

1 **NOTES AND COMMENTS**

2

3 **Occurrence, prevalence and viral load of deformed wing virus variants in *Apis mellifera***
4 **colonies in Chile**

5

6 Gustavo Riveros¹, Nolberto Arismendi^{1,2}, Nelson Zapata³, David Evans⁴, Ivonne, Pérez¹, Patricia
7 Aldea⁵, Marisol Vargas^{1*}

8

9 ¹Laboratories of Virology and Bee Pathology, Faculty of Agronomy, Universidad de
10 Concepción, Av. Vicente Méndez 595, Chillán, Chile

11 ²Austral Biotech Research Center, Faculty of Science, Universidad Santo Tomas, Av. Ramón
12 Picarte 1130, Valdivia, Chile

13 ³Departament of Plant Production, Faculty of Agronomy, Universidad de Concepción, Av.
14 Vicente Méndez 595, Chillán, Chile

15 ⁴Biomedical Sciences Research Complex, North Haugh, University of St. Andrews, St. Andrews,
16 KY16 9S

17 ⁵Center for Bee Research, CEAPIMAYOR. Faculty of Science, Universidad Mayor, Camino La
18 Pirámide 5750 Huechuraba, Santiago, Chile.

19

20

21 *Corresponding author: Laboratories of Virology and Bee Pathology, Faculty of Agronomy,
22 Universidad de Concepción Av. Vicente Méndez 595, Chillán, Chile. Phone: 56 42 2208952,
23 Fax: 56 42 2275309, Email: marisolvargas@udec.cl

24 **Abstract**

25

26 Deformed wing virus (DWV) is one of the most common viruses in apiaries worldwide, and its
27 presence in Chilean apiaries is no exception. There are three well-defined master variants
28 described as DWV-A, DWV-B (or VDV-1) and DWV-C. We studied the prevalence, load and
29 recombinant genotypes among DWV variants in honey bees from Chilean apiaries. We also
30 compared the viral load in each region in colonies that were treated or untreated against *Varroa*
31 *destructor*. Using real-time PCR with specific primers enabled us to determine that DWV-A was
32 the most prevalent (71%) throughout Chile, with a higher level than DWV-B (circa 3%
33 prevalence), and almost 60-times more load, especially in northern Chile. The viral load was
34 lower only in treated colonies located in the Metropolitana, Biobío/Ñuble and Los Ríos regions.
35 The DWV-C genotype and recombinants were not detected. This suggests that viral recombinant
36 events are limited since DWV-B is still uncommon in honey bee hives at present. This is the first
37 study involving DWV-B in Chile.

38

39 **Keywords:** Honey bees, DWV variants, DWV-B, DWV-A, viral load, real-time PCR.

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47 Insect pollinators are considered one of the most important components of global biodiversity;
48 the honey bee (*Apis mellifera* L.) is the most predominantly managed species and is responsible
49 for pollinating many crops and wild plants (Potts et al., 2010). However, beekeepers around the
50 world have suffered colony losses in recent years (Neumann & Carreck, 2010). Although
51 published information regarding the mortality of colonies in South America is lacking, several
52 cases of colony losses and colony depopulation have been reported by beekeepers throughout the
53 continent in recent years (Maggi et al., 2016). Previous studies have shown that Deformed Wing
54 Virus (DWV), in the presence of its vector *Varroa destructor*, may be a major factor in the high
55 rate of honey bee colony losses (Highfield et al., 2009; Genersch et al., 2010; Dainat &
56 Neumann, 2013; Kielmanowicz et al., 2015; Wilfert et al., 2016).

57 Deformed wing virus is a picorna-like, single-stranded, positive-sense, RNA virus (de
58 Miranda & Genersch, 2010). It is present throughout all of the developmental stages and castes
59 of honeybees (Yue & Genersch, 2005; Chen et al., 2005; Tentcheva et al., 2006). Three well-
60 defined variants of this virus have been described: DWV-A, DWV-B (or VDV-1) and DWV-C
61 (Martin et al., 2012; Mordecai et al., 2016). Nevertheless, DWV-B has attracted attention since it
62 is widely spread throughout the landscape and is also considered a more virulent variant than the
63 DWV-A genotype (McMahon et al., 2016). In addition, it has been shown that the prevalence of
64 DWV-B along with *V. destructor* is highly correlated with overwinter colony losses
65 (Natsopoulou et al., 2017). However, recent studies have suggested that DWV-A and DWV-C
66 could also be involved in the collapse of honey bee colonies (Kevill et al., 2017).

