

1 **Shifts in the immune response of an alien species along the invasion wave: testing the Evolution of**  
2 **Increased Competitive Ability hypothesis on invasive gray squirrels**

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4 Claudia Romeo<sup>1,\*</sup>, Joel Filipe<sup>2</sup>, Lucas A. Wauters<sup>3,4</sup>, Stefano Comazzi<sup>2,5</sup>, Federica Riva<sup>2</sup>, Nicola Ferrari<sup>2,5</sup>

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6 <sup>1</sup> Istituto Zooprofilattico Sperimentale della Lombardia e dell'Emilia Romagna, Via Bianchi 9, 25124 Brescia,  
7 Italy

8 <sup>2</sup> Università degli Studi di Milano, Department of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Science, Via  
9 dell'Università 6, 26900 Lodi, Italy

10 <sup>3</sup> Università degli Studi dell'Insubria, Department of Theoretical and Applied Sciences, Environment Analysis  
11 and Management Unit - Guido Tosi Research Group, Via Dunant 3, 21100 Varese, Italy

12 <sup>4</sup> University of Antwerp, Department of Biology - Evolutionary Ecology Group, Universiteitsplein 1, 2610  
13 Wilrijk, Belgium

14 <sup>5</sup> Università degli Studi di Milano, WildlifeHealth Lab, Via dell'Università 6, 26900 Lodi, Italy

15 \*corresponding author: Claudia Romeo (claudiarosa.romeo@izsler.it)

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Based on the Evolution of Increased Competitive Ability (EICA) hypothesis, a reduced investment in  
20 immunity, consequent to parasite loss, could partly explain the success of invasive alien species. We  
21 investigated the variation in the immune response of alien Eastern gray squirrels (*Sciurus carolinensis*)  
22 along the invasion wave of an expanding population, using multiple measures of immunity to investigate  
23 whether individuals at the invasion front, where parasite pressure is lower, 1) dampened their costly  
24 inflammatory response, and 2) increased their investment in less expensive acquired immunity compared  
25 to squirrels at the core of the invaded area. We first explored variation in hematological variables related  
26 either to the inflammatory or the acquired response. On a subset of individuals, we carried out *ex vivo* cell  
27 cultures to analyse the basal expression of MHC class II genes and the expression of TNF- $\alpha$  genes in  
28 response to an immune challenge. Platelet counts and TNF- $\alpha$  expression suggested higher inflammation in  
29 individuals living at the invasion core, whereas parameters associated with an acquired response  
30 (lymphocyte counts and MHC II expression by spleen cells) were conversely higher in squirrels at the front.  
31 Overall, our results suggest a shift between different immune strategies along the invasion wave,  
32 supporting a reduced investment in costly inflammatory responses and an increased investment in  
33 acquired immunity in individuals at the expanding edge of the range, which are subjected to high selective  
34 pressures for dispersal and reproduction.

35

36 **Keywords**

37 invasive species; biological invasions; immune strategy; expansion range; inflammatory response; *Sciurus*  
38 *carolinensis*

39

## 40 **1. Introduction**

41 Nowadays, biological invasions by alien species are widely recognised as one of the major threats to  
42 biodiversity and ecosystem functioning worldwide (Bellard et al., 2016; Diagne et al., 2021; Jeschke et al.,  
43 2014; Simberloff et al., 2013). Although, during the last decades, our knowledge in the field of invasion  
44 ecology has made relevant advances, the successful establishment and rapid spread of invasive species are  
45 likely the result of several complex interacting mechanisms whose exact interplay remains poorly  
46 understood (Enders et al., 2020).

47 Parasitism is considered one of the major selective forces leading to the evolution of diversity within  
48 natural populations (May and Anderson, 1983) and changes in host-parasite interactions occurring in  
49 introduced populations likely represent one of the key mechanisms governing invasions (Dunn and Perkins,  
50 2012). One of the proposed hypotheses to explain the success of invasive species is the Evolution of  
51 Increased Competitive Ability (EICA), which postulates that a loss of natural enemies (including parasites,  
52 predators and grazers) should allow for a reduced investment in defense functions and a consequent  
53 reallocation of resources towards fitness and growth (Blossey and Notzold, 1995). In most cases, invasive  
54 plants and animals experience indeed a relevant loss of parasites during the introduction process, and will  
55 show an impoverished parasite community in the new range compared to the native one (Dunn et al.,  
56 2012; Torchin et al., 2003). However, although the EICA hypothesis has been verified in several invasive  
57 plant systems (reviewed in Callaway et al., 2022), evidence for its occurrence in animals is still scarce  
58 (reviewed in Cornet et al., 2016).

59 Considering the complexity of vertebrates' immune system, Lee and Klasing (2004) further refined the EICA,  
60 postulating that an overall reduction of the immune response might be risky as invading hosts will be likely  
61 exposed to new pathogens. They proposed therefore that successful vertebrate invaders should adopt a  
62 trade-off between different immune pathways (Lee, 2006), dampening their costly systemic inflammatory  
63 response in favor of less expensive forms of immunity. Systemic inflammation (or acute-phase  
64 inflammation) is a severe, innate immune response that ultimately induces in the host a series of  
65 physiological states and sickness behaviors (e.g. anorexia, lethargy, fever) aimed at subtracting resources or  
66 at creating an unfavorable environment for the pathogen (Ashley et al., 2012; Dantzer et al., 2008). This

