



# An improved method for testing invertebrate encapsulation response as shown in the honey bee

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## Abstract

In 1882, Metchnikoff documented the encapsulation response (ER) of the invertebrate immune system. Since then, researchers have used Metchnikoff's method to quantify immune function—and examine its relationship with ecological and behavioral factors—across various insect taxa. While scientists continue to uncover information regarding invertebrate immunity, behavioral ecology, and ecological immunology, the basics of Metchnikoff's method have remained unchanged. All but two previous studies investigating insect immunity have used sterile or PBS-coated inducers, although we know that the immune system recognizes specific pathogens. To account for the specificity of the immune system, we modified Metchnikoff's method and coated nylon monofilaments with pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs). Using honey bees (*Apis mellifera*), we examined ER using implants coated with PAMPs (“PAMPlants”) found on known honey bee parasites and pathogens. Lipopolysaccharide (LPS), peptidoglycan (PGN), and  $\beta$ -1, 3-glucan (B13G) PAMPlants mimicked an infection with Gram-negative bacteria, Gram-positive bacteria, and fungi, respectively. Our PAMPlants induced stronger responses than the control implants in both singly- (one PBS-coated or PAMP-coated implant) and doubly- (internal control; one PBS-coated and one PAMP-coated implant) implanted animals. In doubly-implanted individuals, there was a significant increase in response to B13G and LPS when compared with internal controls. The PGN and BSA did not differ from the internal controls in the doubly implanted individuals. These methods provide an improvement when exploring responses to specific pathogens and exploring topics within the field of invertebrate ecological immunity. When applied to social systems, these methods can be used to examine the evolution of disease resistance in societies.

**Keywords** Disease resistance · Innate immunity · Insect societies · Invertebrate immunity · Sociality

## Introduction

A common cost of social living is the spread of disease (Wilson 1975). Many individuals living in close association lead to frequent physical interaction and thus many opportunities

for disease to spread. Furthermore, many related individuals in one place lead to lower genetic diversity which can facilitate the spread of disease. Despite these threats, insect societies are wildly successful (Wilson 1971). For many insect societies, the first line of defense against invaders is behavioral. For example, when a honey bee colony is infected with a heat-sensitive pathogen, workers collectively raise the temperature of the hive to generate a preventative colony-level fever (Starks et al. 2000).

One hypothesis that may explain the success of insect societies in spite of disease threats is the relaxed selection hypothesis, which postulates that social species have evolved behavioral immune responses, such as honey bee fever, that decrease both disease risk to the group as well as the need for strong individual immunity. When behavioral defenses are not successful, however, individuals must turn to physiological defenses. The social group hypothesis postulates that due to the increased risk of disease spread in societies,

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sociality may lead to stronger physiological immunity in individuals. In support of the relaxed selection hypothesis, Lopez-Uribe et al. (2016) have shown reduced physiological response to lipopolysaccharide, a protein on Gram-negative pathogens, in social insect lineages. Here, we describe a method to investigate physiological immunity, and tease apart the two hypotheses, in response to various classes of pathogens.

Like vertebrates, an invertebrate's first line of defense to a physiological assault is a physical barrier (Antunez et al. 2009). For insects, the exoskeleton's cuticle and the digestive tract's peritrophic membranes serve as protection. When an infection evades such barriers, the host must recognize the invader as both foreign and dangerous to launch the appropriate immune response. In invertebrates, this process is carried out via proteins called pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), and other recognition molecules, that recognize specific, highly conserved pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) found on the microbial cell wall (reviewed in Nurnberger et al. (2004); Zipfel and Felix (2005)). For example, peptidoglycan (PGN) is an essential component of the bacterial cell wall in both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria and thus serves as a PAMP recognized by the invertebrate immune system. In addition to PGN, the cell wall of Gram-negative bacteria also contains the endotoxin lipopolysaccharide (LPS) that is recognized by host PRRs. PAMPs such as  $\beta$ -1, 3-glucans (B13G), mannoproteins, and phospholipomannan are found on fungi.

Upon recognition of a foreign body, insects can employ one or more of three general innate responses: (1) synthesis of antimicrobial peptides; (2) initiation of proteolytic cascades, which lead to clotting and melanization; (3) phagocytosis or encapsulation by hemocytes (Kimbrell and Beutler 2001). For the purposes of this study, we focused on the encapsulation response (ER) by which the host immune system surrounds a foreign body with multiple hemocytes. The bound hemocytes then isolate and neutralize foreign bodies via anoxia, toxic reactive oxygen species, or starvation (reviewed in Moreno-Garcia et al. (2013)). In invertebrates, the encapsulation response is highly effective at clearing small foreign bodies or bacteria (Smith 2016). The first observation of the ER, and the creation of the assay to measure ER, is attributed to Élie Metchnikoff (Beck and Habicht 1996; Chernyak and Tauber 1988; Gordon 2008; Tauber 2003).

