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### Title

Persistent effects of management history on honeybee colony virus abundances

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<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/36k004ch>

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### Publication Date

2021-02-01

### DOI

10.1016/j.jip.2020.107520

Peer reviewed

1 **Persistent effects of management history on honeybee colony virus**  
2 **abundances.**

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## 26 **ASBTRACT**

27 Infectious diseases are a major threat to both managed and wild pollinators. One  
28 key question is how the movement or transplantaion of honeybee colonies  
29 under different management regimes affects honeybee disease epidemiology.  
30 We opportunistically examined any persistent effect of colony management  
31 history following relocation by characterising the virus abundances of honeybee  
32 colonies from three management histories, representing different management  
33 histories: feral, low-intensity management, and high-intensity “industrial”  
34 management. The colonies had been maintained for one year under the same  
35 approximate ‘common garden’ condition. Colonies in this observational study  
36 differed in their virus abundances according to management history, with the  
37 feral population management history showing qualitatively different viral  
38 abundance patterns compared to colonies from the two managed population  
39 management histories; for example, higher abundance of sacbrood virus but  
40 lower abundances of various paralysis viruses. Colonies from the high-intensity  
41 management history exhibited higher viral abundances for all viruses than  
42 colonies from the low-intensity management history. Our results provide  
43 evidence that management history has persistent impacts on honeybee disease  
44 epidemiology, suggesting that apicultural intensification could be majorly  
45 impacting on pollinator health, justifying much more substantial investigation.

46

## 47 **KEYWORDS**

48 *Apis mellifera*, industrial agriculture, honeybee, virus, management, pathogen.

49

## 50 **INTRODUCTION**

51 Loss of pollinators, both managed and wild, is of current and growing concern for  
52 both agriculture (Aizen and Harder, 2009; Brosi et al., 2008; Gallai et al., 2009)  
53 and conservation (Kleijn et al., 2015; Potts et al., 2016, 2010; Williams and  
54 Osborne, 2009). Bee pollinators are crucial for ecosystem function (Brosi and  
55 Briggs, 2013; Corbet et al., 1991) and agricultural fruit set (Garibaldi et al., 2013;  
56 Klein et al., 2007) and fruit quality (Knapp et al., 2017). They are also recognised  
57 for their cultural and recreational value (Bingham, 2006; Mace et al., 2012;  
58 Watson et al., 2011). One critical driver of bee declines is parasites and

59 infectious disease (Becher et al., 2013; Kent et al., 2018; Manley et al., 2015;  
60 Potts et al., 2010).

61 Managed honeybees, especially the western honeybee *Apis mellifera* L., have  
62 experienced emerging and re-emerging outbreaks of numerous parasites (Martin  
63 et al., 2012; McMahon et al., 2018, 2016; Mondet et al., 2014; Wilfert et al.,  
64 2016), and elevated losses to infectious disease for a variety of reasons  
65 (Genersch et al., 2010; Pettis and Delaplane, 2010; vanEngelsdorp et al., 2009;  
66 vanEngelsdorp and Meixner, 2010). Pollinator vulnerability to pathogens can be  
67 aggravated by invasive pests, poor forage, pesticide exposure, behavioural  
68 stress, and lack of bee genetic diversity (Aronstein et al., 2012; Bartlett et al.,  
69 2018; Conte et al., 2010; Dolezal et al., 2016; Forsgren and Fries, 2010; Goulson  
70 et al., 2015; Neumann and Carreck, 2010; Oldroyd, 2007; Pasquale et al., 2013;  
71 Rumkee et al., 2017; Sánchez-Bayo and Goka, 2014; van der Zee et al., 2012;  
72 Yang and Cox-Foster, 2005; Zee et al., 2014), all of which interact with  
73 intensification of management. Additionally, there is concern that intensifying  
74 pollinator management increases abundances of and selection for more virulent  
75 pathogens (Brosi et al., 2017; Graystock et al., 2016). As evidence mounts that  
76 managed pollinator pathogens can spill over into their wild counterpart  
77 populations (Cohen et al., 2017; Fürst et al., 2014; Graystock et al., 2016, 2015,  
78 2013; Manley et al., 2019, 2015; McMahon et al., 2015), understanding the  
79 epidemiology of managed pollinators becomes increasingly important.

80 Pollination has intensified as a managed agricultural input in recent decades  
81 (Aebi et al., 2012; Aizen and Harder, 2009; Delaplane and Mayer, 2000;  
82 Graystock et al., 2016, 2013; Moritz and Erler, 2016; vanEngelsdorp and Meixner,  
83 2010). Beekeeping in the USA has undergone a surge in industry-wide  
84 intensification (Brosi et al., 2017; Corbet et al., 1991) - reflecting changes in the  
85 wider agricultural environment experienced by beekeepers throughout the 20th  
86 century (Odoux et al., 2014; Otto et al., 2016). This intensification introduces  
87 profound changes in the population-level underpinnings of managed honeybee  
88 epidemiology. Critical aspects include much higher stocking densities (Seeley  
89 and Smith, 2015), cross-continental migratory beekeeping (Simone-Finstrom et  
90 al., 2016; vanEngelsdorp et al., 2013; Welch et al., 2009; Whynott, 1991), and  
91 pesticidal and antibiotic treatment for pests and pathogens (Delaplane, 2001;  
92 Dietemann et al., 2012). All of these are partially driven by moves away from  
93 honey production towards pollination services as a source of income (Bartlett et

94 al., 2018; Gallai et al., 2009; Hodges et al., 2001; Southwick and Southwick,  
95 1992; USDA - NASS, 2012; Whynott, 1991).

