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Nine facultative endosymbionts in aphids. A review

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Abstract

Aphids are frequently engaged in mutualistic associations with endosymbionts. Symbionts are bacterial or fungal microorganisms that can be obligate or facultative to aphids. Research showed facultative (or secondary) symbionts have numerous effects on their host aphids such as resistance to heat shock, parasitoids and fungus etc., which may consequently promote a co-evolution between symbionts and hosts. However, this symbiotic relation may be affected by several factors, such as the ability of symbionts to spread from aphids to others within and across populations, and the cost of infections for hosts. Moreover, aphid-symbionts interactions may be affected by aphid living environment such as its host plant, the presence of natural enemies or the temperature. Here we firstly described the functions of nine facultative symbionts (*Serratia symbiotica*, *Hamiltonella defensa*, *Regiella insecticola*, *Rickettsia*, *Rickettsiella*, PAXS (pea aphid X-type symbiont), *Spiroplasma*, *Wolbachia* and *Arsenophonus*) studied in aphids one by one, and discussed the associations between these symbionts and aphids, plants and environment. We aim to have a better knowledge of the roles the facultative symbionts play in aphid biology, ecology and evolution, which we believe can provide new inspirations for aphid control.

Key words: Facultative symbionts; Aphididae; Function; Interaction; Evolution

INTRODUCTION

Symbionts are symbiotic microorganisms known to have a close and ongoing mutualistic relationship (i.e., win-win interactions, for instance when one partner species provides shelter or nutrition while the other offers protection against natural enemies (Janzen, 1966)) with a wide diversity of insects. Aphid (Hemiptera: Aphididae) -symbiont interactions are estimated to have started 160 to 280 million years ago (Fukatsu, 1994). Since then, co-evolution of symbionts with their hosts allowed mutualism on a long-term.

Some symbionts are obligates (also called primary) while others are facultative (also called secondary or S-symbionts). In aphids, obligate symbiont *Buchnera aphidicola* is indispensable for that it can provide them essential amino acids they cannot obtain from the phloem of plants (Douglas, 1998; Shigenobu et al., 2000; Baumann, 2005). Facultative symbionts are numerous and exhibit diverse effects on hosts through various functions that can be beneficial or detrimental to aphids (Oliver et al., 2010). Frequency of facultative symbionts in nature is maintained intermediately (Oliver, 2014) as it exists because of the possible cost for the infection such as longevity reduction (Vorburger, 2011).

The functions conferred by facultative symbionts may depend on various factors (Chen et al., 2000; Asplen et al., 2014; Peccoud et al., 2015). Indeed, the ability of symbionts to spread within and across aphid populations will determine the infection frequency and finally whether symbiont functions can remain in some environments.

Moreover, co-infection (i.e., infection of multiple symbiont species in one host simultaneously) as well as aphid living environment (e.g., aphid host plant, presence of natural enemies, temperature) may modify the way symbionts affect their hosts.

In the present paper, we systematically described the effects that have been reported of nine most studied facultative symbionts on aphids. We first described the occurrence of facultative symbionts, then reviewed the nine most studied aphid symbionts and their functions, and finally analyzed the interactions with environmental factors that may affect symbionts presence and functions.

1 Coexistence with host aphid

1.1 Transmission and co-infection

There are two transmission ways for symbionts to spread their distribution. Vertical transfer (i.e., from mother to offspring) is symbiont's main pathway to spread within a population, while horizontal transfer (i.e., from one individual to another within one population or between species) occasionally happens, allowing them to spread more widely helping to shape their distributions (Russell et al., 2003; Russell and Moran, 2005; Jaenike, 2012). Horizontal transfer is notably possible by the use of an intermediary individual. For instance, parasitoids, that sequentially stab infected or uninfected aphids, can act as vectors to transfer symbionts (Gehrer and Vorburger, 2012). However, horizontal transmission rate is considered low (Russell and Moran, 2005). Study indicated that through aphid sexual reproduction, maternal transmission

can fail while paternal transmission is very rare (Peccoud et al., 2014). Also, selection against symbiont-positive aphids may occur (Darby et al., 2001).

Co-infection (i.e., infection of multiple symbiont species in one host simultaneously) are frequently observed (Gómez-Valero et al., 2004; Tsuchida et al., 2004; Oliver et al., 2006; Frantz et al., 2009; Nyabuga et al., 2010; Ferrari et al., 2012; Russell et al., 2013; Oliver et al., 2014; Vorburger, 2014). However, the frequency of co-infection and combination preference among different symbionts are rarely studied. Pea aphid *Acyrtosiphon pisum* commonly harbor one facultative symbiont rather than two (Tsuchida et al., 2002) since single infection is stable while symbiont loss is observed with multiple infection (Smith et al., 2015).

