Thermal niches of specialized gut symbionts: the case of social bees

Tobin J. Hammer^{*}, Eli Le, Nancy A. Moran

Department of Integrative Biology, University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX 78703

*Corresponding author: tobin.hammer@utexas.edu

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1 Abstract

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3 Responses to climate change are particularly complicated in species that engage in 4 symbioses, as the niche of one partner may be modified by that of the other. We explored 5 thermal traits in gut symbionts of honeybees and bumblebees, which are vulnerable to rising 6 temperatures. In vitro assays of symbiont strains isolated from 16 host species revealed variation 7 in thermal niches. Strains from bumblebees tended to be less heat-tolerant than those from 8 honeybees, possibly due to bumblebees maintaining cooler nests or inhabiting cooler climates. 9 Overall however, bee symbionts grew at temperatures up to 44 °C and withstood temperatures up 10 to 52 °C, at or above the upper thermal limits of their hosts. While heat-tolerant, most strains of 11 the symbiont *Snodgrassella* grew relatively slowly below 35 °C, perhaps because of adaptation 12 to the elevated body temperatures that bees maintain through thermoregulation. In a gnotobiotic bumblebee experiment, Snodgrassella was unable to consistently colonize bees reared below 35 13 14 °C under conditions that limit thermoregulation. Thus, host thermoregulatory behavior appears 15 important in creating a warm microenvironment for symbiont establishment. Bee-microbiome-16 temperature interactions could affect host health and pollination services, and inform research on 17 the thermal biology of other specialized gut symbionts, such as those of humans. 18

19 Introduction

20

Earth's climate is rapidly warming, and there is an urgent need to understand how organisms will respond [1,2]. One factor complicating such predictions is the role of interspecific interactions [3,4], and, in particular, symbiosis [5,6]. Many organisms closely associate with one

24 or more distantly related partners that have highly distinct physiologies, as in the case of animal 25 or plant hosts and their microbiomes. Hosts and microbes are likely to have different responses 26 to temperature; yet, if they are mutually dependent, the combined niche is restricted to that of the 27 more sensitive partner. Furthermore, thermal niches can themselves evolve in response to 28 symbiotic lifestyles. For example, obligate endosymbionts that undergo strong population 29 bottlenecks during transmission may evolve unstable, easily denatured proteins as a consequence 30 of mutation accumulation, leading to heat sensitivity [7-9]. Both of these factors may constrain 31 the combined thermal niche of strongly symbiont-dependent organisms [6,10,11]. There is 32 evidence for symbiont-imposed constraints on host thermotolerance in a variety of invertebrates 33 such as aphids, ants, stinkbugs, corals, and sponges [12-16]. However, the wider prevalence of 34 this phenomenon is unclear, and, in general, we do not know how microbiomes will influence 35 host responses to climate warming.

36 The eusocial corbiculate bees (hereafter "social bees") are a particularly important group 37 in which to study symbiont thermal niches and their effects on hosts. This clade, comprising 38 honey bees (Apis), bumblebees (Bombus), and stingless bees (Meliponini), is host to anciently 39 associated, host-specialized, and beneficial gut microbiomes [17,18]. Social bees are also key 40 pollinators in both agricultural and natural ecosystems, but many are declining [19,20]. For 41 bumblebees in particular, rising temperatures have been identified as a driver of range shifts and 42 population declines in some species [21,22]. If gut symbionts are sensitive to heat stress, the 43 microbiome could be one route through which climate change impacts bee health. Furthermore, 44 because social bees as a whole exhibit extensive strain-level diversity in their microbiomes (e.g., 45 [17,23]), strain variability in thermotolerance could partially underlie corresponding variability 46 among hosts, as was recently shown for endosymbionts of aphids [24].

47 Social bees present a uniquely complex thermal environment for their microbiome, making it challenging to predict their symbionts' thermal traits. They are not strictly 48 49 poikilothermic; rather, they facultatively regulate the temperature of both their bodies (and 50 individual body parts) as well as their shared nests [25–27]. These microenvironments are 51 partially buffered from external fluctuations in temperature, but to a degree that is highly 52 dynamic among individuals, over time and space, and across the bee phylogeny. Even within a 53 single nest, the microbiome is distributed across individuals that vary in behaviors such as 54 foraging or brood incubation, which involve changes in host body temperature [28–30]. 55 Furthermore, social bee species regulate their nest temperatures to different set-points and 56 exhibit different overwintering strategies [27,31,32]. For example, the microbiomes of 57 temperate-zone bumblebees must overwinter within diapausing queens, while the microbiome of 58 *Apis mellifera* is transmitted by a cluster of active, heat-generating workers [33,34]. 59 As in gut symbionts generally, symbionts of social bees experience a brief ex vivo phase 60 during transmission, potentially imposing selection on thermal traits. The gut microbiome is 61 transmitted via a fecal-oral route, usually between nestmates within a hive [35,36], but horizontal 62 transmission between bee species has also been inferred [17,34]. Although the symbionts cannot 63 grow under ambient oxygen levels outside the bee gut [18], the ability to tolerate thermal stress 64 while on flowers or other external habitats could influence horizontal transmission rates and thus 65 patterns of biogeography and host specificity. All of these factors add up to a complex selective landscape—even within a single host species—involving different castes, seasons, and ex vivo 66 67 phases.

