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2 **A gene associated with social immunity in the burying beetle *Nicrophorus***

3 ***vespilloides***

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15

16

Abstract

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19 Some group-living species exhibit social immunity, where the immune response of
20 one individual can protect others in the group from infection. In burying beetles this is
21 part of parental care. Larvae feed on vertebrate carcasses which their parents smear
22 with exudates that inhibit microbial growth. We have sequenced the transcriptome of
23 the burying beetle *Nicrophorus vespilloides* and identified six genes that encode
24 lysozymes – a type of antimicrobial enzyme that has previously been implicated in
25 social immunity in burying beetles. When females start breeding and producing
26 antimicrobial anal exudates, we found that the expression of one of these genes was
27 increased by ~1000 times to become one of the most abundant transcripts in the
28 transcriptome. Females varied considerably in the antimicrobial properties of their
29 anal exudates, and this was strongly correlated with the expression of this lysozyme.
30 We conclude that we have likely identified a gene encoding a key effector molecule in
31 social immunity, and that it was recruited during evolution from a function in personal
32 immunity.

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34

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Introduction

36

37 Insects occupy some of the most microbe-rich environments in nature and have
38 evolved diverse immunological defences to overcome the challenge that microbes
39 pose to their fitness [1,2]. In some group-living species, individuals are selected to
40 defend other individuals, as well as themselves, from potential pathogens. This is
41 social immunity in the broad sense, and it is seen in transient animal societies such as
42 animal families as well as more permanent animal societies such as the eusocial
43 insects and group-living primates [3]. Social immunity can take a range of forms,
44 from the collective behaviour that causes social fever in bees, to the production of
45 antibacterial substances by parents to defend offspring or a breeding resource [2–4].
46 Yet, while the mechanisms underlying personal immunity in insects are increasingly
47 well-described [5,6], relatively little is known about the mechanisms underlying social
48 immunity (but see e.g. [7]). Nor is it clear whether social immune function might have
49 originally been derived from personal immune function.

50

51 In burying beetles (*Nicrophorus* spp), social immunity is a vital part of
52 parental care. These insects breed on small vertebrate carcasses which they shave, roll
53 into a ball and smear with anal exudates. These exudates have strong antimicrobial
54 properties [8,9] and promote larval survival [10]. The strength of antimicrobial
55 activity in anal exudates is proportional to the perceived microbial threat, but
56 increasing levels of antimicrobial activity comes at a fitness cost to adults [11] and
57 trades-off against personal immunity [12]. Antimicrobial activity in the anal exudates
58 is thus carefully modulated. It is virtually non-existent in non-breeding individuals
59 [9], is induced by reproduction and the presentation of a carcass [9] and reaches its

60 maximum strength when the larvae arrive at the carcass shortly after hatching in the
61 soil surrounding the carcass [12].

62

63 How has social immunity evolved in the burying beetle? One hypothesis is
64 that elements of the personal immune response have been recruited to control the
65 microbiota in the wider environment. Lysozymes, which are enzymes that can kill
66 bacteria by hydrolysing structural polysaccharides in their cell walls, are a likely
67 candidate because they are ubiquitous in nature and have key roles in personal
68 immunity [5,13]. In insects that feed on microbe-rich resources (e.g. *Drosophila*,
69 house-fly), lysozymes in the gut are thought not only to have an immune function but
70 also to digest bacteria [14,15]. Perhaps in burying beetles, lysozymes that were
71 originally confined to the gut are now exuded and applied to the carcass to limit
72 microbial growth during reproduction. Supporting this hypothesis is the finding that a
73 key active antimicrobial substance in the burying beetle's anal exudates has
74 lysozyme-like properties [9,10]

75

76 Here our aim is to test whether lysozyme genes are upregulated during the
77 mounting of a social immune response in the burying beetle *N. vespilloides*. We
78 sequence the *N. vespilloides* transcriptome and identify the lysozymes within it. We
79 then compare the transcriptional response in the gut of mated breeding females and
80 virgin non-breeding female burying beetles to identify upregulated genes. The
81 expression of these genes is then correlated with the antimicrobial activity of the anal
82 exudates of different females within a population. Finally, we look at how the
83 expression of lysozyme genes correlates changes in the lytic activity of the anal
84 exudates throughout the breeding event of *N. vespilloides* [12].

