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Current state of knowledge on *Wolbachia* infection among Coleoptera: a systematic review

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Background. Despite great progress in studies on *Wolbachia* infection in insects, the knowledge about its relations with beetle species, populations and individuals, and the effects of bacteria on these hosts is still unsatisfactory. In this review we summarize the current state of knowledge about *Wolbachia* occurrence and interactions with Coleopteran hosts. **Methods.** An intensive search of the available literature resulted in the selection of 81 publications that describe the relevant details about *Wolbachia* presence among beetles. These publications were then examined with respect to the distribution and taxonomy of infected hosts and diversity of *Wolbachia* found in beetles. Sequences of *Wolbachia* genes (*16S rDNA*, *wsp* and *ftsZ*) were used for the phylogenetic analyses. **Results.** The collected publications revealed that *Wolbachia* has been confirmed in 197 beetle species and that the estimated average prevalence of this bacteria across beetle species is 38.3% and varies greatly across families and genera (0-88% infected members) and is much lower (c. 13%) in geographic studies. The majority of the examined and infected beetles were from Europe and East Asia. The most intensively studied have been two groups of herbivorous beetles: Curculionidae and Chrysomelidae. Coleoptera harbor *Wolbachia* belonging to three supergroups: F found in only 3 species, and A and B found in similar numbers of beetles (including some doubly infected); however the latter two were most prevalent in different families. 59% of species with precise data were found to be totally infected. Single infections were found in 69% of species and others were doubly- or multiply-infected. *Wolbachia* caused numerous effects on its beetle hosts, including selective sweep with host mtDNA (found in 3% of species), cytoplasmic incompatibility (detected in c. 6% of beetles) and other effects related to reproduction or development (like male-killing, possible parthenogenesis or haplodiploidy induction, and egg development). Phylogenetic reconstructions for *Wolbachia* genes rejected cospeciation between these bacteria and Coleoptera, with minor exceptions found in some Hydraenidae, Curculionidae and Chrysomelidae. In contrast, horizontal transmission of

bacteria has been suspected or proven in numerous cases (e.g. among beetles sharing habitats and/or host plants). **Discussion.** The present knowledge about *Wolbachia* infection across beetle species and populations is very uneven. Even the basic data about infection status in species and frequency of infected species across genera and families is very superficial, as only c. 0.15% of all beetle species have been tested and/or examined so far. Future studies on *Wolbachia* diversity in Coleoptera should still be based on the Multi-locus Sequence Typing system and next-generation sequencing technologies will be important for uncovering *Wolbachia* relations with host evolution and ecology, as well as with other, co-occurring endosymbiotic bacteria.

1 Current state of knowledge on *Wolbachia* infection among Coleoptera: a
2 systematic review

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9

10 **Abstract**

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23 13%) in geographic studies. The majority of the examined and infected beetles were from
24 Europe and East Asia. The most intensively studied have been two groups of herbivorous
25 beetles: Curculionidae and Chrysomelidae. Coleoptera harbor *Wolbachia* belonging to three
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29 were found in 69% of species and others were doubly- or multiply-infected. *Wolbachia* caused

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38 **Discussion.** The present knowledge about *Wolbachia* infection across beetle species and
39 populations is very uneven. Even the basic data about infection status in species and frequency of
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41 species have been tested and/or examined so far. Future studies on *Wolbachia* diversity in
42 Coleoptera should still be based on the Multi-locus Sequence Typing system and next-generation
43 sequencing technologies will be important for uncovering *Wolbachia* relations with host
44 evolution and ecology, as well as with other, co-occurring endosymbiotic bacteria.

45

46 **Key words:** α -proteobacteria; beetles; evolution; ecology; endosymbiont; intracellular;
47 interactions

48

49 **Short title** *Wolbachia* among Coleoptera: a review

50

51 **Introduction**

52 The relations between the intracellular α -proteobacterium *Wolbachia pipientis* Hertig
53 1936 (hereafter *Wolbachia*) and its hosts from various groups of arthropods and nematodes have
54 been the object of much research and numerous publications (O'Neill et al., 1992; Werren et al.,
55 1995a). The majority of these studies have focused on verifying endosymbiotic bacteria
56 occurrence and diversity in various hosts at different levels: i) among selected species sharing a
57 geographic area (e.g. O'Neill et al., 1992; Werren et al., 1995a, 2000), ii) among species

58 inhabiting the same environment or that are ecologically-associated (e.g. Stahlhut et al., 2010),
59 iii) among species from particular taxonomic groups (e.g. Czarnetzki et al., 2004; Lachowska et
60 al., 2010; Sontowski et al., 2015), and iv) within populations of selected taxa (e.g. Stenberg et
61 al., 2004; Mazur et al., 2016). Another branch of research on the relations between *Wolbachia*
62 and its hosts has focused on host species phylogenetics or population genetics, which is in some
63 cases related to population differentiation and speciation (e.g. Kubisz et al., 2012; Montagna et
64 al., 2014). In this research *Wolbachia* is sometimes treated as an additional “marker” – a source
65 of genetic data about the eco-evolutionary relations of its hosts. A third type of *Wolbachia*
66 studies has concerned the direct or indirect effects of the infection on host fitness, development
67 or survival at the individual and population levels (e.g. Weeks 2002; O’Neill 2007). Moreover,
68 in a separate branch of research (or in conjunction with the abovementioned types of studies),
69 *Wolbachia* is often examined directly, mainly with respect to strain diversity, distribution and
70 relations with other strains or different co-existing bacteria (Baldo et al., 2007). All these
71 branches of research have substantially extended the knowledge about the relations between the
72 most widespread intracellular endosymbiont – *Wolbachia* and its various hosts. Moreover, these
73 studies have been expanded to encompass other bacteria with similar biologies and effects on
74 hosts (like *Cardinium*, *Spiroplasma*, *Rickettsia*) (Zchori-Fein & Perlman 2004; Goto et al., 2006;
75 Duron et al., 2008); however, a great majority of studies are still conducted on *Wolbachia* (Zug
76 et al., 2012). Recently, the various *Wolbachia* supergroups have been proposed to belong to
77 several “*Candidatus Wolbachia*” species (Ramírez-Puebla et al., 2015); however, this approach
78 has been criticized (Lindsey et al., 2016). Due to the uncertain species status of the “*Candidatus*
79 *Wolbachia*” and because all previous studies considered these presumed different species as
80 distant supergroups, in this review we have followed the previous *Wolbachia* taxonomy.

81 In summary, *Wolbachia* has been detected in 10-70% of examined hosts (Jeyaprasakash &
82 Hoy 2000; Hilgenboecker et al., 2008), depending on the geographical, ecological or
83 taxonomical association of the selected species. Moreover, more detailed studies, at the
84 population level, have shown that infection is not as straightforward as was assumed in the early
85 stages of *Wolbachia* research. More and more species have been found to be only partially
86 infected, e.g. in only some parts of their ranges or infection was associated with only some
87 phylogenetic lineages (usually correlated with the distribution of mitochondrial lineages) (Clark
88 et al., 2001; Roehrdanz et al., 2006). Furthermore, examples of multiply infected species and

89 individuals have been reported, which has important consequences for the understanding of some
90 of the effects of *Wolbachia* infection (Malloch et al., 2000; Gurfield, 2016). *Wolbachia* is
91 known to have numerous effects on its hosts, among which the most interesting and important
92 are those that disturb host reproduction, such as cytoplasmic incompatibility, thelytokous
93 parthenogenesis, feminization of genetic males, male-killing, increased mating success of
94 infected males via sperm competition and the host's complete dependence on bacteria for egg
95 production (for reviews see Werren, 1997; Werren & O'Neill, 1997 and Stouthamer et al., 1999).
96 Some of these effects are responsible for diversification of host populations and consequently for
97 speciation (e.g. by the selective sweep of mtDNA or the whole genome of the infected host with
98 the genome of bacteria; Keller et al., 2004; Mazur et al., 2016). This could be another major
99 factor, additional to those already known, responsible for radiation of insects and particularly
100 beetles.

101 There are several reviews summarizing the state of knowledge on *Wolbachia* infection
102 among various taxonomic groups of nematodes and arthropods. Over the last years, such reviews
103 have been prepared for the following groups: filarial nematodes (Filarioidea) (Taylor & Hoerauf,
104 1999; Casiraghi et al., 2001), crustaceans (Crustacea) (Cordaux et al., 2001), spiders (Araneae)
105 (Goodacre et al., 2006; Yun et al., 2010), mites (Acari) (Chasirini et al., 2015), springtails
106 (Collembola) (Czarnetzki et al., 2004), Heteropteran Bugs (Heteroptera) (Kikuchi et al., 2003),
107 ants (Formicidae) (Russell, 2012), wasps (Hymenoptera: Apocrita) (Schoemaker et al., 2002)
108 and butterflies (Lepidoptera) (Tagami et al., 2004). Surprisingly, there is no such review for
109 beetles (Coleoptera), which are the most species rich and diversified group of organisms on
110 Earth, which are known from most habitats, and whose members belong to all major trophic
111 guilds of animals. Some groups of beetles have been examined with respect to *Wolbachia*
112 infection, but usually only with a limited coverage of species (e.g. weevils, Curculionidae,
113 Lachowska et al., 2010; leaf beetles; Chrysomelidae, Clark et al., 2001, Jäckel et al., 2013; jewel
114 beetles; Buprestidae, Sontowski et al., 2015 and minute moss beetles, Hydraenidae, Sontowski et
115 al., 2015).

116 In this review we have summarized the current state of knowledge on the relations
117 between beetles and *Wolbachia* by referring to all the abovementioned groups of research.

118 Moreover, we have highlighted future research directions concerning *Wolbachia* relationships
119 with their diverse Coleopteran hosts.

120 **Survey Methodology**

121 We searched the scientific literature with Web of Knowledge databases, using the
122 following combination of keywords linked by AND (the Boolean search term to stipulate that the
123 record should contain this AND the next term): “*Wolbachia*” AND “Coleoptera” and
124 “*Wolbachia*” AND “beetles”. Our final literature search for this analysis was conducted on
125 December 22, 2017. This produced 322 results. Each result was inspected to determine whether
126 or not it contained information on the subject matter. Articles that had no relevance (e.g. any
127 reports that were not about *Wolbachia*-Coleoptera relations, including those that only had some
128 references to either beetles or bacteria in the citations) were excluded. After the removal of
129 duplicates, 65 were excluded from the remaining articles (n = 234) for not being direct reports
130 about *Wolbachia*-Coleoptera relations, 44 were excluded because they examined other hosts and
131 only referred to publications on Coleoptera, and 44 others were excluded because they referred
132 to data already presented in previous publications on Coleoptera. The use of two alternative and
133 comprehensive scientific collections should have reduced any biases. Each document was read
134 critically for the information that it contained on *Wolbachia*-Coleoptera relations, with special
135 reference to answering the study questions listed below. Figure 1 shows a flow diagram for the
136 systematic review following Prisma guidelines (Moher et al., 2009).

