A dual endosymbiosis drives nutritional adaptation to hematophagy in the invasive tick *Hyalomma marginatum*

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Abstract

Many animals are dependent on microbial partners that provide essential nutrients lacking from their diet. Ticks, whose diet consists exclusively on vertebrate blood, rely on maternally inherited bacterial symbionts to supply B vitamins. While previously studied tick species consistently harbor a single lineage of those nutritional symbionts, we evidence here that the invasive tick *Hyalomma marginatum* harbors a unique dual-partner nutritional system between an ancestral symbiont, *Francisella*, and a more recently acquired symbiont, *Midichloria*. Using metagenomics, we show that *Francisella* exhibits extensive genome erosion that endangers the nutritional symbiotic interactions: Its genome includes folate and riboflavin biosynthesis pathways but deprived functional biotin biosynthesis on account of massive pseudogenization. Co-symbiosis compensates this deficiency since the *Midichloria* genome encompasses an intact biotin operon, which was primarily acquired via lateral gene transfer from unrelated intracellular bacteria commonly infecting arthropods. Thus, in *H. marginatum*, a mosaic of co-evolved symbionts incorporating gene combinations of distant phylogenetic origins emerged to prevent the collapse of an ancestral nutritional symbiosis. Such dual endosymbiosis was never reported in other blood feeders but was recently documented in agricultural pests feeding on plant sap, suggesting that it may be a key mechanism for advanced adaptation of arthropods to specialized diets.

Keywords

Endosymbiosis, hematophagy, *Francisella*, *Midichloria*, *Hyalomma*

Introduction

Ticks evolved to hematophagy through the acquisition of key genomic adaptations (Gulia-Nuss et al., 2016; Jia et al., 2020) and the evolution of mutualistic interactions with microbial symbionts (Buysse and Duron, 2021; Duron and Gottlieb, 2020). Ticks rely on vertebrate blood as their sole food source throughout their development, although it is nutritionally unbalanced: Blood contains high levels of proteins, iron, and salts, but low levels of carbohydrates, lipids, and vitamins. To overcome these dietary challenges, tick genomes present large repertoires of genes related to vitamin and lipid shortages, iron management, and osmotic homeostasis (Gulia-Nuss et al., 2016; Jia et al., 2020). Yet, tick genomes do not contain genes for synthesis of some essential vitamins, thus vitamin-provisioning pathways have indirectly arisen from symbiotic associations with transovarially transmitted intracellular bacteria (Ben-Yosef et al., 2020; Duron et al., 2018; Duron and Gottlieb, 2020; Gerhart et al., 2016; Gottlieb et al., 2015; Guizzo et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2015). This partnership allowed the long-term acquisition of heritable biochemical functions by ticks and favored their radiation into the nearly 900 tick species that currently exist (Duron and Gottlieb, 2020). This co-evolutionary process is reflected by microbial communities dominated by tick nutritional symbionts (Bonnet and Pollet, 2020; Narasimhan and Fikrig, 2015).

Most tick species typically harbor a single lineage of nutritional symbiont, but multiple symbiont lineages exist in different tick species (Duron and Gottlieb, 2020). The most common lineages belong to the *Coxiella*-like endosymbiont group and to the *Francisella*-like endosymbiont group (CLE and FLE, hereafter) (Azagi et al., 2017; Binetruy et al., 2020; Duron et al., 2017; Machado-Ferreira et al., 2016), but a few tick species may rely on other symbionts (Duron et al., 2017), such as the intramitochondrial bacterium *Midichloria* (Sassera et al., 2006). Once deprived of their nutritional symbionts, ticks show a complete stop of

growth and moulting, as well as lethal physical abnormalities (Ben-Yosef et al., 2020; Duron et al., 2018; Guizzo et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2007), which can be fully restored with an artificial supplement of B vitamins (Duron et al., 2018). Genomes of CLE and FLE consistently contain complete biosynthesis pathways of the same three B vitamins: biotin (vitamin B₇), riboflavin (B₂), and folate (B₉) (Duron et al., 2018; Gerhart et al., 2018, 2016; Gottlieb et al., 2015; Guizzo et al., 2017; Nardi et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2015). These three pathways form a set of core symbiotic genes essential for ticks (Duron and Gottlieb, 2020) while other functions are disposable: As such, the genomes of CLE, FLE and *Midichloria* underwent massive reduction as observed in other nutritional endosymbionts of arthropods with a specialized diet (Duron et al., 2018; Gerhart et al., 2018, 2016; Gottlieb et al., 2015; Nardi et al., 2021; Sassera et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2015). This reduction process is primarily initiated as a consequence of relaxed selection on multiple genes which are not essential within the host stable and nutrient-rich cellular environment (Bennett and Moran, 2015; McCutcheon et al., 2019). Over time, genes encoding for functions such as motility, regulation, secondary-metabolite biosynthesis, and defense are pseudogenized and then definitively jettisoned (Bennett and Moran, 2015; McCutcheon et al., 2019).

Coevolution of hosts and their nutritional symbionts over millions of years is expected to result in stable co-cladogenesis (Bennett and Moran, 2015). However, in sap-feeding insects where symbionts compensate for nutritional deficiencies of the sap diet, cases of unstable interactions have been observed (Bennett and Moran, 2015; McCutcheon et al., 2019). Indeed, as the symbiont genome decays, repair mechanisms can be lost, leading to faster pseudogenization, which can affect genes in all functional categories including those involved in nutritional supplementation (Bennett and Moran, 2015; McCutcheon et al., 2019). This may ultimately lead to overly reduced and maladapted genomes, limiting beneficial

contributions to hosts and opening the road to wholesale replacement by new symbiont(s) (Bennett and Moran, 2015; McCutcheon et al., 2019; Sudakaran et al., 2017). This degeneration–replacement model has been proposed in sap-feeding insects (Campbell et al., 2015; Łukasik et al., 2017; Manzano-Marín et al., 2020; Matsuura et al., 2018), but is difficult to document as such replacements are expected to be transient (McCutcheon et al., 2019). In parallel, other forms of multi-partite interactions have been reported, where a novel bacterium with similar function to a pre-existing symbiont enters a bipartite system (Husnik and Mccutcheon, 2016; Santos-Garcia et al., 2018; Takeshita et al., 2019). This can lead to relaxation of conservative selection pressure on the original symbionts, which can lose genes that were previously fundamental, ultimately leading to a tripartite stable symbiosis (Husnik and Mccutcheon, 2016; Takeshita et al., 2019).

In this study we document a complex nutritional endosymbiosis in the invasive bont-legged tick *Hyalomma marginatum* characterized by a maladapted ancestral symbiont genome compensated by gene functions of a more recently acquired symbiont. This large tick species usually feeds on humans and a diversity of mammals and birds in the Mediterranean climatic zone but has recently expanded its range to the north, invading Western Europe (Vial et al., 2016). *Hyalomma marginatum* can transmits Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever virus, an emerging disease affecting humans in the northern Mediterranean Basin, as well as protozoan parasites and intracellular bacterial pathogens such as *Rickettsia aeschlimannii* (Vial et al., 2016). Previous studies detected the presence of diverse highly prevalent bacterial symbionts across *H. marginatum* populations (Di Lecce et al., 2018), but their contribution to tick nutrition was not studied. Here we sequenced three microbial metagenomes of *H. marginatum* in three distinct locations, and determined the nutritional interactions in this unique symbiosis system.

Results

Microbial metagenomes

We sequenced three microbial metagenomes from *H. marginatum* specimens collected in Spain (i.e., the Hmar-ES metagenome), Italy (Hmar-IT), and Israel (Hmar-IL). We obtained 57,592,510 paired-end reads from the Hmar-ES metagenome, 68,515,944 paired-end reads from Hmar-IT, and 10,807,740 paired-end reads from Hmar-IL. We assembled one complete FLE genome from each metagenome (FLE-Hmar-ES, FLE-Hmar-IT, and FLE-Hmar-IL; also designated as FLE-Hmar genomes). In parallel, we assembled one complete genome from each metagenome for the bacterium *Midichloria*, and thus obtained three additional complete genomes (Midi-Hmar-ES, Midi-Hmar-IT, and Midi-Hmar-IL; also designated as Midi-Hmar genomes). In addition, we detected a third bacterium, the tick-borne pathogen *Rickettsia aeschlimannii*, in the Hmar-IT and Hmar-IL, but not Hmar-ES, metagenomes, and further assembled one complete (RAES-Hmar-IT) and one partial (RAES-Hmar-IL) genome (Figure 1).

