1

Oligotyping Bacterial Symbionts of Hindgut Protists Reveals Complex

Population Structures and Transmission Trends

in the Termite *Reticulitermes flavipes*

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Abstract

The hindgut protists of wood-feeding termites are often colonized by an assemblage of

prokaryotic endo- and ectosymbionts. These associations can vary between protist species in a

single termite species and between protists in different termite species and are, therefore, hard to

characterize. The inability to culture termite associated protists has made it difficult to assess

aspects of symbioses such as symbiont-host fidelity, symbiont acquisition, and differences in

colonization between individual protists within the same termite host. In this study, we utilize

high throughput amplicon sequencing of V4 16S rRNA gene to determine the composition of

bacterial symbiont populations associated with single protist cells. Operational Taxonomic Units

(OTUs) were generated for protist-associated bacteria at 95% identity level and then further

analyzed by oligotyping. The sequence diversity of associated symbionts was then compared

within and across different protists species in *Reticulitermes flavipes*. Symbiont populations of

Oxymonadida and Parabasilia protist species were significantly different from one another.

Importantly, oligotypes corresponding to ectosymbionts were extensively shared between

different protist species in many cases. Symbiont signatures such as the expansive host range of

these ectosymbionts may be explained by their mode of transmission. Using a fluorescence-

based cell assay, we observed the horizontal transmission of ectosymbionts over time.

Ectosymbiont transmission was dependent on time, was shown to be an active process, and was

non-random with respect to binding locations on some host cells. Although some symbionts were

horizontally acquired there are likely to be as yet unidentified mechanisms in place to maintain

their specificity to certain protist hosts. Our results suggest that oligotyping of symbionts

associated with single protist cells, combined with cell-based transmission assays, can reveal

insights into the complexity of their bacterial symbionts' population structures and their host

associations.

Importance

Studying the interactions between the numerous kinds of microbiota within the hindguts of lower

termites has been difficult because most members of the community have not yet been

cultivated. Specifically, intimacies between hindgut protists and their associated bacteria are

thought to be essential for the efficient degradation of lignocellulose, yet these symbioses are

poorly understood. In this study, we use culture independent methods to assay the composition of

the bacterial symbionts of single, yet-to-be cultivated, protist hosts as well as observe the

dynamic nature of their transmission. These methods shed light into the ecology of this

multipartite symbiosis by demonstrating with both molecular and cellular data, that some

bacterial symbionts are shared across different protist species via horizontal transmission while

others maintain fidelity to specific protist hosts.

Introduction

The lower termite *R. flavipes* harbors symbionts, from the three domains of life, all of

which make significant contributions to the digestion of lignocellulose. These symbionts include

uncultivated, hindgut protists of two eukaryotic taxa, Oxymonadida (Class) and Parabasilia

(Order) (1, 2). Many of these protists are colonized by both endo- and ectosymbionts from

various bacterial taxa (2). These protist-associated bacteria often exhibit complex population

structures and occupy different ecological niches on and within their unicellular host.

Previous studies have shown that Oxymonadida protists in *Reticulitermes speratus* are

co-colonized with *Treponema* ectosymbionts from two distinct phylogenetic clusters (Termite

Treponema clusters I and II) (3, 4) as well as a member of the *Bacteroidales* (5). These three

ectosymbionts lineages attach by one cell pole to the plasma membrane of their host (6) and

exhibit intermixed colonization (5). Other known ectosymbionts include a *Desulfovibrio* species

which embeds in the membrane of its Parabasilia host, *Trichonympha* (7). Functional data

regarding the nature of these symbioses are limited, but growing. Genome analysis of a

Bacteriodales ectosymbiont of a *Dinenympha* species found in *R. speratus*, '*Candidatus*

Symbiothrix dinenymphae*', suggests that it may directly degrade lignocellulose and/or aid its

protist host in cellulose degradation (8).

The endosymbionts which colonize the cytoplasm of hindgut protists of *Reticulitermes*

termites are also composed of several bacterial taxa which vary between different protist and

termite species. Some of these include *Endomicrobium* (9), and '*Candidatus* Ancillula' (10). In

addition, the nuclei of some hindgut protist species are colonized by *Verrucomicrobia* (11).

Genome analysis of some of these endosymbionts suggests that there is convergent evolution for

these symbionts to provide support to their unicellular host by synthesizing nutrients absent in

the termite's diet (10, 12, 13). Regarding *Endomicrobium*, previous studies have investigated

both their population structure and transmission in *Trichonympha* spp. protist hosts. Across

various *Trichonympha* spp. these endosymbionts share congruent rRNA gene phylogenies with

their host (14) and are composed of a single phylotype (99% sequence identity of their ITS

region), which are not shared across different *Trichonympha* spp. (15). These data supported the

hypothesis that these endosymbionts are vertically acquired.

The associations between termite protists and their symbiotic bacteria are complex and

not well understood. For example, in *Reticulitermes* spp. different protist species associate with

Treponema from the same phylogenetic clusters, but the composition and fidelity of those

associations are not resolved beyond those broad phylogenetic groups. Furthermore, assessing

the diversity of bacteria which associate with termite protists has been challenging since these

protists are not yet cultivated, and are hard to isolate from their termite hosts. Previous studies

have overcome these challenges by either using samples which consisted of pooled protist cells

(3) or samples in which whole genome amplification (WGA) was performed (15). These

methods have yielded novel information, but pooling protist cells limits host and symbiont

resolution by depicting the averaged composition of all individuals in a pooled sample and WGA

can sometimes bias relative abundance data (16, 17).

Here, we used a method in which uncultivated single protist cells, isolated from the

hindgut of *R. flavipes*, served as a template for high-throughput amplicon sequencing of the

hypervariable V4 region of bacterial symbiont 16S rRNA genes as well as co-amplifying the 18S

rRNA gene of the protist host. Using this method, the bacterial symbiont composition of single

protist cells can be investigated at high resolution and coverage compared to other methods. In

addition, the ability to co-amplify the 18S rRNA gene of individual host cells gives further

insight into these complex interactions by determining the relatedness of individual protist cells.

