

1 **Differential transcriptomic responses to heat stress in surface and subterranean**  
2 **diving beetles**

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23 **Abstract**

24 Subterranean habitats are generally very stable environments, and as such evolutionary transitions of  
25 organisms from surface to subterranean lifestyles may cause considerable shifts in physiology,  
26 particularly with respect to thermal tolerance. In this study we compared responses to heat shock at  
27 the molecular level in a geographically widespread, surface-dwelling water beetle to a congeneric  
28 subterranean species restricted to a single aquifer (Dytiscidae: Hydroporinae). The obligate  
29 subterranean beetle *Paroster macrosturtensis* is known to have a lower thermal tolerance compared to  
30 surface lineages ( $CT_{max}$  38°C cf. 42-46 °C), but the genetic basis of this physiological difference has  
31 not been characterized. We experimentally manipulated the thermal environment of 24 individuals to  
32 demonstrate that both species can mount a heat shock response at high temperatures (35°C), as  
33 determined by comparative transcriptomics. However, genes involved in these responses differ  
34 between species and a far greater number were differentially expressed in the surface taxon, suggesting  
35 it can mount a more robust heat shock response; these data may underpin its higher thermal tolerance  
36 compared to subterranean relatives. In contrast, the subterranean species examined not only  
37 differentially expressed fewer genes in response to increasing temperatures, but also in the presence  
38 of the experimental setup employed here alone. Our results suggest *P. macrosturtensis* may be  
39 comparatively poorly equipped to respond to both thermally induced stress and environmental  
40 disturbances more broadly. The molecular findings presented here have conservation implications for  
41 *P. macrosturtensis* and contribute to a growing narrative concerning weakened thermal tolerances in  
42 obligate subterranean organisms at the molecular level.

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44 **KEYWORDS:** heat shock response, heat shock proteins, subterranean habitats, molecular evolution,  
45 transcriptomics, differential gene expression

## 46 1 | INTRODUCTION

47 The transition to an obligate subterranean lifestyle can cause massive shifts in an organism's biology  
48 (1), from the acquisition of classic troglomorphies such as the elongation of appendages for sensing  
49 in an aphotic environment (2), to changes in lesser-studied traits including circadian rhythm (3,4),  
50 reproductive biology (5), respiration (6), the number of larval instars (7,8) and chemosensation  
51 (9,10). These changes have been attributed to the stark difference between subterranean and surface  
52 (hereafter epigean) habitats. While epigean environments can vary immensely over both time and  
53 space, subterranean environments, such as cave systems, generally possess high environmental  
54 stability with respect to light levels, temperature, humidity, and nutrient availability (11–13).  
55 Animals adapted to these environments might therefore be particularly well suited for the assessment  
56 of responses to future climate change scenarios, particularly with respect to their thermal tolerances  
57 and responses to increasing temperatures. Indeed, such habitats have been labelled as undervalued  
58 natural laboratories for biological studies of global change (14).

59 A near-universal response to temperature-induced stress across the tree of life—and therefore a  
60 method by which thermal tolerance can be gauged—is the heat shock response (hereafter HSR),  
61 which involves the synthesis of heat-shock proteins (hereafter HSPs). HSPs include those proteins  
62 that are expressed constitutively under non-stressful conditions, called heat shock cognates, or those  
63 only induced when organisms are exposed to thermal extremes, during which they assist in  
64 stabilising and refolding proteins at risk of denaturation. An inducible HSR has been observed in  
65 almost all organisms studied to date, and the proteins involved in this response, as well as the  
66 response itself, are highly conserved among different domains of life (15). An estimated 50 to 200  
67 genes are involved in the HSR, the most significantly induced of which are HSPs (16). However,  
68 there are exceptions to this rule: a lack of an inducible HSR has been documented in a wide range of  
69 species, largely those that occupy very stable thermal environments such as Antarctic marine habitats  
70 (17,18).

71 Knowledge of the HSR in organisms from thermally stable *subterranean* habitats, including  
72 their associated inducible HSPs and at which temperatures this response might be activated, is  
73 scarce, with only a few studies devoted to invertebrate taxa (14,19–25). However, invertebrates  
74 overwhelmingly contribute to the biodiversity of subterranean habitats compared to vertebrates  
75 (26,27). The bulk of existing studies on the thermal tolerance of subterranean invertebrates suggest  
76 such taxa can withstand temperatures above those they would encounter in nature and that they have  
77 not lost the HSR. Only a small number of these studies have examined the heat shock response  
78 directly (28) and tend to focus on thermal tolerances gauged through survival experiments.  
79 Moreover, a better understanding of responses to current climate change predictions for subterranean  
80 animals has been identified as a fundamental question in subterranean biology given emerging  
81 conservation issues associated with their respective ecosystems (29). To address this knowledge gap,  
82 here we make use of genomic data from Australian representatives of a group of aquatic  
83 invertebrates containing both epigean and subterranean lineages.

84 The Yilgarn Craton in central Western Australia (WA) houses a diverse subterranean diving  
85 beetle fauna belonging to two tribes, Bidessini and Hydroporini (Dytiscidae). While epigean species  
86 can be found practically continent-wide, subterranean taxa are isolated in calcrete aquifers (hereafter  
87 calcretes) associated with ancient palaeodrainage systems in the region. These calcretes are  
88 completely devoid of light and animals contained within them are assumed to have little to no access  
89 to air above the water's surface (6). Each calcrete houses between one and three dytiscid species, but  
90 at the time of writing only around a quarter of the ~200 known calcretes have been sampled (30–32).  
91 Nonetheless, lineages in both tribes are known to have made independent yet parallel, repeated  
92 transitions into underground habitats from epigean ancestors during the late Miocene to early  
93 Pleistocene, likely in response to continental aridification (32–35). In each case these transitions  
94 have involved the loss of eyes, pigment, and wings (30) as well as the gain of a remarkable ability to  
95 respire directly from water (6). Preliminary evidence suggests that subterranean members of these

96 lineages are less tolerant of thermal extremes compared to epigean relatives (36), but the molecular  
97 mechanisms underlying such tolerances—and genomic changes associated with a subterranean  
98 transition in these animals more broadly—remain unknown. An investigation into the potential link  
99 between the above-mentioned mode of respiration, oxygen delivery, and heat tolerance is also  
100 lacking (37).