Although he began as a zoologist and embryologist, Metchnikoff is now referred to as “The Father of Natural Immunity” (Beck and Habicht 1996; Gordon 2008). In 1908, Metchnikoff won the Nobel Prize in medicine for research stemming from his novel methods of measuring immune strength in invertebrates (Metchnikoff 1884, as translated and reprinted in Beck and Habicht (1996) and references therein). While vacationing with his family on the Sicilian

coast in 1882, Metchnikoff implanted a rose thorn into a starfish larva, observed an ER, and thus invented the first method of studying the invertebrate ER (Beck and Habicht 1996; Tauber 2003).

Nearly a century later, Metchnikoff's method for measuring invertebrate immune function was resurrected and used to answer questions relating to ecological immunity—the study of how abiotic and biotic factors influence variation in immune traits. As the immune system of invertebrates is simpler than that of vertebrates, and is phylogenetically conserved, an understanding of invertebrate ecological immunity provides insights in the evolution of immunity overall (Beck and Habicht 1996). Recent empirical ER studies (Table 1) using Metchnikoffian methods of König and Schmid-Hempel (1995) have elucidated relationships between immune function and many ecological and behavioral factors in insects, including: sex, behavioral role, dominance, female mate choice, foraging ability, diet, habitat type, infection risk, co-infection, energy cost, individual and colony condition, ontogeny, and invasion biology (Table 1 and references therein). In addition, as exhibited by Lopez-Uribe et al. (2016), studying ecological immunity in insect societies provides insight into the evolution of sociality and how individuals deal with the spread of disease in close quarters.

In this paper, we report results from an improved approach to the classic method for testing immune function using foreign bodies coated with PAMPs. All but two prior insect ER studies (Table 1) employed implants (monofilaments or beads) that were either sterile and uncoated or sterile and coated with PBS. The two studies (Appler et al. 2015; Lopez-Uribe et al. 2016) that used PAMP-coated implants only used one type of PAMP: LPS. Our comparative method allows for further investigation of the ability of a host to identify and respond to a specific class of pathogen. Furthermore, of the studies listed in Table 1, only 15 (about 20%) focus on a social study system. Investigating physiological immunity in response to various classes of pathogens in social insects could distinguish between, or support both, the social group hypothesis and the relaxed selection hypothesis. It is possible, for example, that while the relaxed selection hypothesis holds true for Gram-negative pathogens (see Lopez-Uribe et al. (2016)), the social group hypothesis holds true for Gram-positive and/or fungal pathogens.

Since much is known concerning both behavioral and physiological immune mechanisms of honey bees (*Apis mellifera*), this social insect served as our study system (Wilson-Rich et al. 2008; Wilson-Rich et al. 2014; Wilson-Rich et al. 2009). Aside from immune mechanisms—including ER—being well documented, further understanding immunity in the honey bee is of ecological and economic importance. As the honey bee is naturally challenged by various pathogens and parasites, and its genome is fully sequenced (Honeybee

**Table 1** Findings uncovered using various Metchnikoffian methods with different insect study systems

Study system	Method used	Major findings	References
1 Insects of varying sociality (bees, ants, wasps, termites) <i>Eusocial insects</i>	LPS-coated monofilament	Within social insects, there is a negative effect of colony size on ER	Lopez-Urbe et al. (2016)
2 <i>Apis mellifera</i> (honey bee)	LPS-coated monofilament	More variation in ER for bees living in rural landscapes than in urban landscapes; no difference in ER between feral and managed bees	Appler et al. (2015)
3	Uncoated monofilament	No change in ER across larvae, pupae, young adults (nurses), and old adults (foragers)	Wilson-Rich et al. (2008)
4	Uncoated monofilament	Challenging larvae with nylon implants enhanced nitric oxide production and the spread of hemocytes	Negri et al. (2014)
5	Uncoated monofilament	ER of bees treated with neonicotinoids is significantly reduced compared to control bees	Brandt et al. (2016)
6 <i>Bombus terrestris</i> (bumble bee)	Uncoated monofilament	Workers allowed to forage had lower ER than those prevented from foraging; strong colony effect on ER	Konig and Schmid-Hempel (1995)
7	Uncoated monofilament	ER was not affected by diet or body mass	Schmid-Hempel and Schmid-Hempel (1998)
8	Uncoated monofilament	Males had lower ER compared to sister workers; ER was lower in late-produced and late-reproducing cohorts compared to early cohorts	Baer and Schmid-Hempel (2011)
9	Uncoated monofilament of 1 mm or 2 mm length	ER was not affected by the size of implant or by <i>C. bombi</i> co-infection	Allander and Schmid-Hempel (2000)
10 <i>Formica exsecta</i> (wood ant)	Uncoated monofilament	Males have lower ER than queens; among males, micraners had lower ER than macraners and males from larger nests had stronger ER; among queens, no relationship between ER and body size or colony	Vaimio et al. (2004)
11 <i>Formica aquilonia</i> (forest dwelling ant)	Uncoated monofilament rubbed with sandpaper	ER was similar between ants in heavy metal environments and translocated groups; ER was elevated in moderate, whereas suppressed in high heavy metal levels suggesting higher risk for infections in heavily polluted areas	Sorvari et al. (2007)
12 <i>Zootermopsis angusticollis</i> (dampwood termite)	Uncoated monofilament	ER did not differ between inbred and outbred termites	Calleri et al. (2006)
13	Uncoated monofilament	Sex, implant period, and colony of origin significantly influenced ER, however, mass and mated/unmated status did not affect ER	Calleri et al. (2007)

