny and Field, 2016). By contrast, much of the nuclear pore complex appears to be well conserved with African trypanosomes (Figure 5.7), and *Euglena* possesses orthologs of trypanosomatid nuclear basket proteins Nup92 and Nup110. However, unlike African trypanosomes orthologs for DBP5 and Gle1 were identified, two proteins involved in mRNA export in mammalian, yeast and plant NPCs but absent from trypanosomes. This is consistent with the hypothesis that the absence of these proteins is connected to the loss of *cis*-splicing mechanisms in most kinetoplastids (Obado, *et al.*, 2016), but does indicate the presence of a hybrid NPC, with shared elements from trypanosomes and higher eukaryotes. Secondly, I

also observed that the *Euglena* kinetochore possesses both elements of the trypanosome-specific and more canonical structures (see Figure 5.11, Table 5.10, and subsequent paragraphs for discussions) (Akiyoshi and Gull, 2014, D'Archivio and Wickstead, 2017).

There are some contrast between the transcription initiation in trypanosomes and *E. gracilis*. For instance, the arrangement of functionally unrelated genes in units and the absence of classic Pol II promoters led to the belief that transcription initiation was not a key factor in regulating trypanosome mRNA production (Ekanayake and Sabatini, 2011) which is in contrast to *E. gracilis*. Significantly, control of protein expression level also appears to be predominantly post-transcriptional in *Euglena* (Van Assche, *et al.*, 2015, Araújo and Teixeira, 2011, and see below). Overall these observations suggest a highly unusual set of mechanisms are likely present in the *E. gracilis* nucleus, but that these also reflect the transition between the conventional kinetochores, lamins and nuclear pores into the more radical kinetoplastida state.

In the signal transduction analysis, the distribution of the top BLASTP hits shows a distribution across the eukaryotic kingdoms (Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2018, Appendix I), highlighting the diversity of possible origins of genetic material present in the *Euglena* genome, which have been integrated through its complex phenotypic and genotypic history (Ahmadinejad, *et al.*, 2007; O'Neill, *et al.*, 2015). This data suggests that *E. gracilis* has a remarkable richness of channel regulation for signal transduction in response to diverse stimuli. The tubulin genes, which are eukaryotic cytoskeletal components, are present in *E. gracilis* and involved in cell division. *E. gracilis* possesses both the eukaryotic (tubulins) and prokaryotic (FtsZ-tubulin family) cell division machinery (Figure 5.10). The FtsZ tubulin genes showed homology to the non photosynthetic prokaryotic FtsZ tubulins as well as those found in other non photosynthetic lower eukaryotes suggesting that, in *E. gracilis*, the FtsZ tubulin may have originated from the proteobacteria (mitochondria organelle) during the endosymbiotic phenomenon (see Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017 for an extensive review). The organization of the tubulins in *E. gracilis* provides a preliminary understanding into the cytoskeletal architecture of *E. gracilis*. The transporter analysis (Table 5.5) suggests an active expression of membrane transport proteins in *E. gracilis* via multiple routes that allow for nutrient uptake, establishment of ion gradients, efflux

metabolites, translocation of compounds from one intracellular compartment to another, and uptake and export metals (Scott, 2008).

### 5.7.2 Information storage and processing

Most evidence for molecular and functional diversification among the translation components has been found in the eIF4 proteins, and all major eukaryotic lineages possess several paralog genes for members of the eIF4 families (Hernández, *et al.*, 2012). In contrast to the initiation step, the process of elongation is highly conserved among all forms of life (Hernández, *et al.*, 2012). eEF1A which is found in *E. gracilis* is lacking in a number of eukaryotic lineages. It is a canonical factor that delivers aa-tRNAs to the A-site of ribosomes during the elongation step (Hernández, *et al.*, 2012). Instead, they possess a related factor called elongation factor-like (EFL) protein that retains the residues critical for eEF1A (Keeling and Inagaki, 2004). It was later found that EFL-encoding species are scattered widely across eukaryotes and that *eEF1A* and *EFL* genes display mutually exclusive phylogenetic distributions. Thus, it is assumed that eEF1A and EFL are functionally equivalent (Keeling and Inagaki, 2004; Sakaguchi, *et al.*, 2009; Gile, *et al.*, 2009; Cocquyt, *et al.*, 2009; Noble, *et al.*, 2007; Kamikawa, *et al.*, 2008; Guo, *et al.*, 2010; Szymański, *et al.*, 2000). It is thought that *eEF1A* is ancestral to all extant eukaryotes and that a single duplication event in a specific lineage gave rise to *EFL*. eRF1 is universally present in eukaryotes and, with the exception of some vascular plants and some ciliates, eukaryotes contain only one *eRF1* gene (Kim, *et al.*, 2005; Moreira, *et al.*, 2002; Atkinson, *et al.*, 2008; Inagaki and Doolittle, 2001), however, this is not consistent with *E. gracilis* and other members of the excavates where eRF1 and eRF3 are present.

In eukaryotes, transcription initiation is a key regulatory point in controlling the level of gene expression, and there are some contrast between the transcription initiation in trypanosomes and *E. gracilis*. For instance, the arrangement of functionally unrelated genes in units and the absence of classic Pol II promoters led to the belief that transcription initiation was not a key factor in regulating trypanosome mRNA production (Ekanayake and Sabatini, 2011) which is in contrast to *E. gracilis*.

Representatives of the chromosome segregation machinery (kinetochores) found in *E. gracilis* are distinct from those present in the kinetoplastids – possessing a

conventional kinetochore as present in other members of the eukaryotes. However, KKT19 and KKT10 homologous were found in *E. gracilis* but will require additional experimental validation since the KKTs are unique to kinetoplastids. The kinetoplastids possess unusual unconventional kinetochore proteins known as the kinetoplastid kinetochores (KKT). The presence of the conventional type kinetochores in *E. gracilis* has further extended the root of these proteins to the base of the Euglenozoa (Akiyoshi and Gull, 2014). In trypanosomes, the exosomes perform a major nuclear function in rRNA, snoRNA and mRNA quality control; necessary for the degradation of incompletely spliced mRNAs, and the majority of the exosome is in the nucleus, rather than in the cytoplasm (Kramer, *et al.*, 2016). *E. gracilis* possess the full exosome compliment seen in trypanosomes, however, EAP1, EAP2, and EAP3 are missing from our dataset suggesting that these proteins may not be playing huge role in mRNA degradation. The presence of these exosome compliments in *E. gracilis* suggests it may be performing the same function as in trypanosomes. In *E. gracilis*, the snRNPs are highly conserved with multiple paralogous with high sequence similarity to their corresponding eukaryotic reference sets, suggesting complex RNA processing activities in *E. gracilis*. Similarly, some of the splicing factors (such as HuR, B, C & D (hnRNPs)) which are present in Opisthokonts are not all present in *E. gracilis* suggesting a loss in these factors in Euglenozoa.

While there is a strong KPAP1 candidate and the presence of KPAF in *E. gracilis*, MORF is absent, so are some members of the MRB1 proteins. The absence of the MORF family proteins in *E. gracilis* suggests is not associated with plastid containing organisms (Salavati, *et al.*, 2012). The absence of some core kinetoplastid editosome components in *E. gracilis* may suggest some variations in the RNA editing mechanism between the euglenids and the Kinetoplastids, or perhaps, that these core RNA editing machinery are too divergent to be easily detect by homology/orthology relationships. The Tripartite Attachment Complex which is unique to Kinetoplastids, and connects the Kinetoplast to the flagellar, is expectedly absent in *E. gracilis* since they do not have Kinetoplast.

*E. gracilis* has about 2 Argonaute proteins consisting of the AGO1 (PAZ-PIWI domain) and PIWI-like 1 domains. Each of these argonautes interacts with specific

classes of ncRNAs to potentially regulate distinct biological processes (Couvillion, *et al.*, 2009). *E. gracilis* also have identified members of the RNase III proteins and small ncRNAs (dsRNA binding/Sid-1), but lack the dsRBM, Eri-1 like nuclease, and Sid-1-like. In trypanosomatids, RNAi pathways have diverged and been lost throughout their evolution (Lye, *et al.*, 2010). This group of protists has two distinct types of argonaute proteins that are somewhat more similar to each other than to other eukaryotic proteins (Garcia, *et al.*, 2010) and have also been found in the *E. gracilis* genome. One type, referred to as AGO-tryp, is absent in several of the species of Trypanosomatids including *T. cruzi* (Garcia, *et al.*, 2010). A second type of argonaute protein in trypanosomatids (referred to as PIWI-tryp) seems to be present in all members of this group where a genome sequence is available (Garcia, *et al.*, 2010). PIWI-tryp is highly conserved and is expressed throughout the life cycle of *T. cruzi*, which suggests it plays an important biological role in trypanosomatids (Garcia, *et al.*, 2010). While the RNAi pathway mediated by AGO-tryp is likely associated with silencing of transposable elements, the function of PIWI-tryp is unclear, and it remains unclear what the impact of the loss of AGO-tryp had on the biology of trypanosomatids. *T. cruzi* and *T. brucei* are both parasitic trypanosomatids irrespective of the presence of AGO-tryp, and AGO-tryp possesses an ortholog in *E. gracilis*, which suggests the loss of this RNAi pathway in trypanosomatids had no impact on parasitism per se. I propose here that *E. gracilis* elaborates an active RNAi pathway machinery.

### 5.7.3 Metabolism and evolution

The *E. gracilis* galactofuranosyl glycosyltransferase (beta GALFT) protein shows high similarity to the active LPG-specific GALFT encoded by LPG1 from *L. major* and other GALFTs found in other kinetoplastid species (Parodi, 1993; de Lederkremer and Colli, 1995). A highly abundant class of free GPI referred to as glycoinositolphospholipids (GIPLs) cover the surface of numerous trypanosomatids, and is also present in *E. gracilis*. In *T. cruzi*, the principal GIPL and major component at the surface of the insect stage are called lipopeptidophosphoglycan (LPPG) and contain Galf (de Lederkremer, *et al.*, 1980, 1991, 1993; Previato, *et al.*, 1990). The presence of Galf, Galft, and GIPLs in *E. gracilis* suggests that their biosynthesis play a crucial role in the elaboration of the *E. gracilis* surface coat (Tefsen, *et al.*, 2012).

In *Leishmania*, studies into the interaction between the parasite, vector, and host have uncovered an important missing ingredient during transmission. *Leishmania* actively adapt their sand fly hosts into efficient vectors by secreting Promastigote Secretory Gel (PSG), a proteophosphoglycan (PPG)-rich, mucin-like gel which accumulates in sand fly gut and mouthparts (Rogers, 2012). Orthologs of these PPGs (PPG1, PPG3, PPG4, PPG5) has been found in *E. gracilis*. It is not yet clear the utility of PPGs in *E. gracilis* even though it aids parasitism in *Leishmania*. For instance, PPG have been found to function similarly to mammalian mucins to protect the surface of developing promastigotes against proteolytic damage (Secundino, *et al.*, 2010), which may well be of utility in the response of *E. gracilis* to environmental stressors. Similarly, analysis of the orthogroup clusters using GO terms indicated the presence of differing predicted functionality between the clusters, with, for example increased regulatory function genes in green/secondary plastid orthogroups, whilst phosphorus metabolic processes predominated the orthogroups shared only with kinetoplastids.

#### 5.7.5 Significance of findings – adaptations, functions and applications

The draft genome and a final transcriptome of *E. gracilis* was produced. In order to further understand the biology, a community based annotation (as described above) was embarked on which focused on the transcriptome data due to its quality, which is useful to understand the biology of this organism. Indications from this analysis suggests that the biology is hugely complex, propelling the question about the origin and significance of its genome; hybrid genome. In this section, I will discuss the significance of the findings from the *E. gracilis* genome and transcriptome community annotation with reference to adaptations, functions (biology), and applications.

*Complex endomembrane system is a function of complex cellular activities:* The presence of multiple copies of specific trafficking proteins suggest an increased organellar complexity and an active cellular transport via multiple routes and pathways. For instance, transport between the endoplasmic reticulum and the Golgi apparatus is mediated by several GTPases, particularly the Rab1 and Rab2, which function to co-ordinate cytoskeletal interactions and specificity in fusion with membranes at the *cis*-Golgi (Brighthouse, *et al.*, 2010). This suggests that in *E. gracilis*, exit from the Golgi apparatus can take several routes (e.g. division of labour

or a common response to evolutionary pressure) into exocytic vesicles, plasma membrane and other membrane bound destinations. It is evident that understanding the endomembrane system also provide useful information about eukaryotic evolutionary history through the delineation of the origins of membrane trafficking specificity (see Brighthouse, *et al.*, 2010 for details). The findings also suggest an increased level of internal compartmentalization following from increased cellular activities as seen in the trafficking genes. While the Rab proteins have been used as a reference, several of the other endomembrane proteins play significant roles in trafficking and the significance of their findings is similar to the Rabs.

*Evidence of meiotic cell division machinery:* Reproductive analysis of meiosis and mitosis suggests a co-occurrence of sexual (they have sex) and asexual reproduction in *E. gracilis*. The presence of Kinetochores (involved in chromosome segregation) and core meiotic genes (in this work, though will require experimental evidences) provide evidences for mitosis and meiosis in *E. gracilis* respectively. Mitosis has also been extensively reported in *E. gracilis* (see Chapter 1), however, reports on meiosis (this chapter) has not previously been reported. The co-occurrence of these two forms of reproduction in *E. gracilis* further supports the hypothesis that the nucleus may not have been derived from the endosymbiotic relationship between the cyanobacteria (chloroplast) and the proteobacteria (mitochondria). This is obvious since mitosis only occurs in eukaryotic cells, and that prokaryotes reproduce by a process called binary fission. It is also not yet clear why *E. gracilis* possesses these two forms of reproduction (though this is universal in eukaryotes) and mechanisms, or if the utility of these varying forms of reproduction are mutually exclusive, or perhaps, what propels the switch from one form of reproduction to the other. One possible explanation for this would be in the conservation and maximization of energy and time since sexual reproduction requires more energy and time consuming than asexual reproduction (Neiman, *et al.*, 2010). A combined utility of these two forms of reproduction could also be that while meiosis maintains chromosome numbers and ensures diversity with cell populations (of relevance in natural selection), mitosis would play roles in cell development and growth, cell replacement, and cell regeneration. A combined presence of mitosis and meiosis is uncommon among the Kinetoplastids but evident in the European orchid, *Epipogium aphyllum* (Krawczyk, *et al.*, 2016).



*Bilobe structure in Euglena may play similar role as in Trypanosomes:* A particularly enigmatic feature that has recently been discovered in *T. brucei* is the bilobe – it localizes near the flagellar pocket and has been proposed to mediate biogenesis of the Golgi apparatus (Esson, *et al.*, 2012), forming both stable and dynamic association with other cytoskeletal components (and other membrane-bound organelles) including the basal bodies (tripartite attachment complex, kinetoplast) that seed the flagellum and the flagellar pocket collar that is critical for flagellar pocket biogenesis (Gheiratmand, *et al.*, 2013). A major function of the bilobe structure in *T. brucei* is to ensure that single-copied organelles (e.g. Golgi apparatus) duplicate and segregate in a highly coordinated fashion during cell cycle (Gheiratmand, *et al.*, 2013). The presence of all proteins (TbCentrin4, TbMORN1, and TbLRRP1) associated with the bilobe in *E. gracilis* (except for TbCentrin2), suggests that the bilobe structure in *E. gracilis* performs the same function as in *T. brucei*. While this analysis may present strong indications for the presence of bilobe structure in *E. gracilis*, experimental analysis (biochemical, ultrastructural, phylogenetics) of a whole mount of *E. gracilis* flagellar may be required to further support this discovery (Esson, *et al.*, 2012). It has also been predicted that the bilobe structure may well play an adaptive role to a parasitic lifestyle (Esson, *et al.*, 2012), however, the presence of the bilobe associated proteins (orthologs/homologs) in freeliving *E. gracilis* suggests this is not case. It also suggests that the bilobe structure may have been evolutionarily derived and traces back to LECA. This is because it has previously been thought that the bilobe structure is only associated with the kinetoplastids (Esson, *et al.*, 2012), the discovery of these proteins in *E. gracilis* extends the root of their origin to the base of the Euglenozoa.

*Conventional, unconventional, and unusual biological systems:* In this paragraph (and the next), I will discuss the significance of the annotation discoveries associated with the nuclear system, and a brief highlight of the other systems. The results of the NPC components suggests that the nuclear system in *E. gracilis* is conventional in nature as this is consistent with the respective NPC subcomplexes and protein structures present in the reference sets of *T. brucei*, *A. thaliana*, *S. cerevisiae*, and *H. sapiens*, except that the nuclear lamina is absent. One unconventional observation, with respect to kinetoplastids (*T. brucei*) in the nuclear system is the presence of Dbp5 in *E. gracilis*, which is absent in kinetoplastids. In most eukaryotes

where this is present, Dbp5 mediates mRNA/proteins (mRNPs) export through the NPCs (Hodge, *et al.*, 2011). This occurs by the systematic triggering of the removal of mRNP proteins in a spatially controlled manner (Hodge, *et al.*, 2011). It remains to be seen how Kinetoplastids achieve this aim, as the precise sequence of events within this mechanism has not been fully defined in higher eukaryotes (Hodge, *et al.*, 2011).

In eukaryotes, heterochromatin which are conserved organizational feature of eukaryotic nuclei, localises to the peripheral of the nucleus (peripheral heterochromatin compartmentalization), providing a protected area for epigenetically silent genes and gene-poor DNA (Poleshko and Katz, 2014). In metazoan cells, the peripheral heterochromatin compartment is associated with the nuclear lamina, the protein meshwork at the inner edge of the nucleus. Heterochromatin-nuclear lamina interactions promote epigenetic gene silencing, which may drive many normal and diseased biological processes (Poleshko and Katz, 2014). A previously unstudied human protein, PRR14, participates in the tethering of heterochromatin to the inner nuclear periphery alongside heterochromatin protein 1 (HP1) (Poleshko and Katz, 2014). The results in this chapter suggests that there is an absence of a peripheral heterochromatin in *E. gracilis*, and that the heterochromatin organization is unusual and not condensed as previously reported. Following from this, the absence of nuclear lamins might explain the absence of peripheral heterochromatin in *E. gracilis*. Further evidence to prove this will be the interrogation of the *E. gracilis* genome with PRR14 and HP1 proteins which are associated with heterochromatin tethering. The absence of these proteins will further open up the question: Why would *E. gracilis* possess a non peripheral heterochromatin which is quite unusual with other eukaryotes?

Another conventional features of the nuclear system are seen in the results of tubulin genes, dynamins, and histones, suggesting that these are consistent in terms of functions and evolution with those found in the Kinetoplastids and other eukaryotes. The results of the kinetochore analysis is quite unusual in that *E. gracilis* possesses both the conventional and non conventional kinetochores (Akiyoshi and Gull, 2014; D' Archivio and Wickstead, 2016). Though this may require some experimental validation, it might indeed mean that these non conventional kinetochores have

evolved in LECA, or that they simply perform similar function as in Kinetoplastids. Other conventional biological systems are seen in the information processing system (translational apparatus, pre-initiation complex, mRNA metabolism, Exosomes, Spliceosomes and related proteins, Editosomes, TAC/CARP proteins, and RNAi pathway), organellar (plastid and mitochondria), and metabolism (PPG, Galf, and Carbohydrate Active Enzymes), and they perform similar function as in Kinetoplastids and other reference eukaryotes (see Results section of this Chapter).

*Surface and signal transduction play an adaptive and evolutionary role:* In trypanosomatids, amastins, a glycoprotein are found and expressed in the cell surface or plasma membrane (Jackson, 2010). In *Leishmania*, there is a substantial expansion of amastin repertoire that is directly associated with its origin suggesting that amastin genes evolved novel functions crucial to cell functions in this species (Jackson, 2010). In *E. gracilis*, it is not yet clear the complete components of the surface (pellicle). A biotinylation experiment carried out in this work (data not shown) did not provide any protein evidence. While *Leishmania* seem to demonstrate strong functional characterization through evolutionary dynamics of amastin variation (Jackson, 2010), the in silico results in this work further supports this amastin divergence and extends its ancestry to the base of the Euglenozoa. This is evident since the amastin gene family predicted in *E. gracilis* is different from those in trypanosomatids, suggesting the uniqueness of these genes in *E. gracilis*. In trypanosomatids, and more commonly in *Leishmania*, amastin play a role in host-parasite interactions (de Paiva, *et al.*, 2015). In *E. gracilis*, alongside transporters (Moreno-Sánchez, *et al.*, 2017) and signal transduction genes (Hader, *et al.*, 2006), it is anticipated that the uniqueness of the *E. gracilis* surface (amastins) play a role in response to external or environmental conditions.

*Evidence of endosymbiosis and hybrid genome origins:* In this work, *E. gracilis* have been shown to possess genes shared between itself and the prokaryotic endosymbiont as well as with other members of the eukaryotes. However, why would this unique organism accumulate several genes across prokaryotic and eukaryotic taxa? One possible explanation would be an active Lateral Gene Transfer (LGT) events in *E. gracilis*, which could play both evolutionary and functional roles. In prokaryotes, LGT are seen as a driving evolutionary force (Sieber, *et al.*, 2017).

For instance, sexual reproduction is considered an evolutionary advantage because offspring have increased genetic diversity that arose from the male and female gametes. Given that bacteria reproduce asexually, bacterial offspring lack genetic diversity from the sexual reproduction of two parents. In the absence of sexual reproduction, the transfer of DNA between organisms independent of sexual reproduction via lateral gene transfer (LGT) enables bacteria to increase genetic diversity and therefore potentially increase evolutionary fitness (Sieber, *et al.*, 2017). In *E. gracilis*, LGT may explain the reason behind the occurrence of sexual and asexual reproduction (see results and discussions above in this Chapter). LGT from prokaryotes to eukaryotes are also common, and involves the acquisition of nuclear genes in mitochondria and chloroplast (Sieber, *et al.*, 2017). This phenomenon will allow the host eukaryote, such as *E. gracilis*, to continue to perform the once ancient biological functions of the prokaryotes (cyanobacteria and proteobacteria) - photosynthesis and respiration respectively. This also has several adaptive functions such as the capability to adapt to both the presence and absence of light (see Chapter 6 of this work).

# CHAPTER SIX

## 6.0 GENE EXPRESSION STUDIES

### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

In Euglena, considerable advances have now been made in understanding the integration of both the mitochondrion and chloroplast with the host cell, and how their metabolic activities interact and are co-ordinated (O'Neill, *et al.*, 2015). *E. gracilis* are extremely metabolically flexible having acquired, by secondary endosymbiosis, a chloroplast with complex secondary metabolism (O'Neill, *et al.*, 2015) and also being highly resistant to noxious conditions. The presence of the chloroplast provides a major source of energy, and may also be connected with diurnal changes within the cell (Ebenezer, *et al.*, manuscript in preparation).

In the transition from light to dark conditions, and vice versa, *E. gracilis* shows several physiological and morphological changes (Gibbs, 1960; Wolken, 1956; Siegesmund, 1962; Pellegrini, 1980; Rocchetta *et al.*, 2007; Kivic and Vesk, 1972; Ben-Shaul, *et al.*, 1963; Lyman, *et al.*, 1961; Mollenhauer, *et al.*, 1967). For instance, in the absence of light, *E. gracilis* loses its chloroplast and undergo differentiation to form what is now known as proplastids which could adopt heterotrophic lifestyle – accumulating numerous paramylon granules and lipid inclusions, showing variably shaped and sized plastids, apparently lacking in ribosomes and showing a deeply disorganized membrane system (Vannini, 1983). When returned back to light, the photosynthetic apparatus, prothylakoids and chloroplast are restored and the organellar structures normalized (Siegesmund, *et al.*, 1962; Wolken, 1956; Kivic and Vesk, 1972; Ben-Shaul, *et al.*, 1963; Lyman, *et al.*, 1961), with an increased levels (when compared to dark cells) of the three enzymes of the reductive pentose phosphate cycle: fructose-1,6" diphosphate aldolase (class I), NADP-dependent glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase and 3-phosphoglycerate kinase (Russel and Draffan, 1978).

In eukaryotic cells, gene expression follows the universal mechanism of a gene being transcribed into an mRNA that, in turn, is translated into a protein. Of recent, an unusual extension of this mechanism was discovered in *E. gracilis* (Houlné and Schantz, 1993). In gene expression in *E. gracilis*, novel mechanism of transport and

processing are utilized, suggesting that light controls the gene expression at a post-transcriptional level, either by mobilization onto the polysomes or at the translational step, depending on the greening conditions (Houlné and Schantz, 1993).

In *E. gracilis*, treatments with xenobiotics affecting prokaryotic translation, transcription and DNA replication can result in the loss of chloroplast DNA reflecting the cyanobacterial ancestry of *E. gracilis* chloroplast genome (see review by Krajcovic, Ebringer, and Schwartzbach 2002). This process is accompanied by irreversible elimination of functional chloroplasts (bleaching phenomenon). Similarly, *E. gracilis* grown in the dark exhibits a similar bleaching phenomenon, but this is completely reversible. In higher plants, plastid-derived signals can affect the expression of chloroplast-encoded genes (Puthiyaveetil, *et al.*, 2008) and the expression of nuclear genes that encode chloroplast proteins (Nott, *et al.*, 2006). For instance, a functional plastid transcription apparatus was shown to be necessary for the transcription of nucleus-encoded genes Lhcb (formerly cab gene, encoding light-harvesting chlorophyll a/b-binding protein of photosystem II—LHCPII) and RbcS (encoding ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase small subunit) in wheat and barley (Rapp and Mullet, 1991). In *Euglena*, however, the situation appears to differ somewhat with respect to the influence of plastids on nuclear gene expression (Vesteg, *et al.*, 2009). Quite recently, it has been proven that mRNA levels of nucleus-encoded genes for chloroplast proteins in *E. gracilis* do not depend on either light or plastid function. For instance, Northern hybridization experiments showed that mRNA levels of nuclear photosynthetic genes Lhcb, RbcS and Pbgd (porphobilinogen deaminase) are similar in wild-type cells and non-photosynthetic *E. gracilis* white mutants (Vacula, *et al.*, 2001), and a constant levels of Apx transcripts were reported in *E. gracilis* during light adaptation while Apx mRNAs in white mutants and in the wild-type were comparable (Madhusudhan, *et al.*, 2003).

*E. gracilis* genes are differentially expressed under different conditions such as environmental stress, aerobic and anaerobic conditions and nutrition deprivation. For instance, using cDNA sequencing and microarray analysis, dos Santos Ferreira, *et al.*, 2007, found that 90 out of 610 identified ESTs changed expression levels in response to different stress treatments of Chromium, Streptomycin or darkness. Yoshida, *et al.*, 2016, described that in the transitioning from aerobic to anaerobic

conditions, approximately 5 % of the *E. gracilis* transcriptome are differentially expressed with pathway enrichment analysis suggesting an emphasis on photosynthesis, nucleotide metabolism, oxidative phosphorylation and fatty acid metabolism with insight that paramylon and wax ester metabolic pathways are regulated at post-transcriptional rather than the transcriptional level in response to anaerobic conditions. Vitamin B12, or cobalamin (Cbl), is an organometallic cofactor that supports the activities of enzymes in organisms, ranging from bacteria to humans, and it is required by *E. gracilis* for its growth (Yabuta, *et al.*, 2013).

Despite a considerable number of gene expression studies in *E. gracilis* involving light and dark environmental conditions, none of these have taken into account Next Generation Sequence (RNA-seq) approaches and/or a combination of RNA-seq and label-free proteomics quantification. In this chapter, for an indication into gene functions and physiological control, the gene expression of *E. gracilis* under light and dark environmental conditions will be discussed.

## 6.2 LIGHT AND DARK RNA-seq DIFFERENTIAL EXPRESSION ANALYSIS AND LABEL-FREE PROTEOMIC QUANTIFICATION

### 6.2.1 Light and dark adaptation of *E. gracilis* cells and RNA-seq analysis,

RNA sequencing for light and dark *E. gracilis* cells was performed as previously described in Chapter 2. The RNA preparation method employed produced high quality RNA (Table 6.1). Three replicates of sequencing runs were produced each for light and dark conditions respectively, with a length of 100 bp, total clean bases of 6153 Mbp, and minimum Q20 of 98.59 % respectively (Table 6.2, and BioProject #: PRJNA310762). To ensure that *E. gracilis* cell have sufficiently been adapted to light and dark conditions, photographs, microscopy, growth analysis, protein electrophoresis and spectrophotometry analysis were taken showing light (greenish) and dark (grayish/colourless) adapted cells respectively (Figure 6.1, 6.2). The greenish and grayish (or colourless) oval structures (and lines or bands) in Figure 6.2 correspond to the chloroplast and proplastids respectively. Growth analysis suggests a more increased growth rate for cultures grown in light conditions than in dark conditions. Protein electrophoresis demonstrates the presence and absence of chlorophyll in the light and dark cultures respectively. Spectrophotometry analysis

demonstrates the presence of two peaks/spectra corresponding to chlorophyll b and a respectively in the light adapted cultures, while this is flattened or absent in the dark adapted cultures. Comparative analyses of the light and dark cells suggest significant correlations (Figure 6.2).



**Table 6.1:** Pre-RNA sequence quality control test for light and dark regime RNA purification

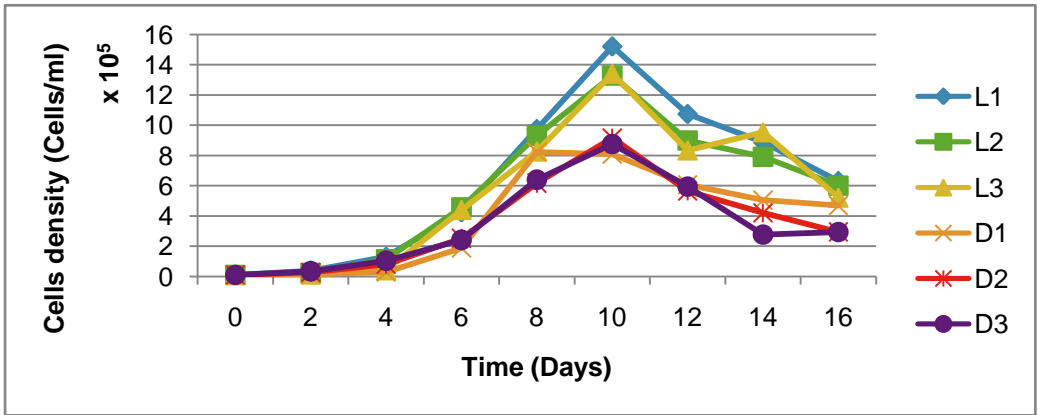
<b>S/No.</b>	<b>Sample name</b>	<b>Sample number</b>	<b>Library type</b>	<b>Concentration (ng/μl)</b>	<b>Volume (μl)</b>	<b>Total mass (μg)</b>	<b>OD260/280</b>	<b>OD260/230</b>	<b>Test result</b>
1.	Euglena RNA L1	8521512002690	HiSeq Eukaryotic Transcriptome	876	59	51.68	2.18	1.96	Level A
2.	Euglena RNA L2	8521512002691	HiSeq Eukaryotic Transcriptome	528	64	33.79	2.21	1.5	Level A
3.	Euglena RNA L3	8521512002692	HiSeq Eukaryotic Transcriptome	680	61	41.48	2.18	2.21	Level A
4.	Euglena RNA D1	8521512002693	HiSeq Eukaryotic Transcriptome	480	62	29.76	2.2	1.75	Level A
5.	Euglena RNA D2	8521512002694	HiSeq Eukaryotic Transcriptome	332	60	19.92	2.15	1.09	Level A
6.	Euglena RNA D3	8521512002695	HiSeq Eukaryotic Transcriptome	320	38	12.16	2.16	1.16	Level A

**Note:** The table represent the pre-sequencing result of *E. gracilis* light and dark regime RNA purifications. *Parameter descriptions:* **Sample name** refers to the alphabetical identifier of the sample. **Sample number** refers to the numerical identifier of the sample. **Library type** refers to the specific insert size sequenced. **Concentration**, **Volume**, and **Total Mass** refers to these respective parameters for each sample. OD260/280 and OD260/230 refers to the **Optical Density** at wavelengths of 260/280 and 260/230. **Test Result** refers to the classification of the pre-sequencing quality control; Level A means that the sample is qualified for DNA sequencing, and the amount of sample is sufficient for two or more libraries.

