

1 **Diversity of bacterial symbionts associated with the tropical plant bug**
2 ***Monalonion velezangeli* (Hemiptera: Miridae) revealed by high-throughput 16S-**
3 **rRNA sequencing.**

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23
24 **Abstract:** Insects and microbes have developed complex symbiotic relationships that
25 evolutionarily and ecologically play beneficial roles for both, the symbiont and the host. In most
26 Hemiptera insects, bacterial symbionts offer mainly nutritional, defensive, and reproductive roles
27 in addition to promoting the adaptive radiation of several hemipteran phytophagous lineages.
28 The tropical plant bug *Monalonion velezangeli* (Hemiptera: Miridae) is a polyphagous herbivore
29 considered an important insect pest for several economically relevant tropical crops, but
30 information about the composition of its bacterial microbiota was missing. In this study, we
31 describe the diversity and structure of the bacterial microbiota in the nymph and adult life stages
32 of *M. velezangeli* using Illumina high-throughput sequencing of 16S ribosomal RNA gene
33 amplicons (meta-barcoding). We found that both insect life stages share a similar microbiota in
34 terms of bacterial diversity and community structure. The intracellular symbiont *Wolbachia*
35 dominated the overall microbiome composition (~92%) in these life stages. Members of the core
36 microbiota include *Wolbachia*, *Romboutsia*, *Ignavibacterium*, *Clostridium*, *Allobaculum*,
37 *Paracoccus*, *Methylobacterium*, *Faecalibacterium*, *Collinsella*, *Rothia*, *Sphingomonas* and 4
38 other undetermined bacterial genera. Based on PCR screening and DNA sequencing of the *wsp*
39 gene, *Wolbachia* infection was confirmed in almost 80% of samples, and represented by two
40 different isolates or strains within the supergroup B. This data offer opportunities for studying the
41 contribution of symbiotic bacteria in the biological performance of this insect pest, and provides
42 a base to explore other insect control methods.

43
44 **Key Words:** bacterial microbiota, endosymbiont, plant bug, *Wolbachia*, *Monalonion*, *Coffea*.

45 **Introduction:**

46 Most insects harbor diverse microbiota inside their body that collectively perform important
47 biological roles for the insect-host in processes such as nutrition, reproduction, immunity, and
48 development. These symbiotic interactions involve microbes adapted to live inside specialized
49 host cells (intracellular symbionts), or outside cells (extracellular symbionts). The vast majority
50 of insect-associated microbes reside in the gut lumen, and some are adapted to live within
51 specialized structures in the insect posterior midgut. Insect gut-associated microorganisms have
52 been proposed as key players in the adaptive radiation of herbivorous insects by allowing them
53 to metabolize or assimilate recalcitrant plant compounds, or to exploit low-nutrient plant
54 contents by providing additional nutritious molecules (Motta et al. 2022; Ge et al. 2023; Janson
55 et al. 2008; Sudakaran et al. 2017). In some cases the outcomes of this symbiotic interplay in
56 plant-feeding insects has also extended to the control of host-plant defense responses for the
57 benefit of the insect (Chung et al. 2013; Acevedo et al. 2017; Schausberger 2018; Li et al.
58 2019). Moreover, insect-associated microbial symbionts have been shown to confer resistance
59 to chemical insecticides in various pest insects (Kikuchi et al. 2012; Blanton and Peterson 2020;
60 Sato et al. 2021).

61
62 Equally important, intracellular symbionts (e.g. *Wolbachia*) that frequently reside within the
63 reproductive tissues of most insects are well known as manipulators of insect reproduction.
64 *Wolbachia* are maternally inherited bacterial symbionts that infect at least 65% of insect species
65 (Hilgenboecker et al. 2008), and are capable of altering host reproduction and fitness in order to
66 achieve high frequency of infection in the host populations (Stouthamer et al. 1999). This
67 manipulation can involve cytoplasmic incompatibility (CI) (Sinkins 2004; Dylan Shropshire et al.
68 2020), parthenogenesis (Werren 1997; Vavre et al. 2004; Zhou et al. 2021), male-killing (Hurst
69 et al. 1999; Fukui et al. 2015), and feminization (O'Neill et al. 1997; Hiroki et al. 2002; Narita et
70 al. 2007). Additionally, several lines of evidence show that *Wolbachia* can affect behavioral
71 patterns in their hosts by altering mating, feeding, locomotion, or aggressive behavior in addition
72 to learning and memory capacity (reviewed by (Jie Bi 2020)).

73
74 Several Hemiptera plant-feeding insect species in the suborders Sternorrhyncha,
75 Auchenorrhyncha and Heteroptera display a variety of insect-microbial symbiosis.
76 Phytophagous Sternorrhyncha and Auchenorrhyncha species have piercing and sucking
77 mouthparts for stylet-sheath feeding (phloem and xylem sap-suckers) as in aphids and
78 leafhoppers. Phytophagous Heteroptera species have macerate-and-flush feeding mouthparts
79 (sucking of extra-orally digested plant tissues) as seen in stink bugs and plant bugs. In
80 consequence, several of these insect species are agricultural pests of economic importance.
81 Most members of Sternorrhyncha and Auchenorrhyncha harbor intracellular obligate symbionts
82 within specialized cells or bacteriocytes that provide essential amino-acids and vitamins to the
83 insect (Moran and Telang 1998). However, most phytophagous Heteroptera members lack
84 intracellular symbionts, but instead have developed relationships with extracellular symbionts in
85 special midgut compartments such as midgut crypts and caeca. These extracellular symbionts
86 are mainly found in stink bugs, flat bugs and seed bugs, within the infraorder Pentatomomorpha.
87 Nonetheless, special symbiont-harboring midgut compartments seems to be absent in most

88 phytophagous species in the infraorder Cimicomorpha which includes true plant bugs such as
89 *Monalonion velezangeli*.

90

91 The plant bug *M. velezangeli* (Hemiptera: Miridae: Bryocorinae) is a neotropical polyphagous
92 insect native to Central and South America. This insect feeds on 21 plant species in 14 families
93 (Giraldo J. and Benavides M. 2012; Rodas et al. 2014; Ocampo Flórez et al. 2018). It is
94 considered as a strict phytophagous insect based on the lack of reports of other feeding habits,
95 and the fact that all known members of the mirid subfamily Bryocorinae are herbivorous as well
96 (Jung and Lee 2012; Namyatova and Cassis 2016). This plant bug is a notorious agricultural
97 pest of cacao (*Theobroma cacao*, Malvaceae), avocado (*Persea americana*, Lauraceae), guava
98 (*Psidium guava*, Myrtaceae), and tea (*Camellia sinensis*, Theaceae) (Jaimes et al. 2015;
99 Ramírez-Gil et al. 2019). *Monalonion velezangeli* is also an emerging pest for coffee crops in
100 Colombia especially in the southern coffee-producing regions of the country (Ramirez C. et al.
101 2008). The immature (nymph) and adult stages of this plant bug feed on terminal shoot tips,
102 young leaves or fruits causing cell-death at the feeding sites as the main direct damage. Severe
103 plant damage is mainly caused by nymphal stages when they inject enzyme-rich saliva into the
104 plant tissues for extra-oral digestion of the cell contents. Current recommendations for pest
105 management vary according to host crops. Common methods include cultural practices (e.g.
106 manual collection of insects in the field or flaming), biological control with fungal
107 entomopathogens, and insecticides. Despite its significance as an agricultural pest, several
108 aspects of the biology of *M. velezangeli* remain poorly studied including the composition of its
109 microbiota.