85

86

Methods

87

88

89 *Beetle rearing and dissecting*

90 The beetles used in this experiment were bred in 2014 and descended from field-
91 collected beetles trapped earlier that year from two sites in Cambridgeshire, UK. The
92 field-collected beetles were interbred to create a large, genetically diverse population.
93 This population was maintained with full parental care and no inbreeding for several
94 generations before the start of this experiment.

95

96 We examined the transcriptional response to breeding in *N. vespilloides* by comparing
97 the transcriptional profiles of a breeding female beetle and a non-breeding female of
98 the same age. We focused on females alone, because our previous work suggests that
99 they contribute more to social immunity than males [9]. Prior to each treatment,
100 beetles were given a small meal of minced beef as part of the usual protocol for beetle
101 husbandry in the lab. The “breeding” treatment initially consisted of 4 female-male
102 pairs of beetles. Each pair was placed in a breeding box with soil and a thawed mouse
103 carcass (10-16 g). These boxes were then put in a dark cupboard to simulate
104 underground conditions and the beetles were allowed to mate and begin preparing the
105 carcass. Forty-eight hours after pairing, at peak antimicrobial activity in the anal
106 exudates [12], we removed the female from each breeding box and placed them
107 individually in small plastic boxes (box dimensions, length x width x depth: 12 cm x 8
108 cm x 2 cm) where they remained for approximately 1 hour before being killed and
109 dissected. The “non-breeding” treatment consisted of 4 females that were treated in
110 the same way as the “breeding” treatment except that the non-breeding females were
111 placed alone, without a male, in a breeding box that did not contain a mouse carcass.

112 This was repeated on a second occasion with just two breeding and two non-breeding
113 females, to generate 6 breeding and 6 non-breeding beetles. Individual beetles were
114 euthanized with CO₂ and immediately dissected to remove the gut. We focused on gut
115 tissue because this is where the anal exudates are produced.

116

117 *Transcriptome Sequencing*

118

119 The transcriptome was sequenced from a single breeding and single non-breeding
120 female. The dissected gut was immediately homogenised in TRIzol® Reagent, (Life
121 Technologies) and frozen in liquid nitrogen. RNA was extracted following the
122 standard protocol. Illumina sequencing libraries were constructed with poly-A
123 enrichment and sequenced in a single lane of Illumina HiSeq 2500® (version 3
124 chemistry, 100bp paired-end reads) by BGI (Hong Kong). Raw reads were initially
125 checked for quality using FastQC [16]. Having been found to be satisfactory, they
126 were then trimmed using Trimmomatic [17], removing trailing and leading bases with
127 a quality below q15, cutting reads where quality fell below q20 in a 4 base sliding
128 window, and only retaining reads of minimum length 30.

129

130 *Transcriptome assembly*

131

132 The RNAseq reads from a single breeding and a single non-breeding beetle gut were
133 combined and the transcriptome *de novo* assembled (Supplementary Figure S1). The
134 assembly was performed using Trinity, a compact and fast transcript assembly
135 program for Illumina RNA-seq data [18]. Briefly, a single Trinity assembly was built
136 using forward and reverse reads from both libraries and default parameters. The full

137 recommended protocol “Identification and Analysis of Differentially Expressed
138 Trinity Genes and Transcripts” was applied
139 (http://trinityrnaseq.sourceforge.net/analysis/diff_expression_analysis.html, accessed
140 10/04/15).

