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1 **First record of the bacterial endosymbiont *Wolbachia* for phytophagous hoverflies from**
2 **genus *Merodon* (Diptera, Syrphidae)**

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22 **Abstract.** *Wolbachia* is a widespread bacterial endosymbiont among arthropod species. It
23 influences the reproduction of the host species and also mtDNA diversity. Until now there
24 were only a few studies which detected *Wolbachia* infections in hoverflies (Diptera,
25 Syrphidae), and this is the first broader study with the aim to examine the incidence of
26 *Wolbachia* in the hoverfly genus *Merodon*. The obtained results indicate an infection rate of
27 96% and the presence of both *Wolbachia* supergroup A and B, which are characteristic for
28 most of the infected arthropod species. Additionally, the presence of multiple *Wolbachia*
29 strains in the *M. aureus* group species was detected and the mtDNA *COI* based relationships
30 of the group were discussed in the light of infection. Finally, we discuss plant mediated
31 horizontal transmission of *Wolbachia* strains among the studied hoverfly species.

32 **Keywords:** 16S rRNA gene, *Drimia maritima*, *Merodon aureus* group, *wsp*.

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43 INTRODUCTION

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45 The hoverflies (Diptera, Syrphidae) are a widely distributed insect family present almost
46 everywhere in the world except on the Antarctic and remote oceanic islands (Thompson &
47 Rotheray, 1988). The hoverfly genus *Merodon* Meigen, 1903 (subfamily Eristalinae) is
48 distributed over Palaearctic and Palaeotropical regions (Hurkmans 1993). The immature
49 stages of *Merodon* species develop in and feed on underground storage organs of geophytes
50 of the families Asparagaceae, Iridaceae and Amaryllidaceae (Andrić *et al.* 2014; Ricarte *et al.*
51 2008, 2017; Preradović *et al.* 2018). Adults morphologically mimic hymenopterans and feed
52 on pollen and nectar (Hurkmans 1993). The genus comprises more than 160 species (Ståhls *et*
53 *al.* 2009; Vujić *et al.* 2012), however, the real number of *Merodon* species is still unknown
54 considering high level of diversity and detected presence of cryptic species (e.g. Milankov *et*
55 *al.* 2008, 2009; Radenković *et al.* 2011; Vujić *et al.* 2012; Popović *et al.* 2015; Ačanski *et al.*
56 2016; Šašić *et al.* 2016, 2018; Veselić *et al.* 2017).

57 The *Merodon aureus* hoverfly species group is taxonomically especially challenging, as it
58 comprises a high genetic diversity with minor or lacking differences in morphological traits
59 (Šašić *et al.* 2016). The group comprises species morphologically close to *M. aureus*
60 Fabricius, 1805. The members of the taxa are small sized (8-13 mm), with a short, rounded
61 abdomen, a distinct spike on the metatrochanter in males and a characteristic structure of the
62 male genitalia (Vujić *et al.* 2007; Radenković *et al.* 2011). Until recently, the group
63 comprised altogether 18 previously-known and newly-discovered taxa from the
64 Mediterranean region and southern European mountain regions (Marcos-García *et al.* 2007;
65 Vujić *et al.* 2007; Milankov *et al.* 2008; Radenković *et al.* 2011; Speight, 2014), while new
66 data indicates the presence of additional species (Šašić *et al.* 2016, 2018; Veselić *et al.* 2017;
67 Radenković *et al.* 2018).

68 The first results about molecular diversity of *Merodon aureus* group were based on analyses
69 of 3' and 5' fragments of the mtDNA *COI* gene and suggested the presence of multiple
70 cryptic species complexes within the group. The morphological character states usually used
71 in taxonomy of hoverflies mostly failed to discern these potential species (Šašić *et al.* 2016;
72 Radenković *et al.* 2017). However, subtle differences in wing and surstylus shape were
73 detected using geometric morphometry (see Ačanski *et al.* 2016; Šašić *et al.* 2016;
74 Radenković *et al.* 2017). Maximum likelihood (ML) analysis of *COI* sequences including
75 representatives of all potential complexes from *M. aureus* species group revealed deep
76 divergences between morphologically close species (Fig. 1). The obtained molecular
77 evidence showed clear conflict with the morphologically defined subgroups and/or species
78 complexes (Vujić, personal communication; Šašić *et al.* 2016; Radenković *et al.* 2017).

79 **Figure 1.**

80 Over the last few decades, mtDNA has been the most popular marker for quantifying
81 molecular diversity, as the marker contains a combination of technical benefits (ease of
82 amplification), and supposed biological and evolutionary advantages such as clonality, near-
83 neutrality and often clocklike nature of its substitution rate. However, mtDNA is not always
84 clonal, not neutrally evolving and not clocklike, which brings into question its use in
85 recovering recent species and population histories (e.g. Galtier *et al.* 2009). In addition to
86 these limitations of use, the taxonomic utility of the maternally inherited mitochondrial
87 genome could be compromised by the presence of symbiotic bacteria, which pass from a
88 female to its offspring (Galtier *et al.* 2009). The most important of the so-called “reproductive
89 parasites” is *Wolbachia pipientis* (Alphaproteobacteria: Rickettsiales: Rickettsiaceae), which
90 is facultative endosymbiont estimated to have infected more than half of arthropod species
91 (Weinert *et al.* 2015). Although other bacterial reproductive parasites are also known
92 (*Cardinium*, *Arsenophonus*, *Rickettsia*, *Spiroplasma*), *Wolbachia* is the most abundant

93 endosymbiont among arthropod species and with broadest range of host reproductive
94 phenotypes including induction of cytoplasmic incompatibility, feminisation of genetic males,
95 parthenogenesis and male killing (Duron *et al.* 2008; Zug & Hammerstein, 2012).

