

Changes in transcript abundance relating to colony collapse disorder in honey bees (*Apis mellifera*)

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Colony collapse disorder (CCD) is a mysterious disappearance of honey bees that has beset beekeepers in the United States since late 2006. Pathogens and other environmental stresses, including pesticides, have been linked to CCD, but a causal relationship has not yet been demonstrated. Because the gut acts as a primary interface between the honey bee and its environment as a site of entry for pathogens and toxins, we used whole-genome microarrays to compare gene expression between guts of bees from CCD colonies originating on both the east and west coasts of the United States and guts of bees from healthy colonies sampled before the emergence of CCD. Considerable variation in gene expression was associated with the geographical origin of bees, but a consensus list of 65 transcripts was identified as potential markers for CCD status. Overall, elevated expression of pesticide response genes was not observed. Genes involved in immune response showed no clear trend in expression pattern despite the increased prevalence of viruses and other pathogens in CCD colonies. Microarray analysis revealed unusual ribosomal RNA fragments that were conspicuously more abundant in the guts of CCD bees. The presence of these fragments may be a possible consequence of picorna-like viral infection, including deformed wing virus and Israeli acute paralysis virus, and may be related to arrested translation. Ribosomal fragment abundance and presence of multiple viruses may prove to be useful diagnostic markers for colonies afflicted with CCD.

microarray | picorna-like virus | ribosomal RNA

As the premier managed pollinator in the United States, the western honey bee, *Apis mellifera*, contributes more than \$14 billion to agriculture annually (1). Beginning in fall 2006, the American apiculture industry experienced catastrophic losses of unknown origin. The phenomenon, called colony collapse disorder (CCD), was identified by a set of distinctive characteristics, including the absence of dead bees in or near the colony and the presence of abundant brood, honey, and pollen despite vastly reduced numbers of adult workers (2). Losses were estimated at 23% over the winter of 2006–2007 (3) and at 36% over the winter of 2007–2008 (4).

Using metagenomics, Cox-Foster et al. (3) compared the microbial flora of honey bees in hives diagnosed with CCD and in ostensibly healthy hives, evaluating pathogens with respect to their association with diagnosed CCD. The most predictive pathogen was Israeli acute paralysis virus (IAPV), a picorna-like virus (Dicistroviridae) hitherto unreported in the United States. However, a later study found IAPV in U.S. bees before the appearance of CCD (5), discounting an exclusive causal relationship. The metagenomic analysis identified other pathogens associated with CCD bees, including the picorna-like viruses Kashmir bee virus (KBV) and deformed wing virus (DWV), and 2 species in the microsporidian genus *Nosema* (3), one of which, *N. ceranae*, was subsequently linked to collapses of colonies in Spain (6), although this may be unrelated to CCD in the United States. A high prevalence of multiple pathogens in CCD bees suggests that a compromised immune response may be integral to CCD.

Pesticides also have been suspected to play a role in CCD. Sublethal exposures leading to behavioral disruptions consistent with the failure of foragers to return to their hives have been associated with the neonicotinoid pesticides (7). The long-term use of combinations of in-hive pesticides for control of honey bee parasites also may have contributed to otherwise unexplained bee mortality (8).

To differentiate among possible explanations for CCD, we used whole-genome microarray analysis, comparing gut gene expression in adult worker bees from healthy and CCD colonies. We assayed the gut because it is the principal site of pesticide detoxification and an integral component in the immune defense against pathogens in *A. mellifera*. Samples from colonies varying in CCD severity were collected on the U.S. east and west coasts in the winter of 2006–2007 and compared with healthy (“historical”) controls collected in 2004 and 2005.

Results

Gene Expression Differences. The microarray contained oligonucleotide probes representing 9,867 different genes (with duplicate spots), based on gene predictions and annotation from the honey bee genome sequencing project; in addition, 2,729 probes specific for ESTs matching no existing annotation were represented on the array (9–11), including 21 probes derived from expressed sequence tags (ESTs) specific for rRNA [supporting information (SI) Table S1].

Of the 6,777 probes with expression above background level, 1,305 probes showed significant differences in expression in at least 1 of the 5 contrasts [false discovery rate (FDR), $P < .01$; and fold-change >2] (Fig. 1). The west coast versus historical comparison alone generated a list of 948 differentially expressed probes; however, 668 of these were not differentially expressed in any of the other comparisons.

There was little concordance in the lists of differentially expressed genes between the east and west coast comparison of guts taken from “severe” and “mild” colonies. Just 54 probes shared differential expression between the east and west coast severe versus mild comparisons, with 191 probes showing unique differential expression. That so many genes are differentially transcribed in the severe versus mild comparisons suggests these classifications may not be equivalent across geographical samplings.

Reflecting the strong differences in gene expression, hierarchical cluster analysis, using expression values for all probes,

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The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Data deposition: The data reported in this paper have been deposited in the ArrayExpress database, www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress (accession no. E-MEXP-2292).

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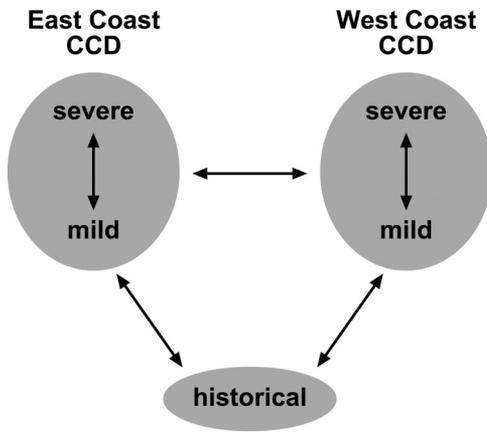


Fig. 1. Experimental design for microarray comparisons of CCD and healthy bees. East coast CCD includes bees collected in Florida and Pennsylvania, and west coast CCD includes bees from California. Guts from bees remaining in colonies that were classified as mild or severe were compared with each other and together, through a reference gut RNA sample, with guts of healthy historical bees collected in 2004 and 2005. A total of 22 microarrays were hybridized.

grouped the samples broadly by health status and geography (Fig. 2). All healthy bees clustered together, as did all CCD bees, which were further clustered according to geography, with west coast California bees forming one group and east coast Pennsylvania and Florida bees clustering together in another group. Differences in relative colony health at the time of collection, either mild or severe CCD, were not reflected in the cluster analysis.

