

1 Sergey A. Karpov ^{1,2,*}, Albert Reñé ³, Andrey E. Vishnyakov ², Kensuke Seto ^{4,5}, Elisabet Alacid ^{3,6},
2 Aurora Paloheimo ⁷, Maiko Kagami ⁴, Anke Kremp ⁸, Esther Garcés ³

3

4 **Parasitoid chytridiomycete *Ericiomyces syringoforeus* gen. et sp. nov. has unique cellular**
5 **structures to infect the host**

6

7

8 ¹ Zoological Institute of Russian Academy of Sciences, Universitetskaya nab. 1, St.
9 Petersburg, 199034 Russia.

10 ² Department of Invertebrate Zoology, Biological Faculty, St. Petersburg State University,
11 Universitetskaya nab. 7/9, St. Petersburg, 199034 Russia

12 ³ Departament de Biologia Marina i Oceanografia. Institut de Ciències del Mar (CSIC). Passeig
13 Marítim de la Barceloneta, 37-49 08003 Barcelona, Catalonia (Spain)

14 ⁴ Yokohama National University, Graduate school of Environment and Information Sciences,
15 Tokiwadai 79-7, Hodogayaku, Yokohama, 240-8501, Kanagawa, Japan

16 ⁵ Current address: Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Michigan,
17 1105 North University, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA.

18 ⁶ Current address: Department of Zoology, University of Oxford, 11a Mansfield Rd, Oxford, OX1
19 3SZ (UK)

20 ⁷ Finnish Environment Institute, Marine Research Centre, Latokartanonkaari 11, 00790 Helsinki,
21 Finland

22 ⁸ Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea Research Warnemünde, Department of Biological
23 Oceanography, Seestraße 15, 18119 Rostock, Germany

24

25 * **Corresponding author e-mail: sakarpov4@gmail.com**

26 **ORCID: [0000-0002-1509-1908](https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1509-1908)**

27

28

29

30

31

32

33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64

Abstract

Many fungi have been identified as pathogens of marine algae. Among them, Chytridiomycota have been revealed as relatively highly abundant, but much of the diversity known within these groups is almost entirely based on environmental sequencing data. Here, we present a novel chytridiomycete genus and species, characterized by light microscopical observations, ultrastructure, and molecular phylogenetic analysis of the parasitic chytrid of brackish-water dinoflagellate *Kryptoperidinium foliaceum* from the Baltic Sea. Phylogenetic analysis of rDNA sequences and the ultrastructure of the strain reveals that it represents a new family in the order Rhizophydiales. *Ericiomyces syringoforeus* gen. et sp. nov. is a parasitoid with a life cycle composed by zoospores, which attach to the host, encyst and produce a rhizoidal system (haustorium). Unlike typical Rhizophydiales chytrids, sporangium develops as a lateral outgrowth of the encysted zoospore. The ultrastructural study revealed at least two unique traits: the syringe-like organelle in the cyst, which supposed to paralyze the host, and funnel-shaped structure anchoring sporangium in the host wall. Sporangium matures and produces new zoospores within three days. Multiple infection is common and then the life-cycle is one-two days shorter compared to the duration when a single infection occurred. Cross-infection experiments showed that *E. syringoforeus* could only infect dinoflagellates, being *K. foliaceum* highly susceptible to infection by the chytrid parasitoid. The effects of some fungal epidemics on populations of *Kryptoperidinium* are discussed.

Keywords: brackish-water, Rhizophydiales, Ericiomycetaceae, dinoflagellate, ultrastructure, molecular phylogeny

65

66

67

68

69 **Introduction**

70 Traditional studies utilizing microscopy and culture isolation have demonstrated that marine
71 fungi are relatively species-poor, predominantly Dikarya, and localized to coastal habitats. To
72 date, only a relatively small number of described fungi, approximately 1,100 species, have been
73 retrieved exclusively from the marine environment (Amend et al. 2019). Using high-throughput
74 diversity tag sequencing from both DNA and RNA templates counts, Richards et al. (2015) have
75 studied the diversity and abundance of fungi in marine samples from European near-shore
76 sites. In these samples they have shown unexpectedly high abundance of Chytridiomycota,
77 accounting for nearly 60% of all fungal sequences (Richards et al. 2015). Picard (2017) also
78 noted that the diversity of marine fungi was highest in sand flats and wetland sediments,
79 though benthic sediments harboured the highest proportion of novel sequences. Particularly
80 notable were a large number of species belonging to “early diverging lineages” such as the
81 Chytridiomycota (chytrids), which tend to dominate nearshore and sediment samples (Le Calvez
82 et al. 2009, Richards et al. 2012, 2015, Comeau 2016). Much of the diversity known within these
83 groups is almost entirely based on environmental sequencing data (Amend et al. 2019). Thus,
84 the environmental sequences demonstrate the existence of a great diversity of zoosporic fungi
85 in the sea, but the studies of the putative species in the lab, culturing them to study their
86 morphology, are lacking. At the same time, classical investigations are really needed, as they
87 often demonstrate exclusively unusual morphological diversity describing new phenomena in
88 fungal cell structure, which leads to new insights on the diversity and early evolution of fungi
89 (Karpov et al. 2018).

90 Chytrids are ubiquitous in aquatic, predominantly freshwater, environments and are largely
91 recognized as phytoplankton parasites (Frenken et al. 2017, Gleason et al. 2015, Kagami et al.
92 2007, Scholz et al. 2016). At least six chytrid species infect freshwater dinophytes (Dangeard
93 1888, Canter 1968, Canter and Heaney 1984, Alster and Zohary 2007, Leshem et al. 2016).
94 However, fewer chytrid species are known from marine environments (Jones et al. 2015, 2019,
95 Powell 2016, Garvetto et al. 2019), and only one species capable of parasitizing marine

96 dinoflagellates is currently known, *Dinomyces arenysensis*, which infects the toxic dinoflagellate
97 *Alexandrium minutum* (Lepelletier et al. 2014b).

98 Here, we present a novel chytridiomycete genus and species, characterized by light
99 microscopical observations, ultrastructure, and molecular phylogenetic analysis of a strain
100 isolated from brackish-marine¹ water samples of the coastal Northern Baltic Sea that parasitizes
101 the dinoflagellate *Kryptoperidinium foliaceum*, and represents the first species infecting
102 dinoflagellates in brackish waters. Phylogenetic analysis of rDNA sequences and the
103 ultrastructure of this strain supports the representation of a new family in the order
104 Rhizophydiales.

105

106 **Materials and Methods**

107 **Sampling.** The sampling was carried out on Kökar, and island belonging to the Åland
108 Archipelago (SW coast of Finland) in the northern Baltic Sea, in June 2016 as described in Alacid
109 et al. (in press). The sampling point was located in a shallow coastal embayment (2–3 m deep).
110 As typical for this area, salinities of 6–7‰ prevail and water temperatures can reach up to 24 °C
111 during summer (Kremp et al. 2009, Hakanen et al. 2012). Two water samples, pre-sieved
112 through a 76-µm mesh, were collected from a small boat at the sampling point: (1) a surface
113 water sample, which was filled from a jug directly into a 5 L plastic bottle; and (2) a net tow
114 sample with a mesh size of 10 µm, which was obtained from integrating water slowly through
115 the whole water column. The net sample was poured into a 200-ml polystyrene culture flask.
116 Information about the sampling strategy and host/phytoplankton community composition is
117 detailed in Alacid et al. in press.

118 **Detection, isolation, and cultivation of the zoosporic parasites.** From 2 to 5 L of water from
119 the surface samples were concentrated using a 10 µm mesh, and aliquots were distributed into
120 separate wells of polystyrene 12-well tissue culture plates. These concentrated surface samples
121 and net samples were incubated for several days at 20 °C, and a photoperiod of 12:12
122 (light:dark) and observed daily with an inverted microscope (Leica DMI3000B) to detect
123 infection by parasitoids. After a few days, chytrids infecting *Kryptoperidinium foliaceum* in these
124 concentrated isolates were observed. Infected cells were manually isolated with glass capillary

¹ Restrictly speaking most of the described marine chytrids occur, in fact, in brackish waters (0.5-30 psu) (e.g. Lepelletier et al. 2014b, Letcher et al. 2015). Below we use “brackish” rather than “marine”.

125 micropipettes and individually placed in 96-well tissue culture plates. Cells of *K. foliaceum*
126 originating from the studied area strain KFF 1003 from the culture collection of the Finnish
127 Environment Institute (SYKE), grown in F/2 –Si local seawater based medium (salinity 6‰),
128 were added to the well-plates to serve as host, and incubated in culturing chambers at 21 °C,
129 14:10 (light:dark period). Once infections were propagated in the well-plate, a small volume of
130 the co-culture was transferred to a new well and new healthy host cells were provided. This
131 procedure was done twice a week throughout three years. Unfortunately, in September 2019,
132 the cultured strain E4 was lost.

133 **Microscopy.** Sub-samples of cultured cells infected by the chytrid were taken at different stages
134 of the infection development in order to characterize the morphology and ultrastructure of the
135 different life-cycle stages of the chytrid. 2 mL of live samples were transferred to settling
136 chambers and observed with a phase-contrast Leica DM-IRB inverted microscope (Leica
137 Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) connected to a ProgRes C10 (JENOPTIK Laser, Optik, Systeme
138 GmbH, Jena, Germany) digital camera and a Zeiss Axioplan microscope equipped with a color
139 MRm Axiocam camera. For scanning electron microscopy (SEM), 5 mL of chytrid culture were
140 fixed with 10% formaldehyde (v:v) and filtered by gravity on an 8 µm pore size polycarbonate
141 filter. Samples were then washed in filtered seawater for 15 min and in distilled water for 15
142 min. Subsequent dehydration was carried out in a 25, 50, 75, 90, 96, and 100% ethanol series
143 for ca. 10 min. The final step of 100% ethanol was repeated twice. The filters were critical-point
144 dried and mounted on stubs, sputter-coated with gold-palladium and examined under a
145 HITACHI S-3500N scanning electron microscope (Hitachi High Technologies Corp., Tokyo, Japan)
146 at the Servei de Microscopia Electrònica (ICM-CSIC).

147 For transmission electron microscopy (TEM) the infected cultures were fixed after
148 centrifugation at a final concentration of 2% of glutaraldehyde prepared in the culture medium
149 and stored at 4 °C for 2 hours. After washing in the culture medium, the pellet was fixed in 1%
150 osmium tetroxide solution at 4 °C for 1 hour. The pellet was washed twice in the culture
151 medium and embedded in Spurr's resin after dehydration in ethanol and propylene oxide.
152 Serial ultrathin sections were obtained using a diamond knife on an Ultracut microtome and
153 double stained before observation with a JEOL TEM JEM-1400.