96 According to molecular phylogenetic analyses *Wolbachia pipientis* has been divided into
97 seventeen clades (A-R, except G which is recombinant of A and B supergroups), termed
98 supergroups (Werren *et al.* 1995; Bandi *et al.* 1998; Vandekerckhove *et al.* 1999; Lo *et al.*
99 2002, 2007; Czarnetzki & Tebbe 2004; Baldo & Werren, 2007; Bordenstein *et al.* 2009;
100 Haegeman *et al.* 2009; Ros *et al.* 2009; Augustinos *et al.* 2011; Bing *et al.* 2014; Glowska *et*
101 *al.* 2015; Wang *et al.* 2016). The supergroups taxonomic status was discussed in Ramírez-
102 Puebla *et al.* (2015) who suggested that *Wolbachia* supergroups represent separate
103 evolutionary lineages and that they should be designated as species. They also indicated that
104 some of the supergroups could contain more than one *Wolbachia* species. The proposed
105 nomenclature is criticized by Lindsey *et al.* (2016) as inadequate and confusing.

106 *Wolbachia* is probably the most widespread endosymbiont of arthropods and nematodes
107 (Charlat *et al.* 2003; Werren *et al.* 2008). Recent studies estimated 19% to 76% infection
108 rates of *Wolbachia* among arthropod species (Jeyaprakash & Hoy, 2000; Werren & Windsor,
109 2000; Hilgenboecker *et al.* 2008; Werren *et al.* 2008; Simões *et al.* 2011; Weinert *et al.* 2015;
110 Zug & Hammerstein, 2012). The evolutionary success is achieved through a variety of effects
111 on host biology, ranging from manipulation of reproduction in favor of females to mutualistic
112 interactions with host species. *Wolbachia* interact with host sex-determination systems and
113 the cell cycle, and its effect on host populations can frame sexual behaviors and species
114 diversity (Charlat *et al.* 2003). The infection is maternally inherited via infection of
115 developing oocytes or it can be a consequence of horizontal transmission (Werren, 1997). It
116 is most likely to find *Wolbachia* in ovaries, although it can also occur at high intensities in the

117 fat body and other tissues (e. g. Werren, 1997; Dobson *et al.* 1999; Albertson *et al.* 2009;
118 Pietri *et al.* 2016).

119 The first test for the presence of *Wolbachia* in hoverfly species (Syrphidae) was the study of
120 Werren and Windsor (2000) who found that the Nearctic species *Milesia virginensis* tested
121 negative for the presence of *ftsZ* bacterial cell-cycle gene of *Wolbachia*. In 2006, Sintupachee
122 *et al.* found *Syrirta rufifacies* negative for the *ftsZ*, but the species *Graptomyza brevirostris*
123 (Eristalinae: Volucellini) tested positive for both *ftsZ* and a *Wolbachia* surface protein (*wsp*)
124 genes. Evison *et al.* (2012) screened pollinator groups in the UK for different groups of
125 parasites including *Wolbachia*, and among the tested species they included four species of
126 hoverflies, *Rhingia campestris* (Eristalinae: Rhingiini), *Eristalis arbustorum* and *E. tenax*
127 (Eristalinae: Eristalini) and *Episyrphus balteatus* (Syrphinae: Syrphini), which all were
128 positive for the tested *CoxA* primers. However, the current molecular taxonomy of hoverflies
129 and applying mitochondrial markers neglect the potential bias of *Wolbachia* on the results
130 and do not contain any *Wolbachia* screening test.

131 In this study, we estimate the incidence of *Wolbachia* in the genus *Merodon* (Diptera,
132 Syrphidae) using samples from recent field collections across South European countries,
133 Austria, Romania, Turkey, Iran, Morocco and the South African Republic. We amplified and
134 sequenced bacterial marker genes (16S rRNA gene and *wsp* gene) with the aim to assign
135 *Wolbachia* supergroups present in *Merodon* hoverflies. We particularly focus on the
136 screening of *M. aureus* group species in the light of the observed high mtDNA *COI* gene
137 variability, which is incongruent with morphological invariability in several species
138 complexes, and test for coevolution between *M. aureus* group and *Wolbachia* strains
139 infecting the species of the group. Additionally, we performed screening of host plant bulb
140 with the aim to prove the presence of *Wolbachia* in plant tissue and discuss potential
141 horizontal transmission via bulb.

142

143 **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

144 **Specimens analyzed**

145 The hoverfly specimens were collected from 2012 to 2016 and identified to the species, or
146 subgroup (*Merodon aureus* group specimens) level (by Dr Ante Vujić and according to Šašić
147 *et al.* 2016; Radenković *et al.* 2017). The bulb of *Drimia maritima* (syn. *Urginea maritima*)
148 which is a host plant of *M. luteihumerus* larvae was collected in March 2017. All the data
149 about collected samples are provided in Table S1.

