



## 28 **Introduction**

29 The evolution of a terrestrial lifestyle independently occurred multiple times across and  
30 within most of the metazoan phyla (1-4). Since the marine and terrestrial realms are  
31 ecologically very different, these several transitions involved profound morphological,  
32 physiological and behavioural adaptations, often converging towards similar structures and  
33 metabolic pathways (1, 4). Among land adapted phyla, Arthropoda contribute the most to  
34 species diversity, which is the evolutionary outcome of a series of independent land invasions  
35 started in the Ordovician and still in progress at present (4, 5). Indeed, insects and arachnids  
36 represent the most successful arthropods on land, in terms of biomass, functional roles and  
37 diversity, but crustaceans are also well represented. This largely marine group shows many  
38 examples of semi-terrestrial and terrestrial forms, mostly represented by Amphipoda,  
39 Isopoda and Decapoda, the latter including the largest extant terrestrial arthropod of the  
40 world, the iconic coconut crab *Birgus latro* (6).

41 In chronological order, the true crabs (Decapoda; Brachyura) were among the last groups of  
42 arthropods to perform the sea-land transition (5), but they have been particularly successful  
43 with more than twenty phylogenetically unrelated families that include species with  
44 intertidal, semiterrestrial and truly terrestrial lifestyles (5, 7). Adaptations to terrestrial  
45 environments involved several morphological and physiological changes in sensory,  
46 locomotory, respiratory, excretory, osmoregulatory, digestive and reproductive systems (8, 9,  
47 18, 10-17). Interestingly, brachyuran gills have not proved to be fully functional for  
48 respiration in terrestrial environment (1) and are involved in osmotic regulation, urine  
49 dilution, nitrogen excretion and ion-regulation in most terrestrially adapted families (10, 19,  
50 20). Other essential adaptations include herbivory and immune system recognition of  
51 potentially fungal pathogens, which are rare in marine environment but abundant on land,

52 where they are commonly known pathogens of terrestrial arthropods, including  
53 semiterrestrial mangrove crabs (21, 22).

54 Due to the relatively high diversity of terrestrial forms, when related to their recent history of  
55 attempts to conquer the land, brachyurans have been considered an excellent animal model  
56 for the study of the evolution of terrestrial adaptations (2, 5, 8, 23). They are, however, rarely  
57 surveyed in studies investigating the involvement of commensal and symbiotic microbiota in  
58 such a dramatic transition. Indeed, metazoans groups have adapted to different habitats also  
59 by creating mutualistic and symbiotic relationships with the microorganisms that inhabit  
60 their tissues and organs (24). These relationships can drive the evolution and Darwinian  
61 selection of both sides, as predicted by the hologenome concept of evolution (25–27).

62 Within this theoretical frame, we investigated the role of associated microbial communities in  
63 the terrestrial adaptations of a semi-terrestrial brachyuran crab, *Chiromantes haematocheir*, a  
64 common inhabitant of lowland forests of East Asia (28, 29). We applied targeted  
65 metagenomics approaches to profile both prokaryotic and fungal communities isolated from  
66 1) organs (i.e., gills, gonads and gut) collected from specimens belonging to different  
67 populations and 2) relevant environmental matrixes (i.e., soil, leaf litter, water and water  
68 debris) sampled in their microhabitats. Our null hypothesis was that microbial composition of  
69 crab organs could show the same microbial signature displayed by the matrices from the  
70 surrounding environments. This would indicate that the crab organs would host bacterial and  
71 fungal populations acquired from the environments without any specific selection and could  
72 be explained by a dynamic "loss and acquire" balance that ultimately would prevent the  
73 development of stable host-microbe associations. Our alternative hypothesis was that crab  
74 organs may show exclusive bacterial and/or fungal communities, in terms of diversity and  
75 composition, when compared to those present in environment. This would indicate, for the  
76 first time for terrestrial brachyurans, a selection process in favour of specific microorganisms

77 and possibly the evolution of adaptive symbioses able to contribute to the baseline life  
78 processes of this semiterrestrial crab and to drive its adaptations to the terrestrial habitat it  
79 inhabits. Thus, our final aim was to shed light on the possible role of animal-microbiome  
80 symbioses involved in the evolution of adaptive traits coupled with the ongoing transition of  
81 crabs from the sea to terrestrial environments.

## 82 **Results**

### 83 **Microbial composition of crab's organs and environmental samples**

84 Sequencing produced 25,875,448 sequences for prokaryotic 16S rRNA amplicon and  
85 15,788,842 sequences for the fungal internal transcribed region 1 (ITS1) that were clustered  
86 according to DADA2 pipeline (see Supplementary methods for additional details). After the  
87 clustering pipeline two fungal samples (namely GI\_TKP\_5 and MG\_SH\_1) produced no counts  
88 in any of the fungal ASVs and were therefore removed from subsequent analyses. Since  
89 several fungal samples reported a low number of reads in crab's organs, two samples were  
90 replicated and tested for correlation and accuracy to evaluate the presence of fungal cells in  
91 the crabs' organs (Figure S1 and Table S1). Technical replicates showed an average  
92 correlation coefficient (Spearman's rho) between replicates ranging between 0.74 and 0.99,  
93 with an accuracy higher than 75% in all contrasts. These results mean that the low recovery in  
94 biotic samples was not due to technical or analytical issues but corresponded to the scarce  
95 presence of fungal DNA (Figure S2, Table S2 and Supplementary method section).

96 Single nucleotide clustering detected a total of 56,233 amplicon sequence variants (ASVs)  
97 including both 16S rRNA gene and ITS1 amplicons. The 16S rRNA gene amplicons produced  
98 55,036 ASVs (97.87%), whereas the ITS1 region was clustered into 1,197 ASVs (2.13%). Most  
99 variants were assigned to the Bacteria domain (54,800 ASVs, 97.45% of the total ASVs  
100 detected) and Fungi kingdom, even if a sporadic presence of Archaea was found (236 ASVs,



101 0.42% of the total ASVS detected). In general, microbial diversity was higher in the  
102 environmental samples than in crab's organs, except for the gills where we found a high  
103 diversity of 16S rRNA amplicons (Figure 2a and b, Table S3). The fungal diversity was low in  
104 all crab's organs, whereas environmental samples were characterised by a highly diverse  
105 fungal assemblage, with soil, water, and water debris reporting the highest diversities (Figure  
106 2c & d). For each sample category and at each site, the difference between extrapolated  
107 diversity—namely the inverse Simpson index calculated by simulating a higher sequencing  
108 depth than the observed depth for each sample—and observed diversity was really low  
109 (Table 1), meaning that our sampling effort was effective in assessing the natural microbial  
110 diversity for each category. Even the Good's coverage estimator was higher than 99.9% in all  
111 sample types highlighting that only 1‰ of clustered sequences came from ASVs detected only  
112 once in the whole dataset (Table 1 and Table S3). Microbial diversity was rather uniform  
113 across sampling sites, except for To Kwa Peng (TKP), which showed a significantly lower  
114 diversity with respect to the other sites in terms of ITS1 data (Figure S3).

### 115 **Microbial distribution across sample types**

116 The multidimensional ordination showed that both environmental samples and crab's organs  
117 contributed to shape microbial community distribution, but their effect varied according to  
118 both the amplicon type and the category of sample considered (Figure 3 and S4). In terms of  
119 composition, the microbial communities found in the environmental samples overlapped with  
120 each other more than the ones characteristic of the crab's organs (Figure 3a). The PCoA built  
121 on 16S rRNA gene amplicons (Bacteria and Archaea) showed that soil (S) and litter (L), and  
122 water (W) and water debris (WD), respectively, formed two distinct clusters, although  
123 differences in microbial communities found across the three Hong Kong sites increased the  
124 intra-cluster variability (Figure S4). On the other hand, the same 16S rRNA amplicon dataset  
125 showed a clear separation across crab's organs, with a very limited influence of the collection

126 sites (Figure 3 and S4). The gut's microbiome composition was similar across the two  
127 sampled sections (mid- and hindgut), while the gills and gonads sharply separated from each  
128 other and the gut itself. These significant differences were highlighted also by the  
129 permutational analysis of variance (Figure 3b, Table S4). With respect to 16S rRNA data,  
130 fungal distribution produced more overlap, especially across crab's organs, with the gonads  
131 being the only organ to show significant differences when compared to the other organs  
132 (Figure 3b, Table S4).

133 Both environmental samples and crab's organs possessed a large set of microbial species  
134 which were unique to the category considered (Figure S5). As already mentioned, sampling  
135 sites also contributed to shape microbial communities, but they predominantly affected  
136 environmental samples distribution and showed a low effect on crab's organs (Figure S4a and  
137 b, Figure S5a and c). In addition, the community composition of both prokaryotic and fungal  
138 communities resulted to be more variable and dispersed at site level than at organ level  
139 (Figures S4 and S6, Table S5), showing a higher specificity of such assemblages within the  
140 different organs and across sites. The microbiota found on the gills appeared to be less organ-  
141 specific and shared a consistent portion of their microbiomes with soil and water, as well as  
142 gut samples (Figure S5b and d).

### 143 **Defining characteristic patterns across sample types**

144 To inspect microbial distribution in different sample categories, we performed log-likelihood  
145 ratio test on both prokaryotic and fungal communities using DESeq2. We found 250 ASVs  
146 (218 bacteria and 32 fungi) reporting a different distribution across crab organs and/or  
147 environmental samples (Figure 4 and Table S6). Even if significant ASVs corresponded to  
148 0.45% of the ASVs profiled in the whole community (250 on 55819), they accounted for more  
149 than 50% of the total microbial abundance (with a mean in each sample of 56.5% and a  
150 standard error of 2.10%) reflecting the presence of many rare and sporadic species

151 throughout sample types and sites. Divisive analysis of hierarchical clustering obtained using  
152 variance-stabilized counts produced four distinct clusters, which show a peculiar pattern of  
153 abundance of ASVs clearly linked to the ecological and biological settings of the study. Indeed,  
154 clusters 1 and 2 (Figures 4 and S7) were composed by microbial assemblages highly  
155 represented in the crab's organs, while the other two clusters, (namely, cluster 3 and 4)  
156 represented the microorganisms mostly found in the environmental samples (Figures 4 and  
157 S7). The clusters representing the microorganisms more abundant in the crab's organs were  
158 represented by bacterial ASVs only and were split into two groups, formed by the bacteria of  
159 the gut (cluster 1) and of the gills (cluster 2), respectively, with the latter being the smaller  
160 one.

