Buchnera has changed flatmate but the repeated replacement of co-obligate symbionts is not associated with the ecological expansions of their aphid hosts

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Abstract

Symbiotic associations with bacteria have facilitated important evolutionary transitions in insects and resulted in long-term obligate interactions. Recent evidence suggests that these associations are not always evolutionarily stable and that symbiont replacement, and/or supplementation of an obligate symbiosis by an additional bacterium, has occurred during the history of many insect groups. Yet, the factors favouring one symbiont over another in this evolutionary dynamic are not well understood; progress has been hindered by our incomplete understanding of the distribution of symbionts across phylogenetic and ecological contexts. While many aphids are engaged into an obligate symbiosis with a single Gammaproteobacterium, Buchnera aphidicola, in species of the Lachninae subfamily, this relationship has evolved into a 'ménage à trois', in which Buchnera is complemented by a cosymbiont, usually Serratia symbiotica. Using deep sequencing of 16S rRNA bacterial genes from 128 species of Cinara (the most diverse Lachninae genus), we reveal a highly dynamic dual symbiotic system in this aphid lineage. Most species host both Serratia and Buchnera but, in several clades, endosymbionts related to Sodalis, Erwinia or an unnamed member of the Enterobacteriaceae have replaced Serratia. Endosymbiont genome sequences from four aphid species confirm that these coresident symbionts fulfil essential metabolic functions not ensured by Buchnera. We further demonstrate through comparative phylogenetic analyses that cosymbiont replacement is not associated with the adaptation of aphids to new ecological conditions. We propose that symbiont succession was driven by factors intrinsic to the phenomenon of endosymbiosis, such as rapid genome deterioration or competitive interactions between bacteria with similar metabolic capabilities.

Keywords: aphids, bacteria, *Cinara*, comparative phylogenetic analyses, ecological niche, endosymbiosis

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Introduction

Symbiotic associations with bacterial partners have facilitated important evolutionary transitions in the life histories of eukaryotes and have probably driven species diversification. Some groups of plant-eating insects have made use of the metabolic versatility of bacteria to

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feed on plant parts lacking certain essential nutrients (Hansen & Moran 2014). They generally shelter their bacterial partners within specialized cells and transmit them from mother to offspring (Buchner 1965). This type of nutritional endosymbiosis was first described in aphids (Hemiptera: Aphididae), a group of about 5000 species that feed on the phloem of their host plants. Almost all aphids host a Gammaproteobacterium, *Buchnera aphidicola*, which provides them with essential amino acids and vitamins that are rare in their diet

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(Douglas 1998; Wilson *et al.* 2010). Aphids may also be associated with facultative endosymbiotic bacteria that are not required for survival, and thus their prevalence varies across populations (Oliver *et al.* 2010).

Obligate endosymbionts provide net benefits to their hosts, but reliance on long-term symbiotic associations can sometimes lead to evolutionary 'dead ends' (Bennett & Moran 2015). The maternal transfer of bacteria causes severe bottlenecks in bacterial populations, leading to genetic drift and the fixation of slightly deleterious mutations (Moran 1996; Rispe & Moran 2000; Toft & Andersson 2010). This process may alter symbiotic functions (McCutcheon & Moran 2012) and limit the thermal tolerance of bacteria (Wernegreen 2012), ultimately having a deleterious effect on the host dependent on these bacteria. One possible outcome of this situation is the replacement or the supplementation of the ancestral symbiont by a new one. Since the biosynthesis of amino acids are ubiquitous capabilities in bacteria, in some insect species, some of the facultative endosymbionts have become more than occasional partners, either entirely replacing the ancestral primary symbiont (Conord et al. 2008; Smith et al. 2013; Toju et al. 2013; Koga & Moran 2014), or persisting alongside it while taking on a subset of its functions (Takiya et al. 2006; Wu et al. 2006; McCutcheon & Moran 2010; McCutcheon & von Dohlen 2011). An increasing body of evidence now shows that symbiont replacements have occurred repeatedly in insects, yet the factors favouring one symbiont over another in this evolutionary dynamic are still not well understood. It has been suggested that the acquisition of a new symbiont may not only provide the insect with a way of coping with the degradation of the genome of the primary symbiont, but may also confer new metabolic capabilities to the insect host (Toenshoff et al. 2012; Koga & Moran 2014). The acquisitions of these bacteria would then represent key innovations that allow their hosts to diversify in ecological niches that would otherwise be unavailable to them (Moran & Telang 1998). Studies on facultative symbionts in aphid populations, and insects in general, support this hypothesis; they generally increase the fitness of their hosts in specific environments and mediate ecological interactions (Russell & Moran 2006; Oliver et al. 2010; Frago et al. 2012; Oliver & Martinez 2014; Henry et al. 2015). However, because obligate nutritional symbioses remain more stable over evolutionary times than facultative ones, investigating the ecological factors that govern obligate symbiont turnover requires a wide taxonomic coverage and a solid phylogenetic framework.

Recent studies have reported the presence of labile disymbiotic systems in aphids of the Lachninae subfamily. In *Cinara cedri, Cinara tujafilina* and *Tuberolachnus* salignus, B. aphidicola has lost the ability to synthesize the essential compounds riboflavin and biotin (in C. cedri and T. salignus, it has also lost the ability to synthesize tryptophan), and these functions are now fulfilled by a former facultative endosymbiont, Serratia symbiotica (Gosalbes et al. 2008; Lamelas et al. 2011a, b; Manzano-Marin & Latorre 2014; Manzano-Marín et al. 2016a). Serratia has thus become a co-obligate partner with a nutritional role complementary to that of Buchnera (Manzano-Marín et al. 2016a). It has been suggested that the riboflavin biosynthetic capability of Buchnera was lost in the ancestor of the Lachninae (Lamelas et al. 2011b; Manzano-Marín et al. 2016a). This implies that a coresident symbiont is now required by all members of the Lachninae for the system to survive. Characterizations of endosymbiotic bacteria in members of the subfamily including some Cinara spp. have shown that all the specimens studied so far harbour at least one additional bacterial endosymbiont alongside Buchnera (Lamelas et al. 2008; Burke et al. 2009; Jousselin et al. 2016) – while most species host Serratia symbiotica, some are associated with an alternative member of the Enterobacteriaceae. Observations of endosymbiont morphology and location in their hosts lend further support to the obligate aspect of the association with this new bacterial partner (Manzano-Marín et al. 2016b). Altogether, these results also suggest that symbiont replacement has occurred in Lachninae. However, these studies were conducted on relatively few species and usually a single specimen per species. Results from a few samples represent mere snapshots of the ongoing evolutionary dynamics of these associations. A full understanding of the factors mediating symbiont replacements requires the analysis of the distribution of obligate symbionts across wide phylogenetic and ecological contexts. The aphid genus Cinara (Lachninae) might be an ideal model to conduct such a study. Cinara accounts for more than half of the Lachninae species diversity and is the second most diverse genus of aphids. It has diversified on various conifer genera, giving rise to more than 240 species (Chen et al. 2015; Meseguer et al. 2015). Species of this genus are distributed throughout the Holarctic and originated about 45 Ma, surviving all climatic changes that occurred through the Cenozoic (Zachos et al. 2008). Therefore, Cinara spp. have experienced a wide range of ecological conditions during their evolution. This long evolutionary history might have been accompanied by major changes in symbiotic interactions.

