

Occurrence, ecological function and medical importance of dermestid beetle *hastisetae*

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Hastisetae are a specific group of detachable setae characterizing the larvae of Megatominae (Coleoptera: Dermestidae), commonly known as carpet and khapra beetles. These setae are located on both thoracic and abdominal tergites and they are the primary defense of the larva against invertebrate predators. According to previous studies, the main purpose of hastisetae is to work as a mechanical obstacle, but they are also capable to block and kill a predator. Hastisetae, single or aggregate, function as an extremely efficient mechanical trap, based on an entangling mechanism of cuticular structures (spines and hairs) and body appendages (antennae, legs and mouthparts). It is believed that this defensive system evolved primarily to contrast predation by invertebrates, however it has been observed that hastisetae may affect vertebrates as well. Although information on the impacts of vertebrate predators of the beetles is lacking, hastisetae have been shown to be a possible threat for human health as an important contaminant of stored products (food and fabric), work and living environment. Review of old and recent literature on dermestid larvae has revealed that despite these structures indicated as one of the distinctive characters in species identification, very little is known about their ultrastructure, evolution and mechanism of action. In the present work, we will provide the state of the art knowledge on hastisetae in Dermestidae and we will present and discuss future research perspectives intended to bridge the existing knowledge gaps.

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18 Abstract

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20 (Coleoptera: Dermestidae), commonly known as carpet and khapra beetles. These setæ are
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32 characters in species identification, very little is known about their ultrastructure, evolution and
33 mechanism of action. In the present work, we will provide the state of the art knowledge on
34 hastisetæ in Dermestidae and we will present and discuss future research perspectives intended
35 to bridge the existing knowledge gaps.

36

37 **Subjects** Evolutionary Biology, Morphology, Pest Management, Zoology

38 **Keywords** Allergy, Coleoptera, Dermestidae, Ecology, Health, Insects, Systematic, Zoology

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41 Introduction

42 The cuticle plays a pivotal role in several aspects of arthropod biology, representing the interface
43 between the living tissue and the external environment (Bereiter-Hahn *et al.*, 1984). Thus, the
44 cuticle displays structural specializations such as denticles, setae, setulae and spines, all with
45 specific functions (Winterton, 2003). Correlations between structure and function were well
46 studied especially in insects (Neville, 1975) and crustaceans (Garm, 2004a, b; Garm and
47 Watling, 2013). Setae are multicellular protuberances on the cuticle, used primarily for
48 mechanoreception (Steinbrecht, 1984; Keil and Steinbrecht, 1984; Keil, 1997; Winterton, 2003;
49 Barth, 2004). In all groups of arthropods, the role of setae has evolved from simple
50 mechanoreception to various other functions, including defense (Battisti *et al.*, 2011),
51 locomotion (Lebarque *et al.*, 2017), prey capture (Felgenhauer *et al.*, 1989), pheromone dispersal
52 (Steinbrecht, 1984), sexual display (Perez-Miles *et al.*, 2005), preening (Felgenhauer *et al.*,
53 1989), and camouflage (Zeledon *et al.*, 1973; Hultgren and Stachowicz, 2008; Stevens and
54 Merilaita, 2009). Detachable setae are true setae characterized by the loss of the neural
55 connection and the detachment of the base of the hair from the integument (Battisti *et al.*, 2011).
56 The proximal end of each seta is attached to an integument stalk or inserted into a socket and can
57 be easily removed with any kind of mechanical stimulation. This class of hairs has evolved as a
58 defensive structure against predation at least four times in Arthropoda. The class is subdivided in
59 two main morpho-ecological groups: urticating hairs and anchor-like setae. Urticating hairs are
60 characterized in some Lepidoptera families such as the Nodotontidae (subfamily
61 Thaumetopoeinae), Erebidae, Saturniidae and Zygenidae and the spider family Theraphosidae
62 (sub. fam. Theraphosinae) (Battisti *et al.*, 2011). Whereas anchor-like setae are characterized in
63 some larvae of Dermestidae (Insecta: Coleoptera) and Polyxenidae (Myriapoda: Polyxenida)
64 (Eisner *et al.*, 1996). While urticating setae are described to protect from vertebrate predators
65 (Battisti *et al.*, 2011; Bertani and Guadanucci, 2013), detachable setae of dermestids (Nutting
66 and Spangler 1969) and polyxenids (Eisner *et al.*, 1996) work as entangling mechanism against
67 invertebrates. Dermestid detachable setae (hastisetae) are used by the larvae as an active trapping
68 system against arthropod predators (Nutting and Spangler 1969). These specialized setae are
69 almost exclusively prerogative of Megatominae, the most species rich group in the entire family
70 (Hava, 2015). The mechanism of action of hastisetae and their microstructure remains largely
71 obscure and restricted to few case studies (Nutting and Spangler 1969; Mills and Partida, 1976);