110

111 Diversity and functional characterization of symbiotic microbiota in Miridae plant bugs have
112 been poorly studied except for the strictly phytophagous cotton fleahopper *Pseudatomoscelis*
113 *seriatus* and the omnivorous *Adelphocoris suturalis* to the best of our knowledge (Fu et al. 2021;
114 Xue et al. 2021; Luo et al. 2021). Knowledge of *M. velezangeli* associated microbiota is
115 fundamental not only to better understand its biology, but also could provide new opportunities
116 for the development of insect management methods. For example, symbiont-mediated RNA
117 interference (smRNAi) is emerging as a potential approach for control of pest insects in
118 agriculture (Dyson et al. 2022), and as an efficient tool for insect gene functional analysis
119 (Lariviere et al. 2022). It is necessary to characterize the taxonomic composition of microbes
120 within the insect body before any study on the role of the microbiota in insect biology or
121 exploration of symbiont-based methods for pest control can be carried out. In this study, we
122 analyzed for the first time the diversity and structure of the symbiotic microbiota within *M.*
123 *velezangeli* nymph and adult life stages using high-throughput DNA amplicon sequencing of
124 bacterial 16S rRNA gene (DNA meta-barcoding). Here we discovered a diverse microbiota
125 across all life stages that is dominated by few bacterial genera, highlighting the presence of the
126 endosymbiont *Wolbachia*.

127

128 **Methods:**

129

130 **Insect collection, DNA isolation and 16S rRNA sequencing:**

131 Samples of immature and adult individuals of *M. velezangeli* feeding on leaves of multiple coffee
132 plants (*Coffea arabica* var. Castillo) were collected from a coffee plantation in the Department of
133 Huila (Segovianas, Coordinates: 2.3784, -75.88291), Colombia. Insects were externally
134 sterilized by washing three times with 75% ethanol and immediately conserved in 96% ethanol
135 for DNA isolation. Three independent samples of immature (pools of 5 nymphal stages, one per
136 instar) and three independent samples of adults (pools of one female and one male) of *M.*
137 *velezangeli* were used for microbiota analysis. Total DNA was isolated from whole-body insects
138 using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) including a lysozyme
139 treatment according to the manufacturer protocol. DNA integrity was checked on agarose gel
140 and quantified on Nanodrop (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA). PCR amplification of the hyper-
141 variable region V3V4 of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene was performed using primers 341F (5'-
142 CCT AYG GGR BGC ASC AG- 3') and 806R (5'- GAC TAC NNG GGT ATC TAA T- 3')
143 (Caporaso et al. 2011; Klindworth et al. 2012). Illumina sequencing libraries were generated
144 with NEBNext[®] Ultra[™] DNA Library Prep Kit (New England BioLabs, Ipswich, MA, USA). The
145 16S rRNA amplicon Illumina 250PE libraries were sequenced using NovaSeq platform (Illumina,
146 San Diego, CA, USA) at Novogene Corporation Inc. (Sacramento, CA, USA).

147

148 **Processing of 16S rRNA sequence data and taxonomic classification:**

149 Demultiplexed raw 16S rRNA sequences were processed using QIIME2 v.2020.8 (Bolyen et al.
150 2019) as follows. Paired-end read sequences were quality-filtered, denoised and clustered
151 using DADA2 (Callahan et al. 2016) (*dada2 denoise-paired*) to produce Amplicon Sequence
152 Variants (ASV). The ASVs were taxonomically classified using the plugin *feature-classifier*
153 *classify-sklearn* with the GreenGenes database (version 13_8) using default confidence
154 threshold (≥ 0.7). The ASVs that could not be identified to genus with Greengenes were blasted
155 against the NCBI Microbial Genome sequences (Bacteria and Archaea) to identify best hits and
156 also compared with the EzBioCloud Database (version 2021.07.07) for assignation of genus
157 using 97% identity threshold on both searches. The original GreenGenes identification taxon
158 level was maintained when NCBI-BLAST and EzBiocloud resulted in contradictory genus best-
159 hits at $\geq 97\%$ identify respectively. Contaminant sequences identified as chloroplast or
160 mitochondria were removed from processed data tables and excluded from further analyses.

161

162 **Diversity analysis and taxon abundance comparisons:**

163 The ASV tables for raw abundance and taxonomy classification were exported from QIIME2 and
164 processed through the MicrobiomeAnalyst tool (Dhariwal et al. 2017; Chong et al. 2020) using
165 the Marker Data Profiling (MDP) pipeline as follows. The ASV abundances were brought to the
166 total sum scaling for data normalization and further analysis of diversity. Alpha-diversity was
167 estimated using the number of observed taxa (Observed), Chao1, ACE, Fisher and Shannon
168 (H') indexes. Statistical differences between groups (Nymph vs Adult) were assessed with
169 Mann-Whitney U test. Beta-diversity was assessed using Bray-Curtis distance between groups
170 and their ordination visualized with Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) and Non-metric
171 Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS). Statistical differences in community structure between
172 groups was tested with the permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA, one-
173 way) and the analysis of similarities (ANOSIM, one-way). Both were based on Bray-Curtis
174 distance as implemented on Past v.4.08 (Hammer-Muntz et al. 2001). Differences in dispersion

175 within each group was tested using PERMDISP (Anderson and Walsh 2013). Bacteria taxon
176 abundance bar-plots were built with the MicrobiomeAnalyst tool and the heatmap plots using
177 Matrix2png (Pavlidis and Noble 2003). Statistical differences for taxon abundances between
178 groups were tested with the Mann-Whitney *U* test.

179

180 **Molecular screening of *Wolbachia* endosymbiont:**

181 Abdomen samples were separately dissected from nymphs or adults under sterile conditions in
182 a stereoscope from the *M. velezangeli* individuals collected in this study and individually used
183 for DNA isolation with DNeasy Kit (Qiagen) as described above. Detection and classification of
184 *Wolbachia* was performed following the *wsp* gene (*Wolbachia* surface protein) PCR-based
185 method established by Zhou et al. (Zhou et al. 1998) as follows. PCR screening was done with
186 the *wsp*-specific primers *wsp81F* (5'-TGG TCC AAT AAG TGA TGA AGA AAC-3') and *wsp691R*
187 (5'-AAA AAT TAA ACG CTA CTC CA-3') in 20 µL reactions containing 1x Green GoTaq®
188 reaction buffer (Promega, USA), 250 µM dNTPs, 0.5 µM of each primer, 0.5 u of GoTaq®
189 polymerase (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) and 1 µL of DNA template. PCR cycling involved
190 one initial step of denaturation at 95°C for 2 min, and then followed by 35 cycles of three steps
191 including 95°C for 40 sec, 55°C for 30 sec and 72°C for 40 sec. The cycle ends with a final
192 extension of 72°C for 5 min. DNA template integrity was additionally tested by PCR with
193 universal primers for arthropod 28SrRNA gene sequences (28sF3633: 5'-TAC CGT GAG GGA
194 AAG TTG AAA-3', and 28sR4076: 5'-AGA CTC CTT GGT CCG TGT TT-3') using the same
195 PCR reaction conditions and cycling described above. Total DNA from a naturally *Wolbachia*-
196 infested fruit fly (*Drosophila melanogaster*) strain was used as positive control in the PCR
197 screening experiments. PCR amplicons were visualized with agarose gel electrophoresis.

198

199 **Sanger DNA sequencing and phylogenetic analysis of *Wolbachia* *wsp* amplicons:**

200 A group of 10 randomly selected *wsp* PCR amplicons (*wsp81F/691R* primers) derived from the
201 *M. velezangeli* DNA samples were further purified using the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit
202 (Qiagen) following the manufacturer protocol. Purified amplicons were directly submitted to ABI
203 automated bidirectional sequencing with *wsp81F* and *wsp691R* primers. DNA sequence
204 chromatograms were processed in Chromas v2.6.6 (<https://technelysium.com.au/wp/chromas/>)
205 for quality and primer-sequence trimming. Bidirectional sequences for each sample were
206 clustered into single DNA consensus sequences (isolates) using GeneStudio v.2.2.0
207 (<https://sourceforge.net/projects/genestudio/>). The DNA consensus sequences were compared
208 to available sequence data at GeneBank nt database using BLASTn search algorithm and were
209 deposited at GeneBank under accession numbers OR129441-OR129450.

