

1 Chapter 9

2 Towards integrating interaction networks into global parasite conservation: 3 insights from bats, bat flies and their fungal associates

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23 24 **Abstract**

25 Parasites are a key conservation blind spot. Even though parasitism is a widespread ecological
26 lifestyle, most parasite diversity remains unknown, as do the interactions in which they are
27 involved. Some parasite species are involved in multitrophic interactions, meaning they span
28 multiple trophic levels. These complex interactions are generally understudied, and
29 conservation frameworks fail to integrate them. The interaction network involving bats, bat flies,
30 and bat fly-associated fungal parasites of the order Laboulbeniales provides a case study for
31 identifying knowledge and conservation gaps in multitrophic interaction systems. In this chapter,
32 we review the role of parasites and species interactions in conservation frameworks, as well as
33 our current understanding of this tripartite parasitic and hyperparasitic system. We discuss gaps
34 in species diversity and distribution (Linnean and Wallacean shortfalls), responses to abiotic
35 environments (Hutchinsonian shortfall), ecological interactions across and within trophic levels
36 (Eltonian shortfall), and the cascading consequences of host extinction on other partners in the
37 interaction (Scarian and Ostromian shortfalls). We also discuss how species interactions,
38 especially obligate ones, could be integrated into conservation schemes such as Red Listing,
39 and we propose a simple conceptual framework to support this. Finally, we present outstanding
40 questions and future directions, with the hope that they will foster collaborations and research in
41 the field of multitrophic interactions, and contribute to a better understanding and protection of
42 complex interaction networks in the face of global change.

43
44 **Keywords:** Arthropod-associated fungi, cross-kingdom interactions, fungal conservation, IUCN
45 Red List, knowledge shortfalls

46

47 **1. The place of parasites in biological conservation**

48 Biodiversity conservation strategies have always had blind spots. This is most evident in
49 taxonomic coverage, with certain groups of organisms (e.g., charismatic animals and plants)
50 receiving more protection than others (e.g., microorganisms). However, there are also biases
51 regarding the lifestyle that conservation efforts focus on. Parasites are a particularly clear
52 example of this. Although they are increasingly recognized as representing a highly diverse pool
53 of species and having important regulatory effects on ecosystems (Hudson *et al.*, 2006),
54 parasites remain understudied, are rarely incorporated in biodiversity conservation planning,
55 and continue to be associated with strong prejudices. Indeed, both the scientific community and
56 the general public have long regarded parasites from a human, animal, or plant health
57 perspective in which they should not be protected (Windsor, 1997). This observation can be
58 linked to the way wildlife management tends to divide biodiversity into two categories: threats to
59 biodiversity on the one hand, and targets for conservation on the other (Dougherty *et al.*, 2015).
60 Despite the challenges faced by parasites in being recognized as components of biodiversity
61 with their own intrinsic right to be protected, many scientists have, for several decades, called
62 for a paradigm shift to integrate parasites into conservation biology.

63

64 More than thirty years ago, Donald A. Windsor highlighted that parasites were largely absent
65 from conservation biology, which traditionally focused instead on free-living animals and plants
66 (Windsor, 1995). He also emphasized that while efforts were made to protect individual species,
67 the full complement of parasites associated with those hosts was overlooked. Twenty-five years
68 later, an international working group of parasitologists and ecologists proposed twelve goals to
69 be achieved by 2030, aimed at identifying and filling knowledge and conservation gaps for
70 parasites (Carlson *et al.*, 2020). These goals cover areas such as data collection and synthesis,
71 risk assessment and prioritization, conservation practices, as well as outreach and education.
72 As is the case for other organisms, identifying gaps in parasite conservation is a prerequisite for
73 being able to address and fill them. Beyond their intrinsic value, parasites deserve protection
74 because (i) they are extremely diverse and ubiquitous in natural ecosystems; (ii) they in
75 likelihood outnumber free-living organisms, providing models to study ecological interactions
76 and the evolution of inter-species relationships; (iii) they play numerous ecological and
77 evolutionary roles, such as regulating natural populations and driving host evolution; and (iv)
78 they are often threatened, with many species potentially already extinct (Gómez and Nichols,
79 2013; Lymbery and Smit, 2023). These points challenge the common misconception that
80 parasitism is only harmful, showing that parasites also play important positive roles in
81 ecosystems—and, ultimately, for humans (Szopieray and Żbikowska, 2021). Given that
82 parasites are interconnected with the rest of life, often via highly dependent, obligate
83 interactions, they have even been proposed as promising conservation tools, notably by using
84 parasites as indicators of the impacts of global change drivers on their hosts (Gagne *et al.*,
85 2022).

