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# Physiological costs of facultative endosymbionts in aphids assessed from energy metabolism

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9

#### 10 Abstract

- Many insect species harbor heritable bacterial endosymbionts. Some facultative
   endosymbionts provide benefits to their hosts under certain environmental conditions.
- Facultative endosymbionts are expected to impose additional energetic expenditures to
   their host, reducing host fitness. While there is accumulating evidence in plant sucking
   insects that facultative endosymbionts reduce the fitness of their host under permissive
   conditions, no direct energy costs associated with facultative endosymbionts have been
   identified.
- 18 3. Using the standard metabolic rate (SMR) as a measure of the energy cost of self-19 maintenance, we investigated whether two common facultative endosymbionts 20 Hamiltonella defensa or Regiella insecticola increase the maintenance cost of the pea 21 aphid Acyrthosiphon pisum and which could translate into host fitness reduction 22 ('compensation hypothesis'). In addition, we tested if there was a link between SMR 23 and the aphid fitness and whether it depended on endosymbiont density and aphid 24 energetic reserves. Finally, we measured SMR at different temperatures to assess the 25 impact of suboptimal thermal conditions on physiological cost of endosymbionts.
- 4. In the presence of facultative endosymbionts, aphids expressed generally a lower fitness
   and a higher SMR compared to uninfected ones, in accordance with the 'compensation
   hypothesis'. However, the SMR difference between infected and uninfected aphids
   tended to decrease with increasing temperature. Complex host genotype-by- symbiont
   genotype- by- temperature interactions on SMR were also revealed.
- 5. Energetic budget of adult aphids appeared weakly influenced by the aphid genotype and
   endosymbiont species, suggesting that facultative endosymbionts primarily impact the
   consumption of energy resources rather than their acquisition. Density of facultative

- endosymbionts varied largely among aphid lines but was not associated with the fitnessnor metabolic rate of aphids.
- 36
   6. This work provides a better understanding of the maintenance of facultative associations
   37 and raises new questions about the effect of facultative endosymbionts on the energy
   38 metabolism of their host.

#### 39 Keywords

40 Symbiosis ; standard metabolic rate ; aphid ; temperature ; Hamiltonella ; Regiella

#### 41 **1 Introduction**

42 The evolution and ecology of insects are influenced by their associations with heritable 43 bacterial endosymbionts (Feldhaar, 2011; McFall-Ngai et al., 2013). Herbivorous insects in 44 particular are renowned for hosting complex microbial communities that enlarge their 45 ecological niche and influence their interactions with environmental factors (Frago et al., 2012). 46 Over time, some associations evolved co-dependency between the endosymbionts and their 47 insect hosts, resulting in obligate mutualistic relationships. For instance, aphids typically harbor 48 the strict intracellular bacteria Buchnera aphidicola that provides nutrients lacking in the plant 49 phloem sap (Douglas, 1998). Other associations are facultative, however, such that the 50 symbiont is not essential for host viability but can confer fitness benefits under certain 51 environmental conditions (Bénard et al., 2020; Feldhaar, 2011; Oliver et al., 2010). For 52 instance, different endosymbionts are involved in the cuticle formation of their host in beetles, 53 thereby ameliorating fitness under dry environments (Anbutsu et al., 2017; Engl et al., 2018; 54 Vigneron et al., 2014). In sap-feeding insects, some facultative symbionts have been described 55 to provide host plant adaptation (Tsuchida et al., 2004; Wagner et al., 2015), heat-tolerance (Brumin et al., 2011; Burke et al., 2010) and protection from natural enemies (Hendry et al., 56 57 2014; Oliver et al., 2003).

58 Compared to obligate associations, facultative ones are generally more dynamic across 59 spatial and temporal scales (Carpenter et al., 2021; Leclair et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2021; 60 Zytynska & Weisser, 2016). For instance, a survey on pea aphids has shown that the frequency 61 of the facultative endosymbiont Hamiltonella defensa increased from 5% to 80% in field 62 populations within only 6 weeks, corresponding to few generations, and declined rapidly just 63 after (Smith et al., 2021). Balancing selection has been proposed to explain these fluctuations 64 in prevalence, such that the maintenance frequency of facultative endosymbionts in host 65 populations is expected to be mainly governed by the net fitness benefit provided to the host,