150

151 **DNA extraction**

152 DNA extractions of 2 - 3 legs and separately of abdomens of the hoverfly specimens was
153 performed by using the SDS extraction protocol according to Chen *et al.* (2010). The gDNA
154 extracted from legs were used for *Wolbachia* specific 16SrRNA gene amplification, while the
155 gDNA extracted from abdomens were used for *Wolbachia wsp* gene amplification. The main
156 reason for repeated gDNA extraction was low amplification success of *wsp* gene using gDNA
157 extracted from legs, which is probably a consequence of lower amount of bacterial DNA in
158 legs comparing to the abdomen (as previously mentioned, the highest concentration of
159 *Wolbachia* is in reproductive tissue).

160

161 **Testing for the presence of *Wolbachia***

162 *16S rRNA gene amplification*

163 Primary screening on *Wolbachia* presence was based on the amplification of *Wolbachia*'s
164 16S rRNA gene fragment. In total, 74 specimens belonging to different *Merodon* species

165 were screened for *Wolbachia* presence based on amplification and sequencing of bacterial
166 16S rRNA gene. 45 of these belong to *M. aureus* group, with fewer samples from the
167 following species groups: five from *M. avidus* group, five from *M. nanus* group, three from
168 *M. geniculatus* group, three from *M. albifrons* group, three from *M. constans* group, three
169 from *M. natans* group, three from *M. nigritarsis*, three from *M. desuturinus* group, and one
170 from the species *M. luteihumerus*. We tested 1-3 specimens per species (Table 1).

171 16S rRNA gene fragment was amplified using WspecF and WspecR primer pair (Werren &
172 Windsor, 2000). Polymerase chain reactions (PCR) were carried out in 25 µl reaction
173 volumes. The reaction mixture contained 1x Taq Buffer without MgCl₂ (ThermoScientific,
174 Lithuania), 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.25 mM of each nucleotide, 1.25 U Taq polymerase
175 (ThermoScientific, Lithuania), 7 pmol of each primer, and approximately 50-100 ng template
176 DNA. The amplification of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene was carried out following the
177 protocol described in Werren & Windsor (2000).

178 The PCR products were checked on 1.5% agarose gels and the PCR product from gDNA of
179 *Drosophila melanogaster* extracted from line 5 from Bloomington stock center
180 <http://flystocks.bio.indiana.edu/Reports/5.html> (project number: OI 173012) was used as a
181 positive control. Additionally, we also used PCR reaction mixture without gDNA as negative
182 control in order to eliminate potential contamination.

183

184 *Wsp* gene amplification

185 In addition to 16S rRNA gene, we tested *Merodon aureus* group specimens on bacterial *wsp*
186 gene. For this purpose, we extracted additional genomic DNA from the abdomen of
187 hoverflies (see above). We used Phire Animal Tissue Direct PCR Master Mix
188 (ThermoScientific, Lithuania) to amplify *wsp* gene according to the manufacturer's

189 instructions. The same kit was used for direct *wsp* gene amplification from the tissue of
190 *Drimia maritima* bulb and the larvae of *M. luteihumerus* discovered within the bulb. The
191 primers used to amplify the *wsp* fragment are 136F, 691R, 81F, 522R (Zhou *et al.* 1998). The
192 PCR was performed with three primer pair combinations: 136F/691R for *Wolbachia*
193 supergroup A, 81F/ 522R for *Wolbachia* supergroup B, and 81F/691R for both supergroups
194 (Zhou *et al.* 1998). Initially, we screened all samples with *wsp* primer combination for
195 supergroup A. The samples without products were additionally tested with *wsp* primer
196 combination for supergroup B or universal combination for both supergroups. Only
197 amplification products with a single band on 1.5% agarose gels were used for sequencing.

198

199 *Sequencing*

200 The PCR products are enzymatically purified using exonuclease I and shrimp alkaline
201 phosphatase enzymes. Sequencing was done in both directions using the BigDye Terminator
202 v.3.1 cycle sequencing kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) on ABI3730xl DNA
203 Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, Ca, USA) at the Sequencing Service Laboratory
204 of the Finnish Institute for Molecular Medicine (FIMM), Helsinki, Finland.

205

206 *16S rRNA gene and wsp gene sequences analyses*

207 The produced 16S rRNA gene and *wsp* gene sequences were blasted against the nucleotide
208 collection database at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI;
209 www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) using Megablast optimized for highly similar sequences. *Wsp*
210 sequences were also checked against the *Wolbachia* MLST database (Baldo *et al.* 2006).
211 Finally, the screening results were presented in a form of a table with marked specimens
212 where *Wolbachia* was identified using 16S rRNA gene, *wsp* or both genes (Table 1). All

213 sequences have been submitted in GenBank under accession numbers MK184213 –
214 MK184277 (16S rRNA gene) and MK192943 – MK192981 (*wsp*), while *wsp* sequences are
215 additionally deposited in MLST database (Table 2, Table S1).

