

Host, Symbionts, and the Microbiome: The Missing Tripartite Interaction

Pina Brinker, Michael C. Fontaine, Leo Beukeboom, Joana Falcão Salles

▶ To cite this version:

Pina Brinker, Michael C. Fontaine, Leo Beukeboom, Joana Falcão Salles. Host, Symbionts, and the Microbiome: The Missing Tripartite Interaction. Trends in Microbiology, 2019, 10.1016/j.tim.2019.02.002 . hal-02104428

HAL Id: hal-02104428 https://hal.science/hal-02104428v1

Submitted on 26 Dec 2020

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

- 1 Host, symbionts, and the microbiome: the missing tripartite interaction
- 2 Pina Brinker^{1*}, Michael C. Fontaine^{1,2#}, Leo W Beukeboom¹, Joana Falcao Salles^{1*}

- 4 ¹ Groningen Institute for Evolutionary Life Sciences (GELIFES), University of
- 5 Groningen, The Netherlands.
- 6 ² MIVEGEC, UMR IRD, CNRS, University of Montpellier, Montpellier, France
- 7 # ORCID number: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1156-4154
- 8 *Correspondence: p.brinker@rug.nl (Pina Brinker), j.falcao.salles@rug.nl (Joana
- 9 Falcao Salles)

Abstract:

Symbiosis between microbial associates and a host is a ubiquitous feature of life on earth, modulating host phenotypes. In addition to endosymbionts, organisms harbour a collection of host-associated microbes, the microbiome that can impact important host traits. In this opinion we will argue that the mutual influences of the microbiome and endosymbionts, as well as their combined influence on the host are still understudied. Focussing on the endosymbiont *Wolbachia*, we will present growing evidence indicating that host phenotypic effects are exerted in interaction with the remainder microbiome and the host. We thus advocate that only through an integrated approach that considers multiple interacting partners and environmental influences, we will be able to gain a better understanding of host-microbe associations.

Keywords: Insects, Phenotype, Wolbachia, Mosquitoes, Metacommunity, Drosophila

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

Interacting entities

Arthropods commonly host a wide variety of **microbes** (see Glossary), some of which live within a **host** in a close and long-term biological interaction. Such **endosymbionts** can exert effects on the host ranging from positive (mutualistic, i.e. providing benefits [1]) to negative (parasitic, i.e. imposing substantial costs [2]) interactions. Thus, endosymbionts are important modulators of host **phenotypes**, providing heritable variation upon which natural selection can act [3,4].

Historically, symbiosis research has focused on binary interactions between hosts and individual endosymbionts. In recent years this view was broadened to include all microbes that copiously colonize animals, the so-called microbiome, as they are additional important modulators of host traits (Box 1). Due to the historical focus on binary interactions comparatively little is known about interactions between microbes within the microbiome and how these interactions impact the host [5]. A more holistic approach towards the multitude of interactions is however needed for a better understanding of the varied mechanisms by which microbes drive animal health, development, and evolution [6]. This is especially true as symbionts are part of a complex **ecosystem** including host, symbiont, microbiome and their environment. Here symbionts, host and the remainder microbiome interact with each other, but are also influenced by free-living microbial communities and environmental conditions, e.g. temperature, diet, as well as other organisms (Box 2). Focusing only on one type of interaction, i.e. between host and symbiont or between host and the microbiome, under artificial conditions that do not reflect the potential influence of the environment (Box 3) will provide only an incomplete picture of **host-microbe** interactions.

In this opinion article, we argue that an important area for future research relies on disentangling how endosymbionts, the remainder microbiome and the host interact with each other and how their environment is shaping these interactions (Figure 1). Note that we consider symbionts here as a separate microbial entity due to historical focus on binary interactions of symbiont and host. With this separation we can highlight the differences between both, but in fact the microbial symbionts are part of the microbiome and as such, should be studied together. We postulate that phenotypic effects of symbionts are modulated by other microbes, the host and the tripartite interaction between them. Drawing on the wealth of information on the endosymbiont Wolbachia, we will discuss studies that embraced this holistic view. We will argue for re-investigating well-known symbioses with respect to the interactions with other microbes, reviewing studies that indicate that symbioses are more influenced by other partners than the host itself. Throughout this opinion we will advocate the importance of this broader approach to gain a better understanding of symbionts and the role of the microbiome and the host in shaping host fitness.

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

Symbionts, the sole manipulator?

In the last years researchers started to investigate microbe-symbiont interactions in model organisms such as the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* [7], the parasitoid wasps *Nasonia* [8], and in mosquitoes as vectors of important human diseases [9]. Additionally, projects like the parasite-microbiome-project [10] started investigating microbiome dynamics within and across parasite-host interactions. Nevertheless,

microbe-microbe interactions within a host, their influence on the host and how these interactions are influenced by the environment are still understudied [5].