210

211 A phylogenetic analysis of the *M. velezangeli*-derived *wsp* sequences was performed using the
212 web-based Phylogeny.fr platform (Dereeper et al. 2008) along with *wsp* sequences from
213 insect-derived *Wolbachia* isolates at the GeneBank database as representatives of major
214 *Wolbachia* subgroups found in insects according to Zhou et al. (Zhou et al. 1998). Sequences
215 were aligned using ClustalW (v2.1) (Thompson et al. 1994). After alignment, positions with gaps
216 were removed from the alignment. The phylogenetic tree was reconstructed using the maximum
217 likelihood method implemented in the PhyML program (v3.1/3.0 aLRT) (Guindon and Gascuel
218 2003). The default substitution model was selected assuming an estimated proportion of

219 invariant sites (of 0.003) and 4 gamma-distributed rate categories to account for rate
220 heterogeneity across sites. The gamma shape parameter was estimated directly from the data
221 (gamma=0.398). Reliability for internal branches was assessed using the aLRT test (SH-Like)
222 (Anisimova and Gascuel 2006).

223

224 **Results:**

225

226 **Microbial 16S rRNA sequence data:**

227 A total of 491,802 denoised non-chimeric merged sequences for the 16S rRNA V3V4 variable
228 region were produced among all samples (nymph and adult) after removing putative
229 contaminant sequences. Sequence clustering produced 123 ASVs, with an average number of
230 ASVs for adult and nymph samples of 57 and 79 respectively. The number of Illumina reads and
231 ASV sequences for each sample are detailed in Table 1. Rarefaction curves showed that all
232 samples reached richness saturation (Fig. 1A) indicating that sequencing effort was enough to
233 capture total diversity (Good's coverage > 99.99% for all samples, Table 1).

234

235 **Diversity of bacterial community:**

236 The bacterial diversity associated with the nymph and adult life stages of *M. velezangeli* was
237 analyzed through five alpha-diversity indices (Fig. 1B and Table 2). No statistical differences for
238 species richness (Observed species), abundance (Chao1 and ACE) and abundance distribution
239 indices (Fisher and Shannon) were detected between nymph and adult stages (Observed
240 species: $U = 0$, $p = 0.1$; Chao1: $U = 0$, $p = 0.1$; ACE: $U = 0$, $p = 0.1$; Fisher: $U = 0$, $p = 0.1$;
241 Shannon: $U = 3$, $p = 0.7$).

242

243 Differences in microbial community structure (beta-diversity) between nymph and adult was
244 assessed with PERMANOVA and ANOSIM analyses, and their ordinal distances (Bray-Curtis
245 dissimilarity) visualized with PCoA and NMSD plotting (Fig. 1C,D). PERMANOVA tests whether
246 distance in community structure differs between groups (e.g. nymph vs adult) (Anderson 2001)
247 whereas ANOSIM tests whether distances between groups are greater than within groups
248 (Clarke 1993). Both analyses indicated no significant differences in microbial community
249 structure between nymphs and adults (PERMANOVA: F-value: 0.4774; R-squared: 0.1135; p-
250 value = 0.5016; ANOSIM: R: -0.1111; p-value = 0.7019). We assessed the differences in
251 dispersion (variance) within groups with PERMDISP (Anderson and Walsh 2013) considering
252 that PERMANOVA and ANOSIM are sensitive to variance within groups. This analysis showed
253 that there is homogeneity of multivariate dispersions between nymph and adult samples
254 (PERMDISP: F-value: 0.1958; p-value: 0.681).

255

256 Removal of *Wolbachia*-associated sequences is a regular practice for microbiome analysis in
257 insects when they are detected in bacterial 16S rRNA libraries (Chandler et al. 2014; Rudman et
258 al. 2019). We compared the overall microbial community structure in our samples when
259 *Wolbachia* sequences are kept or removed from the data. The removal of *Wolbachia* reads did
260 not alter the similarities in alpha diversity indices between nymphs and adults (Supplementary
261 Table S1) (Observed species: $U = 0$, $p = 0.1$; Chao1: $U = 0$, $p = 0.1$; ACE: $U = 0$, $p = 0.1$; Fisher:
262 $U = 0$, $p = 0.1$; Shannon: $U = 3$, $p = 0.1$). Similarity in microbial community structure between life

263 stages also remained unchanged (PERMANOVA: F-value: 1.698; R-squared: 0.5142; p-value =
264 0.2028; ANOSIM: R: 0.2593; p-value = 0.2992; PERMDISP: F-value: 0.0993; p-value = 0.7684).

265

266 **Taxonomic composition of bacterial community:**

267 From the 123 ASV, 107 (87%) were taxonomically assigned to at least the Phylum level.

268 Taxonomic distribution of ASVs included 10 bacteria phyla, 18 classes, 22 orders, 33 families
269 and 36 genera. Distribution of relative abundances for phylum, order and genus levels are
270 shown in Figure 2 and fully detailed for all taxonomic levels in Supplementary Tables S2 to S6.
271 Overall, the Phylum Proteobacteria (92.6%) and Firmicutes (5.2%) represented almost the full
272 microbiota detected in this study (Supplementary Table S2, Fig.2A). The orders Rickettsiales
273 (Phylum Proteobacteria: Class Alphaproteobacteria) and Clostridiales (Phylum Firmicutes:
274 Class Clostridia) with abundances 91.9% and 4.8% respectively dominated the bacterial
275 community. To a lesser extent, other 20 orders were present at or below 1% overall abundance
276 (Supplementary table S4, Figure 2B).

277

278 From the total 123 ASVs, 95 (77.2%) were assigned to the genus level where 66 ASVs (53.7%)
279 were annotated using GreenGenes (≥ 0.7 confidence level) and 29 ASVs (23.6%) annotated
280 using BLASTn and BioCloud ($\geq 97\%$ identity to top-hit for both algorithms). The remaining 28
281 ASVs (22.8%) were considered as undetermined at genus level (Not Assigned). At the genus
282 level, *Wolbachia* (Rickettsiaceae) dominated the overall abundance (91.9%) across nymph and
283 adult samples followed by *Romboutsia* (1.8%), *Ignavibacterium* (0.8%), *Clostridium* (0.70%),
284 *Mycoplasma* (0.5%), *Allobaculum* (0.4%), *Blautia* (0.4%), *Eubacterium_g23* (0.3%), *Sporobacter*
285 (0.3%), *Paracoccus* (0.3), *Methylobacterium* (0.2%), *Dorea* (0.2%), *Sediminibacterium* (0.1%),
286 *Faecalibacterium* (0.1%), and *Ruminococcus* (0.1%) as the top 15 taxa. Other 34 genera were
287 present at abundances below 0.1% across all life stages (Supplementary Table S6, Figure 2C).
288 The relative abundances for bacteria taxa in all taxonomic levels (Phylum to Genus) were
289 similar between both insect life stages (Mann-Whitney *U* test, p-values > 0.05 , Supplementary
290 Tables S2 to S6). Similarly, no statistical differences were found at bacterial ASV level between
291 both life stages (Mann-Whitney *U* test, p-values > 0.05).