216 In order to place *Wolbachia* detected in *Merodon* specimens in a particular supergroup, we
217 constructed ML tree based on 16S rRNA gene sequences. The sequences were manually
218 aligned and the tree was constructed using RAxML 8.2.8 (Stamatakis, 2014) through the
219 CIPRES Science Gateway web portal (Miller *et al.* 2010) and by applying the general time-
220 reversible (GTR) evolutionary model with gamma distribution (Rodriguez *et al.* 1990), while
221 the statistical support for the clades was assessed using the rapid bootstrap method with 1000
222 replicates. The analysis also included 29 sequences belonging to *Wolbachia* supergroups (A,
223 B, F, H, I, M, N, O) founded in insect hosts, which were downloaded from GenBank (see
224 Table S2). As outgroups, we used two species of α -Proteobacteria: *Ehrlichia canis* and
225 *Anaplasma marginale* (GenBank accession numbers: M73226, M60313), and the tree was
226 rooted on *Anaplasma marginale*. In order to test cophylogeny between *M. aureus* group *COI*
227 tree and *Wolbachia* 16S rRNA gene tree, we applied Procrustean Approach to Cophylogeny
228 (PACo) in R environment (R Core Team, 2018) as described in Balbuena *et al.* (2013). As
229 input data, we used unrooted ML trees. For 16S rRNA gene we firstly determined sequence
230 types by using DnaSP 5 software (Librado & Rozas, 2009) which was used for an unrooted
231 ML tree construction in RAxML 8.2.8 (Stamatakis, 2014).

232 For *wsp* sequences, alignment was performed using the L-INS-I strategy as implemented in
233 MAFFT (Katoh & Standley, 2013) available on the EMBL-EBI bioinformatics framework
234 (McWilliam *et al.* 2013). The total number of alleles was determined by using DnaSP 5
235 software (Librado & Rozas, 2009). The assessments of pairwise differences, uncorrected p
236 distance values between alleles, were conducted in MEGA7 (Kumar *et al.* 2016). This gene is
237 not used for phylogeny reconstruction as the evolutionary signal is masked by its mosaic

238 nature, however, it can be used for strain typing based on a combination of four hypervariable
239 regions (HVRs) (Baldo *et al.* 2005, 2006). Thus, for each *wsp* allele, we determined HVRs
240 profile by checking against the *Wolbachia* MLST database (Baldo *et al.* 2006).

241

242 **RESULTS**

243

244 The primary screening on *Wolbachia* using 16S rRNA gene as a marker was performed on 52
245 species of the genus *Merodon* or 74 specimens from which ten specimens and five species
246 tested negative. Within the *M. aureus* group, three specimens belonging to *M. sapphous* sp. n.
247 2, *M. aureus* sp. n. 2 and *M. balkanicus* tested negative, within *M. segetum* (*M. natans* group)
248 as well as within *M. melanocerus* (*M. desuturinus* group) two specimens tested positive,
249 while one was negative. *M. albifrons* (*M. albifrons* group) specimens were all negative, while
250 in *M. nanus* (*M. nanus* group) one specimen was positive and one was negative for
251 *Wolbachia* infection. The one tested *M. luteihumerus* specimen were also negative. The
252 screening results are summarized in Table 1.

253 **Table 1.**

254 For ML tree construction we used 16S rRNA gene sequences. The aligned sequence set used
255 in the analysis was 415bp long. All *Wolbachia* 16S rRNA gene sequences produced in this
256 study are resolved as supergroup A, except the *Wolbachia* sequences from *M. neofasciatus*
257 which are resolved with supergroup B sequences (Fig. 2).

258 **Figure 2.**

259 PACo analysis resulted in a residual sum of squares $m^2_{xy} = 0.355$, under the probability
260 value $P=0.064$. Thus, the cophylogeny hypothesis between *M. aureus* group *COI* tree and
261 *Wolbachia* 16S rRNA gene tree was rejected as statistically insignificant ($P>0.05$). The

262 relationships between *COI* sequences of *M. aureus* group specimens and corresponding
263 *Wolbachia* endosymbionts (based on 16S rRNA gene sequences) are presented in Figure 3.

264 **Figure 3.**

265 In order to achieve better resolution in *Wolbachia* strain determination, we additionally tested
266 *Merodon aureus* group specimens (41 species or 45 specimens) for the *wsp* gene product.

267 The amplification products were detected in 38 species (42 specimens). *M. nisi*, *M. unicolor*
268 and *M. balkanicus* tested negative. Multiple products of *wsp* amplification were detected in
269 *M. naxius*, *M. andriotes* and *M. puniceus*, and these amplification products were not further
270 processed. In total 39 sequences which correspond to *M. aureus* group specimens were
271 produced, however, four of them were discarded because of poor quality. The *wsp* gene was
272 also amplified and sequenced for *Drimia maritima* bulb, and *M. luteihumerus* larvae (3
273 specimens) from the host plant bulb (Table 1).

