RESEARCH ARTICLE

Do bed bugs transmit human viruses, or do humans transmit bed bug viruses? A worldwide

survey of the bed bug RNA virosphere

Hunter K. Walt[1], Jonas G. King[1], Johnathan M. Sheele[4], Florencia Meyer[1], Jose E. Pietri[2*], and

Federico G. Hoffmann[1,3,*]

[1]Department of Biochemistry, Molecular Biology, Entomology, and Plant Pathology, Mississippi

State University, Starkville, MS, USA

[2]Sanford School of Medicine, Division of Basic Biomedical Sciences, University of South Dakota,

Vermillion, SD, USA

[3]Institute for Genomics, Biocomputing and Biotechnology, Mississippi State University,

Starkville, MS, USA

[4]University Hospitals Cleveland Medical Center & Case Western Reserve University, Department

of Emergency Medicine, Cleveland, OH, USA

*Correspondence: fgh19@msstate.edu, Jose.Pietri@usd.edu

ABSTRACT:

Bed bugs (Hemiptera: *Cimicidae*) are a globally distributed hematophagous pest that

routinely feed on humans. Unlike many blood-sucking arthropods, they have never been linked

to disease transmission in a natural setting, and despite interest in their role as disease vectors,

little is known about the viruses that bed bugs naturally harbor. Here, we present a global-scale

survey of the bed bug RNA virosphere. We sequenced the metatranscriptomes of 22 individual

bed bugs (*Cimex lectularius* and *Cimex hemipterus*) from 8 locations around the world. We

detected sequences from two known bed bug viruses (Shuangao bedbug virus 1 and Shuangao

bedbug virus 2) which extends their geographical range and the host range of Shuangao bedbug

virus 1 to *Cimex lectularius*. We identified three novel bed bug virus sequences from a tenui-like

virus (*Bunyavirales*), a toti-like virus (*Ghabrivirales*), and a luteo-like virus (*Tolivirales*).

Interestingly, some of the bed bug viruses branch near to insect-transmitted plant-infecting

viruses, opening questions regarding the evolution of plant virus infection. When we analyzed

the putative viral sequences by their host's collection location, we found unexpected patterns

of geographical diversity that may reflect humans' role in bed bug dispersal. Additionally, we

investigated the effect that *Wolbachia,* the primary bed bug endosymbiont, may have on viral

abundance and found that *Wolbachia* infection neither promotes nor inhibits viral infection.

Finally, our results provide no evidence that bed bugs transmit any known human pathogenic

viruses.

1. INTRODUCTION:

Bed bugs (Hemiptera: Cimicidae) are globally distributed obligately hematophagous

ectoparasites (Doggett et al., 2012). Some species routinely feed on humans, but unlike many

other blood sucking insects, there is no evidence that bed bugs are human disease vectors

(Davies et al., 2012). Several studies have been conducted to assess if bed bugs could transmit

human pathogens, but transmission in the wild has not been documented (Blakely et al., 2018;

El Hamzaoui et al., 2019; Goddard & deShazo, 2009; Leulmi et al., 2015; Pietri, 2020).

Considering the consistent resurgence of bed bug populations leading to outbreaks in the last

20-30 years, it is important to understand what microbes they harbor along with their potential

as vectors (Davies et al., 2012; Doggett & Lee, 2023; Lewis et al., 2023).

Large scale metatranscriptomic studies have enhanced our knowledge of viral diversity

in invertebrates and have made detecting arthropod-associated viruses increasingly more

feasible (Käfer et al., 2019; Li et al., 2015; Shi et al., 2016). Bed bugs have been included in some

arthropod viromics-based studies, and four putative bed bug virus sequences have been

detected: Serbia reo-like virus 2 (NCBI:txid2771464), Serbia picorna-like virus 2

(NCBI:txid2771462), Shuangao bedbug virus 1 (NCBI:txid1608071) and Shuangao bedbug virus

2 (NCBI:txid1608072) (Li et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2020). No further studies have been

conducted to examine the pathogenic properties of these putative viruses, but they do provide

evidence that bed bugs encounter viral infection. Furthermore, Ling *et al.* (2020) took a

metatranscriptomic approach to survey for viruses in bed bugs and found that some reads in a

sample of recently blood fed individuals aligned to hepatitis C virus. Although there was no

evidence that the virus was replicating (i.e., low number of reads mapped and an incomplete

genome), their study highlights the role that bioinformatic surveillance could play in detecting

human pathogen transmission in bed bugs. However, bed bug specific viruses were either not

detected or not reported in their study (Ling et al., 2020).

In this study, we conducted a worldwide survey of the bed bug RNA virosphere. Our

aims were to search for known human viral pathogens and novel bed bug viruses that could be

of interest to human health or biocontrol. We collected bed bugs (*Cimex lectularius* and *Cimex*

hemipterus) from 8 distinct locations around the world and sequenced RNA libraries from 22

individuals. We assembled bed bug metatranscriptomes, and conducted phylogenetic analyses

on the virus sequences that we detected. We also assessed viral diversity between bed bug

species and geographic location. Additionally, we investigated whether there is a correlation

between *Wolbachia* (a bed bug endosymbiont known to have an antiviral effect when infecting

other insect taxa) reads and bed bug virus reads in each sample (Cogni et al., 2021; Hussain et

al., 2023; Lindsey et al., 2018; Teixeira et al., 2008; Terradas & McGraw, 2017).

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS:

2.1 Collection and extraction:

The samples used in this study were obtained as part of a large international collection

of bed bugs provided by numerous pest control companies and researches. We included *Cimex*

lectularius samples from Czechia (n=3), France (n=1), the UK (n=3), Rome-Italy (n=3), Assisi-Italy

(n=3), Ohio-USA (n=3), the Harlan lab strain of *Cimex lectularius* (initially collected in Fort Dix,

New Jersey, USA and maintained at the King lab at Mississippi State University) (n=3), and

Cimex hemipterus samples from Madagascar (n=3). Each bug was washed in 95% ethanol and

total RNA was isolated using a standard TRIzol protocol (Invitrogen Waltham, MA) and further

purified using NEB's Monarch RNA cleanup kit was used (New England Biolabs Ipswich, MA).

2.2 Library Prep and Sequencing:

We checked total RNA quality using Nanodrop quantitation and agarose gel

electrophoresis, and we assessed RNA integrity with an Agilent 2100 bioanalyzer. Libraries were

prepared using a strand specific library prep with ribosomal RNA depletion. Sequencing was

conducted on the Illumina NovaSeq 6000 instrument for 150 base pair paired-end reads,

resulting in approximately 100-135 million reads per sample. The quality of the reads was

inspected using FastQC v0.11.5 (Andrews, 2010) and reads were quality trimmed using

trimmomatic v. 0.39 (Bolger et al., 2014).