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

Symbionts and the remainder microbiome can influence each other and by doing so potentially shape their effects on host phenotype. For example the microbiome can be a potential barrier to transmission of heritable symbionts through competitive exclusion of maternally inherited bacteria, as shown for the American dog tick *Dermacentor variabilis* [11] and the fruit fly *D. melanogaster* [12]. On the other hand, symbionts and host can together control and shape the microbiome as shown in Lepidoptera [13], *D. melanogaster* [7,14] and the mosquito *Aedes aegypti* [15].

These interactions between the different members of the microbial community within a host can either be direct via competition for resources and space [12], or indirect via the induction of a general immune response [16,17]. A direct competition has been hypothesized for the protective phenotypes induced by the endosymbiont Wolbachia against pathogens in Drosophila and Aedes, resulting in abundance-dependent protection [18,19]. Competition for resources or space between Wolbachia and other bacteria is also likely for the terrestrial isopod Armadillidium vulgare. In this pill bug, total bacterial loads increase in some, but not all tissues of Wolbachia-infected individuals [20] and Wolbachia presence decreases the abundance of bacterial phylotypes [21]. Indirect interaction between the different members of the microbial community of a host has also been found. In bumble bees (Bombus terrestris), variation in gut microbiome seems to drive the general defence against parasites and the evolution of gut parasites by interactions with the remainder microbiome as well as with host genotypes [17]. Similarly, in ticks (Ixodes scapularis), parasites induce the expression of specific glycoproteins, which alter the host microbiome to their advantage, i.e. to promote infection [16]. For the nutritional mutualisms between *Wolbachia* and the bedbug *Cimex lectularius* the exchange of genetic material between *Wolbachia* and other symbionts (likely *Cardinium* or *Rickettsia*) coinfecting the same insect host, have likely enabled *Wolbachia* to become an obligate, needed, symbiont providing B vitamins for the nutrition of *Cimex lectularius* [22,23]. These studies highlight the complexity of the tripartite interaction between host species, microbiome and symbionts, across different hosts and foster the development of a framework in which interactions, host phenotype and environment are jointly explored.

The environmental component

The environment influences microbes within a host and thus potentially their interactions as well as their effect on host phenotype. It is for example known that the abiotic environment, i.e. temperature, affects symbiont density [4,24]. As example a reduction, or elimination of *Wolbachia* due to high temperature was found for *D. melanogaster*, mites, and other species [4,24–26]. In line with this, seasonal changes of *Wolbachia* density were observed in Lepidoptera [26], mosquitoes [9] and other blood sucking arthropods [27]. In mosquitoes, high temperature caused a reduction of *Wolbachia* density and a concomitant greater host susceptibility to viruses [9]. Also the biotic environment could potentially influence within-host microbe-microbe interactions through **horizontal exchange** of microbes from free-living microbial populations [28] (Box 2). This could lead to microbial community shifts and therefore changes in microbe-microbe interactions potentially influencing host fitness. These

interactions are defined by **metacommunities**, local communities linked by dispersal, but also extinction and recolonization of potentially interacting species [29]. Thus, local communities are influenced by processes operating at the level of the entire metacommunity [26]. The few studies that investigated the influence of metacommunities discovered that the microbial communities associated with different interaction partners, e.g. plants and insects, shared microbes [30,31], such as **vertically transmitted** symbionts from the genus *Wolbachia*, *Rickettsia*, and *Spiroplasma* [30].

As phenotypic host effects of a symbiosis are closely tied to interactions with the remainder microbiome and environmental factors, biotic and abiotic, the absence of an integrative approach might mask the mechanistic interpretation of the data, leading to inconclusive results. Taking *Wolbachia* as model, in the next section we will provide a brief introduction of what is known for *Wolbachia*-microbe interactions and two examples in which a deeper understanding of the complex interactions between hosts, symbionts and the microbiome could explain discrepancies. The first one is of great relevance for human health and refers to investigations on the vector-competence of *Wolbachia* infected mosquitoes and their role in the transmission of human pathogens. The second example refers the reproductive manipulation by *Wolbachia* in several arthropod species and takes a more evolutionary perspective.

Interactions between the endosymbiont Wolbachia and other microbes

141 Wolbachia in interaction: known facts

The endosymbiont *Wolbachia* – one of the most widely distributed symbionts worldwide, infecting an estimated 40% of terrestrial arthropods [32] – is a strong

manipulator of a wide range of host traits [33]. It gained specific interest due to its protection against various viruses in naturally infected fruit flies [34] and its capacity to reduce the density and transmission of pathogens in mosquito species [35,36].

In contrast to long-held beliefs, Wolbachia is not restricted to host germ line cells and reproductive organs, but is present in cells throughout somatic tissues and even in the gut lumen of some insects and their faeces [37,38]. Thus, direct interactions with other microbes of the host or indirect interactions via the hosts' immune system are likely. Direct interactions between Wolbachia and other microbes have been observed in fruit flies. A co-infection with the endobacterium Spiroplasma reduced Wolbachia density while Spiroplasma numbers remained unaffected by the presence of Wolbachia [12]. The investigation of the effect of Wolbachia infection on the composition of the gut microbiome in D. melanogaster showed an even more complex picture. Here the presence of Wolbachia is a significant determinant of the overall composition of the gut microbiome. Interestingly this was neither caused by a direct interaction between Wolbachia and the gut microbiome, as Wolbachia is absent from the gut lumen in the fly, nor was it indirectly modulated through the activation of the fly's immune system through Wolbachia [7]. This highlights the importance of considering a multitude of possible interactions between microbes and between microbes and the host in studies of the dynamics and effects of Wolbachia-infections.

