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1	Wolbachia-mediated protection against viruses in the invasive pest Drosophila suzukii
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25 Abstract

The maternally inherited bacterium Wolbachia is well known for spreading in natural populations by manipulating the reproduction of its arthropod hosts, but can also have mutualist effects that increase host fitness. In mosquitoes and Drosophila some Wolbachia strains can lead to an increase in survival of virus-infected insects, and in most cases this is associated with reduced accumulation of the virus in host tissues. We have investigated if the Wolbachia strain wSuz, which naturally infects Drosophila suzukii, is able to confer protection against Drosophila C Virus (DCV) and Flock House Virus (FHV) in different host genetic backgrounds and we found that this strain can increase host survival upon infection with these two viruses. In some cases this effect was associated with lower viral titers suggesting that it is conferring resistance to the viruses rather than allowing the flies to tolerate infection. Our results indicate that, in *D. suzukii*, the antiviral protection provided by Wolbachia is not correlated to its density as found in other Drosophila species. This study demonstrates a phenotypic effect induced by wSuz on its native host which could explain its maintenance in natural populations of D. suzukii.

49 Introduction

Drosophila suzukii (Matsumura, 1931) (Diptera: Drosophilidae), the spotted-wing 50 Drosophila, is an invasive species native to South East Asia (Kanzawa, 1936). It was 51 originally described in Japan in 1916 and, within the last decade, it has been observed for the 52 first time in California (Hauser, 2011), in Spain and in Italy (Calabria et al., 2012) in 2008, 53 and then quickly spread throughout North America and Europe (Cini et al., 2012) and more 54 recently in Brazil (Deprá et al., 2014). In contrast to the vast majority of Drosophila species, 55 56 D. suzukii is an agricultural pest because its serrated ovipositor allows it to lay eggs on healthy ripening fruits still attached to the plant (Mitsui et al., 2006). Damage is caused by 57 larvae feeding on the pulp inside the fruits and berries. As a consequence D. suzukii can have 58 59 a severe economic impact, such as in the Western United States where it causes losses of up to US\$500 millions per year (Goodhue et al., 2011). Because of its remarkable invasive 60 success and impact on agricultural production, D. suzukii is currently subjected to intense 61 research from both fundamental and applied perspectives. 62

Until now little was known about the symbiotic community of D. suzukii, despite 63 64 maternally-inherited symbionts being common and important components of arthropod biology and ecology (Zchori-Fein & Bourtzis, 2011). Some studies revealed that D. suzukii 65 naturally harbors Wolbachia (Cordaux et al., 2008; Siozios et al., 2013; Hamm et al., 2014; 66 67 Cattel et al., 2016), which is the most common endosymbiont in arthropods with an estimation of 52% of arthropod species infected (Weinert et al., 2015). Only one strain of 68 Wolbachia has been identified in field populations of D. suzukii based on MLST markers, at 69 70 least in North America and in Europe, which is closely related to wRi (Siozios et al., 2013; 71 Hamm et al., 2014; Cattel et al., 2016). In many associations, the spread of Wolbachia in the host populations is achieved through their capacity to manipulate host reproduction either by 72

biasing the host's sex ratio towards the production of females or, more commonly, by 73 impeding the reproduction of uninfected females through a sterility phenomenon called 74 75 Cytoplasmic Incompatibility (CI) (Werren et al., 2008). Theory predicts that the spread of CIinducing Wolbachia in a population is under positive frequency-dependence and that their 76 maintenance depends on their transmission efficiency and on the intensity of CI (Turelli & 77 Hoffmann, 1995). Wolbachia can also successfully invade host populations by bringing direct 78 fitness benefits to infected individuals such as increasing fecundity (Dobson et al., 2002; 79 80 Dobson et al., 2004; Fry et al., 2004; Weeks et al., 2007; Unckless & Jaenike, 2012), longevity (Gavotte et al., 2010; Brelsfoard & Dobson, 2011; Alexandrov et al., 2007; 81 Toivonen et al., 2007) or provisioning nutrients (Brownlie & Johnson, 2009; Hosokawa et al., 82 83 2010; Unckless & Jaenike, 2012). In addition, Wolbachia can protect its host against viruses (Hedges et al., 2008; Teixeira et al., 2008; Osborne et al., 2009; Bian et al., 2010; Glaser et 84 al., 2010; Blagrove et al., 2012). Such benefits could explain the presence in natural 85 populations of Wolbachia strains that do not appear to rely on the reproductive manipulation 86 to spread. For example, the strain wMel, which induces a very low level of CI (Hoffmann et 87 88 al., 1994; Hoffmann et al., 1998), might be maintained in populations of D. melanogaster 89 because of positive effects such as the protection it confers against several RNA viruses (Hedges et al., 2008; Teixeira et al., 2008). Similarly, wAu, which naturally infects D. 90 91 simulans, does not induce CI but confers strong protection against viruses (Osborne et al., 2009; Martinez et al., 2014). This antiviral protection, which has been observed only in 92 Drosophila and mosquitoes, has been shown to be highly variable according to the host 93 94 species and the Wolbachia strain (Hedges et al., 2008; Teixeira et al., 2008; Osborne et al., 2009; Moreira et al., 2009; Mousson et al., 2010; Chrostek et al., 2013; Chrostek et al., 2014; 95 Martinez et al., 2014). 96

