

1 **The scent of symbiosis: gut bacteria**  
2 **affect social interactions in**  
3 **leafcutting ants**

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21

## 22 **Abstract**

23 Animal gut microbiota affect host physiology and behaviour. In eusocial  
24 Hymenoptera, where colony-level integrity is preserved via a nestmate  
25 discrimination system based on cuticular hydrocarbon mixtures, microorganismal  
26 effects may influence social dynamics. Although nestmate recognition has  
27 undergone a thorough exploration during the last four decades, few studies have  
28 investigated the putative role of gut microbes. Here we integrate metagenomic,  
29 chemical and behavioural approaches to test whether gut microbes affect  
30 nestmate recognition in *Acromyrmex echinator* leaf-cutting ants. Treating  
31 workers with a sterile diet or with antibiotics resulted in a substantial alteration of  
32 their gut microbial communities. In pairwise social interactions, untreated vs.  
33 antibiotic-treated nestmates behaved more aggressively than other nestmate  
34 and non-nestmate pairs, suggesting that the suppression of microbes indirectly  
35 alters chemical social cues and triggers aggressive behaviour. Chemical  
36 analyses on treated individuals revealed a decrease in the abundance of two  
37 metapleural gland antifungal compounds, and we confirmed the correspondence  
38 between aggression levels and chemical profile differences. Feeding microbiota-  
39 remodelled ants with conspecific faecal droplets partially restored the original  
40 bacterial communities. Furthermore, non-nestmates fed with faecal droplets from  
41 different colonies were unusually aggressive compared to pairs fed with faecal  
42 droplets from the same colony. This suggests that chemicals derived from  
43 microbial strains may shape nestmate recognition, opening novel questions  
44 about the role of microorganisms in the evolution of social behaviour.

45

46 **Keywords:** gut microbiota, *Acromyrmex echinator*, social evolution, cuticular  
47 hydrocarbons

## 48 **Introduction**

49 In the evolution of mutualistic relationships between metazoans and prokaryotes,  
50 animals have co-opted the metabolic versatility of microbes to upgrade their  
51 physiology, while microorganisms have found favourable environments in animal  
52 bodies. As part of the physiology of their animal hosts, symbiotic microbes are  
53 also involved in their behavioural processes (1–5). Many insightful discoveries  
54 about the physiological and behavioural effects of symbiotic microorganisms  
55 stem from the study of germ-free or germ-remodelled animals. Research  
56 comparing germ-free mice to their untreated counterparts has revealed microbial  
57 gut symbionts to affect anxiety-like behaviour (6–8) and social interactions (9).  
58 Similarly, a flourishing corpus of *Drosophila* studies suggests that gut microbes  
59 mediate a plethora of physiological/behavioural processes, including specific  
60 appetites for proteins (10), mate choice and mating dynamics (11–14) and the  
61 recognition of kin and familiar individuals (15).

62

63 This increasing awareness about the behavioural role of microbes opens  
64 questions about how microorganisms may affect the behavioural ecology of  
65 animals with radical social adaptations, such as the eusocial insects. These live  
66 in family groups with a permanent division of reproductive labour, worker castes  
67 and sophisticated chemical communication (16). Eusocial insect colonies exhibit  
68 complex behaviours resulting from the cooperative interactions of individuals,  
69 such as foraging, nursing and nest construction, as well as policing and colony  
70 defence against unrelated intruders. Across taxa, group-level integrity is ensured

71 by a chemical-based nestmate recognition system, which relies on signals  
72 encoded in long-chain hydrocarbons forming a waxy layer on the insect cuticle  
73 (cuticular hydrocarbons, or CHC).

74 Our current knowledge about the microbial effects on eusocial insect CHC-  
75 mediated social behaviour is limited and inconsistent. *Reticulitermes speratus*  
76 termites fed with bacteria extracted from individuals of unrelated colonies are  
77 attacked by nestmates, and antibiotic-mediated manipulation of bacterial  
78 communities affects nestmate recognition behaviour (17). In *Pogonomyrmex*  
79 *barbatus* harvester ants, individuals with experimentally-augmented cuticular  
80 microbiomes are rejected by nestmates more than controls, whereas antibiotic-  
81 treated individuals are not. This suggests that cuticle-dwelling microbes influence  
82 nestmate recognition dynamics (18). Contrarily, however, topical antibiotic  
83 administration on *Acromyrmex subterraneus* leafcutter ants does not affect  
84 cuticular hydrocarbon profiles (19). Similarly, a study on *Camponotus* carpenter  
85 ants revealed a negative correlation between the levels of the bacterial gut  
86 symbiont *Blochmannia* and CHC quantities, whereas relative CHC proportions  
87 were not affected (20). Finally, antibiotic administration affects interspecific but  
88 not intraspecific social interactions in the Argentine ant *Linepithema humile*,  
89 suggesting gut microbiota not to be involved in nestmate recognition in this ant  
90 species (21).

91

92 Despite providing insights into the role of symbiotic microbes in CHC-mediated  
93 nestmate recognition, these studies either investigate microbial effects through  
94 behavioural tests, without correlating CHC measures (17,21), or compare CHC  
95 profiles between antibiotic-treated and control individuals without behavioural  
96 tests (18–20). To gain more insights into the interplay between gut microbiota

97 and chemical-based social interactions, we here seek to implement an  
98 integrative analysis of CHC, gut bacterial communities and nestmate recognition  
99 behaviour. We remodelled the previously-characterized gut microbiota of  
100 *Acromyrmex echinator* leafcutter ants (22,23) to investigate the link between gut  
101 bacterial communities and socially relevant chemical signals. Our hypothesis  
102 was that remodelling of the ant gut microbiota would result in a chemical profile  
103 shift with measurable effects on social interactions. Therefore, in a first set of  
104 experiments, we either mildly suppressed or completely eliminated the native gut  
105 microbiota of *A. echinator* using respectively a sterile sucrose diet or antibiotics  
106 (Round 1). We then characterized the effects on the ant gut microbial  
107 communities and chemical profiles, and used dyadic aggression trials to evaluate  
108 treatment-dependent changes of gut microbial communities with chemical  
109 profiles and behaviour. In a second set of experiments, we partially restored the  
110 original ant gut microbial communities with the aim to rescue the chemical and  
111 behavioural effects obtained with the experimental diet and the antibiotics  
112 (Round 2). To achieve this, we fed experimentally-treated individuals with faecal  
113 droplets of untreated conspecifics and again analysed their microbial  
114 communities, chemical profiles and social interactions.