Coexistent symbionts may affect each other which play a significant role in determining the distributions and functions of symbionts in their host. All negative, neutral and positive interactions are possible. For instance, it was reported that *B. aphidicola* population can be significantly suppressed by the presence of *Rickettsia*, particularly at the young stage of aphid adults (Sakurai et al., 2005), while the pathogen-protective phenotype conferred by *Rickettsia* and *Spiroplasma* was found not to be influenced in the presence of *H. defensa* (Łukasik et al., 2013b). Finally, co-infection of *H. defensa-Spiroplasma*, *R. insecticola-Spiroplasma* (Nyabuga et al., 2010) or *H. defensa-S. symbiotica* (Oliver et al., 2006) may provide greater protection, compared to aphids infected by *H. defensa* or *R. insecticola* alone. Moreover, it can also be complicated: the protective phenotype of *H. defensa* is not affected by the

coexistence of *Rickettsiella*, but the abundance of *H. defensa* is suppressed; whereas *H. defensa* is negative to *Rickettsiella*-mediated phenotype, but no influence on *Rickettsiella* abundance (Leclair et al., 2016a). However, the interactions among different symbionts can vary according to the genotype of the hosts, the species, the number of symbionts and even their density in the hosts (Sakurai et al., 2005; Łukasik et al., 2013b).

1.2 Frequency and cost of infection

Although insects benefit from facultative symbionts substantially, the frequency of facultative symbionts remains at intermediate level (Castañeda et al., 2010; Oliver et al., 2014). It can vary according to temporal and spatial gradients, food plant associations (Oliver et al., 2014) or the presence of natural enemies (Oliver et al., 2008). One reason for the moderate frequency of infection is that it may represent a cost for aphids (Scarborough et al., 2005; Oliver et al., 2003; 2008). Evidences for costs are variable between studies, with some documenting no cost under benign conditions (Castañeda et al., 2010), while others reporting aphid fitness reduction (Sakurai et al., 2005; Simon et al., 2007; Laughton et al., 2013). For example, aphids affected with *S. symbiotica* or *H. defensa* could suffer reduced longevity (Chen et al., 2000; Vorburger and Gouskov, 2011), shorter lifetime reproduction when the parasitoid is absent (Vorburger et al., 2013), delayed development time and reduced mass (Dykstra et al., 2014). Interestingly, for *H. defensa*, the stronger protection one strain confers, the less reduced longevity and lifetime reproduction unparasitized aphid

suffers (Cayetano et al., 2015).

Moreover, facultative symbionts may negatively affect the interactions between their hosts and other organisms. For instance, *A. pisum* infected by parasitoid-protective symbionts may exert less defensive behaviors against predators such as ladybeetles, thus suffering from a higher predation than symbiont-free aphids (Polin et al., 2014). Similar observations were reported for aphids co-infected with *Rickettsiella viridis* and *H. defensa*, compared with aphids that were single infected with *R. viridis* (Polin et al., 2015).

2 Nine facultative symbionts: descriptions and functions

Facultative symbionts are pleomorphic (i.e., tubular, globular and short rods) under different endosymbiotic conditions (Fukatsu et al., 2000). They can live in hemolymph within sheath cells that are related to the bacteriome, which also host primary symbiont *B. aphidicola*, or can be located within bacteriocytes, in this case excluding *B. aphidicola* (Oliver et al., 2010). So far, nine facultative symbiont species have been repeatedly studied in aphids (Table 1).

Facultative symbiotic bacteria can influence several aspects of aphid ecology (Table 2; Figure 1). Oliver et al. (2003) first proposed the “symbiont-mediated resistance” to describe that symbionts can endow aphids with defense against parasitoid attacks. Moreover, symbionts are associated with aphid fitness, competitiveness, their capacity of exploiting their host plants and stress resistance

(Montllor et al., 2002; Leonardo and Muiru, 2003; Oliver et al., 2005; Haine, 2008). Aphids, like any other animals, carry their own immune response to harmful environmental factors such as the presence of pathogens, parasitism and high temperature. However, when infected by symbionts, some species (e.g., the pea aphid) may miss critical genes involved in recognition, signaling and killing of microbes (Elsik, 2010; Gerardo et al., 2010). An explanation may be that their association with mutualistic symbionts could benefit their vitality without a strong immune protection. For instance, the expression levels of Macrophage Migration Inhibitory Factors genes (*ApMIFs*) in *A. pisum*, that increase upon challenge with a parasitoid or a Gram-negative bacteria, is reduced in the presence of facultative symbionts (Dubreuil et al., 2014). As for physiological responses, the presence of facultative symbiont in *A. pisum* can significantly influence the encapsulation response and immune cell counts, whereas the host genotype has less effect on determining immunity outcomes (Laughton et al., 2016). Finally, the facultative symbionts play important roles in shaping their host immunity. Most of the studies focused on one single effect of a facultative symbiont on one aphid species (Scarborough et al., 2005; Guay et al., 2009; Oliver et al., 2009; Vorburger et al., 2009a; Simon et al., 2011). However, a single endosymbiont can also simultaneously confer multiple ecological benefits to its host (Heyworth and Ferrari, 2015).

2.1 *Serratia symbiotica*

Chen and Purcell (1997) designated pea aphid secondary symbiont as PASS and the

symbiont was later referred to as R-type (Sandström et al., 2001). Moran et al. (2005) then designated R-type symbionts as “*Candidatus Serratia symbiotica*” by phylogenetic analysis through *gyrB*, *recA* and 16S rRNA genes.