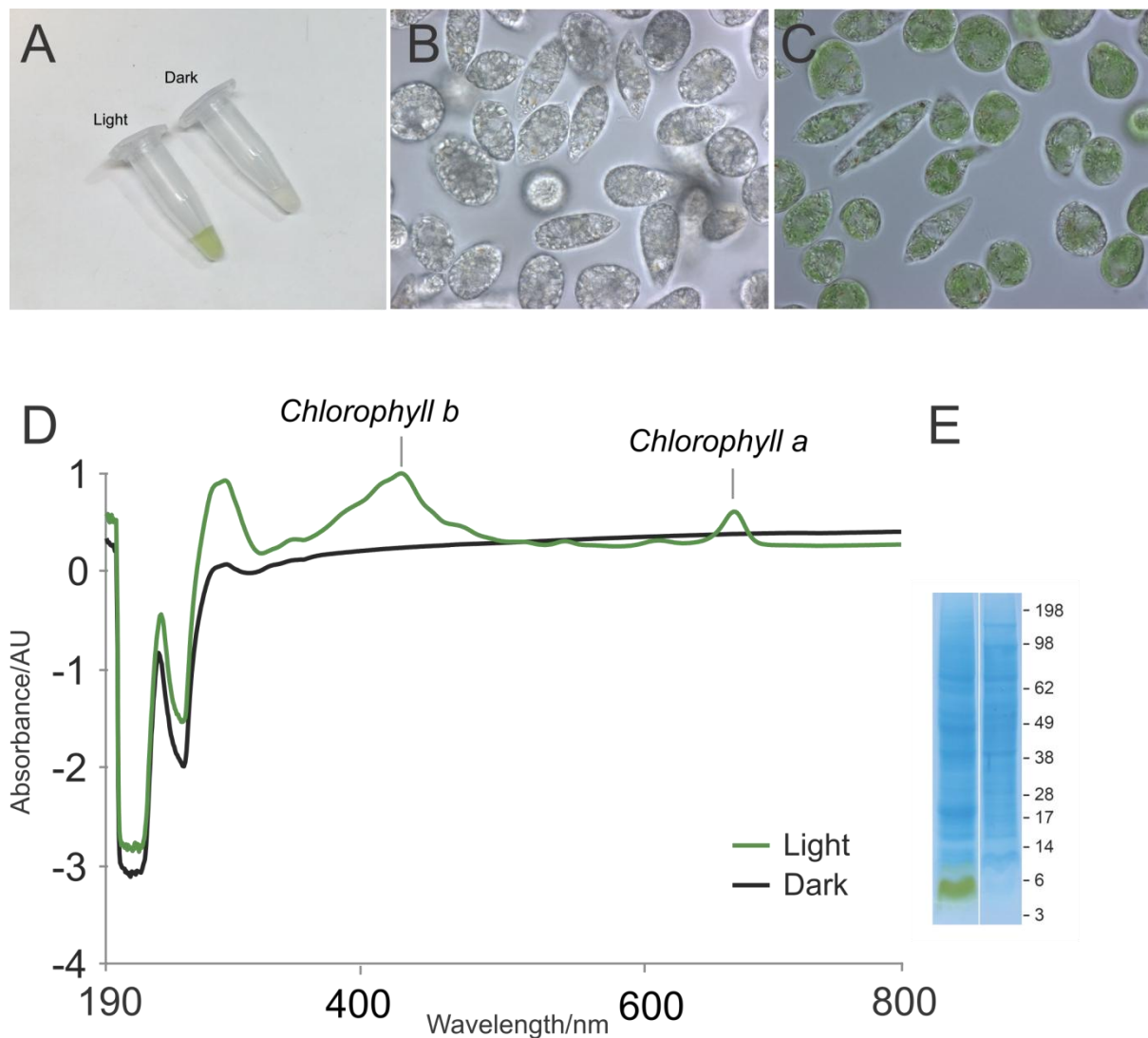
**Table 6.2:** Data summary of *E. gracilis* light and dark transcriptome sequencing experiment

Molecule	Sample name	Sequence technology	Read library (bp)	Orientation	Length (bp)	Clean reads (M)	Clean bases (Mbp)	Total clean bases (Mbp)	Q20 (%)	GC (%)	**Phys Cov. (X)
RNA	EuglenaRNAD1	Illumina HiSeq2000	Light and dark	Paired-overlap	100	10.262	1026	6153	98.63	59.54	16.276
	EuglenaRNAD2					10.274	1027		98.67	59.24	16.294
	EuglenaRNAD3					10.344	1034		98.68	59.17	16.405
	EuglenaRNAL1					10.239	1023		98.59	59.69	16.239
	EuglenaRNAL2					10.209	1020		98.61	59.48	16.192
	EuglenaRNAL3					10.205	1020		98.60	59.55	16.185

**Column description:** **Sample name (Library ID)** refers to library or sequence identification number that identify each sample; **Insert size** is the distance between the forward and reverse Mate pairs (read1 and read2); **Read length** is the length of the total reads (in bp); **Clean reads** refers to total reads after post sequencing quality control; **Clean bases** refers to total nucleotides (in base pair) after post sequencing quality control (sample filtration) for individual libraries; **Total clean bases** refers to total nucleotides (in base pair) after post sequencing quality control (sample filtration) for a libraries combined; **Q20 (%)** is the number of nucleotide with quality higher than 20/nucleotide (i.e. clean forward and reverse reads, R1 & R2), and **Q20** is the probability that a base is called incorrectly – probability of incorrect base is 1 in 100 with a call accuracy of 99 % (see: <http://www.illumina.com/science/education/sequencing-quality-scores.html>). **GC (%)** is the percentage of total nucleoties with guanine-cytocine bases. † Average read length. \* = Mean value. \*\* Read lengths are not in Megabases. **Phy Cov.** Is the physical coverage.



**Figure 6.1: Light is a catalyst for growth in *E. gracilis*.** The diagram shows the light and dark experiment growth curve. Growth adaptations or conditions were carried out for 16 days 'till cultures plateau. Each growth condition (light and dark) include 3 replicates represented by L1 (blue), L2 (green), L3 (yellow), D1 (amber), D2 (red), D3 (purple) respectively. Y axis = cell density in cells/ml (multiplied by a factor of  $10^5$ ), and X axis = Time in days. Samples were analysed at optimum growth conditions.

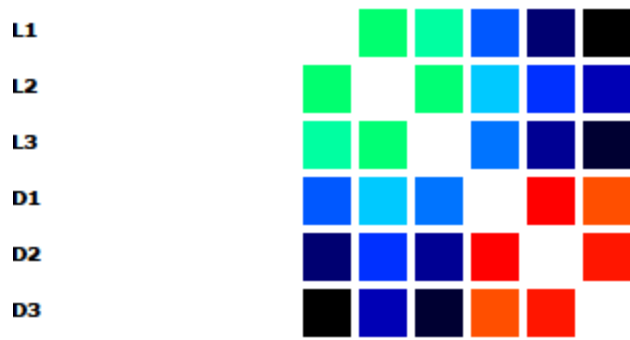


**Figure 6.2: Dark adapted cells lack chlorophyll.** All panels represent cells analysed following subculturing and then six days of continuous culture in the light or dark. Panel A: Samples of cultures demonstrating loss of pigments from the dark cultured cells. Panels B and C: Phase contrast images of cells after dark and light culture respectively. Panel D: UV-VIS absorbance spectra of cultures demonstrating the loss of characteristic absorbance peaks associated with chlorophyll and other pigments. Panel E: Coomassie-stained one dimension SDS-PAGE resolution of cells. Left lane are light and right dark cultured cells respectively, and molecular weight standards (kDa) are shown at right.

### 6.2.2 Differential Expression analysis

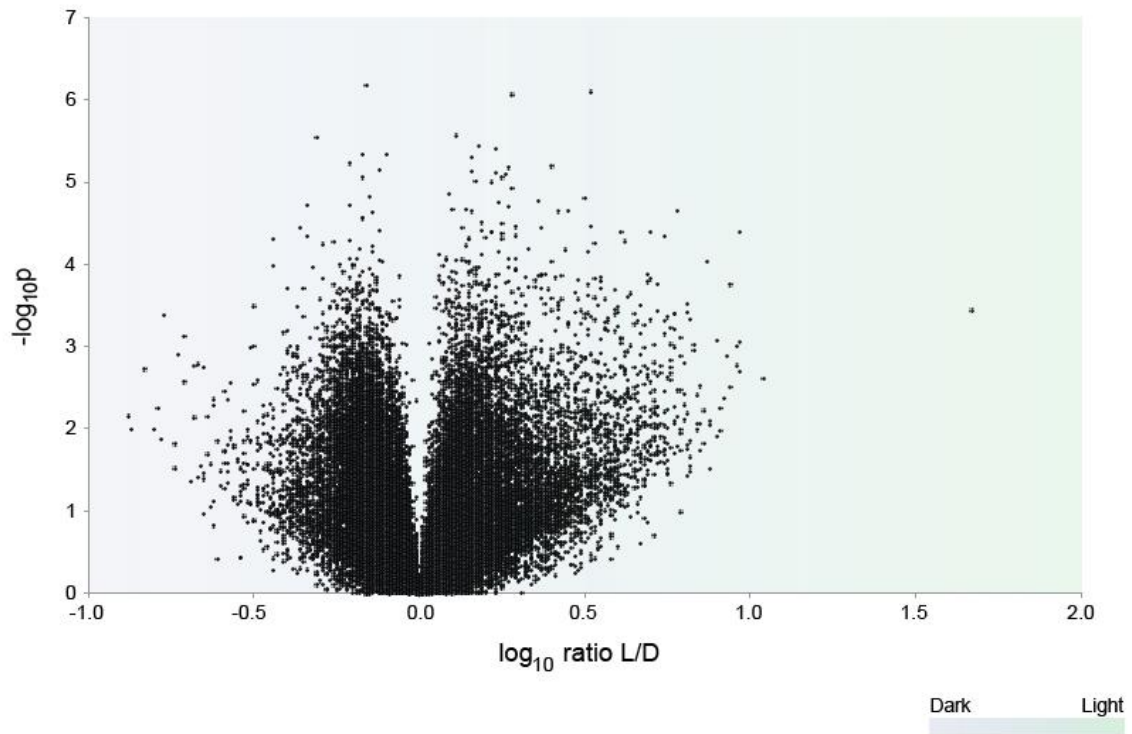
Differential Expression (DE) analysis was performed as previously described in Chapter 2, producing 66542 differentially expressed transcripts (Appendix II & III). Out of these 66542 differentially expressed transcripts, 64 were significantly expressed in the dark samples (this does not correlate to 61 upregulated proteins in the proteomics experiment) while 398 were significantly expressed in the light samples (this does not correlate to the 347 proteins upregulated in the proteomics experiment) using a 2-fold change criterion (-1.00 to -1.91 for dark regime, and 1.00 to 3.28 for light regime) (see Table 6.3, 6.4, Figure 6.6, and section 6.3; for an extensive details see Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2018, Appendix III, Table 1A-B). These 66542 differentially expressed transcripts were further reduced to 41045 by retaining those that are present in each of the 3 replicates in a specific state or condition as well as taking into account the infinite changes defined by the “log<sub>2</sub> fold change” parameter (Appendix III), and the ratios for the 41045 transcripts were quantified (Figure 6.3, 6.4, and Appendix III, Table 1A-B).

There are significantly more transcripts than protein-coding genes or Open Reading Frame (ORF) within the data, as can be seen in the subsequent sub sections. A possible explanation is because not all manufactured transcripts were eventually translated. For instance, recent studies compared several yeast genomes and showed that many of the yeast ORFs believed to be protein-coding genes are actually not conserved even in closely related species. These studies suggested that the non-conserved ORFs do not actually code for proteins and were called Dubious ORF (DO) (Havilio, *et al.*, 2005). Another reason for more abundant transcript than protein-coding genes may be because more than one transcript are likely required to produce only one ORF. For instance, while it is expected that correctly spliced and reconstructed eukaryotic transcript should carry a single functional protein-coding gene, there are instances where two or more genes are produced by a single transcript (prokaryotes or some eukaryote with operon organization) (Tang, *et al.*, 2015) or more than one transcripts producing a single gene. When several protein-coding genes are predicted in a single transcript (or vice versa) one could think about either biological (e.g. presence of alternative isoforms) or technological reasons (e.g. erroneous sequencing or assembly) (Tang, *et al.*, 2015).



Min = 0.9246; Max = 0.9472;

**Figure 6.3: Experimental triplicates are correlated.** Correlation heat map of light and dark RNA-seq Differential Expression (DE) analysis. L1, L2, and L3 represent light replicate experiments while D1, D2, and D3 represent dark replicate experiments respectively. Similar colourations of green, blue/black, or red, represent correlation significance. Minimum and maximum correlation values are 0.93 and 0.94 respectively. The diagram suggest that the three light replicate samples are more similar to each other than they are to the dark sample and the three dark replicates are more similar to each other than they are to the light.

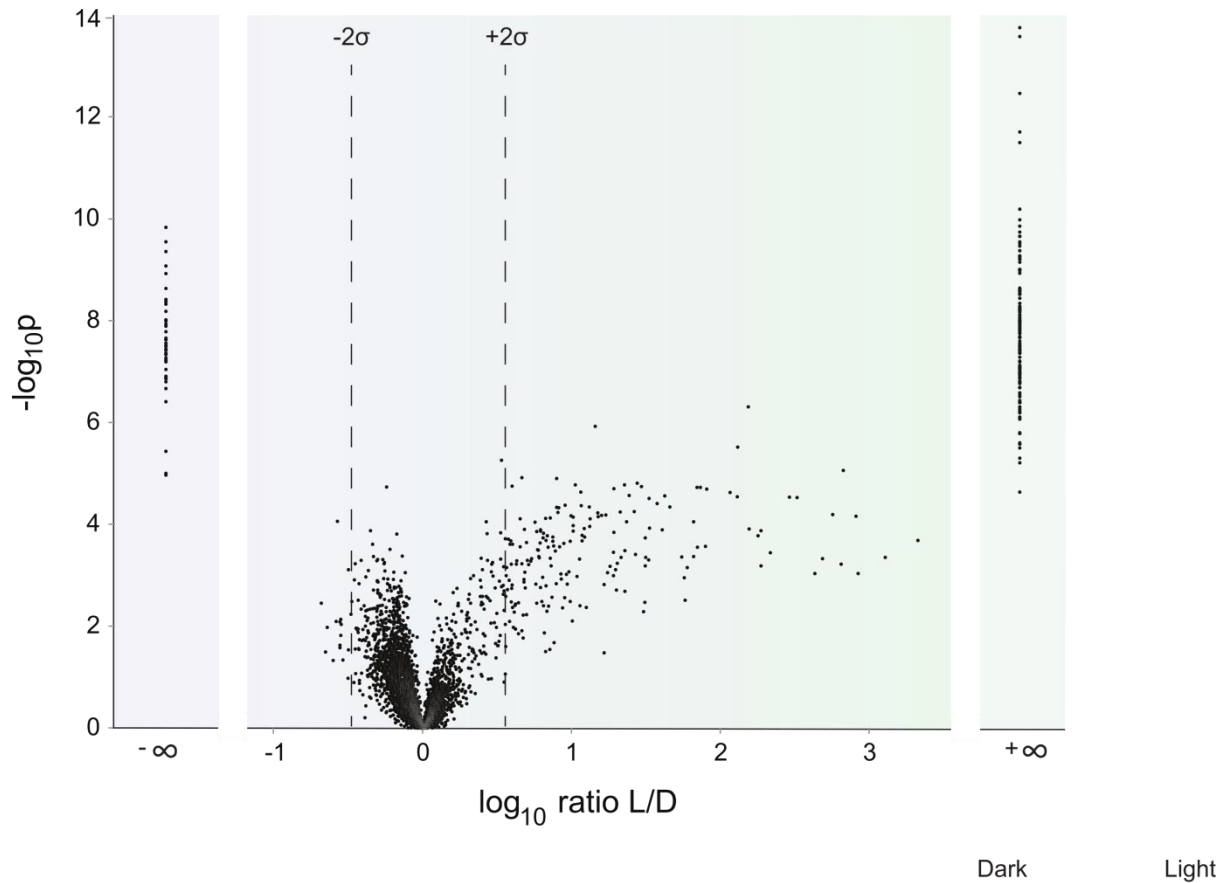


**Figure 6.4: Altered transcriptome of dark adapted cells.** Volcano plot of RNAseq data for cells maintained in the dark for six days against light grown cells. Data are plotted as  $\log_{10}$  probability versus  $\log_{10}$  of the ratio of intensities for dark/light transcript abundance. Data are the mean of triplicate RNA extractions. First half (left dotted) of the plot represent transcripts of dark adapted cells while the second half (right dotted) of the plot represent transcripts of light adapted cells. Thanks to Martin Zoltner for his kind help in generating this figure using Microsoft Excel and for Mark Field's help in reviewing it.



### 6.2.3 Light and dark label-free proteomic quantification

Label-free proteomic quantification was performed for light and dark adapted *E. gracilis* cells as previously described in Chapter 2, thanks to the Proteomics Facility at the University of Dundee, UK, for the Mass Spectrometry and Martin Zoltner for assistance with data analysis. Total protein (3 replicates for each environmental condition) were prepared from the *E. gracilis* light and dark adapted cells and separated by SDS-PAGE. Eight (8) fractions were obtained for each replicate in each condition respectively, and were subjected to Liquid chromatography–mass spectrometry/Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). This resulted in dataset of 48 samples which were analysed using MaxQuant (Cox and Mann, 2008) by searching the translated transcriptome. 80083 peptides were identified corresponding to 8661 distinct protein groups. Ratios for 4681 protein groups were quantified (Figure 6.5). A cohort of 384 protein groups was extracted belonging to only one state or condition (232 infinite changes specifically found in the light condition and 152 specifically found in the dark condition) (Figure 6.5). The protein groups not identified at the peptide level in each of the 3 replicates for one state were rejected from further analysis, and functional information corresponding to Biological Processes (BP), Cellular Component (CC), and Molecular Functions (MF) were assigned to all significant proteins identified (Table 6.3, 6.4, Figure 6.6, Appendix III). Further analysis of the Enzyme Code and KEGG pathways were performed (Figure 6.7, and Table 6.5). Combined, these analysis suggests the active presence of chloroplast and mitochondrial associated processes, with a higher proportion of amino acid metabolism and energy (Figure 6.6, 6.7 and Table 6.3, 6.4, 6.5)



**Figure 6.5: Altered proteome of dark adapted cells.** Volcano plot of mass spectrometric proteomic analysis for cells maintained in the dark for six days against control cultures maintained in the light. Data are plotted as  $\log_{10}$  probability versus  $\log_{10}$  of the ratio of intensities for dark/light transcript abundance and are derived from triplicate analyses. The dotted lines indicate the significance threshold for altered abundance, and the groups at far left and far right are proteins only detected in one condition, i.e. infinite change. Thanks to Martin Zoltner for his kind help in generating this figure using Microsoft Excel and for Mark Field's help in reviewing it.

**Table 6.3:** Top upregulated proteins with functional information in the dark regime

S/No.	Sequence ID	Gene Ontology number	BLAST Hit description
1	EG_transcript_10989	GO:0008152, GO:0008270, GO:0046872, GO:0004386, GO:0003676	gi 361124091 gb EHK96212.1 putative ATP-dependent RNA helicase glh-4 [Glarea lozoyensis 74030]
2	EG_transcript_11489	GO:0003676	small RNA degrading nuclease 5
3	EG_transcript_11553	No annotation	
4	EG_transcript_13727	GO:0006979, GO:0004601, GO:0016491, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0020037, GO:0055114, GO:0098869, GO:0016688	gi 229002753 dbj BAC05484.2 ascorbate peroxidase [Euglena gracilis]
5	EG_transcript_14442	No annotation	
6	EG_transcript_14708	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 167535710 ref XP_001749528.1 hypothetical protein [Monosiga brevicollis MX1]
7	EG_transcript_14739	No annotation	
8	EG_transcript_15222	GO:0005515	hypothetical protein RMCBS344292_15445
9	EG_transcript_16204	No annotation	
10	EG_transcript_16257	GO:0008152, GO:0003824	gi 683461375 gb KFZ55942.1 hypothetical protein N321_07366, partial [Caprimulgus carolinensis]
11	EG_transcript_16757	GO:0004190, GO:0006508, GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 675885768 ref XP_009028386.1 hypothetical protein HELRODRAFT_187510 [Helobdella robusta]
12	EG_transcript_16925	GO:0008152, GO:0003824, GO:0003676	gi 567139595 ref XP_006394828.1 hypothetical protein EUTSA_v10003904mg [Eutrema salsugineum]
13	EG_transcript_17065	GO:0008152, GO:0016491, GO:0055114	gi 496476580 ref WP_009185341.1 short-chain dehydrogenase [Cecembia lonarensis]
14	EG_transcript_18533	GO:0003723, GO:0003676	gi 922868115 gb KOO34586.1 kh domain-containing protein [Chrysochromulina sp. CCMP291]
15	EG_transcript_19278	GO:0003824, GO:0030246, GO:0005975	gi 496563941 gb EON77991.1 hypothetical protein ADIS_1530 [Lunatimonas lonarensis]
16	EG_transcript_19915	No annotation	
17	EG_transcript_1993	GO:0000166, GO:0046872, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0043231, GO:0016787, GO:0016887, GO:0015992, GO:1902600, GO:0008553, GO:0006810, GO:0006811,	gi 159490822 ref XP_001703372.1 plasma membrane hydrogen ATPase [Chlamydomonas reinhardtii]

		GO:0005524, GO:0005887, GO:0006754	
18	EG_transcript_20465	GO:0005515	hypothetical protein
19	EG_transcript_21291	No annotation	
20	EG_transcript_22379	No annotation	
21	EG_transcript_22708	GO:0008152, GO:0016874	gi 528220015 gb EPY21792.1 E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase CHFR [Strigomonas culicis]
22	EG_transcript_22899	GO:0008171	catechol O-methyltransferase
23	EG_transcript_24867	GO:0003824	peroxisomal bifunctional enzyme
24	EG_transcript_25896	No annotation	
25	EG_transcript_2641	GO:0008168, GO:0016740, GO:0032259	gi 818421176 gb KKQ96760.1 C-methyltransferase [Candidatus Levybacteria bacterium GW2011_GWA1_39_11]
26	EG_transcript_26745	GO:0000166, GO:0005525, GO:0007264, GO:0005622	gi 302844586 ref XP_002953833.1 small Arf-related GTPase [Volvox carteri f. nagariensis]
27	EG_transcript_26940	No annotation	
28	EG_transcript_27379	GO:0004514, GO:0016757, GO:0004516, GO:0019363, GO:0009435, GO:0019358, GO:0016740, GO:0016874	gi 917634208 ref WP_052203209.1 nicotinate phosphoribosyltransferase [Corynebacterium riegellii]
29	EG_transcript_28262	GO:0000166	hypothetical protein
30	EG_transcript_3030	No annotation	
31	EG_transcript_3171	GO:0051087	hypothetical protein SDRG_07330
32	EG_transcript_32460	No annotation	
33	EG_transcript_32537	No annotation	
34	EG_transcript_33626	GO:0005515	hypothetical protein H257_03940
35	EG_transcript_33977	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 910756073 gb KNH03764.1 hypothetical protein XU18_4840 [Perkinsela sp. CCAP 1560/4]
36	EG_transcript_35573	No annotation	
37	EG_transcript_38082	GO:0043231, GO:0051537	gi 924559594 gb ALC44606.1 CG1458 [Drosophila busckii]
38	EG_transcript_4196	GO:0016758	hypothetical protein PBRA_000926
39	EG_transcript_42257	GO:0006979, GO:0004601, GO:0046872, GO:0016491, GO:0020037, GO:0055114, GO:0098869, GO:0005576, GO:0042744	gi 224612181 gb ACN60162.1 peroxidase [Tamarix hispida]
40	EG_transcript_4227	GO:0016567, GO:0004842	gi 118348690 ref XP_001007820.1 von willebrand factor type A

			domain protein, putative [Tetrahymena thermophila SB210]
41	EG_transcript_43582	GO:0008233, GO:0045047, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0006465, GO:0030176, GO:0005787	gi 118784204 ref XP_313570.3 AGAP004296-PA [Anopheles gambiae str. PEST]
42	EG_transcript_45390	No annotation	
43	EG_transcript_4580	GO:0008152, GO:0003824, GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 488814079 ref WP_002726485.1 peptide synthetase [Phaeospirillum molischianum]
44	EG_transcript_4879	GO:0008536, GO:0006886, GO:0005622	gi 290988107 ref XP_002676763.1 karyopherin beta [Naegleria gruberi]
45	EG_transcript_488	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 907095846 gb KND01500.1 hypothetical protein SPPG_03300 [Spizellomyces punctatus DAOM BR117]
46	EG_transcript_4887	GO:0005515	hypothetical protein PHYSODRAFT_247101
47	EG_transcript_52895	No annotation	
48	EG_transcript_57369	GO:0005739, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0070469, GO:0055114, GO:0005743	gi 1174868 sp P43266.1 UCR9_EUGGRRName: Full=Ubiquinol-cytochrome-C reductase complex subunit IX, mitochondrial
49	EG_transcript_57440	No annotation	
50	EG_transcript_58502	No annotation	
51	EG_transcript_59561	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 554937696 gb ESL08680.1 hypothetical protein TRSC58_03614 [Trypanosoma rangeli SC58]
52	EG_transcript_5961	GO:0006397	---NA---
53	EG_transcript_6094	GO:0008152, GO:0000166, GO:0004386, GO:0005524, GO:0016787, GO:0003676	gi 761931188 gb KIY52138.1 DEAD-domain-containing protein [Fistulina hepatica ATCC 64428]
54	EG_transcript_61813	GO:0000287, GO:0005737, GO:0004427, GO:0046872, GO:0006796, GO:0016787	gi 511100189 ref WP_016330362.1 inorganic pyrophosphatase [Thermus oshimai]
55	EG_transcript_63679	No annotation	
56	EG_transcript_72309	GO:0008152, GO:0046872, GO:0003824	gi 597570211 ref XP_007288162.1 peptidase M16 inactive domain-containing protein [Marssonina brunnea f. sp. 'multigermtubi' MB_m1]
57	EG_transcript_7608	No annotation	
58	EG_transcript_7901	GO:0008152, GO:0000166, GO:0004386, GO:0005524, GO:0016787, GO:0003676	gi 901802269 gb KMZ62062.1 ATP dependent RNA helicase [Zostera marina]
59	EG_transcript_8844	No annotation	
60	EG_transcript_9170	GO:0045892	gi 242080973 ref XP_002445255.1 hypothetical protein SORBIDRAFT_07g006910 [Sorghum bicolor]

61	EG_transcript_9625	GO:1901838, GO:0000166, GO:0070062, GO:0003723, GO:0001525, GO:0042162, GO:0030529, GO:0016020, GO:0005938, GO:0036464, GO:0042802, GO:0008022, GO:0005654, GO:0044822, GO:0005730, GO:0005634, GO:0003676, GO:0045944	gi 874448046 ref XP_005010398.2 PREDICTED: nucleolin [Anas platyrhynchos]
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**Note:** The table describes the list of top upregulated proteins (61 proteins) in the dark regime corresponding to the proteomics experiment. Column descriptions are in the order: Sequence ID = *Euglena* sequence ID, Gene Ontology number = GO number for the corresponding protein. BLAST Hit description = description of BLAST top hit. Protein IDs with corresponding description “No annotation” under the GO number column and empty cells under BLAST Hit description column means that an annotation could not be assigned. Individual proteins are represented by multiple GO numbers (e.g. EG\_transcript\_9625), and single GO numbers are also shared by multiple proteins e.g. GO:0008152 (EG\_transcript\_10989 and EG\_transcript\_16257). In the case of multiple GOs against a specific proteins, the first GO on the series is the top hit or reference GO.

**Table 6.4:** Top upregulated proteins with functional information in the light regime

S/No.	Sequence ID	Gene Ontology	BLAST Hit description
1	EG_transcript_10021	GO:0045261, GO:0046961, GO:0046933, GO:0016787, GO:0015986	gi 299469805 emb CBN76659.1 ATP synthase gamma chain [Ectocarpus siliculosus]
2	EG_transcript_10056	GO:0008152, GO:0003824, GO:0016740, GO:0004314	gi 255069969 ref XP_002507066.1 malonyl-CoA:ACP transacylase [Micromonas commoda]
3	EG_transcript_10193	GO:0016021	ATP-binding cassette sub-family C member 9 isoform X3
4	EG_transcript_10194	GO:0016021	major facilitator superfamily
5	EG_transcript_10203	GO:0015935	30S ribosomal S5, chloroplastic
6	EG_transcript_10277	GO:0018193	gi 922866029 gb KOO32969.1 beta- aspartyl asparaginyl family [Chrysochromulina sp. CCMP291]
7	EG_transcript_10319	GO:0003735, GO:0030529, GO:0005840, GO:0006412, GO:0005622	gi 302770833 ref XP_002968835.1 hypothetical protein SELMODRAFT_90107, partial [Selaginella moellendorffii]
8	EG_transcript_10323	GO:0005524	hypothetical protein
9	EG_transcript_10421	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 546310592 ref XP_005714398.1 unnamed protein product [Chondrus crispus]
10	EG_transcript_10484	No annotation	
11	EG_transcript_10513	No annotation	
12	EG_transcript_10575	GO:0016491, GO:0055114	gi 308798893 ref XP_003074226.1 Glycine/D-amino acid oxidases-like (ISS) [Ostreococcus tauri]
13	EG_transcript_1060	GO:0006950, GO:0051082, GO:0005524, GO:0006457	gi 528265585 gb EPY39843.1 TNF receptor-associated protein 1 [Angomonas deanei]
14	EG_transcript_10675	GO:0000287, GO:0009507, GO:0015979, GO:0015977, GO:0016984, GO:0009536	gi 480512027 gb AEW12959.2 ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase large subunit (chloroplast) [Colacium vesiculosum]
15	EG_transcript_10721	No annotation	
16	EG_transcript_10778	GO:0006096, GO:0004618, GO:0016310, GO:0016740, GO:0016301, GO:0005524	gi 551676214 ref XP_005840861.1 hypothetical protein GUITHDRAFT_91943 [Guillardia theta CCMP2712]
17	EG_transcript_10846	No annotation	
18	EG_transcript_10877	GO:0008152, GO:0016740, GO:0008080	gi 499899234 ref WP_011579968.1 N-acetyltransferase GCN5 [Chelativorans sp. BNC1]
19	EG_transcript_10888	GO:0003824	phosphatase 2C

20	EG_transcript_10984	GO:0004853	uroporphyrinogen decarboxylase, partial
21	EG_transcript_11021	GO:0016020	TPA_inf: chloroplast light-harvesting complex I precursor Lhca3
22	EG_transcript_11176	GO:0016701, GO:0051213, GO:0003868, GO:0016491, GO:0046872, GO:0055114, GO:0009072	gi 545704129 ref XP_005704388.1 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase [Galdieria sulphuraria]
23	EG_transcript_11279	No annotation	
24	EG_transcript_11323	No annotation	
25	EG_transcript_11387	GO:0000166, GO:0015995, GO:0006779, GO:0009507, GO:0015979, GO:0016851, GO:0016874, GO:0005524, GO:0009536	gi 830260407 gb AKL82342.1 chlorophyll biosynthesis (chloroplast) [Euglena gracilis var. bacillaris]
26	EG_transcript_11490	GO:0004784	unnamed protein product
27	EG_transcript_11539	GO:0016491, GO:0016717, GO:0006629, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0055114, GO:0006633	gi 168023862 ref XP_001764456.1 predicted protein [Physcomitrella patens]
28	EG_transcript_11638	GO:0016791	phosphoglycolate phosphatase 1B, chloroplastic-like
29	EG_transcript_11739	GO:0005524	gi 342360007 gb AEL29575.1 chloroplast rubisco activase [Chlorella pyrenoidosa]
30	EG_transcript_11779	GO:0004316, GO:0008152, GO:0051287, GO:0016491, GO:0055114, GO:0006633	gi 522071708 ref WP_020582917.1 beta-ketoacyl-ACP reductase [Endozoicomonas elysicola]
31	EG_transcript_11790	GO:0004550	hypothetical protein Ctob_013751
32	EG_transcript_11810	No annotation	
33	EG_transcript_11885	GO:0005515	hypothetical protein SELMODRAFT_180340
34	EG_transcript_12003	No annotation	
35	EG_transcript_12015	GO:0005515	predicted protein
36	EG_transcript_12048	No annotation	
37	EG_transcript_1207	GO:0005506, GO:0046872, GO:0016705, GO:0020037, GO:0055114, GO:0004497	gi 219115858 ref XP_002178724.1 lutein deficient 1-like protein [Phaeodactylum tricornutum CCAP 1055/1]
38	EG_transcript_121	GO:0030976	unnamed protein product
39	EG_transcript_12119	GO:0006096, GO:0004618, GO:0016310, GO:0016740, GO:0016301	gi 51860718 gb AAU11483.1 chloroplast phosphoglycerate kinase precursor [Euglena gracilis]
40	EG_transcript_12174	GO:0005515	photosystem II stability assembly factor HCF136
41	EG_transcript_12275	No annotation	
42	EG_transcript_12307	No annotation	



43	EG_transcript_12327	No annotation	
44	EG_transcript_12361	GO:0005515	hypothetical protein GUITHDRAFT_102686
45	EG_transcript_12362	No annotation	
46	EG_transcript_12440	No annotation	
47	EG_transcript_12460	No annotation	
48	EG_transcript_12610	GO:0006779, GO:0004109, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0055114	gi 327493895 gb AEA86534.1 coproporphyrinogen oxidase [ <i>Euglena gracilis</i> ]
49	EG_transcript_12645	No annotation	
50	EG_transcript_12751	GO:0008152, GO:0003755, GO:0000413, GO:0016853, GO:0006457	gi 551653172 ref XP_005829364.1 hypothetical protein GUITHDRAFT_95747 [ <i>Guillardia theta</i> CCMP2712]
51	EG_transcript_12753	No annotation	
52	EG_transcript_12810	GO:0008150, GO:0009507	gi 357114051 ref XP_003558814.1 PREDICTED: uncharacterized protein SYNPC7002_A1590 [ <i>Brachypodium distachyon</i> ]
53	EG_transcript_12845	GO:0009507, GO:0009536	gi 11467045 ref NP_041952.1 hypothetical protein EugrCp064 [ <i>Euglena gracilis</i> ]
54	EG_transcript_12982	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 224011820 ref XP_002294563.1 predicted protein [ <i>Thalassiosira pseudonana</i> CCMP1335]
55	EG_transcript_13040	GO:0016705, GO:0016491, GO:0055114, GO:0016117	gi 551676633 ref XP_005841070.1 lycopene beta cyclase [ <i>Guillardia theta</i> CCMP2712]
56	EG_transcript_13066	GO:0009507, GO:0046872, GO:0006098, GO:0019288, GO:0009055, GO:0009688, GO:0022900, GO:0051537, GO:0010103, GO:0051536	gi 159489964 ref XP_001702961.1 apoferreredoxin [ <i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i> ]
57	EG_transcript_13092	No annotation	
58	EG_transcript_13115	No annotation	
59	EG_transcript_13141	GO:0008152, GO:0000166, GO:0006810, GO:0005524, GO:0016887	gi 302840511 ref XP_002951811.1 iron-sulfur cluster assembly protein [ <i>Volvox carteri</i> f. <i>nagariensis</i> ]
60	EG_transcript_1328	GO:0008152, GO:0000166, GO:0004386, GO:0005524, GO:0016787, GO:0003676	gi 751841078 emb CEL55341.1 ATP-dependent RNA helicase DDX5/DBP2 [ <i>Rhizoctonia solani</i> AG-1 IB]
61	EG_transcript_13343	GO:0009654	psbP family
62	EG_transcript_13435	GO:0016491, GO:0055114, GO:0004324	gi 926794315 ref XP_013905631.1 ferredoxin--NADP+ reductase [ <i>Monoraphidium neglectum</i> ]
63	EG_transcript_1352	GO:0008152, GO:0000166, GO:0005524, GO:0016887	gi 298707277 emb CBJ25904.1 ABC transporter [ <i>Ectocarpus</i>

			siliculosus]
64	EG_transcript_13553	GO:0015995, GO:0046872, GO:0016491, GO:0055114, GO:0015979, GO:0048529	gi 302833487 ref XP_002948307.1 copper target 1 protein [Volvox carteri f. nagariensis]
65	EG_transcript_13633	GO:0016491, GO:0055114	gi 397615104 gb EJK63221.1 hypothetical protein THAOC_16135 [Thalassiosira oceanica]
66	EG_transcript_1376	GO:0000166, GO:0005524, GO:0019538	gi 302841992 ref XP_002952540.1 hypothetical protein VOLCADRAFT_75431 [Volvox carteri f. nagariensis]
67	EG_transcript_13779	GO:0008152, GO:0008270, GO:0016829, GO:0004089, GO:0015976	gi 58613427 gb AAW79300.1 chloroplast carbonic anhydrase [Heterocapsa triquetra]
68	EG_transcript_13834	GO:0003824	hypothetical protein
69	EG_transcript_13890	GO:0018026, GO:0016279	gi 168002824 ref XP_001754113.1 predicted protein [Physcomitrella patens]
70	EG_transcript_13986	GO:0005524	adenylate kinase
71	EG_transcript_14000	No annotation	
72	EG_transcript_14037	GO:0031408, GO:0006636, GO:0044272, GO:0000096, GO:0050518, GO:0016740, GO:0009072, GO:0019216, GO:0016117, GO:0019748, GO:0016779, GO:0015995, GO:0015994, GO:0008299, GO:0009695, GO:0009117, GO:0009106, GO:0008652, GO:0006733, GO:0006546, GO:0006766, GO:0009416, GO:0009108	gi 159481752 ref XP_001698942.1 4-diphosphocytidyl-2C-methyl-D-erythritol synthase [Chlamydomonas reinhardtii]
73	EG_transcript_14068	GO:0006508, GO:0006364, GO:0004222	gi 298711736 emb CBJ32782.1 conserved unknown protein [Ectocarpus siliculosus]
74	EG_transcript_14130	GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0043231, GO:0051537	gi 906458901 gb KNC22034.1 hypothetical protein FF38_14215 [Lucilia cuprina]
75	EG_transcript_14187	GO:0005515	predicted protein
76	EG_transcript_14312	No annotation	
77	EG_transcript_14460	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 308805572 ref XP_003080098.1 unnamed protein product [Ostreococcus tauri]
78	EG_transcript_14464	GO:0043085, GO:0031977, GO:0006098, GO:0005509, GO:0009523, GO:0010207, GO:0006364, GO:0009654, GO:0015979, GO:0019898, GO:0010103, GO:0009657	gi 226491834 ref NP_001147590.1 chloroplast oxygen-evolving complex/thylakoid lumenal 25.6kDa protein [Zea mays]
79	EG_transcript_14553	No annotation	
80	EG_transcript_14654	No annotation	

