1 Longitudinal survey reveals delayed effects of forager gene

2 expression on stingless bee colony health

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31 Abstract

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33	Bee populations are declining globally due to different environmental stressors, such as pathogens,
34	malnutrition, and agrochemicals. Brazil is the home of hundreds of stingless bee species, some of
35	them now considered endangered, though very little is known about the impact of disease on native
36	bees. In Southern Brazil the endangered stingless bee Melipona quadrifasciata is affected by an
37	annual syndrome that causes sudden death of workers, eventually leading colonies to collapse.
38	Although novel viruses were found in foragers from diseased colonies, none has been consistently
39	implicated in the outbreak. Here we used transcriptomics in combination with an integrative
40	longitudinal survey on managed colonies to identify predictors for preventing M. quadrifasciata colony
41	failures. We found that key genes related to xenobiotic metabolization, nutrition and immune
42	responses are downregulated in foragers from colonies that became diseased three months later. The
43	period that preceded the outbreak was marked by pronounced forager weight loss as well as
44	behavioural changes. Our findings support the proposition that worldwide bee mortality is influenced
45	by a combination of diverse sublethal factors, and increase awareness of the long-term effects of
46	genetic diversity erosion in stingless bee species, which enhances their vulnerability to environmental
47	stressors.
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49	Introduction
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51	The worldwide decrease in bee populations observed in the last decade is a matter of great
52	concern. Some colony losses are explained by the presence of pathogens and other infectious agents
53	[1,2], but several additional interacting stressors, such as habitat loss, malnutrition, agrochemicals and
54	colony management practices are known to reduce the fitness of bee populations [3]. Theoretical
55	studies indicate that although multifactorial stresses may cause colony failure, it is most likely a result
56	of a critical level of stress from the accumulation of sublethal factors [4].
57	One of the intrinsic properties of sublethal factors is their delayed effect on organismal fitness.
58	In eusocial bees, where individual fitness is achieved indirectly by cooperation, sublethal factors
59	characteristically compromise the ability of non-reproductive females to perform their regular tasks [5].

For example, honey bee workers reared in pollen-stressed colonies show normal development, but as

adults are less likely to waggle dance, and precisely inform food location [6]. Exposure of larvae to
sublethal doses of pesticides induces multiple changes in gene expression, leading to developmental
and adult behavioural changes that weaken bee colonies [5,7]. Besides interacting with each other,
environmental stressors are modulated by endogenous factors that are ultimately linked to the bee's
genetic background [8]. Some bee management practices, including colony translocation, may lead to
genetic homogenization, loss of genetic diversity, and the breakdown of local adaptations, finally
impacting their capacity to respond to stressors [9,10].

68 The stingless bee *M. quadrifasciata* is one of the most extensively managed species and the 69 object of intensive trading in Southern Brazil, where its nests virtually disappeared from nature [11]. In 70 this region, the practice of colony division has been performed for decades and became more 71 common with trade intensification [12], which is now threatened by a syndrome that annually occurs in 72 late summer, often leading to colony collapse [13,14]. Some worker bees from affected colonies show 73 neurologic symptoms, such as tremors and paralysis, suggesting the implication of viruses in the 74 syndrome. However, in spite of having found novel viruses associated with symptomatic bees, such as 75 dicistroviruses, which cause similar symptoms in A. mellifera [15], no virus [14] or other pathogen [13] 76 was found consistently associated with bees from diseased colonies. Here we report an integrative 77 and longitudinal study designed to uncover the causes underlying the annual syndrome of M. 78 quadrifasciata. In addition to exploratory transcriptomic analyses, a temporal survey was conducted on 79 three pairs of mother-daughter colonies kept in two separate localities, in order to evaluate the 80 contribution of both genetic and environmental factors to the syndrome manifestation, by measuring 81 individual- and colony-level traits.