Serratia symbiotica has been detected in different aphid species and was diverged into two phylogenetic clades (cluster A and B) based on the 16 rRNA gene (Lamelas et al., 2008). Furthermore, it may undergo the transition from facultative symbiont to obligate symbiont (Pérez-Brocal et al., 2006; Lamelas et al., 2008; Manzano-Marín and Latorre, 2014). For instance, one of its cluster (cluster B) has become a co-obligate endosymbiont of *B. aphidicola* as the primary symbiont in the aphid *Cinara cedri* Mimeur (Lamelas et al., 2008; 2011). Nevertheless, in other aphid species such as *A. pisum*, such a change has not been observed (Manzano-Marín and Latorre, 2014).

S. symbiotica is involved in defense against various adverse conditions for the host aphids. First is heat resistance (Chen et al., 2000; Montllor et al., 2002; Gómez-Valero et al., 2004). For instance the frequency of *S. symbiotica* in *A. pisum* in California can increase in two-third with increasing seasonal temperature (Montllor et al., 2002). Additionally, *S. symbiotica* plays important role in resistance to parasitoid wasps in inducing the mortality of developing parasitoid larvae four to five days after oviposition (Oliver et al., 2003; 2005). *S. symbiotica* with other symbionts (e.g., *Hamiltonella defensa*, see below) also provide protection against predators, by reducing the fitness and reproduction of ladybeetles (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae) (Costopoulos et al., 2014). Moreover, evidences also showed potential nutrition supply

capacity of *S. symbiotica* (Koga et al., 2003; Pérez-Brocal et al., 2006; Koga et al., 2007).

2.2 *Hamiltonella defensa*

The symbiont found in the gut and ovaries of aphids was designated as PABS (pea aphid Bemisia-like symbiont) because of the high 16S rDNA sequence similarity to a facultative symbiont in the silverleaf whiteflies *Bemisia tabaci* Gennadius (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae) (Darby et al., 2001). It was also referred to as T-type symbiont (Sandström et al., 2001) and then named as “*Candidatus* *Hamiltonella defensa*” to honor the evolutionary biologist William D. Hamilton (Moran et al., 2005).

Aphids with *H. defensa* are resistant to heat shock even though not as tolerant as *S. symbiotica* (Russell and Moran, 2006). Castañeda et al. (2010) reported *H. defensa* can increase aphid body mass and fecundity. However, the most famous effect of *H. defensa* is that this bacteria protect aphid against parasitoid wasps by disturbing their development inside aphid host (Oliver et al., 2003; 2005; 2008) and the level of protection depends on various factors. First, it depends on symbiont isolates. Indeed, from various ones of *H. defensa*, the conferred resistance can vary considerably (Leclair et al., 2016b), whereas one *H. defensa* isolate confers similar levels of resistance in different pea aphid clones (Oliver et al., 2005). Besides, protection level also rely on symbiont consortium (Leclair et al., 2016b) and aphid species, because no parasitoid resistance was conferred to *Sitobion avenae* by *H. defensa* (Łukasik et al., 2015). Also, *H. defensa*-conferred resistance varies according to parasitoid species.

Cayetano and Vorburger (2015) notably reported that it provides strong protection against *Lysiphlebus fabarum* Marshall (Hymenoptera: Braconidae) and *Aphidius colemani* Viereck (Hymenoptera: Braconidae), but not so against other parasitoid species. In addition, three asexual lines of *L. fabarum* performed variously when facing different symbiont strains, in the end resulting in a significant genotype-by-genotype interaction (Cayetano and Vorburger, 2015). Moreover, *H. defensa* in *A. pisum* from different host plant provide protection to different parasitoids indicating the specific protection against parasitoids of the symbiont (McClean and Godfray, 2015). Finally, environmental factors such as heat may reduce the parasitoid resistance conferred by *H. defensa* (Guay et al., 2009).

Sometimes, *H. defensa* may not directly increase aphid resistance to some parasitoid species, but can still decrease their attraction: experienced parasitoids may prefer to oviposit into uninfected aphid compared with infected ones (Łukasik et al., 2013a). However, parasitoids can adapt to aphid resistance after having been exposed to *H. defensa* for a certain period of time (Dion et al., 2011), although they still showed lower emergence, longer development time and smaller size than other parasitoids developing in aphids without *H. defensa* (Schmid et al., 2012). *H. defensa*-based protection depend on a kind of bacteriophages called *Acyrtosiphon pisum* Secondary Endosymbionts (APSEs) (van der Wilk et al., 1999; Sandstrom et al., 2001; Degnan and Moran, 2008a; Oliver et al., 2009; Duron, 2014; Martinez et al., 2014; Vorburger, 2014). To date, seven different APSE strains have been partially sequenced and

identified for toxin variation (Degnan and Moran, 2008b).

2.3 *Regiella insecticola*

The bacterium detected from strains belonging to the γ -*Proteobacteria* was firstly designated as U-type (Sandström et al., 2001) and referred to as PAUS (pea aphid U-type symbiont) (Tsuchida et al., 2002). Later, Moran *et al.* (2005) named it “*Candidatus Regiella insecticola*” in honor of the entomologist Reginald F. Chapman and found that *H. defensa* and *R. insecticola* are sister groups.

Host plant fitness is likely to be affected by aphid genomic variation (Leonardo, 2004), and also by *R. insecticola* (Tsuchida et al., 2004; 2011), but the effect rely on the host genotype. Actually, the fitness of *R. insecticola*-infected *A. pisum* on red clover *Trifolium pratense* L. varies depending on aphid clones (Ferrari et al., 2007).

