

1 **Title**

2 **Testing cannibalism as a mechanism for horizontal transmission of *Wolbachia* in**
3 ***Drosophila***

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21 **Running title:**

22 No evidence for *Wolbachia* horizontal transfer via host cannibalism

23

24 **Abstract**

25 *Wolbachia* are intracellular symbionts of many species of animals, mostly arthropods.
26 Vertical transmission of *Wolbachia* is exclusively maternal and this endobacterium promotes
27 reproductive manipulations of its hosts, increasing the fitness of infected females. Moreover,
28 *Wolbachia* provides its hosts with a wide range of adaptive features ranging from protection
29 against viral infections to dietary niche occupancy. Therefore, *Wolbachia* can potentially
30 contribute to the evolutionary processes of sexual selection and speciation. The horizontal
31 transmission of *Wolbachia* is strongly suggested by the non-concordant phylogeny of this
32 endosymbiont and that of its hosts. However, the ecological mechanism(s) responsible for
33 endosymbiont transmission between different hosts is still largely unknown. In the present
34 study, we look at ingestion as a possible natural form of *Wolbachia* horizontal transmission.
35 To this aim, we tested cannibalism between infected and uninfected *Drosophila* hosts, under
36 different conditions of nutrition and gut integrity. Although ingestion represents a general and
37 incontestable portal of entry for microorganisms, we did not find infection by *Wolbachia* in
38 the progeny of cannibal individuals fed on infected flies. Our study suggests that if ingestion
39 is a vehicle for horizontal transmission of *Wolbachia* in nature, either it happens very rarely or
40 it requires other factors or conditions to be effective. We discuss the likeliness of this
41 mechanism with respect to the likelihood of each step necessary for horizontal transmission.

42

43

44 **Key Words:** *Wolbachia*, horizontal transmission, cannibalism, *Drosophila*, ingestion,
45 endosymbiosis

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48 **1 Introduction**

49 The α -proteobacteria of the Genus *Wolbachia* live intracellularly in a variety of
50 animals, including arthropods and nematodes (Werren 1997; Harris et al. 2010). In
51 arthropods, *Wolbachia* is typically transmitted vertically from mother to offspring. It causes a
52 wide range of reproductive manipulations in different host species whereby increasing the
53 fitness of infected females and, consequently, also increasing its own transmission rate
54 (Charlat et al. 2003). These mechanisms include: (i) the induction of cytoplasmic
55 incompatibility between individuals that do not share infection status, (ii) the induction of
56 parthenogenesis in diploid females and (iii) the feminization or death of infected males (for
57 revision see Werren et al. (2008)). Additionally, recent studies have shown that in *Drosophila*
58 *melanogaster*, *Wolbachia* infection may also confer an advantage to its host through an
59 increased resistance to RNA virus infection (Hedges et al. 2008; Teixeira et al. 2008).

60 It is estimated that *Wolbachia* infects 20-80% of insect species (Jeyaprakash and Hoy
61 2000) possibly making it the most recurrent endosymbiont on the planet. The wide
62 distribution of these bacteria is attributed to the high efficacy of vertical transmission. This
63 efficacy may rely on *Wolbachia* using the host's cytoskeleton and intracellular transport
64 system to migrate towards the germline precursors and ensure its presence inside future
65 embryos (Ferree et al. 2005; Serbus and Sullivan 2007). In addition to the colonization of the
66 germline during embryogenesis, *Wolbachia* remaining inside the embryo are internalized in
67 progenitor cells of the somatic tissue (Frydman et al. 2006; Goto et al. 2006), with potential
68 physiological and evolutionary consequences (Faria and Sucena 2013).

69 The widespread presence of *Wolbachia* must also rely on horizontal transmission,
70 which can be attested by the presence of close strains of *Wolbachia* in phylogenetically
71 distant hosts (Vavre et al. 1999; Baldo et al. 2008). Indeed, unlike mitochondria or obligatory

72 bacterial endosymbionts, the molecular phylogeny of *Wolbachia* is not always concordant
73 with that of its hosts (Werren and O'Neill 1997; Jiggins et al. 2002). These well-established
74 patterns raise two important questions: i) which ecological conditions and mechanisms
75 mediate horizontal transmission and ii) how does a transient horizontal transfer turn into a
76 stable vertical transmission? Regarding this problem Frydman and colleagues reported that
77 when haemolymph of an infected *D. melanogaster* fly is microinjected into adult uninfected
78 females, *Wolbachia* could be transmitted vertically (Frydman et al. 2006). After 15 days upon
79 haemolymph microinjection into uninfected female flies, *Wolbachia* could be detected in their
80 offspring after preferentially establishing itself in the ovaries somatic stem cell niches. Also, it
81 has been shown that *Wolbachia* is viable for several days outside the host's cell, thus allowing
82 for a possible transfer across cells (Rasgon et al. 2006). Together these reports provide a link
83 between horizontal and vertical transmission, indicating that any mechanism capable of
84 introducing *Wolbachia* into the female's haemolymph may permit the establishment and
85 perpetuation of *Wolbachia* in new hosts.