2.3 Virus Discovery:

To enrich the data for viral reads, we filtered out *Cimex*, *Wolbachia*, and human reads

by mapping to the *Cimex lectularius* (GCF_000648675.2), *Cimex hemipterus* (GCA_001663875.1,

partial), *Wolbachia* endosymbiont of *Cimex lectularius* (GCF_000829315.1), and *Homo sapiens*

(GCF_000001405.40) genomes using the bbsplit.sh tool of the bbmap suite (version 38.46)

(sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/) and retained all unmapped reads. We assembled the

unmapped reads using Trinity v.2.11.0 (Grabherr et al., 2011) both individually and by collection

location. We clustered the individual sample assemblies with cd-hit-est (W. Li & Godzik, 2006)

with a sequence similarity threshold of 90%, a minimum sequence length of 500 nt, and a word

size of 8. The assemblies were annotated using diamond blastx in the –very-sensitive mode

with an e-value cutoff of $1e^{-5}$ (Buchfink et al., 2015, 2021) and the annotated transcripts were

filtered for viral hits which were further inspected for false positives using NCBI's BLASTx

(https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) against the nr protein database. To detect known viral

conserved domains, we also inspected each viral hit in NCBI's conserved domain database

(CDD) (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/cdd/cdd.shtml) and InterProScan

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/interpro/search/sequence/) (Quevillon et al., 2005).

When putative multipartite virus sequences were present, we used a viral co-occurrence

detection method we previously described to identify the other genomic segments (Walt et al.,

2023). Briefly, this method calculates two metrics based off sample co-occurrence. The first

metric, V_{co}, determines the frequency at which a transcript occurs in a sample with a given viral

conserved sequence (e.g., transcripts with confirmed RdRp domains detected in BLAST

analysis). The second metric, T_{co}, determines if the transcripts found together with a viral

conserved sequence occur in other samples without the viral conserved sequence. We used the

thresholds V_{co}=0.75 and T_{co}=0.5 to determine candidate viral genomic segments. After running

the co-occurrence analysis, we only kept candidate sequences with an ORF size > 500 nt. We

further inspect these transcripts for conserved protein families and domains using NCBI's CDD

and InterProScan.

2.4 Phylogenetic Analysis of Viruses

We only used transcripts with confirmed RdRp domains for phylogenetic analyses. First,

we extracted and translated ORFs encoding for RdRp proteins using NCBI's ORFfinder

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/orffinder/) and we downloaded diverse representative

sequences from families within relevant viral orders from NCBI. We aligned RdRp amino acid

sequences using MAFFT v7.490 (using the E-INS-I, G-INS-i, and L-INS-i, algorithms) and MUSCLE

v3.8.1551 (Edgar, 2004; Katoh & Standley, 2013). We compared alignment qualities using

MUMSA (Lassmann & Sonnhammer, 2006) scores, and the highest scoring alignment was used

for tree inference. Phylogenetic analyses were conducted with IQ-TREE2 v.2.0.7 using

ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017) to find the best fitting substitution model. We

assessed branch support using ultrafast bootstrap with 1000 replicates, Shimodaira-Hasegawa-

like approximate likelihood ratio test (SH-aLRT) with 1000 replicates, and the aBayes test

(Anisimova et al., 2011; Minh et al., 2013; Nguyen et al., 2015). All phylogenetic trees were

midpoint rooted (unless otherwise noted) and visualized using the Interactive Tree of Life (iTOL)

webserver (Letunic & Bork, 2021).

2.5 Phylogeographic Analysis

We retrieved all transcripts of putative viral origin from each individual bed bug

assembly using Diamond BLASTx and CD-hit output. We predicted coding sequences using

EMBOSS's getorf tool using the -find 2 option. We only used coding sequences with complete

RdRp domains for phylogenetic analysis and duplicate sequences within samples were

discarded. We conducted phylogenetic analysis in the same way as section 2.4, except that

nucleotide sequences were used instead of amino acid. We selected closely related taxa from

the analysis in 2.4 as outgroups for phylogeographic analysis. We calculated evolutionary

distance as p-distance using MEGA v.11.0.13 (Tamura et al., 2021). We did not conduct

phylogeographic analysis on Shaungao Bedbug virus 2 because it was only detected in one

location in our study.

2.5 Correlation of Wolbachia and Viral Read Abundance

We mapped the trimmed read datasets to all the viral genomes detected in this study

and the *Wolbachia* endosymbiont of *Cimex lectularius* genome (GCF_000829315.1) using

HISAT2 v.2.2.1 (Kim et al., 2019). We used the summary file output to obtain the percent of

reads that mapped to the virus genomes or the *Wolbachia* genome. To correlate the Wolbachia

and virus read abundances, we conducted a simple linear regression analysis in R v.4.2.2. (R

Core Team, 2020), using the percentage of reads that mapped to the viral genomes versus the

percentage of reads mapped to the *Wolbachia* genome.

3. RESULTS

3.1 Read Mapping, Assembly, and Transcript Annotation

To survey the bed bug virome, we sequenced the total RNA (ribosomal and small RNA depleted) from 22 individual bed bugs collected from the United Kingdom, France, Chechia, Italy, Madagascar, and the USA. To enrich for virus sequences in our bed bug samples, we filtered out reads that mapped to genomes of organisms that could be represented in our dataset. We classified an average of 85% of reads from each sample as bed bug (65.2% *C. lectularius*, 19.8% *C. hemipterus*), *Wolbachia* (2.08%), or human reads (0.07%). Those reads were not used for metatranscriptome assembly (**Figure 2**). We assembled the remaining reads and aligned the assemblies to NCBI's nr protein database using diamond BLASTx, which returned multiple significant hits to putative bed bug virus sequences. We detected sequences from two known negative-sense single stranded RNA (-ssRNA) viruses associated with *C. hemipterus*: Shuangao bed bug virus 1 (Sbbv1) and Shuangao bed bug virus 2 (Sbbv2), but we did not detect the other two known bed bug viruses in our assemblies (C. X. Li et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2020). In addition, we detected 3 novel viral sequences. These sequences all belong to the realm *Riboviria* and encode for 1.) a -ssRNA genome, 2.) a positive-sense single stranded RNA (+ssRNA) genome, and 3.) a double stranded RNA (dsRNA) genome. Strikingly, all putative viral sequences detected in this study are present intercontinentally, but none were detected across all samples.

3.2 Shuangao Bedbug Virus 1

Sbbv1 is described as an unclassified rhabdovirus (-ssRNA) (NCBI:txid1608071) in the NCBI database. Our phylogenetic analysis groups Sbbv1 within the *Bunyavirales* order

branching sister to the *Hantaviridae,* which is consistent with previous studies (C. X. Li et al.,

2015) (**Figure 3**). We detected Sbbv1 sequences in *C. hemipterus* samples from Madagascar,

and *C. lectularius* samples from France and Czechia. Our results extend Sbbv1's geographical

range from China (where it was first detected) to Madagascar, Czechia, and France, and its host

range to *C. lectularius*. We detected both known segments of Sbbv1: a ~7000 nt segment (L)

containing the RdRp domain, and a ~3000 nt (M) segment encoding for the glycoprotein

precursor. The complete M segment was detected in Czechia sample 3, France, and all three

Madagascar samples, but it was only partially complete in Czechia Sample 2.

