

1 **Evolutionary recent dual obligatory symbiosis among adelgids**
2 **indicates a transition between fungus and insect associated lifestyles**

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18 **Running title:** Evolutionary transition between fungus and insect endosymbionts

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20 **Competing Interests:** The authors declare no competing interests

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24 **ABSTRACT**

25 Adelgids (Insecta: Hemiptera: Adelgidae) form a small group of insects but
26 harbor a surprisingly diverse set of bacteriocyte-associated endosymbionts, which
27 suggest multiple replacement and acquisition of symbionts over evolutionary time.
28 Specific pairs of symbionts have been associated with adelgid lineages specialized on

29 different secondary host conifers. Using a metagenomic approach, we investigated the
30 symbiosis of the *Adelges laricis/tardus* species complex containing
31 betaproteobacterial (*Candidatus Vallotia tarda*) and gammaproteobacterial
32 (*Candidatus Profftia tarda*) symbionts. Genomic characteristics and metabolic
33 pathway reconstructions revealed that *Vallotia* and *Profftia* are evolutionary young
34 endosymbionts, which complement each other's role in essential amino acid
35 production. Phylogenomic analyses and a high level of genomic synteny indicate an
36 origin of the betaproteobacterial symbiont from endosymbionts of *Rhizopus* fungi.
37 This evolutionary transition was accompanied with substantial loss of functions
38 related to transcription regulation, secondary metabolite production, bacterial defense
39 mechanisms, host infection and manipulation. The transition from fungus to insect
40 endosymbionts extends our current framework about evolutionary trajectories of host-
41 associated microbes.
42

43 **Introduction**

44 Plant-sap feeding insects harbor bacterial endosymbionts, which are of great
45 importance in their host ecology and serve as a model for studying microbe-host
46 relationships and genome evolution of host restricted bacteria (1–3). Adelgids
47 (Insecta: Hemiptera: Adelgidae) live on Pinaceae conifers and feed on phloem sap or
48 parenchyma cells (4,5). The group has nearly seventy species and is sister to the
49 families of phylloxerans (Phylloxeridae) and aphids (Aphididae) within the suborder
50 Sternorrhyncha (6). Some adelgid species, such as the balsam woolly adelgid
51 (*Adelges piceae*) and the hemlock woolly adelgid (*A. tsugae*) are well-known forest
52 pests and represent severe threats to firs and hemlocks (7,8).

53 Adelgids have a complex multigenerational life cycle, which typically
54 involves sexual generations and an alternation between spruce (*Picea*), which is the
55 primary host, and another, secondary conifer host (*Abies*, *Pinus*, *Larix*, *Pseudotsuga*,
56 or *Tsuga*). However, other adelgids reproduce asexually in all generations on either of
57 the host genera (5).

58 Similarly to other plant-sap feeding insects, adelgids harbor maternally
59 inherited bacterial symbionts within specialized cells, so-called bacteriocytes, which
60 form a large bacteriome in the abdomen (9–14). Although the function of these
61 bacterial partners remains largely unexplored, they are expected to provide essential
62 amino acids and B vitamins scarce in the plant sap diet, similarly to obligate
63 endosymbionts of other plant-sap feeding insects (2,15). Besides these obligate
64 nutritional endosymbionts, non-essential facultative symbionts might also occur
65 within the bacteriome (or in other tissues), which can provide selective fitness
66 benefits to insects such as protection against parasites and fungal pathogens, increased

67 heat tolerance, or expansion of host plant range (16–18). Similarly to obligate
68 mutualists, facultative symbionts are usually maternally inherited, but can also spread
69 horizontally within and between insect species via mating (19), parasites (20), and
70 food source such as plant tissues (21). Few examples of newly emerged bacteriocyte-
71 associated symbionts of herbivorous insects pinpoint their source from plant-
72 associated bacteria, such as *Erwinia* in *Cinara* aphids (22), gut bacteria, such as
73 cultivable *Serratia symbiotica* strains colonizing the gut of *Aphis* aphids (23), and
74 other free-living bacteria such as a *Sodalis* strain (HS) isolated from human wounds
75 and being akin to primary endosymbionts of *Sitophilus* weevils (24).

76 Interestingly, two types of bacteriocyte-associated symbionts have been
77 identified in all populations and life stages of most adelgid species (9–14). These
78 symbionts belong to at least six different lineages within the Gammaproteobacteria or
79 the Betaproteobacteria. *A. tsugae* populations also contain a universal *Pseudomonas*
80 symbiont free in the hemocoel together with the bacteriocyte-associated symbionts
81 (9,10,25). Remarkably, specific pairs of symbionts correspond to distinct lineages of
82 adelgids specialized to one of the five secondary host tree genera (10,14). A
83 gammaproteobacterial symbiont lineage involving ‘*Candidatus Annandia*
84 adelgestsugas’ and ‘*Candidatus Annandia pinicola*’ (hereafter *Annandia*), is present in
85 both *A. tsugae* and *Pineus* species, and was likely already associated with ancestral
86 adelgids before diversification into the two major adelgid lineages, *Adelges* and
87 *Pineus*, over 87 million years ago (5,9,10,14). Nevertheless, this putatively ancient
88 symbiont lineage is missing from other adelgids, and the high diversity of symbionts
89 within this small group of insects suggests an evolutionary history involving multiple
90 acquisitions and replacement of bacterial partners (10,13,14). This is in sharp contrast

91 to the case in the aphid sister group, where most species have tightly co-evolved with
92 a single obligate symbiont, *Buchnera aphidicola*, for over 180 million years (2). In the
93 case of adelgids, it has been postulated that loss of the ancestral nutritional symbiont
94 lineage and repeated replacements of bacterial partners might be due to fluctuating
95 selective pressure on essential symbiotic functions during evolution as a consequence
96 of repeated emergence of host-alternating lifestyles and feeding on nutrient-rich
97 parenchyma versus nutrient-poor phloem on the primary and secondary host trees,
98 respectively (10,25).

99 To date, whole genome sequences of adelgid endosymbionts are available for
100 only one species: the hemlock woolly adelgid, *A. tsugae*. Metabolic potential and
101 genomic characteristics of *Annandia* resemble those of long-term obligate
102 intracellular symbionts. However, *Annandia* has lost many genes in essential amino
103 acid synthesis. The accompanying, evolutionary more recent, *Pseudomonas* symbiont
104 can complement these missing capabilities and thus has a co-obligatory status in
105 maintaining the symbiosis (25). In addition to this obligate dual endosymbiotic
106 system, analysis of a genome fragment of a gammaproteobacterial symbiont
107 (*Candidatus* Steffania adelgidicola) of the *Adelges nordmannianae/piceae* species
108 complex revealed a metabolically versatile, putatively evolutionary young
109 endosymbiont in this adelgid lineage (12). Further genomic data on the symbionts
110 would help to infer the history of association of adelgids with distinct bacterial
111 groups.

112 Here, we investigate the bacterial symbionts of the *A. laricis/tardus* species
113 complex using a metagenomic approach and ask what is the function and putative
114 origin of the dual symbiosis in this lineage of adelgids. *A. laricis* and *A. tardus* are

115 morphologically and genetically hardly distinguishable species of adelgids (4,26).
116 They contain betaproteobacterial and gammaproteobacterial symbionts, ‘*Candidatus*
117 *Vallotia tarda*’ and ‘*Candidatus Profftia tarda*’ (hereinafter *Vallotia* and *Profftia*),
118 respectively. Both symbionts are rod-shaped and are located intermingled inside the
119 same bacteriocytes. *Profftia*-related symbionts have only been found in larch-
120 associated, while *Vallotia* symbionts occur in both larch and Douglas-fir-associated
121 lineages of adelgids. Although host-symbiont co-speciation could not be fully
122 resolved with confidence yet, the dual obligatory status of *Profftia* and *Vallotia* in the
123 symbiosis seems to be possible given their common occurrence across different
124 populations and life stages of adelgids (10,13).