The assemblies of the three FLE draft genomes (13 contigs for FLE Hmar-IT, 17 for FLE Hmar-ES, and 25 FLE Hmar-IL) were very similar in size (1.51 to 1.536 Mb), average G+C content (31.11 to 31.23%), number of predicted protein-coding genes (937 to 961), and protein-coding sequences with inactivating mutations (pseudogenes, 789 to 798), but no signal of mobile elements (Supplementary Table S1). Phylogenomic analysis based on 436 single-copy orthologous *Francisella* genes showed that FLE-Hmar-ES, FLE-Hmar-IT, and FLE-Hmar-IL cluster together in a robust clade within other FLE of ticks (Figure 2A). The closest relative of this clade is the FLE of another *Hyalomma* species, *Hyalomma asiaticum* from China, while FLEs of other tick genera (*Ornithodoros*, *Argas*, and *Amblyomma*) are

more distantly related. The FLE clade is embedded in the *Francisella* genus and shares a common origin with pathogenic species, including the tularemia agent, *F. tularensis*, and an opportunistic human pathogen, *F. opportunistica* (Figure 2A). The FLE-Hmar genomes are similar in organization and content overall, apart from a 127,168 bp inversion in FLE-Hmar-ES and a 4,165 bp inversion in FLE-Hmar-IL (Figure 2B). Compared to other FLE genomes (i.e. FLEOm and FLEAm), they are slightly reduced in size and exhibit substantial rearrangements (Figure 2B, Tables S1 and S2). Based on gene orthologs, the core-genome of these FLE shares 743 genes, while the core genome of the FLE of *H. marginatum* contains 796 genes because the FLE-Hmar genomes share 53 genes that are not present in other FLE genomes (Figure 2C). Interestingly, pseudogenes are highly abundant in the three genomes of FLE of *H. marginatum*, compared with other FLE genomes (Figure 2D), and most functional categories are impacted by this advanced pseudogenization process. Most of the genes associated with virulence in pathogenic *Francisella* species, including the *Francisella* Pathogenicity Island (FPI) and secretion system, are pseudogenized or completely missing in FLE-Hmar genomes, consistent with previous observations in other FLEs (Figure S1). Furthermore, FLE-Hmar genomes contain fewer genes involved in replication, recombination, and repair than any other FLEs analyzed (Figure 2C). The nucleotide excision repair system (*uvrABCD*) in FLE-Hmar genomes is conserved, however the DNA mismatch repair system (*mutSL*) is fully pseudogenized. In other FLEs, these systems are conserved, with the exception of the *mutSL* system in the FLE of *Ornithodoros moubata* and *H. asiaticum* genomes (Figure S2).

The *Midichloria* genomes, Midi-Hmar-ES, Midi-Hmar-IT, and Midi-Hmar-IL, were assembled in 179, 359 and 123 contigs respectively, and their genomes reach 1.13 to 1.16 Mb, with consistent G+C content (35.03-35.23%), number of predicted protein-coding genes

(1,032 to 1,071), pseudogenes (190 to 192), and no signal of mobile elements (Table S1). Remarkably, their average coding density (76%) is higher than those of FLEs of *H. marginatum* (54%), and furthermore, those of other FLE representatives (range from 57 to 69%). Phylogenomic analysis based on 242 single-copy orthologous *Rickettsiales* genes shows that Midi-Hmar-ES, Midi-Hmar-IT, and Midi-Hmar-IL cluster in a highly supported monophyletic sister group of the single other sequenced *Midichloria* genome, *Candidatus M. mitochondrii* strain IricVA (*M. mitochondrii* hereafter), the intra-mitochondrial endosymbiont of the European sheep tick, *Ixodes ricinus*. Altogether, they delineate a monophyletic clade within the *Midichloriaceae* family (Figure 3A). The high number of Midi-Hmar contigs precluded comparison of their genome structures. However, gene contents of the Midi-Hmar genomes are highly similar, differing substantially from *M. mitochondrii* (Tables S1 and S2). Based on gene orthologs, the pan-genome of *Midichloria* shared 745 genes, and Midi-Hmar genomes shared 181 genes that are not present in *M. mitochondrii* (Figure 3B). Pseudogenization only impacted a few functional categories (e.g., genes of chromatin structure and dynamics [category B] and genes of the mobilome [prophages and transposons, category X]), across Midi-Hmar genomes (Figure 3C). By contrast to FLE genomes, the DNA mismatch repair system (*mutSL*) and the nucleotide excision repair (*uvrABCD*) are not pseudogenized in Midi-Hmar genomes and are thus potentially functional (Figure S2).

In two metagenomes, we also detected contigs belonging to *R. aeschlimannii*. We recovered one complete chromosome (1.35 Mb for 165 contigs, with 1,122 genes, 475 pseudogenes and 32.32% G+C content) for RAES-Hmar-IT (Table S1), whereas for RAES-Hmar-IL only a partial genome (0.215 Mb) was obtained. No *Rickettsia* reads were detected in the Hmar-ES metagenome. This may be due to the absence of the bacterium in the Hmar-ES microbiome, or, possibly, to experimental artefact: This metagenome was obtained by sequencing DNA

extracted from the dissected ovaries of 10 females, whereas the Hmar-IT metagenome was sequenced from DNA extracted from a whole female, suggesting that *Rickettsia* may be absent or at low density in tick ovaries. This pattern of tissue localization may be corroborated by the Hmar-IL metagenome, sequenced from a pool of dissected ovaries of 10 ticks, but for which we obtained only a few *Rickettsia* reads. This reflects either the absence of *Rickettsia* in the dissected ticks, or a lower abundance of *Rickettsia* in ovaries. Phylogenetic analysis based on 324 single-copy orthologous genes present in *Rickettsia* genomes showed that RAES-Hmar-IT clusters with the tick-associated human pathogen *R. aeschlimannii* (including the strain MC16 previously isolated from *H. marginatum*) and altogether delineate a robust clade with the Spotted Fever *Rickettsia* group (Figure S3). Overall, the low abundance of *Rickettsia* in the Hmar-IL metagenome (8x average genome coverage), its absence in the Hmar-ES metagenome, as well as the genetic proximity with *R. aeschlimannii*, are all indicative of a tick-borne pathogen, rather than a nutritional endosymbiont. The RAES-Hmar-IT and RAES-Hmar-IL assemblies were thus not used for further analyses.

Complementation in nutritional endosymbiosis

While all previously sequenced FLE genomes contain complete pathways for biotin, riboflavin, and folate, the FLE-Hmar genomes only retain intact pathways for riboflavin and folate (Figure 4A). The biosynthesis pathway for biotin is non-functional, as from six genes of the complete pathway, one is missing and four are pseudogenized (frameshifted) in the FLE-Hmar genomes (Figure 4A). Partial biosynthesis pathways of four other B vitamins (pantothenic acid: B₅; nicotinic acid: B₃; pyridoxine: B₆; and thiamine: B₁), each containing one to four pseudo/missing genes, are also present in the FLE-Hmar genomes; a pattern consistent with other FLE genomes (Figure S4).

The B-vitamin pathways in Midi-Hmar genomes are similar to those of *M. mitochondrii*. A complete pathway of biotin was consistently recovered in *Midichloria* genomes (Figure 4A). However, only partial pathways were detected for folate, riboflavin, and pantothenic acid with one, three, and four missing genes, respectively (Figures 4A and S4).

Ticks differ from other eukaryotes in that they lack most of the genes encoding proteins required to produce and degrade heme (Gulia-Nuss et al., 2016; Jia et al., 2020). We thus searched for relevant pathways in the symbiont genomes and found that the FLE-Hmar and Midi-Hmar genomes contain genes involved in heme and iron homeostasis. The heme biosynthetic pathway was consistently detected, as well as a gene encoding heme oxygenase that catalyzes the degradation of heme and the subsequent release of iron (Figure 4B). In these genomes we detected similar genetic patterns as those observed in the other FLE and *Midichloria* genomes. However, the heme pathway is partially degraded in FLE-Hmar genomes since their *hemN* gene is pseudogenized, a pattern not observed in other FLE genomes, suggesting an early stage of degradation for the heme pathway. This gene is present and not pseudogenized in the Midi-Hmar genomes (Figure 4B), suggesting these symbionts may compensate for the FLE heme pathway. In addition, three other genes, *hemL*, *hemY*, and *hemG* were not found in *Midichloria* genomes, but were present in FLE genomes (Figure 4B). As a result, a combination of FLE and *Midichloria* genes may be required to obtain a complete heme pathway.