72 furthermore, how the evolution of hastisetae is related to the biological success of the
73 Megatominae remains unresolved. Although information on the impacts of hastisetae on
74 vertebrate predators is lacking, dermestid larvae and Megatominae in particular have been
75 documented as possible source of allergens in human (Mullen and Durden, 2009). Hastisetae and
76 integument fragments carrying them can be contaminants of stored commodities and are present
77 in working and living environments (Hinton, 1945). Hastisetae seem to be involved in allergic
78 reactions through skin contact, ingestion or inhalation; symptoms can vary accordingly to
79 exposition and consist of skin rushes, asthma, conjunctivitis and digestive system inflammation
80 (Gorgojo *et al.*, 2015; MacArthur *et al.* 2016). Correlation between the presence of hastisetae and
81 the incidence of allergies in humans exists but the scarce and incomplete information available
82 do not allow to consider hastisetae as a major hazard in living and working places. The aim of
83 this review is to synthesize the knowledge on the hastisetae of dermestid beetles, to evaluate their
84 occurrence in the group and their ecological importance, and to assess their possible implications
85 in the human health. Finally, future perspectives on the study of the hastisetae with special
86 emphasis on Megatominae are envisaged.

87

88 **Survey methodology**

89 In order to compile and then review the most exhaustive literature on hastisetae we performed a
90 careful and reiterated research in Google Scholar and Scopus through the use of keywords such
91 as “hastisetae”, “Dermestidae”, “defense”, “larva”, integrated by the usage the Boolean operators
92 AND, OR, NOT and the use of " " for specific word combinations. The literature not available
93 online has been recovered thanks to Network Inter-Library Document Exchange (NILDE), a
94 web-based software for the service of Document Supply and Inter-Library Loan, managed by the
95 Italian National Research Council. Our research has enabled the collection of more than a
96 hundred publications, of which ninety were considered in the realization of this review. The
97 library created was comprehensive of literature in English, German and French.

98

99 **Results**

100 **Hastisetae, structure and function**

101 Hastisetae (or hastate setae) have been cited in several papers dealing with Dermestidae
102 systematics (Rees, 1943; Kiselyova and McHugh, 2006), species identification (Booth *et al.*