163

164

165

166

167

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

The quest for disease eradication

An integrated approach, considering multiple interactions between microbes and between microbes and hosts, is especially important when developing microbe-based disease vector control strategies. *Wolbachia* is currently being developed as a novel

arthropod-borne disease control agent (http://www.eliminatedengue.com); hereby the mode of a successful transmission is an important factor. Under laboratory conditions the native microbiome of Anopheles mosquitoes was found to impede vertical transmission of Wolbachia through antagonistic microbe-microbe interactions between the bacterium Asaia and Wolbachia [39]. Similar antagonistic microbe interactions were found in a survey of various mosquito species in Canada, with the presence and abundance of Wolbachia fluctuating over season, as well as with the presence of the bacteria Asaia and Pseudomonas [9]. This suggests that, in addition to environmental effects, interaction of Wolbachia with other microbes may explain some of the variation in vector competence of mosquitoes. In contrast to these results, a stable infection with Wolbachia in lab-reared mosquitoes A. aegypti had only few effects on the microbiome. Moreover, significant changes in the microbiome composition did not affect the dengue virus blocking phenotype caused by Wolbachia infection in this mosquito [40]. However, analyses of A. aegypti transinfected with Wolbachia, released in the field in Brazil and Vietnam to inhibit the dengue virus, revealed that Wolbachia increases susceptibility of mosquitoes to dengue infection. This contradicting result was due to the wide variability in exposure doses of Wolbachia naturally experienced by mosquitoes [41]. The authors concluded that reliable predictions of vectorial capacity of transinfected mosquitoes require an informed account of mosquito pathogens and their interplay with Wolbachia. Additionally recent interaction networks, looking at co-occurrence and co-exclusion of microbes, established for several mosquito species (laboratory vs. field) revealed that Wolbachia is a highly interconnected taxon, mostly co-exclusionary with other bacteria [42].

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

The mosquito studies indeed show that the abundance and effect of *Wolbachia* is closely tied to the remaining microbiome. This highlights the importance of considering the composition of the microbiome and host genetic background in studies investigating phenotypes induced by *Wolbachia* and when formulating microbe-based disease vector control strategies. In line with that, assessing the involvement of microbe-microbe interactions within a host and how they are influenced in the field, due to biotic or abiotic factors, is critical as it may affect the efficiency of *Wolbachia*-mediated manipulations (Box 2, Box 3).

The joint reproductive manipulation of Wolbachia and other microbes

The endosymbiont *Wolbachia* is especially well known for its four distinct reproductive phenotypes, that promote its own vertical transmission from mother to offspring [43]. There is growing evidence that the reproductive manipulation by *Wolbachia* is not only exerted by the endosymbiont alone but in interaction with other microbes, i.e. the microbiome of the host, other symbionts, or the host itself. *Wolbachia* has repeatedly been reported to cause different phenotypes, either in experimental settings when transferred between hosts, for example in Lepidoptera [44] or *Drosophila* sibling species [45], or naturally over evolutionary timescales, e.g. in moths and fruit flies [46]. Additionally, many species show geographical variation in symbiont prevalence, including *Wolbachia* with a lower presence in warmer regions [4], as for example reported for many species infected with **parthenogenesis**-inducing *Wolbachia* [47]. The causes for this distributional pattern in prevalence remain

speculative, but a possible explanation is that it is driven by variation in microbial communities of host populations in interaction with their abiotic environment (Box 2).

Another line of evidence indicating a modulating role of the microbiome in reproductive manipulation by *Wolbachia* comes from studies investigating *Wolbachia* abundance (titre) in a host. The efficiency and phenotype of reproductive manipulation can depend on a threshold of *Wolbachia* titre, i.e. a minimum number of bacteria are required for exerting the manipulative action. A low titre can lead to a switch of the *Wolbachia*-induced phenotype in *Drosophila bifasciata* [24], or to changes in the efficiency of parthenogenesis induction in the parasitic wasp *Asobara japonica* [48]. In both studies, variation in the *Wolbachia* titre were manifested under identical rearing conditions, for the latter even in a clonal host reproduction system, suggesting a strong influence on *Wolbachia* titre by other partners, such as the microbiome.

Together, these examples illustrate that *Wolbachia* may be a potent manipulator of host reproduction, but not in isolation but rather in interaction with the host genome and the remainder of the microbiome and in addition influenced by interaction with the environment. By shifting the focus away from *Wolbachia* as the only manipulator it becomes clear that manipulation of a host phenotype is likely not only caused by a single microbe (*Wolbachia*), but also strongly influenced by interaction with other microbes, and by the host genotype itself.