97 Previous studies found that the prevalence of wSuz is highly variable in populations of D. suzukii from North America (7 to 58%) and Europe (0 to 100%) (Hamm et al., 2014; Cattel et 98 al., 2016) and, until now, there is no indication that this strain can induce strong reproductive 99 manipulations in D. suzukii such as CI nor male killing (Hamm et al., 2014; Cattel et al., 100 2016). Moreover, in North American populations, it has been shown that wSuz is imperfectly 101 vertically transmitted by wild-caught D. suzukii females, which would cause the bacterium to 102 be lost from the population in the absence of any selection (Hamm et al., 2014). All these 103 104 results suggest that wSuz may bring a fitness advantage to D. suzukii but yet no effect has been found on fecundity, starvation tolerance or resistance to desiccation (Hamm et al., 105 2014). 106

107 wSuz belongs to the supergroup A (Siozios et al., 2013), which contains several Wolbachia strains known to induce antiviral protection (Martinez et al., 2014). In the present 108 study, we have thus tested whether wSuz can protect D. suzukii against viruses. Four host 109 lines were compared, two from France, a country which was recently invaded by D. suzukii, 110 and two from Japan, its native range (Cini et al., 2012; Asplen et al., 2015). Two RNA 111 112 viruses were tested, Drosophila C virus (DCV; highly pathogenic Drosophila virus) and the Flock House virus (FHV; isolated from a beetle) (Scotti et al., 1983; Huszar & Imler, 2008). 113 We found that wSuz is able to protect D. suzukii against these two viruses but that the 114 115 antiviral protection is very variable between the host lines. This beneficial effect could explain its maintenance in natural populations. 116

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121 **Results**

122 Wolbachia protects D. suzukii against DCV infection

We measured the survival of Fr-CP (antibiotic-treated line) and Jp-OGH (introgressed line) 123 flies uninfected or infected respectively with a French and Japanese Wolbachia isolate after 124 inoculation with DCV (400 flies) or saline solution (Ringer, 400 flies) (Fig. 1A). In the mock-125 infected flies (Ringer's control treatment), the survival of Wolbachia-free and Wolbachia-126 infected individuals was not significantly different, indicating that there is no intrinsic effect 127 of *Wolbachia* on the fly survival (Cox's mixed effect model; Main effect *Wolbachia*: $\chi^2=0.92$, 128 d.f.=1, P=0.337; Host genotype x Wolbachia interaction: γ^2 =1.57, d.f.=1, P=0.210). However, 129 the Fr-CP line had higher survival than the Jp-OGH line (Cox's mixed effect model; χ^2 =8.78, 130 131 d.f.=1, *P*=0.003).

We found that *Wolbachia* increased the survival of flies infected with DCV (Cox's mixed effect model: χ^2 =21.74, d.f.=2, *P*<0.001; Fig. 1A) but the effect is significant for the Fr-CP line only (Cox's mixed effect model, Host genotype x *Wolbachia* interaction: χ^2 =4.1, d.f.=1, *P*=0.043; Tukey test, *P*<0.001 for Fr-CP and P=0.99 for Jp-OGH). As Fr-CP and Jp-OGH lines differ in both the host and bacterial genotypes, either of these may be causing the difference.