125 Our results demonstrate that both bacteriocyte-associated symbionts are
126 evolutionary recent partners of adelgids complementing each other's role in essential
127 amino acid biosynthesis. Notably, phylogenomic analyses revealed a close
128 relationship of *Vallotia* with endosymbionts of *Rhizopus* fungi. Detailed analysis of
129 genomic synteny and gene content indicated an evolutionary transition from fungus to
130 insect symbiosis accompanied by a substantial loss of functions in the insect symbiont
131 especially in transcription regulation, secondary metabolite production, host infection
132 and manipulation.

133 **Materials and Methods**

134 **Sampling**

135 Spruce (*Picea*) branches with galls of adelgids (4) were collected near
136 Klausen-Leopoldsdorf, Austria (Figure S1). Galls were stored at -80°C in the lab for
137 subsequent genomic DNA isolation.

138 **DNA isolation**

139 Before DNA isolation, adelgids were collected from the galls using teasing
140 needles. The insects were washed twice in buffer A + EDTA solution (35mM Tris-
141 HCl, 250 mM sucrose, 25 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, 250 mM EDTA; pH 7.5) and
142 were subsequently homogenized in fresh solution with a plastic pestle. The
143 suspension was then sequentially filtered through 53 and 30 µm pore size meshes and
144 5 µm membrane syringe filters. Samples were centrifuged at 7,000 rpm for 5 min at
145 4°C and supernatants were discarded. Pellets were re-suspended in buffer A and
146 centrifuged again at 7,000 rpm for 5 min at 4°C. This washing step was repeated once
147 and pellets were next re-suspended in 1xTE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM EDTA;
148 pH 7.5). High-molecular-weight DNA was isolated by an SDS-based DNA extraction
149 method using 1% cetyltrimethylammonium bromide and 1.5% polyvinylpyrrolidone
150 in the extraction buffer (27). DNA samples were stored at -20°C.

151 **Sequencing and genome assembly**

152 A paired-end library was sequenced on a HighSeq 2000 Illumina sequencer.
153 Sequencing reads were quality filtered and trimmed with PRINSEQ (28), and were
154 assembled with SPAdes v3.1 (29). Using a subset of 30 million read pairs, a single
155 contig representing the circular *Profftia* chromosome was obtained with 52-fold
156 coverage, while the assembly of the *Vallotia* genome remained fragmented probably
157 due to repetitive sequences. To improve this assembly, reads were mapped on the
158 *Profftia* genome using the Burrows-Wheeler Alignment (BWA) tool and the BWA-
159 MEM algorithm (30), and matching sequences were removed from further analysis. A
160 novel assembly with the remaining reads resulted in 14 contigs longer than 1000 bp.

161 These contigs were further analyzed against a custom protein database containing
162 single-copy markers found in 99% of prokaryote genomes using blastx (31) and
163 phylogenetic information of the best hits was assessed in Megan v4.70.4 (32).
164 Ribosomal RNAs were inferred by RNAmmer (33). Based on these, eight contigs
165 belonging to the *Vallotia* genome were identified. Seven contigs represent the *Vallotia*
166 chromosome with ~212-fold coverage. In addition, a single contig obtained with 169-
167 fold coverage corresponds to a putative circular plasmid of this endosymbiont. The
168 remaining contigs, all shorter than 5,500 bp, were judged to belong to unrelated taxa,
169 based on differences in GC content, coverage and taxonomic affiliation of best blastx
170 hits in the NCBI non-redundant protein database (nr).

171 **Genome analysis**

172 The putative origin of replication was identified with GenSkew
173 (<http://genskew.csb.univie.ac.at/>). We used the ConsPred genome annotation pipeline
174 for gene prediction and annotation (34). Genome annotations were curated with the
175 help of the UniPro UGENE software (35). We identified pseudogenes by using the
176 intergenic and hypothetical protein regions as queries in blastx searches against nr and
177 the UniProt Swiss-Prot database with an e-value < 1e-3 confidence threshold.
178 Pseudogenes were identified as remains of genes, which were either truncated (having
179 a length < 80% of the reference) or were interrupted by internal stop codons and/or
180 frameshift mutations. Pseudogene coordinates were set according to the best blast hit
181 in the UniProt Swiss-Prot database, if applicable.

182 The presence of mobile genetic elements was inferred with blastn and blastx
183 searches against the ISfinder database (36). Metabolic pathways were explored with

184 the help of the Ecocyc, Biocyc, and Metacyc databases (37) and the Pathway Tools
185 software (38). Orthologous proteins shared by the relevant genomes or unique to
186 either of the symbionts were identified by using OrthoMCL with a 1e-5 e-value
187 threshold (39). Distribution of the predicted proteins among the main functional
188 categories was explored by using eggNOG-mapper v2 (40,41) with the DIAMOND
189 sequence comparison option and a 1e-3 e-value threshold (42). Genome alignments
190 were performed by Mauve (43). The *Vallotia* contigs were reordered using the
191 chromosome and plasmid sequences of the closely related fungus endosymbiont,
192 *Mycetohabitans rhizoxinica*, as references (accession numbers: FR687359 and
193 FR687360, respectively). Collinear genomic regions and genome rearrangements
194 were visualized by Circos based on single-copy shared genes (44). A close-up of
195 syntenic regions was created by using the Easyfig tool (45). The assembled genomes
196 have been submitted to European Nucleotide Archive under accession number
197 [submission in process, to be added].

198 **Phylogenetic analyses**

199 A phylogenomic approach was used to infer the phylogenetic positions of the
200 endosymbionts. Protein sequences of closely related species within the
201 Burkholderiales and the Enterobacteriales were collected from the Assembly database
202 of NCBI. Single copy marker genes were identified by Phyla-AMPHORA (46) using
203 the Brandon Seah (2014) Phylogenomics-tools (online:
204 <https://github.com/kbseah/phylogenomics-tools>). Individual sets of genes were
205 aligned with Muscle 3.8.31 (47). Poorly aligned positions were removed with Gblocks
206 0.91b (48) using default parameters apart from the following settings: allowed gap

207 positions with half, the minimum length of a block was 5. Alignments of 108 and 45
208 proteins were concatenated and used for the calculation of phylogenetic trees for
209 *Vallotia* and *Profftia*, respectively.

210 For both endosymbionts, we generated maximum likelihood trees with IQ-
211 TREE after selecting the best-fit substitution models with ModelFinder as available at
212 <http://iqtree.cibiv.univie.ac.at> (49–51). SH-like approximate likelihood ratio test (SH-
213 aLRT) and ultrafast bootstrap support values, both based on 1000 iterations, were
214 calculated (52). The best-fit models were LG+F+R5 and LG+R5 for the *Vallotia* and
215 *Profftia* tree, respectively. Besides, Bayesian phylogenetic analyses were performed
216 by MrBayes 3.2.7a (53) with the LG+I+G model and 4 gamma categories on the
217 CIPRES Science Gateway v.3.3. web interface (54). Two runs, each with 4 chains
218 were performed until convergence diagnostics fell below 0.01. A 50% majority
219 consensus tree was created with a relative burn-in of 25%.

