

1 **Title:** Evidence for convergent evolution of host parasitic manipulation in response to
2 environmental conditions

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26 **Abstract:**

27 Environmental conditions exert strong selection on animal behavior. We tested the hypothesis
28 that the altered behavior of hosts due to parasitic manipulation is also subject to selection
29 imposed by changes in environmental conditions over time. Our model system is ants
30 manipulated by parasitic fungi to bite onto vegetation. We analyzed the correlation between
31 forest type (tropical vs. temperate) and biting substrate (leaf vs. twigs), the time required for the
32 fungi to reach reproductive maturity, and the phylogenetic relationship among specimens from
33 tropical and temperate forests in different parts of the globe. We show that the fungal
34 development in temperate forest is longer than the period of time leaves are present and the ants
35 are manipulated to bite twigs. When biting twigs, 90% of the we examined dead ants had their
36 legs wrapped around twigs, which appears to provide better attachment to the plant. Ancestral
37 state character reconstruction suggests that the leaf biting is the ancestral trait and that twig
38 biting is a convergent trait in temperate regions of the globe. These three lines of evidence
39 suggest that changes in environmental conditions have shaped the manipulative behavior of the
40 host by its parasite.

41 **Introduction**

42 Convergent phenotypic adaptations in response to similar environmental conditions are
43 important evidence of evolution by natural selection. Animal behavior is often a labile
44 phenotypic trait that allows the animal to respond to spatial and temporal environmental
45 heterogeneity. As the environment changes, individuals that can modulate their behavior may
46 avoid, acclimate and tolerate adverse conditions. Over evolutionary time this can result in
47 convergent adaptive behavior observed in unrelated organisms facing similar abiotic pressures.

48 For example, the long-distance migration of birds, insects, whales and turtle are triggered by the
49 changes in temperature and photoperiod (1).

50 In some cases, the behaviors we observe in nature are an adaptation on the part of
51 parasites that have evolved to infect animals and manipulate their behavior as a transmission
52 strategy (2, 3). In these cases, the behavior of the host (*i.e.* its phenotype) is an extension of the
53 genotype of the parasite; a phenomenon known as the extended phenotype (4). The number of
54 examples of parasites that adaptively manipulate the behavior of their hosts has recently
55 escalated, a reflection of the expansion of the field (5). Many aspects have been considered in the
56 study of parasitic manipulation, such as the mechanisms of behavioral manipulation (6-10), the
57 epidemiological significance of behavioral manipulation (11) and the ecological importance of
58 manipulated hosts in the environment (12-14). What has not been examined is whether parasite
59 manipulation of animal behavior responds to changes in the environmental conditions which the
60 host experiences. Since environmental changes are known to result in adaptive shifts of
61 phenotypes, such as animal behavior (15-18), it is reasonable to suppose that the same
62 environment may act as a selective force on the extended phenotypes of parasites inside those
63 animals.

64 One system where we might expect the environment to play a significant role in
65 behavioral manipulation is the ‘zombie ant’. In this system, many species of parasitic fungi in the
66 complex *Ophiocordyceps unilateralis sensu lato (s.l.)* manipulate ants from the tribe
67 Camponotini to climb and bite onto aerial vegetation, attaching themselves to the plant tissue
68 (19). Uninfected ants never display this stereotypical biting behavior. The biting behavior
69 displayed by the infected ants is the extended phenotype of the fungus and has been
70 experimentally demonstrated to be adaptive for this parasite, which has zero fitness if the host

71 falls on the ground or is moved to the forest canopy or inside the ants' nest (11, 19). The death of
72 the ant, shortly after the manipulated biting behavior, is the end point of the manipulation and
73 marks the transition for the fungus, from feeding parasitically on living tissue to feeding
74 saprophytically on the dead tissue of its recently killed host (9). Besides providing nutrients, the
75 carcass of the ant will serve as a platform for the fungus to grow a long stalk, externally from its
76 dead host, to release the spores (termed ascospores in this group of fungi) that ultimately will
77 infect new hosts (20, 21). Once it starts growing externally to the dead ant the fungus is exposed
78 to environmental conditions outside the body of its host. Fungal development is known to be
79 strongly affected by environmental conditions, notably changes in humidity and temperature (22,
80 23). Species in the *O. unilateralis* complex have been recorded at latitudes ranging from 34°
81 north (10) to 20° south (11) which implies a wide range of environmental conditions exist in
82 which behavioral manipulation of the ant and the subsequent *post mortem* development of the
83 fungus occur.

84 Previous observations have suggested two kinds of behavioral manipulation occurring in
85 distinct forest types. In tropical forests, ants infected by species of fungi in the *O. unilateralis*
86 complex are predominantly manipulated to bite leaves (11, 19, 24). By contrast, in northern
87 temperate systems (USA, Japan), manipulated ants have been described as biting onto twigs (10,
88 25). The seasonal leaf shed observed in temperate forests represents a major difference in
89 comparison to tropical forests, where the majority of the trees are evergreen with leaves present
90 throughout the year. For a parasite that manipulates the host to bite leaves before using the host
91 cadaver as a platform for transmission, the permanence of a leaf as a platform may impact its
92 fitness. Although there are other parasites that manipulate ant behavior, including other group of
93 fungi (26), as well as cestodes (27), nematodes (28), trematodes (29, 30) and flies (31), none of

94 them have been extensively studied as the zombie ants. This deeper understanding of the biology
95 implies the zombie ant system may be a more suitable model for studying how environmental
96 variation affects the behavioral manipulation of hosts by parasites.

97 We hypothesized that biting different substrates (leaf *versus* twig) is an adaptation of the
98 parasite extended phenotype to the distinct seasonality and environmental conditions present in
99 the two forest types (*i.e.* tropical *vs.* temperate). To test this hypothesis, we focused on three lines
100 of evidence. First, it was necessary to confirm if the biting substrate (leaf *vs.* twig) consistently
101 varies across the South-North cline from tropical forests to temperate woods (in the northern
102 hemisphere). To this end, we analyzed the geographic distribution of species within the *O.*
103 *unilateralis* complex at the global scale to determine how this distribution relates to the biting
104 substrate. Secondly, we hypothesized that twig biting may confer an adaptive advantage in
105 temperate forests where the leaves are shed annually, especially if the fungus requires an
106 extended period of time to fully develop. Thus, we evaluated, across 20 months, the development
107 of a species belonging to the *O. unilateralis* complex in a temperate forest located in South
108 Carolina, USA after the fungus manipulated its host. Finally, since temperate forests occur in
109 different locations, we tested the hypothesis that behavioral manipulation of ants by fungi to bite
110 twigs is an adaptation that has convergently evolved in geographically distinct temperate forests.
111 To achieve this, we reconstructed the phylogenetic relationships between different species of
112 fungi within the *O. unilateralis* complex that manipulate the host to bite leaves and those that
113 manipulate their hosts to bite twigs, in both Old and New World temperate and tropical forests.
114 Taken together, we present multiple lines of evidence that suggest that in this group, the parasite
115 extended phenotype has responded to long-term changes of environmental conditions by shifting

116 biting behavior from leaves to twigs. Furthermore, the shift in the behavioral manipulation of the
117 host is a convergently evolved extended phenotype in different areas of the globe.