292

293 Removal of *Wolbachia* sequences from this analysis did not alter the similarities in the overall
294 relative abundances at ASV or genus levels between life stages (Mann-Whitney *U* test, p-values
295 > 0.05) as estimated above despite changes in the proportions of total reads counts and relative
296 taxon abundances across the individual samples. Additionally, apart from *Wolbachia*, the list of
297 the top ten most abundant genus remained unchanged; and in all cases the microbiota was
298 dominated by *Romboutsia* with few changes in the order of the remaining genera (Fig. 3B).
299 However, the exclusion of *Wolbachia* resulted in Firmicutes (69.3%) as the overall dominant
300 Phylum, followed by Proteobacteria (10.4%), Chlorobi (6.2%) and other seven Phylum to a
301 lesser extent (Fig. 3A).

302

303 **Core microbiota:**

304 According to the data collected in this study, the core microbiota of *M. velezangeli* is composed
305 of 21 bacterial ASVs (17% of all ASVs) that were consistently shared between the nymph and
306 adult life stages (ASVs present in all samples in this study) (Fig. 2D). These core ASVs were

307 identified by analyzing 42 ASVs present in all samples of both life stage. The remaining 21
308 ASVs were present at either nymph or adult. Other 81 ASVs (65.9% of all ASVs) were not
309 consistently detected in all samples of each life stage and may represent transient or non-
310 resident microbes within the microbiome of *M. velezangeli*.

311

312 The bacterial genus assignments for the core 21 ASVs based on 16S GreenGenes database
313 are shown in Table 3. These core bacterial genera, listed in decreasing order of abundance,
314 included: *Wolbachia*, *Romboutsia*, *Ignavibacterium*, *Clostridium*, *Allobaculum*, *Paracoccus*,
315 undetermined Anaerolineaceae, *Methylobacterium*, *Faecalibacterium*, undetermined
316 Lachnospiraceae, *Collinsella*, *Rothia*, undetermined Peptostreptococcaceae, *Sphingomonas*
317 and undetermined Coriobacteriaceae.

318

319 ***Wolbachia* PCR detection and profiling:**

320 Taking into account the large proportion of *Wolbachia*-associated ASVs found in our samples,
321 we decided to further investigate the presence of *Wolbachia* endosymbiont in *M. velezangeli* by
322 PCR screening of the *wsp* gene. About 79% of the insect individuals tested (22 out of 28) from
323 the Segovianas locality resulted positive for *Wolbachia* infection according to the amplification of
324 a ~600 bp DNA band (Figure 4). A PCR test for DNA template integrity showed that all 28
325 (100%) *M. velezangeli* DNA samples were PCR quality grade based on the successful
326 amplification of a DNA band for the arthropod 28S rRNA gene target. This indicates that the no
327 *wsp* amplification in 21% (6/28) of the samples could be explained by the absence of *Wolbachia*
328 infection and not because of a low DNA template quality.

329

330 DNA Sanger sequencing was performed for 10 randomly selected *wsp* DNA amplicons derived
331 from *M. velezangeli* samples. All DNA sequences had clearly defined single-pick
332 chromatograms, which suggested the presence of single *Wolbachia*-strain infections in each
333 sequenced sample. A multiple sequence alignment showed that these isolates can be grouped
334 in two distinct *wsp* sequence haplotypes that share 78% similarity between them
335 (Supplementary Figure S1). Haplotype 1 (hereafter wMvel1) was represented by 80% (8/10) of
336 the sequence isolates in this study, whereas haplotype 2 (hereafter wMvel2) was represented
337 by the remaining 20% (2/10) isolates. A BLASTn search against the GeneBank database
338 showed that wMvel1 *wsp* sequence was 99.46% identical (top hit) to a *Wolbachia wsp* isolate
339 from the butterfly *Acraea equitorialis* (GenBank accession: AJ271195) whereas wMvel2 *wsp*
340 was 98.91% identical (top hit) to a *Wolbachia wsp* isolate from the planthopper *Perkinsiella*
341 *saccharicida* (GenBank accession: GU190768) (Hughes et al. 2011). Phylogenetic analysis
342 clustered all wMvel *wsp* sequences within the *Wolbachia wsp* B supergroup clade (Figure 5)
343 and assigned the distinct wMvel *wsp* haplotypes within two distant subclades respectively along
344 with their corresponding *wsp* BLASTn top-hits.

345

346 **Discussion:**

347 We used 16S rRNA amplicon high-throughput sequencing to investigate for the first time the
348 diversity of the symbiotic bacteria community associated with the tropical plant bug *M.*
349 *velezangeli*. Here, we found a relatively diverse core microbiota dominated by genera
350 *Wolbachia*, *Romboutsia*, *Ignavibacterium* and *Clostridium*. Although this plant bug is a

351 polyphagous herbivore considered a pest for various tropical crops in America, in this study we
352 focused the bacteria screening on a population feeding on coffee plants in Colombia. We found
353 that overall bacteria diversity (Alpha diversity, Fig. 1B) was similar between the nymph and the
354 adult life stages. Based on the most abundant taxa (ASVs with overall abundance >0.01%), the
355 bacterial community composition (Beta diversity) is conserved between these two
356 developmental stages. However, there is a degree of variability regarding the presence of
357 bacteria with low abundance within and between life stages. The immature forms of *M.*
358 *velezangeli* go through 5 nymphal instars that differ among them mainly in body size (Giraldo J.
359 et al. 2010). The microbial composition we present in this work for the nymph is based on
360 pooled individuals from all instars. Hence, whether the overall bacterial community diversity and
361 structure experience any changes along nymphal development needs to be addressed in future
362 analyses. The bacterial 16S rRNA gene sequence has been used historically as a gold standard
363 genetic marker to infer bacteria taxonomic identity and community diversity in high-throughput
364 microbiome studies especially with the use of the partial sequencing of some of its nine
365 hypervariable sequence regions (V1 to V9) (Van de Peer et al. 1996). In our study, we used the
366 sequences of the combined V3-V4 variable regions, a 16S sequence section commonly utilized
367 in microbiome analysis; however, it must be noticed that the used of partial sequences of this
368 gene marker can result in overestimation of microbial diversity due to bacterial intragenomic
369 heterogeneity (Sun et al. 2013), and does not offer enough accuracy for bacteria identification at
370 the species or strain level (Johnson et al. 2019a). Being aware of this bias, we mainly describe
371 the microbial taxonomic diversity in this study at genus level as the deepest taxonomic rank.

372
373 We found that the intracellular symbiont *Wolbachia* dominated the full microbiota associated
374 with *M. velezangeli* which represent about 92% of the bacterial load within the body of nymph
375 and adult stages. The observed high abundance of *Wolbachia* in our samples may indicate a
376 proportionally elevated titer of this endosymbiont in the analyzed insects as well. Presence of
377 *Wolbachia* was also confirmed by PCR screening in *M. velezangeli* samples. Additionally, DNA
378 sequence analysis of wMvel *wsp* isolates indicates that they belong to *Wolbachia* B supergroup.
379 Insect-infecting *Wolbachia* strains with major biological effects have been mostly associated
380 with host reproductive disturbances such as CI, parthenogenesis, male-killing and feminization
381 (Serbus et al. 2008; Werren et al. 2008; Kaur et al. 2021). Furthermore, recent studies suggest
382 that *Wolbachia* infections may also influence other behavioral and physiological processes
383 including nutrition, defense and insecticide-resistance (Hosokawa et al. 2010; Nikoh et al. 2014;
384 Zug and Hammerstein 2015; Zhang et al. 2020; Soh and Veera 2022). In other mirid species the
385 presence of *Wolbachia* has been associated with reproductive alterations and nutritional roles.
386 For example in the predatory mirid bug *Macrolophus pygmaeus* this parasitic bacteria induces
387 strong CI (Machtelinckx et al. 2009). *Wolbachia* infection in the hematophagous bed bugs
388 *Cimex lectularius* and *Cimex hemipterus* (Hemiptera: Miridae) creates an obligate mutualism
389 that is essential for normal insect growth and reproduction via provision of B vitamins
390 (Hosokawa et al. 2010; Laidoudi et al. 2020). *Wolbachia* infections in insects have been mainly
391 associated with host reproductive tissues, but it is also commonly found in several insect
392 somatic organs or tissues including brain, salivary glands, gut, malpighian tubules, muscles, fat
393 bodies and also as habitant of bacteriocytes (Casper-Lindley et al. 2011; Pietri et al. 2016; Diouf
394 et al. 2018; Hosokawa et al. 2010). The presence of this parasitic endosymbiont in *M.*

395 *velezangeli* raises new questions about the possible biological implications for this plant bug.
396 The detection of two distinct wMvel *wsp* haplotypes in our analysis suggest that multiple
397 *Wolbachia* strains are present in the insect population tested here. However, insect individuals
398 seem to be infected by single *Wolbachia* strains. Additionally, the prevalence of infection is not
399 100% across all insect individuals, which seems to indicate that an obligate mutualism is not the
400 proper characterization of the *M. velezangeli* - *Wolbachia* relationship.