3.3 Shuangao Bedbug Virus 2

Sbbv2 is described as an unclassified -ssRNA virus (NCBI:txid1608072) with a 10,925 bp

monopartite genome. Our analyses show that it groups with the *Rhabdoviridae* family (**Figure**

4), consistent with the findings of Li *et al.* (2015). We detected Sbbv2 sequences in *C.*

hemipterus samples from Madagascar samples 1 and 3. The genomes we assembled of this

virus were around 3 kb longer than those from Li et al. (2015), ranging from 12,802-13,477 bp.

Our results complete the genome of Sbbv2, as the extra 3 kb contains ORFs at the beginning of

the genome: one encoding for a rhabdovirus nucleoprotein (CDD E-value = $1.77e^{-06}$), and the

other encoding for what we suspect is the rhabdovirus phosphoprotein (**Supplementary Figure**

1). Although the latter ORF did not have any significant BLAST hits or conserved domains, we

assume that it is the phosphoprotein based off synteny to other rhabdovirus genomes which

generally encode for five proteins in the following order: nucleoprotein, phosphoprotein,

matrix protein, glycoprotein, and large protein (Walker et al., 2022). Our study also extends the

geographic range of this virus, as it was previously only detected in bed bugs from China (Li et

al. 2015).

3.4 *Tenuiviridae*

We detected sequences that had significant BLAST hits to viruses in the family

Phenuiviridae (-ssRNA) in *C. lectularius* samples from Czechia, France, Rome-Italy, and Assisi-

Italy, and *C. hemipterus* samples in Madagascar. These viruses are typically multisegmented,

and from our BLASTx-based analysis, we detected a ~9000 bp putative L segment. We found

complete L segments in Czechia sample 3, Madagascar sample 2, Rome-Italy sample 1, and

Assisi-Italy samples 1, 2, and 3. We found partial L segments in Czechia sample 2, France, and

Rome-Italy sample 3. Our phylogenetic analysis groups these sequences in the family

Phenuiviridae, sister to a clade including the tenuiviruses, which are a genus of hemipteran-

transmitted plant infecting viruses (**Figure 3**). We refer to this putative virus as *Cimex* tenui-like

virus 1.

Because bunyaviruses are typically multisegmented, we used an approach previously

described in Walt et al. (2023) to identify candidate genomic segments based off sample co-

occurrence. We found a single transcript that met our requirements with a V_{co}= 0.86 and a T_{co} =

0.75. The transcript is 2,851 nt long and encodes for a 902 amino acid protein. Based on

transcript length in comparison to *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1's closest BLAST hit (*Solenopsis invicta*

virus 14: M segment length=2,705 bp), we propose this may be the M segment, which encodes

a glycoprotein. InterProScan predicted two transmembrane domains in the amino acid

sequence of this transcript, which is similar to the glycoprotein of *Solenopsis invicta* virus 14 as

it also has two transmembrane domains. These results need further confirmation, as this

transcript had no significant BLAST alignments to other known sequences, no predicted

conserved domains in the translated protein, and no similar transcripts were found in the Italy

samples, which also had *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 sequences in them.

3.5 *Luteoviridae*

We detected a ~2800 bp luteo-like virus 1 sequence (+ssRNA) in the Harlan lab strain,

Czechia, and France samples, all of which were *C. lectularius*. We found complete transcripts in

Czechia samples 1,2, and 3, France, and Harlan Strain-USA samples 1 and 2, and found a partial

transcript in Harlan Strain-USA sample 3. Our phylogenetic analysis groups these viruses within

a clade of unclassified *Luteoviridae*, sharing a common ancestor with 4 viruses detected in

mosquitoes, and 1 virus detected in an anal swab from a bird (**Figure 5**). This clade branches

sister to a group of three viruses, *Miscanthus* yellow fleck virus, Rabbit luteovirus, and

Arracacha latent virus E. Rabbit luteovirus was discovered in a rabbit but was assumed to have

come from its diet (Tsoleridis et al., 2019), and the other two viruses are plant viruses that are

likely transmitted by aphids, another hemipteran insect (Bolus et al., 2020). We refer to this

putative virus as *Cimex* luteo-like virus 1.

3.6 *Totiviridae*

We detected a toti-like virus (dsRNA) sequence in *C. lectularius* samples from five

locations: the Harlan lab strain-USA, Czechia, France, Assisi-Italy, and the UK. The complete

genome is around 7.8 kb and encodes for two large ORFs. One ORF (~3880 nt) has significant

BLASTx hits to other toti-like virus RdRps, and the other (~1860 nt) has significant BLAST hits to

other toti-like virus proline-alanine rich proteins (Spear et al., 2010). We recovered whole or

nearly complete genomes for the UK (all samples), Czechia (complete for samples 1 and 3,

partial for sample 2), France, and all three Assisi-Italy samples. Phylogenetically, this virus

shares a most recent common ancestor with an unclassified totivirus isolated from a flea. The

virus forms a clade with other Hemiptera and Thysanoptera associated toti-like viruses along

with two viruses isolated from plants (**Figure 6**). We hereon refer to this putative virus as *Cimex*

toti-like virus 1.

3.7 Phylogeography of Bed Bug Viruses

All the virus sequences that we detected were distributed across geographically distant

locations, so we investigated viral diversity between localities. We hypothesized that viral

evolutionary relationships would reflect the differences in host species, and that within a host

species, phylogenetic relationships would be reflective of geographic distance (Ballinger et al.,

2022; Longdon et al., 2014). Specifically, we would expect *C. lectularius* and *C. hemipterus* to

harbor closely related but distinct viral populations, and within *C. lectularius*, we would expect

samples from Europe to be distinct from those rom North America. We only used sequences

with complete RdRp domains and only included the unique sequences within individuals for our

phylogeographic analysis.

3.7.1 *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1

We found *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 sequences in both *C. lectularius*, and *C. hemipterus*. In

the case of *C. lectularius*, sequences from this virus were found in one individual from Rome-

Italy, all three individuals from Assisi-Italy, one individual from Madagascar, the individual from

France, and one individual from Czechia. Interestingly, the Italian samples form a distinct clade

from the rest of the world (**Figure 7A**). When we grouped the samples by clade: Italy, world,

and outgroup and assessed evolutionary distance between the groups, the mean p-distance

between the Italian clade and the rest of the world clade was 22.4%, while the "within group"

mean p-distance was 3.0% and 1.1% for the Italian clade and the rest of the world, respectively

(**Table 1**). Interestingly, the "within group" distance is three times higher in the samples that

come from the same country (Italy) than those collected in different countries (France, Chechia,

and Madagascar).

Because the samples collected in Italy had a higher "within group" mean than the

samples from the rest of the world, we computed pairwise comparisons of p-distance for the

samples used in the phylogeny in **Figure 7A** (**Table 2**)**.** We found that one sequence of *Cimex*

tenui-like virus 1 (Rome-Italy 1) is the driver of the viral genetic diversity within the group of

samples collected in Italy, since the Assisi-Italy samples are identical, but the Rome-Italy 1

sample is 7.5% different from all the Assisi-Italy samples at the nucleotide level (**Table 2**).