## 161 **Taxonomic and functional enrichments in crab's organs and environmental** 162 **samples**

163 An exploration of the distribution of the scaled variance-stabilized counts within each sample  
164 group is shown in Figure 5a. Pairwise Wilcoxon test revealed that the ASVs present in the  
165 cluster 1 were significant enriched in the gut, while ASVs included in cluster 2 were  
166 significantly enriched in the gills (Figure 5a). Clusters 3 and 4 were significantly related to  
167 environmental matrices, cluster 3 to the water and water debris samples, while cluster 4 with  
168 litter and soil samples (Figure 5a).

169 Enrichment analysis estimated using  $\log_2$  fold-changes allowed to assign a fair number of  
170 ASVs to a specific taxon present in the previously described clusters (Figure 5).  
171 Proteobacteria was the most represented phylum of the whole 16S dataset and comprised  
172 ASVs belonging to clusters 1, 2 and 3 (Figure 5). The results of this analysis are displayed in  
173 the sunburst plot of Figure 5b, which shows that some taxa were enriched in one or more  
174 clusters. Significantly enriched taxa were reported from the highest taxonomic rank  
175 considered (namely the domain level, the centre of the plot) to the lowest available taxonomic

176 level (namely genus, for bacteria/archaea and species for fungi) and were hierarchically  
177 ordered. The intestinal cluster (i.e., cluster 1) was enriched in members of the Firmicutes  
178 phylum, more specifically members of Bacilli class including *Candidatus Hepatoplasma*,  
179 *Candidatus Bacilloplasma*, *Lactovum* and *Lactococcus* (Figure 5b). Members of the phylum  
180 Bacteroidota and some taxa related to Proteobacteria and Actinobacteriota were enriched in  
181 both clusters 1 and 2. Within the phylum Bacteroidota, genera *Roseimarinus* and *Niabella*  
182 were associated with cluster 1, *Fluviicola* and *Moheibacter* were related to cluster 2, and  
183 *Leadbetterella* was shared between both clusters (Figure 5b). Other clear associations were  
184 highlighted, with cluster 3 mainly associated with Proteobacteria and Ascomycota, while  
185 cluster 2 mainly related to Actinobacteriota. The genera of these latter phyla are not  
186 exclusively associated to a single cluster and are present in multiple clusters. Cluster 4  
187 showed a taxonomic assignment totally related to the Fungi kingdom, in particular to the  
188 phylum Ascomycota.

189 Functional profiling obtained from 16S rRNA gene amplicons confirmed that the conserved  
190 bacterial structures associated with crab's organs are not just composed by a defined set of  
191 taxa but also by a defined set of molecular functions (Figure 6a). Clusters of bacterial variants  
192 were mainly enriched/depleted by a unique set of molecular functions that did not report the  
193 same effect in ASVs from other clusters. The inferred genomic content of variants detected in  
194 crab's gut (Cluster 1) was enriched by 359 GO terms and depleted by 21, with more than a half  
195 (218 terms, 18 depleted and 200 enriched, Table S8) peculiar only to this cluster. Molecular  
196 functions, as cellulases and xylanases, commonly associated to commensal microorganisms  
197 present in the gut of model herbivorous arthropods, were not enriched in the gut microbiome  
198 of the crab (Table S9). The gills (Cluster 2) had a population of bacteria enriched by 231 GO  
199 terms and depleted by 14 terms, with roughly one third (88 terms, 12 depleted and 76  
200 enriched) significantly found only in these organs. Functions associated to biofilm formation

201 such as cellulose synthase (30, 31) were enriched only in this cluster (GO:0016760), whereas  
202 functions associated to the nitrogen cycle - such as nitric- and nitrous-oxide reductase activity  
203 - were shared between the gills and the environmental cluster 3. The latter - mainly composed  
204 of ASVs mostly found in water and water debris samples - had the largest set of GO terms (401  
205 terms, 22 depleted and 379 enriched) with more than a half (223 terms, 19 depleted and 204  
206 enriched) exclusively present in the inferred genome of ASVs highly abundant in that cluster.  
207 Only 4.87% of the total GO terms was significantly enriched in all clusters (37 terms out of  
208 759, with no terms significantly depleted), indicating a functional role of microbial  
209 communities both in crab's organs and in environmental samples (Figure 6b and c, and Table  
210 S8). Amplicon sequence variants significantly enriched in crab's gut and gills shared more  
211 functions (GO terms) with the environmental cluster 3 (water and water debris) than  
212 between themselves. In particular, 73 and 68 functions (with only 2 and 1 depleted terms)  
213 were shared between the gut and the gills, respectively, and the ASVs detected in the  
214 environmental cluster 3 (Figure 6b, Table S8). Considering the total number of terms  
215 significantly enriched/depleted, the gills were the organs more impacted by the environment  
216 with roughly one third (27.8%) of molecular functions shared with cluster 3. In contrast, the  
217 more populated organ, the gut, shared only 19.2% of the total number of functions.

## 218 **Discussion**

219 Our results show a dramatic difference between the microbiome of the semi-terrestrial  
220 brachyuran crab *C. haematocheir*, which represents one of the most recent attempts of land  
221 colonisation by an arthropod, and the surrounding environmental microbiome. This  
222 difference is more pronounced for the bacterial component than for the fungal one. Further,  
223 the crab microbiome analysis shows the presence of consistent organ-specific microbial  
224 communities. The degree of specificity of the taxonomic and functional microbial signatures

225 we found at organ level can be explained by the adaptive evolution of symbiotic host-microbe  
226 associations, which now represent a single biological unit under selection from the recently  
227 colonised terrestrial habitat, i.e., a holobiont (*sensu* 32). Temporary host-microbiota  
228 associations can be created, retained or lost over time, due to the large number of organisms-  
229 microbe interactions. Thus, a crucial verification needed to define the holobiont as a single  
230 selection unit is to define the degree of specificity of the microbial signature of an organism.  
231 Our sampling design and analytical approach were able to define stable, organ-specific  
232 microbiota in both the gut and gills of individuals belonging to different populations,  
233 suggesting a tight and persistent association between those prokaryotic communities and *C.*  
234 *haematocheir*. The organ specificity is supported by the observation that such microbiota  
235 were consistently dissimilar among the different organs but their composition did not  
236 significantly change across sampling sites, where local microbial assemblages proved to be  
237 site specific and different from the ones associated with the crabs. The most enriched  
238 microorganisms in the gut microbiota of our model species are shared with terrestrial  
239 isopods, which moved to the land roughly 300 million years ago, and are supposed to play a  
240 central role in their adaptation to a diet based on vascular plant tissues (33). One of the  
241 general assumptions of the hologenome concept, however, is that both the host genome and  
242 the genetic information of the associated microbiome are transferred from one generation to  
243 the next. This postulation underlies the critical role of mothers in transferring  
244 microorganisms to their offspring (34), a challenging process for our model organism that has  
245 highly dispersive planktonic larval stages followed by a recruitment phase. Another crucial  
246 result is that fungal communities are exclusive to the environmental matrices while almost  
247 absent in *C. haematocheir* organs. This suggests a specific selection process that favours  
248 bacteria versus fungi, possibly supported by selection against yeasts and fungi since several  
249 fungi are known pathogens for arthropods and crabs (21, 35). To the best of our knowledge,

250 the present integrated set of results support the novel idea that semi-terrestrial crabs, only  
251 recently migrated onto the land, are associated with microbial communities that play specific  
252 functional roles in response to the dramatic environmental pressures posed by the sea-to-  
253 land transition. The next questions are where these microbes were acquired and where are  
254 their reservoirs?

255 In the last decades there has been a proliferation of experimental studies supporting the view  
256 of holobionts (hosts and their associated microbiota) as units of selection (36). These studies  
257 showed how associated microbes have a central role in the host biology, ecology, and  
258 evolution, since microbiota are genetically more dynamic and can change more rapidly than  
259 the host genome in response to environmental pressures (32, 37). Undeniably, stable  
260 symbiotic insect-microbe interactions have been extensively investigated and proved to be  
261 crucial for the evolution of many of the several lifestyles of insects (38, 39). Studies on insects,  
262 however, cannot shed light on the importance of such associations for the first steps towards  
263 land colonisation, which was carried out by insects as far as the Ordovician (4). To bridge this  
264 knowledge gap, in this study we focused on a semi-terrestrial brachyuran crab that, from a  
265 paleontological point of view, just recently had to face the dramatic challenges represented by  
266 excretion, breathing and digestion in terrestrial habitats (for a review see 8).

267 The digestive system of brachyuran crabs comprises different tracts according to their  
268 embryological origin and functional role. We intentionally focused on the midgut, where  
269 central digestion and absorption occur, and the hindgut, which has a role in water and ion  
270 transport (8, 16). In contrast with the intestinal bacterial communities found in the  
271 freshwater Chinese mitten crab, *Eriocheir sinensis* (40), and notwithstanding the different  
272 functions, the selected intestinal tracts of *C. haematocheir* were homogeneous in terms of  
273 microbial communities, suggesting, at least for this terrestrial crab species, a similar role of  
274 such traits.

275 Host-associated microbiota are known to play a crucial role in the digestive process of many  
276 terrestrial arthropods (41). Thus, it is not surprising that the highly diverse microbial  
277 community found in *C. haematocheir* gut is clearly distinguished from all the other internal  
278 and environmental assemblages. This semi-terrestrial species mainly relies on leaf litter and  
279 integrates its diet with small arthropod preys (28, 29). The ability to cope with difficult-to-  
280 digest vascular plant compounds (i.e., cellulose, lignin, and polyphenols) has been brought  
281 forward as a fundamental trait in the adaptive processes related to terrestrialisation (16, 42,  
282 43). The termites' ability to degrade lignocellulose is classical example of high gut microbiome  
283 specialization (41). Conversely to the termites' gut microbiome, however, the bacterial  
284 assemblages inhabiting the gut of *C. haematocheir* were not enriched in known functions that  
285 would help the host to selectively digest cellulose products. Indeed, no gene with cellulase  
286 activity were enriched in the gut, possibly reflecting a more variable diet of these crabs, not  
287 strictly specialized on plant material digestion (28). The gut microbiome shared limited  
288 similarities with the gut core microbiome of a marine predatory brachyuran, the  
289 commercially important mud crab *Scylla paramamosain* (44). Core Proteobacteria shared by  
290 *S. paramamosain* and *C. haematocheir* include only *Shewanella*, while Firmicutes include  
291 *Lactococcus*, *Candidatus Hepatoplasma* and *Candidatus Bacilloplasma* (hereafter  
292 *Hepatoplasma* and *Bacilloplasma*). *Hepatoplasma*, and *Bacilloplasma* are rare in marine  
293 environments, while they were previously described as colonizers of the hepatopancreas of  
294 the terrestrial isopod *Porcellio scaber* (33, 45). *Hepatoplasma* was detected in *P. scaber*  
295 specimens collected from very different geographical areas (Germany and western Canada),  
296 proving the strong host-microbe association (45, 46). Other bacterial genera found in our  
297 intestinal cluster (such as *Niabella*, *Paracoccus* and *Shewanella*) were also isolated from  
298 terrestrial isopods (42). Of particular interest is also the presence of *Lactococcus*, which is a  
299 genus of lactic acid bacteria known as homofermenters, producing a single product, lactic



