**Discovery and genomics of $H_2$-oxidizing/$O_2$-reducing *Deferribacterota***

**ectosymbiotic with protists in the guts of termites and a *Cryptocercus***

**cockroach**

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**Running headline: *Deferribacterota* attached to protists**

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**Abstract**

Members of the phylum *Deferribacterota* inhabit diverse environments, but their cellular symbiosis with protists has never been reported. We discovered an ectosymbiotic clade of *Deferribacterota* specifically associated with spirotrichonymphid protists in the guts of the termites *Reticulitermes speratus* and *Hodotermopsis sjostedti* and trichonymphid protists in the gut of the wood-feeding cockroach *Cryptocercus punctulatus*. These ectosymbionts were spiral rods, attached to 16–91% of the host protist cells. These formed a monophyletic cluster within an uncultured family-level clade exclusively comprising insect gut-associated lineages. The complete genome of an ectosymbiotic *Deferribacterota*, CpT32-4, was obtained from a *Trichonympha acuta* cell in a *C. punctulatus* gut and analyzed with a single-cell amplified genome of another ectosymbiotic *Deferribacterota*, RsTz2-092, associated with *Holomastigotes* sp. in the gut of *R. speratus*. The genome analyses suggested that these *Deferribacterota* ferment monosaccharides and conduct fumarate and oxidative respiration with $H_2$ as an electron donor. Thus, these bacteria possibly contribute to the removal of hydrogen and oxygen to protect the fermentative activity of the protist hosts. The ectosymbionts exhibited reduction in the number of genes related to signal transduction, implying that the association has provided a relatively stable environment for these bacteria. Notably, these ectosymbionts likely possess flagella with an unusually expanded number of flagellin variants up to 40, which may reflect an adaptation to their ectosymbiotic lifestyle. We propose the novel genus "*Candidatus* Termitispirillum" for these ectosymbionts and the novel family "*Candidatus* Termitispirillaceae" for the insect-gut clade. Our findings provide new insights into the ecology and evolution of *Deferribacterota*.

**Introduction**

*Deferribacterota* is a phylum of Gram-negative, curved to spiral rod-shaped bacteria [1, 2], currently comprising one class (*Deferribacteres*), one order (*Deferribacterales*), and seven families (*Calditerrivibrionaceae*, *Deferribacteraceae*, *Deferrivibrionaceae*, *Flexistipitaceae*, *Geovibrionaceae*, *Mucispirillaceae*, and "*Candidatus* Microvillispirillaceae") [3–5]. The first five families have been isolated from a wide variety of environments, including deep-sea hydrothermal vents [6], activated sludges [7], terrestrial hot springs [8], and subsurface oil reservoirs [9], whereas the latter two families have exclusively been discovered in animal intestines.

*Mucispirillaceae* inhabit the guts of vertebrates, including rodents [10], chickens [11], and turkeys [12]. *Mucispirillum schaedleri*, a sole cultured species in the family *Mucispirillaceae*, inhabits the guts of rodents and is reportedly involved in host inflammation [10, 13]. "*Candidatus* Microvillispirillaceae" is an uncultured family represented by a species, "*Candidatus* Rimicarispirillum atlantis", which occupies the space among microvilli of the ectoperitrophic space in the midgut of the deep-sea hydrothermal vent shrimp genus *Rimicaris* [5, 14, 15]. "*Candidatus* Rimicarispirillum atlantis" can degrade chitin and presumably contributes to the turnover of chitin released during shrimp molt [5, 16]. Members of *Deferribacterota* have also been detected by 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing and metagenomic analyses as minor residents in the guts of insects, including the Auckland tree weta [17], cockroaches [18, 19], and termites [20–22].

Termites thrive solely on dead plant matter with the aid of their hindgut microbiota [23]. In "lower" termites (i.e., termites except for the family Termitidae) and their closest relative, the cockroach genus *Cryptocercus*, the digestion of lignocellulose is largely attributable to the gut protists belonging to either the phylum *Parabasalia* or *Preaxostyla* [24, 25]. Most of these protists harbor symbiotic prokaryotes in their cytoplasm, nucleoplasm, and/or on the cell

surface [26]. It has been suggested that these prokaryotic symbionts contribute to the

provision of nitrogenous compounds [27–34], and/or hydrogen removal to promote

fermentative activities in the gut [29, 35–38].

During our previous single-cell genomic survey of the bacterial microbiota in the gut of the

termite *Reticulitermes speratus* [39], a single-cell amplified genome (SAG), designated

MS499-41, was obtained and phylogenetically assigned to *Deferribacterota*. Our preliminary

fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) analysis implied that the bacterium is an

ectosymbiont of a gut protist, whereas cellular symbiosis between *Deferribacterota* and

protists has never been reported thus far. Thus, in the present study, we aimed to clarify the

localization and phylogenetic diversity of *Deferribacterota* in the guts of termites and

cockroaches as well as their metabolic capacities and symbiotic roles based on their genome

sequences. This study provides evolutionary and functional perspectives on the novel,

uncultured *Deferribacterota* clade associated with cellulolytic gut protists.