Although geographic variation among the east and west coast CCD samples is evident, if CCD is a distinct phenomenon, then it should be possible to identify a list of CCD-related genes that show differential expression in both east and west coast CCD bees relative to healthy bees. But because these comparisons rely on the historical samples, which may carry their own geographic biases, we further winnowed the gene list by using only genes differentially expressed in the east coast severe versus mild comparison (Fig. 3). This comparison was informative; expression of 65 transcripts was consistently up or down when comparing relatively sick bees (CCD or severe) and relatively healthy bees (historically healthy or mild) (Fig. 2); 29 probes on this list correspond to annotated genes, 35 probes correspond to ESTs, and 1 probe corresponds to a pathogen, DWV.

Gene Ontology Functional Analyses of Gene Expression Differences.

Genes differentially expressed between groups were categorized according to Gene Ontology (GO) (12). FlyBase orthologs of bee genes that were differentially expressed were used for GO enrichment analyses (Table 1). In the cellular component ontology, genes associated with lipid particle (GO:0005811), cytosolic small ribosomal subunit (GO:0022627), and mitochondrial respiratory chain (GO:0005746) generally demonstrated reduced expression in west coast bee guts relative to historical samples.

In the molecular function ontology, genes related to transcription factor activity (GO:0003700) were more highly expressed in both east coast and west coast CCD bees and in severe CCD bees. West coast bees also showed reduced expression of both heme binding (GO:0020037) and carboxylesterase activity (GO:0004091) categorizations, which include cytochrome P450 monooxygenases (P450s) and carboxylesterases (COEs), the principal xenobiotic metabolizing enzymes. One P450, CYP4G11, was expressed at a lower level in all 3 contrasts tested.

In the biological process ontology, genes related to development (GO:0016348 and GO:0007509) and the peptidoglycan

catabolic process (GO:0009253) were overrepresented but did not demonstrate consistent directional differences. The peptidoglycan recognition proteins (PGRPs) contribute to immunity by detecting bacteria (13); PGRP-S2 was up-regulated and PGRP-S3 was down-regulated in CCD bees. Transcripts encoding sallimus, a large complex protein that mediates muscle elasticity (14), were more abundant in west coast bees. This protein also may contribute to immunity, because it contains Ig repeats and its transcripts are overexpressed in *Anopheles gambiae* mosquitoes after bacterial infection (15).

The gene *mbk-1* was more highly expressed in CCD bees; the *D. melanogaster* ortholog of this gene plays a role in hormone-triggered cell death (16) and larval midgut histolysis (17). Thus, overexpression of *mbk-1* may indicate apoptosis in the guts of CCD bees. However, of the 39 apoptosis-related (GO:0006915) genes on the microarray, only *mbk-1* and *GB14659*, which is similar to *apoptotic peptidase activating factor 1*, were more highly expressed in the guts of CCD bees.

Pathogens in CCD Bees. Twenty-two probes specific for 8 bee pathogens were present on the microarray [KBV, DWV, black queen cell virus (BQCV), acute bee paralysis virus, sacbrood virus, *Ascophæra apis*, *Nosema apis*, and *Paenibacillus larvae*] (Fig. S2), providing an opportunity to survey the samples for pathogens. In some cases, the number of colonies sampled was small with respect to standard pathogen surveys, so the results are best interpreted in a qualitative rather than quantitative manner. Three pathogens were detectable at different levels among the sampled bees. Chalkbrood (*A. apis*) RNA was more abundant in both east coast CCD bees and in severe CCD bees. BQCV RNA was more abundant in CCD bees, as was DWV, but DWV also was more abundant in east coast severe CCD bees. The DWV probe on the microarray also may have detected the closely related Kakugo virus or *Varroa destructor* virus 1 (18), with which it shares 91% identity. A probe specific for IAPV (19) was not included on the array and likely is not detected by the probe for KBV, with which it shares just 60% identity. The presence of *Nosema*, IAPV, and other viruses was surveyed with quantitative PCR (qPCR), indicating a generally higher viral load in CCD colonies (Table 3).

Validation of Microarray Results with qPCR. Expression changes of 8 transcripts were verified by qPCR. Five of 8 transcripts had similar expression profiles when measured using the same RNA samples analyzed by both methods (Table S4). Biological validation of microarray results was performed using qPCR on gut samples from healthy and CCD bees collected in California in 2007, a year after the samples used for microarray analysis were obtained. Differential expression of 3 of 8 transcripts was confirmed: CCD-associated up-regulation of the ESTs QW33 and *jdeC15*, corresponding to 28S and 5.8S rRNA subunits. DWV also was more abundant in CCD gut samples (Table 2).

Further qPCR validation of markers was performed with abdomens of bees from 147 colonies in healthy and CCD apiaries in 6 states. Only an rRNA-coding EST, QW33, was differentially expressed between CCD and healthy abdomens (Table 2). These CCD bees also were more likely to harbor both a larger number of viruses (as detected by these methods) and nonviral pathogens, as in the original samples (Table 3).

Discussion

No simple explanations for the cause of CCD emerge from the microarray analysis. Expression of detoxification and immune gene transcripts, which would indicate toxins or disease as the cause of CCD, was largely unchanged. However, considerable geographic variation existed among CCD bees, with west coast bees seemingly more severely affected. Transcripts of genes related to basic cellular processes involving ribosomal and

West / Historical East / Historical

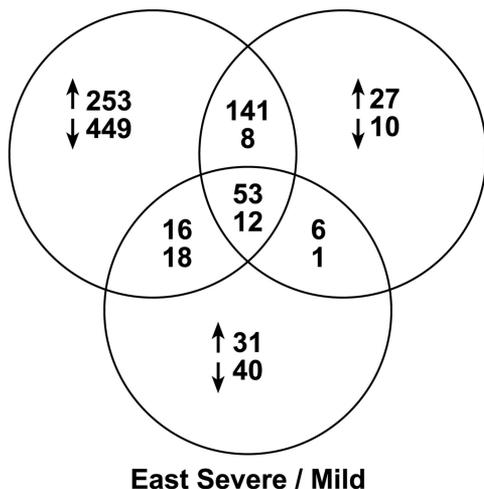


Fig. 3. Venn diagram showing the number of transcripts up-regulated and down-regulated in 3 comparisons: west coast (California) CCD versus historical, east coast (Florida and Pennsylvania) CCD versus historical, and east coast severe CCD versus mild CCD.