86 Despite their importance for understanding the epidemiological and evolutionary
87 dynamics of *Wolbachia* infection, the ecological mechanisms responsible for the transfer of
88 bacteria to new hosts in nature are still largely unknown (Haine et al. 2005). One strong
89 candidate mechanism consists of parasitoid wasps acting as *Wolbachia* vectors. This is based
90 on different evidence: i) the extensive similarities between *Wolbachia* strains found in
91 parasitoids and their hosts (Vavre et al. 1999; Li et al. 2013); ii) *Wolbachia* can be transmitted
92 to a parasitic wasp from its infected host (Heath et al. 1999; Morrow et al. 2014); iii) when
93 infected and uninfected parasitoid wasp larvae share the same host egg, intra- and
94 interspecific horizontal transfer of parthenogenesis-inducing *Wolbachia* may occur
95 (Schilthuizen and Stouthamer 1997; Huigens et al. 2000; Huigens et al. 2004). Another
96 hypothetical vector for horizontal transmission of *Wolbachia* are ectoparasitic mites, known

97 to transfer the *Drosophila* endosymbiont, *Spiroplasma poulsonni*, from infected *D. nebulosa*
98 to *D. willistoni* (Jaenike et al. 2007). Based on our observations of *Drosophila* larval and adult
99 behaviour in crowded environments, we reasoned that cannibalism or scavenging, often
100 witnessed not only in the laboratory but also in nature, could constitute a route for horizontal
101 *Wolbachia* transfer. Moreover, occasional horizontal transmission via the oral route has been
102 reported for the pea aphid *Bemisia*-like symbiont (Darby and Douglas 2003). Indeed, the
103 digestive system is considered to be the major interface between the insect host and the
104 microbial environment, constituting a privileged gateway for microorganism invasion
105 (Douglas and Beard 1996). However, as most ingested bacteria are eliminated by the immune
106 system or by peristalsis, few bacteria can persist in large numbers in the digestive tract of
107 insects (Vallet-Gely et al. 2008). Nonetheless it is important to note that some bacterial
108 species ensure their proliferation in recent hosts by passing through the digestive tract to other
109 organs or cavities (Marsollier et al. 2005; Chiel et al. 2009).

110 Recent studies have demonstrated that, after predation of infected hosts, previously
111 uninfected isopods, *Armadillidium vulgare* and *Porcellio dilatatus dilatatus*, would become
112 infected with *Wolbachia* (Le Clec'h et al. 2013). Also, in the ant *Acromyrmex echinator*, it
113 has been hypothesized that the faecal-oral route could constitute a means for horizontal
114 transmission of *Wolbachia* (Frost et al. 2014).

115 In this work, we have tested if upon ingestion *Wolbachia* could be transmitted stably
116 to the offspring of a *Drosophila* host. For this, several ingestion experiments were performed
117 using infected and uninfected hosts of *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*, at different
118 developmental stages. Nutritional variation, dehydration and intestinal injury were used in an
119 attempt to mimic naturally-occurring potentiating factors for the passage of *Wolbachia* into
120 the body cavity of the fly and the subsequent establishment of a symbiotic relationship with
121 the new host. Through a PCR-based analysis of the offspring we were unable to find any

122 infection by *Wolbachia*, both in early and late progeny. This result suggests that the ingestion
123 of *Wolbachia* by a non-infected new host is not sufficient in itself to establish a stable
124 infection horizontally or is too rare to be detected within the limits of our experiment.