81	EG_transcript_14865	GO:0016209, GO:0016491, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0055114, GO:0098869, GO:0051920	gi 594591713 dbj BAO53977.1 peroxiredoxin [Euglena gracilis]
82	EG_transcript_1495	GO:0000166, GO:0005525, GO:0003746, GO:0009507, GO:0003924, GO:0006414, GO:0006412, GO:0009536, GO:0005622	gi 11466993 ref NP_041900.1 elongation factor Tu [Euglena gracilis]
83	EG_transcript_1542	GO:0006950, GO:0051082, GO:0005524, GO:0006457	gi 452769133 gb AGG11508.1 hypothetical protein, partial [Trypanosomatidae sp. TS-2013]
84	EG_transcript_15491	GO:0016851	Magnesium chelatase, subunit H, N-terminal, partial
85	EG_transcript_15674	GO:0000774	GrpE protein homolog
86	EG_transcript_158	GO:0000287, GO:0009507, GO:0046872, GO:0016491, GO:0018298, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0055114, GO:0051539, GO:0015979, GO:0016168, GO:0051536, GO:0009055, GO:0009579, GO:0009535, GO:0009522, GO:0009536	gi 830260425 gb AKL82360.1 photosystem I P700 apoprotein A1 (chloroplast) [Euglena gracilis var. bacillaris]
87	EG_transcript_15917	GO:0005840	50S ribosomal L3, chloroplastic-like
88	EG_transcript_16010	GO:0009507, GO:0016020, GO:0018298, GO:0016021, GO:0009579, GO:0009765, GO:0009523, GO:0015979, GO:0016168	gi 510388 emb CAA43633.1 light harvesting chlorophyll a /b binding protein of PSII [Euglena gracilis]
89	EG_transcript_16160	GO:0005737, GO:0008233, GO:0006508, GO:0008236, GO:0004252, GO:0016787	gi 499390682 ref WP_011078149.1 ATP-dependent Clp protease proteolytic subunit [Vibrio vulnificus]
90	EG_transcript_16166	GO:0019684, GO:0009535, GO:0009534, GO:0006364, GO:0010207, GO:0010206, GO:0003674, GO:0035304, GO:0009657	gi 159485408 ref XP_001700736.1 hypothetical protein CHLREDRAFT_187371 [Chlamydomonas reinhardtii]
91	EG_transcript_16296	GO:0009507, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0009536	gi 830260409 gb AKL82344.1 hypothetical protein (chloroplast) [Euglena gracilis var. bacillaris]
92	EG_transcript_16400	GO:0006779, GO:0016491, GO:0004729, GO:0055114	gi 327493899 gb AEA86536.1 protoporphyrinogen oxidase [Euglena gracilis]
93	EG_transcript_1656	GO:0000166, GO:0006812, GO:0046872, GO:0070574, GO:0016020, GO:0098655, GO:0043231, GO:0016021, GO:0030001, GO:0071577, GO:0016787, GO:0008152, GO:0019829, GO:0015086, GO:0005385, GO:0005887	gi 156390845 ref XP_001635480.1 predicted protein [Nematostella vectensis]
94	EG_transcript_16567	GO:0004392, GO:0055114, GO:0006788	gi 922864246 gb KOO31539.1 heme oxygenase 1 [Chrysochromulina sp. CCMP291]
95	EG_transcript_16570	GO:0005506	hypothetical protein GPECTOR_1g86

96	EG_transcript_16722	GO:0005515	predicted protein
97	EG_transcript_1682	GO:0008152, GO:0003824, GO:0046872	gi 585109176 gb EWM27006.1 Peptidase M16 [Nannochloropsis gaditana]
98	EG_transcript_16836	GO:0004421	hypothetical protein
99	EG_transcript_1707	GO:0000166, GO:0005524, GO:0019538	gi 590670650 ref XP_007038115.1 CLPC [Theobroma cacao]
100	EG_transcript_17073	GO:0031072, GO:0051082	gi 308808229 ref XP_003081425.1 unnamed protein product [Ostreococcus tauri]
101	EG_transcript_17203	GO:0098599, GO:0008474, GO:0002084	gi 813102405 ref XP_012193809.1 hypothetical protein SPRG_00319 [Saprolegnia parasitica CBS 223.65]
102	EG_transcript_17297	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 495511008 ref WP_008235653.1 hypothetical protein [Richelia intracellularis]
103	EG_transcript_17391	GO:0003723, GO:0003735, GO:0005739, GO:0005840, GO:0006412, GO:0005622	gi 168031515 ref XP_001768266.1 predicted protein [Physcomitrella patens]
104	EG_transcript_17545	GO:0006417, GO:0045893, GO:0010319, GO:0019288, GO:0010207, GO:0015979, GO:0035304, GO:0010182, GO:0009773, GO:0007186, GO:0034660, GO:0009535, GO:0042793, GO:0009534, GO:0009941, GO:0045037, GO:0006364, GO:0045038, GO:0009532, GO:0042742, GO:0009902, GO:0009528, GO:0009657, GO:0006655	gi 357122407 ref XP_003562907.1 PREDICTED: protein THYLAKOID FORMATION1, chloroplastic [Brachypodium distachyon]
105	EG_transcript_17548	No annotation	
106	EG_transcript_17571	GO:0015995, GO:0016740, GO:0008168, GO:0032259, GO:0046406	gi 922865272 gb KOO32364.1 mg-protoporphyrin ix methyltransferase [Chrysochromulina sp. CCMP291]
107	EG_transcript_17576	GO:0003779, GO:0005509, GO:0005938, GO:0005634, GO:0030479, GO:0006897, GO:0006886	gi 452837206 gb EME39148.1 hypothetical protein DOTSEDRAFT_38392 [Dothistroma septosporum NZE10]
108	EG_transcript_17636	No annotation	
109	EG_transcript_17719	GO:0031514	gi 159475433 ref XP_001695823.1 flagellar associated protein [Chlamydomonas reinhardtii]
110	EG_transcript_17723	GO:0016705, GO:0016491, GO:0055114, GO:0016117	gi 551676633 ref XP_005841070.1 lycopene beta cyclase [Guillardia theta CCMP2712]
111	EG_transcript_17799	GO:0005509, GO:0009523, GO:0009654, GO:0015979, GO:0019898	gi 356553956 ref XP_003545316.1 PREDICTED: oxygen-evolving enhancer protein 2, chloroplastic [Glycine max]
112	EG_transcript_17812	GO:0031977, GO:0006636, GO:0019761, GO:0019288, GO:0019684, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0019344, GO:0010218, GO:0010207, GO:0016311, GO:0010206,	gi 159489872 ref XP_001702915.1 predicted protein [Chlamydomonas reinhardtii]

		GO:0015979, GO:0035304, GO:0010114, GO:0016117, GO:0015995, GO:0009773, GO:0009534, GO:0006364, GO:0009637, GO:0003993, GO:0009657	
113	EG_transcript_17836	GO:0046872, GO:0009055, GO:0051537, GO:0051536	gi 545375973 ref XP_005652111.1 ferredoxin, partial [Coccomyxa subellipsoidea C-169]
114	EG_transcript_1793	GO:0003735, GO:0030529, GO:0015934, GO:0005840, GO:0006412	gi 223994385 ref XP_002286876.1 predicted protein [Thalassiosira pseudonana CCMP1335]
115	EG_transcript_18039	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 300244356 gb ADJ93793.1 chloroplast ferredoxin precursor [Euglena gracilis]
116	EG_transcript_18155	No annotation	
117	EG_transcript_18210	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 698792322 ref XP_009829193.1 hypothetical protein H257_05882 [Aphanomyces astaci]
118	EG_transcript_18295	No annotation	
119	EG_transcript_18309	GO:0005840	50S ribosomal L13, chloroplastic
120	EG_transcript_18342	GO:0016020, GO:0042132, GO:0016021, GO:0016311, GO:0042578, GO:0016787, GO:0005975	gi 99904205 gb ABF68597.1 chloroplast fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase [Euglena gracilis]
121	EG_transcript_18353	No annotation	
122	EG_transcript_18719	GO:0055114, GO:0008113	gi 545361125 ref XP_005645876.1 hypothetical protein COCSUDRAFT_37270 [Coccomyxa subellipsoidea C-169]
123	EG_transcript_1878	GO:0000166, GO:0005737, GO:0042026, GO:0005524	gi 145348995 ref XP_001418926.1 chaperonin 60 beta chain, chloroplast [Ostreococcus lucimarinus CCE9901]
124	EG_transcript_18816	GO:0005509, GO:0009523, GO:0009654, GO:0015979, GO:0019898	gi 612392145 ref XP_007511593.1 predicted protein [Bathycoccus prasinos]
125	EG_transcript_18865	No annotation	
126	EG_transcript_19210	No annotation	
127	EG_transcript_19233	No annotation	
128	EG_transcript_19306	GO:0009507, GO:0018298, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0009579, GO:0009765, GO:0009523, GO:0016168, GO:0015979	gi 157965835 gb ABW06954.1 chloroplast light-harvesting complex II protein precursor [Euglena gracilis]
129	EG_transcript_1939	GO:0005506, GO:0008299, GO:0055114, GO:0016114, GO:0046429	gi 612390679 ref XP_007510861.1 predicted protein [Bathycoccus prasinos]
130	EG_transcript_19396	No annotation	
131	EG_transcript_19863	GO:0015035, GO:0046872, GO:0045454, GO:0009055,	gi 504565180 ref WP_014752282.1 monothiol glutaredoxin, Grx4

		GO:0055114, GO:0051537, GO:0005623, GO:0051536	family [Advenella kashmirensis]
132	EG_transcript_19892	GO:0005524	P-loop containing nucleoside triphosphate hydrolase
133	EG_transcript_19916	GO:0005840	50S ribosomal L19
134	EG_transcript_20060	No annotation	
135	EG_transcript_2012	GO:0016310, GO:0004672, GO:0016301, GO:0005524, GO:0006468	gi 545368684 ref XP_005649120.1 kinase-like protein [Coccomyxa subellipsoidea C-169]
136	EG_transcript_202	GO:0015995, GO:0009058, GO:0016851, GO:0016874	gi 1011382130 ref WP_062294880.1 magnesium chelatase [Nostoc piscinale]
137	EG_transcript_20306	GO:0008152, GO:0008270, GO:0016829, GO:0004089, GO:0015976	gi 58613427 gb AAW79300.1 chloroplast carbonic anhydrase [Heterocapsa triquetra]
138	EG_transcript_20407	GO:0005840	chloroplast ribosomal L4 precursor
139	EG_transcript_20472	GO:0000023, GO:0043085, GO:0006098, GO:0019252, GO:0009535, GO:0009941, GO:0009534	gi 573957305 ref XP_006660867.1 PREDICTED: rhodanese-like domain-containing protein 14, chloroplastic isoform X1 [Oryza brachyantha]
140	EG_transcript_20496	GO:0008233, GO:0006508, GO:0008236, GO:0016787	gi 504986470 ref WP_015173572.1 C-terminal processing peptidase-2 [Geitlerinema sp. PCC 7407]
141	EG_transcript_20679	GO:0003723, GO:0003735, GO:0030529, GO:0019843, GO:0005840, GO:0006412, GO:0005622	gi 493575931 ref WP_006529066.1 50S ribosomal protein L9 [Gloeocapsa sp. PCC 73106]
142	EG_transcript_20725	No annotation	
143	EG_transcript_20841	GO:0004602, GO:0006979, GO:0004601, GO:0016491, GO:0055114, GO:0098869	gi 351727154 ref NP_001236895.1 uncharacterized protein LOC100306570 [Glycine max]
144	EG_transcript_20863	GO:0008152, GO:0016740	gi 255081496 ref XP_002507970.1 glutathione s-transferase [Micromonas commoda]
145	EG_transcript_20958	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 551634553 ref XP_005820119.1 hypothetical protein GUIHDRAFT_98431 [Guillardia theta CCMP2712]
146	EG_transcript_21028	No annotation	
147	EG_transcript_21122	GO:0005509, GO:0009523, GO:0009654, GO:0015979, GO:0019898	gi 926784492 ref XP_013900720.1 PsbP domain-containing protein 6 [Monoraphidium neglectum]
148	EG_transcript_21198	No annotation	
149	EG_transcript_21224	GO:0035556	PDZ domain-containing 8 isoform X2
150	EG_transcript_21284	GO:0003755, GO:0000413, GO:0016853, GO:0006457	gi 551568844 ref XP_005770377.1 peptidyl-prolyl isomerase [Emiliana huxleyi CCMP1516]

151	EG_transcript_21485	GO:0016021	unknown protein
152	EG_transcript_21961	GO:0009507, GO:0016491, GO:0045156, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0055114, GO:0015979, GO:0008150, GO:0009055, GO:0009535, GO:0009579, GO:0042651, GO:0009512, GO:0003674, GO:0009536, GO:0009767	gi 38604764 sp Q84TU6.1 PETD_EUGGRRName: Full=Cytochrome b6-f complex subunit 4, chloroplastic
153	EG_transcript_22249	GO:0005840	hypothetical protein GPECTOR_10g892
154	EG_transcript_22491	GO:0006979, GO:0004601, GO:0016491, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0020037, GO:0055114, GO:0098869, GO:0016688	gi 229002753 dbj BAC05484.2 ascorbate peroxidase [Euglena gracilis]
155	EG_transcript_22652	GO:0003723, GO:0003735, GO:0030529, GO:0019843, GO:0005840, GO:0006412, GO:0005622	gi 818483467 gb KKR38094.1 30S ribosomal protein S17 [Parcubacteria group bacterium GW2011_GWF2_40_10]
156	EG_transcript_22691	GO:0016491, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0055114, GO:0051537, GO:0042128, GO:0008942	gi 255081861 ref XP_002508149.1 rieske [2Fe-2S] domain protein protein [Micromonas commoda]
157	EG_transcript_22745	No annotation	
158	EG_transcript_22790	GO:0042651, GO:0009523, GO:0009654, GO:0015979	gi 255083855 ref XP_002508502.1 photosystem II PsbR protein, chloroplast precursor [Micromonas commoda]
159	EG_transcript_23265	GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0006810	gi 551672884 ref XP_005839198.1 hypothetical protein GUIHDRAFT_84771 [Guillardia theta CCMP2712]
160	EG_transcript_23566	GO:0045263, GO:0015992, GO:0015078, GO:0016021, GO:0006810, GO:0006811, GO:0015986	gi 545366936 ref XP_005648338.1 chloroplast ATP synthase subunit II [Coccomyxa subellipsoidea C-169]
161	EG_transcript_23694	GO:0005737, GO:0016836, GO:0006633	gi 585105186 gb EWM23904.1 beta-hydroxyacyl-ACP dehydratase precursor [Nannochloropsis gaditana]
162	EG_transcript_23917	GO:0003735, GO:0005840, GO:0006412, GO:0005622	gi 552826410 ref XP_005847014.1 hypothetical protein CHLNCDRAFT_35672 [Chlorella variabilis]
163	EG_transcript_23949	GO:0016857	ribulose-phosphate 3-epimerase-like
164	EG_transcript_24057	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 302835946 ref XP_002949534.1 hypothetical protein VOLCADRAFT_104324 [Volvox carteri f. nagariensis]
165	EG_transcript_24310	No annotation	
166	EG_transcript_24363	GO:0046872	gi 615478074 ref XP_007603251.1 MYND finger [Colletotrichum fiorinae PJ7]
167	EG_transcript_24497	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 552826630 ref XP_005847073.1 hypothetical protein CHLNCDRAFT_134749 [Chlorella variabilis]
168	EG_transcript_2508	GO:0009507, GO:0016020, GO:0018298, GO:0016021, GO:0009579, GO:0009523, GO:0009765, GO:0016168,	gi 157965821 gb ABW06947.1 chloroplast light-harvesting complex I protein precursor [Euglena gracilis]

		GO:0015979	
169	EG_transcript_25199	GO:0009507, GO:0018298, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0009579, GO:0009765, GO:0009523, GO:0016168, GO:0015979	gi 157965833 gb ABW06953.1 chloroplast light-harvesting complex I protein precursor [ <i>Euglena gracilis</i> ]
170	EG_transcript_2535	GO:0006418, GO:0000166, GO:0005737, GO:0004812, GO:0004814, GO:0006420, GO:0016874, GO:0005524, GO:0006412	gi 398017578 ref XP_003861976.1 arginyl-tRNA synthetase, putative [ <i>Leishmania donovani</i> ]
171	EG_transcript_2565	GO:0000166, GO:0005524, GO:0019538	gi 302841992 ref XP_002952540.1 hypothetical protein VOLCADRAFT_75431 [ <i>Volvox carteri</i> f. <i>nagariensis</i> ]
172	EG_transcript_25832	GO:0003824, GO:0016020, GO:0006096, GO:0016021, GO:0016829, GO:0004332	gi 1150392 emb CAA61911.1 fructose-1,6-bisphosphate aldolase [ <i>Euglena gracilis</i> ]
173	EG_transcript_25934	GO:0009654	hypothetical protein GPECTOR_79g122
174	EG_transcript_26043	No annotation	
175	EG_transcript_2646	GO:0042132	plastid sedoheptulose-1,7-bisphosphatase, partial
176	EG_transcript_26562	GO:0003743, GO:0003723, GO:0009507, GO:0043022, GO:0019843, GO:0006412, GO:0009536, GO:0006413	gi 113170451 ref YP_717243.1 InfA (chloroplast) [ <i>Ostreococcus tauri</i> ]
177	EG_transcript_26637	No annotation	
178	EG_transcript_2664	GO:0000166, GO:0003676	gi 397643182 gb EJK75699.1 hypothetical protein THAOC_02569 [ <i>Thalassiosira oceanica</i> ]
179	EG_transcript_26703	No annotation	
180	EG_transcript_26804	No annotation	
181	EG_transcript_27332	No annotation	
182	EG_transcript_2756	GO:0005524	unnamed protein product
183	EG_transcript_27835	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 545367249 ref XP_005648469.1 periplasmic binding protein-like II [ <i>Coccomyxa subellipsoidea</i> C-169]
184	EG_transcript_28	GO:0008152, GO:0016491, GO:0008299, GO:0003824, GO:0055114, GO:0031177, GO:0016740, GO:0004421	gi 818211082 gb AKG25413.1 putative polyketide synthase [ <i>Hematodinium</i> sp. SG-2015]
185	EG_transcript_28382	GO:0005515	LOW PSII ACCUMULATION 1, chloroplastic-like isoform X1
186	EG_transcript_28442	GO:0016491, GO:0055114	gi 219115856 ref XP_002178723.1 predicted protein [ <i>Phaeodactylum tricornutum</i> CCAP 1055/1]
187	EG_transcript_28662	GO:0008289	gi 145354609 ref XP_001421572.1 predicted protein [ <i>Ostreococcus lucimarinus</i> CCE9901]



188	EG_transcript_2884	GO:0003924	Translation elongation initiation factor Ribosomal, beta-barrel
189	EG_transcript_2894	GO:0005524	dnaJ homolog 1, mitochondrial-like
190	EG_transcript_2899	GO:0006605, GO:0000166, GO:0016020, GO:0015031, GO:0006810, GO:0017038, GO:0005524, GO:0005622, GO:0006886	gi 545373296 ref XP_005651027.1 protein translocase subunit secA, chloroplastic [ <i>Coccomyxa subellipsoidea</i> C-169]
191	EG_transcript_29305	GO:0009507, GO:0018298, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0009579, GO:0009523, GO:0009765, GO:0016168, GO:0015979	gi 459020 gb AAA16605.1 light harvesting chlorophyll a/b binding protein of PSII, partial [ <i>Euglena gracilis</i> ]
192	EG_transcript_29382	GO:0000166, GO:0005737, GO:0042026, GO:0005524	gi 145348995 ref XP_001418926.1 chaperonin 60 beta chain, chloroplast [ <i>Ostreococcus lucimarinus</i> CCE9901]
193	EG_transcript_29936	GO:0003735, GO:0070181, GO:0019843, GO:0005840, GO:0006412	gi 159477657 ref XP_001696925.1 plastid ribosomal protein S6 [ <i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i> ]
194	EG_transcript_2997	GO:0008152, GO:0004802, GO:0003824, GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 146335205 gb ABQ23342.1 plastid transketolase [ <i>Euglena gracilis</i> ]
195	EG_transcript_3018	GO:0045261, GO:0046961, GO:0046034, GO:0016820, GO:0016787, GO:0015986, GO:0015992, GO:0033178, GO:0015991, GO:0006810, GO:0006811, GO:0046933, GO:0005524	gi 545363691 ref XP_005646958.1 P-loop containing nucleoside triphosphate hydrolase protein [ <i>Coccomyxa subellipsoidea</i> C-169]
196	EG_transcript_3047	GO:0008152, GO:0003755, GO:0005789, GO:0005528, GO:0061077, GO:0009535, GO:0009534, GO:0042631, GO:0000413, GO:0016853, GO:0006457	gi 159483091 ref XP_001699596.1 peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase, FKBP-type [ <i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i> ]
197	EG_transcript_30510	GO:0009507, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0009523, GO:0015979	gi 300244372 gb ADJ93801.1 chloroplast photosystem II reaction center W precursor [ <i>Euglena gracilis</i> ]
198	EG_transcript_30720	GO:0005840	mitochondrial or chloroplast ribosomal L31 precursor
199	EG_transcript_3104	GO:0008152, GO:0000166, GO:0005524, GO:0016887	gi 298710208 emb CBJ26283.1 ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein [ <i>Ectocarpus siliculosus</i> ]
200	EG_transcript_31070	GO:0009507, GO:0016020, GO:0009579, GO:0009535, GO:0009522, GO:0015979, GO:0009538, GO:0009536	gi 159489252 ref XP_001702611.1 photosystem I 8.1 kDa reaction center subunit IV [ <i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i> ]
201	EG_transcript_31122	GO:0003755, GO:0000413, GO:0016853, GO:0006457	gi 294893560 ref XP_002774533.1 Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase, putative [ <i>Perkinsus marinus</i> ATCC 50983]
202	EG_transcript_3119	GO:0008152, GO:0000166, GO:0003723, GO:0004386, GO:0016787, GO:0005634, GO:0005524, GO:0003676	gi 299115354 emb CBN74178.1 DEAD box helicase [ <i>Ectocarpus siliculosus</i> ]
203	EG_transcript_3146	No annotation	
204	EG_transcript_3159	No annotation	

205	EG_transcript_3196	GO:0000166, GO:0005525, GO:0003746, GO:0003924, GO:0006414, GO:0005622	gi 397584410 gb EJK52971.1 hypothetical protein THAOC_27681 [Thalassiosira oceanica]
206	EG_transcript_3254	GO:0008152, GO:0016208, GO:0003987, GO:0003824, GO:0016874, GO:0019427	gi 159484368 ref XP_001700230.1 acetyl CoA synthetase [Chlamydomonas reinhardtii]
207	EG_transcript_32888	GO:0008152, GO:0003755, GO:0000413, GO:0016853, GO:0006457	gi 674594452 emb CDS26820.1 fk506 binding protein [Hymenolepis microstoma]
208	EG_transcript_33051	GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0005509, GO:0009523, GO:0009654, GO:0015979, GO:0019898	gi 585101757 gb EWM21524.1 psbp domain-containing protein chloroplastic-like protein [Nannochloropsis gaditana]
209	EG_transcript_3371	GO:0005524	heat shock 70B
210	EG_transcript_34237	No annotation	
211	EG_transcript_3435	GO:0006779, GO:0016491, GO:0050661, GO:0055114, GO:0006782, GO:0008883, GO:0033014	gi 327493883 gb AEA86528.1 glutamyl-tRNA reductase [Euglena gracilis]
212	EG_transcript_3493	GO:0005515	hypothetical protein GPECTOR_3g291
213	EG_transcript_3515	GO:0008152, GO:0003824, GO:0016874	gi 488762439 ref WP_002685639.1 propionyl-CoA synthetase [Beggiatoa alba]
214	EG_transcript_3641	GO:0006508, GO:0016020, GO:0004222, GO:0005524	gi 302794532 ref XP_002979030.1 hypothetical protein SELMODRAFT_152929 [Selaginella moellendorffii]
215	EG_transcript_3654	GO:0016020, GO:0006508, GO:0016021, GO:0004222, GO:0005524	gi 302833547 ref XP_002948337.1 hypothetical protein VOLCADRAFT_80122 [Volvox carteri f. nagariensis]
216	EG_transcript_3663	GO:0005515	intracellular chloride channel family
217	EG_transcript_3677	No annotation	
218	EG_transcript_3688	GO:0009522, GO:0015979, GO:0009538	gi 504986591 ref WP_015173693.1 photosystem I protein PsaD [Geitlerinema sp. PCC 7407]
219	EG_transcript_3765	GO:0003723, GO:0003735, GO:0005840, GO:0006412, GO:0005622	gi 83584321 gb ABC24935.1 plastid 30S ribosomal protein S20 [Prototheca wickerhamii]
220	EG_transcript_3792	GO:0006418, GO:0000166, GO:0005737, GO:0004812, GO:0006426, GO:0004820, GO:0005524	gi 922887354 gb KOO52976.1 glycyl-tRNA synthetase [Chrysochromulina sp. CCMP291]
221	EG_transcript_38684	No annotation	
222	EG_transcript_3877	GO:0052886, GO:0052887, GO:0016491, GO:0016719, GO:0055114, GO:0052889, GO:0016117	gi 493556155 ref WP_006509674.1 9,9'-di-cis-zeta-carotene desaturase [Xenococcus sp. PCC 7305]
223	EG_transcript_39172	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 298715709 emb CBJ28206.1 expressed unknown protein [Ectocarpus siliculosus]
224	EG_transcript_3948	GO:0005506, GO:0046872, GO:0016491, GO:0016705,	gi 585112948 gb EWM30289.1 cytochrome p450 [Nannochloropsis

		GO:0020037, GO:0055114, GO:0004497	gaditana]
225	EG_transcript_3956	No annotation	
226	EG_transcript_3991	GO:0046872, GO:0016491, GO:0055114, GO:0051537, GO:0010277, GO:0051536	gi 545358292 ref XP_005644725.1 PaO-domain-containing protein, partial [Coccomyxa subellipsoidea C-169]
227	EG_transcript_40006	GO:0009507, GO:0016020, GO:0018298, GO:0016021, GO:0009579, GO:0009523, GO:0009765, GO:0016168, GO:0015979	gi 157965841 gb ABW06957.1 chloroplast light-harvesting complex II protein precursor [Euglena gracilis]
228	EG_transcript_4083	GO:0008152, GO:0009570, GO:0009507, GO:0046872, GO:0016787	gi 566198955 ref XP_002319540.2 hypothetical protein POPTR_0013s02230g [Populus trichocarpa]
229	EG_transcript_41111	GO:0005840	putative uncharacterized protein
230	EG_transcript_41739	GO:0016020	TPA_inf: chloroplast light-harvesting complex II precursor Lhcbm3
231	EG_transcript_4197	No annotation	
232	EG_transcript_4275	GO:0000166, GO:0009507, GO:0045261, GO:0046034, GO:0016020, GO:0016787, GO:0016820, GO:0015986, GO:0015992, GO:0033178, GO:0015991, GO:0009535, GO:0009579, GO:0006810, GO:0006811, GO:0005524, GO:0046933, GO:0006754, GO:0009536	gi 11467034 ref NP_041941.1 ATP synthase CF1 beta subunit [Euglena gracilis]
233	EG_transcript_4353	GO:0004784	superoxide dismutase
234	EG_transcript_4370	GO:0030604, GO:0046872, GO:0016491, GO:0008299, GO:0070402, GO:0055114, GO:0016853	gi 209402475 gb ACI45960.1 putative plastid 1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate reductoisomerase precursor [Pyropia yezoensis]
235	EG_transcript_4487	GO:0000166, GO:0005737, GO:0042026, GO:0005524, GO:0006457	gi 159491478 ref XP_001703692.1 chaperonin 60A [Chlamydomonas reinhardtii]
236	EG_transcript_4530	GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0051205	gi 676388263 ref XP_009037410.1 hypothetical protein AURANDRAFT_11603, partial [Aureococcus anophagefferens]
237	EG_transcript_4570	GO:0042132	chloroplastic fructose-1,6-bisphosphatasell
238	EG_transcript_4631	GO:0005886	Peptidase S49
239	EG_transcript_4685	GO:0008152, GO:0000166, GO:0004386, GO:0016787, GO:0005524, GO:0003676	gi 756169266 ref WP_042617393.1 RNA helicase [Agrobacterium tumefaciens]
240	EG_transcript_4693	GO:1901838, GO:0070062, GO:0003723, GO:0097421, GO:0001525, GO:0042393, GO:0030529, GO:0016020, GO:0005509, GO:0043066, GO:2000778, GO:2000232, GO:0036464, GO:0007283, GO:0032760, GO:0009986, GO:0042134, GO:0005102, GO:0043565, GO:0045944,	gi 21750187 dbj BAC03738.1 unnamed protein product [Homo sapiens]

		GO:0006897, GO:0003677, GO:0005515, GO:0000166, GO:0005737, GO:1990631, GO:0042162, GO:0005938, GO:0071222, GO:0035368, GO:0042802, GO:0008022, GO:0043236, GO:0044822, GO:0005654, GO:0005730, GO:0001650, GO:0003697, GO:0001651, GO:0005634, GO:0003676	
241	EG_transcript_4707	GO:0004190, GO:0006508, GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 698780165 ref XP_009823126.1 hypothetical protein H257_01558 [Aphanomyces astaci]
242	EG_transcript_4720	No annotation	
243	EG_transcript_4724	GO:0004784	unnamed protein product
244	EG_transcript_4741	GO:0006779, GO:0004109, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0055114	gi 327493895 gb AEA86534.1 coproporphyrinogen oxidase [Euglena gracilis]
245	EG_transcript_4868	No annotation	
246	EG_transcript_4888	GO:0005737, GO:0016491, GO:0045454, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0019430, GO:0004791, GO:0055114	gi 594591723 dbj BAO53982.1 NADPH-dependent thioredoxin reductase [Euglena gracilis]
247	EG_transcript_4918	GO:0006418, GO:0000166, GO:0005737, GO:0004812, GO:0050561, GO:0004818, GO:0016874, GO:0016876, GO:0043039, GO:0000049, GO:0005524, GO:0006412, GO:0006424	gi 298715644 emb CBJ28170.1 Glutamyl-tRNA Synthetase, chloroplast precursor [Ectocarpus siliculosus]
248	EG_transcript_4984	GO:0030170, GO:0003824, GO:0008483, GO:0042286, GO:0033014	gi 193890955 gb ACF28631.1 glutamate semialdehyde synthase [Amphidinium carterae]
249	EG_transcript_5124	GO:0008152, GO:0016747, GO:0003824, GO:0016740, GO:0006633	gi 545355322 ref XP_005643461.1 3-oxoacyl-synth [Coccomyxa subellipsoidea C-169]
250	EG_transcript_516	GO:0016851	magnesium-chelatase H subunit
251	EG_transcript_5175	GO:0018193	gi 922866029 gb KOO32969.1 beta- aspartyl asparaginyl family [Chrysochromulina sp. CCMP291]
252	EG_transcript_52231	GO:0008152, GO:0004792, GO:0016740	gi 748141586 ref WP_039716800.1 thiosulfate sulfurtransferase [Scytonema millei]
253	EG_transcript_5228	GO:0042651	cytochrome b6-f complex Fe-S subunit
254	EG_transcript_5279	GO:0003824, GO:0016020, GO:0006096, GO:0016021, GO:0016829, GO:0004332	gi 1150392 emb CAA61911.1 fructose-1,6-bisphosphate aldolase [Euglena gracilis]
255	EG_transcript_5309	GO:0016491, GO:0055114	gi 224006652 ref XP_002292286.1 predicted protein [Thalassiosira pseudonana CCMP1335]