Although 88 known immune-related genes were included on the microarray, these also were mostly unchanged in expression in CCD bees. Given the association between pathogens and CCD (3), the finding that so few immune genes were differentially expressed in CCD bees was unexpected. Insect guts can produce antimicrobial peptides, including the apidaecins in honey bees (23), yet CCD-related changes in transcription of these genes were not detected. This lack of response does not rule out viral infection, however, because antimicrobial proteins are ineffective against viruses. In *D. melanogaster*, fungal or bacterial infection induces antimicrobial peptides, but flies infected with *Drosophila C* virus (DCV), another picorna-like virus, did not produce more antimicrobial peptides (24) and demonstrated elevated transcription of only a small number of immune genes relative to fungal and bacterial infection (25).

Many of the transcripts differentially expressed in CCD bees were detected by probes based on ESTs matching no existing annotation (10, 11). Of the 2,729 geneless ESTs on the array, 28 were differentially expressed in CCD bees. Of all of the ESTs on which probes were based, 13 were discovered to contain rRNA sequence, and 5 of these were more highly expressed in CCD bee guts. These rRNA-coding ESTs were not identified as rRNA previously, because the *A. mellifera* rRNA sequence is not available in online repositories, and identification of these probes was accomplished only by manually transcribing the published rRNA sequence from printed text (26). Had these ESTs been previously identified as rRNA, the associated probes likely would have been excluded from the microarray.

The presence of rRNA on these microarrays is surprising, because both the EST projects on which the probes were based and the microarray hybridization rely on a polyadenylated 3' tail for the initial priming step in the reverse-transcription reaction. Ribosomal RNA is transcribed by RNA polymerase I, and the resulting transcript is not polyadenylated; as such, oligo(dT)-based reverse-transcription reactions should not reverse-transcribe rRNA. Yet transcripts of rRNA have long appeared in EST projects, and their reverse transcription has been attributed to poly(A)-rich internal sequences hybridizing to the oligo(dT) or to genomic DNA contamination (27). This differential expression of polyadenylated rRNA transcripts in insects cur-

rently defies technical explanation; differential expression of these transcripts associated with age and caste in a termite (*Reticulitermes flavipes*) EST project (28) suggests an underlying biological explanation.

One possible explanation for the presence of poly(A) rRNA sequences in bees is that they are degradation intermediates. Polyadenylation is a well-known marker of RNA degradation in bacteria and organelles (29), and poly(A) addition is known to contribute to eukaryotic rRNA degradation (30). Polyadenylated 25S rRNA comprises $\approx 0.02\%$ of all of the 25S rRNA transcripts in fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (31). Another explanation for these sequences is the "ribosomal filter hypothesis," in which conventional mRNA transcripts include tens to hundreds of nucleotides similar to rRNA sequence in either the sense or antisense direction (32). Transcripts of genes containing rRNA sequence can bind to ribosomal subunits and alter translation efficiency (33). Short sections of rRNA function as an internal ribosome entry site (IRES) to interact with the ribosome and alter translation. Indeed, functions have been assigned to some mRNAs containing large sections of rRNA sequence (34), although none of the predicted genes annotated from the honey bee genome contains sufficient rRNA sequence to hybridize to any of the rRNA probes on the array (Table S1). A related hypothesis posits that long sequences of rRNA-like transcript may aid in protein folding, taking on part of the enzymatic activity of rRNA (35).

The picorna-like virus DWV was more abundant in CCD bees analyzed in the microarray experiment and a broader sampling of bee colonies revealed that CCD bees carry a larger number of different picorna-like viruses (Table 3). Picorna-like viruses, including IAPV and KBV, that have been associated with CCD (3) initiate transcription of viral proteins by the ribosome through an IRES rather than through the 5'-methylation cap that initiates translation of most mRNA (36). The IRES sequences from both DWV and *Varroa destructor* virus 1 effectively enhance translation of a reporter gene (36). Picorna-like viruses in mammals also halt translation of host mRNA through cleavage of the translation initiation factor eIF4G and the poly(A)-binding protein (37), leaving the ribosomes incapable of binding host mRNA and giving the viral RNA little competition for its IRES-mediated binding to host ribosomes (38).

While there is no direct evidence that elevated poly(A) rRNA is a result of picorna-like viral infection, one consequence of the viral disabling of ribosomal function may well be increased ribosomal degradation. Picornavirus infection in mammals both reduces protein production and causes strings of translating polyribosomes to break down, and these idle ribosomal subunits may be more susceptible to degradation (39). Ribosomal degradation also could occur in CCD bees independent of viral infection; for example, starving bacteria demonstrate elevated ribosomal degradation (39). Regardless of the cause, the abundance of poly(A) rRNA may be a useful diagnostic marker for determining CCD status, although the presence of poly(A) rRNA does not in itself indicate CCD, because healthy bees, including those used to generate EST libraries, contain these fragments.

Although gene transcript analysis did not clearly identify a specific cause for CCD, our study documents several patterns suggestive of a causal mechanism. The reduced protein synthetic capabilities that would accompany ribosomal hijacking by multiple picorna-like viruses would leave bees unable to respond to additional stresses from pesticides, nutrition, or pathogens. Although any interpretation of the presence of these rRNA fragments is speculative, the reported interaction between bee picorna-like viruses and rRNA is suggestive of a possible root cause of CCD.