103 1990; Peacock, 1993), and product contamination (Bousquet, 1990) however, the amount of
104 information available concerning their microstructure (Elbert, 1976; 1978), function (Nutting and
105 Spangler, 1969; Mills and Partida, 1976) and evolution (Zhantiev, 2000; Kiselyova and McHugh,
106 2006) is quite scarce. These hairs, located on the dorso-lateral surface of the tergites of larvae
107 and pupae (Fig. 1) (Rees, 1943; Beal, 1960; Kiselyova and McHugh, 2006; Kadej, 2012a, Kadej,
108 2012b; Kadej and Jaroszewicz 2013, Kadej, *et al.* 2013; Kadej and Guziak 2017; Kadej 2017;
109 2018a, b), are generally quite small with an estimated length, according to the literature, between
110 150 and 900 μm . Density and distribution of the hastisetae vary substantially not only among
111 genera and species but also among tergites of the same species. The hastisetae of the thoracic
112 segments are generally scattered and in low numbers in respect to the other parts of the body.
113 While the abdominal tergites present a wider distribution pattern, from hastisetae covering the
114 major part the tergal disc up to proper setae fields located at the posterior corners of tergites (i.e.
115 *Reesa*, *Trogoderma*). In some larvae, the hastisetae give origin to real tufts of hairs located on
116 the posterior corners of the terga IV-VII (i.e. *Ctesias*) or V-VII (i.e. *Anthrenus*) (Mroczkowski,
117 1975; Kadej *et al.* 2013; Kadej 2017; 2018a, b). The hastisetae are inserted in setal sockets on the
118 integument and are connected to the tormogen cell trough the pedicel (Elbert, 1978). The pedicel
119 is the breaking point of the shaft which allows the detachment of the hastiseta (Elbert, 1978).
120 Hastisetae microstructure consists of two main parts: the shaft and the apical head (Fig. 1). The
121 shaft is long and filiform, subcylindrical in section. It is made by repeated modules, from 5 to 77,
122 each of them constituted by one cylindrical segment provided with one wreath of spines/scales in
123 the distal part (Elbert, 1978). These spines/scales are postero-laterally oriented and can vary in
124 number from five to seven (Elbert, 1978). The last module of the shaft is generally bigger and
125 thicker than the previous and can slightly vary in general shape to the others; this structure,
126 however, has not been characterized yet. The head of the seta is a subconical anchor-like, spear-
127 shaped structure subdivided longitudinally in sections; apex blunt (Elbert, 1976; 1978) (Fig. 1).
128 The head consists of five to seven longitudinal, circularly arranged, elements separated from
129 each other by one deep groove, connected to the stem in the upper half by cross-bracing and free
130 in the lower part. The “anchor-like head”, set against the thorns of the last shaft module, is
131 involved in entangling invertebrate body parts (Nutting and Spangler, 1969), functioning as trap
132 for antennae, legs, mouthparts, setae and spines (Mills and Partida, 1976). This structure is
133 apparently species specific, varying in shape and length between taxa (Elbert, 1976; Kiselyova

134 and McHugh, 2006; Kadej *et al.* 2013; Kadej 2017; 2018a). The shaft allows setae to cluster
135 together amplifying the “trapping” effect and the spines increases friction and entangling among
136 hastisetae and between setae and body parts. The combined action of several hastisetae affects
137 small predators (Nutting and Spangler, 1969) and possibly food competitors (Kokubu and Mills,
138 1980). These setae are hollow (Elbert, 1976; 1978) and could potentially contain proteins or
139 chemical secretion involved in the defense. Hastisetae morphology and distribution, combined
140 together with other characters, constitute a useful tool for species identification (Rees, 1943;
141 Beal, 1960; Peacock, 1993, Kadej, 2012a, b; Kadej and Jaroszewicz 2013, Kadej, *et al.*, 2013;
142 Kadej and Guziak 2017; Kadej 2017; 2018a, b).

143

144 **Hastisetae in the systematic and ecology of Dermestidae**

145 Dermestidae is a cosmopolitan, comparatively small family of Coleoptera, regarded as ‘a well-
146 defined, monophyletic group’ (Lawrence and Newton, 1982), consisting of six subfamilies:
147 Orphilinae, Thorictinae, Dermestinae, Attageninae, Trinodinae and Megatominae (Hava, 2015)
148 (Fig. 2). Dermestids are homogeneous only in general appearance, hiding a complex and rich
149 diversity in term of morphological, ecological and ethological aspects. Specific traits and
150 evolutionary tendencies could be observed in several lineages, associated to ecological groups
151 and niches (Zhantiev, 2009); these traits can be observed at adult (Zhantiev, 2000) and larval
152 stage (Kiselyova and McHugh, 2006). Orphilinae are mycetophagous, with sclerotized
153 burrowing larvae (Lenoir *et al.*, 2013). Thorictinae are myrmecophilous and larvae protection is
154 provided by the associated ant species (Lenoir *et al.*, 2013). Dermestinae, the basal group of the
155 “necrophagous clade” (*sensu* Zhantiev, 2009), have larvae feeding on fresh or relatively humid
156 animal remains (over 15% in water content) (Zhantiev, 2009). Since Dermestinae food resource
157 is highly perishable, the larvae develop rapidly and persist only for short periods. The oblong,
158 sub-cylindrical and sclerotized larvae of this subfamily can dig through the feeding substrate and
159 live in butyric fermentation condition, under animal remains. It’s is plausible that the absence of
160 hastisetae on larval tergites is directly attributable to their burrowing lifestyle. Anchor-like
161 detachable setae could be disadvantageous to move within the substrate. Hastisetae would in fact
162 create friction and would be systematically lost, requiring an important energy expenditure
163 necessary for their replacement. The defensive strategy Dermestinae is based on the fast escape
164 behavior and the sclerotized integuments of the body. The larvae specifically require the