Furthermore, the France and Czechia 3 *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 sequences are nearly identical,

while the Madagascar 2 *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 sequence is only 1.7% different from both the

France and the Czechia samples (**Table 2**), even though the Madagascar samples are *C.*

hemipterus, while the rest of the samples are *C. lectularius*.

3.7.2 *Cimex* toti-like virus 1

We only found *Cimex* toti-like virus 1 sequences in *C. lectularius* samples. We found

them in two of the three Czechia individuals, the France individual, all Assisi-Italy individuals,

and all UK individuals. Once again, the samples collected from Italy form a distinct clade from

the rest of the world (**Figure 7B**). We grouped the samples by the Italy clade, the rest of the

world clade and the outgroup and found that there was little difference between the Italy

viruses ("within group" mean p-distance = 0.3%), while rest of the world clade were more

genetically distant ("within group" mean p-distance = 10%) (**Table 1**). The "between group"

mean distance between the virus sequences detected in Italy and the virus sequences detected

from the rest of the world is 16.4%. Within the rest of the world clade, the viruses from Czechia

form one group and the France and UK viruses form another group, following expected

geographic patterns.

3.7.3 *Cimex* luteo-like virus 1

We only found *Cimex* luteo-like virus 1 sequences in *C. lectularius*, and we detected

them in all three Czechia samples, two of the Harlan Strain-USA samples, and the France

individual. The tree has low resolution other than one branch containing the viral sequences

detected in the Harlan Strain-USA bugs (**Figure 7C**). All the *Cimex* luteo-like virus 1 RdRp-

encoding transcripts have a mean p-distance of 4%.

3.7.4 Shuangao Bedbug Virus 1

We detected Sbbv1 sequences in all three *C. hemipterus* individuals collected from

Madagascar, and one *C. lectularius* individual from Czechia. The Madagascar samples and the

previously described Sbbv1 sample (detected in China) group together with 100% support

(**Figure 7D**). This reflects host taxonomy, as the Sbbv1 sample that was first detected in China

was also detected in *C. hemipterus*. Because the bed bugs collected in Czechia were *C.*

lectularius, our study expands the host range of Sbbv1 to *C. lectularius*. Overall, these viruses

are very similar to each other with an average p-distance of 2% in the RdRp-encoding

transcripts.

3.8 Influence of *Wolbachia* on Viral Abundance

Many hypotheses have been proposed to understand why bed bugs have never been

linked to pathogen transmission, including one involving their *Wolbachia* endosymbiont as a

potential factor (Pietri, 2020). *Wolbachia* has formed a nutritional symbiosis with bed bugs, as it

provides them with B-vitamins (Hosokawa et al., 2010). Other studies have shown that

Wolbachia colonization can confer resistance to viral infection in other insects such as

Drosophila, mosquitoes, and even hemipteran insects (Cogni et al., 2021; Gong et al., 2020;

Lindsey et al., 2018; Teixeira et al., 2008). A study investigating the influence of bed bug

Wolbachia on feline calicivirus titer has been conducted, but there was no evidence that the

virus ever replicated inside of the bed bugs (Fisher et al., 2019). To investigate the effects that

Wolbachia may have on viral abundance, we mapped all reads to the viral genomes detected in

this study and the *Wolbachia* endosymbiont of *Cimex lectularius* genome. **Table 3** shows the

percentage of reads that mapped to the virus and *Wolbachia* genomes from each sample. We

used these values to investigate the influence of Wolbachia reads on viral reads and we found

no correlation ($y = 0.41 - 0.042x$, $R = -0.14$, $p = 0.53$) between percent *Wolbachia* reads and

percent virus reads in a sample (**Figure 8**).

4. Discussion:

4.1 Detection and Phylogenetics of Bed Bug viruses

315
316
Bed bugs are a worldwide urban pest, that have undergone population resurgence for

the last 20-30 years. Although their capacity to transmit human disease remains unknown,

interest in their vector competence is high because of the increasing frequency in outbreaks

(Doggett & Lee, 2023). We did not detect any known human viruses, but our study supports

that metatranscriptomic surveillance is a useful technique to detect what known or emerging

pathogens bed bugs could potentially transmit. We detected two previously known virus

sequences associated with *C. hemipterus*, and 3 novel putative bed bug viruses.

The two previously detected bed bug viruses, Sbbv1 and Sbbv2 had been found in China

associated with the tropical bed bug, *C. hemipterus* (C. X. Li et al., 2015). Our phylogeny groups

Sbbv1 with an insect virus sister to the *Hantaviridae* (**Figure 3**)*.* This agrees with the findings of

Käfer et al. (2019) and supports the hypothesis that the *Hantaviridae* may have originated from

arthropod viruses, and subsequently shifted to infecting vertebrate hosts (Marklewitz et al.,

2015). Although Sbbv1 shares a common ancestor with the hantaviruses, it is unknown whether

it is of concern to humans. We extend Sbbv1's geographical range from China to Czechia,

Madagascar, and France, and extend its host range to *C. lectularius*, as it had previously only

been detected in the tropical bed bug, *C. hemipterus* (C. X. Li et al., 2015).

Sbbv2 provides an interesting insight to plant-infecting rhabdovirus evolution, as many

economically important plant rhabdoviruses are transmitted by hemipteran insects (Whitfield

et al., 2018). Our phylogeny agrees with Longdon et al. (2015), as Sbbv2 groups with insect-

specific clade of rhabdoviruses that shares a common ancestor with the cytorhabdoviruses and

the nucleorhabdoviruses (**Figure 4**). This supports the hypothesis that these viruses infected

hemipteran insects before they infected plants (Longdon et al., 2015). It is interesting to note

that Sbbv2 has persisted in the bed bug lineage despite shifts in feeding strategy from plants to

other insects, to obligate blood feeders (Johnson et al., 2018). Our bunyavirus phylogeny

(**Figure 3**) also suggests that the tenuiviruses, which are important insect-transmitted plant

viruses, infected their insect hosts before evolving the ability to infect plants. This is indicated

by *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 branching sister to the tenuiviruses, and another insect virus, Wuhan

horsefly virus, branching with this group (**Figure 3**).

Totiviruses are dsRNA viruses that typically infect fungi, but there is a growing number

of toti-like viruses detected in arthropod and vertebrate metatranscriptomic studies (Tighe et

al., 2022). According to our phylogenetic analysis, *Cimex* toti-like virus 1 falls within a clade of

arthropod and plant infecting viruses, along with a toti-like virus 1 detected in an anal swab

from a bird (GenBank: QKN88741.1) (**Figure 6**). Interestingly *Cimex* toti-like virus 1 shares a

most recent common ancestor with a virus detected in fleas, which are also obligate blood

feeders (Harvey et al., 2019). This supports the hypothesis that similarities in ecological niche

could be more correlative of viral similarity than taxonomic relatedness (C. X. Li et al., 2015).

Most other viruses in this clade are Hemiptera or Thysanoptera-associated (a sister group to

the Hemiptera) viruses.

