

Microbial community structure reveals instability of nutritional symbiosis during the evolutionary radiation of Amblyomma ticks

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1 Microbial community structure reveals instability of nutritional symbiosis

- 2 during evolutionary radiation of Amblyomma ticks
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Abstract

12	Mutualistic interactions with microbes have facilitated the adaptation of major eukaryotic
13	lineages to restricted diet niches. Hence, ticks with their strictly blood-feeding lifestyle are
14	associated with intracellular bacterial symbionts through an essential B vitamin
15	supplementation. In this study, examination of the whole bacterial diversity in 25 tick species
16	of the Amblyomma genus showed that three intracellular bacteria, Coxiella-like
17	endosymbionts (LE), Francisella-LE and Rickettsia, are remarkably common. No other
18	bacterium is so uniformly present in Amblyomma ticks. Almost all Amblyomma species were
19	found to harbour a nutritive obligate symbiont, Coxiella-LE or Francisella-LE, able to
20	synthesize B vitamins. However, despite the co-evolved and obligate nature of these
21	mutualistic interactions, the structure of microbiomes does not mirror the Amblyomma
22	phylogeny with a clear exclusion pattern between Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE across tick
23	species. Coxiella-LE, but not Francisella-LE, form evolutionarily stable associations with
24	ticks commonly leading to co-cladogenesis. We further evidenced symbiont replacements
25	during radiation of Amblyomma, with recent, and likely ongoing, invasions by Francisella-LE
26	and subsequent replacements of ancestral Coxiella-LE through transient co-infections.
27	Nutritional symbiosis in Amblyomma ticks is thus not a stable evolutionary state, but instead
28	arises from conflicting origins between unrelated but competing symbionts with similar
29	metabolic capabilities.

Introduction

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31 Macro-organisms harbour complex microbial communities living inside and on their body 32 (Margulis, 1993; Theis et al., 2016). These microbial communities, known as the microbiomes, can determine pivotal phenotypic traits of their hosts, driving a variety of 33 34 ecological and evolutionary processes including major nutritive, reproductive and immune functions (Gould et al., 2018; Groussin et al., 2017; Hanning & Diaz-Sanchez, 2015; Ley et 35 36 al., 2008; Turner, James, & Poole, 2013). As hosts vary in the microbiomes they harbour, an 37 associated functionally important phenotypic variation exists within host populations (Falony et al., 2016; Ferrari & Vavre, 2011; Jaenike, 2012; Oliver, Russell, Moran, & Hunter, 2003; 38 39 Scarborough, Ferrari, & Godfray, 2005). In arthropods, these microbiomes notably include 40 highly specialized intracellular bacteria depending almost exclusively on maternal (transovarial) transmission to ensure their persistence in host populations (Moran, 41 McCutcheon, & Nakabachi, 2008; Wernegreen, 2012). Some of these maternally inherited 42 43 symbionts are essential for the life cycle of their arthropod hosts: They are obligate mutualists able to synthesize biochemical products favouring the specialization of arthropods to novel 44 habitats or to particular feeding niches such as strict haematophagy or phloemophagy (Moran 45 et al., 2008; Wernegreen, 2012). Overall, these mutualistic interactions have facilitated the 46 47 radiation of major arthropod lineages, leading to remarkable host-symbiont phylogenetic 48 congruence with a strict co-cladogenesis pattern in many cases (Chen, Li, & Aksoy, 1999; 49 Duron et al., 2017; Jousselin, Desdevises, & Coeur d'acier, 2009; Moran, Tran, & Gerardo, 2005; Takiya, Tran, Dietrich, & Moran, 2006). 50 51 Arthropods and beneficial maternally inherited symbionts can form evolutionary stable 52 associations lasting for millions of years, but that are not necessarily permanent (Bennett & 53 54 Moran, 2015; McCutcheon, Boyd, & Dale, 2019; Moran et al., 2008; Wernegreen, 2012).

55 Recent phylogenetic reconstructions suggest that beneficial symbiotic relationships can break 56 down: Recently acquired symbionts can replace ancestral beneficial symbionts and provide similar benefits to the host (McCutcheon et al., 2019; Sudakaran, Kost, & Kaltenpoth, 2017). 57 58 An alternative scenario is that recently acquired symbionts may cooperate with ancestral beneficial symbionts (Moran et al. 2008; Vautrin & Vavre, 2009). Vertical transmission 59 60 actually locks the different symbionts together as coinfection and creates then priviliged 61 situations for symbiont-symbiont interactions, especially cooperation and dependence between symbionts. Functions of ancestral beneficial symbionts may be complemented by 62 recently acquired cosymbionts and their coexistence can be ultimately stable over millions of 63 64 years (Meseguer et al 2017). New beneficial symbionts often originate from microbes abundant in the host environment, potentially including entomopathogens, parasites vectored 65 by arthropods or other maternally inherited symbionts, primarily facultative (i.e. not essential) 66 67 for host survival (Koga & Moran, 2014; Matsuura et al., 2018; McCutcheon et al., 2019; Sachs, Skophammer, & Regus, 2011). These facultative symbionts, however, determine 68 69 important traits in arthropods: protection against natural enemies, adaptation to changing environments or reproductive traits (Engelstädter & Hurst, 2009; Ferrari & Vavre, 2011; 70 71 Moran et al., 2008; Oliver et al., 2003). Contrary to beneficial obligate symbionts, facultative 72 symbionts undergo occasional horizontal transfers (HT) across arthropod species, resulting in limited phylogenetic congruence between hosts and symbionts (Duron, Wilkes, & Hurst, 73 2010; Jousselin, Cœur d'Acier, Vanlerberghe-Masutti, & Duron, 2013; Russell et al., 2009). 74 Overall, the diverse range of microbial lifestyle strategies creates a complex web of 75 76 interactions mediating the dynamics of beneficial symbioses in arthropods (McCutcheon et al., 2019). 77