R. insecticola can provide protection to aphids against pathogen and parasitoids. For instance, infected *A. pisum* showed a decreased mortality to a fungal entomopathogen *Pandora neoaphidis* (Ferrari et al., 2004; Scarborough et al., 2005; Łukasik et al., 2013c; 2015). Parasitoids resistance provided by *R. insecticola* was showed to be conferred by one of its specific isolate (Vorburger et al., 2009a), suggesting that different strains of the symbiont may provide various effects on its host aphid. Besides, *R. insecticola* play a role in inducing phenotypic variation of *A. pisum*, such as reducing winged offspring and altering the timing of sexual reproduction (Leonardo and Mondor, 2006). However, functions of *R. insecticola* are affected by temperature indicating the conditional benefit of the symbiont (Russell and Moran,

2006).

2.4 *Rickettsia*

Rickettsia has rods shape and is about 2 μm long and 0.5 μm thick (Sakurai et al., 2005). It was identified for the first time on *A. pisum* California clones and was named PAR (Pea Aphid *Rickettsia*) (Chen et al., 1996). PAR was then referred to as *Rickettsia* symbiont due to its belonging to the same named genus (Tsuchida et al., 2002). *Rickettsia* is localized in secondary mycetocytes and sheath cells (i.e., two types of endosymbiosis cells).

Rickettsia can increase the survival and fecundity of aphids. One clone of *A. pisum* infected with *Rickettsia* showed increased fitness and fecundity at 25°C (Chen et al., 2000). Moreover, it can confer strong resistance to *P. neoaphidis* for *A. pisum* compared with uninfected ones (Łukasik et al., 2013c). However, when co-existing with *S. symbiotica*, heat-stress resistance provided by *Rickettsia* was not only cancelled but also heat sensitivity increased (Montllor et al., 2002).

In addition, *Rickettsia* infection can negatively affect its host fitness (Sakurai et al., 2005). For example, *Rickettsia*-infected *A. pisum* would have lower fitness on bur clover *Medicago hispida* Gaertn and sweet pea *Lathyrus odoratus* L. at 20°C compared to uninfected ones (Chen et al., 2000). The detrimental effect of *Rickettsia* on plant fitness is surprising regarding the high prevalence of this symbiont in some aphid populations (Simon et al., 2007). Several explanations have been proposed (Fukatsu et al., 2000; 2001): firstly, vertical transmission fidelity as it is the main pathway for most

symbionts and *Rickettsia* is no exception; secondly, the frequency of horizontal transmission, that increases symbiont chance to spread (Sakurai et al., 2005) (see below for a description of symbiont transmission strategies); thirdly, fitness influence for their host, as symbionts endow benefits to aphids resulting in a better survival for themselves.

2.5 *Rickettsiella*

Rickettsiella can be located in secondary bacteriocytes, sheath cells, various tissues and the hemolymph (Tsuchida et al., 2010). Later the designation “*Candidatus Rickettsiella viridis*” was proposed for this symbiont in *A. pisum* (Tsuchida et al., 2014).

Rickettsiella can change the body color of *A. pisum* from red to green in natural populations by increasing blue green polycyclic quinones in the body, which consequently may confer protection from predators (Tsuchida et al., 2010). Thus it can be seen that the facultative symbionts can also affect important ecological traits such as phenotype of aphids except for biological traits. The body color of aphid tends to be greener by coinfection with *Hamiltonella* whereas the aphid fitness decreases compared with single infection of *Rickettsiella* (Tsuchida et al., 2014).

Rickettsiella also protects *A. pisum* against the important fungal pathogen *P. neoaphidis* by decreasing fungal sporulation on dead aphids (Łukasik et al., 2013c) although the symbiont has been considered as pathogens to other arthropods (Cordaux et al., 2007).

2.6 PAXS (X-type)

PAXS (pea aphid X-type symbiont) was a newly discovered symbiont from *A. pisum* and was found associated with *H. defensa* infection (Guay et al., 2009). Coinfection of PAXS and *H. defensa* may confer additional resistance to *A. ervi* compared with *H. defensa* alone and PAXS-*H. defensa* coinfection could remain high resistance under heat stress whereas *H. defensa* alone couldn't (Guay et al., 2009). What's more, PAXS-*H. defensa*/APSE coinfection protect *A. pisum* from parasitism by *A. ervi* even when superparasitised, however, protection against *A. ervi* endowed by *H. defensa*/APSE can be overcome by superparasitism (Donald et al., 2016). In addition, the study of Heyworth and Ferrari (2015) showed that PAXS can confer multiple ecological benefits to *A. pisum* including the resistance to parasitoid, *P. neoaphidis* and heat shock stress.

2.7 *Spiroplasma*

A symbiotic bacterium belonging to the genus *Spiroplasma* was firstly discovered from Japanese aphid strains and referred to as *Spiroplasma* symbiont (Fukatsu et al., 2001). To date, the genus *Spiroplasma* has been detected in several insect orders such as Diptera (Xie et al., 2010), Lepidoptera (Jiggins et al., 2000), Coleoptera (Majerus et al., 1999) and Hemiptera (Fukatsu et al., 2001).