96 There are now a number of theoretical studies that examine how aspects of  
97 intensified beekeeping could impact pathogen dynamics (Bartlett et al., 2019;  
98 Booton et al., 2017; Brosi et al., 2017; Giacobino et al., 2014; Lindström et al.,  
99 2008; Nolan and Delaplane, 2017; Simone-Finstrom et al., 2016; Wilfert et al.,  
100 2016). This includes predictions that feral *A. mellifera* populations will experience  
101 fewer pathogen outbreaks compared to their managed counterparts (Brosi et al.,  
102 2017; Seeley and Smith, 2015), on the basis that wild colonies are smaller and  
103 densities of wild colonies across a landscape much lower (Seeley, 2007), leading  
104 to lower transmission rates and disease burdens (Loftus et al., 2016), and that a  
105 lack of management leads to greater selection for social immunity behaviours or  
106 tolerance of parasites (Thaduri et al., 2019). Likewise, studies have hypothesised  
107 that traditional beekeeping – characterised by lower bee densities and lower  
108 rates of movement – may sustain lower pathogen burdens than modern high-  
109 intensity operations (Dynes et al., 2017; Mötus et al., 2016; Nolan and Delaplane,  
110 2017). There is some evidence of these adaptations amongst *Varroa* when  
111 comparing parasites taken from feral honeybees to those from managed  
112 populations (Dynes et al., 2020). However, recent modelling predicts that local  
113 (apiary-scale) apicultural intensification leads to only limited increases in  
114 pathogen prevalence, because even in small-scale beekeeping few individual  
115 bees can escape contracting a ubiquitous pathogen (Bartlett et al., 2019).  
116 Infection severity further depends on factors affecting honeybee health at a  
117 more primary level – including factors such as forage availability and quality,  
118 genetic diversity or predisposition towards emphasis on immune-behaviours, or  
119 pesticide exposure as detailed prior. Colony-level viral abundances have been  
120 used as indicators, or identified as drivers, of colony collapse (Dainat and  
121 Neumann, 2013; Highfield et al., 2009; McMenemy and Genersch, 2015);  
122 additionally, viruses are a current focus of research examining the spill-over of  
123 honeybee pathogens into other bee populations (Manley et al., 2019, 2019,  
124 2015; McMahan et al., 2015; Wilfert et al., 2016). Understanding how honeybee  
125 management affects colony virus abundances is therefore a critical part of wider  
126 bee epidemiology, including the possibility that management regimes have  
127 selected for differential evolution of parasites experiencing different host  
128 populations of honeybees (Brosi et al., 2017).

129 Pertinent to understanding bee health is the movement of honeybee colonies  
130 across landscapes. This is carried out as part of industrial migratory (nomadic)  
131 beekeeping, a management practise already posited to influence honeybee viral  
132 epidemiology (Brosi et al., 2017; Welch et al., 2009; Whynott, 1991). A kind of  
133 nomadic beekeeping is simulated when queens, packages of bees, and small  
134 incipient “nucleus” colonies are produced in one region and shipped to another.  
135 It is estimated that the production of bees for export, domestic or international,  
136 constitutes approximately 20% of all beekeeping industry in the United States  
137 (Ferrier et al., 2018). As colonies move between locations, or indeed between  
138 operations under different management regimes, they are likely to both acquire  
139 and transmit pathogens, including viruses. Higher viral abundances not only  
140 impact colony health but may make this transmission more likely. Here we  
141 opportunistically examine if colony management history persistently affects viral  
142 abundances; this work has implications for the management and epidemiology of  
143 managed honeybees and for viral spill-over into non-*Apis* species.

144 To begin to examine this question, we opportunistically sampled a ‘common  
145 garden’ occurrence where honeybee colonies had been sourced from three  
146 different management histories: feral populations, a ‘low-intensity’ traditional  
147 operation, and a ‘high-intensity’ industrial operation; these are the same  
148 populations studied by Dynes et al. (2020) who differentiated the burden on  
149 colonies caused by *Varroa* from feral vs managed population of honeybees. In  
150 this observation study, pre-dating Dynes et al. (2020), colonies had been  
151 maintained for one year under the same management regime and in  
152 approximately the same environment. We characterised the virus abundances of  
153 these colonies to ask whether there was evidence that colony management  
154 history had a persistent (>1 year) legacy effect.

155 A persistent effect of colony management history would indicate that the  
156 ecological history of a colony has a meaningful and lasting effect on its viral  
157 dynamics, and consequently its potential role in spill-over into other colonies or  
158 bee populations. There are numerous possible causes of this, including both the  
159 health and genetics of the host, but also the evolutionary history and past  
160 selection of pathogen (and putative parasite vector) strains circulating in these  
161 different honeybee populations. The plausible, three-way GxGxG interactions are  
162 challenging to investigate and require justification from initial exploratory  
163 studies. Interrogating these possible causes requires large scale, intensive

164 experiments and sampling to differentiate apiary and transient source effects, to  
165 specifically focus on honeybee vitality, viral characteristics, or adaptive host-  
166 pathogen interactions, and overcome pragmatic problems with field  
167 experiments. This study does not tackle these large-scale experimental  
168 challenges, but does justify their pursuit through an observational  
169 documentation of circumstantial evidence that management style and  
170 management history underpin bee pollinator epidemiology.

## 171 **METHODS**

### 172 HONEYBEE COLONY SOURCING AND MAINTENANCE

173 We sampled 14 colonies from each of three different management histories  
174 sourced in 2013. Two management histories were managed backgrounds  
175 (beekeeping operations), which we refer to as ‘high-’ and ‘low-’ intensity  
176 management histories. The high-intensity management history colonies came  
177 from a commercial beekeeping operation in south Georgia fully fitting the  
178 industrial paradigm, in which colonies are maintained in extremely large, dense  
179 apiaries (potentially many hundreds of colonies), subject to frequent  
180 management interventions such as re-queening and chemical application, and  
181 trucked annually across the USA to pollinate crops and collect diverse honey  
182 floral types (Brosi et al., 2017; Welch et al., 2009). The low-intensity  
183 management history colonies came from a smaller operation representative of  
184 most beekeepers for whom beekeeping is a hobby or side-line business; in such  
185 low-intensity operations, colonies are typically maintained at reduced densities  
186 in smaller stationary apiaries, receive fewer severe management interventions,  
187 and any colony relocation is limited to much smaller distances at local or, at  
188 most, regional scales. It is important to note that these operations still practice  
189 active management, and they are not to be confused with “natural” or “organic”  
190 treatment-free beekeeping whose adherents often practice little or no invasive  
191 management. We cannot name the suppliers due to data protection and  
192 commercial interest concerns. The third management history sources were  
193 colonies trapped as reproductive swarms from populations of feral honeybees  
194 living in either the federally designated wilderness area constituting part of the  
195 Okefenokee Swamp in southeast Georgia USA or the Oconee National Forest in  
196 central Georgia USA. Such areas preclude any agricultural activity, and the size  
197 of these areas makes it likely that these feral swarms are not ‘recently feral’ but  
198 from sustained feral populations with potentially little immigration from managed

199 honeybee populations, in line with other such studied populations identified in  
200 the USA (Schiff et al., 1994; Seeley, 2007). Collections were undertaken with  
201 approval and in line with federal and state laws governing the use of designated  
202 wilderness areas for scientific research; in particular, we secured research  
203 permits from the Okefenokee National Wildlife Refuge. These three management  
204 history sources are the same as those from which *Varroa* were sourced for study  
205 by Dynes et al. (2020).