141

142 *Differential expression analysis*

143

144 Differential expression analysis was performed on the transcriptomes of a single
145 breeding and single non-breeding female. To estimate transcript abundance, we
146 aligned reads separately from each library onto the combined-read transcriptome
147 assembly using the short read aligner `bowtie` [19]. Abundance estimates were
148 then produced using `RSEM` [20]. These steps are combined into a single perl script
149 bundled with Trinity, `align_and_estimate_abundance.pl`. In further
150 analyses we used estimates of transcript abundance for each gene (as opposed to each
151 isoform). Finally, we estimated levels of differential expression using EdgeR, an R
152 Bioconductor package for differential expression analysis. Differentially expressed
153 transcripts were identified using the Trinity scripts `run_DE_analysis.pl` and
154 `analyze_diff_expr.pl` with default settings. As we did not have any
155 biological replication to estimate the amount of over-dispersion in our data, we
156 instead fixed the over-dispersion parameter (the square-root biological coefficient of
157 variation) to the default value of 0.1. The P -values will be sensitive to this parameter,
158 so we used a very conservative significance threshold ($p < 10^{-20}$, which equates to a
159 Bonferroni corrected $p < 8.4 \times 10^{-17}$). Most importantly we verified the results on which
160 we base our conclusions by quantitative PCR (see below). In a very small number of
161 cases it was clear that alternative haplotypes of a gene had been split into two genes

162 during the assembly and this gave a false signal of differential expression. To avoid
163 this we identified all the genes whose predicted peptides were >98% identical to
164 another gene using CD-HIT [21] and excluded them from the analysis.

165

166 *Peptide and domain prediction*

167

168 Trinity assembles nucleotide reads into nucleotide transcripts, and as such candidate
169 peptide sequences must be predicted post-hoc (Supplementary Figure S1). Peptide
170 predictions were generated from the combined read assembly using Transdecoder
171 [18] and the standard protocol for peptide prediction. Any transcript that did not
172 encode a predicted peptide was removed from our assembly.

173

174 The resulting peptide predictions were then run through the NCBI Batch
175 Conserved Domain Search [22] to annotate domains. Putative lysozymes were
176 then identified by presence of the LYZ1 C-type lysozyme domain (cd00119), which is
177 found in *Drosophila* lysozymes and expected to be required for *Drosophila*-like
178 function of the protein.

179

180 *Phylogenetics*

181 To investigate the phylogenetic relationships of the lysozymes, we retrieved other
182 lysozyme sequences described in previous analyses [23–25] from the NCBI protein
183 database. Midpoint-rooted PhyML Maximum likelihood phylogeny was based on a
184 MAAFT and GBLOCKS alignment of lysozymes and related proteins from a wide
185 panel of taxa including both vertebrates and invertebrates. Node support values were
186 determined from 100 bootstrap replicates, and the scale bar is substitutions per site.

187

188 *Quantitative PCR*

189 Differential expression of lysozymes was verified by quantitative PCR using six
190 breeding and six non-breeding females. The analysis included the two individuals
191 used in the transcriptome sequencing, but removing these samples from the statistical
192 analysis does not alter our conclusions. We synthesised cDNA using Promega Go-
193 script® reverse transcriptase following the standard conditions using 1ul RNA
194 template and incubating at 25C for 5 minutes, 50C for 50 minutes and 70C for 15
195 minutes. PCR primers were designed that amplify the six lysozymes (all three *Lys1*
196 isoforms were amplified by a single primer pair) and the reference gene *actin5C*
197 (Table S1). The quantitative PCR was performed using SYBR green using the
198 SensiFAST SYBR Hi-ROX Kit with a 10 ul reaction volume (2 ul template cDNA
199 diluted 1:10 from original cDNA synthesis). Three technical replicates were
200 performed. Differences in gene expression between the treatments were analysed
201 using a General Linear Mixed Model (GLMM) that included ‘experiment’ (whether
202 the beetle was in the first or second batch) as a random effect. Significance was
203 assessed using Wald tests.