220

221 **Results and discussion**

222 ***Vallotia* and *Profftia* are evolutionary young symbionts of adelgids**

223 ***Intermediate states of genome reduction***

224 The complete sequence of the *Profftia* chromosome had a length of 1,225,795
225 bp and a G+C content of 31.9% (Table 1). It encoded for 645 proteins, one copy of
226 each rRNA, 35 tRNAs, and 10 ncRNAs. It had tRNAs and amino acid charging
227 potential for all 20 standard amino acids. However, protein-coding sequences made
228 up only 52.4% of the genome, and 21 pseudogenes indicated an ongoing gene
229 inactivation.

230 Currently, eight contigs with a total length of 1,183,315 bp represent the
231 *Vallotia* genome. Seven contigs had an average G+C content and a coding density of
232 42.8% and 65.5%, respectively. However, a 72,431 bp long contig showed a
233 characteristically lower G+C content (36.1%) and contained only 46.2% putative
234 protein coding sequences (CDSs). This contig had identical repeats at its ends, and
235 genome annotation revealed neighboring genes for a plasmid replication initiation
236 protein, and ParA/ParB partitioning proteins, which function in plasmid and
237 chromosome segregation between daughter cells before cell division (55). We thus
238 assume that this contig corresponds to a circular plasmid of *Vallotia*. The 16S rRNA
239 and the 5S plus 23S rRNA genes were encoded on two small contigs in the *Vallotia*
240 assembly (1976 and 3571 bp, respectively) and were covered by nearly three times
241 more sequence reads than the rest of the chromosomal contigs. This implies that
242 *Vallotia* has three copies of each rRNA, similarly to its closest relative for which a
243 complete genome sequence is available, *Mycetohabitans rhizoxinica* (56). In total, the
244 *Vallotia* genome encoded for 780 proteins (29 on the putative plasmid), 37 tRNAs,
245 and 52 predicted pseudogenes (5 on the putative plasmid).

246 The host-restricted lifestyle has a profound influence on bacterial genomes.
247 Living in a stable, nutrient-rich niche relaxes purifying selection on many redundant
248 functions, and small effective population size of the symbionts increases genetic drift.
249 These can lead to the accumulation of slightly deleterious mutations, a proliferation of
250 mobile genetic elements, and gene inactivation (57–60). Non-functional genomic
251 regions and mobile genetic elements get subsequently lost, and ancient obligate
252 endosymbionts typically have tiny ($\ll 0.8$ Mb), gene dense and stable genomes with
253 AT-biased nucleotide composition (2,61,62). Facultative symbionts also possess

254 accelerated rates of sequence evolution but have larger genomes (>2Mb) with variable
255 coding densities following the age of their host-restricted lifestyle (63). The only
256 moderately reduced size and AT bias together with the low protein-coding density of
257 the *Vallotia* and *Profftia* genomes was most similar to those of evolutionary young
258 co-obligate partners of insects (63), for instance ‘Ca. *Pseudomonas adelgestugas*’ in
259 *A. tsugae* (25), *Serratia symbiotica* in *Cinara cedri* (64,65) and the *Sodalis*-like
260 symbiont of *Philaenus spumarius*, the meadow spittlebug (66). However, compared to
261 these systems involving a more ancient and a younger symbiont, similar genome
262 characteristics of *Vallotia* and *Profftia* implied that both bacteria are evolutionarily
263 recent symbionts in a phase of extensive gene inactivation typical for early stages of
264 adaptation to an obligate host-restricted life-style (59,60).

265 ***Differential reduction of metabolic pathways***

266 Although compared to their closest free-living relatives both *Vallotia* and
267 *Profftia* have lost many genes in all functional categories, both retained a greater
268 proportion of genes in translation-related functions and cell envelope biogenesis
269 (Figures S2, S3). High retention of genes involved in central cellular functions such as
270 translation, transcription, and replication is a typical feature of reduced genomes, even
271 extremely tiny ones of long-term symbionts (62). However, ancient intracellular
272 symbionts usually miss a substantial number of genes for the production of the cell
273 envelope and might rely on host-derived membrane compounds (67–69).

274 Based on pathway reconstructions, both *Vallotia* and *Profftia* had a complete
275 gene set for peptidoglycan, fatty acid, phospholipid biosynthesis, and retained most of
276 the genes for the production of lipid A, LPS core, and the Lpt LPS transport
277 machinery. Besides, we found a partial set of genes for O antigen biosynthesis in the

278 *Vallotia* genome. Regarding the membrane protein transport and assembly, both
279 adelgid endosymbionts had the necessary genes for Sec and signal recognition particle
280 (SRP) translocation, and the BAM outer membrane protein assembly complex.
281 *Profftia* also had a complete Lol lipoprotein trafficking machinery (lolABCDE),
282 which can deliver newly matured lipoproteins from the inner membrane to the outer
283 membrane (70). Besides, *Profftia* had a near-complete gene set for the Tol-Pal
284 system, however, *tola* has been pseudogenized suggesting an ongoing reduction of
285 this complex. In addition, both adelgid endosymbionts have retained *mrDAB* and
286 *mreBCD* having a role in the maintenance of cell wall integrity and morphology
287 (71,72). The observed well-preserved cellular functions for cell envelope biogenesis
288 and integrity are consistent with the rod-shaped cell morphology of *Profftia* and
289 *Vallotia* (13), contrasting the spherical/pleomorphic cell shape of ancient
290 endosymbionts, such as *Annandia* in *A. tsugae* and *Pineus* species (9,10,14).

291 Regarding the central metabolism, *Vallotia* lacks 6-phosphofruktokinase, but
292 has a complete gene set for gluconeogenesis and the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle
293 cycle. TCA cycle genes are typically lost in long-term symbionts but are present in
294 facultative and evolutionary recent obligate endosymbionts (66,73,74). *Vallotia* does
295 not have any sugar transporter genes, similarly to its close relative, the fungus
296 symbiont *M. rhizoxinica* (56). A glycerol kinase gene next to a putative glycerol
297 uptake facilitator protein is present on its plasmid, however, it has a frameshift
298 mutation and a premature stop codon in the first 40% of the sequence and whether it
299 can still produce a functional protein remains unknown.

300 *Profftia* can convert acetyl-CoA to acetate for energy but lacks TCA cycle
301 genes, a feature characteristic to more reduced genomes, such, for instance, *Annandia*

302 in *A. tsugae* (25). *Profftia* has import systems for a variety of organic compounds,
303 such as murein tripeptides, phospholipids, thiamine, spermidine, and putrescine and 3-
304 phenylpropionate and two complete phosphotransferase systems for the uptake of
305 sugars. NADH dehydrogenase, ATP synthase, and cytochrome oxidases (*bo/bd-1*) are
306 encoded on both adelgid symbiont genomes.

307 *Profftia* retained more functions in inorganic ion transport and metabolism,
308 while *Vallotia* had a characteristically higher number of genes related to amino acid
309 biosynthesis (see its function below) and nucleotide transport and metabolism
310 (Figures S2, S3). For instance, *Profftia* can take up sulfate and use it for assimilatory
311 sulfate reduction and cysteine production, and it has also retained many genes for
312 heme biosynthesis. However it cannot produce inosine-5-phosphate (5'-IMP) and
313 uridine 5'-monophosphate (5'-UMP) precursors for the *de novo* synthesis of purine
314 and pyrimidine nucleotides thus would need to import these compounds.