300 acid, as the main, or only product of glucose fermentation. Lactic acid has a selective role since  
301 it lowers the pH and selects the environmental microbes that can potentially thrive in the gut.  
302 These microorganisms, common in the dairy industry, are also known to colonize the gut of  
303 termites, *Lactococcus nasutitermitis* (47) and do not include marine species, although they are  
304 occasionally described as pathogens of aquacultured species (48, 49). Another microorganism  
305 we found in the intestinal cluster that has never been described in the marine environment,  
306 thus suggesting acquisition from terrestrial microorganisms, is *Lactovum*, a genus of bacteria  
307 within the family Streptococcaceae. The genus includes a single species, *Lactovum miscens*, an  
308 aerotolerant, anaerobic species originally isolated from soil of the Stiegerwald forest in  
309 Germany (50). In addition, the intestinal cluster was enriched in *Erwiniaceae*, a family that  
310 includes insect's symbionts such as *Buchnera aphidicola* (51). The gut microbiota we found in  
311 the mid- and hindgut of *C. haematocheir* then shared similarities with the gut microbiota of  
312 other terrestrial crustaceans and insects, suggesting the presence of functions/preferences of  
313 those taxa that could help arthropods digestive systems, a hypothesis that deserves further  
314 functional investigations.

315 The possibilities of a vertical transmission vs. acquisition from the environment of this  
316 specialized gut microbiota deserves a deeper discussion and further experiments. First, land  
317 and terrestrial crabs are neither social or gregarious and only few of them show some basic  
318 degrees of parental care (17, 52). Second, *C. haematocheir*, as well as the most land-adapted  
319 family of brachyuran crabs, the Gecarcinidae, still retain an indirect development strategy and  
320 release planktonic larvae in coastal waters. Consequently, *C. haematocheir*, as well as the land  
321 crabs with planktonic larvae in general, may have developed intimate gut-specific symbiotic  
322 associations only through pseudo-vertical transmission (sensu 53), i.e., by acquiring and  
323 selecting their gut microbiota directly from food or, most probably, through consumption of  
324 adults' faeces (coprophagy) found in or around their burrows. The megalopae of various

325 terrestrial and land crabs are known to specifically recruit at their spawning grounds, as  
326 showed by the iconic mass recruitment of the Christmas Island red crab *Gecarcoidea natalis*  
327 (54), or in areas where they can chemically detect adult populations, such as the case of the  
328 swamp ghost crab *Ucides cordatus* (55). In some species, this selective recruitment towards  
329 populations of conspecific adults ultimately results in the occurrence of juveniles and sub-  
330 adults within secondary branches excavated along the burrows of adult crabs (56–58). Indeed,  
331 these behaviours maximise the chances of finding adult populations and, consequently, a  
332 successful pseudo-vertical transmission of microbiota through coprophagy. Further  
333 metagenomic analyses on faeces are needed to clarify this point.

334

335 The gonads host a low microbial diversity with respect to the other organs and environmental  
336 matrices we analysed, as expected for an internal organ in no direct contact with the  
337 environment and not morphologically connected to the gut and the gills. Their microbial  
338 community, moreover, is shared with both the other organs and the environment,  
339 determining the absence of a specific taxonomic and functional cluster associated with them.  
340 Microorganisms are known to be associated with the reproductive system of arthropods, in  
341 both insects (59) and crustaceans (60). Few studies, however, have specifically characterised  
342 these gonad-associated microbiota and most of them were focused on specific pathogens of  
343 sexually transmitted infections or reproductive parasites, with the most notable example  
344 being *Wolbachia* (61). When present, the vertical transmission of specific microbiota during  
345 oogenesis or at birth is known to determine a colonization of the gonads that ultimately  
346 affects the microbial composition of the offspring (60). In this view, the absence of an  
347 exclusive microbiota in *C. haematoicher* gonads can be explained, as for the gut microbiota, by  
348 the lack of vertical transmission through the parental-offspring pathways, as a result of the  
349 presence of planktonic stages.

350 Although protected in the gill chambers, *C. haematocheir* gills are in direct communication  
351 with the external environment, but they do show a unique resident microbiota, which is  
352 different from the microbial communities detected in the environmental matrices. These gill-  
353 associated microbial assemblages are only enriched in prokaryotes, unlike the soil/litter and  
354 the water communities, which are composed almost entirely by fungi and a mix of  
355 Proteobacteria and fungi, respectively. The prokaryotic cluster associated with the gills is  
356 characterised by a strong uniformity in terms of both taxonomy and functions. Actinobacteria  
357 associated to the gills include Microbacteriaceae and *Illumatobacter*, which are known to play  
358 an important role in marine organisms by producing bioactive compounds crucial in the  
359 defence against pathogens (62). Some of the bacteria detected on the gills of *C. haematocheir*,  
360 such as *Illumatobacter* and *Albimonas*, were also found in the gills of the Chinese mitten crab  
361 *Eriocheir sinensis* (40), but at this stage their metabolic functions are not clear. In contrast to  
362 the gut, genes associated with cellulose synthase activity were found in the microbiota  
363 associated with these organs (GO:0016760). This activity is typical of biofilm-forming bacteria  
364 that use cellulose both as a physical barrier against harmful molecules such as antibiotics but  
365 also biocides and metallic cations, and as a molecular glue to help their interaction with the  
366 host (31). Since the gills of *C. haematocheir* are exposed to external perturbations, the  
367 presence of biofilm-forming functions may help to boost the resilience of bacteria stabilizing  
368 host-microbiome interactions. Genes related to the reduction of nitric compounds (namely:  
369 nitric oxide reductase activity, GO:0016966, and nitrous-oxide reductase activity,  
370 GO:0050304) were enriched in both the gills and environmental water and water debris  
371 samples. Besides their role in the anaerobic metabolism of nitrogen, these functions are  
372 involved into pathogenesis and antibiotic resistance in bacteria (63) and may help tissue  
373 colonization. In addition, the covalent incorporation of a nitric oxide molecule (nitrosylation)  
374 of cytochrome c and quinol oxidases inhibits cellular respiration acting as an antimicrobial

375 molecule. We speculate that this mechanism may be used by bacteria inhabiting the gills of *C.*  
376 *haematocheir* as a possible molecular defence against external pathogens helping the crab,  
377 and themselves, to thrive in different terrestrial environments.

378 Our results show that fungi are strongly depleted in all crab's organs and that gills should be  
379 considered an efficient selective filter between the environment and the host. In our opinion,  
380 the substantial absence of fungal associations can be explained by different hypotheses that  
381 all converge on the existence of defences from potential pathogens. We may hypothesize that  
382 some physiological and anatomical characteristics of specific organs, such as gut and gills, may  
383 inhibit adhesion and development of fungi. In insects, for instance, physiochemical  
384 characteristics of the cuticle, or feeding habits, can counteract the entomopathogenic fungi  
385 cuticular adhesion, germination of spores and hyphal growth (64). Moreover, prokaryotes-  
386 fungi direct competition through bacterial production of antifungal molecules may limit the  
387 growth of the latter. Events of fungal exclusion by direct competition mediated by symbiotic  
388 bacteria have been extensively described in beetles (65). *Streptomyces* sp. SPB74, symbiont of  
389 the beetle *Dendroctonus frontalis*, produces an active compound, mycangimycin, which  
390 specifically inhibits antagonist fungi without acting on the mutual ones (65). This protective  
391 role may be extended to the offspring. Antifungal molecules produced by the symbiotic  
392 bacterium *Burkholderia gladioli* are known to protect the eggs of the beetle *Lagria villosa*  
393 against pathogenic fungi (35, 66). Pathogenic fungi have been reported in intertidal and  
394 terrestrial crabs, such as the case of the swamp ghost crab, *U. cordatus*, infected by species of  
395 black yeast, *Exophiala cancerae*, and *Fonsecaea brasiliensis*, which cause a condition called  
396 "lethargic crab disease" (21, 22). The role of prokaryotic associations in the defence against  
397 pathogenic fungi can be of critical importance for terrestrial crabs, since the immune  
398 molecules of crustaceans are less efficient than the ones of insect against fungal infections  
399 (67).

400 In conclusion, this is the first attempt to ascertain the role of host-microbiome associations in  
401 the transition to land of brachyuran crabs, the most recent arthropod taxa to perform such an  
402 evolutionary leap. Using a targeted metagenomic approach, we demonstrated persistent  
403 organ-specific crab-microbiome associations which help a semi-terrestrial crab coping with  
404 novel environmental challenges posed by its recently occupied habitats, i.e., the lowland  
405 forests or East Asia. We found clear differentiations among the microbiota associated with  
406 different crab's organs and the ones found in the environmental matrices, suggesting a  
407 selective acquisition of the microbiota through "gain" and "loss" mechanisms. The differences  
408 found among the organ-related and environmental clusters were not merely taxonomical  
409 since the different clusters harbour different metabolic profiles. These results corroborate the  
410 hypothesis that the recorded differences can be due to the presence of metabolic  
411 complementation mechanisms that took place in those organs mostly impacted by the  
412 challenges posed by the terrestrial environment. Our data also show possible evolutionary  
413 convergences towards a uniform 'terrestrial intestinal microbiota' across different lineages of  
414 arthropods, suggesting the presence of bacterial associations linked to terrestrial life. The  
415 present study strongly supports the hypothesis that semi- and terrestrial crabs are an  
416 appropriate model system to study the evolution of arthropod-microbe interaction under the  
417 selective pressures posed by the sea-land transition, which is happening right now in Brachyura  
418 (23).

419

## 420 **Material and methods**

### 421 **Study species**

422 *Chiromantes haematocheir* (Decapoda; Brachyura; Sesarmidae) is a semi-terrestrial crab  
423 colonising the coastal vegetated areas from Taiwan to South East Asia (28, 68). In Hong Kong,  
424 it forms large populations in areas of lowland secondary forest adjacent to mangroves and in  
425 pockets of riverine forests, where it was also observed climbing trees. Very little is known  
426 about its ecology, apart from the fact that it digs deep burrows and, as in many sesarmids, it  
427 releases pelagic larvae into the ocean. This species was selected because it is the most land  
428 adapted among the Hong Kong brachyuran crabs.