The DCV titer was lower in *Wolbachia*-infected flies than in uninfected ones (Twoway ANOVA, F=15.22, d.f.=1, P<0.001; Fig. 1B), and this effect of *Wolbachia* did not depend on the line (Two-way ANOVA, *Wolbachia* x host interaction: F=0.45, d.f.=1, P=0.509; Fig. 1B).

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145 Wolbachia effect on FHV infection

Given the difference in the degree to which wSuz increases the survival of D. suzukii after 146 DCV infection between lines we then investigated the effect of wSuz on FHV infection in 147 four genetic backgrounds: the effect of the French Wolbachia isolate, wSuz-Fr, in two French 148 backgrounds Fr-CP and Fr-BE, and the effect of the Japanese isolate, wSuz-Jp, in two 149 Japanese backgrounds Jp-OGH and Jp-YSG. A total of 800 flies were stabbed with FHV and 150 800 others with Ringer's solution (Fig. 2A). In the absence of viral infection neither 151 Wolbachia nor the host genetic background affected survival (Ringer control treatment, Cox's 152 mixed effect model, *Wolbachia* effect: $\chi^2=1.83$, d.f.=1, *P*=0.180; host effect: $\chi^2=1.43$, d.f.=3, 153 *P*=0.7; *Wolbachia* x host interaction: χ^2 =1.22, d.f.=3, *P*=0.750). 154

In FHV-infected flies, survival was significantly affected by the Wolbachia infection 155 $(\chi^2=31.88, d.f.=4, P<0.001)$, the host genetic background $(\chi^2=39.55, d.f.=6, P<0.001)$ and we 156 found a significant interaction between these two factors (χ^2 =14.99, d.f.=3, *P*=0.002). Because 157 we cannot exclude the possibility that the French and the Japanese lines are infected by a 158 different Wolbachia isolate (wSuz-Fr and wSuz-Jp respectively), we also tested the Wolbachia 159 160 and the host genetic background effects on infected flies' survival for the French and Japanese lines separately. The French lines survival was significantly affected by the Wolbachia 161 infection (χ^2 =17.75, d.f.=2, P<0.001), the host genetic background (χ^2 =34.14, d.f.=2, 162 *P*<0,001) but there was no significant interaction between these two factors (χ^2 =3.73, d.f.=1, 163 P=0.053). In the Japanese lines, the survival rate was affected by the Wolbachia infection 164 $(\chi^2=14.18, d.f.=2, P<0.001)$, the host genetic background $(\chi^2=10.54, d.f.=2, P=0.005)$ and we 165 detected a significant interaction between these two factors (χ^2 =8.41, d.f.=1, P=0.004). By 166 comparison with the uninfected lines, the wSuz infection significantly increased the survival 167 of the Fr-BE and the Jp-YSG backgrounds (Tukey HSD, P=0.012 and P<0.001 respectively) 168

while it did not affect the survival of the Fr-CP and the Jp-OGH backgrounds (CP line, *P*=0.191; OGH line, *P*=0.849) (Fig. 2A).

171 As for DCV, we also measured FHV titers and we found a significant effect of both the Wolbachia infection status (Two-way ANOVA, F=5.04, d.f.=1, P=0.03) and the host 172 genetic background (Two-way ANOVA, F=98.88, d.f.=1 P<0.001) on the RNA copy number 173 (Fig. 2B), with a significant interaction between these two factors (Two-way ANOVA, 174 F=11.54, d.f.=1, P < 0.001). As for the survival data analysis, we tested the influence of the 175 176 presence of Wolbachia and the host genetic background for the French and the Japanese lines separately. For the French lines the RNA copy number was affected by Wolbachia infection 177 (Two-way ANOVA, F=4.32, d.f.=1, P=0.045), the host genetic background (Two-way 178 179 ANOVA, F=189.82, d.f.=1, P<0.001) with a significant interaction between these two factors (Two-way ANOVA, F=21.01 d.f.=1, P<0.001). For the Japanese lines, we also found a 180 significant interaction between the Wolbachia infection and the host genetic background 181 (Two-way ANOVA, F=13.18, d.f.=1 P<0.001), a significant effect of the host genetic 182 background (Two-way ANOVA, F=88.80 d.f.=1, P<0.001) but we did not detect a significant 183 effect of the Wolbachia infection (Two-way ANOVA, F=1.05 d.f.=1, P=0.311). More 184 precisely, in the presence of wSuz, the RNA copy number significantly decreased (around 185 50% of reduction; Fig. 2B) in the Fr-BE and Jp-YSG backgrounds infected with wSuz-Fr and 186 wSuz-Jp isolates respectively (Tukey HSD, P<0.001 and P=0.039 respectively), the two lines 187 that exhibited a significant effect of Wolbachia on survival after FHV infection, and not in the 188 two other lines (Tukey HSD test, Fr-CP line, P=0.665; Jp-OGH line, P=0.478). 189