101 In the present study, we focus on two members of the Hydroporini: *Paroster*  
102 *nigroadumbratus* (Clark), an epigean species endemic to South Australia, and the subterranean  
103 *Paroster macrosturtensis* (Watts & Humphreys) found exclusively in a single calcrete at Sturt  
104 Meadows in the Yilgarn region of WA. As subterranean dytiscids likely descended from only a  
105 handful of epigean lineages, meaningful comparisons can be made between these taxa despite their  
106 distributions being geographically disjunct and their divergence *ca.* 15 Mya (32). A recent study  
107 showed that *P. macrosturtensis* has a reduced upper critical thermal maximum (CT<sub>max</sub>) of 38.3°C  
108 compared to other epigean dytiscids (42–44.5°C) (36), mirroring previous results for other cave  
109 beetle species (23). These findings suggest *P. macrosturtensis* is unlikely to reach its thermal critical  
110 maximum under current climate change predictions. However, given the thermal stability in its  
111 environment, it remains unknown as to whether *P. macrosturtensis* might have a modified HSR  
112 compared to its epigean relatives and if exposure to high temperatures may nonetheless induce  
113 significant stress in this subterranean species. Here, we present transcriptomic data from individuals  
114 of *P. macrosturtensis* and *P. nigroadumbratus* subjected to varying degrees of heat shock following  
115 the results of Jones *et al.* (36). In the present study we specifically aimed 1) to generate a high-  
116 quality, near-complete reference transcriptome for *P. nigroadumbratus* and 2) using this dataset,  
117 characterise and compare the HSR of *P. nigroadumbratus* and *P. macrosturtensis*, specifically with  
118 respect to which genes are differentially expressed and the conditions under which this occurs.

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121 **2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS**

122 **2.1 | Taxon sampling, experimental design, and cDNA sequencing**

123 Beetle specimens (*P. macrosturtensis*, n=11; *P. nigroadumbratus*, n=13) were sourced as described  
124 in a previous study and subjected to heat stress using an aquarium setup described therein (36).  
125 Specimens were placed in one of three groups: in a controlled-temperature cabinet at 25°C (hereafter  
126 control), in vials within the experimental setup at 25°C, and in vials within the experimental setup  
127 ramped to 35°C. The control temperature of 25°C was selected by (36) to reflect the approximate  
128 average groundwater temperatures of the aquifer that *P. macrosturtensis* is found in. Following  
129 treatment, the individuals were placed in liquid nitrogen for RNA sequencing immediately after  
130 exposure to control temperatures and thermal extremes. RNA extractions were performed using  
131 single whole bodies prior to the synthesis and sequencing of barcoded cDNA samples. Quality  
132 control of sequence data was performed using Trim Galore with default settings v.0.4.1  
133 ([http://bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim\\_galore](http://bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore)). More information regarding specimen  
134 collection and husbandry, experimental design, cDNA sequencing, and phylogenetic analysis can be  
135 found in the electronic supplementary material.

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137 **2.2 | Assembly of *Paroster nigroadumbratus* reference transcriptome**

138 A reference transcriptome for *P. nigroadumbratus* was *de novo* assembled using Trinity v.2.5.1  
139 using default settings (38) and derived from unpublished raw RNA-seq data from (39). Resulting  
140 transcriptome completeness was validated using BUSCO v.5 (40,41), and functional annotation was  
141 performed using TransDecoder v.5.5.0 (42) and the Trinotate v.3.2.1 pipeline (38), which employs  
142 SQLite (<http://sqlite.org/index.html>), BLAST v.2.7.1 (43), and HMMER v.3.2 (<http://hmmer.org>).  
143 Redundancy within the transcriptome assembly was reduced by retaining only the longest isoform  
144 for each Trinity gene identifier, following (10), ensuring differential expression analysis was  
145 performed at the Trinity ‘gene’ level rather than that of isoforms. This subsetted dataset was used in

146 downstream analyses, though we note this approach limited our ability to examine alternative splice  
147 variants.

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## 149 **2.3 | Differential expression and Gene Ontology enrichment analysis**

150 The above reference transcriptome was indexed and raw reads generated in this study from both *P.*  
151 *macrosturtensis* and *P. nigroadumbratus* were quasi-mapped to it and normalised using Salmon  
152 v.1.1.0 (44). Differential expression analysis was performed using edgeR v.3.32.1 (45) alongside  
153 Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis, executed using Trinity helper scripts. Differential  
154 expression and enrichment/depletion of GO terms was gauged using two comparisons per species  
155 (Figure 1). First, for each species the group from the experimental setup at 25°C was compared to the  
156 control group outside of the setup at 25°C (hereafter comparison 1). Second, for each species the  
157 group in the experimental setup at 35°C was compared to the group in the experimental setup at 25°C  
158 (hereafter comparison 2). A diagrammatic representation of these comparisons is shown in Figure 1.  
159 These comparisons were designed to gauge the impact of the presence of the experimental setup  
160 alone and an increase in temperature, respectively. A full description of this process can be found in  
161 the electronic supplementary material.

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## 163 **2.4 | Phylogenetic analysis of putative heat shock proteins**

164 Putative heat shock protein-encoding genes were aligned with coleopteran orthologs sourced from  
165 the OrthoDB v.10.1 catalogue (46) and GenBank to confirm their identity (Table S1). Phylogenetic  
166 inference for each HSP family was performed in RAxML v.8.2.12 (47).