67 diffuse inflammatory reaction can be triggered by a strong response to an external stimulus, through the  
68 release of pro-inflammatory signaling molecules (i.e., cytokines) (Ashley et al., 2012; Chaplin, 2010).  
69 Systemic inflammation represents an important defense mechanism against pathogens, but it is also  
70 considered one of the most expensive types of responses in terms of nutritional and metabolic costs  
71 (Lochmiller and Deerenberg, 2000). It will generally cause in the host decreased activity, reduced growth,  
72 decreased reproductive output (e.g. Aubert et al. 1997a, b; Bonneaud et al. 2003; Adelman and Martin  
73 2009; Lopes et al. 2014), and, when deregulated or misdirected, may result in severe tissue damage,  
74 followed by morbidity and mortality (Ashley et al., 2012; Graham et al., 2005). Because of parasite loss,  
75 investing in inflammation and sustaining its high costs might therefore be unnecessary or even harmful to  
76 invading hosts, who would benefit by mounting less vigorous responses (Lee and Klasing, 2004; Phillips et  
77 al., 2010a). A reduced investment in inflammation may in turn allow for a reallocation of resources towards  
78 reproduction and growth and individuals which are able to down-regulate this type of response will thus be  
79 favored by natural selection and increase in frequency within the population. At the same time, a parallel  
80 enhancement of less expensive types of immunity might be advantageous, either an increased investment  
81 in some other forms of the innate response (Phillips et al., 2010a) or in antibody-mediated immunity (Lee  
82 and Klasing, 2004). This shift in the immune strategy from a costly inflammatory response to a less  
83 expensive one could at least partially explain why some invaders are more successful than others, and why  
84 alien species often perform better in the invaded area compared to their native range in terms of  
85 population growth rate (Lee and Klasing, 2004; White and Perkins, 2012).

86 Based on this framework of hypotheses, the strength and type of invaders' immune response can be  
87 expected to vary also among populations of the same alien species along its invasion wave (Phillips et al.,  
88 2010a; White and Perkins, 2012). Firstly, because moving towards the leading margin of range expansion a  
89 decrease in pathogen prevalence is usually observed, due to stochastic reasons and lower host densities  
90 that reduce transmission (Phillips et al., 2010b). Secondly, because selective pressures for high dispersal  
91 and reproduction at the front should favor trade-offs with other energetically expensive processes such as  
92 immunity (Burton et al., 2010; Phillips et al., 2010a; Phillips and Perkins, 2019; White and Perkins, 2012).

93 Here, we used the invasive North American Eastern gray squirrel (*Sciurus carolinensis*) as a model to test  
94 the EICA hypothesis, investigating individual variation in squirrels' immune response along the invasion  
95 wave of the main metapopulation established in Italy. Moving from the core towards the invasion front, we  
96 expected to observe: 1) a progressive decrease in hosts' inflammatory response and 2) a parallel increase in  
97 acquired immunity. To test these hypotheses, we made use of animals culled within an invasive species  
98 control plan and coupled observational data about immune-related blood parameters and MHC class II  
99 gene expression with experimental data on the expression of TNF- $\alpha$  genes following an *ex vivo* immune  
100 challenge. Data regarding parasite circulation in the invaded area were also collected to verify the  
101 assumption of a decreasing parasitic pressure towards the invasion front.

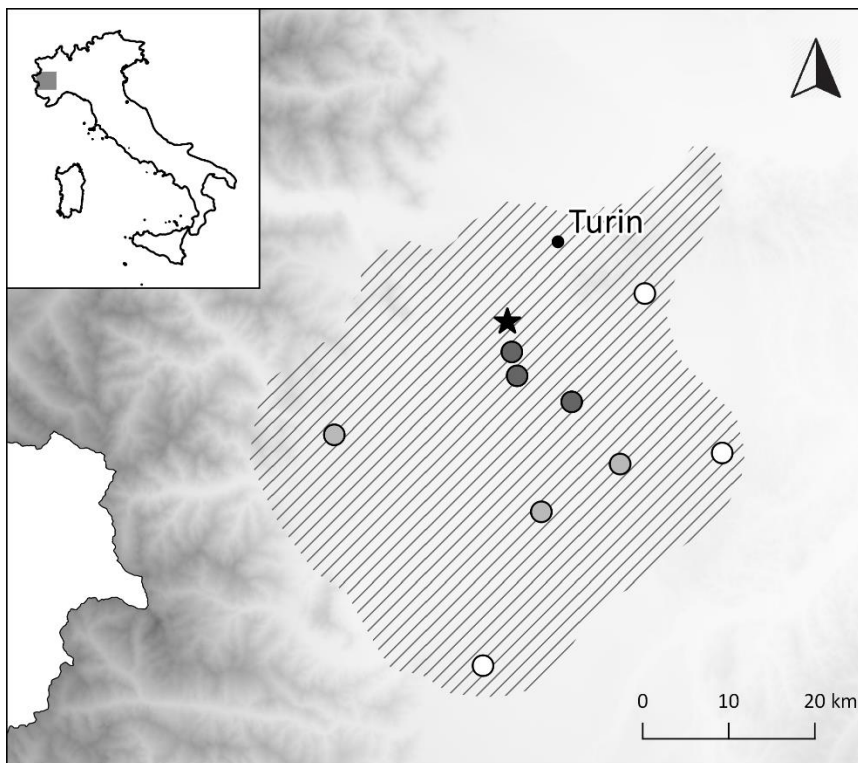
102

## 103 **2. Material and Methods**

### 104 *2.1. Study area and sampling of squirrels*

105 Gray squirrels used in the present study were culled during alien species control activities at nine different  
106 sites located within the main and oldest Italian metapopulation (Piedmont region, NW Italy, Figure 1),  
107 which originated from the first introduction of the species in the country in 1948 (Bertolino et al., 2014).  
108 The sites were characterized by homogeneous climate and similar vegetation (i.e., lowland broadleaf-  
109 conifer woodland patches surrounded by an agricultural matrix, see Supplementary File 1 for a detailed  
110 description). Depending on their position and time since gray squirrels' establishment, the areas were  
111 classified as core (i.e., gray squirrels established for > 15 years before sampling), intermediate (i.e., 5 – 15  
112 years) or front sites (i.e., < 5 years), obtaining three independent replicates per type of area (Figure 1).  
113 At these nine sites, from 2017 to 2018 we sampled a total of 126 squirrels (54 males, 72 females): 43 from  
114 the core, 38 from intermediate areas and 45 from the front. Squirrels were trapped by using live-traps  
115 (model 202, Tomahawk Live Trap Co., Wisconsin, USA) baited with hazelnuts, and euthanized on the field  
116 through CO<sub>2</sub> overdose in compliance with EC and AVMA guidelines (Close et al., 1997, 1996; Leary et al.,  
117 2020) (see Ethics statement for details on trapping and handling methods). Each individual was sexed and  
118 weighed, and blood samples were collected immediately on the field through postmortem intracardiac  
119 puncture and stored at 4°C in ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA) blood collection tubes. Samples and

120 carcasses for the *ex vivo* culture and experimental immune challenge were transported to the laboratory at  
121 4°C and within 3 hours from culling, in order to collect fresh cells samples.