79 Co-existence of symbionts within microbial communities is expected to involve interactions 80 ranging from cooperation to competition and that can, in turn, determine aggregation and exclusion patterns (Ferrari & Vavre, 2011; Moran et al., 2008; Vautrin & Vavre, 2009). 81 82 Exclusion patterns have been recently detected between maternally inherited symbionts of ticks, suggesting that replacements of beneficial symbionts occur in this system (Duron et al., 83 84 2017). Among arthropods, ticks (Arachnida: Ixodidae) are well known to engage in symbiotic 85 associations with at least 10 different genera of maternally inherited bacteria (Ahantarig, Trinachartvanit, Baimai, & Grubhoffer, 2013; Duron et al., 2017). Ticks are specialized for an 86 exclusive diet of vertebrate blood, and have evolved intimate interactions with beneficial 87 88 symbionts that provide essential B vitamins and co-factors deficient in the blood diet (Bonnet, Binetruy, Hernández-Jarguín, & Duron, 2017; Duron et al., 2017, 2018; Gerhart, Moses, & 89 Raghavan, 2016; Gottlieb, Lalzar, & Klasson, 2015; Guizzo et al., 2017; Hunter et al., 2015; 90 91 Olivieri et al., 2019; Smith, Driscoll, Gillespie, & Raghavan, 2015). Approximately two thirds of tick species harbour Coxiella-like endosymbionts (Coxiella-LE hereafter), which are 92 93 required for tick survival and reproduction (Gottlieb et al., 2015; Guizzo et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2015; Zhong, Jasinskas, & Barbour, 2007). Coxiella-LE genomes encode pathways for the 94 biosynthesis of major B vitamins and co-factors that fit closely with the expected nutritional 95 96 complements required for strict haematophagy (Gottlieb et al., 2015; Guizzo et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2015). Coxiella-LE are abundant in two organs of ticks: ovaries, that is 97 consistent with vertical transmission into developing oocytes, and Malpighian tubules, where 98 B vitamins are possibly synthesized (Buysse, Plantard, McCoy, Duron, & Menard, 2019; 99 100 Wang et al., 2018)(Lalzar et al 2012). Owing to their maternal inheritance and beneficial nature, Coxiella-LE are present in most individuals within infected host species [16, 41]. In 101 the Rhipicephalus tick genus, the acquisition of Coxiella-LE was followed by co-102

diversification resulting in deeply congruent *Rhipicephalus–Coxiella-*LE phylogenies (Duron et al., 2017).

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In a few tick species, however, Coxiella-LE are present at much lower frequencies than expected for obligate nutritional symbionts, suggesting that they are instead facultative symbionts in these hosts (Duron et al., 2015). Phylogenetic evidence corroborates this hypothesis, since closely related *Coxiella*-LE may infect distantly related tick species suggesting recurrent HT of some Coxiella-LE (Duron et al., 2015). In other tick species, no Coxiella-LE were detected at all, but alternative obligate beneficial symbionts have been identified or hypothesized (Duron et al., 2017, 2018; Gerhart et al., 2016; Kurtti et al., 2015; Olivieri et al., 2019). Indeed, Francisella-like endosymbionts (Francisella-LE) are commonly found in tick species lacking Coxiella-LE. A recent analysis of endosymbiotic communities in 81 tick species also showed that there is a significant exclusion pattern between Francisella-LE and Coxiella-LE (Duron et al., 2017). Like Coxiella-LE, Francisella-LE are essential for tick nutrition: Ticks deprived of their Francisella-LE completely cease development but resume normal growth upon supplementation with B vitamins (Duron et al., 2018). Genomes of Francisella-LE contain roughly the same biosynthesis pathways of B vitamins and cofactors as observed in Coxiella-LE genomes (Duron et al., 2018; Gerhart et al., 2016). Francisella-LE also presents the same tropism than Coxiella-LE: Francisella-LE are abundant in ovaries and Malpighian tubules of the ticks they infect (Duron et al 2018, current biology). Although Francisella-LE and Coxiella-LE are distantly related, they have converged towards an analogous nutritional mutualism with ticks [32, 33].

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While *Coxiella*-LE symbioses are likely ancestral in ticks, replacements by *Francisella*-LE having recently transitioned to an endosymbiotic lifestyle (Duron et al., 2018; Gerhart et al.,

2016) appear across the tick phylogeny (Duron et al., 2017). Yet, the factors favouring Francisella-LE over Coxiella-LE in this evolutionary dynamic are not well understood. In this study, we examined the evolutionary dynamic of tick microbiomes, with a focus on beneficial nutritional symbioses, in an ecologically diverse genus of hard ticks, *Amblyomma*. This genus is the third largest in the family Ixodidae, with its species primarily occupying the tropical zones. The centre of species diversity is on the American continent, where half of all the 130 Amblyomma species are found (Guglielmone, Estrada-Peña, Keirans, & Robbins, 2003). The Amblyomma genus includes major vectors of tick-borne disease agents, including the lone star tick, A. americanum, which is the primary vector of Ehrlichia spp. (Childs & Paddock, 2003). Only a few studies have examined the microbial diversity in Amblyomma species, showing that they are infected either by Coxiella-LE or by Francisella-LE in addition to other maternally inherited bacteria (Binetruy, Dupraz, Buysse, & Duron, 2019; Budachetri et al., 2014; Clay et al., 2008; Duron et al., 2017; Gerhart et al., 2016). Here, we investigated the variation in tick microbial communities at different geographic and phylogenetic scales using a representative collection of specimens covering ca. 20% of Amblyomma species diversity. First, we reconstructed the Amblyomma phylogeny through the sequencing of large nuclear rDNA sequences (18S, ITS1, 5.8S, ITS2, and 28S rDNA). Second, we extensively characterized bacterial communities in Amblyomma species through a DNA barcoding approach targeting the 16S rDNA. Third, we traced the evolutionary histories of Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE using multilocus sequence typing (MLST) systems. While the Coxiella-LE MLST already exists (Duron et al., 2015), in this study we developed a specific Francisella-LE MLST. Finally, we compared Amblyomma phylogeny with microbiome structure and further used co-phylogenetics, by comparing Amblyomma, Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE phylogenies, to reveal the global dynamics of symbiotic interactions.