**Materials and Methods**

**Termite and cockroach collection**

The Japanese subterranean termite *R. speratus* (family Rhinotermitidae) was collected in

Tsukuba, Ibaraki Prefecture, and Ogose, Saitama Prefecture in Japan. The damp-wood termite

*Hodotermopsis sjostedti* (family Archotermopsidae) was collected in Yakushima, Kagoshima

Prefecture in Japan. The wood-feeding cockroach *Cryptocercus punctulatus* was collected in

the Black Rock Mountain State Park, Georgia, U.S.A. The termites and cockroaches were

kept with fragments of their nest logs in the laboratory.

**16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing and phylogenetic analysis**

DNA was extracted from the entire guts of two *C. punctulatus* adults individually using the

Power Soil DNA Isolation Kit (MoBio Laboratories). The V3–V4 regions of 16S rRNA (ca.

450 bp) genes were amplified by PCR using the prokaryote-universal primer set Pro341F and

Pro805R (Table S1). The library preparation, sequencing on an Illumina MiSeq platform, and

amplicon data processing were conducted as previously described [40]. The amplicon

sequence variants (ASVs) obtained in this study and our previous study using 60 termite and

eight cockroach species [40] were phylogenetically classified using SINA v1.7.2 [41] with the

database SILVA SSURef NR99 release 138.2. The ASVs assigned to *Deferribacterota* were

aligned with reference sequences using MAFFT v7 [42]. Ambiguously aligned regions were

trimmed using trimAL v1.2 [43]. Maximum likelihood trees were constructed with 1,000

ultrafast bootstrap resampling using IQ-TREE v1.6.12 [44]. The best-fit nucleotide

substitution models were selected using ModelFinder [45].

**FISH**

The entire guts were removed from worker termites and adult cockroaches, and the gut

contents were suspended in Trager's solution U [46]. The samples were fixed in 4%

paraformaldehyde for over 8 hrs at 4°C, rinsed twice with double-distilled water, and placed

on MAS-GP slide glasses (Matsunami, Japan). FISH targeting 16S rRNA was performed as

previously described [47, 48] using oligonucleotide probes labeled with Texas Red or 6-

carboxyfluorescein (6FAM). Specific oligonucleotide probes (Table S2) were designed using

ARB [49]. The specimens were observed under an Olympus BX51 epifluorescence

microscope.

**Collection of protist cells, Sanger sequencing of small subunit (SSU) rRNA genes, and**

**phylogenetic analysis**

Termites and cockroaches were dissected, and the gut contents were suspended in sterile

Trager's solution U containing 0.01% bovine serum albumin (BSA). Single protist cells were

collected in PCR tubes, respectively, using a TransferMan NK2 micromanipulator

(Eppendorf) equipped with a hand-made glass capillary. The collected protist cells were

subjected to whole genome amplification (WGA) using a GenomiPhi V2 DNA Amplification

Kit (GE Healthcare Life Science). Near full-length 16S and 18S rRNA genes were amplified

from the WGA products by PCR using Phusion High-Fidelity DNA polymerase (New

England Biolabs), respectively. PCR was performed with initial denaturation at 98°C for 3

min, followed by 25 cycles of denaturation at 98□ for 30 sec, annealing at 50–70°C for 30 sec,

and extension at 72□ for 1 min with a final extension at 72□ for 10 min. For *Holomastigotes*

samples, nested PCR was performed for the amplification of the 18S rRNA genes using

primer sets listed in Table S1 and the above program. The PCR products were cloned using a

Zero Blunt TOPO PCR Cloning Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) after purification using a

MonoFas DNA Purification Kit I (ANIMOS, Japan). Sanger sequencing of randomly chosen

clones was conducted using a BigDye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied

Biosystems) on an ABI 3730 Genetic Analyzer. The SSU rRNA gene trees of

*Deferribacterota* and their host protists were constructed as described above, respectively.

**Genome sequencing and assembly**

A SAG of *Deferribacterota* (MS499-41: DRR253682) was obtained in our previous study

from the gut content of *R. speratus* using the MDA-in-AGM method and an Illumina MiSeq

platform with a MiSeq Reagent Kit V3 (600 cycles) [39]. In the present study, the MiSeq raw

reads were subjected to quality trimming using Cutadapt 3.7 [50] and Prinseq-lite 0.20.4 [51]

and were assembled using SPAdes v3.14.0 [52] with the --sc option. Contaminating contigs

were identified and removed using the Contig Annotation Tool 5.2.3 [53] and BLASTn

searches [54]. Only contigs >500 bp were retained.

