

Aphid facultative symbionts confer no protection against the fungal entomopathogen *Batkoa apiculata*

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15 ABSTRACT

16
17 Fungi in the family *Entomophthoraceae* are prevalent pathogens of aphids. Facultative symbiotic bacteria
18 harbored by aphids, including *Spiroplasma sp.* and *Regiella insecticola*, have been shown to make their
19 hosts more resistant to infection with the fungal pathogen *Pandora neoaphidis*. How far this protection
20 extends against other species of fungi in the family *Entomophthoraceae* is unknown. Here we isolated a
21 strain of the fungal pathogen *Batkoa apiculata* infecting a natural population of pea aphids
22 (*Acyrtosiphon pisum*) and confirmed its identity by sequencing the 28S rRNA gene. We then infected a
23 panel of aphids each harboring a different species or strain of endosymbiotic bacteria to test whether
24 aphid symbionts protect against *B. apiculata*. We found no evidence of symbiont-mediated protection
25 against this pathogen, and our data suggest that some symbionts make aphids more susceptible to
26 infection. This finding is relevant to our understanding of this important model of host-microbe
27 interactions, and we discuss our results in the context of aphid-microbe ecological and evolutionary
28 dynamics.

29 INTRODUCTION

30

31 Fungal entomopathogens are important natural enemies of aphids. Field studies have found that aphids
32 are infected by multiple species of fungi, including specialist pathogens in the family *Entomophthoraceae*
33 (e.g., *Pandora neoaphidis*) and generalist insect pathogens like *Beauveria bassiana* [1-3]. Upon contact,
34 fungal spores germinate and penetrate an aphid's cuticle, after which hyphal cells proliferate in the
35 hemolymph and kill the aphid [4]. After host death, the fungus forms infective conidia that are released
36 into the environment for transmission to new hosts. Pathogenic fungi have been studied for their potential
37 use as biocontrol agents of plant pests like aphids [5].

38

39 The success of a fungal pathogen after aphid exposure is influenced by various factors including the
40 host's microbiome. The microbial community of the aphid has been shown to be particularly important in
41 resistance to the fungal pathogen *P. neoaphidis* [6]. Certain strains of several species of heritable (i.e.
42 transmitted from mothers to offspring) bacteria including *Regiella insecticola*, *Rickettsia sp.*, *Rickettsiella*
43 *sp.*, and *Spiroplasma sp.* make aphids less likely to become infected with *P. neoaphidis* after exposure
44 [7]. These symbionts are referred to as 'facultative' symbionts because they are found at intermediate
45 frequencies in natural populations and are not required for aphid survival [8]—benefiting aphids through
46 pathogen protection is thought to be a factor in the spread and maintenance of facultative symbionts in
47 natural aphid populations. The mechanism of this protection is not yet known, but could include the
48 production of an anti-fungal toxin or competition for a shared resource within a host [9, 10].

49

50 Though many species of fungal pathogens infect aphids, little is known about the extent to which
51 facultative symbionts protect against fungal entomopathogens other than *P. neoaphidis*. Parker et al.
52 (2013) found that *R. insecticola* also protects against *Zoophthora occidentalis* [11], which like *P.*
53 *neoaphidis* is a specialist pathogen (that only infect aphids) in the family *Entomophthoraceae*. That study
54 also found no protection against the insect generalist fungal pathogen *Beauveria bassiana* and
55 hypothesized that symbiont mediated protection might be evolving in response to the more intense
56 selective pressure imposed by specialist rather than generalist pathogens. However, *B. bassiana*
57 (phylum Ascomycota) is a very distantly related species to *P. neoaphidis* and *Z. occidentalis* (phylum
58 Entomophthoromycota [12]). Here we studied the fungal pathogen *Batkoa apiculata*, which is closely
59 related to *P. neoaphidis* and *Z. occidentalis* (which are all members of the family *Entomophthoraceae*)
60 but is a generalist fungal pathogen that affects insect hosts across Hemiptera, Hymenoptera, and Diptera
61 [13, 14].

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63 We collected fungal entomopathogens from field aphids in Knoxville, TN, in 2022 and used molecular
64 techniques to determine the species of each fungal isolate. We then established a panel of aphids that

each had the same host genotype with a single infection of a facultative symbiont including strains of *Regiella* and *Spiroplasma* that we have found to be protective against *P. neoaphidis* [15-17] and *Serratia symbiotica*, which confers no protection against *P. neoaphidis*. We found that aphid facultative symbionts do not protect against *B. apiculata*, and we discuss these results within the context of aphid-symbiont-pathogen coevolution.