206 All colonies were then maintained in standard 10-frame Langstroth equipment  
207 hives in an approximate 'common garden' approach, using three separate  
208 apiaries surrounding one location (University of Georgia Horticultural Farm,  
209 Watkinsville, GA, USA). Colony maintenance was undertaken by a team of  
210 professional apicultural technicians. Colonies were separated by management  
211 history into three apiaries around this location, with each location at least 5km  
212 from any other known apiary to help prevent cross-inoculation (Dynes et al.,  
213 2017). Isolating each background in separate apiaries was a crucial part of this  
214 observational study, as this prevents any rapid displacement of 'host -native'  
215 pathogen strains by 'alien' strains, which rapidly spread within apiaries (Bartlett  
216 et al., 2019) and underpins one hypothesis of why management may influence  
217 honeybee epidemiology (Brosi et al., 2017); this isolation distance requirement is  
218 a current limiting factor on efforts to produce better 'designed experiments'  
219 interrogating the question this manuscript addresses. Colonies were maintained  
220 as though they were ordinary colonies under beekeeper care, following standard  
221 practise for the region, with the exception that no *Varroa* mite control treatments  
222 were applied. Any queen supersedure that occurred was a result of natural  
223 queen replacement by an open-mated daughter; no queens were intentionally  
224 replaced with outsourced genetic stock; it is thought that more frequent  
225 supersedure is adaptive in reducing pathogen burdens in feral populations (Brosi  
226 et al., 2017), and may therefore have a role in governing persistent honeybee  
227 viral dynamics. Colonies were managed from the summer of 2013 onwards, with  
228 samples for this study collected in May 2014, meaning approximately one year of  
229 common garden management for all colonies, varying by one or two months. All  
230 individuals in the colony, excepting in some instances the queen, were therefore  
231 replaced multiple times by subsequent generations between transplantation and  
232 sampling.

233 SAMPLE COLLECTION AND MOLECULAR PROCESSING



234 To compare the virus abundances of colonies, we randomly selected 30 adult  
235 honeybees from the brood frames of each colony. Samples from all colonies were  
236 gathered during foraging hours within a three day period to eliminate potential  
237 seasonal effects on viral dynamics (Sumpter and Martin, 2004; Tentcheva et al.,  
238 2004). For each sample, the 30 live honeybees were sealed in a 50ml centrifuge  
239 tube and immediately placed on dry ice before storage at -80 C°.

240 Samples were processed for RNA extraction and conversion of RNA to cDNA on-  
241 site at the UGA Horticulture Farm; cDNA sequence targets were quantified at  
242 U.C. Berkeley using digital droplet PCR (ddPCR). An expanded protocol including  
243 all volumes, reagents, and extraction conditions is provided in the Appendix, with  
244 key points summarised here for brevity.

245 RNA was extracted from the thirty sampled honeybees in per-colony pooled  
246 batches, using similar protocols for RNA extraction by phase-separation  
247 techniques as seen elsewhere across RNA studies (Simms et al., 1993), including  
248 commonly for studies on bee viruses (Manley et al., 2019; Wilfert et al., 2016).  
249 RNA was converted to cDNA using a standard first-strand RT-PCR synthesis  
250 protocol with random hexamers (Promega, USA) and M-MLV enzyme (Amresco,  
251 USA), and measured with a NanoDrop (ThermoFisher; see Table S1). After RNA  
252 extraction but prior to cDNA synthesis we introduced 'no-sample' controls of  
253 molecular-grade water to check for potential contamination in downstream  
254 analysis. We quantified a number of viral targets by ddPCR: the ABPV/KBV/IAPV  
255 (here 'AKIV') 'acute paralysis virus complex' (de Miranda et al., 2010a), chronic  
256 bee paralysis virus ('CBPV'), slow bee paralysis virus ('SBPV'), sacbrood virus  
257 ('SBV'), black queen cell virus ('BQCV'), two deformed wing virus ('DWV')  
258 variants DWV-A and DWV-B ('VDV-1') (McMahon et al., 2016, 2015; Wilfert et al.,  
259 2016), and four strains of Lake Sinai virus ('LSV1-4') (Daughenbaugh et al., 2015;  
260 Ravoet et al., 2015). We also quantified a common housekeeping gene, *Apis*  
261 *mellifera*  $\beta$ -actin, which is expressed at a relatively constant level in honeybee  
262 tissues, therefore providing a reference level for viral titre (Lourenço et al.,  
263 2008). We used BioRad's QX200™ Droplet Digital™ PCR system (ddPCR) to  
264 quantify sequence targets specific to the housekeeping gene and eight viral  
265 sequence targets - see Table 1 for targets and references. ddPCR uses emulsions  
266 of microscopic droplets to perform many thousands of small volume PCRs, ideally  
267 forming tight 'clusters' of fluorescence values (Miotke et al., 2014; Pinheiro et al.,  
268 2012). The proportion of droplets in each cluster can be used to estimate the

269 concentration of the target sequence in the original sample. All primer  
270 sequences have been previously tested and used in the honeybee virus literature  
271 for equivalent qPCR virus quantification studies (see Table 1).

272 Sequence targets were grouped such that DWV-A and DWV-B were quantified on  
273 the same plate simultaneously, as were ABPV/KBV/IAPV and SBPV (see Table 1).  
274 The five other sequence targets were subject to separate reactions owing to  
275 different reaction temperatures. Raw fluorescence data was then exported for  
276 further handling and statistical analysis.

## 277 VIRAL QUANTIFICATION

278 All experimental samples tested positive for all sequence targets, we therefore  
279 forwent positive controls for main quantification as they proved difficult to  
280 acquire for some targets. Our negative controls, introduced prior to the M-MLV  
281 step to generate cDNA, showed the expected tight bands of extremely low  
282 background fluorescence (Supp. Fig. S1) indicating an absence of sequence  
283 targets. Our experimental samples showed large variability in droplet  
284 fluorescence both between samples and within each sample, for both the  
285 housekeeping gene and viral sequence targets (Supp. Fig. S1). This was  
286 indicative of large differences in between-sample RNA/cDNA quality and inhibitor  
287 concentrations carried over from extraction. cDNA synthesis is especially  
288 sensitive to inhibitor activity when processing honeybee RNA (Forsgren et al.,  
289 2017). Large variability of positive droplet fluorescence amplitudes in ddPCR is a  
290 demonstrable effect of increased inhibitor concentrations (Dingle et al., 2013).  
291 Additionally, our target sequence concentrations were high enough that almost  
292 all droplets appeared positive (samples were 'flooded'). Limitations in time and  
293 resources prevent us from repeating quantification using diluted samples.