154
155 **Sequencing and phylogenetic analysis.** Mature sporangia were manually isolated using a glass
156 micropipette, transferred to successive drops of autoclaved 6‰ seawater and placed into 200

157 μ L PCR tubes. PCR tubes were subjected to freeze-thaw rounds and stored at -80°C until
158 processed. To amplify 28S rDNA, we used the primer pair D1R (Scholin et al. 1994) and D3B
159 (Hansen et al. 2000) using a 25 μ L PCR mix containing 1X Buffer, 1.5 mM MgCl_2 , 0.2 mM of each
160 dNTP, 0.4 μ M of each primer and 2 U of Taq Platinum DNA polymerase (Invitrogen). PCR
161 conditions were as follows: initial denaturation for 5 min at 95°C , 40 cycles of 20 s at 95°C , 30
162 s at 55°C , and 1 min at 72°C , followed by a final extension step for 7 min at 72°C . For ITS
163 region, the same PCR mix was used with primers ITS1 and ITS4 (White et al. 1990) and the same
164 PCR conditions as before. Finally, DNA from the culture, also including the host genetic
165 material, was obtained. 15 mL of culture were pelleted with a first centrifugation at 3,000 rpm x
166 15 min, the supernatant was removed, and the pellet was transferred to a 1.5 mL tube. It was
167 centrifuged at 10,000 rpm x 5 min and its DNA was extracted with DNeasy Blood & Tissue kit
168 (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's instructions. One μ L of DNA was used as template to
169 obtain the partial 18S rDNA sequence under the same PCR conditions as before, using the
170 specific primers Crypto2-2F and AU4v2 (Lazarus and James 2015). Purification and sequencing
171 were carried out by an external service (Genoscreen, France), using forward and reverse
172 primers for all primer pairs and a 3730XL DNA sequencer. The sequences obtained were aligned
173 with a selection of sequences covering the diversity of Rhizophydiales, as well as
174 representatives of other Chytridiomycota groups obtained from GenBank, using online version
175 of MAFFT (Kato et al. 2019) under L-INS-i option. Subsequently, the alignments were trimmed
176 using trimAl (Capella-Gutiérrez et al. 2009) under the gappyout option. The ITS1 and ITS2
177 regions were excluded from the alignment manually with BioEdit v 7.0.5 (Hall, 1999). Resulting
178 alignments had 5037 positions for concatenated 18S+5.8S+28S rDNA (Chytridiomycota
179 dataset), 1521 positions for 18S rDNA, 849 positions for 28S rDNA, and 1008 positions for
180 concatenated 5.8S + 28S rDNA (Rhizophydiales datasets). GenBank accession numbers of all
181 sequences used are listed in Table S1. Phylogenetic relationships were determined as described
182 in Reñé et al. (2017). The sequences obtained were deposited in GenBank under the Accession
183 Numbers: MT998435 (18S rDNA), MT998437 (ITS), and MT998436 (28S rDNA).

184

185 **Cross-infections.** The host range of the parasitoid strain E4 was examined by conducting cross-
186 infection experiments with 13 microplankton species from different algal groups (Table 1). The
187 experiments were conducted in 24 well plates, where three replicates were set for each host.
188 1.5 mL of host culture at stationary phase showing cellular abundance $>10^3$ cells mL^{-1} was

189 mixed with 0.4 mL of a dense mature chytrid culture with plenty of released zoospores and
190 nearly no original host (*K. foliaceum*) present. Incubation time for cross-infection experiments
191 was fixed at 10 days allowing at least 2 generations of the chytrid parasitoid. The susceptibility
192 of hosts to chytrid infection was defined by considering both, the capacity of the parasitoid to
193 kill the host, measured as the presence of new infections, and the capacity of the parasitoid to
194 exceed host growth rate, measured as the number of healthy host cells remaining in the well
195 after 10 days of parasitoid inoculation, being evaluated qualitatively. The wells were observed
196 after 2, 3, 5, 7 and 10 days of chytrid inoculation and susceptibility was classified qualitatively
197 into four categories following Lepelletier et al. 2014a: i) resistant, no infections were detected
198 within the host ii) low susceptibility, some infections were detected but more than 10 living
199 host cells remained in the well after 10 days, iii) moderate susceptibility, infections were
200 detected and less than 10 living host cells were observed in the well after 10 days and iv) high
201 susceptibility, no host cells persisted after 10 days.

202

203 **RESULTS**

204 The new chytrid dinoflagellate parasite described here was isolated from a typical dinoflagellate
205 dominated phytoplankton community containing 78.6% *K. foliaceum* of the total phytoplankton
206 biomass (Alacid et al. in press). A host-parasite system was successfully established by isolating
207 infected *K. foliaceum* cells and adding new cells from cultured isolates of this host species.
208 Strain E4 was a quite aggressive parasitoid in the co-culture, infecting the dinoflagellate host as
209 a typical chytridiomycete completing its life cycle within 3 days of incubation at 21 °C.

210 **Phylogeny**

211 The 18S, 28S and 5.8S rDNA molecular information of the cultured chytrid was evaluated in
212 order to determine its phylogenetic position and relationships. All sequences showed low
213 similarity values with closest sequences, and thus, forming long branches in all phylogenies. In
214 fact, the 18S rDNA sequence showed a highest similarity of 89.5% with sequence AY601710
215 (*Rhizophydium brooksianum*), the 28S showed a highest similarity of 87.4% with sequences
216 JN049539 and JN049540 (Chytridiomycota sp.), and the 5.8S showed a highest similarity of 92%
217 with sequence DQ485639 (*Rhizophydium* sp. PL-AUS-12). A first phylogenetic exploration was
218 performed on a dataset containing concatenated 18S, 5.8S and 28S rDNA sequences of taxa
219 belonging to different Chytridiomycota groups (Fig. S1). The chytrid sequence clustered inside

220 the order Rhizophydiales, which was retrieved with high statistical support (maximum
221 likelihood bootstrap value = 94%/Bayesian posteriorly probability = 1). It showed a close
222 phylogenetic relationship with the sequence of *Rhizophydium* sp. MP8 (94%/1), belonging to
223 the family Globomycetaceae, and formed a cluster (94%/1) with sequences of species
224 belonging to diverse families, such as *Operculomyces laminatus*, *Rhizophydium booksianum*,
225 *Staurastromyces oculus* and *Uebelmesseromyces harderi*. Once its taxonomic affiliation was
226 obtained, a thorough determination of its phylogenetic relationships was performed using a
227 more extensive dataset of Rhizophydiales representatives. For the concatenated 5.8S – 28S
228 rDNA phylogeny (Fig. 1), it formed a sister branch, but showing moderate support (86%/1), with
229 Globomycetaceae representatives, clustering with maximum support and including *Globomyces*
230 *pollinis-pini*, *Rhizophydium* sp. MP8, and *Urceomyces sphaerocarpus* sequences. Phylogenetic
231 reconstructions were also performed for single genes. For 28S rDNA phylogeny (Fig. S2), it
232 clustered independently, but showing again a close relationship with Globomycetaceae
233 representatives with moderate/high support (69%/1). Sequences JN049539 and JN049540,
234 which had the highest similarity with our sequence, even though only showing 70% of query
235 cover, did not cluster close to the E4 sequence, but formed a sister branch with
236 Dinomycetaceae. Finally, the 18S rDNA phylogeny (Fig. S3) was constructed from a dataset
237 mainly comprising environmental sequences and some identified species in order to explore
238 the relationship of the new chytrid with environmental information. It did not show a close
239 relationship with Globomycetaceae or any known representatives, but with environmental
240 sequences, clustering with FN690503 sequence obtained from the Baltic Sea, even though
241 under low statistical support.

242 **General morphology**

243 Light microscopical observations of E4 strain infection by using bright field (BF), phase contrast
244 (Ph) and differential interference contrast (DIC) demonstrated that the vegetative life-cycle of
245 the parasitoid presented the following main stages: zoospores, cysts, young and mature
246 sporangia (Fig. 2). Zoospore body diameter is 3.9 – 4.8 μm (average 4.5) (n = 11), flagellar
247 length is 26 – 27 μm (n = 11) (Fig. 2A, B). Zoospores retract their flagella after attachment to the
248 host (Fig. 2C) and produce a cyst wall (Fig. 2D). In the cyst, a special structure can be seen,
249 measuring 1.2 μm (measured under LM), called here the syringe-like structure, or syringe,
250 which takes part in the attachment and, probably, immobilization of the prey (Fig. 2D).

251 The cyst germinates within the host forming a haustorium in the shape of an elongated balloon
252 with a thin layer of peripheral cytoplasm (Fig. 2E). The cyst forms a lateral bud, which enlarges
253 into a sporangium with a spiny surface (Fig. 2F). A cyst itself does not enlarge, probably because
254 of the thickening of its wall (see Fig. 5D). It becomes a papilla of the growing sporangium with a
255 thick and smooth wall in contrast to the main surface of sporangium which is covered by thorns
256 (Fig. 2F–I, K). The shape and surface of sporangia are better seen in SEM images (Fig. 3). The
257 place of parasite penetration into the host is located at the papilla base (Fig. 3C). The
258 sporangium enlarges (Fig. 2F–H) and matures producing 40 – 60 zoospores (Fig. 2I, J). We did
259 not observe zoospore release, but empty sporangia have a discharge pore with smooth ridges
260 (Fig. 2K; 3E). The distinctive lid which could cover this discharge pore was not found, but the
261 pore is covered with flat and thickened sporangial wall (see its ultrastructure below).
262 When a single parasite infects a host cell, the size of the mature spherical sporangium is about
263 20 – 25 μm ($n = 11$), nearly as large as the host (Fig. 2G, H, J). However, when multiple
264 infections occurred in a single cell at different times, different stages of growing sporangia are
265 visible attached to the host surface (Fig. 3B, D).

266

267 **Zoospores**

268 Zoospores appear as a result of multinuclear sporangial division into uninuclear cells during
269 zoosporogenesis. Flagellar appearance in the cells does not mean that zoospores are mature
270 and ready to release. Immature zoospores have non-aggregated ribosomes (Fig. 4A). Mature
271 zoospores contain a central nucleus surrounded by a ribosomal core (Fig. 4B). In released
272 zoospores, the ribosomal core is surrounded and crossed by ER cisternae (Fig. 4C). One big
273 posterior lipid globule is partly submerged in the ribosomal core and closely associated with
274 lobed microbody forming a microbody-lipid complex (MLC) (Fig. 4C, E). Several mitochondrial
275 profiles locate around a ribosomal aggregate often in close association with it (Fig. 4D).
276 Numerous small vesicles with electron dense contents are spread throughout the cytoplasm.
277 The flagellar apparatus in the zoospores is closely associated with the MLC (Fig. 4E). Its
278 microtubular root passes from the flagellar base along the microbody surface (see Fig. 5 for
279 details). Released zoospores can be fed by amoebae: in some sections a zoospore was found in
280 the food cap of a contaminative amoeba (Fig. 4F). According to the distinctive ultrastructural
281 character, namely mitochondria with flat cristae surrounded by ER, this amoeba belongs to
282 Heterolobosea.

283 **Flagellar apparatus**

284 The structure of the flagellar apparatus, or kinetid, is an essential character for a new taxon
285 description and phylogeny. The base of the flagellum at the posterior end of the cell is located
286 very close to the microbody, which covers a lipid globule. A kinetid consists of the kinetosome
287 with emergent flagellum and a non-flagellar centriole oriented parallel to the kinetosome (Fig.
288 5A–N). The proximal ends of both the kinetosome and centriole are merged in the saddle-like
289 fibrillar sheath (Fig. 5D–F, J–N). The kinetosome and centriole are connected to each other by a
290 prominent fibrillar bridge, which is rather thick and consists of several oblique fibrils without a
291 crossing plate, or so called zone of convergence (Fig. 5C–E, L, M). The cartwheel organisation of
292 nine microtubular triplets is present in the proximal end of both the kinetosome and centriole
293 (Fig. 5E, F). The centriole is approximately two-thirds the kinetosome length (Fig. 5J, N). The
294 distal end of kinetosome is connected to the plasma membrane by 9 unusually thick props, or
295 transition fibers, which are interconnected to each other in their middle part (Fig. 5A, B, G–N).
296 The flagellar transition zone is simple – it only comprises a thin transverse plate (Fig. 5J, K). The
297 kinetosome produces at least one root of 6 microtubules associated with a short fibrillar plate
298 at its base. The other side of the root (opposite to the fibrillar plate) is closely associated with
299 the microbody surface (Fig. 5E–H, O–R).

300 **Cyst and sporangium**

301 Just after the flagellar retraction, the attached cell of E4 is covered by a loose and relatively thin
302 wall and contains disordered microtubules of the flagellar axoneme (Fig. 6A). Disaggregated
303 ribosomes, mitochondrial profiles with flat cristae, many small vesicles with electron dense
304 contents and ER cisternae are visible in sections. The large lipid globule has an unusual
305 structure. It is covered with thin electron dense material connected to the ER cisternae. A tube-
306 like structure appears in the centre of the lipid globule at this stage of the cyst formation (Fig. 6
307 A). Following the cyst development, the lipid globule transforms into the syringe-like structure,
308 and its central tube becomes the needle that will penetrate the host cell wall (Fig. 6B, C). The
309 syringe consists of glass-like cylinder with electron dense walls and a concave bottom facing
310 towards the plasma membrane; the cytoplasm inside the cylinder contains ER connected to the
311 electron dense globules, which are associated with the needle. The syringe wall locates in a
312 vacuole, and cytoplasm with ER, globules, and needle fill the glass. When the tube (needle) is
313 extruding, it penetrates the cyst wall and the wall of the host (Fig. 6B, C). Details of the syringe
314 structure are presented in the consecutive serial sections shown in Figure 7A–H. This structure

315 retained within the sporangium throughout sporangial development up to zoospore maturation
316 (Fig. 7I). Two syringes per cyst were rarely observed (Fig. 7K).