Phylogenetic origins of B vitamin biosynthetic pathways

Our analysis shows that the B vitamin biosynthesis genes in the FLE-Hmar genomes have all been vertically inherited from a *Francisella* ancestor as their B vitamin genes are always more closely related to *Francisella* orthologous genes than to genes of more distantly related

bacteria (examples are shown in Figures S5A-B). Similarly, folate and riboflavin biosynthesis genes in the Midi-Hmar genomes are of *Midichloria* origin as these genes are more closely related to orthologous genes present in *M. mitochondrii* and other members of the *Midichloriaceae* family than to genes of other bacteria (Figures S5A-B).

By contrast, the six biotin genes present in the Midi-Hmar genomes did not originate from the *Midichloriaceae* family, but from an exogenous origin. The biotin synthesis genes *bioD*, *bioC*, *bioH*, *bioF*, and *bioB* formed a compact operon in the Midi-Hmar genomes while the *bioA* gene is more distantly located along the bacterial chromosome (Figure 5). A similar operon structure is also present on the *M. mitochondrii* genome. In contrast, an arrangement in which the *bioA* is gene physically associated with the remainder of the biosynthetic operon was identified on the genomes of multiple intracellular bacteria that are all distantly related to *Midichloria*, including the *Cardinium* endosymbionts (Bacteroidetes: Flexibacteraceae) of parasitoid wasps and leaf-hoppers; the *Wolbachia* endosymbionts (Alphaproteobacteria: Anaplasmataceae) of bed bugs, bees, planthoppers, and fleas; the *Legionella* endosymbiont (Gammaproteobacteria: Legionellaceae) of the rodent lice; *Rickettsia buchneri* (Alphaproteobacteria: Rickettsiaceae) symbiont of the blacklegged tick *Ixodes scapularis*; and diverse intracellular pathogens of vertebrates, such as *Lawsonia* (Deltaproteobacteria: Desulfobacteriaceae) and *Neorickettsia* (Alphaproteobacteria: Anaplasmataceae) (Figure 5 and Table S3). In most cases, the biotin genes form a compact and streamlined operon of 5-7 kb without major structural variation among bacteria. Phylogenetic analyses of the six biotin synthesis genes consistently exhibited similar evolutionary patterns (Figure 5). These patterns suggest that the biotin synthesis genes were acquired as a whole operon by an ancestor of *Midichloria* from an unrelated intracellular bacterium. In some cases, this streamlined biotin operon is also associated with nutritional symbionts of obligate blood feeders, such as

Wolbachia of bedbugs, *Legionella* of rodent lice, and *R. buchneri* in the blacklegged tick, *I. scapularis* (Figure 5).

Co-infections of nutritional endosymbionts in tick ovaries

Real-time qPCR assays on 10 field *H. marginatum* adult females indicated that FLE and *Midichloria* are both abundant in tick ovaries, with FLE and *Midichloria* detected in 10 and 9 ovarian samples, respectively. High densities were always observed for FLE (686.09 ± 206.89 FLE *rpoB* gene copies per tick *cal* gene copies) and for *Midichloria* (88.72 ± 28.41 *Midichloria gyrB* gene copies per tick *cal* gene copies) (Figure 6A). FLE were consistently most abundant with densities 5.8 to $21.4 \times$ higher than *Midichloria* densities (paired t test, $p = 0.013$; one outlier was removed from analysis, $n = 8$). The FLE and *Midichloria* densities covaried positively in individual ticks ($\chi^2 = 23.937$, $p = 0.003$; Figure 6B).

Evolutionary history of endosymbiosis in the *Hyalomma* genus

We further examined the evolutionary history of *Hyalomma* species and their associations with FLE and *Midichloria* through a bibliographic survey. Of 10 *Hyalomma* species with sufficient published data, all were found infected by FLE, and 9 by *Midichloria* (Table S4). We next reconstructed *Hyalomma* phylogeny using mitochondrial DNA sequences of the cytochrome c oxidase I (*cox1*) gene available on Genbank (Figure S6). Mapping of FLE and *Midichloria* onto the *Hyalomma* phylogenetic tree showed that co-infection by FLE and *Midichloria* is widespread across all *Hyalomma* lineages (Figure S7). However, FLE and *Midichloria* co-infection was not detected in one species, *H. asiaticum*, nested within the *Hyalomma* phylogeny among co-infected species.

Discussion

In this study, we show that the tick *H. marginatum* is a complex symbiotic system, combining genes of diverse phylogenetic origins to generate nutritional adaptations to obligate hematophagy. This tick harbors a microbiome functionally analogous to those observed in other tick species, dominated by intracellular bacterial symbionts producing the core set of B vitamins (biotin, riboflavin, and folate) essential for tick growth and survival. However, while in other tick species, as in other obligate blood feeders, production of all three core B vitamins is performed by a single nutritional symbiont (Binetruy et al., 2020; Duron et al., 2017; Duron and Gottlieb, 2020), *H. marginatum* harbors two bacterial partners whose core B vitamins biosynthetic capacities depend on a combination of genes, with indigenous and exogenous phylogenetic origins. This multi-partner nutritional symbiosis is stably maintained at least at the tick species level, as supported by our founding of genetically similar FLE and *Midichloria* present in *H. marginatum* populations from geographically distant regions.

Genome reconstructions confirmed the key role of symbionts in *H. marginatum* nutrition, but contrary to other tick species, no single symbiont does compensate for all nutritional needs. The FLE-Hmar genomes contain the genes to synthesize folate and riboflavin but its biotin synthesis pathway is degraded, and thus non-functional. Genome reduction is a conserved trait in all FLEs, but this process has extended in the FLE of *H. marginatum*, with an additional loss of genes in most COG functional categories. This process could have been triggered by the pseudogenization of the mismatch repair system (*mutSL*), leaving the FLE of *H. marginatum* with only one DNA repair system, nucleotide excision repair (*uvrABCD*). Absence of the *mutSL* system, coupled with strict clonality and a small population size during transovarial transmission, have probably led the FLE- Hmar genomes to accumulate deleterious mutations, that resulted in maladaptation, and ultimately limited their beneficial contributions to ticks.

In the context of FLE genome degradation, co-infection with *Midichloria* prevents the breakdown and collapse of nutritional symbiosis in *H. marginatum*; i.e., the *Midichloria* genome contains an intact biotin biosynthesis operon, and thus compensates for genome decay of FLE. Inversely, *Midichloria* has only partial pathways for riboflavin and folate and hence cannot meet the nutritional needs of *H. marginatum* for these B vitamins. Consequently, the co-infection of FLE with *Midichloria* forms a cooperative system essential for the nutritional symbiosis in *H. marginatum*. In addition, complementary heme synthesis genes are present in the FLE and *Midichloria* genomes, and these symbionts may be an additional source of heme, perhaps conferring a fitness advantage to *H. marginatum* during periods of starvation. In animals, heme is essential for the function of all aerobic cells, playing an important role in controlling protein synthesis and cell differentiation. Complete biosynthetic heme gene pathways exist in most animals, but not in ticks which need an exogenous source of heme (Gulia-Nuss et al., 2016; Jia et al., 2020). Vertebrate blood is usually considered to be their unique source for this essential cofactor (Perner et al., 2016), however ticks spend most of their life off host, and thus the presence of heme genes in FLE and *Midichloria* genomes may also indicate symbiont provisioning of heme in *H. marginatum*.

The co-localization of FLE and *Midichloria* in tick ovaries suggests that vertical transmission has led to their stable co-inheritance through tick generations, linking their evolutionary fate, as observed in other symbiotic systems of arthropods (McCutcheon et al., 2019; Vautrin and Vavre, 2009). This co-transmission fidelity creates the conditions under which cooperative interactions can emerge: The stable coexistence of FLE and *Midichloria* genomes makes various genes redundant, as we observed for B vitamin and heme synthesis pathways.

Furthermore, the covariance of FLE and *Midichloria* densities in ticks is positive, suggesting that these two symbionts are not in direct competition but rather cooperative. However, while the nutritional association of FLE with *Hyalomma* species has persisted for millions of years (Azagi et al., 2017), the nutritional role of *Midichloria* seems more recent in this tick genus. Co-infection with *Midichloria* was reported in at least nine *Hyalomma* species (cf. Table S4), but in most species, such as *H. excavatum* and *H. impeltatum* (Azagi et al., 2017; Selmi et al., 2019), *Midichloria* is present at much lower frequencies than would be expected for an obligate nutritional mutualist, suggesting that it is instead a facultative (i.e., not essential) association. Interestingly, the *Hyalomma* species apparently devoid of *Midichloria*, *H. asiaticum*, harbors a FLE with intact biotin, folate, and riboflavin synthesis pathways (Buysse and Duron, 2021). In *H. marginatum*, the decay of the FLE genome may have been accelerated by the presence of *Midichloria* and the redundancy of biotin biosynthesis, a process also reported in sap-feeding insects (Husnik and Mccutcheon, 2016; Manzano-Marín et al., 2020). While it is clear that two events have led to the current status (loss of biotin genes and acquisition of *Midichloria*), the order by which these happened is unclear. *Midichloria* could have rescued a decaying symbiosis, or could have led, with its entrance in the system, to relaxation of selective constraints on FLE. Based on the common presence of *Midichloria* at lower frequencies in other *Hyalomma* species, a scenario of gradual parallel occurrence of these two events cannot be ruled out.