165 pupation chamber to molt and they are capable to dig into soil and/or substrate in case of lacking
166 suitable places where to hide. The pupae of this subfamily present gin-traps on the integuments,
167 as a defensive system against predators (Hinton, 1946; Kiselyova and McHugh, 2006) (Fig. 2).
168 Attageninae have burrowing larvae associated to wood dust, fissures of rocks and sandy
169 environments and feed of insects and other arthropods remains; the larvae are oblong-fusiform
170 with integuments covered of three different kind of hairs (Zhantiev, 2000; Kiselyova and
171 McHugh, 2006). The larvae show a fast escape behavior, similar to Dermestinae. Attageninae
172 prefer to pupate in hidden niches and are usually present gin-traps (Zhantiev, 2000). Trinodinae
173 are inquiline of animals' nests: rodent borrows with larvae phoretic on mammal (Zhantiev, 2009)
174 or larvae associated to spider nests (Beal, 1959; Kadej, 2011). The hastisetae, with the single
175 exception of the genus *Trinodes* (Trinodinae), in which modified hastisetae are described
176 (Kiselyova and McHugh, 2006), are prerogative of the Megatomininae larvae and they are strictly
177 associated to larval and pupal morphology and behavior (Kiselyova and McHugh, 2006;
178 Zhantiev, 2009) (Fig. 2). Megatomininae is the richest in species subfamily within Dermestidae
179 and its biological success is most probably attributable to the hastisetae occurrence. Amber
180 fossils indicate that hastisetae morphology is highly conserved and remained virtually unchanged
181 since late Cretaceous (Poinar and Poinar, 2016). This group shows a remarked investment on
182 hastisetae as a defensive tool (Nutting and Spangler 1969; Mills and Partida, 1976), exploiting
183 their resistance and durability over time to protect both larvae and pupae (Kiselyova and
184 McHugh, 2006; Zhantiev, 2009). Megatomininae is the clade within the xerophilous necrophagous
185 dermestids (*sensu* Zhantiev, 2009), which can survive on low-water food resources, especially
186 chitinous and keratinous remains (Armes, 1990; Beal, 1998; Zhantiev, 2009). These substrates
187 are capable to stand in the environment for a long time but the poor nutrients prolong the
188 duration of larval development, with major implications on morphology, ethology and defensive
189 behavior. Lengthening of the larval phase and its persistence in the environment for a long time
190 has promoted the evolution of morphological and ethological features in Megatomininae that
191 otherwise would have been disadvantageous in a different lifestyle. The inability of the larvae to
192 delve into the living substrate (Zhantiev, 2009) favored the evolution of defensive structures
193 (hastisetae) with low energy investment for their synthesis and to remain functional even after
194 being dispersed in the environment. Over time, energetic investment in cuticularized integuments
195 in larvae and gin-traps in pupae shifted to the morphology of hastisetae and its defense