## 115 **Material and methods**

### 116 *Experimental design*

117 We used workers from four *A. echinator* colonies (Ae150, Ae322, Ae153 and  
118 Ae331, hereafter named respectively A, B, C and D) with an already  
119 characterized gut microbiota (24,25) for the experiments (Figure 1). Colonies  
120 were collected in Gamboa, Republic of Panama in 2003-2010, and kept at 25°C,  
121 70% RH and 12:12 L:D photoperiod. Individuals were taken from fungus gardens  
122 (375 individuals/colony, N=1500) and placed in groups of 15 in sterile Petri  
123 dishes (Ø 90×15mm; 25 dishes/colony, N=100) including a food container. For  
124 each colony, we randomly assigned workers to two treatment groups: 1) ants  
125 kept on a sterile 10% sucrose solution diet (150 individuals/colony); 2) ants kept  
126 on the same sterile 10% sucrose solution supplemented with 1mg/ml of the  
127 antibiotic tetracycline (225 individuals/colony). After two weeks, 522 individuals  
128 were tested in a first series of experiments (Round 1) including aggression  
129 assays and analyses of CHC (GC-MS, see below) and gut microbiota (qPCR  
130 and MiSeq, see below). The remaining individuals underwent the experiments in  
131 Round 2, where we attempted to restore their original microbiota by feeding ants  
132 on a sterile 10% sucrose solution supplemented with faecal droplets (0.033  
133 droplets/μl) obtained by squeezing abdomens of untreated workers from the  
134 source colonies. Colony B and D workers received nestmate droplets, whereas A  
135 and C workers received non-nestmate droplets (from colonies B and D,  
136 respectively, Figure 1). After one week, individuals were tested in aggression  
137 assays and used for CHC and microbiota analyses. Throughout the experiments,  
138 we monitored survival to determine the effects of our treatments on ant mortality  
139 (details in the Supplementary information, Figure S1).

140 Finally, we set up an independent smaller-scale experiment in which we  
141 compared the microbial communities of ant guts, heads and thoraxes before and  
142 after the experimental diet treatment (details in the Supplementary Information,  
143 Figure S2).

144

#### 145 *Aggression assays*

146 We tested microbiota-remodelled and untreated ants against nestmates and  
147 non-nestmates from the original colonies, in both experimental rounds (3-5  
148 replicates/combination, total=260 tests; Figure 1, Data set S1). Assays consisted  
149 of dyadic encounters in Petri dishes with clean filter paper on the bottom. For two  
150 minutes after first contact, an observer (blind with respect to ant treatment and  
151 original colony) used the software Etholog 2.25 (26) to quantify the frequency  
152 and duration of biting, mandible opening, antennation and absence of contact  
153 (Figure S3). For statistical analyses, we excluded the mandible opening  
154 behaviour (usually considered as aggressive) because pooling it with biting  
155 produced similar results (Supplementary Information). In addition, because  
156 keeping ants in the same Petri dishes for three weeks resulted in a significant  
157 effect on aggression (Binomial GLMM with 'Petri dish' as fixed and 'colony' as  
158 random variables,  $z=3.21$ ,  $Df=141$ ,  $p=0.001$ ), we considered only interactions  
159 between nestmates kept in different Petri dishes.

160 We analysed data in R using the packages *lme4*, *car* and *multcomp* (27–29),  
161 fitting generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs). Classifying biting as  
162 aggressive behaviour and antennal contact as non-aggressive allowed measures  
163 to be analysed as a single binomial response variable. For Round 1, the initial  
164 model included biting/antennation frequencies as response variable, whereas

165 nestmate, diet treatment and their interaction were included as fixed factors. The  
166 colony origin of experimental individuals was included as random effect term.  
167 The model used for Round 2 included the same response variable as Round 1  
168 model, and 'faecal droplets' was included as an additional fixed factor (two  
169 levels: from nestmates or non-nestmates). We tested the significance of fixed  
170 effects using the *car* function 'Anova'. Where needed, we conducted post hoc  
171 planned contrasts between groups of interest using the *multcomp* function 'glht',  
172 correcting alpha values with false discovery rate (FDR).

173

#### 174 *DNA extractions*

175 Four to eight workers per treatment per colony used in the aggression assays  
176 were ice anesthetized and individually dissected in sterile Phosphate Buffered  
177 Saline (PBS). Pooled crop, midgut, hindgut, Malpighian tubules and fat body  
178 cells were stored at -20°C until DNA extractions, and immediately homogenized  
179 after thawing in 200µl ATL buffer supplemented with 20µl proteinase K (Qiagen)  
180 using sterile pestles. Subsequently, Ø0.45 mm glass beads were added and  
181 tubes vortexed for 30s, after which the samples were incubated at 56°C  
182 overnight under constant agitation. DNA was extracted using the Qiagen Blood  
183 and Tissue kit, and all samples were eluted in 100µl AE elution buffer.

184

#### 185 *16S rRNA qPCR analyses*

186 The gut microbiota of *A. echinator* normally consists of five predominant OTUs  
187 (Operational Taxonomic Units, representing a cluster of bacterial 16S rRNA  
188 sequences of ≥97% similarity) (22,25,30). These belong to the genus *Wolbachia*



189 (*wolAcro1*, including two strains: *wSinivictaA* and *wSinivictaB*) and the orders  
190 Entomoplasmatales (class: Mollicutes, OTUs *EntAcro1*, *EntAcro2* and  
191 *EntAcro10*) and Rhizobiales (class: Alpha-Proteobacteria, OTU *RhiAcro1*  
192 (25,31–33)). In order to monitor how the dietary treatment affected the  
193 communities, we screened individual worker guts with qPCR (detailed methods  
194 in Supplementary Information, text and Table S1) on the five most abundant  
195 OTUs (Data set S2, procedures described in (25)), with Cycle threshold (Ct)  
196 mean of replicated samples used as a measure of amplicon abundance. The  
197 elongation factor 1 alpha (EF-1 $\alpha$ ) was used as a reference gene (34). Each run  
198 included two negative controls with no added template for each gene used. Data  
199 were ordinated using an unscaled principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) and inter-  
200 sample distances were again calculated using Canberra, Hellinger and Bray-  
201 Curtis methods. We estimated the difference in variation among groups using the  
202 HOMOVA command (with Bonferroni-adjusted alpha-values) implemented in  
203 mothur (35). For analysis, we initially used a standard curve with PCR products  
204 in tenfold dilution series of known concentration (fold change method) to  
205 calculate the PCR efficiency using the REST software (36). Data were imported  
206 in R and expressed as  $\Delta\Delta C_T$  values, i.e. as the fold change relative to the EF-1 $\alpha$   
207 control gene (37), always using zero as reference. We used linear mixed models  
208 (LMM) with the  $\Delta\Delta C_T$  values as response variable, ‘diet treatment’ (i.e.,  
209 untreated, sugar-treated or tetracycline-treated) and ‘experimental round’ (i.e.  
210 Round 1 or 2) as fixed variables, and ‘colony’ (A, B, C or D) as random variable.  
211 Tukey post hoc tests were performed to evaluate significant differences between  
212 groups. We used GLMs to pair aggression data with distances calculated using  
213  $\Delta C_T$  values fold change differences, or with absolute copy numbers calculated