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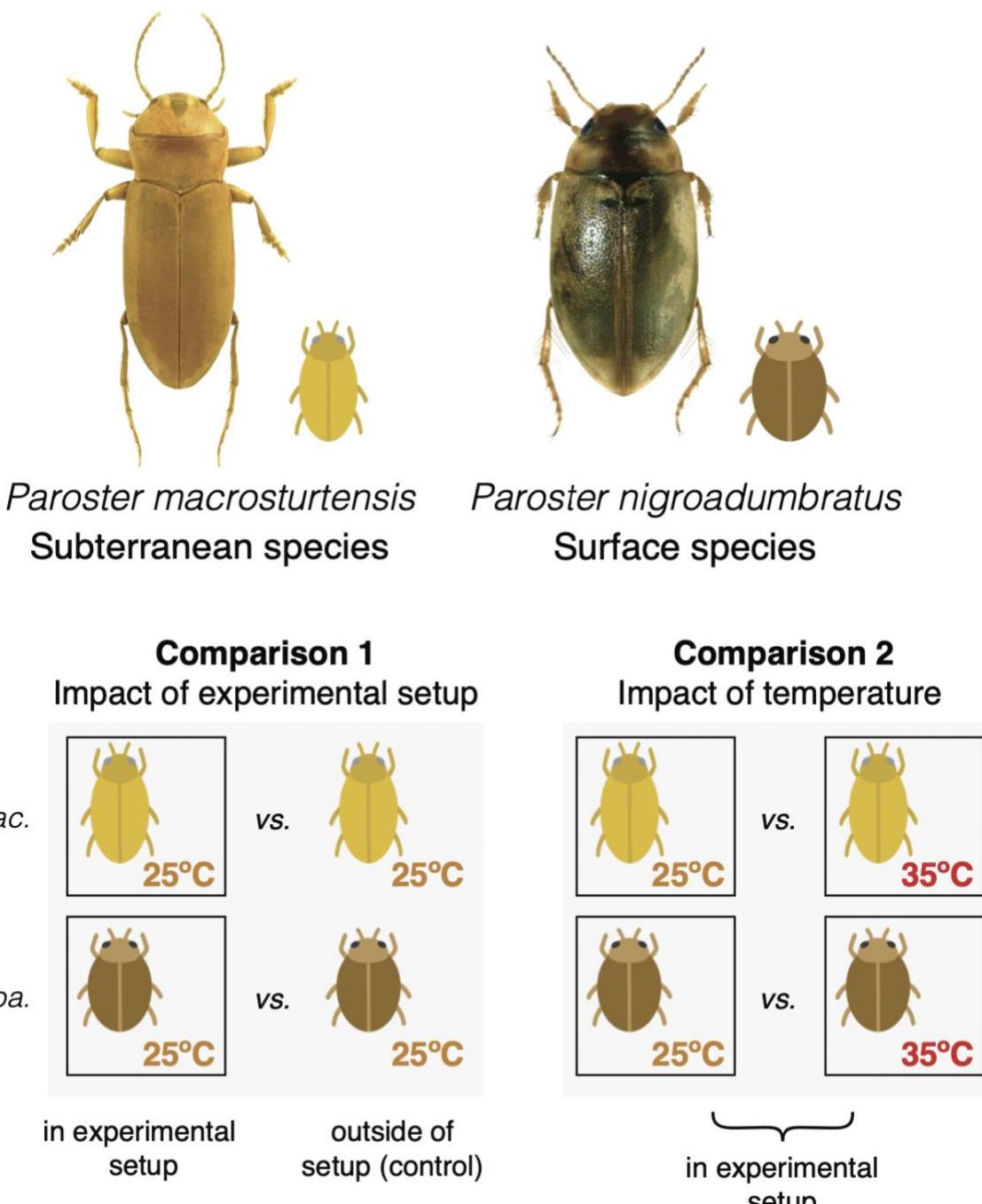
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**FIGURE 1** *Paroster* beetles included in this study and the experimental design used to assess differential gene expression associated with thermal extremes alone, as opposed to solely the presence of the experimental setup, following (36). Only intraspecific comparisons were made when assessing differential gene expression in our analyses; interspecific comparisons were made post-hoc. Photographs by Chris Watts and Howard Hamon.

201 **3 | RESULTS**

202 **3.1 | A high-quality reference transcriptome for *Paroster nigroadumbratus***

203 **enables the characterisation of genes involved in the heat shock response**

204 Here we present a high-quality, near-complete transcriptome for the epigean beetle *P.*

205 *nigroadumbratus*. This dataset consisted of 75,045,266 paired-end reads (72,266,264 following

206 quality control measures), 84% of which were incorporated into 134,246 *de novo* assembled

207 transcripts representing 60,683 unique Trinity ‘genes’ and 41,979 predicted ORFs. According to the

208 assessment using BUSCO, this transcriptome was 87.66% complete with respect to complete core

209 arthropod genes and 96.74% complete when considering partial genes. Of these transcripts, 47,810

210 were able to be functionally annotated using the Trinotate pipeline. Subsetting our predicted peptide

211 dataset to include only the longest isoforms per Trinity gene identifier, allowing us a proxy with

212 which to perform our downstream analyses at the gene level, resulted in 14,897 predicted ORFs

213 (with 11,609, or ~77%, having some level of annotation).

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215 **3.2 | Differential expression analysis reveals distinct expression profiles**

216 **associated with the heat shock response in *Paroster***

217 We compared expression profiles between members of the same species, subjected to different

218 conditions, to assess genes differentially expressed in response to the presence of the experimental

219 setup employed here (comparison 1) or an increase in temperature in that setup (comparison 2)

220 (Figure 2). Parallels and contrasts between *P. nigroadumbratus* and *macrosturtensis* were then

221 assessed post-hoc. Differential expression analysis using edgeR identified a total of 723 differentially

222 expressed (DE) genes in the epigean *P. nigroadumbratus* samples and 157 in the subterranean *P.*

223 *macrosturtensis*, with the two species exhibiting complex and markedly different expression profiles

224 (Figures 2, 3, S2, S3). *P. nigroadumbratus* consistently differentially expressed a greater number of

225 genes than *P. macrosturtensis*: 147 and 67 genes were differentially expressed in comparison 1 and  
226 89 and 51 genes were differentially expressed in comparison 2, respectively. The presence of the  
227 experimental setup and an increase in water temperature caused both species to differentially express  
228 genes involved in the heat shock response. Contrasting expression profiles with respect to the genes  
229 involved were not only observed between the two species (as above) but also in the response of each  
230 species to these two different stressors (Figure 2).