In aphids, *Spiroplasma* infection has been found to induce male-killing phenotype (Simon et al., 2011) and confer fungi resistance by reducing mortality and decreasing fungal sporulation (Łukasik et al., 2013c). Conversely, *Spiroplasma* exhibited negative effects on growth, reproduction and longevity, especially in older adults (Fukatsu et al.,

2001). However, when aphids were co-infected with *H. defensa-Spiroplasma* or *R. insecticola-Spiroplasma*, both the parasitism and mummification reduced significantly and the protection levels were even stronger than *H. defensa* or *R. insecticola* themselves (Nyabuga et al., 2010) implying the synergistic effect of *Spiroplasma* for the parasitoid resistance. Studied in *A. pisum*, *Spiroplasma* occurred more commonly among aphids collected from red clover and alfalfa *Medicago sativa* L. than pea *Pisum sativum* L. and broad bean *Vicia faba* L. (Frantz et al., 2009) suggesting the associations between facultative symbionts and aphid biotypes from different host plants.

2.8 *Wolbachia*

Wolbachia was first reported in the gonads of mosquito *Culex pipiens* Linnaeus (Hertig, 1936), whereas first found in aphids (*Toxoptera citricida* Kirkaldy and *Aphis craccivora* Koch) based on the sequencing of the *wsp* gene in 2000 (Jeyaprakash and Hoy, 2000). This symbiont can be located in head, thorax, abdomen, salivary glands, gastrointestinal tract and also reproductive tissues in *Drosophila* (Hadfield and Axton, 1999), whereas it may reside in reproductive tissues and muscles in aphids (Wang et al., 2014).

Wolbachia is usually considered to have a low prevalence in aphids. However, several studies recently focused on their mutualism. Augustinos et al. (2011) notably reported that 37 among 425 aphid samples collected from Spain, Portugal, Greece, Israel and Iran were infected with *Wolbachia*, while *Wolbachia* was also found to be

widespread in Chinese aphids (Wang et al., 2014). Only a little progress has been made about the function of this bacteria in aphids so far. Research showed it is related with the high level of parthenogenesis in banana aphid *Pentalonia nigronervosa* Coquerel (De Clerck et al., 2014). Furthermore, co-obligatory symbiosis exists between *B. aphidicola* and *Wolbachia* in *P. nigronervosa*, favoring the supply of essential nutrients to the host aphid (De Clerck et al., 2015). But more work is needed to investigate if this symbiont has other effects on aphids.

2.9 *Arsenophonus*

Arsenophonus was initially discovered in the parasitoid wasp, *Nasonia vitripennis*, associated with son-killer trait and most commonly in straight rods shape (Huger et al., 1985), and then named it *Arsenophonus nasoniae* (Ghera et al., 1991). *Arsenophonus* genus has been identified in many insect species including aphids but not in *A. pisum* so far (Tsuchida et al., 2002; Russell et al., 2003; Nováková et al., 2009).

Arsenophonus provides general fitness benefits to aphids regardless of host plant resistance (Wulff and White, 2015), but no resistance to parasitoid and fungi (Wulff et al., 2013). Also, *Arsenophonus* can mediate dietary specialization of some herbivores. For instance, *A. craccivora* was found specialized on locust tree *Robinia pseudoacacia* L. when infected with the symbiont, on the contrary, uninfected individuals appeared alfalfa-biotype (Wagner et al., 2015). In addition, *Arsenophonus* are commonly infected with the bacteriophage APSE (Duron, 2014) demonstrating that APSE may play important role in protective symbiosis. However, research of *Arsenophonus*

strains in aphid is still in the infancy stage and the infections spread patterns are unclear (Jousselin et al., 2013).

3 Interactions and evolution of facultative symbionts

3.1 Symbionts interactions with biotic and abiotic environment

Symbionts, aphids, plants, natural enemies and the environment are all directly or indirectly associated with each other composing a reticular structure (Figure 2) and the defensive symbionts may have the potential to alter the food web structure and dynamics (Rothacher et al., 2016; Hrček et al., 2016).

The interrelation study between these factors become more prevalent in recent years, such as host plant, parasitoid and symbiont (Mclean and Godfray, 2015); aphid, host plant and symbiont (Peccoud et al., 2015; Zytynska et al., 2016); host plant, parasitoid, natural enemies, symbiont and environment (Smith et al., 2015). First, as described above regarding *Arsenophonus*, facultative symbionts may influence the adaptation and distribution of their hosts through the colonization of new plants and climatic regions (Henry et al., 2013). Second, infection pattern of facultative symbionts are closely related to the host plant species. For example, *R. insecticola* emerge frequently in *A. pisum* collected from *Trifolium* whereas *S. symbiotica* with aphids collected from *Cytisus*, *Pisum* and *Vicia* (Ferrari et al., 2012). Third, parasitoids are negatively affected by defensive symbionts (implying a longer developmental time and reduced mass - Nyabuga et al., 2010) while the abundance of *H. defensa* is also