Concluding remarks

Throughout this manuscript we have pointed out growing evidence that host phenotypic effects such as reproductive manipulation by the endosymbiont

Wolbachia are not only exerted by an endosymbiont alone but in interaction with others microbes. This and other examples, call for an integrative approach in studying host-microbe associations including host gene expression and interactions between microbes and environmental factors, on these interacting partners (see Outstanding Questions). The latter is especially important in the light of the upcoming challenges of our world, e.g. global warming and disease control. For instance, the protective effect of Wolbachia against important human diseases in insect vectors [49] is highly dependent upon temperature. Therefore global warming might cause a decrease in protective Wolbachia, undermining on-going long-term biological control programmes of mosquitoes. In this respect, a broader and more natural approach in studing host associated microbes is needed, as laboratory studies might often not be directly translatable to the field [41] (Box 3). Although in this manuscript our focus is on the traits vector-competence and reproductive manipulation conferred by Wolbachia in arthropod associations, we would like to point out that an involvement of other host associated microbes is also likely for other traits conferred by Wolbachia. As an example, the nutritional symbiosis between Wolbachia and bedbugs showed that Wolbachia-microbe interactions, i.e. the complementation of functions by gene exchange between different components of the microbiome, can strongly influence the host phenotype through genetic changes in the symbiont [22,23]. As similar microbe-microbe interactions are not restricted to Wolbachia but also other symbionts, a holistic approach should be extended to all symbioses [50].

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

Finally, the interpretation of data on host-microbe associations has to be done carefully, keeping in mind that small changes in composition and/or abundance of the microbial community might have great phenotypic consequences for the host, as low-

abundance or rare microbial taxa can represent **hub species** [51] that are crucial for the host functioning, as shown for plants and soil ecosystems [52]. Network analyses of the host-associated microbial communities might represent an important tool [53] for basic insights into interaction dynamics within microbial communities. For instance, this approach has recently revealed that for several mosquito species (in the laboratory and field), *Wolbachia* is a highly interconnected taxon, being mostly negatively correlated with other bacteria (i.e. its abundance leads to a reduction in the abundance of other species)[42]. The integration of microbial network analyses with host gene expression networks could provide valuable insights into the complexity of the tripartite interactions.

274 Acknowledgments

We thank two anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments on a previous version of the manuscript and Martijn Schenkel and Sylvia Gerritsma for their preliminary work, which inspired the development of this opinion article. P.B. was supported by a scholarship of the Adaptive Life program from the University of Groningen, The Netherlands.

281 **References:** 282 283 1 Brownlie, J.C. and Johnson, K.N. (2009) Symbiont-mediated protection in 284 insect hosts. Trends Microbiol. 17, 348–354 285 2 Ivanov, I.I. and Littman, D.R. (2011) Modulation of immune homeostasis by 286 commensal bacteria. Curr. Opin. Microbiol. 14, 106-114 287 3 Moran, N.A. et al. (2008) Genomics and evolution of heritable bacterial 288 symbionts. Annu. Rev. Genet. 42, 165–190 289 4 Corbin, C. et al. (2017) Heritable symbionts in a world of varying temperature. 290 Heredity (Edinb). 118, 10-20 291 Deines, P. and Bosch, T.C.G. (2016) Transitioning from microbiome 292 composition to microbial community interactions: The potential of the 293 metaorganism Hydra as an experimental model. Front. Microbiol. 7, 1610 294 6 Petersen, J.M. and Osvatic, J. (2018) Microbiomes in natura: Importance of 295 invertebrates in understanding the natural variety of animal-microbe 296 Interactions. mSystems 3, e00179-17 297 7 Simhadri, R.K. et al. (2017) The gut commensal microbiome of Drosophila 298 melanogaster is modified by the endosymbiont Wolbachia. mSphere 2, 299 e00287-17 300 Dittmer, J. et al. (2016) Disentangling a holobiont – Recent advances and 301 perspectives in Nasonia wasps. Front. Microbiol. 7, 1478 302 9 Novakova, E. et al. (2017) Mosquito microbiome dynamics, a background for 303 prevalence and seasonality of West Nile virus. Front. Microbiol. 8, 526 304