315 Taken together their moderately reduced, gene-sparse genomes but still
316 versatile metabolic capabilities support that *Vallotia* and *Profftia* are both in an
317 intermediate stage of genome erosion and functional reduction similar to evolutionary
318 recently acquired endosymbionts.

319

320 ***Vallotia* and *Profftia* are both obligatory nutritional symbionts**

321 ***Complementary functions in essential amino acid provision***

322 *Vallotia* and *Profftia* complement each other's role in the essential amino acid
323 synthesis, thus have a co-obligatory status in the *A. laricis/tardus* symbiosis (Figure
324 1). Although *Vallotia* likely generates most essential amino acids, it can not provide

325 phenylalanine and tryptophan on its own. Solely, *Profftia* can produce chorismate, a
326 key precursor for the synthesis of both amino acids. *Profftia* is likely responsible for
327 the complete biosynthesis of phenylalanine as it has a full set of genes for this
328 pathway. It can also convert chorismate to anthranilate, however further genes for
329 tryptophan biosynthesis are only present in the *Vallotia* genome. Thus *Vallotia* likely
330 takes up anthranilate for tryptophan biosynthesis. Anthranilate synthase (trpEG), is a
331 subject to negative feedback regulation by tryptophan (75), thus partition of this rate-
332 limiting step between the co-symbionts can enhance overproduction of the amino acid
333 and might stabilize dual symbiotic partnerships at an early stage of coexistence. The
334 production of tryptophan is partitioned between *Vallotia* and *Profftia* similarly as seen
335 in other insect symbioses such as between *Buchnera* and *Serratia symbiotica* in co-
336 obligatory partnerships in aphids (64,65) and between *Carsonella* and certain co-
337 symbionts in psyllids (76). The tryptophan biosynthesis is also shared but is more
338 redundant between the *Annandia* and *Pseudomonas* symbionts of *A. tsugae* (25). This
339 association generally shows a higher level of functional overlap between the
340 symbionts than the *Vallotia* - *Profftia* system, as redundant genes are present also in
341 phenylalanine, threonine, lysine, and arginine synthesis in the *A. tsugae* symbiosis.
342 Besides, the *Vallotia* - *Profftia* consortium is also more unbalanced than the *A. tsugae*
343 system where *Annandia* can produce seven and the *Pseudomonas* partner five
344 essential amino acids with the contribution of host genes (25).

345 The *Vallotia* genome encodes for all the enzymes for the synthesis of five
346 essential amino acids (histidine, leucine, valine, lysine, threonine). Among the
347 essential amino acid synthesis related genes, *argG* and *tyrB* of *Vallotia* are only
348 present on the plasmid, which might have contributed to its maintenance in the

349 genome. However, neither of the endosymbionts can produce ornithine, 2-
350 oxobutanoate and homocysteine *de novo*, which are key for the biosynthesis of
351 arginine, isoleucine and methionine, respectively. *metC* and *argA* are still present as
352 pseudogenes in *Vallotia* suggesting a recent loss of these functions in methionine and
353 arginine biosynthesis, respectively. The corresponding functions are also missing
354 from the *Annandia - Pseudomonas* system (Weglarz et al., 2018). Ornithine, 2-
355 oxobutanoate, and homocysteine are thus likely supplied by the insect host, as seen for
356 instance in aphids, mealybugs, and psyllids, where the respective genes encoding for
357 cystathionine gamma and beta lyases and insect ornithine aminotransferase are
358 present in the insect genomes and are typically overexpressed within the bacteriome
359 (68,77,78). However, we can not confirm the presence of relevant genes in the *A.*
360 *laricis/tardus* genome, as our metagenome data were almost free from eukaryotic
361 sequences.

362 *Vallotia* and *Profftia* have more redundant functions in non-essential amino
363 acid production. Both symbionts can synthesize seven non-essential amino acids
364 mostly through a series of amino-acid conversions (Figure 1). Only *Profftia* can
365 produce cysteine and tyrosine, while none of the symbionts can build up glutamine
366 thus this latter amino acid is likely supplied by the insect bacteriocytes.

367 The presence of amino acid transporters can complement missing functions in
368 amino acid synthesis in the endosymbionts (Figure 1). For instance *Profftia* has a
369 high-affinity glutamine ABC transporter, and three symporters (BrnQ, Mtr, TdcC),
370 which can import isoleucine, leucine, valine, tryptophan, and threonine among the
371 essential amino acids that can be produced by *Vallotia*. *Vallotia* might excrete
372 isoleucine, valine, and leucine via AzICD, a putative branched-chain amino acid

373 efflux pump (79), and these amino acids could be taken up by *Profftia* via BrnQ and
374 would be readily available also for the insect host.

375 ***B vitamin provision by Vallotia***

376 Regarding the B vitamin synthesis, *Vallotia* should be able to produce thiamine (B₁),
377 riboflavin (B₂), pantothenate (B₅), pyridoxine (B₆), biotin (B₇), and folic acid (B₉)
378 (Figure S4). Although *Vallotia* misses some genes of the canonical pathways,
379 alternative enzymes and host-derived compounds might bypass these reactions, as
380 detailed in the supplementary material. *Profftia* has only a few genes related to B
381 vitamin biosynthesis. Three pseudogenes (*ribAEC*) in the riboflavin synthesis
382 pathway indicate that these functions might have been lost evolutionary recently in
383 this symbiont.

384 In summary, *Profftia* and *Vallotia* are both obligate nutritional endosymbionts
385 of adelgids, however, *Vallotia* has a pivotal role in essential amino acid and B vitamin
386 provision.

387

388 ***Profftia* and *Vallotia* are related to free-living bacteria and fungus** 389 **endosymbionts**

390 Previous 16S rRNA-based phylogenetic analyses suggested an affiliation of
391 *Profftia* with free-living gammaproteobacteria and a close phylogenetic relationship
392 between *Vallotia* and betaproteobacterial endosymbionts of *Rhizopus* fungi (13).
393 Biased nucleotide composition and accelerated sequence evolution of endosymbiont
394 genomes (2,3) often result in inconsistent phylogenies and may cause grouping of
395 unrelated taxa (68,80,81). Thus to further investigate the phylogenetic relationships of

396 the *A. laricis/tardus* symbionts, we used conserved marker genes for maximum
397 likelihood and Bayesian phylogenetic analyses.

398 Phylogenetic analysis of 45 single-copy proteins demonstrated that *Profftia*
399 opens up a novel insect symbiont lineage most similar to *Hafnia* species and an isolate
400 from the human gastrointestinal tract within the Hafniaceae, which has been recently
401 designated as a distinct family within the Enterobacteriales (82) (Figure S5). *Hafnia*
402 strains are frequently found in the gastrointestinal tract of humans and animals
403 including insects, among others (83,84). The phylogenomic placement of *Profftia* in
404 our analysis is in agreement with previous 16S rRNA based analyses (13).