influenced by parasitism (Martinez et al., 2014). Regarding the symbiont-parasitoid interaction, On one hand, different genotypes of parasitoids have different abilities to overcome *H. defensa*, generating a symbiont \times parasitoid genotype interaction (Vorburger et al., 2009b). Some parasitoids exhibit rapid evolution when they are exposed to *H. defensa*, which finally allow them to reach a similar parasitism rate on infested aphids than on symbiont-free ones (Dion et al., 2011). On the other hand, different strains of *H. defensa* confer diverse levels of protection against parasitoids (Oliver et al., 2005), imposing different evolutionary challenges to the parasitoids. Thus, the host-parasite interaction mediated by symbionts may be exerted through line-by-line genetic specificity (Rouchet and Vorburger, 2014). Fourth, both the frequency (Smith et al., 2015) and protective level (Hrček et al., 2016) are negatively correlated to aphid mortality caused by other natural enemies that are not targeted by the symbionts. Finally, symbiotic functions and interactions often vary under different environment conditions. For example, defensive symbionts frequencies shift seasonally in order to adapt the seasonal changing of parasitoid pressures (Smith et al., 2015). Such variations act as an important role in the prevalence and distributions of symbiosis in nature (Russell and Moran, 2006).

3.2 Endosymbiont-host coevolution

The endosymbiotic diversity of aphids illuminates the dynamic of endosymbiotic evolution (Fukatsu, 1994). *H. defensa* of *A. pisum* and *B. tabaci* is estimated to have diverged 17 to 34 million years ago (Darby et al., 2001). Facultative symbionts can

spread among different insect genotypes and exchange genes with other microbes which may expand ecological opportunities for insects (Janson et al., 2008). Also, *S. symbiotica* increases the heat tolerance of *A. pisum* demonstrating the abiotic environment adaptations conferred by symbionts (Russell and Moran, 2006), implying that symbionts may play a role in shaping the geographic distributions of host and consequently promote the host evolution on population level.

All symbionts transmitted vertically suffer gene loss over evolutionary time leaving a smaller genome (Burke and Moran, 2011). Many symbionts remain only the most essential functions including genes that benefit hosts (McCutcheon and Moran, 2012). For example, the genome of *S. symbiotica* decayed dramatically compared with free-living relatives of the same genus through deletions, pseudogenes and rearrangements (Burke and Moran, 2011). *B. aphidicola* has experienced a reductive process of genome size, retaining only essential genes for its specialized lifestyle (Gil et al., 2002) and might be replaced by the coexisting facultative symbiont (Gómez-Valero et al., 2004; Pérez-Brocal et al., 2006; Lamelas et al., 2008; 2011). To conclude, the endosymbionts may go through a long term evolutionary transition from free-living microbe in the early stage to obligate mutualism in host.

Conclusions

Facultative symbionts are undoubtedly involved in aphid fitness and evolution. There exist abundant symbionts in aphid and more (except for these nine) will be studied in

the future which consequently give us the implications for better control of aphid. Symbiont-based strategies are expected to defeat aphid or obstruct the transmission of pathogenic microorganisms to reach the purpose of pest and disease management (Douglas et al., 2006; Gross et al., 2009). Most of the work done at present is on pea aphid, investigation of the facultative symbionts on other aphid species is needed. Research of symbiont-mediated protection and the functional mechanism is on the way with the development of molecular technology and there still remains a lot of work.

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Disclosure

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest, including specific financial interests and relationships and affiliations relevant to the subject of their manuscript.

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Table 1 Nine facultative symbionts and their attribute

Symbionts	Other names	Bacterial group	References
<i>Serratia symbiotica</i>	PASS; R-type	γ -proteobacteria	(Chen et al., 1997)
<i>Hamiltonella defensa</i>	PABS; T-type	γ -proteobacteria	(Darby et al., 2001)
<i>Regiella insecticola</i>	PAUS; U-type	γ -proteobacteria	(Sandström et al., 2001)
<i>Rickettsia</i>	PAR; S-type	α -proteobacteria	(Chen et al., 1996)
<i>Rickettsiella</i>		γ -proteobacteria	(Roux et al., 1997)
PAXS	X-type	γ -proteobacteria	(Guay et al., 2009; Ferrari et al., 2012)
<i>Spiroplasma</i>		Mollicutes	(Fukatsu et al., 2001)
<i>Wolbachia</i>		α -proteobacteria	(Werren et al., 1995)
<i>Arsenophonus</i>		γ -proteobacteria	(Gherna et al., 1991)

