

Harrison's Rule Corroborated Among Nomadine Cuckoo Bees (Hymenoptera: Apidae: Nomadinae) : The Role of Body Size in Host-Switching Dynamics

Kayun Lim

Seoul National University

Seunghyun Lee

Chinese Academy of Sciences

Michael Orr

Chinese Academy of Sciences

Seunghwan Lee (✉ seung@snu.ac.kr)

Seoul National University

Article

Keywords:

Posted Date: March 21st, 2022

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-1457719/v1>

License:  This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

Abstract

Harrison's rule, that body size is positively correlated between parasites and hosts, has been reported in a range of taxa, but whether the rule is applicable to cleptoparasitic insects is poorly understood. Subfamily Nomadinae, the largest group of cleptoparasitic bees, usurp the nests of a variety of host bees. Within the subfamily, *Nomada* exploits the most diverse hosts, using at least ten genera from five families. Not only they use diverse hosts, but the nomadine bees are also remarkably diverse in size, making them an ideal model to test Harrison's rule. Here, we reassess the phylogeny of Nomadinae, including the expanded sampling of the genus *Nomada*, to explore host shift fluctuations throughout their evolutionary history and test the applicability of Harrison's rule for the subfamily. Our phylogenetic results are mostly congruent with previous investigations, but we infer the tribe Hexepeolini as a sister taxon to the tribe Nomadini. Additionally, the results reveal discrepancies with the traditional classifications of *Nomada*. Ancestral state reconstruction of host use indicates that, early in their evolution, parasites used closer relatives, before attacking less related groups later. Lastly, we confirm Harrison's rule in Nomadinae, supporting that body size dynamics influence the host shifts of cleptoparasitic bees.

Introduction

Body size influences many aspects of organismal biology, such as patterns of resource use [1, 2, 3], habitat colonization potential [4, 5], and ecological strategy [6, 7]. Among species with strong ecological interactions, body size can play an even stronger role, especially important for parasites and their hosts [8]. The importance of size in parasitism is highlighted in Harrison's rule (HR), which states that host and parasite body sizes generally positively covary [9].

Given that parasite body size depends on that of their hosts to some degree, we must explore the evolutionary trends of host-parasite association to test for morphological similarity and divergence between parasites and hosts. Although HR is a common pattern across the animal kingdom, it remains poorly understood from a macroevolutionary viewpoint, because the rule has been mostly demonstrated using phylogenetically-independent comparisons to date (i.e. simple allometry between hosts and parasites, [10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15]). Exploring HR under a molecular phylogenetic framework may offer new insights into the underlying adaptive basis and historical context. For example, are body size correlations a result of co-speciation? Or does it largely result from shifts to a host that has a similar body size? For such a study, it is ideal to focus on a monophyletic lineage of obligatory parasites with both high body size variation and good host-parasite association data.

HR has been documented in many parasitic organisms: parasitic nematodes and their hosts [12], parasitic barnacles and decapods [16], avian lice and birds [17], and fleas and rodents [18]. HR has been tested for several insect groups previously, in terms of both traditional parasitism and herbivory, but most insect groups remain unexplored [11].

One parasitic organism for which HR has never been extensively and quantitatively tested is the cleptoparasitic bees. Contrary to the common sentiment that bees are hardworking insects, about 13% of entire bees and 20% of bees in the family Apidae exhibit the cleptoparasitic lifestyle [19]. Rozen [20] proposed that HR applies to these bees but quantitative analyses have yet to be conducted.

These cleptoparasitic bees secretly enter the nests of other bees and lay their eggs near or in the pollen balls that the hosts provisioned for their offspring [21, 22]. The larvae consume the pollen that the host female prepared, pupate, and emerge from the host bee nest [23]. Body size may strongly affect the interaction between cleptoparasitic bees and their hosts in that i) nest entrance size physically constrains the width of parasitic females; ii) cell size physically limits the development of offspring; iii) the amount of the food source depends on the hosts and is generally correlated to the size of the host [24]; and iv) in the event of conflict, physical size may influence who is the victor. Consequently, cleptoparasitic bees are generally expected to only parasitize similar or smaller host bees on the individual level (physical constraint: i, ii) but, at the same time, it is advantageous to evolve to a similar size of the hosts to maximally utilize the food source and defend themselves (physiological constraint: iii, conflict constraint: iv). These considerations suggest that HR should be corroborated in cleptoparasitic bees, although they may also be slightly smaller, warranting formal testing.

We selected the cuckoo bee subfamily Nomadinae sensu Bossert et al. 2019 [25] (Nomadinae hereafter) as a model group for this study. Nomadinae s.l. is the largest lineage where all members are obligatory brood parasites, with nearly 1,300 described species globally [26]. They have repeatedly been recovered as a monophyletic group using several different datasets including Sanger multi-locus data [27, 28, 29], transcriptomes and UCEs [25], and UCEs alone [30]. Nomadinae s. l. represent an ancient origin of cleptoparasitism (c.a. 100 mya, [27, 30]) and they attack a wide variety of bees regardless of phylogenetic affinity (Andrenidae, Apidae, Colletidae, Halictidae, and Melittidae). A great deal of work has been done on determining hosts in the Nomadinae [31, 32, 33, 34]. Alongside this, the nesting behaviors and immature biology of multiple genera have been meticulously investigated [20, 35, 36]. In Nomadinae, genera in the same tribe might infiltrate hosts in different families, while genera in different tribes might utilize exclusively the same host genera [23]. Remarkably, even small genera may use entirely different families (four species on two families, *Townsendiella*, [37]). Species that belong to the tribe Nomadini have the largest host range, using 10 genera of five families as hosts [19], but, at the other end of the spectrum, the large genus *Epeolus* (tribe Epeolini) attacks only the genus *Colletes* [38]. The majority of cuckoo bees are specialist in that they parasitize only one or a few relative hosts in the same genus [24], with an exception in the generalist genus *Sphecodes* in the family Halictidae. There are numerous ways in which these cleptoparasitic bees have adapted to track their hosts, including phenological synchrony, and they can also exhibit similar spatial richness patterns [39]. Nomadine bees also vary greatly in size, making them ideal for studies on HR: the body length of one of the largest species (*Acanthopus excellens* Schrottky, 1902; ~23mm) is more than ten times larger than one of the smallest ones (*Oreopasites barbarae* Rozen, 1992; 2.2mm~) [35, 40]. Altogether, these traits provide a unique opportunity to explore HR in a molecular phylogenetic framework.

This study empirically tests HR in the cleptoparasitic bee lineage Nomadinae to infer the role of body size in their macroevolutionary dynamics for the first time. We measured the body size of specimens, retrieved data from the literature (see Supplementary Data 1), and conducted allometric analyses of Nomadinae s. l. and their hosts. Then we revisited the phylogeny of Nomadinae with an increased sample of the genus *Nomada*, the largest genus of cleptoparasitic bees [19, 34]. Finally, we conducted ancestral state reconstruction of host associations and body size, using the resulting phylogenetic tree to infer their evolutionary history and correlation between the two traits

Results

Phylogenetic analysis

The dataset used for phylogenetic reconstruction contained a total of 4590 bp (657 bp of COI, 709 bp of Ef1a, 1463 bp of Nak, 459 bp of Opsin, 843 bp of Pol2, 459 bp of Wng). Phylogenies obtained through Bayesian inference from MrBayes and Maximum Likelihood from IQtree indicate strong support for the monophyly of Nomadinae (BS = 99, PP = 100) (Fig. 1).