122  
123 **Figure 1.** Location of sampling sites within the main Italian metapopulation of alien gray squirrels (*Sciurus*  
124 *carolinensis*) (shaded area, based on 2020 distribution data): core sites (dark gray circles, squirrels  
125 established for longer than 15 years), intermediate sites (light-gray circles, 5-15 years) and sites at the  
126 invasion front (white circles, <5 years). The star indicates the site of gray squirrels first release in 1948, from  
127 where they expanded mainly in a southwestern direction.

128  
129 *2.2 Study design and detailed hypotheses*

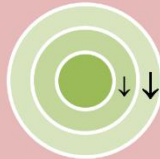

130 Our set of hypotheses was based on the initial assumption of a progressive reduction in parasite prevalence  
131 from the core towards the front of the invasion range. To verify this condition, a preliminary parasitological  
132 analysis was carried out in the study area (see Section 2.3 for details on methods). Assuming such a  
133 decrease in parasitic pressure along the invasion wave, we expected to observe a parallel shift in the  
134 immune strategy of gray squirrels, with individuals at the invasion front showing 1) a dampened  
135 inflammatory response and 2) an enhanced acquired response. To test these two hypotheses, we used

136 multiple measures of immunity (Figure 2), combining hematological data and gene expression data and  
137 carrying out an *ex vivo* experimental immune challenge.

138 Firstly, we analyzed variation in selected hematological parameters (see “Parasitological and hematological  
139 analyses” for details on methods). Due to their involvement in the inflammatory response, hemoglobin  
140 concentration and platelet and neutrophil counts were considered proxies for inflammation (Figure 2, 1a,  
141 and 1b), while the lymphocyte count was considered a proxy for the acquired immune response since B and  
142 T cells are effectors of the response against specific pathogens (Figure 2, 2a). Finally, we predicted  
143 neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratios (hereafter NLRs) to be lower in front animals, as they are expected to favor  
144 the acquired over the innate response (Figure 2, 2b).

145 Secondly, for the *ex vivo* experimental immune challenge and gene expression analysis, we isolated and  
146 cultured spleen and bone marrow cells from a subset of animals (see Section 2.4 for details on methods).  
147 Spleen and bone marrow tissues were chosen due to their different immunological roles, the first being  
148 involved mainly in lymphocyte development, while the latter is involved in the production of both  
149 lymphocytes and myeloid (neutrophils and monocytes) precursors. By means of quantitative PCR (qPCR),  
150 we therefore evaluated the basal expression of MHC Class II genes by spleen cells, and the expression of  
151 TNF- $\alpha$  genes by bone marrow cells before and after stimulation with bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS). LPS  
152 is a bacterial endotoxin that is found on the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria, and that can be  
153 used to simulate infection and elicit an immune response from vertebrate hosts, squirrels included  
154 (Prendergast et al., 2002; Previtali et al., 2012). The relative increase in TNF- $\alpha$  genes expression following  
155 LPS administration was considered a proxy for inflammation, as TNF- $\alpha$  is a pro-inflammatory cytokine  
156 produced by innate immune cells (monocyte/macrophages and neutrophils) after exposure to an  
157 inflammatory stimulus (Bradley, 2008; Falvo et al., 2010) (Figure 2, 1c). Conversely, MHC class II is a  
158 complex of molecules involved in the recognition of extracellular antigens and lymphocytes activation.  
159 MHC II is constitutively expressed by antigen-presenting cells (APCs), and induced in T lymphocytes (Holling  
160 et al., 2004; Neefjes et al., 2011). MHC II is therefore involved both in the innate and adaptive immune  
161 response pathways; however, we measured its expression limitedly to spleen cells. The spleen in mammals  
162 is the main secondary lymphoid organ, harboring mostly naïve lymphocytes which are locally primed by

163 APCs to initiate the adaptive immune response (Bronte and Pittet, 2013; Hensel et al., 2019). As such, MHC  
 164 II basal expression by splenic cells was considered a proxy for the acquired immune response (Figure 2, 2c).  
 165

Main hypothesis	Proxy	Role	Prediction	
<b>1. Dampening of inflammation</b> towards the invasion front 	<b>1a</b>	Platelet and neutrophil counts	participants to the inflammatory process	↓ front
	<b>1b</b>	Hemoglobin concentration	sequestered during inflammation	↑ front
	<b>1c</b>	TNF- $\alpha$ genes (expression after immune challenge)	encode for pro-inflammatory cytokines	↓ front
<b>2. Enhancement of acquired immunity</b> towards the invasion front 	<b>2a</b>	Lymphocyte counts	include cells involved in the acquired response	↑ front
	<b>2b</b>	Neutrophil to lymphocyte ratio	relative contribution of innate vs acquired response	↓ front
	<b>2c</b>	MHC class II genes (basal expression in spleen)	involved in T and B cells activation	↑ front

166

167 **Figure 2.** Main hypotheses and specific predictions regarding variation in the immune response of alien  
 168 gray squirrels (*Sciurus carolinensis*) along the invasion wave.