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Materials and methods

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154 Tick collection and processing We examined a total of 144 tick specimens belonging to 25 Amblyomma species (1–11 155 specimens per species) collected from field sites in America and Africa or from laboratory 156 colonies (Supplementary Table S1). Samples were preserved in 70% ethanol until use. To 157 eliminate external (i.e. cuticular) microbes, tick specimens were surface cleaned with bleach 158 prior to DNA extraction (Binetruy, Dupraz, et al., 2019). A few specimens (A. loculosum, 159 160 n=4; A. sculptum, n=1; Amblyomma sp., n=1, obtained from a previous study (Duron et al., 2017)) were, however, not bleach-treated prior to DNA extraction (Supplementary Table S1). 161 162 All tick DNA was individually extracted using the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen, 163 Hilden, Germany). 164 165 *Molecular typing of ticks* 166 To reconstruct Amblyomma phylogeny, we sequenced almost complete rDNA sequences, including the 5' end of 18S, the entire ITS1, 5.8S and ITS2 sequences, and the 3' end of 28S 167 rDNA (Supplementary Table S2) from 44 specimens (indicated in yellow in supplementary 168 Table S1). Depending on the tick species, the size of the rDNA amplicon obtained varies from 169 170 4270 bp to 5054 bp. PCR products were purified using the kit Cleanper (CleanNA, 171 Waddinxveen, The Netherlands), fragmented to a size of 300 bp and further used to construct 172 libraries with the kit Nextera XT (Illumina, San Diego, California, USA). These libraries were then pooled together, indexed and pair-end sequenced on a Miseq (Illumina) sequencer using 173 174 a flow cell equipped with a V3, 600-cycle reagent cartridge. 175 176 We obtained >24 million reads after quality filtering and removing adaptors using the 177 Cutadapt tool on a Galaxy workbench (Goecks, Nekrutenko, Taylor, & The Galaxy Team,

178 2010; M. Martin, 2011). Paired-end reads were de novo assembled using metaSPAdes v3.11 179 with k-mer sizes of 21, 33, 55, and 73 bp (Nurk, Meleshko, Korobeynikov, & Pevzner, 2017). The resulting metaSPAdes contigs were binned into tick nuclear DNA and non-tick nuclear 180 181 DNA groups through megablast in the GenBank nucleotide collection (Boratyn et al., 2013). These contigs were scaffolded, when applicable, by aligning to the complete sequences of the 182 rRNA genes operon of A. americanum (GenBank AF291874), A. hebraeum (GenBank 183 184 KY457489) and the partial sequence of A. marmoreum (GenBank KY457492) using MEGA (Kumar, Stecher, & Tamura, 2016). 185 186 187 Bacterial metabarcoding A 251-bp portion of the V4 variable region of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene was amplified 188 189 individually for each DNA sample using a Multiplex PCR Kit (Qiagen) and universal primers 190 (16SV4F: 5'-GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3' and 16SV4R: 5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAATCC-3') (Galan et al., 2016). Amplified bacterial 16S rDNA 191 192 products were purified and sequenced using an Illumina MiSeq platform (GenSeq, 193 Montpellier University) and 251-bp end sequence reads were obtained,. All bioinformatic 194 analyses were conducted using the pipeline Frogs 195 (https://github.com/geraldinepascal/FROGS) (Escudié et al., 2018) as previously described (Binetruy et al., 2019). One step of post-process operational taxonomic unit (OTU) affiliation 196 was additionally performed through the Frogs pipeline on a Galaxy workbench (Escudié et 197 al., 2018; Goecks et al., 2010). This step consists in aggregating OTUs that share 97% of 198 199 identity within 99% of the amplicon length, and it reduced the probability of keeping artefactual OTUs by resolving multi-hit ambiguities. To control the contamination during 200 these procedure negative controls were performed (three negative extraction controls were 201 202 included in all extraction series, two negative PCR controls were included in all PCR series).

Moreover. OTUs having a maximal abundance in negative controls were discarded and falsepositive OTUs were removed by filtering OTU representing less than 0.005% of the OTU total abundance (Bokulich et al., 2013). Following this procedure, the microbiome was determined individually for almost all Amblyomma specimens (n=142/143); however, the amount of DNA for the single specimen of A. sculptum was not sufficient. A phylogenetic tree using OTU sequences and beta-diversity matrices based on this tree was assessed with FastTree and GUnifrac packages in R (J. Chen et al., 2012; Price, Dehal, & Arkin, 2009), using the computational procedure described in (Binetruy, Dupraz, et al., 2019). Multidimensional scaling (MDS) plots were then generated using the package ggplot2 in R (Wickham, 2016). Permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) implemented in the vegan package in R or pairwise PERMANOVA (Arbizu, 2017/2018) was further performed on the generalized UniFrac ($\alpha = 0.5$) dissimilarity matrix to evaluate the potential impact of the presence of symbionts and co-infection on bacterial diversity. The Pvalues of the pairwise PERMANOVA were corrected for multiple comparisons using Holm's method (Holm, 1979). A Mantel test was used to examine the association between microbial diversity (GUnifrac distance) and Amblyomma phylogeny using the ecodist package in R (*n*=9999 permutations) (Goslee & Urban, 2007). Multilocus typing of Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE Coxiella-LE were genotyped through nested or semi-nested PCR amplification and sequencing of three housekeeping genes (16S rRNA, rpoB and groEL) previously developed for the Coxiella MLST methodology (Duron et al., 2015) (Supplementary Table S2). No Francisella-LE MLST was previously developed and we thus used the published genome of Francisella-LE F-Om strain (isolated from the soft tick Ornithodoros moubata [32]; GenBank accession number: QAPC00000000) as reference to design specific PCR primers