401
402 The extremely high abundance of ASV sequences identified as *Wolbachia* in our samples
403 (~92% overall abundance) could introduce a potential confounding effect in the estimation of
404 relative abundances for the actual gut-associated bacterial taxa. This possible issue was
405 recently analyzed by Wilches et al. (Wilches et al. 2021) using the spotted-wing drosophila
406 (*Drosophila suzukii*) as a case of study when high-throughput sequencing is applied to
407 investigate the microbiome in *Wolbachia*-infected insect samples. The authors detected large
408 discrepancies in the measures of alpha and beta diversity as well as in the relative abundances
409 of several bacteria taxa in the microbiome between *Wolbachia*-infected fly samples (mean
410 abundance of 98.8% for *Wolbachia* sequences) and non-infected. This and other work has
411 shown that in some cases removing the *Wolbachia*-associated reads from the analyses could
412 also have major impacts in the interpretation of the study results which may be especially
413 relevant when comparing infected samples versus non-infected (Wilches et al. 2021; Henry and
414 Ayroles 2021). We addressed the impact of removing *Wolbachia* reads in microbiota diversity
415 and structure in *M. velezangeli*. Here, the exclusion of *Wolbachia*-associated sequences did not
416 affect the similarity in microbiota composition between the life stages.

417
418 Apart from *Wolbachia* (Proteobacteria) the remaining top 10 most abundant bacterial genera
419 detected in *M. velezangeli* include members of Phylum Firmicutes (5.2% overall abundance)
420 such as *Romboutsia*, *Clostridium*, *Allobaculum*, *Blautia*, *Eubacterium_g23*, *Sporobacter*, *Dorea*
421 and *Faecalibacterium*, as well as the Proteobacteria genera *Paracoccus*, *Methylobacterium* and
422 the Chlorobi genus *Ignavibacterium*. Members of these Firmicutes genera have been previously
423 found in the alimentary canals of other arthropods (Grech-Mora et al. 1996; Husseneder et al.
424 2017; Li et al. 2020; Shukla and Beran 2020; Fang et al. 2020; Mejía-Alvarado et al. 2021). In
425 our study, *Romboutsia* (1.75%) (Firmicutes: Peptostreptococcaceae) was the second most
426 abundant bacterial genus across all samples. Members of this genus have been mainly found in
427 the gut microbiota from several vertebrate animals and insects (Gerritsen et al. 2014, 2017;
428 Ricaboni et al. 2016; Johnson et al. 2019B; Shukla and Beran 2020). There is no information
429 about the functional roles of the *Romboutsia* members as gut symbionts; however, they seem to
430 be well adapted to live within animal guts (Gerritsen et al. 2017, 2019). Similarly, members of
431 *Paracoccus*, *Methylobacterium* and *Ignavibacterium* are regular habitants of arthropod guts
432 (Zhang et al. 2016, 2018; Sajnaga et al. 2022). We infer that most abundant bacteria genera
433 found in this study, except *Wolbachia*, are likely residents of the *M. velezangeli* gut lumen and
434 may be involved in important biological processes for this plant bug. Several of these symbionts
435 (*Romboutsia*, *Ignavibacterium*, *Clostridium*, *Paracoccus*, *Allobaculum*, *Methylobacterium*,
436 *Faecalibacterium*, *Collinsella*, *Rothia* and *Sphingomonas*) were found to be consistently present
437 in all our samples of nymph and adult stages and we consider them as members of the insect
438 gut-associated core microbiota. Most of these genera, except for *Paracoccus*, *Methylobacterium*

439 and *Sphingomonas*, are primarily anaerobic bacteria taxa. Compared with the microbiota
440 associated with the cotton fleahopper *P. seriatus* (Hemiptera: Miridae) (Fu et al. 2021) and *A.*
441 *suturalis* (Hemiptera: Miridae) (Xue et al. 2021) the composition at the genus level within *M.*
442 *velezangeli* is clearly different. In *P. seriatus*, the gut microbiome is dominated by bacteria
443 *Diaphorobacter*, *Lactococcus*, *Pseudomonas*, *Pantoea* and *Izhakiella*; whereas in *A. suturalis*,
444 the gut microbiome is dominated by *Erwinia*, *Acinetobacter*, *Staphylococcus*, and *Lactococcus*.
445 These differences in microbiota composition could be associated with environmental differences
446 due to host-plant species, feeding habits and geographical origins.

447
448 Several bacteria isolates found in *M. velezangeli*'s microbiota that belong to genera *Paracoccus*,
449 *Methylobacterium* and *Sphingomonas* are potential culturable strains and may also represent
450 candidate symbionts for paratransgenic approaches such as symbiont-mediated RNAi (Dyson
451 et al. 2022). The use of bacteria within paratransgenesis applications requires a culturable
452 symbiont genetically manipulable and especially amenable under aerobic culturable conditions
453 (Ratcliffe et al. 2022). Conditions like these make easier bacterial engineering and
454 experimentation processes. Future attempts for selection of culturable bacterial isolates from
455 the *M. velezangeli* gut will reveal what microbes have these characteristics.

456 457 **Conclusions:**

458 The tropical plant bug *M. velezangeli* harbors a diverse microbiota, and in some cases it can be
459 dominated by the intracellular symbiont *Wolbachia*. The *M. velezangeli* microbiota also contain
460 potential gut-associated members of the genera *Romboutsia*, *Ignavibacterium*, *Clostridium*,
461 *Paracoccus*, *Allobaculum*, *Methylobacterium*, *Faecalibacterium*, *Collinsella*, *Rothia* and
462 *Sphingomonas*. The persistent detection of these bacteria genera in nymphal and adult life
463 stages indicates they seem to be part of the core microbiome and likely play important biological
464 roles in the normal development of *M. velezangeli*. Additionally, our observations suggest that
465 multiple *Wolbachia* strains are present in *M. velezangeli* populations, but insect individuals
466 seem to harbor single-strain infections. The findings reported by this study offer new avenues to
467 improve our understanding of the microbiome contribution in the biology of Miridae plant bugs
468 such as the tropical insect pest *M. velezangeli*.

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471
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477
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487

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490

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493 E. Acevedo. Pablo Benavides contributed to data interpretation. The first draft of the manuscript
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496

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Tables:

754 **Table 1.** Overview of Illumina 16SrRNA-amplicon sequencing of the bacterial microbiota in
 755 *Monalonion velezangeli*.
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Sample	Raw PE reads	Clean PE reads	Raw merged sequences	Clean merged sequences	Total ASVs	Good's coverage
Adult 1	173,233	96,265	74,667	69,782	63	100%
Adult 2	162,775	109,344	90,923	90,168	62	100%
Adult 3	167,579	109,789	91,180	90,009	45	100%
Nymph 1	170,239	110,169	87,856	86,212	82	99.99%
Nymph 2	172,490	85,101	60,756	58,026	85	100%
Nymph 3	169,525	115,394	97,798	97,605	71	100%

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Table 2. Alpha diversity indices for 16SrRNA-based microbiota in *Monalonion velezangeli*.