69 Recent work on *Bombus impatiens* has shown that, once established in the gut, core symbionts

Very little is currently known about the thermal biology of social bee microbiomes.

70 are relatively robust to temperatures from 21–37 °C [37]. However, honeybees and bumblebees 71 emerge largely symbiont-free as adults and must acquire their symbionts from nestmates 72 [35,36,38]. It is not known if the colonization process, a crucial phase for both hosts and 73 symbionts, is more temperature-sensitive than maintenance of an established symbiosis. 74 Furthermore, there has been no comparative work investigating how symbiont thermal traits 75 have evolved across social bees. Social bee taxa maintain different nest temperatures and use 76 different strategies to overwinter and to establish new colonies. They also occupy a climatically 77 diverse range of environments, from arctic and alpine habitats to tropical forests [39]. This 78 variability may impose divergent selection on symbiont thermal traits, with potential feedbacks 79 on the thermal tolerance of the hosts themselves. 80 We used common garden experiments (*in vitro*) to characterize symbiont thermal niches 81 with a culture collection of *Snodgrassella* and *Gilliamella*, two bacterial species that are 82 ubiquitous across honeybees and bumblebees [17]. Symbionts of these two bee lineages belong 83 to deeply divergent clades and appear restricted to their native host [17,40]. We measured the 84 thermal limits to growth from 12–48 °C, the ability to tolerate a brief heat exposure up to 52 °C, 85 and growth rates at 28 °C versus 35 °C. 28 °C is within the range of brood nest temperatures 86 reported for some bumblebee species [41,42] (though not all [43]), while honeybee brood nest 87 temperatures are typically ~33–36 °C [31,32,44], at least for Apis mellifera and A. cerana. 88 We hypothesized that for all three metrics, honeybee-associated strains would exhibit higher thermotolerance than bumblebee-associated strains, as a result of adaptation to a generally 89 warmer host (nests and bodies) and external environment. We also examined whether the 90 91 thermal environment impacts *Snodgrassella* establishment in the bumblebee *Bombus impatiens*. 92 This experiment examined whether the colonization process is particularly vulnerable to thermal

93 stress; our initial hypothesis was that an abnormally high ambient temperature for *B. impatiens* 94 (35 °C) would impair symbiont acquisition. Our findings provide a foundation for future work on 95 the thermal ecology of bee gut microbiomes and raise new questions about the role of host 96 thermoregulatory behavior in mediating symbiosis. 97 **Materials & Methods** 98 99 100 Culture collection 101 Strains of *Snodgrassella alvi* and *Gilliamella* spp. used in this study were collected as 102 described in refs. [40,45,46]. To our knowledge, no strains had undergone significant passaging 103 in the lab since the original isolates were obtained, with the exception of *Snodgrassella alvi* 104 strain wkB2. Bumblebee host species were categorized into high-elevation or low-elevation 105 species for Figs. S1, S2 following range descriptions in ref. [47]. 106 107 Thermal limits assay 108 From glycerol stocks, strains of Snodgrassella or Gilliamella were cultured on Columbia 109 blood agar plates under 5% CO₂ and 35 °C for 2 d. These were then restreaked, and the overnight 110 cultures were resuspended in Insectagro medium (Corning) and adjusted to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.5. We 111 further diluted these cell suspensions 1/20 and spotted 10 µl in triplicate onto the surface of fresh 112 Columbia plates. Negative controls (10 µl Insectagro spotted onto plates) were included to 113 ensure there was no background contamination. Given that the same OD can correspond to 114 different densities of viable cells, we also quantified the corresponding colony-forming unit 115 (CFU) count of the inoculum for each strain. Plates were incubated at a range of temperatures

116	under 5% CO ₂ , from 12–48 °C in increments of 4 °C. After 48 h, we scored these plates for
117	whether visible biomass was present or absent. If a strain could not grow at or below 28 °C, it
118	was not tested at colder temperatures. For example, strain wkB339 could not grow at 28 °C so it
119	was not further tested at 24 °C or below.
120	We used logistic regression (implemented in R [48] as a generalized linear model with
121	binomial error and logit link function), to test whether host genus (Apis vs. Bombus) predicted
122	the ability of symbionts to grow at 44 °C, the upper thermal limit across strains in this assay. To
123	account for the potential influence of starting inoculum size on the probability of growth, we
124	used the same approach, but with log-transformed CFU counts for each strain as a predictor.
125	
126	Heat stress assay
127	Snodgrassella cultures were initially prepared as above. We then resuspended overnight
128	cultures in Insectagro, adjusted them to an OD_{600} of 0.5, and further diluted 1/20 in 200 μ l in
129	PCR plates. Cells were subjected to a 1 h heat stress treatment using a thermocycler with a
130	temperature gradient from 35.4 °C to 51.6 °C (3 technical replicates per strain per temperature).
131	They were then transferred to 96-well cell culture plates (Corning) in a microplate reader (Tecan)
132	with 5% CO ₂ and 35 °C. Growth was monitored by OD_{600} readings taken every 3 h for 66 h. We
133	included blank wells (Insectagro only) as negative controls and subtracted their OD_{600} values
134	from those of the cultures.
135	
136	Thermal performance assay
137	Snodgrassella cultures were prepared as for the heat stress assay, except that they were
138	transferred directly into 96-well cell culture plates in the microplate reader (without the