118 **Material and Methods**

119 **The global distribution of the zombie ant fungi *O. unilateralis* s.l. and variation in biting** 120 **substrate**

121 In order to report the distribution of species of fungi *O. unilateralis* s.l. complex at the global
122 level, we collected species records from around the world. We searched in museums and
123 herbarium collections, as well as pictures available on the internet (under the terms
124 “*Ophiocordyceps*”, “*Cordyceps*” and “zombie ants”). Additionally, we added records provided
125 by people who directly contacted the authors of this manuscript with pictures of zombie ants that
126 they found worldwide. Furthermore, we used the senior author laboratory collection, which
127 includes samples collected by the authors of this study and other collaborators. This collection
128 also includes specimens donated by the renowned mycologist Dr. Harry Evans, who has worked
129 on *O. unilateralis* s.l. fungi for more than 40 years (20, 24, 32, 33). All samples could be easily
130 ascribed to the *O. unilateralis* species complex which has a very distinctive macromorphology,
131 where the ascospore producing structure (ascoma) distinctly occupies one side of the stalk (hence
132 the epithet *unilateralis*) or the immature stage emerges as a long stalk from between the head and
133 thorax on the dorsal side of the ant (33). For each record, we collected the following information
134 (when available): country, most precise location available (*e.g.* national park, nearest city),
135 geographic coordinates, ant host, biting substrate, collector, year and source. We classified the
136 substrate as “bark” when the host was biting the base or main trunk of the tree, as well as when it
137 was encountered inside fallen logs (which only occurred in Missouri, USA). The substrate

138 “twig” was designated when host ants bite the wooden material of the vegetation other than the
139 main trunk (*i.e.* twigs). We classified the substrate as “leaf” when the host was biting leaves and
140 its variations, such as spines. The “green twig” classification, which only occurred twice (in
141 Costa Rica and Thailand) was designated when host ants were biting early stages of stems which
142 were photosynthetically active (green indicating the presence of chlorophyll *a*) and lacking
143 cambium. For the specimens we genotyped during the study, we visually inspected the substrate
144 in the field before collecting the samples. For the specimens we did not genotype but rather used
145 the genetic data available on GenBank, we relied on the accuracy of the description of the
146 samples in the original publication, as well as the figures that accompanied those publications.

147 **Post-mortem parasite development in a temperate forest**

148 We hypothesized that the plant substrate the ants are manipulated to bite (leaf *versus* twig) was
149 related to leaf shed. The rationale for this hypothesis is that leaf shed in temperate biomes would
150 limit the available time for the fungus to reach maturity if the ants were manipulated to bite
151 leaves in this environment. To provide support for this hypothesis it was necessary to study the
152 time required for *O. unilateralis s.l.* to develop reproductive maturity *post mortem* of the ant in a
153 temperate wood setting. This study was conducted in a private temperate forest patch located in
154 Abbeville County, South Carolina, USA (georeference: 34.375215, -82.346937) between
155 December 31, 2009 and August 23, 2011. This woodland, owned by one of us, is dominated by
156 deciduous trees which shed their leaves in the fall (Fig. S1A,B). During this time, searching for
157 cadavers occurred each day for 3 hours/day which was possible because one of us lives on the
158 property. All the cadavers of infected manipulated ants (attached to the vegetation) were tagged,
159 photographed and the biting substrate was recorded (n=287). For the newly killed ants attached
160 to the vegetation (n=29), we recorded the phenology of the fungus of 29. The data collection was

161 done during the entire year, including the summer, to capture leaf biting, if it occurred. One of us
162 spent approximately three hours each day searching twigs and leaves for the presence of
163 manipulated ants. The 29 ants were photographed on a daily basis for the first 60 days, and then
164 every 2 weeks to a month, until August 2011.

165 **Phylogenetic analyses**

166 To understand the evolution of substrate use and if this preference is a monophyletic or a
167 convergent trait, we selected fungal species from as many different geographic locations as we
168 could, to estimate the phylogenetic relationships between taxa. DNA extractions were done
169 following the protocol as previously described (25). Briefly, the genomic DNA was isolated
170 using chloroform and purified with GeneClean III Kit (MP Biomedicals). Many of the specimens
171 in the senior author laboratory collection, collected in 1970-80's, were dry and degraded,
172 resulting in low quality DNA templates. These samples were excluded from the phylogenetic
173 analyses.

174 From the genomic templates, four genes were amplified by PCR. We used two ribosomal
175 genes, nu-LSU (954 bp) and nu-SSU (1,144 bp), and two protein-coding genes, RPB1 (813 bp)
176 and TEF (1,012 bp). The cleaned PCR products were sequenced by Sanger DNA sequencing
177 (Applied Biosystems 3730XL) at Genomics Core Facility service at The Pennsylvania State
178 University. The raw sequence reads were manually edited using Geneious version 8.1.8 (34).
179 Individual gene alignments were generated by MUSCLE (35). For this study, we generated 123
180 new sequences (31 for SSU, 31 for LSU, 32 for RPB1 and 29 for TEF). The alignment of each
181 gene was inspected manually and concatenated into a single dataset using Geneious version 8.1.1
182 (34). Ambiguously aligned regions were excluded from phylogenetic analysis and gaps were

183 treated as missing data. The GenBank accession number and Herbarium voucher for all the
184 specimens and genes used in this work are listed in Dataset S2. The aligned length of the
185 concatenated four gene dataset was 3,923 bp. Maximum likelihood (ML) analysis was performed
186 with RAxML version 8.2.4 (36) through the online platform CIPRES (phylo.org) (37). The
187 dataset was divided into eight partitions (one each for SSU and LSU, plus separate partitions for
188 the three codon positions of protein-coding RPB1 and TEF) and the GTRGAMMA model of
189 molecular evolution was applied independently to each partition. Branch support was estimated
190 from 1,000 bootstrap replicates. Bayesian phylogenetic reconstruction was performed with
191 MrBayes v3.2.6 (38), applying the GTR model with gamma distributed rates and invariant sites
192 using the same partition scheme as the ML analysis. The analysis was run with four independent
193 chains for 5 million generations, sampling trees and writing them to file every 500 generations.
194 Runs were examined for convergence with Tracer v1.6.0 (39). The first 25% of trees were
195 discarded as burn-in and posterior probabilities mapped onto a 50% consensus tree. In addition,
196 we performed an ancestral state reconstruction (ASR). This analysis was implemented in
197 Mesquite v3.10 (40). Ancestral character states were estimated across our single most likely
198 topology with each taxa coded according to biting location preference (twig, leaf, or trunk). We
199 implemented the Mk1 likelihood reconstruction method (with default settings), which maximizes
200 the probability the observed states would evolve under a stochastic model of evolution (41, 42).