405 *Vallotia* formed a monophyletic group with *Mycetohabitans endofungorum*
406 and *M. rhizoxinica*, endosymbionts of *Rhizopus* fungi within the Burkholderiaceae
407 (85,86) with strong support in phylogenetic analyses based on a concatenated set of
408 108 proteins (Figures 2, S6; previous taxonomic assignments of the fungus
409 endosymbionts were as *Burkholderia/Paraburkholderia endofungorum* and
410 *rhizoxinica*, respectively). Interestingly, *Vallotia* and *M. endofungorum* appeared as
411 well-supported sister taxa within this clade. This implies a closer phylogenetic
412 relationship between *Vallotia* and *M. endofungorum*, and a common origin of adelgid
413 endosymbionts from within a clade of fungus endosymbionts. Lengths of branches
414 leading to the fungus endosymbionts were similar to those of free-living bacteria in
415 the data set, however *Vallotia* had a remarkably longer branch marking a rapid rate of
416 sequence evolution characteristic of obligate intracellular bacteria (2,3). *M.*
417 *endofungorum* and *M. rhizoxinica* have been identified in the cytosol of the
418 zygomycete *Rhizopus microsporus*, best known as the causative agent of rice seedling
419 blight (86,87). The necrotrophic fungus secretes potent toxins, rhizoxin and rhizonin,

420 which are produced by the endosymbionts (86,88). The bacterial partners are
421 obligatory for their host as they tightly control its sporulation, while they benefit from
422 host nutrients and spread with the fungal spores (89,90). Additionally, related
423 bacterial strains have also been found in association with *Rhizopus* fungi worldwide in
424 a diverse set of environments, including other plant species, soil, food, and even
425 human tissues (91–93).

426 Taken together, phylogenomic analyses support that *Profftia* and *Vallotia* open
427 up novel insect symbionts lineages most closely related to free-living bacteria within
428 the Hafniaceae and a clade of fungus endosymbionts within the Burkholderiaceae,
429 respectively. Given the well supported phylogenetic positioning of '*Candidatus*
430 *Vallotia tarda*' nested within a clade formed by *Mycetohabitans* species, we propose
431 the transfer of '*Candidatus Vallotia tarda*' to the *Mycetohabitans* genus, as
432 '*Candidatus Mycetohabitans vallotii*' (a detailed proposal for the re-classification is
433 given in the supplementary material).

434

435 **The evolutionary link between *Vallotia* and fungus endosymbionts**

436 ***High level of genomic synteny between *Vallotia* and *M. rhizoxinica****

437 The close phylogenetic relationship between *Vallotia* and *Rhizopus* symbionts
438 offers a unique opportunity to gain insight into the early stages of genome reduction
439 and to infer functional consequences of the partnerships of bacterial symbionts with
440 insects and fungi, respectively. Among the *Rhizopus* endosymbionts, a closed genome
441 is available for *M. rhizoxinica* (56). We therefore mostly focused on this fungus
442 symbiont as a reference for comparison with *Vallotia*.

443 A surprisingly high level of synteny between the genomes of *Vallotia* and *M.*
444 *rhizoxinica* provides further evidence for their shared ancestry. Seven contigs
445 representing the *Vallotia* genome showed a high level of collinearity with the
446 chromosome of *M. rhizoxinica* (Figure 3A). However, their cumulative size was only
447 ~40% of the fungus endosymbiont chromosome. The contig that corresponded to a
448 putative plasmid of *Vallotia* was perfectly syntenic with the larger of the two plasmids
449 of *M. rhizoxinica* (pBRH01), although the *Vallotia* plasmid was over 90% smaller in
450 size (72 431 bp vs. 822 304 bp) (56). Thus, the *Vallotia* plasmid showed a much
451 higher level of reduction than the chromosome, which together with its lower G+C
452 content and gene density suggest differential evolutionary constraints on these
453 replicons. The observed high level of genome synteny between *Vallotia* and *M.*
454 *rhizoxinica* genomes is consistent with the phylogenetic position of *Vallotia*
455 interleaved within the clade of *Rhizopus* endosymbionts and points towards a direct
456 evolutionary link between these symbioses and a symbiont transition between the
457 fungus and insect hosts.

458 The conservation of genome structure contrasts with the elevated number of
459 transposases and inactive derivatives making up ~6% of the fungus symbiont genome
460 (56). Transition to a host-restricted lifestyle is usually followed by a sharp
461 proliferation of mobile genetic elements coupled with many genomic rearrangement
462 and gene inactivation. As seen for instance in endosymbionts of grain weevils (94),
463 facultative and co-obligate *Serratia symbiotica* strains (95), and facultative
464 endosymbionts, such as *Hamiltonella defensa* and *Regiella insecticola* in aphids (74).
465 However, mobile genetic elements get subsequently purged out of the genomes of
466 strictly vertically transmitted symbionts via a mutational bias towards deletion and

467 because of lack of opportunity for horizontal acquisition of novel genetic elements
468 (59,61). In contrast to the fungus symbiont, mobile elements are notably absent from
469 the *Vallotia* genome, suggesting that they might have been lost early after the
470 establishment of the adelgid symbiosis conserving high collinearity between the
471 fungus and adelgid symbiont genomes.

472 ***Shrinkage of the insect symbiont genome***

473 Deletion of large genomic fragments – spanning many functionally unrelated
474 genes – represents an important driving force of genome erosion especially at early
475 stages of symbioses when selection on many functions is weak (3,96). Besides, gene
476 loss also occurs individually and is ongoing, albeit at a much lower rate, even in
477 ancient symbionts with tiny genomes (62,97,98). Both small and large deletions could
478 be seen when comparing the *Vallotia* and *M. rhizoxinica* genomes. Several small
479 deletions as small as one gene were observed sparsely in the entire length of the
480 *Vallotia* genome within otherwise syntenic regions. The largest genomic region
481 missing from *Vallotia* encompassed 165 kbp on the *M. rhizoxinica* chromosome
482 (Figure 3B). The corresponding intergenic spacer was only 3,843 bp long on the
483 *Vallotia* genome between a phage shock protein and the Mfd transcription-repair-
484 coupling factor, present both in *Vallotia* and *M. rhizoxinica*. Interestingly, this large
485 genomic fragment included the large rhizoxin biosynthesis gene cluster
486 (*rhiIGBCDHEF*), which is responsible for the production of rhizoxin, a potent
487 antimitotic macrolide serving as a virulence factor for *R. microsporus*, the host of *M.*
488 *rhizoxinica* (88). A homologous gene cluster is also present in *M. endofungorum* and
489 *Pseudomonas fluorescens* and it has been suggested that the *rhi* cluster might have
490 been horizontally acquired by *M. rhizoxinica* (56,88). Rhizoxin blocks microtubule

491 formation in various types of eukaryotic cells (88,99), thus lack of this gene cluster in
492 ancestral *Vallotia* was likely a prerequisite for the establishment of the adelgid
493 symbiosis. However, this large deleted genomic region also contained several
494 transposases and many other genes, such as *argE* and *ilvA*, coding for the final
495 enzymes for ornithine and 2-oxobutanoate productions, which were located adjacent
496 to each other at the beginning of this fragment. The largest deletion between the
497 plasmids encompassed nearly 137 kbp of the megaplasmid of *M. rhizoxinica* and
498 involved several non-ribosomal peptide synthetases (NRPS), insecticidal toxin
499 complex (Tc) proteins, and a high number of transposases among others. *M.*
500 *rhizoxinica* harbors 15 NRPS genes clusters (56) in total, all of which are absent in
501 *Vallotia*. NPRPs are large multienzyme machineries that assemble various peptides,
502 which might function as antibiotics, signal molecules, or virulence factors (100).
503 Insecticidal toxin complexes are bacterial protein toxins, which exhibit powerful
504 insecticidal activity (101). Two of such proteins are also present in the large deleted
505 chromosomal region in close proximity to the rhizoxin biosynthesis gene cluster
506 (Figure 3B), however, their role in *M. rhizoxinica* remains elusive.