274 The final *wsp* sequence matrix contained 39 sequences. The aligned sequences were 560bp
275 long, and with gap regions (see Fig. S1). We discovered 7 different *wsp* alleles, from which
276 the A1 was most common among *Merodon aureus* group specimens, but present also in the
277 bulb and *M. luteihumerus* larvae (see Fig. 2). Based on Blast search results the sequences
278 were 99% to 100% identical to previously discovered *Wolbachia* strains *wsp* sequences from
279 different insect hosts, except A6 which is 97% identical to *wsp* sequence from *Ceutorhynchus*
280 *obstrictus* (cabbage seed pod weevil) (see Table S3). A1 is identical to *Wolbachia wsp*
281 sequences from *Formica sanguinea*, *Formica exsecta* (both ants), *Protocalliphora sialia*
282 (birdnest blowfly), *Conotrachelus nenuphar* (plum curculio), and *Ceutorhynchus obstrictus*
283 (cabbage seed pod weevil). A4 is identical to *Ectemnius continuus* (a wasp species) *wsp*
284 sequence (although the query cover is 96%).

285 By checking the *wsp* sequences against *Wolbachia* MLST database, we found that A1
286 sequence is identical to *wsp* allele 311, while rest of the alleles are detected for the first time
287 in this study and they are submitted in the database as new alleles. Additionally, the DNA
288 sequences of all alleles were translated and HVR peptides are determined. The new HVR
289 peptides are submitted in the aforementioned database. The WSP profiles for each of alleles
290 are presented in Table 2.

291 **Table 2.**

292 The number of base differences per site between alleles (uncorrected p distances) is shown in
293 Table 3. The analysis involved 7 nucleotide sequences of *wsp* alleles. All ambiguous
294 positions were removed for each sequence pair. The smallest p distance has been detected
295 between A1 and A2, while the most divergent are A3 and A7.

296 **Table 3.**

297 The *Wolbachia* detection success was similar when comparing PCR amplification between
298 the two applied molecular markers (16S rRNA gene and *wsp* gene) on *Merodon aureus* group
299 specimens for which both markers were used. In both cases 42 out of 45 analyzed specimens
300 had amplification product, in one there was no product (*M. balkanicus* specimen), while in
301 four we got amplification product for only one of the markers. When comparing sequence
302 quality, 10% of *wsp* sequences had low quality and could not be used for further analysis,
303 while all of the 16S rRNA gene sequences were good quality sequences. Low sequence
304 quality could be due to multiple infections by different bacterial strains, but also could be
305 caused by contamination.

306

307

308

309 **DISCUSSION**

310

311 The presented results indicated a markedly high incidence of *Wolbachia* infection in
312 *Merodon* hoverflies confirmed either by one or both amplified and sequenced *Wolbachia*
313 genes, 16S rRNA or *wsp*. In total 50 out of 52 analyzed *Merodon* species were positive for
314 *Wolbachia* giving an infection rate of 96%. According to the estimation of Jeyaprakash and
315 Hoy (2000), the infection rate in arthropods reaches up to 76% (48 arthropod species out of
316 63 tested positive) indicating a wide distribution of *Wolbachia* infection. However, it is
317 important to point out that in this research the estimation of infection rate is based on less
318 than third known *Merodon* species and probably deviated from the real infection rate.

319 Despite wide *Wolbachia* distribution among arthropod species, the study of Bailly-Bechet *et al.*
320 (2017) conducted on 1100 species showed that most of the species acquired *Wolbachia*
321 only recently and the most acquisition/loss events of *Wolbachia* occurred within the last
322 million years. These events are most likely due to imperfect maternal transmission, although
323 in some extant because of *Wolbachia* extinction from the population. However, there are
324 some cases which indicate longterm *Wolbachia* infection. Taking into account population
325 level events, Bailly-Bechet *et al.* (2017) estimated that mitochondria typically accumulate
326 4.7% substitutions per site during an infected episode, and 7.1% substitutions per site during
327 the uninfected phase, which means that uninfected lineages acquire *Wolbachia* every 9.3
328 million years, while infected lineages lose their infection every 7 million years. Assuming
329 this scenario, it is possible that *Wolbachia* acquisition/loss dynamic shapes mtDNA
330 genealogy of the species.

331 In the case of *Merodon aureus* group a potential explanation for morphologically close
332 species splitting into two main clades on *COI* tree could be a consequence of *Wolbachia*

333 influence on early evolution of different mtDNA lineages within the group. This means that
334 ancient *Wolbachia* infection shaped *COI* based phylogeny of the group. However, apparently,
335 there is no obvious pattern of coevolution of *Wolbachia* and *M. aureus* group species when
336 comparing *Wolbachia* 16S rRNA gene tree and *COI* gene tree of hosts.

337 The species within complexes of *Merodon aureus* group often shared *wsp* alleles which
338 indicates infection by the same strain. In these cases, *Wolbachia* could influence speciation if
339 the same strain invaded different populations independently and by coupling and spreading
340 different mtDNA haplotypes in populations. There is evidence that *wsp* detected *Wolbachia*
341 strains could have different variants as consequence of deeper molecular variability
342 associated with transposable elements, as found in detailed studies of *Wolbachia* variation in
343 *Drosophila*, *Culex*, and *Hypolimnas bolina* (Duron *et al.* 2005; 2006; Riegler *et al.* 2005;
344 Charlat *et al.* 2009). These small differences can affect the choice of mtDNA haplotypes
345 which will be spread together with particular *Wolbachia* strain (Charlat *et al.* 2009). The
346 theoretical modelling (Telschow *et al.* 2007) and experimental studies on many organisms
347 (Bordenstein *et al.* 2001; Jaenike *et al.* 2006; Koukou *et al.* 2006; Miller *et al.* 2010),
348 including both interspecific and intersemispecific analyses, show that *Wolbachia* can promote
349 speciation in their hosts by inducing reproductive isolation, through development of either
350 post- and/or premating mechanisms. However, more specimens per species should be tested
351 for *Wolbachia* before any final conclusion about the influence of infection on speciation in
352 complexes of *M. aureus* group. Additionally, cases of potential multiple infections by
353 different *Wolbachia* strains (indicated in Table 1 as cases where sequence quality was low *
354 or multiple bands on electrophoresis gels were detected **) deserve an in-depth study beyond
355 the present study.