Melectini was recovered sister to the remaining cleptoparasitic lineages with high support (BS = 99, PP = 100) (Fig. 1). Each of the tribes Caenoprosopidini, Ammobatini, Ammobatoidini, Hexepeolini represented independent clades. We found support for the relationship among the tribes Isepeolini + Epeoloidini (sensu Sless et al., 2022) + Protepeolini (BS = 100, PP = 100) + Rhathymini + Ericrocidini (BS = 100, PP = 100), Brachynomadini + Epeolini (BS = 91, PP = 100), and Neolarrini + Biastini (BS = 97, PP = 100).

The BI and ML trees showed largely congruent topologies except for a few nodes (Fig. 1). The only different topology was found between BI and ML analyses which showed slight tribal differences. In Bayesian inference (BI), *E. autumnalis*, *E. ainsliei*, *E. lectoides*, and *E. lectus* were grouped together. However, under Maximum Likelihood (ML), *E. autumnalis* was sister to a group containing *E. ainsliei* + *E. lectoides* + *E. lectus* and *E. scutellaris* + *E. basili* + *E. pusillus* groups.

The tribe Nomadini was strongly supported as monophyletic (BS = 100, PP = 100), and it was recovered sister to Hexepeolini (Fig. 1). The infra-tribal relationships of Nomadini were complicated. Some simple cases where single species represented species groups could be valid, for example the *roberjeotiana* species-group (*N. roberjeotiana*) and *basalis* species-group (*N. japonica*) (sensu Alexander, 1994 [41]). Similarly, three members of the *furva* group, *N. distinguenda*, *N. discedens*, *N. okubira*, were supported as monophyletic with strong support (BS = 100, PP = 100). However, the *ruficornis* species-group was more problematic. For example, *N. lathburiana*, which was previously designated as the *ruficornis* species-group [42], was part of the *bifasciata* species-group. Also, *N. aswensis* which is supposed to be part of the *ruficornis* species-group was part of a clade with *N. nipponica* (*tripsona* species-group), *N. armata*, and *N. ginran* (*armata* species-group).

Ancestral State Reconstruction And Host Shift

According to the Bayestraits analysis, the common ancestral host of subfamily Nomadinae was family Apidae, with a probability of ~ 63% (Fig. 2). This host family is also inferred as the ancestral host for multiple lineages in Nomadinae. Additionally, we found that the host use of Apidae by Melectini, Caenoprosopidini, Ericrocidini, Ammobatoidini was conserved. On the other hand, frequent reversal host shifts between Apidae and Andrenidae were detected. After the first reversal host transition from Andrenidae to Apidae happened in the tribal combination of Isepeolini + Parepeolini + Protepeolini + Rathymini + Ericrocidini, host switching also occurred from Apidae to Colletidae and Melittidae (Fig. 2).

The common ancestral host of Epeolini was reconstructed as Family Apidae with a probability of ~ 62%. However, a host switch to the family Colletidae in the genus *Epeolus* was observed with a probability of > 99%.

In the clade of Ammobatoidini + Neolarrini + Biastini + Hexepeolini + Nomadini, their common ancestral host use was yielded as Family Andrenidae with a probability of > 96% (Fig. 2). Thereafter, a host shift occurred from Andrenidae to Halictidae at least three times in this group. To be specific, the first transition happened in the tribe Biasitini, and the remaining two transitions in different clades of the tribe Nomadini. In the tribe Nomadini, there was one switch from Andrenidae to Apidae within our sampling.

The most frequent host switches were observed in the tribe Ammobatini (Fig. 2), and the tribe showed a tendency of reversal host shifts from Andrenidae to Apidae. However, the ancestral host family reconstruction for the tribe was ambiguous and recovered associations with multiple families.

Size Correlation Between Nomadinae And Hosts

The body length of the Nomadinae was on average 8.84 ± 0.36 (mean \pm S.E.), widely ranging from 2.5 to 23mm, and the intertegular distance (ITD) was 2.03 ± 0.13 , ranging from 0.48 to 6.82mm. The mean body length of the hosts was 10.69 ± 0.39 , ranging from 3.6 to 23.28mm and host ITD was 2.84 ± 0.18 , ranging from 0.73 to 8.15mm (see Supplementary Data 1). Our linear regression analysis strongly suggests that the size between Nomadinae and its hosts is highly related in terms of both body length ($R^2=0.6933$, $P < 0.05$) and ITD ($R^2 = 0.7602$, $P < 0.05$).

The ancestral state of ITD and body length was of moderate length, and the length and width of body forms have evolved from medium to extremes (Fig. 3). It was observed in the tribe Ericrocidini that the body evolved to become longer and wider, but this phenomenon was found only in the tribe Ericrocidini. On the other hand, becoming shorter and narrower was observed in multiple lineages. This distinctly recognizable pattern of shrinking was detected in the tribes Ammobatini, Brachynomadini, Ammobatoidini, Neolarrini, Biastini, and Nomadini.

Intriguingly, we found potential indicators that changing size is related to host shifting across the phylogeny. To be specific, a considerable body size increase was detected in the tribe Ericrocidini as the host of Nomadinae changes from Andrenidae to Apidae, while both body length and width remained the

same within the genus *Epeolus*, which is parasitic on just the genus *Colletes*. This was not always the case, however, as seen among the species groups of Nomadini. For example, *N. flavoguttata*, which belongs to the *Nomada ruficornis* species-group and parasitizes the genus *Andrena*, showed a similar body size with species of the *Nomada furva* species-group even though that species-group specializes on a different genus (and family), *Lasioglossum*.

Discussion

Most of the relationships recovered in this study corresponds with prior investigations [30]. Major differences from prior studies include the positioning of the tribes Caenoprosopidini and Ammobatoidini, and the sister group of Nomadini. Firstly, the tribe Caenoprosopidini is located sister to the tribes Isepeolini + Epeoloidini + Protepeolini in our study, while it previously belongs to the 'Nomadinae line' [30], which includes Caenoprosopidini, Ammobatini, Ammobatoidini, Brachynomadini, Epeolini, Hexepeolini, Neolarrini, and Nomadini. Second, the tribe Ammobatoidini belonged to a subclade with the tribes Neolarrini, Biastini, Hexepeolini, and Nomadini. Conversely, it is located closest to the tribes Brachynomadini and Epeolini in previous investigation [30]. Third, the tribe Hexepeolini was inferred as the sister group of the tribe Nomadini. The placement of this tribe has varied even among molecular studies, sometimes thought sister to Ammobatoidini, Ammobatini, or Neolarrini [25, 27, 28, 29, 30], but our results are relatively similar to those of the most recent study [30], where Nomadini was sister to Hexepeolini + Neolarrini. The discrepancy between our results and some previous Sanger studies is likely due to our increased taxon sampling, since the most prior studies on *Nomada* have not sampled sufficiently, but for disagreements with the most recent investigation [30], it may be that more data and methods for accounting for systematic biases are necessary.