507 ***The Vallotia genome encodes for a subset of functions of the fungus***
508 ***endosymbionts***

509 The number of protein coding genes of *Vallotia* is less than one-third of those
510 of *M. rhizoxinica* and *M. endofungorum*, although metabolic functions are already
511 reduced in the fungus endosymbionts compared to free-living *Burkholderia* (56).
512 When compared to the two genomes of the fungus endosymbionts, only 53 proteins
513 were specific to *Vallotia* (Figure S7). All of these were hypothetical proteins, and
514 most of them showed no significant similarity to other proteins in public databases.

515 However, several fall within regions syntenic to the *M. rhizoxinica* genome and even
516 retained partial sequence similarity to intact genes present solely in the fungus
517 endosymbiont. Thus we assume that at least some of these *Vallotia* specific
518 hypothetical proteins might rather be remnants of degrading genes and over-
519 annotated/non-functional open reading frames than orphan genes with a yet unknown
520 function (102,103). Four genes were present in *Vallotia* and *M. rhizoxinica* but were
521 missing in *M. endofungorum*. These encoded for BioA, BioD in biotin biosynthesis,
522 NagZ in cell wall recycling, and an MFS transporter. Fifteen genes, including for
523 instance the MreB rod-shape determining protein, glycosyltransferase and hit family
524 proteins, genes in lipopolysaccharide, lipoate synthesis, and the oxidative pentose
525 phosphate pathway were shared between *Vallotia* and *M. endofungorum* only. The
526 rest of the *Vallotia* genes, coding for 91% of all of its proteins, were shared among the
527 fungus endosymbionts and the insect endosymbiont.

528 Comparing the genes present in both the insect and the fungus endosymbionts
529 to those shared only by the fungus endosymbionts (Figure S8), we can infer selective
530 functions maintained or lost during transition to insect endosymbiosis. Translation
531 related functions have been retained in the greatest measure in the group shared by all
532 endosymbionts. Functions, where higher proportion of genes were specific to the
533 fungus endosymbioses, were related to transcription, inorganic ion transport and
534 metabolism, secondary metabolite biosynthesis, signal transduction, intracellular
535 trafficking, secretion, vesicular transport and defense mechanisms. (Most of the
536 proteins specific to either of the fungus endosymbionts were homologous to
537 transposases and integrases, transcriptional regulators, or had an unknown function.)

538 Fungus endosymbionts encode for a high number of transcriptional regulators
539 (~5% of all genes in *M. rhizoxinica*) (56), but *Vallotia* has retained only a handful of
540 such genes, which is a feature similar to other insect symbionts and might contribute
541 to the overproduction of essential amino acids (62,104).

542 *M. rhizoxinica* is resistant against various β -lactams and has an arsenal of
543 efflux pumps which might provide defense against antibacterial fungal molecules: the
544 latter might also excrete virulence factors to the fungus cytosol (type I secretion) (56).
545 Besides, *M. rhizoxinica* has several genes for pilus formation, adhesion proteins, and
546 type II, type III, and type IV secretion systems which likely have a central role in host
547 infection and manipulation in the bacteria-fungus symbiosis (56,105,106). However,
548 all of the corresponding genes are missing in *Vallotia* thus neither of these
549 mechanisms likely plays a role in the operation of the adelgid symbiosis. We could
550 not even detect remnants of these genes in the *Vallotia* genome, except for a type II
551 secretion system protein as a pseudogene. Loss of these functions is consistent with a
552 strict vertical transmission of *Vallotia* between host generations, in contrast to *M.*
553 *rhizoxinica*, which can spread also horizontally among fungi and can re-infect cured
554 *Rhizopus* strains under laboratory conditions (86,87).

555 Additionally, the *M. rhizoxinica* genome encodes several predicted toxin-
556 antitoxin systems (56). Plasmid-associated toxin-antitoxin systems can act as
557 addiction molecules, which promote the maintenance of plasmids within bacterial
558 populations (107). However, most of these are missing from *Vallotia*, only PasT, the
559 toxic component of a chromosomal type II toxin-antitoxin system is present. Low
560 levels of PasT can enhance bacterial stress resistance and growth of free-living

561 bacteria, while high concentrations can induce persister cell formation (108).

562 However, the function of PasT in *Vallotia* remains unclear.

563

564 **Conclusions**

565 In most plant-sap feeding insects harboring a dual symbiotic system, typically
566 the more ancient symbiont provides most of the essential amino acids. However, due
567 to the ongoing genomic degradation characteristic for endosymbionts even genes
568 essential in the symbiosis can get inactivated (3,58). These events might lead to the
569 acquisition and fixation of an additional, younger symbiont, which can complement
570 these lost functions. For instance, among Auchenorrhyncha, the universal ancient
571 symbiont *Sulcia* provides seven or eight essential amino acids, while the rest is
572 supplied by different younger co-symbionts (109). As a consequence of a host-
573 restricted lifestyle, the genome of the newly arriving symbiont will also lose many
574 functions even among those key in the symbiosis but present in the other resident
575 symbiont (64,67,109). Co-obligate symbionts of *A. laricis/tardus* are both
576 evolutionary recent bacterial endosymbionts of adelgids with moderately reduced
577 genomes. This is following their occurrence in larch (*Profftia* and *Vallotia*) and
578 Douglas fir (*Vallotia*) associated lineages of adelgids, which likely diversified
579 relatively recently, ~47 and ~60 million years ago from the remaining clades of
580 adelgids, respectively (5). However, these recently gained adelgid symbionts show a
581 high level of metabolic complementarity and low functional redundancy in essential
582 amino acid synthesis. Given its presence in both larch and Douglas fir associated
583 adelgids, *Vallotia* might be the relatively older symbiont, and it can synthesize nine

584 essential amino acids with a putative contribution of insect delivered compounds.
585 Loss of functions in chorismate and anthranilate biosynthesis might have led to the
586 fixation of *Profftia* in the system. *Profftia* can produce phenylalanine, but has lost its
587 capabilities for synthesizing other essential amino acids. Host-derived compounds and
588 partition of tryptophan biosynthesis between the co-symbionts in *A. laricis/tardus* are
589 similar to other insect symbioses suggesting convergent evolution. However, the
590 *Vallotia* - *Profftia* system differs from the *Annandia* - *Pseudomonas* system in *A.*
591 *tsugae* where functions of the symbionts in essential amino acid synthesis are more
592 balanced and redundant. It has been suggested that repeated replacement of symbionts
593 among adelgids might be a consequence of periods with relaxed selection on
594 symbiont functions due to different feeding behavior of adelgids on primary and
595 secondary host trees – that is feeding on nutrient-rich parenchyma cells on spruce
596 versus nutrient-poor phloem sap on alternate hosts – and multiple origins of host-
597 alternating lifestyles (10). *Annandia*, the ancient symbiont of adelgids has lost many
598 functions in essential amino acid biosynthesis, which could support this hypothesis
599 (25), however the *Vallotia* - *Profftia* system does not follow this pattern.