### 429 **Sample collection and total DNA extraction**

430 We selected three large populations of *C. haematocheir* that colonised distant catchments  
431 across the Hong Kong territory. The selected populations were sampled at Shui Hau (SH,  
432 Southern Lantau Island), To Kwa Peng (TKP, Eastern coast of Sai Kung Country Park, New  
433 Territories), and Sai Keng (SK, Three Fathoms Cove, Tolo Harbour New Territories). From  
434 each site, eleven sexual mature adult crabs (carapace width range between 13.4 mm and 32.2  
435 mm) were collected in October 2018. To explore differences in microbial community  
436 composition across the various crab's organs and the surrounding environment, we collected  
437 and analysed four organ samples (gills, hindgut, midgut and gonads) and four environmental  
438 matrices (sediment, leaf litter, freshwater and freshwater debris). Due to the intensive  
439 sampling, all environmental samples and alive crabs were immediately frozen and  
440 subsequently transported to the laboratories of the Division of Ecology and Biodiversity (The  
441 University of Hong Kong). The dissections were then performed under sterile conditions. All  
442 dissection instruments were sterilized over an open flame to eliminate residual DNA and  
443 washed with 75% EtOH to prevent cross-contamination. After removing the carapace, gills,  
444 gonads, hindgut and midgut from each crab were excised under a stereomicroscope and

445 stored at -20°C in RNAlater (Thermo Fisher Scientific) stabilization solution until DNA  
446 extraction.

447 Total DNA extraction from crab organs, sediment, leaf litter and freshwater debris was  
448 performed using the DNeasy PowerLyzer PowerSoil Kit (QIAGEN) following manufacturer's  
449 protocol. Total DNA extraction from water samples was performed using the DNeasy  
450 PowerWater Kit (QIAGEN) following manufacturer's protocol, after having filtered 100ml of  
451 freshwater through 0.2µm Thermo Scientific™ Nalgene™ Sterile Analytical Filter Units  
452 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Extracted DNA samples were stored at -20°C. Before the DNA  
453 library's preparation, DNAs were quantified fluorometrically by using Qubit dsDNA HS Assay  
454 Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

#### 455 **16S (V3-V4) rRNA gene amplification and sequencing**

456 The preparation and sequencing of the 16S library were performed at Laboratory of  
457 Advanced Genomics, Department of Biology, University of Florence (Firenze, Italy). PCR  
458 amplifications of the bacterial V3-V4 16S rRNA gene fragments were performed using KAPA  
459 HiFi HotStart ReadyMix (Roche) and the primer pair 341F (5'-CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3') and  
460 805R (5'-GACTACNVGGGTWTCTAATCC-3') (69) with overhang Illumina adapters. 16S  
461 amplicon PCR protocol was set on 25 µl of final volume. In detail for each reaction, 12.5 µl of  
462 2× KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix (Roche), 10 µl of 1µM forward and reverse primers and  
463 2.5 µl of template DNA (5–20 ng/µl) were combined (PCR cycling conditions are reported in  
464 Supplementary materials). Amplicon PCR reaction was performed using the GeneAmp PCR  
465 System 2700 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and the following cycling conditions: denaturation  
466 step at 95 °C for 3 minutes; 35 (gonads, water and water debris) and 25 (hindgut, midgut,  
467 gills, soil and litter) cycles: at 95 °C for 30 seconds, 55 °C for 30 seconds, 72 °C for 30 seconds;  
468 final extension step at 72 °C for 5 minutes. All PCR products were checked through  
469 electrophoresis on 1.5% agarose gel and then purified using KAPA Pure Beads (Roche)

470 following the manufacturer's instructions. To apply the Illumina adapters sequencing  
471 indexing using Nextera XT Index Kit V2 (Illumina), a second PCR amplification was then  
472 performed by preparing a reaction mix in accordance with the Illumina 16S metagenomic  
473 library preparation protocol (70). An indexing step was made for all samples by seven PCR  
474 cycles. Amplicon products from indexing PCR were purified using KAPA Pure Beads (Roche)  
475 and their quality check was performed using Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies)  
476 with Agilent DNA 1000 Kit (Agilent Technologies). Subsequently, concentration check was  
477 performed by Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Finally, the barcoded  
478 libraries were balanced and pooled at equimolar concentration, before being sequenced on an  
479 Illumina MiSeq (PE300) platform (MiSeq Control Software 2.6.2.1).

#### 480 **ITS1 rDNA region sequencing**

481 ITS1 library preparation and sequencing were performed at the Research and Innovation  
482 Centre, Fondazione Edmund Mach (FEM) (S. Michele all'Adige, Trento, Italy). Fungal ITS1  
483 fragments were amplified by PCR using the FastStart High Fidelity PCR System (Roche) for  
484 environment matrixes and the Hot Start High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (NEB) for animal  
485 matrixes following the manufacturer instructions using the primers ITS1F (5'-  
486 CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA-3') (71) and ITS2 (5'-GCTGCGTTCTTCATCGATGC-3') (72) with  
487 overhang Illumina adapters. ITS1 PCRs were performed in 25 µl of final volume. In detail for  
488 each reaction, 2ul of 10uM forward and reverse primers were used in combination with 1 µl  
489 of template DNA (5-20 ng/ul). Amplicon PCR reaction was performed using the GeneAmp PCR  
490 System 9700 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and the following cycling conditions: denaturation  
491 step at 95 °C for 3 minutes; 25 (litter) and 33 (all other samples) cycles: at 95 °C for 20  
492 seconds, 50 °C for 45 seconds, 72 °C for 90 seconds; final extension step at 72 °C for 10  
493 minutes. All PCR products were checked on 1.5% agarose gel and purified using the CleanNGS  
494 kit (CleanNA, the Netherlands) following the manufacturer's instructions. Subsequently a



495 second PCR was performed to apply the Illumina sequencing adapters Nextera XT Index  
496 Primer (Illumina). An indexing step was made for all samples by seven PCR cycles. After  
497 Indexing PCR amplicon libraries were purified using the CleanNGS kit (CleanNA, the  
498 Netherlands), and the quality control was performed on a Typestation 2200 platform (Agilent  
499 Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Afterwards all barcoded libraries were mixed at  
500 equimolar concentration, quantified by qPCR Kapa Library quantification kit (Roche) and  
501 sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq (PE300) platform (MiSeq Control Software 2.5.0.5 and Real-  
502 Time Analysis software 1.18.54.0).

### 503 **Amplicon sequence variant inference**

504 The DADA2 pipeline version 1.14.1 (73) was used to infer amplicon sequence variants (ASVs)  
505 from raw sequences. Primers used for PCR amplification were removed using cutadapt  
506 version 1.15 (74) in paired-end mode. If a primer was not found, the sequence was discarded  
507 together with its mate to reduce possible contamination. For ITS amplicon sequences reads  
508 containing both the forward and reverse primers were considered valid only if concordant  
509 (one of the two primers must be present but reverse and complemented) with a cut-off length  
510 of 70bp. Low quality reads were discarded using the “filterAndTrim” function with an  
511 expected error threshold of 2 for both forward and reverse read pairs (namely only reads  
512 with more than 2 expected errors were removed). Denoising was performed using the “dada”  
513 function after error rate modelling (“learnErrors” function). Denoised reads were merged  
514 discarding those with any mismatches and/or an overlap length shorter than 20bp  
515 (“mergePairs” function). Chimeric sequences were removed using the  
516 “removeBimeraDenovo” function whereas taxonomical classification was performed using  
517 DECIPHER package version 2.14.0 against the latest version of the pre-formatted Silva small-  
518 subunit reference database (75) (SSU version 138 available at:  
519 <http://www2.decipher.codes/Downloads.html>) and the Warcup database for fungal ITS1

520 (76). All variants not classified as Bacteria, Archaea or Fungi were removed together with  
521 sequences classified as chloroplasts or mitochondria (16S rRNA sequences only). Additional  
522 information on the sequence variant inference pipeline used were reported in Supplementary  
523 Materials.

#### 524 **Inferring functional content of amplicon variants**

525 The genome content of bacterial ASVs was inferred using PICRUSt2 pipeline (77). Enzyme  
526 Commission Numbers (EC numbers) were converted into Gene Ontology terms (GO terms)  
527 using the mapping file available at: <http://www.geneontology.org/external2go/ec2go>. Gene  
528 abundance was retrieved using the "--stratified" option to report gene abundances at species  
529 level (ASVs). Additional information about functional content inference was reported in  
530 Supplementary Material.

#### 531 **Statistical analyses**

532 All statistical analyses were performed in the R environment (version 3.6). Briefly, alpha- and  
533 beta-diversity analyses were conducted using the vegan package version 2.5 (78) in  
534 combination with the iNEXT package version 2.0 (79). Normalization and differential  
535 abundance analyses were performed with DESeq2 version 1.28 (80) whereas enrichment  
536 analysis of taxa and functions was performed using hypergeometric test ("phyper" function of  
537 R stats package). For additional details about tests data manipulation see Supplementary  
538 Materials.