To acquire the genome sequence of *Deferribacterota* associated with *Trichonympha acuta*,

the hindgut content of *C. punctulatus* was suspended in sterile Trager's solution U containing

0.01% BSA, and the membrane portion of a single *T. acuta* cell was separated using a Micro

Feather Blade K-715 attached to the micromanipulator and collected in a PCR tube. The

sample was subjected to WGA using EquiPhi29 DNA Polymerase (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

as previously described [55]. The WGA product was purified using a Zymo Genomic DNA

Clean & Concentrator kit (ZYMO Research). Sequencing libraries were prepared using a

QIAseq FX DNA Library Kit (QIAGEN) for the MiSeq platform and a Native Barcoding Kit

24 V14 for a MinION platform (Oxford Nanopore Technologies). Prior to the latter library

preparation, debranching, single-strand DNA digestion, purification, and size selection that

retained fragments of >2 kbp were conducted as previously described [55]. Sequencing was

performed on the MiSeq platform as above and on the MinION platform with a FLO-MIN114

(R10.4.1) flow cell. After base calling using dorado and quality-filtering using nanoq [56], the

MinION reads were assembled using Raven [57]. The resulting circular contig was polished

one time using Pilon v1.24 [58] with the quality-filtered MiSeq reads.

The genome quality was assessed using CheckM2 [59]. Circular genomes were visualized

using Proksee [60]. The average nucleotide identity (ANI) and average amino acid identity

(AAI) were calculated using FastANI [61] and EzAAI [62], respectively. The Skew Index

(SkewI), which indicates the degree of GC skew, was calculated using SkewIT [63].

**Phylogenomic analysis**

The phylogenomic analysis was conducted using GToTree [64] as the following process.

Seventy-four single-copy marker genes conserved among *Bacteria* were extracted from

*Deferribacterota* genomes using Prodigal [65] and HMMER [66]. Only genomes that

contained ≥50% of the marker genes were retained as references. The deduced amino acid

sequences were aligned using MUSCLE [67] and trimmed using trimAL v1.2. A maximum

likelihood tree was constructed using IQ-TREE as above. The phylogenetic classification was

also confirmed using the Genome Taxonomy Database (GTDB) [68].

**Functional annotation**

The reconstructed genomes were annotated using DFAST [69], KAAS [70], and DIAMOND

[71]. Operon structures were predicted using Operon-mapper [72]. CRISPR-Cas systems

were　identified　using　CRISPRCasFinder　(https://crisprcas.i2bc.paris-

saclay.fr/CrisprCasFinder/Index). Protein-coding sequences (CDSs) were assigned to clusters

of orthologous groups (COGs) using RPS-BLAST v2.13.0+ [73]. Principal component

analysis (PCA) was performed using the sklearn.decomposition module of the Scikit-learn

library [74]. Orthologous genes among the *Deferribacterota* genomes were identified using

OrthoFinder [75]. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) based on orthogroup composition was

performed using Phyloseq [76]. The functional annotation of each orthogroup was performed

using GhostKOALA [77]. The orthologous genes characteristically associated with a

phylogenetic group were identified using Scoary2 [78]. A maximum likelihood tree of the

flagellin genes was constructed based on the deduced amino acid sequences with >350 aa as

described above.

**Results**

**Phylogenetic diversity and relative abundance of *Deferribacterota* in termite and**

**cockroach guts**

The phylogenetic diversity and relative abundance of *Deferribacterota* in the guts of termites

and cockroaches were examined based on the 16S rRNA gene amplicon data derived from the

guts of diverse termite and cockroach species. We identified 72 ASVs assigned to

*Deferribacterota* from 47 out of the 68 termite and cockroach species (Fig. S1). Their relative

abundance was consistently low (0.00–1.29%). These ASVs formed a monophyletic cluster

with sequences derived from other insect guts (Fig. S1). The corresponding 16S rRNA region

of the SAG MS499-41 was identical to the sequence of ASV13241 detected in the guts of *R.*

*speratus* (relative abundance: 0.05%) and *Hodotermopsis* sp. (0.06%) (Fig. S1). A near full-

length 16S rRNA sequence, RsTz2-092 (TACW01000013), previously obtained from the

same *R. speratus* gut sample, showed 99.9% similarity to that of MS499-41. The bacterial

species represented by the SAG MS499-41 and ASV13241 was designated as RsTz2-092 in

the present study.

**Localization, morphology, and infection rate**

We designed probe RsTz2-092-190 (Table S2), which is specific to the 16S rRNA of RsTz2-

092 and potentially its close relatives (Fig. S1). FISH using this probe detected curved or

spiral-shaped long rods, which were specifically attached to the cell surface of the parabasalid

protist *Holomastigotes* sp. (family *Spirotrichonymphidae*) in the gut of *R. speratus* (Fig. 1A,

B). In addition, morphologically similar bacterial cells were detected with this probe

specifically on the cell surface of *Holomastigotes* sp. (Fig. 1C, D) and *Brugerollina cincta*

(*Spirotrichonymphidae*) (Fig. 1E, F) in the gut of *Hodotermopsis sjostedti*. These

ectosymbionts appeared to be randomly distributed across the host cell surface (Fig. 1B, D, F)

together with spirochaetes, and their cell dimensions were ca. 3–10 µm in length and 0.4 µm

in width. Among the cells of the protist host species, 15.8–91.4% harbored the ectosymbionts

detected with this probe (Table 1).