67 Little is known about the prevalence of DWV-B in South America. Recently, DWV-B
68 has been detected in honey bee colonies in the United States (Ryabov et al., 2017), but no
69 previous studies have reported the presence of DWV-B in honey bee colonies in Chile or other

70 South American countries, with the exception of Brazil (de Souza et al., 2019). In previous
71 studies we have determined the prevalence of DWV in Chilean apiaries (Vargas et al., 2017), but
72 the master variant of this virus is yet unknown. Therefore, the objective of this study was to
73 determine the DWV-variants present in Chilean apiaries and the presence of certain DWV
74 recombinants, as well as the prevalence and viral load in the honey bees analyzed, but also, to
75 compare viral load in colonies that were treated and not treated against *V. destructor* throughout
76 Chile.

77 Groups of 50 worker bees were collected between the spring of 2015-2016 and the
78 summer of 2017-2018 from each of the following regions: Coquimbo (29°54'S - 71°15'W),
79 Valparaiso (33°03'S - 71°38'W), Metropolitana (33°26'S - 70°39'W), O'Higgins (34°10'S -
80 70°43'W), Maule (35°25'S - 71°39'W), Biobío/Ñuble (36°46'S - 73°03'W), Araucanía (38°44'S -
81 72°35'W), Los Ríos (39°48'S - 73°14'O) and Los Lagos Regions (41°28'S - 72°56'O). In total,
82 612 honey bee colonies were sampled. A pooled sample of 10 honey bees per colony was used
83 for RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis, according to the methodology reported by Vargas et al.
84 (2017). In order to detect the prevalence of DWV-A, DWV-B, DWV-C, and the presence of
85 certain DWV-recombinants in Chilean honey bee apiaries, a strand-specific real-time PCR
86 (qPCR) (Stratagene Mx3000P, Agilent Technologies, CA) was conducted according to Vargas et
87 al. (2017), using specific primers reported by Kevill et al. (2017) and McMahon et al. (2016).
88 (Table S1, Supplementary Material). On the other hand, in order to screen for possible
89 recombinants, qPCR amplification in two regions at either end of the genome, which included
90 the leader polypeptide (Lp, 5' end of genome) and RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp, 3'
91 end of genome), were conducted according to Natsopoulou et al. (2017). The PCR reactions were
92 carried out in 15 µL, containing 20 ng of cDNA, 1X of KAPA SYBR FAST Universal 2X qPCR

93 Master Mix (Kapa Biosystems, Wilmington, Massachusetts, USA), 530 nM of each primer, and
94 filled with sterile-filtered molecular grade water. The thermal conditions were achieved with one
95 cycle at 96 °C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 15 s, 60 °C for 15 s and 72 °C for
96 30 s. A dissociation analysis was conducted after all of the amplifications were completed in
97 order to detect the primer dimmers and the unspecific amplicons. Primers designed by Yang and
98 Cox-Foster (2005) based on the β -actin gene were used as an internal control (Table S1). A
99 positive control for DWV-A and negative control sample, were included in all of the reactions.
100 Real time PCR assays were performed in a thermocycler Stratagene Mx3000P (Agilent
101 Technologies, Santa Clara, California, USA), and the data were analyzed using MxPro software
102 (Stratagene). Some amplicons that tested positive for DWV-variants (DWV-A (n = 6) and DWV-
103 B (n = 4) were purified and sequenced in both directions by Macrogen (Macrogen, Seoul, South
104 Korea). Analyses of the homologies with other DWV sequences were carried out with the Basic
105 Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST, NCBI) and were aligned online using Clustal Omega
106 (EBI, Cambridge, UK) with other sequences previously reported as DWV-variant genomes
107 (NC_004830 and AY251269).

108 In order to determine the viral load in positives cases, an absolute quantification of
109 DWV-variants was performed. In brief, we first performed a standard curve using purified PCR
110 product (Wizard® SV gel and PCR clean-up system, Promega, Madison, WI, USA) belonging to
111 the viral target sequence. Then, the purified amplicon was quantified (Epoch™ Microplate
112 Spectrophotometer, BioTek, VT, USA) to calculate the copy number according to Wu et al.
113 (2017). Linear standard curves (efficiency 95-100%) were then generated with the serial dilution
114 (10^{-1} to 10^{-9}) of viral copy numbers of purified cDNA; this was followed by the plotting of Ct
115 values against copy number values (\log_{10}). Thus, the sample copy numbers were estimated by

116 using the Ct values and comparing them with the lineal equation of the standard curve and then
117 normalizing values to the housekeeping β -actin gene. Afterwards, data were expressed as the
118 number of copies of DWV per bee by taking into account the dilutions that were performed in
119 the cDNA synthesis and qPCR reaction.