204

205 *Relationship between Lys6 expression and lytic activity in anal exudates*

206 In August 2015, we took 52 virgin males and females from the beetle stock
207 population and kept them under standard stock conditions until they were sexually
208 mature. Upon maturity, we placed females in individual plastic breeding boxes, with
209 moist filter paper. For three days, we fed them daily a piece of mince (0.06 – 0.08g),
210 which was consumed within a few hours. We did this to standardize the amount of
211 resources each female consumed prior to the breeding bout. In the afternoon of the

212 third day, after the females had consumed the mince, we placed each female with a
213 male in a breeding box half-filled with moist compost. Each pair was provided with a
214 mouse carcass and allowed to prepare it.

215

216 Approximately 42h after pairing, we collected anal exudates from females. Beetles
217 produce exudates readily when tapped gently on the abdomen, but in one case exudate
218 was not produced in enough volume and this female was excluded from the data set.

219 Exudates were diluted to a concentration of 1:5 in 0.2M pH6.4 potassium phosphate
220 buffer, and kept at -20 °C until further analysis. We then anaesthetised females with
221 CO₂ and dissected their guts, which were immediately homogenised in TRIzol®
222 reagent (Life Technologies) and frozen in liquid nitrogen for later RNA extraction
223 Quantitative PCR was used to quantify expression of all lysozyme genes.

224 We performed a lytic zone assay to measure antimicrobial activity in anal exudates
225 following Cotter et al. [11]. In brief, agar was mixed with a solution of frozen
226 *Micrococcus lysodeikticus* cells, and plated in Petri dishes. We punched holes of
227 approximately 1 mm diameter into the solidified agar mix and applied 1 µl of thawed
228 exudate in each hole, with two technical replicates per sample. We measured the
229 diameter of the lytic zone appearing after 24h of incubation at 33 °C, using the
230 software ImageJ. Egg white lysozyme at known concentrations was also applied in
231 holes to create standard curves from which we derived the slope and intercept of the
232 regression explaining the relationship between lytic activity (in mg/ml lysozyme
233 equivalents) and diameter of the lytic zone.

234

235 After inspection of the data, we identified 3 outliers which were subsequently
236 removed from the analysis. We excluded another female because her brood failed and

237 no antimicrobial activity was present in her exudates. We estimated the correlation
238 between the \log_2 transformed measurements of lytic activity and relative gene
239 expression using a GLMM. The response was the technical replicates of both the
240 qPCR and lytic zone assay. The type of measurement was a fixed effect (qPCR or
241 lytic zone). We estimated separate residuals and the covariance and variance of the
242 qPCR or lytic zone measurements. The model parameters were estimated using the R
243 package MCMCglmm [26].

244

245 *Lys6 expression throughout the breeding bout*

246 A further 50 beetle pairs were established in September 2015 following the standard
247 breeding protocol to examine gene expression in females at different stages of the
248 breeding bout. We removed females at days 1, 4 and 8 after pairing, and dissected
249 their gut for later RNA extraction. We used quantitative PCR to measure expression
250 of all lysozyme genes. We only used females that showed no sign of brood failure
251 (day 1: $N = 14$, day 4: $N = 15$, day 8: $N = 16$).

252

253 Analysis of relative gene expression for each lysozyme gene was done with a GLMM,
254 with female's family of origin as a random effect and days after pairing as a fixed
255 effect. Model parameters were estimated using the R package lme4. Tukey post-hoc
256 comparisons were performed using the R package lsmeans.

257

258

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260

261

Results

262

263 *The burying beetle transcriptome*

264 To allow us to investigate the transcriptional response in the guts of burying beetle
265 when they breed, we first sequenced the transcriptome from the guts of a single
266 breeding and a single non-breeding beetle, combined the sequence reads and then
267 assembled them *de novo*. This process resulted in 11290 genes that encoded 26378
268 different transcripts. This suggests that we sequenced the majority of genes in the
269 genome, as the exceptionally well-annotated *Drosophila* genome contains 13920
270 protein coding genes encoding 30443 transcripts (Flybase release 6). As the guts we
271 used for the RNA extraction might contain poly-adenylated RNA from the mouse the
272 beetles were feeding on, or nematode parasites, we used Blast to search for the most
273 similar sequence in the *Mus musculus*, *C. elegans*, *Drosophila melanogaster* and
274 *Tribolium castaneum* genomes. The top hit of 91% of the genes was another insect
275 (*Drosophila* or the beetle *Tribolium*), suggesting the levels of contamination were low
276 (Figure 1A).