Table 1 (continued)

Study system	Method used	Major findings	References
<i>Primitively eusocial insects</i>			
14 <i>Polistes dominulus</i> , <i>P. fuscatus</i> (paper wasps)	Uncoated monofilament	The invasive <i>P. dominulus</i> had lower ER than the native, sympatric, congener, <i>P. fuscatus</i>	Wilson-Rich and Starks (2010)
15	Uncoated monofilament	Late season workers exhibit lower ER than early season workers	Wilson-Rich et al. (2014)
<i>Non-eusocial insects</i>			
16 <i>Acheta domestica</i> (house cricket)	Uncoated monofilament	Supports immunocompetence handicap hypothesis by showing male crickets with more song syllables (preferred by females); also had higher ER	Ryder and Siva-Jothy (2000)
17 <i>Aedes aegypti</i> (yellow fever mosquito)	Injected, uncoated beads	Mosquitoes injected with malaria parasites had reduced ER versus control injections	Boete et al. (2002)
18 <i>Aglaotenus lagotis</i> (spider, no common name)	Uncoated monofilament	Females constructing webs had higher ER than those prevented from constructing webs; males had lower ER than females	González et al. (2015)
19 <i>Anitarsia gemmatilis</i> (velvetbean caterpillar)	Uncoated monofilament	ER was not affected by development temperature or population density, however, caterpillars of the intermediate color phenotype showed greatest ER	Silva and Elliot (2016)
20 <i>Anabrus simplex</i> (Mormon cricket)	Uncoated glass rod	ER directly proportional to body mass, but unaffected by the dietary treatments in the short term	Srygley et al. (2009)
21	Uncoated glass rod	ER directly correlated with body mass, crickets fed a carbohydrate diet had significantly greater ER than those fed proteins, males had slightly greater encapsulation response than females	Srygley and Lorch (2011)
22	Uncoated glass rod	Individuals fed low protein diets exhibited a slower ER than those fed high protein diets	Srygley and Jaronski (2018)
23 <i>Calopteryx splendens</i> (damselfly)	Uncoated monofilament	ER positively correlated with both male wingspot size and hemocyte number, but negatively correlated with wingspot asymmetry	Rantala et al. (2000)
24	Uncoated monofilament	No relationship between ER and wing pigment heterogeneity; no effect of pre- or post-implantation PO activity levels in males	Siva-Jothy (2000)
25	Uncoated monofilament	No effect of copulatory activity on ER	Krams et al. (2015b)

Table 1 (continued)