169

170 *2.3. Parasitological and hematological analyses*

171 To investigate the spatial distribution of parasites along the invasion wave, faecal egg examinations were  
 172 conducted on a total of 95 gray squirrels randomly sampled in the same study sites used for the immune  
 173 survey. Briefly, faeces were collected at capture from the trap floor and stored dry at 4°C until examination,  
 174 which was carried out within 3 days from collection to prevent eggs from hatching. Faecal samples were  
 175 examined through faecal flotation with saturated NaCl solution (1200 g/l) as described in Romeo et al.  
 176 (2014). Previous studies demonstrated that gray squirrels introduced in Italy experienced a relevant loss of  
 177 pathogens compared to their native range: only a few viral and bacterial infections have been reported  
 178 (Romeo et al., 2019, 2018, 2014a; Schilling et al., 2019; Schulze et al., 2020), and invaders show a  
 179 particularly poor ecto- and endoparasite community (Hofmannová et al., 2016; Prediger et al., 2017;



180 Romeo et al., 2014c, 2014b; Santicchia et al., 2019). For this reason, we focussed only on gastro-intestinal  
181 helminths as a general proxy for infections.

182 Regarding hematological analyses, a complete blood count (CBC) and a leukocyte differential count (LDC)  
183 were run on the full sample of 126 squirrels. Whole blood stored in EDTA was processed within 48 hours  
184 from sampling by using a Sysmex XT-2000iV hematology laser analyzer (Sysmex Corporation, Kobe, Japan),  
185 adequately validated for the species (Romeo et al., 2021).

186

#### 187 2.4. *Ex vivo* cultures, immune challenge, and gene expression analysis

188 The *ex vivo* experiment was carried out on a subset of 30 animals (15 males and 15 females; core: N=12;  
189 intermediate: N=9; front: N=9). From each animal, we collected the spleen for the analysis of MHC class II,  
190 and the bone marrow from the right femur for the LPS challenge and the analysis of TNF- $\alpha$  expression.

191 Under a sterile hood, spleen and bone marrow cells were isolated, prepared for culture as described in  
192 Supplementary File 1, and plated in six wells plates at a concentration of  $3 \times 10^6$  cells/ml. Spleen cells were  
193 plated in duplicate and incubated for 4 hours at 37°C and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Bone marrow cells were plated in  
194 duplicate for each condition: unstimulated and LPS 1  $\mu$ g/ml (*E. coli* O111:B4 LPS, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis,  
195 MO, USA). Bone marrow cells were incubated at 37°C for 4 hours at 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. After stimulation, cells of each  
196 well (both in suspension and in adhesion) were lysed with 1 ml of TRIreagent (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO,  
197 USA) and stored at -20 °C until RNA extraction. Cells in suspension were centrifugated at 4 °C (5 minutes at  
198 450 x g) and the supernatant was eliminated. Cell pellets were lysed with 1 ml of TRIreagent (Sigma-Aldrich,  
199 St. Louis, MO, USA) and the cells adhered to the corresponding well were also lysed and pooled together  
200 with the corresponding cell pellet. All lysed samples were stored at -20 °C until RNA extraction.

201 To investigate gene expression, total RNA was isolated following the manufacturer's instructions and  
202 quantified using a spectrophotometer (BioPhotometer, Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) at 260 nm  
203 wavelength. One  $\mu$ g of total RNA from each sample was reverse-transcribed using the High-Capacity cDNA  
204 Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystem, Foster City, CA, USA), accordingly to the manufacturer's  
205 instructions. The retro-transcribed cDNA obtained was used as a template for Real Time PCR in an  
206 optimized 25  $\mu$ l volume reaction using Sybr Green chemicals, as previously described (Curone et al., 2018).

207 Due to the lack of species-specific primer pairs for target (TNF- $\alpha$  and MHC class II) and housekeeping  
208 (GAPDH) genes of *S. carolinensis*, primers were *de novo* designed based on available sequences from  
209 phylogenetically close species (red squirrel, *S. vulgaris*, for TNF- $\alpha$  and MHC class II, and marmot, *Marmota*  
210 *monax*, for GAPDH). Primers' design was carried out using the Primer Express Software (Applied Biosystem,  
211 Foster City, CA, USA) and their specificity assessed through qualitative PCR and sequencing of the  
212 amplicons. Quantitative Real-Time PCR was carried out in the 7000 Sequence Detection System (Applied  
213 Biosystem, Foster City, CA, USA) as previously described (Riva et al., 2010). Primers sequences and further  
214 details on cell culture, PCR and sequencing protocols are reported in Supplementary File 1 (Table S2 and  
215 S3).

216

## 217 2.5. Statistical analysis

218 Variation in blood parameters of gray squirrels was analyzed through a set of five Linear Models (LMs),  
219 using hemoglobin concentration, platelet counts, neutrophil counts, lymphocyte counts, and NLRs as  
220 response variables. Neutrophils, lymphocytes, and their ratios were log-transformed ( $\ln(x+1)$ ) to reduce  
221 skewness. On each of these parameters, we tested the effect of the study site's position (i.e., core,  
222 intermediate or front) and included as covariates a set of other variables that may potentially affect  
223 variation in blood parameters: squirrel sex, reproductive condition nested in sex (i.e., non-breeding or  
224 pregnant/ lactating for females, abdominal or scrotal testes for males), age class (i.e., subadult < 1yr old or  
225 adult), body mass nested in age class and season (i.e., spring, autumn or winter). The inclusion of study site  
226 ID as random intercept did not improve the fit of any of the models (likelihood ratio tests: all  $p>0.05$ ),  
227 hence we started from full LMs and obtained minimal models through stepwise selection based on AICc.  
228 Interpretation of significant categorical variables with more than two levels was carried out through t-tests  
229 on differences of least square means, applying Tukey correction for multiple comparisons.