Much of the work on Nomadini systematics has been morphological, and so it is unsurprising that we might find some incongruencies between our study and prior studies. Following prior works on the group, Alexander conducted species-group classification in the genus *Nomada* based on cladistic analyses [42]. There, he defined 16 species-groups, and this classification has been commonly used since [34, 41, 43, 44]. However, he mentioned that one of the species-groups, the *ruficornis* species-group, may actually belong to a larger group without relatively distinct apomorphic subunits, such as the *armata* or *basalis* group [41, 43]. Because of this uncertainty, there was confusion about which species were included in which groups. For example, *Nomada ginran* Tsuneki, 1973 was treated as a member of the *bifasciata* species-group [45]. However, it was suggested to be a member of the *armata* species-group later [43]. Won also indicated in his PhD thesis that elements of the *bifasciata* species-group, *tripsona* species-group, and *ruficornis* species-group did not align with study by Alexander based on mitochondrial COI data [41, 46]. Nevertheless, given uncertainty and sampling challenges, he did not propose a new classification. Sless and his colleague used six species groups (*odontophora*, *roberjeotiana*, *armata*, *furva*, *panurgina* and *ruficornis*), the most in a molecular investigation so far, and their investigation suggested that the *odontophora* group is sister to the rest [30].

Our expanded multi-gene phylogeny supports the designation of *N. ginran* as a member of the *armata* species-group as suggested by [43]. On the other hand, in disagreement with Alexander and Schwarz [42], *N. aswensis* and *N. kaguya* (previously treated in the *ruficornis* species-group) and *N. nipponica* (previously *tripsona* species-group) were also recovered in the *armata* group. Additionally, *N. lathburiana* (of *ruficornis* species-group) was recovered in the same clade with *N. succincta*, *N. comparata*, *N. goodeniana*, which are the members of the bifasciata species group. Therefore, further investigation with increased taxon sampling is necessary to resolve the true composition and relationships of the *Nomada* species groups.

Our results largely agree with prior studies, with the family Apidae as an original host and multiple switches to other groups and sometimes back to Apidae. In this way, nomadine appear to initially follow Emery's rule, with parasites only attacking close relatives as seen with Melectini attacking Anthophorinae [25], but later with many groups attacking entirely different families very successfully [25, 27, 30, 47, 54].

Our biggest inconsistent result compared to the most recent study [30] is that host shifting from Apidae to Andrenidae in Nomadinae is recovered much earlier in our work. This is because the tribe Caenoprosopidini is shown as close to Isepeolini + Epeoloidini + Protepeolini + Rhathymini + Ericrocidini subclade which belongs to the Ericrocidini line (sensu Sless et al, 2022) in our investigation, while it belongs to the Nomadinae line in the previous study [30].

Host specificity to certain groups has been frequently used to define taxonomic units, including in cuckoo wasps, fig wasps, and some mites [48, 49, 50]. Some similar examples exist in Nomadinae. For example, the host genus of *Epeolus* is well known as limited to the genus *Colletes* [51], and Ericrocidini is limited to Centridini [38]. The common feature of these two examples is that their hosts have specialized nesting strategies, and this may explain some instances of conservatism. Most colletid females apply a cellophane-like layer with their short, bilobed glossa in brood cells, and this behavior is known as a biological synapomorphy in Colletidae [38, 52]. Conversely, many hosts of the tribe Ericrocidini collect floral oil for their brood-cell construction [19]. Applying floral oil and other secretions may make it difficult for parasites to access these nests [53]. Both of these specialized nesting behaviors, especially oils which may be hard to digest, could physically inhibit the offspring of parasites [24, 54]. It may be that the adaptations for using these nests, in turn, make it harder for them to switch to other host groups with less specialized behaviors, further enforcing patterns of conservatism [55].

Of course, exceptions to conservatism of host use exist, such as the use of many different hosts by *Nomada*. Coincidentally, this group also represents another inconsistency with the most recent study [30]. We found three host shifts in the tribe, while they found one. There are over 800 species of *Nomada* [34] and many of them have unknown hosts, so this result depends heavily on taxon sampling. With greater sampling, we would expect additional host shifts. For instance, the host of the *Nomada emarginata* Morawitz (*ruficornis* species-group) is recorded as *Melitta haemorrhoidalis* Fabricius [56], which belongs to the family Melittidae, but it was not included in our analysis. Similarly, the unused *Nomada articulata* Smith (*erigeronis* species-group) takes *Agapostemon sericeus* Foster and *A. virescens* Fabricius as their

hosts [57], and this could add another shift. As there are many species with unknown or unconfirmed hosts, many of which might invoke additional host shifts when added to the phylogeny, it is difficult to estimate the expected total number of host shifts for this group at this time.

Our size allometry analysis strongly supports the positive correlation between parasites and hosts, commonly referred to as Harrison's rule (HR; [9]). Further, we found multiple instances where host shifts were linked with body size changes. It is likely that denser taxon sampling will reveal more such linkages between shifts in host use and body size, and it may be that this is a broader co-evolutionary pattern in Nomadinae.

Similar to prior studies on other taxa [58, 59, 60, 61], the body size of cleptoparasitic bees was typically smaller than their hosts in this study. We postulate that there is a "lock-and-key" relationship between the Nomadinae and their hosts (referred to in literature prior, based on the need to fit well on hair; [13]). Most of the hosts of Nomadinae are soil-nesting, solitary bees. Females make their nests underground by digging, and their nest tunnels are typically just large enough to allow them passage. Because cleptoparasitic bees must enter nests to lay their eggs, they are constrained by the size of these tunnels, nest cells, and even the amount of food provisioned for offspring [24, 62, 63]. Our investigation supports this idea, with host shifts or stability seemingly influencing body size. For example, as shown in Fig. 3., there is relatively little size fluctuation in the genus *Epeolus*, all of which attack *Colletes* [51]. On the other hand, *Nomada*, which parasitizes a vast array of groups, shows scattered size-shifting corresponding with host switches. The ability of cleptoparasitic bees to modulate their size in response to hosts may contribute to the ability of these bees to switch hosts more readily, which could in turn enable adaptive radiations generated from switching to many new hosts (a possible component of the success of the huge group *Nomada*). Of course, plasticity in host recognition via visual and chemical pathways, as well as adaptability to different nectar and pollen resources, would also be important components.

Another example that highlights the relationship between host switching and body size modulation is found in the tribe Ammobatini. Even though the genus *Melanempis* was excluded from our study because its host is unknown, it is one of the largest nomadines and warrants discussion. According to the most recent study [30], Ammobatini includes the small-sized *Oreopasites* (as small as 2.2mm) and *Melanempis* (up to 22mm), demonstrating huge size variation in the group [35, 64]. Alongside this wide range of body sizes, they also parasitize many families: Apidae, Andrenidae, Colletidae, and Halictidae (See supplementary data in [30]). With further data from this group on host associations and body size, and greater taxon sampling, it could be an ideal finer-scale study for looking at the influence of host switching on body size.