86

87 All these efforts are gradually bearing fruit in terms of parasite conservation. For example, in
88 2023, a Parasite Specialist Group was established under the Species Survival Commission of
89 the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) (Hopkins and Kwak, 2023) with three

90 main goals: (1) to carry out assessments of parasitic metazoan species (excluding human and
91 domesticated animal parasites), (2) advance conservation efforts for threatened parasites, and
92 (3) increase awareness about parasite conservation (<https://www.iucnparasites.com/>). Several
93 important projects and milestones have already emerged from this group, including recovery
94 plans for the Ryukyu rabbit tick (*Haemaphysalis pentalagi*, Arthropoda: Ixodidae) on the Amami
95 rabbit (*Pentalagus furnessi*, Mammalia: Leporidae) on Amami Island in the Ryukyu Islands of
96 southern Japan, and the Manx shearwater flea (*Ceratophyllus fionnus*, Arthropoda:
97 Ceratophyllidae) on the Manx shearwater (*Puffinus puffinus*, Aves: Procellariidae) on the Isle of
98 Rùm off the coast of Scotland, as well as the objective of completing 50 IUCN Red List
99 assessments of parasites (Hopkins and Kwak, 2024). Conferences and workshops are also
100 being organized. To cite a few, for example, a thematic session at the 2024 IUCN Regional
101 Conservation Forum for Europe, North, and Central Asia in Bruges (Belgium), a Parasite
102 Conservation symposium at the 2025 International Congress for Conservation Biology in
103 Brisbane (Australia), as well as Red Listing workshops at Hasselt University (Belgium) in 2024
104 and at the 2025 Annual Meeting of the American Society of Parasitologists in Winston-Salem,
105 North Carolina (USA).

106
107 Other initiatives have also emerged in recent years in favor of parasite conservation outreach
108 and science communication. For example, the Global Parasitologist Coalition
109 (<https://www.globalpc.org/>) develops education material to foster engagement of scientists and
110 the public with parasites and their conservation (Li *et al.*, 2025). The World Archives of Species
111 Perception (WASP), an initiative that aims to study public perception of global biodiversity in a
112 systematic way (Nguyen *et al.* 2023), now includes a project on parasites ([http://www.wasp-](http://www.wasp-project.net/wasp-p)
113 [project.net/wasp-p](http://www.wasp-project.net/wasp-p)). Lastly, citizen science is increasingly being leveraged to help document
114 interactions between hosts and their (often unknown) parasites. The Terrestrial Parasite Tracker
115 (TPT) has launched a project, Notes from Nature
116 ([https://www.zooniverse.org/projects/md68135/notes-from-nature-terrestrial-parasite-](https://www.zooniverse.org/projects/md68135/notes-from-nature-terrestrial-parasite-tracker/about/research)
117 [tracker/about/research](https://www.zooniverse.org/projects/md68135/notes-from-nature-terrestrial-parasite-tracker/about/research)), that allows people to help digitize collections of arthropod parasites and
118 their terrestrial vertebrate hosts. Despite these advances, challenges and gaps remain
119 regarding the perspective of parasites being fully mainstream in conservation frameworks and in
120 people's vision of biodiversity.

121
122 Parasites remain vastly underrepresented in the IUCN Red List. In 2015, only one animal
123 parasite species was listed, the pygmy hog-sucking louse (*Haematopinus oliveri*, Arthropoda:
124 Haematopinidae), which was classified as critically endangered along with its host, the pygmy
125 hog (*Porcula salvania*, Mammalia: Suidae) (Rocha *et al.*, 2016). Even with the objective of 50
126 parasite species being assessed by the IUCN SSC Parasite Specialist Group, this would
127 represent less than 0.001% of all species assessed to date (i.e., of the 172,620 species in IUCN
128 Red List version 2025-02; UICN, 2026). Parasites are also sensitive to global change and face
129 extinction risks. Taking the example of parasitic worms, Carlson *et al.* (2017) predicted up to
130 30% may be prone to extinction due to changing climate, accounting for co-extinction with
131 hosts. Recently, Boast *et al.* (2025) observed a decline in parasite richness following the
132 population decline of the endangered kākāpō parrot (*Strigops habroptilus*, Aves: Strigopidae),

133 and a continued loss of parasites even after the host population rebounded. This suggests that
134 parasite extinctions may be far more widespread and significant than previously assumed.

