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1	Acanthamoeba S13WT relies on its bacterial endosymbiont to backpack human
2	pathogenic bacteria and resist Legionella infection on solid media
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## 38 Summary

39 Soil-borne amoeba Acanthamoeba S13WT has an endosymbiotic relationship with an 40 environmental Neochlamydia bacterial strain. However, regardless of extensive 41 experiments in liquid media, the biological advantage of the symbiosis remained elusive. 42 We therefore explored the role of the endosymbiont in predator-prey interactions on 43 solid media. A mixed culture of the symbiotic or aposymbiotic amoebae and 44 GFP-expressing Escherichia coli or Salmonella Enteritidis was spotted onto the center 45 of a LB or B-CYE agar plate pre-inoculated with a ring of mCherry-expressing 46 Legionella pneumophila (Legionella "wall"). The spread of the amoebae on the plate 47 was assessed using a fluorescence imaging system or scanning electron microscopy. As 48 a result, in contrast to the aposymbiotic amoebae, the symbiotic amoebae backpacked 49 these GFP-expressing bacteria and formed flower-like fluorescence patterns in an 50 anticlockwise direction. Other bacteria (Pseudomonas aeruginosa and 51 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia), but not Staphylococcus aureus, were also backpacked 52 by the symbiotic amoebae on LB agar, although lacked the movement to anticlockwise 53 direction. Furthermore, in contrast to the aposymbiotic amoebae, the symbiotic amoebae backpacking the *E. coli* broke through the *Legionella* "wall" on B-CYE agar plates. 54 55 Thus, we concluded that Acanthamoeba S13WT required the Neochlamydia 56 endosymbiont to backpack human pathogenic bacteria and resist Legionella infection on 57 solid agar.

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60 Keywords: Acanthamoeba, bacterial endosymbiont, Neochlamydia, backpack,

## *Legionella*, solid media

## 63 Introduction

64 Free-living Acanthamoeba species cause keratitis or granulomatous amoebic 65 encephalitis in humans (De Jonckheere, 1991; Marciano-Cabral and Cabral, 2003; 66 Schuster and Visvesvara, 2004; Khan, 2006; Visvesvara et al., 2007), and are readily 67 isolated from a wide range of natural and built environments (soil, river water, domestic 68 tap water, seawater, pond water, and dust) where they are an important predator of 69 bacteria (Rivera et al., 1987; Sawyer, 1989; Ettinger et al., 2003; Kilic et al., 2004; 70 Górnik and Kuzna-Grygiel, 2004; Tsvetkova et al., 2004; Lorenzo-Morales et al., 71 2005a). Like many other amoebae, Acanthamoeba often harbor endosymbiotic bacteria. 72 Generally, approximately 20-25% of environmental amoeba isolates contain 73 endosymbionts, indicating that endosymbiosis occurs ubiquitously among free-living 74 amoebal species (Fritsche et al., 1993; Horn and Wagner, 2004; Thomas et al., 2006; 75 Heinz et al., 2007; Schmitz-Esser et al., 2008). It is therefore relevant to investigate the 76 stable interaction between endosymbionts and their host amoebae to better understand 77 the evolution of symbiosis and the survival mechanisms of endosymbionts.

78 With this in mind, we previously isolated several environmental Acanthamoeba 79 strains infected with endosymbiotic bacteria from natural and built environments, 80 including soil, hot spring water, and hospital floors. These strains have proven useful as 81 models for understanding host-parasite relationships (Matsuo et al., 2010; Nakamura et 82 al., 2010; Sampo et al., 2014; Fukumoto et al., 2016). Among them, soil-borne 83 Acanthamoeba strain S13WT, harboring environmental non-pathogenic chlamydial 84 strain Neochlamydia S13, was of particular interest for several reasons (Matsuo et al., 2010). First, although the endosymbiont does not cause amoebal lysis and lacks 85

86 transferability to other amoebae, it has an amoebal infection rate of 100% (Matsuo et al., 87 2010; Nakamura et al., 2010). Second, while the aposymbiotic amoebae grow well, the 88 symbiotic amoebae show growth restriction (Okude et al., 2012). Third, amoebae 89 harboring the Neochlamydia endosymbiont can resist Legionella, a natural pathogen of 90 amoebae (Ishida et al., 2014). Thus, the presence of the bacterial endosymbiont 91 obviously hinders in the growth of the host amoebae, and despite extensive experiments 92 in liquid media (Matsuo et al., 2010; Nakamura et al., 2010; Sampo et al., 2014; 93 Fukumoto et al., 2016; Okude et al., 2012; Ishida et al., 2014), the biological advantage

of maintaining the endosymbiont remains to be fully understood.