214 using the qPCR data. All correlations were performed in R using the lme4,  
215 vegan, effects, Rmisc and ggplot2 packages (27,38–41).

216

### 217 *16S rRNA MiSeq analyses*

218 To investigate whether novel OTUs appeared with the dietary treatment, we  
219 screened ant worker guts individually with 16S rRNA MiSeq sequencing.  
220 Amplicons were generated using the 515F/806R primers targeting the 16S rDNA  
221 V4 region (42), purified using the Agencourt AMPure XP (Beckman Coulter) and  
222 quantified using Quant-iT dsDNA High-Sensitivity Assay Kit and Qubit  
223 fluorometer (Invitrogen) to allow for dilution and mixing in equal concentrations  
224 before sequencing. Sequencing (for details see the Supplementary Information)  
225 took place in the Section of Microbiology at the University of Copenhagen using  
226 an Illumina MiSeq. Data [Genbank: SAMN04261407 - SAMN04261536 and  
227 SAMN05362797 - SAMN05362832] were analysed using mothur (35). Details on  
228 the mothur procedure are given in the Supplementary Information. After  
229 filtering/processing the sequencing data and clustering at 97%, rarefaction tables  
230 were constructed using pseudo-replicate OTU datasets containing 1-272000  
231 sequences with 1000 iterations/pseudo-replicate, and the resulting curves were  
232 visualized in Microsoft Excel 2013. The final OTU Table was rarefied at 5000  
233 reads after manual inspection of the rarefaction curves, which reduced the  
234 number of OTUs to 1500. We used the MiSeq data to calculate Canberra and  
235 Bray-Curtis distances, after which we used Non-metric MultiDimensional Scaling  
236 (NMDS) to ordinate and visualize the effects. We used GLMs to pair aggression  
237 data with Bray-Curtis or Canberra distances calculated from the 16S rRNA

238 MiSeq data. Correlations were performed in R v3.2.3 using the lme4, vegan,  
239 effects, Rmisc and ggplot2 packages (27,38–41).

240

#### 241 *Cuticular hydrocarbon analyses*

242 CHCs were extracted by immersing the dissected heads and thoraces of  
243 aggression test individuals first in 150  $\mu$ l HPLC-grade hexane, and then in 150  $\mu$ l  
244 HPLC-grade chloroform (chemicals from Sigma-Aldrich, Belgium), both for 10  
245 min under continuous agitation. The two extracts were mixed, and the solvent  
246 evaporated at room temperature in a laminar flow cupboard. The dry extract was  
247 then dissolved in 30 $\mu$ l hexane, of which 3 $\mu$ l were injected in a Shimadzu QP2010  
248 Ultra GC-MS (splitless injector mode). Details on the GC-MS settings are given  
249 in the Supplementary Information. Our initial integration analysis of GC-MS runs  
250 detected 137 peaks, of which we selected 73 that had a relative abundance  
251 larger than 0.1% (Data set S3). Peak areas of cuticular compounds were  
252 integrated using R v3.1.0 (using package *xcms*, script available upon request)  
253 and normalized using a Z-transformation (43). To compare odour profiles among  
254 different rounds, we used linear mixed models (LMM) with the relative  
255 abundance of each compound as the response variable, 'diet treatment' and  
256 'experimental round' as fixed variables, and 'colony' as a random variable. We  
257 conducted linear hypotheses using the *multcomp* R package (44) function *glht* to  
258 evaluate differences between diet treatments in the same Rounds, and between  
259 the same diet treatments across Rounds. All p-values were corrected for false  
260 discovery rate (FDR) given that we had conducted 73 separate tests per  
261 contrast. We used a coinertia analysis (45) to check for correlations between  
262 CHCs (transformed to logarithmic data) and qPCR measures ( $\Delta$ Ct values) of the

263 six most abundant bacterial taxa (see details about these taxa below). In short,  
264 we generated two independent data matrices (either using the individual profiles  
265 or the pairwise differences for each trial), performed PCA analyses and paired  
266 them using the coinertia analysis using a Monte-Carlo test with 10000  
267 permutations.  
268

## 269 **Results**

### 270 *Survival analysis*

271 During Round 1, mortality increased in tetracycline treated workers (Cox  
272 proportional hazard model,  $p < 0.001$ ), similar to what had been observed in a  
273 previous study (25). However, this effect disappeared in Round 2, when all ants  
274 were fed on faecal droplets (Figure S1), suggesting that the harmful effect of  
275 tetracycline lasted only as long as it was administered to the ants.

276

### 277 *Aggression tests (Round 1)*

278 In Round 1, where ants were isolated from their original colonies and fed on  
279 sterile sucrose diets with/without antibiotics (Figure 1), we found a significant  
280 nestmate\*treatment interaction ( $\chi^2=6.9803$ ,  $df=2$ ,  $p=0.0305$ ). The diet treatment  
281 had a significant effect on aggression, whereas being non-nestmates did not  
282 (diet treatment:  $\chi^2=29.62$ ,  $df=4$ ,  $p<0.001$ ; nestmates vs. non-nestmates:  $\chi^2=1.64$ ,  
283  $df=1$ ,  $p=0.18$ ;  $N=260$  dyadic aggression assays). This result was mostly due to  
284 the high biting frequency between tetracycline-treated ants and their untreated  
285 former nestmates taken from fungus gardens, which was significantly higher  
286 from all other nestmate trials (all  $p<0.05$ , Figure 2A, Table S2). For tetracycline-  
287 treated and sucrose-treated ants, aggression levels between non-nestmates  
288 were not significantly different from those observed in nestmate trials  
289 (tetracycline-treated:  $z=0.365$ ,  $p=0.715$ , Figure 2A; sucrose-treated:  $z=1.284$ ,  
290  $p=0.287$ ). Contrarily, in the sucrose- vs. tetracycline-treated groups, non-  
291 nestmate trials showed higher aggression than nestmate trials ( $z=2.375$ ,  
292  $p=0.045$ ).