317 The papilla (former cyst) does not change its shape, its wall becomes much thicker and retains a
318 smooth surface (Fig. 6C, 7I), while the sporangium outgrows laterally having a wall covered with
319 spines of approx. 1.5 μm in length (Fig. 6D). A multinuclear sporangium contains numerous lipid
320 globules (Fig. 6F), which seem to disappear after multiple divisions on the uninuclear cells (Fig.
321 7I). The ribosomal core around the nucleus and the lipid globule appear in zoospores after
322 flagella formation (Fig. 4A, B; 6D, F, G; 7I).

323 In a mature sporangium a septum with pores appears in front of the funnel (Fig. 2H; 6F, G). It
324 separates the sporangium content from the haustorium.

325 Zoospore release takes place from a discharge pore, appearing in the mature sporangium as a
326 flat plot covered with thickened sporangial wall (Fig. 6F; 7I). We did not observe how it opens
327 and what occurs with this plot. The shape of the discharge pore is round with smooth ridges
328 and has rather a large diameter (approx. 10 μm) (Fig. 2K), which is enough for several zoospores
329 to come out at the same time. Therefore, a sporangium obviously does not break but somehow
330 opens to discharge a number of zoospores.

331 **Funnel**

332 The haustorium penetrates the host cell in close proximity to the syringe (Fig. 7I). It appears in
333 the cyst as an electron dense plate under the plasma membrane adjacent to the syringe (Fig.
334 7A, B). The ridges of the plate are connected to ER, and the initial plate is located in the flat
335 matrix vesicle (Fig. 7B, K). Then, the plate transforms into the funnel, which breaks the cyst wall
336 and the host wall and fixes the ridges of the hole in the host cell (Fig. 7J). The haustorium grows
337 through the funnel into the host transporting there the cytoplasm with mitochondria, ER
338 cisternae and lipid globules (Fig. 6E). Probably, the cytoplasm moves into the haustorium under
339 the pressure probably caused by the growing vacuole of the cyst (Fig. 6C, E). The haustorium
340 itself is actually a part of sporangium containing a big vacuole and peripheral cytoplasm with all
341 the cellular organelles and inclusions except the nucleus (Fig. 2F–H, J; 6E; 7I, J). It grows along
342 with the sporangium and finally replaces the host contents becoming nearly as large as the
343 mature sporangium.

344

345 **Cross-infections**

346 The strain E4 was detected infecting *Kryptoperidinium foliaceum* in field samples. However,
347 laboratory experiments were conducted to determine its potential to infect other
348 dinoflagellates, as well as other algae (Table 1). From all the species tested, only two
349 dinoflagellates were infected by E4, and they showed different susceptibility, which was
350 determined qualitatively. Among the seven dinoflagellate species tested, *K. foliaceum* showed a
351 high susceptibility to infections, with no living hosts after 10 days of parasite inoculation.
352 *Heterocapsa triquetra* was infected by E4 showing low susceptibility, i.e. only a few host cells
353 were infected. Infections were not observed for the other tested species belonging to
354 haptophytes, cryptophytes, chlorophytes and cyanobacteria, being resistant to chytrid
355 infections.

356 **DISCUSSION**

357 Parasitic chytrids are extensively recorded in aquatic ecosystems, both in marine and
358 freshwater environments (Amend et al. 2019). In freshwater, chytrids infect multiple
359 phytoplankton groups, like diatoms, green algae, and cyanobacteria (Kagami et al. 2007). A few
360 cases of Chytridiomycota infecting dinoflagellates are known. The freshwater dinoflagellate
361 *Peridinium gatunense* is infected by *Phlyctochytrium* sp. (Alster and Zohary 2007) and
362 *Dinochytrium kinnereticum* (Leshem et al. 2016). *Amphicypellus elegans* and *Rhizophydium*
363 *nobile* infect freshwater *Ceratium* species (Canter 1968, Canter and Heaney 1984).
364 *Rhizophydium echinatum* infects *Glenodinium cinctum* (Dangeard 1888). Here, we presented a
365 novel chytridiomycete isolated from brackish waters as a parasite of the dinophyte.

366 **Molecular phylogeny**

367 According to molecular phylogeny, based on 18S, 5.8S, and 28S rDNA sequences, strain E4
368 clusters inside Rhizophydiales in the Chytridiomycota dataset. In both 28S and 28S + 5.8S
369 Rhizophydiales datasets, it clusters close to saprotrophic *Globomyces* and *Urceomyces* with
370 moderate-high support (70%/1 and 82%/1, respectively), even though it forms a long branch in
371 comparison to others (Figs S1, S2). The phylogenetic position was consistent with all analyses
372 performed and did not show a strong relationship with any other representatives of known
373 families. The 18S tree including environmental sequences shows several uncultured lineages
374 around the E4, and forming a monophyletic cluster with other families like Globomycetaceae,
375 Operculomycetaceae, Staurastromycetaceae or Rhizophydiaceae (Fig. S3), a cluster also
376 observed for the other phylogenetic analyses performed in this study and recorded in the
377 literature (Van den Wyngaert et al. 2017, Garvetto et al. 2019). These results together with its

378 unique morphological characteristics support a new family within Rhizophydiales. Additionally,
379 the phylogenetic position did not show a close relationship with Dinomycetaceae, which
380 includes the only known species that infects dinoflagellates in brackish environments. Our
381 results show dinoflagellates can be affected by many different groups of Chytridiomycota, and
382 regarding Rhizophydiales, the two species known to infect dinoflagellates are not closely
383 related. It suggests that infections of dinoflagellates are not restricted to a specific phylogenetic
384 group and thus, the diversity of brackish chytrids infecting dinoflagellates is still largely
385 unknown and requires detailed studies to understand those interactions.

386 **Morphology and life cycle**

387 Strain E4 possesses typical features for chytridiomycete development within the host, which
388 can be described as a parasitoid of brackish dinoflagellates with a simple thallus, a monocentric
389 epibiotic sporangium having endogenous development, and with haustorium (Fig. 8). However,
390 its internal structure has several peculiar traits, which are discussed below.

391 **Syringe and funnel.** These unusual structures seem to be described for zoosporic fungi for the
392 first time. The function of the syringe could be the immobilization of the host cell after
393 zoospore attachment and encystment. The electron dense granule connected to the needle
394 inside the cylinder looks like a container for proteins transported in the granules from the ER.
395 These proteins being injected via the needle, could, probably, paralyze the prey, which stops
396 swimming and settles down upon infection. We found a maximum of two syringes per cell in
397 sections, but it was rarely observed, and normally one syringe per sporangium is present.
398 Further study of the syringe structure and function are needed to confirm the role it plays in
399 the infection process.

400 Among the chytridiomycetes, the rhizoid (or haustorium) penetration into the host is not
401 normally accompanied by special structures like the funnel (Powell 2016). Interestingly, the
402 haustorium itself can produce one more funnel at the distal end (Fig. 6E), the function of which
403 is unknown. A haustorium is quite rare among Rhizophydiales (Letcher and Powell 2012). It has
404 been described in *Rhizophydium skujai* (Skuja) Karling as being "...irregularly lobate,
405 transversely elongate, sac-like." According to the drawings reproduced by Letcher and Powell
406 (2012), *R. skujai* also had a large vacuole with peripheral cytoplasm around. *Chytridium*
407 *aggregatum* Karling (Karling 1938) and *Ch. sexuales* Koch (Koch 1951) also have a haustorium
408 named an apophysis. It is spherical and comparatively small in *Ch. sexuales*, but rather big and
409 elongated with rhizoids at the distal end in *Ch. aggregatum*.

410 **Papilla.** Papillae in chytrids normally serve for zoospore release, but in the case of E4 it is a
411 thick-walled chamber of the sporangium, developed from the cyst. Such a phenomenon was
412 described for a few chytridiomycetes *Ch. oedogonii* Couch and *Ch. aggregatum* Karling (Couch
413 1938, Karling 1938). While in *Ch. oedogonii* the rhizoid penetrates the host from the apical part
414 of the papilla, in *Ch. aggregatum* it is formed at the base of the papilla, like in E4. The sporangia
415 of *Ch. aggregatum* and E4 have a fairly similar shape and the rhizoidal system which appears
416 from the outgrowing young sporangium rather than from the cyst. The sporangium of *Ch.*
417 *aggregatum* is a bit smaller (10–18 μm vs 20–25 μm in E4) and its papilla is brownish, while it is
418 colourless in E4.

419 The septa with pores separating sporangial contents from rhizoid is a character of monoblephs
420 rather than chytrids (Powell 2016). It appears during zoospore maturation in E4 and is also
421 present in *Ch. aggregatum* (Karling 1938).

422 Both, *Ch. aggregatum* and E4 have a discharge pore which locates apically or subapically in *Ch.*
423 *aggregatum* and is covered by operculum. In E4 it is subapical, but has no specific structure
424 characteristic for the lid as e.g. in *Chytridium confervae* (Taylor and Fuller 1981). A flat plot in
425 the sporangium E4 is, in fact, the thickened sporangial wall having plano-convex profile (Fig. 6F;
426 7I) like that described for *Rhizophydium planktonicum* (Beakes et al. 1993), and we never saw
427 an empty sporangium with open lid. In *Globomyces pollinis-pini* and *Urceomyces sphaerocarpus*
428 forming a sister clade to E4 no lid-like structure was observed during zoospore discharge
429 (Letcher et al. 2008). Probably, a flat plot of sporangial wall dissolves before zoospore release.

430 **Taxonomy**

431 Strain E4 differs from other Rhizophydiales on account of its sporangium and feeding system:
432 its spiny sporangium has a smooth papilla as a remnant of the cyst; it has a large haustorium
433 with central vacuole and peripheral cytoplasm, rhizoids are absent. The cyst and sporangium
434 contain two unique structures, which do not occur in Chytridiomycetes: a syringe and a funnel.
435 The general zoospore structure is similar to that of other representatives of the order
436 Rhizophydiales in respect of: a nuclear associated ribosomal core, a single big lipid globule, but
437 without the rumposome (fenestrated cisterna), a centriole parallel to kinetosome, and a
438 characteristic microtubular root passing to the MLC with simple or lobate microbody (Letcher et
439 al. 2008, Lepelletier et al. 2014b). These traits characterise the representatives of *Globomyces*
440 *pollinis-pini* and *Urceomyces sphaerocarpus* (Letcher et al. 2008), which belong to the family
441 Globomycetaceae and form a sister clade to E4 (Fig. 1). For instance, the general disposition of

442 organelles in zoospores of E4 is similar to that in *Globomyces pollinis-pini*: a ribosomal core in
443 which the nucleus is embedded, multiple mitochondria outside the ribosomal mass, a single
444 lipid globule with a lobed microbody, a microtubular root, and distinct vesicles with uniformly
445 electron-dense contents in the peripheral cytoplasm (Letcher et al. 2008). At the same time, a
446 ribosomal core crossed by ER, saddle-like structure, interconnected thick props, 6-microtubule
447 root associated with basal fibrillar plate, an absence of rumposome and zone of convergence in
448 the bridge between centriole and kinetosome distinguish E4 zoospores and their flagellar
449 apparatus from those of Globomycetaceae.