201 To test for correlation between character states for biting substrate and geographic
202 location (*i.e.* tropical vs. temperate), we implemented a test of dependence of character evolution
203 as implemented in Mesquite 3.2 (43). This analysis tested the relationship between two discrete
204 characters across a phylogeny taking into account branch lengths, develops estimates of rates of
205 changes for the characters and tests for correlated evolution without relying on ancestral state

206 reconstruction (44). To discriminate whether a four-parameter or eight-parameter model is a
207 better fit to the data, a likelihood ratio test statistic was used. In this analysis, the null hypothesis
208 is that the substrate where the infected ant bite is random, rather than the correlated evolution of
209 such trait in response to environmental conditions.

210 **Results**

211 **The global distribution of the zombie ant fungi *O. unilateralis s.l.* and variation in biting** 212 **substrate**

213 To understand if environmental conditions play a role in shaping host behavioral manipulation
214 by parasites, we first aimed to assess the biting substrate and its relationship to the distribution of
215 species in the *O. unilateralis* complex. Based on the data we gathered, we determined that
216 species in the *O. unilateralis* complex have been recorded in 26 countries (Fig. 1, Dataset S1).
217 We found reports of zombie ant fungi in North, Central and South America, Africa, Asia and
218 Oceania (Fig. 1, Dataset S1). The latitudinal gradient of *O. unilateralis s.l.* is 74° , ranging from
219 47° North (Ontario, Canada) to 27° South (Santa Catarina, Brazil). Our dataset was constructed
220 based on different sources and methods of collection (see methods) and for this reason we are not
221 able to infer the relative abundance in different locations of the globe. However, in some cases,
222 records came from more detailed studies (*e.g.* (11, 45)), so we were able to estimate the
223 abundance for those specific areas. In this way, we confirmed previous observations that most of
224 the occurrence records for *O. unilateralis s.l.* are from tropical forests. In the tropics, the majority
225 of the records were of ants manipulated to bite onto leaves. Exact numbers of *O. unilateralis s.l.*
226 killed ants encountered was not recorded but it is in excess of 10,000 samples based on 12 years
227 of field work in the Atlantic rainforests of Brazil (11), Amazonian forest of Brazil (24) and

228 Colombia (46) and lowland forests of Peninsular Thailand (19, 45, 47). Although leaf biting
229 predominates in the tropics we know of two exceptions; one in Costa Rica (online record,
230 Dataset S1) and another in Thailand (48). In both cases the ants are found biting chlorenchymous
231 stems (green stems/twigs that are photosynthetically active and lack cambium) and detailed
232 information about behavior and ecology of these can be found in the SI text.

233 In temperate regions, species in the complex *O. unilateralis s.l.* have been, so far,
234 reported for three countries with predominantly temperate forests: United States, Japan and
235 Canada. In both the United States and Japan, some species of fungi manipulate the ants to bite
236 twigs, while others manipulate their host ants to bite leaves (Dataset S1). In the United States, an
237 undescribed member of this fungal species complex that manipulates the ants to bite onto leaves
238 was reported from an evergreen wetland forest, near the eastern coast of Florida (28° North,
239 Dataset S1). In Japan, we encountered another undescribed species within the *O. unilateralis*
240 complex in temperate forests (30° North), manipulating the ant *Polyrhachis moesta* to bite onto
241 leaves. Interestingly, all the specimens collected for this species were found on evergreen plants
242 (in which there is no leaf fall) in a forest in Kyoto (Dataset S1). In both the USA and Japan, we
243 also encountered ants being manipulated by *O. unilateralis s.l.* to bite onto the bark of trees,
244 although it was not frequent. This bark biting behavior was previously observed for two ant
245 species collected from Ghana, in cocoa plantations (49) . In Missouri, USA, we discovered trunk
246 biting where ants were manipulated to bite wood on the inside of logs where carpenter ants had
247 established a colony.

248 ***Post mortem* parasite development in a temperate forest**

249 We only found cadavers attached to the twigs with the vast majority (286/287) attached to the
250 underside of them (Fig. S1C) and across 20 months we did not find any ants biting leaves. We
251 also found that only two species of ants, *Camponotus castaneus* and *Camponotus americanus*
252 were infected. We conducted extensive searching over the entire year and only discovered newly
253 killed ants between June 20th and October 24th (n=29). Although the newly killed ants were
254 found during the summer and at the beginning of autumn, when both leaves and twigs are
255 available for the manipulated ants to bite onto, all of them were found biting onto twigs. These
256 29 newly killed ants were labeled with a number and the date they were first found to ensure
257 future identification. For some ants (7/29) we could determine that the cadaver was discovered
258 within the first 24 hours after manipulation and death of the ant, because of the stereotypical
259 appearance of the gaster (terminal portion of the ant's abdomen) which was noticeably swollen
260 due to abundant fungal tissue inside its body (Fig. 2A, Video S1). The remaining 22 ants were
261 within 2-3 days of death as they were all discovered before the fungus grew from inside to the
262 outside of the ant's body. As such, all 29 ants were newly killed when first discovered, which
263 provided us the opportunity to record the natural long-term development of the fungus in a
264 temperate forest.