293

294 *Aggression tests (Round 2)*

295 During Round 2, across sucrose-treated pairs, tetracycline-treated pairs and  
296 sucrose- vs tetracycline treated pairs, aggression was low in nestmate  
297 encounters fed with nestmate faecal droplets, higher in non-nestmate encounters  
298 fed with nestmate faecal droplets and maximal in non-nestmate encounters fed  
299 with non-nestmate faecal droplets (Figure 2b). In particular, the highest  
300 aggression levels appeared in encounters between non-nestmate sucrose-  
301 treated ants fed with faecal droplets from different colonies ( $z=2.05$ ,  $df=85$ ,  
302  $p=0.041$ ; Figure 2b, Table S2). Tetracycline-treated pairs showed instead low  
303 aggression (Figure 2b), regardless of whether they were fed on the same or  
304 different faecal droplets. Sucrose-treated vs tetracycline-treated ants exhibited  
305 low aggression levels, similar to tetracycline-treated pairs. We found a significant  
306 effect of the interaction faecal droplet\*treatment ( $\chi^2=7.57$ ,  $df=2$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), but not  
307 diet treatment\*nestmate ( $\chi^2=3.36$ ,  $df=2$ ,  $p=0.18$ ; Figure 2b, Table S2). All three  
308 main effects were significant (faecal droplets:  $\chi^2=7.99$ ,  $df=1$ ,  $p<0.05$ ; diet  
309 treatment:  $\chi^2=36.97$   $df=4$ ,  $p<0.001$ ; Nestmate:  $\chi^2=5.2437$   $df=1$ ,  $p<0.05$ ).

310

311 *Gut bacterial communities changes (Round 1)*

312 We examined the changes of the gut bacterial communities using both 16S  
313 rRNA MiSeq amplicon sequencing and 16S rRNA qPCR to measure the levels of  
314 the five most abundant OTUs (Data set S2; (22,25,30). Microbiomes of  
315 tetracycline-treated individuals were most strongly affected, showing the lowest  
316 variance, whereas untreated individuals collected from fungus gardens showed

317 the highest variance (HOMOVA,  $p < 0.001$ ; Figure S4). While gut bacterial  
318 communities of ants reared on fungus gardens or sucrose differed significantly  
319 from those of tetracycline-reared ants ( $p < 0.001$  and  $p = 0.013$ , respectively;  
320 Figure S4), their communities were different, even though not significantly, from  
321 each other ( $p = 0.053$ ). Furthermore, diet had the strongest effect on the  
322 differences between bacterial communities of treatment groups (PERMANOVA,  
323  $F_{2,53} = 9.162$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), while colony origin did not (PERMANOVA,  $F_{3,53} = 1.758$ ,  
324  $p = 0.931$ ). When examining each of the abundant OTUs individually, *EntAcro1*  
325 and *RhiAcro1* decreased in tetracycline- and moderately in sucrose-treated  
326 individuals, while *wSinivictaB* was largely unaffected by diet (Figures 3, S5a).  
327 *wSinivictaA* (present only in colony C, Data set S2), *EntAcro2* and *EntAcro10*  
328 (present respectively in 9 and 20 of 37 tested untreated workers taken from  
329 fungus gardens; Data set S2), increased slightly in sucrose- and decreased in  
330 tetracycline-treated ants, but these effects were not significant. The head, thorax  
331 and gut microbial community comparisons showed that the most marked change  
332 were of the gut bacterial communities (detailed results in the Supplementary  
333 Information; Figure S5).

334

### 335 *Gut bacterial communities changes (Round 2)*

336 The NMDS ordination showed that the gut bacterial communities of tetracycline-  
337 treated individuals before and after faecal droplet feeding were not significantly  
338 different. Contrarily, the gut bacterial communities of sugar-treated individuals  
339 were closer to those of untreated workers (from original fungus gardens) after  
340 faecal droplet feeding (Round 1), suggesting a shift towards the original  
341 communities (Figure S5). Interestingly, the gut bacterial samples of sugar-treated

342 individuals exhibited a clear separation depending on which faecal droplets  
343 (nestmates or non-nestmates) they were fed on (PERMANOVA,  $F_{1,43}=23.17$ ,  
344  $p<0.001$  and  $F_{1,43}=12.10$ ,  $p<0.001$ , respectively and  $F_{1,43}=5.04$ ,  $p=0.004$  for their  
345 interaction), whereas there was no such effect in the tetracycline-treated group  
346 (Figure S5). Tetracycline-treated ants undergoing faecal droplet feeding showed  
347 an increase of all OTUs but *EntAcro2* and *RhiAcro1*, whose levels were further  
348 reduced; sucrose-treated ants showed an increase of all gut bacterial taxa  
349 examined (Figure 3), but only changes in *EntAcro1*, *EntAcro2*, *EntAcro10* and  
350 *wSinivictaB* (respectively:  $t=-2.69$ ,  $p=0.008$ ;  $t=-2.02$ ,  $p=0.044$ ;  $t=-5.32$ ,  $p<0.001$ ;  
351  $t=-5.95$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) were significant.

352

### 353 *Regression of bacterial changes and aggression*

354 To identify which of the OTUs best explains aggression, and since the high  
355 variation both in aggression and gut microbiota composition precluded us from  
356 comparing mean effects, we regressed the observed aggression between  
357 nestmate test pairs on differences in abundance of their gut bacteria (Figure 4).  
358 Foremost of all, this analysis confirmed that more aggression was observed  
359 when nestmate pairs differed more in their gut microbial community (1500 MiSeq  
360 OTUs, using Bray-Curtis distances between pairs, binomial GLMM with  
361 'distance' and 'round' as fixed variables and 'colony' as random variable,  $z=4.91$ ,  
362  $p<0.001$ ). For individual taxa we used the more accurate qPCR data focusing on  
363 the main five taxa, regressing the observed aggression against their  $\Delta\Delta Ct$  values  
364 for each of the six gut bacterial OTUs (Figure 4). This analysis showed that  
365 aggression was not positively affected by either of the two *Wolbachia* strains  
366 (Figure 4; *wSinivictaA*:  $z=-0.66$ ,  $p=0.509$ ; *wSinivictaB*:  $z=-3.75$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), or



367 *EntAcro2* ( $z=-0.872$ ,  $p=0.383$ ), but showed significant positive effects for  
368 *EntAcro1* ( $z=2.10$ ,  $p=0.035$ ), *EntAcro10* ( $z=6.09$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and *RhiAcro1*  
369 ( $z=5.85$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). However, only differences in abundance of *RhiAcro1* had a  
370 strong effect on aggression in both rounds of the experiment (Figure 4; Data set  
371 S4; Round 1:  $z=3.25$ ,  $p<0.001$ ; Round 2:  $z=4.17$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), suggesting that  
372 Rhizobiales are a driving force in the recognition of nestmates (see Data set S4;  
373 similar results were obtained when both biting and mandible opening were  
374 treated as aggressive behaviors).