294 To account for the suspected disruptive action of variable inhibitor  
295 concentrations and inter-sample variability in sequence quality, we compared  
296 fluorescence readings for each viral target to the fluorescence readings for the  $\beta$ -  
297 actin housekeeping gene. While work (unfortunately subsequent to this  
298 experiment) has documented the rapid loss of certain mRNA targets including  $\beta$ -  
299 actin following collection of live honeybees (Forsgren et al., 2017), we note our  
300 samples were placed immediately on dry ice and so were quickly euthanised  
301 before storage at  $-80^{\circ}$  within 2 hours of collection, which should preserve  $\beta$ -actin  
302 as a suitable mRNA standard. Following this approach, within each sample and  
303 for each target sequence, each droplet will vary in amplitude based on 1)

304 inhibitor concentrations (Dingle et al., 2013) and 2) concentration of the target  
305 sequence in the droplet (Corbisier et al., 2015; Miotke et al., 2014; Pinheiro et  
306 al., 2012). Between-sample variation caused by differences in sample quality can  
307 be controlled for using the  $\beta$ -actin housekeeping gene, which will have been  
308 equally represented across all samples at the point of live *A. mellifera* collection  
309 (Lourenço et al., 2008). We therefore use the relative fluorescence of viral ddPCR  
310 in comparison to the sample's  $\beta$ -actin fluorescence as our measure of viral  
311 abundance in each sample, essentially a ratio of the concentration of  $\beta$ -actin  
312 sequence to viral target sequence in each sample.

### 313 DATA PROCESSING AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

314 We conducted all data handling and analysis in R (v 3.6.1. 'Action of the Toes') (R  
315 Core Team, 2019). We provide a full annotated R script of analysis for further  
316 detail and reproducibility (see Appendix and GitHub repository  
317 <https://github.com/LBartlett/BackgroundViromes2020.git>). We exported all raw  
318 fluorescence reads from the BioRad ddPCR system for downstream analysis. We  
319 excluded our negative control samples, and then calculated a mean fluorescence  
320 for each target sequence for each sample (9 targets x 42 samples). We tested  
321 for batch effects on sample quality using a one-way ANOVA to test whether  
322 sample (colony) management history had a significant effect on the mean  
323 fluorescence of the housekeeping gene target sequence,  $\beta$ -actin. For the eight  
324 viral sequence targets, we scaled each sample's mean fluorescence values  
325 against that sample's  $\beta$ -actin mean fluorescence to calculate a 'relative viral  
326 abundance' metric for analysis.

327 We undertook a community approach to test for grouping of viral community by  
328 management history using an adonis analysis. We also used a non-metric  
329 multidimensional scaling (NMDS) as a dimensionality reduction visualisation of  
330 the same viral community dissimilarity matrix and plotted the NMDS by colony  
331 management history. We used a Euclidean dissimilarity index, as our measure of  
332 relative viral abundance is an unusual metric for community ecology (it is a  
333 continuous measure that can be negative or positive, whereas typically discrete  
334 and positive counts of organisms are used in community similarity indices), and  
335 Euclidean distances are widely used across a wide variety of natural sciences  
336 and are therefore defensibly robust to many data types (Chao et al., 2006). We  
337 conducted both the adonis and NMDS using the 'vegan' package for R (Oksanen  
338 et al., 2019).

339 We further analysed these data to gain more detailed understanding of how  
340 different viral titres varied across the management backgrounds, using a linear  
341 mixed modelling approach, accounting for our mixed-design using the 'afex'  
342 package (Singmann et al., 2019) which relies on the 'lme4' linear mixed  
343 modelling engine (Bates et al., 2015, p. 4). The response variable was the  
344 relative amplitude; interacting fixed effects were virus ('target') and  
345 management history ('treatment'); random effects were specified as virus  
346 ('target') nested under colony, to account for our repeated measures as part of  
347 our mixed design. We followed this with post-hoc testing using the 'emmeans'  
348 package (Lenth, 2019) to identify pairwise differences between management  
349 histories for each viral target, with  $p$ -values corrected for multiple comparisons  
350 using the Benjamini-Hochberg correction (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

**Table 1** - Primers used in this study to target specific cDNA sequences for amplification and quantification using ddPCR.

Target	Forward Primer Sequence	Reverse Primer Sequence	Amplicon Length	T <sub>R</sub> - Reaction Temperature (°C)	Reference	Primer Name (Forward)	Primer Name (Reverse)
ABPV/KBV/ IAPV	GGCGAGCCACTATGTGCTAT	ATCTTCAGCCCACTT	401	50.0	(de Miranda et al., 2010a; Evans, 2001)	AKIF8140	AKIFR8507
CBPV	CAACCTGCCTCAACACAG	AATCTGGCAAGGTTGACTGG	276	53.0	(Ryabov et al., 2017)	CBPV1FqF18 18	CBPV1FqB2 077
SBPV	GCGCTTTAGTTCAATTGCC	ATTATAGGACGTGAAAATAT AC	226	50.0	(de Miranda et al., 2010b)	SPV-F3177	SPV-B3363
SBV	TTGGAACCTACGCATTCTCTG	GCTCTAACCTCGCATCAAC	335	54.0	(Locke et al., 2012)	SBV-F3164	SBV-B3461
BQCV	AGTGCGGAGATGTATGC	GGAGGTGAAGTGGCTATATC	294	53.0	(Locke et al., 2012)	BQCV-F7893	BQCV- B8150
DWV-A	TGTCTTCATTAAAGCCACCT GGAA	TTTCCTCATTAAGTGTGTCGT TGAT	140	57.3	(McMahon et al., 2015)	DWV-F2	DWV-R2a
DWV-B (VDV-1)	TATCTTCATTAACCGCCA GGCT	CTTCCTCATTAAGTGTGTC TGTC	140	57.3	(McMahon et al., 2015)	VDV-F2	VDV-R2a
LSV 1-4	CGTGCGGACCTCATTCTTC ATGT	CTGCGAAGCACTAAAGCGTT	152	59.5	(Daughenbaugh et al., 2015)	LSV1-4-F- 2157	LSV1-4-R- 2309
Beta-Actin ( <i>A. mellifera</i> )	CGTGCCGATAGTATTCTTG	CTTCGTCACCAACATAGG	271	52.0	(Locke et al., 2012; Lourenço et al., 2008)	Am-actin2- qF	Am-actin2- qB

351

352

## 353 RESULTS

354 We estimated the relative abundance of 8 viral sequence targets in 14 colonies  
355 from 3 apiaries (42 colonies total, 336 relative viral abundance values total).