256	EG_transcript_5335	GO:0055085, GO:0006813, GO:0098655, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0008324	gi 546315769 ref XP_005715956.1 unnamed protein product [Chondrus crispus]
257	EG_transcript_5362	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 922887238 gb KOO52893.1 ABC1 protein [Chrysochromulina sp. CCMP291]
258	EG_transcript_5493	GO:0006418, GO:0000166, GO:0004812, GO:0005524, GO:0003676	gi 223995725 ref XP_002287536.1 predicted protein [Thalassiosira pseudonana CCMP1335]
259	EG_transcript_5539	GO:0008168	bifunctional demethylmenaquinone methyltransferase 2-methoxy-6-polyprenyl-1,4-benzoquinol methylase
260	EG_transcript_5655	No annotation	
261	EG_transcript_56611	No annotation	
262	EG_transcript_5678	No annotation	
263	EG_transcript_5684	GO:0016020, GO:0006629, GO:0016021	gi 308813329 ref XP_003083971.1 delta 12 fatty acid desaturase (ISS) [Ostreococcus tauri]
264	EG_transcript_5740	No annotation	
265	EG_transcript_5780	GO:0006979, GO:0004601, GO:0016491, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0020037, GO:0055114, GO:0098869, GO:0016688	gi 229002753 dbj BAC05484.2 ascorbate peroxidase [Euglena gracilis]
266	EG_transcript_5798	GO:0009570, GO:0010155, GO:0009507, GO:0046777, GO:0009941, GO:0006413	gi 145354801 ref XP_001421664.1 predicted protein, partial [Ostreococcus lucimarinus CCE9901]
267	EG_transcript_5873	GO:0003746, GO:0006414, GO:0006412, GO:0003676, GO:0005622	gi 612395376 ref XP_007513208.1 elongation factor Ts [Bathycoccus prasinos]
268	EG_transcript_5886	No annotation	
269	EG_transcript_59611	GO:0003735, GO:0005840, GO:0006412	gi 902189586 gb KNA11413.1 hypothetical protein SOVF_135540 [Spinacia oleracea]
270	EG_transcript_6058	GO:0008152, GO:0003824, GO:0008661, GO:0016114	gi 922852149 gb KOO20858.1 1-deoxy-d-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase [Chrysochromulina sp. CCMP291]
271	EG_transcript_6141	GO:0016020	predicted protein
272	EG_transcript_6340	GO:0005737, GO:0003747, GO:0006415, GO:0016149	gi 255079106 ref XP_002503133.1 predicted protein [Micromonas commoda]
273	EG_transcript_6397	GO:0016226	SUF system cluster assembly,
274	EG_transcript_65	GO:0000166, GO:0003824, GO:0003989, GO:0046872, GO:0004075, GO:0016874, GO:0005524, GO:0006633	gi 578896496 gb AHI17198.1 acetyl-CoA carboxylase [Nannochloropsis oculata]
275	EG_transcript_6500	GO:0016020	TPA_inf: chloroplast light-harvesting complex I precursor Lhca2

276	EG_transcript_6636	GO:0004853	uroporphyrinogen decarboxylase
277	EG_transcript_6647	GO:0008152, GO:0016491, GO:0055114, GO:0016630	gi 219117802 ref XP_002179689.1 predicted protein [Phaeodactylum tricornutum CCAP 1055/1]
278	EG_transcript_669	GO:0000166	---NA---
279	EG_transcript_6699	GO:0003743, GO:0009507, GO:0006412, GO:0009536, GO:0006413	gi 547710 sp P36177.1 IF3C_EUGGRRecName: Full=Translation initiation factor IF-3, chloroplastic
280	EG_transcript_6713	GO:0003824, GO:0030246, GO:0005975, GO:0016853	gi 676391527 ref XP_009039041.1 hypothetical protein AURANDRAFT_4661, partial [Aureococcus anophagefferens]
281	EG_transcript_6735	GO:0005524	gi 168065377 ref XP_001784629.1 predicted protein [Physcomitrella patens]
282	EG_transcript_6853	No annotation	
283	EG_transcript_6882	GO:0000023, GO:0019252, GO:0019288, GO:0034660, GO:0009902, GO:0010027, GO:0005623	gi 145350419 ref XP_001419603.1 predicted protein [Ostreococcus lucimarinus CCE9901]
284	EG_transcript_6932	GO:0005737, GO:0006508, GO:0008235, GO:0004177, GO:0030145, GO:0019538, GO:0005622	gi 695464043 ref XP_009538858.1 hypothetical protein PHYSODRAFT_353200 [Phytophthora sojae]
285	EG_transcript_6976	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 219109882 ref XP_002176694.1 triose phosphate/phosphate translocator [Phaeodactylum tricornutum CCAP 1055/1]
286	EG_transcript_7051	GO:0018160, GO:0015995, GO:0006779, GO:0009507, GO:0004418, GO:0006782, GO:0016740, GO:0033014, GO:0009536	gi 122842 sp P13446.1 HEM3_EUGGRRecName: Full=Porphobilinogen deaminase, chloroplastic
287	EG_transcript_7071	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 397624597 gb EJK67440.1 hypothetical protein THAOC_11524 [Thalassiosira oceanica]
288	EG_transcript_7105	GO:0008152, GO:0051741, GO:0008168, GO:0010189, GO:0032259	gi 302841643 ref XP_002952366.1 hypothetical protein VOLCADRAFT_105494 [Volvox carteri f. nagariensis]
289	EG_transcript_7123	GO:0009507, GO:0019253, GO:0016491, GO:0016829, GO:0009853, GO:0055114, GO:0004497, GO:0015979, GO:0016984, GO:0015977, GO:0009536	gi 132143 sp P16881.1 RBS_EUGGRRecName: Full=Ribulose biphosphate carboxylase small chains, chloroplastic
290	EG_transcript_7174	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 255086363 ref XP_002509148.1 predicted protein [Micromonas commoda]
291	EG_transcript_7192	GO:0000166, GO:0009507, GO:0045261, GO:0046961, GO:0046034, GO:0016020, GO:0016787, GO:0016820, GO:0015986, GO:0015992, GO:0033178, GO:0015991, GO:0009535, GO:0009579, GO:0006810, GO:0006811, GO:0046933, GO:0005524, GO:0009536, GO:0006754	gi 11467021 ref NP_041928.1 ATP synthase CF1 alpha subunit [Euglena gracilis]

292	EG_transcript_7239	No annotation	
293	EG_transcript_7247	GO:0050343, GO:0016491, GO:0005739, GO:0051287, GO:0050661, GO:0006629, GO:0055114, GO:0006631, GO:0006633	gi 62287512 sp Q5EU90.1 TER_EUGGRRName: Full=Trans-2-enoyl-CoA reductase, mitochondrial
294	EG_transcript_7257	GO:0008152, GO:0005829, GO:0016787, GO:0005886	gi 159466964 ref XP_001691668.1 predicted protein [Chlamydomonas reinhardtii]
295	EG_transcript_7295	No annotation	
296	EG_transcript_7354	GO:0016021	hypothetical protein JH06_2455
297	EG_transcript_7356	GO:0008152, GO:0000166, GO:0005525, GO:0005737, GO:0090502, GO:0043023, GO:0043022, GO:0016787, GO:0004523, GO:0005524, GO:0003676, GO:0016887	gi 224003407 ref XP_002291375.1 GTP binding protein [Thalassiosira pseudonana CCMP1335]
298	EG_transcript_7358	GO:0016491, GO:0045300, GO:0055114, GO:0006631	gi 612391857 ref XP_007511449.1 predicted protein [Bathycoccus prasinos]
299	EG_transcript_7385	No annotation	
300	EG_transcript_7394	GO:0016020, GO:0042132, GO:0016021, GO:0016311, GO:0042578, GO:0016787, GO:0005975	gi 99904205 gb ABF68597.1 chloroplast fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase [Euglena gracilis]
301	EG_transcript_7656	GO:0009523	chloroplast photosystem II M precursor
302	EG_transcript_7728	No annotation	
303	EG_transcript_7821	GO:0006508, GO:0008236	gi 545376288 ref XP_005652247.1 ClpP/crotonase [Coccomyxa subellipsoidea C-169]
304	EG_transcript_7827	GO:0003824, GO:0006096, GO:0004332	gi 612391897 ref XP_007511469.1 predicted protein [Bathycoccus prasinos]
305	EG_transcript_7877	GO:0006418, GO:0000166, GO:0005737, GO:0004812, GO:0004828, GO:0016874, GO:0006434, GO:0005524	gi 553195230 ref XP_005856106.1 seryl-tRNA synthetase [Nannochloropsis gaditana CCMP526]
306	EG_transcript_7991	GO:0016491	(2Fe-2S)-binding protein
307	EG_transcript_8042	GO:0016620	plastid glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase, partial
308	EG_transcript_8143	GO:0016491	hypothetical protein GPECTOR_42g802
309	EG_transcript_8253	GO:0016717	palmitoyl-monogalactosyldiacylglycerol delta-7 desaturase
310	EG_transcript_8312	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 219109882 ref XP_002176694.1 triose phosphate/phosphate translocator [Phaeodactylum tricornutum CCAP 1055/1]
311	EG_transcript_8319	GO:0016020, GO:0006508, GO:0016021, GO:0004222, GO:0005524	gi 302833547 ref XP_002948337.1 hypothetical protein VOLCADRAFT_80122 [Volvox carteri f. nagariensis]

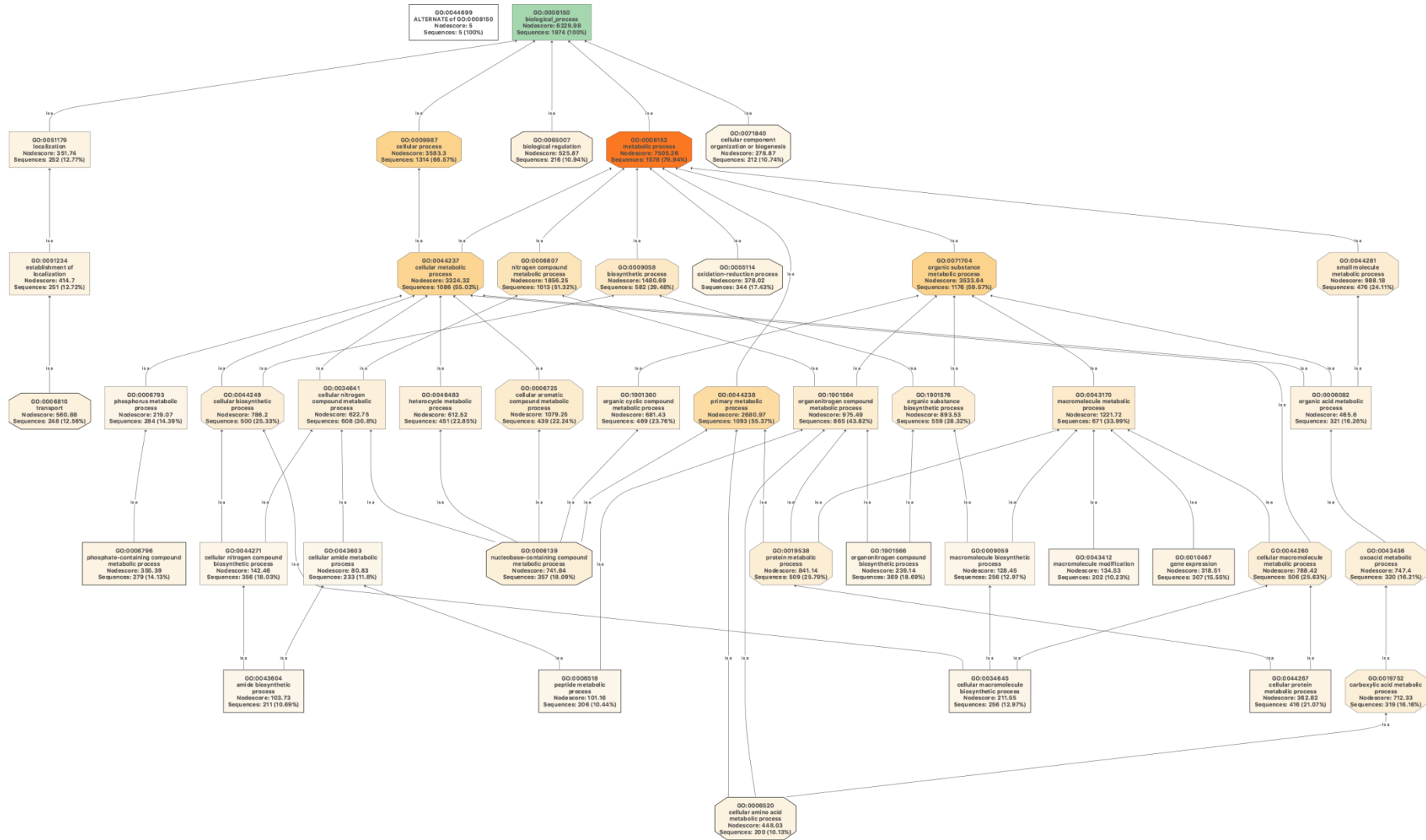
312	EG_transcript_8383	GO:0008762	hypothetical protein
313	EG_transcript_8435	GO:0003677	gi 731701726 ref XP_010700693.1 high mobility group protein tdp-1, putative [ <i>Leishmania panamensis</i> ]
314	EG_transcript_8444	GO:0008152, GO:0016747, GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 145352756 ref XP_001420703.1 predicted protein [ <i>Ostreococcus lucimarinus</i> CCE9901]
315	EG_transcript_8456	GO:0006779, GO:0004109, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0055114	gi 327493895 gb AEA86534.1 coproporphyrinogen oxidase [ <i>Euglena gracilis</i> ]
316	EG_transcript_8464	GO:0006418, GO:0000287, GO:0000166, GO:0005737, GO:0004812, GO:0004826, GO:0008033, GO:0006432, GO:0000049, GO:0043039, GO:0016874, GO:0005524	gi 567961404 gb ETK86946.1 phenylalanine-tRNA ligase [ <i>Phytophthora parasitica</i> ]
317	EG_transcript_8528	GO:0050992, GO:0046872, GO:0019288, GO:0055114, GO:0051745	gi 552833460 ref XP_005848540.1 hypothetical protein CHLNCDRAFT_59658 [ <i>Chlorella variabilis</i> ]
318	EG_transcript_854	GO:0003676	ATP-dependent helicase
319	EG_transcript_8610	GO:0005840, GO:0003676	gi 612398819 ref XP_007514929.1 30S ribosomal protein S1 [ <i>Bathycoccus prasinus</i> ]
320	EG_transcript_8626	No annotation	
321	EG_transcript_8688	GO:0006779, GO:0003824, GO:0046872, GO:0016829, GO:0033014, GO:0004655	gi 397575727 gb EJK49854.1 hypothetical protein THAOC_31221 [ <i>Thalassiosira oceanica</i> ]
322	EG_transcript_8709	GO:0042549, GO:0009507, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0005509, GO:0009535, GO:0009579, GO:0009523, GO:0009654, GO:0015979, GO:0019898, GO:0009536	gi 7008029 dbj BAA03529.2 oxygen-evolving enhancer protein 1 precursor [ <i>Euglena gracilis</i> ]
323	EG_transcript_8727	GO:0042132	plastid fructose 1,6-bisphosphatase isoform 2, partial
324	EG_transcript_8736	GO:0005506, GO:0009507, GO:0046872, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0055114, GO:0015979, GO:0031361, GO:0009055, GO:0020037, GO:0009579, GO:0009535, GO:0009523, GO:0009522, GO:0009536	gi 38604661 sp Q8GZR2.2 CYF_EUGGRRName: Full=Cytochrome f, chloroplastic
325	EG_transcript_8740	No annotation	
326	EG_transcript_8798	No annotation	
327	EG_transcript_8931	GO:0046872, GO:0009055, GO:0051536	gi 299472521 emb CBN77306.1 Ferredoxin [ <i>Ectocarpus siliculosus</i> ]
328	EG_transcript_8951	No annotation	
329	EG_transcript_8954	No annotation	
330	EG_transcript_899	GO:0009507, GO:0045156, GO:0019684, GO:0016020, GO:0018298, GO:0016021, GO:0016168, GO:0015979,	gi 830260467 gb AKL82402.1 photosystem II CP47 chlorophyll apoprotein (chloroplast) [ <i>Euglena gracilis</i> var. <i>bacillaris</i> ]



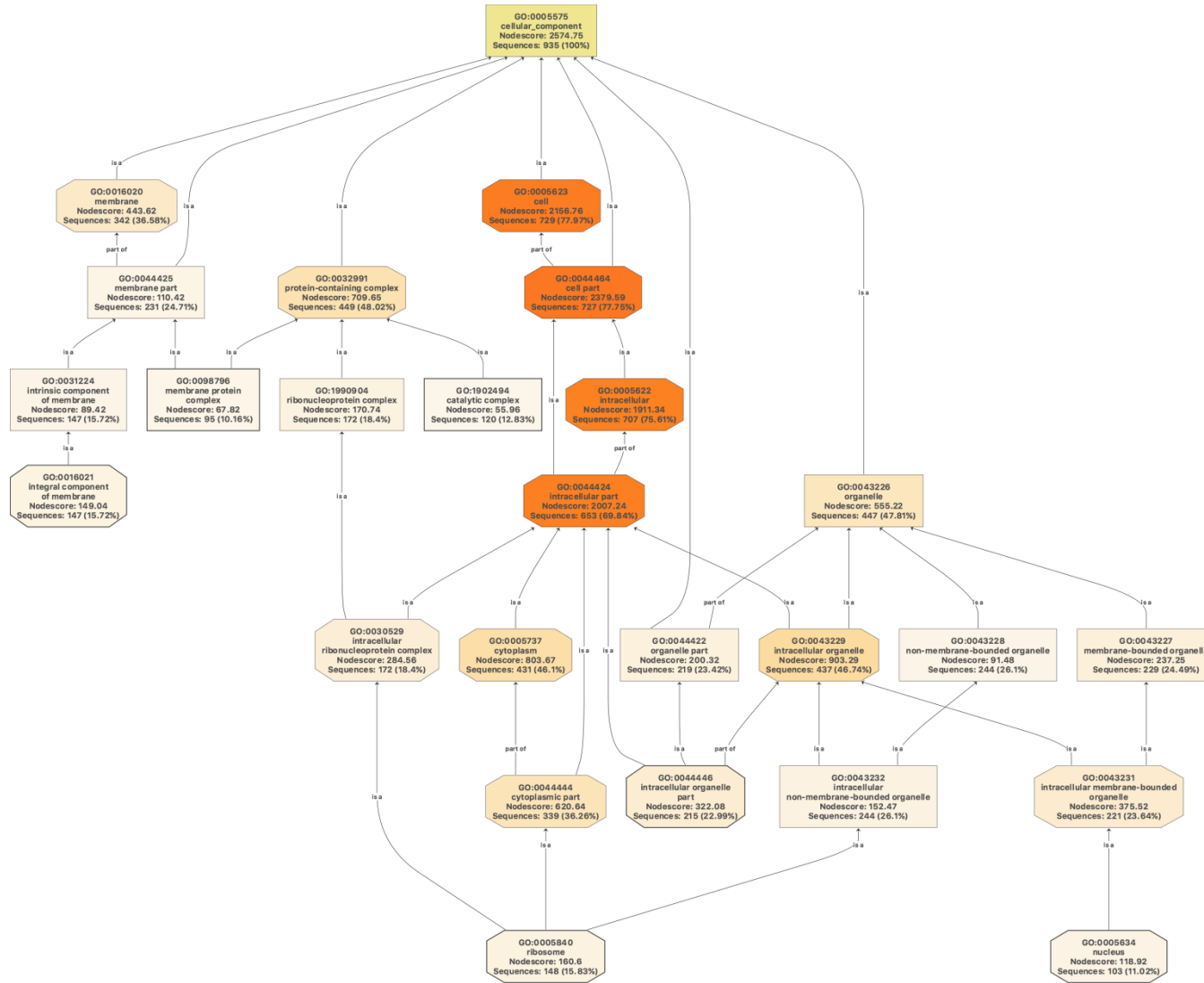
		GO:0009772, GO:0009535, GO:0009579, GO:0009523, GO:0009521, GO:0009536, GO:0009767	
331	EG_transcript_9015	GO:0008152, GO:0000166, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0008974, GO:0016310, GO:0016740, GO:0016301, GO:0005524, GO:0005975	gi 60101680 gb AAX13964.1 chloroplast phosphoribulokinase [Euglena gracilis]
332	EG_transcript_9052	GO:0006418, GO:0000166, GO:0005737, GO:0004812, GO:0004827, GO:0006433, GO:0016874, GO:0005524	gi 545705603 ref XP_005705121.1 prolyl-tRNA synthetase [Galdieria sulphuraria]
333	EG_transcript_9148	No annotation	
334	EG_transcript_9197	No annotation	
335	EG_transcript_9217	GO:0005515	small glutamine-rich tetratricopeptide repeat
336	EG_transcript_9317	GO:0016020, GO:0016021	gi 219109882 ref XP_002176694.1 triose phosphate/phosphate translocator [Phaeodactylum tricornutum CCAP 1055/1]
337	EG_transcript_9321	GO:0031418, GO:0005506, GO:0016705, GO:0016491, GO:0055114	gi 545359684 ref XP_005645287.1 hypothetical protein COCSUDRAFT_57307 [Coccomyxa subellipsoidea C-169]
338	EG_transcript_9385	GO:0015995, GO:0004659, GO:0016020, GO:0016021, GO:0046408	gi 298714003 emb CBJ27235.1 Chlorophyll synthase, putative chloroplast precursor [Ectocarpus siliculosus]
339	EG_transcript_9401	No annotation	
340	EG_transcript_941	No annotation	
341	EG_transcript_943	No annotation	
342	EG_transcript_9509	No annotation	
343	EG_transcript_9571	GO:0050662, GO:0003954, GO:0003824, GO:0055114, GO:1901006	gi 224011014 ref XP_002294464.1 predicted protein [Thalassiosira pseudonana CCMP1335]
344	EG_transcript_9617	GO:0015934	50S ribosomal L1
345	EG_transcript_9691	GO:0009507, GO:0016020, GO:0018298, GO:0016021, GO:0009579, GO:0009765, GO:0009523, GO:0016168, GO:0015979	gi 157965829 gb ABW06951.1 chloroplast light-harvesting complex I protein precursor [Euglena gracilis]
346	EG_transcript_9991	GO:0006418, GO:0000166, GO:0004812, GO:0005524, GO:0003676	gi 223995725 ref XP_002287536.1 predicted protein [Thalassiosira pseudonana CCMP1335]

**Note:** The table describes the list of top upregulated proteins (346 proteins) in the light regime corresponding to the proteomics experiment. Column descriptions are in the order: Sequence ID = *Euglena* sequence ID, Gene Ontology number = GO number for the corresponding protein. BLAST Hit description = description of BLAST top hit. Protein IDs with corresponding description “No annotation” under the GO number column and empty cells under BLAST Hit description column means that an annotation could not be assigned. Individual proteins are represented by multiple GO numbers (e.g. EG\_transcript\_10021), and single GO numbers are also shared by multiple proteins e.g. GO:0016021 (EG\_transcript\_10193 and EG\_transcript\_10194). In the case of multiple GOs against a specific proteins, the first GO on the series is the top hit or reference GO.

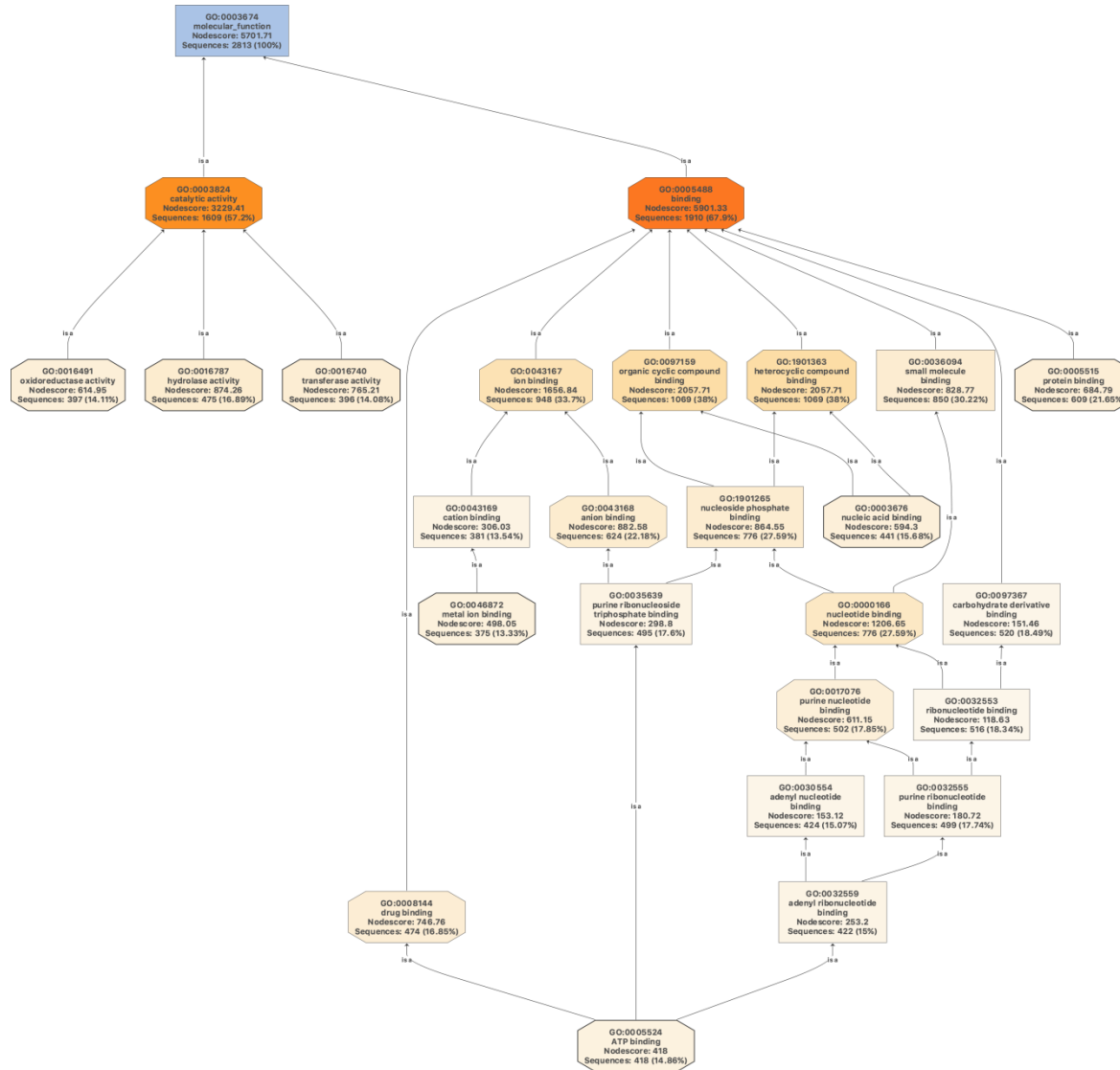
# A: Biological Process



## B: Cellular Component

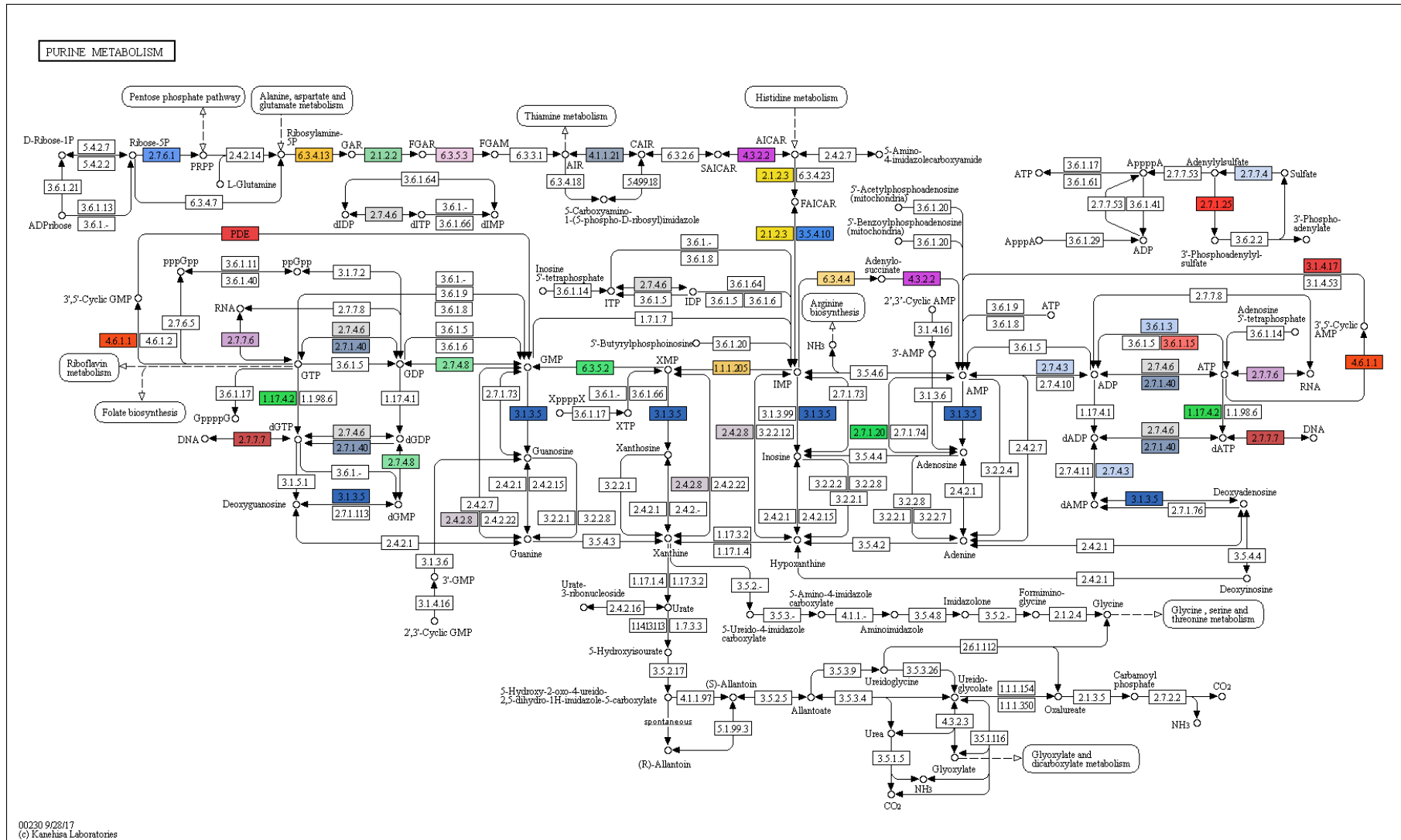


# C: Molecular Function

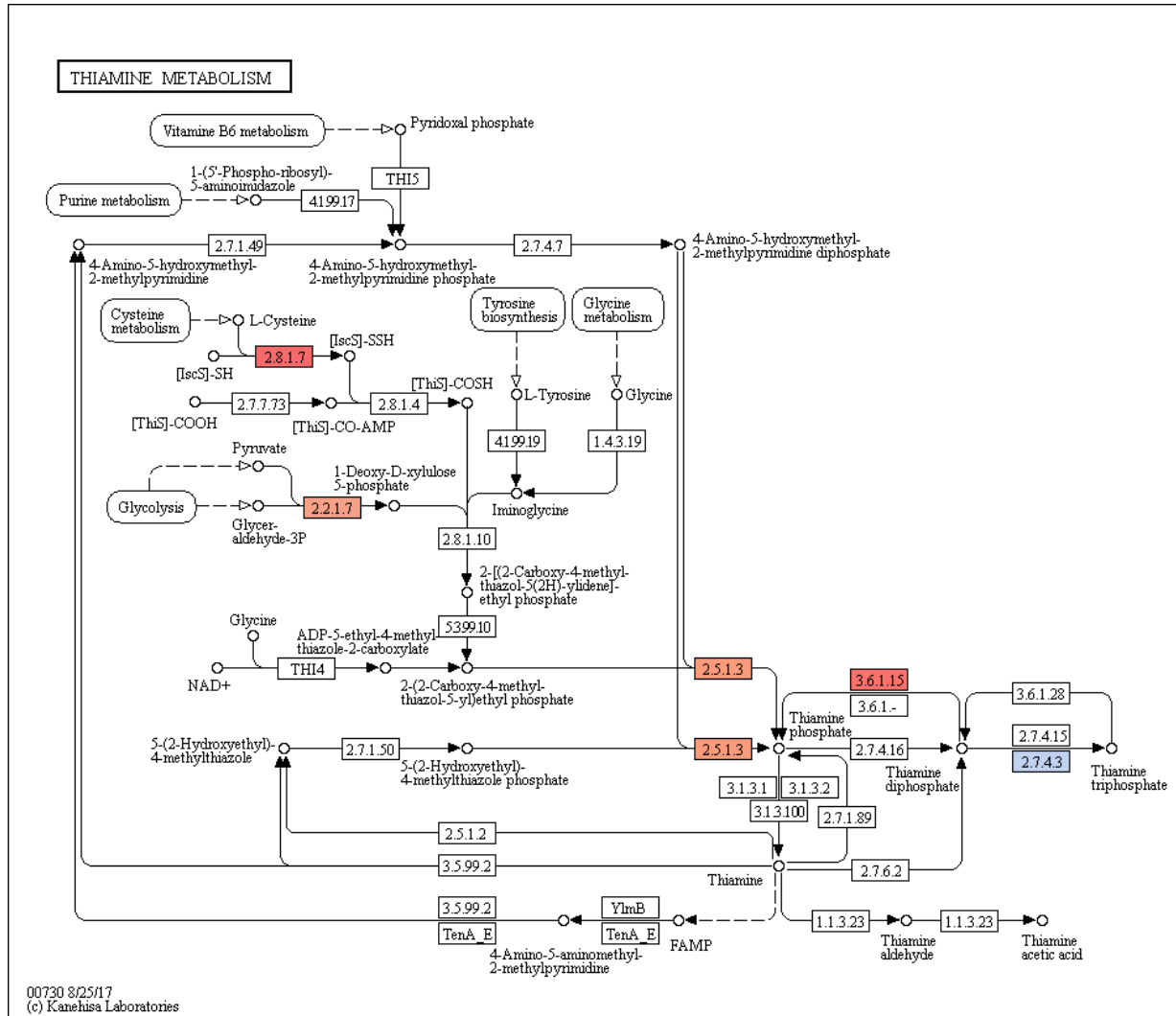


**Figure 6.6: *E. gracilis* cellular processes, structure, and functions are influenced by light or dark external conditions.** The diagrams show the GO combined graphs for all significant regulated proteins (4681 quantified proteins) in the *E. gracilis* light and dark proteomic experiment. Panel A: Biological Process (BP). Panel B: Cellular Component (CC). Panel C: Molecular Functions (MF). Boxes are in hierarchy and correspond to the downward flow of the graph. Green, blue, and orange, are of higher hierarchies in Biological Process, Cellular Component, and Molecular Functions. Each box contains the specific GO number for the functional information, corresponding GO description, Nodscore, and number of sequences that constitute that process expressed in percentage (%).