196 mechanisms. Hastisetæ provide protection in both larvae and pupae, favoring a positive energy
197 trade-off in larval development. All the larvae of this subfamily are stout, feebly sclerotized,
198 slow moving and present an aggressive-non escaping defensive behavior (Kiselyova and
199 MchHugh, 2006). In a disturbance, the larva stops moving, arches its body and spread the
200 hastisetæ, frequently from the posterior part of the body where it is densely packed with
201 hastisetæ towards the stimulus (Kiselyova and MchHugh, 2006). In general, Megatomiinae do
202 not make pupation chambers or hide, but simply pupate where they have been feeding. Pupae
203 completely lack gin-traps and remain protected inside the last larval exuvia, completely covered
204 in hastisetæ (synapomorphy of Trinodinae + Megatomiinae) (Kiselyova and McHugh, 2006)
205 (Fig. 2). Megatomiinae have been able to adapt against interspecific and intraspecific competition
206 for food resources. They evolved specialized larvae that are capable to use a wide range of
207 trophic resources that are poor in nutrients and water content in association with an energy-
208 efficient and effective defensive mechanism. A common trait associated with the evolution of the
209 hastisetæ in the dermestids is, in the necrophagous clade, the transition from scavenger habits of
210 adults to anthophily or aphagy (Zhantiev, 2009) (Fig. 2).

211

212 **Hastisetæ and human health**

213 The capability to feed on a wide range of food resources scarce in water content and to resist to
214 prolonged starvation makes Megatomiinae larvae the perfect candidate to inhabit public and
215 private spaces such as houses and working environments. In addition, due to their slow
216 movements and cryptic behavior these larvae result difficult to detect and remove. For this
217 reason, some species are now synanthropic and cosmopolitan (Bouchet *et al.*, 1996; Gamarra *et*
218 *al.*, 2009), having been spread all over the world with trade. These species became serious pests,
219 causing considerable loss and damage to stored goods of both animal and plant origin (Hinton,
220 1945; Burges, 1959; Kantack and Staples, 1969; Mroczkowski, 1975; Beal, 1991; Veer *et al.*,
221 1991a, b; Veer and Rao, 1995; Veer *et al.*, 1996; Imura, 2003; Rajendran and Hajira Parveen,
222 2003; Lawrence and Slipinski, 2010) and to objects of organic origin in museums of cultural and
223 natural history (Jurecka, 1987; Zaitseva, 1987; Armes, 1988; Bousquet, 1990, Pinniger and
224 Harmon, 1999; Stengaard Hansen *et al.*, 2012; Quarner, 2015). The hastisetæ released by the
225 larva throughout its entire development and abandoned in the environment in association to the
226 exuviae are an important contaminant in dwelling, public spaces as well as food stuff (Gorham,