375

#### 376 *Effects of diet on CHC profiles*

377 Compared to untreated individuals from original fungus gardens, sucrose- and  
378 tetracycline-treated individuals of Round 1 exhibited a strong reduction of 4-oxo-  
379 octanoic and 4-oxo-decanoic acids (LMMs with 'diet' and 'round' as fixed  
380 variables and 'colony' as random variable, FDR-corrected p-values for multiple  
381 comparisons; 4-oxo-octanoic acid: untreated vs. sucrose-treated,  $t=15.20$ ,  
382  $p<0.001$ , untreated vs. tetracycline-treated,  $t=15.01$ ,  $p<0.001$ ; 4-oxo-decanoic  
383 acid: untreated vs. sucrose-treated,  $t=-13.10$ ,  $p<0.001$ , untreated vs. tetracycline-  
384 treated,  $t=-13.66$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). However, changes to these compounds were  
385 significant in all pairwise comparisons of all treatment groups, suggesting that it  
386 is more related to the isolation than the removal of bacteria (Data set S4). On the  
387 other hand, changes in n-C36 and n-C40 were only significant in pairwise  
388 comparisons of ants treated with antibiotics and ants reared on their original  
389 colonies.

390

391 Considering all experimental individuals of Rounds 1 and 2, we found a  
392 significant correspondence between chemical profiles (CHC) and qPCR data  
393 (RV=0.143, P<0.001; Figure S6). The OTUs *EntAcro1* and *RhiAcro1* co-varied  
394 the most with the two metapleural gland acids. There was a significant  
395 correspondence between chemical profiles and qPCR gut bacterial abundances  
396 also when the acids from the metapleural gland were excluded (RV=0.141,  
397 p<0.001). Contrarily, we found no significant correspondences when instead of  
398 using the individual CHC and qPCR profiles, we used each aggression pair as a  
399 single sample and for input we used the odour differences and  $\Delta\Delta C_t$  values in  
400 aggression pairs (RV=0.122, p=0.707). This suggested that bacterial  
401 abundances can explain some of the changes in odour that occurred in the diet  
402 treatments (because there is a highly significant correlation between the two data  
403 sets), but not to such an extent that they accurately reflect odour differences  
404 between individuals that may lead to (a lack of) recognition.

## 405 **Discussion**

### 406 *Experimental treatment affects gut microbial communities*

407 The gut microbial communities of tetracycline-treated ants underwent the most  
408 substantial deviation from those of untreated nestmates (two taxa decreased  
409 strongly, three slightly and one was not affected; Figure 3), whereas those of  
410 sucrose-treated ants exhibited a relatively milder shift (three taxa decreased  
411 slightly, two increased slightly and one was not affected). These results show  
412 that while the antibiotic suppressed most of the ant microbial community, the  
413 sterile sucrose diet affected only mildly the various taxa, altering their relative  
414 abundance.

415

416 Feeding workers with conspecific faecal droplets only partially restored the  
417 original gut microbial communities of sucrose- and tetracycline-treated ants,  
418 suggesting that the elimination of strains such as *RhiAcro1* and *EntAcro2* was  
419 irreversible. This may imply that some bacteria need to be established during  
420 larval development or early adult life and cannot be reintroduced later. In  
421 addition, new OTUs emerged (i.e., *EntAcro10*) which may have prevented the  
422 original OTUs from tissue re-colonization (cf., 46,47). We also cannot exclude  
423 that the tetracycline effect lasted for some time even after its administration was  
424 suspended (one week before the preparation of the corresponding microbial  
425 DNA samples), potentially interfering with the faecal droplet-mediated microbial  
426 gut re-colonization.

427

428 Although we provide evidence for which bacterial taxa are most affected by our  
429 experimental treatments, amplicon sequencing often does not allow

430 distinguishing bacterial strains with identical 16S sequences (33,48,49). Thus,  
431 we cannot exclude the effect of gut bacteria on behaviour to be driven by the  
432 interaction of multiple bacterial strains with different metabolic potential, and  
433 further research should implement methods that allow considering this.

434

#### 435 *Microbiota remodelling affects ant cuticular chemical profiles*

436 Gut bacteria play essential metabolic roles in several ant species, such as the  
437 production of metabolites that are absent in host diets or help cover energy  
438 needs (50–53), and bacterial removal may thus impair metabolism functions and  
439 ant wellbeing. Social withdrawal of unhealthy ant workers has been  
440 demonstrated for at least two ant species (54,55), and it is conceivable that the  
441 ostracism of the sick ants is driven by changes in CHCs (or other volatile  
442 compounds important in communication). We found consistent and significant  
443 decreases of two metapleural gland acids (4-oxo-octanoic and 4-oxo-decanoic)  
444 (56,57) in sucrose-treated ants, and reductions in these compounds and two  
445 linear alkanes (n-c36 and n-c40) in tetracycline-treated individuals. These  
446 chemical profile differences may have been caused by symbiotic gut bacteria  
447 affecting CHC biosynthesis, either directly by contributing to the CHC pool, or  
448 indirectly by affecting host metabolism and therefore host CHC production. This  
449 inference is further supported by the fact that CHCs are synthesized in the  
450 oenocytes (12), which are heavily colonized by *EntAcro1* bacteria (25) and are  
451 the centre of the intermediate metabolism in ants (58).