95 Therefore, in the present study, we explored the role of the endosymbiont in 96 predator-prey interactions using a simple experiment on agar plates more closely mimic 97 natural surface conditions rather than in liquid media. For the first time, we were able to 98 show that the symbiotic amoebae could backpack human pathogenic bacteria 99 (Escherichia coli, Salmonella Enteritidis, Pseudomonas aeruginosa and 100 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia) on solid media, and break through a "wall" of 101 Legionella. This activity was dependent on the presence of the Neochlamydia 102 endosymbiont, and confirmed that the endosymbiont was advantageous for 103 predator-prey interactions.

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## 106 **Results and discussion**

107 Symbiotic amoebae spotted onto agar plates with green fluorescent protein
 108 (GFP)-expressing E. coli and Salmonella Enteritidis formed flower-like fluorescence

## 109 patterns consisting of each of the colonies

110 GFP-expressing bait bacteria (E. coli DH5 $\alpha$ ) were used to track the movements of the 111 Nechlamydia S13 symbiotic amoebae (S13WT), the aposymbiotic amoebae (S13RFP), 112 reconstructed symbiotic amoebae containing Protochlamydia HS-T3 (S13HS-T3), and 113 C3 reference strain amoebae on Luria-Bertani (LB) agar plates. Surprisingly, while no 114 movement was noted for the combinations of S13RFP or C3 amoebae (Acanthamoeba 115 castellanii) plus GFP-expressing E. coli, in the presence of the symbiotic amoebae, the 116 E. coli spread out towards the edges of the agar plates (Fig. 1A). Furthermore, with 117 increasing incubation time, the symbiotic amoebae also formed flower-like fluorescence 118 patterns consisting of the GFP-expressing E. coli in an anticlockwise direction (Fig. 1A, 119 Also, see enlarged upper image). Interestingly, the reconstructed symbiotic amoebae 120 containing the Protochlamydia HS-T3 endosymbiont showed partial construction of the 121 flower-like formations (Fig. 1A, Also, see enlarged upper image). To objectively 122 measure these traces, the fluorescence in the areas containing the bacterial colonies was 123 measured using Image J software. As a result, a significant increase in fluorescence was 124 recorded in areas containing the S13WT amoebae in the presence of E. coli, supporting 125 the results obtained from observation of the agar plates (Fig. 1B). This ability of the 126 symbiotic amoebae to move the fluorescent bacteria was confirmed using a second 127 human pathogenic bacterium, GFP-expressing Salmonella enterica serovar Enteritidis 128 YH0815. Again, in the presence of the S13WT symbiotic amoebae, fluorescent bacterial 129 colonies could be observed spreading towards the edges of the agar plates with the 130 movement of anticlockwise (Fig. 2AB). Furthermore, it was also confirmed that other 131 bacteria (P. aeruginosa ATCC 27853 and S. maltophilia DA185), but not

Staphylococcus aureus ATCC 29213 (Fig. S1), were backpacked by the symbiotic amoebae on LB agar, although lacked the movement to anticlockwise direction (Fig. 3). Thus, the results showed that the S13WT amoebae could backpack human pathogenic bacteria, moving faster with a flower-like pattern on the surface of the agar (in the cases of the *E. coli* and *Salmonella*), which appeared to depend on the presence of the anticlosymbiont.

138 At present, the exact reason for the faster movement with flower-like tracks in an 139 anticlockwise direction by the symbiotic amoebae, which depended on the 140 endosymbiotic bacteria, remains unknown. Meanwhile, actin filament bundling is one 141 of the key regulators contributing to actin-dependent motility in amoebae (Knecht et al., 142 2010; Westendorf et al., 2013). The direction of polarized actin protrusion can alter the 143 walking speed or crawling direction of amoebae (Westendorf et al., 2013). Furthermore, 144 directional amoebal locomotion against resistive forces requires a turgid 145 forward-pointing actin filament, most likely sustained by cortical actomyosin II (Van 146 Haastert, 2000). In this regard, it is well known that chlamydiae can subvert host 147 cytoskeletal and membrane trafficking pathways via secretion machinery (Scidmore, 148 2011). Thus, the structural change of actin on the amoebal surface might be responsible 149 for the faster walking of the symbiotic amoebae in a specific direction, resulting in 150 anticlockwise movement, presumably regulated with the effector proteins secreted by 151 the bacterial endosymbiont genetically possessing type III secretion machinery (Ishida 152 et al., 2014; Yamaguchi et al., 2015). In addition, infection of the aposymbiotic 153 amoebae with endosymbiont Protochlmydia HS-T3, generating a reconstructed 154 symbiotic amoebal strain, partially reinstated the ability to produce the flower-like