4.2 Phylogeography of bed bug viruses

Although our study design limited an extensive phylogeographic analysis, we found

unprecedented patterns of viral diversity. First, we found that bedbug viruses detected in this

study are not geographically restricted and can infect more than one host species. We detected

sequences from four of the five viruses in this study intercontinentally and sequences from two

out of five viruses were found in both *C. lectularius* and *C. hemipterus*. (**Figure 7**). Second, if we

found viruses that were present in both bed bug species, we expected these viruses to form

distinct clades reflecting bed bug taxonomy, as differences in host receptors between species

would add selective pressures to viral infection (Longdon et al., 2014). Our results did not

match that expectation, as the *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 detected in the *C. hemipterus*

(Madagascar) samples grouped with the *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 sequences from *C. lectularius*

(France and Czechia), while other *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 sequences detected in *C. lectularius*

formed their own distinct clade (Rome-Italy and Assisi-Italy) (**Figure 7A**). Third, we expected

that viruses from similar geographic location would form distinct phylogenetic groups. This

trend was generally followed, but strikingly, in every case where viral sequences were detected

in samples from Italy, the sequences form their own distinct clades separated from the rest of

Europe (**Figure 7A&B**). Furthermore, even though the *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 sequences from

Italy group together phylogenetically, there is higher mean evolutionary distance within these

samples than within the *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 sequences from the rest of the world, which

include samples from France, Czechia and Madagascar, and include two different host species

(**Tables 1 & 2**). Previous studies of bed bug phylogeography have found low genetic diversity

within bed bug infestation sites, but high genetic diversity between infestation sites even of

relatively close proximity, which could be due to their dependence on humans for dispersal

(Fountain et al., 2014; Saenz et al., 2012). Bed bug dispersal by humans could also explain the

unexpected patterns of bed bug virus phylogeography, as the distinct groups of bed bug viruses

could be explained by Italy's popularity as a travel destination, with Rome being a hotspot for

tourism, and Assisi being a frequent site of pilgrimage. Along with this, the similarity between

viruses detected in Madagascar and Europe could reflect travel between these two places.

4.3 *Wolbachia* influence on viral abundance

As an additional exploration of our dataset, we investigated if the amount of *Wolbachia*

reads was correlated with viral abundance. It has been hypothesized that *Wolbachia* could have

a protective effect against viral infection in bed bugs, similar to what has been seen in

mosquitoes and *Drosophila* (Cogni et al., 2021; Fisher et al., 2019; Hussain et al., 2023; Lindsey

et al., 2018; Teixeira et al., 2008; Terradas & McGraw, 2017). We used percentage of reads

mapped to *Wolbachia* and percent mapped to the viral genomes detected in this study as a

proxy of abundance. We found that there was no correlation between *Wolbachia* and virus

abundance when a potential outlier sample was present (**Figure 8).** These results indicate that

unlike Diptera-associated *Wolbachia,* bed bug *Wolbachia* may not confer viral resistance.

Although our experimental design was not ideal to test *Wolbachia's* influence on bed bug virus

fitness, these results provide a preliminary look into how *Wolbachia* may affect viruses that

replicate inside of bed bugs.

5. Conclusions

Our study opens interesting questions about the bed bug virosphere but does not

provide evidence that bed bugs transmit human viruses. On the contrary, humans may drive

bed bug virus diversity by facilitating dispersal and local extinction of host populations

(Fountain et al., 2014). Future studies should assess the pathogenicity and transmission routes

of these viruses to have a more comprehensive understanding of their potential in biocontrol or

as emerging diseases. Along with this, a more comprehensive sampling strategy and

phylogeographic analysis could shed light on the interesting patterns of bed bug virus dispersal.

Figure 1: Locations of sample collection sites. Samples were collected at nine distinct sites

around the world: France (*Cimex lectularius,* n=1), the UK (*Cimex lectularius,* n=3), Czechia (CR)

(*Cimex lectularius,* n=3), Rome-Italy (*Cimex lectularius,* n=3), Assisi-Italy (*Cimex lectularius,* n=3),

Madagascar (*Cimex hemipterus,* n=3), Ohio-USA (*Cimex lectularius*, n=3), and the King lab at

Mississippi State University-USA (Harlan Strain-USA *Cimex lectularius,* n=3).

413 **Figure 2: Percentage of reads mapped to the bed bug genomes, human genome, and**

414 *Wolbachia* **genome per sample.**

The following labels appear on the tree:

Arenaviridae

Nairoviridae

Discoviridae

Phenuiviridae

YP 009305136.1 Wuhan horsefly Virus
AUH25689.1 Rice hoja blanca tenuivirus
QWK51329.1 Maize stripe tenuivirus
NP 620522.1 Rice stripe tenuivirus
Assisi-Italy *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1
Rome-Italy *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1
Madagascar *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1
France *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1
Czechia *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1

Unclassified
Hantaviridae

QMP82286.1 Coleopteran hanta-related virus
AJG39248.1 Shuangao Bedbug Virus 1
Madgascar Shuangao Bedbug Virus 1
France Shuangao Bedbug Virus 1
Czechia Shuangao Bedbug Virus 1

Hantaviridae

Phasmaviridae

Tospoviridae

Peribunyaviridae

1.0

Figure 3: Phylogeny of the *Bunyavirales* including viruses detected in this study. Viruses found in this study are labeled by their location, and their branches are colored red. Dark red dots indicate bootstrap support greater than 75. Silhouette images represent the general host taxa of a virus or virus clade. The tree supports that we detected Shuangao bedbug virus 1 in

421   multiple samples, and that it branches sister to the *Hantaviridae* (a clade of viruses that infects

422   vertebrates) along with another insect-associated virus. *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 groups within

423   the family *Phenuivirudae*. Notably, *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 branches sister to a clade including

424   the *Tenuiviridae* genus (highlighted in green), which is comprised of important hemipteran-

425   transmitted plant viruses.

Figure 4: Phylogeny of the Mononegavirales with expansive *Rhabdoviridae* representation.

Red dots indicate bootstrap support greater than 75. Sbbv2 is shown by a red branch. Non-

rhabdovirus mononegaviruses are shown in yellow, while rhabdoviruses are shown in blue.

Silhouette images represent the general host taxa of a virus or virus clade. Our phylogeny

supports that Sbbv2 branches with other insect-associated viruses before the

cytorhabdoviruses, nucleorhabdoviruses, and other plant infecting *Rhabdoviridae*.

Figure 5: Phylogeny of the *Tolivirales*, including the ssRNA(+) virus discovered in this study.

A.) Full phylogeny of the *Tolivirales*. The red branch indicates the *Cimex* luteo-like virus 1. Red

dots along the tree show bootstrap support greater than or equal to 75. **B.)** Zoomed in view of

the clade that *Cimex* luteo-like virus 1 groups in. Each virus is labeled by the respective location

in which it was found. Dark red dots indicate bootstrap support greater than 75. Silhouette

images represent the general host taxa of a virus or virus clade. *Cimex* luteo-like virus 1 groups

with a clade of mosquito-associated viruses, sister to a clade of plant viruses that are putatively

transmitted by aphids.

Figure 6: Phylogeny of the *Ghrabrivirales*, including the dsRNA virus discovered in this study.