135
136 Parasites are also routinely overlooked in international biodiversity laws such that parasite
137 conservation does not reflect current parasitology research on their diversity, threats, and
138 extinction risks (Claerhoudt, 2024). This situation mirrors the fact that parasitology research is
139 still underfunded and underrepresented in conservation research compared to vertebrates (Di
140 Marco *et al.*, 2017; Mammola *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, studies that explicitly consider parasites
141 as targets for conservation remain less numerous compared to those framing parasites primarily
142 as threats. Lymbery and Lymbery (2024) recently looked at this issue by analyzing articles
143 published in the *International Journal for Parasitology*, *Biological Conservation*, and
144 *Conservation Biology*. One takeaway from their study is that Windsor's (1995) call for 'equal
145 rights for parasites' is still far from being realized. Finally, scientists are also pointing out new
146 gaps that need attention to build a more transdisciplinary approach to parasite conservation—
147 one that could lead to stronger conservation outcomes. These include, for example,
148 sociocultural factors and the philosophical foundations of why and how parasites should be
149 conserved (Brown *et al.*, 2025). Recently, in a call to turn current knowledge into action for
150 parasite conservation, Hopkins and Wood (2026) argued that (1) some parasite species already
151 have sufficient data available to be assessed for the IUCN Red List, (2) the current IUCN
152 framework is already adequate and that more effort should be directed toward actually
153 assessing parasite species, (3) considering hosts alongside their parasites would support a co-
154 conservation approach that, when possible, protects both interacting partners, and (4) there is a
155 need to build a community of practice willing to collect data, provide expertise, and carry out
156 IUCN assessments.

157 158 **2. From conservation of individuals to species interactions**

159 Historically, the pragmatic approach to conservation focused on individual species. This strategy
160 was adopted as a quick and efficient way to guide spatial prioritization efforts, with the
161 assumption that protecting a target species would indirectly benefit many others (Runge *et al.*,
162 2019). Examples of conservation efforts that focus on individual species include flagship,
163 umbrella, and keystone species. Flagship species are usually charismatic organisms that
164 capture public attention, evoke emotions or sympathy, and generally attract more funding for
165 conservation efforts (Thomas-Walters and Raihani, 2017). Umbrella species are those whose
166 protection is expected to provide indirect benefits to a broader suite of species that co-occur
167 within the same habitat (Roberge and Angelstam, 2004; Branton and Richardson, 2011).
168 Finally, keystone species are generally defined as having a disproportionately large ecological
169 impact relative to their abundance in the ecosystem (Power *et al.*, 1996). However, some
170 environmental laws that focused on protecting a handful of such key species were developed
171 before conservation biology fully recognized the importance of species interactions in shaping
172 natural population dynamics and ecosystems, and that the loss of "strongly interactive species"
173 (*sensu* Soulé *et al.*, 2005) can lead to negative consequences for the whole ecosystem.
174 Conservation biology has therefore gradually shifted from a species-centered perspective to one
175 that integrates species interactions—at the same time as we came to realize that many
176 ecosystem functions actually emerge from complex networks of interactions among species

177 (Heleno *et al.*, 2012). Nowadays, many conservationists call for interaction and ecological
178 networks to be effectively integrated in conservation frameworks, with, for example, discussions
179 around which network-level structural indicators deserve attention from a conservation
180 perspective (e.g., Tylianakis *et al.*, 2010; Heleno *et al.*, 2012; Dansereau *et al.*, 2025).

181
182 In addition to the transition from species-focused to species interaction conservation,
183 conservation biology has also undergone a shift in how it views the very nature of interactions.
184 The historical view of interactions are bi-trophic, such as plant–herbivore or predator–prey
185 interactions (Riley, 1892; Tyson *et al.*, 2010). However, researchers have shown that many bi-
186 trophic interactions actually do not occur in isolation but are interconnected through cascading
187 effects—which has been quite extensively demonstrated, for example, for plant-herbivore-
188 parasitoid or pathogens systems (e.g., Eber, 2001; Meiners, 2015). Another example of this shift
189 in perspective is the plant–soil system, which for a long time was studied separately but was
190 later brought together, particularly with the rise of studies on plant–mycorrhizal fungi interactions
191 in agricultural and forest contexts. However, research has shown that mycorrhizal fungi can also
192 exert a variety of direct or indirect influences on plant-associated aboveground herbivores and
193 foliar endophytic communities, as well as soil-borne pathogens (Tscharncke and Hawkins, 2002;
194 Bennett *et al.*, 2006; Razak and Gange, 2023).