We then designed probe Deferri-term-661 (Table S2), which is specific to most members of

the insect-gut clade, except for RsTz2-092 (Fig. S1). When FISH with this probe was

performed for the gut content of *C. punctulatus*, spiral cells with dimensions 3–13 µm in

length and 0.4 µm in width were detected, together with spirochaetes, specifically on the

anterior surface area of the parabasalids *Trichonympha lata* (Fig. 1G, H) and *Trichonympha*

*acuta* (Fig. S2A, B) (family *Trichonymphidae*). Of the *T. lata* and *T. acuta* cells in a *C.*

*punctulatus* gut, 67.6% harbored the ectosymbiotic *Deferribacterota* (Table 1). No specific

signals were detected in the gut contents of *R. speratus* and *H. sjostedti* with this probe.

**Phylogenetic analysis based on near full-length 16S rRNA genes**

We collected single cells of these host protist species, i.e., *Holomastigotes* spp., *B. cincta*, *T.*

*acuta*, and *T. lata*, based on their morphological characteristics and performed WGA. Near

full-length 18S rRNA and 16S rRNA genes were amplified by PCR, respectively, and the

products were cloned and subjected to Sanger sequencing. We confirmed the taxonomic

assignment of the host protist species based on the 18S rRNA genes (Fig. S3A, B). We

identified the 16S rRNA genes of *Deferribacterota* among sequenced clones, which formed a

monophyletic cluster within the insect-gut clade (Fig. 2A). The clone RsHol6-1, obtained

from *Holomastigotes* sp. in an *R. speratus* gut, was nearly identical to the sequence of RsTz2-

092. The clones HsHol1-2 from *Holomastigotes* sp. and HsBr1-3 from *B. cincta* in the gut of

*Hodotermopsis sjostedti* were identical and showed 98.7% similarity to RsHol6-1 and RsTz2-

092 (Fig. 2A). The clones CpT15-2 and CpT06-9 were obtained from *T. acuta* and *T. lata*,

respectively, in the gut of *C. punctulatus*. These two sequences shared 97.9% identity with

each other (Fig. 2A) and showed ≥99.3% similarities to ASV149, which was detected in one

*C. punctulatus* gut (relative abundance: 0.21%) (Fig. S1).

**General features of the RsTz2-092 (MS499-41) and CpT32-4 genomes and phylogenomics**

In addition to the SAG MS499-41 (1,578,178 bp, 79% estimated completeness, 44% GC content) of RsTz2-092 from the gut of *R. speratus*, a circular chromosome (2,151,577 bp, 40% GC content) was reconstructed from a single *T. acuta* cell sample (Table 2). The 16S rRNA gene sequence of this genome shared 98.0% and 98.4% identity with CpT15-2 and CpT06-9, respectively. The bacterium represented by this genome is referred to as CpT32-4 hereafter (Fig. 2A). The total sequence length and GC content of the RsTz2-092 and CpT32-4 genomes were similar to those of other insect-gut clade species (Fig. S4). The GC skew pattern of the CpT32-4 genome is distinct from other genomes of *Deferribacterota*; the SkewI of CpT32-4 is only 0.176, whereas the others range 0.733–0.914 (Fig. S5). The CpT32-4 genome encodes CRISPR and associated genes (Table S3), whereas they were not found in the RsTz2-092 genome.

The genomes of RsTz2-092 and CpT32-4 were most closely related to metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) from the guts of "higher" termites (i.e., termites belonging to Termitidae) [79, 80], which generally do not harbor cellulolytic gut protists. These and two additional MAGs from lower termites (Pcl387_bin.162 and Ly174_bin.14) [79] formed a monophyletic cluster (Fig. 2B). This clade corresponds to the uncultured family "JAISNW01" in the GTDB and is phylogenetically sister to the vertebrate-gut inhabitants *Mucispirillaceae* (Fig. 2B). The ANI and AAI values between the RsTz2-092 and CpT32-4 genomes were <70% and 62.0%, respectively (Fig. S6A, B). Thus, these two bacteria are distinct species but in the same genus according to the proposed criterion of genus-level similarity (ANI ≤ 95%; AAI ≥ 60–85%) [61, 81].