locomotion with the backpacking of *E. coli*, but not *Salmonella*, on the agar plates.
Since *Salmonella* strains possesses virulence islands that aid in the manipulation of the
host's systems (Fàbrega, 2013; Tezcan-Merdol *et al.*, 2004; Bleasdale *et al.*, 2009),
backpacking of this pathogen would likely be fatal with apoptosis-like cell death (Feng *et al.*, 2009), possibly explaining why the flower-like locomotion was not observed for
the reconstructed strain in the presence of *Salmonella*.

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# Backpacking of human pathogenic bacteria (E. coli) by the symbiotic amoebae were dependent of the presence of the Neochlamydia endosymbiont

164 To confirm that the symbiotic amoebae could backpack human pathogenic bacteria, we 165 observed the tracks of amoebae on the agar plates for a longer period of time. As 166 expected, in contrast to the aposymbiotic S13RFP amoebae, the tracks of the symbiotic 167 S13WT amoebae showed that a large number of the amoebae had crawled away from the central spot by 12 h post-inoculation (Fig. 4A). Interestingly, the reconstructed 168 169 symbiotic amoebae (S13HS-T3) showed tracks similar to the S13WT amoebae (Fig. 4A). Thus, the symbiotic amoebae crawled faster than the aposymbiotic amoebae, 170 171 indicating that the phenomenon depended on the presence of the endosymbionts. Next, 172 to confirm the ability of the amoebae to backpack the human pathogenic bacteria, we 173 used GFP signals to search for E. coli micro-colonies along the amoebal tracks. Assays 174 revealed micro-colonies irregularly spaced along the tracks (Fig. 4B), while scanning 175 electron microscopy (SEM) observation revealed that the symbiotic S13WT amoebae 176 appeared to smear the surface of the agar plates with E. coli clusters (Fig. 5). No 177 micro-colonies were observed along the tracks of the aposymbiotic amoebae. Taken

together, these results indicated that the endosymbiotic bacteria allowed the S13WT
amoebae to backpack the GFP-expressing *E. coli* around the agar plates.

180 SEM observation of the aposymbiotic amoebae revealed that the backpacked 181 bacteria did not appear healthy, displaying disrupted or coccid forms, presumably 182 indicating a decrease in the number of viable bacteria on the surface of the amoebae. 183 This finding suggests that effective backpacking also depends on the presence of the 184 endosymbionts. Although studies on the interaction between amoebae and 185 surface-carried bacteria are very limited, a previous study interestingly showed that 186 motility is a pre-requisite for backpack formation by Listeria monocytogenes and other 187 motile bacteria on the surface of Acanthamoeba trophozoites (Doyscher et al., 2013). In 188 this regard, our findings supportively revealed that in contrast to S. aureus lacking motility, the other motile bacteria (E. coli, Salmonella, P. aeruginosa and S. maltophilia) 189 190 were backpacked by the symbiotic amoebae (See Fig. 1-3, Fig. S1). Thus, the 191 backpacking that we found might be required for pre-interaction of the symbiotic 192 amoebae with motile bacteria in the mixed culture spotted on agar plate.

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# 194 The Neochlamydia-carrying symbiotic amoebae could break through a "wall" of 195 amoebal pathogenic bacterium L. pneumophila

196 To explore the biological significance of the relationship between *Neochlamydia* and the 197 host amoebae, we investigated the interaction between the different amoebal strains and 198 *L. pneumophila*, an important pathogen of amoebae. Specifically, symbiotic or 199 aposymbiotic amoebae and GFP-expressing *E. coli* were spotted into the center of a ring 200 of mCherry-expressing *L. pneumophila* on a buffered charcoal yeast extract (B-CYE)