277

278 *Many genes are strongly upregulated in the guts of breeding beetles*

279 By mapping reads from the breeding and non-breeding beetles to the transcriptome,
280 we found that there was a strong transcriptional response in the breeding beetles
281 (Figure 1B). Among the most significantly differentially expressed genes ($p < 10^{-20}$,
282 Bonferroni corrected $p < 8.4 \times 10^{-17}$), 90% were upregulated in the breeding beetles
283 (Figure 1B; $N=42$, 95% binomial CI: 77-97%). The magnitude of these changes in
284 transcription was often large – on average the expression of these 42 most
285 significantly differentially expressed genes changed by nearly 1000 times (mean \log_2

286 (fold change)=9.96). Furthermore, some of the most strongly differentially expressed
287 genes also had the highest total levels of expression in our transcriptome (Figure 1B).

288

289 Several of the 42 most significantly differentially regulated genes may play a role in
290 immunity. Based on conserved domains and/or the top *Drosophila* blast hit, 10 were
291 serine proteases and one was a serine protease inhibitor (serpin; Supplementary Table
292 1). These genes play a key role in regulating insect immune responses as well as other
293 functions [27]. Other likely immune genes included a peptidoglycan recognition
294 protein (PGRP), a Toll receptor, a C type lectin and a homolog of CG10960, which is
295 thought to regulate the JAK-STAT pathway in *Drosophila* [28].

296

297 *A lysozyme is highly expressed in breeding females*

298 We identified lysozymes by searching for the conserved LYZ1 domain, which
299 contains the active site of C-type lysozymes. Using this approach we identified six
300 lysozymes (Figure 2A). These ranged in size from 103-214 amino acids, which is
301 within the typical size range of insect lysozymes. We aligned these protein sequences
302 with lysozymes from other organisms and reconstructed their phylogeny (Figure 2B).
303 All six were Invertebrate-type lysozymes, which are the commonest class of
304 lysozymes in arthropods (Figure 2B). While bootstrap support for the relationships is
305 low, five of the lysozymes appear to have arisen by gene duplication during the
306 evolution of beetles, while *Lys4* falls in a different clade that likely diverged early in
307 insect evolution (Figure 2B).

308

309 To identify the gene that may be responsible for the antimicrobial activity of the anal
310 exudate of breeding females we compared the expression of the six lysozyme genes in

311 breeding and non-breeding females in the whole transcriptome data. Five of the genes
312 had similar expression levels in breeding and non-breeding beetles, while *Lys6* was
313 massively upregulated – the expression level in the breeding female was 1409 times
314 greater than in the non-breeding female (Figure 1B; \log_2 (fold change)=10.46, $p < 10^{-26}$,
315 Bonferroni corrected $p < 10^{-25}$). In the breeding beetle *Lys6* was the 14th most abundant
316 transcript in the entire transcriptome, while in the non-breeding beetle it was only the
317 5967th most abundant.

318

319 We confirmed this result using quantitative PCR to measure the expression of the
320 lysozymes across the six breeding and six non-breeding females (Figure 2C). In the
321 non-breeding females the different lysozymes all had similar levels of expression. As
322 was the case in the transcriptome analysis, *Lys6* was strongly upregulated in breeding
323 females, with an average expression level that was 860 times than non-breeding
324 beetles (Figure 2C; Wald test: $\chi^2=160$, degrees of freedom=1, $p < 10^{-16}$, Bonferroni
325 corrected $p < 10^{-15}$).). The expression of the five remaining lysozymes was unaltered in
326 the breeding females (Figure 2C).