120 The data regarding positive cases of DWV-A, DWV-B and mixed infections (DWV-A +
121 DWV-B) are shown as percentages of infected colonies in relation to the total number of
122 colonies analyzed (612 honey bee colonies); although, a Chi-square test (X^2) was performed to
123 assess for significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the observed and expected frequencies of
124 DWV-variants and mixed infection. Then, pairwise multiple comparisons among DWV-A,
125 DWV-B and mixed infections were run; p -values were corrected with the Holm-Bonferroni
126 method (Holm, 1979).

127 Provided that the data regarding DWV-variants load in infected colonies were not
128 normally distributed (Shapiro–Wilk test, $p < 0.05$), a Mann-Whitney U test ($p < 0.05$) was
129 performed to compare DWV-variants load per bee in the positive colonies with single and
130 mixed-DWV infection. Also, DWV-variants load (DWV-A or DWV-B copy number per bee) in
131 each region of Chile was compared using a Kruskal-Wallis H test ($p < 0.05$) followed by *post-*
132 *hoc* multiple comparisons of mean ranks for all groups.

133 To compare viral load in colonies that were either treated or not treated against *V.*
134 *destructor* in different regions of Chile, we used information provided by beekeepers, in which
135 case, only 312 colonies were considered for this analysis. Thus, a Mann-Whitney U test was
136 performed to compare viral load in colonies that were treated ($n = 255$) and not treated ($n = 57$)
137 against *V. destructor*. All statistical analyses were performed with STATISTICA 7.0 software
138 (StatSoft, Tulsa, OK, USA).

139 Real-time PCR using specific primers allowed us to detect variants of DWV in honey bee
140 samples from apiaries distributed throughout Chile (Figure 1A). The DWV-A variant (71%) was
141 significantly ($X^2 = 618.76$; $p < 0.001$; $df = 1$) more prevalent than the DWV-B variant (circa
142 3%), while the DWV-C genotype was not detected in the honey bee samples analyzed in this
143 study. Colonies infected with the DWV-A variant contained higher levels (copy number per bee)
144 of this genotype compared to the DWV-B variant (Mann-Whitney test, $U = 935.00$, $p < 0.001$)
145 (Figure 1B). Similarly, levels of DWV-A varied among regions and were significantly higher
146 (Kruskal-Wallis test, $H_{(8, N = 436)} = 118.69$; $p < 0.001$) in regions located in northern rather than
147 southern Chile (Figure 1C). Mixed infections (DWV-A + DWV-B) were also detected, showing
148 significant differences (Mann-Whitney test, $U = 16.00$, $p = 0.003$) in DWV-variant loads in bees
149 with these DWV-genotypes (DWV-A median 5.62×10^5 copy number per bee (min 2.69×10^4 –
150 max 5.89×10^9 copy number per bee); DWV-B median 1.86×10^4 copy number per bee (min
151 5.37×10^3 – max 1.00×10^6 copy number per bee)). However, mixed infections had a very low
152 prevalence ($< 2\%$) compared to DWV-A ($X^2 = 636.55$; $p < 0.001$; $df = 1$), but not significantly
153 different than DWV-B ($X^2 = 0.95$; $p = 0.330$; $df = 1$). On the other hand, DWV-A/B
154 recombinants were not detected in the analyzed samples. These results may be explained by the
155 fact that we detected a low prevalence of colonies with mixed infections ($< 2\%$), considering that
156 the opportunity for emergent DWV recombinant types is provided when different genotypes
157 infect and remain in the same host (Dalmon et al., 2017). However, deep sequencing analyses are
158 still required to definitively discard the presence of DWV recombinant types in Chilean apiaries.

159 In order to verify the DWV-variants detected by qPCR, positive samples were subjected
160 to sequencing, in which case, sequencing data confirmed our findings, identifying DWV-variants
161 such as DWV-A and DWV-B, according to reference genome sequences NC_004830 and

162 AY251269, respectively (Fig. S1, Supplementary Material). To the best of our knowledge, this is
163 the first report involving DWV-B in Chile. Recently, DWV-B has been reported in Brazil in
164 stingless bees and Africanized honey bees (de Souza et al., 2019), but not in European honey
165 bees in the neighboring South American countries. Nonetheless, DWV-B has only recently
166 increased in importance, since new information has reported its possible negative impacts on
167 honey bee health (McMahon et al., 2016; Natsopoulou et al., 2017; Ryabov et al., 2017). Field
168 surveys and laboratory assays have demonstrated that the emergent DWV-B genotype is more
169 virulent than the established DWV-A (McMahon et al., 2016; Natsopoulou et al., 2017). In fact,
170 honey bees infected with DWV-B have proven to survive less than those with DWV-A, driving
171 colonies to collapse sooner than those infected with the DWV-A genotype (McMahon et al.,
172 2016). Fortunately, we found a low prevalence and low loads of the DWV-B genotype in
173 Chilean honey bees (median 1.80×10^4 and mean 2.18×10^5 copy number per bee, Fig. 1C),
174 relative to those found in VDV-1 positive colonies in the United States (mean 7.45×10^{12} copy
175 number per bee) (Ryabov et al., 2017) and in England and Wales (mean 1.14×10^{12} genome
176 equivalent per bee) (Kevill et al., 2019). On the other hand, Natsopoulou et al. (2017) found that
177 both the loads and prevalence of DWV-B were significantly reduced in honey bee samples taken
178 in the spring, compared to those taken in autumn. Since we only have data from samples
179 collected in the spring-summer and no information from Chilean colonies in autumn-winter, we
180 can make no comparisons among seasons regarding the prevalence of DWV-variants. Therefore,
181 additional samples are required in the autumn and winter in different years in order to compare
182 among seasons, and thus avoid a possible underestimation of the prevalence and load of DWV-
183 B, considering that this variant is more frequent in colder seasons in temperate climates
184 (Natsopoulou et al., 2017). In this study, we found that 50% of the samples had almost 60-times