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228 for five genes (16S rRNA, rpoB, groEL, ftsZ and gyrB; Supplementary Table S2). Positive 229 PCR products were purified and sequenced in both directions by Eurofins (Ebersberg, Germany). Sequence chromatograms were manually cleaned with Chromas Lite 230 231 (http://www.technelysium.com.au/chromas_lite.html) and aligned with CLUSTALW 232 implemented in MEGA 7 (Kumar et al., 2016; Thompson, Gibson, & Higgins, 2002). 233 234 Phylogenetic analyses Phylogenetic relationships were assessed using *Amblyomma*, *Coxiella*-LE and *Francisella*-LE 235 sequences produced in this study and additional sequences available in GenBank (including 236 237 Amblyomma, Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE relatives and outgroups). GBLOCKS (Castresana, 2000) was used to remove poorly aligned positions and to obtain unambiguous 238 239 sequence alignments. All sequence alignments were also checked for putative recombinant 240 regions using the RDP3 analysis package (D. P. Martin et al., 2010). The best fitting evolutionary models were determined using the Akaike information criterion and Bayesian 241 242 information criterion with MEGA 7 (Kumar et al., 2016). Phylogenetic analyses were based 243 on Bayesian inferences (BI) with MrBayes v3.2.7 (Ronquist et al., 2012). Two replicate 244 analyses were run for 1 million generations. For each replicate, we ran one cold chain and 245 three hot chains of the Markov chain Monte Carlo method, using a random starting tree and sampling trees every 100 generations and discarding 25% as burn-in. The remaining trees 246 were used to calculate 50% majority-rule consensus trees. 247 248 249 The BI phylogenies of Amblyomma, Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE were then used to conduct co-phylogenetic analyses using the Procrustean Approach to Cophylogeny (PACo) 250 package in R (Balbuena, Míguez-Lozano, & Blasco-Costa, 2013; Hutchinson, Cagua, 251 Balbuena, Stouffer, & Poisot, 2017). The significance of the co-phylogenetic tests was 252

established by 100,000 random permutations of the two-association matrix. To test an effect of *Rickettsia* co-infection on the evolution of *Francisella*-LE and *Coxiella*-LE, linear regressions were computed in R using the matrix of genetic distances of these symbionts and the presence/absence of *Rickettsia* as an explicative variable.

Ethics statement

The use of the genetic resources was declared to the French Ministry of the Environment (reference TREL19028117S/156) and to Gabon government (entry authorization #AE16008/PR/ANPN/SE/CS/AEPN and #research authorization #AR0013/16/MESRS/CENAREST/CG/CST/CSAR).

Results

Phylogeny of Amblyomma ticks

We first reconstructed the phylogenetic relationships among the 25 *Amblyomma* species using BI analyses based on large fragments of nuclear rDNA sequences obtained from one-to-two specimens per species (Figure 1). The findings support a monophyletic origin of the five African *Amblyomma* species (AF group): They cluster together in a robust clade nested among the 20 New World *Amblyomma* species (NW group), suggesting an American origin of these African species (Figure 1). Moreover, the phylogeny of *Amblyomma* also parallels the tick host-range at least in the NW group: Closely related *Amblyomma* species often share the same host species, such as *A. dissimile* and *A. rotundatum* feeding on poikilotherms (reptiles and amphibians) or *A. latepunctatum*, *A. scalpturatum* and *A. naponense* feeding mainly on tapirs and Suidae (Figure 1). However, in other cases, closely related *Amblyomma* species use different host species, such as *A. ovale*, a generalist species feeding on a diversity

of domestic and wild animals, and *A. varium*, a specialized species feeding on arboreal vertebrates.

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Microbial diversity and symbiont prevalence

We further examined the whole bacterial diversity of 24 out of the 25 Amblyomma species (n=142 specimens, one-to-ten specimens were examined per species) via high-throughput 16S rDNA sequencing. The amount of DNA for the 25th Amblyomma species, A. sculptum (n=1), was not sufficient to perform bacterial barcoding (this specimen was already PCR-typed for Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE, as further detailed). After filtration of false-positive OTUs and contaminants (Binetruy, Dupraz, et al., 2019; Birer, Tysklind, Zinger, & Duplais, 2017), 4,364,360 reads distributed in 195 OTUs were obtained (Table S3). Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE were the most abundant bacterial genera representing 33.6% and 33.1% of the total number of reads, respectively (Figure 2 and Supplementary Table S1). Other bacterial genera were found: In most cases, each represented a negligible part of the 16S rDNA reads when present. A remarkable exception to this pattern was the presence of abundant intracellular bacteria belonging to the *Rickettsia* genus in 16 *Amblyomma* species (Figure 2 and Supplementary Table S1). Other exceptions included the A. romitii samples for which no Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE reads were detected: Most reads were assigned to a tickborne pathogen, Ehrlichia sp. In A. loculosum and Amblyomma sp. samples, Coxiella-LE reads were detected but reads of other bacteria were more abundant. Since the A. loculosum and Amblyomma sp. samples were not bleach-treated prior to DNA extraction (as done for the other samples), the abundant presence of these bacteria may be due to the cuticular bacteriome, as recently observed in another Amblyomma species (Binetruy, Dupraz, et al., 2019).