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83 Materials and Methods

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85 (a) Transcriptome analyses

Three *M. quadrifasciata* colonies were sampled for exploratory transcriptomic analyses aiming to identify differentially expressed genes (DEGs) during the syndrome, and to select candidate genes for further analyses. Two colonies (D1 and D2) presented symptoms during the yearly outbreak, while the third (H) remained healthy and was sampled after the outbreak period. RNA of three pooled bees from each colony was purified by polyA-tail selection, followed by library construction using TruSeg

91 Stranded mRNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina, USA). Single-end sequencing (read length = 150 nt) was 92 performed on an Illumina NextSeq instrument. Low quality reads were removed with Trimmomatic 93 v.0.36 [16], and mapped onto *M. quadrifasciata* genome (GenBank: GCA 001276565.1) with GSNAP 94 v. 2018-07-04 [17]. Gene expression was estimated with the *depth* command from Samtools v.1.3.1 95 [18], and DEGs were recovered with custom Perl scripts, after a normalization step (Available at 96 https://github.com/liliancaesar/Publication scripts/tree/main/2020 Longitudinal survey/Transcriptome 97 analyses). Functional enrichment analysis was performed with g:Profiler [19]. Detailed information on 98 the samples, nucleic acid extraction and transcriptome analyses are provided as electronic 99 supplementary material (text S1). Three DEGs known for their roles in bee health were selected for 100 RT-qPCR assays.

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102 (b) Monitoring bee colonies and forager relative gene expression

103 To monitor changes of key biological features, observations were made in *M. guadrifasciata* 104 mother-daughter (MD) colonies under semi-controlled conditions during six months in two localities. 105 Three colonies (named BP1, BP2 and BP3) were kept in a small agricultural property where 106 agrochemicals are regularly used. Daughter colonies obtained by division from each BP colony 107 (named PA1, PA2 and PA3), were translocated to the vicinity of a secondary forest, located about 70 108 km away from BP. Colonies were equipped with a datalogger device (ONSET, Brazil) to record within-109 hive temperature and humidity every six hours. Downstream analyses were conducted with the daily 110 lowest temperature (t) and the highest humidity (h), or with a variable called delta (Δ = maximum value 111 - minimum value). Aliquots of pollen stored inside colonies were collected every month from the 112 experimental hives or from nearby colonies in each meliponary. Around 500 pollen grains were 113 identified at the family, genus, or species level, using reference material from pollen libraries and the 114 literature (see electronic supplementary material, text S1). Every month five foragers (figure 1A) were 115 collected, weighted, and stored at -80°C until RNA extraction for RT-gPCR.

Three DEGs were selected for monitoring forager bee expression patterns during the survey,
namely putative mitochondrial *cytochrome P450* (*CYP450*; WN51_04136), *phenoloxidase* (*PO*;
WN51_02761) and *apolipophorin* (*ApoLp*; WN51_14077). Primers based on each respective gene
sequence were designed with Primer3 from Geneious R11 [20] (electronic supplementary material,
table S1). Actin (*act*) and 40S ribosomal protein S5 (*rps5*) were used as references for gene

121 expression normalization [21–23]. StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, USA) 122 was used for the RT-qPCR assays, and primer amplification efficiency was calculated with qBASE+ 123 software [24] from the slope of a five-point 1:10 serial dilution of calibrator cDNA samples. 124 Experimental setup of gPCR involved sample maximization method, three technical replicates for each 125 sample, and inter-run calibrator samples [24]. The default of gBASE+ pipeline was used to calculate 126 relative gene expression, and presented in the form of calibrated normalized relative guantities 127 (CNRQ) [24]. Detailed information on sample processing and RT-qPCR quantifications is provided as 128 electronic supplementary data (text S1).

129

130 (c) Statistical analyses

131 All analyses were conducted in R version 3.6.3 [25] and available at

132 https://github.com/liliancaesar/Publication_scripts/tree/main/2020_Longitudinal_survey/Statistical_anal

133 yses. Data were tested for their fit to normality and variance homogeneity using Shapiro's and

Bartlett's tests (*P* < 0.05), respectively. When applicable, package MASS [26] was used for Box-Cox

transformation of non-normal and non-homogeneous data. Temporal differences in forager weight

136 were assessed by one-way ANOVA using "month" as factor. Monthly differences of daily variations in

137 colony temperature and humidity (Δt and Δh) were tested with Kruskal-Wallis. To test whether

138 unhealthy colonies were on average cooler and/or more humid, the March daily lowest temperatures

and highest humidities were analysed by Mann-Whitney. The package Laercio [27] was used for mean

140 comparisons with Tukey's test, and PMCMRplus [28] for Nemenyi's test. Forager CNRQ differences

141 for CYP450, PO and ApoLp were evaluated by one-way ANOVA using "month" and "colony" as factors

separately. Taking into account that the syndrome occurs in March, and that colonies have been

143 monitored from January until April, a two-way ANOVA using either "colony", "MD colonies", "health

144 status" or "intensity" combined with "month" as factors was also performed, enabling us to identify

gene expression effects in specific periods during the course of our survey. Pearson's correlation

146 coefficients among all traits were calculated with package Hmisc [29].