227 1979; 1989; Burgess, 1993) and can contribute as allergens in humans (Wiseman *et al.*, 1959;
228 Johansson *et al.*, 1985; Baldo and Panzani, 1988; Burgess, 1993; Gorgojo *et al.*, 2015; McArthur
229 *et al.*, 2016): chitin, likely the main constituent of the hastisetae, is in fact a powerful and widely
230 recognized allergen, and its interaction with Th2 lymphocytes and human chitinases enhances
231 the inflammation process (Brinchmann *et al.*, 2011; Bucolo *et al.*, 2011; Mack *et al.*, 2015).
232 However, it is still unclear whether the inflammatory effect of the hastisetae is attributable to the
233 mechanical action of the seta and its penetration through the epithelia or if it is associated to the
234 presence of specific molecules capable to start an immunological reaction. Hastisetae have been
235 directly linked to occupational diseases in working environments (Loir and Legagneux 1922;
236 Renaudin, 2010), especially when processing organic materials such flour, wool, silk and other
237 commodities (Veer *et al.*, 1996; Brito *et al.*, 2002), or stored objects of organic origin in
238 museums and art galleries (Siegel *et al.* 1991). The exposure to and inhalation of hastisetae, even
239 in the form of dust, are reported to cause rhinoconjunctivitis (Brito *et al.*, 2002) and asthma
240 (Cuesta-Herranz *et al.*, 1997; Brito *et al.*, 2002; Bernstein *et al.*, 2009). Megatominiae are also
241 one of the arthropod groups most commonly recorded inside houses (Gamarra *et al.*, 2009;
242 Bertone *et al.*, 2016; Madden *et al.* 2016); the larvae persist in these environments for months,
243 even for years, feeding on food (Gorham, 1979; 1989; Hirao, 2000), pet food (Rudolph *et al.*,
244 1981), dust, insect remains and clothes, especially wool fabric (Bouchet *et al.*, 1996). This
245 prolonged presence inside houses together with the persistence of the hastisetae in the
246 environment greatly increase the possibility for the humans to come into contact and develop a
247 sensitization to these detachable hairs (Wiseman *et al.*, 1959; Kaufman *et al.*, 1986; Burgess,
248 1993; Jakubas-Zawalska *et al.*, 2016). The direct exposure of hastisetae to the skin, maybe due to
249 contaminated bed or clothes, causes severe dermatitis (Sheldon and Johnston, 1941; Cormia *et*
250 *al.*, 1945; Okamura, 1967; Ahmed *et al.*, 1981; Alexander, 1984; Johansson *et al.*, 1985;
251 Southcott, 1989; Horster *et al.*, 2002; Zanca *et al.*, 2012; Hoverson *et al.*, 2015; McArthur *et al.*,
252 2016), while the prolonged inhalation can determine the insurgence of asthma (Cuesta-Herranz
253 *et al.*, 1997; Brito *et al.*, 2002; Bernstein *et al.*, 2009). Food contamination and hastisetae
254 ingestion has been proved to cause the inflammation of the digestive system, manifesting
255 through nausea, fever, diarrhea (Hirao, 2000), proctitis and perianal itching (Krause *et al.*, 1998).
256 Unusual, and apparently asymptomatic findings of hastisetae have been done on sputum
257 (Johnson and Batchelor, 1989) and cervical specimens (Bechtold *et al.*, 1985; Bryant and

258 Maslan, 1994; Williamson *et al.*, 2005). The incidence of pathologies associated with
259 Dermestidae and Megatominae in particular, seems to be considerably reduced in recent decades
260 probably due to the increased degree of attention regarding the presence of contaminants in food
261 and the marked improvement in the processes of conservation and storage of raw materials; the
262 development of adequate plans for monitoring and management of pests and the general
263 improvement in the quality of life of people associated with greater healthiness of the houses
264 have contributed further to the imitation of the impact (Athanasiou and Arthur, 2018). However,
265 there is also the possibility that many domestic cases of exposure to hastisetae, especially in the
266 case of skin rushes (erythematobullous reactions) may be under-recognized and underdiagnosed,
267 due to similar effects to attacks by other arthropods (Burgess, 1993; McArthur *et al.*, 2016).
268 Furthermore, almost all the cases reported in the medical literature regard developed countries
269 while the effect of hastisetae on human health in developing countries remains almost obscure
270 and widely understudied. Undoubtedly, a better knowledge of the inflammation caused by
271 hastisetae would allow the formation of medical personnel able to provide early diagnosis and to
272 administer quickly appropriate therapies. Moreover, a close collaboration between occupational
273 physicians, entomologists and immunologists could be of great help for the development of new
274 surveillance programs and new health and safety guidelines for workers and people most at risk.

275

276 **Conclusions**

277 The scant information about the fine morphology and the ecological roles of hastisetae, and their
278 implications in human health opens a whole horizon of research possibilities. Hastisetae
279 morphology is undoubtedly the starting point for any future study. The characterization of
280 hastisetae through electron microscopy and micro-CT is the basic and fundamental step to
281 understand their functional morphology. The identification of specific morphological traits in the
282 hastisetae will help to solve Megatominae systematics, highlighting the evolution of these
283 structures in relation to phylogeny and biology. A detailed knowledge of hastisetae morphology
284 will allow us to understand the defensive mechanism and if it acts similarly in all Megatominae.
285 Comparing reactions of different predators to hastisetae will be useful to evaluate the different
286 effects and particularly if this defensive system is primarily directed towards invertebrates and/or
287 to vertebrates. Are humans or other vertebrates possible targets of hastisetae, and if so what are
288 the causes of the unpleasant side-effects in humans? Is it the penetration of these setae trough