302 The structure of microbial diversity was not globally impacted by the phylogenetic proximity 303 among Amblyomma species: The dendrogram of microbial diversity did not parallel the Amblyomma phylogeny (Mantel two-tailed test, R=0.16, P=0.19) (Supplementary Figure S1). 304 305 However, the MDS plot suggested an effect of tick species on bacterial diversity (Supplementary Figure S2), as confirmed by the PERMANOVA analysis ($R^2 = 0.51$, 306 P=0.001). Further testing showed a clear separation between Coxiella-LE-infected tick 307 species/specimens and Francisella-LE-infected ones (pairwise PERMANOVA analysis, 308 309 R^2 =0.31, adjusted P for multiple comparisons=0.0003; Figure 3A). Rickettsia also structures the bacterial diversity but to a lesser extent than Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE 310 (PERMANOVA, R^2 = 0.11, P=0.001; Figure 3B). The Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE 311 clusters are actually structured into two sub-clusters each, fitting with the presence of 312 313 Rickettsia (Figure 3c) as corroborated by PERMANOVA analyses: (1) Coxiella-LE without Rickettsia vs. Coxiella-LE with Rickettsia (R^2 =0.2, adjusted P for multiple 314 comparisons=0.0015), and (2) Francisella-LE without Rickettsia vs. Francisella-LE with 315 Rickettsia (R^2 =0.22, adjusted P for multiple comparisons=0.0015). 316 317 318 Of the 25 Amblyomma species (including A. sculptum) examined for the presence of Coxiella-319 LE and Francisella-LE, 24 were infected by one or both of these symbionts: 11 Amblyomma species harbour only Coxiella-LE, 13 species only Francisella-LE and three species both 320 (Figure 2, Supplementary Table S1). Only A. romitii was not infected by Coxiella-LE and 321 Francisella-LE but this may be explained by the presence of the tick-borne pathogen 322 323 Ehrlichia sp., which may mask the presence of other bacteria. In the 24 infected Amblyomma species, Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE were not randomly associated (Fisher's exact test, 324 P=0.001): These two symbionts co-occurred in the same tick species less frequently than 325 expected by chance (exclusion pattern), meaning that their distribution across tick species was 326

strongly dependent on each other. Conversely, neither Coxiella-LE nor Francisella-LE showed a non-random association with *Rickettsia* (Fisher's exact tests, *P*=0.99 and 0.68, respectively). However, Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE had a patchy and quite uniform distribution along the *Amblyomma* phylogeny: While some closely related *Amblyomma* species were infected by the same symbiont genus (e.g. A. dissimile and A. rotundatum by Francisella-LE, or A. latepunctatum, A. scalpturatum and A. naponense by Coxiella-LE), others were not (e.g. A. americanum, infected by Coxiella-LE, and A. oblongoguttatum by Francisella-LE) (Figure 2). This distribution pattern paralleled partly the tick host-range: Indeed, A. dissimile and A. rotundatum that are related and specialized for poikilotherms were both infected by Francisella-LE (Figure 1, 2). In the tick species they infect, Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE were present in most specimens examined (Figure 2, Supplementary Table S1). However, a more contrasted pattern was apparent in the three Amblyomma species that were co-infected by Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE: (i) in A. geayi, of the 10 examined specimens, seven were infected by Coxiella-LE in one locality, but in other localities, two specimens were infected by Francisella-LE and one was co-infected by Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE; (ii) in A. latepunctatum, of the four examined specimens, three specimens of the same locality were coinfected by Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE but one specimen from another locality was only infected by Coxiella-LE; (iii) in A. sculptum, the single examined specimen was co-infected by Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE (Figure 2, Supplementary Table S1). In contrast to Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE, the prevalence of Rickettsia was heterogeneous, with infection frequencies ranging from 14% to 100% depending on tick species (Figure 2, Supplementary Table S1). In all cases, Rickettsia was found with either Coxiella-LE (seven

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351 Amblyomma species) or Francisella-LE (seven species) or both (two species). Neither 352 Rickettsia nor Coxiella-LE nor Francisella-LE shows infection-biased sex ratio: within each Amblyomma species, the prevalence of infection did not differ between males and females 353 354 (Fisher's exact test, all P>0.1). 355 Evolutionary history of Coxiella-LE and Francisella-LE symbioses 356 357 Sequencing of three Coxiella MLST genes (16S rRNA, rpoB and groEL) led to the identification of 14 genetically different Coxiella-LE in a subset of 32 specimens representing 358 the 14 infected Amblyomma species (one to four specimens per species were examined). Each 359 360 Amblyomma species was infected by a genetically distinct Coxiella-LE and no variation of 361 Coxiella-LE was observed among specimens belonging to the same Amblyomma species. We 362 observed no sign of recombination in the Coxiella-LE data set (all P>0.05 for the 363 GENECONV and RDP recombination-detection tests) and we thus used the 16S rRNA, rpoB and groEL concatenated sequences for BI analyses. Comparisons with other sequences 364 365 available on GenBank showed that the *Coxiella*-LE of *Amblyomma* are polyphyletic: They were scattered into different well-supported clusters among Coxiella-LE of other tick species 366 367 (Supplementary Figure S3). Indeed, the *Coxiella-LE* of *A. variegatum*, *A. tholloni* and *A.* 368 splendidum form a monophyletic clade that is more closely related to the Coxiella-LE of *Ixodes* tick species than to the *Coxiella*-LE of other *Amblyomma* species. Similarly, the 369 Coxiella-LE clade of A. cajennense, A. sculptum and A. americanum is more closely related to 370 the Coxiella-LE of Dermacentor tick species. This pattern is suggestive of recurrent HT 371 372 events of Coxiella-LE among tick species. However, the Coxiella-LE clusters of Amblyomma species can be gathered into two main groups, one with all the *Coxiella*-LE of NW 373 Amblyomma species and the other with all the Coxiella-LE of AF Amblyomma species 374 (Supplementary Figure S3). This pattern suggests an effect of phylogeographic drivers in 375

structuring the evolution of Coxiella-LE. This is strongly supported by the co-phylogeny analysis between Coxiella-LE and Amblyomma phylogenies: There is a significant topological congruence between their phylogeny (PACo analysis, P=0.0001; Figure 4A). This shows that co-cladogenesis with Coxiella-LE occurred during the radiation of Amblyomma.