201 agar plate. The effects of the wall on the spread of the amoebae were then monitored by 202 visualizing the amoebal tracks using the GFP-expressing E. coli as a tracer. As was 203 observed on LB agar plates, the S13WT amoebae spread towards the edges of the 204 B-CYE agar plate (Fig. 6), despite the fact that the Legionella wall was completely 205 established (Fig. 6). Between 144 and 196 h post-inoculation, a wave of green 206 fluorescence, corresponding to the symbiotic S13WT amoebae backpacking the 207 GFP-expressing E. coli, could be seen mixing with the red fluorescence of the 208 Legionella wall, changing the color from green to yellow (Fig. 6). Interestingly, the 209 yellow color could be observed moving through the Legionella wall between 288 and 210 ~336 h post-inoculation (Fig. 6), before the signal began to return to green at ~312–336 211 h post-inoculation, indicating that the amoebae had successfully broken through the 212 Legionella wall (Fig. 6). Meanwhile, while the aposymbiotic amoebae (S13RFP) also 213 moved towards the Legionella wall, their movement was delayed compared with the 214 symbiotic amoebae (Fig. S2-S3). A color change to yellow was also observed near the 215 wall between 144 and 196 h post-inoculation, showing the amoebae mixing with L. 216 pneumophila (Fig. S2); however, few yellow signals were observed within the 217 Legionella wall, indicating that the aposymbiotic amoebae could not break through the 218 wall. Although a small number of green signals were detected outside the wall, we 219 suspect that a small number of aposymbiotic amoebae were able to pass through the 220 wall by chance (Fig. S2). Thus, the results indicated that the Neochlamydia 221 endosymbiont helped the symbiotic amoebae to successfully break through the wall of L. 222 pneumophila.



Legionella is a well-documented pathogen of amoebae, with bacterial growth

224 resulting in disruption of the host amoebae (Greub and Raoult, 2004). However, we 225 have previously shown that the *Neochlamydia* symbiont helps protect the amoebal host 226 from Legionella in liquid media (Ishida et al., 2014). Assays showed that the symbiotic amoebae successfully broke through a wall of L. pneumophila, and that this activity 227 228 depended on the presence of the endosymbiotic Neochlamydia. Interestingly, we 229 observed that the symbiotic amoebae backpacking the GFP-expressing E. coli formed 230 channel-like structures through the walls of mCherry-expressing Legionella. As 231 mentioned above, it is possible that the presence of the GFP-expressing bacteria on the 232 surface of the amoebae limits the number of sites through which L. pneumophila can 233 enter the amoebal cell. Interestingly, a small number of aposymbiotic amoebae were noted beyond the Legionella wall. However, very few yellow color signals (indicating 234 235 the presence of the amoebae backpacking the GFP-expressing bacteria) were seen 236 within the mCherry-expressing Legionella, indicating that the aposymbiotic amoebae a 237 failed to break through the wall. We therefore concluded that the external aposymbiotic 238 amoebae accidentally climbed over the wall, rather than passing through the L. 239 pneumophila barrier. At present, the exact role of the symbiotic bacteria in breaking 240 through the Legionella "wall" in a natural ecological niche remains unknown. However, in their natural environment, Legionella are known to form biofilms when they 241 242 encounter amoebae, which provide a rich environment for the replication of Legionella 243 (Lau and Ashbolt, 2009). It is therefore likely that maintaining the endosymbiont is 244 advantageous to the amoebae as it allows the backpacking of feed and protects the host 245 against Legionella, allowing them to pass through the "wall".

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Taken together, the results of the current study suggested that the symbiotic

amoebae could backpack human pathogenic bacteria on solid agar plates, breaking through a "wall" of *Legionella*, and that the activity depended on the presence of the amoebal endosymbiont *Neochlamydia*. This confirmed a role for the endosymbiont in the predator-prey interactions of the host. Finally, we strongly propose observing predator-prey interactions of such free-living amoebae on solid surfaces as they better mimic the natural environments of the amoebae.