Our analyses also indicated that the biotin operon detected in the *Midichloria* of *H. marginatum* has an exogenous origin, being acquired following an ancient lateral gene transfer pre-dating the divergence between the *Midichloria* of *H. marginatum* and the one of *I. ricinus*. Accumulating genomic sequences indicate that this streamlined biotin operon (denoted in some studies as the Biotin synthesis Operon of Obligate intracellular Microbes –

BOOM (Driscoll et al., 2020)) has experienced transfers between distantly related endosymbionts inhabiting arthropod cells including *Wolbachia* (Driscoll et al., 2020; Gerth and Bleidorn, 2016; Ju et al., 2020; Nikoh et al., 2014), *Rickettsia* (Gillespie et al., 2012), *Cardinium* (Penz et al., 2012) and *Legionella* (Říhová et al., 2017). Remarkably, the invasive nature of this streamlined biotin operon has contributed not only to the emergence of novel nutritional symbioses in *H. marginatum* with *Midichloria*, but also in other blood feeders, such as bedbugs with *Wolbachia* (Nikoh et al., 2014) and rodent lice with *Legionella* (Říhová et al., 2017), or in sap feeders as white flies with *Cardinium* (Santos-Garcia et al., 2014) and planthoppers with *Wolbachia* (Ju et al., 2020). Until recently, lateral gene transfer was thought to be rare in intracellular symbionts, as they reside in confined and isolated environments. However, coinfections of unrelated endosymbionts within the same host cell have created freely recombining intracellular bacterial communities, a unique environment previously defined as the ‘intracellular arena’ (Kent and Bordenstein, 2010). The detection of the streamlined biotin operon in *Wolbachia*, *Rickettsia*, and *Cardinium* – three of the most common intracellular symbionts of arthropods (Duron et al., 2008) – corroborates the role of such ‘intracellular arenas’ in the evolutionary dynamics of nutritional symbioses, especially as the biotin operon can be found on plasmids (Gillespie et al., 2012).

The macroevolutionary and ecological consequences of acquiring nutritional symbionts are immense, ticks would simply not exist as strict blood feeders without such mutualistic interactions (Duron and Gottlieb, 2020). Our investigations corroborate that nutritional symbionts of ticks have all converged towards an analogous process of B vitamin provisioning. While past investigations showed that this evolutionary convergence consists in severe degeneration of symbiont genomes accompanied by preservation of biotin, folate, and riboflavin biosynthesis pathways (Buysse and Duron, 2021; Duron and Gottlieb, 2020),

nutritional endosymbiosis in *H. marginatum* is influenced by a more complex web of interactions resulting in a dynamic mosaic of symbiont combinations and offering novel evolutionary possibilities.

Materials and Methods

Tick collection, DNA extraction and molecular screening

Adult females of *H. marginatum* were collected from domestic animals from three geographical regions (Italy, Spain, and Israel) (Figure 1). Whole body of one female from Italy was processed for metagenome sequencing, while ovaries from females collected in Spain (n=10) and Israel (n=10) were used for metagenome sequencing (and for qPCR in the case of samples from Spain). For each sample, total DNA was extracted using either the DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (QIAGEN) or the NucleoSpin Plant II kit (Macherey-Nagel).

A molecular screening was performed by qPCR (iQ5 system, Bio-Rad) on Spanish samples to evaluate the bacterial load of FLE and *Midichloria* symbionts in ovaries. For each specimen, three SYBR Green-based qPCR (Bio-Rad) assays were performed: (i) A specific amplification for the *H. marginatum cal* gene, (ii) a specific amplification for the FLE *rpoB* gene, and (iii) a specific amplification for the *Midichloria gyrB* gene. Thermal protocols and primers are listed in Supplementary Table S5.

Genome sequencing, assembly and annotation

Metagenomes were sequenced on Illumina HiSeq 2500, after a library preparation performed with Nextera XT. For the Italian and the Spanish samples, the raw paired-end reads quality was evaluated with FastQC (Andrews, 2010). Paired-end reads were trimmed via Trimmomatic (v0.40) (Bolger et al., 2014) and then assembled using SPAdes (v3.10.0)

(Bankevich et al., 2012) following the Blobology pipeline (Kumar et al., 2013) (thus separating reads according to G+C content, coverage, and taxonomic annotation). Discarding of contaminating sequences and refining of the assemblies were performed manually through the analysis of the assemblies' graphs with Bandage (v0.8.1) (Wick et al., 2015). Bacterial reads were separated from the tick reads, allowing the assembling of different bacterial genomes ("filtered" assemblies). For the Israeli sample, reads were trimmed using Cutadapt (v1.13) (Martin, 2011) and contaminants' reads were removed through a mapping against Coliphage phi-X174 (GenBank: NC_001422) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (NC_010079) genomes with BWA (v0.7.17-r1188) (option mem) and SAMtools (v1.10) (Li and Durbin, 2009). Remaining reads were further assembled using SPAdes (v3.11.1) (Bankevich et al., 2012) with default parameters. These "raw" assembled scaffolds were compared to different reference genomes separately (FLE of *O. moubata* FLEOm, *M. mitochondrii*, and *R. aeschlimannii*; Table S2) to discard unspecific scaffolds using RaGOO (v1.02) (Alonge et al., 2019), and, for each reference genome separately, the assignment of the remaining scaffolds ("filtered" assembly) was confirmed using the online NCBI BLAST tool (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>). The quality assessment and the completeness of the "filtered" assemblies from all *H. marginatum* metagenomes were estimated using QUAST (v4.6.3) (Gurevich et al., 2013) and miComplete (v1.1.1) (Hugoson et al., 2020) with the --hmms Bact105 setting. The newly obtained genomes were annotated using Prokka (v1.13.1) (Seemann, 2014) with default parameters. The new *Midichloria* genomes were annotated using a manually revised annotation of *M. mitochondrii* (Table S2) as a reference.

Genomic content, structure, and metabolic pathways analyses

The FLE and *Midichloria* whole-genome alignments were obtained separately using Mauve (Darling et al., 2004). Previously, contigs from newly obtained genomes were reordered with

Mauve. Graphical representations of newly sequenced genomes were produced using CGView (v1.5) (Stothard and Wishart, 2005). Genes involved in biosynthesis pathways (B vitamins and heme), *Francisella* Pathogenecity Island (FPI), and mismatch repair systems (*mutSL* and *uvrABCD*) were retrieved using BLASTn, BLASTp, and tBLASTx on both newly obtained and reference FLE and *Midichloria* genomes. Pseudogenes prediction was performed using Pseudofinder (version downloaded in date April 1st 2020) (Syberg-Olsen et al., 2020) on each genome, including newly obtained and reference genomes of FLE and *Midichloria* (Table S2). The FLE and *Midichloria* datasets were filtered excluding pseudogenes from the subsequent analyses. Clusters of orthologous groups of proteins (COGs) were predicted using the NCBI pipeline (Galperin et al., 2015) and COGs presence was then plotted with an in-house R script. Then, two different datasets were created: (i) a FLE dataset including the three newly sequenced FLE-Hmar genomes and other published FLE genomes; and (ii) a *Midichloria* dataset including the three newly sequenced Midi-Hmar genomes and *M. mitochondrii*. For each dataset, single-copy orthologs (SCO) were identified using OrthoFinder (v2.3.12) (Emms and Kelly, 2019), then SCO lists were retrieved on a R environment (v3.6.2) to build Venn diagrams using the “VennDiagram” R package (Chen and Boutros, 2011).

Phylogenomics

The FLE, *Midichloria* and *Rickettsia* datasets were filtered excluding the pseudogene sequences and were then used for the phylogenetic analyses. For each symbiont dataset, single-copy orthologs (SCO) were identified using OrthoFinder (v2.3.12) (Emms and Kelly, 2019) and then aligned with MUSCLE (v3.8.31) (Edgar, 2004). Poorly aligned positions and divergent regions were removed by Gblocks (v0.91b) (Castresana, 2000) prior to concatenation of individual alignments using an in-house script. Finally, the most suitable

evolutionary model was determined using modeltest-ng (v0.1.5) (Darriba et al., 2020) according to the Akaike information criterion and maximum likelihood (ML) trees were inferred using RAxML (v8.2.9) (Stamatakis, 2014) with 1,000 bootstrap replicates.