We selected six different protist species, four from the genus *Dinenympha* (Oxymonadida),

Pyrsonympha vertens (Oxymonadida), and *Trichonympha agilis* (Parabasilia). Using these

protist species, we tested whether closely related protists, living in the same termite host,

associated with similar bacterial symbionts compared to more distantly related protists. We were

also able to discern differences in the population structures of the different kinds of bacterial

symbionts associated with single protist hosts. Using single isolated protist cells from the hindgut

of *R. flavipes* operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were generated at the 95% identity level and

the sequences were further characterized by oligotyping. Our results support previous

observations in other *Reticulitermes* spp. termites that some hindgut protists share ectosymbiotic

Treponema but we also extend those observations to another ectosymbiont lineage, '*Ca*.

Symbiothrix'. In addition, we show that individuals of a protist species can contain different

predominate oligotypes from one another.

The observation that different protists species share some ectosymbiont oligotypes

suggests that these particular symbionts may be cosmopolitan and horizontally acquired by their

protist hosts. To test this hypothesis, we developed an in vitro fluorescence assay which allowed

us to detect the horizontal acquisition of ectosymbionts by different protists species. We show

that the horizontal transmission of these ectosymbionts required active biological processes and

the symbionts exhibited preferential spatial binding to their host cells in some cases. Using this

high-resolution molecular approach combined with our transmission assay, we show that almost

all symbiont oligotypes are exclusive to either Parabasilia and Oxymonadida protists in *R*.

flavipes and that their population structures vary with respect to their ecological niche and mode

of transmission.

Materials and methods

Termite collection, maintenance, and identification.

R. flavipes termites were collected using cardboard traps placed under logs, actively colonized by

termites, for 2 to 4 weeks in Mansfield Connecticut, USA. Termites were removed from traps

and colonies were established in plastic containers containing moistened sterile sand and spruce

wood. Species identity of the termites was verified to be *R. flavipes* by solider cast morphology

(18), the presence of *Dinenympha gracilis* in the hindguts of worker termites (19, 20), and

sequencing of the cytochrome oxidase II gene (Supplementary Fig 1) with primers A-tLEU: 5'-

ATGGCAGATTAGTGCAATGG-3' (forward) and B-tLys: 5'-

GTTTAAGAGACCAGTACTTG-3' (reverse)(21). For all experiments, only individuals of the

worker cast were chosen.

Amplification and sequencing of protist and bacterial SSU rRNA genes.

Samples consisting of single protist cells were prepared from termites in an anaerobic chamber

with atmospheric content of CO_2 5.5%, H_2 5.5%, and N_2 89%. Hindguts were dissected and then

ruptured in Trager's solution U (TU) (22). Hindgut contents were then washed by centrifugation

at 3,000 rpm for 90 seconds, and then resuspended in TU for a total of three washes. Samples

were then diluted and spotted on glass slides treated with RNase AWAY® Reagent (Life

Technologies) and UV light. Individual protist cells were isolated using a micromanipulator

(Eppendorf CellTram® Vario) equipped with a hand-drawn glass capillary. Protists cells were

washed three times in droplets of TU via micromanipulation, placed in 10μl molecular grade TE

Buffer, and then frozen at -20°C.

Frozen protist cells served as templates for PCR reactions in which the 18S rRNA gene

of the protist host as well as the V4 hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA gene of bacteria were

co-amplified and sequenced. PCR reactions consisted of Phusion® High-fidelity polymerase (1

unit), HF buffer, dNTPs (200 μM), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) (3%), 0.3 μM of each 18S

primer (Euk19f, 5'-AYYTGGTTGATYCTGCCA-3' and Euk1772r; 5'-

CBGCAGGTTCACCTAC-3') (23), 0.2 μM each of V4 16S primers (515f; 5'-

GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3' and 806r; 5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3',

annealing sequence) (24), and a single protist cell in a final reaction volume of 50 μl. PCR

conditions were as follows: Initial denaturation was at 94°C for 3 minutes followed by 35 cycles

of 94°C for 45 seconds, 50°C for 60 seconds, 72°C for 2 minutes. Final extension was at 72°C for

10 minutes (25). For *P. vertens* and *D. gracilis* primers 18SFU; 5'-

ATGCTTGTCTCAAAGGRYTAAGCCATGC-3' and 18SRU; 5'-

CWGGTTCACCWACGGAAACCTTGTTACG-3' were used (26).

PCR products were size-selected by using a 1% agarose gel, purified using the Wizard®

SV Gel and PCR Clean-up System (Promega), and quantified using Qubit™ Flourometric

quantitation (ThermoFisher Scientific). Barcoded V4 16S rRNA gene amplicons were pooled at

4nM equimolar concentrations and sequenced on an Illumina Miseq (25).

18S rRNA gene amplicons were cloned using the pGEM®-T Easy Vector System

(Promega) following the manufacture's protocol, and sequenced by Sanger sequencing. In

addition to protist samples, negative controls consisting of TU, TE, and protist-free technical

controls were amplified and sequenced. If needed, additional isolated protist cells were used in

18S rRNA gene-only PCR reactions and the amplicons were cloned and sequenced as described

above.

V4 16S amplicon filtering, OTU clustering, and oligotyping analysis

V4 16S rRNA gene reads were quality filtered by removing reads that were below an average

quality score of Q20 using BBMap (27). Reads were then analyzed using a Quantitative Insights

into Microbial Ecology (QIIME™) workflow. Reads were clustered into de novo OTUs at the

95% identity level using the "pick_de_novo_otus.py" script in MACQIIME (version 1.8). OTU

percent identity cutoffs were determined by comparing the percent identities of V4 16S SSU

rRNA genes of reference *Treponema* spp. and *Endomicrobium* spp. sequences that defined

species cutoffs (Supplementary Fig 2). These references were selected as biomarkers for our

OTU clustering since *Treponema* and *Endomicrobium* represented the most abundant taxa in our

dataset. Sequences were checked for chimeras using the "parallel_indentify_chimeric_seqs.py"

with references from the Dictdb (28) and GreenGenes (29) databases.