To establish a causal relationship, the quantitative association between multiple picorna-like virus infections and polyadenyl-

Table 3. Proportion of colonies with detectable levels of viral and microsporidial pathogens, as measured by qPCR

| Year | Status | State | Colonies | ABPV | KBV | IAPV | DWV | SBV | Number of viruses | <i>N. apis</i> | <i>N. ceranae</i> | Number of Pathogens |
|------|---------|-------|----------|------|-----|------|-----|-----|-------------------|----------------|-------------------|---------------------|
| 2006 | Healthy | MA/PA | 14 | 0% | 14% | 7% | 64% | 36% | 1.21 ± 0.80 | 0% | 50% | 1.71 ± 0.99 |
| | CCD | FL | 24 | 38% | 38% | 25% | 46% | 8% | 1.54 ± 1.67 | 8% | 42% | 2.04 ± 2.03 |
| | CCD | CA | 57 | 51% | 21% | 21% | 58% | 30% | 1.81 ± 1.41 | 40% | 60% | 2.81 ± 1.74 |
| 2007 | Healthy | CA | 14 | 86% | 7% | 14% | 29% | 7% | 1.43 ± 1.02 | 7% | 86% | 2.36 ± 1.00 |
| | CCD | CA | 16 | 69% | 44% | 25% | 44% | 6% | 1.88 ± 0.72 | 0% | 94% | 2.81 ± 0.83 |

Total number of different viruses and pathogens detected are summarized (± SD). More pathogens were detected in bees from colonies identified as suffering from CCD in both 2006 and 2007 ($P < .05$; one-way Mann-Whitney test), and CCD colonies overall contained more viruses ($P < .05$; Fisher's combined probability test).

an earlier indication of CCD status than has hitherto been available and allow beekeepers to take actions to reduce losses.

Materials and Methods

Biological Material and RNA Extraction. Remaining adult bees in colonies diagnosed with CCD at apiaries in Florida, California, and Pennsylvania were collected during winter 2006–2007. CCD colony health was scored at the time of collection as either severe or mild, depending on the apparent strength of the colony. Historical bees, collected before the appearance of CCD and hence ostensibly healthy, were collected in 2004 and 2005 from colonies set up on new equipment with no miticide treatments in apiaries of Pennsylvania State University near State College, Pennsylvania (Table S3). Bees for the reference (ostensibly healthy) sample were collected from 5 hives near Urbana, Illinois in July 2007. To date, there have been no confirmed cases of CCD in central Illinois. All bees were immediately frozen on dry ice and kept at -80°C until dissection.

Dissection, RNA extraction, microarray, statistical and qPCR validation analyses are described in [SI Text](#). Pooled samples of RNA from 6 guts collected from each CCD colony were hybridized to 2 arrays, incorporating a dye swap (Fig. S1). Two separate pools of RNA from 6 guts each were created for both historical samplings, and each was hybridized against the reference on a single microarray. Experiments were designed to meet Minimum Information About a Microarray Experiment standards, and all microarray data obtained in these studies were deposited at ArrayExpress [www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress (accession no. E-MEXP-2292)].

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Supporting Information

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SI Materials and Methods

Biological Material and RNA Extraction. Remaining adult bees in colonies diagnosed with CCD at apiaries in Florida, California, and Pennsylvania were collected during the winter of 2006–2007. CCD colony health was scored at the time of collection as either “severe” or “mild,” depending on the apparent strength of the colony. “Historical” bees, collected before the appearance of CCD and hence ostensibly healthy, were collected in 2004 and 2005 from colonies set up on new equipment with no miticide treatments in apiaries of Pennsylvania State University near State College, PA (Table S3). All bees were immediately frozen on dry ice and kept at -80°C until dissection.

To dissect guts, each abdomen was placed in 500 μL of cold RNAlater ICE (Ambion) and kept at -20°C for 36–48 h. Guts were rapidly dissected on a chilled glass plate and returned to -80°C until RNA extraction. Gut RNA was isolated by first grinding in TRIzol (Invitrogen) and then purifying over an RNeasy minicolumn (Ambion). RNA isolated from individual guts was equally pooled among 5–7 guts and then used for reverse transcription and hybridization of microarrays.

Bees for the “reference” (ostensibly healthy) sample were collected from 5 hives near Urbana, IL in July 2007. To date, there have been no confirmed cases of CCD in central Illinois. Guts were removed from 15 cold-anesthetized live bees from each colony by pulling the last abdominal segment with forceps and then freezing the gut on dry ice. Guts were extracted using TRIzol and RNeasy Midi columns (Ambion) and then pooled to make the reference sample.

For the comparison of abdomen RNA using qPCR, abdomens were detached from frozen bees. Eight abdomens from the same colony were ground in liquid nitrogen, and RNA was isolated using TRIzol.

Microarray Design. Oligonucleotide-based microarrays (UIUC Honey Bee oligo 13K v1) were fabricated at the University of Illinois Keck Center for Comparative and Functional Genomics and represent 9,867 gene predictions for the honey bee genome (1) as well as 2,729 probes specific for transcripts discovered through EST projects on bee brain (2) and larvae (3) that match no existing genes. In addition, 22 probes specific for honey bee pathogens were included. Seventy-mer oligonucleotides representing each sequence were designed using an established algorithm (4), synthesized by Illumina, Inc, and double-spotted on glass microscope slides along with appropriate positive and negative control spots. A total of 13,440 probes specific for RNA transcripts were present on the array.

Experimental Design. Experiments were designed to meet Minimum Information About a Microarray Experiment standards, and all microarray data obtained in these studies were deposited at ArrayExpress [www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress (accession no. E-MEXP-2292)]. A combination looped, common-reference microarray design was used to compare historical and CCD samples. A blend of RNA isolated from healthy colonies (collected near Urbana, IL in July 2007) served as a reference (5). The microarray experiment compared the guts of bees from mildly and severely afflicted colonies in apiaries experiencing CCD on the east coast (Florida and Pennsylvania) and west coast (California) with a common reference (Fig. S1). Pooled samples of RNA from 6 guts collected from each CCD colony were hybridized to 2 arrays, incorporating a dye swap. Two separate pools of RNA from 6 guts each were made for both historical

samplings, and each was hybridized against the reference on a single microarray.