139 thermocycler step) and incubated at either 28 °C or 35 °C for 72 h. We fit logistic curves to the 140 data using the growthcurver package [49] and used a two-way ANOVA to test for effects of incubation temperature and host genus on the intrinsic growth rate (r). Linear regression was 141 142 used to test whether starting inoculum size (log-transformed CFU counts) predicted growth rate. 143

144 Colonization experiment

145 To obtain gnotobiotic bumblebees, we collected clumps of pupal cocoons from four 146 separate commercial colonies of Bombus impatiens (Koppert USA). We then surface-sterilized 147 the clumps in diluted bleach (0.2% NaOCl) for 90 s as described previously [50,51] to minimize 148 contamination of the emerging workers. We maintained the sterilized cocoon clumps in sterile 149 conditions in a growth chamber at 35 °C and monitored them daily for adult emergence. Newly 150 emerging adults were transferred to sterile vials and randomly assigned to *Snodgrassella* or 151 buffer-only treatments. The former were fed with 10 μ l of filter-sterilized sugar syrup (50% v/v) 152 containing ~10⁶ cells of *Snodgrassella alvi* strain wkB12, following [40]. We prepared new 153 Snodgrassella inocula daily from overnight cultures; these were not continuously propagated but 154 rather independently obtained from the same frozen stock of wkB12. Negative-control bees were 155 fed an identical solution but without cells. All bees were monitored to ensure that they consumed 156 the entire $10 \ \mu l$ of inoculum.

157 We then transferred bees to sterilized 16 oz plastic containers (Dart Container Corp.) in 158 groups of 2-3 as microcolonies [52]. Bees within a microcolony were assigned to the same 159 treatment and were obtained from the same source colony. Each container was provided with 10 160 ml of sterile 50% sugar syrup and 500 mg of sterile pollen dough (ground gamma-irradiated 161 honeybee pollen mixed with sterile 50% sugar syrup). Microcolonies were reared in incubators at

162 29 °C, representing a typical bumblebee rearing temperature [37,52,53], or 35 °C, a temperature 163 typical of Apis mellifera hives [32]. The pollen lump was replaced on the third day of rearing. After 5 d, bees were briefly anaesthetized in ice and used for gut dissections. The gut 164 165 (including hindgut and midgut) was removed from each bee, homogenized with a sterile plastic 166 pestle, and resuspended in 1 ml of Insectagro. This homogenate was serially diluted and plated 167 on Columbia blood agar. We counted CFUs after 2 d of incubation at 35 °C in 5% CO₂. In 168 performing CFU counts of the focal Snodgrassella strain, we noticed the occasional presence (in 15% of bees overall) of an unidentified bacterium. This contaminant had distinct colony 169 170 morphology and exhibited slow growth and hemolysis. There was no significant association 171 between the inoculum or the rearing temperature with the presence of the contaminant (logistic 172 regression; inoculum p = 0.19, temperature p = 0.066). This may have been a core bee gut 173 symbiont not completely removed from the cocoon surface by the sterilization treatment. 174 We used a linear mixed-effects model with the nlme package [54], treating colony source 175 as a random effect, to test whether rearing temperature was associated with log-transformed 176 Snodgrassella CFU counts. We also used logistic regression (as described above) to test whether 177 bee survival was predicted by the inoculum treatment or by rearing temperature. 178 179 Results 180

We first used an *in vitro* assay to measure the temperature limits of growth of a collection of *Snodgrassella* and *Gilliamella* strains isolated from honeybees and bumblebees. While all strains could grow at 40 °C (Fig. S1) and none at 48 °C, they varied in their ability to grow at 44

184 °C (Fig. 1). Bumblebee strains were significantly less likely to be able to grow at this

temperature than honeybee strains (logistic regression, p = 0.015).