231 In comparison 1, the surface species *P. macrosturtensis* significantly upregulated a HSP gene  
232 putatively annotated as *Hsp68*, encoding a major heat shock protein in the HSP70 family, relative to  
233 the control. *Paroster nigroadumbratus* upregulated the HSP *Hsp68* and downregulated the sHSP  
234 *l(2)efl* in the experimental setup relative to the control. None of the HSP transcripts differentially  
235 expressed by *P. nigroadumbratus* in response to the presence of the experimental setup only were  
236 differentially expressed by *P. macrosturtensis* or by *P. nigroadumbratus* in comparison 2.

237 In comparison 2, both species upregulated the HSP genes *Hsc70-4* and *Hsp83* as well as the  
238 chaperones *Samui*, *DnaJ*, *AHSA1*, and *Unc45a* relative to groups at the lower temperature of 25°C.  
239 Both *P. nigroadumbratus* and *macrosturtensis* also upregulated separate Trinity “genes” annotated as  
240 *Hsp68* each at 35 °C relative to the 25 °C treatment (Fig. 2), likely representing closely related loci  
241 that are yet to be comprehensively characterised in the beetles. Additional differentially expressed  
242 genes unique to each species at 35°C relative to the 25°C treatment included: 1) downregulation of  
243 the HSPs *Hsp60A* and *Hsp68* in *Paroster macrosturtensis*, and 2) the upregulation of the sHSP  
244 *l(2)efl*, the HSP *Hsp68*, and the HSP cognate *Hsc70-3* in *P. nigroadumbratus*. Other annotated genes  
245 potentially involved in the HSR, such as *Hsc70-2*, *Hsc70-5*, *Trap1*, and *Hsp90b1*, were not  
246 differentially expressed in either species (Figure 4). A full list of differentially expressed genes  
247 shared between (or unique to) the two beetle species under different conditions is available in Table  
248 S2. Proteins unrelated to the HSR, yet widely differentially expressed in our dataset (i.e., with

249 reoccurring annotations across different Trinity ‘genes’) included those involved in the transport of  
250 lipids and nutrient storage, such as vitellogenin and apolipoporphins.

251 Gene Ontology enrichment analysis enables a high-order approximation of the functional  
252 consequences of differentially expressed genes. We did not observe any consistent depletion of GO  
253 terms associated with downregulated genes, but enriched terms were reflective of our differential  
254 expression results above (Figure 3). In both species, terms associated with the HSR were enriched in  
255 association with an increased temperature at 35°C (e.g., ATPase activator activity [GO:0001671],  
256 chaperone binding [GO:0051087], and unfolded protein binding [GO:0051082]). The most common  
257 remaining Gene Ontology terms included lipid transporter activity (GO:0005319), nutrient reservoir  
258 activity (GO:0045735), metal ion binding (GO:0046872), and zinc ion binding (GO:0008270).

259

### 260 **3.3 | Phylogenetic analyses of HSPs**

261 Our HSP nucleotide alignments consisted of 12 sequences across 1,743 bp (HSP60 family), 67  
262 sequences across 3,669 bp (HSP70 family), 29 sequences across 3,741 bp (HSP90 family) and 23  
263 sequences across 867 bp (sHSP family). Sequences clustered by gene with strong node support in our  
264 phylogeny (Figure 4). All sequences from the *Paroster* species examined here were recovered as  
265 nested within these clades, confirming the orthology of annotated HSPs, with the exception of a  
266 transcript present in both species and inferred as sister to the *Hsp68+Hsc70-2* clades. This gene was  
267 not differentially expressed in response to heat shock in our dataset.