137 We examined the collected data on various aspects of *Wolbachia* infection in Coleoptera
138 with respect to the following: the i) characteristics of the publications (to determine the scope
139 and progress of studies on *Wolbachia*) (n=81), ii) geographic distribution of infected beetle
140 species and populations (n=79), iii) sampling design (how many sites and individuals were
141 examined) (n=63), iv) characteristics of the markers (genes) used for genotyping the bacteria
142 (n=77) and their hosts (n=34), v) numbers and frequencies of species found to be infected in
143 particular beetle families and genera (n=58), vi) supergroup prevalence in examined taxonomic
144 groups (n=40), vii) strain distribution and diversity in populations and individuals (n=30), viii)
145 effects of *Wolbachia* on its beetle hosts (n=39). Statistical analyses were done in Statistica 11
146 (Statsoft).

147 Finally, we downloaded from GenBank (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>) and the
148 *Wolbachia* MLST database (<https://pubmlst.org/wolbachia/>) all available sequences of
149 *Wolbachia* genes found in any species of beetle. We restricted further analyses to the most
150 widely used bacteria genes, i.e. *16S rDNA*, *Wolbachia* surface protein gene *wsp* and cell division
151 protein gene *ftsZ*. Because of the different lengths and spans of available sequences, the long
152 parts of the 3' and 5' ends of each gene were trimmed, which resulted in alignments of length
153 663 bp for *16S rDNA*, 355 bp for *wsp* and 241 bp for *ftsZ*. The length of the *ftsZ* alignment was
154 particularly short as two different sets of primers have been used for its amplification, and its
155 amplicons only overlapped across a relatively short part of the gene. Phylogenetic trees were
156 only reconstructed for unique gene variants found in particular host taxa. Trees were inferred
157 using Maximum Likelihood (ML) implemented in IQ-TREE web server <http://www.iqtree.org/>
158 (Trifinopoulos et al., 2016) under the following settings Auto selection of substitution model,
159 ultrafast bootstrap approximation (UFBoot) (Minh et al., 2013) with 10000 iterations, maximum
160 correlation coefficient = 0.99, single branch test with use of the approximate Likelihood-Ratio
161 Test (SH-aLRT) (Anisimova & Gascuel, 2006; Guindon et al., 2010) and other default options.

162 The nomenclature of host taxa and their systematic positions throughout the paper follow
163 the articles from which the data was derived.

164 **Characterization of *Wolbachia* infection among Coleoptera**

165 *Publications*

166 The final list of publications concerning data about *Wolbachia* infection in Coleoptera
167 comprised 81 papers (Supplementary Table 1). The oldest articles with relevant information
168 about *Wolbachia* infection in beetles were published in 1992 (Campbell et al., 1992; O'Neill et
169 al., 1992), and the number of articles since then has increased significantly year by year
170 (Spearman correlation = 0.817; Fig. 2). The majority of these articles (63%) concerned infection
171 in only single beetle species, whereas 20% discussed infection in multiple species belonging to
172 the same genus, 6% – multiple species from the same family, 6% – various species of
173 Coleoptera et al., and a further 5% – studies on geographic groups of insects that included some,
174 usually random species of beetles (O'Neill et al., 1992; Werren et al., 1995, 2000).

175 Most studies were done on Curculionidae (33) and Chrysomelidae (31), following
176 Tenebrionidae (9), Coccinellidae (7) and Sylvanidae (3) (Supplementary Table 1). The members
177 of all other families were investigated in only 1-2 studies. Consequently, 2.5 and 1.6
178 Curculionidae and Chrysomelidae species were respectively examined per article. All species of
179 Hydraenidae and Buprestidae were included in only single articles (Sontowski et al., 2015),
180 whereas limited numbers of species of Coccinellidae and Tenebrionidae were examined in
181 several articles (Hurst et al., 1999; Fialho & Stevens 1996, 1997, 2000; Majerus et al., 2000; et
182 al., Weinert et al., 2007; Elnagdy et al., 2013; Ming et al., 2015; Goodacre et al., 2015;
183 Kageyama et al., 2015; Li et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016; Dudek et al.; 2017). *Wolbachia* infection
184 was only studied more than once in 20 species.

185 *Sampling design*

186 The majority of species investigated with respect to *Wolbachia* infection were from
187 Europe, and a relatively high number of species were from Asia and both Americas, whereas
188 only ten infected species were from Africa, and three from Australia-Oceania (Fig. 3). A number
189 of publications describing *Wolbachia* infection in Coleoptera had similar geographic coverages
190 (Fig. 3).

191 Studies were done on samples collected from an average of 5.2 sites and concerned on
192 average 53.0 specimens, or if excluding the most widely studied families Curculionidae and
193 Chrysomelidae, 6.0 sites and 65.1 individuals (Fig. 4). For Curculionidae and Chrysomelidae,
194 these numbers were on average 4.4 and 6.0 sites, respectively, and 40.7 and 70.2 individuals,
195 respectively (Fig. 4). The numbers of sites and individuals examined in particular groups were
196 insignificantly different, with the exception of the numbers of examined individuals in
197 Curculionidae and Chrysomelidae (Fig. 4).

198 *Examined genetic markers*

199 The most often used *Wolbachia* gene for studies on Coleoptera was *ftsZ*, followed by
200 *hcpA*, *wsp* and *16S rDNA* (Fig. 5). Most studies using *hcpA* also used other MLST genes,
201 including *ftsZ*. On the other hand, many species were only investigated with either *16S rDNA* or
202 *wsp* or *ftsZ* alone. Single studies used *groEL* (*Monochamus alternatus*, Aikawa et al., 2009;
203 *Tribolium madens*, Fialho & Stevens, 2000) or *ITS* genes (*Tribolium madens*, Fialho & Stevens,

204 2000). So far, only five studies have used next-generation sequencing technology (Illumina or
205 454) to detect *Wolbachia*; two used *16S rDNA* for metabarcoding of microbiota (*Sitona*
206 *obsoletus*, *Steriphus variabilis*, White et al., 2015; *Aleochara bilineata* and *Aleochara*
207 *bipustulata*, Bili et al., 2016; *Hylobius abietis*, Berasategui et al., 2016; *Brontispa longissimi*,
208 Takano et al., 2017; *Harmonia axyridis*, Dudek et al., 2017) and one used shotgun genomic
209 sequencing (*Amara alpine*, Heintzman et al., 2014). For genotyping of hosts, 52.4% of studies
210 utilized fragments of *COI* from mtDNA (usually a barcode fragment of this gene). Fewer studies
211 (23.1%) analyzed *rDNA* (usually *ITS1* and/or *ITS2* spacers), *EFl α* (14.0%), Wingless (2.2%),
212 Histone H3 (2.2%) and microsatellites (6.1%). In *Wolbachia*-related studies, host genes have
213 been used for several purposes like i) using host DNA as a control for genetic material quality, ii)
214 barcoding for host species identification, iii) phylogenetics, phylogeography and population
215 genetics, iv) estimating co-evolutionary relations between the bacteria and host, and v) detecting
216 some of the effects of *Wolbachia* on its hosts (like linkage disequilibrium, selective sweep,
217 cytoplasmic incompatibility).

218 *Taxonomic coverage*

219 The beetles examined with respect to *Wolbachia* infection belong to 22 families
220 (Micromalthidae, Gyridae, Haliplidae, Noteridae, Dytiscidae, Carabidae, Staphyllinidae,
221 Hydrophilidae, Hydraenidae, Anobiidae, Dermestidae, Buprestidae, Byturidae, Cleridae,
222 Lampyridae, Coccinellidae, Tenebrionidae, Meloidae, Sylvanidae, Cerambycidae,
223 Chrysomelidae, Curculionidae). In total 197 beetle species were found to harbor *Wolbachia*
224 infection; however the distribution of infected species among families varied markedly. The
225 highest numbers of infected beetle species were found for the Curculionidae (79 species),
226 Chrysomelidae (51 species), Hydraenidae (14 species), Buprestidae (13 species), Coccinellidae
227 (9 species) and Dytiscidae (8 species) (Fig. 6). In all other families only 1-3 species were
228 reported to harbor *Wolbachia* (Supplementary Table 1). However, these numbers are biased by
229 the low number of articles (studies) dealing with members of particular beetle families (see
230 above).

231 Considering infection across beetle genera, the most richly infected genera were *Altica*
232 (Chrysomelidae, 17 species), *Naupactus* (Curculionidae, 11 species), *Hydraena* (Hydraenidae, 8
233 species) and *Agrilus* (Buprestidae, 6 species) (Supplementary Table 1). In total, 49 genera were

234 found to have infected members (Supplementary Table 1, Table 1). The infection in Coleoptera
235 was estimated at 38.3% of examined species; however, the proportion of infected species varied
236 greatly between families and genera. At the family level the infection frequency was from 10.5%
237 (Tenebrionidae) to 100% (Noteridae) (Goodacre et al., 2015, Sontowski et al., 2015); however
238 when considering only families for which more than 30 species were investigated (e.g. Clark et
239 al., 2001; Lachowska-Cierlik et al.; 2010, Rodriguer et al.; 2010a, Kondo et al.; 2011, Jäckel et
240 al., 2013; Sontowski et al.; 2015, Kawasaki et al., 2016), infection was found in up to 63% of
241 species (Hydraenidae) (Table 1). At lower taxonomic levels, *Wolbachia* was found in 25% of
242 Diabroticite (Chrysomelidae; Clark et al., 2001), 14.3-16.7% of Bruchina (Chrysomelidae;
243 Kondo et al., 2011), 34.8% of Scolytinae (Curculionidae, Kawasaki et al., 2016) and 16.7% of
244 Curculionini (Toju et al., 2013). Among 54 genera in which *Wolbachia* infection was examined
245 for at least 2 species, 12 genera were completely uninfected, while 6 genera were completely
246 infected (Table 1). If considering only genera with at least 5 verified species, *Wolbachia* was
247 found in 0% (*Acmaeodera*; Buprestidae; Sontowski et al., 2015) to 88% species (*Altica*,
248 Chrysomelidae; Jäckel et al., 2013). There was only a marginally negative and insignificant
249 correlation between the number of examined and number of infected species ($R=-0.078$). If
250 considering only the most widely examined families: Chrysomelidae and Curculionidae, the
251 difference in infection frequency between these two groups was insignificant ($Z=-1.656$,
252 $P=0.098$). Geographic studies on *Wolbachia* prevalence in insects have found much lower
253 frequencies of infection in Coleoptera species: the bacterium was found in only 10.5% of beetles
254 from Panama and 13.5% of beetles from North America (Werren et al., 1995a, 2000).