A.) Phylogeny of the *Ghrabrivirales* including diverse taxa from all families. *Cimex* toti-like virus 1 is shown on red branches and the clade it groups with is highlighted in red. Dots indicate a bootstrap value of 75 or above. **B.)** Zoomed-in view of the clade that *Cimex* toti-like virus 1 groups in. Silhouette images represent the general host taxa of a virus or virus clade.

Figure 7: Phlyogeographic analysis of the putative bed bug viruses detected in this study. Only

the coding sequences where an RdRp domain was detected were used. All trees were rooted

using the closest phylogenetic neighbors from phylogenetic analyses in **Figures 4-7.** Dark red

dots indicate bootstrap support greater than 75. Samples from *C. lectularius* hosts are indicated

in blue text, and samples from *C. hemipterus* hosts are indicated in red text. **A.)**

Phlyogeographic analysis of *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1. **B.)** Phylogeographic analysis of *Cimex* toti-

like virus 1. **C.)** Phylogeographic analysis of *Cimex* luteo-like virus 1. **D.)** Phylogeographic

analysis of Sbbv1.

Figure 8: Correlation of the percentage of reads mapped to *Wolbachia* endosymbiont of

***Cimex lectularius* and number of reads mapped to the viruses detected in this study.** There is

no correlation between percent of Wolbachia reads present in a sample and percent of RNA

virus reads present in a sample.

463 **Table 1: Mean evolutionary distance between distinct clades of viruses from phylogeographic**

464 **analysis.** Only *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 and *Cimex* toti-like virus 1 are shown as they had highly

465 supported trees containing many viral genomes. Distinct phylogenetic clades were formed from

466 the Italy samples, the rest of the world, and the outgroups.

Cimex tenui-like virus 1	P-distance		
	Italy	Rest of the World	Outgroup
Italy	3.0%		
Rest of the World	22.4%	1.1%	
Outgroup	55.8%	55.9%	36.5%
Cimex toti-like virus 1			
Italy	0.3%		
Rest of the World	16.4%	10.0%	
Outgroup	51.5%	51.8%	50.8%

469 **Table 2: Pairwise p-distances of *Cimex* tenui-like virus 1 RDRP coding sequences.** The matrix includes the outgroup sequences used

470 in Figure 7A. RHBTV = Rice hoja blanca tenuivirus, RSV = Rice Stripe Virus, MSTV = Maize Stripe Tenuivirus.

	Rome-Italy 1	Assisi-Italy 1	Assisi-Italy 2 (1)	Assisi-Italy 2 (2)	Assisi-Italy 3	Czechia 3	France	Madagascar 2	RHBTV	RSV	MSTV
Rome-Italy 1	-										
Assisi-Italy 1	7.5%	-									
Assisi-Italy 2 (1)	7.5%	0.0%	-								
Assisi-Italy 2 (2)	7.5%	0.0%	0.0%	-							
Assisi-Italy 3	7.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	-						
Czechia 3	23.1%	20.6%	22.6%	21.3%	22.6%	-					
France	23.1%	22.6%	22.6%	20.6%	22.6%	0.0%	-				
Madagascar 2	23.0%	22.6%	22.6%	21.3%	22.6%	1.7%	1.7%	-			
RHBTV	56.3%	56.3%	56.3%	54.9%	56.2%	56.2%	55.3%	56.0%	-		
RSV	56.7%	56.5%	56.5%	54.9%	56.5%	56.7%	56.1%	56.8%	39.5%	-	
MSTV	55.1%	55.4%	55.4%	54.4%	55.4%	55.4%	54.8%	55.4%	39.3%	30.7%	-

473   **Table 3: Percent reads mapped to the viruses detected in this study, or *Wolbachia***

474   **endosymbiont of *Cimex lectularius*.**

Sample	% Reads Mapped to Viruses	% Reads mapped to *Wolbachia*
Czechia 1	0.02	0.74
Czechia 2	3.88	0.35
Czechia 3	0.09	1.39
Harlan Strain-USA 1	0.00	0.40
Harlan Strain-USA 2	2.18	0.30
Harlan Strain-USA 3	0.00	0.19
France	0.34	0.43
Rome-Italy 1	0.01	0.76
Rome-Italy 2	0.00	0.41
Rome-Italy 3	0.00	0.34
Assisi-Italy 1	0.01	0.27
Assisi-Italy 2	0.09	0.75
Assisi-Italy 3	0.02	0.23
Madagascar 1	0.03	1.25
Madagascar 2	0.03	0.87
Madagascar 3	0.08	3.26
Ohio-USA 1	0.00	14.90
Ohio-USA 2	0.00	3.35
Ohio-USA 3	0.00	1.64
United Kingdom 1	0.37	3.09
United Kingdom 2	0.31	1.08
United Kingdom 3	0.13	0.99

FUNDING STATEMENT:

This work was funded in part by a US HUD Office of Lead Hazard Control and Healthy Homes,

Healthy Homes Technical Studies grant (SDHHU0074-22) to JEP, and a Foundation for Food and

Agriculture Research New Innovator Award to JGK (534275).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS:

The authors would like to thank Matthew J. Ballinger for his helpful insight and comments on

our manuscript.

DATA AVAILABILITY:

All newly reported virus genome sequences used in this study will be made available in

GenBank, and all reads generated in this study will be deposited to NCBI's Sequence Read

Archive (SRA) database.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA:

Supplementary data will be available online.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST:

The authors declare no conflict of interest

REFERENCES:

Andrews, S. (2010). *FASTQC. A quality control tool for high throughput sequence data.*

Anisimova, M., Gil, M., Dufayard, J. F., Dessimoz, C., & Gascuel, O. (2011). Survey of branch

support methods demonstrates accuracy, power, and robustness of fast likelihood-based

approximation schemes. *Systematic Biology*, *60*(5), 685–699.

https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syr041

Ballinger, M. J., Christian, R. C., Moore, L. D., Taylor, D. J., & Sabet, A. (2022). Evolution and

diversity of inherited viruses in the Nearctic phantom midge, Chaoborus americanus. *Virus*

Evolution, *8*(1), veac018. https://doi.org/10.1093/ve/veac018

Blakely, B. N., Hanson, S. F., & Romero, A. (2018). Survival and Transstadial Persistence of

Trypanosoma cruzi in the bed bug (Hemiptera: Cimicidae). *Journal of Medical Entomology*,

55(3), 742–746. https://doi.org/10.1093/jme/tjx252

Bolger, A. M., Lohse, M., & Usadel, B. (2014). Trimmomatic: A flexible trimmer for Illumina

sequence data. *Bioinformatics*, *30*(15), 2114–2120.

https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btu170

Bolus, S., Malapi-Wight, M., Grinstead, S. C., Fuentes-Bueno, I., Hendrickson, L., Hammond,

R. W., & Mollov, D. (2020). Identification and characterization of Miscanthus yellow fleck

virus, a new polerovirus infecting Miscanthus sinensis. *PLOS ONE*, *15*(9), e0239199.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0239199

Buchfink, B., Reuter, K., & Drost, H.-G. (2021). Sensitive protein alignments at tree-of-life scale

using DIAMOND. *Nature Methods*, *18*(4), 366–368. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41592-021-