230 Variation in the expression of MHC class II and TNF- $\alpha$  by bone marrow and spleen cells was analyzed  
231 through two linear mixed models (LMMs), one for each gene, using efficiency-corrected RT-PCR Ct values as  
232 the response variable. The effect of site position on MHC class II and TNF- $\alpha$  basal expression, and the effect  
233 of treatment (control vs LPS) on TNF- $\alpha$  expression in each type of site were assessed through pre-planned

234 orthogonal contrasts. Normalization of target genes expression on the reference gene (GAPDH) was carried  
235 out within each model following the approach described in Steibel et al. (2009). Technical replicates and  
236 potential seasonal variability in gene expression were accounted for by including squirrel ID and season as  
237 random factors. Fold-changes and their 95% confidence limits were obtained through back-transformation  
238 of linear contrasts estimates. Normality of residuals was assessed visually.

239 All the analyses were carried out with PROC GLIMMIX and PROC MIXED, in SAS 9.4 software (Copyright ©  
240 2012 SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Gene expression data were analyzed by adapting to our data the  
241 code obtained through the SAS macro %QPCR\_MIXED (Steibel et al., 2009).

242

### 243 **3. Results**

#### 244 *3.1. Parasitological analysis and post-mortem examination*

245 Overall, 40% of faecal samples (38/95) were positive for helminth eggs: thirty-six individuals were infected  
246 only by the nematode *Strongyloides robustus*, in one animal we found only undetermined strongyle eggs,  
247 and another squirrel was infected by both. Endoparasites did not circulate uniformly in the study area:  
248 prevalence of infection gradually decreased moving from the core to the invasion front. While the  
249 prevalence of gastro-intestinal helminths at the invasion core was relatively high (i.e., 64%), moving  
250 outwards along the invasion wave it decreased markedly, with 37% prevalence in intermediate sites and  
251 19% at the front (see Supplementary File 1, Table S1 for detailed data). Additionally, all the 126 squirrels  
252 used in this study were thoroughly inspected for pathological signs of other infections during post-mortem  
253 operations. All of them were in good condition and none showed any clinical sign of disease.

254

#### 255 *3.2. Variation in blood parameters*

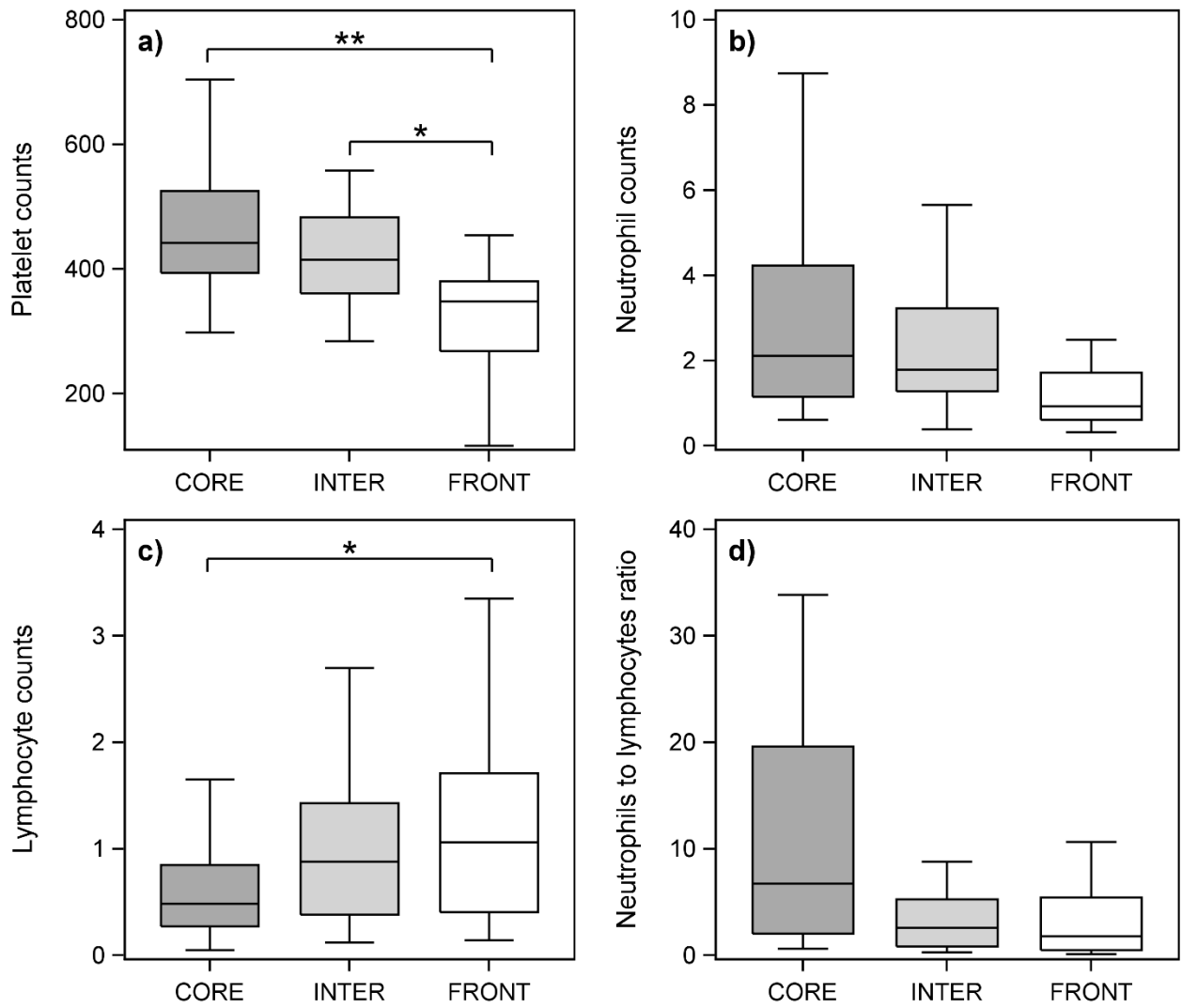
256 Mean values of selected hematological parameters in sampled gray squirrels and complete results of  
257 minimal models including all the variables affecting them are reported in Supplementary File 1 (Tables S4  
258 and S5). Site position was retained in all selected models except for the one exploring variation in  
259 hemoglobin concentration. In particular, platelets ( $F_{2,98}=7.68$ ;  $p=0.0008$ ), lymphocyte counts ( $F_{2,83}=4.61$ ;  
260  $p=0.0126$ ) and NLRs ( $F_{2,79}=3.42$ ;  $p=0.0375$ ) all varied significantly depending on a squirrels' position along