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Sequencing of five Francisella MLST genes (16S rRNA, rpoB, groEL, ftsZ and gyrB) led to the identification of 15 genetically different Francisella-LE in a subset of 28 tick specimens representing the 13 infected *Amblyomma* species (one to four specimens per species were used). There was only one Francisella-LE in each Amblyomma species, except A. pacae and A. rotundatum in which two and three genetically distinct Francisella-LE, respectively, were present in specimens from different localities. Each Amblyomma species harbours genetically distinct Francisella-LE, except for A. geayi and A. latepunctatum that harbour identical Francisella-LE on the basis of their MSLT sequences (Supplementary Figure S4). Owing to the lack of Francisella-LE rpoB, groEL, ftsZ and gyrB gene sequences available in GenBank before this study (with the exception of two published Francisella-LE genomes), the BI phylogenetic analysis between the Francisella-LE of Amblyomma and those of other tick species (with sequences available in GenBank) was made using only their 16S rRNA nucleotidic sequences (Supplementary Figure S5). No Francisella-LE subclade specific to Amblyomma exists along the 16S rRNA phylogenetic tree: The Francisella-LE of Amblyomma are instead scattered among Francisella-LE of other tick genera suggesting recurrent HT events among unrelated tick species (Supplementary Figure S5). However, the inner topology of the Francisella-LE clade based on 16S rRNA gene sequences remained too poorly resolved in many cases (as shown by low support values of inner branches) to infer the exact relatedness among all Francisella-LE. We thus further reconstructed the phylogenetic relationships between Francisella-LE using BI analyses based on their 16S rRNA, rpoB,

groEL, ftsZ and gyrB nucleotidic sequences. We observed no sign of recombination in the Francisella-LE data set (all P>0.05 for the GENECONV and RDP recombination-detection tests) and we thus used the 16S rRNA, rpoB, groEL, ftsZ and gyrB concatenated sequences for analyses. Conversely to Coxiella-LE, there was no apparent co-cladogenesis or phylogeographic pattern along the *Francisella*-LE phylogeny (Supplementary Figure S4). Indeed, the Francisella-LE of A. sculptum (NW group) is closely related to the Francisella-LE of an unrelated Amblyomma species, A. paulopunctatum (AF group). In addition, the Francisella-LE of A. sculptum and A. paulopunctatum are more closely related to the Francisella-LE of the soft tick O. moubata than to the Francisella-LE of other Amblyomma species. The co-phylogeny analysis also showed no significant signal of congruence between the Francisella-LE and Amblyomma phylogenies (PACo analysis, P = 0.06): Only HT events seem to have impacted the distribution Francisella-LE across Amblyomma phylogeny (Figure 4B). Interestingly, while co-infection with *Rickettsia* along the *Coxiella*-LE phylogeny is random (linear model, adjusted R^2 = -0.01, F-stat=0.60, P=0.56; Supplementary Figure S6A), it is not so along the Francisella-LE phylogeny (adjusted R²=0.15, F-stat=6.90, P=0.002; Figure S6B): Co-infections with Rickettsia are more common with certain Francisella-LE subclades than with others.

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Discussion

Three intracellular bacterial genera, *Coxiella*-LE, *Francisella*-LE and *Rickettsia*, are widespread across the 25 species of *Amblyomma* ticks we examined in this study. Only a few other bacteria have been detected and none is so uniformly present in *Amblyomma*. However, the structure of the microbiomes does not mirror the *Amblyomma* phylogeny and closely related *Amblyomma* commonly harbour divergent microbiomes. As expected, almost all *Amblyomma* species were found to harbour a nutritive obligate symbiont, *Coxiella*-LE or

Francisella-LE, both able to synthesize B vitamins but with a clear exclusion pattern between them: Coxiella-LE was found as a single infection in 11 Amblyomma species, Francisella-LE in 13 species and co-infection was seen in only three species. Despite the co-evolved and obligate interactions of ticks with their mutualistic partners, we detected evidence of symbiont replacements during radiation of Amblyomma, raising questions regarding the ecological and evolutionary factors underlying replacements.

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The comparison of symbiont and tick phylogenies revealed that the *Coxiella*-LE symbiosis is ancient and arose in the early evolution of the Amblyomma genus. Hence, some Coxiella-LE are specialized for their Amblyomma hosts, with an ancient acquisition followed by codiversification, meaning that the persistence of Coxiella-LE through vertical transmission is stable over the duration of Amblyomma species diversification. A very similar codiversification pattern has also been reported for Coxiella-LE symbiosis in the Rhipicephalus tick genus (Duron et al., 2017). However, the spread of Coxiella-LE was more complex in Amblyomma: The infections found in some Amblyomma species are distantly related and do not form an Amblyomma-specific clade. Rather, phylogenetics shows that Coxiella-LE of Amblyomma are actually scattered among Coxiella-LE of other tick genera such as Ixodes and Dermacentor. Only extensive HT of Coxiella-LE among tick genera may explain these phylogenetic incongruences. Since facultative, but not obligate, symbionts can undergo HT between host species (Bennett & Moran, 2015; McCutcheon et al., 2019; Nancy A. Moran et al., 2008; Wernegreen, 2012), this suggests that some Coxiella-LE are facultative symbionts of ticks. Interestingly, *Coxiella*-LE is a facultative symbiont in some *Ixodes* species, such as *I*. ricinus and I. uriae (Duron et al., 2017; Duron, Jourdain, & McCoy, 2014; Duron et al., 2015). The phylogenetic proximity of *Coxiella*-LE of *Ixodes* spp. with the *Coxiella*-LE of *A*. variegatum, A. splendidum and A. tholloni thus suggests that a facultative Coxiella-LE of

Ixodes spp. had an early jump to the *Amblyomma* ancestor of these species before replacing the ancestral obligate symbiont and evolving obligate nutritional symbioses with current species.