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METHODS

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Fungal isolation. Our first objective was to isolate and collect fungal pathogens from natural aphid populations and establish these isolates in the lab for use in experiments. We collected pea aphids (*Acyrtosiphon pisum*) from Knoxville, TN, USA in 2022 from multiple host plant species, and we housed aphids from the field in Petri dishes with leaf material embedded in 2% agar. Upon aphid death and signs of fungal infection, we inverted sporulating aphids over uninfected laboratory-reared adult pea aphids (from the LSR1-01 genotype that does not harbor any facultative symbionts [18]) to expose them to spores. Exposed aphids were then housed on broad bean plants in a sealed cup cage at high humidity (>95%) for 3 days, after which they were moved to fresh plants at low humidity. Aphids that become infected with fungus produce dried resting cadavers that can be stored at 4°C. These dried cadavers can be induced to sporulate in experiments by placing them overnight on 2% tap water agar, after which they begin to release spores.

For the fungal isolates we were able to establish in the lab, we induced sporulation from resting cadavers over a microscope slide, and visually identified fungal species by looking at primary conidia shape under a light microscope. Most isolates had the characteristic “clavate,” “ovoid,” or “pear-shape” of *P. neoaphidis* [4], but several isolates had spherical spores and were clearly a different species. We selected one of these isolates (collected from an aphid feeding on *Vicia sativa*) for further molecular characterization and use in experiments.

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Species identification using molecular methods. Fungi within both the genus *Batkoa* and the genus *Conidiobolus* have primary conidia that are the same size and produce similar rhizoids and are difficult to distinguish morphologically. Therefore, we used molecular methods to identify the species of fungal pathogen used in this study. We collected spores by inducing resting cadavers to sporulate as above, and extracted DNA from the spores using a Phenol-Chloroform extraction with Bender grinding buffer [19] and an ethanol precipitation. We amplified part of the ribosomal DNA sequence (the large subunit LSU) using established primers and protocols (forward: 5'-ACCCGCTGAACTTAAGC-3') and (reverse: 5'-TCCTGAGGGAACTTCG-3') [20]. We excised a band at the expected size of approximately 1kb and purified the amplicon using the Zymo Gel DNA Recovery Kit, which we then sent for Sanger sequencing in both the forward and reverse directions. We generated consensus sequences by aligning the F and R

sequences, and we compared the consensus sequence against the NCBI nr/nt Nucleotide collection using megaBLAST. To build a phylogeny of other species in the genus *Batkoa*, we downloaded all of the LSU sequences from NCBI in the genus *Batkoa* (or those isolates from species labeled as being from the genus *Conidiobolus* that have been subsequently re-classified into the genus *Batkoa* [21, 22]) that are from the USDA ARSEF catalog which include the type strains of each species. We built a neighbor-joining consensus tree of 10 aligned sequences (via Clustal Omega) using the HKY genetic distance model and the Bootstrap resampling method made in Geneious Tree Builder (v.2022.2.2).

Aphid symbiont panel establishment and rearing. We used a single pea aphid (*A. pisum*) genotype in this study called LSR1-01, isolated from Alfalfa near Ithaca, NY in 1998 [18]. This line originally harbored *R. insecticola* and was cured using 1% ampicillin (which does not affect the obligate symbiont *Buchnera aphidicola* [23]). We maintained this line on fava beans in the laboratory at 20°C with a 16L:8D photoperiod. We then established secondary symbiont infections using established protocols. Briefly, we injected a small volume of hemolymph from an infected aphid into the thorax of a 1st instar aphid and reared it to adulthood. The donor aphids used were aphid lines which each harbored only a single facultative symbiont infection, as determined by PCR screening using species-specific primers (Table S1) [24]. Primers to amplify each symbiont species were adjusted to a final concentration of 0.2µM in Quick-Load *Taq* 2X Master Mix (NEB) solution. The PCR protocol had the following conditions including a ‘touchdown’ amplification step: An initial denaturation of 94°C for 2 min, followed by 36 cycles of 94°C for 20s, 56°C declining by 1°C per cycle until the annealing temperature is 45°C for 50s, and 72°C for 30s, followed by a final extension of 72°C for 5 minutes [24].