452

453 Tetracycline treatment may not only have affected the gut microbes, but also  
454 those living on the ant cuticle (such as the Actinobacteria *Pseudonocardia*

455 (24,34)). Such effects may result from the direct actions of the antibiotic or from  
456 indirect effects, such as changes in host metabolism or production of nutrients  
457 sustaining cuticular bacterial growth. In *Drosophila*, cuticular microbes have been  
458 hypothesized to affect chemical profiles by using CHC as a carbon source or a  
459 substrate for degradative enzymes (12), and previous research on  
460 *Pogonomyrmex* ants showed that topical antibiotic administration can alter CHC  
461 profiles, confirming a possible role of surface microbes in CHC profile  
462 determination (18). However, the same kind of antibiotic treatment applied on  
463 *Acromyrmex subterraneus* did not affect CHC profiles (19). Work on *Drosophila*  
464 suggests that the innate immune response may also mediate CHC profiles (59),  
465 and innate immune responses to bacteria affects CHC profiles in honey bees  
466 (60). Thus, multiple factors are conceivably involved and likely interact to form  
467 worker CHC profiles, and disentangling this complex of host-symbiont  
468 interactions and contributions will require extensive further work.

469 Although we provide correlational evidence for our dietary treatments to act on  
470 gut bacteria, which may indirectly affect metapleural gland acids and cuticular  
471 hydrocarbons via the metabolism, we cannot exclude other types of effects.  
472 Across insect taxa, symbiotic bacteria produce a plethora of volatile  
473 semiochemicals (61,62), and studies on *Drosophila* suggest compounds deriving  
474 from the metabolism of gut microbes to mediate interactions between individuals  
475 (15,63). Eusocial Hymenoptera may have integrated the bacterial metabolism in  
476 their chemical-based social dynamics, and ants may thus rely on a social  
477 communication system based on chemicals produced by its commensal bacteria.  
478 This would allow discriminating against unfamiliar odours from different bacterial  
479 communities and would be complementary to the well-studied CHC-mediated  
480 nestmate recognition system. Accordingly, we cannot exclude that the altered

481 behaviour observed in our aggression tests may at least partially depend on  
482 volatile semiochemicals from bacterial metabolism. In future experiments,  
483 nestmate recognition assays should be implemented in which microbiota-  
484 remodelled interacting individuals are prevented from relying on non-volatile  
485 cuticular social cues.

486

#### 487 *Microbiota remodelling affects social interactions*

488 Encounters between antibiotic-treated and untreated nestmates produced the  
489 highest aggression levels, suggesting that the antibiotic treatment affects  
490 chemical cues that are relevant for social interactions. Aggression due to diet  
491 treatment was clearly higher than aggression due to nestmate status and the  
492 treatment effect to aggression was directly dependant to the gut bacterial titre:  
493 the diet effect on aggression was always clear in sucrose-treated ants but tend to  
494 diminish (contrasts were less clear) in tetracycline-treated ants (Figure 2A:  
495 nestmate (NM) and non-nestmate (nNM) aggression levels of Tetracycline vs  
496 Tetracycline treated ants were almost identical). This further suggested that the  
497 gut bacterial communities (or certain taxa) are having an active role in nestmate  
498 recognition which possibly disappears when these bacterial symbionts get  
499 eliminated.

500

#### 501 *The impact of partial restoration of the gut microbiota on social interactions*

502 After faecal droplets administration, nestmate dyadic encounters revealed  
503 aggression levels only moderately (and non-significantly) higher than those of  
504 Round 1. While this moderate increase in aggression may be an effect of the

505 relatively longer separation of the experimental ant groups (three instead than  
506 two weeks in different petri dishes), the lack of significant differences between  
507 rounds is consistent with only partial restoration of microbial gut communities. In  
508 non-nestmate aggression assays, pairs of tetracycline-treated and tetracycline-  
509 vs. sucrose-treated ants again showed low aggression. In contrast, aggression  
510 was high in sucrose-treated pairs when interacting individuals were fed with  
511 faecal droplets from different colonies. This implies that, although bacterial  
512 communities were only partially restored, colony-specific faecal droplets did  
513 affect the cues determining behavioural outcomes of the social interactions. This  
514 partial restoration also rules out the possibility of changes in behaviour due a  
515 direct effect of tetracycline, which is known to impair mitochondrial function and  
516 thus potentially could induce confounding effects (64).