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726 [support/documents/documentation/chemistry\\_documentation/16s/16s-](https://www.illumina.com/content/dam/illumina-support/documents/documentation/chemistry_documentation/16s/16s-metagenomic-library-prep-guide-15044223-b.pdf)  
727 [metagenomic-library-prep-guide-15044223-b.pdf](https://www.illumina.com/content/dam/illumina-support/documents/documentation/chemistry_documentation/16s/16s-metagenomic-library-prep-guide-15044223-b.pdf)).
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754

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759

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762 and wrote the manuscript; C.L.Y.C. and K.H.N carried out the samplings and performed DNA  
763 extractions; D.C. and A.M. helped conceiving the original idea; and S.C. conceived the original  
764 idea, collected the samples and wrote the manuscript. S.C. and D.C provided funding for the  
765 experiments. All the authors commented and validated the manuscript, participated to plan  
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768 **Data and materials availability:** data needed to evaluate the conclusions are present in the  
769 paper and in Supplementary Materials. All codes used in the work have been uploaded to a  
770 public Github repository available at:



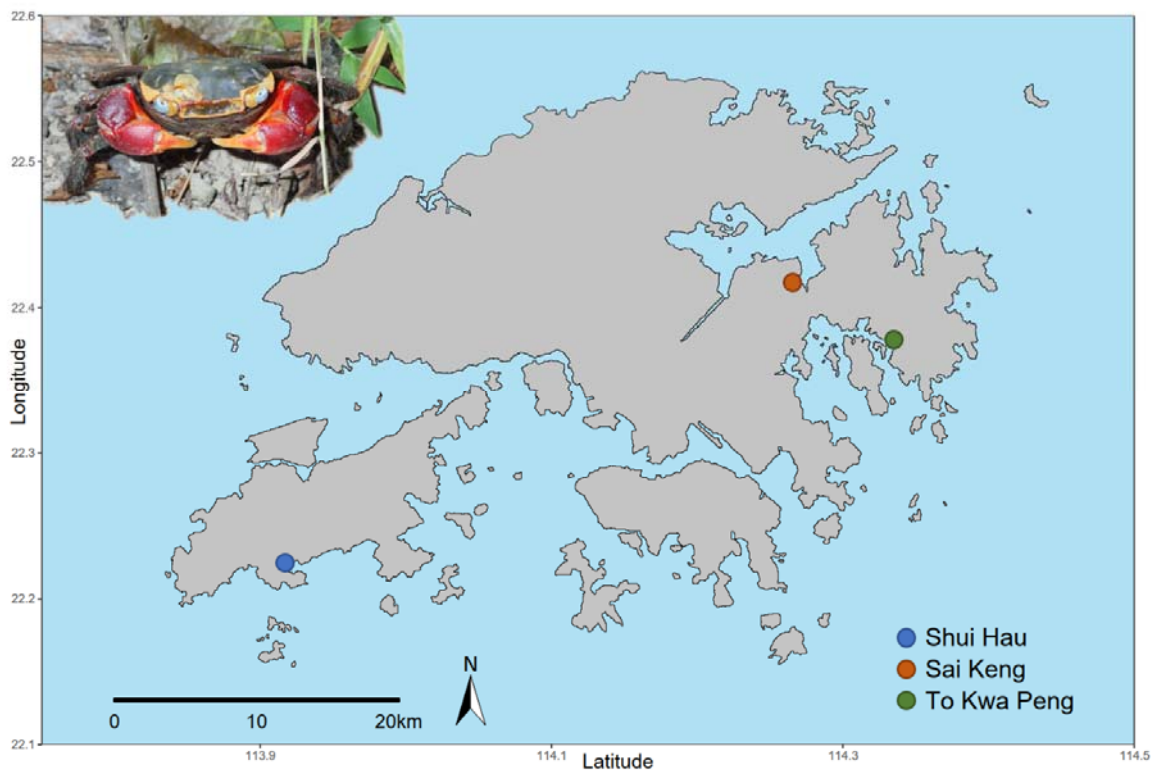
771 [https://github.com/GiBacci/Chiromantes\\_haematocheir\\_microbiome](https://github.com/GiBacci/Chiromantes_haematocheir_microbiome). Sequencing data were  
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779

780 **Figures**

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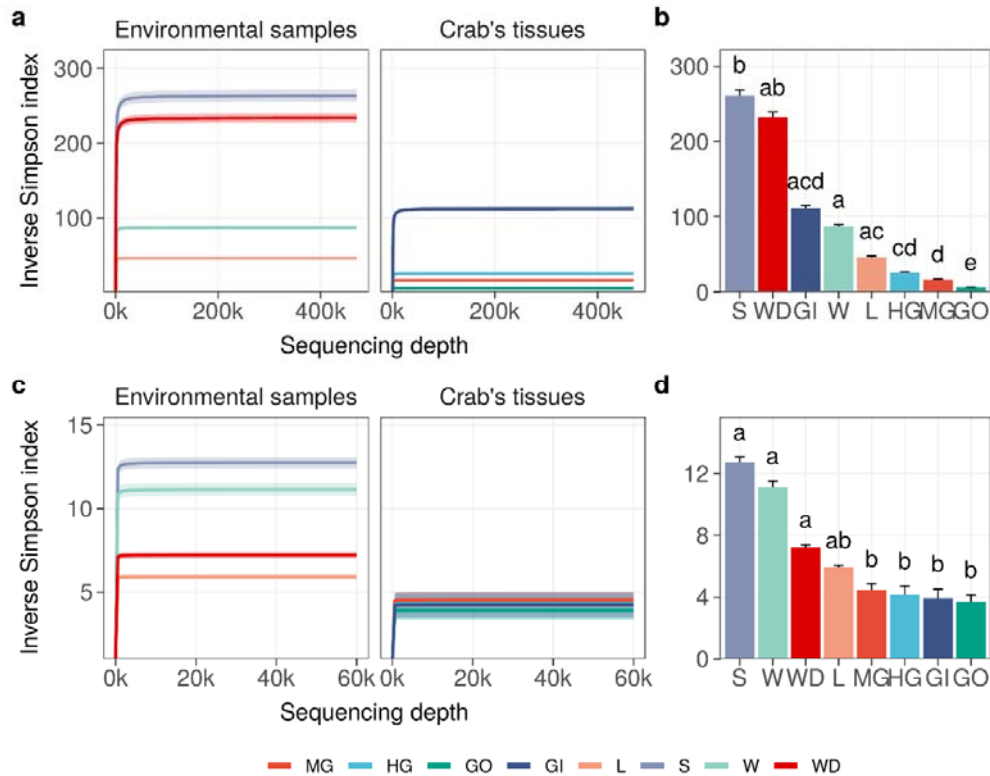
783 **Figure 1. Geographical distribution of the sampled populations of *C. haematocheir*.** The  
784 map shows the names and location of the three sampling sites visited for the study in the New  
785 Territories and on Lantau Island and an adult male *C. haematocheir* in its natural environment  
786 (top left).