Body size is thought to be one of the factors that could contribute to cophylogenetic patterns between hosts and parasites [65]. Food resource requirements being similar among close relatives can help explain such patterns, as they should be relatively similar [13]. Indeed, the ancestral host of Nomadinae was revealed as Family Apidae in this study (specifically Anthophorinae, [30]), so co-evolution may have taken place more closely early in the evolution of the nomadines. However, behavioral flexibility can

empower parasites to invade novel hosts [55, 66]. Such potentials are enhanced when alternative hosts have similar-sized nests [24], or when their increased abundance makes it more likely for them to be encountered, especially if in the same microhabitat [67]. Host chemical cues also likely play an important role, but are relatively poorly understood [68]. Such factors may help explain how single species can exploit many varied hosts [69]. For example, *Nomada flavoguttata* parasites various *Andrena* species such as *Andrena falsifica*, *A. minutula*, *A. minutuloides*, *A. semilaevis*, and *A. subopaca* [34]. Notably, all these host species belong to the same subgenus, *Micrandrena*, which is well-known to have diminutive body size, and may also have similar chemical cues, metabolic requirements, etc. [70]. But occasionally, a single *Nomada* species exploits multiple genera or even families as hosts, such as in *N. imbricata*, parasitizing *Andrena* and *Halictus* [69]. With greater emphasis on natural history studies to make more host-parasite associations, even more disparate host uses might be discovered.

With the combination of our multi-locus phylogeny and allometric data, our understanding of evolutionary relationship of size fluctuation between cleptoparasitic bees and their hosts has greatly improved. Based on the scenarios and examples discussed above, host switches appear closely related to changes in body size. The ability to adapt to new hosts more quickly in this way could increase speciation rate in the presence of potential new hosts, explaining highly diverse groups like *Nomada*. Ultimately, we confirm Harrison's rule, the positive correlation of body size between cleptoparasitic bees and hosts, and with further sampling we expect to find an even stronger impact of body size on evolution in this group.

Methods

Taxon sampling

In total, we used 104 species for the ingroup and 2 species as the outgroup for this analysis (Table S1). Sequences for 71 species from published papers were taken from NCBI, and we newly added 35 species that have not been analyzed in previous phylogenetic investigations. The aim of the sampling was to use species that have both host and body size information without bias. When species did not fulfill this condition, they were excluded from this study. However, we made exceptions where necessary to ensure that the resultant phylogenetic reconstructions were reliable, with reference to prior works informing our choices [30, 71].

We placed special focus on sampling the genus *Nomada* as it has highly-diverse host records [30]. Specifically, we expanded the sampling of the *Nomada furva* species-group because they are distinctly small-bodied and the parasite of genus *Lasioglossum* (Hymenoptera: Halictidae). Two species, *N. aswensis*, and *N. kaguya*, which belong to the *Nomada ruficornis* species-group but show similar biology with the *Nomada furva* species-group, were also included in this study. In total, our sampling of the genus *Nomada* represents seven of 16 species-groups, including a range of host information in three families representing Apidae, Andrenidae, and Halictidae. We could not represent all family-level hosts for this

group because there are few species attacking some groups, such as Melittidae, and they were more difficult to sample.

DNA extraction, PCR amplification, and sequencing

Total genomic DNA was extracted by grinding up detached midlegs or heads of either alcohol vouchers or dried specimens, following removal forceps that were sanitized before by flame and rinsed in 99% EtOH. DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (QIAGEN, Inc.) was used for the DNA extraction according to the manufacturer's protocols and stored in -20°C . DNA vouchers were deposited in the Insect Biosystematics Laboratory, Seoul National University.

Genes commonly used in Anthophila phylogenetics were selected. One mitochondrial protein coding gene, cytochrome oxidase subunit I gene (COI) [51, 72], and five nuclear protein-coding genes (EF-1 α , long-wavelength rhodopsin (opsin), NaK, pol II, and wingless) that were used in previously published literature [27, 29, 33, 51, 54, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77] were chosen for this study. In some cases, COI from NCBI were used.

PCR products were amplified using Accupowder PCR Premix (Bioneer, Daejeon, Korea) in a 20 μl reaction mixture. In case DNA extraction was needed from bad quality specimens, we redesigned the partial primers in threefold. The primers used in this study and specific PCR conditions are listed in Table S2. After the PCR product amplification process, PCR products were purified and sequenced at Bionics CO. (Seoul, Korea).

Using the SeqMan Pro version 7.1.0., raw sequence data were assembled, checked, and trimmed. All the sequences alignment of 6 genes was performed in MAFFT version 7 (<https://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/server/>) [78]. All the sequences were adjusted in Mega 7 with the amino acid translation option. The aligned sequences were combined using SequenceMatrix Windows ver. 1.8 [79].

Phylogenetic analyses

Phylogenetic analyses were performed using both Bayesian inference (BI) and Maximum likelihood (ML). The Bayesian inference analysis was conducted with MrBayes 3.2.7a [80]. The best substitution model was selected for each partition under the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) using IQTREE [81]. GTR+F+I+G4 for COI, TIMe+I+G4 for ef1a, TIM3+F+I+G4 for Nak, TIM3e+I+G4 for Opsin, TIM2+F+I+G4 for Pol2, and TIM+F+I+G4 for Wng were selected as the best fitting models. However, since TIM models cannot be used in MrBayes, GTR+I+G was used to run the BI analysis except COI. For the MrBayes analysis, we ran 20 million Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) generations and trees were sampled every 100 generations. We ran one cold chain and three heated chains for each MCMC analysis. The first two million sampled trees were discarded as burn-in. The maximum likelihood analysis was performed using IQTREE (<http://iqtree.cibiv.univie.ac.at/>) [81]. The best-fit substitution model was automatically detected as SYM+I+G4 according to the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). Branch support was computed using the the UltraFast bootstrap approximation (UBS; [82]) with 1,000 replicates.

Size allometry

We measured two traits of the Nomadinae and their hosts. One is the intertegular distance (minimum distance between the tegulae), which is a useful estimator for the size of bees [83]. The other is total body length. In total, we obtained about 1,300 body size data from Nomadinae and their hosts (Body length: 69; ITD: 63 out of 106 species of Nomadinae and their corresponding hosts). Among them, we used specimens of 24 species (host: 7, Nomadinae: 17) and prepared photographs using the Microscope (DM 4000B, Leica Microsystem, Wetzlar, Germany) with a USB digital camera (Infinity3, Lumenera Corporation, Ottawa, Ontario) and measured the value of the traits using the measurement option. Since there can be a size difference between male and female bees, measurements were only taken from females. We also collected data from literature such as taxonomic papers, online-accessible specimen photographs in museums, or from taxonomists (see Supplementary Data 1). The number of measured individuals was different per species because we gathered the data from various sources. Therefore, we used the average value of measurements for the data analysis. All the statistical analysis was conducted SPSS Statistics 25 (IBM, Armonk, NY, USA). Linear regressions were used to gauge the dependence of nomadine body size on host body size.

Ancestral character state reconstruction

The host information of each nomadine species was extracted from the literature (See supplementary data 1). Where multiple species were reported as hosts, the data was prioritized when the parasitic larvae were found in their nests or when direct intrusion of the parasite to the host nests was observed. However, when such confirmation was absent, data arose from phenological synchrony between parasites and hosts and information provided by taxonomists, including hypotheses raised in the literature.

The hosts of Nomadinae were coded as five discrete states by families: (A) Andrenidae, (B) Apidae, (C) Colletidae, (D) Halticidae, and (E) Melittidae. This may underestimate the number of shifts because different lineages are used in some families, but as it is difficult to exactly know when switches occurred this is in some cases conservative, avoiding the artificial inflation of the number of shifts. The evolutionary history of host use was mapped on a single tree with a parsimony approach; the trace character history option in Mesquite 3.31 [84] was adopted. The probability of the ancestral state of each node was calculated by Bayestraits v3.0 [85] using reversible jump Markov Chain Monte Carlo (RJ-MCMC). An exponential distribution was implemented, seeding from a uniform prior in an interval of 0 - 100. We ran 50 million iterations, sampling every 1,000th iteration. The first million iterations were discarded as burn-in. Acceptance rates were automatically adjusted and achieved in the preferred range of near 35%.