# Panel A: Purine Metabolism

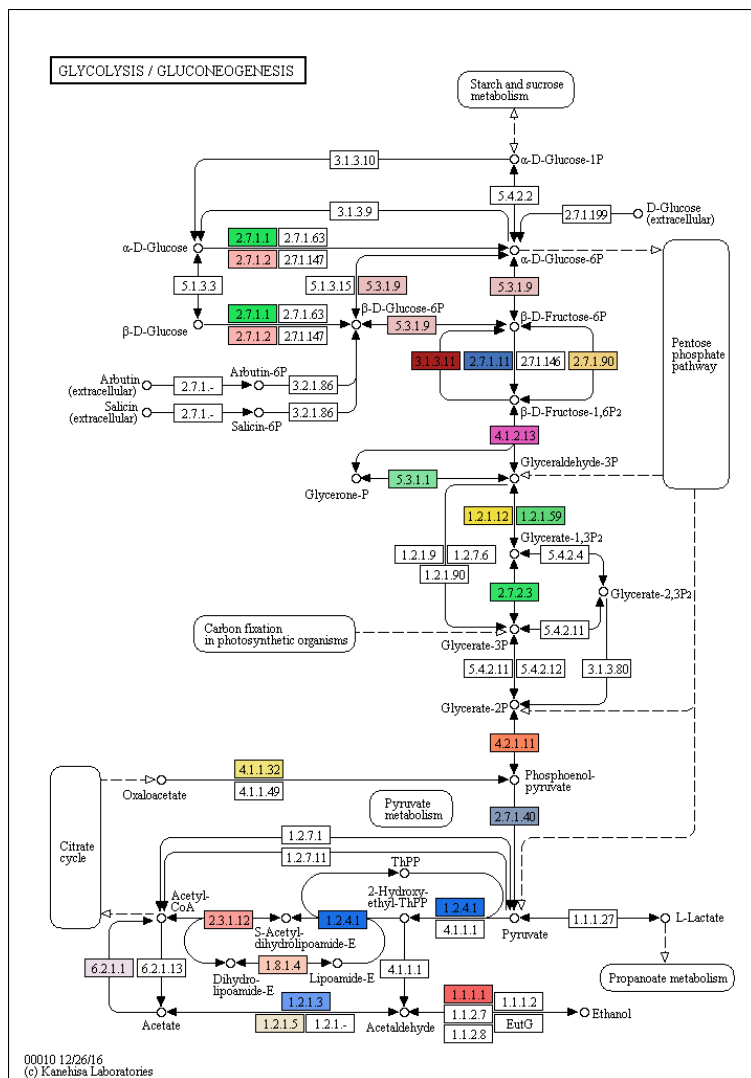


## PANEL B: Thiamine Metabolism





# PANEL C: Glycolysis / Gluconeogenesis





**Figure 6.7: *E. gracilis* possess core biological heterotrophic and photosynthetic pathways.** The diagram shows the core pathways represented in the significantly up- and down- regulated proteins in the light and dark experiment. Panel A: shows the Purine metabolism pathway with the highest number of corresponding number of sequences (Table 6.5). Panel B: shows the Thiamine metabolism pathway with the second highest number of corresponding sequences (Table 6.5). Panel C and D: shows the Glycolysis/Gluconeogenesis metabolism and Carbon Fixation in Photosynthetic Organisms pathways respectively. Colour codes represent the Enzyme number associated with specific pathways are described in Table 6.5. Text in flowcharts describes pathway steps, process, and products.

**Table 6.5:** Enzyme Code and KEGG Pathway Maps for *E. gracilis* light and dark protein regime

Pathway	Pathway ID	#Enzs in Pathway	Enzyme	Seqs
Glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism	map00630	9	ec:2.1.2.1 - hydroxymethyltransferase, ec:4.1.1.39 - carboxylase, ec:4.2.1.3 - hydratase, ec:6.3.1.2 - synthetase, ec:4.1.3.1 - lyase, ec:1.1.1.37 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.3.3.9 - synthase, ec:2.3.3.1 - (Si)-synthase, ec:5.4.99.2 - mutase	EG_transcript_9546, EG_transcript_7542, EG_transcript_3442, EG_transcript_9405, EG_transcript_7123, EG_transcript_10675, EG_transcript_2009, EG_transcript_3524, EG_transcript_13142, EG_transcript_24268, EG_transcript_19219, EG_transcript_729, EG_transcript_12212, EG_transcript_15919, EG_transcript_24127, EG_transcript_2530, EG_transcript_729, EG_transcript_2898, EG_transcript_6849, EG_transcript_10302, EG_transcript_11595, EG_transcript_4204
Glycolysis / Gluconeogenesis	map00010	21	ec:1.8.1.4 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.7.1.90 - 1-phosphotransferase, ec:5.3.1.1 - isomerase, ec:4.1.2.13 - aldolase, ec:5.3.1.9 - isomerase, ec:1.1.1.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:4.1.1.32 - carboxykinase (GTP), ec:4.2.1.11 - hydratase, ec:2.7.2.3 - kinase, ec:2.7.1.40 - kinase, ec:2.7.1.2 - glucokinase (phosphorylating), ec:2.7.1.1 - hexokinase type IV glucokinase, ec:1.2.1.5 - dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+], ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:1.2.1.59 - dehydrogenase (NAD(P)+) (phosphorylating), ec:2.7.1.11 - phosphohexokinase, ec:6.2.1.1 - ligase, ec:2.3.1.12 - acetyltransferase, ec:3.1.3.11 - hexose diphosphatase, ec:1.2.1.12 - dehydrogenase (phosphorylating), ec:1.2.4.1 - dehydrogenase (acetyl-transferring)	EG_transcript_8679, EG_transcript_1151, EG_transcript_14120, EG_transcript_30563, EG_transcript_18179, EG_transcript_30456, EG_transcript_44253, EG_transcript_7827, EG_transcript_21524, EG_transcript_43521, EG_transcript_16008, EG_transcript_25832, EG_transcript_5279, EG_transcript_15855, EG_transcript_5108, EG_transcript_21676, EG_transcript_19272, EG_transcript_61784, EG_transcript_12376, EG_transcript_6665, EG_transcript_12119, EG_transcript_10778, EG_transcript_12260, EG_transcript_2957, EG_transcript_6211, EG_transcript_8623, EG_transcript_8623, EG_transcript_5269, EG_transcript_6432, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_16406, EG_transcript_1151, EG_transcript_7325, EG_transcript_6970, EG_transcript_6957, EG_transcript_4603, EG_transcript_3254, EG_transcript_9669, EG_transcript_5584, EG_transcript_7394, EG_transcript_2646, EG_transcript_8727, EG_transcript_7683, EG_transcript_4570, EG_transcript_15632, EG_transcript_18342, EG_transcript_13690, EG_transcript_16406, EG_transcript_14931, EG_transcript_9827
Glutathione metabolism	map00480	10	ec:1.8.1.7 - reductase, ec:1.11.1.9 - peroxidase, ec:6.3.2.3 - synthase, ec:6.3.2.2 - ligase, ec:1.1.1.44 - dehydrogenase (NADP+-dependent, decarboxylating), ec:1.1.1.42 - dehydrogenase (NADP+), ec:2.3.2.2 - glutamyl transpeptidase, ec:1.1.1.49 - dehydrogenase (NADP+), ec:1.11.1.11 - peroxidase, ec:1.11.1.15 - thioredoxin peroxidase	EG_transcript_8715, EG_transcript_29973, EG_transcript_21143, EG_transcript_20841, EG_transcript_27461, EG_transcript_8300, EG_transcript_1613, EG_transcript_13898, EG_transcript_7631, EG_transcript_16470, EG_transcript_15075, EG_transcript_9064, EG_transcript_10115, EG_transcript_4351, EG_transcript_6875, EG_transcript_5619, EG_transcript_2747, EG_transcript_5995, EG_transcript_9049, EG_transcript_22491, EG_transcript_5780, EG_transcript_17359, EG_transcript_29745, EG_transcript_14865,

				EG_transcript_51669, EG_transcript_11677, EG_transcript_22903, EG_transcript_42708
Tryptophan metabolism	map00380	3	ec:1.4.3.2 - oxidase, ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_5672, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_7580, EG_transcript_29059, EG_transcript_26319, EG_transcript_862, EG_transcript_21457, EG_transcript_3075
Pyruvate metabolism	map00620	20	ec:1.8.1.4 - dehydrogenase, ec:6.4.1.2 - carboxylase, ec:2.3.3.14 - synthase, ec:2.3.3.13 - synthase, ec:3.6.1.7 - acetylphosphatase, ec:4.1.1.31 - carboxylase, ec:4.1.1.32 - carboxykinase (GTP), ec:4.2.1.2 - hydratase, ec:3.1.2.6 - hydrolase, ec:2.7.1.40 - kinase, ec:2.7.9.1 - phosphate dikinase, ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:6.2.1.1 - ligase, ec:1.1.1.37 - dehydrogenase, ec:4.4.1.5 - lyase, ec:1.1.1.39 - dehydrogenase (decarboxylating), ec:1.1.1.38 - dehydrogenase (oxaloacetate-decarboxylating), ec:2.3.1.12 - acetyltransferase, ec:2.3.3.9 - synthase, ec:1.2.4.1 - dehydrogenase (acetyl-transferring)	EG_transcript_8679, EG_transcript_65, EG_transcript_97, EG_transcript_6633, EG_transcript_4221, EG_transcript_7582, EG_transcript_5664, EG_transcript_52815, EG_transcript_1597, EG_transcript_61784, EG_transcript_4764, EG_transcript_14054, EG_transcript_2957, EG_transcript_6211, EG_transcript_1653, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_4603, EG_transcript_3254, EG_transcript_9669, EG_transcript_12212, EG_transcript_15919, EG_transcript_24127, EG_transcript_18923, EG_transcript_27221, EG_transcript_5257, EG_transcript_8836, EG_transcript_16327, EG_transcript_14050, EG_transcript_4839, EG_transcript_27221, EG_transcript_5257, EG_transcript_8836, EG_transcript_16327, EG_transcript_14050, EG_transcript_4839, EG_transcript_5584, EG_transcript_2530, EG_transcript_729, EG_transcript_14931, EG_transcript_9827
Cyanoamino acid metabolism	map00460	2	ec:2.1.2.1 - hydroxymethyltransferase, ec:2.3.2.2 - glutamyl transpeptidase	EG_transcript_9546, EG_transcript_7542, EG_transcript_3442, EG_transcript_9405, EG_transcript_5619
Photosynthesis	map00195	1	ec:1.10.9.1 - reductase	EG_transcript_5228
Biosynthesis of antibiotics	map01130	99	ec:1.8.1.4 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.3.3.10 - synthase, ec:6.4.1.2 - carboxylase, ec:2.1.2.3 - formyltransferase, ec:2.3.3.14 - synthase, ec:2.6.1.16 - transaminase (isomerizing), ec:2.1.2.2 - formyltransferase, ec:2.1.2.1 - hydroxymethyltransferase, ec:2.7.1.90 - 1-phosphotransferase, ec:5.3.1.1 - isomerase, ec:4.1.2.13 - aldolase, ec:2.7.4.6 - kinase, ec:5.3.1.6 - isomerase, ec:2.7.4.3 - kinase, ec:4.1.1.48 - synthase, ec:5.3.1.9 - isomerase, ec:2.7.7.60 - 4-phosphate cytidyltransferase, ec:2.7.7.64 - uridyltransferase, ec:6.3.4.5 - synthase, ec:4.1.1.33 - decarboxylase, ec:4.1.1.39 - carboxylase, ec:1.3.5.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.1.1.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:4.1.1.32 - carboxykinase (GTP), ec:4.2.1.9 - hydratase, ec:4.2.1.3 - hydratase, ec:4.2.1.2 - hydratase, ec:1.17.7.1 - synthase (ferredoxin), ec:4.2.1.20 - synthase, ec:2.6.1.52 - transaminase, ec:2.6.1.9 -	EG_transcript_8679, EG_transcript_16836, EG_transcript_28, EG_transcript_5258, EG_transcript_65, EG_transcript_97, EG_transcript_6633, EG_transcript_5356, EG_transcript_4221, EG_transcript_5074, EG_transcript_4891, EG_transcript_36522, EG_transcript_9546, EG_transcript_7542, EG_transcript_3442, EG_transcript_9405, EG_transcript_1151, EG_transcript_14120, EG_transcript_30563, EG_transcript_18179, EG_transcript_30456, EG_transcript_44253, EG_transcript_7827, EG_transcript_21524, EG_transcript_43521, EG_transcript_16008, EG_transcript_25832, EG_transcript_5279, EG_transcript_15855, EG_transcript_17910, EG_transcript_11790, EG_transcript_26205, EG_transcript_15619, EG_transcript_20009, EG_transcript_22143, EG_transcript_1490, EG_transcript_5108, EG_transcript_14037, EG_transcript_6731, EG_transcript_12921, EG_transcript_10767, EG_transcript_17330, EG_transcript_7123, EG_transcript_10675, EG_transcript_6467, EG_transcript_21676, EG_transcript_19272, EG_transcript_61784,

transaminase, ec:1.1.1.95 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.5.1.47 - synthase, ec:4.2.1.11 - hydratase, ec:2.2.1.2 - dihydroxyacetone transferase, ec:4.2.1.10 - dehydratase, ec:2.2.1.1 - glycolaldehydetransferase, ec:2.2.1.6 - synthase, ec:5.3.3.2 - Delta-isomerase, ec:2.5.1.54 - synthase, ec:2.2.1.7 - synthase, ec:2.7.2.4 - kinase, ec:2.7.2.3 - kinase, ec:4.1.1.82 - decarboxylase, ec:4.3.2.1 - lyase, ec:4.3.2.2 - lyase, ec:1.2.1.38 - reductase, ec:2.7.1.40 - kinase, ec:2.7.2.11 - 5-kinase, ec:1.2.1.41 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.4.1.14 - synthase (NADH), ec:4.3.1.19 - ammonia-lyase, ec:1.3.1.13 - dehydrogenase (NADP+), ec:1.3.1.12 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.7.1.36 - kinase, ec:4.2.1.46 - 4,6-dehydratase, ec:2.7.1.2 - glucokinase (phosphorylating), ec:2.7.1.1 - hexokinase type IV glucokinase, ec:4.2.3.5 - synthase, ec:1.1.1.86 - reductoisomerase (NADP+), ec:4.2.3.4 - synthase, ec:2.6.1.42 - transaminase, ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:1.2.1.59 - dehydrogenase (NAD(P)+) (phosphorylating), ec:3.5.1.14 - acid amidohydrolase, ec:4.2.1.36 - hydratase, ec:2.7.1.11 - phosphohexokinase, ec:4.2.1.51 - dehydratase, ec:5.5.1.4 - synthase, ec:2.5.1.19 - 1-carboxyvinyltransferase, ec:6.2.1.1 - ligase, ec:1.1.1.37 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.1.1.34 - reductase (NADPH), ec:2.3.1.12 - acetyltransferase, ec:3.1.3.11 - hexose diphosphatase, ec:1.1.1.44 - dehydrogenase (NADP+-dependent, decarboxylating), ec:1.1.1.42 - dehydrogenase (NADP+), ec:2.7.7.4 - adenylyltransferase, ec:1.1.1.49 - dehydrogenase (NADP+), ec:2.7.7.9 - uridylyltransferase, ec:5.4.2.8 - mannose phosphomutase, ec:5.4.2.9 - mutase, ec:1.2.1.11 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.2.1.12 - dehydrogenase (phosphorylating), ec:6.3.5.3 - synthase, ec:1.1.1.25 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.4.2.18 - phosphoribosyltransferase, ec:6.3.4.13 - ligase, ec:1.5.1.2 - reductase, ec:2.3.3.1 - (Si)-synthase, ec:2.7.6.1 - diphosphokinase, ec:1.1.1.267 - reductoisomerase, ec:1.2.4.1 - dehydrogenase (acetyl-transferring), ec:3.5.4.10 - cyclohydrolase, ec:1.1.1.282 - dehydrogenase, ec:3.1.1.31 - phosphogluconolactonase,

EG\_transcript\_6624, EG\_transcript\_2009, EG\_transcript\_4764, EG\_transcript\_1939, EG\_transcript\_8284, EG\_transcript\_7914, EG\_transcript\_18439, EG\_transcript\_1490, EG\_transcript\_6489, EG\_transcript\_11162, EG\_transcript\_13699, EG\_transcript\_5154, EG\_transcript\_16158, EG\_transcript\_10012, EG\_transcript\_12808, EG\_transcript\_13795, EG\_transcript\_11659, EG\_transcript\_12376, EG\_transcript\_6665, EG\_transcript\_13075, EG\_transcript\_1208, EG\_transcript\_2997, EG\_transcript\_4605, EG\_transcript\_7788, EG\_transcript\_15457, EG\_transcript\_12896, EG\_transcript\_47268, EG\_transcript\_13245, EG\_transcript\_13871, EG\_transcript\_6058, EG\_transcript\_2820, EG\_transcript\_12119, EG\_transcript\_10778, EG\_transcript\_12260, EG\_transcript\_15698, EG\_transcript\_7726, EG\_transcript\_16693, EG\_transcript\_14099, EG\_transcript\_2957, EG\_transcript\_6211, EG\_transcript\_12607, EG\_transcript\_6612, EG\_transcript\_107, EG\_transcript\_6007, EG\_transcript\_6066, EG\_transcript\_6066, EG\_transcript\_16291, EG\_transcript\_21799, EG\_transcript\_8623, EG\_transcript\_8623, EG\_transcript\_11718, EG\_transcript\_27401, EG\_transcript\_13481, EG\_transcript\_1208, EG\_transcript\_9159, EG\_transcript\_15045, EG\_transcript\_16406, EG\_transcript\_11815, EG\_transcript\_11950, EG\_transcript\_21446, EG\_transcript\_1151, EG\_transcript\_7325, EG\_transcript\_6970, EG\_transcript\_6957, EG\_transcript\_6066, EG\_transcript\_12179, EG\_transcript\_6431, EG\_transcript\_1208, EG\_transcript\_4603, EG\_transcript\_3254, EG\_transcript\_9669, EG\_transcript\_12212, EG\_transcript\_15919, EG\_transcript\_24127, EG\_transcript\_7580, EG\_transcript\_29059, EG\_transcript\_26319, EG\_transcript\_862, EG\_transcript\_21457, EG\_transcript\_3075, EG\_transcript\_10083, EG\_transcript\_5584, EG\_transcript\_7394, EG\_transcript\_2646, EG\_transcript\_8727, EG\_transcript\_7683, EG\_transcript\_4570, EG\_transcript\_15632, EG\_transcript\_18342, EG\_transcript\_13690, EG\_transcript\_13898, EG\_transcript\_7631, EG\_transcript\_16470, EG\_transcript\_15075, EG\_transcript\_9064, EG\_transcript\_10115, EG\_transcript\_4351, EG\_transcript\_6875, EG\_transcript\_13843, EG\_transcript\_12509, EG\_transcript\_2747, EG\_transcript\_5995, EG\_transcript\_9049, EG\_transcript\_6731, EG\_transcript\_12921, EG\_transcript\_19893, EG\_transcript\_13804, EG\_transcript\_14099, EG\_transcript\_16406, EG\_transcript\_583, EG\_transcript\_21328, EG\_transcript\_15415, EG\_transcript\_10994, EG\_transcript\_18673, EG\_transcript\_20866, EG\_transcript\_2898, EG\_transcript\_6849,

			ec:5.4.99.5 - mutase, ec:5.3.1.24 - isomerase	EG_transcript_10302, EG_transcript_11595, EG_transcript_7528, EG_transcript_14984, EG_transcript_13095, EG_transcript_4370, EG_transcript_14931, EG_transcript_9827, EG_transcript_5356, EG_transcript_21328, EG_transcript_2747, EG_transcript_19914, EG_transcript_12179, EG_transcript_1490
Neomycin, kanamycin and gentamicin biosynthesis	map00524	2	ec:2.7.1.2 - glucokinase (phosphorylating), ec:2.7.1.1 - hexokinase type IV glucokinase	EG_transcript_8623, EG_transcript_8623
Selenocompound metabolism	map00450	6	ec:1.8.1.9 - reductase, ec:2.1.1.13 - synthase, ec:2.1.1.14 - S-methyltransferase, ec:4.4.1.8 - beta-lyase, ec:2.7.7.4 - adenylyltransferase, ec:6.1.1.10 - ligase	EG_transcript_4888, EG_transcript_14795, EG_transcript_6835, EG_transcript_3052, EG_transcript_1784, EG_transcript_2610, EG_transcript_11187, EG_transcript_13843, EG_transcript_12509, EG_transcript_3873, EG_transcript_1145
Monobactam biosynthesis	map00261	3	ec:2.7.2.4 - kinase, ec:2.7.7.4 - adenylyltransferase, ec:1.2.1.11 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_2820, EG_transcript_13843, EG_transcript_12509, EG_transcript_14099
Synthesis and degradation of ketone bodies	map00072	1	ec:2.3.3.10 - synthase	EG_transcript_16836, EG_transcript_28, EG_transcript_5258
alpha-Linolenic acid metabolism	map00592	1	ec:1.1.1.1 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_21676, EG_transcript_19272
Steroid degradation	map00984	1	ec:1.1.1.145 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_15039
Carotenoid biosynthesis	map00906	1	ec:1.3.5.6 - desaturase	EG_transcript_3877
Valine, leucine and isoleucine biosynthesis	map00290	8	ec:2.3.3.13 - synthase, ec:4.2.1.9 - dehydratase, ec:2.2.1.6 - synthase, ec:4.3.1.19 - ammonia-lyase, ec:4.2.1.33 - dehydratase, ec:1.1.1.86 - reductoisomerase (NADP+), ec:1.1.1.85 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.6.1.42 - transaminase	EG_transcript_7582, EG_transcript_5664, EG_transcript_6624, EG_transcript_7788, EG_transcript_6007, EG_transcript_4532, EG_transcript_27401, EG_transcript_13481, EG_transcript_12096, EG_transcript_9159
Fatty acid elongation	map00062	2	ec:3.1.2.22 - hydrolase, ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_17203, EG_transcript_7580, EG_transcript_29059, EG_transcript_26319, EG_transcript_862, EG_transcript_21457, EG_transcript_3075
Styrene degradation	map00643	1	ec:3.7.1.2 - beta-diketonase	EG_transcript_9792
Valine, leucine and isoleucine degradation	map00280	10	ec:1.8.1.4 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.3.3.10 - synthase, ec:1.4.3.2 - oxidase, ec:1.2.1.27 - dehydrogenase (CoA-acylating), ec:2.6.1.42 - transaminase, ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.1.1.31 - dehydrogenase, ec:6.2.1.16 - ligase, ec:5.4.99.2 - mutase	EG_transcript_8679, EG_transcript_16836, EG_transcript_28, EG_transcript_5258, EG_transcript_5672, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_29172, EG_transcript_9159, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_7580, EG_transcript_29059, EG_transcript_26319, EG_transcript_862, EG_transcript_21457, EG_transcript_3075, EG_transcript_13898, EG_transcript_4805, EG_transcript_4204

Lipoic acid metabolism	map00785	1	ec:2.8.1.8 - synthase	EG_transcript_8825
Galactose metabolism	map00052	8	ec:2.7.7.64 - uridylyltransferase, ec:2.7.1.2 - glucokinase (phosphorylating), ec:2.7.1.1 - hexokinase type IV glucokinase, ec:2.7.1.6 - galactokinase (phosphorylating), ec:2.7.1.11 - phosphohexokinase, ec:5.1.3.2 - 4-epimerase, ec:2.7.7.9 - uridylyltransferase, ec:5.4.99.9 - mutase	EG_transcript_6731, EG_transcript_12921, EG_transcript_8623, EG_transcript_8623, EG_transcript_12330, EG_transcript_1151, EG_transcript_7325, EG_transcript_6970, EG_transcript_6957, EG_transcript_10795, EG_transcript_6731, EG_transcript_12921, EG_transcript_8646
Amino sugar and nucleotide sugar metabolism	map00520	13	ec:2.6.1.16 - transaminase (isomerizing), ec:5.3.1.9 - isomerase, ec:2.7.7.64 - uridylyltransferase, ec:4.1.1.35 - decarboxylase, ec:4.2.1.47 - 4,6-dehydratase, ec:2.7.1.2 - glucokinase (phosphorylating), ec:2.7.1.1 - hexokinase type IV glucokinase, ec:2.7.1.6 - galactokinase (phosphorylating), ec:5.1.3.2 - 4-epimerase, ec:2.7.7.9 - uridylyltransferase, ec:5.4.2.8 - mannose phosphomutase, ec:1.1.1.22 - 6-dehydrogenase, ec:5.4.99.9 - mutase	EG_transcript_5074, EG_transcript_4891, EG_transcript_5108, EG_transcript_6731, EG_transcript_12921, EG_transcript_12235, EG_transcript_15475, EG_transcript_8623, EG_transcript_8623, EG_transcript_12330, EG_transcript_10795, EG_transcript_6731, EG_transcript_12921, EG_transcript_19893, EG_transcript_14324, EG_transcript_8646
Toluene degradation	map00623	1	ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_7580, EG_transcript_29059, EG_transcript_26319, EG_transcript_862, EG_transcript_21457, EG_transcript_3075
Biosynthesis of unsaturated fatty acids	map01040	2	ec:1.1.1.100 - reductase, ec:1.14.19.2 - 9-desaturase	EG_transcript_11779, EG_transcript_7358
Metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450	map00980	2	ec:1.1.1.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.2.1.5 - dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+]	EG_transcript_21676, EG_transcript_19272, EG_transcript_5269, EG_transcript_6432
Phenylalanine metabolism	map00360	5	ec:1.4.3.2 - oxidase, ec:4.1.3.39 - aldolase, ec:2.6.1.9 - transaminase, ec:1.2.1.5 - dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+], ec:1.13.11.27 - dioxygenase	EG_transcript_5672, EG_transcript_3463, EG_transcript_11162, EG_transcript_5269, EG_transcript_6432, EG_transcript_11176, EG_transcript_10118
mTOR signaling pathway	map04150	1	ec:2.7.11.24 - protein kinase	EG_transcript_7330
Tyrosine metabolism	map00350	6	ec:1.4.3.2 - oxidase, ec:1.1.1.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.6.1.9 - transaminase, ec:3.7.1.2 - beta-diketonase, ec:1.2.1.5 - dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+], ec:1.13.11.27 - dioxygenase	EG_transcript_5672, EG_transcript_21676, EG_transcript_19272, EG_transcript_11162, EG_transcript_9792, EG_transcript_5269, EG_transcript_6432, EG_transcript_11176, EG_transcript_10118
Aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis	map00970	20	ec:6.1.1.18 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.17 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.19 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.14 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.16 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.15 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.10 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.12 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.11 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.6 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.7 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.9 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.2 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.3 - ligase,	EG_transcript_2696, EG_transcript_6722, EG_transcript_4918, EG_transcript_2535, EG_transcript_3489, EG_transcript_3792, EG_transcript_4976, EG_transcript_11617, EG_transcript_4109, EG_transcript_9052, EG_transcript_3873, EG_transcript_1145, EG_transcript_7672, EG_transcript_9682, EG_transcript_26096,



			ec:6.1.1.4 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.5 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.1 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.21 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.20 - ligase, ec:6.1.1.22 - ligase	EG_transcript_7877, EG_transcript_3471, EG_transcript_3246, EG_transcript_1453, EG_transcript_7320, EG_transcript_4373, EG_transcript_1177, EG_transcript_1330, EG_transcript_1145, EG_transcript_7879, EG_transcript_10635, EG_transcript_7994, EG_transcript_7320, EG_transcript_8464, EG_transcript_2696
Aminobenzoate degradation	map00627	2	ec:3.6.1.7 - acetylphosphatase, ec:3.1.3.41 - nitrophenyl phosphatase	EG_transcript_52815, EG_transcript_8839, EG_transcript_8518, EG_transcript_26406, EG_transcript_18287, EG_transcript_18342, EG_transcript_680, EG_transcript_13690, EG_transcript_17863, EG_transcript_14035, EG_transcript_7683, EG_transcript_4570, EG_transcript_15687, EG_transcript_8577, EG_transcript_2212, EG_transcript_21163, EG_transcript_12518, EG_transcript_2107, EG_transcript_2646, EG_transcript_7616, EG_transcript_4802, EG_transcript_6968, EG_transcript_8727, EG_transcript_1615, EG_transcript_19003, EG_transcript_7394, EG_transcript_9851, EG_transcript_8387, EG_transcript_24788, EG_transcript_9672, EG_transcript_15632, EG_transcript_24665, EG_transcript_13679, EG_transcript_1851, EG_transcript_11638
Novobiocin biosynthesis	map00401	2	ec:2.6.1.9 - transaminase, ec:1.3.1.12 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_11162, EG_transcript_6066
Phosphonate and phosphinate metabolism	map00440	4	ec:4.1.1.82 - decarboxylase, ec:2.6.1.37 - transaminase, ec:5.4.2.9 - mutase, ec:3.11.1.2 - hydrolase	EG_transcript_15698, EG_transcript_14715, EG_transcript_13804, EG_transcript_8786
Histidine metabolism	map00340	9	ec:2.6.1.9 - transaminase, ec:4.2.1.19 - dehydratase, ec:1.2.1.5 - dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+], ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:3.6.1.31 - diphosphatase, ec:1.1.1.23 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.4.2.17 - phosphoribosyltransferase, ec:5.3.1.16 - isomerase, ec:3.5.4.19 - cyclohydrolase	EG_transcript_11162, EG_transcript_24054, EG_transcript_5269, EG_transcript_6432, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_52739, EG_transcript_6602, EG_transcript_10604, EG_transcript_26398, EG_transcript_19445, EG_transcript_31973
Tropane, piperidine and pyridine alkaloid biosynthesis	map00960	1	ec:2.6.1.9 - transaminase	EG_transcript_11162
Oxidative phosphorylation	map00190	6	ec:1.6.5.3 - reductase (H <sup>+</sup> -translocating), ec:3.6.1.1 - diphosphatase, ec:1.3.5.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.10.2.2 - reductase, ec:1.9.3.1 - oxidase, ec:1.6.99.3 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_19403, EG_transcript_32395, EG_transcript_19840, EG_transcript_2633, EG_transcript_19429, EG_transcript_61813, EG_transcript_1590, EG_transcript_6467, EG_transcript_23844, EG_transcript_5228, EG_transcript_36506, EG_transcript_19403, EG_transcript_32395, EG_transcript_19840
Taurine and	map00430	3	ec:2.3.2.2 - glutamyl transpeptidase, ec:1.4.1.2 -	EG_transcript_5619, EG_transcript_791, EG_transcript_8124,

hypotaurine metabolism			dehydrogenase, ec:1.4.1.1 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_11425
Phosphatidylinositol signaling system	map04070	2	ec:2.7.1.107 - kinase (ATP), ec:2.7.1.127 - 3-kinase	EG_transcript_14838, EG_transcript_23163
Cysteine and methionine metabolism	map00270	16	ec:2.5.1.6 - adenosyltransferase, ec:4.1.1.50 - decarboxylase, ec:3.1.3.77 - synthase, ec:1.4.3.2 - oxidase, ec:2.1.1.13 - synthase, ec:2.1.1.14 - S-methyltransferase, ec:3.3.1.1 - S-adenosylhomocysteine synthase, ec:2.5.1.47 - synthase, ec:2.7.2.4 - kinase, ec:6.3.2.3 - synthase, ec:6.3.2.2 - ligase, ec:2.6.1.42 - transaminase, ec:1.13.11.54 - dioxygenase [iron(II)-requiring], ec:1.1.1.37 - dehydrogenase, ec:4.4.1.8 - beta-lyase, ec:1.2.1.11 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_10098, EG_transcript_6938, EG_transcript_17863, EG_transcript_5672, EG_transcript_3052, EG_transcript_1784, EG_transcript_2610, EG_transcript_19742, EG_transcript_16158, EG_transcript_10012, EG_transcript_12808, EG_transcript_13795, EG_transcript_11659, EG_transcript_2820, EG_transcript_8300, EG_transcript_1613, EG_transcript_9159, EG_transcript_25256, EG_transcript_12212, EG_transcript_15919, EG_transcript_24127, EG_transcript_11187, EG_transcript_14099
Folate biosynthesis	map00790	4	ec:6.3.2.17 - synthase, ec:1.5.1.3 - reductase, ec:3.5.4.25 - cyclohydrolase II, ec:3.5.4.16 - cyclohydrolase I	EG_transcript_13840, EG_transcript_8517, EG_transcript_3866, EG_transcript_6561
Inositol phosphate metabolism	map00562	4	ec:5.3.1.1 - isomerase, ec:2.7.1.127 - 3-kinase, ec:5.5.1.4 - synthase, ec:1.2.1.18 - dehydrogenase (acetylating)	EG_transcript_14120, EG_transcript_30563, EG_transcript_18179, EG_transcript_30456, EG_transcript_44253, EG_transcript_23163, EG_transcript_6431, EG_transcript_15045
Polyketide sugar unit biosynthesis	map00523	1	ec:4.2.1.46 - 4,6-dehydratase	EG_transcript_21799
beta-Alanine metabolism	map00410	5	ec:6.3.2.1 - ligase (AMP-forming), ec:1.2.1.5 - dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+], ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:4.1.1.9 - decarboxylase, ec:1.2.1.18 - dehydrogenase (acetylating)	EG_transcript_16919, EG_transcript_5269, EG_transcript_6432, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_9247, EG_transcript_15045
Glycine, serine and threonine metabolism	map00260	11	ec:1.8.1.4 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.1.2.1 - hydroxymethyltransferase, ec:2.1.2.10 - S-aminomethyldihydrolipoylprotein:(6S)-tetrahydrofolate aminomethyltransferase (ammonia-forming), ec:1.1.1.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:4.2.1.20 - synthase, ec:2.6.1.52 - transaminase, ec:1.4.4.2 - dehydrogenase (aminomethyl-transferring), ec:1.1.1.95 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.7.2.4 - kinase, ec:4.3.1.19 - ammonia-lyase, ec:1.2.1.11 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_8679, EG_transcript_9546, EG_transcript_7542, EG_transcript_3442, EG_transcript_9405, EG_transcript_9664, EG_transcript_21676, EG_transcript_19272, EG_transcript_8284, EG_transcript_7914, EG_transcript_18439, EG_transcript_1490, EG_transcript_6489, EG_transcript_1548, EG_transcript_13699, EG_transcript_5154, EG_transcript_2820, EG_transcript_6007, EG_transcript_14099
Fatty acid degradation	map00071	3	ec:1.1.1.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_21676, EG_transcript_19272, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_7580, EG_transcript_29059, EG_transcript_26319, EG_transcript_862, EG_transcript_21457, EG_transcript_3075
Starch and sucrose metabolism	map00500	5	ec:5.3.1.9 - isomerase, ec:2.7.1.2 - glucokinase (phosphorylating), ec:2.7.1.1 - hexokinase type IV	EG_transcript_5108, EG_transcript_8623, EG_transcript_8623, EG_transcript_6731, EG_transcript_12921, EG_transcript_11758,

			glucokinase, ec:2.7.7.9 - uridylyltransferase, ec:2.4.1.34 - synthase	EG_transcript_73
Drug metabolism - other enzymes	map00983	8	ec:2.7.4.6 - kinase, ec:1.1.1.205 - dehydrogenase, ec:3.6.1.23 - diphosphatase, ec:6.3.5.2 - synthase (glutamine-hydrolysing), ec:3.1.1.1 - ali-esterase, ec:2.4.2.10 - phosphoribosyltransferase, ec:2.4.2.8 - phosphoribosyltransferase, ec:2.4.2.3 - phosphorylase	EG_transcript_17910, EG_transcript_11790, EG_transcript_26205, EG_transcript_9707, EG_transcript_8320, EG_transcript_13311, EG_transcript_24436, EG_transcript_4795, EG_transcript_4109, EG_transcript_17245, EG_transcript_2747, EG_transcript_1330, EG_transcript_11766, EG_transcript_19914, EG_transcript_1177, EG_transcript_1453, EG_transcript_22241, EG_transcript_9327, EG_transcript_20333, EG_transcript_25833
Th1 and Th2 cell differentiation	map04658	1	ec:3.1.3.16 - phosphatase	EG_transcript_2107, EG_transcript_4802, EG_transcript_6968, EG_transcript_1615, EG_transcript_26406, EG_transcript_19003, EG_transcript_18287, EG_transcript_14035, EG_transcript_9851, EG_transcript_9672, EG_transcript_8577, EG_transcript_13679, EG_transcript_2212, EG_transcript_1851, EG_transcript_12518
Alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabolism	map00250	16	ec:1.4.3.16 - oxidase, ec:2.6.1.16 - transaminase (isomerizing), ec:6.3.4.4 - synthase, ec:6.3.4.5 - synthase, ec:1.4.3.2 - oxidase, ec:6.3.1.2 - synthetase, ec:4.3.2.1 - lyase, ec:4.3.2.2 - lyase, ec:1.4.1.14 - synthase (NADH), ec:2.1.3.2 - carbamoyltransferase, ec:6.3.5.4 - synthase (glutamine-hydrolysing), ec:6.3.5.5 - synthase (glutamine-hydrolysing), ec:1.4.1.3 - dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+], ec:1.4.1.2 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.4.1.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:3.5.1.2 - glutaminase I	EG_transcript_5672, EG_transcript_5074, EG_transcript_4891, EG_transcript_929, EG_transcript_10767, EG_transcript_5672, EG_transcript_3524, EG_transcript_13142, EG_transcript_24268, EG_transcript_19219, EG_transcript_7726, EG_transcript_16693, EG_transcript_107, EG_transcript_7470, EG_transcript_14992, EG_transcript_5296, EG_transcript_224, EG_transcript_478, EG_transcript_791, EG_transcript_791, EG_transcript_8124, EG_transcript_11425, EG_transcript_2202
Fatty acid biosynthesis	map00061	5	ec:6.4.1.2 - carboxylase, ec:2.3.1.85 - synthase, ec:1.1.1.100 - reductase, ec:1.14.19.2 - 9-desaturase, ec:1.3.1.9 - reductase (NADH)	EG_transcript_65, EG_transcript_97, EG_transcript_6633, EG_transcript_9, EG_transcript_11779, EG_transcript_11779, EG_transcript_7358, EG_transcript_9
T cell receptor signaling pathway	map04660	1	ec:3.1.3.16 - phosphatase	EG_transcript_2107, EG_transcript_4802, EG_transcript_6968, EG_transcript_1615, EG_transcript_26406, EG_transcript_19003, EG_transcript_18287, EG_transcript_14035, EG_transcript_9851, EG_transcript_9672, EG_transcript_8577, EG_transcript_13679, EG_transcript_2212, EG_transcript_1851, EG_transcript_12518
Porphyryn and chlorophyll metabolism	map00860	17	ec:1.2.1.70 - reductase, ec:4.1.1.37 - decarboxylase, ec:2.7.8.26 - ribazoletransferase, ec:1.16.1.5 - reductase (NADPH), ec:2.1.1.11 - protoporphyrin IX methyltransferase, ec:1.3.1.33 - reductase, ec:4.2.1.24 - synthase, ec:2.5.1.62 - synthase, ec:2.5.1.61 - synthase, ec:1.14.13.122 - oxygenase, ec:5.4.3.8 - 2,1-aminomutase, ec:1.14.13.81 - IX monomethyl ester	EG_transcript_3435, EG_transcript_10984, EG_transcript_6636, EG_transcript_17708, EG_transcript_9735, EG_transcript_12772, EG_transcript_2112, EG_transcript_790, EG_transcript_17571, EG_transcript_6647, EG_transcript_8688, EG_transcript_16460, EG_transcript_9385, EG_transcript_7051, EG_transcript_3991, EG_transcript_4984, EG_transcript_13553, EG_transcript_13855, EG_transcript_4918, EG_transcript_16400, EG_transcript_9328,