Biotin operon phylogeny and structure

Nucleic and protein sequences of the six genes of the biotin biosynthesis pathway were retrieved using BLASTn, BLASTp, and tBLASTx on all *Midichloria* genomes. Sequences from described streamlined biotin operons and sequences from biotin genes from other symbionts (retrieved from GenBank) were included in the dataset (details in Table S3). All protein sequences of the six biotin genes were manually concatenated and aligned with MAFFT (v7.450) (Katoh et al., 2002) and ambiguous positions were removed using trimAl (v1.2rev59) (Capella-Gutiérrez et al., 2009). The appropriate substitution model, and then ML-tree, were determined as described above. Meanwhile, 16S rRNA sequences from all organisms included in this dataset were retrieved from GenBank and aligned with MEGA software. The Gblocks program with default parameters was used to obtain non-ambiguous sequence alignments. Phylogenetic analyses were performed with MEGA software, i.e. determination of the appropriate substitution model using Akaike information criterion, ML-tree inference. Clade robustness was assessed by bootstrap analysis using 1,000 replicates.

Contigs carrying the streamlined biotin operon were retrieved from newly obtained and reference genomes of different intracellular bacteria. Contigs were annotated using Prokka (v1.13.1) (Seemann, 2014) with default parameters. Prokka GenBank outputs were imported in R (v3.6.2) and analyzed using the “genoplots” R package (Guy et al., 2010). Sequences of *ribH* and *folD* genes from bacteria carrying the streamlined biotin operon and from other

bacteria were secondarily separately analyzed. Phylogenetic analyses on these two genes were performed as described above for biotin genes.

Bibliographic survey and phylogeny of *Hyalomma*

To access the associations between *Hyalomma* species with FLE and *Midichloria*, we performed an extensive bibliographic survey of published studies. For *Hyalomma* species for which presence/absence of FLE and *Midichloria* is documented, we retrieved cytochrome c oxidase I (*coxI*) gene sequences from GenBank and further performed a ML phylogenetic analysis with MEGA software as described above.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were carried out using the R statistical package (v3.6.2) and the “lme4” R package (Bates et al., 2015). The FLE load was analyzed using linear mixed-effects models on a dataset containing loads measured in ovaries from adult engorged ticks. The normality of the data distribution was tested through a Shapiro-Wilk test with a 95% confidence. Outliers were removed from datasets. To build models, *Midichloria* load was fitted as a fixed explanatory variable. The best-fitted model was determined with the following procedure: the maximal model, including all higher-order interactions, was simplified by sequentially eliminating interactions and non-significant terms to establish a minimal model. A likelihood ratio test (LRT) (using a chi-square distribution and a p-value cut-off of 0.05) was performed to establish the difference between sequential models. The comparison between the densities of FLE and *Midichloria* of *H. marginatum* was tested by a paired t test.

Data and code availability

The bacterial genomes obtained in this study were deposited in GenBank under accession numbers GCA_910592745 (FLE-Hmar-ES), GCA_910592815 (FLE-Hmar-IL), GCA_910592705 (FLE-Hmar-IT), GCA_910592695 (Midi-Hmar-ES), GCA_910592725 (Midi-Hmar-IL), GCA_910592865 (Midi-Hmar-IT) and GCA_910592765 (RAES-Hmar-IT). Command lines used for the different genomic analyses are available on GitHub (<https://github.com/mariebuysse/Hmar-2021>).

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Author contributions

D.S., Y.G. and O.D. designed the study. M.B., A.F., Y.G., D.S. and O.D. wrote the manuscript with input from other authors. M.B., A.F., T.N. and F.C. performed the genomic, phylogenomic and statistical analyses. F.C., E.O., A.G, A.P., B.M., C.B. and A.C. participated to collection and identification of specimen collection, or molecular biology. All authors agreed on the final version of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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775

Genomes' legends

<i>Francisella</i>	<i>Midichloria</i>	<i>Rickettsia</i>
<div><div></div> CDS</div>	<div><div></div> CDS</div>	<div><div></div> CDS</div>
<div><div></div> tRNA</div>	<div><div></div> tRNA</div>	<div><div></div> tRNA</div>
<div><div></div> rRNA</div>	<div><div></div> rRNA</div>	<div><div></div> rRNA</div>
<div><div></div> Other</div>	<div><div></div> Other</div>	<div><div></div> Other</div>

Figure 1. Sampled locations for *H. marginatum* ticks. Sampling countries are colored in grey. The symbiont genomes retrieved from each site are graphically represented in blue, orange and pink, corresponding to *Francisella*-LE (FLE), *Midichloria* (Midi) and *R. aeschlimannii* (RAES), respectively. Circles on genome maps correspond to the following: (1) forward strand genes; (2) reverse strand genes, (3) in grey and black, contigs. Circular maps of the genomes were produced using CGView.

Figure 2. Comparative genomic features of FLE. (A) Whole genome phylogenetic relationship of the three FLE genomes obtained from *H. marginatum* specimens (highlighted), FLE of other tick species, and *Francisella* pathogenic species, including *F. tularensis*. The phylogenetic tree was inferred using maximum likelihood from a concatenated alignment of 436 single-copy orthologous genes (132,718 amino acids; best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model: CPREV+G4+I). The numbers on each node represent the support of 1,000 bootstrap replicates; only bootstrap values >70% are shown. The scale bar is in units of substitution/site. Sequences from newly sequenced FLE genomes are indicated by a blue font.

(B) Whole genome synteny of the three FLE genomes obtained from *H. marginatum* specimens (blue font) and representative FLE (black font). Each contiguously colored locally collinear block (LCB) represents a region without rearrangement of the homologous backbone sequence. LCBs below the center in *Francisella* genomes represent blocks in the reverse orientation. The height of color bars within LCBs corresponds to the average level of similarity (conservation) profile in that region of the genome sequence. Areas that are completely white were not aligned and contain sequence elements specific to a particular genome.

(C) Venn diagram representing orthologs distribution between the three FLE genomes obtained from *H. marginatum* specimens (blue font) and representative FLE (black font).

(D) Clusters of orthologous groups of proteins (COGs) comparisons between the three FLE genomes obtained from *H. marginatum* specimens (blue font) and representative FLE (black font). The color scale indicates the percentage of functional genes per category. Grey color means that genes are not present in a given category. The COG category names (capital letters from A to Z) correspond to the NCBI reference naming system.

A

Phylogenetic tree (A) showing relationships between various Rickettsia and related genera. The tree is rooted on the left and branches to the right. Bootstrap values are indicated at the nodes. A scale bar of 0.1 is shown at the bottom left. A box highlights the Midichloria clade, and an icon of a tick is shown next to it.

Midichloria of *Hyalomma marginatum* Midi-Hmar-IT
Midichloria of *Hyalomma marginatum* Midi-Hmar-IL
Midichloria of *Hyalomma marginatum* Midi-Hmar-ES
Midichloria of *Ixodes ricinus* IricVA (*Candidatus* Midichloria mitochondrii) (NC_015722)
Candidatus Aquarickettsia rohweri (GCF_003953955)
Endosymbiont of *Acanthamoeba* sp. UWC8 (GCF_000730245)
Rickettsiales endosymbiont of *Peranema trichophorum* RICK02 (GCF_004210275)
Candidatus Fokinia solitaria (GCF_003072485)
Orientia tsutsugamushi (GCF_900327235)
Rickettsia bellii RML369C (GCF_000012385)
Anaplasma marginale Florida (NC_012026)
Wolbachia endosymbiont of *Drosophila simulans* wNo (NC_021084)

[illegible]