450 Interlaced props have been described for *Rhizidium phycophilum* (Chytridiales), which also has
451 a centriole parallel to kinetosome, the same structure of the props, but the transverse plate is
452 very thick and the microtubular root was not shown for this species (Picard et al. 2009). The
453 sporangium also differs from that of E4: the surface has reticulate ornamentation, and there is
454 an absence of a papilla (Picard et al. 2009). A spiny sporangium has been described for
455 *Rhizophydium echinocystoides*, but its spines are much longer (15–25 µm vs. maximum 1.5 µm
456 in E4). The sporangium of *Rh. echinocystoides* also has a papilla, but it displays an apical
457 position and serves for zoospore release (Letcher and Powell 2012). Among Rhizophydiales,
458 only *Rhizophydium skujai* has an unbranched sac-like haustorium inside the freshwater host
459 alga *Aphanizomenon flos-aquae* (Letcher and Powell 2012). It has tiny zoospores (1.5–2 µm)
460 and a sporangium with smooth wall. The sporangium of saprotrophic *Rhizophydium punctatum*
461 has a lateral papilla and is similar to E4 size, but its wall is smooth, and the sporangium
462 produces a branched rhizoid (Golubeva 1988).

463 A sporangium formed as a lateral outgrowth from the encysted zoospore is rare (Couch 1938,
464 Karling 1938). As far as we know, the ultrastructure and molecular phylogeny of *Chytridium*
465 *aggregatum* Karling 1938, having a sporangium most similar to E4, has not yet been
466 studied.

467 Thus, morphological characters of E4 are quite peculiar: some of them, e.g. a syringe and
468 funnel, are unique for the class Chytridiomycetes, or even for all zoosporic fungi; other features
469 occur in different families of Rhizophydiales. Such an organism definitely represents a new
470 genus and species and belongs to a separated family within Rhizophydiales.

471

472 **Diagnosis**

473 **Ericiomycetaceae fam. nov. Karpov et Reñé** (Rhizophydiales) MycoBank MB 836465.

474 Parasitic brackish-water chytrid. Sporangium formed as a lateral outgrowth from the encysted
475 zoospore. Zoospore has kinetosome with anterior microtubular root associated with short basal
476 fibrillar plate, ribosomal core ramified and crossed by endoplasmic reticulum.
477

478 ***Ericiomyces* gen. nov. Karpov et Reñé**

479 MycoBank MB 836466.

480 Parasitoid of brackish-water dinoflagellates with simple thallus with monocentric, epibiotic
481 sporangium having endogenous development, with haustorium. Sporangium covered with
482 spines has a smooth papilla. Zoospore with central ribosomal aggregation around the nucleus.
483 Posterior Microbody-Lipid-Complex (MLC) contains a lobed microbody enveloping a large lipid
484 globule. Mitochondria locate around ribosomal core. Kinetid is adjacent to the MLC. Centriole is
485 connected to kinetosome by oblique fibrils without zone of convergence. Anterior root
486 composed of six microtubules passes from kinetosome along the microbody. Cyst contains a
487 syringe-like structure, and uses a special funnel-shaped structure for penetration into the host.

488 Etymology. *Ericio* (Greek) – meaning hedgehog, refers to the spiny sporangium appearance,
489 *myces* – fungus.

490 Type species *Ericiomyces syringoforeus* sp. nov.

491 ***Ericiomyces syringoforeus* sp. nov. Karpov et Reñé**

492 MycoBank **MB 836467**. GenBank numbers: MT998435 (18S rDNA), MT998437 (ITS), MT998436
493 (28S rDNA). Figures 2–7.

494 Parasitoid of dinophytes, with some preference for *Kryptoperidinium* species. Mature epibiotic
495 spherical spiny sporangium of 20 – 25 μm in diameter with smooth lateral papilla. Spines are up
496 to 1.5 μm in length. Spherical zoospores of 3.9 – 4.8 μm in diameter with a posterior lipid
497 globule, flagellum is 26 – 27 μm . Zoospores are released through a discharge pore appr. 10 μm
498 in diameter. Syringe-like structure is 1.2 μm long.

499 Etymology. From the Greek *σύριγγα syringa* – syringe, and *φορέας foreus* – carrier, the unique
500 organelle for infection.

501 Type strain: E4, isolated on the host *Kryptoperidinium foliaceum* from samples collected in
502 Kökar, located in Åland Archipelago (SW coast of Finland) in the northern Baltic Sea in June
503 2016.

504 Holotype: a fixed specimen derived from the strain E4 embedded in a resin block for electron
505 microscopy deposited in the CCPP ZIN RAS under the No X-135.

506 **Ecology**

507 *Ericiomyces syringoforeus* appeared in samples obtained during a bloom of the dinoflagellate
508 *Kryptoperidinium foliaceum*. Concurrently, other parasites were present in those samples
509 infecting the same host, e.g. *Parvilucifera catillosa*, an endoparasitoid belonging to the
510 Perkinsozoa (Alveolata) (Alacid et al. in press). Thus, fungal parasitism is not the only factor
511 involved in the changes of population dynamics of the dinoflagellate, which can be attacked
512 and affected by different co-occurring parasites. In both cases, infections were observed after
513 the incubation of the natural samples in the laboratory and to the best of our knowledge, it
514 represents the first record of co-occurring chytrid-perkinsid species simultaneously infecting
515 the same host. Unfortunately, the prevalence of each species in the natural population could
516 not be determined but cross-infection experiments showed the chytrid was able to infect
517 efficiently *K. foliaceum*, as well as *H. triquetra*, while infections were not observed on other
518 phytoplankton species tested. Those same host species were tested for infections of *P. catillosa*
519 (Alacid et al. in press), showing exactly the same results on susceptibility. Thus, it confirms that
520 both parasites are competing for the same resources. Cross-infection experiments were also
521 performed for *D. arenysensis* (Lepelletier et al. 2014b). Only positive results were obtained for
522 dinoflagellate representatives, being able to infect 31 different strains out of 48 tested,
523 belonging to 13 different species. However, *K. foliaceum* was not infected by *D. arenysensis*.
524 Even though there is a bias in the number of species tested in the cross-infection experiment,
525 both species showed remarkable differences regarding their host preferences. Further studies
526 should focus in the role of parasitism in dinoflagellate population dynamics and understanding
527 those fluxes would help to elucidate the mechanisms of blooms development.

528

529 **Acknowledgements**

530 Light and electron microscopic studies and manuscript writing were supported by Russian
531 Scientific Foundation grant 16-14-10302. SK and AV thank the Research Resource Centre for
532 Molecular and Cell Technologies (RRC MCT) at St. Petersburg State University (SPbSU) for

533 access to the EM facilities. EG, EA and AR were supported by MINECO COPAS “Understanding
534 top-down control in coastal bloom-forming protists” (CTM2017-86121-R). MK and KS were
535 supported by JSPS KAKENHI grants 15KK0026 & 16H02943. AK and AP were supported by grant
536 251564 from Academy of Finland. The authors thank Dr. B.S.C. Leadbeater for English
537 correction.

538 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

539 All authors are sure that all data and materials as well as software application or custom code
540 support their published claims and comply with field standards.

541 **Author’s contributions:**

542 Anke Kremp, Esther Garcés, Elisabet Alacid designed the study and Anke Kremp, Esther Garcés,
543 Elisabet Alacid and Aurora Paloheimo performed samplings. Elisabet Alacid and Aurora
544 Paloheimo performed laboratory experiments. Sergey A. Karpov, Albert Reñé, Andrey E.
545 Vishnyakov performed LM and Albert Reñé performed SEM observations and culture
546 sequencing. Albert Reñé and Kensuke Seto performed phylogenetic analyses. Sergey A. Karpov,
547 Andrey E. Vishnyakov, Kensuke Seto and Maiko Kagami performed TEM observations. Sergey A.
548 Karpov and Albert Reñé conceptualized the manuscript. Sergey A. Karpov drafted the
549 manuscript and all authors reviewed and edited it.

550

551 **References**

552 Alacid E, Reñé A, Gallisai R, Paloheimo A, Garcés E, Kremp A (in press) Description of two new
553 coexisting parasitoids of blooming dinoflagellates in the Baltic sea: *Parvilucifera catillosa* sp.
554 nov. and *Parvilucifera* sp. (Perkinsea, Alveolata). Harmful Algae

555 Alster A, Zohary T (2007) Interactions between the bloom-forming dinoflagellate *Peridinium*
556 *gatunense* and the chytrid fungus *Phlyctochytrium* sp. *Hidrobiologia* 578:131–139

557 Amend A, Burgaud G, Cunliffe M, Edgcomb VP, Ettinger CL, Gutiérrez MH, Heitman J, Hom
558 EFY, Ianiri G, Jones AC, Kagami M, Picard KT, Quandt CA, Raghukumar S, Riquelme M, Stajich J,
559 Vargas-Muñiz J, Walker AK, Yarden O, Gladfelter AS (2019) Fungi in the marine environment:
560 open questions and unsolved problems. *mBio* 10:e01189–18.

561 <https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01189-18>.

562 Beakes GW, Canter HM, Jaworski GHM (1993) Sporangium differentiation and zoospore fine-
563 structure of the chytrid *Rhizophyidium planktonicum*, a fungal parasite of *Asterionella formosa*.
564 *Mycol Res* 97:1059–1074.

565 Canter HM (1968) Studies on British chytrids. XXVIII. *Rhizophydinium nobile* sp. nov.,
566 parasitic on the resting spore of *Ceratium hirundinella* O.F.Müll. from the plankton. Proc Linn
567 Soc Lond 179:197–201.

568 Canter HN, Heaney SI (1984) Observations on zoosporic fungi of *Ceratium* spp. in lakes of the
569 English Lake District; importance for phytoplankton population dynamics. New Phytol 97:601–
570 612.

571 Capella-Gutiérrez S, Silla-Martínez JM, Gabaldón T (2009) trimAl: a tool for automated
572 alignment trimming in large-scale phylogenetic analyses. Bioinformatics 25:1972–1973

573 Comeau AM (2016) Novel chytrid lineages dominate fungal sequences in diverse marine and
574 freshwater habitats. Sci Rep 6:30120.

575 Couch JN (1938) A new species of Chytridium from Mountain Lake, Virginia. Jour
576 Elisha Mitchell Sci Soc 64:256–259.

577 Kremp A, Lindholm T, Dressler N, Eler K, Gerdts G, Eirtovaara S, Leskinen E (2009). Bloom
578 forming *Alexandrium ostenfeldii* (Dinophyceae) in shallow waters of the Åland Archipelago,
579 Northern Baltic Sea. Harmful Algae 8:318–328.

580 Dangeard P-A (1888) Recherches sur les algues inférieures. Annales des Sciences Naturelles
581 Botanique 7:105–175.

582 Frenken T, Alacid E, Berger S, Bourne EC, Gerphagnon M, Grossart H-P, Gsell AS, Ibelings
583 BW, Kagami M, Kupper FC, Letcher PM, Loyau A, Miki T, Nejstgaard JC, Rasconi S, Reñé A,
584 Rohrlack T, Rojas-Jimenez K, Schmeller D, Scholz B, Seto K, Sime-Ngando T, Sukenik A, Van de
585 Waal DB, Van den Wyngaert S, Van Donk E, Wolinska J, Wurzbacher C, Agha R (2017)
586 Integrating chytrid fungal parasites into plankton ecology. Research gaps and needs.
587 Environmental Microbiology 19:3802–3822.

588 Garvetto A, Badis Y, Perrineau MM, Rad-Menéndez C, Bresnan E, Gachon CM (2019) Chytrid
589 infecting the bloom-forming marine diatom *Skeletonema* sp.: Morphology, phylogeny and
590 distribution of a novel species within the Rhizophydiales. Fungal biology 123:471–480.

591 Gleason FH, Jephcott TG, Küpper FC, Gerphagnon M, Sime-Ngando T, Karpov S, Guillou L,
592 Van Ogtrop FF (2015) Potential roles for recently discovered chytrid parasites in the dynamics
593 of harmful algal blooms. Fungal Biology Reviews 29:20–33.

594 Golubeva OG (1995) Keys to mushrooms of Russia. Class Chytridiomycetes. Issue 1. SPb,
595 "World and Family-95" (in Russian)

596 Hakanen P, Suikkanen S, Franzén J, Franzén H, Kankaanpää H, Kremp A (2012) Bloom and
597 toxin dynamics of *Alexandrium ostenfeldii* in a shallow embayment at the SW coast of Finland,
598 northern Baltic Sea. *Harmful Algae* 15:91–99.