Dheilly, N.M. et al. (2017) Parasite Microbiome Project: Systematic

305		investigation of microbiome dynamics within and across parasite-host
306		interactions. mSystems 2, e00050-17
307	11	Macaluso, K.R. et al. (2002) Rickettsial infection in Dermacentor variabilis
308		(Acari: Ixodidae) inhibits transovarial transmission of a second <i>Rickettsia</i> . <i>J</i> .
309		Med. Entomol. 39, 809–813
310	12	Goto, S. et al. (2006) Asymmetrical interactions between Wolbachia and
311		Spiroplasma endosymbionts coexisting in the same insect host. Appl. Environ.
312		Microbiol. 72, 4805–4810
313	13	Johnston, P.R. and Rolff, J. (2015) Host and symbiont jointly control gut
314		microbiota during complete metamorphosis. PLoS Pathog. 11, e1005246
315	14	Ye, Y.H. et al. (2017) Gut microbiota in Drosophila melanogaster interacts with
316		Wolbachia but does not contribute to Wolbachia-mediated antiviral
317		protection. J. Invertebr. Pathol. 143, 18–25
318	15	Audsley, M.D. et al. (2018) Wolbachia infection alters the relative abundance
319		of resident bacteria in adult Aedes aegypti mosquitoes, but not larvae. Mol.
320		
		Ecol. 27, 297–309
321	16	Ecol. 27, 297–309 Abraham, N.M. et al. (2017) Pathogen-mediated manipulation of arthropod
	16	
321	16 17	Abraham, N.M. et al. (2017) Pathogen-mediated manipulation of arthropod
321 322		Abraham, N.M. <i>et al.</i> (2017) Pathogen-mediated manipulation of arthropod microbiota to promote infection. <i>Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.</i> 12, E781–E790
321 322 323		Abraham, N.M. <i>et al.</i> (2017) Pathogen-mediated manipulation of arthropod microbiota to promote infection. <i>Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.</i> 12, E781–E790 Koch, H. and Schmid-Hempel, P. (2012) Gut microbiota instead of host
321322323324		Abraham, N.M. <i>et al.</i> (2017) Pathogen-mediated manipulation of arthropod microbiota to promote infection. <i>Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.</i> 12, E781–E790 Koch, H. and Schmid-Hempel, P. (2012) Gut microbiota instead of host genotype drive the specificity in the interaction of a natural host-parasite
321 322 323 324 325	17	Abraham, N.M. <i>et al.</i> (2017) Pathogen-mediated manipulation of arthropod microbiota to promote infection. <i>Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.</i> 12, E781–E790 Koch, H. and Schmid-Hempel, P. (2012) Gut microbiota instead of host genotype drive the specificity in the interaction of a natural host-parasite system. <i>Ecol. Lett.</i> 15, 1095–1103

329		Wolbachia density and tissue tropism in Drosophila simulans. Appl. Environ.
330		Microbiol. 78, 6922–6929
331	20	Dittmer, J. et al. (2014) Host tissues as microhabitats for Wolbachia and
332		quantitative insights into the bacterial community in terrestrial isopods. <i>Mol</i> .
333		Ecol. 23, 2619–2635
334	21	Dittmer, J. and Bouchon, D. (2018) Feminizing Wolbachia influence microbiota
335		composition in the terrestrial isopod <i>Armadillidium vulgare</i> . <i>Sci. Rep.</i> 8, 6998
336	22	Hosokawa, T. et al. (2010) Wolbachia as a bacteriocyte-associated nutritional
337		mutualist. <i>Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.</i> 107, 769–774
338	23	Nikoh, N. et al. (2014) Evolutionary origin of insect-Wolbachia nutritional
339		mutualism. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 111, 10257–10262
340	24	Hurst, G.D.D. et al. (2000) Male-killing Wolbachia in Drosophila: A
341		temperature-sensitive trait with a threshold bacterial density. Genetics 156,
342		699–709
343	25	Van Opijnen, T. and Breeuwer, J.A. (1999) High temperatures eliminate
344		Wolbachia, a cytoplasmic incompatibility inducing endosymbiont, from the
345		two-spotted spider mite. Exp. Appl. Acarol. 23, 871–881
346	26	Sumi, T. et al. (2017) Wolbachia density changes seasonally amongst
347		populations of the pale grass blue butterfly, Zizeeria maha (Lepidoptera:
348		Lycaenidae). <i>PLoS One</i> 12, e0175373
349	27	Cohen, C. et al. (2015) Similarities and seasonal variations in bacterial
350		communities from the blood of rodents and from their flea vectors. ISME J. 9,
351		1662–1676
352	28	Adair, K.L. and Douglas, A.E. (2017) Making a microbiome: The many

353		determinants of host-associated microbial community composition. Curr.
354		Opin. Microbiol. 35, 23–29
355	29	Leibold, M.A. et al. (2004) The metacommunity concept: A framework for
356		multi-scale community ecology. <i>Ecol. Lett.</i> 7, 601–613
357	30	Bili, M. et al. (2016) Bacterial community diversity harboured by interacting
358		species. <i>PLoS One</i> 11, e0155392
359	31	Pringle, E.G. and Moreau, C.S. (2017) Community analysis reveals microbial
360		sharing and specialization in a Costa Rican ant-plant-hemipteran symbiosis.
361		Proc. R. Soc. London B Biol. Sci. 284, 20162770
362	32	Zug, R. and Hammerstein, P. (2012) Still a host of hosts for Wolbachia:
363		Analysis of recent data suggests that 40% of terrestrial arthropod species are
364		infected. PLoS One 7, e38544
365	33	Werren, J.H. et al. (2008) Wolbachia: Master manipulators of invertebrate
366		biology. Nat. Rev. Microbiol. 6, 741–751
367	34	Teixeira, L. et al. (2008) The bacterial symbiont Wolbachia induces resistance
368		to RNA viral infections in <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> . PLoS Biol. 6, e1000002
369	35	Moreira, L.A. et al. (2009) A Wolbachia symbiont in Aedes aegypti limits
370		infection with dengue, chikungunya, and plasmodium. Cell 139, 1268–1278
371	36	Pereira, T.N. et al. (2018) Wolbachia significantly impacts the vector
372		competence of Aedes aegypti for Mayaro virus. Sci. Rep. 8, 6889
373	37	Sicard, M. et al. (2014) A host as an ecosystem: Wolbachia coping with
374		environmental constraints. Environ. Microbiol. 16, 3583–3607
375	38	Pietri, J.E. et al. (2016) The rich somatic life of Wolbachia. Microbiologyopen 5,
376		923–936