265 We discovered that the development of the fungus *post mortem* of the host was delayed
266 until the year following the behavioral manipulation and subsequent death of the ant (Fig. 2). Of
267 the 29 cadavers identified in 2010 (June 20th - October 24th) as recently manipulated and killed,
268 14 fell from the tree soon after biting. The average duration was 25.2 days, ranging from 1-138
269 days, with the majority (9/14) lasting less than 20 days. Falling may reflect a poor grip on the
270 twigs by the manipulated ant and thus a higher chance the subsequent cadaver would become

271 dislodged. Firmly affixing the manipulated host to the twig by its mandibles is likely difficult
272 because twigs are hard plant tissue that are rounded and larger than the gape of the mandibles. In
273 many samples we encountered, the mandibles did not have a good purchase on the wood. We
274 discovered for ants manipulated by the species of *O. unilateralis* s.l. in South Carolina the
275 behavioral manipulation also involves wrapping the legs of the ant around the twig (Fig. S2 and
276 Movie S2). This is not a behavior observed in healthy ants when they walk or rest on twigs since
277 ants do not walk with their tibia or femurs touching the substrate. Instead, they use the most
278 distal segment of the tarsus: the 3th to 5th tarsomeres (50), each means they essentially walking
279 on their “toes”. Out of the 287 samples we observed during this study, 48 were missing legs,
280 perhaps as a result of a long period in the field. From the 239 of which we could clearly observe
281 details from their legs, 90% (216) had their legs wrapped around the biting substrate. Only 23
282 (out of 239) ants were attached to the twigs by their mandibles alone. In some cases, as shown in
283 the supporting Movie S2, it is clear that the leg grasping behavior prevented the dead ant from
284 falling from the twig, consequently enabling the parasitic fungus to complete its life cycle. The
285 first pair of legs typically crossed the 2nd and in some cases the 3rd pair of legs, which may
286 provide increased purchase (Fig. S2). Both the legs touching other legs and the legs touching the
287 wood developed dense mats of hyphae at their contact points which stitched the ant to the
288 substrate (Fig. S2). This leg wrapping behavior has never been seen in ants manipulated by *O.*
289 *unilateralis* s.l. in tropical forests.

290 We monitored the remaining cadavers (15/29) for fungal growth from the first
291 observation in 2010 and then through the first winter (2010) and then the second winter (2011)
292 until March 2012. The average duration of these cadavers was 572 days, ranging from 510 to 615
293 days. It is possible to determine if the fungus is sexually mature and thus capable of releasing

294 ascospores because the mature ascoma are recognizable by the erumpent ostioles, which are
295 holes through which ascospores are released. Based on the morphology of ascoma, the remaining
296 15 specimens did not reach maturity until the summer of the following year (2011), which can be
297 determined either based on the presence/absence of the ascoma or the erumpent nature of the
298 ostioles on the ascoma (Fig. S3). The minimum time required to reach sexual maturity was 310
299 days (Oct. 16th 2010 - Aug. 22nd 2011). Note that not all samples reached sexual maturity over
300 the course of this study. In some cases, the stalk broke off (Fig. S4A,B) or hyperparasitic fungi
301 infected *O. unilateralis s.l.* (Fig. S4C) preventing the parasite from reaching sexual maturity. It is
302 notable that during winter the fungus experiences severe weather with snow and ice rain (Fig.
303 S1D,E). Based on our observations, the zombie ant fungi *O. unilateralis s.l.* in North American
304 deciduous forests does not complete its lifecycle before leaf shed in the fall. We suggest this is
305 likely the reason all 287 ants we identified during the summer months (when leaves were
306 present) were manipulated to bite/grasp twigs before being killed by the fungus.

307 **Biogeography**

308 Both the global dataset we constructed and the phenology study we conducted indicate that
309 biting/grasping twigs is an adaptive trait in temperate biomes due to the fact that twigs are a
310 stable platform for this slow-growing fungus, unlike leaves which are commonly used by
311 infected ants in tropical evergreen biomes. Based on our phylogenetic reconstruction, we find
312 that the species complex *O. unilateralis s.l.* forms a monophyletic group (maximum likelihood
313 analysis boot strap value=100). The Randomized Axelerated Maximum Likelihood (RAxML)
314 inference topology is presented in Fig. 3. In addition, we performed a Bayesian analysis with 5
315 million generations sampled which produced a topology consistent with the ML approach, as
316 well as similar support values for the majority of the nodes (Fig. S5) Within the *O. unilateralis*

317 *s.l.* clade we recovered two major sub-clades: one formed by Asia-Oceania species and another
318 with mostly American species, with a single exception, *Ophiocordyceps pulvinata* (from Japan).
319 Within the two sub-clades (continental scale), the fungal species did not cluster according to
320 geographic origin of the samples (country scale). Within the Asia-Oceania cluster, where the
321 fungus is found infecting both carpenter and spiny ants, the genera *Camponotus* and *Polyrhachis*
322 respectively, there was also no clustering of fungal species by the ant host although there is host-
323 specificity at the species level. Thus, below the continent level, there is no clear phylogenetic
324 pattern either related to geographic location or the host species.

325 To establish the ancestral condition of biting (leaf or twig), we used Mesquite 3.2 to
326 perform an ancestral character-state reconstruction analysis on our maximum likelihood
327 topology. The result of this analysis is presented in Fig. 3 (colored branches). We find that leaf
328 biting is strongly inferred as the ancestral character state for ants manipulated by fungi within the
329 *O. unilateralis* complex. The shift in biting different substrates occurred at least four times in the
330 evolutionary history of this group of manipulative parasites. In node 1 (Fig. 3), the shift from leaf
331 to twig biting was reported for samples from North America. The ancestral biting substrate for
332 node 2 was ambiguous. This node consists of fungi that manipulate ants to bite onto twigs (from
333 Japan), and tree trunks (from Missouri, USA). Increased sampling is needed to determine if trunk
334 biting evolved from twig biting or directly from leaf biting. It is notable that trunk biting
335 involves manipulated ants biting the inside of logs where ants have established a colony. It may
336 be that the more severe cold in Missouri has shifted manipulation from exposed twigs to more
337 protected logs. Node 3 (Fig. 3) represents the change from leaf biting to green twig, a behavior
338 manipulation found in a fungus species from Thailand. Nodes 1-3 were well supported in the
339 phylogenetic analyses (BS>70). The fourth change on the biting substrate is reported for the

340 fungus species *Ophiocordyceps unilateralis* var. *clavata* (51) (node 4 Fig. 3), which manipulates
341 ants to bite twigs. However, this node is not well supported (BS=48). Tests of correlated
342 characters performed in Mesquite using Pagel's correlation analysis method (43) strongly
343 supported the correlation between biting substrate (leaf vs. non-leaf substrate) and geographical
344 range of species (tropical vs. temperate) (likelihood difference=5.45429; $P=0.01$). Thus, the
345 substrate where the ants are found attached can be positively correlated with the geographical
346 species range rather than the result of chance.