To trace the evolutionary history of intertegular distance and body size, we used ancestral state reconstruction using the maximum likelihood (ML) method in the R package 'Phytools' [86]. The resulting Bayesian tree was converted into a dendrogram, the missing data vector was estimated using ML, and the ContMap function was used to visualize their evolutionary history.

Declarations

Acknowledgements

We appreciate Gunilla Ståhls (Finnish Museum of Natural History) for loan of DNA materials and Brigit Jauker and Frank Jauker (Justus Liebig Universität) for providing raw data of ITD. We further thank Cheol-Min Kim (Natural History Museum of Los Angeles County), Douglas Yanega (Entomology Research Museum, California), and Joseph Monks (Natural History Museum, London) for ITD measurement. We also appreciate Gerardo Quintos, Heungsik Lee (Animal and Plant Quarantine Agency), Jan Smit, and Keiichi Otsui for providing valuable specimens or photographs for ITD measurement. This study was carried out with the support of 'R&D Program for Forest Science Technology (Project No. "2021362B10-2223-BD01)' provided by Korea Forest Service (Korea Forestry Promotion Institute).

Data availability

All raw sequence data have been deposited in NCBI. Accession codes are as follows: OM722151-OM722175; OM850346-OM850368; OM906091-OM906191; OM912457-OM912460.

Contributions

K.L., and S.L.¹ conceived and conducted the experiment and performed analyses, K.L., S.L.¹, & M.C.O wrote the manuscript, S.L.² was in charge of supervision and financed the DNA analyses. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

S.L.¹: Seunghyun Lee; S.L.²: Seunghwan Lee

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

References

1. Fisher, D. O., & C. R. Dickman. Body size-prey size relationships in insectivorous marsupials: tests of three hypotheses. *Ecology*. **74**, 1871–1883 (1993).
2. Woodward, G., & Hildrew, A. G. Body-size determinants of niche overlap and intraguild predation within a complex food web. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **71**, 1063–1074 (2002).
3. Duellman, W. E. Cusco Amazónico. *Comstock Publishing Associates*, Cornell Univ. Press, Ithaca, NY 456pp. (2005).
4. Peters, R. H. *The ecological implications of body size* (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1983).
5. Fisher, J. T., Anholt, B., & Volpe, J. P. Body mass explains characteristic scales of habitat selection in terrestrial mammals. *Ecology and evolution*. **1**, 517–528 (2011).

6. Wikelski, M. Evolution of body size in Galapagos marine iguanas. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*. **272**, 1985–1993 (2005).
7. Sibly, R. M., & Brown, J. H. Effects of body size and lifestyle on evolution of mammal life histories. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, **104**, 17707–17712 (2007).
8. Woodward, G. *et al.* Body size in ecological networks. *Trends in ecology & evolution*. **20**, 402–409 (2005).
9. Harrison, L. Mallophaga from apteryx, and their significance; with a note on the genus *rallicola*. *Parasitology*. **8**, 88–100 (1915).
10. Harvey, P. H., & Keymer, A. E. Comparing life histories using phylogenies. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences*. **332**, 31–39 (1991).
11. Kirk, W. D. The size relationship between insects and their hosts. *Ecological Entomology*. **16**, 351–359 (1991).
12. Morand, S., Legendre, P., Gardner, S. L., & Hugot, J. P. Body size evolution of oxyurid (Nematoda) parasites: the role of hosts. *Oecologia*, **107**, 274–282 (1996).
13. Morand, S., Hafner, M. S., Page, R. D., & Reed, D. L. Comparative body size relationships in pocket gophers and their chewing lice. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society*, **70**, 239–249 (2000).
14. Poulin, R., & W. J. Hamilton. Ecological correlates of body size and egg size in parasitic Ascothoracida and Rhizocephala (Crustacea). *Acta Oecol.* **18**, 621–631 (1997).
15. Sasal, P. E., S. Trouve´, C. Müller-Graf, and S. Morand. Specificity and host predictability: a comparative analysis among monogenean parasites of fish. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **68**, 437–444 (1999).
16. Nagler, C. *et al.* The bigger, the better? Volume measurements of parasites and hosts: Parasitic barnacles (Cirripedia, Rhizocephala) and their decapod hosts. *PloS one*, **12**, e0179958 (2017).
17. Harnos, A. *et al.* Size matters for lice on birds: Coevolutionary allometry of host and parasite body size. *Evolution*, **71**, 421–431 (2017).
18. Maestri, R., *et al.* Harrison's rule scales up to entire parasite assemblages but is determined by environmental factors. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, **89**, 2888–2895 (2020).
19. Danforth, B. N., Minckley, R. L. & Neff, J. L. *The Solitary Bees* (Princeton University Press, Princeton, 2019).
20. Rozen Jr, J. G. Biological notes on the cuckoo bee genera *Holcopasites* and *Neolarra* (Hymenoptera: Apoidea). *Journal of the New York Entomological Society*. **73**, 87–91 (1965).
21. Wcislo, W. T., & Cane, J. H. Floral resource utilization by solitary bees (Hymenoptera: Apoidea) and exploitation of their stored foods by natural enemies. *Annual review of entomology*. **41**, 257–286 (1996).
22. Rozen Jr, J. G. Eggs, ovariole numbers, and modes of parasitism of cleptoparasitic bees, with emphasis on Neotropical species (Hymenoptera: Apoidea). *American Museum Novitates*. 2003, 1–36 (2003).