261 the invasion wave. In detail, the number of platelets in squirrels' blood was lower at the front than at the  
262 core (parameter estimate  $\pm$  SE=107.1  $\pm$  27.5;  $t_{98}=3.90$ ;  $p_{\text{adj}}=0.0005$ ) and in intermediate sites (69.3  $\pm$  29.5;  
263  $t_{98}=2.35$ ;  $p_{\text{adj}}=0.04$ ) (Figure 3a), while there was no difference in platelets counts between animals from  
264 core and intermediate sites ( $p_{\text{adj}}=0.1$ ). Squirrels living at the front had conversely a higher number of  
265 lymphocytes than squirrels living at the invasion core (0.26  $\pm$  0.10;  $t_{83}=2.57$ ;  $p_{\text{adj}}=0.032$ ) (Figure 3c). No  
266 difference in lymphocyte counts between core animals and individuals from intermediate sites ( $p_{\text{adj}}=0.055$ ),  
267 nor between squirrels from intermediate sites and the invasion front ( $p_{\text{adj}}=0.7$ ) was found. Overall, NLRs  
268 varied significantly with site position as well, with higher ratios in animals living at the invasion core than in  
269 intermediate or front sites (Figure 3d), however neither of the pair-wise comparisons was significant after p  
270 value adjustment ( $p_{\text{adj}}=0.058$  and  $p_{\text{adj}}=0.11$ , respectively). Finally, although neutrophil counts tended to  
271 decrease from core to front (Figure 3b), the trend was not significant ( $F_{2,79}=2.57$ ;  $p=0.082$ ).

272

### 273 3.3. Gene expression and immune challenge

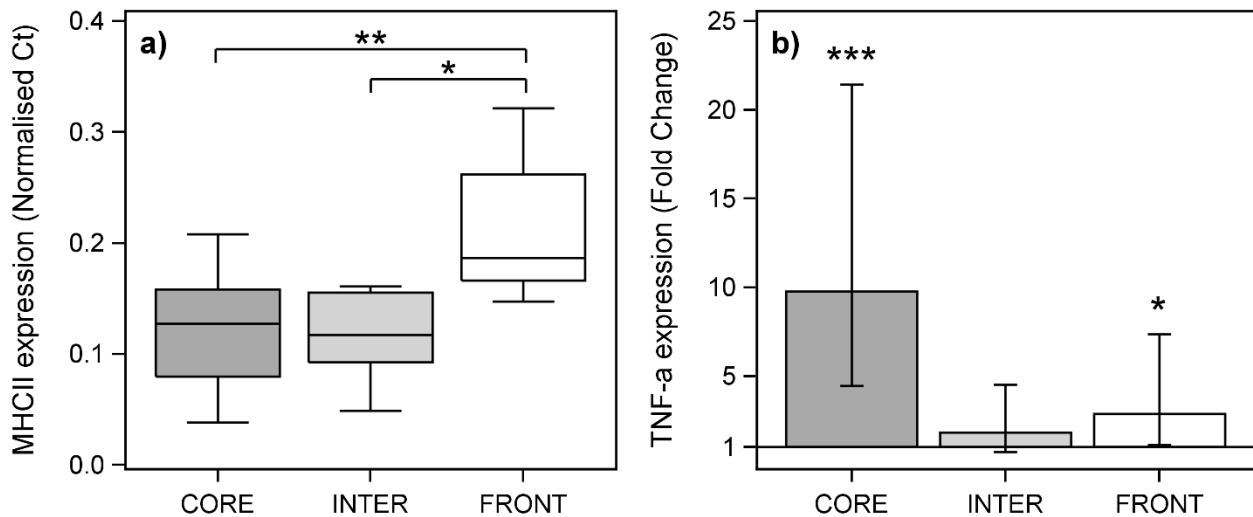
274 Both TNF- $\alpha$  ( $F_{2,50}=4.81$ ;  $p=0.013$ ) and MHC class II ( $F_{2,25}=5.11$ ;  $p=0.014$ ) basal expression by cultured cells  
275 varied significantly depending on the position of the site inhabited by gray squirrels. Detailed results of pre-  
276 planned contrasts are reported in Table S6. In particular, basal expression of MHC class II gene by spleen  
277 cells was higher in animals from the invasion front than both core (parameter estimate=0.99  $\pm$  0.32;  $t_{25}=3.1$ ;  
278  $p=0.005$ ) or intermediate sites (0.86  $\pm$  0.36;  $t_{25}=2.43$ ;  $p=0.023$ ) (Figure 4a). Conversely, basal expression of  
279 TNF- $\alpha$  gene by bone marrow cells was only higher in samples from core than intermediate sites (2.16  $\pm$   
280 0.63;  $t_{50}=3.45$ ;  $p=0.012$ ), while there was no difference with front sites ( $p>0.05$ ). The response of bone  
281 marrow cells to the immune challenge differed as well depending on the position of the site where  
282 squirrels were sampled ( $F_{5,50}=9.29$ ;  $p<0.0001$ ). While the treatment had no effect on TNF- $\alpha$  expression in  
283 samples from intermediate sites ( $p=0.2$ ), LPS-stimulation induced a significant up-regulation in TNF- $\alpha$   
284 expression in samples from both core (3.29  $\pm$  0.56;  $t_{50}=5.83$ ;  $p<0.0001$ ) and front sites (1.52  $\pm$  0.68;  $t_{50}=2.26$ ;  
285  $p=0.028$ ) (Figure 4b). However, despite both responding to LPS stimulation, the increase in gene expression  
286 was far greater in samples from core sites (Fold Change=9.8; 95% CI: 4.5 – 21.4) than in samples from the  
287 invasion front (FC=2.9; 95% CI: 1.1 – 7.4).