255 *Wolbachia* diversity

256 Among the various beetle species, *Wolbachia* strains belonged to three supergroups (A, B
257 and F). However, they occurred at very different proportions in different groups of beetles, and
258 these differences were significant ($\text{Chi}^2=98.78$, $P=0.000$). Overall, the proportion of beetle
259 species found to be infected with *Wolbachia* strains belonging to supergroups A or B was
260 similar, with approx. 12% of all species harboring either supergroup (either as single infections
261 in different species or populations or as multiple infections within individuals) (Fig. 7), whereas
262 supergroup F was found in only 3 beetle species: *Agrilus araxenus* and *Lamprodila mirifica*
263 (both Buprestidae; Sontowski et al., 2015) and *Rhinocyllus conicus* (Curculionidae; Campbell et

264 al., 1992). In the four groups of beetles with the highest numbers of examined and infected
265 species, the distributions of supergroups varied: in Buprestidae, a similar numbers of species
266 were infected by supergroups A and B (all singly infected), with a relatively high proportion of F
267 infected species (Sontowski et al., 2015). In contrast, in Hydraenida, supergroup A dominated
268 over supergroup B (Sontowski et al., 2015). This was also the case in Chrysomelidae, with some
269 species infected by both strains (Kondo et al., 2011.; Jäckel et al., 2013; Kolasa et al., 2017). The
270 most varied infections were observed in Curculionidae, with supergroup B dominating, a
271 presence of taxa infected by both A and B supergroups, and a single species infected by F
272 supergroup (Lachowska-Cierlik et al.; 2010, Rodriguer et al., 2010a; Kawasaki et al., 2016)
273 (Fig. 7). Considering the frequency of infected specimens in the examined beetle species
274 represented by the available data (N=106), 63 species were reported to be totally infected (all
275 individuals possessed *Wolbachia*), whereas 43 species had this bacterium in only some
276 individuals (if exclude Chrysomelidae and Curculionidae: 8 and 15 species, respectively) (Fig.
277 8). The same calculated for Chrysomelidae resulted in 17 and 10 species, respectively, and for
278 Curculionidae in 38 and 18 species, respectively (Fig. 8). These differences between these values
279 (between these groups of species) were significant ($\text{Chi}^2=72.03$, $P=0.000$). A single *Wolbachia*
280 strain was observed in 43 species (species with available data $N = 62$), whereas two strains were
281 reported in 10 species (*Byturus tomentosus*, Malloch et al., 2000; *Altica quercetorum*, Jäckel et
282 al., 2013; *Callosobruchus chinensis*, Okayama et al., 2016; *Chelymorpha alternans*, Keller et al.,
283 2004; *Crioceris quaterdecimpunctata* and *Crioceris quinquepunctata*, Kolasa et al., 2017; *Adalia*
284 *bipunctata*, Majerus et al., 2000; *Polydrusus inustus*, Kajtoch et al., 2012; *Cyanapion afer* and *C.*
285 *spencii*, Kajtoch et al., 2017) and multiple infection in a further 9 species (*Callosobruchus*
286 *chinensis*, Kondo et al., 2002; *Diabrotica barberi*, Roehrdanz & Levine, 2007; *Conotrachelus*
287 *nenuphar*, Zhang et al., 2010; *Pityogenes chalcographus*, Arthofer et al., 2009; *Xyleborus dispar*
288 and *Xylosandrus germanus*, Kawasaki et al., 2016) (Fig. 8). In Chrysomelidae (N=22) these
289 numbers were 12, 5 and 5, respectively and in Curculionidae (N=37), 30, 3 and 4, respectively
290 (Fig. 8). The numbers of single, double and multiple infected individuals in these groups of
291 beetles differed insignificantly (Chi^2 ANOVA=2.364, $P=0.307$).

292 *Effects on hosts*

293 *Wolbachia* affected beetle hosts in several ways. Linkage disequilibrium and/or selective
294 sweep between bacteria and host genomes (usually with host mtDNA) were detected in 6 species
295 (3% or 9% if excluding Chrysomelidae and Curculionidae): 2 (4%) Chrysomelidae (*Altica lythri*,
296 Jäckel et al., 2013; *Aphthona nigriscutis*, Roehrdanz et al., 2006) and 4 (5%) Curculionidae
297 (*Eusomus ovulum*, Mazur et al., 2016; *Naupactus cervinus*, Rodriguero et al., 2010b, *Polydrusus*
298 *inustus*, *Polydrusus pilifer*, Kajtoch et al., 2012). Cytoplasmic incompatibility was detected or
299 suspected but unconfirmed in 12 (6% or 18% if excluding Chrysomelidae and Curculionidae)
300 Coleoptera: 6 (13%) Chrysomelidae (*Chelymorpha alternans*, Keller et al., 2004, *Diabrotica*
301 *barberi*, Roehrdanz & Levine 2007, et al., *Diabrotica virgifera virgifera*, Giordano et al., 1997;
302 *Callosobruchus chinensis*, Kondo et al., 2002; *Callosobruchus analis*, Numajiri et al., 2017;
303 *Brontispa longissimi*, Takano et al., 2017), 3 (4 %) of Curculionidae (*Cossonus sp.*, Zhang et
304 al., 2010; *Hypothenemus hampei*, Mariño et al., 2017, *Xylosandrus germanus*, Kawasaki et al.,
305 2016), 1 of Sylvanidae (*Oryzaephilus surinamensis*, Sharaf et al., 2010) and 1 of Tenebrionidae
306 (*Tribolium confusum*, Li et al., 2016, Ming et al., 2015). Horizontal transfer of *Wolbachia* was
307 detected or suspected in 26 species of Coleoptera (13% or 39% if excluding Chrysomelidae and
308 Curculionidae) – 16 (33%) species of Chrysomelidae (several species of *Altica*, Jäckel et al.,
309 2013, *Crioceris quaterdecimpunctata* and *Crioceris quinquepunctata*, Kolasa et al., 2017) and 10
310 (14%) species of Curculionidae (members of *Euwallacea*, *Xyleborus*, *Xylosandrus*, *Xyleborinus*
311 *schaufussi* and *Taphrorychus bicolor*, Kawasaki et al., 2016, *Polydrusus* and *Parafoucartia*
312 *squamulata*, Kajtoch et al., 2012; *Sitophilus oryzae* and *S. zaemais*, Carvalho et al., 2014). Other
313 effects of *Wolbachia* on beetles included the following: i) transfer of bacteria genes to the
314 autosomes of the host (so far detected only for *Monochamus alternatus*, Cerambycidae, Aikawa
315 et al., 2009 and *Callosobruchus chinensis*, Chrysomelidae, Nikoh et al., 2008); ii) coexistence of
316 *Wolbachia* with *Rickettsia* (*Calvia quattuordecimguttata*, *Coccidula rufa*, *Coccinella*
317 *septempunctata*, *Halyzia sedecimguttata*, *Rhizobius litura*, Weinert et al., 2007; *Sitona obsoletus*,
318 White et al., 2015; *Micromalthus debilis*, Perotti et al., 2016) in the host or with *Spiroplasma*
319 (*Chilocorus bipustulatus*, Weinert et al., 2007; *Aleochara bipustulata*, Bili et al., 2016) or with
320 both (*Adalia bipunctata*, Majerus et al., 2000, *Harmonia axyridis*, Dudek et al., 2017; both
321 Chrysomelidae; *Curculio sikkimensis*, Toju & Fukatsu, 2011; *Aleochara bilineata*, Bili et al.,
322 2016); iii) induction and reinforcement of parthenogenesis, however this effect had weak support
323 and had other possible alternative explanations (numerous species of Naupactini, Rodriguer et

324 al., 2010a and *Eusomus ovulum*, Mazur et al., 2016; all Curculionidae; *Micromalthus debilis*,
325 Perotti et al., 2016); iv) possible induction of haplodiploidy (*Euwallacea interjectus*, *Euwallacea*
326 *validus*, Curculionidae, Kawasaki et al., 2016); v) male-killing (*Tribolium madens*,
327 Tenebrionidae, Fialho & Stevens, 2000); vi) necessity of infection for egg development
328 (*Otiorhynchus sulcatus*, Curculionidae, Son et al., 2008; *Coccotrypes dactyliperda*, Zchori-Fein
329 et al., 2006); vii) populations evolving towards endosymbiont loss and repeated intraspecific
330 horizontal transfer of *Wolbachia* (*Pityogenes chalcographus*, Curculionidae, Arthofer et al.,
331 2009), viii) fitness decline in infected beetles (*Callosobruchus analis*, Numajiri et al., 2017), ix)
332 modification of sperm (*Chelymorpha alternans*, Clark et al., 2008), x) down-regulation of
333 defense genes in host plants (maize in *Diabrotica virgifera virgifera*, Barr et al., 2010).

334 *Phylogenetic relations*

335 The tree reconstructed for *16S rDNA* included 52 sequences from bacteria found in 45
336 host beetle species. This tree included three major lineages, with separate clusters of *Wolbachia*
337 sequences belonging to A, B and F supergroups (Supplementary Fig. 1). F supergroup was
338 represented by a single sequence from *Rhinocyllus conicus* (Curculionidae) (Supplementary Fig.
339 1). Sequences assigned to supergroup A (based on information available in the articles) were
340 found to be polyphyletic. Some *16S* sequences from *Xylosandrus* spp. and *Curculio* spp.
341 (Curculionidae), or *Oreina cacaliae* and *Galeruca tanacetii* (Chrysomelidae) clustered as a sister
342 lineage to all other A and B sequences (Supplementary Fig. 1). Overall, the diversity of *16S*
343 sequences assigned to supergroup B was much greater than those assigned to supergroup A
344 (Supplementary Fig. 1).

345 The tree reconstructed for *ftsZ* included 131 sequences found in 114 host beetle species.
346 The *ftsZ* phylogenetic tree resulted in a topology similar to that of *16S rDNA* – it included groups
347 of sequences belonging to A, B and F supergroups (Supplementary Fig. 2). Supergroup F was
348 represented by *Agrilus araxenus* and *Sphaerobothris aghababiani* (both Buprestidae). Moreover,
349 the supergroup B clade was divided into two clusters, among which one included a small group
350 of sequences found in four beetle hosts: *Chelymorpha alternans* (Chrysomelidae), *Eurymetopus*
351 *fallax*, *Sitophilus oryzae* and *Conotrachelus nenuphar* (all three Curculionidae) (Supplementary
352 Fig. 2). Also in this gene, the genetic variation of sequences belonging to supergroup A was
353 much lower, and only a few sequences were highly diverged (e.g. strains of *Callosobruchus*

354 *chinensis*, Chrysomelidae; *Tribolium confusum*, Tenebrionidae or *Polydrosus pilosus*,
355 Curculionidae) (Supplementary Fig. 2). There was also one slightly distinct clade that mainly
356 consisted of bacteria sequences found in some Hydraenidae, Curculionidae and Chrysomelidae
357 (Supplementary Fig. 2).