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## 398 Legends to figures

400 **Fig. 1.** Movement of amoebae carrying GFP-expressing *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$  on agar plates. A. Changes in fluorescence patterns up to 14 day post-inoculation. S13WT; symbiotic 401 402 amoeba strain S13WT harboring Neochlamydia . S13RFP; aposymbiotic amoebae 403 established from strain S13WT by treatment with rifampicin. S13HS-T3; S13RFP 404 amoebae infected with Protochlamydia HS-T3, resulting in a reconstructed symbiotic 405 stain. C3; reference strain Acanthamoeba castellanii C3 (ATCC 50739). Enlarged 406 images of S13WT (dashed square with red color) and S13RFP (dashed square with blue 407 color) Symbiotic Acanthamoeba strain S13WT, amoebal tracks. harboring 408 Neochlamydia strain S13 and originally isolated from Sapporo City, Japan, was used in 409 this study (Matsuo et al., 2010). An aposymbiotic strain was established from S13WT 410 by treatment with rifampicin (RFP; 64 µg/mL), and designated S13RFP (Okude et al., 2012). Acanthamoeba strain HS-T3, persistently infected with endosymbiont 411 412 Protochlamydia HS-T3, was originally isolated from a hot spring located in Kanagawa 413 Prefecture, Japan (Sampo et al., 2014). We generated a reconstructed S13RFP symbiont 414 strain containing Protochlamydia HS-T3, designated S13HS-T3, for use in this study. In 415 addition, A. castellanii C3 (ATCC 50739) (C3 amoebae), purchased from the American 416 Type Culture Collection, was used as a reference strain. All amoebae were maintained 417 in peptone-yeast extract-glucose (PYG) medium at 18°C as previously described 418 (Matsuo et al., 2010). E. coli DH5a (our own laboratory collection) was also used in 419 this study. The bacterial strain was genetically modified to carry a GFP-expressing 420 plasmid (pBBR122 encoding gfp) for ease of visualization. E. coli was cultured on LB

421 agar for 1 day, at 37°C. Agar were supplemented with chloramphenicol (10 µg/mL) to maintain the plasmid. Amoebae  $(1 \times 10^5$  cells, counted using a cell counting chamber) 422 were mixed with GFP-expressing E. coli (approximately  $1 \times 10^7$  cells, adjusted to a 423 424 McFarland turbidity of 0.5, followed by 1/10 dilution) in 1 mL of Page's amoeba saline 425 containing chloramphenicol ( $10 \mu g/mL$ ). A 20- $\mu L$  aliquot of the mixture was then spotted 426 onto the center of LB (diameter, 6 cm) agar plates. The plates were incubated at 30°C in a 427 moist environment (about 100% humidity) for up to 14 days, and amoebal walking was 428 then visualized using the fluorescent bacterial signals as a tracer under a transilluminator. 429 **B.** Changes in the fluorescence of areas corresponding to GFP-expressing *E. coli*. These 430 areas were determined using Image J software. Briefly, colors (RGB channel type) were 431 split into red, green, and blue, and the blue and red colors were omitted. The remaining 432 color was adjusted against the background of the dish edge using the threshold adjuster. 433 Finally, the total fluorescent area was recorded as a pixel value. Data were expressed as a 434 ratio of each value versus the control after 24 h of incubation. Data are expressed as 435 average pixel values ± SD. Comparisons among groups were performed using a multiple 436 comparison test for parametric analysis using the Bonferroni/Dunn method. Asterisks 437 indicate a p-value < 0.05 (considered significant) vs. other values at the same time 438 point.

439

440 Fig. 2. Movement of amoebae carrying GFP-expressing *Salmonella* Enteritidis YH0815
441 on agar plates. A. Changes in fluorescence patterns up to 14 day post-inoculation.
442 S13WT; symbiotic amoeba strain S13WT harboring *Neochlamydia*. S13RFP;
443 aposymbiotic amoebae established from strain S13WT by treatment with rifampicin.

444 S13HS-T3; S13RFP amoebae infected with Protochlamydia HS-T3, resulting in a 445 reconstructed symbiotic stain. C3; reference strain A. castellanii C3 (ATCC 50739). 446 Enlarged images of S13WT (dashed square with red color) and S13RFP (dashed square 447 with blue color) amoebal tracks. See the legend for Fig. 1. B. Changes in the 448 fluorescence of areas corresponding to GFP-expressing Salmonella Entertidis. The 449 bacterial strain was genetically modified to carry a GFP-expressing plasmid (pBBR122 450 encoding gfp) for ease of visualization. See the legend for Fig. 1. Data are expressed as 451 average pixel values ± SD. Comparisons among groups were performed using a multiple 452 comparison test for parametric analysis using the Bonferroni/Dunn method. Asterisks 453 indicate a p-value < 0.05 (considered significant) vs. other values at the same time 454 point.