356 Each apiary represented a different colony management history (feral, low-  
357 intensity managed, or high-intensity managed) maintained under approximately  
358 equivalent field environments and the same management regime for one year.

359 Our adonis analysis of community composition found significant grouping of virus  
360 abundance by management history ( $F_{2,39} = 2.72$ ,  $p = 0.039$ ,  $R^2 = 0.12$ ), i.e.

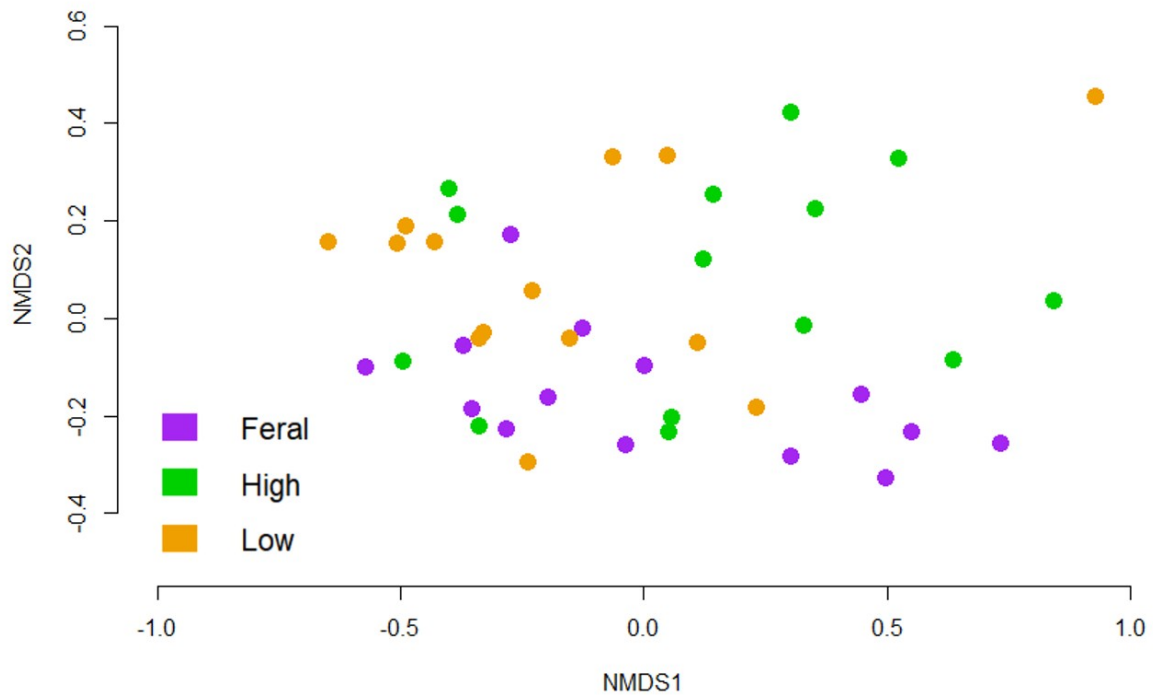
361 honeybees of different management backgrounds harbour significantly different  
362 viral communities. This significant clustering was, we tentatively interpret, driven  
363 by the feral colonies and possibly the low-intensity colonies (barring one outlier)  
364 as shown visually in our two-dimensional NMDS plot (Fig. 1); stress value for the  
365 NMDS ( $k=2$ ) was 0.052.

366 To further investigate and better understand the effect of colony management  
367 history, we used a linear mixed-effects modelling approach as described  
368 previously. We found that different viral species had significantly different  
369 relative abundances (main effect of viral species,  $p < 0.0001$ ). We also found a  
370 significant interaction between viral species and colony management history ( $p$   
371  $= 0.0007$ ), but no single effect of colony management history alone on relative  
372 viral abundance ( $p = 0.16$ ). The corresponding data are shown in Fig. 2. We find  
373 evidence of a batch effect on sample quality; our one-way ANOVA found a  
374 significant effect of colony management history on the housekeeping gene ( $\beta$ -  
375 actin) mean fluorescence ( $F_{2,39} = 8.23$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). However, the lack of any  
376 significant single effect of management history on our main result suggests our  
377 use of the  $\beta$ -actin housekeeping gene to adjust for variation in sample quality  
378 was successful.

379 We caution against comparisons being drawn based on relative abundance  
380 between viruses. The significant single effects of viral sequence target on  
381 relative abundance may be, at least in part, reflections of differences in  
382 efficiencies of the molecular reactions used to amplify and quantify the sequence  
383 targets, and so comparisons of relative abundance between viruses may not be  
384 biologically informative. Further, comparing copy number between different  
385 viruses with different pathologies is not informative for honeybee health. Rather,  
386 differences in copy number of the same virus between different colonies is of  
387 interest.

388 We undertook post-hoc testing to understand the significant interaction between  
389 colony management history and viral target. We examined the pairwise  
390 differences between colony management histories for each viral target, with p-  
391 values adjusted for multiple comparisons using the Benjamini-Hochberg  
392 correction (Benjamini and Hochberg (1995)). The AKIV, LSV, and SBV sequence  
393 targets showed significant differences between management histories. Feral  
394 management history colonies had significantly lower relative abundances of AKIV  
395 compared to high-intensity management history colonies ( $p = 0.0072$ ); however,  
396 they had significantly higher relative abundances of LSV and SBV compared to  
397 the low-intensity management history ( $p = 0.0004$ ,  $p = 0.0414$  respectively).  
398 High-intensity management history colonies appeared to have higher relative  
399 abundances of every viral target compared to the low-intensity management  
400 history colonies, and in the case of LSV this was significant ( $p = 0.0399$ ). For  
401 BQCV, CBPV, DWV A & B, and SBPV, no significant pairwise differences were  
402 found; however, the high-intensity management history always showed a higher  
403 relative abundance compared to the low-intensity management history, even  
404 though the direction of the differences amongst these viruses varied for  
405 comparisons between the feral management history and high or low -intensity  
406 management histories (Fig. 2).