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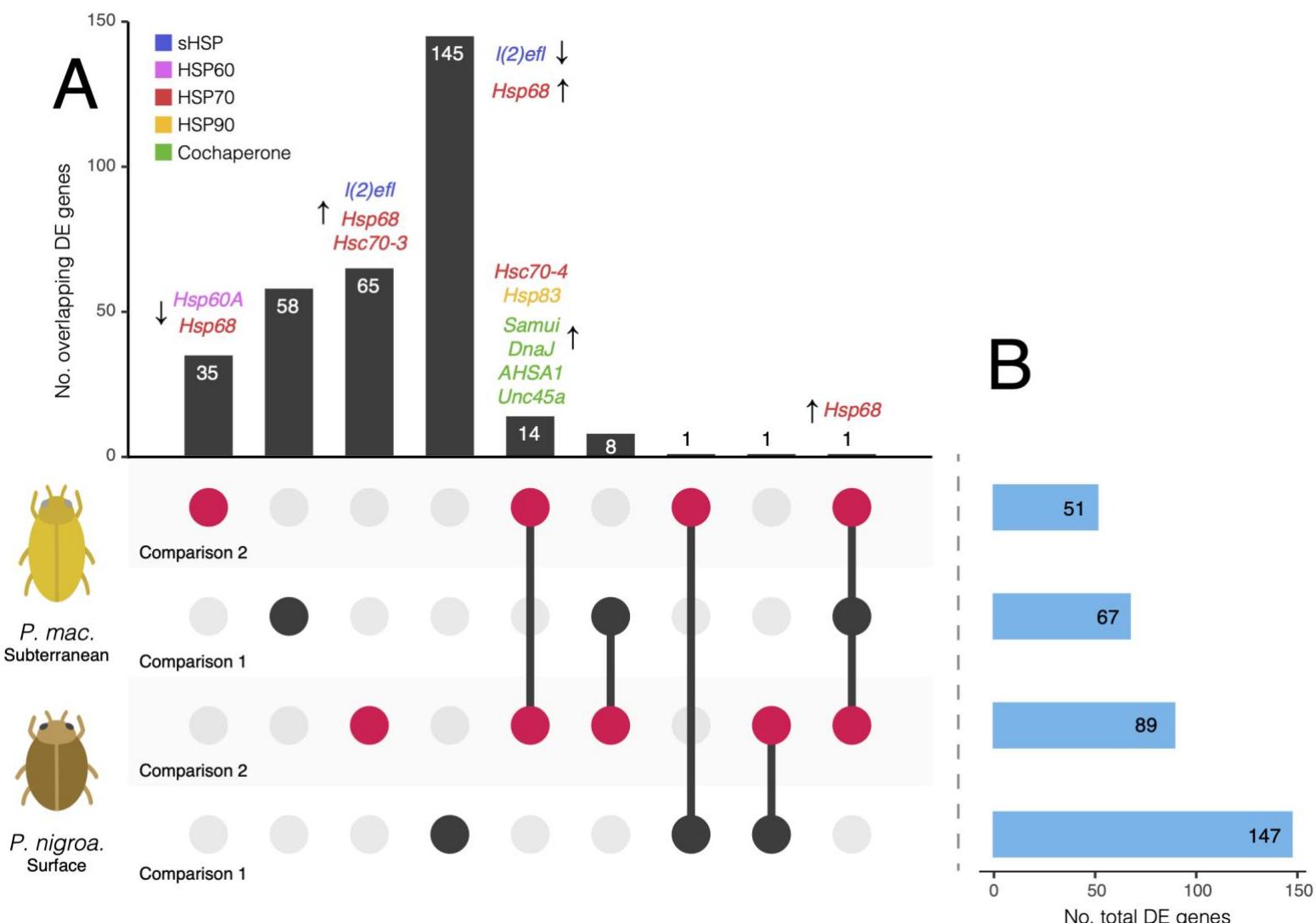
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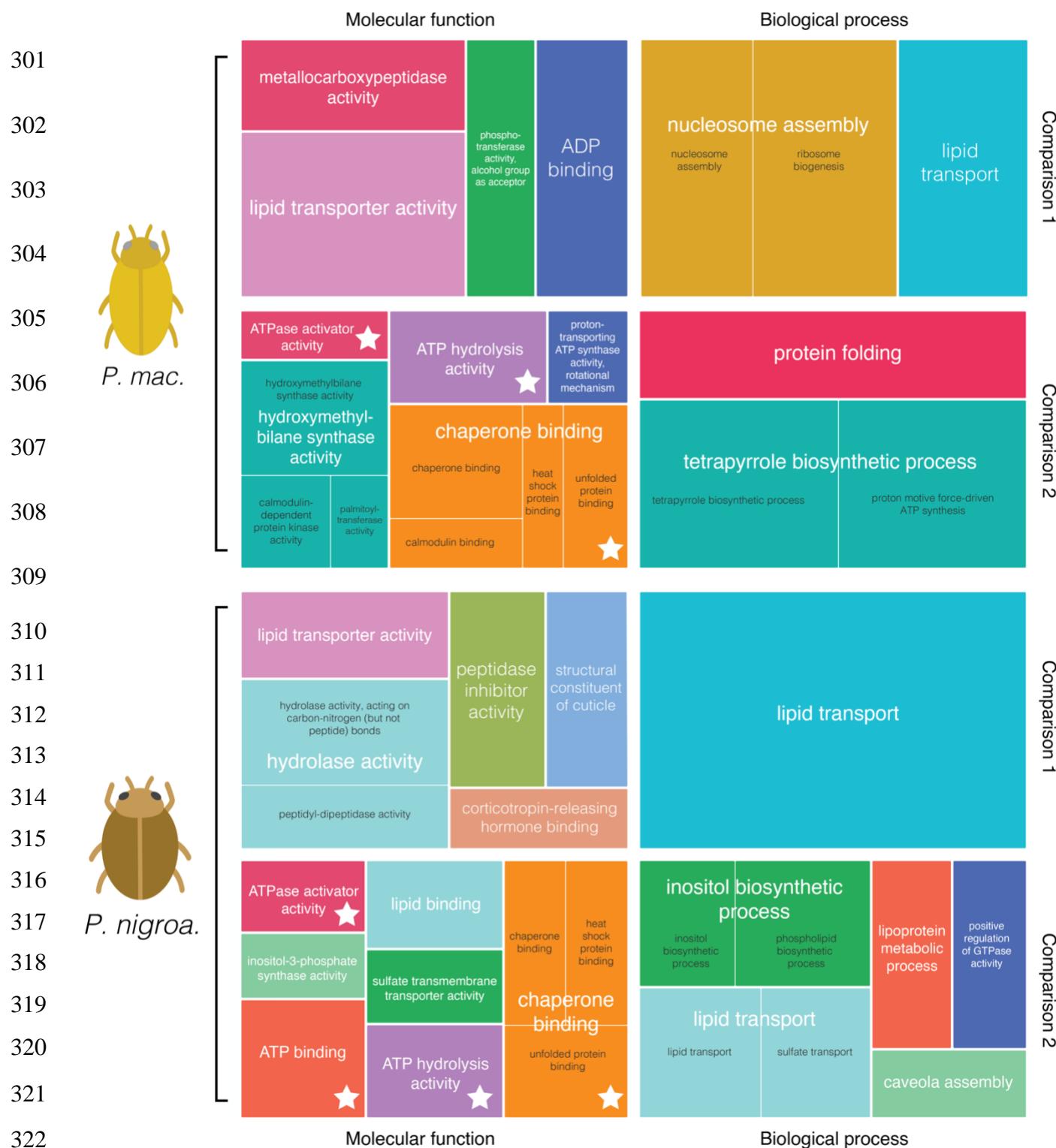


291 **FIGURE 2** Differentially expressed (DE) genes in *Paroster macrosturtensis* and *nigroadumbratus* in comparison 1 (the experimental  
292 setup used in this study relative to the control, black circles) or comparison 2 (35°C within the setup relative to 25°C in the setup, red  
293 circles). Comparisons are ordered by total number of DE genes. A) DE genes shared (circles linked by lines) or unique to (unlinked  
294 circles) each comparison per species, summed in the bar graph above. Up- or downregulated HSPs or HSP cochaperones are shown for  
295 each group. The gene *Hsp68* being named more than once in different groups refers to separate transcripts sharing the same putative  
296 annotation (see Table S2). B) Total DE genes for each species under different conditions. HSP gene names were sourced from  
297 Trinotate annotations and orthology was validated using phylogenetic analysis (Figure 4).