*i.e.* the balance between the benefits and the costs of hosting facultative symbionts according 66 67 to environmental conditions (Kwiatkowski & Vorburger, 2012; Oliver et al., 2014). Hence, 68 when selective pressures that favor the associations with facultative symbionts are weak the 69 costs of carrying facultative symbionts can exceed the benefits, thereby reducing the 70 competitive ability of infected insects compared to uninfected ones, and reciprocally when 71 selective pressures are strong (Dykstra et al., 2014; Oliver et al., 2008). Thus, the frequency 72 variations of some endosymbiont have been recently linked to temporal fluctuations of 73 environmental stressors, like climate and natural enemies (Carpenter et al., 2021; Leclair et al., 74 2021; Smith et al., 2021). Other factors such as stochastic processes are predicted to play a role 75 (Mathé-Hubert et al., 2019) but strong parallelism of frequency fluctuations observed across 76 various localities in field studies tends to minimize their importance (Carpenter et al., 2021). 77 During the last two decades, evidences of fitness costs associated with facultative 78 endosymbionts have been accumulating, especially in plant sucking insects (for a meta-analysis 79 Zytynska et al., 2021). For instance, the endosymbiont H. defensa, that provides protection 80 against parasitoid wasps, shortens the longevity of the black bean aphid, Aphis fabae, resulting 81 in a lower lifetime reproduction (Vorburger & Gouskov, 2011). Fitness costs and benefits of 82 carrying facultative endosymbionts also present complex variations resulting from host by 83 symbiont genetic interactions (Cayetano et al., 2015; Russell & Moran, 2006; Vorburger & 84 Gouskov, 2011) as well as from environmental factors (Liu et al., 2019; Zytynska et al., 2021).

85 Such fitness costs are expected to result from additional expenditures due to hosting 86 endosymbionts that relate to at least two non-mutually exclusive processes. First, 87 endosymbionts consume nutrients from the surrounding host cell and hence represent a 88 nutritional sink, except when they recycle host by-products (Ankrah et al., 2018). Based on 89 genomic predictions, facultative endosymbionts appear be generally auxotrophic for several 90 essential resources, in particular amino acids, and rely on their insect host to sustain their 91 metabolism (Degnan et al., 2009; Renoz et al., 2021). Negative correlations between host 92 fitness traits and facultative endosymbiont densities observed in aphids and Drosophila tend to 93 support the hypothesis of energetic demand imposed by the symbionts that further depress their 94 host fitness (Cayetano et al., 2015; Leclair et al., 2017; Parker, 2021; Weldon et al., 2013). 95 Second, in facultative associations, hosts present generally heightened immune related-96 functions to control bacterial density (Laughton et al., 2014). These immune responses come 97 probably at the cost of an increased energetic demand (Ardia et al., 2012; Blow et al., 2020;

Dolezal et al., 2019). However, these observations are only indirect, therefore demonstrations
of physiological costs associated with facultative endosymbionts are lacking.

100 The standard metabolic rate (SMR) is a widely measured physiological trait that has 101 been linked to important traits, such as reproductive output, longevity and immunity (Brown et 102 al., 2004; Koch et al., 2021). It can be interpreted as an integrative measure of the energy cost 103 of self-maintenance in a given environment (Burton et al., 2011). Under the 'compensation 104 hypothesis' (or 'allocation hypothesis'), a higher SMR suggests a fitness disadvantage as a 105 result of higher maintenance costs, and thereby a lower allocation of energy to growth and/or 106 reproduction (Nilsson, 2002). Hence, if facultative endosymbionts increase the maintenance 107 costs of their host, it would result in a higher SMR compared to uninfected host. By contrast, a 108 higher metabolic rate can contribute to increased energy intake (e.g. higher feeding rate) for 109 reproduction (so-called 'increased intake hypothesis') (Careau & Garland, 2012). The increase 110 of the metabolic rate observed in female mosquitoes Aedes aegypti carrying a life-shortening 111 strain of Wolbachia (wMelPop) tends to support the 'compensation hypothesis' (Evans et al., 112 2009), although the fitness consequence was not directly evaluated. To our knowledge this 113 study is the only one investigating the impact of facultative endosymbionts on host metabolic 114 rate. Measurements of metabolic rates need to be associated with assessments of fitness cost or 115 benefit to determine which mechanistic hypothesis prevails (compensation or increased 116 uptake). Such approach has never been applied to facultative associations, thereby limiting our 117 ability to understand the nature and extent of the physiological costs associated with facultative 118 endosymbionts.

119 We applied this approach to investigate whether facultative endosymbionts entail a 120 fitness cost in the pea aphid Acyrthosiphon pisum and whether the SMR of aphids relates to this 121 fitness cost. Aphids are a relevant model to explore this question as they are well known to host 122 diverse species of facultative endosymbionts, associated with ecological benefits but also 123 fitness costs (Guo et al., 2017; Oliver et al., 2010; Zytynska et al., 2021). We measured 124 metabolic rate and fitness traits in several associations involving two common bacterial 125 endosymbionts, H. defensa and Regiella insecticola. We compared different pea aphid 126 genotypes infected either by H. defensa or R. insecticola to their uninfected counterparts 127 (ending with 9 different combinations) to test whether endosymbiont effect varies according to 128 bacterial species and host genotype. This experimental design evaluates whether the 129 compensation versus increased intake hypotheses prevail by investigating the link between 130 SMR and fitness of aphids. In addition, we measured the endosymbiont density and energetic