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148 Results

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150 (a) Differentially expressed genes in diseased colonies

151 Transcriptome sequencing of D1, D2 and H foragers yielded 99,766,936, 102,034,731 and 152 135,982,124 single-end high quality-trimmed reads, respectively. From all reads, 87-99% mapped 153 against the M. guadrifasciata genome. A total of 558 DEGs were found comparing bees from healthy 154 and both diseased colonies, with 493 downregulated in foragers from diseased colonies (figure 1B; 155 electronic supplementary material, table S2). Membrane components (GO:0016020 and GO:0016020) 156 are significantly enriched in DEGs (figure 1C; electronic supplementary material, table S3), from which 157 the vast majority is downregulated, representing major deficits in bees affected by the syndrome. To 158 our knowledge, most of the highly differentially expressed genes were never directly implicated in bee 159 health. Therefore, three DEGs homologous to genes commonly found differentially expressed in 160 unhealthy bees from other species were chosen to quantify temporal variations in gene expression in 161 foragers under semi-controlled conditions using RT-qPCR, *i.e.*, CYP450, PO and ApoLp (electronic 162 supplementary material, table S4). CYP450 and ApoLp are both downregulated in our transcriptomes 163 from diseased colonies, but curiously PO showed inconsistent patterns of differential expression in D1 164 and to D2 relative to H.

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166 (b) Outcomes of the survey

Among the six colonies monitored monthly in our study, four manifested signs of the syndrome in March 2019. Colonies BP2 and BP3 manifested the strongest signs of disease, with high mortality of workers, and some bees showing tremors or paralysis. Their respective daughter colonies PA2 and PA3 showed less intense signs and were characterized as mildly diseased. We rule out the possibility that bees died due to lethal doses of agrochemicals, since residue analyses did not indicate contamination by agrochemical compounds in bees from diseased colonies (data not shown). MD colony pair BP1 and PA1 did not manifest health alterations.

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175 (c) Temporal variation in gene expression

There was a significant temporal variation in the transcription of *CYP450* (P = 0.009), with peaks in March in both foragers from healthy and diseased colonies, and in January only in healthy ones (figure 1D). Monthly variations in *CYP450, PO* and *ApoLp* gene expression showed similar interactions with the colony health status (P = 0.0103, 0.0152 and < 0.0005, respectively), and foragers from colonies that remained healthy during the outbreak period showed the highest

181 expression of these three genes in January (figure 1D).

182

183 (d) Changes in worker bee nutrition and colony microclimate

184 We found a marked reduction in forager weight from January until March (P < 0.0005; figure 185 2A), with the lowest average weight reached during the syndrome outbreak (March). From January to 186 February we observed a sudden change in the pollen stored by worker bees, *i.e.*, its composition 187 shifted from Myrtaceae (as Eucalyptus sp.) to Fabaceae (mainly Mimosa bimucronata; figure 2B). Bee 188 weight reduction was accompanied by a reduction in the internal temperature of colonies (r = 0.63, P =189 0.0088), and increase in humidity (r = -0.58, P = 0.0179; electronic supplementary material, figure S1). 190 This pattern was more pronounced in colonies that became diseased during the outbreak, *i.e.*, MD 191 colonies 2 (BP2 and PA2; P < 0.0005). Furthermore, temperature was lowest (P < 0.0005) and 192 humidity was highest (P < 0.0005) inside diseased colonies when the syndrome symptoms were first 193 observed in March (figure 2C). The highest differences in daily temperature and humidity within 194 colonies occurred from December to March (P < 0.0005; figure 2D).

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196 Discussion

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198 Our study revealed that both genetic and environmental factors influence the annual M. 199 quadrifasciata syndrome. Mother-daughter colonies, exhibiting an average genetic relatedness of 200 0.375 [30], showed similar health status during the outbreak, despite having been kept in different 201 localities. We suspect that the routine practice of colony division, associated with the concomitant loss 202 of wild nests, may have reduced the genetic diversity of *M. quadrifasciata* populations. Reduced 203 genetic diversity may have affected stingless bees to properly respond to environmental stresses in 204 the form of sublethal effects such as pesticides, pathogens, and limited food resources, predisposing 205 them to disease. We found that symptoms of worker bees were stronger in two affected colonies 206 located nearby an agricultural setting. Thus, two lines of evidence allow us to identify some of the 207 mechanisms involved in a higher susceptibility to disease, and eventually colony failure, possibly 208 through the impairment of forager responses to interacting stressors.