288

289 **Figure 3.** Variation in hematological parameters of invasive gray squirrels (*Sciurus carolinensis*) along the  
 290 invasion wave: a) platelet counts ( $10^3/\mu\text{l}$ ); b) neutrophil counts ( $10^3/\mu\text{l}$ ); c) lymphocyte counts ( $10^3/\mu\text{l}$ ); and  
 291 d) neutrophils to lymphocytes ratios.

292



293

294 **Figure 4.** Expression of immune-related genes in invasive gray squirrels (*Sciurus carolinensis*) along the  
 295 invasion wave: a) basal expression of MHC class II genes by spleen cells; and b) fold-change in TNF- $\alpha$  gene  
 296 expression by bone marrow cells in response to LPS-stimulation. Error bars indicate 95% Confidence  
 297 Interval.

298

#### 299 4. Discussion

300 We investigated variation in the immune response of alien gray squirrels moving from the core of an  
 301 expanding metapopulation, where gray squirrels had been established for 15 -30 years and parasite  
 302 prevalence was high, to the invasion front, which was colonized less than 5 years before sampling and  
 303 where parasites were nearly absent. Although the analyzed immune markers did not all concur to support  
 304 the refined-EICA hypothesis (Lee and Klasing, 2004), overall our results suggest that populations living at  
 305 the invasion front do favor a less costly acquired response over an inflammatory one. In detail, both  
 306 platelet counts and experimental data on TNF- $\alpha$  gene expression following the immune challenge indicated  
 307 a reduced inflammatory response in front populations compared to core populations, giving support to our  
 308 first hypothesis (Figure 2, main hypothesis 1). Conversely, some of the markers associated with an acquired  
 309 response (i.e., absolute lymphocyte counts and MHC class II basal expression) were significantly higher in  
 310 squirrels living at the invasion front, supporting our second hypothesis (Figure 2, main hypothesis 2).

311 Platelets are important participants in the innate immune response, as they gather at the inflammation site  
312 and release cytokines and chemokines to attract leukocytes and further enhance inflammation (Sonmez  
313 and Sonmez, 2017). Hence, the linear decrease in the number of circulating platelets observed in gray  
314 squirrels' blood when moving from core to front populations, may suggest a progressive dampening of the  
315 inflammatory response. Among inflammation-related hematological variables however, only platelets fully  
316 behaved as predicted: variation in hemoglobin concentration was not related to a squirrel's position along  
317 the invasion wave, whereas the decrease in neutrophils, which are important indicators of systemic  
318 inflammation, from core to front was not significant. On the other hand, NLRs, which were considered as a  
319 surrogate marker of the shift between inflammatory and acquired response, did significantly vary with site  
320 position, but the observed decrease from core to front sites was only marginally significant. A possible  
321 reason for these unclear patterns might reside in the small sample size for neutrophil counts (and  
322 consequently NLRs) in front sites (see Table S4), which likely hindered the detection of small-magnitude  
323 effects.

324 Although observational data on inflammation-related hematological variables supported our prediction  
325 only in part, experimental data on TNF- $\alpha$  gene expression confirmed the pattern suggested by platelet  
326 counts and partially by NLRs, indicating a reduced inflammatory response in front populations. While TNF- $\alpha$   
327 basal expression by cultured bone marrow cells was similar in samples from the core and from the front,  
328 they showed a differential response to the immune challenge: LPS-stimulation induced an almost 10-fold  
329 increase in the expression of TNF- $\alpha$  in core samples, whereas front samples responded with just a 3-fold  
330 increase (see Figure 3b). Since TNF- $\alpha$  is one of the main signaling proteins inducing systemic inflammation  
331 (Bradley, 2008), this result strongly suggests that animals at the front respond to pathogens' threats (here  
332 simulated by an LPS dose) with a reduced inflammation compared to animals living at the invasion core.  
333 Interestingly, cultured cells from squirrels inhabiting intermediate sites showed an unexpected behavior as  
334 their basal TNF- $\alpha$  expression was lower compared to the core and front animals, and they also did not  
335 respond to LPS-stimulation. One possible explanation for this result could be that individuals living in  
336 intermediate sites were maladapted to the parasitological conditions they were experiencing. Those areas

337 that were halfway between the core and the invasion front, until a few years earlier represented the  
338 leading margin of range expansion, where populations had presumably adapted to a reduced pathogen  
339 pressure. However, parasites that had lagged behind during host expansion progressively advance due to  
340 increased host densities, and conditions gradually become more similar to the core. It is thus possible that  
341 the lack of response to LPS-stimulation in squirrels at intermediate sites was due to a negative regulation of  
342 the inflammatory response pathway, consequent to a mismatch between their immunological phenotype  
343 and the actual parasitological conditions they were experiencing (Horrocks et al., 2011). Hematological  
344 variables of individuals living in intermediate sites showed indeed a mixed behavior as well, with platelet  
345 counts similar to those observed in core animals and lymphocyte counts conversely comparable to values  
346 from front squirrels. Similar results were obtained by Brown et al. (2015) on invasive cane toads (*Rhinella*  
347 *marina*) in Australia, where curvilinear relationships between some immune and physiological traits and  
348 time since population establishment were observed. In parallel to a reduction in the above-mentioned  
349 inflammation-related parameters, gray squirrels from the invasion front showed also higher MHC class II  
350 genes basal expression, higher lymphocyte counts and, as mentioned above, marginally lower NLRs  
351 compared to core individuals, suggesting a shift towards acquired immunity as predicted. In particular,  
352 since MHC class II molecules main functions lie in antigens binding and display, and in the subsequent  
353 activation of B and T cells (Chaplin, 2010; Neefjes et al., 2011), the higher MHC II gene expression observed  
354 in squirrels at the front could suggest a higher propensity for an acquired immune response when  
355 compared to core animals.