131 reserves of adult aphids to test whether they are related to aphid SMR and fitness. Under the 132 increased intake hypothesis, we expected that energetic reserves of adult aphids should be 133 positively correlated to SMR, whereas aphid SMR should not be influenced by energetic 134 reserves under the compensation hypothesis. Finally, ectotherm metabolic rate increases 135 exponentially with temperature (Angilletta, 2009) and therefore the impact of facultative 136 endosymbionts may be seen at suboptimal temperatures and not under optimal thermal regimes 137 for the host. We explored this thermal dependency by measuring the SMR of the 9 aphidsymbionts combinations under different temperature regimes spanning optimal and suboptimal 138 139 conditions. The obligate endosymbiont, B. aphidicola, is particularly vulnerable to high 140 temperature and restricts thermal tolerance of their aphid host (Dunbar et al., 2007; Zhang et 141 al., 2019). Therefore, we predicted that warm suboptimal temperatures would exacerbate any 142 potential physiological cost induced by the endosymbionts as they may approach the thermal 143 stress zone (i.e., higher SMR).

#### 144 **2 Materials and Methods**

#### 145 2.1 Experimental lines

Four pea aphid (*Acyrthosiphon pisum*) genotypes collected in France, United Kingdom
and Japan were used in this study (Table 1). Lines infected and uninfected by facultative
endosymbionts were compared to assess the effects of endosymbionts on aphid traits.

Genotype	Origin	Collection	Natural host	Line	Secondary	Aphid genotype-
			plant		endosymbiont	endosymbiont
						combination
YR2	United	2002	Trifolium sp.	YR2-acg	None	Artificial
	Kingdom			YR2+Hd <sup>L100</sup>	H. defensa	Artificial
				YR2+Reg <sup>YR2</sup>	R. insecticola	Naturally-occurring
L9MS-07	France	2011	Medicago	L9MS-07acg	None	Artificial
			sativa	L9MS-07acg+Hd	H. defensa	Naturally-occurring
				L9MS-07		
LL01	France	1987	Medicago	LL01	None	Naturally-occurring
			sativa	LL01+Reg <sup>A-AA-01</sup>	R. insecticola	Artificial
TUt	Japan	2001	Trifolium sp.	TUt-amp	None	Artificial
				TUt-amp+Reg <sup>Tut</sup>	R. insecticola	Naturally-occurring

149 **Table 1.** Characteristics of the pea aphid lines used in the experiments

150

151 These different aphid genotypes are all distinct on the basis of 7 polymorphic microsatellite loci

152 (Peccoud et al., 2008) and were checked before starting the experiments. Nine lines carrying

153 either H. defensa or R. insecticola were established by antibiotic treatments followed by 154 microinjection of bacteria-containing hemolymph using the procedure described in Sochard et 155 al. (2020) (Table 1). It is worth noting that due to experimental variation in the success rates of 156 symbiont introduction and maintenance, we could not have all the aphid lineages allowing a 157 full-factorial design. Further, different strains of H. defensa and R. insecticola have been 158 injected in the different aphid genotypes, precluding the investigation of the endosymbiont 159 strain effect. Before and after experiments, the symbiotic status of aphids of each line was 160 verified by diagnostic PCR using specific primers (Table S1). Prior to experiments, the aphid 161 lines have been maintained parthenogenetically for at least 80 generations at 18°C on broad 162 bean, Vicia faba L. (Fabaceae), under a L16:D8 photoperiod. Plants were grown individually 163 in plastic pots filled with commercial seed raising mixture and placed in a greenhouse under 164 long days. To control the age of the aphids in all the experiments, adult aphids were placed on 165 young healthy plants to reproduce for 24 hours and were then removed to let only newborns of 166 the same age ( $\pm$  12 hours). Cages made from clear plastic cylinders and fine mesh were placed 167 on plants to prevent aphid escape.

#### 168 2.2 Fitness costs associated with facultative endosymbionts

169 The lifetime reproduction and adult longevity of aphids were measured for all nine lines. 170 For this, unwinged adult aphids were kept individually on the abaxial part of broad bean leaves using clip-cages (diameter: 2.5cm) and maintained at 18°C in a climatic chamber (PHCBI 171 172 model MIR-254-PE) with a photoperiod of L16:D8. The introduction of aphids into the clip-173 cages was done before their first reproduction. Survival and fecundity were observed every 2-174 3 days and the offspring were counted and removed from the clip-cages after each observation. 175 When the adult aphids died between two observations, the median date was taken as the date 176 of death. The maximum observation time was 18 days. The data from individuals that survived 177 >18 days were considered censored in the statistical analyses (see below). Between three and 178 five clip-cages were placed on the same plant, and aphids on the same plant were from the same 179 line to avoid putative plant-mediated horizontal transfer of endosymbionts (Li et al., 2018; Pons 180 et al., 2019). Location of the plants in the climatic chamber was rotated after each observation. 181 At least 11 individuals were observed for each line.