358 The *Wsp* tree was built for 100 sequences found in 82 hosts. This network resulted in two
359 clusters representing supergroups A and B; among the available sequences there were no
360 representatives of supergroup F (Supplementary Fig. 3). *Wsp* was found to be more diverse than
361 *16S* and *ftsZ*, as it had multiple distant lineages in both supergroups. Within supergroup B the
362 most distant lineage originated from the only *wsp* sequence found in *Callosobruchus analis*
363 (Chrysomelidae) (Supplementary Fig. 3). In this supergroup, two distinct clades could also be
364 delineated: one consisting of *Wolbachia* sequences found in a variety of beetle hosts and the
365 second mainly consisting of hosts from Curculionidae (*Otiorhynchus singularis*, *Sitophilus* spp.),
366 Chrysomelidae (*Callosobruchus* spp., *Acromis sparsa*) and Byturidae (*Byturus tomentosus*)
367 (Supplementary Fig. 3). Similarly, in supergroup A several distinct lineages could be delineated,
368 consisting of *Wolbachia* sequences found in e.g. *Ceutorhynchus obstrictus* (Curculionidae),
369 *Diabrotica* spp., *Oreina* spp. and *Aphthona* spp. (all Chrysomelidae) – which are all represented
370 by several strains (Supplementary Fig. 3).

371 The abovementioned phylogenetic reconstructions of the relations among *Wolbachia*
372 strains identified on the basis of polymorphism of several genes show that there is no strict
373 correlation between host phylogeny and bacterial strain relationships. Even in studies that
374 covered multiple related species (e.g. those belonging to the same genus), evidence for direct
375 inheritance of *Wolbachia* strains from common ancestors is restricted to Hydraenidae (Sontowski
376 et al., 2015) and some species of *Oreina* (Montagna et al., 2014) or *Curculio* (Toju et al., 2013).
377 In the case of *Altica*, the data show that cospeciation was rare and restricted to a few recently
378 diverged species (Jäckel et al., 2013). In contrast, there are numerous examples of
379 phylogenetically related beetle species possessing different *Wolbachia* strains (e.g. Lachowska et
380 al., 2010). It is also often the case among related species that some are infected, whereas others
381 not (*Crioceris*, Kubisz et al., 2012; *Oreina*, Montagna et al., 2014; *Cyanapion*, Kajtoch et al.,
382 2017); so any assumption that the bacteria was inherited from a common ancestor would also
383 need to consider multiple losses of infection. The latter phenomenon is probable; however, there

384 is no direct evidence from natural populations, at least in studies on beetles, of *Wolbachia*
385 disappearing over time. Some exemplary studies that found *Wolbachia* present in related species,
386 after detailed examination, rejected the idea that bacteria was inherited from a common ancestor.
387 This was because different host species harbored unrelated stains (e.g. among weevils,
388 Lachowska et al., 2010, Rodriguer et al., 2010a) or in cases where strains were identical or
389 similar, the hosts were not phylogenetically close to each other (e.g. *Crioceris*, Kubisz et al.,
390 2012). Finally, there is evermore proof of horizontal *Wolbachia* transmission via different
391 mechanisms, such as via predators, parasitoids, common habitat or foraging on the same host
392 plants (Huigens et al., 2004; Stahlhut et al., 2010; Caspi-Fluger et al., 2012; Ahmed et al., 2015;
393 Kolasa et al., 2017). Studies on beetles have mainly provided indirect evidence of such
394 transmissions. There are known groups of species that inhabit the same environments and share
395 the same or very similar *Wolbachia* strains, e.g. steppic weevils from East-central Europe (Mazur
396 et al., 2014) and bark beetles in Japane (Kawasaki et al., 2016). Recently, evidence for has also
397 appeared for the role of host plants in bacteria spread – *Wolbachia* DNA was detected in two
398 species of *Crioceris* leaf beetles and in their host plant – *Asparagus* spp. (Kolasa et al., 2017).

399 Finally, in light of the proposed “*Candidatus* *Wolbachia*” species, the summarized
400 phylogenetic relations among *Wolbachia* strains infecting various beetles indicate that the
401 taxonomic distinctiveness of supergroups is inconclusive (Ramírez-Puebla et al., 2015; Lindsey
402 et al., 2016). First, beetles generally harbor members of supergroups A and B, and only
403 occasionally members of supergroup F. Therefore, it is not possible to make any conclusions
404 about broader *Wolbachia* taxonomy based only on *Wolbachia* strains found in Coleoptera.
405 However, there are numerous examples of beetle hosts harboring both supergroups, including
406 beetles in which some *Wolbachia* genes are of supergroup A origin, while others are of
407 supergroup B origin; this indicates that recombination between strains belonging to different
408 supergroups is quite frequent. This is evidence against the designation of the “*Candidatus*
409 *Wolbachia*” species, at least with respect to members of supergroup A and B.

410 **Current gaps and future endeavors**

411 The present knowledge on *Wolbachia* infection across beetle species and populations is
412 very uneven. Even the basic data about infection statuses in species and frequencies of infected
413 species across genera and families is superficial, as there are only c. 200 beetle species known to

414 be infected. This means that if 38% is the average frequency of infection among beetle species,
415 then only c. 530 species have been tested so far. This is merely c. 0.15% of the total number of
416 beetles, which is estimated to be around 360 000 species (Farrell, 1998; Bouchard et al., 2009).
417 We know even less at the population level, as the majority of beetle species have only had single
418 individuals tested for *Wolbachia* infection (e.g. Lachowska et al., 2010, Sontowski et al., 2015).
419 These very basic screens have probably underestimated the number of infected species because
420 of false-negative results obtained for species with low or local infection in populations. On the
421 other hand, these preliminary estimates could have overestimated the real number infected
422 beetles, as sampling in these studies was rarely random and most often focused on specific
423 groups, e.g. on genera for which preliminary data suggested the presence of *Wolbachia* infection.
424 Indeed, an intensive search of *Wolbachia* infection across hundreds of beetle species from
425 Europe suggested a lower infection rate – c. 27% to be infected (Kajtoch et al., unpublished).
426 Also, knowledge about infection at the geographic scale is very uneven, and only Europe and
427 Asia (basically China and Japan) have been relatively well investigated. There is a huge gap in
428 the knowledge for African, Australian and Oceanian beetles, where a high diversity of beetles
429 exists and probably a similar diversity of *Wolbachia* could be expected (e.g. compared to
430 preliminary data available from Central and South America (Werren et al., 1995; Rodriguer et
431 al., 2010a)).

432 Little is known about *Wolbachia* diversity in beetle hosts, as the majority of studies used
433 only single genetic markers, and often different genes were sequenced for different taxa. This
434 precludes complex analysis of *Wolbachia* diversity across all tested beetle hosts. This has
435 changed since 2006, since Baldo et al., (2006) proposed Multilocus Sequence Typing (MLST),
436 which is based on the genotyping of five housekeeping genes, usually in conjunction with *wsp*
437 sequencing. MLST is and should remain a sufficient way to understand basic *Wolbachia*
438 diversity. On the other hand, to fully understand *Wolbachia* relations among strains and
439 supergroups (or presumed species), between *Wolbachia* and its hosts and especially between
440 *Wolbachia* and other microorganisms, amplicon-sequencing (e.g. *16S* rDNA) or genome-
441 sequencing are needed. This could be achieved thanks to the development of next-generation
442 sequencing technologies (NGS). Surprisingly, despite fast development of NGS in the last years,
443 very few studies have used this technology for studying *Wolbachia* in beetle populations. For
444 example, five studies sequenced *16S* amplicons generated from microbiota and detected

445 *Wolbachia* (White et al., 2015; Bili et al., 2016; Berasategui et al., 2016; Takano et al., 2017;
446 Dudek et al., 2017). The only single study that utilized shotgun sequencing was executed for
447 other purposes and also accidentally showed *Wolbachia* genes in examined species (Heintzman
448 et al., 2014). NGS is probably the best prospect for studies on *Wolbachia* infection and diversity,
449 and will help to answer most current riddles and issues.

450 The big challenge is to understand the impact of infection on beetle biology, physiology
451 and ecology. It is known that *Wolbachia* has several effects on host reproduction, but relatively
452 few studies prove or suggest e.g. cytoplasmic incompatibility, male-killing or other effects on the
453 development of selected beetles (Clark et al., 2001; Keller et al., 2004 Roehrdanz et al., 2006
454 Roehrdanz & Levine 2007 Sharaf et al., 2010 Zhang et al., 2010; Jäckel et al., 2013; Ming et al.,
455 2015; Kawasaki et al., 2016; Li et al., 2016; Mariño et al., 2017; Numajiri et al., 2017; Takano
456 et al., 2017). It is very probable that this bacteria has large and frequent effects on beetle
457 reproduction and is consequently partially responsible for beetle radiation, at least in some
458 taxonomic groups, geographic areas or habitats. Also very few studies have shown data on
459 linkage disequilibrium and selective sweep between bacteria and host genomes (Roehrdanz et al.,
460 2006; Rodriguero et al., 2010b; Kajtoch et al., 2012; Jäckel et al., 2013; et al. Mazur et al.,
461 2016). These effects could also have led to the speciation of numerous beetles. Moreover, this
462 phenomenon could have serious implications for beetle barcoding, as selective sweep is known
463 to reduce mitochondrial diversity in its hosts and therefore could decrease the number of
464 identified species (Hurst & Jiggins, 2005). On the other hand, cytoplasmic incompatibility can
465 lead to the origin of highly diverged phylogenetic mitochondrial lineages within species, which
466 would increase the number of identified taxa (Smith et al., 2012). Also here, NGS technologies
467 will enable more sophisticated analyses of these genetic relations and their effects (e.g. by the
468 sequencing of transcriptomes for physiological studies or by genotyping-by-sequencing for
469 phylogenetic studies). Genotyping with NGS should also verify whether the recent assumption
470 that different supergroups are indeed “*Candidatus Wolbachia*” species is correct or not
471 (Ramírez-Puebla et al., 2015; Lindsey et al., 2016).