**Metabolic capacities of CpT32-4 and RsTz2-092**

*Energy conservation and carbon metabolism*

The CpT32-4 genome contains a complete set of genes for glycolysis and gluconeogenesis

(Fig. 3A, B). CpT32-4 likely imports monosaccharides and sugar acids, such as fructose,

xylose, mannose, N-acetylglucosamine, and uronate, via phosphotransferase systems (PTS),

ABC transporters, or transporters of major facilitator superfamilies (MFS). It also likely

imports and utilizes glycerol, lactate, citrate, and unidentified carboxylates. Citrate can be

metabolized to acetate and oxaloacetate by the action of citrate lyase (CitDEF) (Fig. 3A). It is

predicted that pyruvate is fermented to acetate, ethanol, lactate, and possibly $H_2$ using

monomeric iron hydrogenase B1/B3 and electron-bifurcating iron hydrogenase HydABC (Fig.

3A, B). The RsTz2-092 genome (MS499-41) lacks two genes in the

glycolysis/gluconeogenesis pathway and all genes encoding the transporters for sugars and

other carbon sources, except for those transporting uronates and carboxylates (Figs 3A, B,

and S7), possibly due to its low completeness (Table 2). Thus, the main carbon source of

RsTz2-092 remains unclear. No genes encoding hydrolytic enzymes for extracellular

polysaccharides were identified in either genome.

In addition to substrate-level phosphorylation through glycolysis and oxidation to acetate,

CpT32-4 has the potential to generate ATP via the agumatine deiminase pathway with the

agmatine/putrescine antiporter AguD [82] (Fig. 3A). The CpT32-4 genome is equipped with

several systems to generate $H^+$/$Na^+$ membrane potential to produce ATP via $FoF_1$-type

ATPase. The genome encodes the membrane-bound [NiFe]-hydrogenase HybOABC, the Rnf

complex, $Na^+$-transporting oxaloacetate/methylmalonyl-CoA decarboxylase (OadABC), and

the $H^+$/$Na^+$ antiporter NhaB. It also encodes fumarate reductase (FrdABCD) with the

fumarate/succinate antiporter DcuB and the succinate exporter DcuC, and in addition, $cbb_3$-

type cytochrome $c$ oxidase (Fig. 3A). All these components except for NhaB and FrdABCD

were identified in the RsTz2-092 genome. Thus, these bacteria likely use $H_2$ as an electron

donor and fumarate and oxygen as electron acceptors for respiration. Considering the very

low concentration of oxygen in the hindguts of termites and cockroaches, except for their

peripheral regions [83], $cbb_3$-type cytochrome *c* oxidase may primarily function in oxygen

removal to protect anaerobic reactions. The RsTz2-092 genome encodes a gene for

periplasmic octaheme nitrite reductase (Onr) (Figs. 3A and S7), which possibly contributes to

the detoxification of nitrite by dissimilatory reduction to ammonium, as suggested in

*Desulfovibrio* species [84]. The genomes of these ectosymbionts contain several other genes

for oxygen tolerance (Fig. S7).

*Nitrogen metabolism*

No genes responsible for nitrogen fixation were identified in the CpT32-4 and RsTz2-092

genomes. Both genomes encode several transporters for amino acids and di/oligo-peptides,

which are likely the main nitrogen sources (Fig. 3A). The CpT32-4 genome also encodes

transporters for nucleosides and uracil although both genomes apparently can de novo

synthesize nucleotides. Both genomes lack the biosynthetic pathways for branched-chain

amino acids, and only the *aroE, aroK, aroA, and aroC* genes were identified in the pathway

for aromatic amino acids. Although an operon for the tryptophan synthase genes *trpA* and

*trpB* was found in the CpT32-4 genome, both are pseudogenized. CpT32-4 also cannot

synthesize histidine, whereas RsTz2-092 possesses its complete biosynthetic pathway. These

biosynthetic pathways, absent in CpT32-4 and/or RsTz2-092, are typically retained by most

other *Deferribacterota* (Fig. 3B). In the CpT32-4 genome, the biosynthetic pathways for

riboflavin, tetrahydrofolate, cobalamin, and heme are complete, whereas the biosynthesis of

pantothenate/coenzyme A (CoA), nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD), biotin,

pyridoxin 5'-phosphate, and menaquinone requires precursors (Fig. S7).

*Sulfur metabolism*

CpT32-4 potentially takes up sulfate, which is subsequently reduced to sulfite via either

adenosine 5'-phosphosulfate (APS) or 3'-phosphoadenosine 5'-phosphosulfate (PAPS) (Fig.

3A). It is predicted that sulfite is reduced to sulfide by the action of assimilatory sulfite

reductase (Sir) in cooperation with the heterodisulfide reductase complex HdrABC-FlxABCD

(Fig. S8A, B) [85]. Sulfides can be assimilated into methionine and cysteine. No genes

involved in sulfur assimilation were detected in the RsTz2-092 genome (Fig. 3A, B).