185 more copy numbers per bee of DWV-A (median 1.03×10^6 copy number per bee) than DWV-B
186 (median 1.80×10^4 copy number per bee). Also, the highest DWV-A levels were detected in
187 northern Chile (Kruskal-Wallis test, $H(8, N = 436) = 116.16$ $p < 0.001$), in the Coquimbo
188 region. This viral level may be related to a *V. destructor* infestation, considering that when the
189 varroa mite has been found in high levels in honey bee colonies, high levels of DWV have also
190 been detected with low strain diversity, generating a dominance of certain variants (Di Prisco et
191 al., 2011; Martin et al., 2012). However, we do not know the prevalence of *V. destructor* in the
192 samples tested from this region and thus, cannot speculate regarding the possible relationship
193 between DWV-A and this ectoparasite. Nevertheless, we expected analyzed colonies exposed to
194 control measures for mites to show reduced DWV-A loads compared to untreated colonies. This
195 hypothesis was partially true in some Chilean regions, wherein the viral load (DWV-A) was
196 lower in treated colonies located in the Metropolitana (Mann-Whitney test, $U = 7.00$, $p = 0.021$),
197 Biobío/Ñuble ($U = 247$, $p < 0.001$) and Los Ríos Regions ($U = 13.00$, $p = 0.009$) (Fig. 2). In
198 fact, there were no statistical differences in viral levels in *Varroa*-treated and untreated colonies
199 in the remaining studied regions, especially in northern Chile (Fig. 2). However, we reported
200 only the available information provided by beekeepers regarding colonies that were treated and
201 untreated against *V. destructor*, in which case, 312 out of 437 colonies (DWV-A infected
202 colonies) were evaluated in this parameter (Table S2, Supplementary Material). Therefore, these
203 data could underestimate the potential viral loads as well as their relationship with mite control
204 measures. However, DWV-A infected colonies in each region (Fig. 1C) were compared in terms
205 of their *V. destructor* treatment status (treated and untreated) (Fig. 2), and they proved to show
206 similar trends in viral levels, which *a priori*, rules out the aforementioned assumption. Over 90%
207 of the total treated colonies were treated with synthetic acaricides based on flumethrin and

208 formamidine (amitraz), e.g. Verostop (Primavet, Sofia, Bulgaria) and Amivar 500 (Apilab SLR,
209 Tandil, Argentina). There is evidence that DWV load can increase when colonies are treated with
210 chemical compounds against *V. destructor* (Locke et al., 2012), in which case, the acaricide
211 could have negative impacts in physiology and/or immune system responses of honey bees,
212 causing increased host susceptibility to DWV infection (Locke et al., 2012; Tihelka, 2018). This
213 may explain the lack of differences in DWV load in *Varroa*-treated and untreated colonies in
214 northern Chile, considering that DWV loads may remain high for weeks after *V. destructor*-
215 infested colonies were treated (Locke et al., 2012; Locke et al., 2017), a period that could have
216 coincided with the bees sampling for this study. On the other hand, the lack of differences in the
217 viral load of *Varroa*-treated and untreated colonies might also be associated with a resistance to
218 synthetic acaricides by *V. destructor*, provided that the active ingredients (flumethrin and
219 formamidine) of the acaricides used in Chile have proven to induce resistance by *V. destructor*
220 populations (Rodríguez-Dehaibes et al., 2005). This resistance would therefore reduce these
221 treatments efficacy to control varroa mite, consequently resulting in non-significant changes in
222 DWV loads in colonies that were treated and untreated against this parasite.