599 Hansen G, Daugbjerg N, Henriksen P (2000) Comparative study of *Gymnodinium mikimotoi*
600 and *Gymnodinium aureolum*, comb. Nov. (= *Gyrodinium aureolum*) based on morphology,
601 pigment composition, and molecular data. *J Phycol* 36:394–410.

602 Jones EBG, Suetrong S, Sakayaroj J, Bahkali A, Abdel-Wahab M, Boekhout T, Pang K-L (2015)
603 Classification of marine Ascomycota, Basidiomycota, Blastocladiomycota and Chytridiomycota.
604 *Fungal Divers* 73:1–72.

605 Jones EBG, Pang K, Abdel-Wahab MA *et al.* (2019) An online resource for marine
606 fungi. *Fungal Divers* 96:347–433. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13225-019-00426-5>

607 Kagami M, de Bruin A, Ibelings BW, Van Donk E (2007) Parasitic chytrids: their effects on
608 phytoplankton communities and food-web dynamics. *Hydrobiologia* 578:113–129.

609 Karling JS (1938) Two new operculate chytrids. *Mycologia* 30:302–312.

610 Karpov SA, Lopez-Garcia P, Mamkaeva MA, Tcvetkova VS, Vishnyakov AE, Klimov VI, Moreira
611 D (2018) The chytrid-like parasites of algae *Amoeboradix gromovi* gen. et sp. nov. and
612 *Sanchytrium tribonematis* belong to a new fungal lineage. *Protist* 169:122–140.

613 Katoh K, Rozewicki J, Yamada KD (2019) MAFFT online service: multiple sequence alignment,
614 interactive sequence choice and visualization. *Briefings in Bioinformatics* 20:1160–1166.

615 Koch WJ (1951) Studies of the Chytridium, with observations on the sexually reproducing
616 species. *Journal of the Elisha Mitchell Scientific Society* 67:267–278.

617 Lazarus KL, James TY (2015) Surveying the biodiversity of the Cryptomycota using a targeted
618 PCR approach. *Fungal Ecology* 14:62–70.

619 Le Calvez T, Burgaud G, Mahé S, Barbier G, Vandenkoornhuysen P (2009) Fungal diversity in
620 deep-sea hydrothermal ecosystems. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 75:6415–6421.
621 <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.00653-09>.

622 Lepelletier F, Karpov SA, Alacid E, Le Panse S, Bigeard E, Garcés E, Jeanthon C, Guillou L
623 (2014b) *Dinomyces arenysensis* gen. et sp. nov. (Rhizophydiales, Dinomyceataceae fam. nov.), a
624 chytrid infecting marine dinoflagellates. *Protist* 165: 230–244.

625 Lepelletier F, Karpov SA, Le Panse S, Bigeard E, Skovgaard A, Jeanthon C, Guillou L (2014a)
626 *Parvilucifera rostrata* sp. nov. (Perkinsozoa), a novel parasitoid that infects planktonic
627 dinoflagellates. *Protist* 165:31–49.

628 Leshem T, Letcher PM, Powell MJ, Sukenik A (2016) Characterization of a new chytrid species
629 parasitic on the dinoflagellate, *Peridinium gatunense*. *Mycologia* 108:731–743.

630 Letcher PM, Powell MJ (2012) A taxonomic summary and revision of Rhizophydium
631 (Rhizophydiales, Chytridiomycota). Alabama University Printing, No. 1. Imprint Tuscaloosa, AL.

632 Letcher PM, Powell MJ, Davis WJ (2015) A new family and four new genera in Rhizophydiales
633 (Chytridiomycota). *Mycologia* 107:808–830

634 Letcher PM, Velez CG, Barrantes ME, Powell MJ, Churchill PA, Wakefield WS (2008)
635 Ultrastructural and molecular analyses of Rhizophydiales (Chytridiomycota) isolates from North
636 America and Argentina. *Mycological Research* 112:759–782.

637 Picard KT, Letcher PM, Powell MJ. (2009) *Rhizidium phycophilum*, a new species in
638 Chytridiales. *Mycologia* 101:696–706.

639 Picard KT (2017) Coastal marine habitats harbor novel early-diverging fungal diversity. *Fungal*
640 *Ecology* 25:1–13.

641 Powell MJ (1974) Fine structure of plasmodesmata in a chytrid. *Mycologia* 66:606–614.

642 Powell MJ (2016) Chytridiomycota. In: Archibald *et al.* (ed.), *Handbook of the Protists*.
643 Springer International Publishing, Cham, Switzerland, pp 1–36.

644 Powell MJ, Gillette L (1987) Septal structure of the chytrid *Rhizophlyctis harderi*. *Mycologia*
645 79:635–639.

646 Raghukumar S (2017) *Fungi in Coastal and Oceanic Marine Ecosystems*. Marine Fungi.
647 Springer International Publishing AG. DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-54304-8. ISBN 978-3-319-54303-1
648 ISBN 978-3-319-54304-8 (eBook) Diversity of various groups of marine fungi (Raghukumar,
649 2017):25.

650 Reñé A, Alacid E, Figueroa RI, Rodríguez F, Garcés E (2017) Life-cycle, ultrastructure, and
651 phylogeny of *Parvilucifera corolla* sp. nov. (Alveolata, Perkinsozoa), a parasitoid of
652 dinoflagellates. *Europ J Prot* 58:9–25.

653 Richards TA, Leonard G, Mahé F, del Campo J, Romac S, Jones MDM, Maguire F, Dunthorn
654 M, De Vargas C, Massana R, Chambouvet A (2015) Molecular diversity and distribution of
655 marine fungi across 130 European environmental samples. *Proc Biol Sci* 282:2015–2243.
656 <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2015.2243>.

657 Richards TA, Jones MDM, Leonard G, Bass D (2012) Marine fungi: their ecology and
658 molecular diversity. *Annu Rev Mar Sci* 4:495–522. [https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-marine-](https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-marine-120710-100802)
659 [120710-100802](https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-marine-120710-100802).

660 Scholin CA, Herzog M, Sogin M, Anderson DM (1994) Identification of group- and strain-
661 specific genetic markers for globally distributed *Alexandrium* (Dinophyceae). II. Sequence
662 analysis of a fragment of the 28S rDNA. *Journal of phycology* 30:999–1011.

663 Scholz B, Guillou L, Marano AV, Neuhauser S, Sullivan BK, Karsten U, Küpper FC, Gleason FH
664 (2016) Zoosporic parasites infecting marine diatoms – A black box that needs to be opened.
665 *Fungal Ecology* 19:59–76.

666 Taylor JW, Fuller MS (1981) The Golgi apparatus, zoosporogenesis, and development of the
667 zoospore discharge apparatus of *Chytridium confervae*. *Exp Mycol* 5: 35–59.

668 Van den Wyngaert S, Seto K, Rojas-Jimenez K, Kagami M, Grossart H-S (2017) A new
669 parasitic chytrid, *Staurastromyces oculus* (Rhizophydiales, Staurastromycetaceae fam. nov.),
670 infecting the freshwater desmis *Staurastrum* sp. *Protist* 168:392–407.

671 Vélez CG, Letcher PM, Schultz S, Powell MJ, Churchill PF (2011) Molecular phylogenetic and
672 zoospore ultrastructural analyses of *Chytridium olla* establish the limits of a monophyletic
673 Chytridiales *Mycologia*. *Mycologia* 103:118–130.

674 White TJ, Bruns T, Lee SJWT, Taylor J (1990) Amplification and direct sequencing of fungal
675 ribosomal RNA genes for phylogenetics. *PCR protocols: a guide to methods and*
676 *applications* 18:315–322.

677

678

679

680

681

682

683

684

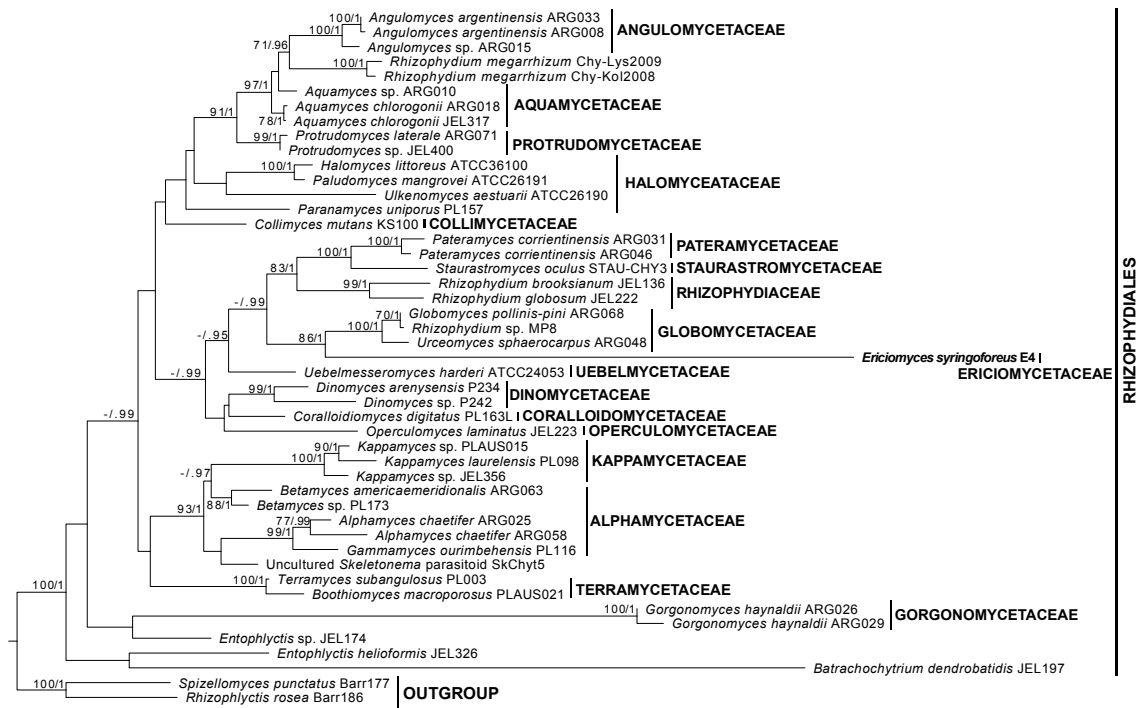
685

686

687 **Table 1.** Cross-infections between the chytrid *Ericiomyces syringoformis* and selected hosts
688 belonging to different phytoplankton lineages. The susceptibility of each species was
689 determined qualitatively following Lepelletier et al. 2014a. Resistant: -; low susceptibility: +;
690 moderate susceptibility: ++; high susceptibility: +++.

Algal group	Host species	Strain	Susceptibility
Dinoflagellate	<i>Alexandrium ostenfeldii</i>	AOF0908	---
	<i>Heterocapsa triquetra</i>	HTF1002	+
	<i>Kryptoperidinium foliaceum</i>	KFF1002	+++
	<i>Levanderina fissa</i>	GFF1101	---
	<i>Prorocentrum</i> sp.	KVDAN31	---
	<i>Karlodinium veneficum</i>	Proro 1	---
	<i>Pfiesteria piscicida</i>	PPF02	---
	Haptophyte	<i>Pleurochrysis roscoffensis</i>	Cocco 3
Cryptophyte	<i>Rhodomonas</i> sp.	Crypto07B1	---
	<i>Rhinomonas nottbeckii</i>	Crypto07B6	---
Chlorophyte	<i>Chlorella pyrenoidosa</i>	TV216	---
	<i>Monoraphidium</i> sp.	TV70	---
Cyanobacteria	<i>Aphanizomenon</i> sp.	KAC28	---

691
692
693
694
695
696
697
698
699
700
701
702
703
704
705
706
707



708

709 Fig. 1. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of concatenated 5.8S, 18S and 28S rDNA
 710 sequences representing the diversity of Rhizophydiales order. The sequence of *Eriomyces*
 711 *syringoforeus* is in bold. Statistical support of the nodes is presented by the bootstrap value (%)
 712 and the Bayesian posterior probability. Only values >70% and >0.95 respectively are shown.
 713 When only one of the values is below the threshold, it is indicated with a dashed line.