			(oxidative) cyclase, ec:4.99.1.1 - ferrochelatase, ec:6.1.1.17 - ligase, ec:1.3.3.4 - oxidase, ec:1.3.3.3 - oxidase, ec:6.6.1.1 - chelatase	EG_transcript_12610, EG_transcript_4741, EG_transcript_8456, EG_transcript_516, EG_transcript_2756, EG_transcript_202, EG_transcript_11387, EG_transcript_15491
Pyrimidine metabolism	map00240	16	ec:2.7.4.6 - kinase, ec:2.1.1.45 - synthase, ec:3.5.2.3 - carbamoylaspartic dehydrase, ec:3.1.3.5 - uridine 5'-nucleotidase, ec:6.3.4.2 - synthase (glutamine hydrolysing), ec:1.3.5.2 - dehydrogenase (quinone), ec:4.1.1.23 - decarboxylase, ec:1.17.4.2 - reductase (thioredoxin), ec:2.1.3.2 - carbamoyltransferase, ec:3.6.1.23 - diphosphatase, ec:2.7.7.6 - RNA polymerase, ec:2.7.7.7 - DNA polymerase, ec:6.3.5.5 - synthase (glutamine-hydrolysing), ec:2.4.2.10 - phosphoribosyltransferase, ec:2.4.2.6 - deoxyribosyltransferase, ec:2.4.2.3 - phosphorylase	EG_transcript_17910, EG_transcript_11790, EG_transcript_26205, EG_transcript_8517, EG_transcript_14846, EG_transcript_8387, EG_transcript_4156, EG_transcript_10912, EG_transcript_8554, EG_transcript_9327, EG_transcript_9422, EG_transcript_20718, EG_transcript_2191, EG_transcript_7470, EG_transcript_14992, EG_transcript_13311, EG_transcript_1236, EG_transcript_7627, EG_transcript_18378, EG_transcript_15458, EG_transcript_2051, EG_transcript_15521, EG_transcript_26985, EG_transcript_32593, EG_transcript_92, EG_transcript_464, EG_transcript_23275, EG_transcript_356, EG_transcript_13664, EG_transcript_1356, EG_transcript_224, EG_transcript_478, EG_transcript_9327, EG_transcript_23092, EG_transcript_25833
Fructose and mannose metabolism	map00051	10	ec:2.7.1.90 - 1-phosphotransferase, ec:2.7.1.105 - phosphofructokinase 2, ec:5.3.1.1 - isomerase, ec:4.1.2.13 - aldolase, ec:5.3.1.6 - isomerase, ec:4.2.1.47 - 4,6-dehydratase, ec:2.7.1.1 - hexokinase type IV glucokinase, ec:2.7.1.11 - phosphohexokinase, ec:3.1.3.11 - hexose diphosphatase, ec:5.4.2.8 - mannose phosphomutase	EG_transcript_1151, EG_transcript_10541, EG_transcript_8196, EG_transcript_10980, EG_transcript_4882, EG_transcript_7956, EG_transcript_14120, EG_transcript_30563, EG_transcript_18179, EG_transcript_30456, EG_transcript_44253, EG_transcript_7827, EG_transcript_21524, EG_transcript_43521, EG_transcript_16008, EG_transcript_25832, EG_transcript_5279, EG_transcript_15855, EG_transcript_15619, EG_transcript_20009, EG_transcript_15475, EG_transcript_8623, EG_transcript_1151, EG_transcript_7325, EG_transcript_6970, EG_transcript_6957, EG_transcript_7394, EG_transcript_2646, EG_transcript_8727, EG_transcript_7683, EG_transcript_4570, EG_transcript_15632, EG_transcript_18342, EG_transcript_13690, EG_transcript_19893
Isoquinoline alkaloid biosynthesis	map00950	1	ec:1.4.3.2 - oxidase	EG_transcript_5672
Arginine and proline metabolism	map00330	5	ec:4.1.1.50 - decarboxylase, ec:2.7.2.11 - 5-kinase, ec:1.2.1.41 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:1.5.1.2 - reductase	EG_transcript_6938, EG_transcript_12607, EG_transcript_6612, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_18673, EG_transcript_20866
Aflatoxin biosynthesis	map00254	1	ec:6.4.1.2 - carboxylase	EG_transcript_65, EG_transcript_97, EG_transcript_6633
Xylene degradation	map00622	1	ec:4.1.3.39 - aldolase	EG_transcript_3463
Indole alkaloid biosynthesis	map00901	1	ec:4.3.3.2 - synthase	EG_transcript_20082
Phenylpropanoid	map00940	1	ec:1.11.1.7 - lactoperoxidase	EG_transcript_29973, EG_transcript_25331, EG_transcript_20841,

biosynthesis				EG_transcript_5780, EG_transcript_21143, EG_transcript_22491, EG_transcript_13727, EG_transcript_27461
Lysine degradation	map00310	2	ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_7580, EG_transcript_29059, EG_transcript_26319, EG_transcript_862, EG_transcript_21457, EG_transcript_3075
Caprolactam degradation	map00930	1	ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_7580, EG_transcript_29059, EG_transcript_26319, EG_transcript_862, EG_transcript_21457, EG_transcript_3075
Naphthalene degradation	map00626	1	ec:1.1.1.1 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_21676, EG_transcript_19272
Biotin metabolism	map00780	3	ec:6.3.3.3 - synthase, ec:2.8.1.6 - synthase, ec:1.1.1.100 - reductase	EG_transcript_38077, EG_transcript_14092, EG_transcript_11779
Phenylalanine, tyrosine and tryptophan biosynthesis	map00400	17	ec:4.1.1.48 - synthase, ec:1.4.3.2 - oxidase, ec:4.2.1.20 - synthase, ec:2.6.1.9 - transaminase, ec:4.2.1.10 - dehydratase, ec:2.5.1.54 - synthase, ec:1.3.1.13 - dehydrogenase (NADP+), ec:1.3.1.12 - dehydrogenase, ec:4.2.3.5 - synthase, ec:4.2.3.4 - synthase, ec:4.2.1.51 - dehydratase, ec:2.5.1.19 - 1-carboxyvinyltransferase, ec:1.1.1.25 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.4.2.18 - phosphoribosyltransferase, ec:1.1.1.282 - dehydrogenase, ec:5.4.99.5 - mutase, ec:5.3.1.24 - isomerase	EG_transcript_1490, EG_transcript_5672, EG_transcript_8284, EG_transcript_7914, EG_transcript_18439, EG_transcript_1490, EG_transcript_11162, EG_transcript_1208, EG_transcript_12896, EG_transcript_47268, EG_transcript_13245, EG_transcript_13871, EG_transcript_6066, EG_transcript_6066, EG_transcript_11718, EG_transcript_1208, EG_transcript_6066, EG_transcript_12179, EG_transcript_1208, EG_transcript_21328, EG_transcript_15415, EG_transcript_21328, EG_transcript_12179, EG_transcript_1490
Lysine biosynthesis	map00300	4	ec:2.3.3.14 - synthase, ec:2.7.2.4 - kinase, ec:4.2.1.36 - hydratase, ec:1.2.1.11 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_4221, EG_transcript_2820, EG_transcript_11950, EG_transcript_21446, EG_transcript_14099
Sulfur metabolism	map00920	5	ec:3.1.3.7 - nucleotidase, ec:2.5.1.47 - synthase, ec:2.7.1.25 - kinase, ec:1.8.4.8 - reductase (thioredoxin), ec:2.7.7.4 - adenylyltransferase	EG_transcript_8518, EG_transcript_16158, EG_transcript_10012, EG_transcript_12808, EG_transcript_13795, EG_transcript_11659, EG_transcript_68647, EG_transcript_13057, EG_transcript_13843, EG_transcript_12509
Pantothenate and CoA biosynthesis	map00770	9	ec:2.1.2.11 - hydroxymethyltransferase, ec:4.2.1.9 - dehydratase, ec:2.2.1.6 - synthase, ec:6.3.2.1 - ligase (AMP-forming), ec:1.1.1.86 - reductoisomerase (NADP+), ec:2.6.1.42 - transaminase, ec:2.7.1.24 - kinase, ec:2.7.8.7 - synthase, ec:1.1.1.169 - 2-reductase	EG_transcript_14237, EG_transcript_6624, EG_transcript_7788, EG_transcript_16919, EG_transcript_27401, EG_transcript_13481, EG_transcript_9159, EG_transcript_39815, EG_transcript_9, EG_transcript_24449
Steroid hormone biosynthesis	map00140	1	ec:1.1.1.145 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_15039
Nicotinate and nicotinamide metabolism	map00760	5	ec:1.4.3.16 - oxidase, ec:3.1.3.5 - uridine 5'-nucleotidase, ec:1.6.1.2 - transhydrogenase (Re/Si-specific), ec:6.3.5.1 - synthase (glutamine-hydrolysing), ec:2.4.2.19 - diphosphorylase (carboxylating)	EG_transcript_5672, EG_transcript_8387, EG_transcript_8446, EG_transcript_2419, EG_transcript_6238, EG_transcript_45301, EG_transcript_17502
Purine metabolism	map00230	27	ec:2.1.2.3 - formyltransferase, ec:2.1.2.2 -	EG_transcript_5356, EG_transcript_36522, EG_transcript_1073,

formyltransferase, ec:4.6.1.1 - cyclase, ec:2.7.4.8 - kinase, ec:2.7.4.6 - kinase, ec:2.7.4.3 - kinase, ec:3.1.3.5 - uridine 5'-nucleotidase, ec:6.3.4.4 - synthase, ec:3.6.1.3 - adenylypyrophosphatase, ec:4.1.1.21 - carboxylase, ec:3.1.4.17 - phosphodiesterase, ec:4.3.2.2 - lyase, ec:1.17.4.2 - reductase (thioredoxin), ec:2.7.1.40 - kinase, ec:1.1.1.205 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.7.1.25 - kinase, ec:2.7.1.20 - kinase, ec:3.6.1.15 - phosphatase, ec:2.7.7.4 - adenylyltransferase, ec:2.7.7.6 - RNA polymerase, ec:2.7.7.7 - DNA polymerase, ec:6.3.5.2 - synthase (glutamine-hydrolysing), ec:6.3.5.3 - synthase, ec:6.3.4.13 - ligase, ec:2.7.6.1 - diphosphokinase, ec:3.5.4.10 - cyclohydrolase, ec:2.4.2.8 - phosphoribosyltransferase

EG\_transcript\_2020, EG\_transcript\_3792, EG\_transcript\_24336, EG\_transcript\_20583, EG\_transcript\_17910, EG\_transcript\_11790, EG\_transcript\_26205, EG\_transcript\_22143, EG\_transcript\_8387, EG\_transcript\_929, EG\_transcript\_4118, EG\_transcript\_10317, EG\_transcript\_1888, EG\_transcript\_567, EG\_transcript\_7192, EG\_transcript\_6491, EG\_transcript\_13141, EG\_transcript\_8030, EG\_transcript\_3260, EG\_transcript\_5164, EG\_transcript\_11643, EG\_transcript\_1241, EG\_transcript\_1121, EG\_transcript\_1245, EG\_transcript\_3018, EG\_transcript\_4745, EG\_transcript\_159, EG\_transcript\_950, EG\_transcript\_74, EG\_transcript\_155, EG\_transcript\_795, EG\_transcript\_20888, EG\_transcript\_6088, EG\_transcript\_1350, EG\_transcript\_1352, EG\_transcript\_1993, EG\_transcript\_944, EG\_transcript\_10538, EG\_transcript\_5627, EG\_transcript\_36488, EG\_transcript\_260, EG\_transcript\_21665, EG\_transcript\_23566, EG\_transcript\_12798, EG\_transcript\_1663, EG\_transcript\_5227, EG\_transcript\_14, EG\_transcript\_1139, EG\_transcript\_1656, EG\_transcript\_32956, EG\_transcript\_253, EG\_transcript\_18273, EG\_transcript\_254, EG\_transcript\_10021, EG\_transcript\_251, EG\_transcript\_22409, EG\_transcript\_19235, EG\_transcript\_8289, EG\_transcript\_1372, EG\_transcript\_3154, EG\_transcript\_7996, EG\_transcript\_3310, EG\_transcript\_7356, EG\_transcript\_1016, EG\_transcript\_35708, EG\_transcript\_129, EG\_transcript\_4714, EG\_transcript\_2819, EG\_transcript\_10193, EG\_transcript\_6572, EG\_transcript\_5363, EG\_transcript\_11167, EG\_transcript\_4275, EG\_transcript\_29, EG\_transcript\_8912, EG\_transcript\_3104, EG\_transcript\_9603, EG\_transcript\_10923, EG\_transcript\_910, EG\_transcript\_34, EG\_transcript\_1953, EG\_transcript\_353, EG\_transcript\_10241, EG\_transcript\_7497, EG\_transcript\_18009, EG\_transcript\_16984, EG\_transcript\_46, EG\_transcript\_31678, EG\_transcript\_901, EG\_transcript\_1901, EG\_transcript\_744, EG\_transcript\_8893, EG\_transcript\_5143, EG\_transcript\_5387, EG\_transcript\_6513, EG\_transcript\_4327, EG\_transcript\_5, EG\_transcript\_52, EG\_transcript\_854, EG\_transcript\_2947, EG\_transcript\_579, EG\_transcript\_297, EG\_transcript\_331, EG\_transcript\_573, EG\_transcript\_25828, EG\_transcript\_49747, EG\_transcript\_23012, EG\_transcript\_2423, EG\_transcript\_6217, EG\_transcript\_7167, EG\_transcript\_22300, EG\_transcript\_13675, EG\_transcript\_16693, EG\_transcript\_9422, EG\_transcript\_20718, EG\_transcript\_2191, EG\_transcript\_2957,

EG\_transcript\_6211, EG\_transcript\_9707, EG\_transcript\_8320,  
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EG\_transcript\_4118, EG\_transcript\_10317, EG\_transcript\_1888,  
EG\_transcript\_567, EG\_transcript\_321, EG\_transcript\_7192,  
EG\_transcript\_13141, EG\_transcript\_8030, EG\_transcript\_3260,  
EG\_transcript\_3381, EG\_transcript\_8154, EG\_transcript\_11643,  
EG\_transcript\_3148, EG\_transcript\_3018, EG\_transcript\_1079,  
EG\_transcript\_6648, EG\_transcript\_1877, EG\_transcript\_2847,  
EG\_transcript\_74, EG\_transcript\_10562, EG\_transcript\_795,  
EG\_transcript\_12190, EG\_transcript\_6088, EG\_transcript\_13158,  
EG\_transcript\_6889, EG\_transcript\_1993, EG\_transcript\_10538,  
EG\_transcript\_30386, EG\_transcript\_664, EG\_transcript\_36488,  
EG\_transcript\_19234, EG\_transcript\_19476, EG\_transcript\_3280,  
EG\_transcript\_21665, EG\_transcript\_20574, EG\_transcript\_23963,  
EG\_transcript\_1663, EG\_transcript\_5227, EG\_transcript\_1535,  
EG\_transcript\_1656, EG\_transcript\_1536, EG\_transcript\_18273,  
EG\_transcript\_91, EG\_transcript\_22409, EG\_transcript\_19235,  
EG\_transcript\_8289, EG\_transcript\_8722, EG\_transcript\_3154,  
EG\_transcript\_7996, EG\_transcript\_4245, EG\_transcript\_16527,  
EG\_transcript\_5456, EG\_transcript\_35708, EG\_transcript\_526,  
EG\_transcript\_2819, EG\_transcript\_7027, EG\_transcript\_2494,  
EG\_transcript\_3584, EG\_transcript\_2134, EG\_transcript\_4312,  
EG\_transcript\_8912, EG\_transcript\_21240, EG\_transcript\_3104,  
EG\_transcript\_3337, EG\_transcript\_3458, EG\_transcript\_10923,  
EG\_transcript\_515, EG\_transcript\_1831, EG\_transcript\_1953,  
EG\_transcript\_2925, EG\_transcript\_1959, EG\_transcript\_10241,  
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EG\_transcript\_7497, EG\_transcript\_23555, EG\_transcript\_505,  
EG\_transcript\_744, EG\_transcript\_10211, EG\_transcript\_191,  
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EG\_transcript\_1245, EG\_transcript\_5844, EG\_transcript\_4745,  
EG\_transcript\_159, EG\_transcript\_950, EG\_transcript\_155,  
EG\_transcript\_150, EG\_transcript\_5390, EG\_transcript\_19532,

				<p>EG_transcript_20888, EG_transcript_8662, EG_transcript_1470, EG_transcript_1350, EG_transcript_1352, EG_transcript_5039, EG_transcript_944, EG_transcript_4416, EG_transcript_4537, EG_transcript_5627, EG_transcript_260, EG_transcript_23566, EG_transcript_12798, EG_transcript_1144, EG_transcript_2113, EG_transcript_14, EG_transcript_1139, EG_transcript_5617, EG_transcript_32956, EG_transcript_253, EG_transcript_254, EG_transcript_255, EG_transcript_10021, EG_transcript_251, EG_transcript_1372, EG_transcript_7234, EG_transcript_1495, EG_transcript_3310, EG_transcript_7356, EG_transcript_1016, EG_transcript_129, EG_transcript_3745, EG_transcript_4714, EG_transcript_367, EG_transcript_25212, EG_transcript_10193, EG_transcript_19330, EG_transcript_6572, EG_transcript_5363, EG_transcript_11167, EG_transcript_4275, EG_transcript_29, EG_transcript_9603, EG_transcript_910, EG_transcript_34, EG_transcript_2649, EG_transcript_353, EG_transcript_3170, EG_transcript_13352, EG_transcript_18009, EG_transcript_16984, EG_transcript_3176, EG_transcript_2884, EG_transcript_46, EG_transcript_31678, EG_transcript_901, EG_transcript_25311, EG_transcript_1901, EG_transcript_12480, EG_transcript_5020, EG_transcript_8893, EG_transcript_5143, EG_transcript_5387, EG_transcript_12357, EG_transcript_6599, EG_transcript_2550, EG_transcript_1100, EG_transcript_1221, EG_transcript_5941, EG_transcript_3521, EG_transcript_1102, EG_transcript_4853, EG_transcript_3639, EG_transcript_52, EG_transcript_579, EG_transcript_331, EG_transcript_573, EG_transcript_15990, EG_transcript_3196, EG_transcript_6461, EG_transcript_49747, EG_transcript_23012, EG_transcript_2423, EG_transcript_10506, EG_transcript_13843, EG_transcript_12509, EG_transcript_1236, EG_transcript_7627, EG_transcript_18378, EG_transcript_15458, EG_transcript_2051, EG_transcript_15521, EG_transcript_26985, EG_transcript_32593, EG_transcript_92, EG_transcript_464, EG_transcript_23275, EG_transcript_356, EG_transcript_13664, EG_transcript_1356, EG_transcript_24436, EG_transcript_4795, EG_transcript_583, EG_transcript_10994, EG_transcript_7528, EG_transcript_14984, EG_transcript_13095, EG_transcript_5356, EG_transcript_20333</p>
Vitamin B6 metabolism	map00750	2	ec:2.6.1.52 - transaminase, ec:2.7.1.35 - kinase	EG_transcript_6489, EG_transcript_14152



Glycerolipid metabolism	map00561	4	ec:2.7.1.107 - kinase (ATP), ec:2.7.1.30 - kinase, ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:2.3.1.20 - O-acyltransferase	EG_transcript_14838, EG_transcript_9510, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_27587, EG_transcript_6847, EG_transcript_5274
Arginine biosynthesis	map00220	8	ec:6.3.4.5 - synthase, ec:6.3.1.2 - synthetase, ec:4.3.2.1 - lyase, ec:1.2.1.38 - reductase, ec:3.5.1.14 - acid amidohydrolase, ec:1.4.1.3 - dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+], ec:1.4.1.2 - dehydrogenase, ec:3.5.1.2 - glutaminase I	EG_transcript_10767, EG_transcript_3524, EG_transcript_13142, EG_transcript_24268, EG_transcript_19219, EG_transcript_7726, EG_transcript_14099, EG_transcript_11815, EG_transcript_791, EG_transcript_791, EG_transcript_2202
Arachidonic acid metabolism	map00590	1	ec:1.11.1.9 - peroxidase	EG_transcript_29973, EG_transcript_21143, EG_transcript_20841, EG_transcript_27461
Drug metabolism - cytochrome P450	map00982	3	ec:1.1.1.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.14.13.8 - monooxygenase, ec:1.2.1.5 - dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+]	EG_transcript_21676, EG_transcript_19272, EG_transcript_8408, EG_transcript_7495, EG_transcript_5269, EG_transcript_6432
Benzoate degradation	map00362	2	ec:4.1.3.39 - aldolase, ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_3463, EG_transcript_7580, EG_transcript_29059, EG_transcript_26319, EG_transcript_862, EG_transcript_21457, EG_transcript_3075
Retinol metabolism	map00830	1	ec:1.1.1.1 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_21676, EG_transcript_19272
Ether lipid metabolism	map00565	2	ec:2.5.1.26 - synthase, ec:3.1.1.47 - esterase	EG_transcript_5463, EG_transcript_11766
Methane metabolism	map00680	12	ec:2.1.2.1 - hydroxymethyltransferase, ec:3.1.3.71 - phosphatase, ec:4.1.2.13 - aldolase, ec:4.1.1.31 - carboxylase, ec:2.6.1.52 - transaminase, ec:1.1.1.95 - dehydrogenase, ec:4.2.1.11 - hydratase, ec:2.7.1.11 - phosphohexokinase, ec:6.2.1.1 - ligase, ec:1.1.1.37 - dehydrogenase, ec:3.1.3.11 - hexose diphosphatase, ec:3.1.2.12 - hydrolase	EG_transcript_9546, EG_transcript_7542, EG_transcript_3442, EG_transcript_9405, EG_transcript_21163, EG_transcript_7827, EG_transcript_21524, EG_transcript_43521, EG_transcript_16008, EG_transcript_25832, EG_transcript_5279, EG_transcript_15855, EG_transcript_1597, EG_transcript_6489, EG_transcript_13699, EG_transcript_5154, EG_transcript_12376, EG_transcript_6665, EG_transcript_1151, EG_transcript_7325, EG_transcript_6970, EG_transcript_6957, EG_transcript_4603, EG_transcript_3254, EG_transcript_9669, EG_transcript_12212, EG_transcript_15919, EG_transcript_24127, EG_transcript_7394, EG_transcript_2646, EG_transcript_8727, EG_transcript_7683, EG_transcript_4570, EG_transcript_15632, EG_transcript_18342, EG_transcript_13690, EG_transcript_17257
One carbon pool by folate	map00670	11	ec:2.1.2.3 - formyltransferase, ec:2.1.2.2 - formyltransferase, ec:2.1.2.1 - hydroxymethyltransferase, ec:2.1.2.10 - S-aminomethyl-dihydrofoloylprotein:(6S)-tetrahydrofolate aminomethyltransferase (ammonia-forming), ec:2.1.1.45 - synthase, ec:6.3.4.3 - ligase, ec:1.5.1.20 - reductase [NAD(P)H], ec:2.1.1.13 - synthase, ec:3.5.4.9 - cyclohydrolase, ec:1.5.1.3 - reductase, ec:1.5.1.5 - dehydrogenase (NADP+)	EG_transcript_5356, EG_transcript_36522, EG_transcript_9546, EG_transcript_7542, EG_transcript_3442, EG_transcript_9405, EG_transcript_9664, EG_transcript_8517, EG_transcript_17312, EG_transcript_15809, EG_transcript_12465, EG_transcript_3052, EG_transcript_1784, EG_transcript_17805, EG_transcript_8517, EG_transcript_17805, EG_transcript_17733

Nitrogen metabolism	map00910	7	ec:4.2.1.1 - anhydrase, ec:6.3.1.2 - synthetase, ec:4.2.1.104 - cyanate lyase, ec:1.4.1.14 - synthase (NADH), ec:1.13.12.16 - monooxygenase, ec:1.4.1.3 - dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+], ec:1.4.1.2 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_20306, EG_transcript_13779, EG_transcript_11777, EG_transcript_12758, EG_transcript_3524, EG_transcript_13142, EG_transcript_24268, EG_transcript_19219, EG_transcript_14786, EG_transcript_107, EG_transcript_22015, EG_transcript_791, EG_transcript_791
Dioxin degradation	map00621	1	ec:4.1.3.39 - aldolase	EG_transcript_3463
Pentose and glucuronate interconversions	map00040	3	ec:2.7.7.64 - uridylyltransferase, ec:2.7.7.9 - uridylyltransferase, ec:1.1.1.22 - 6-dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_6731, EG_transcript_12921, EG_transcript_6731, EG_transcript_12921, EG_transcript_14324
C5-Branched dibasic acid metabolism	map00660	2	ec:2.2.1.6 - synthase, ec:1.1.1.85 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_7788, EG_transcript_12096
D-Glutamine and D-glutamate metabolism	map00471	2	ec:1.4.1.3 - dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+], ec:3.5.1.2 - glutaminase I	EG_transcript_791, EG_transcript_2202
Terpenoid backbone biosynthesis	map00900	9	ec:2.3.3.10 - synthase, ec:2.7.7.60 - 4-phosphate cytidylyltransferase, ec:4.1.1.33 - decarboxylase, ec:1.17.7.1 - synthase (ferredoxin), ec:5.3.3.2 - Delta-isomerase, ec:2.2.1.7 - synthase, ec:2.7.1.36 - kinase, ec:1.1.1.34 - reductase (NADPH), ec:1.1.1.267 - reductoisomerase	EG_transcript_16836, EG_transcript_28, EG_transcript_5258, EG_transcript_14037, EG_transcript_17330, EG_transcript_1939, EG_transcript_15457, EG_transcript_6058, EG_transcript_16291, EG_transcript_10083, EG_transcript_4370
Ubiquinone and other terpenoid-quinone biosynthesis	map00130	2	ec:2.2.1.9 - synthase, ec:1.13.11.27 - dioxygenase	EG_transcript_121, EG_transcript_11176, EG_transcript_10118
Butanoate metabolism	map00650	6	ec:2.3.3.10 - synthase, ec:1.3.5.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.2.1.6 - synthase, ec:1.3.1.44 - reductase (NAD+), ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase, ec:6.2.1.16 - ligase	EG_transcript_16836, EG_transcript_28, EG_transcript_5258, EG_transcript_6467, EG_transcript_7788, EG_transcript_7247, EG_transcript_7580, EG_transcript_29059, EG_transcript_26319, EG_transcript_862, EG_transcript_21457, EG_transcript_3075, EG_transcript_4805
Glucosinolate biosynthesis	map00966	1	ec:2.6.1.42 - transaminase	EG_transcript_9159
Chloroalkane and chloroalkene degradation	map00625	2	ec:1.1.1.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+)	EG_transcript_21676, EG_transcript_19272, EG_transcript_15045
Riboflavin metabolism	map00740	6	ec:1.1.1.193 - reductase, ec:3.1.3.2 - phosphatase, ec:4.1.99.12 - synthase, ec:2.7.1.26 - kinase, ec:3.5.4.26 - deaminase, ec:3.5.4.25 - cyclohydrolase II	EG_transcript_6629, EG_transcript_8839, EG_transcript_7616, EG_transcript_680, EG_transcript_3866, EG_transcript_30923, EG_transcript_6629, EG_transcript_3866

Biosynthesis of vancomycin group antibiotics	map01055	1	ec:4.2.1.46 - 4,6-dehydratase	EG_transcript_21799
Primary bile acid biosynthesis	map00120	1	ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_7580, EG_transcript_29059, EG_transcript_26319, EG_transcript_862, EG_transcript_21457, EG_transcript_3075
Glycerophospholipid metabolism	map00564	5	ec:3.1.4.46 - phosphodiesterase, ec:2.7.1.107 - kinase (ATP), ec:1.1.1.8 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:1.1.1.94 - dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+], ec:1.1.5.3 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_13559, EG_transcript_14838, EG_transcript_8021, EG_transcript_18235, EG_transcript_8021, EG_transcript_18235, EG_transcript_9333, EG_transcript_13673
Cutin, suberine and wax biosynthesis	map00073	1	ec:2.3.1.20 - O-acyltransferase	EG_transcript_27587, EG_transcript_6847, EG_transcript_5274
Thiamine metabolism	map00730	5	ec:2.5.1.3 - phosphate synthase, ec:2.7.4.3 - kinase, ec:2.8.1.7 - desulfurase, ec:2.2.1.7 - synthase, ec:3.6.1.15 - phosphatase	EG_transcript_22875, EG_transcript_22143, EG_transcript_11568, EG_transcript_6058, EG_transcript_1523, EG_transcript_4118, EG_transcript_10317, EG_transcript_1888, EG_transcript_567, EG_transcript_321, EG_transcript_7192, EG_transcript_13141, EG_transcript_8030, EG_transcript_3260, EG_transcript_3381, EG_transcript_8154, EG_transcript_11643, EG_transcript_3148, EG_transcript_3018, EG_transcript_1079, EG_transcript_6648, EG_transcript_1877, EG_transcript_2847, EG_transcript_74, EG_transcript_10562, EG_transcript_795, EG_transcript_12190, EG_transcript_6088, EG_transcript_13158, EG_transcript_6889, EG_transcript_1993, EG_transcript_10538, EG_transcript_30386, EG_transcript_664, EG_transcript_36488, EG_transcript_19234, EG_transcript_19476, EG_transcript_3280, EG_transcript_21665, EG_transcript_20574, EG_transcript_23963, EG_transcript_1663, EG_transcript_5227, EG_transcript_1535, EG_transcript_1656, EG_transcript_1536, EG_transcript_18273, EG_transcript_91, EG_transcript_22409, EG_transcript_19235, EG_transcript_8289, EG_transcript_8722, EG_transcript_3154, EG_transcript_7996, EG_transcript_4245, EG_transcript_16527, EG_transcript_5456, EG_transcript_35708, EG_transcript_526, EG_transcript_2819, EG_transcript_7027, EG_transcript_2494, EG_transcript_3584, EG_transcript_2134, EG_transcript_4312, EG_transcript_8912, EG_transcript_21240, EG_transcript_3104, EG_transcript_3337, EG_transcript_3458, EG_transcript_10923, EG_transcript_515, EG_transcript_1831, EG_transcript_1953, EG_transcript_2925, EG_transcript_1959, EG_transcript_10241, EG_transcript_15140, EG_transcript_22226, EG_transcript_22347, EG_transcript_7497, EG_transcript_23555, EG_transcript_505, EG_transcript_744, EG_transcript_10211, EG_transcript_191, EG_transcript_14010,