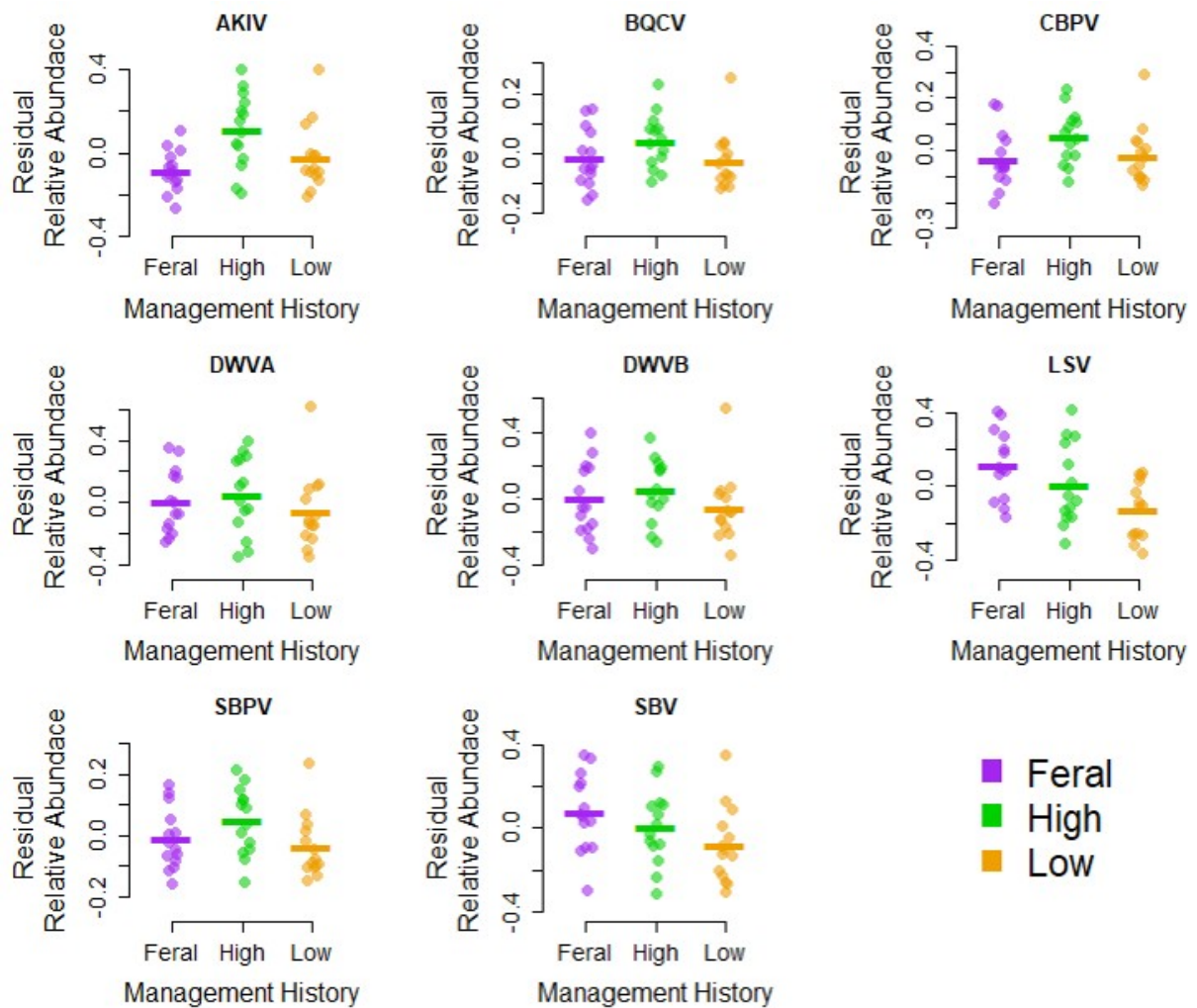
407



409 Figure 1 - Plot showing a non-metric multidimensional scaling ( $k = 2$ ) of virus  
410 relative abundance data across colonies. Stress value after NMDS = 0.052. Each  
411 point corresponds to one colony and is colour coded by known management  
412 history. A restructured plot of the data used for these analyses (see Fig. 2) is  
413 presented in the Appendix (Fig. S2). Our corresponding adonis analysis found a  
414 significant grouping of colony virus abundances by management history ( $R^2 =$   
415 0.12,  $p = 0.039$ ).

416





418 Figure 2 – Mean relative abundances of each virus for each colony, plotted  
 419 according to viral target (panel) and colony management history (x-axes and  
 420 colour). Y-axes scales differ between panels and are plotted as residuals to  
 421 dissuade from making comparisons between the relative abundance of different  
 422 viruses, as explained in the results. Our analysis shows that some viruses  
 423 significantly differed between backgrounds, but that background alone had no  
 424 significant single directional effect; differences between backgrounds changed  
 425 direction depending on the virus. AKIV – acute/Kashmir/Israeli paralysis virus  
 426 complex; BQCV – black queen cell virus; CBPV – chronic bee paralysis virus;  
 427 DWVA – deformed wing virus (A strain); DWVB – deformed wing virus (B strain, ‘  
 428 VDV-1’); LSV – Lake Sinai virus complex, Lake Sinai viruses 1 – 4; SBPV – slow  
 429 bee paralysis virus; SBV – sacbrood virus.

430

## 431 **DISCUSSION**

432 We present evidence that a honeybee colony's management history has a  
433 meaningful persistent effect on its future virus abundances, justifying much more  
434 involved experimental examination of this question. Despite a year in an  
435 approximate common garden, we show that there are substantial differences in  
436 virus abundances of colonies from our three sampled management histories (Fig.  
437 2), with significant grouping of the virus abundances according to background  
438 based on our adonis analysis. Notably, when we look in detail we find that these  
439 differences are virus-specific, rather than generalisable across all viruses. It is  
440 not simply that colonies from one management history had elevated viral titres  
441 across all viruses, but rather that colonies from the feral management history  
442 showed qualitatively different viral abundance patterns to the two managed  
443 management histories. Amongst colonies from the two managed management  
444 histories, those sourced from the high-intensity management history exhibited  
445 higher viral abundances for all viruses compared to those from the low-intensity  
446 management history. Whether these effects were present at the point of  
447 acquiring the colonies (and subsequently persisted) or whether they developed  
448 following transplantation remains to be addressed in future studies with more  
449 study apiaries and better replication at the source-population level.