182

#### 183 2.3 Standard metabolic rate of aphids

184 Standard metabolic rate (SMR) of aphids was determined by measuring their oxygen 185 consumption through time in a closed respiratory system. We used two 24-well multi-dishes

186 (80µl volume, Loligo Systems, Denmark) integrated to a fluorescence-based multichannel 187 respirometer (SDR SensorDish Reader, PreSens, Germany). This system offers a non-invasive 188 and non-destructive method to assess real time oxygen consumption of small organisms by 189 measuring the amount of oxygen in percent saturation in wells over time. Measurements were 190 carried out on unwinged adult aphids (10-14 days-old) because it is expected to be the stage at 191 which endosymbiont densities reach a peak (Laughton et al., 2014; Simonet et al., 2016) and 192 so putatively the most relevant stage to measure symbiont-associated costs. Aphids of the 193 different lines were randomly distributed between and within each plate and were transferred 194 individually into wells sealed with adhesive PCR film (Thermo Scientific, USA). The 195 respirometer was used following the manufacturer's recommendations. Measurements were 196 carried out at three different temperatures (18°, 22° and 26°C) by placing microplates in a 197 climatic chamber (PHCBI, model MIR-254-PE) and the temperature of the microplates has 198 been verified with a thermocouple data logger (Hobo UX120, Onset). This range of temperature 199 is representative of the conditions encountered by A. pisum during the growing season under 200 temperate climates (Carpenter et al., 2021) and is expected to encompass optimal (18°-22°C) 201 and suboptimal conditions (26°C) (Lamb, 1992). Oxygen concentration inside wells was 202 measured every 30 seconds during 60 minutes. During this period, aphids were not handled and 203 kept in darkness. This observation period is short enough to limit the effects of aphid 204 dehydration and avoid deleterious stress for the aphids (Kouame & Mackauer, 1992; Nelson, 205 2007, personal observation). SMR was calculated as the slope of the oxygen depletion over 206 time (MO<sub>2</sub> in pmol.min<sup>-1</sup>) after truncation of both extremities to keep the most linear portion. 207 For each series of measurements, four wells of each microplate were left empty and used as 208 negative controls. At least 30 individuals were analyzed for each lineage and each temperature 209 - different individuals were used for each temperature exposure. As the metabolic rate is related 210 to body mass (Gillooly et al., 2001), fresh mass of aphids was measured at the end of each trial 211 on an electronic scale (Sartorius balance,  $\pm 0.001$  mg). Aphids were then kept individually at -212 20 ° C for subsequent molecular and physiological analyses (see below).

213

#### 214 2.4 Energetic budget quantification

The whole body energy content was calculated for each individual aphid in the 9 lines exposed to 18°C. The amounts of proteins, free sugars, lipids, and glycogen were quantified individually using an adjusted version of the protocol of Foray et al. (2012). Briefly, aphids were first solubilized in a phosphate-lysis buffer and total proteins were then assayed using

219 Bradford's reagent (B6916, Sigma-Aldrich) with BSA as a standard. In a second step, a 220 chloroform-methanol mixture was added to the aqueous phase and carbohydrates (free sugars 221 and glycogen) were quantified using Anthrone reagent (319899, Sigma-Aldrich) and D-glucose 222 was used as standard, whereas total lipid quantification was performed using Vanillin (V1104, 223 Sigma -Aldrich), with triolein as a standard. Optical density measurements were performed 224 using a spectrophotometer (NanoQuant, TECAN). The total energy budget of aphids was then 225 computed using the following equivalence: 16 Joules per mg carbohydrates or proteins and 226 37.65 Joules per mg lipids (Giron & Casas, 2003; Jervis et al., 2008). At least 18 aphids were 227 analyzed per aphid line.

228

#### 229 2.5 Quantification of facultative endosymbiont densities

230 To evaluate the possible effect of endosymbiont density on fitness-related traits and 231 SMR of aphids, we estimated *H. defensa* and *R. insecticola* densities relative to aphid gene 232 copies using real-time quantitative PCR. DNA was extracted individually from five adult aphids 233 (12-13 days-old) of each line using the NucleoSpin DNA Insect kit (Macherey-Nagel). Primers 234 specifically amplifying the gyrB gene from H. defensa and the tufB gene from R. insecticola 235 were used (Table S1). The relative abundance of *H. defensa* or *R. insecticola* was determined 236 after normalization to aphid single copy *CtpL* gene using specific primers (Table S1). The qPCR 237 reaction mixture included 6.5 µl qPCR MasterMix for SYBR green (Eurogentec), 1.25 µl of 238 each primer (300nM), 0.25 µl ddH<sub>2</sub>O and 5 µl of template DNA. The qPCRs were run in 239 triplicate (technical replicates) on a QuantStudio 6 Flex Real-Time PCR System (Life 240 Technologies). Copy number of each gene was estimated based on standard curves prepared 241 with 10-fold dilutions of genomic DNA ranging from  $10^2$  to  $10^8$  copies/5 µl.