To elucidate the long-term evolution and maintenance of symbiotic associations in *Cinara*, we carried out an extensive survey of endosymbionts on a sample encompassing 50% of the genus' known species diversity. We deep-sequenced 16S rRNA genes and modelled their distribution across the aphid phylogeny. We also sequenced the paired Buchnera and Serratia, Erwinia, Sodalis or Type-X genomes (the main endosymbionts identified in our study) of four Cinara species to search for the presence/absence of the riboflavin biosynthetic genes. We found that Cinara species have acquired different companion symbionts alongside Buchnera during the course of their diversification and that those have become obligate partners of the association complementing Buchnera in its nutritional role. We then explored the evolutionary pathways leading to the replacements of symbionts in this obligate dual symbiosis, by investigating whether the variation of host life history traits and the climatic conditions experienced by the aphid were correlated with changes in co-obligate symbiont identity.

Experimental procedures

16S rDNA endosymbiont characterization

DNA samples and 16S rDNA amplification. We sampled 366 colonies of Cinara and five outgroup colonies from the Lachninae and Mindarinae in the field. We sampled several colonies per species (from 1 to 17) to represent the species geographic distribution and diversity of host plants. Aphids were kept in 70% ethanol at 6 °C immediately after collection. They were identified in the laboratory using different keys (Blackman & Eastop 2000; Favret & Voegtlin 2004). Collection details are given in Appendix S1 (Supporting information). A single individual per colony was washed three times in ultrapure water and total genomic DNA was extracted from whole individuals with the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Germany), according to the manufacturer's recommendations. The DNA was eluted in 40 µL of elution buffer. During the extraction procedure, a negative control (i.e. a 'blank template' of ultrapure water) was processed with the same extraction kit. All DNA samples were stored at -20 °C. We amplified a 251-bp portion of the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene (Mizrahi-Man et al. 2013) and used targeted sequencing of indexed bacterial fragments on a MiSeq (Illumina) platform (Kozich et al. 2013), following the protocol described in Jousselin et al. (2016). DNA extracts were amplified twice along with negative controls. PCR replicates were conducted on distinct 96-well microplates. As positive DNA controls, we used DNA extracts from three pure bacterial strains and three arthropod specimens with known bacterial endosymbionts.

We obtained a total of 749 PCR products, which were pooled and submitted for paired-end sequencing on a MiSeq (Illumina) flow cell equipped with a version 2, 500-cycle reagent cartridge. Sequence analyses and taxonomic assignation. We used MOTHUR version 1.3.3 (Schloss & Westcott 2011) implemented on a Galaxy workbench (Goecks et al. 2010) (http://galaxy-workbench.toulouse.inra.fr/) to assemble paired-end reads and filter out sequencing errors and chimeras from the results. The overlapped paired-end reads were assembled with the make.contigs function of MOTHUR, and the contigs exceeding 280 bp in length and/or containing ambiguous base pairs were filtered out and excluded from further analyses, since the V4 region is expected to have about 251 bp. A FASTA file containing unique contigs and a file reporting the occurrence of these sequences in each sample were created. Unique sequences from the FASTA file were then aligned with the V4 portion of reference sequences from the SILVA 16S reference database (v119) (Quast et al. 2013). Sequences that did not align with the V4 fragment were excluded from further analyses. After this filtering step, a new file containing unique sequences was created. The number of reads resulting from sequencing errors was then reduced by merging rare unique sequences with frequent unique sequences with a mismatch of no more than 2 bp relative to the rare sequences (pre.cluster command in MOTHUR). We then used the UCHIME program (Edgar et al. 2011) implemented in MOTHUR to detect chimeric sequences and excluded them from the data set. For each sequence, the number of reads per sample was transformed into percentages using an R script (Jousselin et al. 2016) and used to compile a contingency table (Appendix S2, Supporting information). We removed individual sequences representing less than 0.5% of the reads in each sample. Sequences represented by such a small proportion of the reads were often found in negative controls, were generally not arthropod endosymbionts and, in most cases, were not found across PCR replicates of the same sample, suggesting that they could represent contaminants or spurious sequences (Jousselin et al. 2016). For each sample, we then eliminated all the sequences that did not appear in both PCR replicates.

Taxonomic affiliations of each unique sequence were obtained using the RDP Classifier in Qiime (Caporaso *et al.* 2010), with the SILVA database, and LEBIBIQBPP (Flandrois *et al.* 2014), with the 16S SSU-rRNA-TS-stringent database. In addition, a neighbour-joining tree was reconstructed with all unique sequences combined with sequences of aphid endosymbionts identified in previous studies; sequences of *Hamiltonella*, *Phlomobacter*, *Erwinia*, *Dickeya*, *Edwardsiella*, *Sodalis*, *Pantoea*, *Klebsiella*, *Spiroplasma* and *Cardinium* were retrieved from Silva. Sequences of *Regiella* identified in a previous study (Smith *et al.* 2015) and sequences of *Arsenophonus*, *Buchnera*, *Hamiltonella*, the secondary symbionts of *Cinara* spp. identified by Burke *et al.* (2009) were retrieved

from NCBI. We then checked the coherence of the phylogenetic clusters obtained with the NJ tree and the taxonomic assignation from RDP and leBIBI.

Assessing endosymbiont diversity and specificity across samples. We added the frequencies of unique sequences assigned to a particular bacterial genus (or higher rank when genus assignation was not available) in a sample. We assessed the replicability of our results by plotting the percentage of reads assigned to each bacterium in one PCR replicate against the other for all Cinara samples and calculated the Pearson correlation coefficient. We then plotted the bacterial community (phylum and frequency as estimated by read abundances) of each Cinara specimen/species to the tips of the Cinara's phylogenetic tree using the R package GPLOTS version 2.23 (Warnes et al. 2015); for the species-level analyses, we only considered the bacteria that were found in all the specimens of a given species. We calculated the mean prevalence of each endosymbiont in each Cinara species as the percentage of specimens per species that harboured a particular symbiont against the total number of individuals collected for that aphid species, excluding outgroups and species that were represented by a single specimen to avoid overestimation of mean values.

We represented the specificity of the aphid endosymbiont associations by plotting the links between 16S bacterial sequences and the *Cinara* specimens/species in which they were found using *bipartite* (Dormann *et al.* 2008).