714

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722

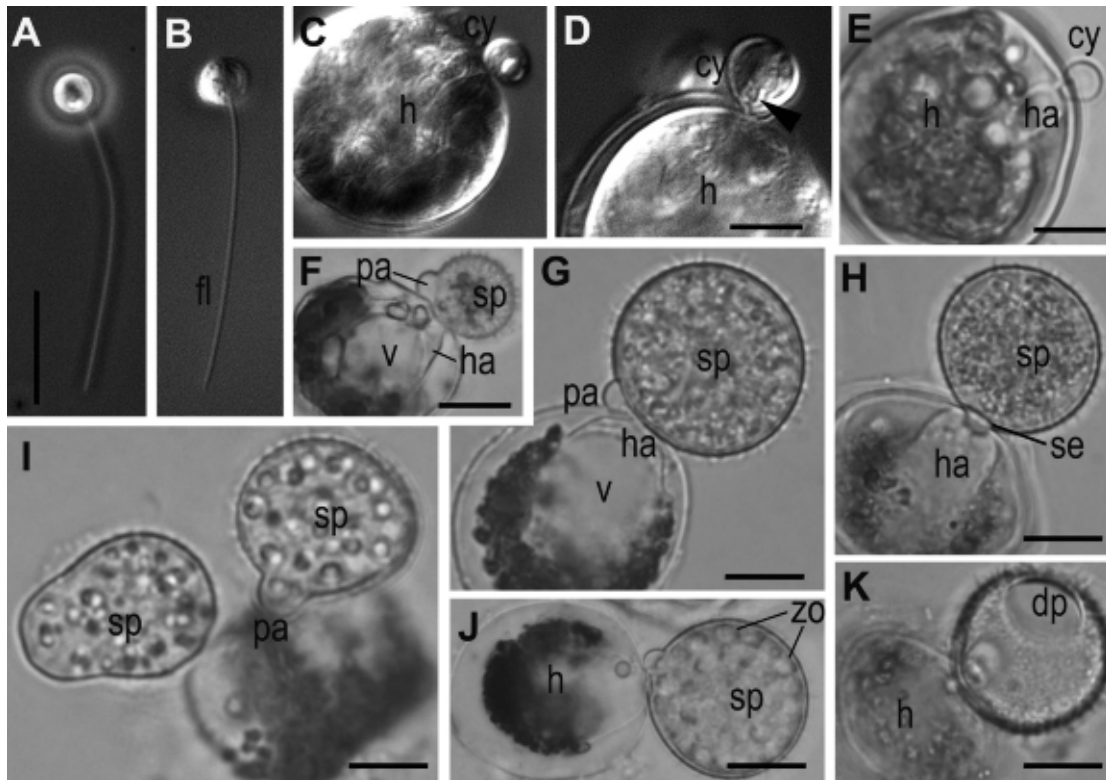
723

724

725

726

727



728

729 Fig. 2. Light microscopic images of the life-cycle stages of *Eriomyces syringoforeus*. A,B –
 730 zoospores at Ph (A) and DIC (B); C – zoospore with retracted flagellum recently attached to the
 731 host (DIC); D – encysted zoospore with syringe (arrowhead) (DIC); E – encysted and germinated
 732 cell with haustorium (BF); F – young spiny sporangium with papilla; G,H – multinucleate
 733 immature sporangium with developed haustorium and septa (H); I,J – mature sporangia with
 734 formed zoospores (J); K – empty sporangium with a discharge pore after zoospore release. E–K
 735 – BF images.

736 Scales: A–C, E, G–K – 10 μ m, D – 5 μ m, F – 15 μ m.

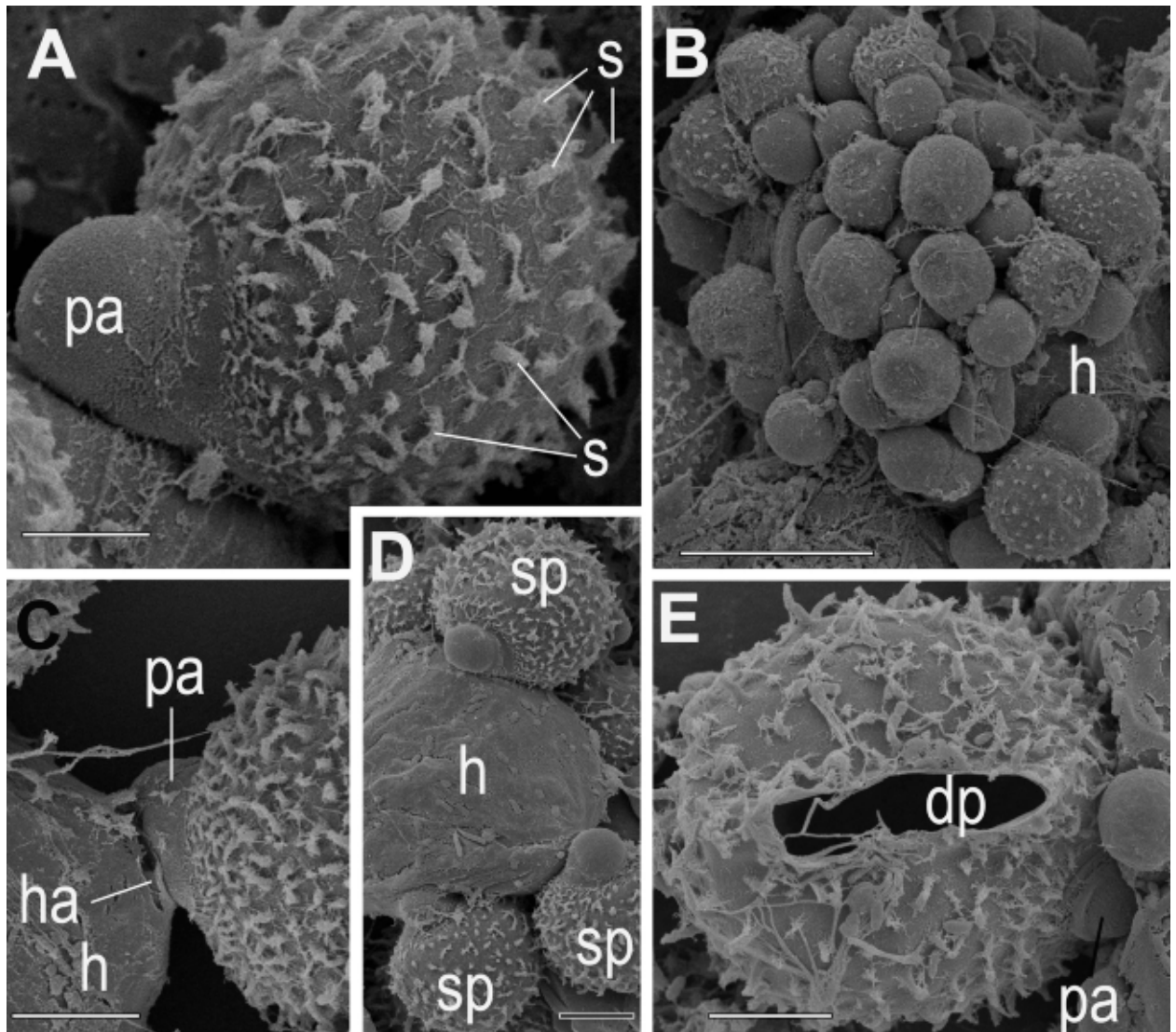
737

738 **Abbreviations:** am-amoeba, br-bridge, c-centriole, cy-cyst, dp-discharge pore, dv-dense
 739 vesicles, er-endoplasmic reticulum, fc-food cap, fl-flagellum, fu-funnel, h-host, ha-haustorium,
 740 k-kinetosome, l-lipid globule, m-mitochondrion, ma-microtubules of the axoneme, mi-
 741 microbody, mr-microtubular root, n-nucleus, ne-needle of the syringe, pa-papilla, pl-plate at
 742 the base of microtubular root, pr-props, rc-ribosomal core, s-spines, se-septa, sa-saddle, sp-
 743 sporangium, sr-subunits of ribosomes, sw-sporangial wall, sy-syringe, v-vacuole, zo-zoospore.

744

745

746



747

748 Fig. 3. Scanning electron microscopical images of sporangia and cysts of *Eriциomyces*
 749 *syringoforeus*. A – typical shape of spiny sporangium with papilla on the host surface; B –
 750 multiple infection of the *Kryptoperidinium foliaceum* cell (h), covered by cysts and early
 751 sporangia; C – haustorium penetration into the host; D – several growing spiny sporangia on
 752 host surface; E – empty sporangium with a discharge pore after zoospore releasing and papilla.
 753 Scales: A, C–E – 5 μm , B – 10 μm .