347 **Discussion**

348 Convergence of traits in response to similar environment is a central topic in evolutionary
349 biology. We examined the interplay of animal behavior and parasite adaptation by testing the
350 hypothesis that extended phenotypes (*i.e.* manipulation of host behavior by parasites) in
351 phylogenetically distinct parasite species have responded to the environmental conditions
352 experienced by both partners in similar manners. The overlap between the observed biting
353 substrate (leaf/twig) and forests system (tropical/temperate), together with the time required for
354 the fungus to complete its life cycle in each system, as well as the homoplastic nature of the
355 biting substrate trait, suggests that environmental conditions have played an important role in
356 shaping the mode of behavioral manipulation by this group of fungal parasites. Based on the
357 ancestral state reconstruction analysis we suggest that leaf biting, and not twig biting, is the
358 ancestral condition and that twig biting evolved independently in multiple temperate forest
359 biomes due to local environmental conditions and resource availability (*i.e.* ephemeral leaves as
360 platforms versus stable twigs). Additionally, given the apparent difficulty in biting twigs we
361 suggest that in temperate systems twig grasping evolved in addition to the biting behavior, which
362 arose first.

363 What are the evolutionary pathways that lead to the current distribution of the observed
364 pattern of twig biting/grasping in the temperate forests and leaf biting across the tropical forest
365 belt? In this study, we focused on the phylogenetically distinct species of fungi in the *O.*
366 *unilateralis* complex. This complex occurs within the genus *Ophiocordyceps* which is one of the
367 most speciose taxa of fungal parasites infecting insects (52, 53). We know that fungi in the order
368 Hypocreales, which *Ophiocordyceps* belongs to, were ancestrally associated with plants and
369 transitioned from plant-based nutrition to animal parasitism about 150 million years ago (54).
370 Tropical Asia is likely to be the center of origin of this entomopathogenic fungi group (55) and
371 so they likely originated in moist, lowland tropical forests. The precise age of the *O. unilateralis*
372 clade is unknown, but based on the chronogram of Sung et al. (54) it is likely the early Eocene,
373 47-56 million years ago. Our phylogenic analysis and ancestral state reconstruction analysis
374 demonstrate that twig biting/grasping is not restricted to a single clade (Fig. 3). Rather, twig
375 biting/grasping arose independently multiple times in the evolutionary history of this fungal
376 group. Given the early Eocene origin of the *O. unilateralis* clade, this means that the group
377 evolved in an ice-free world with high precipitation, average temperatures of 30°C and minimal
378 pole-pole temperature variations (56). It is likely then that this fungal group arose in evergreen
379 biomes. Meanwhile, the deciduous forest spread in response to seasonal drought at the late
380 Eocene cooling in the sub-tropics, and later became adapted to the seasonal cold in temperate
381 regions (57). We know from fossil evidence that the highly characteristic pattern of leaf biting
382 induced in ants by species in the *O. unilateralis s.l.* complex was present 47 million years ago in
383 what is modern day Germany, which was then an evergreen biome and 10 degrees further south
384 than its current location (58). Thus, based on past climate and forest type distribution, fossil
385 evidence of leaf biting and our ancestral state character reconstruction, there are grounds to

386 suggest that the species in the *O. unilateralis s.l.* clade originally manipulated ants to bite leaves
387 and subsequently experienced independent convergent evolution on twig biting by different
388 species in response to global climate change and the emergence of the deciduous forests in
389 different areas of the globe. The emergence of the additional grip to the substrate, the twig
390 grasping, presumably came later as it may increase the likelihood that the host cadaver, which
391 the fungus requires for reproduction, stays in position over extended periods of time.

392 Alternatively, the observed patterns of twig biting in temperate regions could be due to
393 adaptive plasticity. The type of biting substrate to which the host bites would then be a plastic
394 trait that responds to the environment inhabited by the host. There are many records of adaptive
395 plasticity as a response to environmental changes (59), including behavioral plasticity (60). If the
396 biting substrate is a plastic trait that responds to the environment inhabited by the host, it would
397 imply either one of the two following possibilities. The first possibility is that all or most of the
398 fungi species in the *unilateralis* group would be able to manipulate its specific ant host to bite
399 both onto twigs and leaves depending on the circumstances. We would then expect that in the
400 tropical forests, at least part of the ants would be manipulated to bite both twig and leaves, or that
401 in temperate forests, some of the ants would be found biting leaves (although it would mean the
402 death of the parasite). However, we only know of one possible record of plasticity on the biting
403 substrate which is the *Polyrhachis* sp. being manipulated to bite both onto leaves and bark of
404 cocoa trees in a Ghanaian cocoa farm (49). The second possibility that biting substrate is a
405 plastic trait is that the species of fungi in the temperate forest that have evolved the capability to
406 induce the twig biting, in addition to leaf biting. Unfortunately, we are not able to test this
407 hypothesis since it would require either transplant of fungal/ant species or common garden
408 experiments (cross-infections). These experiments are not possible for two reasons. The first is

409 that these species of fungi are highly specific to the species of ant they infect and they cannot
410 manipulate different species of ants (10). In fact, a comparative genomic analysis of the *O.*
411 *unilateralis* species isolated from *C. castaneus* (USA, twig biter) and *O.* (=unilateralis)
412 *camponoti-rufipedis*, a species isolated from *C. rufipes* (Brazil, leaf biter) shows that the genes
413 from *Ophiocordyceps* ant-manipulating fungi which are not shared with other ascomycetes
414 fungi are mostly species-specific (61). The second reason is that ants they infect do not occur in
415 both temperate and tropical forest simultaneously meaning transplant infections could not be
416 carried out. Although we cannot exclude the possibility that plasticity explains the observed
417 pattern of biting twigs in temperate regions, we suggest that convergently evolved extended
418 phenotypes where different ant species are manipulated by different fungal species in different
419 temperate forests (USA/Japan) is likely the most parsimonious interpretation of our data.

420 Why should most species of zombie ant fungi manipulate ants to bite almost exclusively
421 leaves in tropical forests since tropical forests also have twigs? In tropical forests, twigs are
422 abundant and are likely more stable than the leaves themselves, as the leaves in the tropical
423 forest last between 1.5 months to 4 years depending on the plant species (62). However, the
424 average duration of the cadavers attached to the leaves in tropical environment is approximately
425 five months and where it has been tested the leaves remain for longer than the development of
426 the fungus (45). This implies that in the tropics leaf permanence is not a constraint for the
427 development of the fungus. Perhaps then the preference exhibited by fungal species manipulating
428 ants to bite leaves in tropical forests is related to benefits other than the long-term permanence of
429 the substrate in the environment. It is possible that the underside of leaves provides a favorable
430 microclimate (19, 63), where the developing fungus is protected from UV damage and rain, and
431 experiences more stable temperature and humidity. Compared to the dead tissue of stem bark, the

432 living, vascularized tissue of leaves may also provide a nutritional supplement for the developing
433 fungus. In line with this suggestion, we know that several other entomopathogenic fungi are able
434 to grow as endophytes, including *Beauveria bassiana* (64, 65) in leaves, and *Metarhizium*
435 *anisopliae* (66) and *Ophiocordyceps sinensis* (67) in plant roots. Leaf biting may create an
436 opening where fungi gain ready access to plant nutrients. In fact, *O. unilateralis s.l.* fungal tissue
437 has been identified inside the damage caused by biting in the leaf tissue in both modern and
438 extinct leaves (58), however the direct interaction between these fungi and the plant substrate
439 remains to be studied. Perhaps then the choice of leaves over twigs by manipulating fungi was
440 adaptive and the switch to twig biting only emerged under the strong selective regime that
441 deciduous plants present.