Symbiont genomes

Endosymbiont DNA extraction and sequencing. In order to obtain genome data of putative co-obligate endosymbionts of Cinara, for four species (Cinara confinis, C. pseudotaxifoliae, C. strobi and C. fornacula), we prepared DNA samples enriched with bacteria following a slightly modified version of the protocol by Charles and Ishikawa (Charles & Ishikawa 1999) as described in Jousselin et al. (2016). For this filtration procedure, for each aphid colony, 7-15 aphids were pooled together. DNA libraries were then prepared using the Nextera XT Library Kit (Illumina) and each library was multiplexed and sequenced as a combination of 300-bp paired-end and/or 250-bp paired-end read on MiSeq (Illumina) flow cells and/or 100-bp paired-end read on one-fourth of an Illumina HiSeq 2000 lane (see supplementary information for details on the sequencing efforts used for each sample).

Draft genome assembly and annotation of riboflavin biosynthetic genes. Before assembly, reads were qualitytrimmed using FASTX-Toolkit version 0.0.14 (http://ha nnonlab.cshl.edu/fastx toolkit/) and reads shorter than 75 bps were filtered out. Additionally, reads containing undefined nucleotides ('N') were discarded using PRIN-SEQ-LITE version 2.24.0 (Schmieder & Edwards 2011). Remaining paired reads were used for de novo assembly in SPADES version 3.8.0 (Bankevich et al. 2012) with kmer lengths of 33, 55, 77 for samples '2801' and 33, 55, 77, 99, 127 for samples '3056' and '3249'. The resulting contigs were then taxonomically assigned to a putative symbiont through blastx searches against a database composed of the proteome of the pea aphid (ABLF00000000), diverse aphid endosymbiont bacterial strains (Buchnera spp. [BA000003, AP001070-1, AE013218, AE016826, AF492591, CP000263, AY438025, EU660486], Hamiltonella defensa [CP001277-8], Serratia symbiotica [CP002295, CCES00000000, FR904230-48, HG934887-9], Regiella insecticola [ACYF0000000]), Sodalis spp. (CP006569-70, AP008232-5, CP006568), Wolbachia spp. (AM9998877, AP013028), Yersinia pestis [AL590842.1, AL109969.1, AL117189.1, AL117211.1] and Erwinia spp. (FN666575-7, FP236842, FP236827-9, FP928999) strains, followed by manual curation. For the particular case of the X-type symbiont (no closely related genomes available and coexistence with a *H. defensa* strain), we followed a relatively more "rigorous" manual curation. Sample 2801 was also infected with H. defensa, however, we found this strain had high-sequence identity (>99%) with the 5AT strain from Ac. pisum. This allowed us to confidently remove all contigs that mapped or contained genes belonging to H. defensa. Also, H. defensa and the X-type symbiont genomes had quite different kmer coverages (H. defensa double that of X-type), which was used as an additional criterion for contig binning. In summary, contigs that were preferentially assigned to Y. pestis, rather than H. defensa, and that had similar genome coverage, were binned to the Xtype genome. Afterwards, the resulting references were used for mapping with BOWTE version 2.2.5 (Langmead & Salzberg 2012) and reassembled using SPADES (as previously described). Draft Buchnera chromosome assemblies were scaffolded using Buchnera from Cinara tujafilina (GenBank: CP001817.1) as reference. Final contigs were manually curated to remove spurious sequences (resulting from misassembles or contamination). Riboflavin biosynthetic genes were searched for using the online tblastn server, followed by manual curation.

Phylogenetic relationships in Cinara

DNA sequences and phylogenetic reconstruction. We used five DNA fragments to reconstruct the phylogeny of the 371 aphids used in the endosymbiont survey. We used three DNA fragments from the aphid's genome (cytochrome c oxidase subunit I 'COI'; cytochrome b'Cytb'; and the elongation factor 'EF') and two from the DNA of Buchnera aphidicola (a chaperonin assisting in the folding of proteins 'GroEL'; and 'His', which includes the ATP phosphoribosyltransferase (HisG) gene, the histidinol dehydrogenase (HisD) gene and the intergenic region). Total genomic DNA was extracted from a single individual from the same aphid colony as used in the endosymbiont survey. DNA was extracted, amplified and sequenced as in previous studies (Jousselin et al. 2013). A total of seventy-five specimens were newly sequenced for this study, while the other sequences were retrieved from GenBank (Appendix S1, Supporting information). Contigs were assembled from forward and reverse reads and corrected with GENEIOUS 8.1.7 (Drummond et al. 2010). Alignments were generated with MAFFT version 6 (Katoh & Toh 2008), with the default option L-INS-I, and were manually adjusted with Se-Al 2.0a11 Carbon (Rambaut 2002).

We concatenated all the markers in a single matrix and inferred phylogenetic relationships using MRBAYES version 3.2 (Ronquist et al. 2012) in a data set including the sequences of 371 aphid individuals (specimen data set) and a reduced data set (species data set) including only one specimen per phylogenetic cluster retrieved in the delineation test (128 species; see below). We evaluated different partitioning strategies of the data sets using Bayes factor comparisons of the harmonic mean to determine the best-fit partitioned scheme: UnPart (single data partition), GenePart (partitioned by gene), PartFind (partitioned following Partition Finder results) and MixedPart (the mixed model described below). For the PartFind scheme, we used the partitioning scheme and across-site rate variation suggested by PARTITION-FINDER version 1.1 (Lanfear et al. 2012); we inferred the best substitution model for each partition among those available in MRBAYES, using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) metric under a greedy algorithm. For the MixedPart scheme, instead of a priori applying a specific substitution model for each partition, we sampled across the substitution model space using a reversiblejump Markov chain Monte Carlo (rj-MCMC), with the option nst=mixed. This procedure integrates the uncertainty concerning the correct structure of the substitution model (Huelsenbeck et al. 2004). The best-fit partitioned scheme was the PartFind (Table S1, Supporting information), which was used for subsequent analyses. To prevent the overestimation of branch lengths when mutation rates differ between partitions of different genes (Brown et al. 2010) and between regions of single genes (Brown et al. 2010; Meseguer et al. 2013), we set the value of the shape parameter λ , which controls the exponential prior for branch lengths, to λ =100, assigning greater probability to short branches. We conducted two independent runs of four Metropoliscoupled chains each for 40 million generations,

sampling every 1000 generations and discarding 20% as burn-in.

Aphid species delimitation. Aphids show considerable overlap in their morphological characters; consequently, their identification often relies on biological traits such as host plant associations, which renders further investigations on the evolution of aphid life history traits tautological (Coeur d'acier et al. 2014). To avoid this bias, we complemented the morphological identifications of specimens with DNA-based species delimitation analyses. We used the Bayesian implementation of the Poisson tree process (BPTP) model (Zhang et al. 2013) to delimit putative Cinara species. We ran the analysis for 500 000 generations, thinning every 100 and discarding 0.1% as burn-in. We considered the clusters retrieved in this analysis as 'phylogenetic species' and repeated the phylogenetic analyses including only one individual per phylogenetic species.