OTUs were filtered, and contaminates removed, using several criteria. OTUs were deemed

contaminates if they were not at least 10 times higher in protists samples compared to negative

controls. Second, any OTUs which were not at least (i) ≥0.15% of total read abundance on all

individuals of a given protist species or (ii) ≥1.5% of the total read abundance for at least two

individuals in a protist species were removed. Sequences which clustered into OTUs that passed

this filtering were then further analyzed by oligotyping. Statistical significance in the difference

in OTU abundances and heterogeneity across different protist species were tested using the G-

Test and PERMANOVA tests respectively.

Oligotyping analysis was performed for bacterial taxa of interest using the pipeline and

software developed by Eren and coworkers (30). Reads were extracted for bacterial taxa of

interest using the "q2oligo.py" script and then reads were padded with gap characters to ensure

equal length using the "o-pad-with-gaps" command. The reads were then assessed for Shannon

entropy using the "entropy-analysis" command to identify informative base positions based on

their sequence variation. Oligotyping was then performed using the "oligotype" command with

the minimum substantive abundance parameter (-M) set at 20, and the minimum abundance for

at least one sample parameter (-a) set a 1.0. The oligotyping analysis was iteratively performed

including high entropy (>0.2) base positions until the oligotypes for each taxon had converged,

meaning that further analysis would not generate additional oligotypes. Oligotypes were then

manually filtered by excluding those from samples which were comprised of a single read and/or

were below 0.1% in their relative abundance.

Oligotyping was also performed on V4 16S rRNA gene reads from samples consisting of

the free-living bacterial fractions (fractions enriched in bacterial cells not attached to protists)

from three individual termite hindguts. Hindguts were dissected and ruptured as described above.

The bacterial fraction of their hindgut contents was prepared by centrifugation. Total hindgut

contents were centrifuged at 3,000 rpms for 90 seconds to separate large cells (protist cells) from

smaller bacterial cells. This free-living bacterial fraction (supernatant) was then centrifuged at

13,000 rpms for 90 seconds followed by three washes in TU and resuspended in molecular grade

TE buffer. Bacterial V4 16S rRNA genes were amplified and sequenced as described above. All

reads from these samples were processed using the same pipeline as the reads from single protist

cells.

Phylogenetic analysis of SSU rRNA genes

For bacterial OTUs, representative sequences (centroid sequences) of *Treponema*, *Bacteriodales*

and '*Ca*. Endomicrobium' were aligned to full length 16S rRNA gene reference sequences of

each taxa using MUSCLE (31). Appropriate evolutionary models were determined for each

alignment using jModelTest (32, 33) and phylogenetic trees were generated using RAxML (34)

using the full alignment length. This phylogenetic analysis of the centroid sequences from OTUs

revealed that the QIIME workflow mistakenly designated a certain *Bacteriodales* OTU as

'*Candidatus* Azobacteroides', which should have been designated as '*Ca*. Symbiothrix'. The 18S

rRNA genes obtained by this study were also aligned to reference sequences using MUSCLE and

the full alignment was used to make a phylogenetic tree with RAxML.

Scanning electron microscopy

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used to investigate the morphology of hindgut protists

and their ectosymbionts. Protist cells were collected by low spin centrifugation as described

above and fixed in 2% glutaraldehyde in TU (pH 7) for 1 hour at RT in an anaerobic chamber.

The samples were deposited onto poly-L-lysine coated silicon wafer chips (Prod No. 16008, Ted

Pella Inc.), washed with 80 mM Na cacodylate buffer (pH 7), and post-fixed in 2% osmium

tetroxide at RT for 1 hour. The cells were rinsed twice for 5 minutes in distilled water then

dehydrated in serial concentrations of ethanol (30%, 50%, 70%, 95%, 100%, 5 min each), and

critical point dried (931GL, Tousimis). Samples were then mounted on SEM stubs using silver

paint, sputter coated with Palladium (E5100, Polaron), and examined using a scanning electron

microscope (Nova NanoSEM 450, FEI).

Fluorescent symbiont transmission assays

For all tranmission assays, experiments were carried out in an anaerobic chamber with gas

composition as described above. Hindguts were dissected from termites, ruptured with sterile

forceps, and their contents were collected in anaerobic buffer containing anaerobic water with

resazurin (1μg/ml), sodium thioglycolate (0.5g/L), and sodium bicarbonate (0.1M) pH 8.0 (Pedro

et al., 2004). Samples were then fractionated by low spin centrifugation (3,000 rpm for 90

seconds) to separate protists and from bacteria which were unattached to protists. Each fraction

was then washed three times in buffer by centrifugation at either 3,000 rpm (for protist fraction)

or 13,000 rpm (for bacterial fraction) for 90 seconds. The washed fractions were then split into

two equal volume groups and stained with either Texas Red®-X succinimidyl ester (TRSE,

Molecular Probes™) or AlexaFlour 488 succinimidyl ester (SE488, Molecular Probes™) at

10μg/ml for 1 hour at room temperature (RT) in the dark in the anaerobic chamber. Dye

conjugation was done per manufacturer's instructions. Stained cells were then washed 3 times in

TU with reduced glutathione serving as a stop reagent for the amine reactive dyes. Protist and

bacterial fractions were combined to produced two samples (Red-TRSE-stained and Green-SE-

488 stained).

To assay for symbiont acquisition by protists, the two samples (Red-TRSE-stained and

Green-SE-488 stained) were combined and monitored for the horizontal acquisition of new

bacteria which was evident by heterogeneity in fluorescent signals of bacteria on individual

protists. Samples were taken at various time points (0, 3, 15, and 20 hours), fixed with 2%

formaldehyde, and viewed using a Nikon TE300 Eclipse microscope. Alternatively, fixed

samples were mounted in ProLong™ Diamond Antifade Mountant (ThermoFisher) and imaged

using a Nikon A1R Spectral Confocal microscope. To test if symbiont acquisition required

biologically active processes, this assay was repeated with the addition of either tetracycline

10μg/ml or cycloheximide 10μg/ml to each sample 1 hour prior to the start of the assay and

compared to a no treatment control. In addition, anaerobic symbionts were killed by exposure to

atmospheric oxygen, labeled with propidium iodide (PI), and mixed with live cells to assay for

the binding of dead bacteria to live protist hosts.