We then collected offspring from the injected aphid late in the birth order and established lines from a single aphid. We screened the lines for the injected microbe to confirm the establishment of the infection, and waited at least 10 generations before using the lines in these experiments, at which point the lines were screened again for symbionts using PCR. Using these methods we generated an aphid panel that consisted of seven lines all with the same aphid genetic background (LSR1) but each with a single infection of a different symbiont. Four of the lines harbored *R. insecticola*: strains .313, .CF7, and .LSR were collected from pea aphids. *R. insecticola* strain .515 was collected from *Myzus persicae* [25] and has been shown in previous work to confer no protection against *P. neoaphidis* [15]. Another line harbored a fungal-protective strain of *Spiroplasma* sp. (strain .161) [16]. Finally, we included a line harboring a strain of *Serratia symbiotica*, a species that has not been shown to confer protection against fungal pathogens in aphids. We also included aphids that harbored no facultative symbionts. Together, this panel reflects a range of phenotypic variation in terms of fungal protection against *P. neoaphidis*, including protective and non-protective strains of *Regiella*, and protective and non-protective species of other symbionts.

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138 **Fungal infection protocol.** We hydrated dried *B. apiculata* cadavers that had been stored at 4°C by
139 placing them on tap water agar for 12h overnight. We then infected between 139 and 154 aphids from
140 each line in the panel across two experimental blocks, which were carried out in June and July of 2022,
141 respectively. We subjected adult aphids (at 11 days old, as in previous studies [26]) to a spore shower
142 from 2-3 fungal cadavers in an infection chamber, with all of the aphids from a line together in the
143 chamber as in previous studies for other entomopathogens [27]. We rotated the fungal cadavers among
144 the infection chambers to ensure an equal spore dose across aphid lines. We have used this protocol
145 previously for infections with other fungal entomopathogens to control for fungal cadaver age, pathogen
146 dose, and cadaver quality [26]. After infection, we maintained aphids on plants with cages covered in
147 parafilm to keep the humidity high (> 95%), which is needed for entomopathogen infection. We
148 maintained aphids at 20°C for 48h, and then moved aphids to new plants with unvented cages. The
149 experiment was blinded (e.g., each cage was assigned a random number so data collection was blind to
150 treatment), and we recorded the number of fungal cadavers present in each cage at day 8 of the
151 experiment. Though we aimed to keep the infection protocol as consistent as possible across blocks,
152 differences in the ambient humidity in the lab and the age of the dried cadavers used for the infection (i.e.
153 number of days stored after passaging) could have contributed to differences in infection rate between
154 the two experimental blocks.

155

156 **Statistical Analysis.** We analyzed fungal sporulation using binomial logistic regression implemented in
157 R v.4.0.2 (using the 'glm' function with family = 'binomial'). Aphid symbiont background and block were
158 modeled as fixed effects. The overall significance of each term was determined by deriving minimal
159 models and comparing model fit using ANOVA and Chisq statistics. Post-hoc analyses of symbiont
160 strain/species were conducted using the Multcomp package [28], comparing infection of each aphid line
161 with the symbiont-free line.

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164 RESULTS

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166 We obtained a 932 bp consensus sequence for our fungal isolate's LSU sequence with Sanger
167 sequencing, which we deposited in NCBI GenBank with accession number OQ087127. Using
168 MegaBLAST, we found a hit that was 100% identical across 100% of the query cover with "*Batkoa*
169 *apiculata* strain ARSEF 3130." Like our fungal isolate, this strain is listed as being isolated from a pea
170 aphid in the ARSEF catalog. Other BLAST hits were from fungal pathogens in the genus *Batkoa*,
171 including *Conidiobolus pseudapiculatus* (now *B. pseudapiculatus*) [21, 22] strains ARSEF 1662 (96.46%
172 identical) and ARSEF 395 (96.45% identical) and *C. obscurus* ARSEF 74 (from TYPE material, now

called *B. obscurus* [21, 22]) at 88.29%, *B. gigantea* strain ARSEF 214 (85.65% identical) and several strains of *B. major*. A phylogenetic analysis that included these sequences placed our isolate in a well-supported clade with *B. apiculata* ARSEF 1662 (Figure 1). We should note that there was a strong blast hit (99.89% identical) to a strain labeled in NCBI as *B. obscurus* (strain CBS), but we think this record is actually a mis-identified isolate of *B. apiculata* because it is not from the ARSEF catalog, because it is significantly different from the type material for *B. obscurus*, and because there is limited detail on this isolate available from the associated paper [22]. Based on these sequencing results and our phylogenetic analysis, we identified our fungal isolate as *B. apiculata*.