Firstly, our exploratory transcriptomic analyses showed that components of the cellular
 membrane, representing the layer that directly communicates with the environment, are enriched with

211 DEGs that are downregulated in foragers from colonies affected by disease. Furthermore, enrichment 212 analysis also indicated a slight over representation of lipid metabolic processes and oxidoreductase 213 molecular functions, which were previously shown to respond to pesticides in honey bees [7]. 214 Secondly, foragers from our surveyed colonies affected by the syndrome in March expressed 215 significantly less CYP450, ApoLp and PO in January. Bees rely on CYP450s for xenobiotic 216 detoxification, which determines their sensitivity to agrochemicals [31]. ApoLp is a major component of 217 the honey bee royal jelly [32] and is responsible for lipid transport, being mostly involved in innate 218 immunity [33]. PO is an enzyme responsible for activating melanogenesis, an important defense 219 mechanism of insects, and considered as an indicator of health condition strongly influenced by diet 220 [34]. Thus, it is not surprising that the expression patterns of these three genes (specially ApoLp and 221 PO) are so remarkably similar in our survey, suggesting the combined involvement of three 222 physiological processes in the *M. quadrifasciata* syndrome, *i.e.*, xenobiotic detoxification, immunity 223 and nutrition.

224 Agrochemicals are known to reduce ApoLp levels in honey bees [35], and increase their 225 demand for food [36]. Pollen stress in turn may lead to developmental and behavioural impairment [6]. 226 Moreover, January is characterized by a high density of pollinators in general, including A. mellifera, 227 creating opportunities for getting in contact with a larger diversity of pathogens. In our study, 228 pronounced forager weight loss occurred between January and March, as well as a shift in the pollen 229 stored by worker bees from Myrtaceae to mostly *Mimosa bimucronata* between January and February. 230 Such a shift may result from the opportunity to forage *Mimosa*, that starts to bloom in February, and 231 from competitive exclusion, since M. quadrifasciata apparently competes with A. mellifera for 232 Myrtaceae flowers [37]. Interestingly, two months after M. quadrifasciata initiated storing M. 233 *bimucronata*, a gradual recovery of forager weight was noticed. Colony recovery after the outbreak 234 period is also suggested by a better performance of worker bees in controlling their nest 235 microenvironment, as observed by the reduced differences in colony daily temperature and humidity in 236 April and May.

Unfortunately, we cannot rule out that the differences we observed in forager gene expression
are due to age differences. *Melipona* spp. development takes around 40 days from egg to adult [38],
thus *M. quadrifasciata* foragers sampled during the outbreak in March were immatures in January.
However, age polyethism in bees is known to be a labile feature, since forager differentiation from

241 nurses might be accelerated if the colony weakens [39]. Conducting invasive studies with stingless 242 bees is not straightforward. Their colonies are much smaller than honey bees, semi-wild, and present 243 a number of significant challenges for conducting experiments avoiding the side effects of excessive 244 manipulation. Although four of the six colonies surveyed in our study manifested some degree of the 245 syndrome symptoms, none of them collapsed during the outbreak period. We think that the annual 246 collapses reported for M. guadrifasciata colonies in Southern Brazil could result from positive density 247 dependence influenced by the combination of diverse sublethal factors [4,40]. The complexity of 248 causes behind worldwide colony collapses demand efforts to sustain pollination services. Based on 249 our findings, actions such as limiting the use of agrochemicals in the vicinity of managed colonies and 250 providing abundant natural polyfloral resources through the conservation of native forests could help 251 prevent the annual M. quadrifasciata syndrome. Furthermore, it warrants a better understanding of the 252 impact of management practices on stingless bee genetic diversity and fitness. 253 254 Acknowledaments 255 We thank the beekeeper Evald Gossler for making his meliponary available for the survey,

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258

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373 Figure legends:

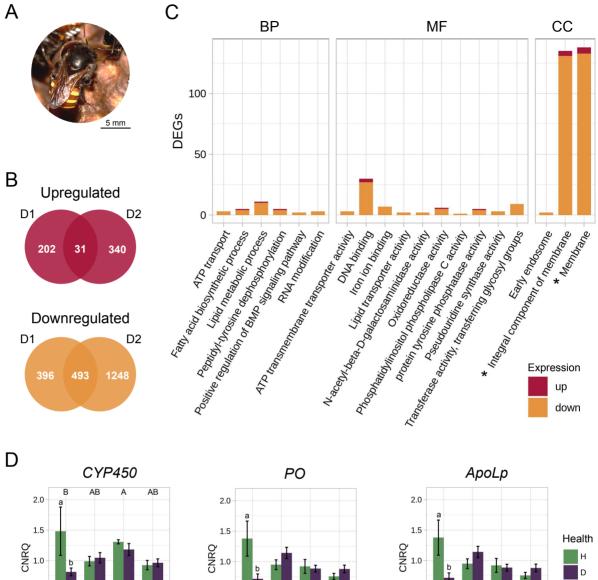
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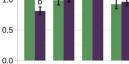
- 375 **Figure 1:** (A) *Melipona quadrifasciata* worker bee (Fototeca Cristiano Menezes,
- 376 http://www.splink.org.br/search?lang=en&collectioncode=FCM). (B) Venn diagram showing
- 377 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) up or downregulated in foragers from diseased colonies (D1 or
- 378 D2). (C) Functional overview of DEGs based on gene ontology annotation (P < 1), with the asterisk
- indicating GO terms enriched in the DEGs (P < 0.05). Bars are sorted according to biological
- 380 processes (BP), molecular function (MF) and cellular component (CC). (D) Barplot comparing relative
- 381 expression (CNRQ) of CYP450, PO and ApoLp in foragers from colonies that remained healthy (H),
- with those that showed signs of disease (D) during the outbreak period. Bars indicate the standard
- 383 error; uppercase letters indicate significant differences among months, and lowercase letters indicate
- 384 significant differences between healthy and unhealthy colonies within months, according to Tukey's

385 test (*P* < 0.05).

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387 Figure 2: (A) Boxplot showing the monthly variation in average forager weight. (B) Barplot showing 388 the monthly variation in stored pollen, revealing a switch between January and February. (C) Line plot 389 of the minimum daily temperature and maximum daily humidity in March, in which the colors identify 390 colonies that remained healthy (shades of green) or became diseased (shades of purple) during the 391 outbreak period (horizontal bars). (D) Barplot showing the average daily difference in maximum vs. 392 minimum colony temperature (Δt) and humidity (Δh). Vertical bars indicate the standard error; 393 lowercase letters represent significant differences according to (A) Tukey's test or (D) Nemenyi's test 394 (P < 0.05).



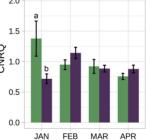


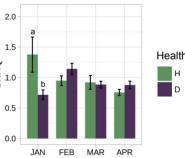
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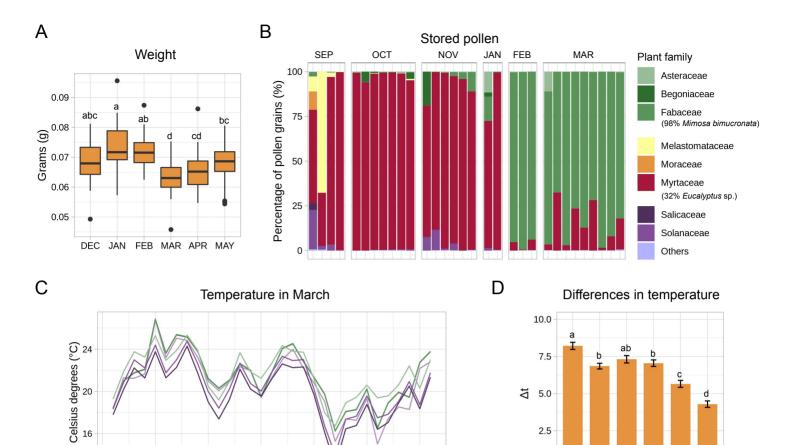
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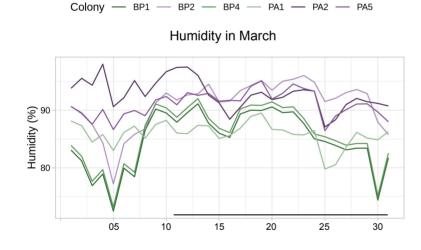
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Differences in humidity

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