Study system	Method used	Major findings	References
26 <i>Calopteryx virgo</i> (damselfly)	Uncoated monofilament	Males winning male-male fights had higher ER and higher post-fight fat reserves than losing males	Koskimaki et al. (2004)
27 <i>Camponotus fellah</i> (ant, no common name)	Uncoated monofilament and injection with PGN	Workers injected with PGN had reduced ER compared to ringer injection; workers did not decrease the level of self-grooming or allogrooming	de Souza et al. (2008)
28 <i>Cerastoderma edule</i> (edible cockle)	Injected, uncoated beads and uncoated monofilament	Positively charged targets stimulated the most vigorous ER; non-specific electrostatic forces and humoral plasma factors have a synergistic role on ER	Wootton et al. (2006)
29 <i>Coenagrion puella</i> (azure damselfly)	Uncoated monofilament	Larvae exposed to UV exhibited higher ER and metamorphosed later than control larvae	Debecker et al. (2015)
30 <i>Diaphania hyalinata</i> (Melonworm)	Uncoated monofilament	ER negatively affected by superparasitism by the parasitoid <i>Palmistichus elaisis</i>	Pereira et al. (2017)
31 <i>Deinacrida rugosa</i> (Cook Strait giant weta)	Uncoated monofilament	On average, males have higher ER than females; fed individuals tend to have higher ER than starved individuals	Kelly (2016)
32 <i>Epirrita autumnata</i> (autumnal moth)	Uncoated monofilament rubbed with sand-paper	ER is positively correlated with plant defenses during a moth population increase	Kapari et al. (2006)
33	Uncoated monofilament rubbed with sand-paper	Several individual hydrolysable tannins were negatively associated with ER; flavonoid glycosides had no relationship with ER	Haviola et al. (2007)
34	Uncoated monofilament rubbed with sand-paper	Larvae reared on low-quality food had higher ER as pupae than larvae reared on high-quality food; females had higher ER than males	Klemola et al. (2007)
35 <i>Euoniticellus intermedius</i> (dung beetle)	Uncoated monofilament	ER positively correlated with both age and elytra length; no difference between sexes	Pomfret and Knell (2006)
36	Uncoated monofilament rubbed with sand-paper	Gynes had stronger ER than workers; habitat type affected ER differently between castes	Sorvari et al. (2008)
37 <i>Galleria mellonella</i> (greater wax moth)	Injected, Congo red-stained beads	Priming with heat-killed bacteria causes dose-dependent elevation in ER	Wu et al. (2014)
38	Uncoated monofilament	ER response was stronger in larvae raised on food of average nutritional quality when compared with larvae raised on a high-energy diet	Krams et al. (2015a)
39	Uncoated monofilament	Larval diet and gut microbiome affect ER	Krams et al. (2017)

Table 1 (continued)

Study system	Method used	Major findings	References
40 <i>Gryllus bimaculatus</i> (field cricket)	Uncoated monofilament	Dominant males obtained more mates and had higher ER than size-matched subordinates; no correlation between weight and ER	Rantala and Kortet (2004)
41	Uncoated monofilament	In both sexes, ER was negatively correlated with body size, development time and lyric activity	Rantala and Roff (2005)
42	Uncoated monofilament rubbed with sandpaper	Female crickets preferred courtship songs from males with a high ER; ER did not correlate with male body weight	Rantala and Kortet (2003)
43 <i>Gryllus firmus</i> (field cricket)	Injected, uncoated beads	Long-winged morphs had a higher ER than short-winged morphs	Kirschman et al. (2017)
44 <i>Gryllus vocalis</i> (field cricket)	Uncoated monofilament rubbed with sandpaper	Following experimentally assigned matings, females showed higher ER than males; the number of matings (5 versus 10) had no effect on ER	Gershman (2008)
45 <i>Helicoverpa armigera</i> (cotton bollworm)	Injected, uncoated beads	HaCTL3, a C-type lectin, enhances ER	Wang et al. (2017)
46	Injected, uncoated beads	Fungal infection reduced ER	Zhong et al. (2017)
47	Injected, uncoated beads and PBS	bead challenge stimulated release of growth blocking peptide genes HaGBPB1 and HaGBPB2 into plasma	Zhuo et al. (2018)
48	In vitro assay with PBS-coated beads	Immune-related gene Ha-DFP1 is involved in ER	Hu et al. (2017)
49 <i>Hemideima crassidens</i> (tree weta)	Uncoated monofilament	Males exhibited significantly greater ER than females	Kelly and Jennions (2009)
50	Uncoated monofilament	Mated females showed an increase in ER	Kelly (2017)
51 <i>Hemideima maori</i> (mountain stone weta)	Injected, uncoated beads	The relationship between beads recovered and the number of beads melanized was positive for all four morphs by sex combinations	Robb et al. (2003)
52 <i>Hetaerina americana</i> (American rubyspot damselfly)	Uncoated monofilament	Territorial males had higher levels of pigmentation, while fat reserves and immune defense were constant during territorial tenure	Contreras-Garduno et al. (2006)
53 <i>Hydrolycosa rubrofasciata</i> (wolf spider)	Uncoated monofilament	ER was higher among males with higher drumming rates, but not affected by mobility or body mass	Ahtiainen et al. (2004)
54 <i>Lepidopteran</i> spp. (caterpillars)	Injected, uncoated beads	Negative correlation between ER and parasitism incidence	Smilanich et al. (2009)

Table 1 (continued)