In symbiont-free aphids, approximately 20% of aphids developed a fungal cadaver by the end of the experiment (Figure 2). We found that block influenced *B. apiculata* sporulation (Chisq = 34.8, 1DF, $p < 0.0001$), with 31.2% and 13.6% of aphids producing a sporulating cadaver in blocks 1 and 2, respectively. Symbiont species also had a significant effect on sporulation (Figure 2; Chisq = 32.3, 6DF, $p < 0.0001$). Aphids harboring a 'clade 2' *Regiella* had a higher rate of sporulation over symbiont-free aphids in a post-hoc analysis (.CF7: $z = 2.9$, $p = 0.018$). Overall, our results provide no evidence of symbiont mediated protection from aphid symbionts against *B. apiculata*.

DISCUSSION

Interactions between aphids, facultative symbionts, and natural enemies are studied as a model for host-microbe coevolution. Though many studies have focused on symbiont mediated protection in aphids against *P. neoaphidis*, the extent to which this protection extends to other fungal entomopathogen species is less well understood. We show that aphid facultative symbionts confer no protection against the fungal pathogen *B. apiculata*, which is found in natural populations of aphids across multiple continents. In fact, we found that aphids harboring one strain of *R. insecticola* (.CF7) appear to be more susceptible to *B. apiculata* infection. This strain comes from a specific clade of *Regiella* (referred to as 'clade 2' in the literature [24]) that we have found establishes at extremely high densities within hosts [26] by suppressing aphid innate immune genes like Phenoloxidase [17, 29]. One possibility is that reduced expression of Phenoloxidase, which is an important component of aphid immunity to fungal pathogens [30, 31], makes aphids more susceptible to fungal pathogens like *B. apiculata* in the absence of symbiont mediated protection. Alternatively, the high density of these strains could impose physiological costs on hosts that make them less able to fight off fungal infection.

Previous studies have found that aphid heritable symbionts confer protection against fungal pathogens in the family *Entomophthoraceae* but not against a distantly related generalist pathogen called *Beauveria*

209 *bassiana* [11]. Most species in the family *Entomophthoraceae* are specialists at the level of insect family
210 or order [32], but several species in the basal genus *Batkoa* [22], including *B. apiculata*, have been found
211 to be generalists (and an interesting possibility raised in the literature is that generalism might be more
212 common among basal lineages [14]). Our study therefore provides an important data point about the
213 patterns of symbiont mediated protection against fungal pathogens in aphids: a pathogen in the family
214 *Entomophthoraceae* that is a generalist rather than a specialist. Across several studies, there is a
215 consistent pattern of symbiont mediated protection occurring against aphid specialist pathogens (*P.*
216 *neoaphidis* and *Z. occidentalis*) but not generalists (*B. bassiana* and *B. apiculata*)—this could suggest
217 that the more intense selective pressure imposed on hosts by specialist pathogens is needed to drive the
218 evolution of symbiont mediated protection. Uncovering the molecular mechanisms of fungal protection in
219 this system would shed light on many of these questions.

220

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321

322 FIGURE LEGENDS

323
324 **Figure 1: Placement of the fungal isolate used in this study within the genus *Batkoa*.** A neighbor-
325 joining consensus tree of 10 aligned sequences using the HKY genetic distance model and the Bootstrap
326 resampling method made in Geneious Tree Builder. The phylogeny includes all of the publicly available
327 LSU sequences of fungi in the genus *Batkoa* from the USDA ARSEF catalog. The right of the figure
328 shows the original collection host insect species of each isolate as recorded in the catalog.

329
330 **Figure 2: Fungal infection results.** The y-axis shows the percentage of aphids that developed a
331 characteristic *B. apiculata* cadaver. Each rectangular bar shows the 95% confidence interval, with the
332 mean shown by the grey line. The x-axis shows the strain and species of each symbiont used in the
333 panel. Symbiont-free aphids are shown to the left of the figure. Statistical significance at $p < 0.05$ is
334 indicated along the top of the figure as determined by a post-hoc analysis comparing each aphid line
335 harboring a symbiont with symbiont-free aphids.