01101-x

Buchfink, B., Xie, C., & Huson, D. H. (2015). Fast and sensitive protein alignment using

DIAMOND. *Nature Methods*, *12*(1), 59–60. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.3176

Cogni, R., Ding, S. D., Pimentel, A. C., Day, J. P., & Jiggins, F. M. (2021). Wolbachia reduces

virus infection in a natural population of Drosophila. *Communications Biology*, *4*(1).

https://doi.org/10.1038/s42003-021-02838-z

Davies, T. G. E., Field, L. M., & Williamson, M. S. (2012). The re-emergence of the bed bug as

a nuisance pest: Implications of resistance to the pyrethroid insecticides. *Medical and*

Veterinary Entomology, *26*(3), 241–254. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2915.2011.01006.x

Doggett, S. L., Dwyer, D. E., Peñas, P. F., & Russell, R. C. (2012). *Bed Bugs: Clinical*

Relevance and Control Options. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.05015-11

Doggett, S. L., & Lee, C.-Y. (2023). Historical and Contemporary Control Options Against Bed

Bugs, Cimex spp. *Annual Review of Entomology*, *68*(1), 169–190.

https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-ento-120220-015010

Edgar, R. C. (2004). MUSCLE: multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high

throughput. *Nucleic Acids Research*, *32*(5), 1792–1797. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkh340

El Hamzaoui, B., Laroche, M., Bechah, Y., Bérenger, J. M., & Parola, P. (2019). Testing the

competence of cimex lectularius bed bugs for the transmission of borrelia recurrentis, the

agent of relapsing fever. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, *100*(6),

1407–1412. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.18-0804

Fisher, M. L., Levine, J. F., Guy, J. S., Mochizuki, H., Breen, M., Schal, C., & Watson, D. W.

(2019). Lack of influence by endosymbiont Wolbachia on virus titer in the common bed

bug, Cimex lectularius. *Parasites & Vectors*, *12*(1), 436. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-

019-3694-2

Fountain, T., Duvaux, L., Horsburgh, G., Reinhardt, K., & Butlin, R. K. (2014). Human-

facilitated metapopulation dynamics in an emerging pest species, Cimex lectularius.

Molecular Ecology, *23*(5), 1071–1084. https://doi.org/10.1111/mec.12673

Goddard, J., & deShazo, R. (2009). Bed Bugs (Cimex lectularius) and Clinical Consequences of

Their Bites. *JAMA*, *301*(13), 1358–1366. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2009.405

Gong, J.-T., Li, Y., Li, T.-P., Liang, Y., Hu, L., Zhang, D., Zhou, C.-Y., Yang, C., Zhang, X.,

Zha, S.-S., Duan, X.-Z., Baton, L. A., Hong, X.-Y., Hoffmann, A. A., & Xi, Z. (2020).

Stable Introduction of Plant-Virus-Inhibiting Wolbachia into Planthoppers for Rice

Protection. *Current Biology*, *30*(24), 4837-4845.e5.

https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2020.09.033

Grabherr, M. G., Haas, B. J., Yassour, M., Levin, J. Z., Thompson, D. A., Amit, I., Adiconis, X.,

Fan, L., Raychowdhury, R., Zeng, Q., Chen, Z., Mauceli, E., Hacohen, N., Gnirke, A.,

Rhind, N., di Palma, F., Birren, B. W., Nusbaum, C., Lindblad-Toh, K., … Regev, A.

(2011). Full-length transcriptome assembly from RNA-Seq data without a reference

genome. *Nature Biotechnology*, *29*(7), 644–652. https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.1883

Harvey, E., Rose, K., Eden, J.-S., Lawrence, A., Doggett, S. L., & Holmes, E. C. (2019).

Identification of diverse arthropod associated viruses in native Australian fleas. *Virology*,

535, 189–199. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.virol.2019.07.010

Hosokawa, T., Koga, R., Kikuchi, Y., Meng, X. Y., & Fukatsu, T. (2010). Wolbachia as a

bacteriocyte-associated nutritional mutualist. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*

Sciences of the United States of America, *107*(2), 769–774.

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0911476107

Hussain, M., Zhang, G., Leitner, M., Hedges, L. M., & Asgari, S. (2023). Wolbachia RNase HI

contributes to virus blocking in the mosquito Aedes aegypti. *IScience*, *26*(1), 105836.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2022.105836

Johnson, K. P., Dietrich, C. H., Friedrich, F., Beutel, R. G., Wipfler, B., Peters, R. S., Allen, J.

M., Petersen, M., Donath, A., Walden, K. K. O., Kozlov, A. M., Podsiadlowski, L., Mayer,

C., Meusemann, K., Vasilikopoulos, A., Waterhouse, R. M., Cameron, S. L., Weirauch, C.,

Swanson, D. R., … Yoshizawa, K. (2018). Phylogenomics and the evolution of hemipteroid

insects. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *115*(50), 12775–12780.

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1815820115

Käfer, S., Paraskevopoulou, S., Zirkel, F., Wieseke, N., Donath, A., Petersen, M., Jones, T. C.,

Liu, S., Zhou, X., Middendorf, M., Junglen, S., Misof, B., & Drosten, C. (2019). Re-

assessing the diversity of negative strand RNA viruses in insects. *PLoS Pathogens*, *15*(12).

https://doi.org/10.1371/JOURNAL.PPAT.1008224

Kalyaanamoorthy, S., Minh, B. Q., Wong, T. K. F., von Haeseler, A., & Jermiin, L. S. (2017).

ModelFinder: fast model selection for accurate phylogenetic estimates. *Nature Methods*,

14(6), 587–589. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.4285

Katoh, K., & Standley, D. M. (2013). MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7:

improvements in performance and usability. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, *30*(4), 772–

780. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/mst010

Kim, D., Paggi, J. M., Park, C., Bennett, C., & Salzberg, S. L. (2019). Graph-based genome

alignment and genotyping with HISAT2 and HISAT-genotype. *Nature Biotechnology*,

37(8), 907–915. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41587-019-0201-4

Lassmann, T., & Sonnhammer, E. L. L. (2006). Kalign, Kalignvu and Mumsa: Web servers for

multiple sequence alignment. *Nucleic Acids Research*, *34*(WEB. SERV. ISS.), 596–599.

https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkl191

Letunic, I., & Bork, P. (2021). Interactive Tree Of Life (iTOL) v5: an online tool for

phylogenetic tree display and annotation. *Nucleic Acids Research*, *49*(W1), W293–W296.

https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkab301

Leulmi, H., Bitam, I., Berenger, J. M., Lepidi, H., Rolain, J. M., Almeras, L., Raoult, D., &

Parola, P. (2015). Competence of Cimex lectularius Bed Bugs for the Transmission of

Bartonella quintana, the Agent of Trench Fever. *PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases*, *9*(5),

4–15. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0003789

Lewis, C. D., Levine, B. A., Schal, C., Vargo, E. L., & Booth, W. (2023). Decade long upsurge

in mutations associated with pyrethroid resistance in bed bug populations in the USA.