356 While there is a relevant body of literature concerning the EICA hypothesis in invasive plants (reviewed in  
357 Callaway et al., 2022), up to date, only a few studies investigated this hypothesis in invading vertebrates,  
358 with different approaches and contrasting results (reviewed in Cornet et al., 2016). For instance, Lee and  
359 colleagues (Lee et al., 2006, 2005) compared the immune response of two introduced passerine birds with  
360 different invasion success, finding that the most successful species (i.e., *Passer domesticus*) showed a  
361 weaker inflammatory reaction and a stronger antibody response compared to its less invasive congener (*P.*  
362 *montanus*), thus giving support to the EICA hypothesis. Similarly, at the biogeographical scale, Bailly and  
363 colleagues (Bailly et al., 2016) found that spectacled thrushes (*Turdus nudigensis*) showed a reduced



364 inflammatory response to an immune challenge in their introduction range compared to conspecifics in the  
365 native range. However, in other vertebrate systems a pattern opposite to the EICA was found (i.e., Diagne  
366 et al., 2017 on invasive rodents in Senegal), and other studies obtained mixed results, depending on the  
367 different immune components that had been evaluated (i.e., Llewellyn et al., 2011; Brown et al., 2015;  
368 Selechnik et al., 2017 on invasive cane toads in Australia). For example, a study comparing immunological  
369 markers in native and invasive populations of the Egyptian goose (*Alopochen aegyptiacus*), reported higher  
370 values of several energetically costly immune effectors in invasive geese, in contrast with EICA's predictions  
371 (Prüter et al., 2020). However, the same invasive populations showed also higher variance for some of  
372 these effectors, suggesting an increased plasticity in the immune response that would allow them to cope  
373 better with new conditions. The authors suggest therefore that existing hypotheses, such as EICA, might  
374 not fully cover the complex interplay between immunity and parasitism in biological invasions. The immune  
375 response is indeed an extremely complex process, which involves many actors and is regulated by several  
376 positive and negative feedback mechanisms of which we still have only a partial knowledge. The lack of  
377 knowledge is even more challenging in the field of eco-immunology, as information about wild species  
378 basic physiology, reference values and/or specific techniques to investigate their immune response is often  
379 lacking (Boughton et al., 2011; Demas et al., 2011; Downs et al., 2014). For these reasons, to gain a clearer  
380 picture of underlying immunological processes, it is advisable to measure as many immune traits as  
381 possible, instead of focusing on a single component/indicator (Hawley and Altizer, 2011; Pedersen and  
382 Babayan, 2011; Schoenle et al., 2018).

383 To test our hypotheses, we made use of different hematological and molecular variables coupled with an  
384 experimental approach that allowed us to evaluate marginal variation in squirrels' immune responses  
385 independently from their basal immune status. Although some parameters converged towards the same  
386 results, partially supporting our predictions, we are aware that the range of immunological markers we  
387 analyzed and the sample size for the *ex vivo* assay are still too limited to draw any robust conclusions on  
388 the EICA hypothesis. This was due to both cost constraints and problems in the design of adequate primers  
389 and set up of the experimental protocols. Nevertheless, despite these limitations, we believe that our work

390 adds valuable data to the still limited body of evidence regarding the role of immunological adaptations in  
391 the invasion process, contributing to shed more light on the potential mechanisms underlying invasiveness.  
392

## 393 **5. Conclusions**

394 Our results suggest a shift in the immune response of invasive gray squirrels along the invasion wave,  
395 partially supporting the notion that individuals at the invasion front, where parasite prevalence is low and  
396 selective pressures for dispersal and reproduction are high, adopt a different immune strategy by reducing  
397 investment in costly inflammatory responses in favor of acquired immunity. Such flexibility in the immune  
398 strategy might be one of the mechanisms underlying the success of invasive alien species, as it may allow a  
399 reallocation of resources towards other processes, facilitating in turn population establishment, growth and  
400 spread. In a broader context, this kind of immunological adaptations along spatial gradients might indeed  
401 be common even in naturally expanding animal populations, assuming that infection gradients along the  
402 expansion wave occur. Although the complex immunological mechanisms underlying these shifts in defense  
403 strategies still need to be clarified, future research should also focus on quantifying the energetic costs and  
404 benefits of investing in different immune pathways in order to gain a better understanding of the ecological  
405 trade-offs adopted by individuals to cope with new parasitological conditions.

406

## 407 **Ethics approval**

408 This study did not require any ethics approval because gray squirrels were culled as part of a mandatory  
409 control program of Invasive Alien Species to adhere to the national and European guidelines (ITA Decree  
410 No. 230/2017; EU Regulation No. 1143/2014). Operators were trained by veterinary staff specialized in  
411 animal welfare and euthanasia methods followed EC and AVMA guidelines (Close et al., 1997, 1996; Leary  
412 et al., 2020). Trapping and handling of squirrels complied with the Italian national law on wildlife (L.N. 157  
413 of 1992) and were carried out with permits of the authorities for wildlife research and management of  
414 Turin and Cuneo Provinces (D.D. n. 62-3025/2017 and Prot. n. 2016/98585 of 29/12/2016, respectively)  
415 based on the scientific guidelines and approval from the Italian Institute for Environmental Protection and  
416 Research (ISPRA).

417 **Declaration of competing interests**

418 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that  
419 could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

420 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

421 Claudia Romeo and Nicola Ferrari: conceptualization; Claudia Romeo, Joel Filipe, Federica Riva and Stefano  
422 Comazzi: methodology; Claudia Romeo, Joel Filipe, Federica Riva and Lucas A. Wauters: investigation;  
423 Federica Riva, Lucas A. Wauters and Stefano Comazzi: resources; Claudia Romeo and Joel Filipe; data  
424 curation; Claudia Romeo: project administration, formal analysis, visualization and writing – original draft;  
425 Joel Filipe, Federica Riva, Stefano Comazzi, Lucas A. Wauters and Nicola Ferrari: writing – review & editing;  
426 Nicola Ferrari: supervision and funding acquisition.

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432 **Data availability**

433 All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article as supplementary  
434 material (Supplementary File 2).

435

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