Study system	Method used	Major findings	References
55	Injected, PBS-coated beads	Within 24 h of inoculation, parasitized larvae exhibited a lower ER than unparasitized larvae	Teng et al. (2016)
56	<i>Leptinotarsa decemlineata</i> (Colorado potato beetle)	Uncoated monofilament	Yaroslavtseva et al. (2017)
57	<i>Leucorrhina intacta</i> (dot-tailed whiteface dragonfly)	Uncoated monofilament	Duong and McCauley (2016)
58	<i>Paropsis atomaria</i> (common leaf beetle)	Uncoated monofilament	Gherlenda et al. (2016)
59	<i>Pteris brassicae</i> (white cabbage butterfly)	Uncoated monofilament	Freitag et al. (2003)
60	<i>Protophormia terraenovae</i> (blow fly)	Uncoated monofilament	Polkki et al. (2014)
61	<i>Schistocerca gregaria</i> (desert locust)	Uncoated monofilament	Wilson et al. (2002)
62	<i>Schizocosa ocreata</i> (brush-legged wolf spider)	Uncoated monofilament	Gilbert and Uetz (2016)
63	<i>Spodoptera littoralis</i> (cotton leafworm caterpillar)	Uncoated monofilament	Lee et al. (2006)
64	<i>Tenebrio molitor</i> (mealworm beetle)	Injected, PBS-coated beads	Di Lelio et al. (2014)
65		Uncoated monofilament	Rantala et al. (2003)
66		Uncoated monofilament	Vaimikka et al. (2007)
67		Uncoated monofilament	Kivleniece et al. (2010)

Table 1 (continued)

Study system	Method used	Major findings	References
68	Uncoated monofilament	Inbreeding did not significantly affect ER; however, it did significantly reduce resistance against <i>Beauveria bassiana</i> fungi	Rantala et al. (2011)
69	Uncoated monofilament	Significant increase in ER between the first and second implantations in males	Daukste et al. (2012)
70	Uncoated monofilament	Survival of beetles subjected to immune activation by a nylon implant previous to fungal exposure was higher than survival of beetles which were subjected to fungal infection only	Krams et al. (2013)
71	Uncoated monofilament	ER and development time decreased with a rise in temperature	Prokkola et al. (2013)
72	Uncoated monofilament and monofilament attached to a Malpighian tubule tissue graft	ER results in significant damage to Malpighian tubule; physiology in the proximate area to the nylon implant	Sadd and Siva-Jothy (2006)
73	Uncoated monofilament rubbed with sandpaper	Females were more attracted to pheromones from males with high ER; ER correlated with PO enzyme activity and fresh body weight	Rantala et al. (2002)
74	Uncoated monofilament rubbed with sandpaper	Individuals with a darker cuticle exhibited a higher ER	Kangassalo et al. (2016); Krams et al. (2016)
75	In vitro assay with uncoated beads and ectoparasitoid venom	Ectoparasitoid venom inhibits ER of host hemocytes, but not in a dose-dependent manner	Li et al. (2018)
76	Tetrix undulate (pygmy grasshopper)	No dependence of ER on individual body size	Civantos et al. (2005)

Appler et al. and Lopez-Urbe et al. to be highlighted in gray, used sterile and/or PBS-coated implants. Only 15 of the 76 studies examine ER in social insects

Genome Sequencing Consortium 2006), immune function can be studied under near-natural conditions and linked to specific immune genes for phylogenetic analysis (e.g. Lopez-Urbe et al. (2016)).

While honey bees are affected by many pests and pathogens, the most notorious is the parasitic mite, *Varroa destructor*. In adult honey bees, the *Varroa* mite implants itself into the host cuticle (Martin 2001; Spivak 1996). Even if the mite itself does not induce ER, it creates a structural insult for other pathogens and parasites to pass through, and is the main cause of disease spread in a hive (Kang et al. 2016). Honey bee colonies affected by large numbers of mites suffer from Parasitic Mite Syndrome, which causes the population to dwindle and the colony to eventually die out (Sammataro et al. 2000). Our PAMPplants mimic this natural process while focusing on the immune response of the host to the bacterial and fungal pathogens commonly transmitted by *Varroa* (Mariani et al. 2012; Vanikova et al. 2015). We did this using three different PAMPs to coat the implants: PGN, LPS, and B13G (reviewed in Sammataro et al. (2000)). Due to the historical relationship between pathogens and host immune system (van Engelsdorp and Meixner 2010), each PAMP coating was predicted to elicit a more specific ER relative to control implants.