The fluorescent assay was then used to investigate whether or ectosymbionts could come

from the free-living (unattached) pool of bacteria. Hindgut contents were fractionated into

bacterial or protist fractions and stained with TRSE as described above. These TRSE labeled

fractions where then added to a SE-488 stained protist cell fractions and incubated in an

anaerobic chamber as described above. Samples were taken at 15 hours post the start of the

assay, fixed, and viewed as described above.

Sequence submission

In progress. All 18S rRNA gene sequences derived from protists have been submitted to the

National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Genbank under accession numbers

MH174292 – MH174303 as well as the termite mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase II gene

(accession number MH171305). Sequences of the bacterial V4 16S gene amplicons are being

submitted to the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA).

Results

Morphological and phylogenetic diversity of hindgut protists

The morphology of protists used in this study was investigated using both light microscopy and

SEM. These data along with their 18S rRNA gene phylogeny indicated that these protists

consisted of five different species: *T. agilis*, *P. vertens*, *D. gracilis*, *D. fimbriata*, and two

uncharacterized *Dinenympha* species (I & II). We obtained near-full length or partial (>1 kb) 18S

rRNA genes sequences from individual protist cells, aligned them to references sequences, and

reconstructed their phylogeny using RAxML. Undescribed species such as *Dinenympha* species I

& II clustered within other *Dinenympha* sequences supporting that they are indeed members of

that genus (Fig 1). Differential interference contrast (DIC) micrographs of representative

morphotypes of each protist species used in this study are provided as Supplementary Fig 4.

OTU composition of the bacterial symbionts of individual hindgut protists

Despite residing in the same termite host, the community of bacterial symbionts found on

Trichonympha, *Pyrsonympha*, and *Dinenympha* species were significantly different from one

another (PERMANOVA f=2.21 p=0.001) (Supplementary Fig 2). Even when an OTU was

present on different protist species, the relative abundance of that OTU was significantly

different across those protists (G-test, Bonferroni p≤0.05). Based on these observations we

concluded that associations between these protists and their bacterial symbionts are not random

in *R. flavipes*.

With the exception of one OTU (*Treponema* OTU4), all other *Treponema* OTUs were

exclusive to either Oxymonadida or Parabasilia hosts (Fig 2). Interestingly, these OTUs

correspond to ectosymbiotic *Treponema* which are known to colonize *T. agilis* and various

Dinenympha species in *Reticulitermes* termites. The other known ectosymbiotic lineage '*Ca.*

Symbiothrix', was composed of a single OTU and was found at various relative abundancies

across each *Dinenympha* individual and to the exclusion of other protists species.

The *Endomicrobium* symbionts clustered into two OTUs (*Endomicrobium* OTU1 &

OTU2). The first OTU was found only in *T. agilis* cells while the second was found in *P. vertens*

and *D*. species I & II. Interestingly, *D. gracilis* and *D. fimbriata* lacked these endosymbiotic

bacteria. *Verrucomicrobia* symbionts, known to colonize the nuclei of some protists, were found

associated with two of the protists species we sampled (*D. fimbriata* & *D*. species I).

Desulfovibrio symbionts were composed of a single OTU and only found associated with

D. species II. Symbionts of this bacterial taxon were previously found embedded in the plasma

membrane of *T. agilis* in a different termite, *R. speratus* (7). Surprisingly the samples of *T. agilis*

cells that we examined from *R. flavipes* did not contain any reads from *Desulfovibrio* bacteria.

Other bacterial taxa included *Bacteriodales*, which were clustered into two OTUs

(*Bacteriodales* OTU1 and OTU2). Two of three individual *P. vertens* cells (cells D and F)

contained *Bacteriodales* OTU1 while the second OTU was found associated with all three single

cells of the *D*. species II cells used in this study. The remaining OTUs corresponded to

Sediminibacterium which was found across all the *Dinenympha* spp. and *Ruminococcaceae*

which was found associated with *D*. species I.

Distribution of symbiont oligotypes across individual protist hosts

The diversity and distribution of certain bacterial taxa were further investigated using an

oligotyping analysis which provides a higher-resolution survey of the diversity within bacterial

OTUs (30). For example, protist-associated *Treponema* symbionts were initially clustered into 8

OTUs, at the 95% identity level, were further clustered into 42 distinct oligotypes (Fig 3A). Most

Treponema oligotypes (34 out of 42) were extensively shared across different protist species

with only 8 oligotypes being exclusive to a single protist species. One *Treponema* oligotype in

particular (TO1) was found on a single *T. agilis* cell (cell B) but also on every *Dinenympha* spp.

cell used in this study. Another oligotype (TO15) was shared among all *T. agilis* cells but only

found on one *D*. species II cell (cell O). These data suggest that almost all *Treponema* are

exclusive to either Parabasilia or Oxymonadida hosts with most being shared across the different

Dinenympha spp. but only a few shared between Oxymonadida protists and *T. agilis*.

The sequence variation between these *Treponema* oligotypes varied from as a few as one

base pair (bp) difference to as many as 55 bp differences over their V4 16S rRNA gene sequence

(Fig 3A). At the sequence level, the three oligotypes which were shared between *T. agilis* and the

Dinenympha spp. (TO1, TO15, & TO16) were more similar to one another than they were to

other oligotypes which are not shared between those protist hosts. For example, TO1 was 5 bp

different from TO16 but was 55 bp different from TO10 which is an oligotype only found on *T.*

agilis cells. This indicates that sequence similarities among different *Treponema* oligotypes does

not directly correspond to their associations with a particular protist species.