377	39	Hughes, G.L. et al. (2014) Native microbiome impedes vertical transmission of
378		Wolbachia in Anopheles mosquitoes. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 111, 12498–
379		12503
380	40	Audsley, M.D. et al. (2017) The microbiome composition of Aedes aegypti is
381		not critical for Wolbachia-mediated inhibition of dengue virus. PLoS Negl.
382		Trop. Dis. 11, e0005426
383	41	King, J.G. et al. (2018) Variation in Wolbachia effects on Aedes mosquitoes as
384		a determinant of invasiveness and vectorial capacity. Nat. Commun. 9, 1483
385	42	Hegde, S. et al. (2018) Microbiome interaction networks and community
386		structure from lab reared and field-collected Aedes aegypti, Aedes albopictus,
387		and Culex quinquefasciatus mosquito vectors. bioRxiv at
388		http://dx.doi.org/10.1101/337311
389	43	Hurst, G.D.D. and Frost, C.L. (2015) Reproductive parasitism: Maternally
390		inherited symbionts in a biparental world. Cold Spring Harb. Perspect. Biol. 7,
391		a017699
392	44	Sasaki, T. et al. (2002) Interspecific transfer of Wolbachia between two
393		lepidopteran insects expressing cytoplasmic incompatibility: A Wolbachia
394		variant naturally infecting Cadra cautella causes male killing in Ephestia
395		kuehniella. Genetics 162, 1313–1319
396	45	Jaenike, J. (2009) Coupled population dynamics of endosymbionts within and
397		between hosts. Oikos 118, 353–362
398	46	Ma, W.J. et al. (2014) Manipulation of arthropod sex determination by
399		endosymbionts: Diversity and molecular mechanisms. Sex. Dev. 8, 59–73
400	47	Haag, C.R. and Ebert, D. (2004) A new hypothesis to explain geographic

401		parthenogenesis. Ann. Zool. Fennici 41, 539–544
402	48	Ma, WJ. et al. (2015) Diploid males support a two-step mechanism of
403		endosymbiont-induced thelytoky in a parasitoid wasp. BMC Evol. Biol. 15, 84
404	49	Flores, H.A. and O'Neill, S.L. (2018) Controlling vector-borne diseases by
405		releasing modified mosquitoes. Nat. Rev. Microbiol. 16, 508–518
406	50	Santos-Garcia, D. et al. (2018) To B or not to B: Comparative genomics
407		suggests Arsenophonus as a source of B vitamins in whiteflies. Front.
408		Microbiol. 9, 2254
409	51	Agler, M.T. et al. (2016) Microbial hub taxa link host and abiotic factors to
410		plant microbiome variation. <i>PLoS Biol.</i> 14, e1002352
411	52	Jousset, A. et al. (2017) Where less may be more: How the rare biosphere
412		pulls ecosystems strings. ISME J. 11, 853–862
413	53	Layeghifard, M. et al. (2017) Disentangling interactions in the microbiome: A
414		network perspective. <i>Trends Microbiol.</i> 25, 217–228
415	54	Blaser, M.J. (2014) The microbiome revolution. J. Clin. Invest. 124, 4162–4165
416	55	Wong, A.CN. et al. (2014) Gut microbiota dictates the metabolic response of
417		Drosophila to diet. J. Exp. Biol. 217, 1894–1901
418	56	Shropshire, J.D. and Bordenstein, S.R. (2016) Speciation by symbiosis: The
419		microbiome and behavior. <i>MBio</i> 7, e01785
420	57	McFall-Ngai, M. et al. (2013) Animals in a bacterial world, a new imperative
421		for the life sciences. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 110, 3229–3236
422	58	Zilber-Rosenberg, I. and Rosenberg, E. (2008) Role of microorganisms in the
423		evolution of animals and plants: The hologenome theory of evolution. FEMS
424		Microbiol. Rev. 32, 723–735