Each study listed in Table 1 added valuable information to the field of insect immunity. By incorporating pathogen-specific molecules on experimental implants, we hope to better mimic the natural host–pathogen relationship. In addition, in doing so, provide an improved method to researchers to create a clear picture of ecological immunity in insects and invertebrates in general. Applied across various levels of sociality, our method could be used to better understand the interplay of the social group hypothesis and the relaxed selection hypothesis in the evolution of disease resistance and sociality in insect societies.

## Materials and methods

To create the PAMPplants, sterile (rinsed with 70% ethanol) cuts of nylon monofilament (2 mm long, 0.4 mm diameter, Scientific Anglers Tippet, 3M, diameter previously incorrectly reported in Wilson-Rich et al. (2008)) were dipped through one of the five different solutions with varying concentrations: (1) phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, our control); (2) lipopolysaccharide in PBS (LPS; 0.1 mg/ml, 1 mg/ml, and 10 mg/ml); (3) peptidoglycan in PBS (PGN; 1 mg/ml, 10 mg/ml, and 100 mg/ml); (4)  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans in PBS ( $\beta$ 13G; 1 mg/ml, 10 mg/ml, and 100 mg/ml); and (5) bovine serum albumin in PBS (BSA; 1 mg/ml, another control). As such, there was a proportional fold increased in PAMP concentrations across treatments. PBS and BSA monofilaments were controls, and expected to induce a baseline

ER. Implants were allowed to dry overnight in sterile petri dishes.

To quantify the ER of individuals to the PAMPplants, we performed a series of modified, standard ER assays (Konig and Schmid-Hempel 1995; Wilson-Rich et al. 2008) over 2 years (2008, 2009). Each year, we collected foraging honey bees—which are all similar age (Winston 1987)—at the entrance of a single hive maintained at Tufts University in Medford, MA. This allowed us to control for genetic variation and health status. Individuals were stored collectively and immediately brought to the laboratory for experimentation.

Collected foragers were ice-anesthetized and the nylon monofilaments were implanted between the third and fourth ventral intersegmental membrane ( $N=74$  singly implanted, and  $N=102$  doubly implanted, individuals). All implants remained in situ for 4 h [see Wilson-Rich et al. (2008) and references therein]. Experimental individuals in 2008 received a single implant, either an experimental PAMPplant or a control implant coated with PBS. Experimental individuals in 2009 received double implants, with one PAMPplant matched with an internal PSB-coated control implant for a self-paired design. To control for side, side was switched for PAMPplant and control implants, and the left side was always inserted first, thus controlling for which condition (PAMPplant or control implant) was performed first. In comparison with PBS, an additional control—an insert coated with BSA—was used, because unlike LPS, PGN, and  $\beta$ 13G, it is predicted to elicit a baseline immune response.

After 4 h, experimental individuals were re-anesthetized on ice and the implants were removed with fine forceps. The removed implants were then analyzed for mean gray value using a fluorescence-detecting microscope (Olympus VX40), and image capturing (Optronics Magna Fire-SP, v1.0\_5) and analysis [ImageJ (NIH)] software [see Wilson-Rich et al. (2008) and references therein]. Darker implants indicated more melanization, which served as a proxy for a stronger ER (Appler et al. 2015; Lopez-Urbe et al. 2016; Wilson-Rich et al. 2008), and thus greater immune function according to this measure, see Online Appendix 1 for a detailed description of the methods.

## Statistical methods

Singly implanted mean ER values were compared using ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD pairwise comparisons. Doubly implanted mean values within PAMP treatments (i.e., between PAMP-coated and PBS-coated implants or PBS-coated and BSA-coated implants) were compared using paired  $t$  tests within individuals. The ER to different PAMPplants in doubly implanted individuals was compared using ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey HSD pairwise

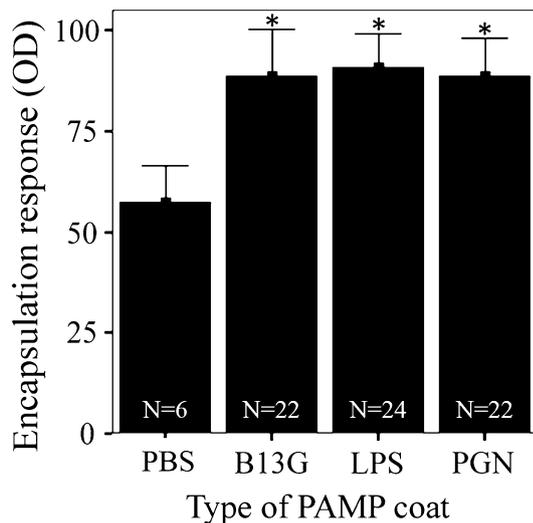
comparisons. All statistics were calculated using SPSS for Windows v. 11.0.