The '*Ca*. Symbiothrix*'* oligotypes shared a similar population structure to that of the

Treponema symbionts. Although the sequences corresponding to these ectosymbionts clustered

into a single OTU, they were further classified into eight oligotypes (Fig 3B). These oligotypes

were between 1 and 5 bp different from one another across their V4 16S rRNA gene sequence

and were shared across different *Dinenympha* spp. hosts. Most *Dinenympha* spp. cells were co-

colonized by multiple '*Ca*. Symbiothrix' oligotypes but some individuals (cells G, H, J, and T)

were colonized by predominately one '*Ca*. Symbiothrix' oligotype.

The *Endomicrobium* sequences, which initially clustered into two OTUs, where further

classified into 8 oligotypes (Fig 3C). *T. agilis* cells were colonized by two predominate

Endomicrobium oligotypes (EO1 and EO2). Interestingly although all of the *T. agilis* cells

contained these two oligotypes, within each host cell only one oligotype was predominate (≥99%

in relative abundance). Two of the three *T. agilis* cells (cells A and B) were both predominately

colonized by EO1 while the third cell (cell C) was colonized by EO2. These two oligotypes

differed by 1 bp from one another but were between 11 to 15 bp different from the

Endomicrobium oligotypes found in *Dinenympha* spp. and *P. vertens* samples.

The *Endomicrobium* that were associated with the different Oxymonadida protists were

classified into six different oligotypes (Fig 3C). In *P. vertens* cells, there was one predominate

oligotype (EO3) which was exclusive to that protist species and was at least 99% in their relative

abundance. One *P. vertens* cell (cell F), had an additional *Endomicrobium* oligotype (EO4)

which found at low abundance (0.9%) and not in the other *P. vertens* cells (cells D and E)

however, it was found in one *Dinenympha* species I cell (cell R).

With the exception of one cell (cell Q), all *Dinenympha* spp. cells which had

Endomicrobium symbionts were also colonized by a predominate oligotype. Interestingly one

Endomicrobium oligotype (EO8) was present at various abundancies across multiple

Dinenympha spp. cells (cells O, P, Q, R, S). EO8 was the only *Endomicrobium* oligotype found

associated with cell S but it was also found associated with other *Dinenympha* species such as

cell Q, where it was at almost equal abundances with another oligotype (EO7). Thus, all

Endomicrobium oligotypes except EO4 and EO8, were restricted to a single host species.

Phylogenetic diversity of protist-associated *Treponema, Bacteriodales*, and *Endomicrobium*

The *Treponema* represent the most diverse bacterial taxa associated with the protists investigated

in this study. Collectively they comprised 8 OTUs and 42 oligotypes. Using SEM, multiple

morphologically distinct *Treponema*, which were indentified by the presence of endoflagella,

were observed to be attached to single protist cells (Fig 4B & 4C), supporting that these

ectosymbiont populations are heterogeneous in their composition, as has been seen by others (3,

4).

The diversity of these *Treponema* was further investigated by aligning representative

sequences from each OTU to full length 16S rRNA gene reference sequences and generating a

16S rRNA gene phylogeny. As seen in *R. speratus*, hindgut protists are co-colonized with

members from both termite *Treponema* clusters I & II (3) (Fig 4A). Although these two

Treponema clusters were present at equal relative abundances on each protist species, their

overall abundance differed across protist hosts (2way ANOVA p=0.009) (Fig 4D). For example,

cluster II *Treponema* were significantly higher in their relative abundance on *D. fimbriata*

compared to *T. agilis*, *D. gracilis*, and *D.* species I.

The 16S rRNA gene phylogeny of the two *Endomicrobium* OTUs obtained from this

study was also investigated. One OTU (*Endomicrobium* OTU1) was exclusive to *T. agilis*, while

the second (*Endomicrobium* OTU2) was found in both *P. vertens* and two species of

Dinenympha (Fig 1A). Each of these OTUs clustered with reference sequences derived from

hindgut protist samples from other termite species. *Endomicrobium* OTU1 clustered with

'*Candidatus* Endomicrobium trichonymphae' (9, 13) references while the second OTU clustered

with '*Candidatus* Endomicrobium pyrsonymphae' (9) reference sequences (Supplementary Fig

3). These data support that the *Endomicrobium* are vertically acquired by their host since they

clustered in accordance to their host protist species which supports previous studies (14, 15).

Horizontal transmission of ectosymbionts

The OTU clustering and oligotyping analysis of bacterial symbionts of single protist cells

suggested that some ectosymbiont types (*Treponema* and '*Ca*. Symbiothrix) associated with

multiple protist species. We hypothesized that these molecular data indicated symbiont sharing

and may come about through the horizontal transmission of ectosymbionts. An in vitro

fluorescence-based assay was developed to test this hypothesis. Protists and bacterial from the

hindgut of *R. flavipes* were stained with either TRSE (red fluorescence) or SE488 (green

fluorescence), mixed together, and the transfer or acquisition of new ectosymbionts was assayed

over time. Since protists began the experiment with ectosymbiont populations that were

homogeneous in their fluorescent label, newly acquired ectosymbionts were evident based on

fluorescent heterogeneity of ectosymbiotic bacteria. Transmission observed in this assay should

represent only half of the total transfer events since we could not distinguish newly acquired

ectosymbionts which were the same color as the majority of the cells on the host. Over time

many species of protist hosts including *T. agilis* and several species of *Dinenympha* acquired an

increasing number of horizontally transferred ectosymbionts (Fig 5), which were visibly attached

to host's plasma membrane and not entangled in flagella or other bacterial cells (Fig 5). These

data support the hypothesis that ectosymbionts of hindgut protist can be horizontally acquired.