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The infection dynamics of Francisella-LE is different to that of Coxiella-LE. While the Francisella-LE of ticks form a monophyletic clade within the Francisella genus (Duron et al., 2017, 2018), we observed frequent HT events between unrelated tick species. No cocladogenesis signal with Amblyomma is apparent along the phylogenies, meaning that current Francisella-LE arose only recently in this genus. The presence of unrelated Francisella-LE in Amblyomma further indicates that several independent acquisitions of Francisella-LE have occurred during the radiation of this tick genus. These acquisitions have likely come at the expense of the Coxiella-LE with their ultimate replacement by Francisella-LE. The AF Amblyomma group is illustrative of this process: Most species (A. splendidum, A. variegatum, A. tholloni and A. loculosum) are infected by Coxiella-LE with a strong co-cladogenesis pattern, but one species (A. paulopunctatum) is infected by Francisella-LE. This pattern suggests that Francisella-LE has replaced the Coxiella-LE primarily present in the A. paulopunctatum ancestor. Other examples include the monophyletic group formed by A. americanum, A. oblongoguttatum, A. cajennense and A. sculptum: Coxiella-LE has codiverged with all species but one, since here Francisella-LE eliminated the Coxiella-LE primarily present in the A. oblongoguttatum ancestor. In addition, A. sculptum is co-infected at the individual level by an ancestral *Coxiella*-LE (i.e. showing a co-cladogenesis pattern with Coxiella-LE of the A. sculptum relatives) and a recently acquired Francisella-LE. This pattern suggests that HT of Francisella-LE within Amblyomma communities is recent, likely ongoing, and that co-infections with ancestral Coxiella-LE are only transitory. The preferential association of some Francisella-LE with Rickettsia further implies that these coinfections may be important drivers since some *Rickettsia* are also able to synthesize folate (B9 vitamin) (Hunter et al., 2015) and thus to participate in nutritional symbiosis along with *Francisella*-LE. Under this hypothesis, *Francisella*-LE and *Rickettsia* are cooperating together, and each may fulfil essential metabolic functions not ensured by the others. They may also act together to replace ancestral *Coxiella*-LE.

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Some biological traits of these symbioses are indicative of how and why Francisella-LE and some Coxiella-LE are both eliminating ancestral Coxiella-LE in Amblyomma ticks. Francisella-LE or Coxiella-LE were occasionally detected in the salivary glands of several tick species (Budachetri et al., 2014; Buysse et al., 2019; Klyachko, Stein, Grindle, Clay, & Fuqua, 2007) suggesting that ticks may inject part of their symbionts during feeding. Ticks, unlike other arthropod vectors, often attach and aggregate on the host for several days to obtain a meal, a process termed 'co-feeding'. The spatiotemporal proximity of ticks during co-feeding may favour the HT of Francisella-LE and Coxiella-LE between conspecifics but also between different tick species, as commonly observed for tick-borne pathogens (Voordouw, 2015; Wright, Sonenshine, Gaff, & Hynes, 2015). This process may lead to local or systemic infections in vertebrates since a few cases of opportunistic *Coxiella*-LE infections have been reported after tick feeding (Shivaprasad et al., 2008; Vapniarsky, Barr, & Murphy, 2012; Woc-Colburn et al., 2008, p.). This mode of transmission may be particularly significant for Francisella-LE and Coxiella-LE by leading to co-infections with ancestral Coxiella-LE in ticks. Interestingly, we found two Amblyomma species, A. geayi and A. latepunctatum, that are co-infected by their respective ancestral Coxiella-LE but that also share the same Francisella-LE, which is also closely related to the Francisella-LE of A. dissimile. The genetic proximity of Francisella-LE in these three unrelated Amblyomma species is suggestive of recent HT events through co-feeding: While these three Amblyomma

species feed on very different vertebrate hosts, hampering the possibility of co-feeding, the immature stages of *A. dissimile* are commonly found in diverse mammals or birds (Binetruy, Chevillon, de Thoisy, Garnier, & Duron, 2019; Guglielmone & Nava, 2010; Scott & Durden, 2015), suggesting that they may be ecological bridges driving HT of *Francisella*-LE across tick species.

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By replacing the ancestral Coxiella-LE, the novel symbiont colonizes a pre-adapted tick physiological environment that requires the provision of B vitamin: Thus, it must be able to synthesize these compounds as the ancestral Coxiella-LE did. The presence of several B vitamin biosynthesis pathways is ancestral in the Coxiella and Francisella genera, and all members of these genera, including pathogenic species that are also all intracellular, have conserved these abilities through their radiation (Duron et al., 2018; Gerhart et al., 2016; Meibom & Charbit, 2010; Rowe & Huntley, 2015; Smith et al., 2015; van Schaik, Chen, Mertens, Weber, & Samuel, 2013): All Francisella-LE and Coxiella-LE are already preadapted to nutritional symbioses with ticks. Beyond B vitamins, the replacement of ancestral Coxiella-LE suggests that the new symbiont could supply an additional benefit that the ancestral Coxiella-LE was unable to supply to ticks, thereby out-competing them. The genomes of ancient beneficial endosymbionts have lost most of their gene contents from their ancestor, being usually small in size and dense in gene content but also suffering Muller's ratchet, with fixation of deleterious mutations through genetic drift (McCutcheon et al., 2019; McCutcheon & Moran, 2012; N. A. Moran, 1996; Rispe & Moran, 2000). This evolution towards massive genomic reduction is obvious for the Coxiella-LE of A. americanum, which have a genome of only 0.66 Mb (Smith et al., 2015), but not for the Francisella-LE of A. maculatum: Its genome is 1.56 Mb, and although half is pseudogenized, it may have a higher biosynthetic capability (Gerhart et al., 2016). Similar variation is also reported between

Coxiella-LE with some genomes reaching ca. 1.5 Mb (Gottlieb et al., 2015; Ramaiah & Dasch, 2018), suggesting that some Coxiella-LE have greater biosynthetic capabilities than others. However, other processes may act on the Coxiella-LE replacement. Indeed, ancestral Coxiella-LE may have evolved too reduced (degraded) genomes and become maladapted, opening the road to replacement by a new symbiont. This degeneration—replacement model has been proposed for other arthropods such as cicadas (Campbell et al., 2015; Łukasik et al., 2018; Matsuura et al., 2018), but replacements are expected to be transient making them difficult to observe (McCutcheon et al., 2019). In Amblyomma, the observations of three species with co-infections by ancestral Coxiella-LE and recently acquired Francisella-LE may correspond to this transient state before extinction of Coxiella-LE.