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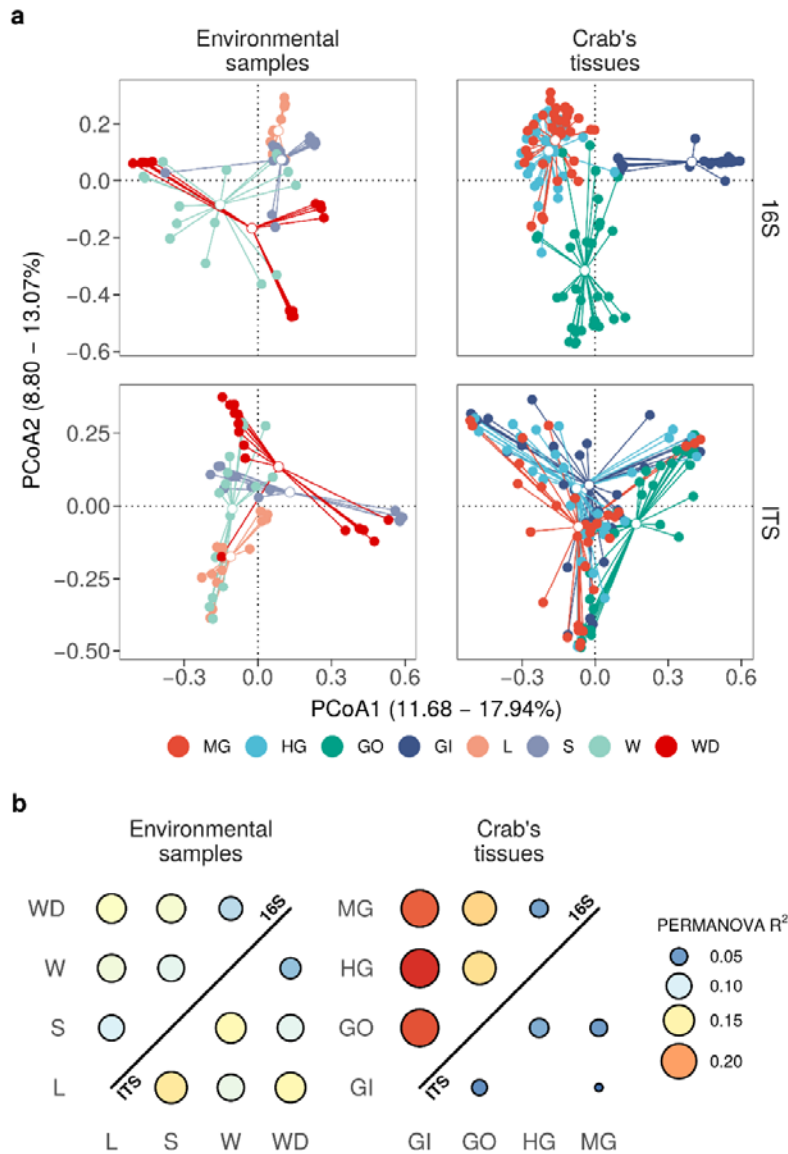
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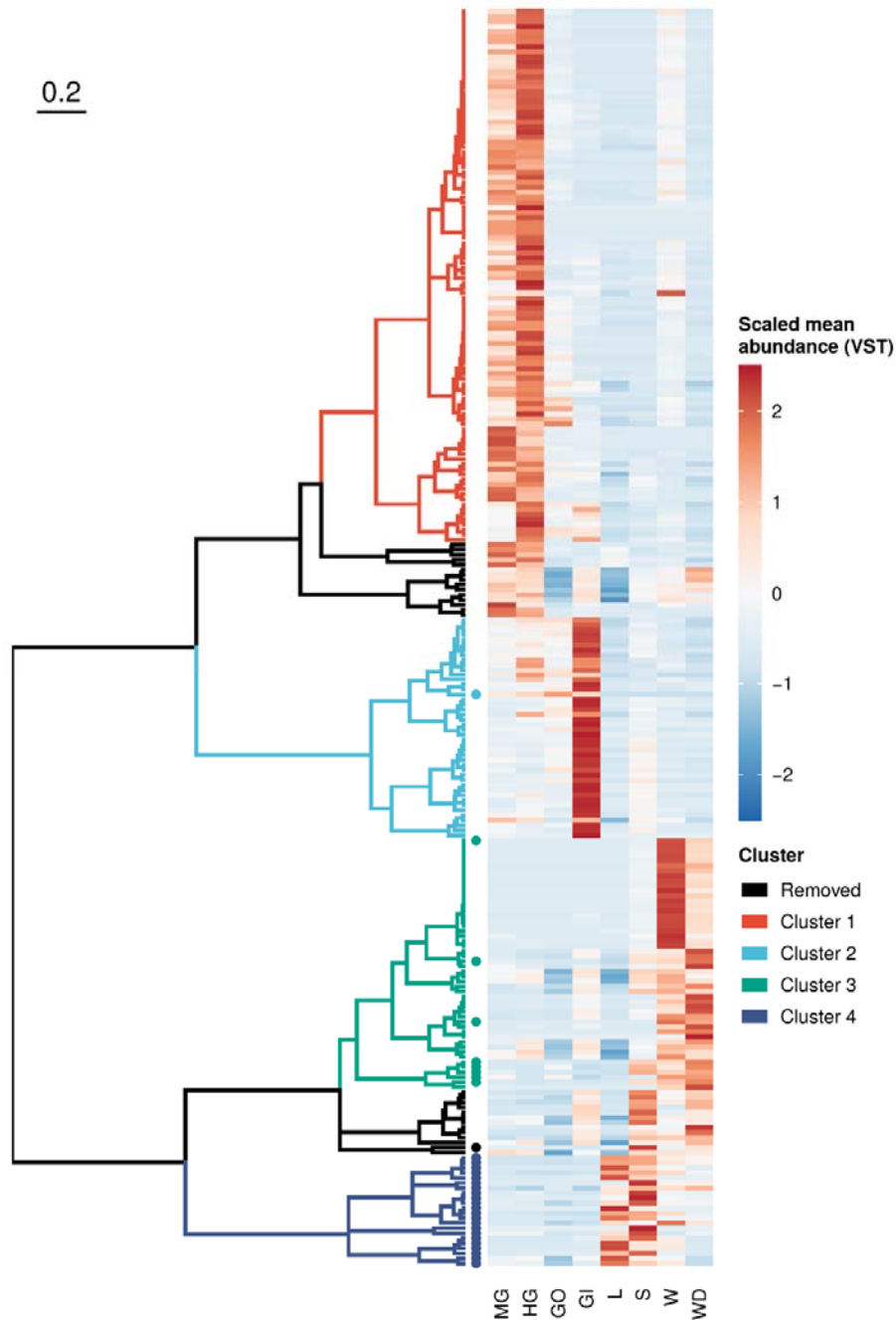
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792 **Figure 2: Microbial diversity in crab's organs and environmental samples.** The average  
 793 of the inverse Simpson index was reported with increasing sampling effort for all types of  
 794 samples. Interpolated and extrapolated diversity was reported in panel a and c (16S rRNA  
 795 gene and ITS-1 region, respectively), whereas observed diversity was reported in panel b and  
 796 d (16S rRNA gene and ITS-1 region respectively). Significant differences in microbial diversity  
 797 (Wilcoxon non-parametric test) were reported using lowercase letters (panel b and d)  
 798 whereas colours and acronyms on the x-axis correspond to different sample types (MG,  
 799 midgut; HG, hindgut; GO, gonads; GI, gills; L, litter; S, soil; W, water; WD, water debris). If two  
 800 means were significantly different, all letters on top of the two boxes must be different; if two  
 801 means were equal, at least one letter must be the same.  
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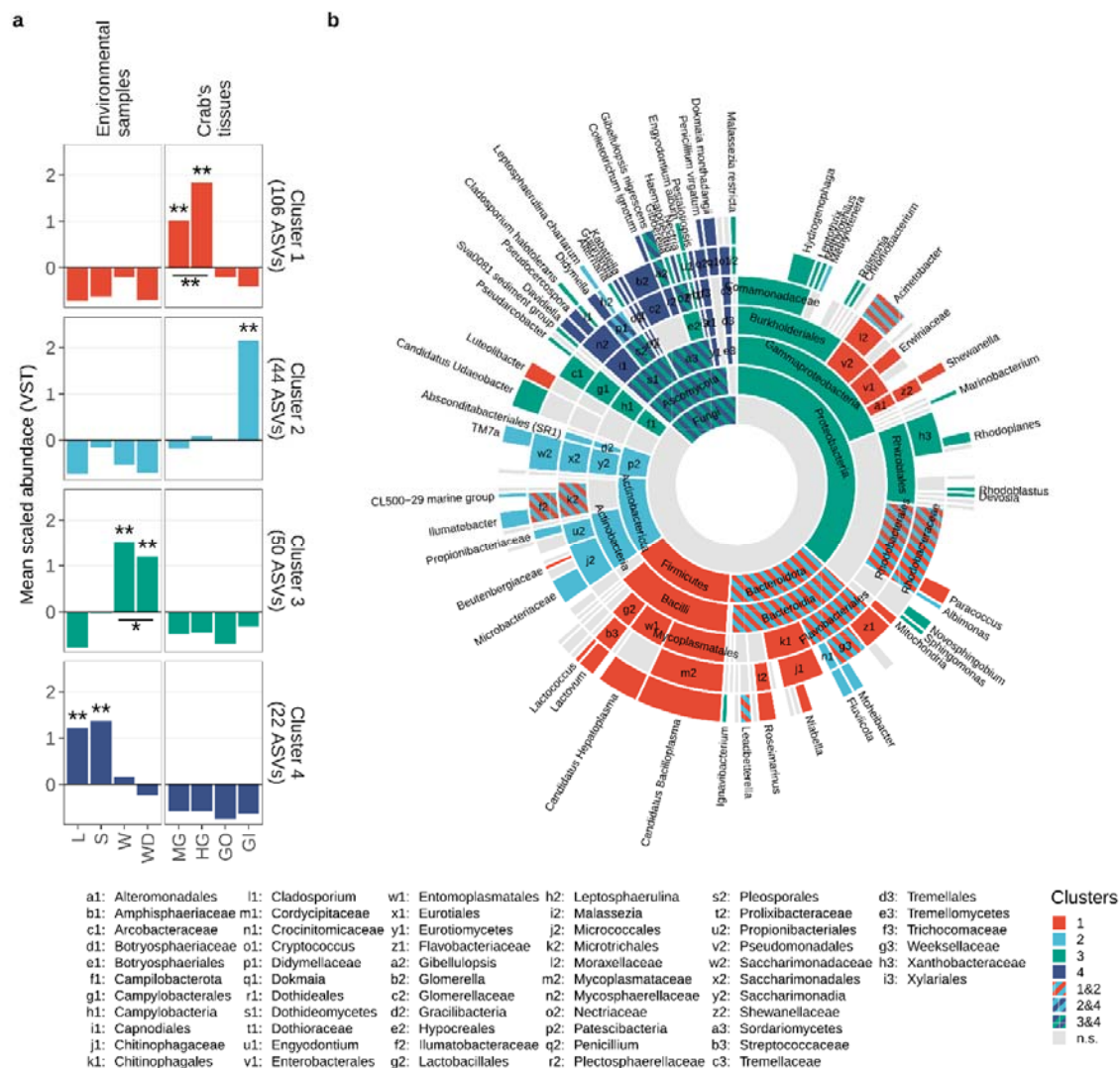
804 **Figure 3: Microbial distribution according to Bray-Curtis distance.** a) Principal  
 805 coordinates analyses on Bray-Curtis distances inferred from 16S rRNA and ITS-1  
 806 metabarcoding. Environmental samples and crab's organs (top side of the panels) were  
 807 reported separately as distribution obtained with the two markers reported (right side of  
 808 each panel). Solid-coloured points represent different samples whereas white-filled points  
 809 represent centroids. The variance of the objects along each axis has been reported between  
 810 squared brackets (from the lowest to the highest) and different sample types were reported  
 811 using different colours (MG, midgut; HG, hindgut; GO, gonads; GI, gills; L, litter; S, soil; W,  
 812 water; WD, water debris). b) Permutational analysis of variance on ordinations reported in  
 813 panel a. For each pair of organs and environmental samples a permutational analysis of  
 814 variance was performed. R-squared values of significant contrasts were reported for both 16S  
 815 (upper triangle) and ITS (lower triangle) counts.



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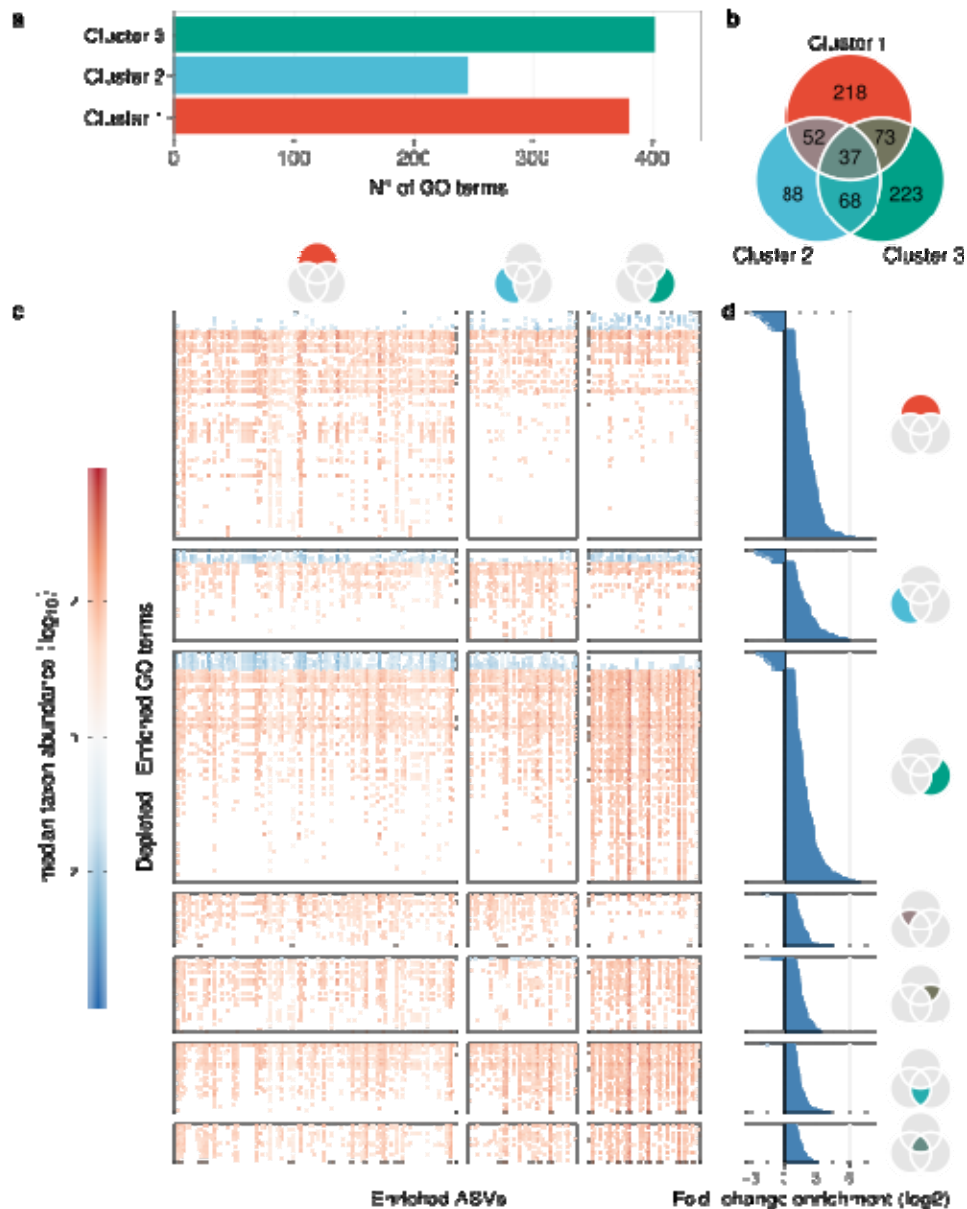
**Figure 4: Sequence variant clustering according to their abundance along sample types.**

Amplicon sequence variants reporting a different abundance pattern in one or more sample types (loglikelihood ratio test of DESeq2) were clustered according to their mean variance-stabilized abundance. Abundance values were reported using different colours after clustering based on Kendall correlation (right side of the plot). Clusters were coloured according to the scheme reported in the legend whereas removed clusters (namely those composed with less than 10 variants) were reported in black. Sequence variants inferred from ITS-1 amplicon sequencing were reported using a solid dot.