754

755

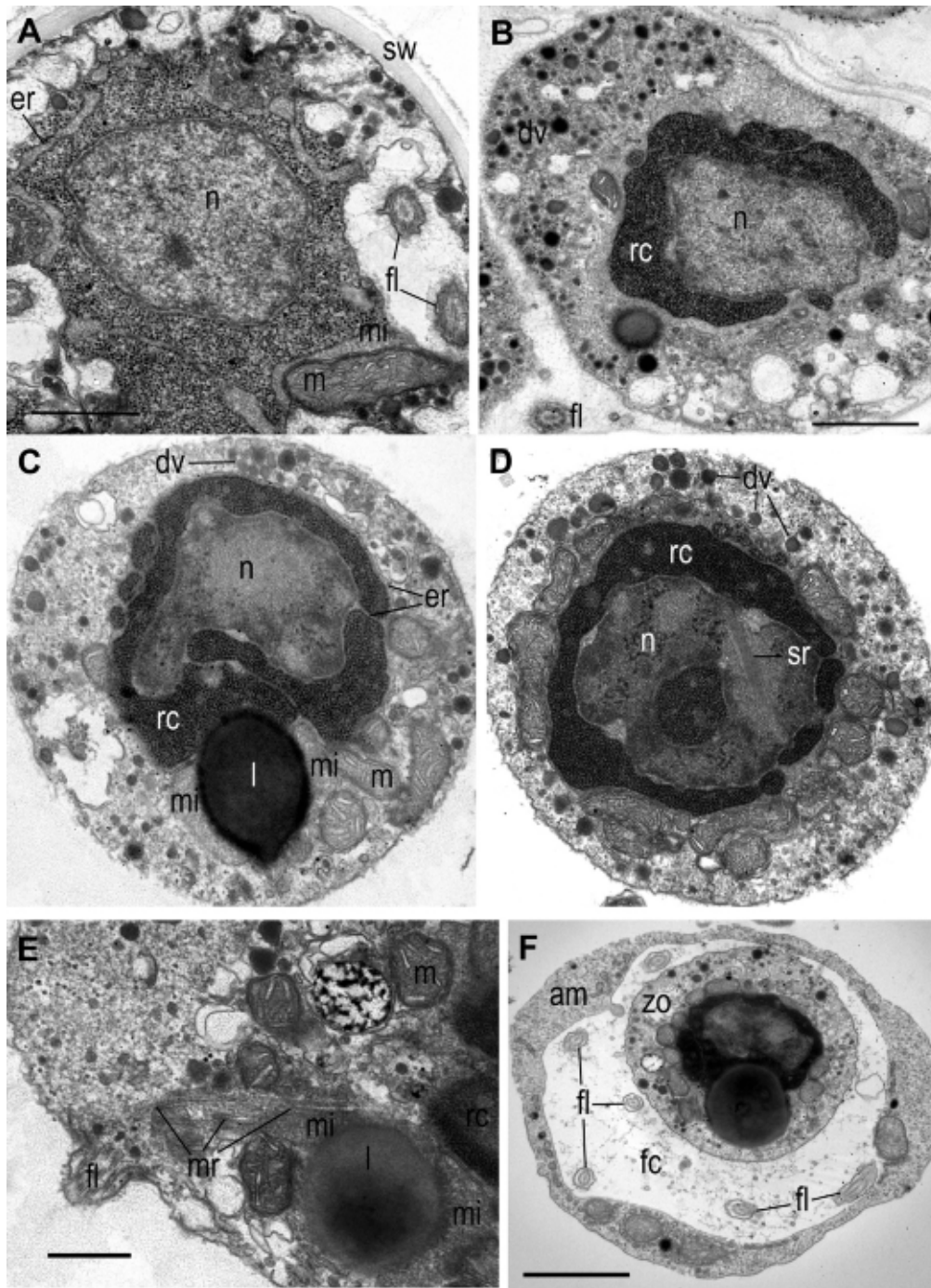
756

757

758

759

760



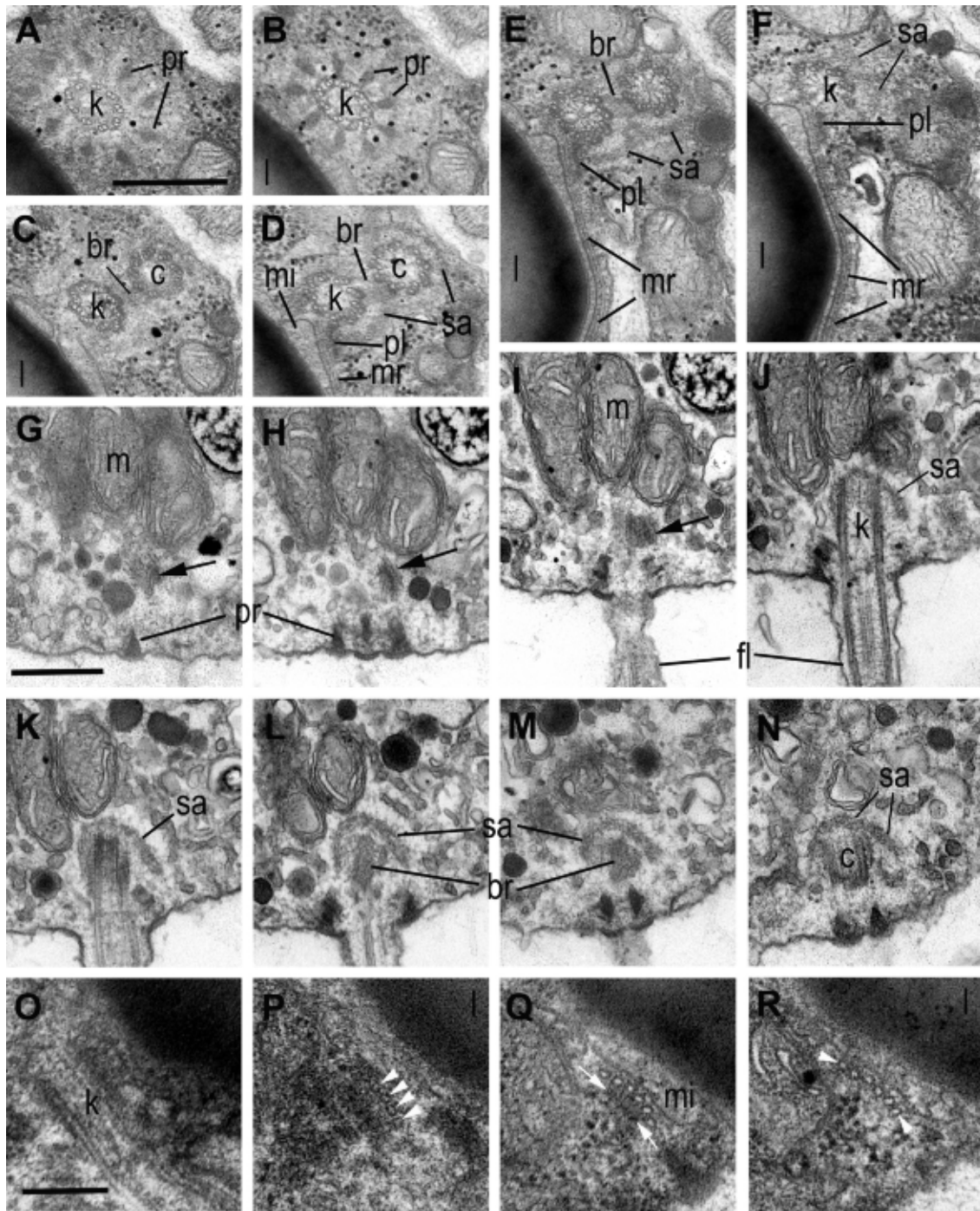
761

762 Fig. 4. General zoospore structure of *Ericiomyces syringoforeus* at ultrathin sections. A –
 763 intrasporangial nearly mature zoospore but still with dispersed ribosomes; B - intrasporangial
 764 mature zoospore with aggregated ribosomes; C, D – released zoospore structure; E – posterior
 765 end of released zoospore with flagellum and anterior microtubular root; F – zoospore in the
 766 food cup of heterolobosean amoeba.

767 Scales: A – 1 μ m, B–D – 1 μ m, E – 500 nm, F – 2 μ m.

768

769



770

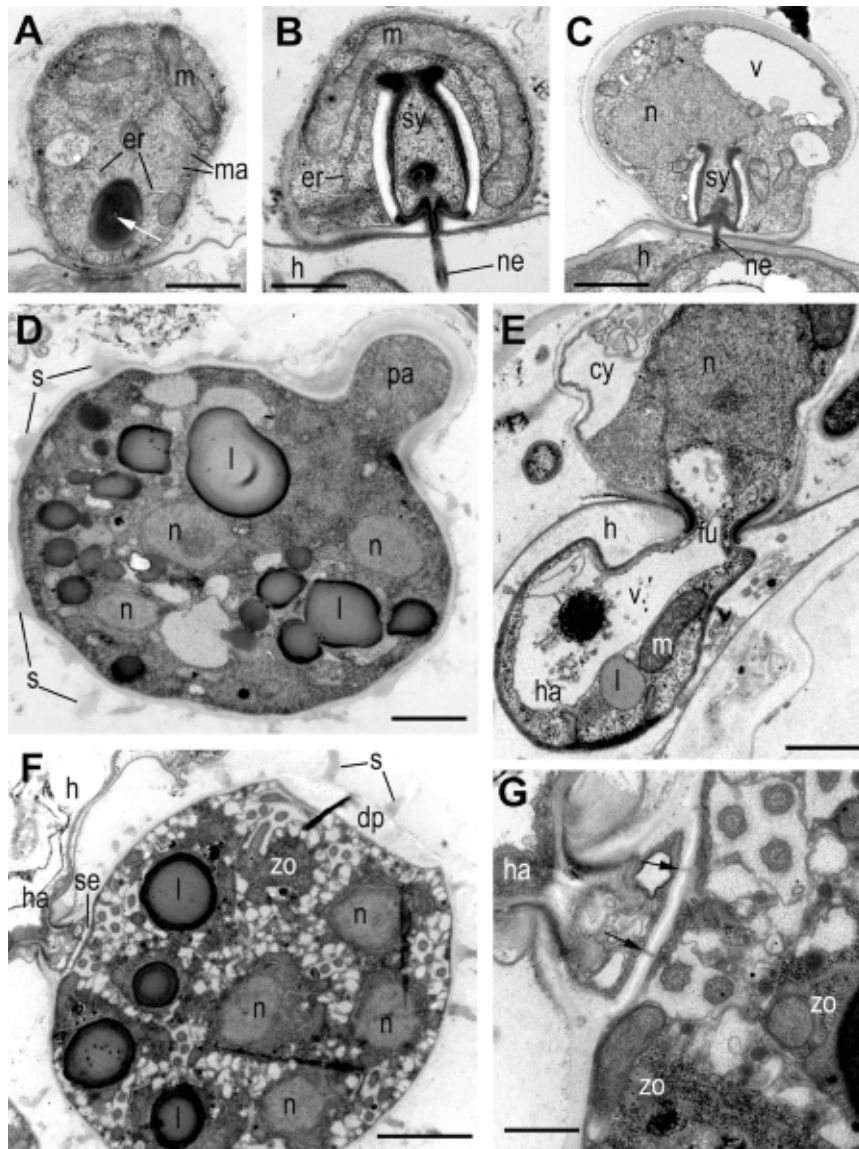
771 Fig. 5. Flagellar apparatus structure in zoospore of *Ericiomyces syringoforeus*. A–F – consecutive
 772 transverse sections of kinetosome and centriole in direction from distal to proximal end; G–N –
 773 consecutive longitudinal sections of kinetosome and centriole, arrows show oblique section of
 774 microtubular root with plate; O–R – consecutive transverse sections of microtubular root (bars)
 775 and its basal plate (arrowheads) in direction from its origin at kinetosome to distal end.

776

Scales: A–F – 400 nm, G–N – 400 nm, O–R – 150 nm.

777

778



779

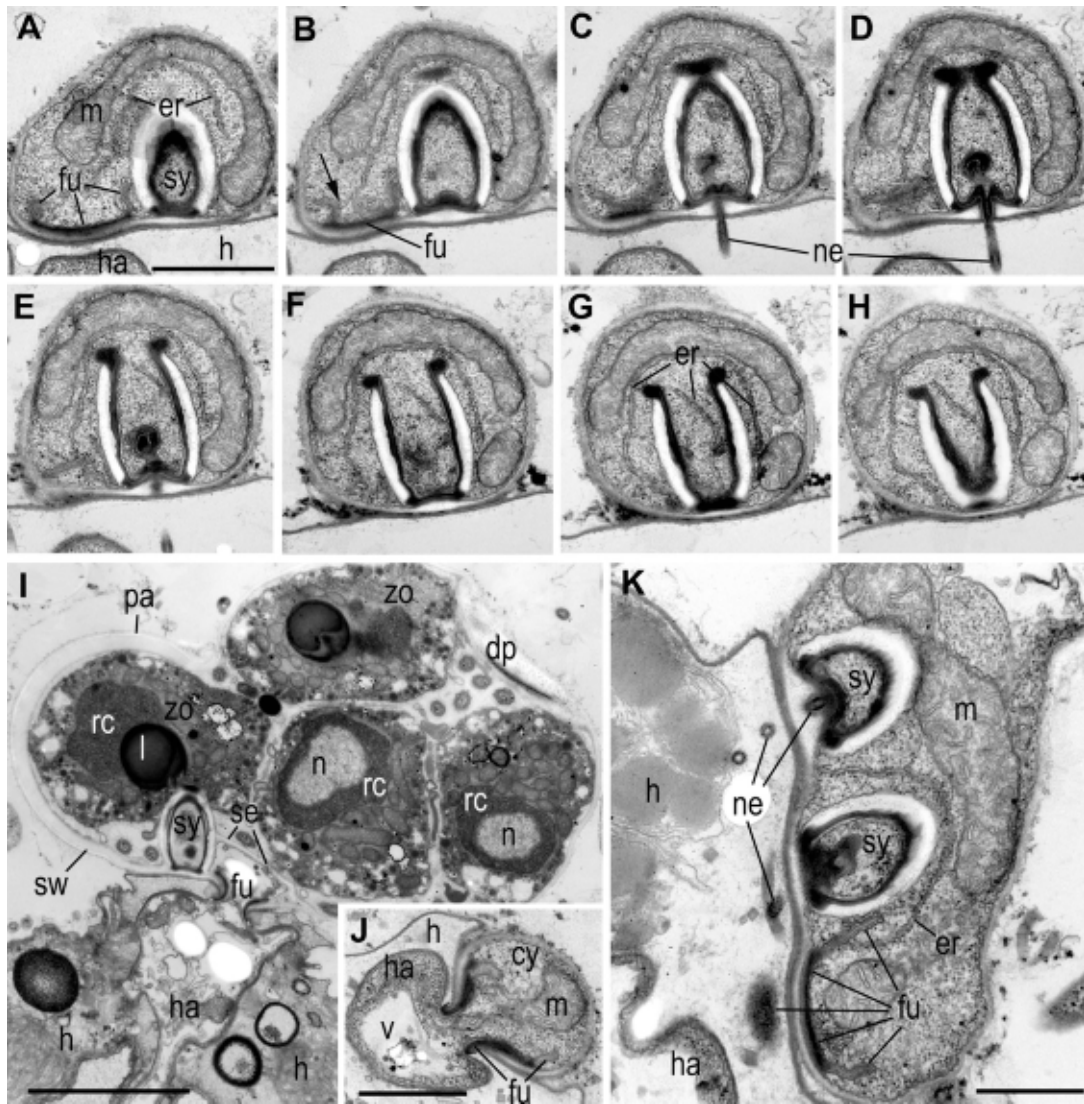
780 Fig. 6. Cyst and sporangia structure of *Eriomyces syringoformis* at ultrathin sections. A –
 781 recently encysted zoospore with lipid globule containing a tube in the centre (white
 782 arrowhead); B – cyst with mature syringe penetrating the host wall. C – part of sporangium
 783 near the papilla with thickened wall and mature syringe penetrating the host wall; D –
 784 immature multinucleate sporangium with papilla; E – sporangium with rhizoid fixed in the host
 785 cell wall by funnel structure; F – mature sporangium with zoospores septa, funnel and
 786 discharge pore; G – structure of septa at higher magnification. Arrows show the pores in septa.
 787 Scales: A – 800 nm, B – 500 nm, C – 1 μ m, D – 2.5 μ m, E – 800 μ m, F – 2 μ m, G – 500 nm.