There was also substantial strain-level variation in lower thermal limits, especially for 186 187 Snodgrassella (Fig. S1). However, probability of growth at the lowest temperature tested (12 °C) 188 was positively associated with starting inoculum size (logistic regression, p = 0.0047), which 189 was not the case for growth at 44 °C (logistic regression, p = 0.74). Hence, we regard the lower 190 limit data as minimum estimates; many of these strains are likely to be able to grow at lower 191 temperatures than indicated in Fig. S1, especially with larger starting inocula or a longer assay 192 duration. 193 In addition to characterizing the heat-sensitivity of symbiont growth under a constant 194 temperature, we also sought to determine the ability of bee gut symbionts to tolerate short-term 195 exposure to more extreme heat. Exposure to temperatures above 35 °C for 1 h clearly delayed 196 subsequent growth in vitro (Fig. 2). Overall, however, Snodgrassella appears to be quite heat-197 tolerant in that all six strains assayed could recover from exposure to 48.7 °C. The exact limit 198 was variable among strains. Although larger strain sample sizes are needed for a conclusive 199 comparison, the three *Apis*-associated strains tended to be slightly more heat-tolerant than the 200 three Bombus-associated strains (Fig. 2). Strain robustness to short-term exposures was not 201 simply a function of the initial inoculum size. For example, the only two strains that could 202 recover following exposure to 51.6 °C, wkB9 and wkB237, had the lowest inoculum sizes. 203 Even when thermal limits do not vary among symbiont strains, the thermal optima could 204 vary. To address this, we conducted Snodgrassella growth assays in liquid media at 28 °C and 35 205 °C, representing temperatures closer to typical Bombus or Apis nest temperatures, respectively. 206 Inoculum size (number of CFUs at the start of the growth assay) did not predict growth rate at

207	either 28 °C or 35 °C (linear regression, $p = 0.69$ and 0.82, respectively). Interestingly,
208	bumblebee-associated Snodgrassella typically had higher growth rates than honeybee-associated
209	Snodgrassella (Fig. 3; two-way ANOVA, $p = 0.0085$). We found no significant interaction
210	between host genus and temperature (two-way ANOVA, $p = 0.24$), as would be expected if
211	symbiont growth were differentially adapted to the temperatures closest to those of their hosts'
212	nests. Instead, growth rates of most strains were higher at 35 °C (Fig. 3; two-way ANOVA, $p =$
213	0.0059). Among bumblebee strains, those from host species inhabiting higher elevations were
214	not conspicuously better able to grow at the cooler temperature, 28 °C, than those from low-
215	elevation hosts (Fig. S2). In fact, the only strains that exhibited higher growth rates at 28 °C than
216	at 35 °C were derived from Apis mellifera (Fig. S2).
217	We next examined whether symbiont thermotolerance might influence fitness in vivo
218	using a colonization experiment with Snodgrassella alvi strain wkB12 and gnotobiotic
219	bumblebees. <i>In vitro</i> , this strain grows much more quickly at 35 °C as compared with 28 °C (Fig.
220	4B). No Snodgrassella colony-forming units (CFUs) were detected in any of the bees inoculated
221	with sterile buffer (N = 15 reared at 29 °C, N = 16 reared at 35 °C). Among bees inoculated with
222	a standardized dose of $\sim 10^6$ Snodgrassella cells, gut colonization after 5 days was highly
223	dependent on the thermal environment (Fig. 4A). Accounting for the different source colonies
224	from which bees were obtained, CFU counts were significantly higher (by over 50-fold,
225	comparing medians) in the 35 °C rearing treatment (linear mixed-effects model, $p < 0.0001$).
226	Several bees reared at 29 °C had no detectable Snodgrassella cells.
227	We also examined whether bee survival was influenced by the experimental treatments.
228	Overall, 92% of bees survived from adult emergence to dissection on day 5. The probability of
229	survival was not affected by the inoculum (Snodgrassella vs. buffer alone) or the rearing

230	temperature (logistic regression; inoculum $p = 0.49$, temperature $p = 0.33$) (Fig. S3). As only
231	bees that survived for the entire 5-day rearing period were used for CFU counts, we were not
232	able to examine whether gut colonization was predictive of survival.
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234	Discussion
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236	We first used in vitro assays to characterize bee symbiont thermal niches in a common
237	environment and without potential host-mediated effects. The experiments were based on a
238	collection of isolates of Snodgrassella and Gilliamella, which are ubiquitous, keystone members
239	of the social bee gut microbiome [17,18]. Overall, we found that these symbionts are quite heat-
240	tolerant relative to their hosts. All strains of both symbiont species can grow at a constant

241 temperature of 40 °C, and many can grow at 44 °C (Fig. 1). Likewise, another core symbiont,

242 Lactobacillus bombicola, has an optimal growth temperature around 40 °C [55]. In contrast,

243 honeybees and bumblebees do not normally allow their nests to reach temperatures above 35 °C,

which would harm brood development [31,32,41–43,56].

245 Bees can, however, maintain higher body temperatures for brief periods while foraging. 246 For example, the abdomen (which contains the gut microbes [18]) of bumblebees foraging in full 247 sunlight may reach close to 40 °C [28]. The abdomen is also used to dissipate excess heat 248 generated in the thorax [57]. We used short-term heat treatments of Snodgrassella to mimic this 249 kind of temporary exposure, and found that bumblebee-associated strains could recover from an 250 hour-long exposure to at least 48.7 °C, while honeybee-associated strains could recover from at least 50.4 °C (Fig. 2). In contrast, measured lethal limits (broadly defined) of bumblebees and 251 252 honeybees are similar or lower, around ~40-46 °C [58,59] and ~50 °C [60-62], respectively.