Microarray Hybridizations. Microarrays were hybridized, washed, and scanned following established protocols (6). RNA (5 μg) was hybridized to 6 μg of oligo(dT)₁₈ primer. Then single-stranded cDNA was synthesized with 400 U ArrayScript (Ambion) combined with chilled 10 \times first-strand buffer, 20 U Rnase OUT (Invitrogen), and 0.5 mM amino-allyl dNTP. After incubation overnight at 42°C , the reaction was stopped by incubating with 15 μL of 0.1 N NaOH at 70°C and then neutralized with 15 μL of 0.1 N HCl. The Qiaquick PCR purification kit (Qiagen), with modified Tris-free buffers, was used to purify cDNA, which was then dried down in a SpeedVac, thoroughly resuspended in 4.5 μL of coupling buffer, and then dye-coupled with Cy dye (40 nmol, RPN5661; GE Healthcare) in 4.5 μL of DMSO during a 1-h incubation. Dye-coupled cDNA was purified separately with a PCR purification kit; samples were then combined with 1 \times hybridization buffer (25% formamide, 5 \times SSC, 0.1% SDS), applied to arrays, and hybridized for 24 h at 42°C . A series of 10-min agitated washes removed excess probe: 1 \times SSC and 0.2% SDS at 42°C , 0.1 \times SSC at room temperature, and 2 washes with 0.1 \times SSC and 0.2% SDS at room temperature. Arrays were spin-dried and stored under argon until being scanned with an Axon 4000B scanner. Images were analyzed with GenePix Pro (Molecular Devices).

Statistical Analyses. The LIMMA/Bioconductor/R statistical package was used for statistical analysis of the intensity data from the arrays (7–9). NORMEXP was used for background correction, followed by PRINTIPLOESS correction within arrays and SCALE correction between arrays. DUPCOR from the LIMMA package was used to estimate the correlation between duplicate spots on the arrays. After normalization, data from negative and positive control probes were removed from further analysis, as were spots with an expression level below the level of negative control spots on at least 5 of the 22 arrays. Corrected intensity values for each colony were fit to a linear model and ranked in order of evidence for differential expression using EBAYES (9) on 3 contrast matrices: east coast versus historical, west coast versus historical and east coast severe versus mild, and west coast severe versus mild and west coast versus east coast (Fig. 3). A P value $<.01$ after FDR correction and a fold-change >2 was established as the cutoff for genes to be considered differentially expressed. A relatively permissive P value combined with a fold-change cutoff has been shown to produce more reliably reproducible gene lists in microarray experiments (10).

Hierarchical Cluster Analysis and Heatmaps. An experimentwide hierarchical cluster analysis was performed using expression data for 6,777 probes that met the filtering criteria. Euclidean distance calculation was followed by complete clustering, and was supported with 1,000 bootstrap replicates (11). This experimentwide clustering of colonies was used for all dendrograms, and these same clustering methods were used for genewise clustering and the production of heatmaps.

GO Analysis. Bee genes with putative *D. melanogaster* orthologs (12) were annotated based on *D. melanogaster* GO classifications (version 08/27/2008) from the GO website (<http://www.geneontology.org/>). GO classifications specific to honey bee genes from

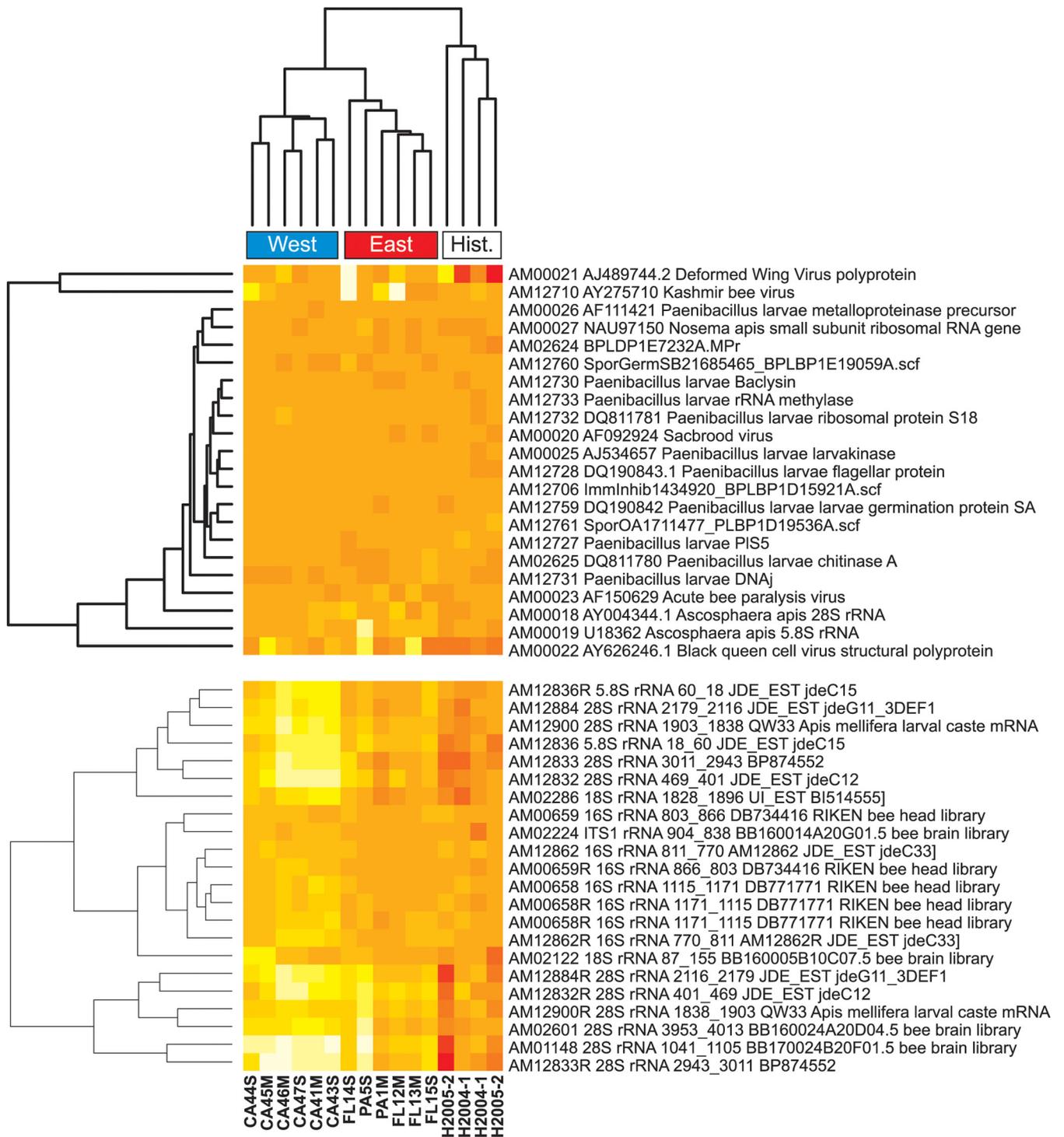


Fig. S2. Heatmap comparing microarray expression values for all forward probes specific for pathogens and all probes specific for rRNA. "AM" designations correspond to microarray probe number. Yellow indicates increased transcript abundance, and red indicates decreased transcript abundance relative to the mean for all colonies. CA, California; PA, Pennsylvania; FL, Florida. Numbers correspond to colony number. S, severe CCD; M, mild CCD. Colonywise clustering was performed using expression values for all 6,777 probes.