Journal of Pest Science, *96*(1), 415–423. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10340-022-01505-4

Li, C. X., Shi, M., Tian, J. H., Lin, X. D., Kang, Y. J., Chen, L. J., Qin, X. C., Xu, J., Holmes, E.

C., & Zhang, Y. Z. (2015). Unprecedented genomic diversity of RNA viruses in arthropods

reveals the ancestry of negative-sense RNA viruses. *ELife*, *2015*(4).

https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.05378

Li, W., & Godzik, A. (2006). Cd-hit: a fast program for clustering and comparing large sets of

protein or nucleotide sequences. *Bioinformatics*, *22*(13), 1658–1659.

https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btl158

Lindsey, A. R. I., Bhattacharya, T., Newton, I. L. G., & Hardy, R. W. (2018). Conflict in the

intracellular lives of endosymbionts and viruses: A mechanistic look at Wolbachia-mediated

pathogen-blocking. In *Viruses* (Vol. 10, Issue 4). MDPI AG.

https://doi.org/10.3390/v10040141

Ling, J., Persson Vinnersten, T., Hesson, J. C., Bohlin, J., Roligheten, E., Holmes, E. C., & H-O

Pettersson, J. (2020). *Identification of hepatitis C virus in the common bed bug-a potential,*

but uncommon route for HCV infection? https://doi.org/10.1080/22221751.2020.1780950

Longdon, B., Brockhurst, M. A., Russell, C. A., Welch, J. J., & Jiggins, F. M. (2014). The

Evolution and Genetics of Virus Host Shifts. *PLOS Pathogens*, *10*(11), e1004395.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1004395

Longdon, B., Murray, G. G. R., Palmer, W. J., Day, J. P., Parker, D. J., Welch, J. J., Obbard, D.

J., & Jiggins, F. M. (2015). The evolution, diversity, and host associations of rhabdoviruses.

Virus Evolution, *1*(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1093/ve/vev014

Marklewitz, M., Zirkel, F., Kurth, A., Drosten, C., & Junglen, S. (2015). Evolutionary and

phenotypic analysis of live virus isolates suggests arthropod origin of a pathogenic RNA

virus family. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *112*(24), 7536–7541.

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1502036112

Minh, B. Q., Nguyen, M. A. T., & Von Haeseler, A. (2013). Ultrafast approximation for

phylogenetic bootstrap. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, *30*(5), 1188–1195.

https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/mst024

Nguyen, L.-T., Schmidt, H. A., von Haeseler, A., & Minh, B. Q. (2015). IQ-TREE: A Fast and

Effective Stochastic Algorithm for Estimating Maximum-Likelihood Phylogenies.

Molecular Biology and Evolution, *32*(1), 268–274. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msu300

Pietri, J. E. (2020). Case not closed: Arguments for new studies of the interactions between bed

bugs and human pathogens. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, *103*(2),

619–624. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.20-0121

Quevillon, E., Silventoinen, V., Pillai, S., Harte, N., Mulder, N., Apweiler, R., & Lopez, R.

(2005). InterProScan: protein domains identifier. *Nucleic Acids Research*, *33*(Web Server

issue), W116-20. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gki442

R Core Team. (2020). *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*. https://www.r-

project.org/

Saenz, V. L., Booth, W., Schal, C., & Vargo, E. L. (2012). Genetic analysis of bed bug

populations reveals small propagule size within individual infestations but high genetic

diversity across infestations from the eastern United States. *Journal of Medical Entomology*,

49(4), 865–875. https://doi.org/10.1603/me11202

Shi, M., Lin, X.-D., Tian, J.-H., Chen, L.-J., Chen, X., Li, C.-X., Qin, X.-C., Li, J., Cao, J.-P.,

Eden, J.-S., Buchmann, J., Wang, W., Xu, J., Holmes, E. C., & Zhang, Y.-Z. (2016).

Redefining the invertebrate RNA virosphere. *Nature*, *540*(7634), 539–543.

https://doi.org/10.1038/nature20167

Spear, A., Sisterson, M. S., Yokomi, R., & Stenger, D. C. (2010). Plant-feeding insects harbor

double-stranded RNA viruses encoding a novel proline-alanine rich protein and a

polymerase distantly related to that of fungal viruses. *Virology*, *404*(2), 304–311.

https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.virol.2010.05.015

Tamura, K., Stecher, G., & Kumar, S. (2021). MEGA11: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics

Analysis Version 11. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, *38*(7), 3022–3027.

https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msab120

Teixeira, L., Ferreira, Á., & Ashburner, M. (2008). The Bacterial Symbiont Wolbachia Induces

Resistance to RNA Viral Infections in Drosophila melanogaster. *PLOS Biology*, *6*(12),

e1000002. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000002

Terradas, G., & McGraw, E. A. (2017). Wolbachia-mediated virus blocking in the mosquito

vector Aedes aegypti. *Current Opinion in Insect Science*, *22*, 37–44.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cois.2017.05.005

Tighe, A. J., Ruane, N. M., & Carlsson, J. (2022). Potential origins of fish toti-like viruses in

invertebrates. *Journal of General Virology*, *103*(9), 1–7.

https://doi.org/10.1099/jgv.0.001775

Tsoleridis, T., Chappell, J. G., Monchatre-Leroy, E., Umhang, G., Shi, M., Bennett, M.,

Tarlinton, R. E., McClure, C. P., Holmes, E. C., & Ball, J. K. (2019). Discovery and

prevalence of divergent RNA viruses in European field voles and rabbits. *Viruses*, *12*(1), 1–

16. https://doi.org/10.3390/v12010047

Walker, P. J., Freitas-Astúa, J., Bejerman, N., Blasdell, K. R., Breyta, R., Dietzgen, R. G., Fooks,

A. R., Kondo, H., Kurath, G., Kuzmin, I. V, Ramos-González, P. L., Shi, M., Stone, D. M.,

Tesh, R. B., Tordo, N., Vasilakis, N., Whitfield, A. E., & Consortium, I. R. (2022). ICTV

Virus Taxonomy Profile: Rhabdoviridae 2022. *Journal of General Virology*, *103*(6).

https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1099/jgv.0.001689

Walt, H. K., Kooienga, E., Cammack, J. A., Tomberlin, J. K., Jordan, H. R., Meyer, F., &

Hoffmann, F. G. (2023). Bioinformatic Surveillance Leads to Discovery of Two Novel

Putative Bunyaviruses Associated with Black Soldier Fly. *Viruses*, *15*(8),

2023.06.23.545759. https://doi.org/10.3390/v15081654

Whitfield, A. E., Huot, O. B., Martin, K. M., Kondo, H., & Dietzgen, R. G. (2018). Plant

rhabdoviruses—their origins and vector interactions. *Current Opinion in Virology*, *33*, 198–

207. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coviro.2018.11.002

Zhang, Y., Stanojević, M., Li, K., Stamenković, G., Ilić, B., Paunović, M., Pešić, B., Maslovara,

I. Đ., Šiljić, M., & Ćirković, V. (2020). Depicting the RNA Virome of Hematophagous

Arthropods from Belgrade, Serbia. *Viruses*, *12*(9). https://doi.org/10.3390/v12090975