223 Our findings suggest that DWV-B is a new emergent genotype in Chile and could be a
224 significant problem, especially in the winter season due to its putatively higher virulence, even in
225 the absence of its vector, the varroa mite (McMahon et al., 2016). In this sense, Ryabov et al.
226 (2017) reported the recent spread of VDV-1 (DWV-B) in the United States; when they analyzed
227 75 colonies sampled in 2010, they found that circa 3% tested positive for DWV-B, but when they
228 analyzed 603 apiaries sampled in 2016 they found that DWV-B was present in 66% of them.
229 Therefore, it is imperative to monitor the DWV-variants, especially DWV-B and their

230 recombinants in order to establish their possible impacts on Chilean apiaries or their association
231 with *V. destructor* and other pathogens present in the country.

232

233 **Acknowledgments**

234 This study was supported by FONDECYT Grant N° 1171781 from the National Commission for
235 Scientific and Technological Research, CONICYT, Chile.

236

237 **References**

238

239 Chen, Y.P., Higgins, J.A., & Feldlaufer, M.F. (2005). Quantitative real-time reverse
240 transcription-PCR. analysis of deformed wing virus infection in the honeybee (*Apis*
241 *mellifera* L.). *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 71, 436–441.
242 [doi:10.1128/AEM.71.1.436-441.2005](https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.71.1.436-441.2005).

243 Dainat, B., & Neumann, P. (2013). Clinical signs of deformed wing virus infection are predictive
244 markers for honey bee colony losses. *Journal of Invertebrate Pathology*, 112, 278–280.
245 [doi:10.1016/j.jip.2012.12.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jip.2012.12.009).

246 Dalmon, A., Desbiez, C., Coulon, M., Thomasson, M., Le Conte, Y., Alaux, C., Vallon, J., &
247 Moury, B. (2017). Evidence for positive selection and recombination hotspots in Deformed
248 wing virus (DWV). *Scientific Reports*, 7, 41045. [doi:10.1038/srep41045](https://doi.org/10.1038/srep41045).

249 De Miranda, J.R., & Genersch, E. (2010). Deformed wing virus. *Journal of Invertebrate*
250 *Pathology*, 103, 48–61. [doi:10.1016/j.jip.2009.06.012](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jip.2009.06.012).

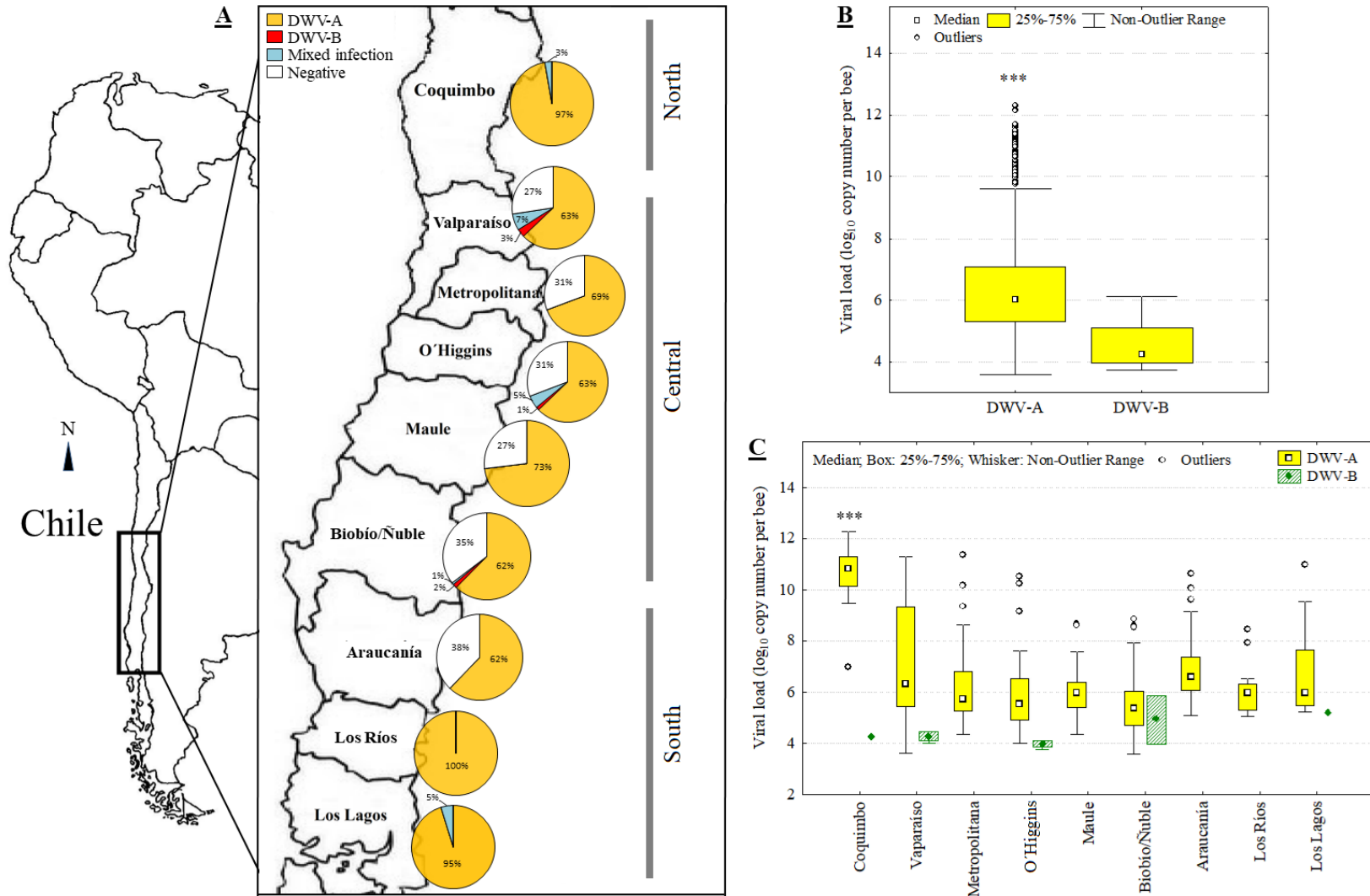
251 De Souza, F.S., Kevill, J.L., Correia-Oliveira, M.E., de Carvalho, C. A., & Martin, S.J. (2019).
252 Occurrence of deformed wing virus variants in the stingless bee *Melipona subnitida* and