In well characterized symbioses in which symbionts are horizontally transmitted, several

active biological processes are involved. These include changes in the gene expression of the

symbiont so that it can properly recognize and occupy its niche on or in its host (36, 37). To

determine if ectosymbiont acquisition by hindgut protists requires active processes, we tested

whether inhibiting protein synthesis would affect ectosymbiont transmission. The assay was

repeated with the addition of either tetracycline or cycloheximide and compared to a no-

treatment control. Tetracycline was chosen as the bacteriostatic agent due to previous reports that

termite-associated *Spirochaetes* and *Bacteriodetes* decreased in their relative abundance after

tetracycline treatment, suggesting that they were sensitive to that antibiotic (38). Cycloheximide

has been used to target protein synthesis across different protist taxa (39, 40) and was used in this

study in an attempt to interfere with translation in the hindgut protist of *R*. *flavipes*. Over time,

samples which were treated with tetracycline had significantly fewer protists that acquired new

ectosymbionts compared to the control (15 hours p=0.06, 20 hours p=0.02) (Fig 6A). These data

indicate that inhibiting protein synthesis in the ectosymbionts affected their ability to be

horizontally acquired by their protist hosts. Samples which were treated with cycloheximide

were not significantly different from the control.

In addition to inhibiting protein synthesis, we exposed samples consisting of both protists

and bacteria to atmospheric oxygen for several hours, which killed strictly anaerobic organisms.

We confirmed that oxygen killed both ectosymbiont and free-living bacteria by labeling with

propidium iodide (PI) which labels cells which have died (41) (Fig 6B and 6C). These PI-labeled

cells were then added to live samples to assay for the binding of dead ectosymbionts to protist

hosts. In these experiments, we did not observe the binding of dead ectosymbionts to live protist

cells (n= 4 independent experiments) (Fig 6D). We concluded from these experiments that the

horizontal transmission of ectosymbionts requires live ectosymbionts and active translation.

These data also support that the horizontal transmission observed in our assays is not due to non-

specific binding.

We noticed that during these experiments, most newly acquired ectosymbionts appeared

to bind to the anterior end of *Dinenympha* species II. To determine if this was true, or if binding

was random, newly attached ectosymbionts were counted along the length of this protist species.

The resulting data supports that newly acquired ectosymbionts bound more frequently towards

the anterior cell pole of *D*. species II (Pearson's R p=0.0005) (Fig 6E-6I) than the posterior cell

pole. This increase in frequency at one cell pole compared to the other was not observed in other

Dinenympha species (Fig 6E). Since this cell pole is lacking flagella from the host cell, is it

unlikely that this increased binding is due to entanglement. These data support that the binding of

ectosymbionts to protist hosts is not a random event, and that in *Dinenympha* species II there is a

preferred region for the acquisition of new, horizontally acquired ectosymbionts.

After observing the horizontal transmission of ectosymbionts we decided to sequence the

bacterial V4 16S rRNA gene from the free-living bacterial fraction of three hindgut samples to

see if we could detect protist-associated oligotypes in those fractions. In each of the three free-

living bacterial fractions we detected protist-associated *Treponema* oligotypes which collectively

accounted for 82.8% – 92% of the total *Treponema* reads generated from the free-living bacterial

fractions (Supplemental Fig 5A). The majority (74% - 82.8% in relative abundance) of these

reads had the same V4 oligotypes as protist-associated *Treponema* found associated with

Dinenympha spp. hosts. The remaining oligotypes were those shared between *T. agilis* and the

Dinenympha species. We did not observe any reads corresponding to the *Treponema* oligotypes

which are exclusively associated to *T. agilis* in these bacterial fractions. Reads corresponding to

'*Ca*. Symbiothrix' were also absent in these bacterial fractions.

After detecting ectosymbiont oligotypes in the free-living bacterial fractions of hindguts,

we used our fluorescence assay to determine if newly attached ectosymbionts could also transfer

to protists from the pool of free-living bacteria. In these assays, horizontal transmission was seen

from ectosymbionts from both the free-living bacterial fraction containing unattached bacterial

cells, as well as from the protist cell fractions, where bacteria were mainly attached to protist

(Supplementary Fig 5B). There was no significant difference between the percentage of protist

cells that acquired new ectosymbionts from these two cell fractions.

Discussion

In this study, we show that in the termite *R. flavipes*, the associations between hindgut protists and their symbiotic bacteria exhibit specificity in different aspects of their interactions including (i) host range, (ii) transmission, and (iii) population structures. Most bacterial OTUs and oligotypes were exclusive to either Parabasilia or Oxymonadida protists. The sharing of several *Treponema* and 'Ca. Symbiothrix' oligotypes across all *Dinenympha* protists led to the hypothesis that these ectosymbionts can be horizontally acquired. This was experimentally supported using a fluorescence-based assay, which allowed us to visualize the acquisition of new ectosymbionts by protist cells over time, and test whether acquisition required biologically active processes.

Using single protist cells as templets for high throughput amplicon sequencing allowed us to detect how symbiont populations varied between individual host cells. Despite occurring in the same hindgut, associations between protist cells and their symbionts exhibited varying levels of fidelity. For example, even though many ectosymbiont oligotypes were shared across closely related *Dinenympha* species, only a few were shared with *Trichonympha* or *Pyrsonympha*. This suggests that there must be mechanisms that result in, or ensure, specificity between these bacterial symbionts and their protist hosts.

The oligotyping analysis provided a high-resolution characterization of the population structures and transmission trends of the bacterial symbionts of hindgut protists. For example, individual *T. agilis* cells differed in which *Endomicrobium* oligotype was predominate. Since the two *T. agilis* cells (cells A and B) which share the same predominate *Endomicrobium* oligotype (EO1) were more similar to one another in their 18S rRNA gene sequence than they were to the

third cell (cell C), these differences in their symbiont populations may reflect host divergence.

Previous studies have already demonstrated the possibility that what was thought to be a single

species of *T. agilis* in *R. flavipes* is likely more than one species (42).

Overall, the population structures of these protist-associated bacteria differed from one

another with respect to the ecological niche that they occupied on or within their protist hosts.

