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Social immunity: why we should study its nature, evolution and functions across all social systems

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Mounting defences against pathogens is a necessity for all animals. Although these defences have long been known to rely on individual processes such as the immune system, recent studies have emphasized the importance of social defences for group-living hosts. These defences, called social immunity, have been mostly studied in eusocial insects such as bees, termites and ants, and include, for instance, mutual cleaning and waste management. Over the last few years, however, a growing number of works called for a broader exploration of social immunity in non-eusocial species. In this review, we summarize the rationales of this call and examine why it may provide major insights into our current understanding of the role of pathogens in social evolution. We start by presenting the original conceptual framework of social immunity developed in eusocial insects and shed light on its importance in highly derived social systems. We then clarify three major misconceptions possibly fostered by this original framework and demonstrate why they made necessary the shift towards a broader definition of social immunity. Because a broader definition still needs boundaries, we finally present three criteria to discriminate what is a form of social immunity, from what is not. Overall, we argue that studying social immunity across social systems does not only provide novel insights into how pathogens affect the evolution of eusociality, but also of the emergence and maintenance of social life from a solitary state. Moreover, this broader approach offers new scopes to disentangle the common and specific anti-pathogen defences developed by eusocial and non-eusocial hosts, and to better understand the dependent and independent evolutionary drivers of social and individual immunity.

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Introduction

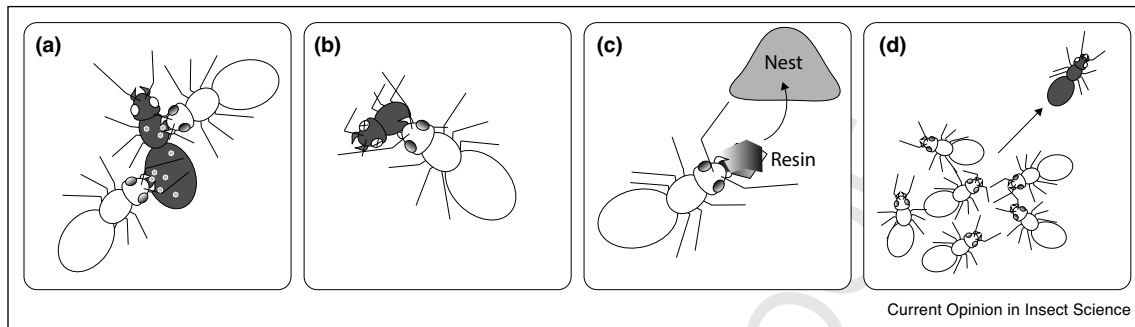
During its life cycle, every animal encounters large numbers of pathogens such as viruses, protozoans, bacteria, helminths and fungi [1]. Pathogen infections often have dramatic consequences in a host, ranging from premature death to the modification of a broad set of fitness-related physiological, morphological and behavioural traits [2]. To limit the costs of pathogen infection, hosts have thus developed a multitude of defences encompassed in the term individual immunity [2–4]. In insects, these defences typically rely on physiological changes limiting pathogen development into the host body (i.e. immune system) [2,5] and on behavioural processes reducing the risk of pathogen exposure and infection, for instance, by prophylactically or therapeutically consuming food sources with anti-pathogenic properties, a process called self-medication [4].

Over the last decades, a growing number of studies has revealed that protection against pathogens may not only rely on the defences exhibited by the host itself, but also on defences generated by its surrounding relatives [6–8]. Textbook examples of this *social immunity* typically come from eusocial insects such as bees, ants and termites (Figure 1) [6,8–10]. One of these examples is allo-grooming, a behaviour frequently reported in eusocial insects, during which workers groom each other to remove the pathogens present on the cuticle [11]. Another example encompasses sanitary behaviours, during which workers remove food waste and/or cadavers from their colony to prevent the development of microbial pathogens, as found in many bees, ants and termites [12–15]. Social immunity can also be illustrated by social isolation, during which infected individuals leave their colony [16,17] or reduce contacts to the brood [18,19] to limit the transfer of pathogens to colony members. Finally, ant and termite workers frequently use self-produced secretions to sanitize the nest walls and/or the brood [20–22], which is also a common form of social immunity (for an exhaustive list of all the classical forms of social immunity, please refer to [6,8]).