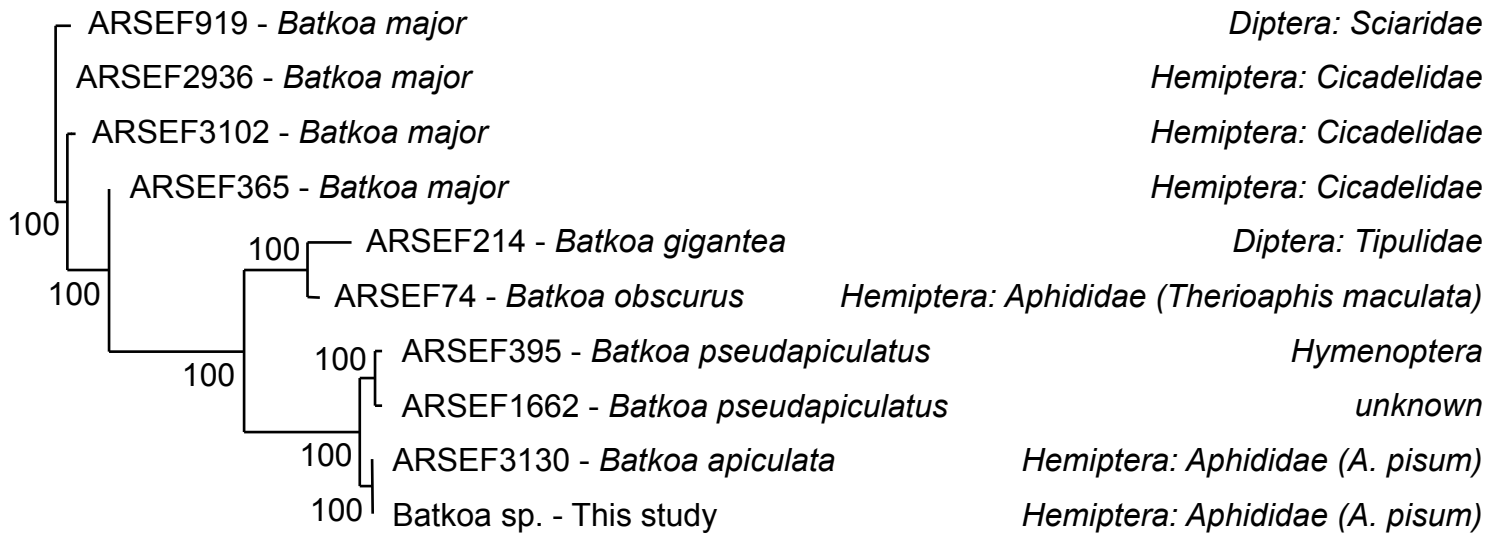
336

337 Table S1: PCR primers used for symbiont screening.
338

Organism	Gene	Forward name	Forward Primer 5' to 3'	Reverse name	Reverse Primer 5' to 3'
<i>Hamiltonella defensa.</i>	16S rRNA	10F	AGTTTGATCATGGCTCAGATTG	T419R	AAATGGTATTSGCATTATCG
<i>Regiella insecticola</i>	16S rRNA	10F	AGTTTGATCATGGCTCAGATTG	TO419R	GGTAACGTCAATCGATAAGCA
<i>Serratia symbiotica</i>	16S rRNA	16SA1	AGAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG	16S.S2R	TTTGAGTTCCCGACTTTATCG
<i>Fukatsuia symbiotica</i>	16S rRNA	20F	AGTTTGATCATGGCTCAGATTG	X420R	GCAACACTCTTTGCATTGCT
<i>Rickettsia</i> sp.	16S rRNA	16SA1	AGAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG	16S.Ri2R	TTTGAAAGCAATTCCGAGGT
<i>Spiroplasma</i> sp.	dnaA	SpDnaAF1	ATTCTTCAGTAAAAATGCTTGGA	SpDnaAR1	ACACATTTACTTCATGCTATTGA
<i>Rickettsiella</i> sp.	16S rRNA	RCL16S-211F	GGGCCTTGCGCTCTAGGT	RCL16S-470R	TGGGTACCGTCACAGTAATCGA

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340

Original host of each isolate:



0.04