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**Figure 5: Taxonomic enrichment in clusters.** a) Scaled variance-stabilized counts were tested for differences along sample types within all clusters detected. A pairwise Wilcoxon test was performed, and results were reported highlighting significant differences with one asterisk (p-value < 0.05) or two (p-value < 0.01). A complete overview of significant differences was reported in Figure S7. b) Sunburst plot of taxa showing a significant enrichment in a given cluster were coloured according to the colour scale showed in panel a. If a given taxonomy was significantly enriched in more than one cluster, the corresponding sector of the plot was coloured using a striped pattern (as reported in the legend). Leaves represent the most specific level at which a given variant has been classified, namely genus level for 16S rRNA amplicons (Bacteria and Archaea) and species level for ITS-1 region amplicons (Fungi).



837

838 **Figure 6: Enrichment analysis of “Gene Ontology” terms associated with detected**  
839 **functions.** a) Number of GO terms associated to bacterial function detected in each cluster  
840 (cluster 4 was not reported since it was entirely composed of Fungi). b) Venn diagram of GO  
841 terms detected in the ASVs of each cluster. Diagram sections in common between two or more  
842 clusters were coloured by interpolating colours reported in panel a. c) Median taxon  
843 abundance of GO terms (y-axis) in all ASVs detected in each cluster (x-axis). The median taxon  
844 abundance was reported using different shades of red—for enriched terms, namely those  
845 detected with a higher frequency in respect to the whole population—and blue—for depleted  
846 terms, namely those detected with a lower frequency than the rest of the population. The plot  
847 was vertically divided according to ASV clusters whereas it was horizontally divided  
848 according to Venn diagram sections reported in panel b. d) Mean enrichment fold changes  
849 associated to each term. Fold-changes were transformed using the logarithmic function (with  
850 base equal two) to report enriched and depleted terms symmetrically around the zero.  
851

852 **Tables**

853

854 **Table 1: Mean differences between extrapolated diversity and observed diversity in**  
855 **each sample type and site.** The differences between extrapolated Simpson diversity (Inverse  
856 Simpson index computed for a sequencing depth higher than the observed one) and observed  
857 diversity (Inverse Simpson index computed for a sequencing depth equal to the real  
858 sequencing depth of the sample) was reported using the average value  $\pm$  the standard error  
859 on the mean for each sample type and site. Good's coverage estimator was also reported using  
860 the same notation used for Simpson diversity. Abbreviations as in Figures 1 and 2.

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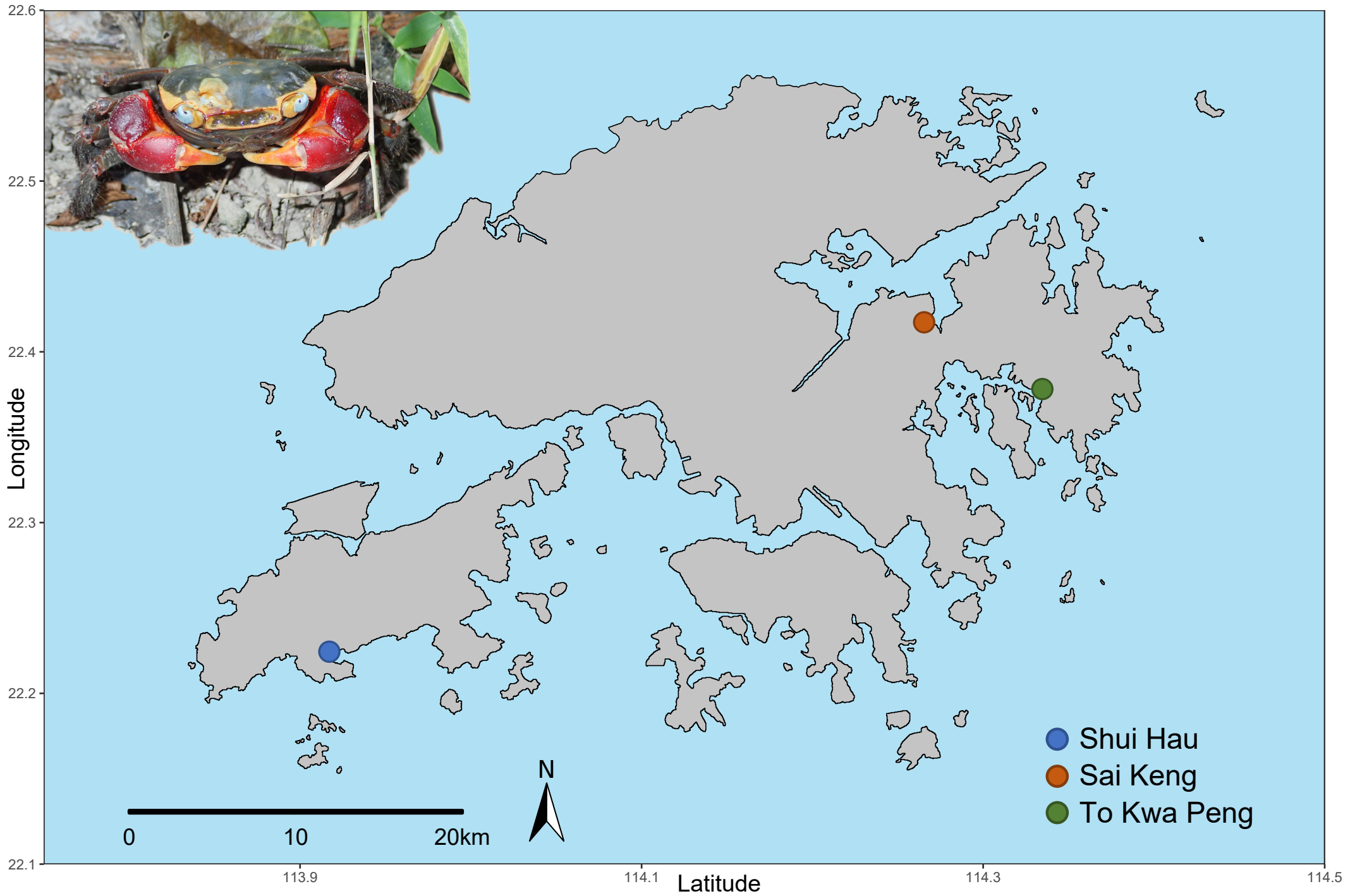
	Inverse Simpson (ext - obs)	Good's coverage estimator
<b>Sample type</b>		
MG	0.051 $\pm$ 0.040	99.995 $\pm$ 0.001
HG	0.132 $\pm$ 0.126	99.997 $\pm$ 0.001
GO	0.085 $\pm$ 0.029	99.987 $\pm$ 0.005
GI	0.575 $\pm$ 0.230	99.994 $\pm$ 0.002
L	0.185 $\pm$ 0.114	99.963 $\pm$ 0.007
S	2.741 $\pm$ 0.809	99.993 $\pm$ 0.001
W	0.246 $\pm$ 0.066	99.997 $\pm$ 0.001
WD	1.149 $\pm$ 0.293	99.992 $\pm$ 0.002
<b>Site</b>		
SH	0.705 $\pm$ 0.236	99.987 $\pm$ 0.003
SK	0.502 $\pm$ 0.146	99.990 $\pm$ 0.002
TKP	0.240 $\pm$ 0.067	99.996 $\pm$ 0.001