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193 Wolbachia density

Wolbachia density is known to be a major determinant of antiviral protection, with higher 194 195 densities being associated to higher levels of protection (Chrostek et al., 2014; Martinez et al., 2014). We therefore measured wSuz density in the four lines and found significant differences 196 (One-way ANOVA, F=10.07, d.f.=3, P<0.001; Fig. 3): the two Japanese's backgrounds (Jp-197 OGH and Jp-YSG) showed a higher density than the two French backgrounds (Fr-CP and Fr-198 BE), but there was no significant differences between the two French lines (both infected by 199 200 wSuz-Fr; Tukey HSD, P=0.991) and between the two Japanese lines (that both harbor the Japan Wolbachia isolate ; Tukey HSD, P=0.062). 201

202

203 Discussion

We have found that wSuz can protect its host against RNA viruses. In certain lines individuals 204 infected with wSuz had higher survival and lower viral titers after infection with DCV and 205 FHV. It is known since 2008 that Wolbachia can protect Drosophila against RNA viruses 206 (Hedges et al., 2008; Teixeira et al., 2008), but this is the first time that it is described in D. 207 208 suzukii. In a recent study another direct fitness benefit of Wolbachia has been observed in an Italian population of *D. suzukii* since infected females have a higher fecundity than uninfected 209 ones (Mazzetto et al., 2015). These phenotypes can potentially explain the maintenance of 210 211 Wolbachia strains in natural populations without reproductive manipulation (Fenton et al., 2011), as it has been found in American and European populations of D. suzukii (Hamm et 212 al., 2014; Cattel et al., 2016). 213

The variability of the *w*Suz prevalence could be the consequence of heterogeneity in virus-induced selection similarly to what was observed in the Pea Aphid *Acyrthosiphon pisum*. This species is protected against parasitoids by the symbiont *Hamiltonella defensa*, 217 which has variable prevalence among populations and is thought to be maintained by negative-frequency dependent selection depending on the parasitism pressure in the field 218 219 (Oliver et al., 2008). We found that Wolbachia mediated significant protection in D. suzukii (Fr-CP for DCV, Fr-BE and Jp-YSG for FHV) was associated with reduced viral titer. 220 However, for DCV, the presence of Wolbachia correlates with a lower viral titer even when 221 no effect on the flies' survival was detected (Jp-OGH line). Several studies showed that 222 antiviral protection is generally explained by a phenomenon of resistance that reduces the 223 224 accumulation of virus but, in some cases, no differences in viral titers were observed despite the protective effect (Teixeira et al., 2008; Osborne et al., 2009). In the latter case, it is 225 possible that Wolbachia does not affect the replication of the virus but rather makes the host 226 227 more tolerant to viral infection.

Experimental studies have shown that Wolbachia-mediated antiviral protection is a 228 common phenomenon in Drosophila and mosquitoes (Bian et al., 2010; Hedges et al., 2008; 229 Moreira et al., 2009; Osborne et al., 2009; Teixeira et al., 2008; Chrostek et al., 2013; 230 Chrostek et al., 2014; Martinez et al., 2014) but is strongly dependent on the Wolbachia strain 231 232 (Hedges et al., 2008; Osborne et al., 2009; Chrostek et al., 2013; Chrostek et al., 2014; Martinez et al., 2014). For instance, Martinez et al., 2014 showed that among 19 Wolbachia 233 strains (originating from 16 Drosophila species) transferred into the same D. simulans 234 235 genotype, only half of them induced protection against DCV and FHV. The effect of host genetics on protection is less well understood. However, the protective phenotype is affected 236 by the host species. For example, the strain wInn protects its natural host D. innubila against 237 238 FHV (Unckless & Jaenike, 2012) but has no effect in D. simulans (Martinez et al., 2014). Here, we found that the level of antiviral protection varied among the lines we used. This 239 difference was most dramatic in the DCV experiment, where we found large increases in the 240