23. Alexander, B. A. A cladistic analysis of the nomadine bees (Hymenoptera: Apoidea). *Systematic Entomology*. **15**, 121–152 (1990).
24. Habermannová, J., Bogusch, P., & Straka, J. Flexible host choice and common host switches in the evolution of generalist and specialist cuckoo bees (Anthophila: Sphecodes). *PLoS One*. **8**, e64537 (2013).
25. Bossert, S. *et al.* Combining transcriptomes and ultraconserved elements to illuminate the phylogeny of Apidae. *Molecular phylogenetics and evolution*. **130**, 121–131 (2019).
26. Ascher, J. S. & J. Pickering. *Discover Life bee species guide and world checklist (Hymenoptera: Apoidea: Anthophila)* http://www.discoverlife.org/mp/20q?guide=Apoidea_species (2021).
27. Cardinal, S., Straka, J., & Danforth, B. N. Comprehensive phylogeny of apid bees reveals the evolutionary origins and antiquity of cleptoparasitism. *Proceedings of the national Academy of Sciences*. **107**, 16207–16211 (2010).
28. Litman, J. R., Praz, C. J., Danforth, B. N., Griswold, T. L., & Cardinal, S. Origins, evolution, and diversification of cleptoparasitic lineages in long-tongued bees. *Evolution*. **67**, 2982–2998 (2013).
29. Martins, A. C., Luz, D. R., & Melo, G. A. Palaeocene origin of the Neotropical lineage of cleptoparasitic bees Ericrocidini-Rhathymini (Hymenoptera, Apidae). *Systematic Entomology*. **43**, 510–521 (2018).
30. Sless, T. J. *et al.* Phylogenetic relationships and the evolution of host preferences in the largest clade of brood parasitic bees (Apidae: Nomadinae). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*. **166**, 107326 (2022).
31. Maeta, Y., Goukon, K., Sugiura, N., & Miyanaga, R. Host records of cleptoparasitic bees in Japan (Hymenoptera, Apoidea). *III*, **64**, 830-842 (1996).
32. Amiet, F., Herrmann, M., Müller, A., & Neumeyer, R. *Apidae 5: Ammobates, Ammobatoides, Anthophora, Biastes, Ceratina, Dasypoda, Epeoloides, Epeolus, Eucera, Macropis, Melecta, Melitta, Nomada, Pasites, Tetralonia, Thyreus, Xylocopa* Centre suisse de cartographie de la faune. **5**, 1-356 (2007).
33. Onuferko, T. M. A revision of the cleptoparasitic bee genus *Epeolus* Latreille for Nearctic species, north of Mexico (Hymenoptera, Apidae). *ZooKeys*, **755**, 1 (2018).
34. Smit, J. Identification key to the European species of the bee genus *Nomada* Scopoli, 1770 (Hymenoptera: Apidae), including 23 new species. *Entomofauna*. **3**, 1–253 (2018).
35. Rozen Jr, J. G. Systematics and host relationships of the cuckoo bee genus *Oreopasites* (Hymenoptera, Anthophoridae, Nomadinae). *American Museum novitates*. no. 3046, 56pp (1992).
36. Rozen Jr, J. G. *et al.* Early nesting biology of the bee *Caupolicana yarrowi* (Cresson) (Colletidae: Diphaglossinae) and its cleptoparasite *Triepeolus grandis* (Friese) (Apidae: Nomadinae). *American Museum Novitates*. 2019, 1–20 (2019).
37. Orr, M. C., & Griswold, T. L. A review of the cleptoparasitic bee genus *Townsendiella* (Apidae, Nomadinae, Townsendiellini), with the description of a new species from Pinnacles National Park. *ZooKeys*, **546**, 87 (2015).

38. Michener C. D. *The bees of the world*. (Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, 2007).
39. Bossert, S. *et al.* Phylogeny, biogeography and diversification of the mining bee family Andrenidae. *Systematic Entomology*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/syen.12530> (2021).
40. Schrottky, C. *Ensaio sobre as abelhas solitarias do Brazil* (Revista do Museo Paulista, 1902).
41. Alexander, B. A. Species-Groups and Cladistic Analysis of the Cleptoparasitic Bee Genus *Nomada* (Hymenoptera: Apoidea). *The University of Kansas Science Bulletin*. **55**, 175–238 (1994).
42. Alexander, B. A., & Schwarz, M. (1994). A catalog of the species of *Nomada* (Hymenoptera: Apoidea) of the world. *The University of Kansas Science Bulletin*. **55**, 239–270 (1994).
43. Mitai, K., & Tadauchi, O. Taxonomic study of the Japanese species of the *Nomada ruficornis* species group (Hymenoptera, Apidae) with remarks on Japanese fauna of the genus *Nomada*. *Esakia*. **47**, 25–167 (2007).
44. Proshchalykin, M. Y., & Lelej, A. S. Review of the *Nomada roberjeotiana* species-group (Hymenoptera: Apidae) of Russia, with description of new species. *Zootaxa*. **2335**, 1–15 (2010).
45. Mitai, K., & Tadauchi, O. Taxonomic notes on the *bifasciata* species group of the genus *Nomada* (Hymenoptera: Apidae) in Japan. *Esakia*. **44**, 91–101 (2004).
46. Won H.S. Systematics of the genus *Nomada* (Hymenoptera: Apidae) in Korea. PhD thesis. 1-132 (2006).
47. Emery C. (1909) Über den Ursprung der dulotischen, parasitischen und myrmekophilen Ameisen. *Biol. Cent.* **29**, 352–362.
48. Costa, M. *Cerambylaelaps nadchatrami*, n. gen, n. sp., an unusual Mesostigmatic mite (Acari) associated with a cerambycid beetle in Malaysia. *Acarologia*. **20**, 188–195 (1979).
49. Kimsey, L. S. Functional morphology of the abdomen and phylogeny of the chrysidid wasps (Hymenoptera: Chrysididae). *J. Hymenop. Res.* **1**, 165–174 (1992).
50. Chen, L. *et al.* Adaptation of Fig Wasps (Agaodinae) to Their Host Revealed by Large-Scale Transcriptomic Data. *Insects*. **12**, 815 (2021).
51. Onuferko, T. M., Bogusch, P., Ferrari, R. R., & Packer, L. Phylogeny and biogeography of the cleptoparasitic bee genus *Epeolus* (Hymenoptera: Apidae) and cophylogenetic analysis with its host bee genus *Colletes* (Hymenoptera: Colletidae). *Molecular phylogenetics and evolution*, **141**, 106603 (2019).
52. Almeida, E. A. Colletidae nesting biology (Hymenoptera: Apoidea). *Apidologie*. **39**, 16–29 (2008).
53. Alves-dos-Santos, I., Melo, G. A., & Rozen, J. G. Biology and immature stages of the bee tribe Tetrapediini (Hymenoptera: Apidae). *American Museum Novitates*. 2002, 1–45 (2002).
54. Policarová, J., Cardinal, S., Martins, A. C., & Straka, J. The role of floral oils in the evolution of apid bees (Hymenoptera: Apidae). *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society*. **128**, 486–497 (2019).
55. Bush, S. E. Does behavioural flexibility facilitate host switching by parasites?. *Functional Ecology*. **23**, 578–586 (2009).
56. Westrich P. *The wild bees of Baden-Württemberg* (Stuttgart: Eugen Ulmer) (1989).