455

Fig. 3. Movement of amoebae carrying other bacteria (A. *P. aeruginosa* ATCC 27853; B. *S. maltophilia* DA185) on LB agar plates. Changes in fluorescence patterns up to 8 day
post-inoculation. S13WT; symbiotic amoeba strain S13WT harboring *Neochlamydia*.
S13RFP; aposymbiotic amoebae established from strain S13WT by treatment with
rifampicin. S13HS-T3; S13RFP amoebae infected with *Protochlamydia* HS-T3,
resulting in a reconstructed symbiotic stain. C3; reference strain *A. castellanii* C3
(ATCC 50739). See the legend for Fig. 1.

463

464 Fig. 4. Amoebal tracks on LB agar plates in the first 48 h post-simultaneous inoculation
465 with GFP-expressing *E. coli*. A. Microscopic observation of the amoebal tracks at 12 h
466 post-inoculation. S13WT; symbiotic amoeba strain S13WT harboring *Neochlamydia*.

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S13RFP; aposymbiotic amoeba strain established from S13WT. S13HS-T3; S13RFP
amoebae infected with *Protochlamydia* HS-T3. For more detail see the legend of Fig. 1.
Right-hand panels are enlargements of the dashed red squares shown in the left-hand
panels. See the legend for Fig. 1. Magnification, ×100. B. Micro-colonies formed by *E. coli* along the tracks of S13WT amoebae at 48 h post-inoculation. Arrowheads show
identical localization of micro-colonies with GFP signals. Magnification, ×100.

473

474 Fig. 5. Representative SEM images showing the ultrastructure of amoeba strains 475 S13WT and S13RFP during spreading. Asterisks indicate amoebae. The dashed red 476 square shown in the left-hand panel is enlarged in the right-hand panel. The dashed blue square in enlarged in the lower panel. A. S13WT; symbiotic amoeba strain S13WT 477 478 harboring Neochlamydia. B. S13RFP; aposymbiotic amoebae established from S13WT 479 amoebae. SEM analysis was performed according to a previous method (Okude et al., 480 2012). In brief, amoebae were fixed with 2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde in 481 phosphate-buffered saline (pH 7.4) for 2 h at room temperature, and subsequently 482 soaked in 2% (w/v) osmium tetroxide for 1 h at 4°C. The samples were then dehydrated 483 in ethanol, freeze-dried, and coated with osmium using a plasma osmium coater. 484 Ultimately, treated samples were analyzed using a Hitachi S-4800 scanning electron 485 microscope.

486

487 Fig. 6. Time course showing the movement of S13WT amoebae on the surface of
488 B-CYE agar plates. Amoebae were spotted with GFP-expressing *E. coli* into the center
489 of a ring of mCherry-expressing *L. pneumophila* Lp01. *L. pneumophila* Lp01

490	(T4ASS <sup>-</sup> /T4BSS <sup>+</sup> /Tra <sup>+</sup> ) (Rao et al., 2013) strain was genetically modified to carry a
491	mCherry-expressing plasmid (pAM239 encoding mCherry gene) for ease of
492	visualization (Coers et al., 2000). Dashed white squares in the upper panels are enlarged
493	in the lower panel. Green color corresponds to GFP-expressing E. coli. Red color
494	corresponds to the <i>L. pneumophila</i> . Yellow color indicates a mixture of the <i>E. coli</i> and <i>L</i> .
495	pneumophila bacteria. Amoebae $(1 \times 10^5$ cells, counted using a cell counting chamber)
496	were mixed with GFP-expressing <i>E. coli</i> DH5 $\alpha$ (approximately 1 × 10 <sup>7</sup> cells, adjusted
497	to a McFarland turbidity of 0.5, followed by 1/10 dilution) in 1 mL of Page's amoeba
498	saline containing chloramphenicol (10 $\mu$ g/mL). A 20- $\mu$ L aliquot of the mixture was then
499	spotted onto the center of B-CYE (diameter, 10 cm) agar plates. mCherry-expressing L.
500	pneumophila Lp01 was simultaneously stamped onto the agar plate, surrounding the
501	central spot (diameter, 6.6 cm). The plates were incubated at 30°C in a moist environment
502	(about 100% humidity) for up to 14 days (336 h), and amoebal walking was then
503	visualized using the fluorescent bacterial signals as a tracer under a transilluminator.
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## 508 Supporting information

509

Supplementary Fig. 1 (Fig. S1) Movement of amoebae inoculated with *S. aureus*ATCC 29213 onto LB agar plates. Changes in colony patterns were monitored for up to
8 day. S13WT; symbiotic amoeba strain S13WT harboring *Neochlamydia*. S13RFP;
aposymbiotic amoebae established from strain S13WT. S13HS-T3; S13RFP amoebae
infected with *Protochlamydia* HS-T3. See the legend of Fig. 1.