For example, ectosymbiotic bacteria such as the *Treponema* and '*Ca*. Symbiothrix' presented

more sequence diversity compared to the intracellular *Endomicrobium* or *Verrucomicrobia*

symbionts. This may be due to different ecological factors encountered across the intracellular or

extracellular niches. For example, the extracellular environment is likely to be dynamic

compared to the cytoplasm of a protist host. Ectosymbionts may experience differences in

available nutrients and be subject to greater competition compared to endosymbionts. Supporting

this, the ectosymbiont '*Ca*. Symbiothrix dinenymphae', does not show evidence of genome

reduction and encodes many genes evolved in polysaccharide degradation, and the uptake of

various sugar monomers (8) suggesting that these ectosymbionts may need the genomic and

metabolic flexibility to utilize different carbon sources when available. Such selective pressures

may be responsible to the increased diversity seen in protist-associated ectosymbionts

populations compared to the populations of endosymbiotic bacteria.

The observation that two *Endomicrobium* oligotypes (EO4 and EO8) were found on

different protist species was surprising. Since previous reports documented the strict vertical

transmission of these endosymbionts across *Trichonympha* spp. hosts, one would expect that the

Endomicrobium oligotypes to be specific to a single protist host species. However, our

oligotyping data suggests that at least two these oligotypes were found on different protist

species. Since only one of the three *P. vertens* samples contained EO4, it is likely that this

oligotype represents contamination. One possible source of contamination could be that these

Endomicrobium cells were taken up during feeding (either directly, or indirectly along with

wood particles). The contamination could have also come from technical reasons, such as the

carry-over of bacterial cells or DNA during micromanipulation.

In lower termites, protist-associated *Treponema* are members of both termite *Treponema*

cluster I or II. The divergence of these *Treponema* clusters is not due to the phylogeny of their

termite, or protist, hosts as both clusters contain *Treponema* found associated with various

termites and protists species. Members of both clusters co-colonize individual protist hosts in *R.*

flavipes as they do in *R. speratus* and other termites (3, 4). In this work, we found that organisms

from the two *Treponema* clusters were present on individual protists at roughly equal portions,

however their relative abundance was significantly different across protist species (Fig 3C).

The associations of *Treponema* from these two clusters with protists may give an insight

into how the physiologies of organisms in the clusters might differ. It has been hypothesized that

symbiosis between hindgut protists and their ectosymbiotic *Treponema* involves syntrophic

exchange of reduced fermentation end products. This hypothesis stems from the observation that

cultivated strains of *Treponema primitia* belonging to cluster I have been shown to consume CO_2

and H_2 in reductive acetogenesis, as well as fix nitrogen (3, 43–45). If protists-associated

Treponema, from cluster I are also acetogens, then they could provide their host with a necessary

H_2 and CO_2 sink.

Less is known of the cluster II *Treponema* since there are currently no cultured members.

However, it is thought that their metabolism may be different from those in cluster I. These

Treponema may aid in the hydrolysis of cellulose or other plant-derived polysaccharides since

some of their close relatives carry out similar functions in other environments (4). This

difference in metabolism between the two *Treponema* clusters may provide the selective pressure

needed to maintain both at equal proportions on individual protist cells.

The ectosymbiont populations of hindgut protists in *R. flavipes* we studied were dynamic

as demonstrated by the fact that protists acquired new ectosymbionts over time. This horizontal

transmission of ectosymbionts required active bacterial processes because it was lowered in the

presence of tetracycline. However, it could not be determined if inhibition of bacterial translation

by tetracycline was directly involved in inhibiting the transmission. For example, tetracycline

may have inhibited translation of proteins involved in host binding, or the effect could be due to

a decrease in proteins involved in motility, other cellular processes, or an increased in bacterial

mortality. To further test that host-binding is an active process and not passive, oxygen-killed

hindgut bacteria were stained with PI and added to live samples. In these experiments, dead

bacteria were never observed to be attached to live protist hosts.

That ectosymbionts bound preferentially to the anterior cell pole of *D.* species II

suggested that there was spatial specificity to the process. This spatial specificity was not

observed on other *Dinenympha* host cells. The cause of this specificity is not known, but may be

the result of new cell membrane, or binding structures for ectosymbionts, being added to the host

at the anterior pole. Since these protist cells are morphologically polarized, it could also be that

there are some protist functions or signals that are specific to that cell pole that allowed

ectosymbionts to bind more readily than the other cell pole.

Protists from *R. flavipes*, and other lower termites cannot yet be cultured and this results

in some limitations in the ectosymbiont acquisition assays. After 20 hours, most protist cells

have died and lysed during the in-vitro experiments. This limited the time over which the assay

could be conducted. Because of this, we could not determine if ectosymbionts could also be

vertically transmitted during protist cell division. For vertical transmission, ectosymbionts would

have to remain attached to a dividing host cell such that the daughter cells directly inherit the

ectosymbionts of the parent cell. We have not yet witnessed actively dividing hindgut protists

but there is no evidence to suggest that they would have to shed their ectosymbionts prior to, or

during, cell division. We also could not discern if the acquisition of ectosymbionts required

active protein synthesis by the protist hosts. We found that cycloheximide did not significantly

affect ectosymbiont acquisition. However, it may still be the case that protein synthesis by the

protist host is required for acquisition. For example, it could be that the rate of protein turnover

in these protists is slow and that 20 hours was not enough time to detect an effect. It is also

possible that protists are not sensitive enough to cycloheximide for it to completely inhibit

protein synthesis.

The fact that at least some of these ectosymbionts can be horizontally transmitted raised

the question as to whether these bacteria were obligately associated with their protist host. In

order to be horizontally transmitted the bacterium must be free-living (unattached) at some point.

Since *Treponema* compose the majority of bacteria in the hindgut of *R. flavipes* (25, 46) and are

frequently observed unattached in the luminal contents, specific facultative associations between

protists and free-living *Treponema* which can become ectosymbionts could not be ruled out.

The observations that we could (i) detect protist-associated *Treponema* oligotypes in

samples enriched in free-living bacteria and (ii) detect horizontal transmission of new

ectosymbiont from the free-living bacterial cell fractions, supports that these ectosymbionts may

live both in the free-living state and as protist-bound ectosymbionts. Since not all the protist-

associated ectosymbiont oligotypes were detected in the free-living bacterial fractions we cannot

rule out the possibility that some ectosymbionts are obligate symbionts and perhaps, vertically

acquired. We could not detect any reads belonging to '*Ca*. Symbiothrix' in the free-living

bacterial fractions of individual termites, thus they may represent ectosymbionts which are

obligate or vertically acquired. Using fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) with oligotype

specific probes may help to resolve which symbionts are horizontal transmitted. However,

because as many as 25 ectosymbiont oligotypes associated with a single protist cell (as is the

case with *D*. species II), designing and testing that many FISH probes would be impractical.