Midi-Hmar-ES **Midi-Hmar-IT** **Midi-IricVA** **Midi-Hmar-IL**

Region	Count
Midi-Hmar-ES only	3
Midi-Hmar-IT only	17
Midi-IricVA only	203
Midi-Hmar-IL only	5
Midi-Hmar-ES & Midi-Hmar-IT	9
Midi-Hmar-IT & Midi-IricVA	1
Midi-IricVA & Midi-Hmar-IL	0
Midi-Hmar-ES & Midi-IricVA	1
Midi-Hmar-IT & Midi-Hmar-IL	1
Midi-Hmar-ES & Midi-Hmar-IL	16
Midi-Hmar-ES & Midi-IricVA	41
Midi-Hmar-IT & Midi-IricVA	6
Midi-IricVA & Midi-Hmar-IL	4
Midi-Hmar-ES & Midi-Hmar-IT & Midi-IricVA	181
Midi-Hmar-IT & Midi-IricVA & Midi-Hmar-IL	1
Midi-Hmar-ES & Midi-IricVA & Midi-Hmar-IL	1
Midi-Hmar-ES & Midi-Hmar-IT & Midi-Hmar-IL	6
Midi-Hmar-ES & Midi-IricVA & Midi-Hmar-IL	1
Midi-Hmar-IT & Midi-IricVA & Midi-Hmar-IL	1
Midi-Hmar-ES & Midi-Hmar-IT & Midi-IricVA & Midi-Hmar-IL	745

Figure 3. Comparative genomic features of *Midichloria*. (A) Whole genome phylogenetic relationship of the three *Midichloria* genomes obtained from *H. marginatum* specimens (highlighted), *M. mitochondrii*, and other *Rickettsiales* species. The phylogenetic tree was inferred using maximum likelihood from a concatenated alignment of 242 single-copy orthologous genes (49,957 amino acids; best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model: LG+G4+I). The numbers on each node represent the support of 1,000 bootstrap replicates; only bootstrap values >70% are shown. The scale bar is in units of substitution/site. Sequences from newly sequenced *Midichloria* genomes are indicated by an orange font.

(B) Venn diagram representing orthologs distribution between the three *Midichloria* genomes obtained from *H. marginatum* specimens (orange font) and “*Ca. M. mitochondrii*” (black font).

(C) Clusters of Orthologous Groups of proteins (COGs) comparisons between the three *Midichloria* genomes obtained from *H. marginatum* specimens (orange font) and “*Ca. M. mitochondrii*” (black font). The color scale indicates the percentage of functional genes per category. Grey color means that genes are not present in a given category. The COG category names (capital letters from A to Z) correspond to the NCBI reference naming system.

A

B

Figure 4. Conservation level of biosynthetic pathways involved in the symbiotic

interaction between ticks and endosymbionts. (A) Biosynthetic pathways for the three key

B vitamins (biotin, folic acid, and riboflavin) required for tick nutrition of FLE, *F. tularensis*, and *Midichloria*. Newly sequenced FLE and *Midichloria* genomes are indicated by a blue and an orange font, respectively. Green squares, functional genes; grey squares, pseudogenes; white squares, missing genes.

(B) Heme biosynthetic pathway of FLE, *F. tularensis*, and *Midichloria*. Newly sequenced FLE and *Midichloria* genomes are indicated by a blue and an orange font, respectively.

Yellow squares, functional genes; grey squares, pseudogenes; white squares, missing genes.

Biotin operon-based phylogeny

Biotin operon structure

Bacterial phylogeny

Figure 5. Evolutionary relationships (left) and structure (middle) of the streamlined biotin operon, confronted to the bacterial phylogeny (right). The phylogenetic tree of the streamlined biotin operon (left) was inferred using maximum likelihood from a concatenated alignment of the six genes composing the biotin biosynthetic pathway (1,493 amino acids; best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model: CPREV+G4+I). The numbers on each node represent the support of 1,000 bootstrap replicates; only bootstrap values >70% are shown. The scale bar is in units of substitution/site. Sequences from newly sequenced *Midichloria* genomes are indicated by an orange font. Structure of the streamlined biotin operon (middle) is represented by arrows in which each colored arrow corresponds to an intact gene and its direction. A discontinuous line corresponds to genes encoding on two separated contigs. The bacterial phylogenetic tree (right) was inferred using maximum likelihood from an alignment of 16S rDNA sequences (1,362 bp unambiguously aligned; best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model: GTR+G+I). The numbers on each node represent the support of 1,000 bootstrap replicates; only bootstrap values >70% are shown. The scale bar is in units of substitution/site. Sequences from *Midichloria* of *H. marginatum* are indicated by an orange font.

A **B**

Figure 6. FLE and *Midichloria* loads in ovaries of *H. marginatum*. (A) Representation and statistical comparison of FLE and *Midichloria* densities. (B) FLE density as a function of *Midichloria* density in *H. marginatum* ovaries. Grey area represents 95% confidence interval.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

A dual endosymbiosis drives nutritional adaptation to hematophagy in the invasive tick *Hyalomma marginatum*

Buyse, Floriano *et al.*

Supplementary table

Table S1. Summary of the assembly information and quality analyses of the newly sequenced genomes of FLE, *Midichloria* and *Rickettsia* bacteria. Only complete genomes are shown and the partial genome of *R. aeschlimannii* (RAES-Hmar-IS) was not presented.

Specimen details			Assembling information								
Genome	Isolate	Origin	Genome size (bp)	Contigs number	N50	L50	Completeness (%)	GC rate (%)	Genes	Pseudogenes	Coding density (%)
<i>Francisella</i> -LE of <i>Hyalomma marginatum</i>	FLE-Hmar-ES	Spain	1510123	17	254696	3	0,9905	31,11	937	795	54
<i>Francisella</i> -LE of <i>Hyalomma marginatum</i>	FLE-Hmar-IT	Italy	1510130	13	382079	2	0,9905	31,11	934	789	54
<i>Francisella</i> -LE of <i>Hyalomma marginatum</i>	FLE-Hmar-IL	Israel	1536710	25	106485	5	0,9905	31,23	961	798	54
<i>Midichloria</i> of <i>Hyalomma marginatum</i>	Midi-Hmar-ES	Spain	1168604	179	19210	20	0,981	35,03	1071	192	78
<i>Midichloria</i> of <i>Hyalomma marginatum</i>	Midi-Hmar-IT	Italy	1130547	359	10359	30	0,9524	35,23	1032	192	76
<i>Midichloria</i> of <i>Hyalomma marginatum</i>	Midi-Hmar-IL	Israel	1144281	123	12627	30	0,981	35,03	1055	190	79
<i>Rickettsia aeschlimannii</i> (of <i>H. marginatum</i>)	RAES-Hmar-IT	Italy	1356794	165	67640	4	0,9429	32,32	1122	475	68

Table S2. Summary of the information on the NCBI reference genomes employed for the characterization of the FLE and *Midichloria* genomes.

Specimen details					Assembling information			
Genome	Isolate	Origin	Accession number (NCBI/dryad)	Reference	Genome size (bp)	Contigs number	GC rate (%)	Coding density (%)
<i>Francisella</i> -LE of <i>Ornithodoros moubata</i>	FLEOm	Lab colony (Czech Republic)	LVCE00000000	Gerhart et al., 2018	1564190	8	31,7	58
<i>Francisella</i> -LE of <i>Ornithodoros moubata</i>	FOM	Lab colony (France)	QAPC00000000	Duron et al., 2018	1566493	11	31,7	57
<i>Francisella</i> -LE of <i>Amblyomma maculatum</i>	FLEAm	United States of America	LNCT00000000	Gerhart et al., 2018	1556261	7	31,67	57
<i>Francisella</i> -LE of <i>Argas arboreus</i>	<i>F. persica</i> (ATCC VR-331)	Egypt	CP013022	Larson et al., 2016	1540768	1	31,43	69
<i>Francisella</i> -LE of <i>Hyalomma asiaticum</i>	NMGHa432	China	doi.org/10.5061/dryad.t76hdr80p	Buyse and Duron, 2021	1550715	38	31,62	58
<i>Francisella</i> -LE of <i>Hyalomma asiaticum</i>	XJHA498	China	doi.org/10.5061/dryad.t76hdr80p	Buyse and Duron, 2021	1549389	39	31,6	58
<i>Francisella tularensis</i> (tularemia agent)	SCHU-S4	United States of America	AJ749949	Larsson et al., 2005	1892775	1	32,26	83
<i>Midichloria</i> of <i>Ixodes ricinus</i>	IricVA	Italy	CP002130	Sassera et al., 2011	1183732	1	36,55	71

Table S3. Details regarding symbionts used in phylogenetic analyses of B vitamin biosynthetic pathways and streamlined biotin operon of FLE and *Midichloria*.