Table S1. Top BLASTN hits between rRNA (16) and annotated genes from the honey bee genome (A) and microarray probes (B)

(A)

| Annotated gene | Start | End | Orientation | rRNA match | Match length | E-value | Identity |
|----------------|-------|-------|-------------|---------------------|--------------|-----------|----------|
| GB16311-RA | 300 | 324 | + | 18S rRNA 291–360 | 25 | 5.10E-002 | 92% |
| GB14230-RA | 11441 | 11469 | + | 18S rRNA 1011–1080 | 29 | 5.10E-002 | 90% |
| GB17239-RA | 429 | 457 | + | ITS1 rRNA 81–150 | 29 | 5.10E-002 | 90% |
| GB12491-RA | 929 | 955 | + | ITS2 rRNA 1276–1345 | 27 | 7.90E-001 | 89% |
| GB13774-RA | 242 | 266 | – | 12S rRNA 1–70 | 25 | 5.10E-002 | 92% |
| GB18978-RA | 1202 | 1228 | – | 12S rRNA 571–640 | 26 | 7.90E-001 | 96% |
| GB30293-RA | 1706 | 1730 | – | 16S rRNA 591–660 | 25 | 5.10E-002 | 92% |
| GB17261-RA | 3993 | 4019 | + | 16S rRNA 916–985 | 27 | 7.90E-001 | 89% |
| GB12764-RB | 1897 | 1923 | + | 16S rRNA 1011–1080 | 26 | 7.90E-001 | 96% |
| GB10944-RA | 769 | 797 | + | 16S rRNA 1341–1371 | 29 | 1.60E-002 | 90% |
| GB16604-RA | 186 | 214 | – | 16S rRNA 1341–1371 | 29 | 1.60E-002 | 90% |
| GB12296-RA | 473 | 501 | + | 16S rRNA 1341–1371 | 30 | 4.00E-003 | 93% |

(B)

| Probe | Start | End | Orientation | rRNA match | Match length | E-value | Identity | EST |
|----------|-------|-----|-------------|--------------------|--------------|-----------|----------|--|
| AM02286 | 3 | 70 | + | 18S rRNA 1826–1895 | 68 | 8.00E-034 | 100% | UI_EST BI514555 |
| AM02122 | 2 | 70 | + | 18S rRNA 86–155 | 69 | 1.00E-029 | 97% | BB160005B10C07.5 bee brain library |
| AM02224 | 3 | 69 | – | ITS1 rRNA 836–905 | 67 | 3.00E-033 | 100% | BB160014A20G01.5 bee brain library |
| AM12836 | 3 | 45 | + | 5.8S rRNA 16–85 | 43 | 7.00E-019 | 100% | JDE_EST jdeC15 |
| AM12836R | 13 | 55 | – | 5.8S rRNA 6–75 | 43 | 7.00E-019 | 100% | JDE_EST jdeC15 |
| AM12832 | 1 | 69 | – | 28S rRNA 401–470 | 69 | 2.00E-034 | 100% | JDE_EST jdeC12 |
| AM12832R | 1 | 69 | + | 28S rRNA 401–470 | 69 | 2.00E-034 | 100% | JDE_EST jdeC12 |
| AM01148 | 1 | 65 | + | 28S rRNA 1041–1110 | 65 | 1.00E-029 | 98% | BB170024B20F01.5 bee brain library |
| AM12900 | 3 | 68 | – | 28S rRNA 1836–1905 | 66 | 1.00E-032 | 100% | QW33 <i>A. mellifera</i> larval caste mRNA |
| AM12900R | 3 | 68 | + | 28S rRNA 1836–1905 | 66 | 1.00E-032 | 100% | QW33 <i>A. mellifera</i> larval caste mRNA |
| AM12884 | 1 | 64 | – | 28S rRNA 2116–2185 | 64 | 1.00E-014 | 91% | JDE_EST jdeG11_3DEF1 |
| AM12884R | 6 | 69 | + | 28S rRNA 2111–2180 | 64 | 1.00E-014 | 91% | JDE_EST jdeG11_3DEF1 |
| AM12833R | 3 | 70 | + | 28S rRNA 2941–3010 | 68 | 8.00E-034 | 100% | BP874552 |
| AM12833 | 3 | 70 | – | 28S rRNA 2941–3010 | 68 | 8.00E-034 | 100% | BP874552 |
| AM02601 | 8 | 68 | + | 28S rRNA 3946–4015 | 61 | 1.00E-029 | 100% | BB160024A20D04.5 bee brain library |
| AM12862 | 20 | 61 | – | 16S rRNA 751–820 | 42 | 6.00E-016 | 98% | JDE_EST jdeC33 |
| AM12862R | 25 | 66 | + | 16S rRNA 746–815 | 42 | 6.00E-016 | 98% | JDE_EST jdeC33 |
| AM00659 | 3 | 70 | + | 16S rRNA 801–870 | 68 | 8.00E-034 | 100% | DB734416 RIKEN bee head library |
| AM00659R | 3 | 70 | – | 16S rRNA 801–870 | 68 | 8.00E-034 | 100% | DB734416 RIKEN bee head library |
| AM00658 | 3 | 70 | + | 16S rRNA 1101–1170 | 68 | 8.00E-034 | 100% | DB771771 RIKEN bee head library |
| AM00658R | 3 | 70 | – | 16S rRNA 1101–1170 | 68 | 8.00E-034 | 100% | DB771771 RIKEN bee head library |

Probe EST sources include JDE_EST and QW33 (2), BB and UI_EST (3), and DB (1).