253	Bumblebees have experienced population declines partly linked to climate warming
254	[21,22]; in this study, we asked whether heat-sensitive symbionts could constitute one underlying
255	mechanism. The comparative robustness of Snodgrassella, Gilliamella, and Lactobacillus
256	bombicola to high temperatures in vitro suggests that the gut microbiome does not constrain bee
257	tolerance of heat. Rather, other factors rooted in host physiology, behavior, and ecology likely
258	explain the observed impacts of climate change on bumblebee populations [63-65]. However,
259	further experiments in vivo are needed to conclusively test whether the microbiome plays a role
260	in mediating effects of heat stress on bee populations.
261	Snodgrassella and Gilliamella are heat-tolerant not only compared to their hosts, but also
262	compared to many insect endosymbionts. For example, aphids, weevils, carpenter ants, and
263	stinkbugs all have obligate associations with highly heat-sensitive endosymbionts
264	[10,13,14,24,66]. One trait these symbionts share is strict maternal inheritance; this transmission
265	mode enforces a clonal population structure that results in genome degeneration and, ultimately,
266	impaired heat tolerance [7–9]. In contrast, social transmission of gut symbionts permits the strain
267	mixing and recombination that is more typical for free-living bacteria. While mostly vertically
268	transmitted between colonies, bee gut symbionts likely maintain larger population sizes and
269	undergo recombination more frequently than endosymbionts. All bee gut symbiont species are
270	culturable outside the host [67] and possess genomes that do not exhibit the hallmarks of
271	degenerative evolution [40].
272	Like many gut microbes, bee gut symbionts experience a brief but potentially important
273	ex vivo phase during transmission. Selection for persistence on nest substrates or in the
274	environment (e.g., flowers) may influence their heat tolerance. In vivo selective pressures related
275	to the unique thermoregulatory behavior of social bees may further explain the broad thermal

range of bee symbionts. A bee-inhabiting microbial population will experience a wide range of
body temperatures as its hosts forage in the environment, thermoregulate nests, and overwinter.
In the future, comparisons to non-bee-associated bacterial relatives (e.g., [68]) would be useful to
reconstruct how evolution in social bees specifically has shaped the thermal niches of the bee gut
microbiome.

281 While generally heat-tolerant relative to their hosts and to other bacterial symbionts of 282 insects, *Snodgrassella* and *Gilliamella* strains do vary in thermal traits. This variability manifests 283 as higher heat tolerance for honeybee versus bumblebee strains (Fig. 1, Fig. 2), a pattern that 284 roughly matches the corresponding thermal traits of their hosts. For example, honeybees 285 typically occupy tropical and subtropical environments (with the exception of introduced Apis 286 *mellifera*), maintain warmer nests, have higher upper thermal limits, and do not undergo 287 diapause in winter [26,62,69]. Our findings are consistent with previously observed correlations 288 between symbiont thermotolerance and the local thermal environment [24,70-72]. In the case of 289 bees, even if divergent thermal niches of symbionts do not affect hosts, they could affect the 290 potential for strains to successfully disperse between host colonies or even species, ultimately 291 influencing their biogeography and degree of host specialization.

Surprisingly, we did not find such host-symbiont matching for *Snodgrassella* thermal performance (i.e., relative growth rate at two temperatures). Bumblebee strains uniformly grew faster at 35 °C, while most *Apis mellifera* strains grew slightly faster at 28 °C (Fig. 3, Fig. S2). This pattern is the opposite of what would be expected if the ambient temperature in active colonies primarily determines the optimal growth temperature of symbionts, because honeybees generally maintain warmer nests. We speculate that overwintering biology may explain the *A*. *mellifera*-derived strains' comparatively higher growth rates at the cool assay temperature. 299 Unlike bumblebees, in winter, *A. mellifera* workers form active clusters that maintain above-300 ambient, but cool temperatures (average ~21 °C; [32]).

301 What explains our observation that bumblebee-associated *Snodgrassella*, like 302 Lactobacillus bombicola [55], grow faster at a temperature exceeding that of their nests (Fig. 3)? 303 We suggest that the answer lies in the bee abdomen—the microenvironment inhabited by the 304 symbionts, and a structure whose temperature is affected by host thermoregulatory behavior. 305 Specifically, both workers and queens (and occasionally males [73]) of bumblebees incubate 306 larvae and pupae by placing their abdomen directly onto brood structures and elevating its 307 temperature to ~35 °C or above, exceeding ambient temperatures in the nest [74,75]. Given that 308 bumblebees spend much of their time performing this behavior [41,74,76]—especially foundress 309 queens, the sole source of microbes for the colony—symbiont growth may be adapted to the 310 locally heated conditions within the abdomen.