425 Carrier, T.J. and Reitzel, A.M. (2017) The hologenome across environments 59 426 and the implications of a host-associated microbial repertoire. Front. 427 Microbiol. 8, 802 428 60 Rosenberg, E. and Zilber-Rosenberg, I. (2018) The hologenome concept of 429 evolution after 10 years. Microbiome 6, 78 430 61 Bonnet, S.I. et al. (2017) The tick microbiome: Why non-pathogenic 431 microorganisms matter in tick biology and pathogen transmission. Front. Cell. 432 Infect. Microbiol. 7, 236 433 62 Chandler, J.A. et al. (2011) Bacterial communities of diverse Drosophila 434 species: Ecological context of a host-microbe model system. PLoS Genet. 7, 435 e1002272 436 63 Brooks, A.W. et al. (2016) Phylosymbiosis: Relationships and functional 437 effects of microbial communities across host evolutionary history. PLoS Biol. 438 14, e2000225 439 64 Chaplinska, M. et al. (2016) Bacterial communities differ among Drosophila 440 melanogaster populations and affect host resistance against parasitoids. PLoS 441 One 11, e0167726 442 65 Engel, P. and Moran, N.A. (2013) The gut microbiota of insects - Diversity in 443 structure and function. FEMS Microbiol. Rev. 37, 699-735 444 66 Colman, D.R. et al. (2012) Do diet and taxonomy influence insect gut bacterial 445 communities? Mol. Ecol. 21, 5124-5137 446 Russell, J.A. and Moran, N.A. (2006) Costs and benefits of symbiont infection 67 447 in aphids: Variation among symbionts and across temperatures. Proc. R. Soc. 448 London B Biol. Sci. 273, 603-610

449	68	Martinez, J. et al. (2014) Symbionts commonly provide broad spectrum
450		resistance to viruses in insects: A comparative analysis of Wolbachia strains.
451		PLoS Pathog. 10, e1004369
452		
453		

- 454 Glossary:
- 455 **Ecosystem**: the complex network of living organisms, their physical environment, and
- 456 their interactions in a particular unit of space. In our context a host, its associated
- 457 microbiome and all potential interactions among living organisms and with
- 458 environmental conditions.
- 459 **Endosymbionts:** microbial associates living within the body or cells of another
- 460 organism (host).
- 461 **Hologenome:** the sum of the genetic information of the host and its microbiome.
- 462 Horizontal transmission: transmission of microbes between individuals, species or
- with free-living microbes.
- 464 **Host:** organism in which an endosymbiont or microbiome live.
- 465 **Host-microbe interactions:** interactions between any microbial species or microbial
- communities (either a symbiont or part of the remainder microbial community) and a
- 467 host.
- 468 **Hub species:** microbial species that are strongly interconnected by several links within
- a network and play an important role in community functioning and/or stability.
- 470 Abiotic factors and host genotype can directly act on hub species, thus spreading the
- 471 effects to the whole microbial community.
- 472 **Metacommunity:** a set of interacting communities that are regulated by processes
- such as dispersal, extinction and recolonization.
- 474 **Microbes:** microscopic organisms, including bacteria, fungi, protozoa, and viruses.
- 475 **Microbiome**: a community of microbes that inhabit a particular environment.
- 476 **Parthenogenesis:** clonal reproduction, in which an unfertilized egg develops into a
- 477 new individual.

478	Phenotype: the set of observable characteristics of an individual resulting from the
479	interaction of its genotype with the environment.
480	Phenotypic effects: changes in a phenotype caused by an external influencing factor,
481	here symbionts.
482	Remainder microbiome: the microbiome excluding the symbiont under investigation.
483	Note that we consider symbionts here as a separate microbial entity due to historical
484	reasons and to highlight the differences between both, but in fact they are a part of
485	the microbiome and as such, should be studied together.
486	Symbiont: here microbial associate of any type in a close and long-term biological
487	interaction (mutualism, commensalism or parasitism) with biological organisms, of
488	the same or of different species.
489	Traits: characteristics or attributes of an organism that are expressed by genes and/or
490	influenced by the environment.
491	Vectorial capacity: the capability for disease transmission by a vector to a host, as
492	influenced by behavioral, ecological and environmental factors, such as population
493	density, host preference, feeding habits or frequency, duration of latent period, or
494	longevity.
495	Vertical transmission: maternal transmission of microbes to offspring.
496	

Box 1: The host as an Ecosystem

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

Historically, symbiosis research in insects has focused primarily on binary interactions between hosts and individual endosymbionts [3,33] and therefore observed phenotypic effects were attributed to the single symbiont. This binary point of view was challenged in recent years. The 'microbiome revolution' [54] of the past 10 years revealed that all animals are copiously colonized by microorganisms, collectively called the microbiome, of which the symbionts are part. During this revolution it was realized that similar to single symbionts, the microbiome can also impact important host traits [17,55,56] and thus influence the ecology and evolution of their hosts [57], acting as an extended genome of the host, the hologenome [58]. Therefore, it has been proposed that the host itself should be viewed as a complex ecosystem, in which not only single symbionts interact with the host, but also the microbiome interacts with symbionts and hosts [37,57]. An additional scale of complexity has recently gained attention, namely that host-microbe associations are also part of a wider microbial community maintained by transmission between individual hosts and dispersal between host-associated and free-living microbial communities [8,28]. In 2017, Carrier & Reitzel [59] introduced the idea of a "host-associated microbial repertoire," which is the sum of microbial species a host may associate with over the course of its life under all encountered environmental circumstances. Due to this plasticity in the microbiome, the microbiome genome could allow hosts to adapt and survive under changing environmental conditions thus providing the time necessary for the host genome to adapt and evolve [60]. From this it becomes clear that one host can harbour a diverse microbial community, the entities of which interact with each other, potentially competing for space, energy, and resources, and ultimately influencing the condition of the host by conferring multiple detrimental, neutral, or beneficial effects [61]. Therefore, a more holistic approach in studying the interaction between the different partners is needed.