327

328 *Lysozyme expression is correlated with antimicrobial activity*

329 To investigate whether lysozyme is an effector molecule in the social immune
330 defences of burying beetles, we tested whether lysozyme gene expression is correlated
331 with the antimicrobial activity of the anal exudates across individuals. There was
332 considerable variation in lytic activity, equivalent to over a 100-fold difference in
333 lysozyme activity between samples (Figure 3A). Across breeding females we found a
334 positive correlation between lytic activity and *Lys6* mRNA levels (Figure 3A). The
335 correlation (the proportion of variance in common between the traits) was 0.55 (95%

336 credible interval: 0.33-0.75; estimated using a GLMM). After correcting for multiple
337 tests, there was no correlation between the expression of other lysozyme genes and
338 lytic activity (Supplementary Figure 1).

339

340 The production of antimicrobial exudates changed considerably through the breeding
341 event. Antimicrobial activity increases during the first four days, reaching a peak at
342 the time of larval hatching between days 3 and 4 after pairing, and subsequently
343 declines [10,12]. To investigate whether expression of any of the lysozyme genes
344 followed the same pattern, we quantified gene expression, using qPCR, in females at
345 different stages of the breeding bout. Of the six lysozyme genes, we found that only
346 *Lys6* expression changed significantly throughout the breeding event. On day 4 after
347 pairing, *Lys6* expression was significantly higher than on day 1 and 8 (Figure 3B;
348 Tukey post-hoc comparison: day 4 – day 1: 111.47, SE = 20.02, $t_{33} = 5.56$, $p <$
349 0.0001 ; day 4 – day 8: 119.38, SE = 19.44, $t_{34} = 6.14$, $p < 0.0001$; day 1 – day 8:
350 7.90, SE = 19.86, $t_{35} = 0.39$, $p = 0.91$). None of the other lysozyme genes changed
351 expression levels throughout the breeding bout (Supplementary Figure 2).

352

353

354 **Discussion**

355

356 Our analyses indicate that breeding induces a very strong transcriptional response in
357 female burying beetles, causing substantial upregulation of just one lysozyme gene
358 (*Lys6*) in their gut tissues relative to non-breeding females. We found that breeding
359 females varied considerably in the expression of this gene, and we show that this is
360 correlated with variation in the antimicrobial properties of their anal exudates.

361 Furthermore, *Lys6* expression peaked around larval hatching when offspring are most
362 dependent on parental care and the antimicrobial activity of the exudates is greatest
363 [10,12]. Together with the previous observations that the exudates have lysozyme
364 activity, these results together strongly suggest that upregulation of *Lys6* causes at
365 least some of the change in the exudates' antimicrobial properties during breeding.

366 The finding that a lysozyme has a role in social immunity is not surprising
367 because these enzymes are secreted onto external surfaces that are vulnerable to
368 infection, such as the gut, eyes, mucous membranes and respiratory tract, providing a
369 broad-spectrum defence against microbes in the environment [12]. It may therefore be
370 straightforward to recruit lysozymes to social immune functions. By choosing to focus
371 on lysozyme genes here, we were able to gain two novel insights which might
372 otherwise not have been possible. First, we were able to show that continuous
373 variation in *Lys6* gene expression is associated with continuous variation in the
374 phenotype, measured as lytic activity in anal exudates. This is a more detailed and
375 quantitative description of gene function than has been previously been possible in
376 burying beetles[29], or indeed many other non-model organisms. Second, since
377 insects typically possess multiple lysozyme genes with diverse functions, analyses of
378 lysozyme sequences allowed us to infer the evolutionary relationships among them
379 and therefore to deduce the evolutionary origin of any gene(s) associated primarily
380 with social immune function. We found that *Lys6* is closely related to other lysozymes
381 in the genome, providing evidence to support the hypothesis that burying beetles have
382 recruited a component of their personal immune system to play a major role in social
383 immunity.