472 Only very preliminary results suggested *Wolbachia* was not only transmitted vertically,
473 but that it could also have spread horizontally (Jäckel et al., 2013; Carvalho et al., 2014;
474 Kawasaki et al., 2016; Kolasa et al., 2017; Mazur et al., 2017). In light of the general lack of

475 cospeciation between bacteria and beetles, horizontal transmission must be a highly
476 underestimated phenomenon. Horizontal transmission of *Wolbachia* among beetles, cannot be
477 confirmed without considering other coexisting insects that can mediate transmission, such as
478 predators, parasitoids or beetle prey. Moreover, other arthropods that share habitats with beetles,
479 e.g. phoretic ticks (Hartelt et al., 2004) and nematodes (Casiraghi et al., 2001), need to be
480 examined. Finally, host plants are promising objects of studies on *Wolbachia* transmission across
481 beetle populations (Kolasa et al., 2017), as phloem is probably an important mediator of this
482 bacteria's spread across insect populations (DeLay, 2012; Li et al., 2016). Concerning
483 transmission – another very interesting topic is the transfer of *Wolbachia* genes into host
484 genomes (Dunning Hotopp et al., 2007; Koutsovoulos et al., 2014; Funkhouser-Jones et al.,
485 2015). This issue has only been reported twice for beetle hosts so far (Nikoh et al., 2008; Aikawa
486 et al., 2009). This problem could be important as if such transfers are frequent, simple testing of
487 *Wolbachia* presence in a host based on single or even several gene sequencing could
488 overestimate the number of truly infected species, populations or individuals.

489 Finally, a very interesting topic for future studies is the examination of the presence of
490 other intracellular and symbiotic bacteria (like *Cardinium*, *Spiroplasma*, *Rickettsia*), in
491 Coleoptera and their relations, both with the host and *Wolbachia*. So far, only three studies have
492 found *Wolbachia* with *Rickettsia* and/or *Spiroplasma* together in beetle hosts (Majerus et al.,
493 2000; Weinert et al., 2007; Toju & Fukatsu 2011; White et al., 2015; Perotti et al., 2016; Bili et
494 al., 2016; Dudek et al., 2017). Preliminary results suggest that there is some balance in the
495 number of these bacteria, probably caused by competition within host cells (Goto et al., 2006). A
496 recent summary of the presence of these bacteria in insects showed that *Rickettsia* has been
497 found in single species of Micromalthidae, Staphylinidae, Buprestidae, Coccinellidae and
498 Curculionidae (Werren et al., 1994; Lawson et al., 2001; Weinert et al., 2007; Toju & Fukatsu
499 2011; White et al., 2015; Perotti et al., 2016; Bili et al., 2016), *Spiroplasma* in some species of
500 Staphylinidae, Coccinellidae and Curculionidae (Majerus et al., 1998; Hurst et al., 1999; Tinsley
501 & Majerus, 2006; Weinert et al., 2007; Toju & Fukatsu 2011; Bili et al., 2016), and *Cardinium*
502 has not been detected so far in any beetle species (Zchori-Fein et al., 2004). The coexistence of
503 different endosymbiotic bacteria and their effects on hosts should also be investigated with NGS
504 technologies, which are able to detect bacteria in numerous hosts (e.g. individuals) at once and
505 estimate prevalence of bacteria in various hosts or different tissues. NGS has already been

506 proven to be a powerful tool for detecting undescribed bacteria (e.g. it allowed the identification
507 of new Alphaproteobacteria in *Brontispa longissimi*; Takano et al., 2017). Different
508 endosymbiotic bacteria could have either similar or contrasting effects on beetle species,
509 populations and individuals and could be the greatest overlooked phenomenon in the evolution
510 and ecology of Coleoptera.

511 In our opinion, beetles are still an insufficiently examined group of *Wolbachia* hosts,
512 especially considering their systematic and ecological diversity. All issues in studies on
513 *Wolbachia* in Coleoptera are generally the same as in other hosts of these bacteria, or *vice versa*;
514 there is no issue that has been or is being studied on *Wolbachia* infection in other (non-beetle)
515 hosts that could not also be examined in beetle hosts. And the extraordinary diversity of beetles
516 (with respect to their diverse systematics at various taxonomic levels, complex phylogenetic
517 relations and extensive ecological relations with each other and numerous other species) makes
518 this group an excellent target for *Wolbachia* studies. The presented summary about *Wolbachia*
519 infection in beetles shows that despite numerous studies, there are still many issues that need to
520 be investigated. We hope that this systematic review will facilitate various future studies on
521 *Wolbachia* infection among beetles.

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531

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- 944

Table 1 (on next page)

Image of share of *Wolbachia* infected species among families and genera of examined beetles.

Table 1: Share of *Wolbachia* infected species among families and genera of examined beetles. Only taxonomic groups for which at least two species were tested are presented.

family	N of examined	% of infected	genus	N of examined	% of infected	genus	N of examined	% of infected
Buprestidae	61	23.0	<i>Archarius</i>	6	16.7	<i>Ilybius</i>	2	0.0
Chrysomelidae	84	45.2	<i>Atrichonotus</i>	2	50.0	<i>Julodis</i>	2	0.0
Curculionidae	137	41.6	<i>Barypeithes</i>	9	11.0	<i>Koreoculio</i>	2	50.0
Dytiscidae	36	16.7	<i>Brachysomus</i>	4	0.0	<i>Laccophilus</i>	2	0.0
Gyrinidae	3	33.3	<i>Buprestis</i>	3	0.0	<i>Limnebius</i>	7	28.6
Haliplidae	2	50.0	<i>Byturus</i>	3	33.0	<i>Longitarsus</i>	3	100.0
Hydraenidae	27	63.0	<i>Callosbruchus</i>	3	33.3	<i>Meliboeus</i>	2	0.0
Hydrophilidae	12	16.7	<i>Callosobruchus</i>	7	33.0	<i>Naupactus</i>	16	69.0
Noteridae	2	100.0	<i>Capnodis</i>	3	33.3	<i>Neoglanis</i>	2	0.0
Tenebrionidae	11	9.1	<i>Charidotella</i>	2	50.0	<i>Ochthebius</i>	12	41.7
subfamily	N of examined	% of infected	<i>Chrysobothris</i>	3	33.3	<i>Oreina</i>	5	80.0
Bruchinae	24	16.7	<i>Crioceris</i>	5	40.0	<i>Otiorhynchus</i>	4	50.0
Galerucinae	12	25.0	<i>Curculio</i>	23	17.4	<i>Pantomorus</i>	3	100.0
Curculionidae	36	16.7	<i>Cyanapion</i>	6	50.0	<i>Polydrosus</i>	4	75.0
Scolytinae	23	34.8	<i>Deronectes</i>	11	45.4	<i>Rhantus</i>	2	0.0
genus	N of examined	% of infected	<i>Diabrotica</i>	12	25.0	<i>Rhinusa</i>	3	33.3
<i>Acalymma</i>	2	100.0	<i>Dorytomus</i>	3	67.0	<i>Sciaphobus</i>	2	50.0
<i>Acmaeodera</i>	5	0.0	<i>Eurymetopus</i>	2	100.0	<i>Sitophilus</i>	3	100.0
<i>Acmaeoderella</i>	4	0.0	<i>Gyrinus</i>	3	33.0	<i>Sphenoptera</i>	11	9.1
<i>Agabus</i>	6	16.7	<i>Haliplus</i>	3	33.0	<i>Strophosoma</i>	3	67.0
<i>Agrius</i>	34	17.6	<i>Helophorus</i>	3	0.0	<i>Trachypteris</i>	2	0.0
<i>Altica</i>	16	88.0	<i>Hydraena</i>	24	33.3	<i>Trachys</i>	6	16.7
<i>Anthaxia</i>	6	16.7	<i>Hydroporus</i>	5	0.0	<i>Tribolium</i>	8	12.5
<i>Aramigus</i>	3	100.0	<i>Hygrotus</i>	5	20.0			

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Figure 1(on next page)

Prisma flow-diagram for literature on Wolbachia-Coleoptera relations included in this study.

Figure 1: Prisma flow-diagram (see Moher et al., 2009) for literature on Wolbachia-Coleoptera relations included in this study.

IDENTIFICATION

SCREENING

ELIGIBILITY

INCLUDED

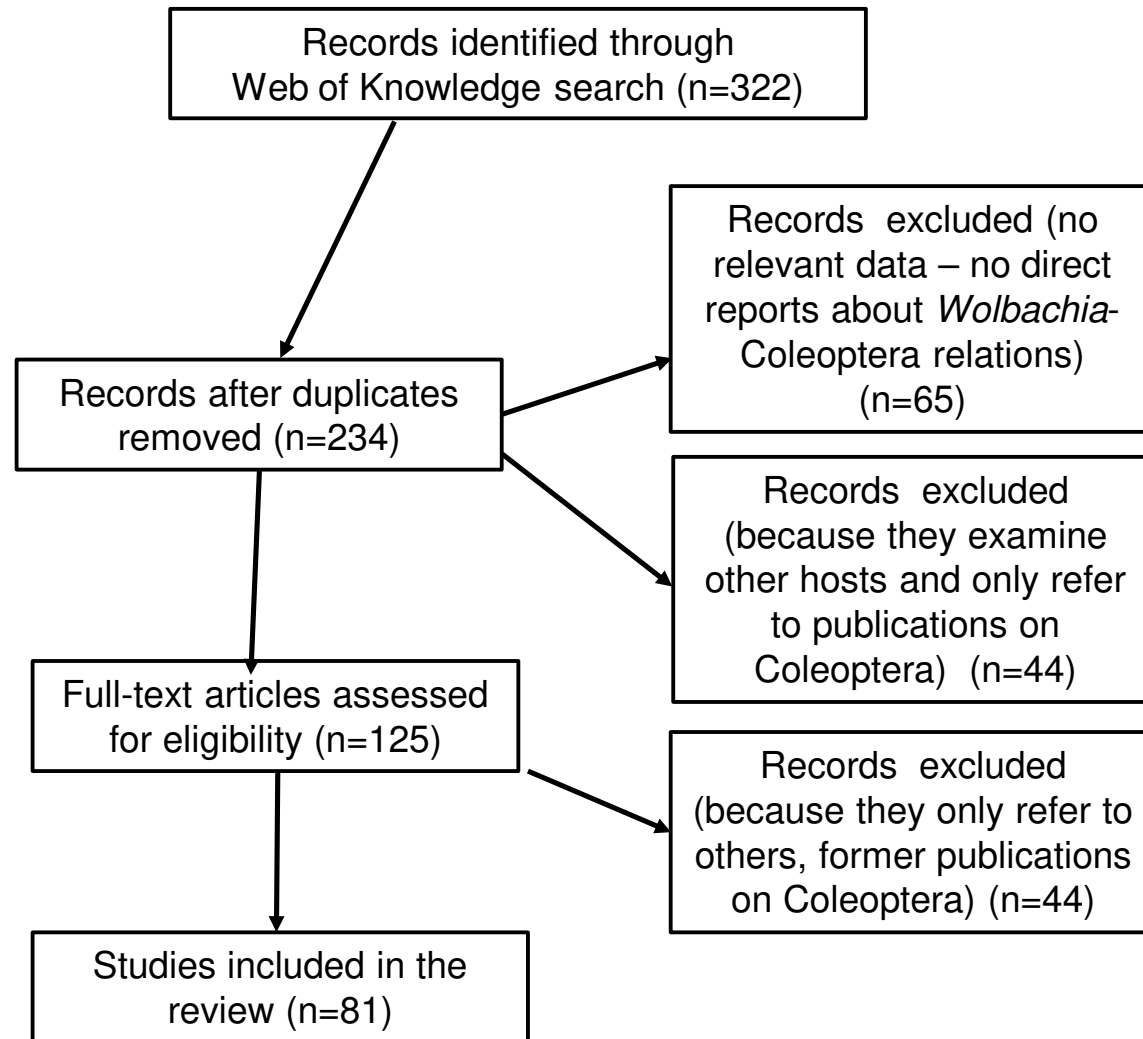


Figure 1 Prisma flow-diagram (see Moher et al., 2009) for literature included in this study. Flowdiagram for literature on *Wolbachia*-Coleoptera relations included in this study.