Specimen details								Biotin gene origin	
Class	Order	Family	Genus/Species	Strain	Host species	Accession number	Reference	Horizontal transfer	Ancestral
Gammaproteobacteria	Thiotrichales	Francisellaceae	<i>Francisella</i> -like	FLE-Hmar-IL	Hard tick, <i>Hyalomma marginatum</i> (Israel)	-	This study		Lost
			<i>Francisella</i> -like	FLE-Hmar-ES	Hard tick, <i>Hyalomma marginatum</i> (Spain)	-	This study		Lost
			<i>Francisella</i> -like	FLE-Hmar-IT	Hard tick, <i>Hyalomma marginatum</i> (Italy)	-	This study		Lost
			<i>Francisella</i> -like	NMGha432	Hard tick, <i>Hyalomma asiaticum</i> (China)	-	Buyse and Duron, 2021		+
			<i>Francisella</i> -like	XJHA498	Hard tick, <i>Hyalomma asiaticum</i> (China)	-	Buyse and Duron, 2021		+
			<i>Francisella</i> -like	FLEAm	Hard tick, <i>Amblyomma maculatum</i>	LNCT00000000	Gerhart et al., 2018		+
			<i>Francisella</i> -like	FLEOm	Soft tick, <i>Ornithodoros moubata</i>	LVCE00000000	Gerhart et al., 2018		+
			<i>Francisella</i> -like	FOm	Soft tick, <i>Ornithodoros moubata</i>	QAPC00000000	Duron et al., 2018		+
			<i>Francisella</i> -like	<i>F. persica</i>	Soft tick, <i>Argas arboreus</i>	CP013022	Suitor and Weiss, 1961		+
	Legionellales	Coxiellaceae	<i>Coxiella</i> -like	CRt	Hard tick, <i>Rhipicephalus turanicus</i>	CP011126	Gottlieb et al., 2015		+
			<i>Coxiella</i> -like	CRm	Hard tick, <i>Rhipicephalus microplus</i>	NSHJ01000000	Guizzo et al., 2017		+
			<i>Coxiella</i> -like	CLEAA	Hard tick, <i>Amblyomma americanum</i>	CP007541	Smith et al., 2015		+
			<i>Coxiella</i> -like	CeAS-UFV	Hard tick, <i>Amblyomma sculptum</i>	CP033868	Direct submission on GenBank (Vidigal et al.)		+
			<i>Coxiella burnetii</i>	RSA493	-	AE016828	Seshadri et al., 2003		+
		Legionellaceae	<i>Legionella polyplacis</i>	PsAG	Louse, <i>Polyplax serrata</i>	CP021497	Řihová et al., 2017	+	
			<i>Legionella pneumophila</i>	Lens	-	CR628337	Cazalet et al., 2004		+
	Enterobacterales	Morganellaceae	<i>Arsenophonus</i> endosymbiont	CB	Deer ked, <i>Lipoptena fortisetosa</i>	CP013920	Direct submission on GenBank (Novakova et al.)		+
			<i>Arsenophonus triatominarum</i>	ATi	Kissing bug, <i>Triatoma infestans</i>	LWMI00000000	Direct submission on GenBank (Darby)		+
			<i>Providencia siddallii</i>	officinalis	Leech, <i>Haementeria officinalis</i>	CVRF00000000	Direct submission on GenBank (Manzano-Marin)		+
		Erwiniaceae	<i>Buchnera aphidicola</i>	LSR1	Aphid, <i>Acyrtosiphon pisum</i>	ACFK00000000	Direct submission on GenBank (Shigenobu et al.)		+
			<i>Buchnera aphidicola</i>	-	Aphid, <i>Myzus persicae</i>	MJNC00000000	Direct submission on GenBank (Mathers et al.)		+
			<i>Wigglesworthia glossinidia</i>	Yale colony	Tsetse fly, <i>Glossina morsitans</i>	CP003315	Rio et al., 2012		+
			<i>Riesia pediculischaeffi</i>	PTSK	Louse, <i>Pediculus schaeffi</i>	CP012839	Direct submission on GenBank (Boyd)		+
		Pectobacteriaceae	<i>Sodalis</i> -like endosymbiont	IL	Psyllid, <i>Bactericera trigonica</i>	RBZS00000000	Ghosh et al., 2020		+
			<i>Sodalis</i> -like endosymbiont	Spu	Cicada, <i>Philaenus spumarius</i>	NKXM00000000	Ankrah et al., 2018		+

Alphaproteobacteria	Rickettsiales	Midichloriaceae	<i>Midichloria</i>	MID-Hmar-IL	Hard tick, <i>Hyalomma marginatum</i> (Israel)	-	This study	+
			<i>Midichloria</i>	MID-Hmar-ES	Hard tick, <i>Hyalomma marginatum</i> (Spain)	-	This study	+
			<i>Midichloria</i>	MID-Hmar-IT	Hard tick, <i>Hyalomma marginatum</i> (Italy)	-	This study	+
		Rickettsiaceae	<i>Cand. Midichloria mitochondrii</i>	IricVA	Hard tick, <i>Ixodes ricinus</i>	CP002130	Sassera et al., 2011	+
			<i>Rickettsia buchneri</i>	ISO7	Hard tick, <i>Ixodes scapularis</i>	JFKF00000000	Kurtti et al., 2015	+
			<i>Rickettsia endosymbiont</i>	REIS	Hard tick, <i>Ixodes scapularis</i>	ACLC00000000	Gillespie et al., 2012	+
			<i>Rickettsia felis</i>	LSU-Lb	Booklouse, <i>Liposcelis bostrychophila</i>	JSEL00000000	Gillespie et al., 2014	+
			<i>Rickettsia aeschlimannii</i>	-	-	CCER00000000	Direct submission on GenBank (Urnite platform)	+
		Anaplasmataceae	<i>Wolbachia</i>	wNleu	Bee, <i>Nomada leucophthalma</i>	LYUV00000000	Direct submission on GenBank (Gerth and Bleidorn)	+
			<i>Wolbachia</i>	wNfla	Bee, <i>Nomada flava</i>	LYUW00000000	Direct submission on GenBank (Gerth and Bleidorn)	+
			<i>Wolbachia</i>	wCle	Bed bug, <i>Cimex lectularius</i>	AP013028	Nikoh et al., 2014	+
			<i>Wolbachia</i>	wStri	Planthopper, <i>Laodelphax striatellus</i>	MUIX00000000	Ju et al., 2020	+
			<i>Wolbachia</i>	wLug	Planthopper, <i>Nilaparvata lugens</i>	MUIY00000000	Ju et al., 2020	+
			<i>Wolbachia</i>	wCfeT	Flea, <i>Ctenocephalides felis</i>	CP051156	Direct submission on GenBank (Driscoll et al.)	+
			<i>Neorickettsia sennetsu</i>	Miyayama	-	CP000237	Dunning Hotopp et al., 2006	+
			<i>Neorickettsia risticii</i>	Illinois	-	CP001431	Lin et al., 2009	+
			<i>Neorickettsia helminthoeca</i>	Oregon	Salmonid fish	CP007481	Direct submission on GenBank (Lin et al.)	+
			<i>Neorickettsia sp.</i>	179522	-	LNGI00000000	Direct submission on GenBank (Mitrevva et al.)	+
			<i>Ehrlichia ruminantium</i>	Welgevonden	-	CR767821	Collins et al., 2005	+
			<i>Anaplasma marginale</i>	Florida	-	CP001079	Visser et al., 1992	+
Deltaproteobacteria	Desulfovibrionales	Desulfovibrionaceae	<i>Lawsonia intracellularis</i>	N343	-	CP004029	Sait et al., 2013	+
			<i>Lawsonia intracellularis</i>	PHE/MN1-00	-	AM180252	Direct submission on GenBank (Kaur et al.)	+
			<i>Lawsonia intracellularis</i>	Fu/JPN	-	QNH00000000	Direct submission on GenBank (Nishikawa et al.)	+
	Cytophagales	Amoebohilaceae	<i>Cardinium</i>	cSfur	Planthopper, <i>Sogatella furcifera</i>	CP022339	Direct submission on GenBank (Zeng)	+
			<i>Cardinium</i>	cEper1	Wasp, <i>Encarsia pergandiella</i>	HE983995	Penz et al., 2012	+
			<i>Cardinium</i>	cBtQ1	Whitefly, <i>Bemisia tabaci</i>	CBQZ00000000	Santos-Garcia et al., 2014	+

Table S4. Illustrative (non-exhaustive) studies investigating the presence of FLE and *Midichloria* symbionts across *Hyalomma* tick species. +:

presence; –: absence; ND: not determined.