*Cell wall, secretion systems, and motility*

Both genomes encode the biosynthetic pathways for peptidoglycan and lipopolysaccharides

and also contain the gene sets encoding proteins for flagellar assembly and chemotaxis,

similar to the cases in other *Deferribacterota* [3, 5, 6, 13] (Fig. 3A, B). Genes for the

secretory (Sec) system and the twin arginine translocation (Tat) pathway, which facilitate

protein transport, were present, whereas no other secretion systems were identified (Fig. 3A).

*Comparison of genomic compositions with other members of* Deferribacterota

PCA based on the relative abundance of COG categories exhibited the clustering of the gut-

inhabiting clades, i.e., the insect-gut clade, *Mucispirillaceae*, and "*Ca*. Microvillispirillaceae"

(Fig. 4). Among the COG categories, a decrease in the ratio and number of genes in category

[T] (signal transduction mechanisms) was prominent in CpT32-4 and RsTz2-092 (Figs 4 and

S9A, B). In PCoA based on the composition of all orthologs (Fig. S10A, B), the genomes of

the insect-gut clade formed a cluster and were separated from those of other animal-gut

inhabitants.

Most genomes of the insect-gut clade and *Mucispirillaceae* lack components for nitrogen

fixation and NADH dehydrogenase complex I (Fig. 3B). Among the *Deferribacterota*,

CpT32-4 exceptionally has capacity to use diverse carbon and energy sources (Fig. S7) and to

generate $H_2$ as a fermentation product (Fig. 3B). In addition, the agmatine deiminase pathway

is almost unique to CpT32-4 in *Deferribacterota*, and its ability to assimilate sulfate is rare

among the gut inhabitants. The biosynthetic capacity for amino acids and cofactors is reduced

in the insect-gut clade and especially in the ectosymbionts CpT32-4 and RsTz2-092. This

tendency is also conspicuous in the shrimp-gut symbiont "*Ca.* Rimicarispirillum atlantis" in

"*Ca*. Microvillispirillaceae" (Figs 3B and S7). Notably, CpT32-4 and RsTz2-092 possess an

unusually high copy number of flagellin genes compared with other *Deferribacterota* species

(CpT32-4: 40 copies, RsTz2-092: 15 copies, others: 0–7 copies) (Figs 3B and S11).

**Discussion**

In this study, we discovered the first examples of ectosymbiosis between *Deferribacterota*

and protists. The ectosymbiotic *Deferribacterota* are facultatively associated with specific

parabasalid protist species in the guts of termites and *Cryptocercus* cockroaches. The

monophyly of these bacteria implies that their ability to establish ectosymbiosis with protist

cells has evolved in the gut microbiota of the common ancestor of termites and *Cryptocercus*,

i.e., before ~150 million years [86, 87].

The *Deferribacterota* detected in the guts of higher termites lacking cellulolytic gut protists

are most likely free-swimming bacteria with flagella (Fig. 3B). The ectosymbionts CpT32-4

and RsTz-092 possess genes encoding proteins for flagellar assembly and chemotaxis;

therefore, these bacteria also swim, possibly targeting host protists, and attach to the cell

surface. The expansion of the number of flagellin gene variants in the genomes of CpT32-4

and RsTz-092, up to 40, is noteworthy. In many bacteria, flagella act not only for swimming

but also for other roles such as adhesion and colonization [88]. It has been suggested that such

multiple functions of flagella are associated with the structural variations of flagellin [89]. In

addition, in pathogenic bacteria, shifts in the expression of flagellin variants to avoid or

confuse recognition of their flagella by the host cell were previously reported [88]. We thus

hypothesize that the large repertoire of flagellin variants may be used for multiple functions,

such as swimming and adhesion, and possibly also to avoid recognition and elimination by

the protist host.

Most protist cells in the guts of termites and *Cryptocercus* cockroaches harbor

ectosymbiotic bacteria of diverse lineages, which likely play various important roles in the

multilayered symbiotic system [26]. Our genome analyses indicated that CpT32-4 and RsTz-

092 are not able to fix dinitrogen. In addition, they have limited capacity to synthesize amino

acids (Fig. 3B), whereas their ability to synthesize several cofactors, such as riboflavin,

cobalamin, and tetrahydrofolate, may contribute to the nutrition of the protist and termite

hosts (Fig. S7). Although CpT32-4 has the potential to assimilate diverse carbon sources,

including plant-derived monosaccharides and uronate, it does not possess secretory enzymes

for the hydrolysis of polysaccharides (Fig. 3A).

As CpT32-4 and RsTz-092 possess the ability to consume $H_2$ as an energy source and use

$O_2$ as an electron acceptor, these ectosymbionts possibly play a role in the removal of these

molecules to promote the fermentative activities of their anaerobic protist hosts. This is in

concordance with the localization of CpT32-4 confined to the anterior part of *Trichonympha*

cells, where hydrogenosomes are densely localized [90]. This localization pattern was also

previously observed in $H_2$-oxidizing ectosymbiotic *Desulfovibrio* associated with

*Trichonympha* in termite guts [36, 37]. However, unlike the cases in these obligate

*Desulfovibrio* ectosymbionts, the ectosymbioses by CpT32-4 and RsTz-092 are facultative;

their association as ectosymbionts is not essential for the protist host survival.