241 survival of the French line but not the Japanese line. This difference could be caused by genetic differences between the Wolbachia isolates, the flies or both. In the FHV experiment 242 243 we were able to compare the same Wolbachia isolates in two host genetic backgrounds. We found a host background effect for both the Japanese and the French lines suggesting that host 244 factors may affect the expression of the Wolbachia-mediated protection. However, we would 245 caution that this needs further confirmation as we only have a single replicate line of each 246 Wolbachia isolate in each genetic background, so we cannot rule out other possible 247 248 differences (e.g. gut microbiota, or uncontrolled differences in the genetic background). Wolbachia density is known to influence the level of protection (Osborne et al., 2009; 249 Osborne et al., 2012; Chrostek et al., 2013; Chrostek et al., 2014; Martinez et al., 2014). 250 251 However, we didn't find any clear association between the level of protection and the density of *Wolbachia*. The variation in antiviral protection could also be influenced by tissue tropism 252 of Wolbachia since Osborne et al., 2012 highlighted that tissue tropism can partly explain 253 variations in the level of protection. Therefore it is possible that, in the D. suzukii lines used in 254 our study, the tissue tropism of *Wolbachia* was different despite showing very similar density 255 256 at the whole fly level.

The importance of antiviral protection in natural populations of D. suzukii is unknown. It 257 has been estimated that Wolbachia would need to generate a fitness benefit of 20% to be 258 259 maintained in populations (Hamm et al., 2014). To achieve this RNA viruses would need to be causing significant harm to the flies in nature and Wolbachia would need to be mitigating 260 much of this harm. The effects of the presence of Wolbachia on viral titer and survival that we 261 262 observed were mostly smaller than in many previous studies (Hedges et al., 2008; Teixeira et al., 2008; Chrostek et al., 2013; Chrostek et al., 2014; Martinez et al., 2014). However, it is 263 not possible to extrapolate this to effects in nature without further work. 264

265 Experimental procedures

266 D. suzukii lines and rearing

In this study, four lines of D. suzukii were used, two originating from France and two from 267 Japan. The French lines were collected in Compiegne (named Fr-CP) and in Bellegarde 268 (named Fr-BE) in 2011 and 2012 respectively and reared in large populations. The Japanese 269 lines have been obtained from the Ehime-fly stock center in 2011: they were sampled in 270 Yamagata (named Jp-YSG) (1#E-15016 YSG-11) and Tokyo (named Jp-OGH) (#E-271 15014OGH06-03) in 2006. These lines have been chosen because two are free of Wolbachia 272 (Fr-BE and Jp-OGH) and the two others (Fr-CP and Jp-YSG) are 100% infected with 273 Wolbachia (see below for diagnostic PCR test). The flies were reared on a cornmeal diet 274 (agar: 1%, dextrose: 8.75%, maize: 8.75%, yeast: 2%, nipagin: 3%) and maintained in an 275 incubator at constant temperature (22°C) and humidity (70%) with a 12-hours light/dark 276 cycle. An MLST analysis performed on 6 genes (ftsZ, fbpA, hcpA, coxA, gatB and wsp) 277 revealed the Wolbachia isolates from Fr-CP and Jp-YSG lines to be the same sequence type 278 with 100% identity between the sequences. The sequences obtained in the present study are 279 280 recorded in Genbank as KS308222-7.

281

282 *Control of host genetic background and infection status*

We used two different methods to obtain *Wolbachia*-infected and *Wolbachia*-free lines with similar genetic backgrounds: antibiotic treatments of the infected lines and introgression of *Wolbachia* into uninfected lines by back-crossing.

Antibiotic treatments were performed for 3 generations in Fr-CP and Jp-YSG lines. At each generation larvae were fed on medium with 0.25 mg.mL⁻¹ tetracycline. After 3 generations, 10 isofemale lines were established from treated females and the presence of Wolbachia was checked by PCR as described below in mothers and then for 3 generations more. Only one isofemale line was retained for each nuclear background (Fr-CP and Jp-YSG) and maintained for 12 generations before the experiments. The absence of *Wolbachia* in these lines was confirmed by real-time quantitative PCR (see below). Using this approach, we obtained infected and cured lines with the same genetic background, Fr-CP or Jp-YSG.