57. Snelling, R. R. Contributions toward a revision of the New World nomadine bees. A partitioning of the genus *Nomada* (Hymenoptera: Anthophoridae). *Natural history museum of Los Angeles County*. **376**, 1–32 (1986).
58. Price, P. *The Evolutionary Biology of Parasites* (Princeton University Press, Princeton, 1980).
59. Hanken, J., & Wake, D. B. Miniaturization of body size: organismal consequences and evolutionary significance. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*. **24**, 501–519 (1993).
60. Tsai, M. L., Li, J. J., & Dai, C. F. How host size may constrain the evolution of parasite body size and clutch size. The parasitic isopod *Ichthyoxenus fushanensis* and its host fish, *Varicorhinus bacbatulus*, as an example. *Oikos*. **92**, 13–19 (2001).
61. Lafferty, K. D., & Kuris, A. M. Trophic strategies, animal diversity and body size. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*. **17**, 507–513 (2002).
62. Roulston, T. A. H., & Cane, J. H. The effect of diet breadth and nesting ecology on body size variation in bees (Apiformes). *Journal of the Kansas Entomological Society*. **73**, 129–142 (2000).
63. Radmacher, S., & Strohm, E. Factors affecting offspring body size in the solitary bee *Osmia bicornis* (Hymenoptera, Megachilidae). *Apidologie*. **41**, 169–177 (2010).
64. Pauly, A *et al.* *Hymenoptera Apoidea de Madagascar et des îles voisines*. (Koninklijk Museum voor Midden-Afrika, 2001).
65. Sweet, A. D., Wilson, R. E., Sonsthagen, S. A., & Johnson, K. P. Lousy grouse: Comparing evolutionary patterns in Alaska galliform lice to understand host evolution and host–parasite interactions. *Ecology and evolution*. **10**, 8379–8393 (2020).
66. Baldwin, J.M. A new factor in evolution. *American Naturalist*. **30**, 441–451 (1896).
67. Parker, J., & Rabeling, C. Evolution: shape-shifting social parasites. *Current Biology*, **30**, R1049-R1051 (2020).
68. Tengö, J., & Bergström, G. Cleptoparasitism and odor mimetism in bees: do *Nomada* males imitate the odor of *Andrena* females?. *Science*. **196**, 1117–1119 (1977).
69. Packard Jr, A. S. The home of the bees (Concluded). *The American Naturalist*, **1**, 596–606 (1868).
70. Dardón, M. J., Torres, F., & Ornosá, C. The subgenus *Andrena* (*Micrandrena*) (Hymenoptera: Andrenidae) in the Iberian Peninsula. *Zootaxa*. **3872**, 467–497 (2014).
71. Branstetter, M. G. *et al.* Phylogenomic insights into the evolution of stinging wasps and the origins of ants and bees. *Current Biology*, **27**, 1019–1025 (2017).
72. Hebert, P. D., Cywinska, A., Ball, S. L., & Dewaard, J. R. Biological identifications through DNA barcodes. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences*. **270**, 313–321 (2003).
73. Ascher, J. S., Danforth, B. N., & Ji, S. Phylogenetic utility of the major opsin in bees (Hymenoptera: Apoidea): a reassessment. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*. **19**, 76–93 (2001).
74. Danforth, B. N., Sipes, S., Fang, J., & Brady, S. G. The history of early bee diversification based on five genes plus morphology. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. **103**, 15118–15123

(2006).

75. Diestelhorst, O., & Lunau, K. Beitrag zur Klärung des Artstatus von *Nomada succincta* Panzer, 1798 (Hymenoptera, Apidae). *Entomologie heute*. **20**, 165–171 (2008).
76. Gerth, M., Röthe, J., & Bleidorn, C. Tracing horizontal Wolbachia movements among bees (Anthophila): a combined approach using multilocus sequence typing data and host phylogeny. *Molecular ecology*. **22**, 6149–6162 (2013).
77. Schmidt, S., Schmid-Egger, C., Morinière, J., Haszprunar, G., & Hebert, P. D. DNA barcoding largely supports 250 years of classical taxonomy: identifications for Central European bees (Hymenoptera, Apoidea partim). *Molecular Ecology Resources*, **15**, 985–1000 (2015).
78. Katoh, K., & Standley, D. M. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7: improvements in performance and usability. *Molecular biology and evolution*. **30**, 772–780 (2013).
79. Vaidya, G., Lohman, D. J., & Meier, R. SequenceMatrix: concatenation software for the fast assembly of multi-gene datasets with character set and codon information. *Cladistics*, **27**, 171–180 (2011).
80. Ronquist, F. *et al.* MrBayes 3.2: efficient Bayesian phylogenetic inference and model choice across a large model space. *Systematic biology*, **61**, 539–542 (2012).
81. Trifinopoulos, J., Nguyen, L. T., von Haeseler, A., & Minh, B. Q. W-IQ-TREE: a fast online phylogenetic tool for maximum likelihood analysis. *Nucleic acids research*, **44**, W232–W235 (2016).
82. Minh, B.Q.; Nguyen, M.A.T. & Von Haeseler, A. Ultrafast approximation for phylogenetic bootstrap. – *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **30**, 1188–1195 (2013).
83. Cane, J.H. Estimation of bee size using intertegular span (Apoidea). *Journal of the Kansas Entomological Society*. **60**, 145–147 (1987).
84. Maddison, W. P., & Maddison, D.R., Mesquite: a modular system for evolutionary analysis. Version 3.31 <http://mesquiteproject.org> (2017).
85. Meade, A., Pagel, M., 2017. BayesTraits V3.0. <http://www.evolution.rdg.ac.uk/BayesTraitsV3/BayesTraitsV3.html>.
86. Revell, L. J. phytools: an R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other things). *Methods in ecology and evolution*. **2**, 217–223 (2012).

Figures

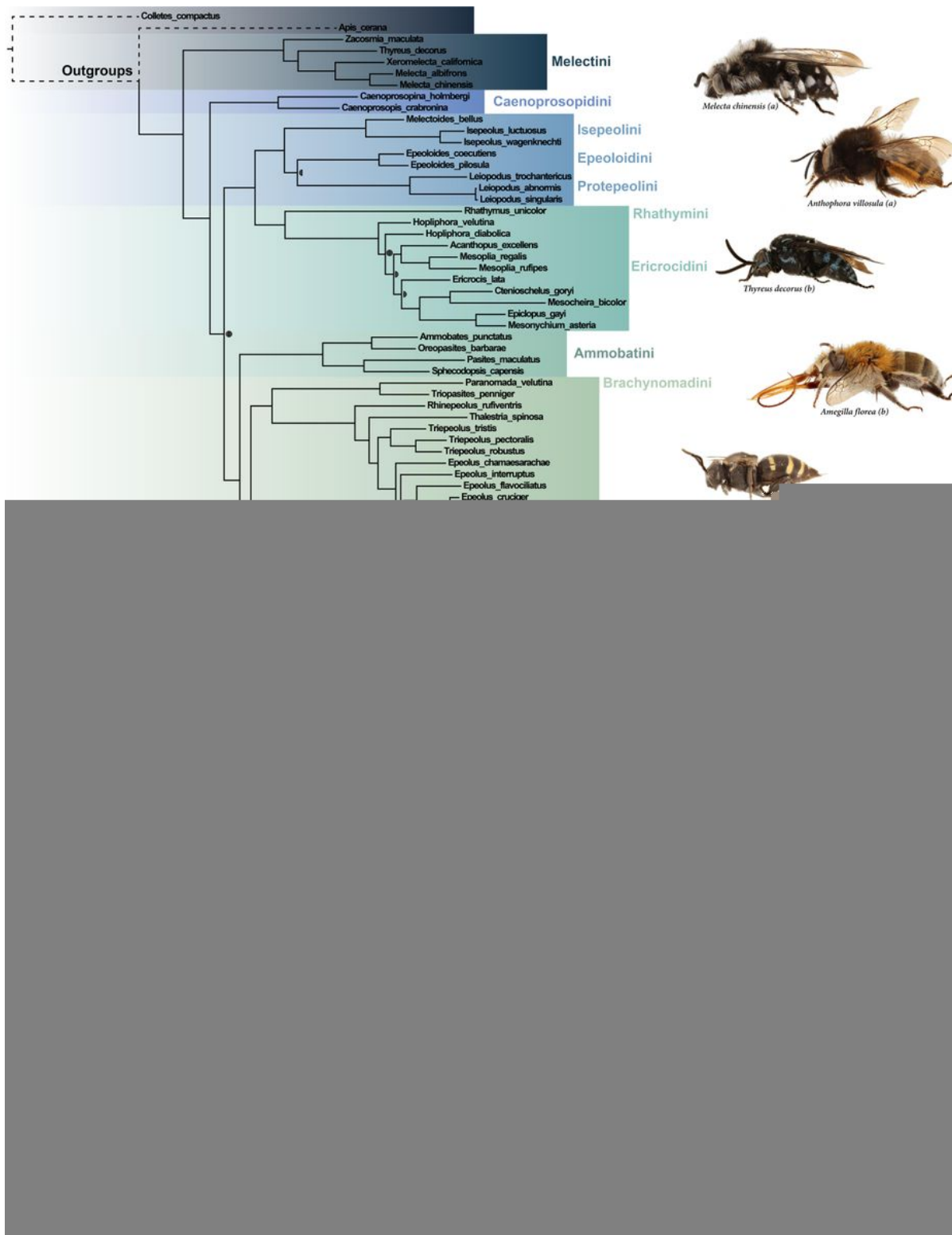


Figure 1

Combined Phylogenetic tree of Nomadinae. Produced with MrBayes. Colors of circles on the node indicate bootstrap supporting values, and the one topological difference between BI and ML trees is presented as a red circle. The tribal classification followed [30]. Habitus images of cuckoo bees (left) and hosts (right) were imaged by the first author, Kayun Lim. Identical letters next to the Latin names indicate confirmed parasites-host interactions between those imaged.