356

357 The sequencing of only one or two *Wolbachia* genes is unlikely to reveal much about
358 *Wolbachia* transmission between host species (Stahlhut *et al.* 2012). The characteristic
359 transmission dynamics and cases of multiple infections of the same host with different
360 *Wolbachia* strains have resulted in a freely recombining intracellular bacterial community
361 and mosaic bacterial genome structure (Klasson *et al.* 2009). The comparisons of shared
362 polymorphisms between *Wolbachia* strains confirm a mosaic structure of the *wsp* gene,
363 which is particularly prone to recombination and is under directional selection (Schulenburg
364 *et al.* 2000; Jiggins *et al.* 2001; Baldo *et al.* 2005). The frequent recombination events
365 produce a high level of sequence variability which makes *wsp* an excellent single marker for
366 distinguishing among different *Wolbachia* strains (Stahlhut *et al.* 2010). On the other hand,
367 frequent recombination disables tracing strain genealogy and makes *wsp* a bad choice for
368 studying *Wolbachia* horizontal transmission (Stahlhut *et al.* 2012). However, we found the
369 same *wsp* alleles present in both the host plant *Drimys maritima* bulb tissue and in the larval
370 specimens of *Merodon luteihumerus* acquired from the plant bulb. Although the presence of
371 *Wolbachia* DNA is not confirmation of the presence of living bacteria (see also Kolasa *et al.*
372 2017), these findings reveal a potential way of horizontal transmission mediated by plants.
373 All known early stages of *Merodon* species are found in underground storage organs of
374 geophytes (Ricarte *et al.* 2017; Preradović *et al.* 2018).

375 Plant mediated horizontal transmission of *Wolbachia* has already been hypothesized by
376 Sintupachee *et al.* (2006). They showed that four taxonomically diverse insects feeding on
377 the same host plant contained very closely related *Wolbachia* strains, suggesting the potential
378 role of host plants in *Wolbachia* horizontal transmission. Yang *et al.* (2013) also showed that
379 identical strains of *Wolbachia* are shared by two species, the gall wasp *Andricus mukaigawae*
380 and its inquiline wasp *Synergus japonicas*, which larvae feed on modified plant tissue of the
381 gall. Ahmed *et al.* (2016) found evidence for several new instances of *Wolbachia* horizontal

382 transmissions in Lepidoptera, and their findings suggested that specific shared food sources
383 and shared natural enemies were possible routes of horizontal transmission. The DNA of two
384 different *Wolbachia* strains including the one present in asparagus beetles, *Crioceris*
385 *quinquepunctata* and *C. quatuordecimpunctata*, are also detected in host plant (*Asparagus*)
386 tissues (Kolasa *et al.* 2017) once again indicating the possible route of horizontal
387 transmission mediated by plants. This is strongly confirmed in the study by Li *et al.* (2017)
388 where *Wolbachia* was visualized in plant tissue, both in the phloem vessels and in some
389 spherules along the phloem. At present, however, neither the mechanisms nor processes of
390 *Wolbachia* horizontal transmission are completely understood. For providing more solid
391 support for the role of the host plants in *Wolbachia* transmissions in *Merodon* hoverflies,
392 systematic screening for *Wolbachia* should be undertaken and include both the adult flies and
393 their developmental stages, as well as the host plants.

394

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396

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404

405

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657

658 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

659

660 Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information
661 section at the end of the article.

662 **Figure S1.** The sequence alignment of *wsp* alleles.

663 **Table S1.** Data on specimens screened for *Wolbachia* infection.

664 **Table S2.** The list of *Wolbachia* 16S rRNA gene sequences representing bacterial
665 supergroups present in insect hosts.

666 **Table S3.** Blast search results for *Wolbachia* endosymbionts of *Merodon* species and *Drimia*
667 *maritima* bulb *wsp* gene sequences.

668

669

670 Figure legends and table captions

671 Figure 1. Maximum likelihood tree of *Merodon aureus* group based on combined 3' and 5'

672 *COI* sequences (Šašić *et al.* 2016; Radenković *et al.* 2017; Šašić *et al.* unpublished data).

673 Bootstrap values ≥ 50 are presented near nodes.

674 Figure 2. Maximum likelihood tree based on 16S rRNA gene sequences of *Wolbachia* strains

675 present in genus *Merodon*. Bootstrap values ≥ 50 are presented near nodes. The specimens are

676 marked with DNA IDs and the host species names or GenBank accession numbers.