## Results

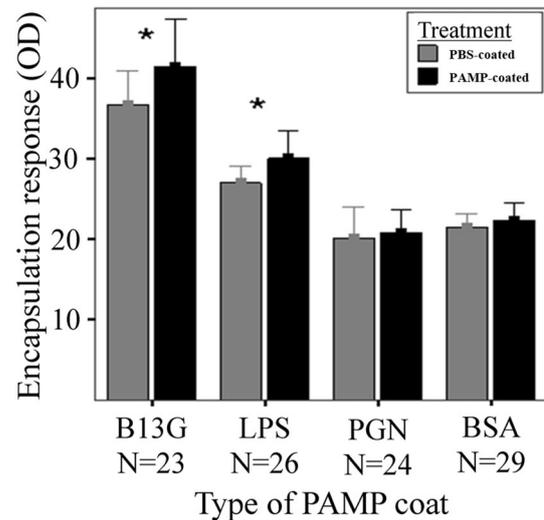
There were no significant effects of PAMP concentration on ER (Two-way ANOVA,  $F = 1.12$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p = 0.35$ ) (Supp. Fig. 1). As such, data from all samples were combined within the singly- and doubly implanted groups. Overall, the PAMPlants induced higher ERs than the control (PBS, BSA) implants (Figs. 1, 2).

In 2008, honey bees with a single implant exhibited a significantly upregulated ER in response to each of the three PAMPs when compared with the control (PBS-coated) implants (One-way ANOVA,  $F = 8.71$ ,  $df = 3.70$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). There were no significant differences in ER across the three PAMP treatments (Fig. 1).

In 2009, within doubly implanted individuals, PAMPlants induced stronger responses than PBS-coated implants. Compared with the PBS-coated control, this relationship was significant for two PAMPs: B13G (paired  $t$  test,  $t = 3.30$ ,  $df = 22$ ,  $p = 0.02$ ), and LPS (paired  $t$  test,  $t = 1.85$ ,  $df = 25$ ,  $p = 0.04$ ) (Fig. 2). PGN and BSA showed no overall difference from the internal PBS control. There was no effect of side (left



**Fig. 1** Mean encapsulation response (as measured via optical density, OD) of singly implanted honey bees (*Apis mellifera*)  $\pm 1$  SE. Adult bees were implanted with one PAMP-coated or PBS-coated monofilament. OD of each implant was quantified using fluorescence microscopy and imageJ software to measure the encapsulation response around the implants. Asterisks indicate  $p < 0.05$  between coated implants (“PAMPlants” and control PBS-coated implants using Tukey HSD pairwise comparisons). All coated implants nearly doubled the immune response compared to the control. Sample sizes ( $N$ ) indicate the number of bees singly implanted. B13G  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan (fungal PAMP); LPS lipopolysaccharide (Gram-negative bacteria PAMP); PGN peptidoglycan (Gram-positive bacteria PAMP)



**Fig. 2** Mean encapsulation response (as measured via optical density, OD) of doubly implanted honey bees (*Apis mellifera*)  $\pm 1$  SE. Adult bees were doubly implanted with two nylon monofilaments. One monofilament was PBS-coated, while the other was coated in one of the four types of molecules:  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan (B13G), lipopolysaccharide (LPS), peptidoglycan (PGN), or bovine serum albumin (BSA). The optical density (OD) of implants was quantified using fluorescence microscopy and imageJ software to measure the encapsulation response around the implants. Asterisks indicate  $p < 0.05$  between the PAMPlant and the internal control using paired  $t$  tests. Sample sizes ( $N$ ) indicate the number of bees doubly implanted

versus right) on ER. Across all treatments, doubly implanted individuals had the strongest ER to B13G (Tukey’s HSD,  $p_{B13G-LPS} = 0.03$ ,  $p_{B13G-PGN} < 0.001$ ,  $p_{B13G-BSA} < 0.001$ ). There was no difference in ER between LPS, PGN, or BSA within doubly implanted treatments.

## Discussion

Using a simple technique, Metchnikoff discovered the process of ER in invertebrates resulting in a better understanding of cellular immunity and paving the way for modern advancements in assay methods (see Table 1). Building upon these approaches, we report results from a method for testing more specific immune function in a social insect. Our results suggest that the evolution of physiological immunity in insect societies is likely context dependent: both the relaxed selection hypothesis and the social group hypothesis could hold true, depending on the invader.

Our experimental honey bees exhibited a stronger ER when exposed to foreign bodies coated with molecules found on pathogens (i.e., PAMPs). As these PAMPs are conserved molecules found on and in the cell wall of bacteria and fungi (see Postel and Kemmerling (2009)), it is not surprising that hosts evolved to recognize PAMPs as

foreign cues, and induce an appropriate immune response to clear them. Uncoated implants are foreign and elicit an immune response (Table 1); however, our findings suggest that results gathered from uncoated or PBS-coated implants may not account for the specificity and/or degree of insect immune response.