The reduction in the number of signal transduction-related genes, with no prominent

genome size reduction, was previously found in several obligate ectosymbionts of protists in

the guts of termites and *Cryptocercus* cockroaches [37]. This trait is shared by CpT32-4 and

RsTz-092; it is implied that these bacteria almost entirely live as ectosymbionts except for

their infection phases. The unusual GC skew pattern of CpT32-4 suggests a non-canonical

chromosome replication system and/or massive genome rearrangements, as previously found

in endosymbiotic bacteria of termite-gut protists [27, 55, 91] (Fig. S5). However, as no

complete genomes except for CpT32-4 were obtained, it remains unclear whether this GC

skew pattern is a common trait in the insect-gut clade or attributable to the ectosymbiosis.

Additional genome sequences of ectosymbiotic *Deferribacterota* and ecological

characterization of other members of the insect-gut clade will further provide insights into the

evolution of ectosymbiosis from free-swimming gut bacteria.

On the basis of the phylogenetic, morphological, and genomic data, we propose a novel

genus, "*Candidatus* Termitispirillum" for the ectosymbionts CpT32-4 and RsTz2-092 and a

novel family, "*Candidatus* Termitispirillaceae", for the insect-gut clade.

**Description of "*Candidatus* Termitispirillaceae" fam. nov.**

*Termitispirillaceae* (Ter.mi.ti.spi.ril.la'ce.ae. N.L. fem. pl. n. *Termitispirillum*, the type genus

of the family; *-aceae*, suffix denoting a family; N.L. fem. pl. n. *Termitispirillaceae*, the family

of *Termitispirillum*). Members of this family are uncultured and inhabit the guts of insects,

including termites and *Cryptocercus* cockroaches. This family is a sister clade of the family

*Mucispirillaceae* in the phylum *Deferribacterota*. The type genus of this family is

"*Candidatus* Termitispirillum".

**Description of "*Candidatus* Termitispirillum" gen. nov.**

*Termitispirillum* (Ter.mi.ti.spi'ril.lum. L. masc. n. *Termes*, termite; L. neut. n. *spirillum*, a

small spiral; N.L. neut. n. *Termitispirillum*, a spiral bacterium from termites). Members of this

genus are uncultured and spiral or curved long rods that specifically attach to parabasalid

protists in the guts of termites and *Cryptocercus* cockroaches. Cells measure 3–13 µm in

length and 0.4 µm in width. Genomic analyses indicated that these bacteria possess a Gram-

negative-type cell wall and chemoheterotrophic metabolism with fermentation and respiratory

pathways. Motility was inferred from the presence of genes involved in flagellar assembly

and chemotaxis. Taxonomic assignment is based on the 16S rRNA gene sequence and

specific detection by FISH using the oligonucleotide probe RsTz2-092-190 or Deferri-term-

661 (Table S2). The type species is "*Candidatus* Termitispirillum reticulotermitis" with its

genome sequence as the type material.

**Description of "*Candidatus* Termitispirillum reticulotermitis" sp. nov.**

*Termitispirillum reticulotermitis* (re.ti.cu.lo.ter'mi.tis. N.L. gen. masc. n. *reticulotermitis*, of

*Reticulitermes*, referring to the host termite genus). The bacterium specifically attaches to the

cell surface of *Holomastigotes* sp. in the gut of *Reticulitermes speratus*. The cell dimensions

are 3–10 µm by 0.4 µm. This assignment is based on the 16S rRNA gene sequence

(LC866559) and specific detection by FISH using the oligonucleotide probe RsTz2-092-190

(Table S2). The single-cell genome MS499-41 (GCA_025997275) was obtained. This species

corresponds to the 16S rRNA phylotypes RsTz2-092 and RsHol6-1.

**Description of "*Candidatus* Termitispirillum hodotermopsidis" sp. nov.**

*Termitispirillum hodotermopsidis* (ho.do.ter.mop'si.dis. N.L. fem. n. *hodotermopsidis*, of

*Hodotermopsis*, referring to the host termite genus). The bacterium specifically attaches to the

cell surfaces of *Holomastigotes* sp. and *Brugerollina cincta* in the gut of *Hodotermopsis*

*sjostedti*. The cell dimensions are 3–10 µm by 0.4 µm. This assignment is based on the 16S

rRNA gene sequence (LC866557, LC866558) and specific detection by FISH using the

oligonucleotide probe RsTz2-092-190 (Table S2). This species corresponds to the 16S rRNA

phylotypes HsHol1-2 and HsBr1-3.