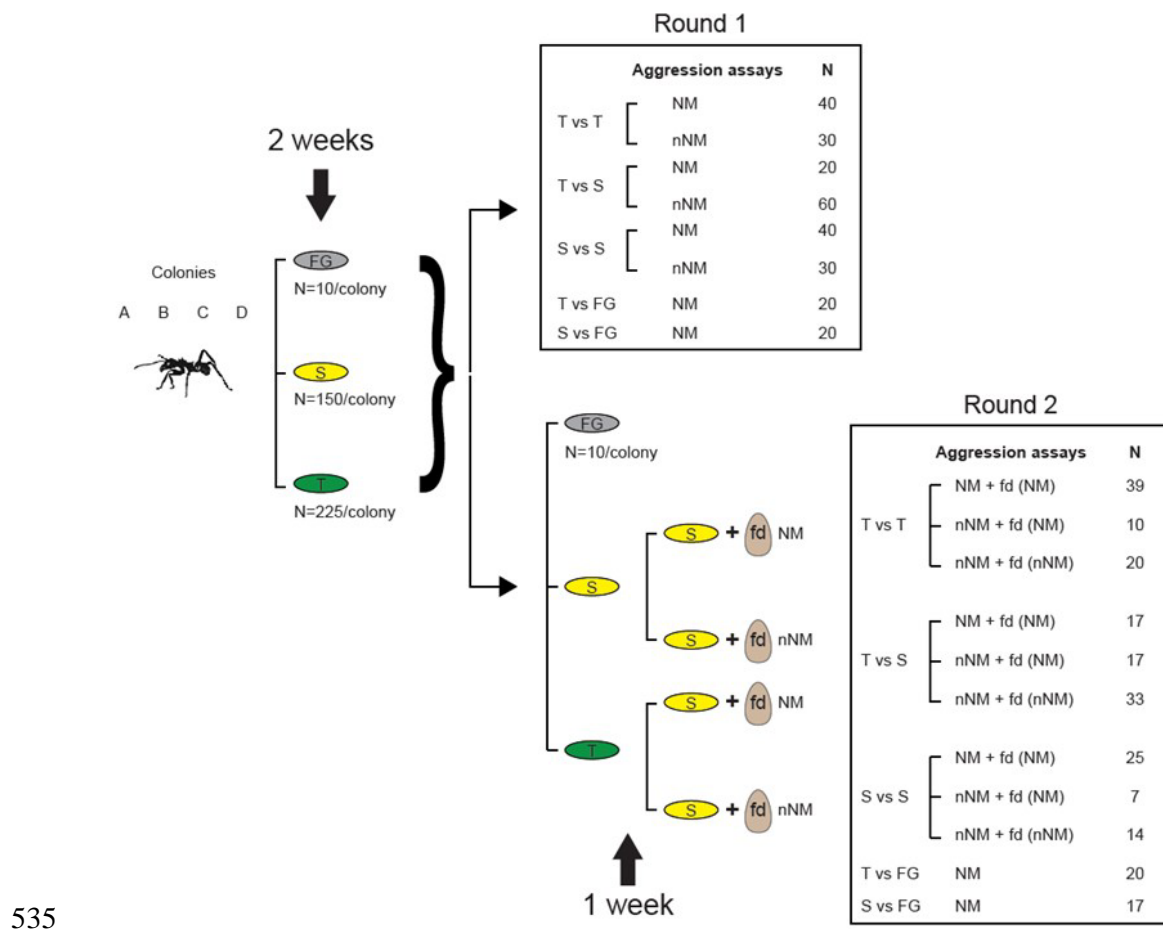
517

## 518 **Conclusions**

519 In this study, we seek to take an integrative approach to explore the role of gut  
520 microbial symbionts in the social dynamics of a eusocial organism. Remodelling  
521 of the ant gut microbiota produced effects on both the chemicals ants display as  
522 socially-relevant recognition signals and their resulting behaviours. Our findings  
523 suggest that the observed effects mostly depend on two bacterial taxa, the  
524 previously identified major gut symbionts of leafcutting ants *EntAcro1* and  
525 *RhiAcro1*. Further research will be needed to address the mechanisms  
526 underlying the link between these symbionts and behavioural modifications.  
527 Either the altered microbial communities may result in chemical profiles that  
528 cause individuals to look more like non-nestmates, or microbiota-remodelled ants  
529 may be recognized as sick, and aggression towards such individuals could serve

530 to prevent the spread of infections to optimize colony health and efficiency.  
 531 Regardless, our findings provide evidence that gut bacterial symbionts may be  
 532 involved in kin recognition by contributing to shape ant CHC signatures, with  
 533 implications for our understanding of social insect-symbiont evolution.

## 534 Figures

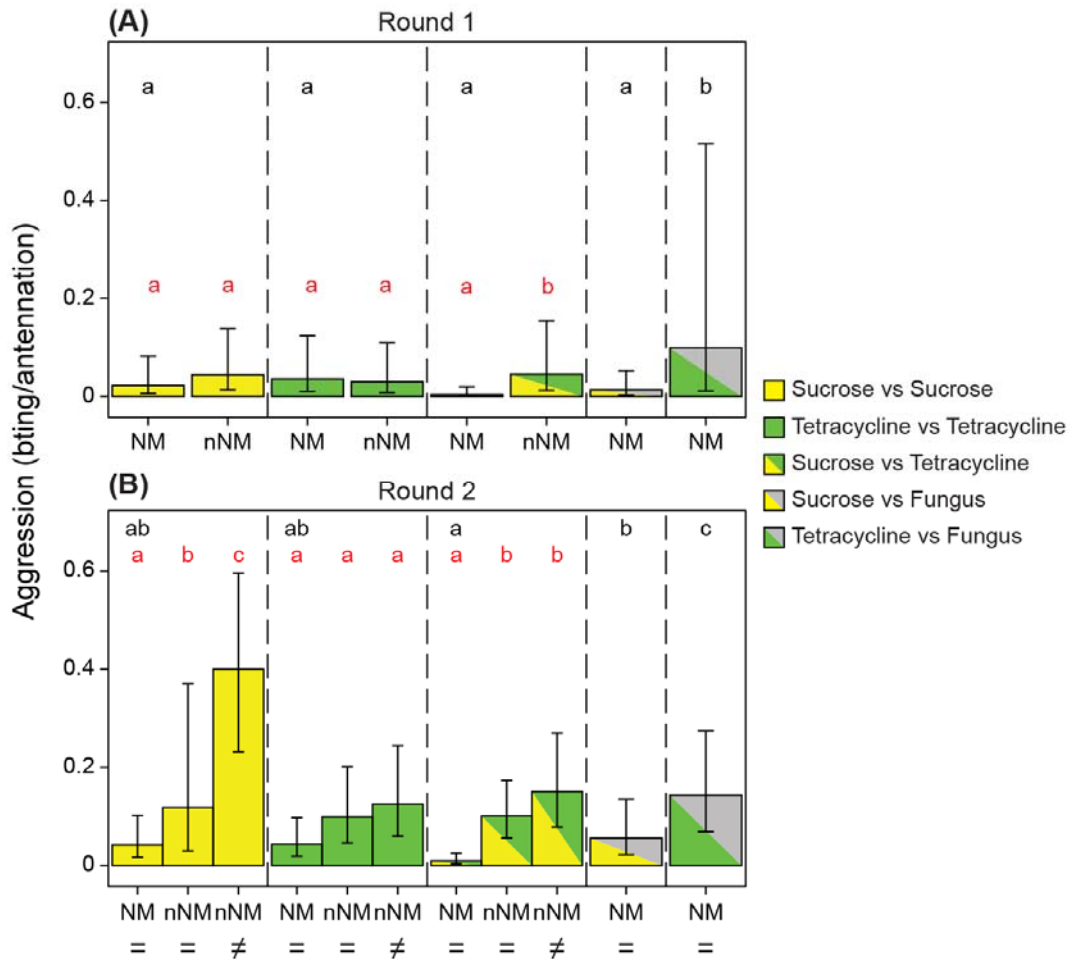


536 **Figure 1. Experimental design.** Ants were collected from fungus gardens (FG)  
 537 and kept for two weeks on a sucrose (S) or Tetracycline (T) diet (Round 1). After  
 538 two weeks we performed aggression trials among the three treatment groups.  
 539 Individual guts were then dissected for gut bacterial characterization (16S-qPCR  
 540 and 16S-MiSeq), whereas thoraxes and heads were used for chemical



541 extractions and subsequent GC-MS analyses. In Round 2, the remaining  
542 individuals were fed for one week on faecal droplets (fd) either from their original  
543 nestmates (NM) or non-nestmates (nNM) from a different colony. These ants  
544 were then tested in aggression trials similar to Round 1 and collected for gut  
545 microbiota characterization and GC-MS analyses.