The assay to detect horizontal transmission of ectosymbionts was useful for revealing

new information about the interactions between prokaryotes and protists in the termite hindgut

community. The possibility of horizontal transmission of ectosymbionts between protists or

between the pool of free-living bacteria and protists may explain how these ectosymbiont

populations maintain their heterogeneous colonization of protists. Also, it may provide

information as to how some ectosymbiont types associate with high specificity; these may not

participate in horizontal transfer and may, instead, be acquired vertically.

Of course, specificity can occur even if bacteria can be horizontally acquired.

Specificity during transfer must result from mechanisms that encourage the binding of some

symbionts and/or discourage the binding of others, perhaps through specific attachment factors

made the host, the symbiont or by both.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure legends

FIG 1 Phylogenetic and morphological diversity of hindgut protist species from *R. flavipes*. (**A**)

Phylogenetic tree of 18S rRNA genes from single protists cells. Four 18S rRNA genes from

single protist clustered to known references sequences (*D. fimbriata*, *D. gracilis*, *P. vertens*, and

T. agilis). Other previously undescribed protists, *D*. species I and *D*. species II, clustered within

the genus *Dinenympha*. Taxa in blue represents sequences obtained by this study. Sequences

from cells which are designated by a letter represent individuals in which the 18s rRNA gene

was co-amplified with the bacterial V4 16S rRNA gene. Tip labels include the protist name,

accession number, and host termite species. Scanning electron micrographs of representative

individuals of each protist species ((B) *T. agilis*, (C) *P. vertens*, (D) *D*. species I, (E) *D. gracilis*,

(F) *D. fimbriata*, and (G) *D*. species II). Scale bars represent 50μm (C), 30μm (D), and 10μm (E

– G).

FIG 2 Diversity and distribution of protist-associated bacterial OTUs. Average number of

unique and shared OTUs across different protist species and the relative abundance of each

OTU. OTUs represent sequence clustering at the 95% identity level. Bar charts represent the

average number of unique or shared OTUs across the different protist species with error bars

representing the standard error of the mean. For example, *T. agilis* shares one OTU with other

protist species. Statistical significance across protist species determined by 2-way ANOVA and

within a given protist species using T-test (*** p=0.001, **p=0.02, * p≤0.05). Heat map

represents the relative abundance of each OTU in a single protist sample. The relative abundance

of each OTU was significantly different between *Trichonympha*, *Dinenympha*, and *Pyrsonympha*

hosts (G-test, Bonferroni p≤0.05).

FIG 3 Oligotypes of bacterial symbionts of hindgut protists. Heat maps (Red and Yellow)

represent the relative abundance of each oligotype as a percent of the total reads for that bacterial

taxon for each protist cell. Heat maps (Red and Blue) depict the number of base pair differences

between each oligotype per bacterial taxon. Oligotypes in which the pairwise number of

differences are represented as blue cells are more similar to one another while red cells depict

more dissimilar pairwise comparisons. (A) *Treponema*, (B) '*Ca*. Symbiothrix', (C)

Endomicrobium, (D) *Verrucomicrobia*, and (E) *Desulfovibrio* oligotypes across individual protist

cell samples.

FIG 4. Phylogenetic and morphological diversity of protist-associated *Treponema*. (A)

Maximum likelihood tree showing that representative sequences from each *Treponema* OTU

clustered within either Termite *Treponema* cluster I or cluster II. (B and C) The morphological

diversity of *Treponema* on single protist hosts can be seen using SEM, supporting their

heterogeneous population structure (*D*. species I shown). (D) The relative abundance of the

different *Treponema* clusters was not different from one another on a single host species

however, there was significant difference across different protist species (2way ANOVA, ***

p=0.001). Letters represent significant differences between protist species (T-test, p<0.05). Taxa

in blue represent sequences obtained by this study, for example any bars labeled with "a" are

significantly different from each other.

FIG 5 Horizontal transmission of ectosymbionts across different protist species. DIC and

fluorescence micrographs of hindgut protist and their ectosymbionts stained with either TRSE

(shown red) or SE-488 (shown green) at Time=12 hours of fluorescent assay. Overtime several

different protist species including (A-D) *D. fimbriata*, (E - H) *D.* species II, and (I – L) *T. agilis*

acquired new ectosymbionts. Micrographs are arranged from left to right as DIC, SE488, TRSE,

and merged (SE488 and TRSE) for each protist. Fluorescence micrographs J – L are maximum

intensity Z-projections. Arrows point to horizontally acquired ectosymbionts and scale bars

represent 10μm.

FIG 6 Horizontal transmission of ectosymbionts involves active processes and is non-random.

(A) Transmission is dependent on time as the percentage of protists which acquired new

ectosymbionts significantly increased over time (2way ANOVA, ***p=0.001). (**A**) The addition

of tetracycline significantly lowered the percentage of protists at acquired new ectosymbionts (T-

test, p=0.06 at Time=15 hours, and **p=0.02 at T=20 hours) while the addition of cycloheximide

had no significant effect. (B - D) Micrographs of PI stained cells. Exposing hindgut contents to

O_2 killed hindgut bacteria (B and C) which did not bind to live protist cells (D) (arrows point to

O_2 killed bacteria). (E) Significantly more ectosymbionts (Pearson's R, p=0.0005) bound towards

the anterior cell pole compared to the posterior cell pole on *D*. species II however, this binding

characteristic was not seen in other *Dinenympha* species. (F - I) Fluorescence and DIC

micrograph of *D*. species II stained with amine reactive dyes (G TRSE, H SE488), showing

increased binding of new ectosymbionts (arrows) toward the anterior cell pole. Scale bars

represent 10μm.