Sample	Observed	Chao1 (\pm se)	ACE (\pm se)	Fisher	Shannon (H')
Adult1	63	63 (\pm 0.0)	63 (\pm 1.69)	6.82	0.81
Adult2	62	62 (\pm 0.0)	62 (\pm 2.90)	6.50	0.41
Adult3	45	45 (\pm 0.0)	45 (\pm 1.91)	4.55	0.37
Nymph1	82	83 (\pm 2.33)	82.5 (\pm 3.25)	8.94	0.46
Nymph2	85	85 (\pm 0.0)	85 (\pm 2.97)	9.78	1.12
Nymph3	71	71 (\pm 0.0)	71 (\pm 2.66)	7.49	0.39

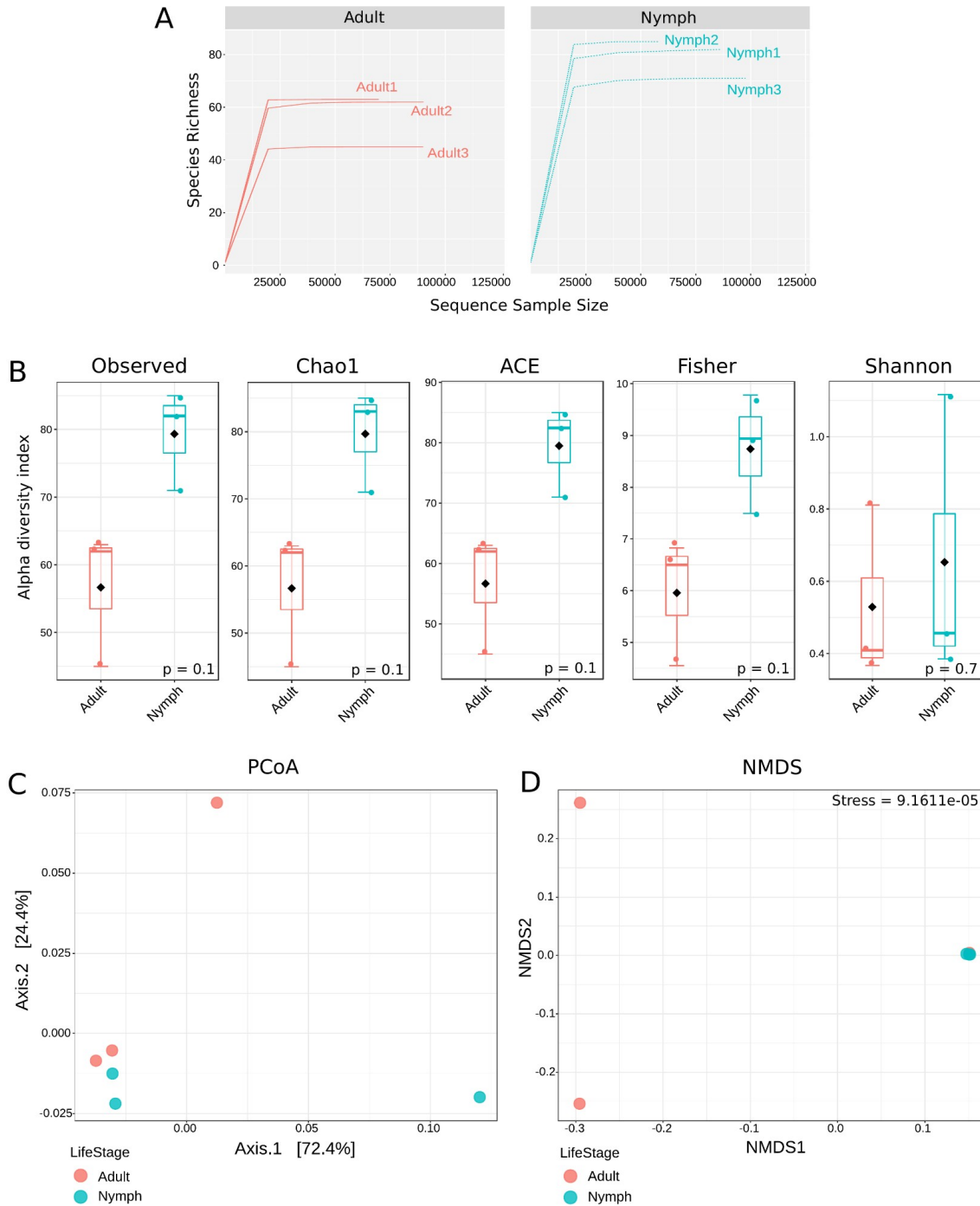
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Table 3. Bacterial genus annotations for ASVs considered as members of the core microbiota in *Monalonion velezangeli*.

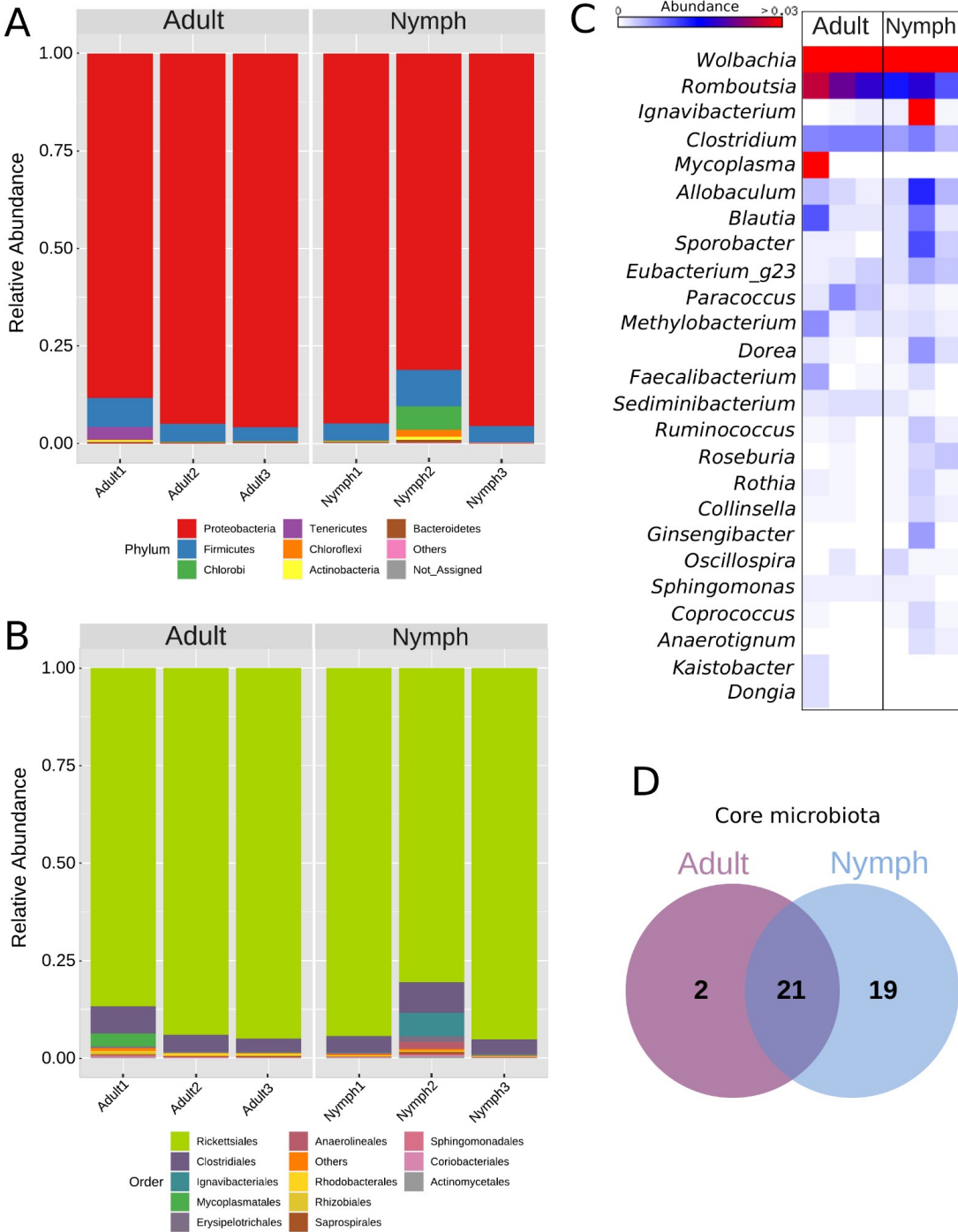
ID	Overall abundance	Genus (Family) rank annotation[#]
ASV01	91.7%	<i>Wolbachia</i> (Rickettsiaceae)
ASV02	0.97%	<i>Romboutsia</i> (Peptostreptococcaceae)*
ASV03	0.79%	<i>Romboutsia</i> (Peptostreptococcaceae)*
ASV04	0.73%	<i>Ignavibacterium</i> (Ignavibacteriaceae)*
ASV05	0.47%	<i>Clostridium</i> (Clostridiaceae)*
ASV06	0.26%	<i>Paracoccus</i> (Rhodobacteraceae)
ASV07	0.25%	Undetermined (Anaerolineaceae)*
ASV08	0.22%	<i>Allobaculum</i> (Erysipelotrichaceae)
ASV09	0.19%	<i>Methylobacterium</i> (Methylobacteriaceae)
ASV10	0.14%	<i>Sediminibacterium</i> (Chitinophagaceae)
ASV11	0.13%	<i>Allobaculum</i> (Erysipelotrichaceae)
ASV12	0.12%	<i>Faecalibacterium</i> (Ruminococcaceae)
ASV13	0.11%	<i>Clostridium</i> (Clostridiaceae)
ASV14	0.09%	Undetermined (Lachnospiraceae)
ASV15	0.09%	<i>Collinsella</i> (Coriobacteriaceae)
ASV16	0.09%	<i>Rothia</i> (Micrococcaceae)
ASV17	0.06%	<i>Clostridium</i> (Clostridiaceae)
ASV18	0.06%	Undetermined (Peptostreptococcaceae)
ASV19	0.06%	<i>Allobaculum</i> (Erysipelotrichaceae)
ASV20	0.05%	<i>Sphingomonas</i> (Sphingomonadaceae)
ASV21	0.04%	Undetermined (Coriobacteriaceae)