600 One of the most remarkable findings of our study is the evolutionary link
601 between the betaproteobacterial insect symbiont, *Vallotia*, and endosymbionts of
602 *Rhizopus* fungi supported by their close phylogenetic relationships and a high-level of
603 genomic synteny. There are many possible scenarios that could explain the origin of
604 these symbioses. A common free-living ancestor could infect ancestral adelgids and
605 *Rhizopus* fungi independently or developed an intracellular lifestyle in either of these
606 hosts and got subsequently transmitted between them. We assume that a fungus-insect
607 symbiont transition is more likely than multiple origins of these associations as the

608 proliferation of mobile genetic elements typical in early stages of host restriction
609 would have resulted in extensive rearrangements and a substantially different genomic
610 structure (94,110), as seen, for instance, between very closely related *Serratia*
611 *symbiotica* strains in aphids (95). Alternative scenarios are also possible, but the
612 phylogenetic position of *Vallotia* interleaved within the clade of *Rhizopus*
613 endosymbionts and lack of functions specific to the adelgid symbiont point towards
614 the putative origin of *Vallotia* from the fungus endosymbionts. The origin of insect
615 symbionts from fungus endosymbionts is, according to our knowledge,
616 unprecedented. *Rhizopus* endosymbionts are equipped with many functions for
617 infection and overcoming host defense. Chitinase, chitosanase, and a putative chitin-
618 binding protein have also been found among the putatively *Sec* exported proteins of
619 *M. rhizoxinica* (56), which besides the infection of fungi could have had a role in the
620 transmission into an insect host. In addition, *Rhizopus* endosymbionts could be
621 maintained in pure cultures (86), thus, at least for a limited time, they might survive
622 also outside of their hosts in the environment. Their host, *Rhizopus microsporus*, is a
623 plant pathogen fungus with a broad environmental distribution. Thus a potential route
624 for acquisition of the symbionts by insects could have been via plant tissues, the food
625 source of adelgids, similar to plant-mediated symbiont transmission observed for
626 intracellular insect symbionts (21).

627 Taken together, our genomic analysis of co-obligate endosymbionts of
628 adelgids revealed a novel path for the evolution of bacteria-insect symbioses from a
629 clade of fungus-associated ancestors.

630

631 **Acknowledgements**

632 We would like to acknowledge Alexander Siegl and Thomas Penz for their
633 help in collecting adelgids and Irene Lichtscheidl-Schultz (Core Facility Cell Imaging
634 and Ultrastructure Research, Cell Imaging Lab, University of Vienna) for the close-up
635 photos of adelgids. This study was funded by the Austrian Science Fund (FWF)
636 project P22533-B17. Work in the lab of M. H. is supported by Austrian Science Fund
637 project DOC 69-B. A.M.M. was supported by a Marie Skłodowska-Curie Individual
638 Fellowship (840270, LEECHSYMBIO) of the European Union.

639

640 **Competing Interests:** The authors declare no competing interests

641

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- 945

946

947 **Figure Legends**

948 **Figure 1. Division of labor in amino acid biosynthesis and transport between**
949 ***Vallotia* and *Profftia* showing co-obligatory status of endosymbionts of *A.***
950 ***laricis/tardus*.** Amino acids produced by *Vallotia* and *Profftia* are shown in blue and
951 red, respectively. Bolded texts indicate essential amino acids. The insect host likely
952 supplies ornithine, homocysteine, 2-oxobutanoate and glutamine. Other compounds
953 that cannot be synthesized by the symbionts are shown in grey italics.

954

955 **Figure 2. Phylogenomic analysis showing the affiliation of the adelgid**
956 **endosymbiont ‘*Candidatus Vallotia tarda*’ and its closest relatives, the fungus**
957 **endosymbionts *M. rhizoxinica* and *M. endofungorum* within the**
958 ***Burkholderiaceae*.** Free-living and pathogenic bacteria are colored in purple. Selected
959 members of *Oxalobacteraceae* (*Janthinobacterium agaricidamnorum* [HG322949],
960 *Collimonas pratensis* [CP013234] and *Herbaspirillum seropedicae* [CP011930]) were
961 used as outgroup. Maximum likelihood (IQ-TREE) and Bayesian analyses (MrBayes)
962 were performed based on a concatenated alignment of 108 proteins. Maximum
963 likelihood tree is shown. SH-aLRT support (%) and ultrafast bootstrap support (%)
964 values based on 1000 replicates, and Bayesian posterior probabilities are indicated on
965 the internal nodes. Asterisks stand for a maximal support in each analysis (100% / 1).

966

967 **Figure 3. (A) Synteny between the chromosome and plasmid of *Vallotia* and *M.***
968 ***rhizoxinica*, an endosymbiont of *Rhizopus* fungi.** The outermost and the middle

969 rings show genes in forward and reverse strand orientation, respectively. These
970 include rRNA genes in red and tRNA genes in dark orange. The innermost ring
971 indicates single-copy genes shared by *M. rhizoxinica* and *Vallotia* in black. Purple and
972 dark yellow lines connect forward and reverse matches between the genomes,
973 respectively. The two small contigs involving the rRNA genes of *Vallotia* are not
974 shown. **(B) Close-up of the largest deletion on the chromosome of *M. rhizoxinica***
975 **and the syntenic region on the *Vallotia* chromosome.** Genes are colored according
976 to COG categories. Yellow: secondary metabolite biosynthesis; red: transposase;
977 grey: unknown function; khaki: replication, recombination and repair; pink: lipid
978 transport and metabolism; brown: protein turnover and chaperones; dark green: amino
979 acid transport and metabolism; light green: cell envelope biogenesis; black:
980 transcription.
981

Feature	<i>Profftia</i>	<i>Vallotia</i>	
	Chromosome	Chromosome	Plasmid
Genome size (bp)	1,225,795	1,110,884	72,431
GC (%)	31.9	42.8	36.1
Coding density (%)	52.4	65.6	46.2
CDS	645	751	29
rRNA genes	3	3*	0
tRNAs	35	37	0
Pseudogenes	21	47	5

982

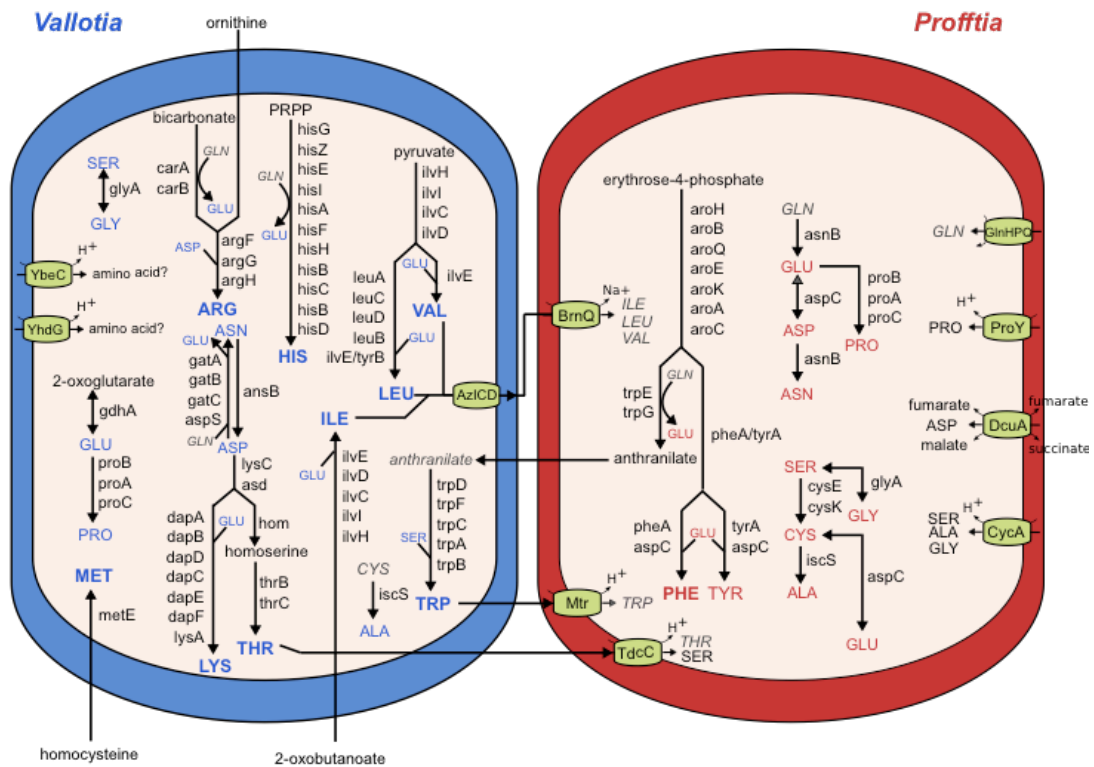
983

984 **Table 1.** Genomic features of *Profftia* and *Vallotia*. **Vallotia* likely has three copies

985 of each rRNA gene based on the sequence coverage of the corresponding contigs

986 involving these genes.