242

#### 243 2.6 Statistical analyses

244 In all analyses, the two main explanatory variables tested were the genotype (four 245 modalities) and the symbiotic status (three modalities corresponding to 'without facultative 246 endosymbiont', 'infected by H. defensa' and 'infected by R. insecticola'). The temperature was 247 also introduced as an explanatory variable to analyze the SMR. In preliminary analyses, SMR 248 did not vary according to the plate (p=0.88) and the between plate effect was not included in 249 subsequent analyses. Linear models were used to analyze SMR and energetic reserves. The 250 number of offspring was analyzed by means of a generalized linear mixed model with a Poisson 251 error distribution (log link function) and with the plant identity as random effect. To compare

the adult longevity of aphids, we used a parametric survival analysis assuming a Weibull distribution and allowing censored data (*i.e.* individuals still alive after 18 days) to be considered. The variation of symbiont density among infected lines was analyzed by means of a Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test on averaged values of technical triplicates. Spearman's rank correlation tests were also used to analyze the correlation between various traits. All statistical analyzes and graphs were conducted using R version 4.0.3 (R Development Core Team, 2007) with the 'lme4', 'survival' and 'ggplot2' packages.

#### 259 **3 Results**

260 3.1 Influence of facultative symbionts on aphid fitness

261 Both lifetime reproduction and adult survival of aphids were affected by the genotype 262 and the symbiotic status of aphids (Fig. 1). Genotype and symbiotic status had an interactive 263 effect on the lifetime reproduction of aphids (Z= -4.71, p< 0.001, Fig. 1a). Facultative 264 endosymbionts reduced the number of offspring produced by aphids, except in the LL01 265 genotype (Z= -0.476, p= 0.634). On average, the lifetime reproduction of aphids infected by *H*. 266 defensa and R. insecticola was 59% and 39% lower than their uninfected counterparts, 267 respectively. The survival analyses revealed that the presence of facultative endosymbionts 268 shortens the adult longevity of aphids for the YR2 and TUt genotypes (YR2: |z|=3.44, p< 0.001; 269 TUt: |z| = 2.08, p< 0.037, Fig. 1b) but not for the LL01 and L9MS07 genotypes (LL01: |z| = 0.59, p= 0.55; L9MS07: |z|= 1.51, p= 0.13, Fig. 1b). 270



**Fig. 1.** Lifetime reproduction (a) and adult survival (b) of aphids without facultative endosymbiont ("None", black and solid line), infected by *H. defensa* ("Hd+", red and dashed line) and infected by *R. insecticola* ("Ri+", blue

and dash-dotted line). The lower and upper edges of the boxplots represent 25% and 75% quantiles; the intermediate lines are the median; and the whiskers indicate the smallest and largest non-outlier observations. In the survival curves, crosses represent censured data. Sample size is denoted by "*n*". Asterisks and "ns" indicate significant (\*: p < 0.05; \*\*: p < 0.01; \*\*\*: p < 0.001) and non-significant (p > 0.05) differences according to aphid's symbiotic status.

271

272 3.2 Aphid standard metabolic rate

273 The effect of facultative endosymbionts on the standard metabolic rate (SMR) of aphids 274 varied according to the aphid genotype and temperature as highlighted by the significant 275 interactive effect between the genotype, temperature and symbiotic status on SMR ( $F_{3,932}$ = 3.98, p= 0.008, Fig. 2). In general, facultative endosymbionts significantly increased aphid 276 SMR, except in the YR2 genotype at 22°C ( $F_{2,104}$ = 2.03, p= 0.14, Fig. 2a) and LL01 and TUt 277 278 genotypes at 26°C (LL01: t = -0.67, p = 0.49; TUt: t = -0.82, p = 0.42, Fig. 2c). Conversely, in the 279 L9MS07 genotype at 26°C, aphids hosting H. defensa had a lower SMR than uninfected ones 280 (t= -6.62, p< 0.001, Fig. 2c). Overall, R. insecticola seemed to have a larger effect on aphid 281 SMR than H. defensa, as the infection by R. insecticola modified the rate of oxygen 282 consumption on average by +17.5 % whereas the mean variation of SMR induced by H. defensa 283 was +11.3%. As expected, overall, the SMR increased with increasing temperature ( $F_{1.932}$ = 284 651.1, p< 0.001; mean  $\pm$  se: 18°C: 31.02  $\pm$  0.53, 22°C: 38.42  $\pm$  0.47, 26°C: 45.62  $\pm$  0.38). 285 Moreover, the effect of endosymbionts on aphid SMR was larger at lower temperature ( $F_{2,932}$ = 286 24.98, p< 0.001, Fig. 2), with the variation of SMR induced by endosymbionts ranging from 287 10.2% to 39.8% at 18°C and from 0.6% to 19.2% at 26°C.





**Fig. 2.** Standard metabolic rate (SMR) of aphids without facultative endosymbiont ("None", black), infected by *H. defensa* ("Hd+", red) and infected by *R. insecticola* ("Ri+", blue) at 18°C (a), 22°C (b) and 26°C (c). The lower and upper edges of the boxplots represent 25% and 75% quantiles; the intermediate lines are the median; and the whiskers indicate the smallest and largest non-outlier observations. Sample size is denoted by "*n*". Asterisks and "ns" indicate significant (\*: p < 0.05; \*\*: p < 0.01; \*\*\*: p < 0.01) and non-significant (p > 0.05) differences according to aphid's symbiotic status.