- 253 honey bee *Apis mellifera* populations in Brazil. *Journal of General Virology*, 100, 289–
254 294. doi:10.1099/jgv.0.001206
- 255 Di Prisco, G. D., Zhang, X., Pennacchio, F., Caprio, E., Li, J., Evans, J. D., DeGrandi-Hoffman,
256 G., Hamilton, M., & Chen, Y.P. (2011). Dynamics of persistent and acute deformed wing
257 virus infections in honey bees, *Apis mellifera*. *Viruses*, 3, 2425–2441.
- 258 Genersch, E., von der Ohe, W., Kaatz, H., Schroeder, A., Otten, C., Büchler, R., Berg, S., Ritter,
259 W., Mühlen, W., Gisder, S., Meixner, M., Liebig, G., & Rosenkranz, P. (2010). The
260 German bee monitoring project: a long term study to understand periodically high winter
261 losses of honey bee colonies. *Apidologie*, 41, 332–352. doi:10.1051/apido/2010014.
- 262 Highfield, A.C., El Nagar, A., Mackinder, L.C., Noel, L.M., Hall, M.J., Martin, S.J., &
263 Schroeder, D.C. (2009). Deformed wing virus implicated in overwintering honeybee
264 colony losses. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 75, 7212–
265 220. doi:10.1128/AEM.02227-09.
- 266 Holm, S. (1979). A simple sequential rejective method procedure. *Scandinavian Journal of*
267 *Statistics* 6, 65–70.
- 268 Kevill, J.L., Highfield, A., Mordecai, G.J., Martin, S.J., & Schroeder, D.C. (2017). ABC assay:
269 method development and application to quantify the role of three DWV master variants in
270 overwinter colony losses of European honey bees. *Viruses*, 9, 314. doi:10.3390/v9110314.
- 271 Kevill, J. L., de Souza, F. S., Sharples, C., Oliver, R., Schroeder, D. C., & Martin, S. J. (2019).
272 DWV-A Lethal to Honey Bees (*Apis mellifera*): a colony level survey of DWV variants
273 (A, B, and C) in England, Wales, and 32 states across the US. *Viruses*, 11, 426.
- 274 Kielmanowicz, M.G., Inberg, A., Lerner, I.M., Golani, Y., Brown, N., Turner, C.L., Hayes, G.J.,
275 & Ballam, J.M. (2015). Prospective large-scale field study generates predictive model