Phylogenetic comparative analyses

We tested whether endosymbiotic associations were phylogenetically conserved using the λ of *Pagel* (Pagel 1994). It is a quantitative measure that varies between 0 (when there is no phylogenetic signal in the trait) and 1 (when there is phylogenetic signal). We optimized the value of lambda for the presence/absence of each bacterial lineage found in our samples onto the species tree using maximum likelihood (ML) in geiger (Harmon et al. 2008). The presence/absence of Serratia, Erwinia, Sodalis, Wolbachia, Hamiltonella, Type-X and Acetobacteraceae were modelled as binary traits. We did not analyse other endosymbionts detected in our study since they were poorly represented in our samples nor fixed within Cinara species (i.e. they never infected all the individuals of the same species). The species-level analysis excluded Rickettsia, Regiella and Arsenophonus that were fixed in few species. To test whether λ was significantly different from 0, we compared a model with the observed value of λ to a model with a fixed λ of zero using a likelihood ratio test.

We inferred ancestral associations of *Cinara* with each bacteria showing phylogenetic signal using ML in *ape* (Paradis *et al.* 2004) over the species phylogeny. Symbiotic associations were treated as a discrete character with seven states: *Serratia, Erwinia, Sodalis, Type-X, Wolbachia, Hamiltonella* and 'No cosymbiont', for species in which no bacterium, apart from *Buchnera*, was fixed in the species. Transition probabilities between character states were estimated under two models: equal rates 'ER' and all-rates different 'ARD' model, where all possible transitions between states receive distinct parameters. A likelihood ratio test was used to select the most appropriate model.

We evaluated the factors that were correlated with the presence of symbionts across Cinara species using logistic phylogenetic regressions (Ives & Garland 2010) in phylolm (Ho & Ané 2014). We fitted five different regression models for each of the bacteria exhibiting phylogenetic signal, with each time its presence/ absence as the dependent variable and one explanatory variable. We assessed the significance of the correlations by comparing these models with a null model using AIC. We chose explanatory variables that reflect several dimensions of the aphid's ecological niches and are generally used to explain the distribution of secondary symbionts across aphid populations. We included three life history traits related to host plant use: (i) host plant genera, that is Pinus, Picea, Cupressaceae, Larix, Pseudotsuga, Abies or Cedrus; (ii) feeding range, whether species were monophagous (feeding on a single plant species or a few closely related species) or polyphagous; and (iii) feeding site, whether species fed on lignified parts of the plant (branches and trunks) or not (needles, shoots, young twigs or at the base of new cones). These characters likely reflect the panel of variations in the metabolic needs of aphid species. We also tested (iv) the role of aphids' life habit, that is whether aphids lived solitarily or in dense colonies. Differences in life habit as well as variations in host plant use are likely associated with variations in the communities of natural enemies of aphids, which might favour alternative defensive symbionts (Oliver et al. 2008; Cayetano & Vorburger 2015; Henry et al. 2015; Smith et al. 2015). We assigned character states by combining information available in the literature for each recognized Cinara species (Blackman & Eastop 1994; Jousselin et al. 2013) and information recorded from the field in the course of aphid sampling. We did not explore the effect of aphid life cycle nor the association of aphids with ants as all Cinara species are monoecious and almost all are attended by ants. Recent studies underlined that expansion to new geographic areas could favour the acquisition of new bacterial partners in aphids (Zytynska & Weisser 2016), and we therefore investigated whether the (v) aphids' geographic distribution - that is whether species were distributed in the western or eastern parts of the Nearctic and the Palearctic - could explain variations in symbiont partnerships. Widespread geographic ranges in species of Cinara mostly resulted from recent dispersal events; we thus coded the distribution of these widespread species according to the distribution of their most recent ancestor estimated in a previous study (Meseguer et al. 2015). The prevalence, distribution and abundance of symbionts (both obligate and facultative) across aphids can also vary with the temperature (Russell & Moran 2006), suggesting that symbiont turnover could be driven by climatic variations. We thus tested the effect of climatic variables in the distribution of symbionts. Climatic values of specimen records were extracted from six raster layers, Worldclim (Hijmans *et al.* 2005), at a resolution of 30 arc-seconds: annual mean temperature, temperature of the coldest and the warmest month, annual precipitation, and precipitation of the wettest and driest month. Multiple occurrences of a symbiont in the same grid cell were reduced to a single occurrence. We ran between-group principal component analysis (PCA; Dolédec & Chessel 1987) to compare climatic envelopes of symbionts on *ade4* (Dray & Dufour 2007). We tested the significance of the between-groups structure using Monte Carlo permutation tests with 999 replications. Temperature and precipitation ranges of symbionts were also visualized with bar plots.

Results

16S rDNA data set description

High-throughput sequencing of 16S rRNA bacterial genes from 371 individual aphids generated 8.412.145 reads passing Illumina stringent quality control (mean number of reads per sample = 11.246, standard deviation = 9113; excluding negative controls). After all sequence filtering steps, we obtained 8 403 870 reads, corresponding to 182 913 unique sequences (Appendix S3, Supporting information). After discarding sequences accounting for less than 0.5% of the reads in each sample, we obtained 630 unique sequences. Overall, 88.7% of these sequences were attributed to Enterobacteriaceae (Arsenophonus, Buchnera, Edwardsiella, Erwinia, Hamiltonella, Regiella, Serratia, Sodalis), 2.7% to Rickettsiaceae (Rickettsia, Wolbachia), 1.6% to Acetobacteraceae, 0.6% to Acinetobacter and 0.3% to Spiroplasma. The remaining 6% of the sequences were assigned to families containing water- and soilborne bacteria (e.g. Comamonadaceae, Flavobacteriaceae or Methylobacteriaceae), each of which occurred at very low frequency (Appendix S2, Supporting information). The removal of sequences accounting for less than 0.5% of the reads in aphid samples eliminated most of the sequences common to negative controls (Fig. S1, Supporting information). The bacterial taxonomic compositions of aphid samples were highly similar across PCR replicates ($r^2 > 0.99$; Fig. S2, Supporting information), except for Acinetobacter $(r^2 < 0.8)$ which did not appear in similar proportions in replicates.