EG\_transcript\_15106, EG\_transcript\_2274, EG\_transcript\_6513,  
EG\_transcript\_4327, EG\_transcript\_1056, EG\_transcript\_5,  
EG\_transcript\_854, EG\_transcript\_2947, EG\_transcript\_297,  
EG\_transcript\_25828, EG\_transcript\_8006, EG\_transcript\_2387,  
EG\_transcript\_1126, EG\_transcript\_28802, EG\_transcript\_6491,  
EG\_transcript\_5164, EG\_transcript\_8557, EG\_transcript\_1120,  
EG\_transcript\_1241, EG\_transcript\_1121, EG\_transcript\_1245,  
EG\_transcript\_5844, EG\_transcript\_4745, EG\_transcript\_159,  
EG\_transcript\_950, EG\_transcript\_155, EG\_transcript\_150,  
EG\_transcript\_5390, EG\_transcript\_19532, EG\_transcript\_20888,  
EG\_transcript\_8662, EG\_transcript\_1470, EG\_transcript\_1350,  
EG\_transcript\_1352, EG\_transcript\_5039, EG\_transcript\_944,  
EG\_transcript\_4416, EG\_transcript\_4537, EG\_transcript\_5627,  
EG\_transcript\_260, EG\_transcript\_23566, EG\_transcript\_12798,  
EG\_transcript\_1144, EG\_transcript\_2113, EG\_transcript\_14,  
EG\_transcript\_1139, EG\_transcript\_5617, EG\_transcript\_32956,  
EG\_transcript\_253, EG\_transcript\_254, EG\_transcript\_255,  
EG\_transcript\_10021, EG\_transcript\_251, EG\_transcript\_1372,  
EG\_transcript\_7234, EG\_transcript\_1495, EG\_transcript\_3310,  
EG\_transcript\_7356, EG\_transcript\_1016, EG\_transcript\_129,  
EG\_transcript\_3745, EG\_transcript\_4714, EG\_transcript\_367,  
EG\_transcript\_25212, EG\_transcript\_10193, EG\_transcript\_19330,  
EG\_transcript\_6572, EG\_transcript\_5363, EG\_transcript\_11167,  
EG\_transcript\_4275, EG\_transcript\_29, EG\_transcript\_9603,  
EG\_transcript\_910, EG\_transcript\_34, EG\_transcript\_2649,  
EG\_transcript\_353, EG\_transcript\_3170, EG\_transcript\_13352,  
EG\_transcript\_18009, EG\_transcript\_16984, EG\_transcript\_3176,  
EG\_transcript\_2884, EG\_transcript\_46, EG\_transcript\_31678,  
EG\_transcript\_901, EG\_transcript\_25311, EG\_transcript\_1901,  
EG\_transcript\_12480, EG\_transcript\_5020, EG\_transcript\_8893,  
EG\_transcript\_5143, EG\_transcript\_5387, EG\_transcript\_12357,  
EG\_transcript\_6599, EG\_transcript\_2550, EG\_transcript\_1100,  
EG\_transcript\_1221, EG\_transcript\_5941, EG\_transcript\_3521,  
EG\_transcript\_1102, EG\_transcript\_4853, EG\_transcript\_3639,  
EG\_transcript\_52, EG\_transcript\_579, EG\_transcript\_331,  
EG\_transcript\_573, EG\_transcript\_15990, EG\_transcript\_3196,  
EG\_transcript\_6461, EG\_transcript\_49747, EG\_transcript\_23012,  
EG\_transcript\_2423, EG\_transcript\_10506

Carbon fixation pathways in prokaryotes	map00720	15	ec:6.4.1.2 - carboxylase, ec:6.3.4.3 - ligase, ec:1.5.1.20 - reductase [NAD(P)H], ec:1.3.5.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:4.1.1.31 - carboxylase, ec:4.2.1.3 - hydratase, ec:4.2.1.2 - hydratase, ec:3.5.4.9 - cyclohydrolase, ec:2.7.9.1 - phosphate dikinase, ec:6.2.1.1 - ligase, ec:1.1.1.37 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.1.1.42 - dehydrogenase (NADP+), ec:1.5.1.5 - dehydrogenase (NADP+), ec:5.4.99.2 - mutase	EG_transcript_65, EG_transcript_97, EG_transcript_6633, EG_transcript_17312, EG_transcript_15809, EG_transcript_12465, EG_transcript_6467, EG_transcript_1597, EG_transcript_2009, EG_transcript_4764, EG_transcript_17805, EG_transcript_1653, EG_transcript_4603, EG_transcript_3254, EG_transcript_9669, EG_transcript_12212, EG_transcript_15919, EG_transcript_24127, EG_transcript_7580, EG_transcript_29059, EG_transcript_26319, EG_transcript_862, EG_transcript_21457, EG_transcript_3075, EG_transcript_9064, EG_transcript_10115, EG_transcript_4351, EG_transcript_6875, EG_transcript_17805, EG_transcript_17733, EG_transcript_4204
Geraniol degradation	map00281	1	ec:1.1.1.35 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_7580, EG_transcript_29059, EG_transcript_26319, EG_transcript_862, EG_transcript_21457, EG_transcript_3075
Biosynthesis of ansamycins	map01051	1	ec:2.2.1.1 - glycolaldehydetransferase	EG_transcript_2997, EG_transcript_4605
Carbon fixation in photosynthetic organisms	map00710	14	ec:5.3.1.1 - isomerase, ec:4.1.2.13 - aldolase, ec:5.3.1.6 - isomerase, ec:4.1.1.39 - carboxylase, ec:4.1.1.31 - carboxylase, ec:2.2.1.1 - glycolaldehydetransferase, ec:2.7.2.3 - kinase, ec:2.7.9.1 - phosphate dikinase, ec:1.2.1.59 - dehydrogenase (NAD(P)+) (phosphorylating), ec:2.7.1.19 - phosphopentokinase, ec:1.1.1.37 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.1.1.39 - dehydrogenase (decarboxylating), ec:3.1.3.11 - hexose diphosphatase, ec:1.2.1.12 - dehydrogenase (phosphorylating)	EG_transcript_14120, EG_transcript_30563, EG_transcript_18179, EG_transcript_30456, EG_transcript_44253, EG_transcript_7827, EG_transcript_21524, EG_transcript_43521, EG_transcript_16008, EG_transcript_25832, EG_transcript_5279, EG_transcript_15855, EG_transcript_15619, EG_transcript_20009, EG_transcript_7123, EG_transcript_10675, EG_transcript_1597, EG_transcript_2997, EG_transcript_4605, EG_transcript_12119, EG_transcript_10778, EG_transcript_12260, EG_transcript_1653, EG_transcript_16406, EG_transcript_9015, EG_transcript_12212, EG_transcript_15919, EG_transcript_24127, EG_transcript_27221, EG_transcript_5257, EG_transcript_8836, EG_transcript_16327, EG_transcript_14050, EG_transcript_4839, EG_transcript_7394, EG_transcript_2646, EG_transcript_8727, EG_transcript_7683, EG_transcript_4570, EG_transcript_15632, EG_transcript_18342, EG_transcript_13690, EG_transcript_16406
Ascorbate and aldarate metabolism	map00053	5	ec:2.7.7.64 - uridyltransferase, ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+), ec:1.11.1.11 - peroxidase, ec:1.3.2.3 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.1.1.22 - 6-dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_6731, EG_transcript_12921, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_22491, EG_transcript_5780, EG_transcript_10254, EG_transcript_14324
Streptomycin biosynthesis	map00521	4	ec:4.2.1.46 - 4,6-dehydratase, ec:2.7.1.2 - glucokinase (phosphorylating), ec:2.7.1.1 - hexokinase type IV glucokinase, ec:5.5.1.4 - synthase	EG_transcript_21799, EG_transcript_8623, EG_transcript_8623, EG_transcript_6431
Carbapenem	map00332	2	ec:2.7.2.11 - 5-kinase, ec:1.2.1.41 - dehydrogenase	EG_transcript_12607, EG_transcript_6612

biosynthesis				
Pentose phosphate pathway	map00030	13	ec:2.7.1.90 - 1-phosphotransferase, ec:4.1.2.13 - aldolase, ec:5.3.1.6 - isomerase, ec:5.3.1.9 - isomerase, ec:2.2.1.2 - dihydroxyacetone transferase, ec:2.2.1.1 - glycolaldehyde transferase, ec:2.7.1.11 - phosphohexokinase, ec:3.1.3.11 - hexose diphosphatase, ec:4.1.2.4 - aldolase, ec:1.1.1.44 - dehydrogenase (NADP+-dependent, decarboxylating), ec:1.1.1.49 - dehydrogenase (NADP+), ec:2.7.6.1 - diphosphokinase, ec:3.1.1.31 - phosphogluconolactonase	EG_transcript_1151, EG_transcript_7827, EG_transcript_21524, EG_transcript_43521, EG_transcript_16008, EG_transcript_25832, EG_transcript_5279, EG_transcript_15855, EG_transcript_15619, EG_transcript_20009, EG_transcript_5108, EG_transcript_13075, EG_transcript_2997, EG_transcript_4605, EG_transcript_1151, EG_transcript_7325, EG_transcript_6970, EG_transcript_6957, EG_transcript_7394, EG_transcript_2646, EG_transcript_8727, EG_transcript_7683, EG_transcript_4570, EG_transcript_15632, EG_transcript_18342, EG_transcript_13690, EG_transcript_20144, EG_transcript_13898, EG_transcript_7631, EG_transcript_16470, EG_transcript_15075, EG_transcript_2747, EG_transcript_5995, EG_transcript_9049, EG_transcript_7528, EG_transcript_14984, EG_transcript_13095, EG_transcript_2747, EG_transcript_19914
Other glycan degradation	map00511	1	ec:3.2.1.25 - mannanase	EG_transcript_4493
Insect hormone biosynthesis	map00981	1	ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+)	EG_transcript_15045
Limonene and pinene degradation	map00903	1	ec:1.2.1.3 - dehydrogenase (NAD+)	EG_transcript_15045
Citrate cycle (TCA cycle)	map00020	10	ec:1.8.1.4 - dehydrogenase, ec:1.3.5.1 - dehydrogenase, ec:4.1.1.32 - carboxykinase (GTP), ec:4.2.1.3 - hydratase, ec:4.2.1.2 - hydratase, ec:1.1.1.37 - dehydrogenase, ec:2.3.1.12 - acetyltransferase, ec:1.1.1.42 - dehydrogenase (NADP+), ec:2.3.3.1 - (Si)-synthase, ec:1.2.4.1 - dehydrogenase (acetyl-transferring)	EG_transcript_8679, EG_transcript_6467, EG_transcript_61784, EG_transcript_2009, EG_transcript_4764, EG_transcript_12212, EG_transcript_15919, EG_transcript_24127, EG_transcript_5584, EG_transcript_9064, EG_transcript_10115, EG_transcript_4351, EG_transcript_6875, EG_transcript_2898, EG_transcript_6849, EG_transcript_10302, EG_transcript_11595, EG_transcript_14931, EG_transcript_9827
Propanoate metabolism	map00640	7	ec:1.8.1.4 - dehydrogenase, ec:6.4.1.2 - carboxylase, ec:1.2.1.27 - dehydrogenase (CoA-acylating), ec:4.1.1.9 - decarboxylase, ec:6.2.1.1 - ligase, ec:1.2.1.18 - dehydrogenase (acetylating), ec:5.4.99.2 - mutase	EG_transcript_8679, EG_transcript_65, EG_transcript_97, EG_transcript_6633, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_29172, EG_transcript_9247, EG_transcript_4603, EG_transcript_3254, EG_transcript_9669, EG_transcript_15045, EG_transcript_4204
Acarbose and validamycin biosynthesis	map00525	1	ec:4.2.1.46 - 4,6-dehydratase	EG_transcript_21799

**Note:** The table describes the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) and Enzyme Code (EC) for all significant proteomic sequences.

#### 6.2.4 Evolutionary pressures and selections - dN/dS ratios

Evolutionary selections or selective pressure analysis (dN/dS ratios) were performed for genes with known pathways/functions (Figure 6.6, 6.7, and Table 6.3, 6.4, 6.5). Transcripts (627) which correspond to these genes in the light and dark experiment were investigated for synonymous and non synonymous substitutions (dN/dS). Overall, 17 codons were recorded with 196,251 comparisons (Figure 6.8, Table 6.6, 6.7, 6.8). Indels were not recorded except on the 17th codon, while the number of stop codons per sequence is 0 (Figure 6.8, Table 6.6). The average dN/dS ratios recorded across all pairwise comparisons and first sequence compared to others are 0.87 and 0.99 respectively (dN/dS < 1). The cumulative behavior increased linearly for both the synonymous and non synonymous substitutions until the 17th codon where indel is present.



**Figure 6.8: Protein coding genes in *E. gracilis* are not under selective pressure.** The XY plot shows the cumulative dS/dN average for 196,251 comparisons in functional (biological pathway-directed) transcripts (627 sequences) predicted from the light and dark experiment. **X-axis** = codon number. **Y-axis 1** = cumulative behavior, codon by codon. **Y-axis 2** = number of stop codons per sequence. **Legends:** Green = synonymous substitution. Red = non synonymous substitution. Blue = indels. Grey = stop codons. dN = nonsynonymous. dS = synonymous. dS/dN = ratio of nonsynonymous to synonymous substitutions.



**Table 6.6:** Counts of codons, indel, synonymous, and non synonymous substitutions.

Codon	Cumulative			Per Codon			stopc	aa
	indel	syn	nonsyn	indel	syn	nonsyn		
1	0	0.17	1.03	0	0.17	1.03	0	M
2	0	0.73	2.61	0	0.56	1.59	0	E
3	0	1.21	4.3	0	0.48	1.68	0	D
4	0	1.71	5.97	0	0.5	1.67	0	E
5	0	2.2	7.65	0	0.49	1.69	0	K
6	0	2.72	9.31	0	0.52	1.66	0	G
7	0	3.24	10.97	0	0.52	1.65	0	Q
8	0	3.73	12.65	0	0.49	1.68	0	D
9	0	4.24	14.32	0	0.51	1.67	0	Q
10	0	4.74	15.98	0	0.5	1.66	0	K
11	0	5.27	17.63	0	0.53	1.65	0	L
12	0	5.77	19.3	0	0.5	1.67	0	L
13	0	6.27	20.96	0	0.5	1.66	0	A
14	0	6.77	22.61	0	0.5	1.65	0	V
15	0	7.28	24.29	0	0.51	1.68	0	V
16	0	7.77	25.95	0	0.5	1.66	0	H
17	1	7.77	25.95	1	0	0	0	-

**Note:** For full description of codon, indel, syn, nonsyn, stopc, and aa, see Korber, 2000.

**Table 6.7:** Averages of all pairwise and first sequence comparisons

	ds	dn	ds/dn	ps/pn
Averages of all pairwise comparisons:	1.4674	1.9538	0.8708	0.8816
Averages of the first sequence compared to others:	1.6082	1.8416	0.9879	0.9506

**Note:** For full description of ds, dn, ds/dn, and ps/pn, see Korber, 2000.

**Table 6.8:** Top 100 comparisons from the 196,251 cumulative comparisons

Compare		Sequences_names	Sd	Sn	S	N	ps	pn	ds	dn	ds/dn	ps/pn	
0	1	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_9	6.3333	26.6667	11.1667	36.8333	0.5672	0.724	1.0586	2.521	0.4199	0.7834
0	2	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_14	9.5	28.5	12.3333	35.6667	0.7703	0.7991	nan	nan	nan	0.964
0	3	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_28	12.167	28.8333	10.3333	37.6667	1.1774	0.7655	nan	nan	nan	1.5381
0	4	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_29	9.1667	18.8333	11.3333	36.6667	0.8088	0.5136	nan	0.866	nan	1.5747
0	5	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_34	6.5	24.5	10.3333	37.6667	0.629	0.6504	1.3684	1.5145	0.9035	0.9671
0	6	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_46	10.333	25.6667	11.1667	36.8333	0.9254	0.6968	nan	1.985	nan	1.328
0	7	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_52	6.1667	24.8333	9.5	38.5	0.6491	0.645	1.5046	1.4747	1.0203	1.0064
0	8	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_65	10.667	23.3333	13	35	0.8205	0.6667	nan	1.6479	nan	1.2308
0	9	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_74	6.5	26.5	10.6667	37.3333	0.6094	0.7098	1.2555	2.1951	0.572	0.8585
0	10	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_91	4.1667	21.8333	12	36	0.3472	0.6065	0.4663	1.2402	0.376	0.5725
0	11	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_92	6.6667	26.3333	10.6667	37.3333	0.625	0.7054	1.3438	2.116	0.6351	0.8861
0	12	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_97	8.6667	25.3333	11.8333	36.1667	0.7324	0.7005	2.8139	2.038	1.3807	1.0456
0	13	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_107	6.8333	26.1667	11.1667	36.8333	0.6119	0.7104	1.2693	2.2061	0.5754	0.8614
0	14	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_121	6.5	20.5	12.8333	35.1667	0.5065	0.5829	0.8437	1.1263	0.7491	0.8689
0	15	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_129	8.3333	26.6667	11.3333	36.6667	0.7353	0.7273	2.9489	2.6224	1.1245	1.011
0	16	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_150	6.5	23.5	10.6667	37.3333	0.6094	0.6295	1.2555	1.3711	0.9157	0.9681
0	17	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_155	6.8333	26.1667	12.5	35.5	0.5467	0.7371	0.9789	3.0465	0.3213	0.7417
0	18	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_159	7.3333	25.6667	12.6667	35.3333	0.5789	0.7264	1.1086	2.5946	0.4273	0.797
0	19	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_191	5.3333	27.6667	11.5	36.5	0.4638	0.758	0.7225	nan	nan	0.6118
0	20	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_202	9.3333	24.6667	12.1667	35.8333	0.7671	0.6884	nan	1.8742	nan	1.1144
0	21	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_224	6.3333	27.6667	10.1667	37.8333	0.623	0.7313	1.3316	2.7678	0.4811	0.8519
0	22	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_251	6.6667	24.3333	13.1667	34.8333	0.5063	0.6986	0.8432	2.0098	0.4195	0.7248
0	23	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_253	7	30	9	39	0.7778	0.7692	nan	nan	nan	1.0111
0	24	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_254	9	18	11.5	36.5	0.7826	0.4932	nan	0.8037	nan	1.587
0	25	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_255	6.5	26.5	9.5	38.5	0.6842	0.6883	1.8252	1.8735	0.9742	0.994
0	26	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_260	8.8333	24.1667	12.3333	35.6667	0.7162	0.6776	2.3251	1.7531	1.3263	1.057
0	27	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_297	9.8333	20.1667	12	36	0.8194	0.5602	nan	1.0305	nan	1.4628
0	28	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_321	8	25	10.5	37.5	0.7619	0.6667	nan	1.6479	nan	1.1429

0	29	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_331	8.5	22.5	11.6667	36.3333	0.7286	0.6193	2.6665	1.3102	2.0352	1.1765
0	30	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_353	7.5	29.5	12	36	0.625	0.8194	1.3438	nan	nan	0.7627
0	31	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_356	9	23	11	37	0.8182	0.6216	nan	1.3238	nan	1.3162
0	32	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_367	5.5	27.5	10	38	0.55	0.7237	0.9913	2.5124	0.3946	0.76
0	33	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_464	8.5	30.5	9.1667	38.8333	0.9273	0.7854	nan	nan	nan	1.1806
0	34	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_478	8	30	11.6667	36.3333	0.6857	0.8257	1.8426	nan	nan	0.8305
0	35	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_505	7	30	11.5	36.5	0.6087	0.8219	1.2519	nan	nan	0.7406
0	36	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_515	9.1667	24.8333	12.5	35.5	0.7333	0.6995	2.855	2.024	1.4106	1.0483
0	37	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_516	8.8333	24.1667	11.5	36.5	0.7681	0.6621	nan	1.6079	nan	1.1601
0	38	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_526	8.8333	23.1667	11.3333	36.6667	0.7794	0.6318	nan	1.3859	nan	1.2336
0	39	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_567	9	27	13	35	0.6923	0.7714	1.9237	nan	nan	0.8974
0	40	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_573	7.1667	30.8333	10.8333	37.1667	0.6615	0.8296	1.6031	nan	nan	0.7974
0	41	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_579	9.3333	20.6667	11.3333	36.6667	0.8235	0.5636	nan	1.0443	nan	1.4611
0	42	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_583	7.1667	27.8333	12.8333	35.1667	0.5584	0.7915	1.0237	nan	nan	0.7056
0	43	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_664	8.5	29.5	11	37	0.7727	0.7973	nan	nan	nan	0.9692
0	44	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_680	8.3333	20.6667	13.1667	34.8333	0.6329	0.5933	1.3929	1.1743	1.1861	1.0668
0	45	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_729	7.3333	22.6667	11	37	0.6667	0.6126	1.6479	1.273	1.2946	1.0882
0	46	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_744	9.1667	25.8333	12.6667	35.3333	0.7237	0.7311	2.5124	2.762	0.9097	0.9898
0	47	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_790	9.6667	23.3333	11.5	36.5	0.8406	0.6393	nan	1.4347	nan	1.3149
0	48	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_791	8.8333	27.1667	11.3333	36.6667	0.7794	0.7409	nan	3.3096	nan	1.052
0	49	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_795	8.8333	27.1667	10.8333	37.1667	0.8154	0.7309	nan	2.7544	nan	1.1155
0	50	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_854	7.6667	26.3333	10.6667	37.3333	0.7188	0.7054	2.3835	2.116	1.1264	1.019
0	51	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_862	10	29	10.8333	37.1667	0.9231	0.7803	nan	nan	nan	1.183
0	52	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_901	10.167	27.8333	11	37	0.9242	0.7523	nan	nan	nan	1.2286
0	53	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_910	11	26	12.1667	35.8333	0.9041	0.7256	nan	2.5685	nan	1.246
0	54	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_929	8.5	23.5	11	37	0.7727	0.6351	nan	1.4072	nan	1.2166
0	55	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_944	7.3333	24.6667	11.1667	36.8333	0.6567	0.6697	1.5633	1.6756	0.933	0.9806
0	56	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_950	6.1667	31.8333	10.3333	37.6667	0.5968	0.8451	1.1911	nan	nan	0.7061
0	57	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1016	9.8333	27.1667	11.3333	36.6667	0.8676	0.7409	nan	3.3096	nan	1.1711
0	58	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1056	7.1667	29.8333	11	37	0.6515	0.8063	1.5226	nan	nan	0.808
0	59	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1073	6	25	11.5	36.5	0.5217	0.6849	0.8922	1.8335	0.4866	0.7617

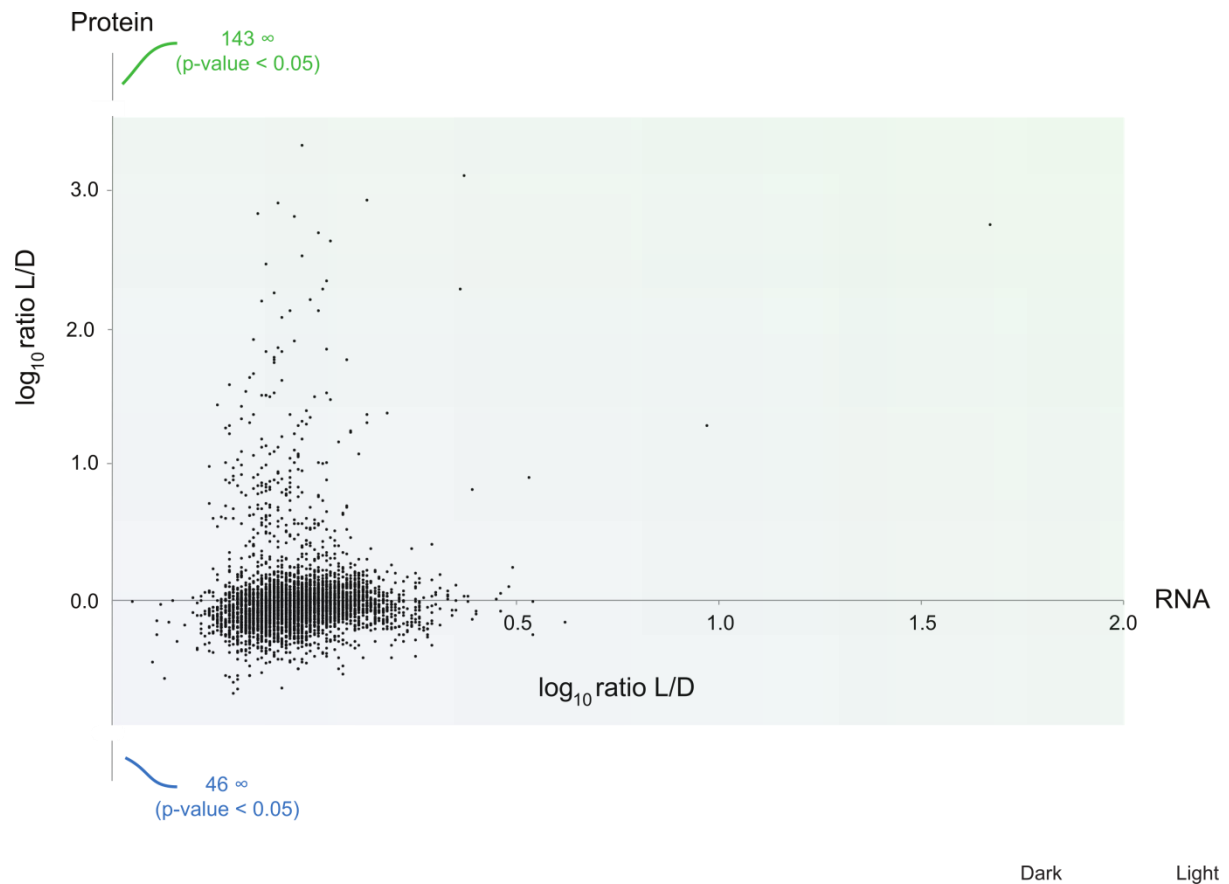
0	60	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1079	8.1667	24.8333	11.6667	36.3333	0.7	0.6835	2.031	1.817	1.1178	1.0242
0	61	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1100	9	22	11.5	36.5	0.7826	0.6027	nan	1.2209	nan	1.2984
0	62	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1102	5.5	27.5	10.5	37.5	0.5238	0.7333	0.899	2.855	0.3149	0.7143
0	63	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1121	6.5	30.5	9.6667	38.3333	0.6724	0.7957	1.7015	nan	nan	0.8451
0	64	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1120	4.1667	25.8333	12.3333	35.6667	0.3378	0.7243	0.449	2.5302	0.1775	0.4664
0	65	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1126	8.5	26.5	10.8333	37.1667	0.7846	0.713	nan	2.257	nan	1.1004
0	66	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1139	6.8333	26.1667	10.1667	37.8333	0.6721	0.6916	1.6988	1.915	0.8871	0.9718
0	67	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1144	7.3333	25.6667	11.3333	36.6667	0.6471	0.7	1.4894	2.031	0.7333	0.9244
0	68	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1145	10	25	12	36	0.8333	0.6944	nan	1.952	nan	1.2
0	69	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1151	9.5	26.5	12.1667	35.8333	0.7808	0.7395	nan	3.204	nan	1.0558
0	70	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1177	9.6667	26.3333	12.1667	35.8333	0.7945	0.7349	nan	2.9282	nan	1.0812
0	71	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1208	9.1667	21.8333	10.8333	37.1667	0.8462	0.5874	nan	1.1468	nan	1.4404
0	72	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1221	9.8333	27.1667	11.6667	36.3333	0.8429	0.7477	nan	4.3425	nan	1.1273
0	73	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1236	7	21	11.1667	36.8333	0.6269	0.5701	1.3551	1.0709	1.2654	1.0995
0	74	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1241	5	26	10.1667	37.8333	0.4918	0.6872	0.7998	1.8604	0.4299	0.7156
0	75	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1245	4.6667	28.3333	10.1667	37.8333	0.459	0.7489	0.7101	4.8927	0.1451	0.6129
0	76	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1330	8.5	27.5	11.1667	36.8333	0.7612	0.7466	nan	4.0486	nan	1.0195
0	77	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1350	6.1667	26.8333	11.8333	36.1667	0.5211	0.7419	0.8902	3.3994	0.2619	0.7024
0	78	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1352	10.833	21.1667	13.1667	34.8333	0.8228	0.6077	nan	1.2464	nan	1.354
0	79	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1356	8.1667	27.8333	11.3333	36.6667	0.7206	0.7591	2.429	nan	nan	0.9493
0	80	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1372	10.333	24.6667	13.1667	34.8333	0.7848	0.7081	nan	2.1642	nan	1.1083
0	81	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1453	8	18	12	36	0.6667	0.5	1.6479	0.824	2	1.3333
0	82	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1470	8.3333	24.6667	11.5	36.5	0.7246	0.6758	2.5401	1.735	1.4641	1.0723
0	83	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1490	7.1667	23.8333	12.1667	35.8333	0.589	0.6651	1.1542	1.6341	0.7063	0.8856
0	84	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1495	10	29	10.5	37.5	0.9524	0.7733	nan	nan	nan	1.2315
0	85	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1523	7.6667	22.3333	11.8333	36.1667	0.6479	0.6175	1.4955	1.3002	1.1502	1.0492
0	86	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1535	8.3333	25.6667	11.5	36.5	0.7246	0.7032	2.5401	2.0806	1.2209	1.0305
0	87	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1536	6.5	23.5	10.8333	37.1667	0.6	0.6323	1.2071	1.3889	0.8691	0.9489
0	88	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1548	11.5	23.5	13.1667	34.8333	0.8734	0.6746	nan	1.7234	nan	1.2946
0	89	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1590	6.8333	30.1667	11	37	0.6212	0.8153	1.3214	nan	nan	0.7619
0	90	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1597	7.6667	26.3333	11.6667	36.3333	0.6571	0.7248	1.5668	2.544	0.6159	0.9067

0	91	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1613	8.6667	20.3333	11.1667	36.8333	0.7761	0.552	nan	0.999	nan	1.4059
0	92	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1615	9.6667	25.3333	13	35	0.7436	0.7238	3.5716	2.516	1.4196	1.0273
0	93	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1653	9.3333	24.6667	12	36	0.7778	0.6852	nan	1.8364	nan	1.1351
0	94	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1656	9.8333	25.1667	12.5	35.5	0.7867	0.7089	nan	2.1784	nan	1.1097
0	95	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1663	9	26	11.8333	36.1667	0.7606	0.7189	nan	2.387	nan	1.058
0	96	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1784	7.5	26.5	11.3333	36.6667	0.6618	0.7227	1.605	2.4856	0.6457	0.9156
0	97	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1831	7.8333	26.1667	11.8333	36.1667	0.662	0.7235	1.6068	2.5073	0.6409	0.915
0	98	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1851	7.6667	20.3333	11.3333	36.6667	0.6765	0.5545	1.7418	1.0086	1.727	1.2199
0	99	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1877	10.5	20.5	11.5	36.5	0.913	0.5616	nan	1.0363	nan	1.6257
0	100	EG_transcript_5	EG_transcript_1888	9.8333	23.1667	10.6667	37.3333	0.9219	0.6205	nan	1.3175	nan	1.4856

**Note:** The table shows the top 100 comparisons from the 1962511 cumulative comparisons. For additional comparisons, see Appendix III, Table 2. For full description of Sd, Sn, S, N, ps, pn, ds, dn, ds/dn, and ps/pn, see Korber, 2000.

### 6.3 COMPARISON OF TRANSCRIPTOMIC AND PROTEOMIC DATA

Comparison of light and dark transcriptomic and proteomic experiments demonstrates a re-arrangement in the structural and functional organization of the photosynthetic and heterotrophic apparatus in *E. gracilis* (Figure 6.6, 6.7, 6.9). Comparing the 41045 transcript hits with the 4681 protein groups' quantified shows an overlap of 4287 (Figure 6.6, 6.9). Correlation analysis between the transcript and protein abundance shows an extremely poor correlation (Figure 6.9). The majority of the 380 infinite protein changes are not present in the transcriptome light and dark analysis. BLAST interrogation against the *E. gracilis* organellar genome (Hallick, *et al.*, 2013, Dobakova, *et al.*, 2015) showed that a considerable number of the hits with differential abundance and correlation are in the light regime and encoded in the chloroplast genome. These include photosystem I proteins such as P700 chlorophyll apoprotein A1, and the translation elongation factor EF-Tu which are significant. The reason why many of these correlated transcripts/protein groups are restricted to the light regime may be understandable. This is because during photosynthesis (light regime), a considerable amount of the photosynthetic apparatus is switched on. This is in contrast to the heterotrophic apparatus (such as mitochondria) that is switched on during heterotrophism (dark regime). It has been reported that the nuclear translation elongation factors are not influenced by switching cell growth conditions from dark to light (Montandon, *et al.*, 1989), which is consistent with our data that shows no differential expression of the nuclear EF-1 $\alpha$  while both the chloroplastic EF-Tu protein and corresponding transcript [EG\_transcript\_1495] are highly upregulated in the light.



**Figure 6.9: Altered transcriptomic and proteomic analysis are not correlated.**

The volcano plot shows a comparative analysis of transcriptome and proteome changes. Comparative volcano plot proteome and transcript distribution of light/dark adapted cells. Y-axis = log<sub>10</sub> ration light/dark (protein) while X-axis = log<sub>10</sub> ratio light/dark (RNA). The plot does not show correlation of the transcriptomic and proteomic experiment except for 4 transcripts/proteins. P-value is less than 0.05 for both protein and transcriptome with 143 ∞ and 46 ∞ values respectively. Thanks to Martin Zoltner for his kind help in generating this figure using Microsoft Excel and for Mark Field's help in reviewing it.