- 276 identifying major contributors to colony losses. *PLOS Pathogens*, 11, e1004816.
277 [doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1004816](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1004816)
- 278 Locke, B., Forsgren, E., Fries, I., & de Miranda, J.R. (2012). Acaricide treatment affects viral
279 dynamics in *Varroa* destructor-infested honey bee colonies via both host physiology and
280 mite control. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 78, 227–235.
281 [doi:10.1128/AEM.06094-11](https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.06094-11)
- 282 Locke, B., Semberg, E., Forsgren, E., & de Miranda, J.R. (2017). Persistence of subclinical
283 deformed wing virus infections in honeybees following *Varroa* mite removal and a bee
284 population turnover. *PloS one*, 12,7, e0180910. [doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0180910](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0180910).
- 285 Maggi, M., Antúnez, K., Invernizzi, C., Aldea, P., Vargas, M., Negri, P., Brasesco, C., De Jong,
286 D., Message, D., Weinstein, E., Principal, J., Barrios, C., Ruffinengo, S., Rodriguez, R., &
287 Eguaras, M. (2016). Honeybee health in South America. *Apidologie*, 47,835–854.
288 [doi:10.1007/s13592-016-0445-7](https://doi.org/10.1007/s13592-016-0445-7).
- 289 Martin, S.J., Highfield, A.C., Brettell, L., Villalobos, E.M., Budge, G.E., Powell M., Nikaido, S.,
290 & Schroeder, D. (2012). Global honey bee viral landscape altered by a parasitic mite.
291 *Science*, 336, 1304–1306. [doi:10.1126/science.1220941](https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1220941).
- 292 McMahon, D.P., Natsopoulou, M.E., Doublet, V., Furst, M., Weging, S., Brown, M.J.F.,
293 GogolDoring, A., & Paxton, R.J. (2016). Elevated virulence of an emerging viral genotype
294 as a driver of honeybee loss. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B*, 283, 20160811.
295 [doi:10.1098/rspb.2016.0811](https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2016.0811)
- 296 Mordecai, G.J., Wilfert, L., Martin, S.J., Jones, I.M., & Schroeder, D.C. (2016). Diversity in a
297 honey bee pathogen: first report of a third master variant of the deformed wing virus
298 quasispecies. *The ISME Journal*, 10, 1264–1273. [doi:10.1038/ismej.2015.178](https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2015.178)

- 299 Natsopoulou, M.E., McMahon, D.P., Doublet, V., Frey, E., Rosenkranz, P., & Paxton, R.J.
300 (2017). The virulent, emerging genotype B of Deformed wing virus is closely linked to
301 overwinter honeybee worker loss. *Scientific Reports*, 7, 5242. [doi:10.1038/s41598-017-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-05596-3)
302 [05596-3](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-05596-3)
- 303 Neumann, P., & Carreck, N.L. (2010). Honey bee colony losses. *Journal of Apicultural*
304 *Research*, 49,1 - 6. [doi:10.3896/IBRA.1.49.1.01](https://doi.org/10.3896/IBRA.1.49.1.01)
- 305 Potts. S.G., Biesmeijer, J.C., Kremen, C., Neumann, P., Schweiger, O., & Kunin, W.E. (2010).
306 Global pollinator declines: trends, impacts and drivers. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 25,
307 345–353. [doi:10.1016/j.tree.2010.01.007](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2010.01.007).
- 308 Rodríguez-Dehaibes, S.R., Otero-Colina, G., Sedas, V.P., & Jiménez, J.A.V. (2005). Resistance
309 to amitraz and flumethrin in *Varroa destructor* populations from Veracruz, Mexico.
310 *Journal of Apicultural Research*, 44, 124–125. [doi:10.1080/00218839.2005.11101162](https://doi.org/10.1080/00218839.2005.11101162)
- 311 Ryabov, E.V., Childers, A.K., Chen, Y., Madella, S., Nessa, A., vanEngelsdorp, D., & Evans J.
312 D. (2017). Recent spread of *Varroa destructor* virus-1, a honey bee pathogen, in the United
313 States. *Scientific Reports*, 7, 17447. [doi:10.1038/s41598-017-17802-3](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-17802-3)
- 314 Tentcheva, D., Gauthier, L., Bagny, L., Fievet, J., Dainat, B., Cousserans, F., Colin, M.E., &
315 Bergoin, M. (2006). Comparative analysis of deformed wing virus (DWV) RNA in *Apis*
316 *mellifera* and *Varroa destructor*. *Apidologie*, 37, 4–50. [doi:10.1051/apido:2005057](https://doi.org/10.1051/apido:2005057)
- 317 Tihelka, E. (2018). Effects of synthetic and organic acaricides on honey bee health: a
318 review. *Slovenian Veterinary Research*, 55, 119 – 140. [doi:10.26873/SVR-422-2017](https://doi.org/10.26873/SVR-422-2017)
- 319 Vargas, M., Arismendi, N., Riveros, G., Zapata, N., Bruna, N., Vidal, M., Rodriguez, M., &
320 Gerding, M. (2017). Viral and intestinal diseases detected in *Apis mellifera* in Central and