288

The increase in metabolic rate was not associated with a reduction of the lifetime reproduction and adult lifespan of aphids at  $18^{\circ}$ C (lifetime reproduction: r= -0.43, p= 0.25; lifespan: r= -0.63, p= 0.076) (Fig. 3). However, the power of this statistical test is low given that it is based on only 9 values.



**Fig. 3.** Relationship between the standard metabolic rate and the lifetime reproduction (a) and the adult lifespan (b) of aphids measured at 18°C.

293

#### 294 3.3 Aphid energetic budget

295 The energetic budget of aphids depended on the interaction between their genotype and their symbiotic status ( $F_{3,158}$ = 7.62, p<0.001). This effect appeared principally associated with 296 297 the larger energy content in the LL01 genotype carrying R. insecticola compared to their 298 uninfected counterpart (t= -4.14, p<0.001, Fig. 4). The energetic budget did not vary significantly according to the symbiotic status in the other genotypes (YR2:  $F_{2, 51}$ = 1.18, p= 299 0.32; L9MS07: t = -1.83, p = 0.07; Tut: t = -0.22, p = 0.83). In contrast, when analyzed separately, 300 301 protein, lipid, free sugar and glycogen contents revealed complex variations according to the 302 genotype and symbiotic status of aphids (Table S2, Fig S1). In general, the energetic budget 303 was positively correlated to the SMR (r= 0.42-0.75, p<0.05), except in L9MS-07acg (r= 0.13, 304 p= 0.51).



**Fig. 4.** Whole-body energy budget of adult aphids without facultative endosymbiont ("None", black), infected by *H. defensa* ("Hd+", red) and infected by *R. insecticola* ("Ri+", blue). The lower and upper edges of the boxplots represent 25% and 75% quantiles; the intermediate lines are the median; and the whiskers indicate the smallest and largest non-outlier observations. Sample size is denoted by "*n*". Asterisks and "ns" indicate significant (\*: p < 0.05; \*\*: p < 0.01; \*\*\*: p < 0.001) and non-significant (p> 0.05) differences according to aphid's symbiotic status.

305

#### 306 3.4 Endosymbiont densities

The symbiont titers varied significantly among aphid lines (Kruskal-Wallis  $\chi^2$  test: Z= 307 20.95, p<0.001). Particularly, the average density of *H. defensa* and *R. insecticola* were 38 and 308 309 8 times higher in YR2 genotype than in other genotypes, respectively (Fig. 5). The difference 310 of mean lifetime reproduction between infected aphids compared to their uninfected 311 counterparts was not correlated to the mean symbiont density (r = -0.3, p = 0.68). In addition, the difference of mean SMR between infected aphids and their uninfected counterparts was not 312 313 correlated to the symbiont density whatever the temperature at which SMR was measured (18°C: r= -0.4, p= 0.52; 22°C: r=-0.9, p= 0.08; 26°C: r= -0.1, p= 0.95). 314



**Fig. 5.** Relative densities of *H. defensa* ("Hd+", red) and *R. insecticola* ("Ri+", blue), *i.e.* the ratio between symbiont gene copy numbers and host gene copy numbers, in adult aphids according to aphid genotype. The lower and upper edges of the boxplots represent 25% and 75% quantiles; the intermediate lines are the median; and the whiskers indicate the smallest and largest non-outlier observations.

#### 315

#### 316 **4 Discussion**

317 The physiological cost of hosting endosymbionts has rarely been determined 318 concomitantly with fitness cost. Measurements of metabolic rates need to be associated with assessments of fitness cost or benefit to determine whether an increase in metabolic rate 319 320 translates into a decrease of the host fitness or is balanced by an increased feeding uptake. We 321 showed a clear cost of facultative symbionts on their hosts' fitness in many instances, 322 confirming earlier studies (Oliver et al., 2014; Zytynska et al., 2021). This fitness cost is linked 323 to some extent to the negative impact of endosymbionts on the SMR of aphids under favorable 324 thermal conditions. Therefore, under optimal temperature, the facultative endosymbionts cause 325 an increase of the host metabolic expanses, and the insect host is not able to fully compensate 326 this energy loss by increasing nutrient uptake for instance. In addition, we confirmed that aphid 327 phenotype displays complex variations depending on bacterial species, host genotype and 328 environmental conditions (Oliver et al., 2006; Russell & Moran, 2006). This complexity was 329 particularly obvious at elevated temperature because in one association the SMR was reduced 330 in presence of endosymbionts, suggesting that a physiological benefit of hosting microbes may 331 happen under challenging thermal conditions.