The discovery of social immunity rapidly led to major advances in our understanding of why and how eusocial insects are efficiently protected against pathogens [6,9,23]. It also gave rise to two evolutionary scenarios on the role of social immunity in the evolution of group living. The first scenario posited that social immunity is a phenomenon that has secondarily derived from eusocial systems and thus only plays a role in the consolidation of complex, permanent and obligatory forms of group living

2 Social insects

Figure 1



Four classical examples of social immunity that can be found in ant colonies. **(a)** Two workers groom an infected nestmate (grey) to remove external pathogens. **(b)** A worker carries a corpse (grey) away from the nest. **(c)** A worker collects a piece of resin with antimicrobial properties and brings it back to its nest. **(d)** An infected worker (grey) isolates itself from the group to limit the risk of pathogen spread. References can be found in [6,8].

92 exhibiting reproductive division of labour (thereafter
93 called the *eusocial framework*) [6,24,25**]. The other (more
94 recent) scenario postulates that social immunity is an
95 ancestral phenomenon that can be found in many forms
96 of group living and thus, that social immunity also plays a
97 key role in the early emergence and maintenance of group
98 living from a solitary state (thereafter called the *group-*
living framework) [7,8].

99 In this study, we review recent empirical data across
100 eusocial and non-eusocial (i.e. group living species that
101 do not exhibit a eusocial organisation) insects to empha-
102 size why it is now time to study the nature, evolution and
103 functions of social immunity across all social systems.
104 Specifically, we first present the origin and implications of
105 the eusocial framework in our current understanding of
106 anti-pathogen defences in eusocial insects. We then
107 discuss the rationales of the recent call for a switch from
108 a eusocial to a group living framework by shedding light
109 on three major misconceptions that can be fostered by the
110 eusocial framework. In a final part, we stress that under-
111 standing social immunity requires boundaries in its defi-
112 nition and thus propose a newly defined group-living
113 framework detailing three criteria that could allow dis-
114 criminating what is a form of social immunity, from what
115 is not. Overall, we argue that expanding the number of
116 studies on social immunity in a broad taxonomical spec-
117 trum of non-eusocial species would provide novel major
118 insights into our general understanding of the common
119 and specific solutions developed by each type of social
120 host to counteract infections and thus, into the role of
121 pathogens in social evolution.

122 The eusocial framework of social immunity

123 The eusocial framework of social immunity emerged at
124 the beginning of the 21st century as the result of works
125 conducted by researchers investigating how eusocial
126 insects limit the inherently high risks of pathogen

127 exposure and transmission between colony members 127
128 [6,9,10,26]. The central idea of this framework is that 128
129 social immunity mimics the individual immunity of mul- 129
130 ticellular organisms when the unit of selection has shifted 130
131 from the individual to the colony [23,27]. In other words, 131
132 social immunity has ‘evolved in convergence with indi- 132
133 vidual immunity to protect the entire reproductive entity 133
134 (i.e. the superorganism [28*]) and maximize its fitness’ 134
135 [25**]. Three examples typically illustrate this parallel 135
136 between personal and social immunity in eusocial insects. 136
137 First, wood ants, honeybees and stingless bees collect and 137
138 incorporate plant resin with antimicrobial properties into 138
139 their nests to limit the development of microbial patho- 139
140 gens [29–31], a process mimicking individuals’ self-med- 140
141 ication process to fight an infection [32]. Second, honey- 141
142 bee workers can fan their wings simultaneously to 142
143 increase the temperature of their hive and thereby elimi- 143
144 nate heat-sensitive pathogens [33], a process mimicking 144
145 the fever exhibited by a body to fight an infection. 145
146 Finally, workers of the ant *Lasius neglectus* administer 146
147 antimicrobial poison inside infected cocoons to prevent 147
148 pathogen replication and establishment within the col- 148
149 ony, just like the individual immune system targets and 149
150 eliminates infected cells from host body [34**]. 150

151 The accumulation of results supporting the parallel 151
152 between individual and social immunity in eusocial 152
153 insects rapidly led to the adoption of the eusocial frame- 153
154 work by researchers interested in collective defences 154
155 against pathogens. This adoption then fostered the claim 155
156 that social immunity is ‘necessary and essential to euso- 156
157 cial systems’ [25**] and thus, that social immunity should 157
158 be considered as a major and unique social parameter 158
159 once eusociality has emerged [6,9,24,25**]. 159

160 The limit of the eusocial framework

161 One pillar of the original eusocial framework is thus that 161
162 all collective defences against pathogens employed by 162

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