546



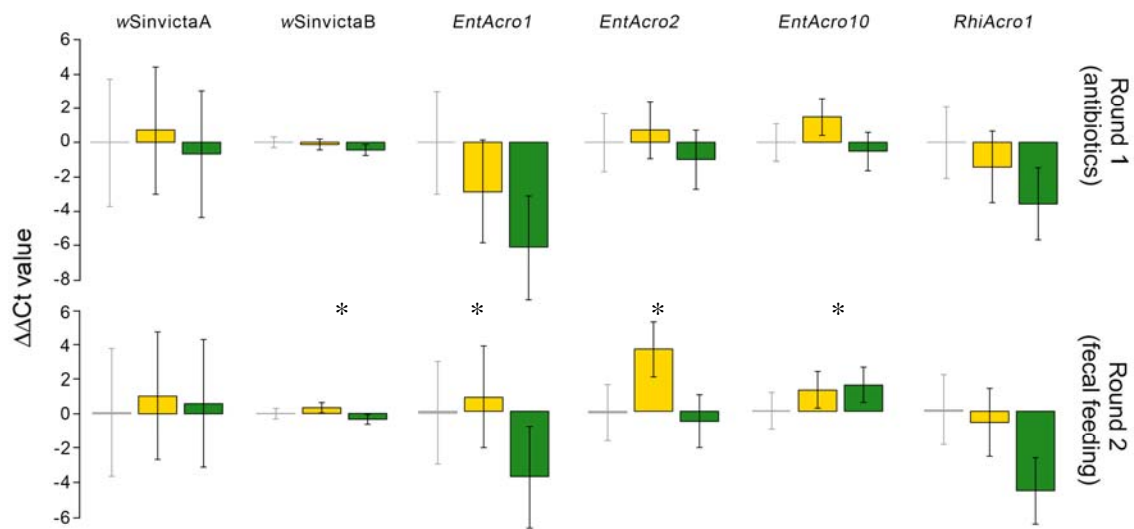
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**Figure 2. Effects of sucrose and tetracycline treatment on aggression.**

549 Mean biting/antennation ratio, with upper and lower confidence limits as error  
 550 bars. **A.** Round 1. Tetracycline-treated vs. untreated nestmate ant pairs show the  
 551 highest aggression levels, surpassing non-nestmate trials. **B.** Round 2.  
 552 Encounters between individuals fed on faecal droplets. In nestmate trials,  
 553 tetracycline-treated vs. untreated individuals still show the highest aggression.  
 554 Letters indicate significance in pairwise comparisons (different letters =  
 555 statistically significant differences). Red font indicates comparisons within  
 556 treatment category (e.g. sucrose vs sucrose, tetracycline vs tetracycline)  
 557 whereas black font shows comparisons across treatment categories (e.g. trials  
 558 between sucrose-treated nestmates compared to trials between tetracycline-

559 treated nestmates). In non-nestmate encounters, sucrose-treated individuals fed  
560 with faecal droplets from different colonies ( $\neq$ ) show the highest aggression  
561 levels, whereas non-nestmates fed with faecal droplets from the same colonies  
562 ( $=$ ) exhibit low aggression. NM = nestmates; nNM = non-nestmates; FD= Faecal  
563 droplets. See Table S2 for details on statistical comparisons among treatment  
564 groups.

565

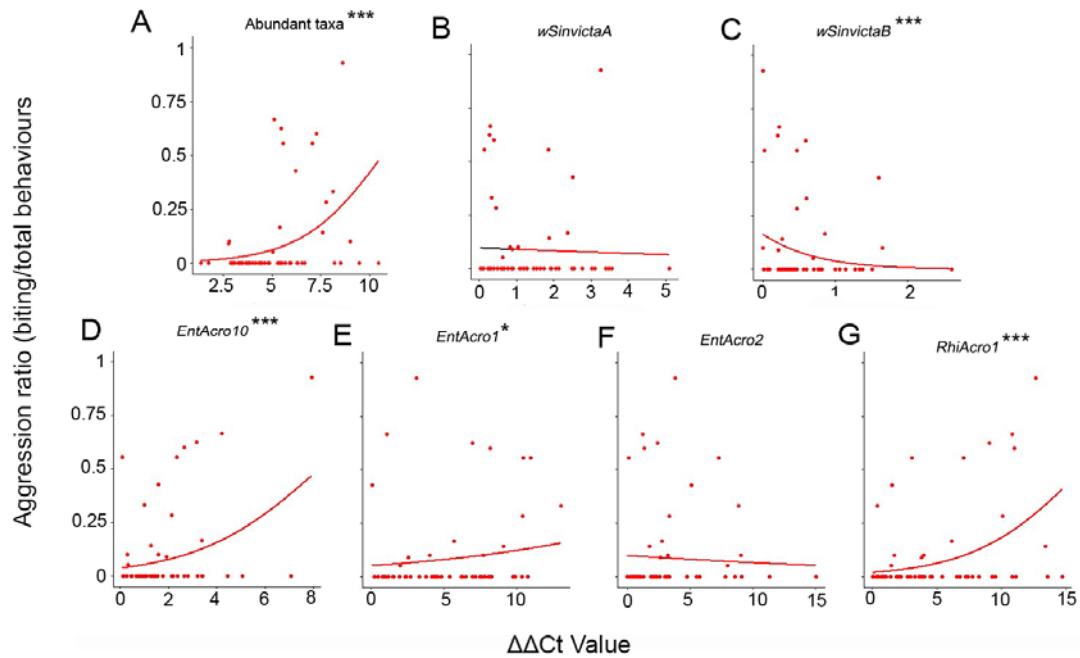


566 **Figure 3. A. qPCR bacterial titres fold change of the six most abundant**  
567 **bacteria after experimental Rounds 1 and 2.** Fold change is normalized to ant  
568 EF-1 $\alpha$  copies, and the microbial strain levels of untreated conspecifics (ants  
569 reared on FG) are used as reference level ( $y=0$ ). Scale bars represent standard  
570 errors. Asterisks indicate significance levels,  $p < 0.05$ . Yellow: sucrose-treated;  
571 green bars: tetracycline-reared ants.

572

573

574



575

576 **Figure 4. A. Association between aggression level and differences in the**  
577 **abundant gut bacteria using GLMMs.** The relationship between biting  
578 frequency and bacterial abundances measured using the qPCR fold change (Ct  
579 distance) for both rounds for all six or for individual bacterial taxa. Curves  
580 represent predicted values from the models. Asterisks indicate significance  
581 levels: \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , and \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .

582

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