Specimen details		Detection details			Reference
Tick species	Geographic origin	Symbiont presence		Detection method	
		FLE	<i>Midichloria</i>		
<i>Hyalomma</i>	Israel	+	-	PCR	Azagi et al., 2017
<i>aegyptium</i>	Anatolia, Mugla Province	+	ND	Metagenomic analysis	Brinkmann et al., 2019
	Qatar, Doha	ND	+	PCR	Barradas et al., 2020
	Bulgaria	+	ND	PCR	Ivanov et al., 2011
<i>H. anatolicum</i>	Turkey	-	-	PCR	Duron et al., 2017
	Turkey	ND	+	PCR & qPCR	Cafiso et al., 2016
	Pakistan, Punjab Province	+	+	Bacterial barcoding	Adegoke et al., 2020
<i>H. asiaticum</i>	China, Xinjiang Province	+	ND	PCR	Wang et al., 2018
	China	+	-	Metagenomic analysis	Buyse and Duron, 2021
<i>H. dromedarii</i>	Israel	+	ND	PCR	Azagi et al., 2017
	Saudi Arabia	+	ND	PCR	Elbir et al., 2020
	Tunisia, Sousse	ND	+	PCR	Selmi et al., 2019
	Tunisia, Kebili	ND	-	PCR	Selmi et al., 2019
	Egypt	+	ND		Ghoneim et al., 2017
	United Arab Emirates, Al-Ain	+	ND	Bacterial barcoding	Perveen et al., 2020
	Palestine, Jericho	+	-	Metagenomic analysis	Ravi et al., 2018
	Saudi Arabia, Al Hofuf	+	-	PCR & bacterial barcoding	Elbir et al., 2019
	Saudi Arabia, Hail Province	+	-	Bacterial barcoding	Alreshidi et al., 2020
<i>H. excavatum</i>	Israel	+	ND	PCR	Azagi et al., 2017
	Tunisia, Kebili	ND	-	PCR	Selmi et al., 2019
	Turkey, Mecitözü	+	+	PCR	Duron et al., 2017
	Turkey	ND	+	PCR & qPCR	Cafiso et al., 2016

	Egypt	ND	+	Reverse line blotting (RLB)	AL-Hosary et al., 2021
<i>H. impeltatum</i>	Tunisia, Gabes	ND	+	PCR	Selmi et al., 2019
	Tunisia, Sousse	ND	+	PCR	Selmi et al., 2019
	Tunisia, Kebili	ND	-	PCR	Selmi et al., 2019
	Tunisia, Kairouan	ND	-	PCR	Selmi et al., 2019
	Tunisia, Tataouine	ND	-	PCR	Selmi et al., 2019
	Zimbabwe	+	-	PCR	Duron et al., 2017
<i>H. lusitanicum</i>	Spain	+	+	Bacterial barcoding	Díaz-Sánchez et al., 2021
	Canaries, Veneguera	+	-	PCR	Duron et al., 2017
	Spain, Madrid	+	ND	PCR	Lopes de Carvalho et al., 2016
	Portugal	-	ND	PCR	Lopes de Carvalho et al., 2016
<i>H. marginatum</i>	Israel	+	ND	PCR & FISH	Azagi et al., 2017
	Anatolia, Mugla Province	+	ND	Illumina HiSeq sequencing	Brinkmann et al., 2019
	France	+	+	PCR	Duron et al., 2017
	Italy, Sicilia	ND	+	PCR	Epis et al., 2008
	Ventotene Island (Mediterranean Sea)	ND	+	PCR	Di Lecce et al., 2018
	Bulgaria	+	ND	PCR	Ivanov et al., 2011
	Spain, Madrid	-	ND	PCR	Lopes de Carvalho et al., 2016
	Portugal	-	ND	PCR	Lopes de Carvalho et al., 2016
<i>H. rufipes</i>	Israel	+	ND	PCR	Azagi et al., 2017
	China, Gansu Province	-	+	High-throughput sequencing of small RNAs	Luo et al., 2017
	Ethiopia, Didessa Valley	+	ND	PCR	Szigeti et al., 2014
<i>H. truncatum</i>	Namibia	+	ND	PCR	Direct submission on GenBank (JF290387)
	Italy, Sicilia	ND	+	PCR	Epis et al., 2008

Table S5. Genes and primers used in this study. Primers were used for qPCR assays conducted for relative quantification of FLE and *Midichloria*.

¹ PCR conditions: primers concentration 150 nM; thermal profile: 95 °C for 3 min, and 40 cycles at 95 °C for 15 sec, 55 °C for 20 sec, 72 °C for 10 sec;

² PCR conditions: primers concentration 250 nM; thermal profile: 95 °C for 3 min, and 40 cycles at 95 °C for 15 sec, 58 °C for 30 sec; ³ PCR

conditions: primers concentration 250 nM; thermal profile: 95 °C for 3 min, and 40 cycles at 95 °C for 15 sec, 58°C for 30 sec.

Gene	Hypothetical product	Primers (5'-3')	Tm (°C)	Fragment size	Reference
<u><i>Hyalomma marginatum</i></u>					
<i>cal</i>	Calreticulin	F: TACCTCAAGCTGTTCGACTG R: GCCCTTGTAGTTGAAGATG	53	F/R: 132 bp ¹	This study
<u>FLE</u>					
<i>rpoB</i>	DNA-directed RNA polymerase beta chain	F: TGTACCTATTGCTACGCCAG R: GCTTACCAGTACGACCATC	58	F/R: 122 bp ²	This study
<u><i>Midichloria</i></u>					
<i>gyrB</i>	DNA gyrase B subunit	F: ATTTACATGTCAGGGAGTG R: CTACGAGTTATTGCTGCTC	58	F/R: 155 bp ³	This study

Supplementary figures

Figure S1. Conservation level of the genes involved in the *Francisella* pathogenicity island (FPI) on FLE of *Hyalomma marginatum* and references genomes. Genomes of FLE

of *Hyalomma marginatum* are indicated by a blue font. *Francisella* pathogenic species is indicated by a red font. Red squares, functional genes; grey squares, pseudogenes; white squares, missing genes.

Figure S2. Conservation level of the genes involved in the mismatch repair system

(*mutSL*) and the nucleotide excision repair system (*uvrABCD*) on FLE and *Midichloria*

of *Hyalomma marginatum* and references genomes. Newly sequenced FLE and *Midichloria*

genomes are indicated by a blue and an orange font, respectively. Black squares, functional

genes; grey squares, pseudogenes; white squares, missing genes.

Figure S3. *Rickettsia* phylogenetic tree assessing the affiliation of the *Rickettsia* detected in *Hyalomma marginatum* specimens from Italy and Israel. The phylogenetic tree was inferred using maximum likelihood from a concatenated alignment of 324 single-copy orthologous genes (88,128 amino acids; best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model: JTT+G4+I). The numbers on each node represent the support of 1,000 bootstrap replicates; only bootstrap values >70% are shown. The scale bar is in units of substitution/site. Sequence from the newly sequenced *Rickettsia* genome is indicated by a pink font.

Figure S4. Conservation level of (A) pantothenic acid, nicotinic acid, pyroxidine, and thiamine B vitamins and (B) cofactors biosynthetic pathways of FLE and *Midichloria* symbionts. Newly sequenced FLE and *Midichloria* genomes are indicated by a blue and an orange font, respectively. Green squares, functional genes; grey squares, pseudogenes; white squares, missing genes.

Figure S5. Phylogenetic trees of representative genes of riboflavin and folate

biosynthesis pathways of FLE and *Midichloria*. The phylogenetic trees of (A) *ribH*

(riboflavin pathway), and (B) *folD* (folate) were inferred using maximum likelihood from amino acid alignments. The numbers on each node represent the support of 1,000 bootstrap replicates; only bootstrap values >70% are shown. The scale bar is in units of substitution/site.

ribH: 129 amino acids unambiguously aligned, best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model LG+G4; *folD*: 273 amino acids unambiguously aligned, best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model CPREV+G4+I. Newly sequenced FLE and *Midichloria* sequences are indicated by a blue and an orange font, respectively, while sequences from other FLE and *Midichloria* are highlighted in blue and orange, respectively.

Figure S6. Phylogenetic relationship of the *Hyalomma* species used in our study. The

phylogenetic tree was inferred using maximum likelihood from an alignment of the cytochrome c oxidase I (*coxI*) gene sequences (546 bp unambiguously aligned, best-fit approximation for the evolutionary model: HKY+G+I). The numbers on each node represent the support of 1,000 bootstrap replicates; only bootstrap values >80% are shown. The scale bar is in units of substitution/site.

Figure S7. Presence of FLE and *Midichloria* within the *Hyalomma* genus. The *Hyalomma* cladogram was adapted from *cox1* phylogeny showed at Figure S6. The numbers on each node represent the support of 1,000 bootstrap replicates; only bootstrap values >80% are shown. The scale bar is in units of substitution/site. Blue and orange plain circles indicate the presence of FLE and *Midichloria*, respectively, as detailed in Table S4. Blank circle represents an absence of symbiont.

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