Diversity of symbionts associated with Cinara

Of the 371 aphid specimens examined here, 218 hosted two bacteria: *B. aphidicola* and a second partner belonging to various lineages: *Serratia, Erwinia, Sodalis,* Wolbachia or a nondescribed lineage of Enterobacteriaceae. The 16S rDNA sequence of the latter is highly similar to the one of the secondary symbiont found associated with Acyrtosiphon pisum, named Type-X (Guay et al. 2009). We thus referred to this symbiont as Type-X throughout the manuscript (Fig. 1; Fig. S3, Table S2, Supporting information). This 16S rDNA haplotype was uncorrectly assigned to the taxon Regiella in sample 2801 (C. confinis) in Jousselin et al. (2016). A total of 146 specimens hosted Buchnera alongside with 3-5 other bacterial partners). Serratia, Erwinia, Sodalis, Wolbachia and Type-X tended to be present in all the individuals of the species they infected, with an overall mean prevalence for each bacterium over 70% (i.e. each bacterium appeared, on average, in more than 70% of the specimens studied) (Fig. S4, Supporting information). Conversely, Arsenophonus, Hamiltonella, Regiella, Rickettsia, Acinetobacter and Acetobacteraceae were generally detected in some, but not all of the individuals of the species they infected (the overall mean prevalence for each of these bacteria was below 60%). Seven Cinara specimens did not contain an alternative bacteria along with Buchnera: C. laricis (1 specimen out of the 3 studied was associated only with Buchnera), C. kochi (1/1), C. brevispinosa (2/11), C. cf coloradensis (1/2), C. close piceae (1/4) and C. sp_3210 (1/1).

Symbiont specificity

The association between Serratia and Cinara was generally species specific, with 68% of Cinara species hosting a single Serratia 16S rRNA gene sequence, and 74% of Serratia 16S rRNA gene sequence found associated with a single Cinara species (Fig. S5, Supporting information). These patterns of species specificity were very similar to those observed for Cinara and Buchnera (Table 1; Fig. S6, Supporting information). For the species in which the presence of more than one Serratia haplotype was reported, some cases resulted from different bacterial haplotypes being present in individuals from different populations, whereas in other cases, up to two Serratia haplotypes were found in a single Cinara specimen (Appendix S2, Supporting information). These situations may represent cases of co-infection of an aphid with different Serratia strains or they might stem from slight divergences in 16S rDNA sequences from a single Serratia strain (slightly divergent bacterial chromosomes can sometimes occur within a single bacteriocyte) (Komaki & Ishikawa 1999). More than half of the Cinara species infected with Sodalis-related bacteria or Type-X were found associated with more than one haplotype of these endosymbionts (Table 1; Fig. S5, Supporting information), a single specimen could host up to seven different 16s rDNA sequences (Appendix 2, Supporting information) (again indicating co-infections or multiple 16S rDNA sequences in a single bacterial strain), whereas about 90% of these bacteria were specific to their host (i.e. found associated with a single *Cinara* species). Overall, 85% of the *Cinara* species infected with *Erwinia* contained a single haplotype, and 50% of the *Erwinia* haplotypes were host specific (Fig. S5, Supporting information). For all these bacteria, there were cases in which the same haplotype was found to be present in different *Cinara* species. Shared haplotypes were generally found in closely related *Cinara* species, but a few haplotypes were well represented in distantly related species (green lines in Fig. S5, Supporting information). We identified one *Serratia* 16S rRNA gene sequence that was present in 34 distantly related species of *Cinara*.

Endosymbiont genomes

In order to corroborate the role of Buchnera's coresident symbionts as the riboflavin providers, we sequenced the genomes of Buchnera and the secondary symbiont of C. strobi (Sodalis-like), C. fornacula (S. symbiotica), C. pseudotaxifoliae (Erwinia) and C. confinis (Type-X). The genomes of all Buchnera symbionts were assembled into one single circular scaffold plus the typical leucine and tryptophan plasmid. The genome of the Erwinia-like symbiont was assembled into one contig plus one circular plasmid, and the genome of the Serratia was assembled into one contig. The genomes of the Sodalis-like and Type-X secondary symbionts were highly fragmented, given the high presence of mobile genetic elements. All four secondary symbionts hold small genomes, when compared to their free-living relatives, with the genomes of both Erwinia (circa 1.09 Mb) and Serratia (c. 1.16 Mb) symbionts being the smallest. Full statistics for the genome assemblies can be found in Table S3 (Supporting information).

Blastx searches for *riboflavin*, *tryptophan* and *biotin* biosynthetic genes revealed that none of the *Buchnera* strains is able to synthesize riboflavin while all coresident symbionts preserve intact routes for the biosynthesis of this compound (Fig. 2).

Phylogenetic reconstruction of Cinara and species delimitation

The phylogeny of 371 aphid individuals was well resolved and highly sustained (pp > 95) (Fig. S7, Supporting information). Species delimitation analyses with BPTP identified 128 putative *Cinara* species (acceptance rate = 0.18; range: 121–147) among the total of 371 specimens analysed, separating morphological species into several clusters in a few cases (Fig. S7, Supporting information). The phylogeny including one specimen of

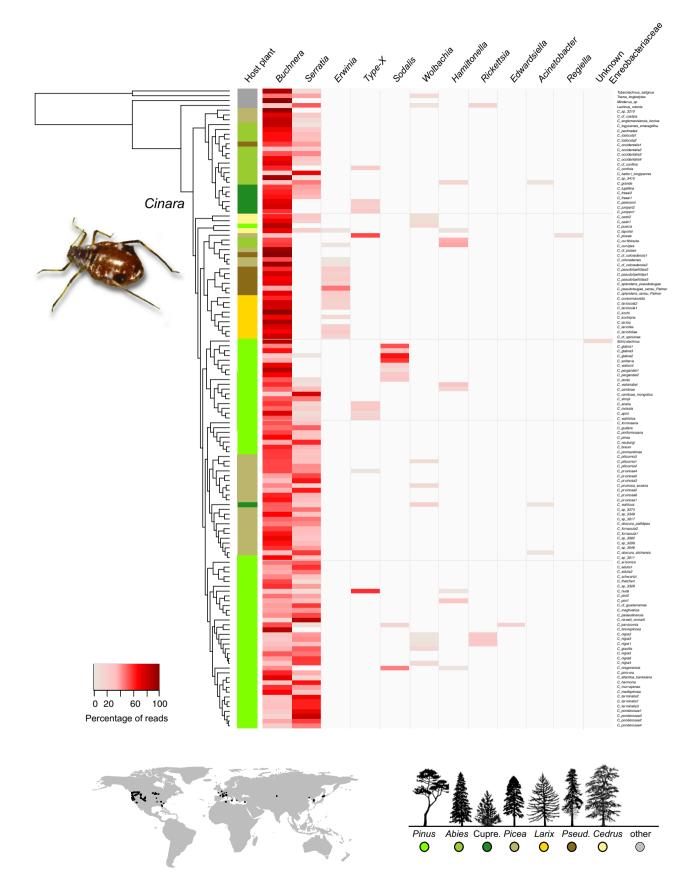


Fig. 1 Bacterial community (phylum and frequency as estimated by read abundances) of *Cinara* species mapped onto the tips of the ultrametric species tree of *Cinara*. For the total number of reads found in an aphid specimen, we have calculated the percentage of reads belonging to each bacterium. In this figure, only endosymbionts that are fixed within *Cinara* species (bacteria found in all specimens of a given species) are plotted. Therefore, the frequency of each endosymbiont (the red bars) in a species represents the mean percentage of reads obtained in all the specimens of that species (including PCR replicates). Colours in the figure correspond to the colour circles and conifer silhouettes in the inset legend. Black circles in the inset map show the collection sites of the specimens of *Cinara* (N = 371). The photograph shows *Cinara ponderosae* (col: Coeur d'acier).

each of the 128 species retrieved in the delineation test was also well resolved and strongly supported (Fig. S8, Supporting information).