When compared with control treatments, singly implanted individuals showed a greater immune response to all PAM-Plants. The doubly implanted individuals exhibited a significantly stronger immune response to B13G and LPS when compared with internal controls. These data suggest that while Lopez-Urbe et al. (2016) found reduced ER to LPS in social insect lineages, physiological immunity is likely still important for these two classes of pathogens. B13G PAM-Plants are a good candidate to build upon results found by Lopez-Urbe et al. (2016) as honey bees use both behavioral and physiological immunity to combat fungal invaders. Behavioral immunity is used to combat a common fungal pathogen, *Ascosphaera apis* (chalkbrood) (Starks et al. 2000), while physiological immunity is used to combat more virulent fungal diseases caused by *Aspergillus* and *Nosema* spp. (Glinski and Jaroz 2001; Li et al. 2017; Paxton et al. 2007).

There was no difference in ER for individuals doubly implanted with PGN and the PBS-coated implant. In accordance with our results, it has been shown that honey bees protect the colony from Gram-positive infections, such as *Paenibacillus larvae* (American foulbrood), via hygienic behavior (Spivak and Reuter 2001). Hence, in honey bees, as predicted by the social group hypothesis, social immunity may be more important than individual immunity when it comes to defending against Gram-positive pathogens. Alternatively, the lack of ER in response to PGN in doubly implanted individuals could stem from the evolutionary relationship between honey bees and their microbial symbionts. Worldwide, *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* spp. are found in the gut microbiome of adult bees; both species are likely important for metabolism and immune function [Raymann and Moran (2018) and references therein].

Interestingly, the immune response to single implants was nearly double that of doubly implanted individuals. One possible explanation for this finding is that the immune response was divided between the two foreign bodies, albeit unevenly. Although these data were collected over two different years, we feel confident in this explanation as this uneven response was also observed by Allander and Schmid-Hempel (2000) in bumble bees. The bumble bee immune response to a primary immune challenge (either an implant or infection with *Crithida bombi*) was higher than the immune response to a second implant in the same individual. Our study is the first to show the possible division of the immune response in an individual with multiple, *simultaneous*, physical insults. Depending

on the study system and the question being asked, this simultaneous internal control may be more ecologically relevant: honey bees can be plagued by multiple parasites and pathogens at the same time.

In contrast to the single implant trials, the data in our paired implant trials were not uniform. In the paired implant trials, honey bees showed a stronger response to fungi (B13G) over Gram-negative bacteria (LPS) and even more so over Gram-positive bacteria (PGN). We speculate that this makes sense both evolutionarily and ecologically; as mentioned earlier, colonies are commonly plagued by microsporidian *Apsergillus* and *Nosema* spp. (Glinski and Jaroz 2001; Li et al. 2017; Paxton et al. 2007).

Although our focus is on ER, the immune response is multi-faceted and insect societies have myriad weapons for thwarting disease. The ER mode of immunity is particularly important and is associated with physiological disease resistance to virally infected cells (Trudeau et al. 2001; Washburn et al. 1996), parasitoids (Carton and David 1983; Kraaijeveld et al. 2001), and parasites (Doums and Schmid-Hempel 2000). Indeed, the phenoloxidase (PO) cascade is similarly important, as it plays a complementary role in the ER process by contributing to resistance to bacteria (Ashida and Brey 1997; Pye 1974), fungi (Ochiai and Ashida 1988), viruses (Beck and Strand 2007; Wilson et al. 2001), parasites (Gorman et al. 1996; Leonard et al. 1985; Paskewitz and Riehle 1994), and parasitoids (Wilson et al. 2001). The single measure of immune function reported here (ER) has provided important information to researchers interested the evolutionary dynamics of host/pathogen relationships (Table 1).

Our PAMPlant technique enables researchers to explore the mechanism associated with defense against specific classes of microbes on host disease resistance. Data presented here confirm the specificity of the invertebrate immune system. Accordingly, understanding immune responses to historically common pathogens will be facilitated using biologically inspired techniques. Each study in Table 1 documents an opportunity to dig deeper and understand the degree to which immune function interacts with sex, behavior, dominance, mate choice, foraging ability, energetics, diet, habitat type, infection risk, co-infection, individual and colony condition, ontogeny, and invasion biology. Moreover, comparative studies using social species as a study system will help us better understand the evolution of disease resistance in insect societies, as well as the evolution of sociality.

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