To obtain infected and uninfected individuals with the same Fr-BE or Jp-OGH 294 genetic backgrounds, back-crosses were done for 8 generations. Two males from the 295 296 uninfected line (Fr-BE or Jp-OGH) were mated with single virgin females from the infected lines from the same country, i.e. Fr-CP and Jp-YSG respectively. Backcrossing was 297 performed for a total of 8 generations which lead to an introgression of around 99.6% of the 298 299 nuclear background assuming no selection on the nuclear genome. However, compared with the use of antibiotics treatments, lines obtained with this method have different mitochondrial 300 backgrounds. These two lines were maintained for 15 generations before the experiments. The 301 Wolbachia infection status of each line was verified by PCR just before the viral infection 302 experiment. 303

304

Two viruses, Drosophila C virus (DCV) and Flock House virus (FHV), were used in this study. DCV is a highly pathogenic Drosophila virus, which belongs to the family Dicistroviridae (Huszar & Imler, 2008); FHV, which belongs to the Nodaviridae family, is not a natural pathogen of *Drosophila* species and was initially isolated from a beetle (Scotti *et al.*, 1983). Viruses were produced and titrated as described by Martinez *et al.*, 2014. DCV was produced and titrated in Schneider's Line 2 cells (SL-2) and FHV was titrated in Schneider Drosophila Line 2 cells (DL2) (https://dgrc.bio.indiana.edu/cells/Catalog). For each infection

³⁰⁵ *Viral isolates*

assay, one viral aliquot was defrosted just before the infection and diluted in Ringer's solution (Sullivan *et al.*, 2000) to reach a viral concentration of 5×10^8 .mL⁻¹ TCID50 for DCV and 3.6x10¹⁰.mL⁻¹ TCID50 for FHV.

316

317 Survival assay

In order to test for a potential protective effect of wSuz, we measured the survival of flies 318 after infection with DCV, FHV or mock infection with Ringer's solution. To infect flies, a 0.1 319 320 mm diameter anodized steel needle (26002-15, Fine Science Tools, CA, USA) was bent, 0.25 mm from the end, dipped in viral solution and the bent part of the needle pricked into the 321 pleural suture on the thorax of flies (Longdon et al., 2013). For DCV, we followed the 322 323 survival of Wolbachia-free or Wolbachia-infected flies of the Fr-CP and Jp-OGH lines only. Since, in that first experiment, we observed variation depending on the geographical origin of 324 the flies, we performed the second experiment with FHV using the four genetic backgrounds 325 (Fr-CP, Fr-BE, Jp-OGH and Jp-YSG). Survival of Ringer's controls was followed in parallel 326 for these two experiments. 327

For each line 3 days-old females were collected. After being anaesthetized with CO₂, they were inoculated with DCV, FHV or Ringer's solution by stabbing flies. Groups of 20 stabbed flies were immediately placed into a vial of fly cornmeal medium and stored at 22°C. Flies were transferred into fresh vials of food every 3 days and the number of dead flies was recorded every day. The survival assay was replicated 5 times on independent cohorts of flies across multiple days, corresponding to a total of 100 flies for each *Wolbachia* infection status and virus infection treatment.

335

337 *Diagnostic polymerase chain reaction (PCR)*

The Wolbachia infection status of individuals was verified by PCR for each line just before 338 339 performing the experiments. DNA was extracted on pools of 10 individuals (one pool per line) homogenized in 200µL of 5% w/v Chelex resin in water (Biorad) with 4µL of proteinase 340 K (20mg.mL⁻¹) and kept at 56°C for 3h. After 15min at 95°C, samples were centrifuged at 341 16000g for 4min and stored at -20°C. Presence of Wolbachia was checked by amplifying the 342 Wolbachia Surface Protein (wsp) gene using the primers wsp81F and wsp691R (Braig et al., 343 344 1998, Table S1). PCR reactions were performed in 25µL volumes containing 100µM dNTP, 200nM primers, 0.5IU DreamTaq® DNA polymerase (Eurobio) and 1µL of DNA template. 345 Cycling conditions were 94°C (2min), 94°C (30sec), 52°C (30sec), 72°C (45sec), 72°C 346 347 (10min) for 35 cycles. PCR products were visualized in 1% agarose gels.