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**FIGURE 3** REVIGO (48) treemaps showing enriched Gene Ontology (GO) terms associated with the differential expression of genes shown in Figure 2. Treemaps are labelled as comparison 1 (the experimental setup used in this study relative to the control) or 2 (35°C within the setup relative to 25°C in the setup). The size of squares is proportional to the *p*-value associated with differential expression of respective genes. Similar GO terms share a colour and are represented in white text by the largest square per group. GO terms associated with genes involved in the heat shock response are indicated by a star.

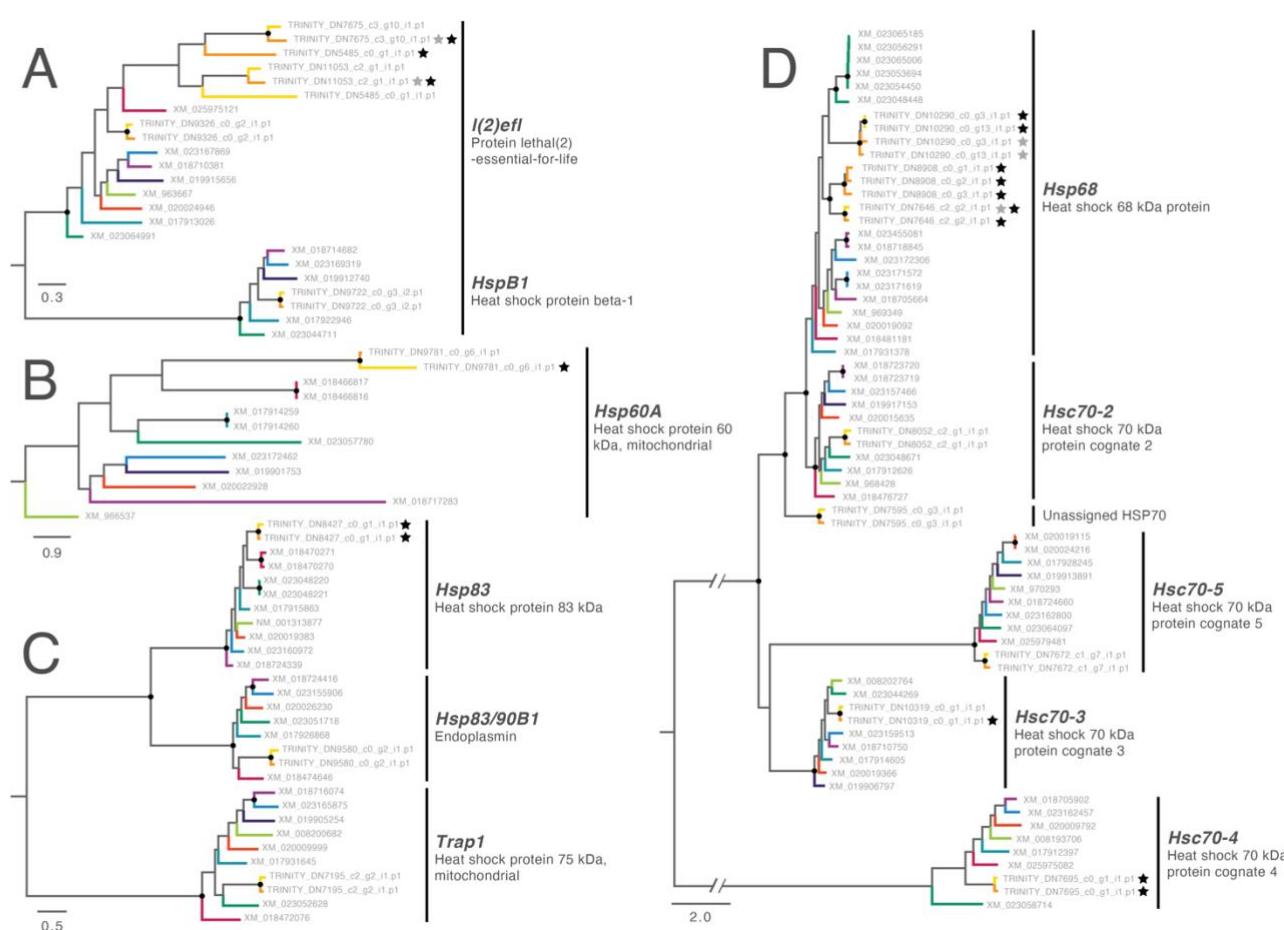
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346 **FIGURE 4** Phylogenies of heat shock Trinity 'genes' inferred using RAxML to validate the identity of putative HSP  
 347 orthologs in *Paroster* species. Trees are as follows: A) sHSP family, B) HSP60, C) HSP90, D) HSP70. Scale bar is in  
 348 substitutions/site; *BS* = bootstrap node support. Tip labels show transcript names/GenBank accession numbers. Tip  
 349 names for *P. macrosturensis* are shared with the reference *P. nigroadumbratus* transcript reads were assembled against.  
 350 Tip names with stars specifically refer to genes differentially expressed in the presence of the experimental setup alone  
 351 relative to the control (comparison 1) or at 35°C relative to 25°C in the experimental setup (comparison 2).