125

126 **2 Materials and Methods**

127 **2.1 Foundation and maintenance of *Drosophila* outbred populations**

128 Outbred populations of *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Drosophila simulans* were established
129 in the laboratory (Martins et al. 2013). *Wolbachia*-infected *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*,
130 collected from the southwest of Portugal (Azeitão) were used to establish two laboratory
131 populations (MeO⁺ and SimO⁺, respectively). After over 50 generations in the laboratory,
132 MeO⁺ and SimO⁺ were replicated for the establishment of four new populations: two infected
133 with *Wolbachia* as the founding populations (mel⁺ and sim⁺) and two treated with tetracycline
134 during four generations for total *Wolbachia* elimination (mel⁻ and sim⁻). We confirmed the
135 absence of *Spiroplasma* in all populations. For the *Serratia* assays, the *D. simulans*
136 populations were established using two isofemale lines from the Drosophila Species Stock
137 Centre (UC San Diego, California, US) sim⁺ (14021-0251.138) and sim⁻ (14021-0251.01). All
138 populations were kept in cages with an effective size between 1500 and 2000 individuals with
139 non-overlapping generations, in a day/night cycle of 12 hours, constant temperature of 25° C,
140 standard level of relative humidity (70%) and fed on standard cornmeal-agar medium. The
141 infection status of populations was monitored regularly through PCR (see below).

142

143 **2.2 *Wolbachia* extraction**

144 *Wolbachia* was extracted by crushing 100 infected adults or approximately 500 embryos of *D.*
145 *melanogaster* or *D. simulans*, previously washed in 70% ethanol, and transferred to 1mL of
146 ice-cold PBS (adapted from (Frydman et al. 2006)). For adult co-infected ingestion assays and

147 adapting a protocol described previously (Rasgon et al. 2006), *Wolbachia* were extracted by
148 smashing approximately 500 infected flies in 10mL of Schneider's medium. The confirmation
149 of bacterial viability after extraction was also performed as described in Rasgon et al. (2006).
150 In all cases, the homogenate was used entirely.

151

152 **2.3 Adult Ingestion assay**

153 For ingestion experiments with adults, 4-7 day old females were used from the *mel*⁻
154 population. From the regular stock of flies (which were maintained in rich medium), 20
155 replicates of 20 adult females were used to exclusively ingest 250μL of a *Wolbachia*-
156 containing suspension homogenized in PBS (from infected adults of *mel*⁺ populations) for a
157 period of 48-hours. These experiments were also undertaken with a previous 72-hour
158 treatment either with a poor medium (rich medium diluted 1:10 in water) or in a condition of
159 starvation, where the females spent a 48-hour period in total absence of nutritional resources
160 until the beginning of the ingestion treatment.

161

162 **2.4 Larval ingestion assay**

163 For the ingestion experiments with larvae, we used *mel*⁻ larvae from the three larval stages.
164 Larvae ingested a homogenate, containing adults (or embryos), from *mel*⁺ or *sim*⁺ populations
165 infected with *Wolbachia* for a period of 24 hours. In each of the experiments, 5 replicates of
166 50 larvae were fed on 500μL of homogenate from 40 flies.

167

168 **2.5 Adult co-infected ingestion assays**

169 For ingestion experiments with adults, 4-7 day old females were used from the *mel*⁻
170 population. From the regular stock of flies, 10 adult females were used per replicate to
171 exclusively ingest i) 250μL of *Serratia marcescens* (a kind gift from B. Lemaitre) for a period

172 of 24 hours ii) 250 μ L of a *Wolbachia*-containing suspension for a period of 24 hours. The
173 food solution containing *Serratia* was prepared from an overnight culture grown
174 exponentially at 37 °C and was diluted with a sterile 50-mM sucrose solution to a final
175 OD₆₀₀= 15. These experiments were also undertaken either with *Wolbachia* with a previous
176 24-hour ingestion treatment with LB or with *Serratia* and posterior treatment with sim⁻ and
177 mel⁻.

178

179 **2.6 Diagnostic PCR**

180 In all procedures, tested females gave rise to the adult F₁ from which genomic DNA was
181 extracted (in pools of 10 adult females) and screened for *Wolbachia* infection by PCR through
182 the amplification of *wsp* gene fragment using primers *wsp*81F 5'TGG TCC AAT AAG TGA
183 TGA AGA AAC 3' and *wsp*691R 5'AAA AAT TAA ACG CTA CTC CA 3' (Zhou et al.
184 1998). *Wolbachia* strains of *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* generate PCR amplicons of
185 different sizes, 632bp and 611bp, respectively. This diagnostic PCR was further confirmed in
186 10% of samples chosen randomly by sequencing the respective PCR products.