Table S2. Primer sequences used in qPCR experiments: (A) annotated genes, (B) ESTs, and (C) pathogens

| Microarray | | | qPCR primer | |
|------------|---|--------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| Probe | Description | Entrez ID | Forward | Reverse |
| (A) | | | | |
| AM02500 | Transcription factor mblk-1 (Mblk-1) | NM_001011629 | ACGTTCTGTGCTTTTCTTCGT | TGCCACTTCCTTCGTTTCTC |
| AM04590 | Cytochrome P450 monooxygenase (Cyp4 g11) | NM_001040233 | CAAAATGGTGTCTCTTACCG | ATGGCAACCCATCACTGC |
| AM05407 | | GB12792 | GGCCGAACTCCTGACCAC | TAATAACAATCTGATTTGCGTGTG |
| AM07887 | Similar to CG6619-PA | XM_624420 | GAACCAAAATTTTACGCGAAT | GCCTCTGCTTGTTTTGCAGT |
| AM10450 | Peptidoglycan recognition protein (PGRP-S3) | XM_001123180 | TTTGAAAATTTTCTATGAAAGCA | TTTTTAATTGGTGGAGATGGAAA |
| (B) | | | | |
| AM01773 | UI_EST BI510059 | NW_001253565 | TCCAACGATGATTTCTGACG | TCCTGCAGATTTTTCGGTA |
| AM02286 | UI_EST BI514555, 18S subunit rRNA | | CGTCCCTGCCCTTTGTACAC | CCAGTCCGAAGACCTCACTAAATC |
| AM02446 | BB160017A10B06.5 bee brain EST | BI515001 | CGCGCGAGTAAGAGAAAGAG | TCGAACAAGGGAAACGAAAC |
| AM12832R | JDE_EST jdeC12, 28S subunit rRNA | | AGGAATGAGCCCAGCACTGA | ACTTGGACGCAGTTCGACATC |
| AM12836 | JDE_EST jdeC15, 5.8S subunit rRNA | | GCGCGTCAACGTGTGAACT | CCGTGGACCGCAATGTG |
| AM12900R | QW33 larval caste EST, 28S subunit rRNA | BG101565 | TTAAGCAACCAACGCCTTTC | GGATCATGAAGCCACGAGAT |
| (C) | | | | |
| AM00021 | Deformed wing virus polyprotein gene | AJ489744 | GAGATTGAAGCGCATGAACA | TGAATTCAGTGTGCCCCATA |
| AM00023 | Acute bee paralysis virus | AF150629 | ACCGACAAAGGGTATGATGC | CTTGAGTTTGGGGTGTTCCT |
| AM12710 | Kashmir bee virus | AY275710 | TGAACGTCGACCTATTGAAAAA | TCGATTTTCCATCAAATGAGC |
| AM00020 | Sacbrood virus IAPV-F1a | AF092924 | GGGTGCGAGTGGTACTGGAAA | ACACAACACTCGTGGGTGAC |
| | IAPV_B4SO427_L17 | | GCGGAGAATATAAGGCTCAG | CTTGCAAGATAAGAAAGGGGG |
| | IAPVpwF16 | | CGAACTTGGTGACTTGAAGG | GCATCAGTCGTCTCCAGGT |
| | Nosema ceranae | NCU26533 | ACCCCAACTGCTTCAACAG | CTGGATATAGTACATTAATGTCCTGC |
| AM00027 | Nosema apis | NAU97150 | CAATATTTTATTATTTGAGAGA | TATATTTATTGTATTGCGCGTGCA |
| | | | CAATATTTTATTGTTCTGCGAGG | TATATTTATTGTATTGCGCGTGCT |

Table S3. Collection data for bees included in microarray and qPCR comparisons

| Experiment | Status | State | Year | Apiaries | Colonies | Individuals/colony |
|----------------|---------|---------------|-------------|----------|----------|--------------------|
| Microarray gut | Healthy | Pennsylvania | 2004 & 2005 | 1 | 2 | 12 |
| | CCD | Florida | 2006 | 1 | 4 | 6 |
| | CCD | Pennsylvania | 2006 | 1 | 2 | 6 |
| | CCD | California | 2006 | 1 | 6 | 6 |
| qPCR gut | Healthy | California | 2007 | 1 | 16 | 2 |
| | CCD | California | 2007 | 1 | 14 | 2 |
| qPCR abdomen | Healthy | Massachusetts | 2006 | 1 | 11 | 8 |
| | Healthy | Pennsylvania | 2004 & 2005 | 1 | 2 | 8 |
| | Healthy | Illinois | 2007 | 4 | 12 | 8 |
| | Healthy | California | 2007 | 1 | 14 | 8 |
| | CCD | California | 2006 | 9 | 69 | 8 |
| | CCD | Florida | 2006 | 3 | 32 | 8 |
| | CCD | California | 2007 | 1 | 16 | 8 |

Gut collections for microarray analysis from 2006 included equal numbers of colonies categorized as severe or mild CCD: 2 severe and 2 mild in Florida, 1 severe and 1 mild in Pennsylvania, and 3 severe and 3 mild in California.

Table S4. Technical validation of microarray results with qPCR

| ID | Reporter name | Entrez | Rho | P value |
|----------|---|----------------|------|----------|
| AM01773 | UI_EST BI510059 | NW_001253565.1 | 0.79 | <0.01* |
| AM02446 | BB160017A10B06.5 bee brain EST | BI515001 | 0.19 | 0.27, NS |
| AM02500 | Transcription factor mblk-1 | NM_001011629.1 | 0.38 | 0.1, NS |
| AM04590 | Cytochrome P450 (CYP4G11) | NM_001040233.1 | 0.65 | 0.01* |
| AM05407 | | GB12792-RA | 0.76 | <0.01* |
| AM07887 | Similar to CG6619-PA | XM_624420.2 | -0.6 | 0.98, NS |
| AM10450 | Peptidoglycan recognition protein S3 | XM_001123180.1 | 0.69 | 0.01* |
| AM12900R | QW33 larval caste EST, 28S subunit rRNA | BG101565 | 0.69 | 0.01* |

Technical validation of transcripts found differentially expressed on microarray using same mRNA samples for array and qPCR. NS, not significant.
 *Significant correlation ($P < .05$; Spearman's rank correlation test; $n = 13$).