Figure 2 (on next page)

Image of change in the number of publications considering *Wolbachia* infection among Coleoptera.

Figure 2: Change in the number of publications considering *Wolbachia* infection among Coleoptera.

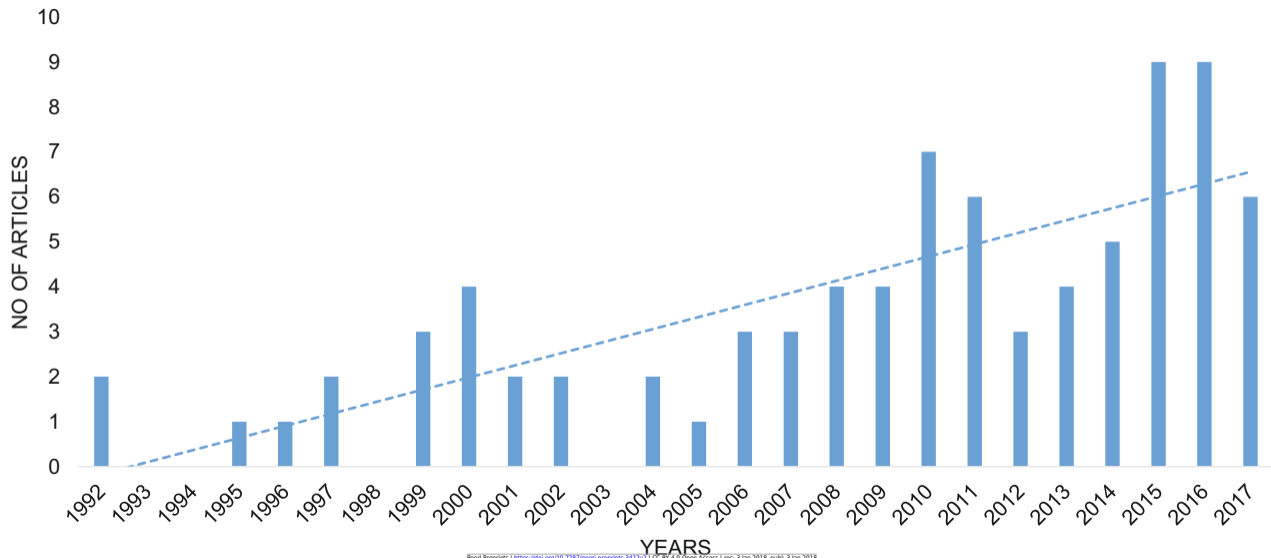


Figure 3(on next page)

Image of number of publications that described *Wolbachia* infection among Coleoptera and number of infected beetle species.

Figure 3: Number of publications that described *Wolbachia* infection among Coleoptera and number of infected beetle species. Both are shown with respect to the zoogeography of the examined hosts (from which continent the host was collected).)

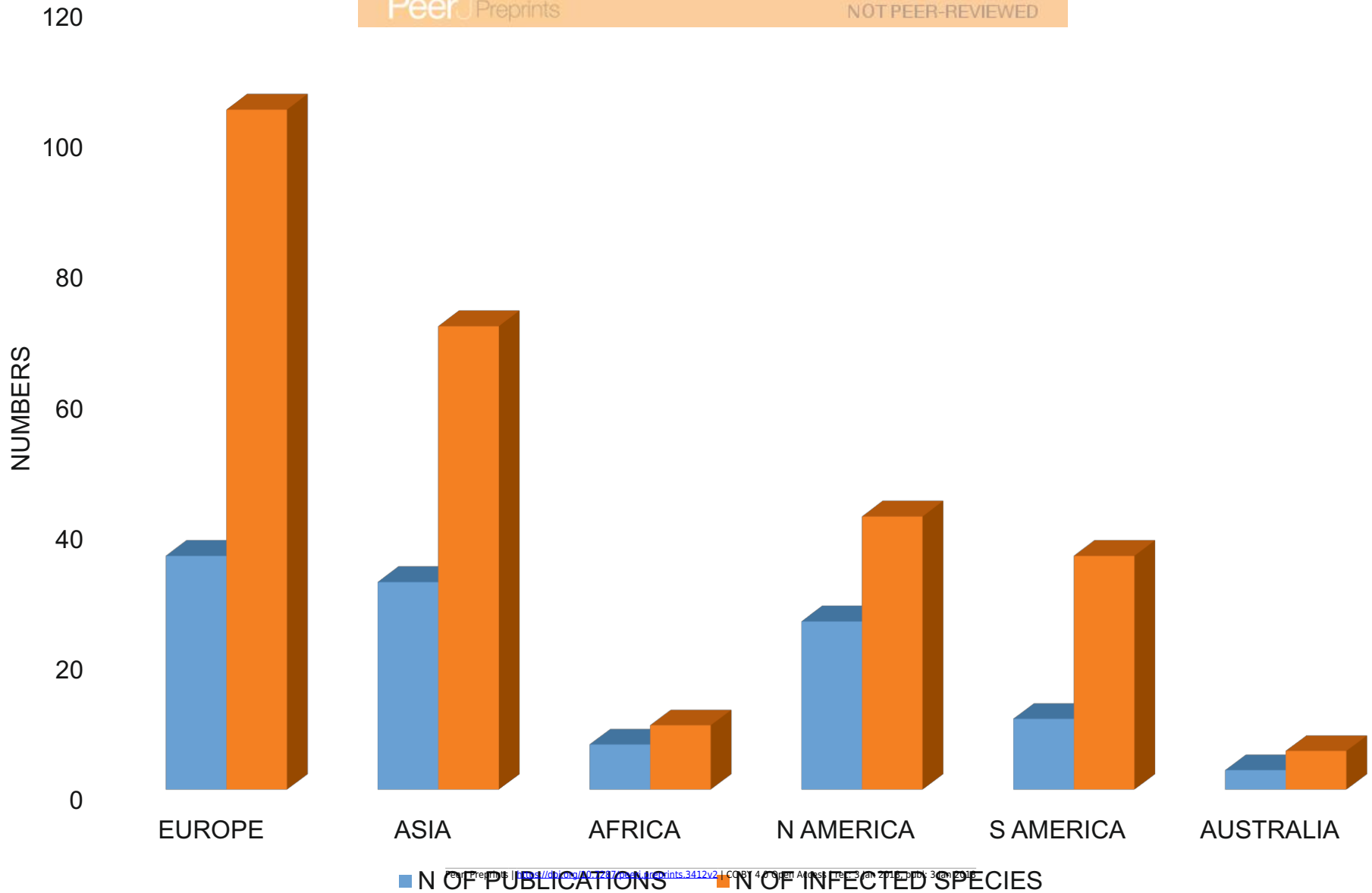
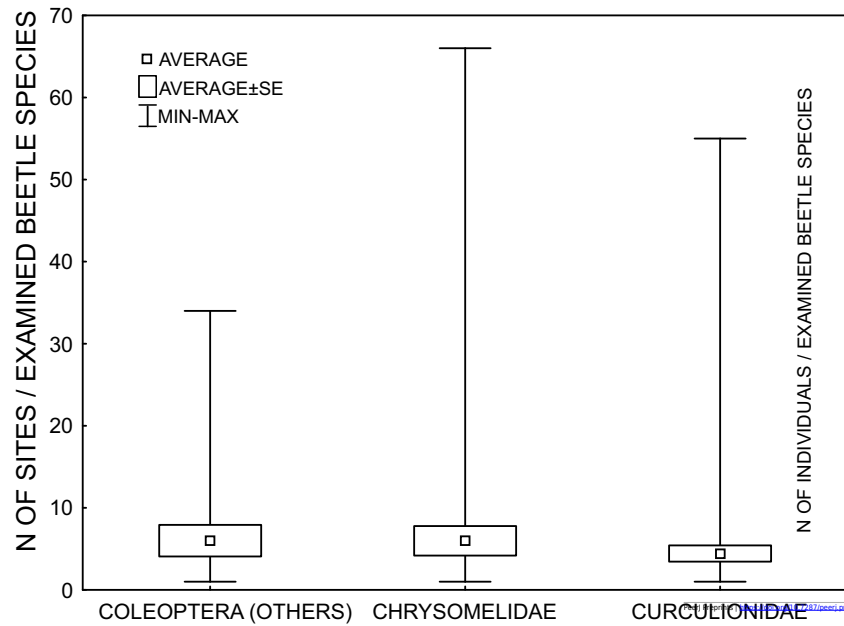


Figure 4(on next page)

Image of numbers of sites and numbers of individuals of beetles examined with respect to *Wolbachia* infection.

Figure 4: Numbers of sites and numbers of individuals of beetles examined with respect to *Wolbachia* infection. P - Man-Whitney test p-values.



N OF INDIVIDUALS / EXAMINED BEETLE SPECIES

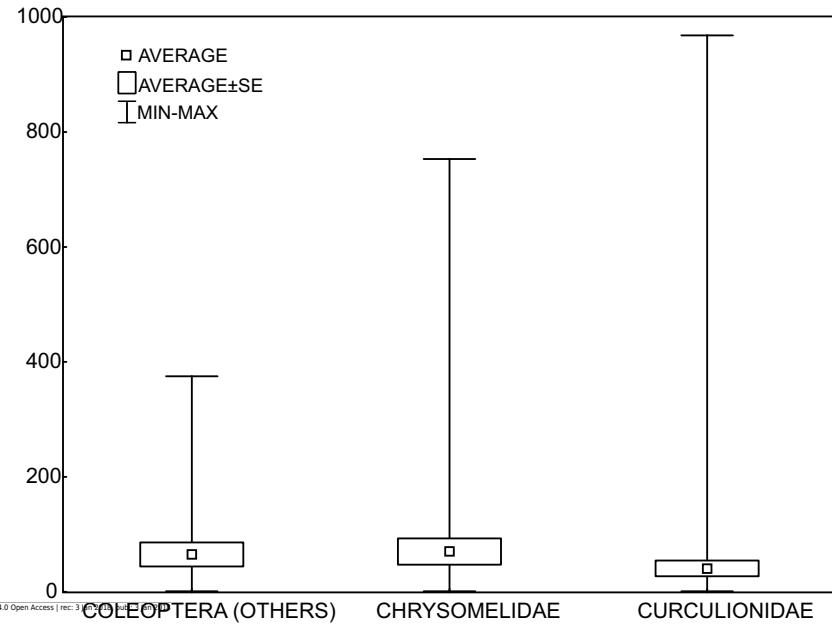


Figure 5 (on next page)

Image of shares of *Wolbachia* genes used in studies on *Wolbachia* infection among Coleoptera.