442 Why would deciduous forests be such a strong selective force and why might twig biting
443 be adaptive? To complete its sexual reproduction, fungi within *O. unilateralis* complex grow and
444 mature the ascoma, from where the ascospores will be produced and released to infect new hosts.
445 It is a key point in the life cycle of this parasite, which is dependent on the precise location where
446 the ants are manipulated to die (19). However, the pace of fungal development is generally
447 regulated by temperature (22). In the tropics, the manipulation happens throughout the year (11,
448 45) and parasite development is completed in a few months after it kills the host (24, 45). In the
449 temperate system, although the manipulation occurs during the summer when the temperature is
450 elevated, our phenology study revealed that winter appears to interrupt development and so it
451 takes at least one year for the fungus to complete the sexual cycle. Previous empirical work
452 showed the placement of the ant cadaver on the forest floor resulted in zero fitness for the
453 parasite (19). If the infected ants were manipulated to bite leaves, the cadaver would fall onto the
454 forest floor before the fungus can reproduce. Although the manipulation to bite twigs allows the

455 fungus to avoid falling onto the ground due to leaf shed, almost 50% of the newly manipulated
456 ants disappeared from the twigs, resulting in zero fitness for the parasite. This could be due to
457 either weak attachment or predation. The same happens in the tropics, where ants suddenly
458 disappear from the leaf substrate (45). Despite the possibility of falling or being predated, the
459 fungus clearly increases its chance to survive and reproduce by avoiding the leaves. Thus,
460 besides providing evidence that the environment has shaped the behavioral manipulation of the
461 ants by the parasitic fungi, it is possible to suggest a possible mechanism by which this happens.
462 We suggest that the slow growth rate, likely due to the lower average annual temperature,
463 combined with the leaf fall that occurs between the manipulation and reproduction, selectively
464 favored the fungi to manipulate their host to bite onto twigs. In contrast to the leaves of
465 deciduous trees, twigs last for many seasons, providing a steady platform for the fungus to
466 develop and release spores over extended periods of time. Additionally, the difficulty in biting
467 twigs is likely a selective force for the manipulated ant to grasp the twigs with its legs, a novel
468 behavior not previously observed in ants infected by this group of fungi.

469 The data presented here provides multiple lines of evidence that suggest a parasitic
470 fungus inside ant hosts can respond to environmental change and alter the way it manipulates its
471 host behavior over evolutionary time. We hypothesize that as the evergreen moist forests of the
472 Eocene, which receded first to drier and then cooler deciduous woods (56), favored the selection
473 of a switch in the manipulative behavior from biting leaves to biting twigs. Twig and leaf biting
474 appears in both America and Asia-Oceania host ant clades, as well as in *Camponotus* and
475 *Polyrhachis* ant hosts. In Ghana, some ant hosts were found biting both leaf and bark (the same
476 ant species was found biting both substrates) (49). This indicates lability/plasticity across
477 evolutionary time that may facilitate switching from biting one substrate to another. It is

478 interesting that in tropical forests, where the abundance (11, 47) and diversity of species from the
479 complex *O. unilateralis* is high (20, 24, 25, 48), the default manipulation is leaf biting. However,
480 twigs are also in abundance on tropical forests. That is, when ants are being manipulated, the
481 environment (a tropical forest) has both twigs and leaves available onto which manipulated ants
482 could bite. Likewise, in temperate systems, the biting occurs during the summer, when the ants
483 also have both leaves and twigs as possible biting substrates. We actively searched for infected
484 *Camponotus* ants attached to leaves in our temperate system and did not encounter any.
485 Therefore, the preference for twigs is not an artifact of leaf fall where only ants biting twigs
486 remain to be sampled. A tantalizing question is which factor may have led the fungi to switch
487 their biting substrate. There is some indication that the microclimate is important for the fungal
488 development (19, 68). Therefore, small changes in temperature, humidity and/or CO₂
489 concentration could have been used as clues; but we can only speculate. Although it remains to
490 be discovered how a microbe inside the body of its host can affect such precise choices in its
491 manipulated host, our data suggest that the infected manipulated ants have a behavior, the
492 extended phenotype, which is encoded by the fungus and results in the optimal selection of the
493 plant tissue (leaf *versus* twig) to bite before being killed by the parasite.

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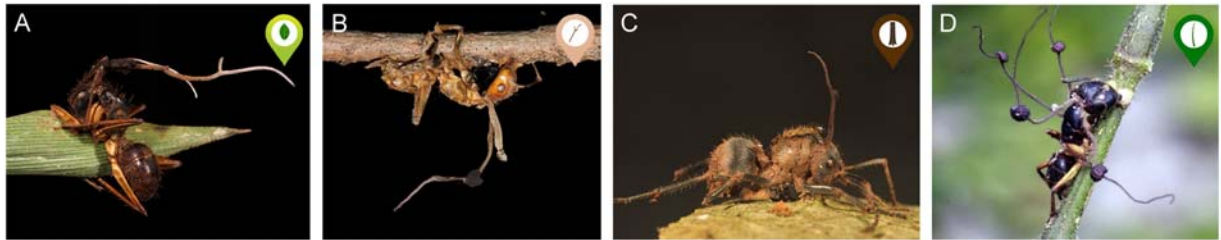
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- 662



663

664 **Figure 1:** Global distribution and behavioral manipulation by *Ophiocordyceps unilateralis*
665 *sensu lato* infecting ants. The light green markers represent records of ants manipulated to bite
666 leaves. The light brown represents the records of ants manipulated to bite twigs. The dark brown
667 represents records of ants manipulated to bite tree trunks. The dark green markers represent the
668 record of the one species of ant manipulated to bite green twigs. (A) *Camponotus atriceps*
669 manipulated to bite onto a leaf (Brazilian Amazon). (B) *Camponotus castaneus* manipulated to
670 bite onto twig (South Carolina, USA). (C) *Polyrhachis militaris* manipulated to bite onto bark
671 (Atewa, Ghana). (D) *Camponotus* sp. manipulated to bite green twigs (Nakhon Nayok Thailand),
672 image modified from Kobmoo et al. 2015 (48).