Table S5. Supplemental data for probes appearing in Fig. 2.

| Heatmap label | Probe no. | Detailed description |
|------------------------------------|-----------|--|
| | AM02591 | BB160024A10D03.5 Bee Brain Library |
| | AM02425 | BB160019B20A08.5 Bee Brain Library |
| Kuzbanian-like | AM11733 | GB19179-RA similar to Kuzbanian-like CG1964-PA |
| | AM01939 | BB160007A10F09.5 Bee Brain Library |
| CG30157-PA | AM06238 | GB13640-RA similar to CG30157-PA |
| | AM02330 | BB160016B20F04.5 Bee Brain Library |
| | AM02241 | BB160014B10C02.5 Bee Brain Library |
| Neuromusculin | AM06930 | GB14330-RA similar to neuromusculin CG8779-PA |
| | AM02567 | NM_001011629.1 Mbkl-1 UI_EST B1516759 |
| GB17441-RA | AM10013 | GB17441-RA |
| | AM02574 | BB160003B10F04.5 Bee Brain Library |
| | AM02324 | BB160016B10E04.5 Bee Brain Library |
| | AM02046 | BB160009B20F08.5 Bee Brain Library |
| | AM01778 | BB170022A10A06.5 Bee Brain Library |
| | AM01773 | NW_001253565.1 UI_EST B1510059 |
| | AM12776 | NW_001254336.1 |
| | AM02577 | NW_001253018.1 UI_EST B1516848 |
| GB16434-RA | AM09013 | GB16434-RA |
| | AM02412 | EST082 female antennae library |
| CG4019-PA | AM07977 | GB15389-RA similar to CG4019-PA, isoform A |
| GB14952-RA | AM07543 | GB14952-RA |
| | AM00430 | DB780023 RIKEN honey bee head library |
| Carboxypeptidase B precursor | AM06256 | GB13658-RA similar to Carboxypeptidase B precursor |
| GB30251-RA | AM00225 | GB30251-RA |
| CG7720-PB | AM04230 | GB11610-RA similar to CG7720-PB, isoform B |
| bc10 | AM10352 | GB17779-RA similar to bc10 CG4867-PA |
| Rugose | AM08593 | GB16012-RA similar to rugose CG6775-PA, isoform A |
| Inhibitor of growth fam., mem. 4 | AM09163 | GB16584-RA similar to inhibitor of growth family, member 4 |
| CG14964-PA | AM11696 | GB19142-RA similar to CG14964-PA |
| Kruppel-like protein 1 | AM07461 | GB14867-RA kruppel-like protein 1 (Kr-h1) |
| | AM01978 | BB160008A10C02.5 Bee Brain Library |
| microRNA mir-277 | AM00065 | NW_001253371.1 microRNA mir-277 |
| | AM02281 | BB160015B10D03.5 Bee Brain Library |
| | AM01686 | NW_001253388.1 UI_EST B1509259 |
| CG6015-PA | AM03671 | GB11047-RA similar to CG6015-PA |
| | AM02500 | NM_001011629.1 Mbkl-1 UI_EST B1516137 |
| | AM02017 | BB160008B20E05.5 Bee Brain Library |
| mbkl-1 | AM01826 | GB17328-RA Mbkl-1 |
| | AM00552 | DB762728 RIKEN honey bee head library |
| | AM02463 | BB160020B20E04.5 Bee Brain EST Library |
| | AM02099 | NM_001011629.1 Mbkl-1 UI_EST B1513090 |
| | AM01315 | BB170022A10A10.5 Bee Brain Library |
| | AM01284 | BB170017B10G02.5 Bee Brain Library |
| Alpha-glucosidase (Hbg2) | AM12618 | GB20070-RA alpha-glucosidase (Hbg2) |
| Sallimus | AM01016 | XM_001121572.1 similar to sallimus CG1915-PC, isoform C |
| CG6619-PA | AM07887 | GB15297-RA similar to CG6619-PA |
| Deformed Wing Virus | AM00021 | AJ489744.2 Deformed Wing Virus gene for polyprotein |
| EST 285 2116–2179 | AM12884R | 28S rRNA 2116–2179 JDE_EST jdeG11_3DEF1 |
| EST 285 401–469 | AM12832R | 28S rRNA 401–469 JDE_EST jdeC12 |
| EST 285 1838–1903 | AM12900R | 28S rRNA 1838–1903 QW33 larval caste EST |
| EST 5.8S 60–18 | AM12836R | 5.8S rRNA 60–18 JDE_EST jdeC15 |
| EST 5.8S 18–60 | AM12836 | 5.8S rRNA 18–60 JDE_EST jdeC15 |
| EST 28S 3011–2943 | AM12833 | 28S rRNA 3011–2943 BP874552 adult brain library |
| Cytochrome P450 (CYP4G11) | AM04590 | GB11973-RA cytochrome P450 monooxygenase (CYP4G11) |
| LOC725309 | AM02502 | XM_001120351.1 hypothetical protein LOC725309 |
| GB18472-RA | AM11034 | GB18472-RA |
| GB17959-RA | AM10532 | GB17959-RA |
| Larval serum protein 2 | AM12781 | GB30362-RA similar to Larval serum protein 2 CG6806-PA |
| Dihydroxyacetone kinase 2 | AM05667 | GB13058-RA similar to dihydroxyacetone kinase 2 |
| Peptidoglycan recognition prot. S3 | AM10450 | GB17879-RA Peptidoglycan recognition protein S3 |
| CG1220-PE | AM06214 | GB13615-RA similar to CG1220-PE, isoform E |
| GB19297-RA | AM11850 | GB19297-RA hypothetical protein LOC725074 |
| CG6416-PF | AM02897 | GB30104-RA similar to CG6416-PF, isoform F |
| Carboxylesterase GB10854-RA | AM03479 | GB10854-RA |
| CG4409-PA | AM05331 | GB12716-RA similar to CG4409-PA |