384 Nevertheless, it is likely that other genes also contribute to social immunity in
385 the burying beetle, and we found that several other genes with potential immune

386 functions were also upregulated during breeding (extending similar findings
387 previously obtained by Parker et al. [29]). Previous work indicates that the chemical
388 composition of *N. vespilloides*' anal exudates is complex[30]. For example,
389 Degenkolb et al. identified several substances (though not lysozyme) with potential
390 antimicrobial and antifungal properties in exudates of non-breeding beetles [30].
391 However, apart from the identification of lysozyme in exudates of breeding beetles,
392 any changes in the chemical composition of the exudates that may be induced by
393 breeding have not previously been as thoroughly characterized, nor is it clear whether
394 gut symbionts are involved in the production of some of the other components
395 previously found in the exudates.

396 It might be argued that bacteria form a key part of the diet of breeding burying
397 beetles or their larvae, but not of non-breeding burying beetles. Thus, a possible
398 alternative interpretation of our data is that the increased expression of *Lys6* primarily
399 serves a digestive function, rather than an immune function, as has been suggested for
400 the lysozymes expressed in housefly or *Drosophila* guts. However, we think this
401 alternative interpretation is unlikely as behavioural evidence suggests that beetles
402 prefer to feed on meat rather than on the microbes living on the meat [7].

403 Furthermore, beetles in both treatments were fed meat before the experiment, whether
404 they bred or not, which suggests that upregulation of *Lys6* in the breeding beetles was
405 not induced simply to aid digestion. Thus, although at this stage we cannot rule out
406 the possibility that the large increase in *Lys6* expression plays some minor role in
407 digestion, this is unlikely to be its sole or even primary function.

408 A further alternative interpretation of our data is that the changes we have
409 detected in lysozyme gene expression during reproduction might be attributable to
410 mating alone, rather than any social immune function. There is evidence from several

411 insect species that the act of mating is sufficient to induce changes in immunity. For
412 example, in *Drosophila melanogaster*, mating causes increased expression of some
413 immunity genes, while downregulating others [31,32]. In *Gryllus texensis* crickets,
414 mating increases resistance to bacterial infections [33]. Yet in several other
415 invertebrate species such as mealworms [34], damselflies [35], ground crickets [36]
416 and moths [37], mating suppresses immune responses, at least partly. In the female
417 burying beetle, mating without a carcass increases phenoloxidase (PO) activity in the
418 hemolymph – a commonly measured part of the invertebrate personal immune
419 response – whereas mating on a carcass suppresses PO activity [38]. As for lytic
420 activity in anal exudates, mating in the absence of a carcass leads to a slight increase
421 in lytic activity, but to a much smaller extent than when a carcass is also presented
422 [9]. Thus, while it is possible that mating alone contributed to some of the up-
423 regulation of *Lys6* expression, presentation of the carcass, and the associated need to
424 defend it from microbial attack, probably accounted for the majority of the increase in
425 this gene's transcription that we found during reproduction.

426 Killing microbes in the environment is important for many insects, and a
427 diverse range of different mechanisms has evolved. Just as with burying beetles, the
428 antimicrobial agents are provided by the parent in European beewolves (*Philanthus*
429 *triangulum*). These hunting wasps place a paralysed bee in a brood cell, and transfer
430 symbiotic bacteria from glands on their antennae to the brood cell at the same time as
431 laying eggs [39]. These symbionts are thought to produce antibiotic compounds that
432 protect against fungal infection [39]. The mother also stops the paralysed bee from
433 going mouldy by wrapping it in a secretion that keeps it dry by preventing water
434 condensing [40]. Similarly, larvae of the emerald cockroach wasp (*Ampulex*
435 *compressa*) develop on cockroaches (*Periplaneta americana*) and produce

436 antimicrobial oral secretions that kill bacteria growing in their host [41]. Unlike
437 burying beetles these antimicrobials do not appear to have been recruited from the
438 conventional insect immune system as the active components—(R)-(-)-mellein and
439 micromolide—are not known to have antimicrobial functions in other insects [41].