**Description of "*Candidatus* Termitispirillum cryptocercusi" sp. nov.**

*Termitispirillum cryptocercusi* (cryp.to.cer'cu.si. N.L. gen. n. *cryptocercusi*, of *Cryptocercus*,

referring to the host cockroach genus). The bacterium specifically attaches to the cell surfaces

of *Trichonympha acuta* and *T. lata* in the gut of *Cryptocercus punctulatus*. The cell

dimensions are 3–13 µm by 0.4 µm. This assignment is based on the 16S rRNA gene

sequence (LC866555, LC866555) and detection by FISH using the oligonucleotide probe

Deferri-term-661 (Table S2). A complete genome sequence (PRJDB20420) was obtained.

This species includes phylotypes CpT06-9, CpT15-2, and CpT32-4.

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**Author contributions**

Naoya Maruoka: conceptualization, methodology, investigation, formal analysis, data

curation, visualization, resource, writing – original draft, funding acquisition. Rinpei Kudo:

investigation, data curation. Katsura Igai: investigation, data curation. Masahiro Yuki:

methodology, investigation, data curation, resource. Michiru Shimizu: methodology,

investigation, data curation, resource. Moriya Ohkuma: resource, writing – review and editing,

funding acquisition. Yuichi Hongoh: conceptualization, methodology, resource, formal

analysis, writing – original draft, writing – review and editing, funding acquisition, project

administration, supervision.

**Conflicts of interest**

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

**Data availability**

The genome sequences obtained in this study are available under the BioProject PRJDB20420

in DDBJ. The accession numbers of the SSU rRNA genes appears under DDBJ accession

numbers LC866555–64 and LC875758.

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 **Legends to Figures**

 **Figure 1.** Detection of *Deferribacterota* associated with protists in the guts of termites and a

 *Cryptocercus* cockroach. Phase-contrast images of (A) *Holomastigotes* sp. from

 *Reticulitermes speratus*, (C) *Holomastigotes* sp. from *Hodotermopsis sjostedti*, (E)

 *Brugerollina cincta* from *H. sjostedti*, and (G) *Trichonympha lata* in *Cryptocercus*

 *punctulatus* are shown. *Deferribacterota* were detected by FISH using probe RsTz2-092-190

 labeled with 6FAM (green) (B, D, F) and probe Deferri-term-661 labeled with 6FAM (green)

 (H), respectively. Spirochaetes were detected using probe Spiro-36 labeled with Texas red

 (red), and the images were overlayed (B, D, F, H). Bars indicate 10 µm and 5 µm (inset for

 magnification).

 **Figure 2.** Phylogenetic positions of the ectosymbiotic *Deferribacterota*. (A) 16S rRNA gene

 tree constructed using 993 nucleotide sites with the GTR+F+I+G4 substitution model and an

 outgroup (AB729138). (B) Phylogenomic tree constructed using 12,478 amino acid sites of

 concatenated, partitioned 74 marker genes, with substitution models selected for each part and

 an outgroup (GCF_000469585 and GCF_000177635). Family-level taxonomic codes

 according to GTDB are indicated in parentheses. Filled and open circles indicate nodes with

 ultrafast bootstrap value ≥95% and ≥80% in panel A, and 100% and ≥90% in panel B,

 respectively. Asterisks indicate sequences obtained by Arora et al. (2022).

 **Figure 3.** Predicted metabolic capacities of CpT32-4 and RsTz2-092. (A) Outline of predicted

 metabolic pathways based on genome sequences. Pathways detected exclusively in CpT32-4

 or RsTz2-092 are indicated in blue and red, respectively. (B) Comparisons of repertoires of

 genes and pathways among members of *Deferribacterota*. The completeness of pathways is

indicated in a heatmap. Estimated genome completeness, total sequence length, and the

number of flagellin genes are also shown.

**Figure 4.** Comparation of genomic contents among members of *Deferribacterota*. Principal

component analysis based on the relative abundance of the clusters of orthologous groups

(COGs) was performed. The COG categories: [C] Energy production and conversion, [D]

Cell cycle control, cell division, chromosome partitioning, [E] Amino acid transport and

metabolism, [F] Nucleotide transport and metabolism, [G] Carbohydrate transport and

metabolism, [H] Coenzyme transport and metabolism, [I] Lipid transport and metabolism, [J]

Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis, [K] Transcription, [L] Replication,

recombination and repair, [M] Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis, [N] Cell motility,

[O] Posttranslational modification, protein turnover, chaperones, [P] Inorganic ion transport

and metabolism, [Q] Secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport and catabolism, [R]

General function prediction only, [S] Function unknown, [T] Signal transduction mechanisms,

[U] Intracellular trafficking, secretion, and vesicular transport, [V] Defense mechanisms, [W]

Extracellular structures, [X] Mobilome: prophages, transposons.

Figure 1.

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4.