772 # The taxonomic classification was determined using the 16S GreenGenes (GG) database with a
773 confidence level of ≥ 0.7 . For ASVs where GG failed to assign a Genus taxon, the Genus identification
774 was performed using the BLASTn and BioCloud search algorithms with a concomitant $\geq 97\%$ sequence
775 identity for their top hits (taxa denoted with asterisk [*]). Further details can be found in the Methods
776 section.

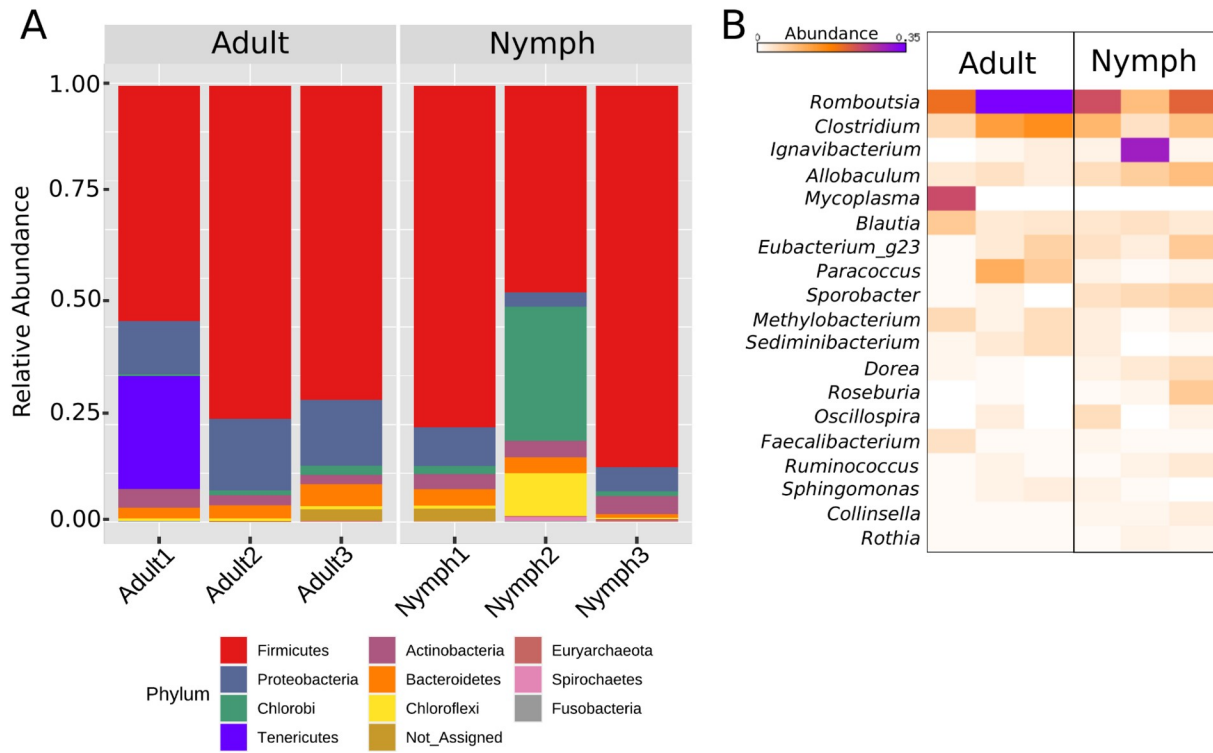
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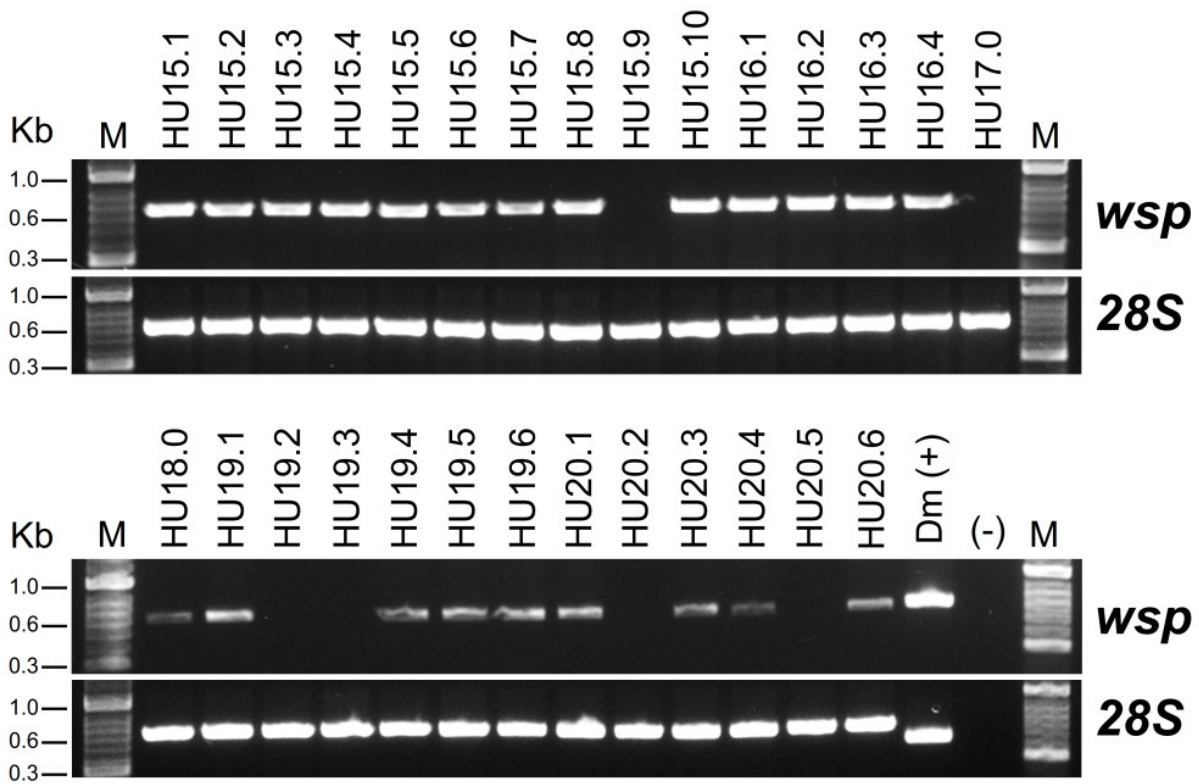
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 801 **Figure 1.** Diversity and community structure of the bacterial microbiota in adult and nymph life
 802 stages of *Monalonia velezangeli*. (A) Rarefaction curves. (B) Alpha diversity indices and their
 803 corresponding p-value of the Mann-Whitney U test. (C) Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA)
 804 plot based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity of bacterial communities in nymphs and adults. (D) Non-
 805 metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination analysis plot based on Bray-Curtis
 806 dissimilarity of bacterial communities in nymphs and adults. Stress value represents the
 807 goodness-of-fit for the NMDS analysis.