450 The finding of elevated viral titres in colonies from the 'high-intensity'  
451 background is consistent with the idea that the industrialisation of beekeeping is  
452 negatively impacting honeybee health. As industrial high-intensity practices  
453 become more common amongst, and more necessary for, beekeepers (Odoux et  
454 al., 2014; Whynott, 1991) this effect becomes increasingly relevant to the  
455 industry and elsewhere. We present evidence that a history of experiencing such  
456 high-intensity management, or the genetic stock used by high-intensity  
457 operations, leads to colonies either inheriting, or gaining, elevated viral titres;  
458 although we caution that we sampled colonies from only one single 'high-  
459 intensity' and one single 'low-intensity' management history, and that they were  
460 kept in close but separate apiaries. Nevertheless, the low-intensity management  
461 history honeybees in this observational study appeared to exhibit persistently  
462 lower viral burdens than their high-intensity counterparts. These findings call for  
463 a need to perform studies encompassing larger numbers of source management  
464 histories, as well as to keep colonies in isolation, in many small apiaries, and in

465 mixed apiaries to better control for site effects and investigate different  
466 explanatory hypotheses for this results.

467 The scale of this possible management effect, between low- and high- intensity,  
468 is interesting to compare to the effect of a feral management history. For half of  
469 our target viruses, the magnitude of difference between the two managed  
470 management histories was greater than the difference between either managed  
471 management history and the feral (Fig. 2). This is despite feral honeybees  
472 exhibiting population ecologies profoundly different from their managed  
473 counterparts, including colony spatial densities up to thousands of times lower,  
474 swarming more frequently, smaller colony sizes, and higher genotypic variation  
475 (Brosi et al., 2017; Loftus et al., 2016; Loper et al., 2006; Schiff et al., 1994;  
476 Seeley, 2007). These differences appear to leave a lasting effect on colony virus  
477 abundances at a scale equivalent to comparing a low-intensity management  
478 regime to a high-intensity management regime. Speculation on the effects of  
479 management industrialisation has been made (Brosi et al., 2017; Nolan and  
480 Delaplane, 2017; Oldroyd, 2007; Seeley and Smith, 2015), however the size of  
481 these effects is difficult to quantify; our empirical evidence that the magnitude of  
482 these management-type impacts is comparable in size to when we compare  
483 managed bees with feral bees is notable.

484 Alongside these specific differences in viral abundances, our community analysis  
485 of the overall 'colony virus abundances' provided evidence of grouping by  
486 management history as well. Our adonis analysis showed a significant clustering  
487 of viral community according to management history, with visual interpretation  
488 of this in the plotted two-dimensional NMDS (Fig. 1) perhaps suggesting this is  
489 due to the viral characteristics of feral colonies, and potentially the lower  
490 abundances of the low-intensity colonies barring one outlier colony (easily  
491 identifiable in both Fig. 1 and Fig. 2).

492 An important caveat to interpretation of these significant effects of management  
493 history on colony viral characteristics is that we do not have access to these  
494 colonies' initial virus abundances, and so it is not clear what degree of change  
495 occurred in their viral dynamics after being transplanted into the shared  
496 'common garden' environment. Future work will be needed to establish the  
497 dynamics underpinning these differences, revealing why these effects manifest  
498 and persist. For example, differences at the point of management history,  
499 genetic differentiation of either honeybee or pathogen populations, differences in

500 queen quality, or lasting effects of stressors from management regimes, could all  
501 be drivers of the observed results. We consider this study a justification of  
502 pursuing the substantial experimental undertaking necessary to begin to  
503 differentiate the plausible drivers of the between-apiary differences presented  
504 here.

505 While our opportunistic sampling did not allow for holistic colony health  
506 appraisals, we can speculate on some of the dynamics plausibly at play by  
507 comparing the results here to those presented in Dynes et al. (2020), who  
508 subsequently took *Varroa* from the colonies in this study to assess the  
509 differential parasitic virulence of *Varroa* based on their population of origin,  
510 testing hypotheses laid out in evolutionary beekeeping literature (Brosi et al.,  
511 2017; Loftus et al., 2016; Seeley, 2007; Seeley and Smith, 2015). Interestingly,  
512 the *Varroa* assayed from these populations showed differentiation in their  
513 induced parasite burden when comparing feral to managed mites, whereby the  
514 feral mites showed significantly lower induced parasite burden whilst the two  
515 managed backgrounds were undifferentiated; this is in line with evolutionary  
516 predictions and findings elsewhere. However, Dynes et al. (2020) show parasite  
517 burdens qualitatively different to the viral abundances we found here comparing  
518 between the management histories, where the low-intensity managed colonies  
519 showed on average lower viral burdens than the high-intensity. This apparent  
520 contradiction between viral abundances and *Varroa* may be a consequence of  
521 numerous factors we have briefly mentioned here, including *Varroa* x honeybee  
522 x virus GxGxG interactions. Further, in spite of the feral-origin *Varroa* inducing  
523 the lowest parasite burden in Dynes et al. (2020), the feral mites were the only  
524 ones associated with a loss of colony health or productivity. This is in isolation a  
525 puzzling result, but may be linked to the viral abundance profiles we associate  
526 here with the feral colonies which show highest burdens for specific viruses  
527 including some lake sinai viruses and sacbrood virus, the latter of which is  
528 implicated with *Varroa* (McMahon et al., 2018). Taken as a whole, it becomes  
529 clear that the link between *Varroa*, viruses, and bee health is nuanced; it  
530 mandates detailed and thoughtful study, but is not necessarily contrary to  
531 evolutionary thinking even if certain results in isolation are unanticipated.

532 Migratory beekeeping has critical ramifications for continental-scale bee viral  
533 dynamics beyond just *Apis mellifera*, particularly if viral characteristics persist  
534 through many generations of honeybees. There are many speculated candidate

535 mechanisms for how such migration may foster elevated viral abundances  
536 (Goulson et al., 2015). Such colonies may be more likely to be nutritionally  
537 stressed due to experiencing principally monocultured crops (Becher et al., 2013;  
538 Odoux et al., 2014; Otto et al., 2016; Pasquale et al., 2013; Potts et al., 2010),  
539 exposed to more pesticides (Bartlett et al., 2018; Sánchez-Bayo et al., 2016;  
540 Sánchez-Bayo and Goka, 2014) and a wider variety of pathogens (Brosi et al.,  
541 2017; vanEngelsdorp and Meixner, 2010). It is also possible that industrial  
542 practices that reduce spatial structuring of the honeybee (host) populations have  
543 recently selected for more virulent viral variants (Boots et al., 2004; Boots and  
544 Meador, 2007; Boots and Sasaki, 1999; Kamo and Boots, 2006; McMahon et al.,  
545 2016), leading to elevated viral titres.