Table 2 Reported impacts of nine facultative symbionts in aphids

Symbionts	Function	References
<i>Serratia</i>	Heat shock resistance	(Chen et al., 2000; Russell and Moran, 2006)
<i>symbiotica</i>	Parasitoid resistance	(Oliver et al., 2003; 2005)
	Nutrition supply	(Koga et al., 2003; 2007)
<i>Hamiltonella</i>	Parasitoid resistance	(Oliver et al., 2003; 2005)
<i>defensa</i>	Heat shock resistance	(Russell and Moran, 2006)
	Increase the body mass and fecundity	(Castañeda et al., 2010)
	Longevity ↓	(Vorburger et al., 2013)
	Defensive behavior ↓	(Polin et al., 2014)
<i>Regiella</i>	Fungi resistance	(Scarborough et al., 2005)
<i>insecticola</i>	Parasitoids resistance	(Vorburger et al., 2009a)
	Enhance host plant fitness	(Tsuchida et al., 2004; 2011)
	Induce phenotypic variation	(Leonardo and Mondor, 2006)
<i>Rickettsia</i>	Heat shock resistance	(Chen et al., 2000)
	Fungi resistance	(Łukasik et al., 2013c)
	Host plant fitness ↓	(Chen et al., 2000; Sakurai et al., 2005; Simon et al., 2007)
<i>Rickettsiella</i>	Change body color	(Tsuchida et al., 2010; 2014)
	Fungi resistance	(Łukasik et al., 2013c)
PAXS	Parasitoids resistance	(Donald et al., 2016; Heyworth and Ferrari, 2015)
	Heat shock resistance	(Guay et al., 2009; Heyworth and Ferrari, 2015)
	Fungi resistance	(Heyworth and Ferrari, 2015)
<i>Spiroplasma</i>	Fungi resistance	(Łukasik et al., 2013c)
	Male-killer	(Simon et al., 2011)
	Growth, reproduction and longevity ↓	(Fukatsu et al., 2001)
<i>Wolbachia</i>	Asexual reproduction	(De Clerck et al., 2014)
	Nutrition supply	(De Clerck et al., 2015)
<i>Arsenophonus</i>	Host plant specialization	(Wagner et al., 2015)

↓ means negative effect on host.

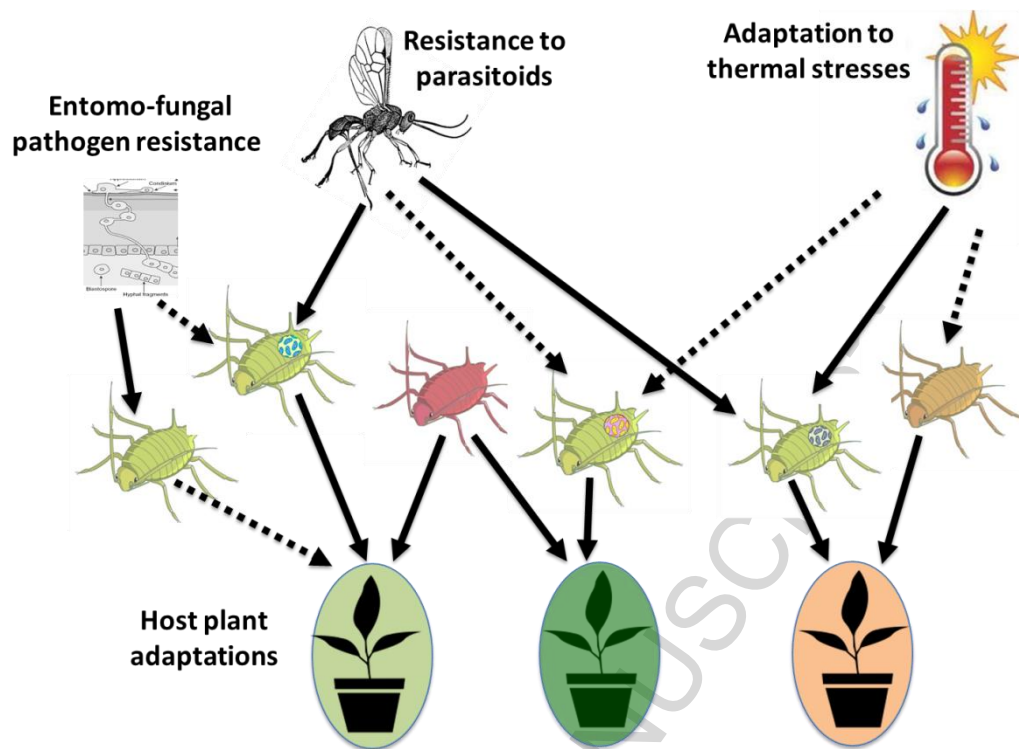


Figure 1 Main fitness effects on aphids of facultative symbionts.