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357 **4 | DISCUSSION**

358 Here, we have comprehensively characterised the heat shock response at the molecular level in the  
359 subterranean diving beetle *Paroster macrosturtensis* and one of its surface-dwelling relatives. Using  
360 a near-complete reference transcriptome for *P. nigroadumbratus*—the first such dataset for a member  
361 of the Hydrooporinae—we performed differential expression and GO enrichment analysis to explore  
362 genes putatively involved in the HSR. Our results demonstrate that both the epigean *P.*  
363 *nigroadumbratus* and subterranean *P. macrosturtensis* have an inducible HSR, in agreement with  
364 implications of previous survival experiments for the genus (36). Putative orthologs of HSP  
365 cochaperones, sHSP, HSP60, HSP70, and HSP90 genes were accounted for in our differential  
366 expression analysis. However, the conditions under which this response is activated differs between  
367 species, and *P. macrosturtensis* notably differentially expressed just over half of the number of genes  
368 compared to *P. nigroadumbratus* in response to a rise in temperature.

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370 **4.1 | Heat shock-induced gene expression in *Paroster***

371 HSPs identified as differentially expressed in this study support past results for beetle species and  
372 other insects more broadly. A major trend in our results concerned the upregulation of HSP70 genes  
373 at high temperatures, particularly *Hsp68*; HSP70s are highly expressed in response to heat shock in  
374 other beetle species, including cave-adapted subterranean taxa (28,49,50), and work in concert with  
375 sHSPs and HSP90s (51–54). In addition to the heat shock proteins, we also observed the  
376 upregulation of the heat shock cognates *Hsc70-3* and *Hsc70-4* and putative cochaperones *Tsc2*,  
377 *Samui*, *DnaJ*, *AHSA1*, *Unc45a* at 35°C relative to the 25°C treatment. To our knowledge there has  
378 been no documentation of a coleopteran heat shock cognate being upregulated in response to  
379 increasing temperature, though evidence exists for the parasitic wasp *Pteromalus*, in which *hsc70* is  
380 induced by heavy metal poisoning and starvation in addition to thermal extremes (55). Heat shock  
381 cognates are also upregulated during diapause in silkworm eggs (56) and young bumble bee queens

382 (57), potentially playing a cryoprotective role in these species. Cochaperones are less well  
383 characterised in insects, but evidence for their upregulation in response to heat shock has been  
384 documented in hemipterans and ants (58–60). We observed the downregulation of several heat shock  
385 proteins in both species in the presence of the experimental setup relative to the control, and at high  
386 temperatures relative to the 25°C treatment. Both sHSPs and HSP70s have been documented as being  
387 downregulated during periods of heat stress in other insects, e.g. in silk moths (61). In *P.*  
388 *nigroadumbratus* this was restricted to the sHSP *l(2)efl* and cochaperone *Tsc2* in the experimental  
389 setup-only comparison. In contrast, the HSPs *Hsp60A* and *Hsp68* were downregulated in *P.*  
390 *macrosturtensis* at high temperatures relative the 25°C treatment.

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## 392 **4.2 | Expression profiles reflect differing thermal tolerances**

393 Our molecular data mirrors previously documented reduced thermal tolerances in subterranean  
394 insects such as *P. macrosturtensis*. The species differentially expressed far fewer genes in response  
395 to 35°C relative to the 25°C treatment compared to *P. nigroadumbratus*; similarly reduced numbers  
396 of differentially expressed genes have also been associated with lower thermal tolerances in other  
397 organisms such as fish (62), lizards (63), rotifers (64), red algae (65), and plants (66,67), though we  
398 note the inverse (or alternatively, no clear pattern) has been observed in a number of cases,  
399 potentially reflecting lower levels of stress as opposed to an inability to mount a HSR (68,69).

400 In keeping with the above findings, *P. macrosturtensis* also differentially expressed far fewer  
401 genes than its epigean counterpart in response to the presence of the experimental setup alone  
402 relative to the control (Figure 2). HSPs are known to be involved in responding to a wide range of  
403 stressors (70–72), and the involvement of such genes is not surprising in stress unrelated to  
404 temperature; individuals being moved into the experimental setup employed here may have induced  
405 stress from handling, for example. The greater number of genes differentially expressed by *P.*  
406 *nigroadumbratus* in this scenario may suggest *P. macrosturtensis* is potentially less able to robustly

407 respond to ambient stressors more broadly (i.e., environmental disturbances). Such a scenario is  
408 supported by past work showing subterranean species are sensitive to ambient stressors under  
409 otherwise non-stressful temperatures (73), and being an epigean species, *P. nigroadumbratus* is  
410 presumably exposed to far more dramatic environmental fluctuations (in addition to more variable  
411 temperatures) on a regular basis than a subterranean species such as *P. macrosturtensis*. We also note  
412 that in the presence of the experimental setup relative to the control, *P. macrosturtensis* upregulated  
413 the same *Hsp68*-annotated Trinity ‘gene’ implicated in responses to heat-induced stress in both  
414 species (Figure 2), whereas HSPs differentially expressed by *P. nigroadumbratus* under the same  
415 conditions did not overlap with those in other groups.

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#### 417 **4.3 | Heat shock and the climatic variability hypothesis**

418 The dataset we present here adds to a growing body of knowledge concerning the HSR in organisms  
419 that inhabit thermally stable environments. Central to discourse on this topic is the climatic  
420 variability hypothesis, which posits that the thermal tolerance of a taxon is positively correlated with  
421 its temperature ranges encountered in nature (74). This hypothesis implies species from extremely  
422 stable thermal environments can no longer tolerate temperature extremes, and has been demonstrated  
423 in a wide variety of organisms that have either lost or possess a reduced HSR, such as cnidarians  
424 (75), limpets (76), amphipods and sea stars (77), and midges (78). In contrast, species that inhabit  
425 areas with a broader range of climatic conditions would be expected to be more robust in the face of  
426 environmental fluctuations (79). While *P. macrosturtensis* does have a lower thermal tolerance  
427 compared to *P. nigroadumbratus*, in line with the above hypothesis, it nonetheless has retained a  
428 HSR at high temperatures per our transcriptomic data. Similar studies have shown certain  
429 groundwater-dwelling organisms display an inducible HSR in response to conditions far warmer than  
430 they would encounter in nature (20,21). The HSR of these species, as well as *P. macrosturtensis*,  
431 might be retained at such high temperatures for a variety of reasons, including the fact that the

432 species has not occupied its respective environments for a sufficient length of time in evolutionary  
433 terms for their HSR to be lost, e.g. via adaptive processes or a relaxation of purifying selection (36).  
434 The latter scenario is plausible as *P. macrosturtensis* is also known to have retained the ability to  
435 detect light despite inhabiting an aphotic environment for over ~3 million years (80).