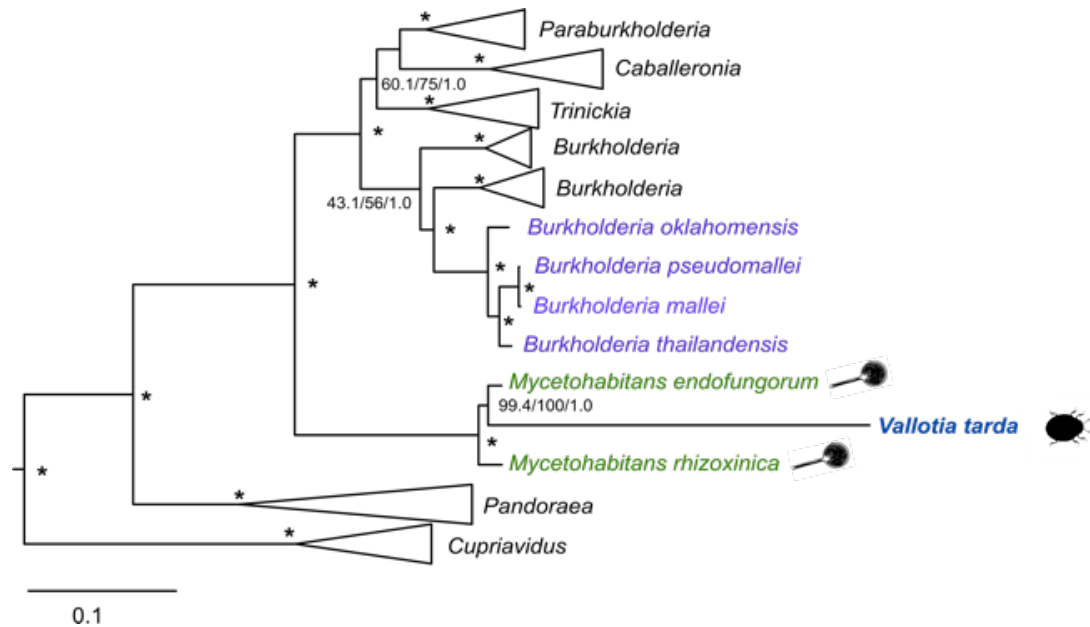
987



988

989 **Figure 1. Division of labor in amino acid biosynthesis and transport between**
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 994 that cannot be synthesized by the symbionts are shown in grey italics.

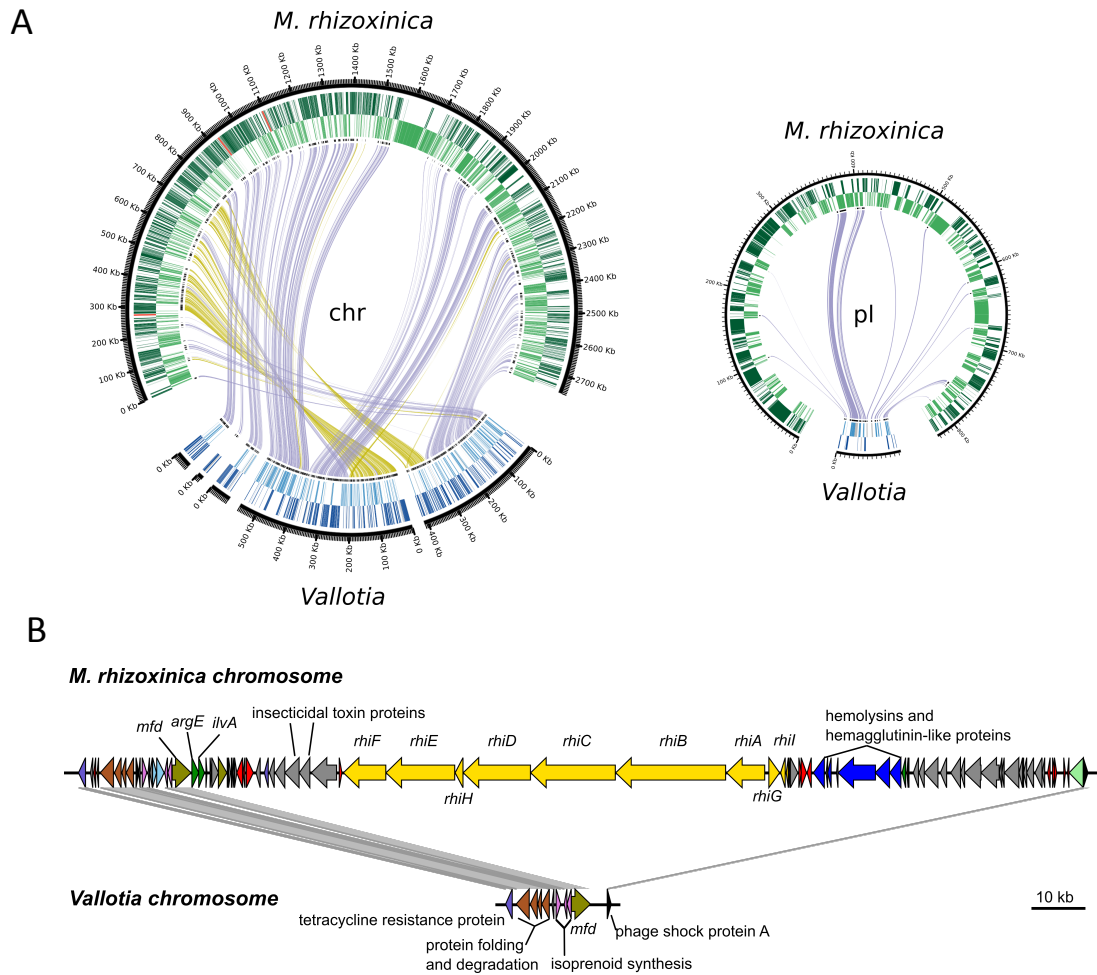
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1002 ***Collimonas pratensis* [CP013234] and *Herbaspirillum seropedicae* [CP011930]) were**
1003 **used as outgroup. Maximum likelihood (IQ-TREE) and Bayesian analyses (MrBayes)**
1004 **were performed based on a concatenated alignment of 108 proteins. Maximum**
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1008



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 1020 grey: unknown function; khaki: replication, recombination and repair; pink: lipid
 1021 transport and metabolism; brown: protein turnover and chaperones; dark green: amino
 1022 acid transport and metabolism; light green: cell envelope biogenesis; black:
 1023 transcription.