Box 2: Factors influencing host microbiome specificity

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

Host-microbe interactions are shaped by a multitude of factors, i.e. factors associated with the host such as immunity [62], phylogeny [63], host population background [64], physicochemical conditions in the insect habitat (e.g., gut pH, oxygen tensions), and structural filters in the gut [65] but also environmental factors such as diet [66] and temperature [67]. Abiotic factors do have a crucial effect on microbes and the host, and therefore on their interactions. External environmental conditions significantly affect the infective states of hosts including the density of the endosymbionts inhabiting the host body, e.g. high temperature [4,25,26] with occurring seasonal changes of symbiont density such as Wolbachia [9,26,27]. In addition, these associations are also part of a wider microbial community maintained by transmission between individual hosts and dispersal between hostassociated and free-living microbial communities [8,28,59]. While our understanding of the factors that affect the composition and abundance of the microbiome is expanding, there are still many unanswered questions regarding microbiome assembly and maintenance. Exposure to environmental microbes has undoubtedly a major influence on the microbial communities of an organism [42], as metacommunity studies revealed that microbial communities associated with different interaction partners (species) differ in terms of composition and abundance, but shared microbes among the macro-partners [30,31]. Unravelling the role of environment in shaping the host-associated microbiome (including symbionts) is crucial to place the specificity of interactions in an evolutionary context, for instance, by understanding whether deterministic processes lead to the selection of the horizontally transmitted microbes.

Box 3: Importance of laboratory versus field studies

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

Given the strong influence of environmental factors (Box1, Box2) on host-microbe interactions, the transitions from laboratory studies to the field might bear some difficulty [59]. Laboratory settings potentially restrict the full spectrum of hostmicrobe-associations compared to the natural setting where these associations have evolved [62]. Thus, it may limit the interpretation of the functional roles microbes play in host biology ([59]; Box2). A good example for this is the Wolbachia-mediated inhibition of dengue virus. Under laboratory condition it was indicated that the microbiome composition of the mosquito Aedes aegypti is not critical for inhibition [40]. However, when released into the wild the picture became more complex. Wolbachia, when introgressed into different genetic backgrounds increased the mean and the variance in mosquito susceptibility to dengue infection [41]. While the respective impacts of these factors are not easily disentangled, similarly complex multifactorial patterns likely underlie many host-microbe associations under ecologically realistic conditions. Given that Wolbachia appears to modify host susceptibility to a broad spectrum of pathogens [34,68], reliable predictions of invasiveness and vectorial capacity of transinfected mosquitoes require an informed account of natural mosquito pathogens and their interplay with Wolbachia [41]. A first step to get a more complete picture of the symbiotic effects of Wolbachia is to investigate these complex interactions simultaneously in the lab and field. In addition, a beneficial approach would be the mimicry of environmental factors, biotic and abiotic, in the lab. Microbiome and symbiont manipulation is often achieved through the use of antibiotics. However such approaches may have several overlooked side-effects. First, antibiotics may affect different components of the microbiome differently and hence alter the interaction networks. Second, results obtained in the absence of (parts of) the microbiome tell only one side of the story, as microbe-microbe interactions might modulate host response. Hence, in order to unravel the interactions and impact of host phenotype, host recolonization by a variety of well characterized microbes, or whole microbial communities, is required. Also the enrichment of the microbial diversity, mimicking possible biotic environmental influences such as transmission of free-living microbial communities, might be worthwile. Although these manipulations can only provide a mechanistic understanding of the tripartide interaction and may not be translatable to field settings, they nevertheless are an important first step in gaining a better understanding of host-microbe interactions.

Figure 1. Multipartite interactions affect the host phenotype. Symbiosis between microbial associates and a host is a ubiquitous feature of life on earth, modulating host phenotypes (host-symbiont interactions). In addition to endosymbionts, organisms harbour a collection of host-associated microbes, the microbiome that can impact important host traits (host-microbe interactions). These microbes interact with each other either direct via competition for resources and space, or indirect via the induction of a general immune response, potentially leading in changes of microbial community diversity, or abundance (microbe-microbe interactions). Therefore, a symbiont induced host phenotype, such as reproductive manipulation, parasite protection, or nutrition, is not only modulated by binary interactions, but also by a multitude of interaction between host, symbiont and the remainder microbiome, continuously influencing each other. Additionally, these interactions are influenced by their environment (grey circle), such as temperature, or diet, but by direct interaction with free living microbial communities. We thus advocate that only through an integrated approach that considers multiple interacting partners and environmental influences will we be able to gain a better understanding of host-microbe associations.

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