289 epithelia the main cause of inflammation and are there any particular substance inducing the
290 reaction, as it has been showed in Lepidoptera? Chemical analysis of secretions can identify and
291 characterize the compounds responsible of the inflammation in humans and clarify their possible
292 role as adjuvants in defense against the threats. Understanding the causes of allergic responses in
293 humans will allow the development of specific medical therapies. Hastisetæ could become an
294 important addition in species identification, with relevant application in forensic entomology and
295 pest management on stored products. Furthermore, the creation of a molecular fingerprint based
296 on hastisetæ content can aid in developing tools to detect insect fragments in contaminated
297 stored products, especially food.

298

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304

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Figure 1

Hastisetae structure and distribution on Megatominae larvae (general scheme):

(a). Example of Megatominae larva (Megatoma undata (Linnaeus, 1758)), dorsal view. T1-T3: thoracic segments; A1-A8: abdominal segments. (b). Tuft of hastisetae on abdominal segments. (c). Hastisetae, lateral view. (d). Head of the hastiseta (subconical anchor-like, spear-shaped head). Image credit: Paolo Paolucci, Michał Kukla.

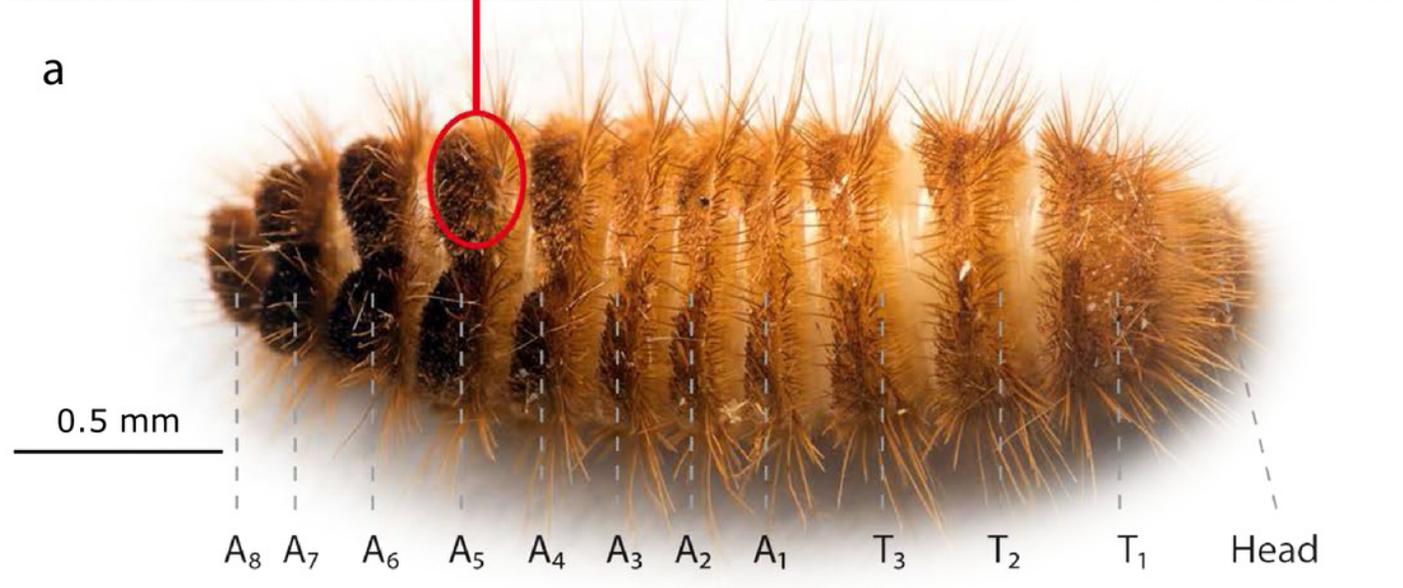
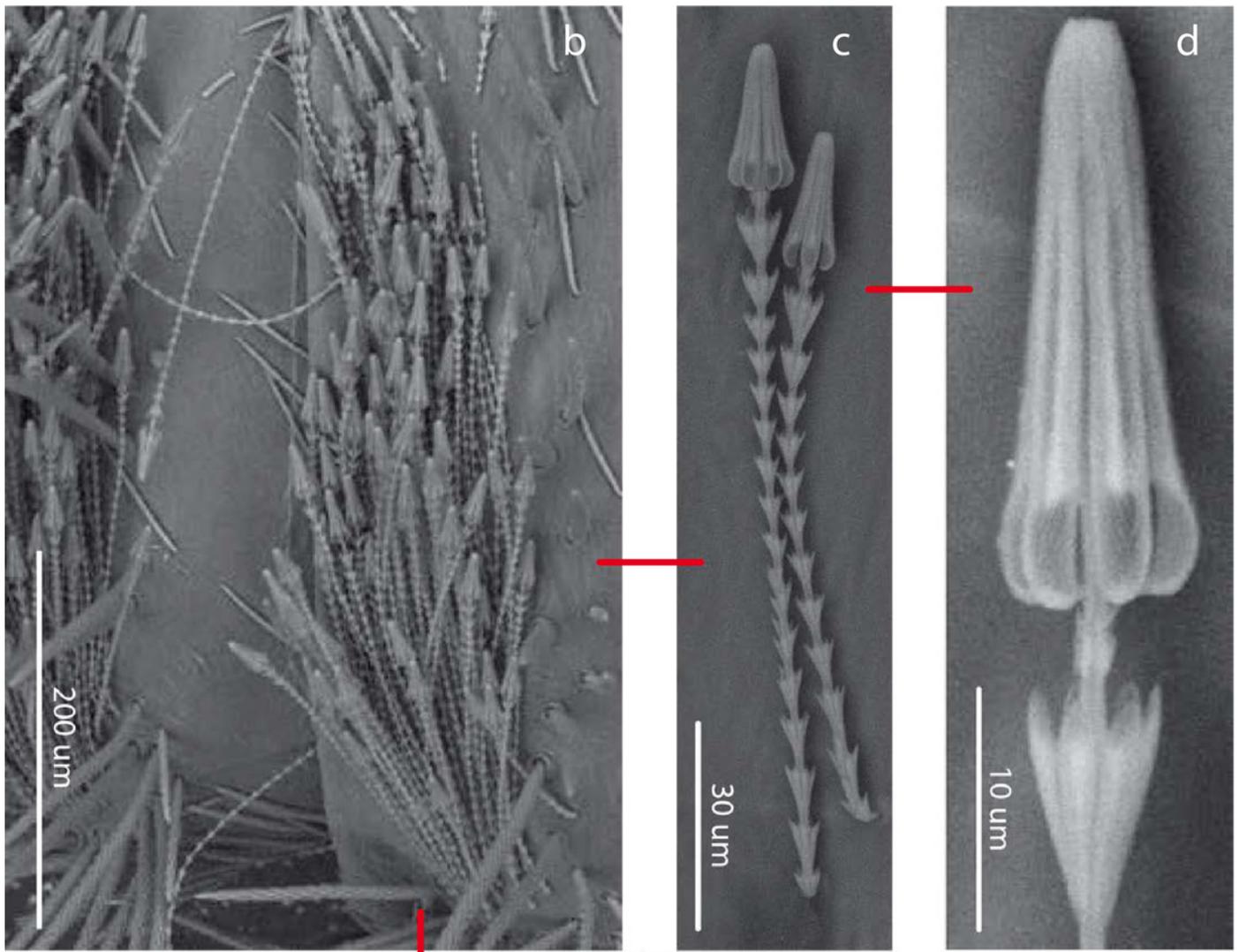


Figure 2

Schematic representation of Dermestidae phylogeny (based on Kiselyova and McHugh, 2006), with an indication of feeding habits of the adult beetles, duration of larval lifespan, and larval-pupal defensive structures.

The size of the colored bands in each subfamily is an approximated representation of the number of species. Image credit: Paolo Paolucci.