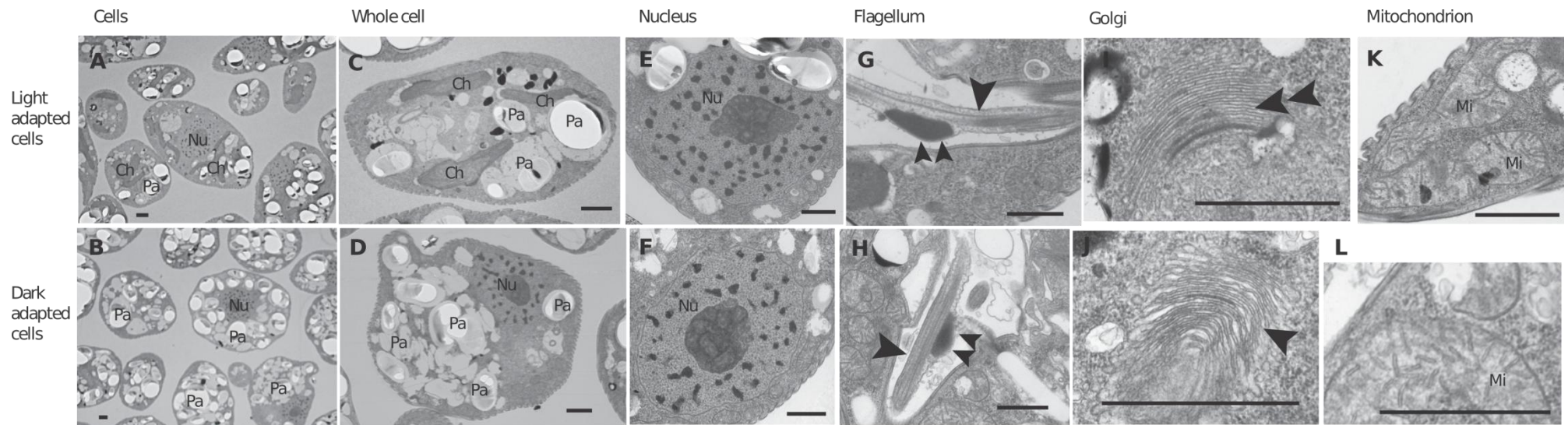
*E. gracilis* requires a light/dark regime for a productive photosynthesis. Light regime is needed for the photochemical production of adenosine triphosphate (ATP) which is an energy carrier within the cell and nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) which is a membrane-bound enzyme complex, while the dark regime is required for biochemical phase synthesis of essential molecules for growth (Al-Qasmi, *et al.*, 2012). It has been shown that increased levels of light intensity and light duration was associated with increased saturated fatty acids (SFA), decreased monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA) and polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) which are of utility in metabolic engineering (biotechnology). For instance, the efficiency of biomass production in *E. gracilis* can be improved by genetically modulating photosynthetic capacity (under photoautotrophic cultivation), resulting in the enhanced production of wax esters (Ogawa, *et al.*, 2015).

One unique finding in this experiment is that cell growth is not completely dependent on plastid metabolism. While there were marked cell growth differences between light and dark culture cells, growths were not completely reduced or inhibited in the dark regime. However, in some members of the euglenids, plastid metabolism is crucial for cell growth. For instance, in a study to evaluate the role of bleaching in *E. longa* evolution, it was demonstrated that bleaching *E. gracilis* using streptomycin and ofloxacin produces plastid gene deletions without affecting cell growth, while Streptomycin and ofloxacin inhibited *E. longa* growth indicating that it requires plastid genes to survive (Hadariová, *et al.*, 2016). This suggested that evolutionary divergence of *E. longa* from *E. gracilis* was triggered by the loss of a cytoplasmic metabolic activity also occurring in the plastid (Hadariová, *et al.*, 2016).



#### 6.4 ELECTRON MICROSCOPY OF *E. gracilis* CELLS UNDER LIGHT AND DARK CONDITIONS

The result presented here shows the electron microscopy fine structure of *E. gracilis* samples adapted to light and dark environmental conditions - thanks to Dr. Sue Vaughan and Anna Burrell at the Oxford Brooks University, UK, for the Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) analysis. There were significant physiological and morphological ultrastructural differences between the light and dark adapted cells. Cells grown in the dark showed an increased paramylon (Pa) content in terms of numbers and size than those cultivated in the light – with cells in both conditions containing mitochondria (Mi) having narrow cristae (Figure 6.10). There were several amounts of variably shaped chloroplasts present in the light adapted samples with the elongated lamellar evident, while the presence of proplastids and the absence of thylakoids could be observed in the dark adapted samples. Overall, the chloroplast in the light adapted samples were larger than the proplastids in the dark adapted samples, and in most cases the later were invisible (data not shown). There were not significant differences in the nuclei, flagella, and Golgi apparatus of both dark and light adapted samples respectively. There is the presence of nucleoli surrounded by the nucleoplasm as well as the presence of paraflagellar body and numerous narrow cristae in the flagellar and Golgi apparatus respectively (Figure 6.10).



**Figure 6.10: Chloroplast and mitochondria are morphologically influenced by light or dark.** The diagram depicts the ultrastructure of dark and light adapted *E. gracilis*. Transmission electron micrographs comparing the ultrastructure of cells taken from dark adapted *E. gracilis* culture with that of cells taken from light adapted *E. gracilis* culture. Both light and dark adapted cells contained numerous paramylon granules (Pa) (A,B) but these were most extensive in the dark-adapted cells (B). Light adapted cells contained multiple mature chloroplasts (Ch) (C) which were absent from the dark-adapted cells (D). Both light and dark adapted cells contained nuclei with prominent nucleoli and many smaller electron dense foci in the surrounding nucleoplasm (Nu) (E,F). Both light and dark adapted cells contained flagella (arrow) with associated paraflagellar body (double arrow) (G,H). Both light and dark adapted cells contained Golgi apparatus with numerous narrow cisterna (arrow) (I,J). Both light and dark adapted cells contained mitochondria with narrow cristae (Mi) (K,L). Scale bars in all panels ~1 $\mu$ m

## 6.5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The *E. gracilis* cells showed pronounced growth rate in light adapted cultures than in dark adapted cultures (Figure 6.1). Microscopic, spectrophotometric, and electrophoresis evidence confirmed the transition states from light to dark conditions and vice versa (Figure 6.2). This is consistent with published literatures where *E. gracilis* tend to loose its chloroplast and chlorophyll under dark conditions (Gibbs, 1960; Wolken, 1956; Seigesmund, 1962; Pellegrini, 1980; Rocchetta, *et al.*, 2007; Kivic and Vesk, 1972; Ben-Shaul, *et al.*, 1963; Lyman, *et al.*, 1961; Mollenhauer, *et al.*, 1967). A complete recovery of chloroplast structure occurred with the reassociated thylakoids and clear partitions (data not shown). The different growth conditions (light and dark) did not, in anyway, affect the inherent sequencing statistics or characteristics of the *E. gracilis* samples (Table 6.2). For instance, the number of reads, total clean bases, Q20 %, and GC % were not markedly different in the light and dark replicate samples respectively. It may well be possible that the GC content of *E. gracilis* may be gene expression independent, or perhaps, that *E. gracilis* maintains a GC % between 50 % and 60 % irrespective of environmental influence. It is quite unclear if this plays any physiological or functional role. Quality analysis of the correlation of the light and dark replicates showed consistency within the replicates of the light and dark samples with a minimum and maximum correlation coefficient of 0.93 and 0.94 respectively (Figure 6.2).

There were significant changes in the protein and RNA levels with respect to light or dark conditions. Proteins and RNA levels of light adapted samples were much higher and significantly expressed when compared to dark adapted cultures (Figure 6.3, 6.4). This is presumable due to the increased utility of the photosynthetic apparatus in the light adapted cultures. In a related study, similar results, though less pronounced, were found in the DNA analyses - total cell DNA, estimated by two different techniques, was about 3.5 pg per cell when *Euglena* was grown in the dark; but 4.4 pg per cell (range 4.0-4.8) when grown in the light (Cook, 1972).

The proteomics analysis showed wider expression of peptides (Figure 6.4) in the light adapted samples when compared with the transcriptomics, with even transcript expression in the light and dark samples (Figure 6.3), suggesting evidence of posttranscriptional events (Vesteg, *et al.*, 2009). This posttranscriptional event is

further supported by the presence of expressed peptides in the proteomic analysis which is absent in the transcriptomic analysis (Vesteg, *et al.*, 2009). The infinite changes (232 light vs 152 dark) in the proteomic analysis (Figure 6.5) illustrate the exclusive expression of these peptides in their respective states or conditions, corresponding to peptides which are exclusive to chloroplast and mitochondria machineries (Urbaniak, *et al.*, 2012). Analysis of the dN/dS ratios of transcripts suggest a synonymous substitution for protein coding genes in *E. gracilis* with a purifying selection. The dN/dS values (0.87 and 0.99 respectively) (Figure 6.8) recorded implies that this degree of selections are close to neutrality or no selection occurred ( $dN/dS = 1$ ) suggesting that the coding sequences may have evolved naturally (Kryazhimskiy and Plotkin, 2008; Jeffares, *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, comparison of the proteomic and transcriptomic analysis (Figure 6.5) showed poor correlation with only about 4 peptides/transcripts showing strong correlation, corresponding to transcripts associated with the photosynthetic machinery. It has also been proven that dark adapted cells have limited, or entirely lacking, ribosomes (Russell and Draffan, 1978). This is consistent with our data where there are limited chloroplast associated ribosomes (e.g. 70S ribosome; Appendix III) in the dark samples which are essential for the manufacture of proteins within the plastid.

In most model eukaryotes including land plants, many signaling pathways are ultimately directed toward modulating gene expression by influencing transcription factor recruitment to promoter elements (Vesteg, *et al.*, 2009). Most genes and even non-coding sequences are constitutively transcribed in trypanosomatids and their expression is regulated post-transcriptionally by modulating mRNA stabilization and translation (Furger, *et al.*, 1997; Hotz, *et al.*, 1997; Teixeira, 1998). In trypanosomatids, the predominantly polycistronic transcription with subsequent resolution of nascent RNAs through trans-splicing and polyadenylation (Benz, *et al.*, 2005; Campbell, *et al.*, 2003; Clayton, 2002) reduces the influence of promoters as the main players in controlling gene expression, with major potential impact on signaling systems (Field, 2005). In *E. gracilis*, evidences suggest that regulation of gene expression occurs at the post-transcriptional rather than at transcriptional level (Hoffmeister, *et al.*, 2004; Keller, *et al.*, 1991; Kishore and Schwartzbach, 1992; Madhusudhan, *et al.*, 2003; Levasseur, *et al.*, 1994; Saint-Guily, *et al.*, 1994; Vacula, *et al.*, 2001; Dos Santos, *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, this analysis further supports this

evidence, as well as suggests that light or dark environmental conditions have minimal influence on the transcript or peptide expression of nuclear genes as previously report by Vesteg, *et al.*, 2009. This also suggest that *E. gracilis* is more similar to the trypanosomatids in terms of gene expression mechanism. Also, the addition of SL-RNA leaders to cytosolic mRNAs via trans-splicing is one of the features common to Euglenozoa (Frantz, *et al.*, 2000), which suggests that all members of the Euglenozoa, including euglenids and kinetoplastids, would likely share similar mechanism of gene expression.

It is evident from the electron microscopy that significant differences were observed in physiological processes and morphological structures associated in the transition from phototrophic to heterotrophic lifestyle and vice versa. This includes the photosynthetic and heterotrophic apparatus such as the chloroplast and paramylon respectively. This is also consistent with observations in published literatures (Gibbs, 1960; Wolken, 1956; Seigesmund, 1962; Pellegrini, 1980; Rocchetta, *et. al*, 2007; Kivic and Vesk, 1972; Ben-Shaul, *et. al.*, 1963; Lyman, *et. al.*, 1961; Mollenhauer, *et. al.*, 1967). Other organelles such as the flagella and Golgi apparatus remain morphological unchanged in the light and dark samples.

Strong reliance on post-transcriptional processes in the regulation of gene expression has been long recognized as a feature of *Euglena* (Saint-Guily, *et al.*, 1994), but there also is mounting evidence that post-transcriptional, translational and degradation regulation are crucial determinants of cellular protein abundances (Vogel and Marcotte, 2012) in general. Recent studies comparing the mRNA levels with the levels of protein in yeast (Foss, *et al.*, 2007) and *Arabidopsis* (Fu, *et al.*, 2009) suggest modest concordance. The partial correlation also suggests that cytosolic and organellar gene expressions are differently organized.

#### 6.5.1 Significance of findings – adaptations, functions and applications

*E. gracilis* gene expression studies was produced under light and dark environmental conditions. The results in this chapter presents the biological findings associated with the transition from light to dark and vice versa. These include an increased growth rate in light versus dark regime, presence of chloroplast/chlorophyll in light versus presence of proplastids in the dark regime, greater number of transcripts than

protein-coding genes, uniform transcript differential expression between light and dark regime, widespread of peptides/proteins in light regime when compared to dark regime, unique protein changes or presence of unique peptides between light and dark regime respectively, presence of peptides which present in proteomics analysis and absent in transcriptome analysis, non correlation of the proteomics and transcriptomic experiments, and cellular morphological changes (e.g. organelles and surface). In this section, the significance of these findings will be discussed with reference to adaptations, functions (biology), and applications.

*Light is a catalyst for growth, chloroplast to proplastid transitions are oxygen dependent:* Light is essential for photosynthetic growth in *E. gracilis*, and the mechanism for this is linked to the rate of DNA synthesis. It has been proven that in either light or dark conditions, the initiation of DNA synthesis in *E. gracilis* for cell division cycle (mitosis) is light dependent, and once cells commence it in the light, they complete the cycle in the dark (Yee, and Bartholomew, 1988). Hence, an increased growth rate is correlated with increased DNA and RNA synthesis and expression (Figure 6.1, 6.2, 6.4, 6.5). *E. gracilis* is also a good model for studying the biochemical and molecular mechanisms in the transition from chloroplast to proplastids (which is oxygen dependent) and vice versa (Sumida, *et al.*, 2007).

*Transcriptomics and proteomics studies are not mutually exclusive.* In Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) studies, it is relevant to carry out proteomics analysis and transcriptomics analysis simultaneously. As evident from the analysis (Figure 6.4, 6.5, 6.9), there is a high transcript to protein-coding genes ratio (Figure 6.4, 6.5, and Appendix II & III), uniform expression in transcript distribution (Figure 6.4), wider distribution of peptide expressions (Figure 6.5), evidence of untranslated transcripts arising from some transcripts not having a corresponding proteomics candidate peptide, presence of some peptides in the proteomics experiment which are absent in the transcriptomics experiment (Figure 6.5). These suggests that not all transcripts were possess an ORF, and indicates, that protein manufacture in *E. gracilis* are posttranscriptionally directed.

*Energy conversion in E. gracilis is a function of two evolutionarily derived organelles:* In eukaryotes, a set of reactions occur in the cytosol, energy derived from the partial oxidation of energy-rich carbohydrate molecules is used to form ATP, the chemical

energy currency of cells (Alberts, *et al.*, 2002; Igamberdiev and Kleczkowski, 2015). Evolutionarily, an efficient method of energy generation involved membrane-bound organelles such as chloroplast and mitochondrial. The former is central to the conversion of light energy into chemical bond energy in photosynthesis, while the later is central to the aerobic respiration that requires the exchange of oxygen and carbon (IV) oxide (Alberts, *et al.*, 2002). In this studies, in the light regime, light is the primary source of energy, while in the dark regime glucose is the primary source of energy. Correlation were observed in 4 – 5 proteins corresponding to PSI, PSII, and LHC. This analysis further supports the evidences that in *E. gracilis*, as in other photosynthetic and heterotrophic systems, the chloroplast drives phototropism while the mitochondria drives heterotropism. This is also evident following the observation of unique protein changes or presence of unique peptides in light or dark regime (Figure 6.9) – these are peptides that are found exclusively either in light or dark regime.

*Cellular morphological changes are strongly influenced by light and dark conditions:* In the present studies, the major significant changes (increase in sizes and numbers) within the organelles are the paramylon and the chloroplasts which correspond to adaptations to dark and light conditions respectively. For instance, in the absence of light, and the presence of glucose as the carbon source, *E. gracilis* fixes CO<sub>2</sub> to produce the polysaccharide paramylon, a  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan (Calvayract, *et al.*, 1981), with yet an unknown mechanism of formation (Tanaka, *et al.*, 2017). Paramylon stored under aerobic conditions is degraded during anaerobic cultivation to produce a wax ester consisting of saturated fatty acids and alcohol chains (Inui, *et al.*, 1984). The results presented in this section further supports that paramylon synthesis is influenced by dark conditions as well as advance this understanding (by the utility of NGS approaches) and their applications in biotechnology (biofuels). It also suggests that in looking for clues on the influence of light and dark conditions in *E. gracilis*, other organelles (aside paramylon and chloroplast) will not provide suitable and sufficient information.

## 7.0 CONCLUSION

In this study, the specific aspects of the biology of *E. gracilis* have been investigated in the *E. gracilis* genome and transcriptome, with significant resolution into (amongst others): Protein trafficking, surfaceome, nuclear cohorts, and transporters (see Chapter 3 – 6 for full list). Their distribution was studied using computational as well as manual curation, which not only offers the catalogue of these specific biological aspects in the draft transcriptome, but also provide interesting insights into the evolution and functions of their protein families in eukaryotes (O'Neill, *et al.*, 2015). In some instances where phylogenetic trees are utilized, and in most instances, the protein phylogenetic analyses show moderate statistical support, suggesting that additional data may be required to address these gaps, or perhaps, that these proteins have diverged in *E. gracilis*. The presence of the core aspects of the biology of living organisms show that the transcriptome is a good dataset for further interrogation of protein families and genes in eukaryotes while the genome does not support extensive annotation analysis. The presence of novel splicing mechanisms, unusual surface and complex trafficking system, hybrid genome, and the possession of conventional and kinetoplastid chromosome segregation machineries, and posttranscriptional events, characterizes the complex biology of this unique organism (Figure 7.1). Still yet, there are some aspects of the *E. gracilis* biology that still remain unanswered until a complete genome sequence is available, and these include: the full gene compliment, the evolutionary origins of these genes as well as the complete splicing mechanism.

## 7.1 CONTRIBUTION OF FINDINGS TO SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE

The findings in this work has provided specific contributions to scientific knowledge. While the findings (e.g. information processing, plastid, mitochondria) from majority of the biological aspects investigated are consistent or conventional with other eukaryotic genomes, there is however specific findings with significance to scientific knowledge as described below.

*Large genome size:* Most prokaryotes and eukaryotes possess genome sizes that are smaller than the human genome. However, there are a handful of eukaryotic genomes that are larger than the human genome (3 Gbp), and include amongst



others, *Picea abies* (Norway spruce;  $19.6 \times 10^9$  Gbp), *Psilotum nudum* (Whisk fern;  $2.5 \times 10^{11}$  Gbp), *Paris japonica* (canopy plant; 150 Gbp), and *Amoeba dubia* (670 Gbp). The evidences in this work has potentially captured *E. gracilis* as one of the few organisms with genome size either close to, or larger than, the human genome (Figure 7.1, and Ebenezer, *et al.*, 2017). These evidences are also consistent with the scientific knowledge that genome size is not a function of biological complexity, and that genome sizes more, or less, correlate with number of genes.

*Shared genes and hybrid genome:* Several research papers have predicted the hybrid nature of *E. gracilis*. For instance, Ahmadinejad, *et al.*, 2007, predicted and concluded that the genome of *E. gracilis* is a hybrid of photosynthetic and heterotrophic genomes using information from the nearest neighbours of its genes. The gene catalogues in *E. gracilis*, they posited, will consist of four main gene classes: 1) *E. gracilis* specific genes, 2) Kinetoplastid-specific genes, 3) eukaryotic genes that are spread in other eukaryotes (eukaryotic conserved genes), and 4) genes acquired during the secondary endosymbiotic relationship. Since this publication (Ahmadinejad, *et al.*, 2007) over a decade ago, there has not been any molecular data (NGS) to support these predictions. Using NGS approaches, the data in this work further supports this predictions, and beyond. For instance, in this work, are Euglena genes that are conserved across eukaryotes, Euglena-specific genes, Euglena genes shared with Kinetoplastids, and Euglena genes shared with green algae, taking into account the results from the orthologous clustering analysis. Beyond the predictions of Ahmadinejad, *et al.*, 2007, are genes that are also shared specifically with red algae, land plants, free living Bodonids, and other individual selected eukaryotes. This analysis further extends the endosymbiotic status and nature of *E. gracilis* beyond that previously known and described in Ahmadinejad, *et al.*, 2007. However, it's not yet known if all of the hybrid biological nature observed in this work were acquired during the endosymbiotic events that occurred with the cyanobacteria and proteobacteria, or if these were as a result of gene loss and gains across selected eukaryotes. I hope that a Lateral Gene Transfer (LGT) analysis will provide answers to this question.

*Complex endomembrane and heterochromatin organization:* In several eukaryotes, including kinetoplastids, the endomembrane system and heterochromatin

organization is simple, with one or two copies of trafficking genes (i.e having simple trafficking routes) and the presence of peripheral heterochromatin around the nuclear envelope respectively. In *E. gracilis*, the situation seems to be different, there are multiple routes of trafficking as well as the absence of peripheral heterochromatin around the nuclear envelope (Figure 7.1), demonstrating its complexity, and appears to be one of the few eukaryotic organism to demonstrate complexity in these biology. This suggests active protein trafficking activities and might explain the absence of a nuclear lamin in *E. gracilis* respectively. Similarly, several literatures have reported a condensed heterochromatin in *E. gracilis* (see Chapter 1), however, this data does not support this observation as the *E. gracilis* heterochromatin appears to be less condensed (see Chapter 4).

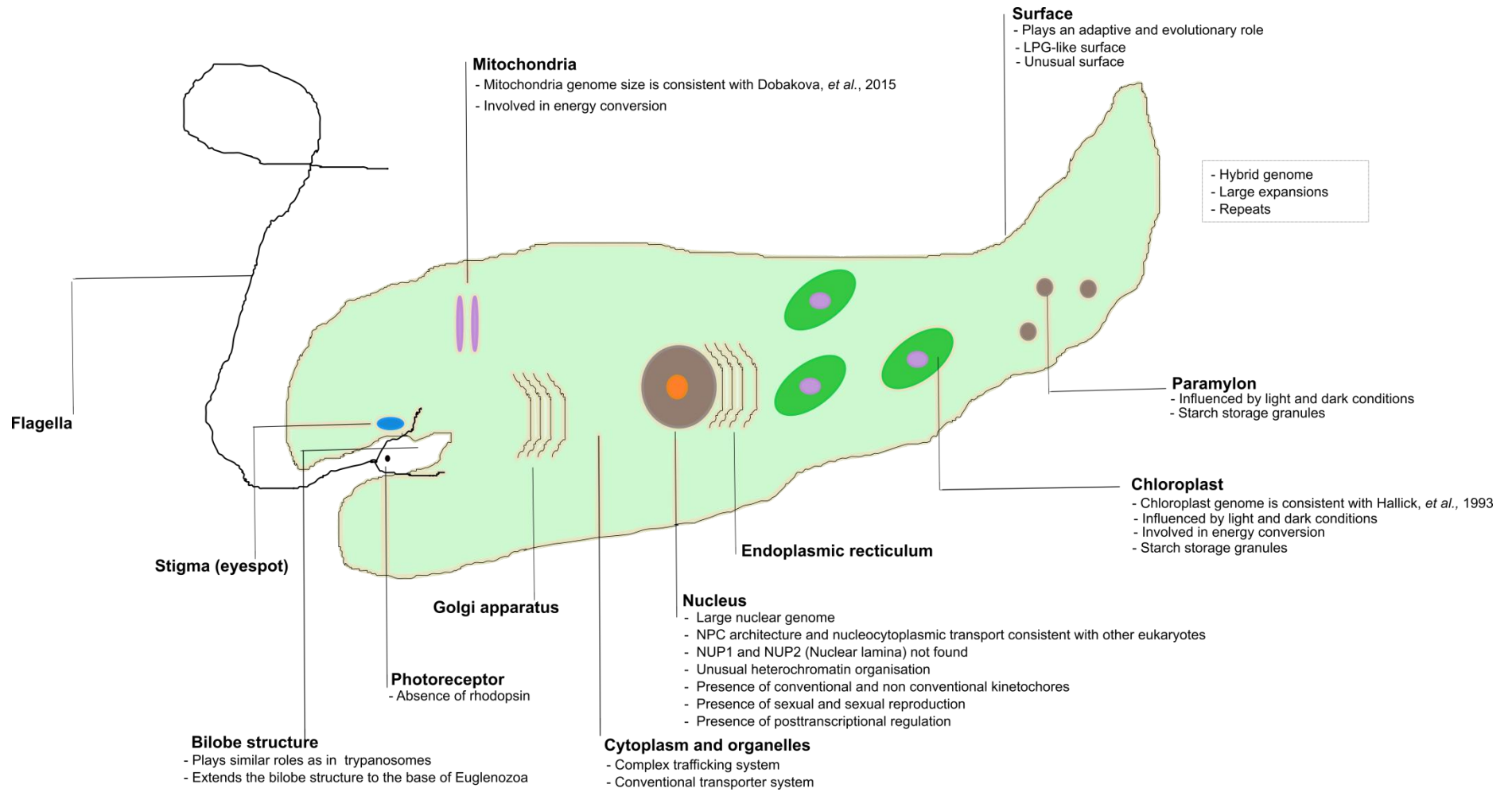
*Conventional and non conventional splicing and kinetochores:* In most eukaryotes, the splicing mechanism and kinetochores are conventional except in kinetoplastids where the kinetochores are non conventional (Akiyoshi and Gull, 2013, 2016; D'Archivio and Wickstead, 2016). In *E. gracilis*, the splicing mechanism and kinetochores are both conventional and non conventional, suggesting an unusual feature for most eukaryotes (Figure 7.1). This further suggests that *E. gracilis* will serve as a suitable model for studies involving splicing and chromosome segregation.

*Presence of DBP5 and absence of nuclear lamin:* The analysis in this work suggests that the nuclear system in *E. gracilis* is conserved, consistent and conventional with those found in other eukaryotes such as *T. brucei*, *A. thaliana*, *S. cerevisiae*, and *H. sapiens* (Figure 7.1). However, a major striking difference is the presence of DBP5 and the absence of a nuclear lamin in *E. gracilis* (see Chapter 5). While DBP5 is absent in *T. brucei* and present in other eukaryotes, nuclear lamins are present in most eukaryotes (including the reference four above). The absence of DBP5 in *T. brucei* (which is present in many eukaryotes) and its presence in *E. gracilis* suggests that this protein extends to the base of the Euglenozoa and may have been lost in *T. brucei* – this raises the question: What substitutes for the role of mRNA export mechanism in *T. brucei*? Similarly, the absence of the nuclear lamins in *E. gracilis* may be unexpected and raises the question about the origin of nuclear lamins and what performs its functions in *E. gracilis*. This also correlates with the results of

published work on the relationship between the heterochromatin and the nuclear lamin, which are both connected by the protein HP1 and PRR14, and ensures that the heterochromatins in eukaryote are peripheral around the nuclear envelope (see Chapter 5). Since the heterochromatin organization in *E. gracilis* is non peripheral around the nuclear envelope, the absence of the nuclear lamins may explain this situation.

*Unusual surface:* When the family of a closely related glycoprotein, Amastin, was discovered in *T. cruzi* (Teixeira, *et al.*, 1994), and subsequently in *L. major* (Jackson, 2010), it was observed that amastin repertoire is much larger in *Leishmania* relative to *Trypanosoma* (Jackson, 2010). The study further highlighted four distinct amastin subfamilies within the trypanosomatids with diversification which occurred after the origin of *Leishmania*, suggesting that some amastin genes evolved novel functions crucial to cell function in leishmanial parasites after the acquisition of a vertebrate host. In the present work, the amastin gene family and repertoire are quite different from those of the kinetoplastids, suggesting a cellular function of *E. gracilis* to adaptation to environmental factors. The presence and uniqueness of the amastin gene family in *E. gracilis* (in this work) further extends its origin to the base of the Euglenozoa. This may mean that the amastin gene family may have initially diversified from the base of the Euglenozoa rather than from the base of the trypanosomatids (*Leishmania spp.*).

*Post-transcriptional regulation:* The data in this work supports the observations that posttranscriptional regulation (Figure 7.1) of gene expression is an ancient activity of earliest eukaryotes, considering the position of *E. gracilis*. The evidence for posttranscriptional regulation in *E. gracilis* are seen in the light and dark experiments (see Chapter 6), as well as the presence of the regulatory elements and activities such as RNA binding protein (RBP), alternative splicing, nuclear degradation (exosomes), editosomes, RNA recognition motif (RRM), and nuclear export (see Chapter 5 for details). The data in this work also correspond with gene expression studies in trypanosomes, where virtually all control of gene expression is posttranscriptional (Droll, *et al.*, 2013). Posttranscriptional regulation may also play adaptive roles to external environmental factors, such as heat shock (HSP), or to host-parasite interactions as seen in trypanosomes (Droll, *et al.*, 2013).



**Figure 7.1. *E. gracilis* possesses a complex biology.** The diagram shows the schematic summarized representation of findings and conclusion. It shows the *E. gracilis* cell with associated organelle and cellular component (lines with title highlights). Annotated organelles and cellular components delineates the major associated findings. Text in box highlight findings that is general to the biology of *E. gracilis*.

## 7.2 RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE WORKS

The analysis in this work has provided further platform and framework for additional scientific investigations into the biology of *E. gracilis*. This genome project has been propelled by gene discovery, functional and comparative genomics, with futuristic significance to the wider society in drug discovery, biotechnology, and environmental studies, amongst others. While significant amount of efforts and progress has been made in deciphering the genome and transcriptome sequence of *E. gracilis*, the production of a complete genome for *E. gracilis* has been quite challenging, particularly for technical reasons: Short read lengths and multiple repeat elements. The analysis in this work still leave several questions unanswered as well as provide a platform for further interrogation of specific areas of interests as will be discussed below.

*Recommendations:* The analysis of the genome of *E. gracilis* raises the question of whether there are expected to be potential breakthroughs with current sequencing technologies and bioinformatics algorithms? While it's been previously thought about the potential negative impact of Base J (see introduction) on *E. gracilis* DNA sequencing, it is not expected that this will be the case considering that the proportion of Base J in *E. gracilis* is the same in *T. brucei* – and the current nucleic acid extraction technique for *E. gracilis* have proven to produce high quality DNA (see Chapter 2). The two strong candidate recommendations for a complete *E. gracilis* genome will involve sequencing large volumes of long reads of > 100 kbp in length using PacBio/Nanopore technologies and the development of bioinformatics algorithm that can deal with high level of polyploidy in eukaryotic genome assembly. Considering the error rate for PacBio, the strongest candidate for this would be Nanopore – but this raises the question of cost since a huge amount of data is required to be generated to attain the level of genome coverage for a complete genome sequencing. It is also not yet known how long it will take for a complete *E. gracilis* genome sequence considering that some potential challenges may be unforeseen. To overcome these challenges will require strong bioinformatics collaborations with existing genome centers and model organism database communities (e.g. EuPath, EBI-EMBL, Joint Genome Institute) in what I will otherwise call the Euglena Genome Consortium (EGC). This is required to provide

both technical and administrative support, for instance, in the development of assembly algorithms and pipelines adapted to *E. gracilis*. The choice of this consortium is due to the relevance of *E. gracilis* genome to the biomedical, environmental, biotechnology, and energy community.

*Future directions:* The studies in this work provides a platform for further interrogation of specific area of the biology of *E. gracilis* as well as it's utility and contribution to the wider society through its technological applications. There are several applications and biological aspects (wet lab) of *E. gracilis* which has been stalled due to the absence of molecular data (genome and transcriptome). The production of a high quality transcriptome means that researches in *E. gracilis* using proteomics methods is now possible. Furthermore, gene expression studies is now possible with the availability of a reference transcriptome and proteome, particularly looking into environmental (response to stress), population diversity, and signal transduction (circadian rythms). While several of the analysis of these biological aspects of *E. gracilis* are possible with a complete transcriptome and proteome, some specific biological aspects such as genetics and there applications in biotechnology and biofuel may still be challenging until a complete genome sequence is available.

So, what will be the sequence of events? Additional funding will be sourced for the *E. gracilis* genome project and the production of a complete genome will progress in parallel with other studies such as population diversity, gene expression under differing environmental conditions, and signal transduction. Some specific questions are required to be answered when the complete genome of *E. gracilis* becomes available. This include: The full gene compliments and the sources of these genes in evolutionary timelines, splicing mechanisms and comprehensive genomic architecture, the evolution of introns and twintrons and their roles. This will also reveal the actual size for the genome, and provide further evidence for such a large genome size when compared to kinetoplastids which are their sister relatives.

### 7.3 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The genome and transcriptome of *E. gracilis* has now been sequenced with the assembly of the data into working and final drafts respectively. While the transcriptome can support extensive annotation analysis, the genome cannot.

Evolutionary, functional and comparative analysis of the transcriptome suggests a complex biology for this unique organism. While some specific biological questions (such as trafficking, nuclear system, gene expression) and their potential applicability were able to be answered, which could be inferred from the predicted proteome of the transcriptome, some specific biological questions such as full gene compliment, splicing mechanism, and actual genome size may still remain elusive until a complete genome sequence becomes available.



## 8.0 APPENDICES

### APPENDIX I: COMMUNITY-BASED ANNOTATION

**Table 1:** Accessions of genes associated with specific cellular functions, metabolic pathways and organelles.

**A:** <https://www.dropbox.com/s/ls5pn3be4o1fz6t/Appendix%20I-a.xlsx?dl=0>

**B:** <https://www.dropbox.com/s/67jhfo6ijbfqipa/Appendix%20I-b.xlsx?dl=0>

**APPENDIX II: DIFFERENTIAL EXPRESSION ANALYSIS FILES**

<https://www.dropbox.com/s/aybw5wno79e697t/Appendix%20II.xlsx?dl=0>

### **APPENDIX III: LIGHT AND DARK TRANSCRIPTOMIC AND PROTEOMIC ANALYSIS**

#### **Table 1: Raw data for proteomics and transcriptomics of *E. gracilis* under adaptive conditions.**

A: <https://www.dropbox.com/s/lupj2j7vzffc78y/Appendix%20III-A.xlsx?dl=0>

B: <https://www.dropbox.com/s/e9xqgz8v0cpqa04/Appendix%20III-B.xlsx?dl=0>

C: <https://www.dropbox.com/s/v32kuns5or3t695/Appendix%20III-C.xlsx?dl=0>

Cells were grown under dark or light conditions and described in methods and subjected to protein or RNA extraction and analysed by mass spectrometry or RNAseq. Each condition was analysed in triplicate (n = 3) and data for individual samples together with the merged data are provided as Appendix IV-A and B, together with BLAST annotation of altered transcripts (Appendix IV-C). Data are presented graphically in Chapter 6.

#### **Table 2: Summary of the synonymous and nonsynonymous information comparisons across 196251 comparisons**

D: <https://www.dropbox.com/s/4pxiksqjfyf5pmz/Appendix%20III-D.txt?dl=0>

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