311 To further explore this possibility, we tested whether the warm-shifted growth preference 312 of bumblebee-associated Snodgrassella (Fig. 3) might have fitness effects in vivo. We conducted 313 an experiment on gnotobiotic *Bombus impatiens*, using conditions (microcolonies lacking brood) 314 in which incubation behavior is limited, and thus abdominal temperatures are expected to more 315 closely match the chosen ambient rearing temperatures (29 °C and 35 °C). Previous literature 316 hinted that these temperatures might affect Snodgrassella colonization of B. impatiens. In one 317 study, experimental inoculation of *Bombus impatiens* with *Snodgrassella* resulted in 100% 318 colonization and consistently high titers [40], whereas a later study of B. impatiens reported 319 erratic colonization and frequently low titers [51]. These studies differed in the temperature at 320 which bees were reared, with the high colonization rate observed at 34 °C and erratic 321 colonization at ~ 26 °C. In line with these previous studies, when we directly examined the effect

322 of the thermal environment on Snodgrassella colonization, we found that colonization was 323 variable and occasionally unsuccessful in bees reared at 29 °C (Fig. 4A). 324 One possible explanation for this result has to do with the fact that the focal strain used, 325 Snodgrassella alvi wkB12, was not isolated from *B. impatiens* but rather *B. bimaculatus*. If 326 bumblebees control colonization by other species' or even colonies' symbiont strains, as has 327 been suggested [51], robust colonization at 35 °C may actually reflect a weakening of strain-328 specific filtering mechanisms at this unnaturally high rearing temperature. However, we 329 currently lack evidence for such mechanisms. 330 Another explanation for this result is based in the thermal niche of bumblebee-associated 331 Snodgrassella strains. Snodgrassella alvi wkB12, like the others tested, grows more quickly at 332 35 °C than 28 °C in vitro (Fig. 4B). In bees reared in microcolonies at 29 °C—which we expect 333 to have similar abdominal temperatures because of restricted thermoregulatory behavior-334 ingested Snodgrassella cells may simply be unable to replicate quickly enough to establish a 335 stable population before being lost to defecation. However, once established, they appear to be 336 quite robust to a wide range of temperatures [37]. A subset of bees reared at 29 °C did acquire 337 high Snodgrassella titers that exceeded the number of cells in the inoculum, implying replication 338 in the gut (Fig. 4A). One possibility is that these individuals had begun to incubate the provided 339 pollen lump, a behavior which has been observed in microcolonies (e.g., [77]). As a 340 consequence, they may have maintained higher abdominal temperatures conducive to 341 Snodgrassella colonization. Analogously, in a normal bumblebee nest, individual-level thermoregulatory behaviors may be important in enabling establishment of the gut microbiome. 342 343 We note that our *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments were conducted on single isolates, which 344 enables controlled assays of strain-level thermotolerance but may miss important community

345	interactions that occur within the bee gut. Microbial thermotolerance can be modified by co-
346	occurring microbes or viruses (e.g., [78-81]), and phage have recently been documented from
347	the bee gut microbiome [82,83]. Community interactions may also help explain why
348	monocolonizations of Snodgrassella into bees reared at 29 °C or below have been erratic (Fig.
349	4A and [51]), while fecal transplants at these temperatures have not [36,50]. Another difference
350	between Snodgrassella colonization from cultured isolates and from fecal transplants is in the
351	quantity and physiological state of the cells that bees ingest. These factors could also help
352	symbionts overcome a temperature barrier to gut colonization.
353	
354	Conclusions
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356	We have argued that the gut microbiome is probably not a major constraint on how social
357	bees respond to heat stress. However, as their growth is somewhat cold-sensitive, symbionts
358	could be affected by other kinds of environmental stressors that disrupt host thermoregulatory
359	behavior. For example, neonicotinoid pesticides interfere with B. impatiens thermoregulation
360	[84]. Pesticides could thus indirectly affect colonization by Snodgrassella and perhaps other key
361	symbionts, a process we have shown to be temperature-sensitive. Whether symbionts indeed
362	constrain (or even improve [85]) bee responses to heat and other stressors remains an important
363	priority for future research, as bees and the pollination services they provide continue to face
364	serious challenges.
365	Our findings are also relevant beyond bees. We have identified a potential feedback
366	between host behavior and the microbiome, a topic that has recently garnered substantial interest
367	[86,87]. Specifically, we suggest that social bee thermoregulatory behaviors have provided

368	elevated and buffered microenvironments (nests and individual bodies), shaping the evolution of
369	their symbionts' thermal niches. Additionally, there are parallels between bees and mammals,
370	which also create warm gut environments and harbor socially transmitted gut symbionts. Bees
371	could be a useful model to understand how these factors influence symbiont thermotolerance, a
372	little-studied trait in humans and other mammals.
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374	Data Availability
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376	Primary data and R code used for analyses and visualizations are publicly available at the
377	figshare repository: https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12486395.
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385	