That ecological specialization to strict haematophagy is driven by nutritional symbiotic interactions is beyond doubt for ticks. The present study, nevertheless, shows that nutritional symbiosis in the *Amblyomma* genus is not stable state, being impacted by competition between *Coxiella*-LE and *Francisella*-LE or between *Coxiella*-LE themselves. We potentialy underestimate the amplitude of this dynamics: our intraspecific sampling was low for some tick species and this may have led to an underestimation of the *Francisella*-LE frequency. Indeed, in the cases of low prevalence, most samples will be found not infected by *Francisella*-LE while other members of the species, not sampled and tested, are in fact infected. Precisely, this pattern is found in this study: we found variation *Francisella*-LE infection pattern between sampling localities in three tick species in which just few few specimens were infected, which clearly indicates this potential for false negatives arising from insufficient sampling. Anyway, ticks now march on with their recently acquired *Francisella*-LE, at the expense of *Coxiella*-LE, but the precise mechanisms providing the advantage to *Francisella*-LE remain to be determined, including endosymbiosis intrinsic factors, such as

competition between symbionts with similar metabolic capabilities and the differential degree of genome reduction.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Figure legends

Figure 1 Phylogenetic relationship of the 25 *Amblyomma* species examined in this study. The phylogenetic tree was inferred using Bayesian inferences (BI) from a large fragment of rDNA sequences (18S, ITS1, 5.8S, ITS2, and 28S rDNA; 3312 bp unambiguously aligned; best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model: GTR+G+I), the numbers on nodes indicate the BI probability. One to two specimens per *Amblyomma* species (45 specimens in total) were analysed. The vertebrate species on which tick species mainly feed (host-range) is shown. White circles, African group (AF); black circles, New Word group (NW).

Figure 2 Diversity of the microbiome and bacterial prevalence in *Amblyomma* species. The left part of the Figure shows the *Amblyomma* phylogenetic tree adapted from Figure 1. One to two specimens per *Amblyomma* species (45 specimens in total) were included in the phylogenetic analysis. A the middle part, the heatmap shows the abundance and diversity of the nine most abundant OTUs characterized in the 16S rRNA bacterial data set for each tick species. The number on the right of the heatmap indicates the number of tick specimens per species used to construct the heatmap (one to ten specimens per *Amblyomma* species (142 specimens in total) were included in the microbiote analysis). On the right of the figure, the prevalence of the three most common symbionts is illustrated by the coloured squares (*Coxiella*-LE, blue square; *Francisella*-LE, green square and *Rickettsia*, red square): full square indicate a prevalence of 100%, while empty or partly colored squared indicate prevalences from 0 to <100% (the numbers besides these squares indicate the prevalences). The amount of DNA for the single specimen of *A. sculptum* was not sufficient to perform the 16S rRNA barcoding, therefore the heatmap for this species is not applicable (N/A). In this latter species, the presence of *Coxiella*-LE and *Francisella*-LE was asserted through specific

PCR assays as detailed in the text. White circles, *Amblyomma* African group (AF); black circles, *Amblyomma* New Word group (NW).

Figure 3 Structuration of the *Amblyomma* microbiome. A Multidimensional scaling plot (MDS) of the microbial diversity of each *Amblyomma* species depending on the presence of both *Coxiella*-LE (red dots) and *Francisella*-LE (green dots) or the absence of obligate symbiont (blue dots). B MDS plot of the microbial diversity depending on the presence (red dots) / absence (blue dots) of *Rickettsia*. C MDS plot of the microbial diversity depending on the association / no association between the three symbionts (*Coxiella*-LE, *Francisella*-LE and *Rickettsia*): C_R (red dots) correspond to *Amblyomma* specimens co-infected by *Coxiella*-LE and *Rickettsia*; C (brownish dots) to specimens only infected by *Coxiella*-LE; F (green dots) to specimens only infected by *Francisella*-LE; F_R to specimens co-infected by *Francisella*-LE and *Rickettsia*; C_F_R (light blue dots) to specimens multi-infected by *Coxiella*-LE, *Francisella*-LE and *Rickettsia*; dark blue dots to specimens not infected by these symbionts. Each MDS plot is based on the generalized Unifrac (α = 0.5) distance matrix and all confidence ellipses are been drawn with the confidence level of 0.95.

Figure 4 Evolutionary histories between *Amblyomma* and their nutritional symbionts. **A** Cophylogeny between the phylogenies of *Amblyomma* (on the left) and *Coxiella*-LE (on the right): The tick phylogeny is based on 3312-bp nuclear rDNA sequences (18S, ITS1, 5.8S, ITS2, and 28S rDNA; best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model: GTR+G+I); the *Coxiella*-LE phylogeny was reconstructed using a concatenated gene sequence (16S rRNA, *rpoB* and *groEL* concatenated sequences, 2045 unambiguously aligned base pairs; best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model: GTR+G+I). **B** Cophylogeny between the phylogenies of *Amblyomma* (on the left) and *Francisella*-LE (on the right): The tick

phylogeny is based on 3312-bp nuclear rDNA sequences (18S, ITS1, 5.8S, ITS2, and 28S rDNA; best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model: GTR+G+I); the *Francisella*-LE phylogeny was reconstructed using a concatenated gene sequence (16S rRNA, *rpoB*, *groEL*, *ftsZ* and *gyrB* concatenated sequences, 3506 unambiguously aligned base pairs; best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model: GTR+G+I). Each phylogeny was reconstructed using BI and node numbers are the posterior probabilities (only values >70 are shown). White circles, *Amblyomma* African group (AF); black circles, New Word group (NW).