788

789

790

791



792

793 Fig. 7. Structure of syringe of *Ericiomyces syringoforeus* at the ultrathin sections. A–H – serial
 794 longitudinal sections of syringe in the cyst. Arrow on B shows ER connection with funnel. I –
 795 sporangium with mature zoospores contains an old syringe and funnel with haustorium. J –
 796 funnel-shaped structure in the cyst. K – part of young sporangium with two syringes and
 797 penetrative funnel.

798 Scales: A–H – 1 μ m, I – 2 μ m, J, K – 400 nm.

799

800

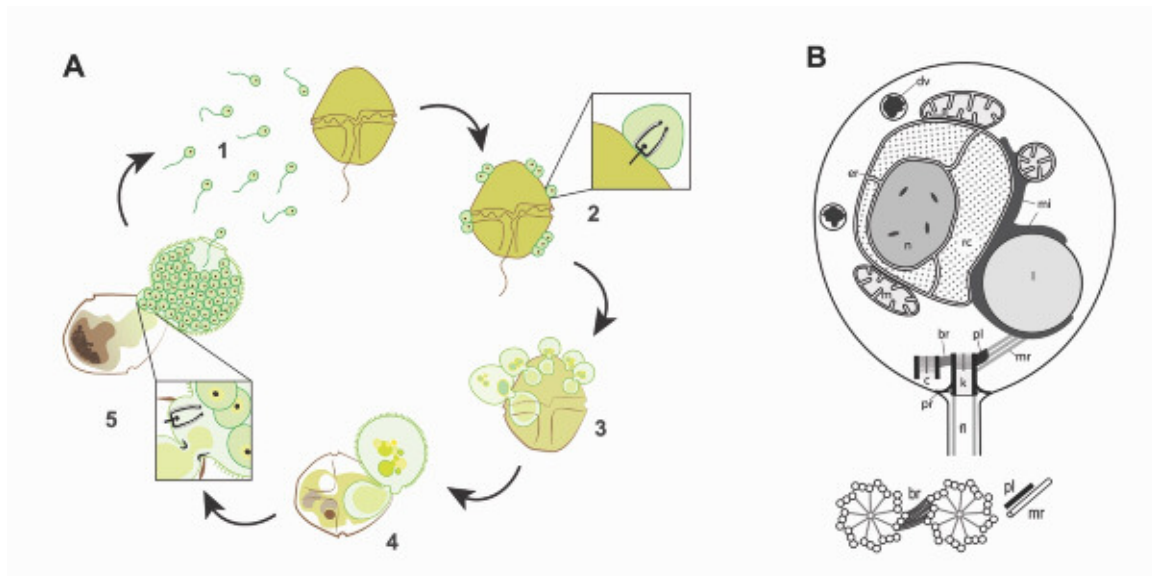
801

802

803

804

805



806

807

808 Fig. 8. Scheme of *Ericiomyces syringoforeus* life cycle (A) and zoospore structure (B).

809 1 – zoospores released from sporangium and move to another host, 2 – encysted zoospores on

810 the host surface (enlarged: syringe in the cyst paralyzing the host), 3 – five young sporangia

811 with haustoria feeding on the host, 4 – developed sporangium, 5 – mature sporangium

812 releasing zoospores (enlarged: sporangium/host interface).

813 Greenish color marks parasitoid, yellowish – healthy dinophyte, brownish – infected and

814 degraded dinophyte with brown theca.

815

816

817

818

819

820

821

822

823

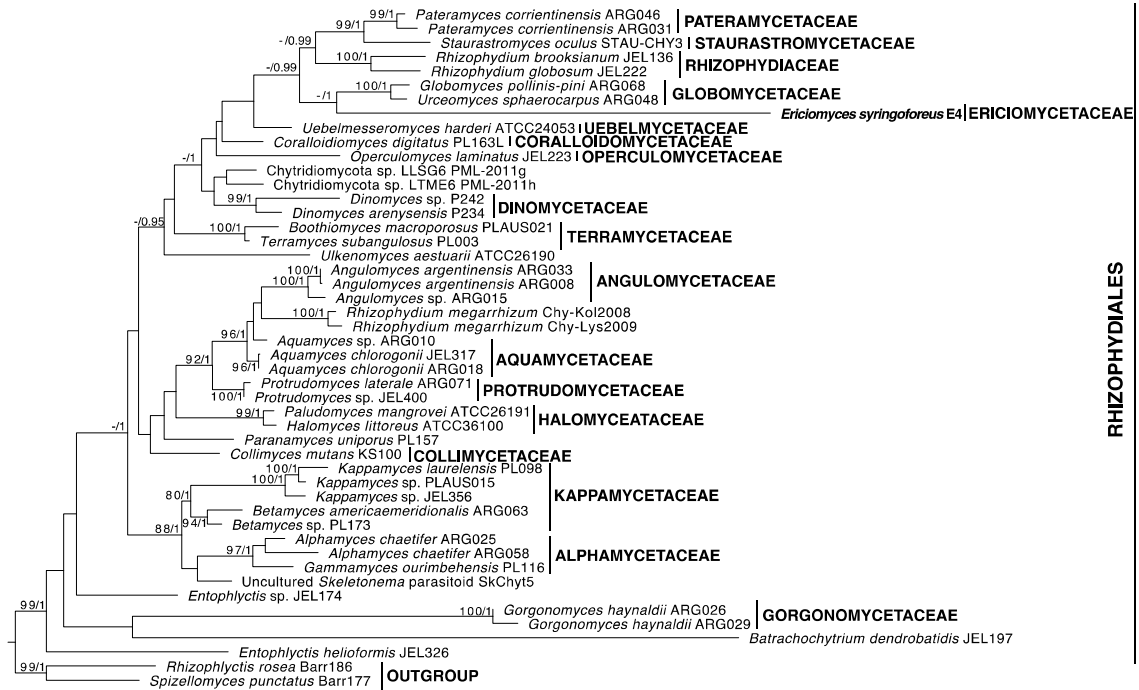
824

825

826

827

828



850

851

852 Supplementary Figure 2: Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of 28S rDNA sequences
 853 representing the diversity of the Rhizophydiales. The sequence of *Ericiomyces syringoforeus* is
 854 in bold. Statistical support of the nodes is presented by the bootstrap value (%) and the
 855 Bayesian posterior probability. Only values >70% and >0.95 respectively are shown. When only
 856 one of the values is below the threshold, it is indicated with a dashed line.

857

858

859

860

861

862

863

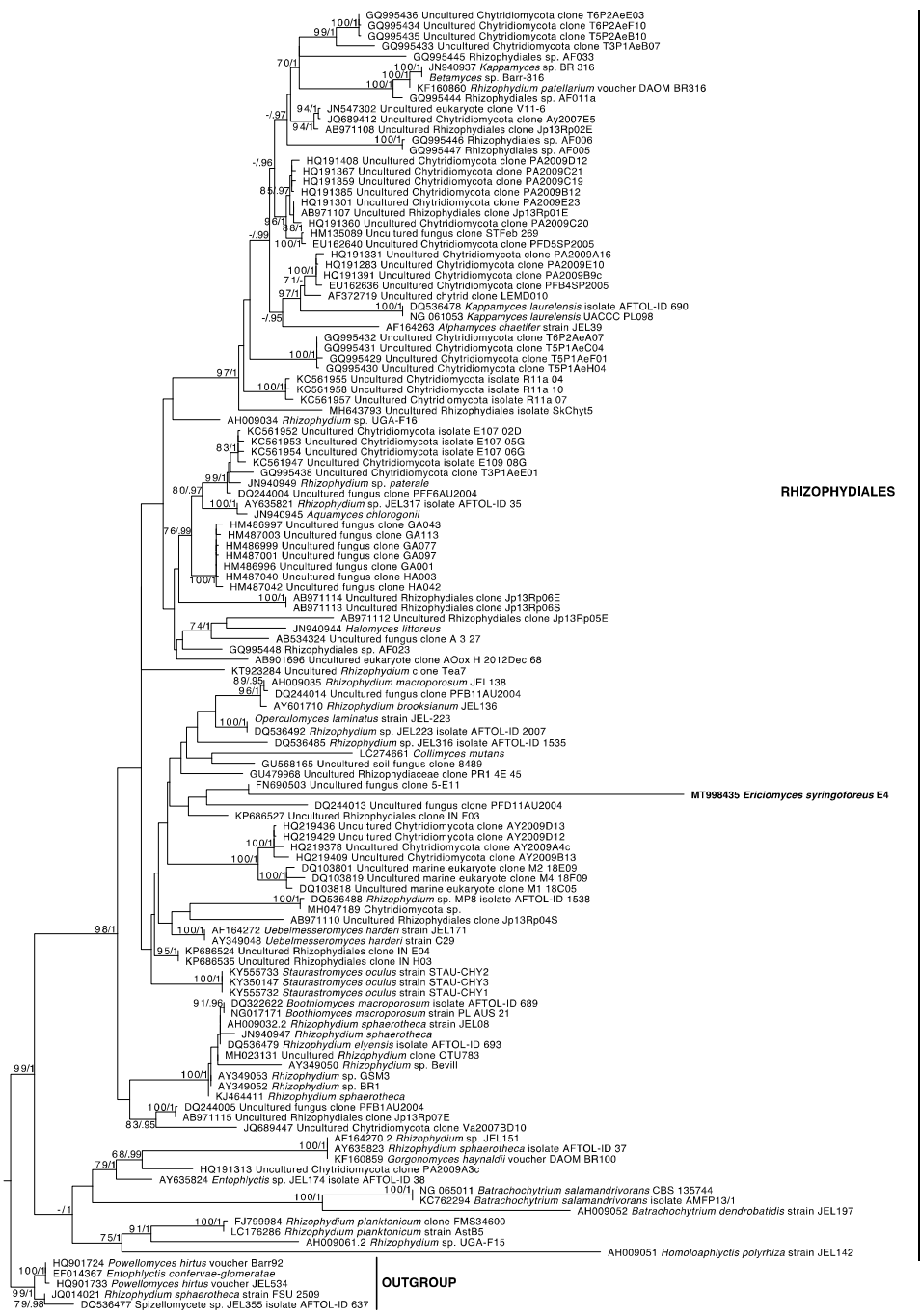
864

865

866

867

868



869

870 Supplementary Figure 3: Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of 18S rDNA sequences
 871 representing the diversity of the Rhizophydiales. The sequence of *Ericomyces syringoforeus* is
 872 in bold. Statistical support of the nodes is presented by the bootstrap value (%) and the
 873 Bayesian posterior probability. Only values >70% and >0.95 respectively are shown. When only
 874 one of the values is below the threshold, it is indicated with a dashed line.

875

876