332 4.1 Energetic cost of hosting facultative endosymbionts

Our study highlighted that aphids harboring *H. defensa* and *R. insecticola* generally experienced a decrease in adult lifespan and lifetime reproduction. This is in line with a recent meta-analysis concluding that, under benign conditions, the hosting of these two facultative

336 endosymbionts generally resulted in fitness costs in A. pisum (Zytynska et al., 2021). Naturally 337 occurring associations with facultative endosymbionts are expected to be less costly than 338 experimental infection, due to purifying selection against novel and more costly endosymbionts 339 (Oliver et al., 2006; Zytynska et al., 2021). Our results were not in accordance with this trend 340 as the LL01 aphid line did not suffer any fitness reduction when infected by R. insecticola 341 whereas it is the unique line in our study that is naturally deprived of any facultative 342 endosymbionts. Conversely, the fitness of YR2 aphids is strongly affected by the infection with *R. insecticola* whereas this association (YR2+Reg<sup>YR2</sup>) was established from field collection. 343 This result showed that new symbiotic associations are not systematically counter-selected and 344 345 can have a high probability of increasing in frequency within natural host populations. It could 346 be interesting to investigate whether the absence of infection cost depends on host or symbiont 347 genetic factors. Despite the establishment and maintenance of the lines used in this study for 348 several years in the laboratory, they are representative of the preferential associations between 349 the clover biotype of A. pisum and the endosymbiont R. insecticola, as well as the association 350 between the alfalfa biotype and *H. defensa* commonly found in natural populations of *A. pisum* 351 in various countries (Ferrari et al., 2011; Russell et al., 2013; Simon et al., 2003) and over years 352 (Leclair et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2015). However, it has been recently highlighted that 353 symbiont-associated fitness costs can fluctuate through long-time period in lab culture 354 putatively due to variations in symbiont densities (Kaech et al., 2022), suggesting that our 355 results may under- or over-estimate symbiont-associated fitness costs of current natural 356 populations depending on changes in symbiont population sizes since collection.

357 Standard metabolic rate is classically interpreted as the energy cost of an organism to 358 live in a given environment (Burton et al., 2011). Thus, in many species including aphids, a 359 variation in SMR is interpreted as a variation in the energy costs associated with self-360 maintenance (Castañeda et al., 2009). In the presence of facultative endosymbionts, aphids 361 generally expressed a higher SMR than uninfected ones under optimal thermal conditions (18-362 22°C). This pattern is consistent with the hypothesis that infected aphids invest more energy to 363 self-maintenance, due to additional expenditures to hosting facultative endosymbionts. Such a 364 cost could arise from the metabolites and structures provided by the hosts to their 365 endosymbiotic partners (Degnan et al., 2009). Prior to our study, only the work of Evans et al., 366 (2009) on A. aegypti infected with Wolbachia revealed a facultative endosymbiont-induced 367 increase in metabolic rate. Similar effects likely arise in Drosophila as well, since different 368 strains of Wolbachia either increase or decrease the flies' locomotor activity (Hague et al.,

369 2021), which necessarily implies variations in their metabolic rate. There are few studies 370 suggesting that *Wolbachia* could interact with its host's aerobic metabolism, either by 371 supplementing or hijacking it (Darby et al., 2012; Uribe-Alvarez et al., 2019). Such sub-cellular 372 effects of facultative endosymbionts need to be investigated in other symbiotic associations, 373 such as *H. defensa* and *R. insecticola* with aphids.

374 The comparison of several aphid lines revealed complex variations of the SMR 375 depending on the aphid and bacterial genotypes. Such phenotypic variations have been widely 376 reported for different traits and are more likely the result of complex host genotype-by-377 symbiont genotype interactions (Parker et al., 2017; Vorburger & Gouskov, 2011). In various 378 insect-symbiont associations, fitness costs induced by endosymbionts have been positively 379 correlated with the bacterial density (Cayetano et al., 2015; Nichols et al., 2021). In our study, 380 nor fitness costs nor SMR were positively correlated with endosymbiont density. This 381 discrepancy might be due to insufficient statistical power in our study (N=5) or suggest 382 additional factors driving endosymbiont costs. It has been recently demonstrated that 383 endosymbiont density in A. pisum was controlled by the host immune system and that this was 384 influenced by host genetic factors, such that some aphid genotypes experienced high-density 385 symbiont titer due to reduced immune gene expression, whereas other genotypes had a strong 386 immune response, maintaining symbionts at a low density (Nichols et al., 2021). Future studies 387 should integrate the immune response of aphids to better understand the variations in bacterial 388 density and its consequence for hosts. Indeed, we can hypothesize contrasted strategies among 389 aphid lines used in our study, with some aphid genotypes regulating strongly endosymbiont 390 density at the expense of a strong immune response, whereas others let the endosymbionts reach 391 a high density at the cost of a significant uptake of resources by the bacteria. In both cases, we 392 expect that infection by endosymbionts results in an increase in metabolic rate and a decrease 393 of the host fitness.