436

#### 437 **4.4 | Conservation implications**

438 While the retention of a HSR in both species examined here supports the physiological findings of  
439 Jones *et al.* (36), almost half (4 out of 10 assayed) of the *P. macrosturtensis* cohort did not survive 24  
440 hours after heat shock in that study. It therefore remains to be seen if the species can tolerate such  
441 extremes in the long term. Indeed, even cave beetles considered stenothermal—those that are only  
442 capable of surviving within an extremely narrow temperature range—have retained the HSR (23), but  
443 nonetheless cannot survive at extreme temperatures for long periods (>7 days) compared to epigean  
444 relatives (25,28). Threatening processes that *P. nigroadumbratus* and *macrosturtensis* are both at risk  
445 of experiencing in their fragile habitats might impact the latter species far more negatively as a  
446 result.

447 Temperature rises of up to 5°C by the end of the century compared to pre-industrial levels  
448 may occur in central Western Australia per current climate change projections (81). Water  
449 temperatures in aquifers are generally cooler and more stable than, but are nonetheless coupled with,  
450 conditions above-ground, and are also predicted to warm as regional temperatures increase (82–84).  
451 The subterranean habitat of these insects is therefore unlikely to shield them from the impacts of a  
452 warming world. The fact that *P. macrosturtensis* appears to be unable to mount as robust a HSR  
453 compared to *P. nigroadumbratus*, and therefore may experience a significantly higher amount stress  
454 compared to epigean species in the face of high temperatures, has conservation implications for the  
455 understudied fauna of the Australian Yilgarn and beyond.

456 Datasets such as these are especially pertinent for subterranean invertebrates found in the  
457 Yilgarn region—including *P. macrosturtensis* and its subterranean relatives, in addition to  
458 crustaceans such as isopods and amphipods—as the groundwater in their calcrete habitats is heavily  
459 utilised for water extraction by industry (85,86). As short-range endemics to the extreme, such  
460 species are not only at risk of habitat degradation via climate change, but from the direct intersection  
461 of shallow aquifers with e.g. mining activities and through the drawdown of groundwater beneath  
462 calcretes at greater depths (87). In addition to reflecting the reduced thermal tolerances of Australian  
463 subterranean dytiscids, the molecular data we presented here for *P. macrosturtensis* also suggests a  
464 potentially weaker response in the face of other environmental disturbances unrelated to temperature.  
465 These factors have the potential to render *P. macrosturtensis* more vulnerable to both of the above  
466 threatening processes compared to epigean relatives, with implications for subterranean fauna more  
467 broadly. An increased knowledge of the assumed fragility of Australian subterranean invertebrates in  
468 the face of these stressors is therefore crucial for informing future conservation management plans  
469 for these animals and their fragile habitats.

470

## 471 **5 | CONCLUSIONS**

472 Our findings demonstrate the reduced thermal tolerance of the subterranean species *P.*  
473 *macrosturtensis* compared to its epigean relatives is reflected, and further clarified by, transcriptomic  
474 data. While our data are supported by past physiological evidence that demonstrated *P.*  
475 *macrosturtensis* could survive at high temperatures, albeit not to the limits of epigean species (36),  
476 the present study adds a new layer to this narrative. *P. macrosturtensis* might possess increased  
477 mortality in the face of high temperatures because the species differentially expresses far fewer genes  
478 in response to heat shock compared to the epigean relative *P. nigroadumbratus*, suggesting it may be  
479 unable to mount as robust a heat shock response. While *P. macrosturtensis* might be able to survive  
480 at temperatures far above those it encounters in nature for short periods, as detailed by Jones *et al.*

481 (36), our results suggest the species also experiences a weaker transcriptomic response to factors  
482 unrelated to temperature (i.e. the presence of the experimental setup employed here) relative to *P.*  
483 *nigroadumbratus*. As such, *P. macrosturtensis* may not be as well-equipped to survive higher  
484 temperatures and other threatening processes, such as disturbances to surrounding groundwater, in  
485 the long term compared to surface-dwelling members of *Paroster*. Future work in this system will  
486 ideally assess a far greater number of dytiscid species to further explore the trends we observe here.  
487 As the present study did not consider the role of isoforms in the heat shock response of these  
488 animals, broader studies could examine these responses to heat stress at a finer scale by conducting  
489 differential expression analysis on the transcript, as opposed to gene, level.

490

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731

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#### 741 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS AND COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT**

742 PGBH, KJ, and SJBC conceived the study. KJ performed experiments exposing beetles to heat  
743 stress. PGBH analysed the data and wrote the manuscript. TB and CSPF provided guidance  
744 regarding bioinformatic analyses. ST performed molecular laboratory work. TMB, KJ, WFH, and  
745 ADA helped to draft the manuscript. All authors edited the manuscript and approved the final draft.  
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748 interests.

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#### 750 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

751 All raw RNA-seq data for *Paroster macrosturtensis* and *P. nigroadumbratus* used in differential  
752 expression analyses in this study are available via NCBI under BioProject PRJNA783065 (individual  
753 Sequence Read Archive accessions for samples SRR17023302-SRR17023315). HSP transcripts  
754 assembled from raw *P. macrosturtensis* RNA-seq data and used in phylogenetic analysis are  
755 available via GenBank (accession numbers summarized in Table S1). The reference transcriptome of  
756 *P. nigroadumbratus* (including all isoforms) and the annotated, subsetted dataset (only including  
757 longest isoform per Trinity ‘gene’) are available via FigShare (DOI: 10.25909/17169191).