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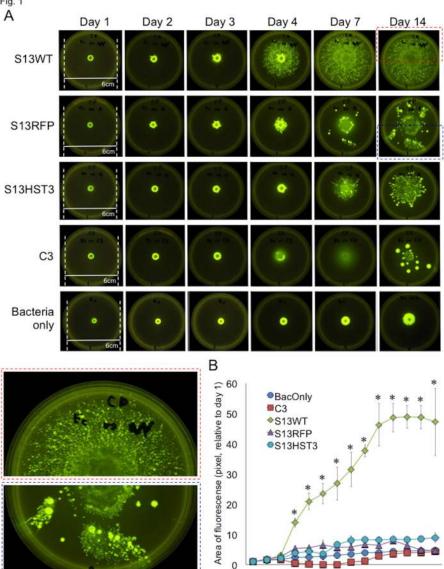
516 Supplementary Fig. 2 (Fig. S2) Time course assay showing changes in the tracks 517 produced by C3 amoebae and E. coli DH5a (A) and S13RFP amoebae (B) on B-CYE agar plates. The dashed white square in the lower left-hand panel is enlarged in the 518 519 lower right-hand panels. Green color corresponds to the GFP-expressing E. coli. Red 520 color corresponds to mCherry-expressing L. pneumophila Lp01. Yellow color 521 corresponds to areas containing a mixture of the E. coli and L. pneumophila bacteria. 522 Dashed white square is enlarged in the right panel. The plates were incubated at 30°C in 523 a moist environment (about 100% humidity) for up to 14 days (in the case of S13RFP 524 amoebae), and amoebal walking was then visualized using the fluorescent bacterial 525 signals as a tracer under a transilluminator. See the legend for Fig. 6.

526

527 Supplementary Fig. 3 (Fig. S3) Time course showing the movement of amoebae on the
528 surface of B-CYE agar plates for a prolonged period. Amoebae were spotted with
529 GFP-expressing *E. coli* into the center of a ring of mCherry-expressing *L. pneumophila*530 Lp01. S13WT; symbiotic amoeba strain S13WT harboring *Neochlamydia*. S13RFP;

531	aposymbiotic amoebae established from strain S13WT. Green color corresponds to
532	GFP-expressing E. coli. Red color corresponds to the L. pneumophila. Yellow color
533	indicates a mixture of the E. coli and L. pneumophila bacteria. The plates were
534	incubated at 30°C in a moist environment (about 100% humidity) for up to 20 days, and
535	amoebal walking was then visualized using the fluorescent bacterial signals as a tracer
536	under a transilluminator. See the legend for Fig. 6.
537	





7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 Time after incubation (day)

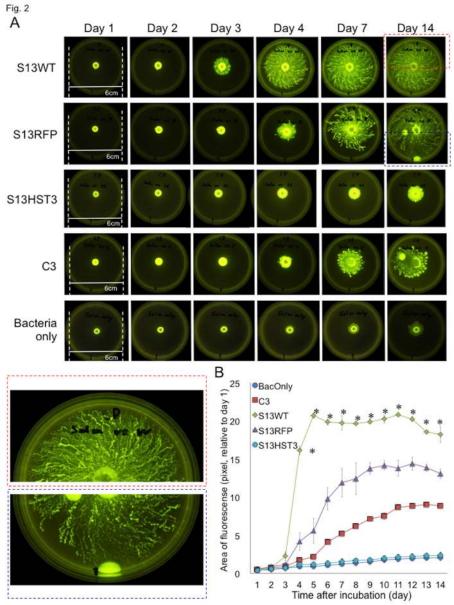
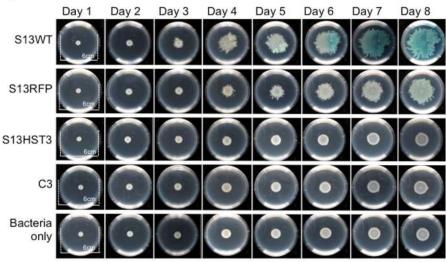


Fig. 3





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