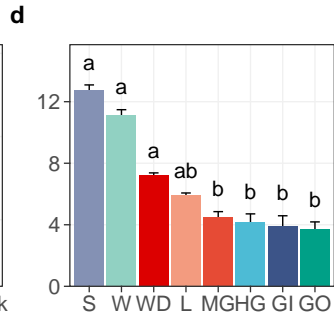
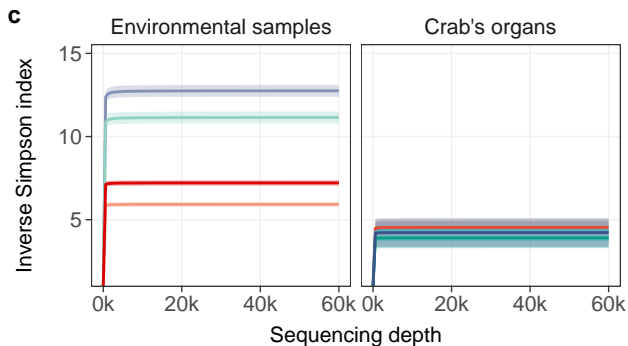
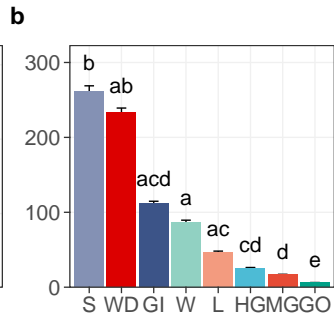
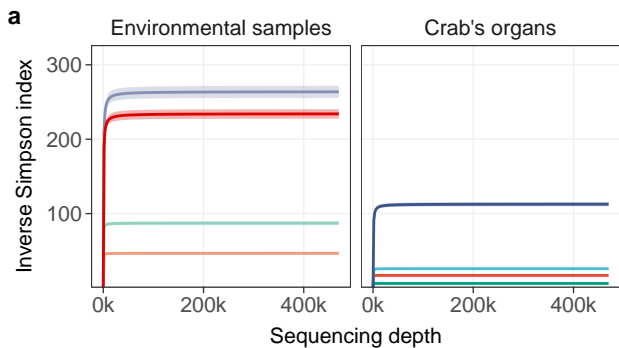
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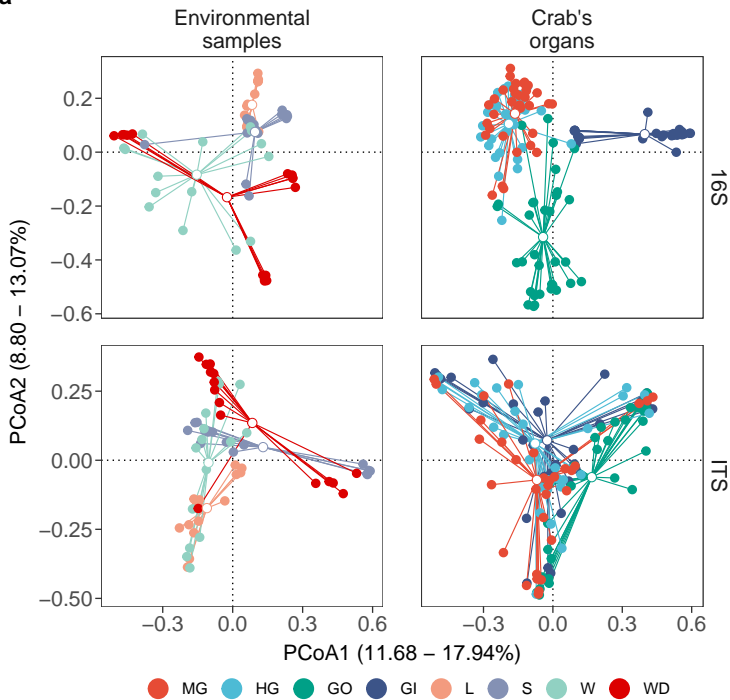
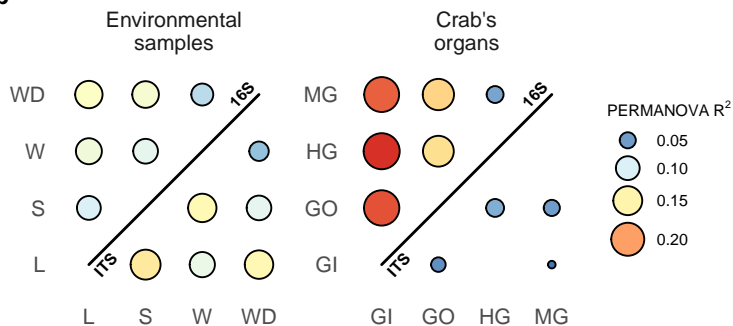
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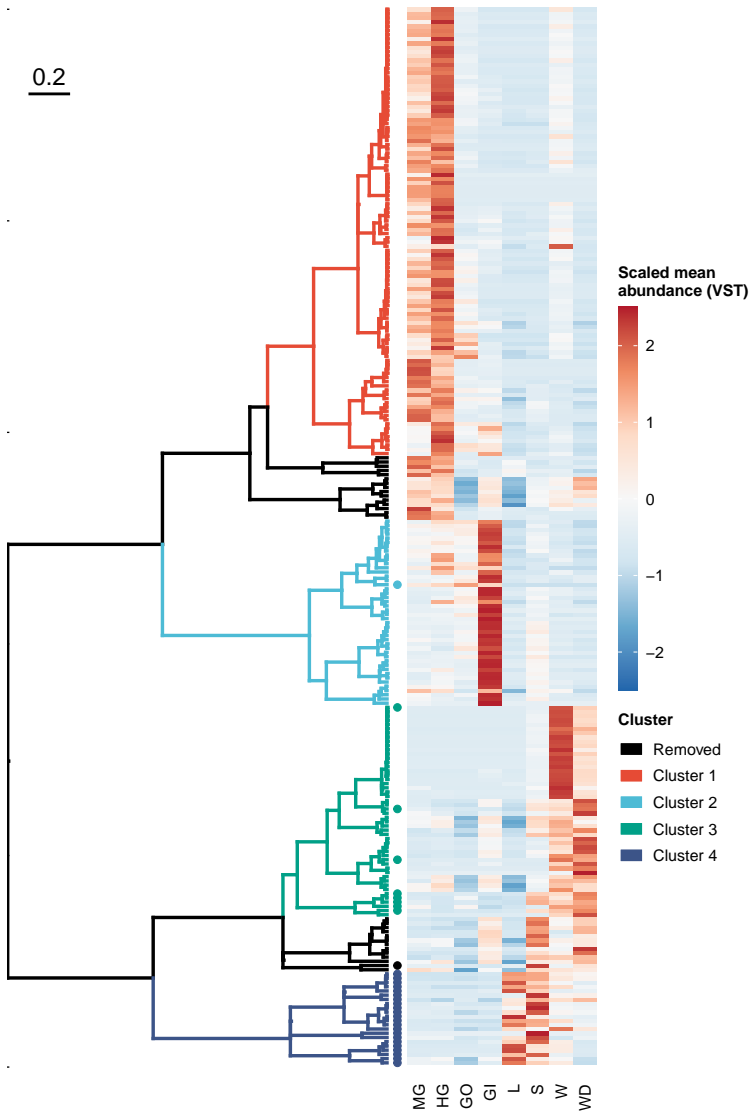




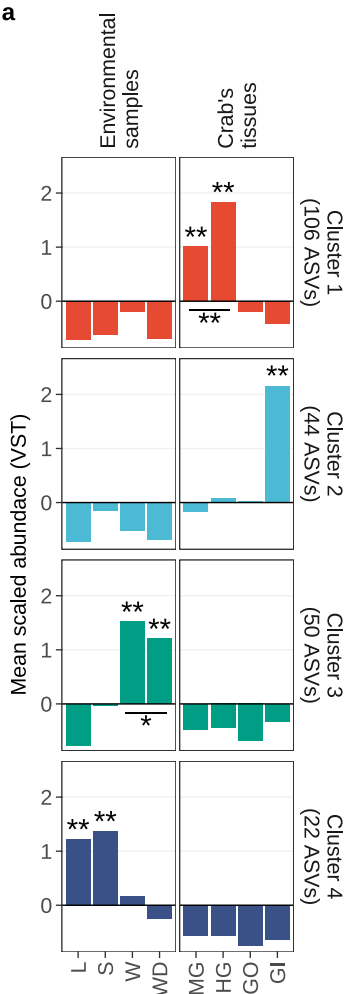
— MG    — HG    — GO    — GI    — L    — S    — W    — WD

**a****b**

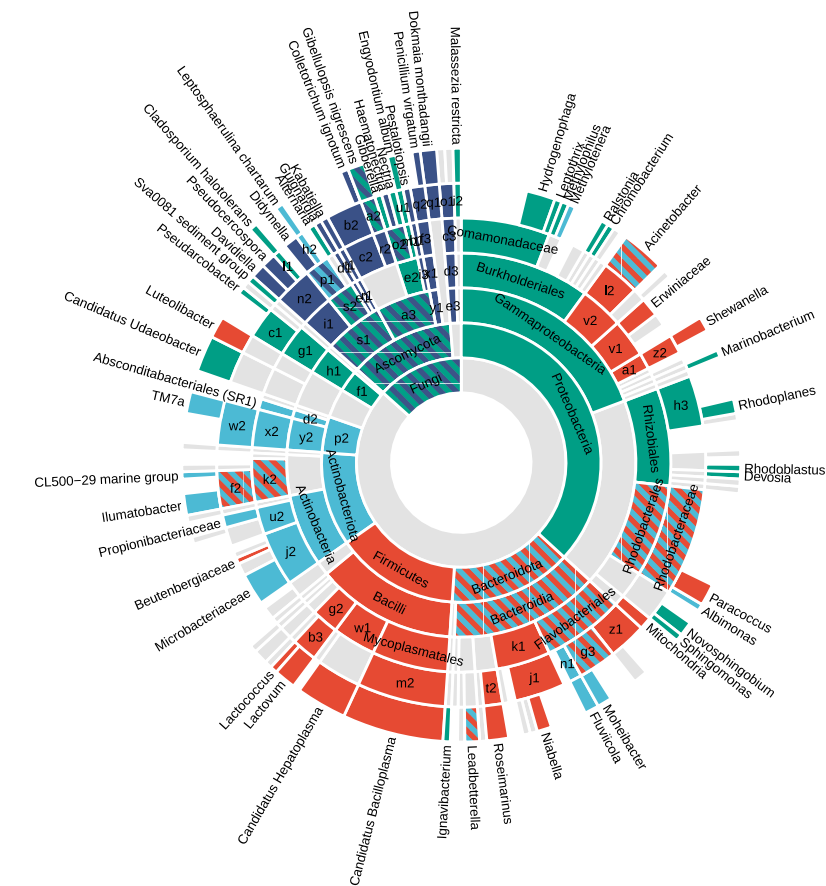
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a



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|------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| a1: Alteromonadales    | l1: Cladosporium      | w1: Entomoplasmatales  | h2: Leptosphaerulina     | s2: Pleosporales        | d3: Tremellales       |
| b1: Amphispheariaceae  | m1: Cordycipitaceae   | x1: Eurotiales         | l2: Malassezia           | t2: Prolixibacteraceae  | e3: Tremellomycetes   |
| c1: Arcobacteraceae    | n1: Crocinotomicaceae | y1: Eurotiomycetes     | j2: Micrococcales        | u2: Propionibacteriales | f3: Trichocomaceae    |
| d1: Botryosphaeriaceae | o1: Cryptococcus      | z1: Flavobacteriaceae  | k2: Microtrichales       | v2: Pseudomonadales     | g3: Weeksellaceae     |
| e1: Botryosphaeriales  | p1: Didymellaceae     | a2: Gibellulopsis      | l2: Moraxellales         | w2: Saccharimonadales   | h3: Xanthobacteraceae |
| f1: Campilobacterota   | q1: Dokmaia           | b2: Glomerella         | m2: Mycoplasmatales      | x2: Saccharimonadales   | i3: Xylariales        |
| g1: Campylobacteriales | r1: Dothideales       | c2: Glomerellaceae     | n2: Mycosphaerellaceae   | y2: Saccharimonada      |                       |
| h1: Campylobacteria    | s1: Dothideomycetes   | d2: Gracilibacteria    | o2: Nectriaceae          | z2: Saccharimonadia     |                       |
| i1: Capnodiales        | t1: Dothioraceae      | e2: Hypocreales        | p2: Patescibacteria      | a3: Sordariomycetes     |                       |
| j1: Chitinophagaceae   | u1: Engyodontium      | f2: Ilumatobacteraceae | q2: Penicillium          | b3: Streptococcaceae    |                       |
| k1: Chitinophagales    | v1: Enterobacteriales | g2: Lactobacillales    | r2: Plectosphaerellaceae | c3: Tremellaceae        |                       |

Clusters