Comparative phylogenetic methods

Pagel's λ test indicated a significant (p < 0.01) phylogenetic signal over the species tree for the association with *Serratia*, *Erwinia*, *Type-X*, *Wolbachia* and *Sodalis* (Table S4, Supporting information). The ancestral character state reconstructions suggested that *Serratia* was acquired in the common ancestor of all Lachninae (Fig. S9, Supporting information). *Serratia* was then independently lost in eight lineages and recently reacquired in *Cinara glabra*. *Sodalis*, *Wolbachia*, *Erwinia* and *Type-X* were acquired more recently in different lineages of *Cinara*, following the loss of *Serratia*, although *Type-X* and *Wolbachia* persisted alongside *Serratia* in a small group of species.

The presence of different cosymbionts across *Cinara* species could not be explained by any of the aphid traits examined here, as the null models always fitted the data better than the models including explanatory variables (Table S5, Supporting information) – all of the obligate cosymbionts identified here were found in aphid species using a wide range of ecological niches (Fig. 3). The climatic envelopes of the main cosymbionts were not significantly different (inertia: 0.009; P = 0.298; Fig. 4, Fig. S10, Supporting information).

Discussion

Repeated evolution of dual symbiosis in Cinara

The evolutionary history of *Cinara* has been accompanied by major changes in its symbiotic partners. We show that, during the course of its diversification, *Cinara* has acquired different cosymbionts that reside

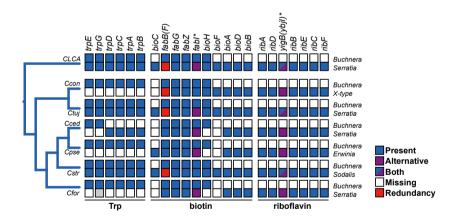


Fig. 2 Diagram representing the metabolic complementation found in the biosynthesis of tryptophan, biotin and the riboflavin biosynthesis takeover/rescue between *Buchnera* and *Serratia, Erwinia, Sodalis* or *Type-X* obligate symbionts in the endosymbiotic systems of *Cinara*. Gene names are used as column names. On the left, a schematic representation of the phylogenetic relationships of *Cinara* species. Abbreviations for the different species are as follows: CLCA, *Cinara* last common ancestors; Ccon, *Cinara confinis*, Ctuj, *C. tujafilina*; Cced, *C. cedri*; Cpse, *C. pseudotaxifoliae*; Cfor, *C. fornacula*. Data from *C. tujafilina* and *C. cedri* come from Gosalbes *et al.* (2008), Lamelas *et al.* (2011a, b) and Manzano-Marin & Latorre (2014).

Table 1 Aphid symbiont specificity. Only well-represented haplotypes (representing >1% of the reads in a sample) are considered

	Buchnera	Serratia	Sodalis	Erwinia	Туре-Х
% <i>Cinara</i> species hosting a single bacterial haplotype	67	68	8.3	85	50
% Bacterial haplotypes infecting a single <i>Cinara</i> species	85	74	88	50	89

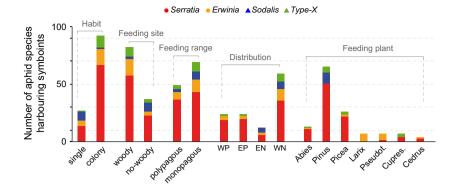


Fig. 3 Distribution of cosymbionts across aphid's ecological contexts. For several aphid characters, the histograms show the number of species hosting each cosymbionts. Pseudot., *Pseudotsuga*; Cupre., Cupressaceae; WP, Western Palearctic; EP, Eastern Palearctic; WN, Western Nearctic; EN, Eastern Nearctic.

with their primary symbiont, Buchnera aphidicola. In 79% of the 128 species studied here, Buchnera was found to coexist with Serratia, whereas, in the remaining 21%, Serratia was replaced by a bacterium related to Erwinia, Sodalis or an unknown member of the Enterobacteriaceae referred to here as Type-X (Fig. 1, Table S2, Supporting information). The tendency of these bacteria to be present in all the specimens of the species they infect (Fig. S4, Supporting information), throughout their geographic range and on their various host plants, together with the phylogenetic conservatism of the associations (Table S4, Supporting information), suggests that they have established long-term relationships with their aphid hosts. The analyses of the endosymbiont genomes confirm that none of the Buchnera strains newly sequenced here is able to synthesize riboflavin, while all secondary symbionts preserve intact routes for the biosynthesis of this compound and would be capable of putatively complementing the truncated biotin biosynthetic pathway (Fig. 2). Altogether, these results, along with recent studies within Lachninae (Manzano-Marín et al. 2016b), add to the mounting evidence that all Cinara species and probably all Lachninae shelter a disymbiotic system: Serratia, Erwinia, Sodalis and Type-X coexist with Buchnera as co-obligate partners. The absence of *riboflavin* biosynthetic genes in all currently sequenced Buchnera from Cinara aphids (Perez-Brocal et al. 2006; Lamelas et al. 2011b; Manzano-Marín et al. 2016a) suggests that the Buchnera from the Cinara last common ancestor (CLCA) was probably dependent on a secondary endosymbiont for the biosynthesis of this essential vitamin. Also, given Buchnera gene content, it is highly likely that the CLCA developed a biotin auxotrophy: the biosynthesis of this vitamin could be split between Buchnera and its companion symbiont (Fig. 2). The finding that Buchnera seems to lack a coresident symbiont in a few specimens (seven individuals in our sampling, Fig. S3, Supporting information) could challenge this interpretation - it could suggest that some individuals rely only on Buchnera and thus that the primary symbiont genome is still fully functional or that the aphid can fulfil the functions lost in Buchnera; it could have acquired this ability through horizontal gene transfer. Alternatively, the failure to detect a cosymbiont in these individuals could be the result of bacteriocyte size reduction and/or symbiont degradation that occurs with aphid ageing. This phenomenon has been described for Buchnera bacteriocytes in the pea aphid (Simonet et al. 2016). It is also possible that individuals lose their co-obligate symbiont during their development; recent studies have shown that the cereal weevil Sitophilus oryzae eliminates its obligate symbiont (Sodalis pierantonius) when it no longer needs it (Vigneron et al. 2014). A thorough investigation of symbiont cell localization within their host and dynamics throughout the aphid development will be needed to validate any of these interpretations. Specimens without a cosymbiont mostly belonged to the Cinara clade associated with Erwinia; it will be interesting to follow bacteria cell population dynamics of this symbiotic association.