440 In summary, we have found a gene (*Lys6*) associated with social immunity in
441 the burying beetle, together with evidence that it was recruited from personal immune
442 function in the evolutionary past. The challenge for future work is to determine how
443 this gene's function is integrated with other components of the social immune system
444 to influence the microbial community on the burying beetle's breeding resource.

445

446

447 **Data accessibility**

448 The raw sequence data has been submitted to the NCBI sequence read archive under
449 the accession numbers SRR2071758 (breeding) and SRR2071757 (non-breeding).

450 This Transcriptome Shotgun Assembly project has been deposited at

451 DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank under the accession GDUU00000000. The version described
452 in this paper is the first version, GDUU01000000. The predicted lysozyme sequences

453 have been submitted to genbank under the accession numbers KU060803-KU060810.

454 Predicted peptides, full domain annotations and the raw data used to generate the
455 figures have been submitted to Dryad doi:10.5061/dryad.6n4fm.

456

457 **Authors' contributions**

458 JPD carried out the molecular lab work. AD carried out the beetle lab work with
459 assistance from MS. WJP carried out the bioinformatic analyses of the Illumina

460 sequence data. Data analysis was performed by FMJ, WJP and AD. RK and FJ

461 conceived the study. RK, FJ and AD wrote the manuscript. All authors gave final
462 approval for publication.

463

464 **Competing interests**

465 We have no competing interests.

466

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474

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599 **Figure 1.** The transcriptome of *N. vespilloides*. (A) The percentage of peptides whose
600 most similar sequence was in the genome of the mouse *Mus musculus*, the nematode
601 *Caenorhabditis elegans*, the fly *Drosophila melanogaster* or the beetle *Tribolium*
602 *castaneum*. A single isoform of each gene in the differential expression analysis is
603 included. (B) Total gene expression (counts per million) and log₂ (fold change) in
604 gene expression in the guts of breeding versus non-breeding females. Lysozymes are

605 shown in red. The most significantly differentially expressed genes ($P < 10^{-20}$,
606 Bonferroni corrected $p < 8.4 \times 10^{-17}$) are in green.

607

608 **Figure 2.** Lysozymes and their expression. (A) The six predicted lysozymes in the
609 transcriptome of *N. vespilloides*. The LYZ1 C-type lysozyme domain (cd00119) is
610 shown in red. There are three alternative isoforms of *Lys1*. (B) Phylogenetic
611 relationship of lysozymes from *N. vespilloides* and other species. Bootstrap support
612 $> 90\%$ is indicated with a filled circle (full bootstrap results are available on Dryad).
613 (C) The expression of the lysozyme genes in the guts of six breeding (red) and six
614 non-breeding (blue) females. Expression was measured by quantitative PCR relative
615 to *Actin5C* (scale shifted so begin at zero). Each point is the mean of three technical
616 replicates and the horizontal bars are means.

617

618 **Figure 3.** Relationship between *Lys6* expression and the phenotype. (A) The
619 correlation of *Lys6* expression and lytic activity in beetle anal exudates ($N = 47$).
620 Expression was measured by quantitative PCR relative to *Actin5C*. Lytic activity of
621 exudates was measured in a lytic zone assay relative to known concentrations of hen
622 egg white lysozyme. The values plotted correspond in both axes to the mean of two
623 technical replicates. (B) Change of *Lys6* expression throughout the breeding bout.
624 Expression of *Lys6* was significantly higher on day 4 than on day 1 (post-hoc Tukey
625 comparison: estimated difference = 111.47, $p < 0.0001$) and day 8 (post-hoc Tukey
626 comparison: estimated difference = 119.38, $p < 0.0001$). Bonferroni correcting these p
627 values for the 6 genes investigated yields $p < 0.001$ in all cases. Black circles show
628 least-squares means of a linear mixed model with standard error bars. White circles
629 show data points corresponding to each day, jittered to avoid overlap.