677 Figure 3. Phylogeny comparison between *COI* Maximum likelihood tree of *Merodon aureus*

678 group (left) and 16S rRNA gene Maximum likelihood tree of corresponding *Wolbachia*

679 endosymbionts (right). Bootstrap values ≥ 50 are presented near nodes.

680 Table 1. List of specimens tested on *Wolbachia* infection.

681 Table 2. The list of *wsp* alleles from *Merodon aureus* group host species including *Drimia*

682 *maritima* bulb and *Merodon luteihumerus*.

683 Table 3. Uncorrected p distance values (%) between *wsp* alleles.

684

Table 1. List of specimens tested on *Wolbachia* infection.

DNA ID	Species	Group			16S	wsp
		Complex	Subgroup			
AU402	<i>M. naxius</i> Vujić & Šašić, 2018	<i>luteomaculatus</i>	<i>bessarabicus</i>	<i>aureus</i> group	+	*
AU497	<i>M. erymanthius</i> Vujić, Ačanski & Šašić, 2018				+	A
AU812	<i>M. luteomaculatus</i> Vujić, Ačanski & Šašić, 2018				+	A
AU27	<i>M. euri</i> Vujić & Radenković, 2018				+	A
AU396	<i>M. peloponnesius</i> Vujić, Radenković, Ačanski & Šašić, 2018				+	A
AU504	<i>M. andriotes</i> Vujić, Radenković & Šašić, 2018				+	*
AU443	<i>M. sapphous</i> Vujić, Perez-Banon & Radenković, 2007	<i>sapphous</i>			+	AB
AU99	<i>M. sapphous</i> sp. n. 1				+	A
AU141	<i>M. sapphous</i> sp. n. 2				-	A
AU454	<i>M. bessarabicus</i> Paramonov, 1924	<i>bessarabicus</i>			+	AB
AU82	<i>M. bessarabicus</i> sp. n. 1				+	A
AU53	<i>M. ambiguus</i> Bradescu, 1986	<i>ambiguus</i>			+	A
AU474	<i>M. ambiguus</i> sp. n. 1		+		A	
AU1435	<i>M. quercetorum</i> Marcos-García, Vujić & Mengual, 2007		+		A	
AU1442	<i>M. legionensis</i> Marcos-García, Vujić & Mengual, 2007		+		A	
AU1432	<i>M. nisi</i> Veselić, Vujić & Radenković 2017		+		-	
AU321	<i>M. unicolor</i> Strobl, 1909	<i>unicolor</i>	+		AB	
AU796	<i>M. unicolor</i> sp. n. 1		+		-	
AU710	<i>M. aureus</i> Fabricius, 1805	<i>aureus</i>	+	AB		
AU723	<i>M. aureus</i> sp. n. 1		+	A		
AU701	<i>M. aureus</i> sp. n. 1		+	A		
AU485	<i>M. aureus</i> sp. n. 2		-	A		
AU360	<i>M. cinereus</i> (Fabricius, 1794)		<i>cinereus</i>	+	**	
AU1371	<i>M. aff. cinereus</i>	+		AB		
AU530	<i>M. cinereus</i> sp. n. 1	+		A		
AU1362	<i>M. cinereus</i> sp. n. 2	+		A		
AU236	<i>M. cinereus</i> sp. n. 3	+		A		
AU1443	<i>M. cinereus</i> sp. n. 4	+		A		
AU517	<i>M. atratus</i> (Oldenberg, 1919)	<i>atratus</i>	+	A		
AU151	<i>M. balkanicus</i> Šašić, Ačanski & Vujić, 2016		-	-		
AU144	<i>M. virgatus</i> Vujić & Radenković, 2016		+	A		
AU550	<i>M. virgatus</i>		+	A		
AU874	<i>M. aerarius</i> Rondani, 1857		+	**		
AU311	<i>M. minutus</i> Strobl, 1893	<i>chalybeus</i>	+	A		
AU752	<i>M. chalybeus</i> Wiedemann, 1822		+	A		
AU36	<i>M. dobrogensis</i> Bradescu, 1982	<i>dobrogensis</i>	+	A		
AU632	<i>M. dobrogensis</i>		+	A		
AU413	<i>M. puniceus</i> Vujić, Radenković & Péres-Bañón, 2011		+	*		
AU47	<i>M. dobrogensis</i> sp. n. 1		+	A		