348

349 *Real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR)*

The Wolbachia density, DCV and FHV RNA copy number were measured by real-time 350 quantitative PCR (qPCR) on the Light CyclerTM system using primers listed in Table S1. To 351 estimate Wolbachia density, 10 pools of ten 3 days-old virus-free females for each line were 352 prepared and the DNA extracted using the Gentra Pure gene Tissue Kit (Qiagen). The 353 Wolbachia density was measured by quantifying the copy number of the Wolbachia gene ftsZ 354 relative to the host gene Rpl32 using Sso Advanced Universal Probes Supermix (BioRad; 355 2min at 95°C followed by 40 cycles of 10sec at 95°C and 20sec at 60°C). The 10µL of 356 multiplex reaction mix contained 400nM of Rpl32 primers and 200nM of ftsZ primers, 5µL of 357 358 SsoADVUniver Probes Supermix, 200nM of each probe and 2µL of DNA sample. The Wolbachia density was estimated by dividing the copy number of the ftsZ gene by the copy 359 number of the *Rpl32* host gene. The antiviral protection was also examined by measuring the 360

361 RNA copy number after infection by both viruses. 3 days-old females were stabbed with DCV and FHV and frozen respectively 5 and 2 days after infection. After homogenization in 362 TRIzol Reagent (Ambion), RNA was extracted from 10 pools of 10 flies for each 363 experimental treatment using the RNA Easy Mini® kit following the manufacturer's 364 instructions (Qiagen). Reverse-transcription was done using SuperScript® III First-Strand 365 Synthesis System (Invitrogen) including a 30 min DNase digestion step at 37°C. The copy 366 number of the viral RNA was compared to the control gene Rpl32. The qPCR reactions for 367 DCV, FHV and Rpl32 were done separately with the same conditions (30sec at 95°C 368 followed by 40 cycles of 10sec at 95°C and 20sec at 60°C). The 10µL reaction mix contained 369 200nM of each primer, 5µL of SsoADV Univer SYBR Green Supermix, and 1µL of DNA 370 371 sample. The RNA copy number and the Wolbachia density were estimated by calculating the ratio: $\frac{E(\text{virus}/Wolbachia)^{\Delta Ct}}{E(\text{host})^{\Delta Ct}} \text{ with } \Delta Ct = Ct_{flygene} - Ct_{virus/Wolbachia} \text{ where } E \text{ corresponds to the}$ 372 efficiency of the PCR reaction calculated from a dilution series for each set of primers (E =373

374 $2^{\left(\frac{1}{\text{linear regression slope}\right)}\right)$ and *Ct* to the cycle threshold (Pfaffl, 2001).

375

376 *Statistical analysis*

Survival data were analyzed with a Cox's proportional hazards mixed-effect model using the coxme package in R (R Core team, 2013). The Cox's model estimates hazard ratios with the probability of a *Wolbachia*-infected fly dying at a given time-point divided by the probability of a *Wolbachia*-free fly dying. Flies that were alive at the end of the experiment were treated as censored data.

382 Survival data for DCV, FHV and their respective controls (Ringer) were analyzed 383 separately. For each virus, two models were fitted to test a potential effect of the *Wolbachia* 384 infection and the genetic background on survival for the control treatment (Ringer) without virus or after infection with a virus. The first model allowed testing whether wSuz infection 385 modifies survival independently of viral infection and indirectly confirm that the survival of 386 virus-infected flies cannot be explained by an inherent effect of Wolbachia on survival. The 387 effects of Wolbachia, host genetic background and their interaction were considered as fixed 388 effects and the replicate vials as a random effect. When a significant interaction was detected, 389 differences between Wolbachia-free and Wolbachia-infected flies within each host genetic 390 391 background were analyzed using pairwise comparisons (Tukey's Honest Significance test) (R package multcomp). 392

Viral titers and *Wolbachia* density were analyzed on log2-transformed data. For viral titers, a two-way ANOVA allowed testing for the effect of *Wolbachia*, the host genetic background and their interaction. A one-way ANOVA was done to test for the influence of the host genetic background on *Wolbachia* density. Pairwise comparisons (Tukey's Honest Significance test) were also done if a global effect of *Wolbachia* was detected.

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