546 If migratory beekeeping establishes elevated viral titres in colonies, those  
547 colonies may be moved to many locations over several months before they are  
548 returned to their home counties or states (Whynott, 1991). We have shown that  
549 it is possible these elevated viral titres persist (or subsequently develop) for  
550 extended periods even after moving from a specific management regime. There  
551 is now a large and growing body of literature documenting how honeybee viruses  
552 spill over into native bee populations (Choi et al., 2010; Forsgren et al., 2015;  
553 Forzan et al., 2017; Graystock et al., 2016, 2013; Guzman-Novoa et al., 2015; Li  
554 et al., 2011; Manley et al., 2019, 2015; Mazzei et al., 2014; Reynaldi et al., 2013;  
555 Santamaria et al., 2017; Singh et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2012), a phenomenon  
556 which is conceivably more likely if higher viral abundances are present in  
557 migratory colonies. Our observation that high-intensity management history  
558 honeybees show the most elevated viral abundances establishes them as  
559 potential super-spreaders (Stein, 2011). They are more infectious and, through  
560 migratory beekeeping, are exposed to far more native pollinator populations,  
561 potentially infecting many more threatened populations. This double risk driver –  
562 to native bees and to non-migratory beekeeping operations – is significant for  
563 conservationists (Kleijn et al., 2015; Potts et al., 2016; Williams and Osborne,  
564 2009), beekeepers (Brosi et al., 2008; Connell et al., 2012; Pettis and Delaplane,  
565 2010), and policymakers in the US (FWS, 2016) and anywhere migratory  
566 beekeeping is becoming more common (Odoux et al., 2014).

567 The role of feral honeybees in the bee virus landscape is also worth considering.  
568 Honeybees are not native to the Americas. However, feral honeybees are  
569 hypothesised to foster far lower viral abundances, and possibly less virulent

570 strains, compared to managed honeybees (Brosi et al., 2017; Loftus et al., 2016),  
571 however see recent evidence on the evolution of viral tolerance in feral  
572 honeybees (Thaduri et al., 2019) and documentation of higher DWV loads in feral  
573 colonies (Thompson et al., 2014). Our evidence, though limited, points to feral  
574 colonies indeed sustaining higher titres of certain viruses, and may align with  
575 tolerance-based mechanisms of honeybee persistence, including mediated  
576 through differential control or tolerance of *Varroa* mites amongst colonies from  
577 different backgrounds, or differences in *Varroa* populations themselves. Whilst  
578 our observation of this common-garden cannot give direct insight into viral  
579 dynamics of feral populations, our results suggest it is possible that feral  
580 populations of honeybees sustain circulation of the well-characterised viruses  
581 examined here, and in some cases (such as sacbrood virus and the Lake Sinai  
582 viruses) possibly at higher per-colony abundances than in managed populations;  
583 this has been documented elsewhere with DWV (Thompson et al., 2014),  
584 although we note we do not find that to be the case here. Sacbrood virus has  
585 been implicated in *Varroa* mite mediated losses (Nielsen et al., 2008), whilst  
586 Lake Sinai viruses are fairly understudied (Daughenbaugh et al., 2015; McMahon  
587 et al., 2018). It is possible that even in protected areas, honeybees may be  
588 sustaining viral circulation with the capacity to spill-over into native bee  
589 populations. From an apicultural perspective, pursuing eradication of various  
590 honeybee parasites will also prove difficult if feral populations act as reservoirs  
591 for *Apis* parasites and pathogens.

592 Overall, our results putatively support hypotheses that colony management  
593 history, and likely management history, have persistent effects on colony  
594 epidemiology with respect to honeybee viruses. Notably, comparing two  
595 populations from very different management regimes revealed that the  
596 'industrial' population exhibited greater viral abundances. Our findings are  
597 relevant to ongoing efforts to control managed pollinator diseases and to  
598 understand how industrial and migratory beekeeping practices are influencing  
599 the epidemiology of embattled bee populations. Additionally, our evidence runs  
600 counter to hypotheses predicting universally lower pathogen burden in feral  
601 colonies, which here showed the highest abundances of certain viruses. This  
602 unintuitive result invites further thought on and investigation into our  
603 understanding of the evolutionary dynamics of insect viruses across landscapes.  
604 Overall, this observational study justifies the substantial and intensive

605 undertakings required to address this question with well-designed experimental  
606 studies.

#### 607 DATA ACCESSIBILITY

608 All raw molecular read data will be made available at a suitable repository (e.g.  
609 Dryad, Mendeley Data) upon acceptance for publication. We provide an  
610 annotated R script for reproducibility of analyses undertaken in this work, which  
611 can be accessed from GitHub  
612 (<https://github.com/LBartlett/BackgroundViromes2020.git>).

#### 613 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

614 We would like to thank Norma Morella for advice and guidance with ddPCR,  
615 Jennifer Berry for insightful discussion on commercialised industrial beekeeping,  
616 and Jack Garrison and Nicholas Weaver for assistance with colony management  
617 and sample collection. LJB acknowledges funding from a Natural Environment  
618 Research Council training grant (NE/L002434/1). MB acknowledges funding from  
619 a Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council grant (BB/L010879/1).  
620 BJB, JcR and KSD acknowledge funding from National Institutes of Health (R01-  
621 109501); the content of this study is solely the responsibility of the authors and  
622 does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of  
623 Health.

#### 624 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

625 L.J.B. and M.B. conceptualised the study, with input from K.S.D., B.J.B., J.C.d.R.,  
626 and L.W. Colony sourcing and management was undertaken by K.S.D., with  
627 assistance from B.J.B. and J.C.d.R. Molecular work was undertaken by L.J.B. and  
628 C.A.H. with guidance from L.W. L.J.B. analysed all data with guidance from B.J.B.  
629 and L.W.; L.J.B. drafted the manuscript, with contributions from all authors.

#### 630 COMPETING INTERESTS

631 The authors declare no competing interests.

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