The obligate association of Serratia with C. tujafilina, C. cedri and Tuberolachnus salignus has already been demonstrated through genome-based metabolic inference (Lamelas et al. 2011b; Manzano-Marin & Latorre 2014; Manzano-Marín et al. 2016a). Associations of aphids and bacteria related to Sodalis have rarely been documented. However specific PCR assays and histological work in Lachninae (Burke et al. 2009; Manzano-Marín et al. 2016b) have shown that Sodalis-related bacteria were associated with several species and suggested that these bacteria could have replaced Serratia in different Lachninae lineages. Sodalis-related bacteria are actually ubiquitous in insects and have seemingly established obligate associations with various hemipterans (Snyder et al. 2011; Koga et al. 2013; Koga & Moran 2014; Oakeson et al. 2014; Husnik & McCutcheon 2016). *Type-X* has also been detected in members of the Lachninae and its presence was interpreted as a replacement for Serratia in some lineages (Manzano-Marín et al. 2016b). Bacteria related to Erwinia are generally free-living plant pathogens. Although it has been suggested

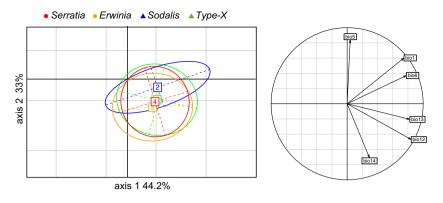


Fig. 4 Circle of correlation and factor scores obtained from a principal component analysis performed on bioclimatic variables. Ellipses delimit the climatic envelopes of aphids hosting the different cosymbionts. Climatic values were extracted from the localities where aphid specimens carrying the essential symbionts were found. The percentages of variance explained by the first two principal components are indicated in the axis labels. BIO1, annual mean temperature; BIO5, max. temperature of warmest month; BIO6, min. temperature of coldest month; BIO12, annual precipitation; BIO13, precipitation of wettest month; BIO14, precipitation of driest month.

that they can act as symbiotic partners of aphids (Harada *et al.* 1997; Clark *et al.* 2012), Erwinia is usually assumed to be an arthropod gut symbiont. This is the first study to show an *Erwinia* related lineage to be an obligate symbiotic partner of aphids.

Most Cinara species host only two obligate partners. However, in some species, Type-X was found with both Serratia and Buchnera in all the individuals sampled (Fig. 1). This either suggests that some Cinara species have more than two obligate symbionts, as observed in other arthropods (Koga et al. 2013), or that these species are currently in a transitional state, in which the ancestral Serratia (Fig. S9, Supporting information) has not yet been eliminated. A third possibility is that one of the cosymbionts represents a more recent facultative infection. This may apply to the species hosting Wolbachia. Although this bacterium is usually found in all individuals of the species it infects (Fig. S4, Supporting information) and associated with Serratia, Wolbachia has not established a long-term association with Cinara, as it is not fixed in any particular clade of the genus. Wolbachia may probably be a facultative symbiont that is widespread in aphids' populations thanks to its ability to manipulate reproduction (Gomez-Valero et al. 2004; Augustinos et al. 2011). We have detected many individuals in which the cosymbionts described above are present together with other bacteria (Arsenophonus, Edwardsiella, Regiella, Rickettsia, Hamiltonella or Spiroplasma; Fig. 1; Fig. S3, Supporting information). These additional partners are probably facultative infections, because they occur sporadically within the species and their association with Cinara is not evolutionarily stable (Fig. S4, Table S4, Supporting information).

Evolutionary history of symbiotic associations

Two evolutionary scenarios could explain the distribution of cosymbionts observed here. Serratia may have infected an ancestor of the Lachninae (Fig. S9, Supporting information), a subfamily that originated more than 70 Ma (Chen et al. 2015; Meseguer et al. 2015). The division of labour in the nutrition of Cinara may have been established then (Fig. 2; Lamelas et al. 2011a, b). At various times points between the Oligocene and the present, Serratia may then have been lost from several clades of Cinara (Fig. S9, Supporting information). These losses were associated with the acquisition of an alternative coresident, Erwinia, Type-X or Sodalis. This scenario implies a long history of cospeciation between Cinara and Serratia, followed by further cospeciation between Cinara and its more recently acquired cosymbionts. Alternatively, there may have been multiple independent colonizations of an already diversified Cinara genus by several lineages of Serratia, Erwinia, Type-X and Sodalis.

We cannot conduct robust cospeciation tests using endosymbiont phylogenies based on the short 16S rRNA marker sequenced here. However, the patterns of specificity revealed here shed some light on the history of the symbiotic associations between *Cinara* and its bacterial partners. The distribution of 16S *Serratia* haplotypes across *Cinara* species suggests that the codiversification history of *Serratia* and *Cinara* probably involved both cospeciation and multiple infections. On the one hand, the interaction between the two partners is generally species specific (Fig. S5, Supporting information, Table 1), which is consistent with cospeciation scenarios. On the other hand, several *Serratia* strains are common to distantly related aphid species (e.g. one Serratia haplotype is present in 34 unrelated Cinara species), and most of the species containing these haplotypes are also infected with another Serratia strain. Furthermore, previous studies suggest that the Serratia strains associated with C. cedri and C. tujafilina could belong to two distantly related lineages (Manzano-Marin & Latorre 2014; Manzano-Marín et al. 2016a). Altogether, these findings demonstrate that, during the course of its evolution, Cinara has experienced multiple infections with different lineages of Serratia. Some lineages may have infected the ancestors of Cinara, establishing an obligate association and partly cospeciated with them, whereas other Serratia lineages may have infected different species of the genus more recently. Thus, obligate and facultative Serratia strains might even be found co-infecting the same aphid (Fig. S5, Supporting information). This would explain why previous studies based on phylogenetic analyses of Serratia 16S rDNA sequences rejected the hypothesis of cospeciation between Serratia and Cinara (Lamelas et al. 2008; Burke et al. 2009).

Similarly, the overall patterns of Type-X and Sodalis specificity for their hosts suggest that these associations may result from a combination of cospeciation and host switches (Fig. S5, Supporting information). Codiversification scenarios will be difficult to unravel for these associations, as the presence of multiple, slightly divergent bacterial haplotypes in each aphid specimen (Appendix S2, Supporting information) suggests some co-infections by several strains, and/or that the 16S rRNA gene is present in multiple copies in a single symbiont type (Koga et al. 2013). The association of Cinara and Erwinia is not species specific, although each Cinara species generally contains only one Erwinia haplotype, closely related aphid species harbour Erwinia strains of the same haplotype. This suggests a lack of differentiation in Erwinia during the speciation of aphids, or that the DNA fragment studied here may not have been variable enough to reflect interspecific variation.