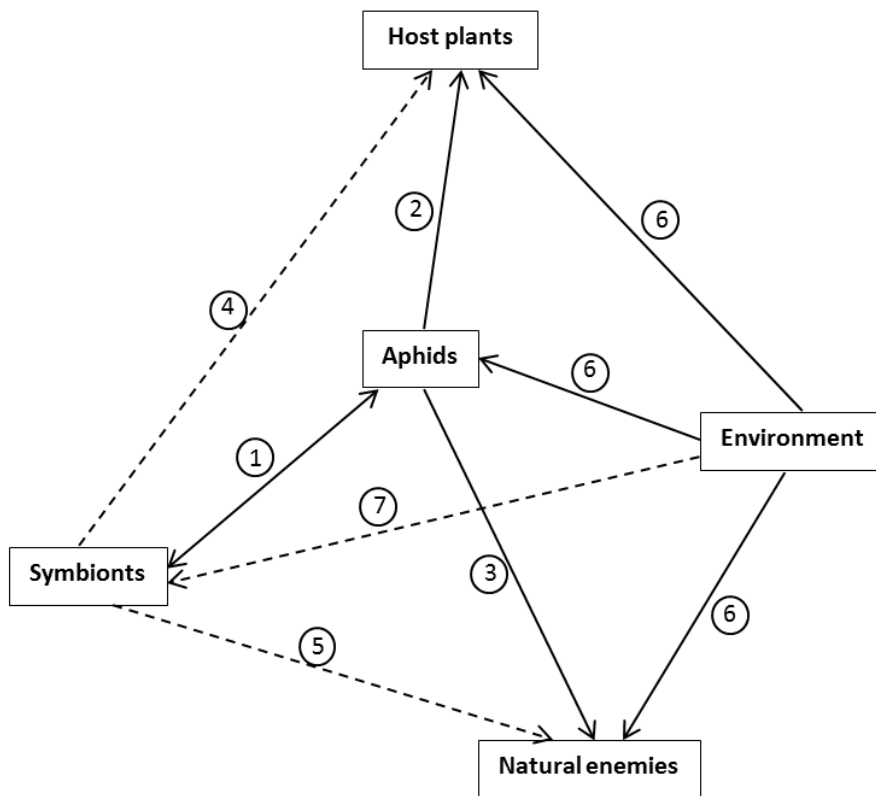
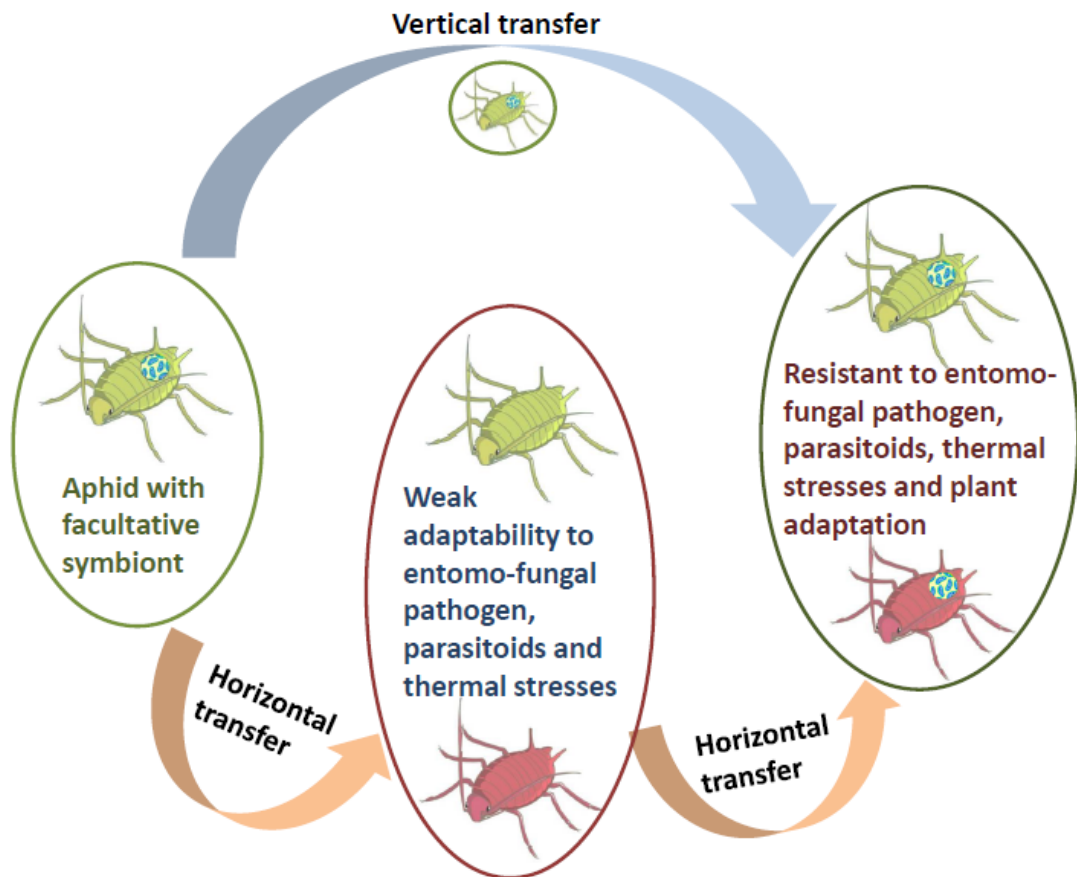


Figure 2 Reticular structure of symbionts, aphids, plant, natural enemies and environment.

Legend of figure

Figure 1 Main fitness effects on aphids of facultative symbionts. Different colors are related to different species (whole host plants, whole aphids or endosymbionts in a single aphid species), full and dot lines are related to positive and negative adaptations respectively.

Figure 2 Reticular structure of symbionts, aphids, plant, natural enemies and environment. ↔ mutualistic relations; → effect of/on organism behavior; —→ effect of/on symbiont function. ①: mutualistic relationship; ②: aphids feed on plant; ③: aphids are killed by natural enemies; ④: symbionts are involved in host plant specialization (Tsuchida et al., 2004) or host plant fitness (Sakurai et al., 2005) of aphid; ⑤: symbionts confer resistance to natural enemies for aphid (Oliver et al., 2003; 2005); ⑥: host plants, natural enemies and aphids are influenced by environmental conditions; ⑦: symbionts functions can be affected by the environment (Russell and Moran, 2006).



Graphical abstract

Highlights

- Described the infection frequency and cost of facultative symbionts in aphids.
- Reviewed the functions of nine facultative symbionts one by one.
- Discussed the interactions between symbionts and aphids, plants and environment.

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