673

674 **Figure 2:** The development of the fungus, *Ophiocordyceps unilateralis sensu lato*, post
675 manipulation and *post mortem* of the ant host, *Camponotus castaneus*, in South Carolina, USA.
676 These photographs were taken of the same ant, under natural conditions, across a year (A)
677 Freshly killed individual (between 0-24h after the ant was killed) on July 25th 2010. (B) August
678 10th 2010 (C) August 26th 2010 (D) November 14th 2010 (E) March 13th 2011 (F) June 4th 2011
679 (F) July 16th 2011 (H) Close up of the mature fungal sexual structure.

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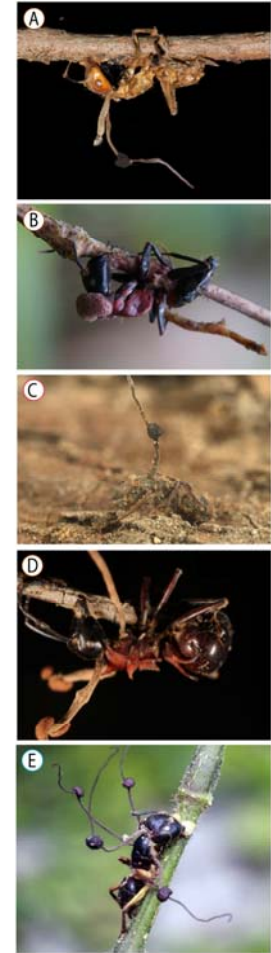
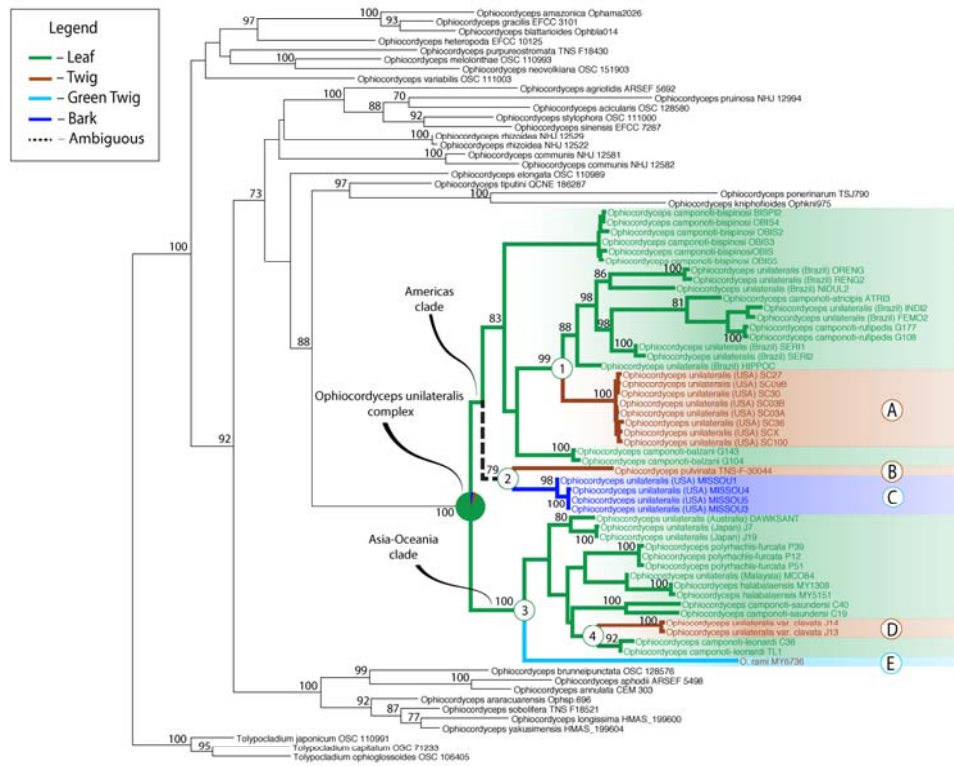
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687 **Figure 3:** The evolutionary relationships among closely related species of fungi from the
 688 *Ophiocordyceps unilateralis* complex that manipulates ants to bite different plant substrates.
 689 Phylogenetic relationship between fungi manipulating ants to bite leaves, twigs and bark as
 690 inferred with molecular data. (A) *Camponotus castaneus* infected with *O. unilateralis* s.l.,
 691 manipulated to bite onto twigs. Samples originated from South Carolina, USA. (B) *Camponotus*
 692 *obiscurips* infected with *O.* (=unilateralis) *pulvinata*, manipulated to bite twigs. Sample
 693 originated from Japan; image from Kepler et al. 2011 (25). (C) *Camponotus chromaiodes*
 694 infected with *O. unilateralis* s.l., manipulated to bite onto the interior surface of a tree trunk.
 695 Sample originated from Missouri, United States. (D) *Polyrhachis lamellidens* infected by *O.*
 696 *unilateralis* s.l. (var. *clavata*), manipulated to bite twigs. Sample originated from Japan. (E)
 697 *Camponotus* sp. infected with *O. rami*, manipulated to bite non-woody twigs. Sample originated
 698 from Thailand; image from Kobmoo et al. 2015 (48).

699

700

701 **Supplementary Information Text**

702 **Additional information on stem biting in tropical forests:** The fungus *O. rami*, which belongs
703 to the *unilateralis* complex (and was formerly described as *O. unilateralis*), was collected in the
704 tropical forests of Thailand (14° north), and originally described to manipulate its host to bite
705 twigs (48). However, from the figure presented by the authors, the substrate onto which the ant
706 was biting was green, and not woody, as we have observed in temperate areas (i.e.
707 chlorenchymous stems lacking cambium). We could not find any further information on the
708 specimen collected in Costa Rica.

709 **Dataset S1:** Summary of the information collected for *Ophiocordyceps unilateralis s.l.* records
710 from around the world. We searched in museums and herbarium collections, as well as pictures
711 available on the internet (under the terms “*Ophiocordyceps*”, “*Cordyceps*” and “zombie ants”).
712 Additionally, we added records provided by people who directly contacted the author of this
713 manuscript with pictures of zombie ants that they have found worldwide. Furthermore, we used
714 the laboratory collection of senior author, which includes samples collected by the authors of this
715 study and other collaborators. This collection also includes specimens donated by the renowned
716 mycologist Dr. Harry Evans, who has worked on *O. unilateralis s.l.* fungi for more than 40 years.
717 For each record, we collected the following information (when available): country, most precise
718 location available (e.g. national park, nearest city), geographic coordinates, ant host, biting
719 substrate, collector, year and source.