187

188 **3 Results and Discussion**

189 We fed *D. melanogaster* larvae and adults of the *Wolbachia* negative outbred
190 population (mel⁻) with embryo or adult fly homogenates from *Wolbachia* infected populations
191 of *D. melanogaster* (mel⁺) and *D. simulans* (sim⁺). As controls we applied the same
192 procedures using homogenates from uninfected populations referred to as mel⁻ and sim⁻. The
193 status of *Wolbachia* infection of the populations used in these experiments is shown in Figure
194 1A, also illustrating the size difference between *wsp* gene amplification products of
195 *Wolbachia* strains from *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*. Confirmation of the different
196 strains was obtained by sequencing the *wsp* gene fragment (Figure 1B). These results validate

197 our procedure for the simultaneous determination of the infection status and *Wolbachia* strain
198 present in individual or pooled adult flies (as to ascertain instances of intra- or interspecific
199 transmission). We tested the F1 of fed females at two time points: early F1 (8 to 10 days) and
200 in late F1 (more than 15 days), determined by the description of *Wolbachia* dynamics upon
201 entry into the haemolymph and subsequent stable establishment in the germline (Frydman et
202 al. 2006). A representative gel of the PCR-based screen for *Wolbachia* infection is presented
203 in Figure 1C.

204 Larval ingestion could lead to the stable transmission of *Wolbachia* by one of two
205 ways: i) establishing itself in cells of somatic tissue, surviving the metamorphosis stage of the
206 host and colonizing the ovaries of adult females, or ii) crossing the epithelium of the digestive
207 system and colonizing the stem cells of the future ovary. To validate these findings, we fed *D.*
208 *melanogaster* larvae of different stages, previously maintained in normal medium, a
209 homogenate of mel⁺ and sim⁺ infected embryos or adults for 24 hours (Table 1). In a second
210 set of experiments, we placed mel⁻ adult flies on a diet composed of a mel⁺ adult homogenate
211 for 48 hours (Table 2 – A). If ingestion of *Wolbachia* occurs in the adult stage, it should be
212 enough for a successful transmission that the endosymbiont crosses the midgut and passes to
213 the haemolymph (Frydman et al. 2006). Yet, it should be stressed that it is unclear what is the
214 necessary concentration of haemolymph *Wolbachia* for the establishment of these bacteria in
215 the ovaries.

216 Both in the larvae and adult ingestion experiments, the early and late F1 flies tested
217 did not show the presence of *Wolbachia* (Table 1 and Table 2 – A, “Wol F1e and Wol F1f”).
218 This negative result holds true even when varying the *Wolbachia* source, both *D.*
219 *melanogaster* and *D. simulans* (intra- or interspecific), and the stage at which the *Wolbachia*
220 homogenate was extracted, embryos or adults. Our findings indicate that if horizontal

221 transmission by ingestion occurs in nature, within or between *Drosophila* species, it is a rare
222 event.

223 Another aspect to consider is that our progeny analysis treats the whole putative
224 process of infection as a binary outcome (F_1 infected or non-infected) and cannot pinpoint the
225 critical step at which the infection fails to progress. We may consider the absence of
226 *Wolbachia* in the *D. melanogaster* F_1 flies as the product of low probability events, each one
227 necessary for the occurrence of horizontal transmission. We can formalize this idea through
228 the equation:

$$229 \quad \mathbf{P}_{HT(w)} = P_{EI}(\alpha) \times P_{AH}(\beta) \times P_{BS}(\gamma) \times P_{OC}(\delta) \times P_{VT}(\varepsilon)$$

230 where the probability of any horizontal transmission of *Wolbachia* ($\mathbf{P}_{HT(w)}$) is equal to
231 multiplying the probabilities of all the independent steps required for its occurrence: the
232 environmental interaction between *Wolbachia* infected and non-infected individuals (P_{EI}),
233 here tested as ingestion; the access of *Wolbachia* to the haemolymph (P_{AH}); the bacterial
234 survival in the new host (P_{BS}); the colonization of ovaries (P_{OC}); and the vertical transmission
235 (P_{VT}). Each of these steps can still be associated with a correction factor (α , β , γ , δ and ε)
236 linked to specific ecological conditions.

237 *Wolbachia* ingestion by a non-infected new host is not in itself sufficient to establish a
238 stable infection in *Drosophila* but specific ecological conditions may favour this process
239 (here, formalized as α , β , γ , δ and ε). Indeed, there is ample evidence that several aspects of
240 host life-history have a significant impact on the transmission of *Wolbachia* (McGraw and
241 O'Neill 1999; Hurst et al. 2001; Mouton et al. 2007). Thus, we have manipulated some of
242 these factors in order to favour horizontal transmission via ingestion, namely starvation and
243 infection with a known natural bacterial pathogen. Interestingly, under nutritional restriction,
244 the apoptotic region present in the ovaries (region 2a/2b of the germarium) (Drummond-
245 Barbosa and Spradling 2001) overlaps with the region of *Wolbachia* entrance into the