394 4.2 Link between SMR and fitness

The "compensation hypothesis" proposes that a higher SMR corresponds to a higher allocation of energy to self-maintenance, and thereby a lower amount of energy remaining to fuel growth and reproduction (Nilsson, 2002). This hypothesis was supported by the differences observed between infected and uninfected aphids as aphids carrying facultative endosymbionts had a higher SMR in general and presented lower fitness-related traits than their uninfected counterparts (but see below for exception). However, the expected negative correlation between aphid fitness and SMR was not clear when comparing the different genotype-symbiont

402 associations (Fig. 3), probably due to the large variability among infected lines relative to the 403 number of associations (N=9). This discrepancy feeds the debate around the link between SMR 404 and fitness in ectotherms (Burton et al., 2011; Careau & Garland, 2012) and could be explained 405 by alternative hypotheses. The "increased intake" hypothesis proposed that organisms with a 406 higher SMR would have a better (or unchanged) fitness thanks to a higher energy intake (Hayes 407 et al., 1992). LL01 aphids carrying R. insecticola presented a higher SMR without fitness 408 reduction compared to their uninfected counterpart, suggesting that "increased intake" 409 hypothesis holds for this line. The fact that this line is also the only one with a higher energetic 410 budget than its uninfected counterpart tends to support this hypothesis too. Further studies on 411 feeding behavior (e.g. EPG monitoring) and aphid intake (e.g. honeydew production assay) 412 would confirm whether aphids of this line increase their feeding intake (quantitatively and 413 qualitatively by consuming either xylem or phloem). Conversely, fitness of YR2 aphids 414 infected by H. defensa was strongly reduced without variation in their SMR compared to 415 uninfected aphids. This suggests pathogenic effects of this symbiotic strain putatively 416 associated with its over-replication, leading to local cellular and tissue dysfunctions and 417 damages, like Wolbachia wMelPop in D. melanogaster (Min & Benzer, 1997). We cannot 418 exclude however that the density of the obligate endosymbiont, *B. aphidicola*, varies among 419 aphid lines, with possible effect on aphid fitness and on the functions endorsed by the facultative 420 endosymbionts. Indeed, the facultative endosymbiont Serraria symbiotica can have a 421 nutritional role when *B. aphidicola* does not fully fulfill this function (Koga et al., 2003; 422 Lamelas et al., 2011). It is also important to note that our study is based on only one time point 423 measurement of SMR and an integrated measure of metabolic rate over lifetime could improve 424 our understanding of the relationship between SMR and fitness, by taking into account potential 425 age-related variations of the metabolic rate (Terblanche et al., 2005).

426 4.3 Impact of thermal conditions on facultative symbiosis

427 The effect of endosymbionts on aphid SMR varied according to the temperature. The 428 difference in SMR between infected and uninfected aphids tended to decrease with increasing 429 temperature. In one genotype (L9MS07), we even observed a lower SMR in infected aphids 430 than uninfected ones at 26°C, to the point that their SMR became slightly below the SMR of 431 infected aphids at 22°C. We can exclude the hypothesis that the variations in metabolic rate 432 according to the temperature are due to variations in the density of primary and secondary 433 endosymbionts because the aphids experienced these different temperatures only during the 434 SMR assay (*i.e.* one hour). This result suggests that the presence of endosymbionts can alter

435 the temperature-dependency of the metabolic rate, a hypothesis that requires to consider a wider 436 temperature range. Reduced sensitivity of the metabolic rate to temperature  $(Q_{10})$  and metabolic 437 depression could be adaptive responses in the face of challenging elevated temperatures to 438 minimize the energetic costs associated with thermal stress (González-Tokman et al., 2020; 439 Storey & Storey, 2004). They could explain, at least partially, the beneficial role of H. defensa 440 under heat stress (Heyworth et al., 2020) and its higher prevalence after hot periods within field 441 populations (Carpenter et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2021). However, in our study, we focused only 442 on the constitutive costs of facultative endosymbionts for their host, but the fitness benefits of 443 facultative endosymbionts can also vary according to the temperature (Cayetano & Vorburger, 444 2013). Thus, the co-variation of benefits and costs of endosymbionts appears to be a central 445 question for understanding the stability and evolution of these symbiotic associations under 446 changing thermal environments. Such investigations are particularly important to predict the 447 impact of climate change on symbiotic association (Iltis et al., 2021; Renoz et al., 2019). 448 Interestingly, this concept of co-variation of benefits and energetic costs certainly also applies 449 to other types of associations. Some plant viruses provide benefits to their aphid vectors in 450 terms of host plant suitability (Bosque-Pérez & Eigenbrode, 2011) and tolerance to high 451 temperatures (Porras et al., 2020). Viral infections have been associated with metabolic 452 modifications in D. melanogaster (Arnold et al., 2013) but their consequences in aphids remain 453 unknown. Thus, this framework raises new questions about the effect of facultative 454 endosymbionts or plant viruses on the energy metabolism of their host and ultimately on their 455 response to environmental challenges.

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#### 766 Supporting information

- 767 Table S1 List of primers used in the study
- 768 Table S2 Statistical analyses of energetic components
- 769 Figure S1 Protein, lipid, free sugar and glycogen contents