Figure 5: Shares of *Wolbachia* genes used in studies on *Wolbachia* infection among Coleoptera.

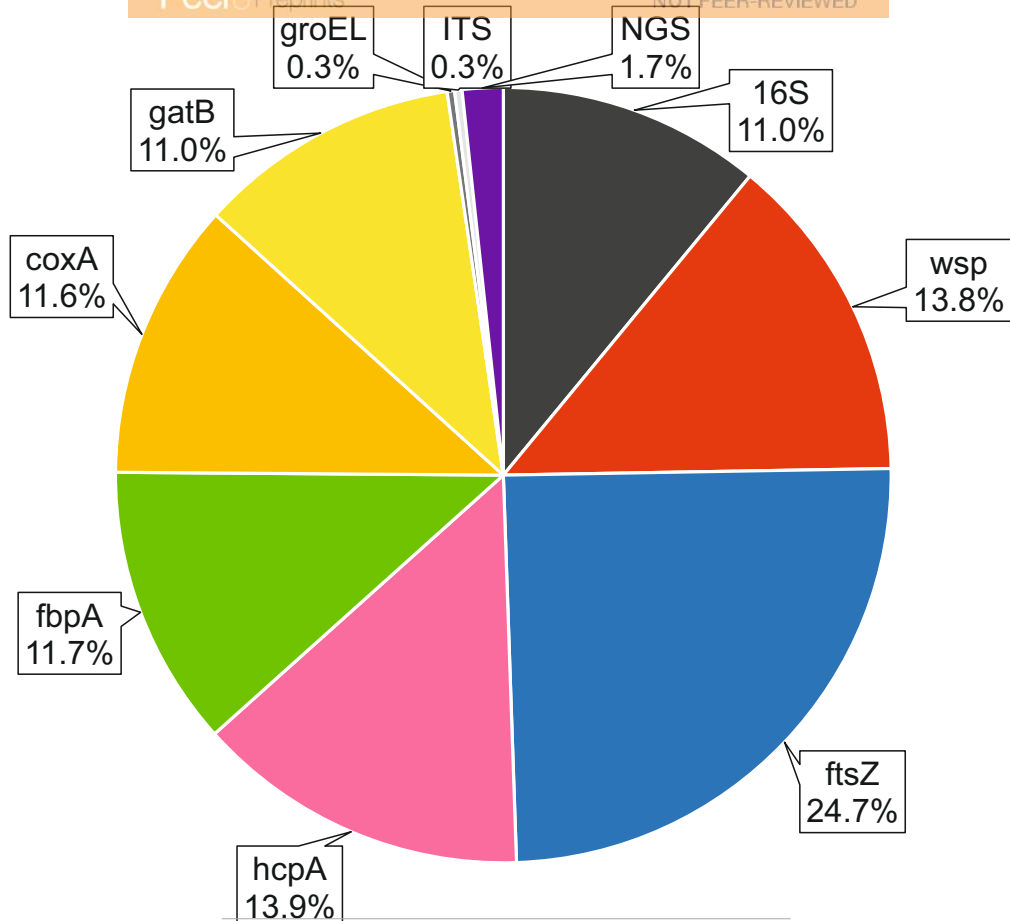


Figure 6(on next page)

Image of shares of *Wolbachia* infected beetle species across the examined families of Coleoptera.

Figure 6: Shares of *Wolbachia* infected beetle species across the examined families of Coleoptera. The numbers presented after the family names indicate the number of infected species.

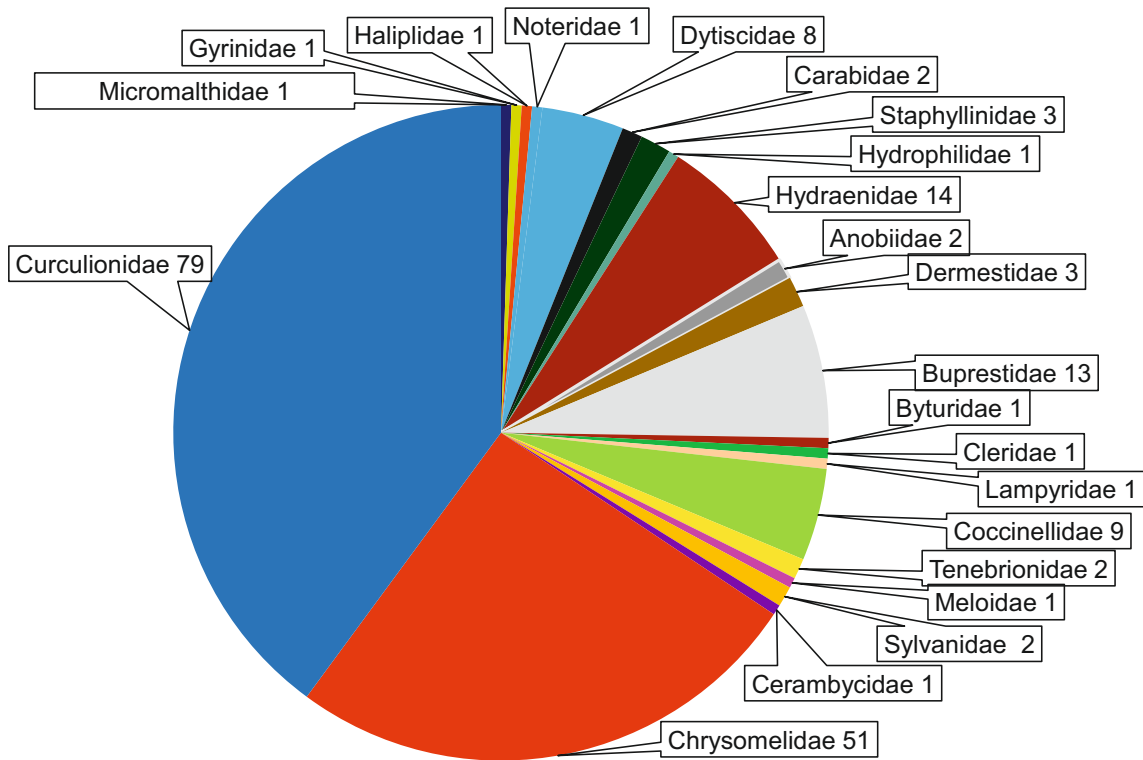


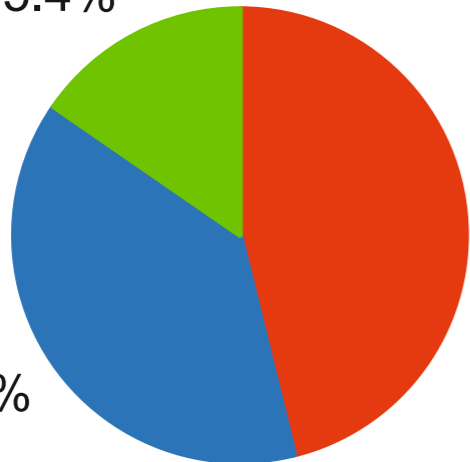
Figure 7 (on next page)

Image of shares of beetles infected by *Wolbachia* supergroups (A, B, F).

Figure 7: Shares of beetles infected by *Wolbachia* supergroups (A, B, F). [Beetle photographs are from ICONOGRAPHIA COLEOPTERORUM POLONIAE (© Copyright by Prof. Lech Borowiec)]

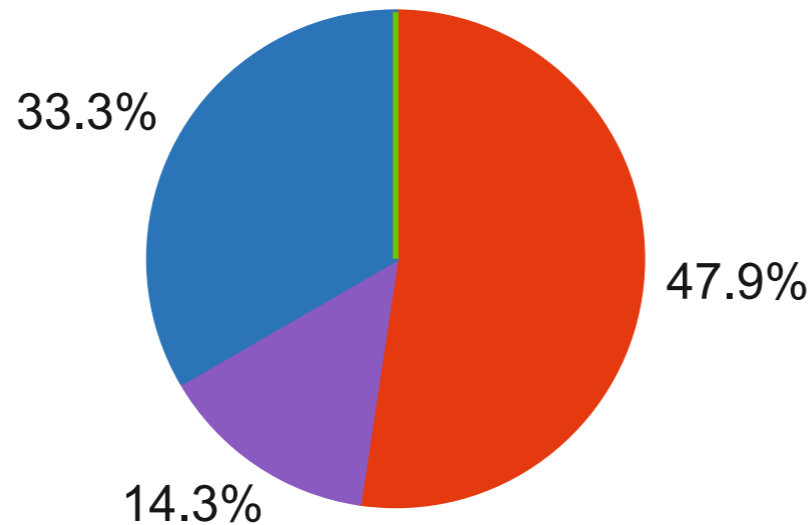
BUPRESTIDAE

15.4%



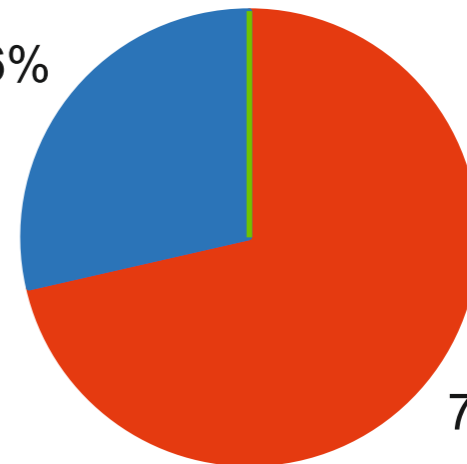
COLEOPTERA (OTHERS)