720 **Dataset S2:** Taxon, specimen voucher and sequence information for specimens used in this
721 study.

722 **Video S1:** Fungus development from July 24th 2010 to March 12th 2012.

723 **Video S2:** Importance of the grasping behavior on fixing the cadaver to the twig.

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747 **Figure S1:** *Ophiocordyceps unilateralis* infected ants in temperate forest of South Carolina,
748 USA. Note that in this natural habitat, the trees display leaves in the summer (A) and shed the
749 leaves in the autumn (B). In this temperate habitat, ants are manipulated to bite the underside of
750 twigs (C). The cadaver of the host and the fungus itself eventually freeze during the winter (D)
751 and/or are covered by snow.

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763 **Figure S2:** Cadaver of a *Camponotus castaneus* previously manipulated before having been
764 killed by the parasitic fungus *Ophiocordyceps unilateralis*. In this temperate forest, the fungus
765 manipulates the ants to bite and grasp onto the twig. After the death of the host, the fungus
766 develops dense mats of hyphae from the cadaver, at their contact points such as the gaster with
767 the twig (arrow A), the legs with the twig (arrow B) and between the legs that wrap around the
768 twig (arrow C). We suggest that both the grasping and the mats of hyphae are important to keep
769 the cadaver in place, which is required for the long period of fungus development.

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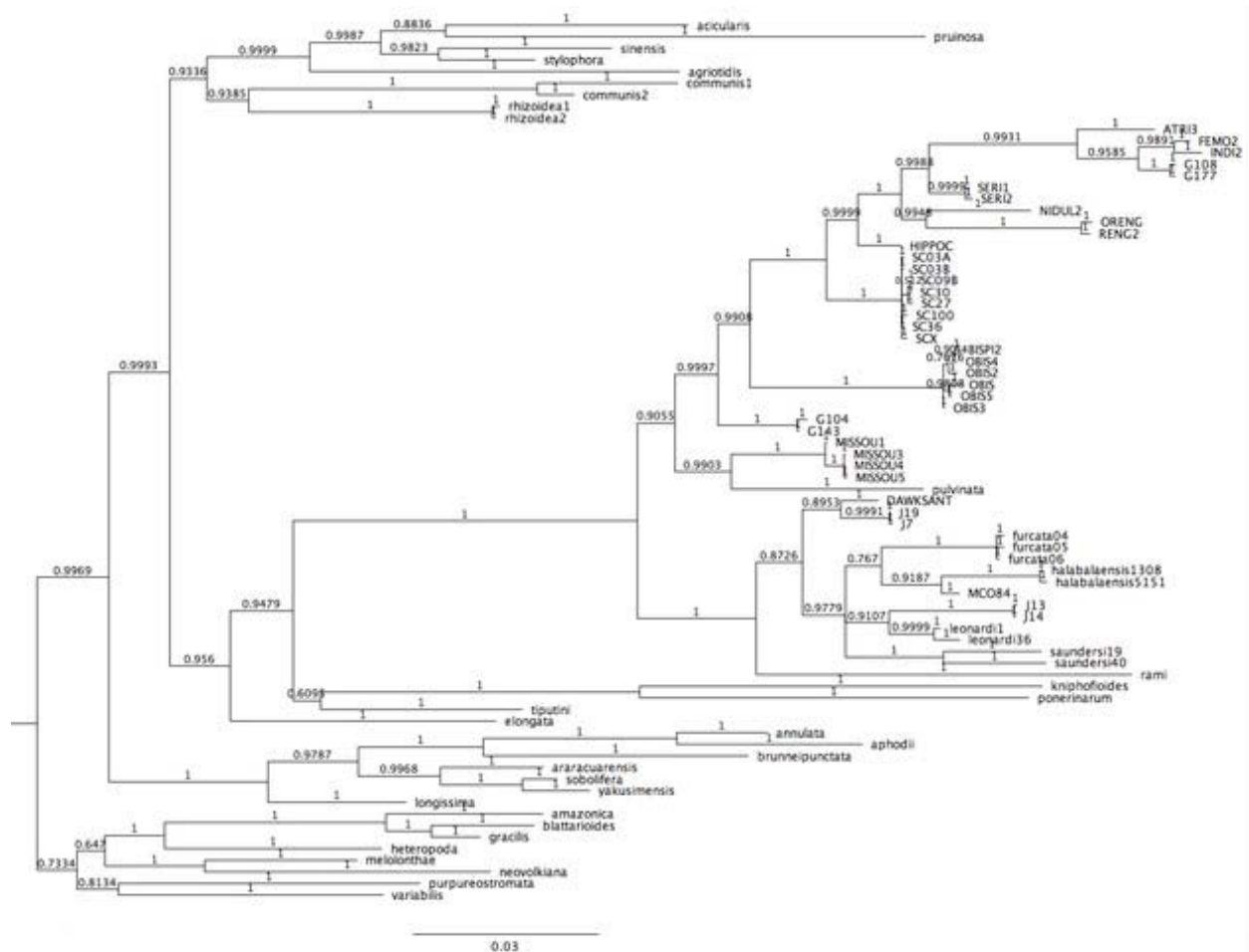
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778 **Figure S3:** *Ophiocordyceps unilateralis* development. Images A-O shows the fungus
779 development prior its first winter port-mortem of the host for the 15 samples we evaluated in this
780 study. Image P is a close up of a fully developed and mature ascoma. In this study, the
781 morphology of the ascoma was used to classify the ability of the fungus to release ascospores,
782 which is necessary for transmission. Note that none of the samples showed in A-O reached the
783 developmental stage showed in P.



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785 **Figure S4:** *Ophiocordyceps unilateralis* s.l. might fail to reach sexual maturity even when the
786 cadaver stays attached to the substrate. (A) Sample photographed on January 2011, 5 months
787 after the host's manipulation and death. (B) Same samples, photographed in March 2011.
788 Although the fungus did develop normally, the stalk broke off, and the fungus did not reach
789 sexual maturity until the end of this study. It is possible that a new stalk and ascoma grew,
790 making it possible for the fungus to sporulate. (C) Specimen of *O. unilateralis* s.l.
791 hyperparasitized by another fungi (micoparasite).

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810 **Figure S5:** Bayesian tree reconstruction with 5 million generations sampled in MrBayes (using
811 the same model partitions as the ML analysis) produced a topology consistent with the ML
812 approach.

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