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811 **Figure 2.** Taxonomic composition of the bacterial microbiota in nymphs and adults of
812 *Monalonia velezangeli*. (A) Relative abundance at Phylum level. (B) Relative abundance at
813 Order level. (C) Heatmap for relative abundances at genus level. (D) Number of ASV
814 sequences consistently detected on either adults or nymphs and number of shared ASVs (circle
815 intersection) as members of the core microbiota.

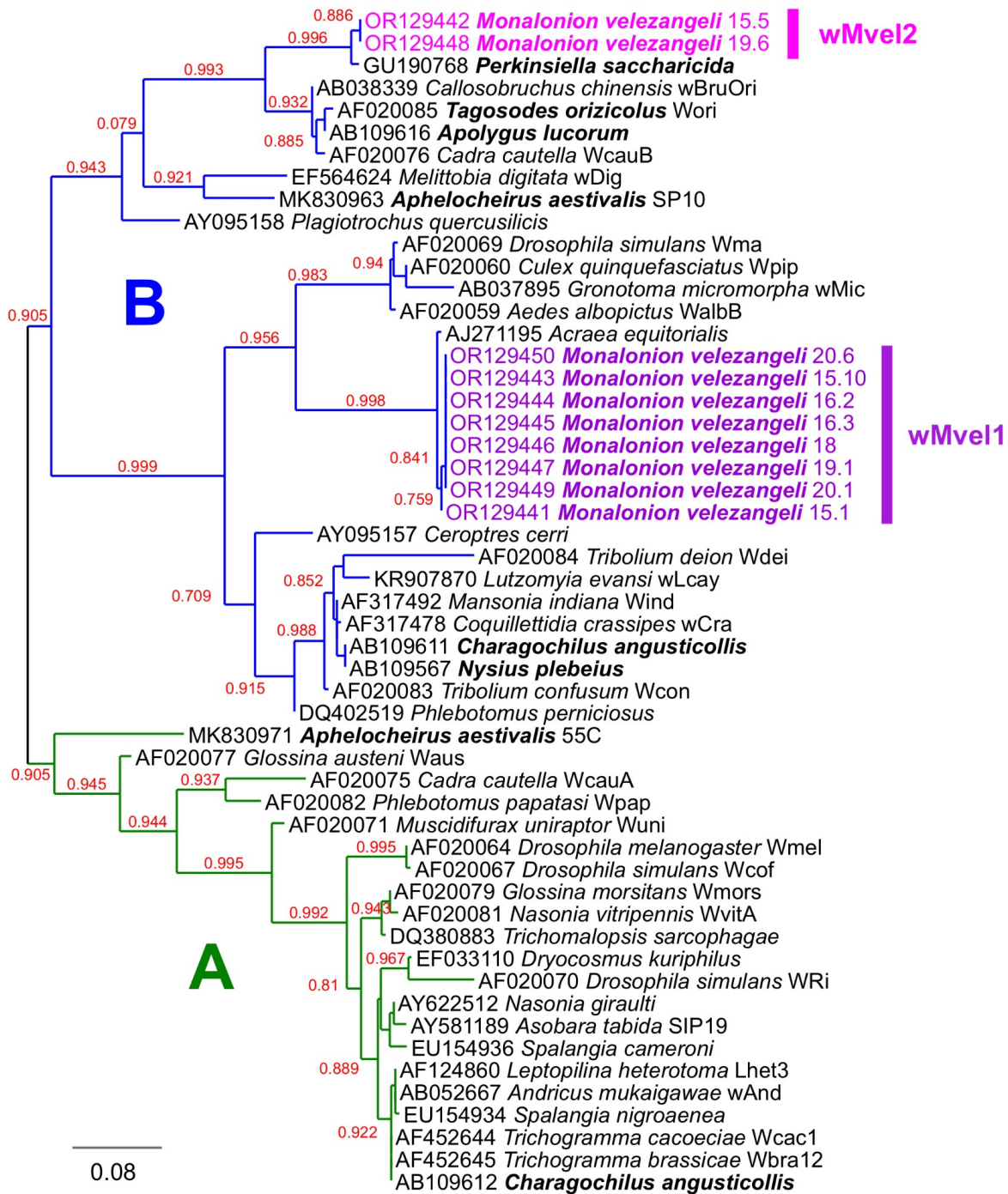


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 818 **Figure 3.** Relative abundance of the bacterial microbiota, with the exclusion of *Wolbachia*-
 819 associated sequences, for nymphs and adults of *Monalonion velezangeli*. (A) Relative
 820 abundances at Phylum level. (B) Heatmap of relative abundances at genus level.
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 823 **Figure 4.** Molecular screening for presence of *Wolbachia* endosymbiont in *Monalonion*
 824 *velezangeli* samples. DNA samples from single insects (HU15.1 to HU20.6) were tested for
 825 PCR amplification of the *Wolbachia wsp* gene using *wsp81F* and *wsp691R* primers. Quality of
 826 DNA was tested by amplification of the 28S rRNA (28S) gene fragment (~700 bp). DNA from a
 827 *Drosophila melanogaster* (Dm) population was used as positive control for *Wolbachia* infection,
 828 and water (-) as negative control.

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 833 **Figure 5.** Maximum Likelihood phylogenetic tree of *Wolbachia wsp* sequences from *Monalonia*
 834 *velezangeli* and representative *Wolbachia* strains from other host insects at the GenBank
 835 database. *Wolbachia* supergroups A (green branch) and B (blue branch) clusters based on *wsp*
 836 sequences are shown. Sequence haplotypes clustering of the *M. velezangeli* *wsp* isolates,
 837 wMvel1 and wMvel2, are shown in purple and pink colors respectively. Hemiptera species are
 838 highlighted in bold letters. The aLRT branch supports are indicated as red numbers. Genbank
 839 accession numbers precede each sequence name.