- 321 Souther Chile. *Chilean Journal of Agricultural Research*, 73, 243–249.
322 doi:10.4067/S0718-58392017000300243
- 323 Wilfert, L., Long, G., Leggett, H.C., Schmid-Hempel, P., Butlin, R., Martin, S.J.M., & Boots, M.
324 (2016). Deformed wing virus is a recent global epidemic in honeybees driven by *Varroa*
325 *mites*. *Science*, 351, 594–597. doi:0.1126/science.aac9976
- 326 Wu, Y., Dong, X., & Kadowaki, T. (2017). Characterization of the copy number and Variants of
327 Deformed Wing Virus (DWV) in the pairs of honey bee pupa and infesting *Varroa*
328 *destructor* or *Tropilaelaps mercedesae*. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 8, 1558
329 doi:0.3389/fmicb.2017.01558
- 330 Yang, X. & Cox-Foster, D.L., (2005). Impact of an ectoparasite on the immunity and pathology
331 of an invertebrate: Evidence for host immunosuppression and viral amplification.
332 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*. 102,
333 7470 - 7475. doi:10.1073/pnas.0501860102
- 334 Yue, C., & Genersch, E. (2005). RT-PCR analysis of deformed wing virus in honey bees (*Apis*
335 *mellifera*) and mites (*Varroa destructor*). *Journal of General Virology*, 86, 3419–3424.
336 doi:10.1099/vir.0.81401-0
- 337
- 338
- 339



340
 341 **Fig. 1.** Prevalence of DWV-variants and mixed infections (A), total viral load in the country (B) and per region (C) detected in
 342 Chilean honey bee colonies. Asterisks in the boxplot indicate significant differences (***) = $p < 0.001$) between DWV-A and DWV-

343 B according to the Mann-Whitney U test (B) and Kruskal-Wallis H test (C) followed by *post-hoc* multiple comparisons of mean
344 ranks for all regions.

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361
 362
 363
 364
 365
 366
 367
 368
 369
 370
 371
 372
 373
 374
 375
 376
 377
 378
 379
 380

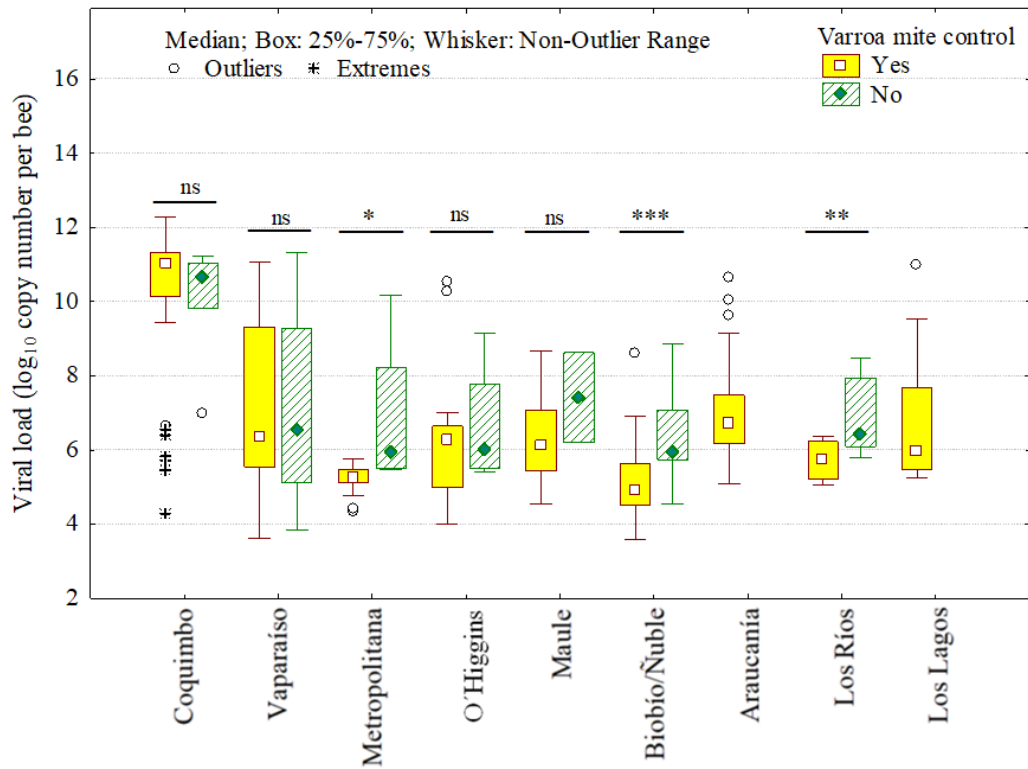


Fig. 2. DWV-A loads detected in Chilean honey bee colonies that were treated and not treated against *Varroa destructor*. Asterisks in the boxplots indicate significant differences between treated ($n = 255$) and untreated ($n = 57$) colonies according to the Mann-Whitney U test (*** = $p < 0.001$; ** = $p < 0.01$; * = $p < 0.05$; ns = no significant differences). There were no data for untreated colonies in the Araucanía and Los Lagos regions.