33.3%



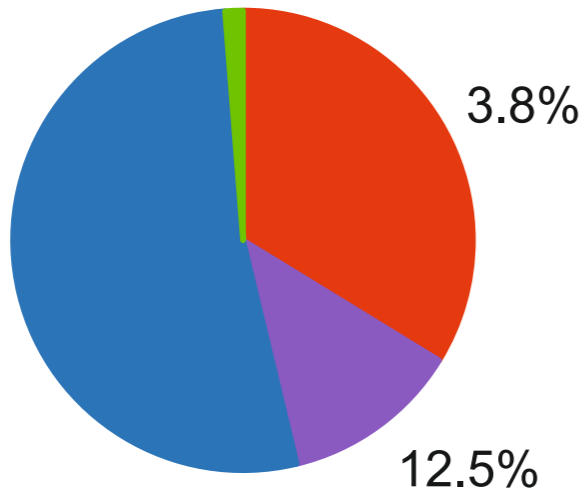
HYDRAENIDAE

28.6%



CURCULIONIDAE

1.3%

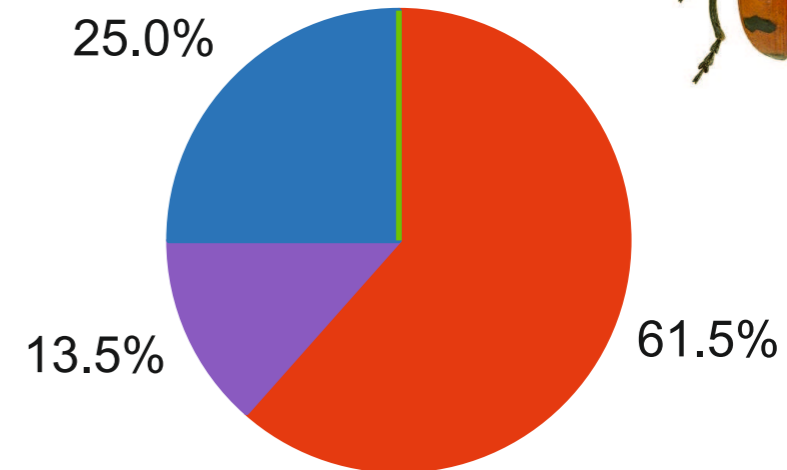


52.5%

Legend: A (red), AB (purple), B (blue), F (green)

CHRYSOMELIDAE

25.0%

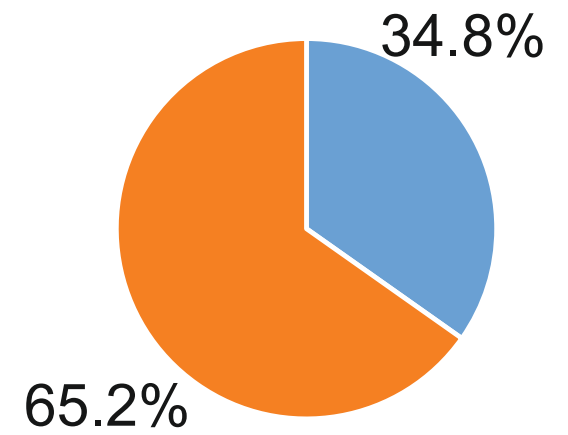
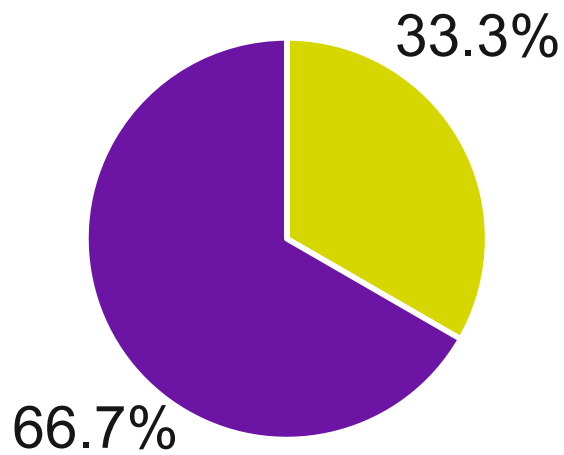
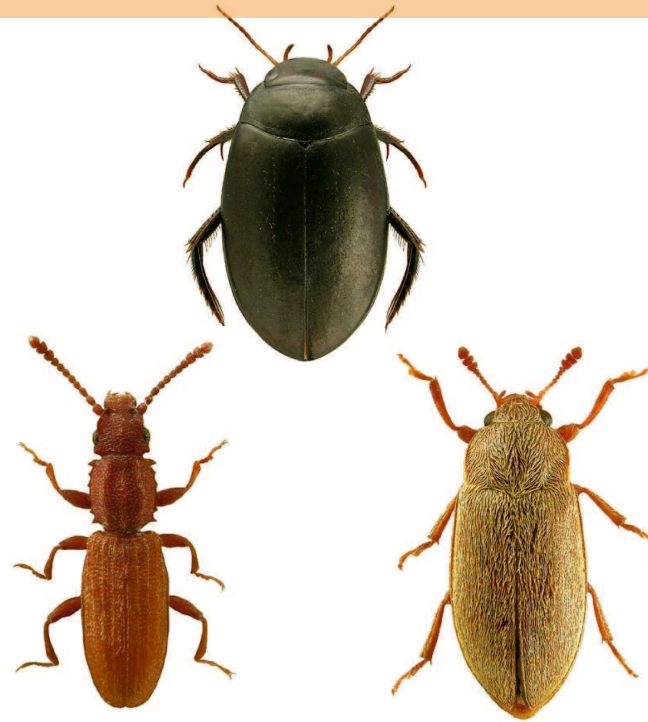


61.5%

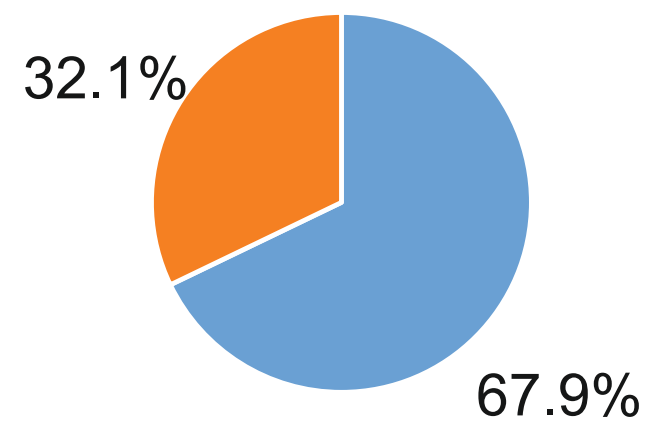
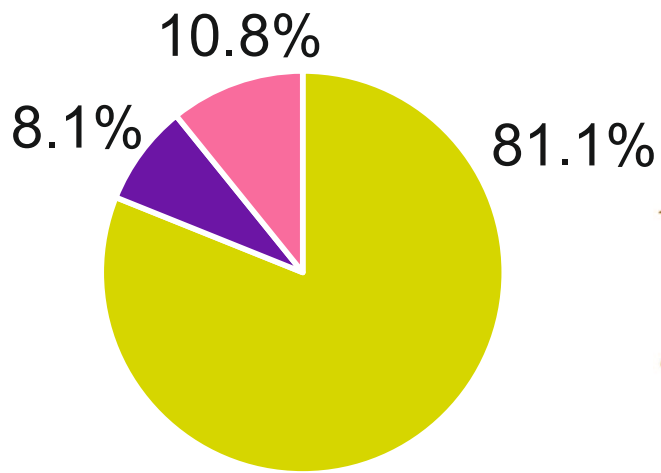
Figure 8(on next page)

Image of diversity of *Wolbachia* infection in Coleoptera with respect to shares of infected individuals within species and numbers of strains found in beetles.

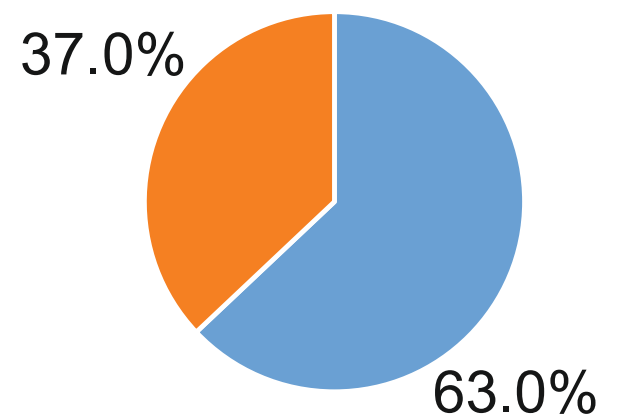
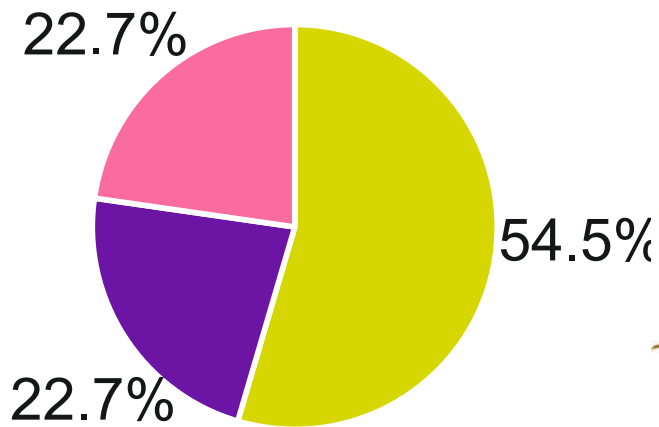
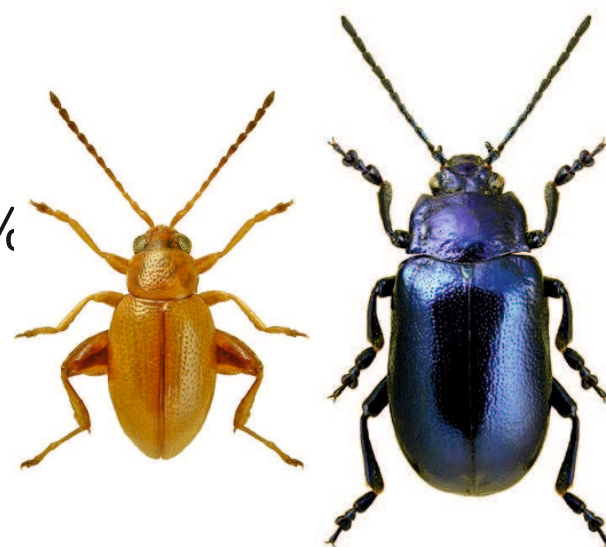
Figure 8: Diversity of *Wolbachia* infection in Coleoptera with respect to shares of infected individuals within species and numbers of strains found in beetles. [Beetle photographs are from ICONOGRAPHIA COLEOPTERORUM POLONIAE (© Copyright by Prof. Lech Borowiec)]



CURCULIONIDAE



CHRYSOMELIDAE



1 STRAIN

2 STRAINS

MULTIPLE STRAINS

ALL INFECTED

SOME INFECTED