246 germinal tissue (Frydman et al. 2006), raising the hypothesis that the invasion of the germinal
247 tissue by *Wolbachia* is opportunistic (δ). Additionally, the absence of nutritional resources in
248 nature could also trigger an increase in cannibalism (α) and in bacterial infections due to the
249 weakening of the host's tissue barrier by cell death (β). With this aim, we placed mel^- adult
250 females, previously maintained in nutritionally poor medium or under starvation, on a diet
251 composed of a mel^+ adult homogenate for 48 hours (Table 2 – B). Under these conditions we
252 observed a total absence of *Wolbachia* in F_1 tested females. Next, we used an oral infection
253 model by previous infection with *Serratia marcescens* as an enhancer of secondary infection
254 with ingested *Wolbachia* (β). Indeed, it has been shown that severe intestinal injury produced
255 by *S. marcescens* promotes its crossing from the gut to the fly's body cavity (Nehme et al.
256 2007). The subsequent ingestion of *Wolbachia* could follow the same route, increasing the
257 probability of *Wolbachia* entry into the *Drosophila* haemolymph. In this experiment, adult
258 females ingested a suspension of the entomobacterium *S. marcescens* and, subsequently,
259 ingested *Wolbachia* extracted from infected adults of *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* (mel^+
260 and sim^+) (Table 3). Here, only the late progeny of female flies was analyzed and the
261 percentage of female mortality three days after ingestion of *S. marcescens* is shown (Table 3 –
262 “F0 Mortality”). Regardless of a previous exposure to injury stress, these females did not give
263 rise to *Wolbachia* infected F_1 s, indicating the absence of *Wolbachia* transmission (Table 3 –
264 “Wol F1”). Despite the absence of *Wolbachia* in late progeny of tested females, this co-
265 infection scenario presents itself as an excellent model to study the horizontal transmission of
266 several endosymbionts to different potential new hosts. Indeed, recently it has been proposed
267 that the ingestion of mushrooms could constitute the gateway for *Wolbachia* transmission
268 between species (Stahlhut et al. 2010).

269 After an ingestion episode and once inside a potential new host, bacteria must endure
270 the local defence deployed by the digestive system, such as low pH, the production of

271 Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) and Anti-Microbial Peptides (AMPs). Insect parasitoids,
272 mites or wounding can avoid this immune local challenge by providing a more direct path for
273 bacteria to penetrate the body cavity of the new host. This route is not without danger as
274 invading *Wolbachia* must survive the host melanization reaction triggered by injury. Finally,
275 for *Wolbachia* to establish a viable horizontal infection once in the haemolymph (Frydman et
276 al. 2006), it must overcome the systemic action of AMPs and phagocytosis by haemocytes.
277 As a result, it is still unclear if the individual frequencies or efficiencies of each one of these
278 potential mechanisms would be enough to explain all the evidence for horizontal
279 transmission. An additional important element consists on the effects that ecological co-
280 factors (such as those studied here: resource limitation and co-infection) have on *Drosophila*
281 immune response translating into changes in the success of bacteria to invade and establish (γ)
282 (Schneider 2009).

283 Thus, the mechanisms governing horizontal transmission of facultative endobacteria,
284 particularly of *Wolbachia*, remain unknown. As mentioned above, insect parasitoids and
285 parasitic mites may promote some of these symbiotic exchanges; however, other mechanisms
286 that complete the puzzle of the pathways that facultative endobacterial species utilize to
287 accomplish a new invasion, have yet to be explained. Although *Wolbachia* has been
288 specializing throughout evolution in the vertical transmission strategy, we do not know the
289 true horizontal transmission capacity of this endobacterium, a feature which is an ancestral
290 characteristic of rickettsial bacteria and is still conserved in close related Genera (Anderson
291 and Karr 2001). Therefore, it is essential to continue the study of the mechanisms responsible
292 for horizontal transmission phenomena that associated with several phenotypic and
293 reproductive manipulations and may play an important role in the enormous diversity of
294 arthropods (Faria and Sucena 2015).

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421

422 **Figure legends**

423

424 **Figure 1 – Screen for *Wolbachia* in the initial and tested populations. A)** Infection status

425 in males and females of initial populations – F0; **B)** Differentiation of *Wolbachia* strains of

426 *D.melanogaster* and *D.simulans* by *wsp* gene sequencing; **C)** Representative PCR for

427 *Wolbachia wsp* gene in tested females progeny, indicating *Wolbachia* absence in F1 (10

428 replicates + controls).

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