AU107	<i>M. caerulescens</i> Loew, 1869	<i>caerulescens</i>			+	A
AU176	<i>M. atricapillatus</i> Šašić, Ačanski & Vujić, 2018				+	A
AU742	<i>M. pumilus</i> Macquart, 1849				+	**
AU253	<i>M. pumilus</i>				+	**
AU115	<i>M. robustus</i> Veselić, Vujić & Radenković 2017				+	A
AU326	<i>M. unguicornis</i> Strobl, 1909				+	AB
AU272	<i>M. neofasciatus</i> Ståhls & Vujić, 2018	<i>geniculatus</i> group			+	nt
AU273	<i>M. neofasciatus</i>				+	nt
AU288	<i>M. neofasciatus</i>				+	nt
AU606	<i>M. albifrons</i> Meigen, 1822	<i>albifrons</i> group			-	nt
AU611	<i>M. albifrons</i>				-	nt
AU617	<i>M. albifrons</i>				-	nt
AU620	<i>M. constans</i> (Rossi, 1794)	<i>constans</i> group			+	nt
AU621	<i>M. constans</i>				+	nt
AU622	<i>M. constans</i>				+	nt
AU772	<i>M. segetum</i> (Fabricius, 1794)	<i>natans</i> group			+	nt
AU773	<i>M. segetum</i>				-	nt
AU775	<i>M. segetum</i>				+	nt
AU1146	<i>M. avidus</i> Rossi, 1790	<i>avidus</i> group			+	nt
AU1164	<i>M. avidus</i>				+	nt
KR1	<i>M. moenium</i> (Wiedemann in Meigen, 1822)				+	nt
KR2	<i>M. moenium</i>				+	nt
KR3	<i>M. moenium</i>				+	nt
N19	<i>M. nanus</i> Sack 1931	<i>nanus</i> group			+	nt
TS213	<i>M. nanus</i>				-	nt
TS219	<i>M. telmateia</i> Hurkmans, 1987				+	nt
TS221	<i>M. telmateia</i>				+	nt
TS222	<i>M. telmateia</i>				+	nt
NG15	<i>M. nigratarsis</i> Rondani, 1845	<i>nigratarsis</i> group			+	nt
NG16	<i>M. nigratarsis</i>				+	nt
NG17	<i>M. nigratarsis</i>				+	nt
AF55	<i>M. melanocerus</i> Bezzi, 1915	<i>desuturinus</i> group			+	nt
AF57	<i>M. melanocerus</i>				+	nt
AF58	<i>M. melanocerus</i>				-	nt
Y2367	<i>M. luteihumerus</i> Marcos-García, Vujić & Mengual, 2007				-	A
Y2368	<i>M. luteihumerus</i>				nt	A
Y2369	<i>M. luteihumerus</i>				nt	A
BULB	<i>Drimia maritima</i> (L.) Stearn; bulb	host plant of <i>M. luteihumerus</i>			-	A

A - *wsp* amplified using 136F/691R primer pair specific for supergroup A; B - *wsp* amplified using 81F/522R primer pair specific for supergroup B; AB - *wsp* amplified using 81F/522R universal primer pair; * - multiple products detected using electrophoresis; ** - poor sequence quality; nt - not tested.

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Table 2. The list of *wsp* alleles from *Merodon aureus* group host species including *Drimia maritima* bulb and *Merodon luteihumerus*.

Alleles	WSP profile*	Sequence ID (host species)
A1	311, 53, 145, 39, 18	AU497(<i>M. erymanthius</i>), AU812(<i>M. luteomaculatus</i>), AU27(<i>M. euri</i>), AU396(<i>M. peloponnesius</i>), AU82(<i>M. bessarabicus</i> sp. n. 1), AU99(<i>M. sapphous</i> sp. n. 1), AU141(<i>M. sapphous</i> sp. n. 2), AU53(<i>M. ambiguus</i>), AU723(<i>M. aureus</i> sp. n. 1), AU701(<i>M. aureus</i> sp. n. 1), AU236(<i>M. cinereus</i> sp. n. 3), AU144(<i>M. virgatus</i>), AU550(<i>M. virgatus</i>), AU752(<i>M. chalybeus</i>); AU36(<i>M. dobrogensis</i>), AU632(<i>M. dobrogensis</i>), AU47(<i>M. dobrogensis</i> sp. n. 1), AU107(<i>M. caeruleus</i>), AU176(<i>M. atricapillatus</i>); AU115(<i>M. robustus</i>), 16060(<i>Drimia maritima</i> plant bulb), Y2367(<i>M. luteihumerus</i>), Y2369(<i>M. luteihumerus</i>), Y2368(<i>M. luteihumerus</i>)
A2	731, 53, 145, 39, 18	AU311(<i>M. minutus</i>), AU1442(<i>M. legionensis</i>), AU1435(<i>M. quercetorum</i>)
A3	735, 28, 294, 39, 18	AU474(<i>M. ambiguus</i> sp. n. 1), AU443(<i>M. sapphous</i>)
A4	734, 261, 9, 271, 18	AU321(<i>M. unicolor</i>), AU710(<i>M. aureus</i>)
A5	(incomplete sequence)	AU454 (<i>M. bessarabicus</i>)
A6	733, 262, 115, 292, 62	AU326(<i>M. unguicornis</i>), AU485(<i>M. aureus</i> sp. n. 2)
A7	732, 263, 28, 31, 30	AU530(<i>M. cinereus</i> sp. n. 1), AU1362(<i>M. cinereus</i> sp. n. 2), AU517(<i>M. atratus</i>), AU1443(<i>M. cinereus</i> sp. n. 4), AU1371(<i>M. aff. cinereus</i>)

*WSP profile: *wsp*, HVR1, HVR2, HVR3, HVR4 IDs in *Wolbachia* MLST database (Baldo et al. 2006).

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Table 3. Uncorrected p distance values (%) between *wsp* alleles.

	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6
A1						
A2	0.198					
A3	10.474	10.672				
A4	9.486	9.684	12.548			
A5	14.500	14.250	15.777	8.252		
A6	11.858	12.055	17.984	16.206	12.069	
A7	12.253	12.055	18.379	17.391	14.778	13.477

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