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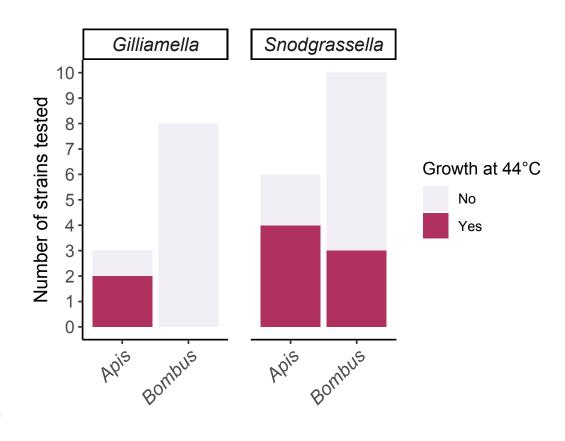
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611 Figures



612 613

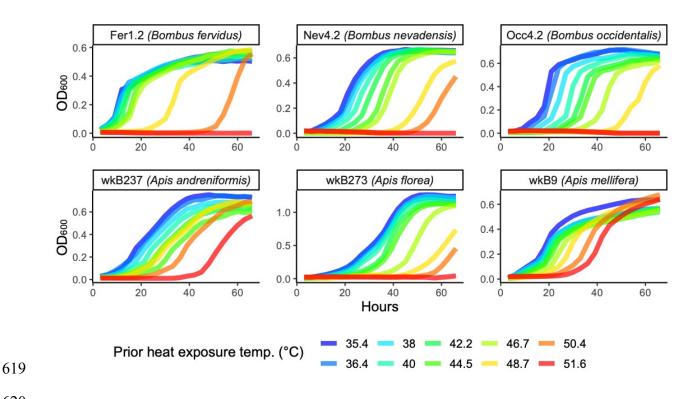
614 Figure 1. Ability of strains of two core bee gut symbionts, *Gilliamella* and *Snodgrassella*, to

615 grow after 48 h incubation on solid media at 44 °C. Honeybee (*Apis*) strains tend to be better

616 able to grow at this temperature than bumblebee (*Bombus*) strains. Thermal limits broken down

617 by host species of origin are shown in Fig. S1.

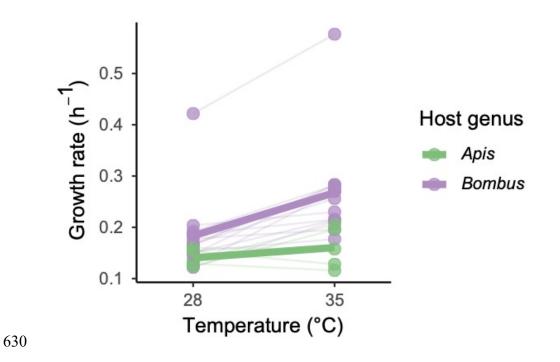
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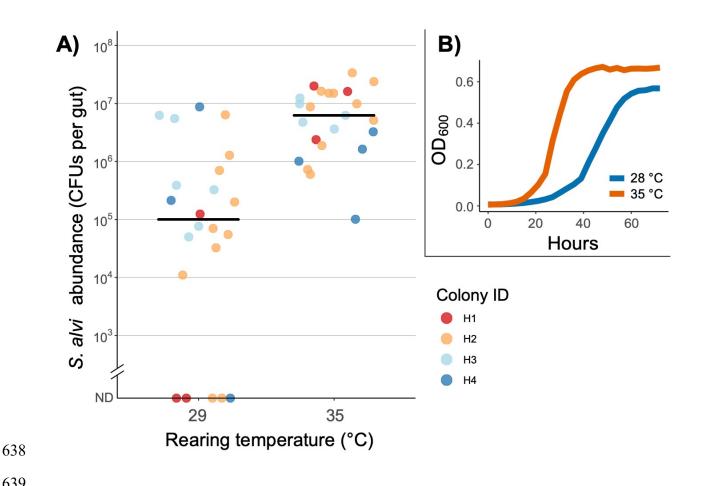


621Figure 2. In vitro growth of the core bee gut symbiont Snodgrassella following short-term622exposure to high temperatures. Curves represent growth at 35 °C and 5% CO2 following a 1 h623heat stress treatment applied using a gradient thermocycler, showing the mean OD_{600} values of624three replicates per strain per temperature. The host species from which each strain was isolated625is indicated. Snodgrassella is generally robust to high temperatures, though tolerance varied626among strains. Only two Apis-associated isolates were able to recover from 51.6 °C, the627maximum temperature tested.

628



632 <u>Figure 3</u>. *In vitro* growth rates of *Snodgrassella* strains at 28 °C and 35 °C. Dots connected by 633 thin lines represent the maximum growth rates of each strain, colored by whether the strains were 634 isolated from honeybees (*Apis*) or bumblebees (*Bombus*). Thick lines connect the median growth 635 rate for *Apis* or *Bombus* strains at each incubation temperature. All bumblebee *Snodgrassella* 636 grow faster at 35 °C, a temperature significantly higher than typical bumblebee nests. N = 5 *Apis* 637 strains, N = 15 *Bombus* strains.