The patterns of symbiont aphid specificity depicted here show that future studies should make use of several single-copy bacterial DNA markers and take into account coinfections by several strains and possibly bacterial cell polyploidy – that is the presence of many, slightly divergent, bacterial chromosomes in a single bacteriocyte (Komaki & Ishikawa 1999) – in the investigation of codiversification history between *Cinara* and its obligate symbionts.

Which factors drive symbiont replacement?

The repeated evolution of dual symbiosis in *Cinara* provides us with a unique opportunity to investigate the

factors favouring one coresident symbiont over another in symbiotic associations between aphids and bacteria. The presence of facultative symbionts in aphid populations, and insects in general, is generally explained by the ecological niche occupied by their hosts (Oliver et al. 2010; Henry et al. 2015; Liberti et al. 2015). However, little is currently known about the forces governing the evolution of these associations when the symbionts are essential for the system to survive. We found that changes in obligate cosymbionts were not correlated with evolutionary transitions in Cinara (Table S5, Supporting information). All of the obligate cosymbionts identified here were found in aphid species using a wide range of ecological niches (Figs 3 and 4). This implies that the acquisition of new cosymbionts did not trigger the adaptation of the host aphid to environmental conditions. The addition of a new partner to symbiotic associations could be explained by a degradation of the functions of the existing partner (e.g. due to genetic drift; Bennett & Moran 2015). In a dual symbiotic systems in leafhoppers (Bennett et al. 2014), the most recently recruited symbiont has been shown to possess a less stable genome than the ancient symbiont and has been repeatedly replaced. A similar situation may apply to our model system; a loss of symbiotic functions in Serratia may have favoured the establishment of an alternative bacterium, while Buchnera persisted in the association. Alternatively, the relatively rapid turnover of cosymbionts alongside Buchnera may result from competitive interactions between bacteria with similar metabolic capabilities. Essential functions have been lost from Buchnera in an ancestor of Lachninae (Fig. 2; Fig. S9, Supporting information; Manzano-Marín et al. 2016a). The delegation of these symbiotic functions of Buchnera to a bacterial partner may have paved the way for colonization by any bacterium with similar metabolic capacities. In this scenario, the identity of the new partner depends on the outcome of competition between bacteria, regulated by their population dynamics (i.e. demographic advantages due to higher replication rates) rather than the selective advantages they confer on the host. The possibility that obligate symbiont replacements can be non-adaptive for the insect host was actually already discussed by Fukatsu et al. (1994) to explain the unique case of Buchnera replacement by a yeast like symbiont (in Cerataphidini).

Conclusions

We report here a highly dynamic disymbiotic system in the second most diverse aphid genus. An additional endosymbiotic partner is required in *Cinara* to complement *Buchnera* in its nutritional role. Interestingly, this new 'flatmate' has been repeatedly replaced during the diversification of the group but it never replaces Buchnera. This mirrors findings for other sap-feeding insects where the primary symbiont is supplemented by an additional bacterium. In Auchenorrhyncha, the ancestral symbiont, Sulcia, coexists with another obligate symbiont, the identity of which differs between lineages (Koga et al. 2013). In some mealybugs, the primary symbiont shelters within its cells another Gammaproteobacterium symbiont that has also been repeatedly replaced (Husnik & McCutcheon 2016). The aphid sister group (Adelgidae) has not established a long-term association with a primary symbiont, but is found associated with a diverse set of obligate bacterial partners throughout its evolutionary history (Toenshoff et al. 2012, 2014). Our results suggest that the succession of essential symbionts does not necessarily result from the adaptation of their hosts to changing ecological conditions. It might therefore be driven by factors intrinsic to the evolutionary dynamics of endosymbionts, such as rapid genome deterioration or the competitive displacement of symbionts providing similar benefits to the host.

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E.J., A.S.M. and A.C.A. designed the study. A.S.M. and E.J. wrote the study with contributions of A.M.M. A.S.M., A.M.M. and M.G. analysed the data. A.L.C. performed the molecular work. A.C.A. identified the aphid specimens. A.C.A. and E.J. collected the specimens.

Data accessibility

The 16S rRNA sequence data produced in this study are available from the Dryad Digital Repository (doi: 10.5061/dryad.9jn6r). Appendices S1-S3 (Supporting information) are also accessible in Dryad (doi: 10.5061/ dryad.9jn6r); Appendix S1 (Supporting information) includes collection details for aphid samples and Gen-Bank Accession nos. Appendix S2 (Supporting information) shows a contingency table reporting bacterial sequence occurrences across aphid samples, and Appendix S3 (Supporting information) includes a summary of the number of reads and unique sequences per sample. DNA sequences for the aphid phylogeny are available in GenBank Accession nos KY064183-KY064504. Reads used for genome assembly as well as draft assemblies for the endosymbionts' genomes have been deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive under the project numbers PRJEB15400 (C. fornacula), PRJEB15504 (C. confinis), PRJEB15506 (C. pseudotaxifoliae) and PRJEB15507 (C. strobi).

Supporting information

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

Fig. S1 Bacterial community (phylum and read frequencies) detected in negative control.

Fig. S2 Frequency of bacteria across aphid in two PCR replicates.

Fig. S3 Bacterial community (phylum and frequency as estimated by read abundances) of easch *Cinara* specimen mapped to the phylogenetic tips of the specimens ultrametric tree of *Cinara*.

Fig. S4 Percentage of *Cinara* sample (outgroups excluded) carrying a particular symbiont plotted as function of the total number of individuals collected for that aphid species.

Fig. S5 Interaction networks showing the link between haplotypes of obligate cosymbionts.

Fig. S6 Interaction networks showing the association between *Buchnera* haplotypes (on the right) and *Cinara* species (on the left).

Fig. S7 Phylogenetic relationships among Cinara specimens.

Fig. S8 Phylogenetic relationships among Cinara species.

Fig. S9 Ancestral reconstructions of symbiotic associations in Cinara.

Fig. S10 Boxplots representing the climatic conditions encountered by each symbiont.

Appendix S1 Collection details for aphid samples and Gen-Bank accession numbers (voucher numbers refer to the aphid colony).

Appendix S2 Bacterial sequence across aphid specimens.

Appendix S3 Summary of the number of reads and unique sequences per sample.

Table S1 Sensitivity analysis assessing the impact of different partitioning strategies on the Bayesian inference of the "specimens" and "species" (including only one specimen per species) concatenated datasets.

Table S2 Percentage of aphid specimen/species hosting the bacteria identified in this study among the total number of specimens/species analysed (371/128).

Table S3 Summarized genome assembly statistics. Genome size represent the scaffold length excluding "N".

Table S4 Phylogenetic signal for the presence of the studied bacteria using *Pagel's* λ over the species phylogeny.

Table S5 Logistic phylogenetic regression results for the different aphids life-history traits examined here: life habit, feeding site, feeding range, host-plant genera and geographic distribution.