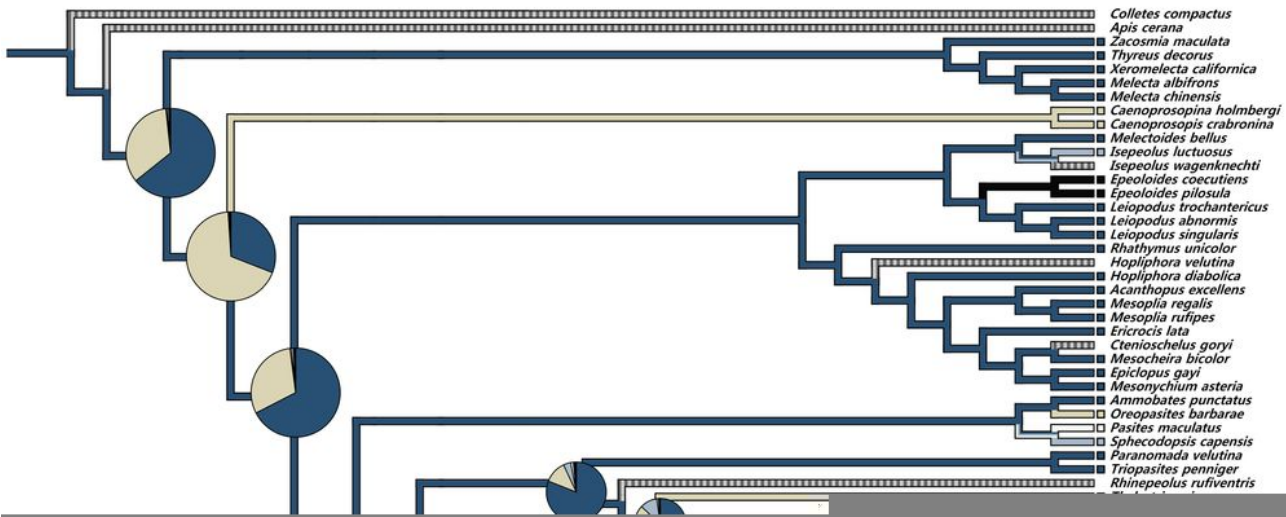


Figure 2

Ancestral state reconstruction of nomadine host associations at the family-level. Produced using the Bayesian analysis. The pie charts represent mean posterior probabilities assessed under RJ-MCMC analysis using Bayestrains. Clade colors indicate the result of Ancestral state reconstruction analysis (Black: Melittidae; Navy: Apidae; Sky blue: Colletidae; Ivory: Andrenidae; White: Halictidae).

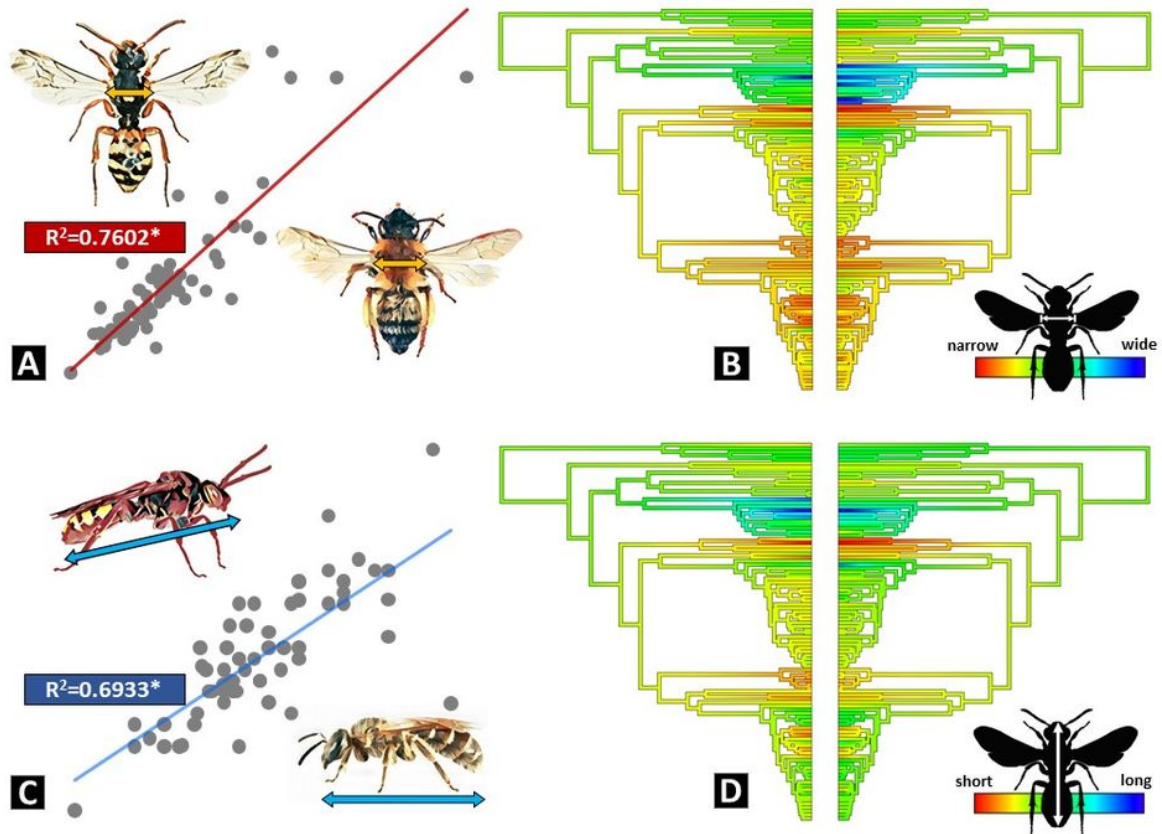


Figure 3

Size correlation between cuckoo bees and hosts. **(A)** Linear regression analysis of ITD ($R^2=0.7602$, $P < 0.05$). **(B)** Ancestral character estimation of body width (ITD) of cuckoo bees (left) in accordance with size of the hosts (right). **(C)** Linear regression analysis of entire body length ($R^2=0.6933$, $P < 0.05$). **(D)** Ancestral character estimation of body length of cuckoo bees (left) in accordance with size of the hosts (right).

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [SupportingInformationFileS1.xlsx](#)
- [TableS1.docx](#)
- [TableS2.docx](#)