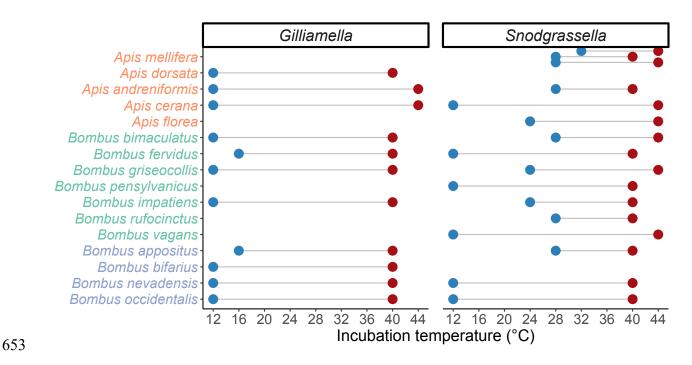


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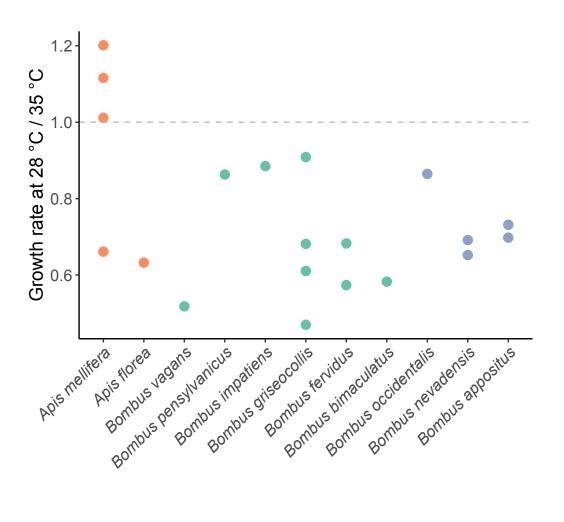
640 Figure 4. A) Effects of the thermal environment on colonization of Snodgrassella alvi wkB12 in 641 gnotobiotic bumblebee workers (Bombus impatiens). Inoculated bees were maintained for 5 d at 642 29 °C, a typical temperature in *B. impatiens* nests (N = 22), or 35 °C (N = 23). Colors indicate 643 the four replicate colonies that were used for the experiment, and black bars indicate the median 644 Snodgrassella titer for each temperature treatment. Bees fed a sterile buffer and maintained 645 under the same conditions had no detectable *Snodgrassella* colonization (not shown). CFUs = 646 colony-forming units; ND = not detected. B) Growth of Snodgrassella alvi wkB12 in vitro when 647 incubated at 28 °C versus 35 °C. Growth curves represent the mean OD₆₀₀ values of three 648 replicates per temperature. 649

651 Supplemental Figures

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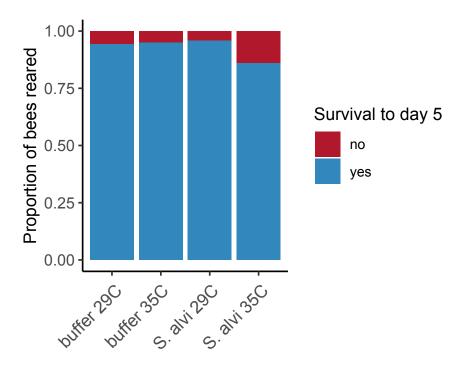


654 Figure S1. Thermal limits to growth in vitro for two bee gut symbiont species. Dots represent the 655 minimum and maximum temperatures at which a given strain exhibited growth after 48 h of 656 incubation on solid media. No growth was evident for any strain at 48 °C, and temperatures 657 below 12 °C were not tested. Aside from Apis mellifera, from which three Snodgrassella isolates 658 were assayed, one symbiont isolate per host species was assayed; note that blank spaces indicate 659 untested host/symbiont combinations. The four bumble bee host species that typically inhabit 660 high-elevation habitats are labeled in blue at the bottom of the plot. Lower limits to growth 661 should be considered as minimum estimates of cold tolerance, given the sensitivity of this metric 662 to the starting inoculum size (see Results). 663



664

<u>Figure S2</u>. Growth rates of *Snodgrassella* at 28 °C versus 35 °C *in vitro*. The dashed line
indicates equivalent growth rates between the two temperatures. Dots represent individual *Snodgrassella* strains, and strains from bumble bee species that typically inhabit high-elevation
habitats are labeled in blue. The one *A. mellifera*-derived strain that grew faster at 35 °C is
wkB2, which has been frequently cultured in the laboratory at 35 °C (see Methods). Its thermal
performance may therefore reflect laboratory evolution.



672

673 Figure S3. Survival outcomes of gnotobiotic bumble bees from adult emergence through five

days of rearing. Number of bees inoculated with buffer alone: 18 at 29 °C, 20 at 35 °C. Number

675 of bees inoculated with *Snodgrassella alvi* wkB12: 25 at 29 °C, 29 at 35 °C.