195
196 All these interactions can be of various types, but a flourishing area of research in the field of
197 multitrophic interactions has been parasitic interactions. Indeed, parasites teach us that
198 interactions are not just host-parasite, one-to-one relationships, but also networks and
199 multitrophic (Furlong and Pell, 2005). Parasites are increasingly recognized as key components
200 of interaction networks and food webs. Because of their wide range of interactions—ranging
201 from generalist to highly host-specific, and often spanning one or multiple hosts—they are
202 thought to increase both the complexity and the connectivity of ecological networks and food
203 webs (Lafferty *et al.*, 2006, 2008; Hatcher *et al.*, 2012). Looking at host–parasite interactions—
204 whether bipartite or multitrophic—through the lens of networks has helped us better understand
205 their ecological and evolutionary dynamics, move from description to prediction, and explore
206 how environmental factors shape these interactions through space and time (Poulin, 2010;
207 Runghen *et al.*, 2021).

208
209 Another research area that has reshaped our understanding of host–parasite interactions is
210 hyperparasitism, where parasites themselves can be parasitized by other, secondary parasites.
211 This type of interaction is particularly noteworthy because it is obligate—meaning the
212 hyperparasite can only survive by parasitizing a primary parasite that itself depends on an
213 infected host. Obligate hyperparasitism is thought to have evolved from facultative parasitism as
214 an opportunistic pathway to specialize on primary parasites as a directly available source of
215 food (Sullivan, 2009). Hyperparasitism has also been quite extensively studied in the plant–
216 aphid–primary parasitoid–hyperparasitoid model systems, mainly due to the fact that aphids are
217 economically important as crop pests, and they are easy to rear in laboratory (e.g., Sullivan and
218 Völkl, 1999; Sullivan, 2009). Beyond adding another level of trophic interaction, hyperparasitism
219 also has important implications for biological control, for example in contexts where the
220 hyperparasite has a positive or negative effect on species that are beneficial or harmful for

221 controlling invasive species or crop pests (Sullivan, 2009). It is worth noting here that parasitism
222 itself can have applications for biological control. An interesting recent example is the ongoing
223 research on the potential of using *Hesperomyces harmoniae* from the understudied order
224 Laboulbeniales (class Laboulbeniomycetes) as biocontrol agent against the invasive harlequin
225 ladybird, *Harmonia axyridis* (Arthropoda: Coccinellidae) (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2017c; Xie *et al.*,
226 2026). That said, knowing that many parasites are arthropods or interact with arthropods, and
227 that over 1 million insect species have been described while 80% remain to be discovered (see
228 Stork, 2018), this highlights the vast extent of multitrophic interactions involving arthropods that
229 are still unknown and to be understood.

230

231 One of the most diverse but also understudied interactions in multitrophic research and
232 conservation is between arthropods and fungi. Interaction between fungi and arthropods are
233 widespread and common in natural populations, whether they are mutualistic or parasitic (Roy
234 *et al.*, 2006; Blackwell and Vega, 2018). In terms of species diversity, with an estimated 2.5
235 million of fungal species (Niskanen *et al.* 2023), fungi represent the second-most diverse group
236 of organisms after arthropods. Insects represent one of the still largely unexplored habitats for
237 fungi, where a substantial portion of still unknown diversity of fungal parasites and pathogens is
238 predicted to be found (see Hawksworth and Rossmann, 1997; Vega and Blackwell, 2005; Araújo
239 and Hughes, 2016; Blackwell and Vega, 2018). Moreover, arthropods and fungi have an
240 evolutionary history of relationships dating back more than 300 millions years and serve as
241 models for understanding the ecology and evolution of cross-kingdom host–parasite systems,
242 such as their spatial distribution patterns and coevolution processes (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2021).

243

244 Although we know that many fungal species are involved in multitrophic interactions with
245 arthropods and animals more broadly, our understanding of the diversity of these systems, the
246 influence of the environment on these networks, and the nature of interactions across trophic
247 levels remains very limited. These knowledge gaps—particularly pronounced in neglected
248 groups of fungal parasites—hinder further efforts to integrate such complex interaction networks
249 into conservation frameworks. A striking example of these knowledge and conservation gaps is
250 that the IUCN Red List does not currently take species interactions into account in its
251 assessment processes. Using multitrophic interaction models could help such an endeavor.

252

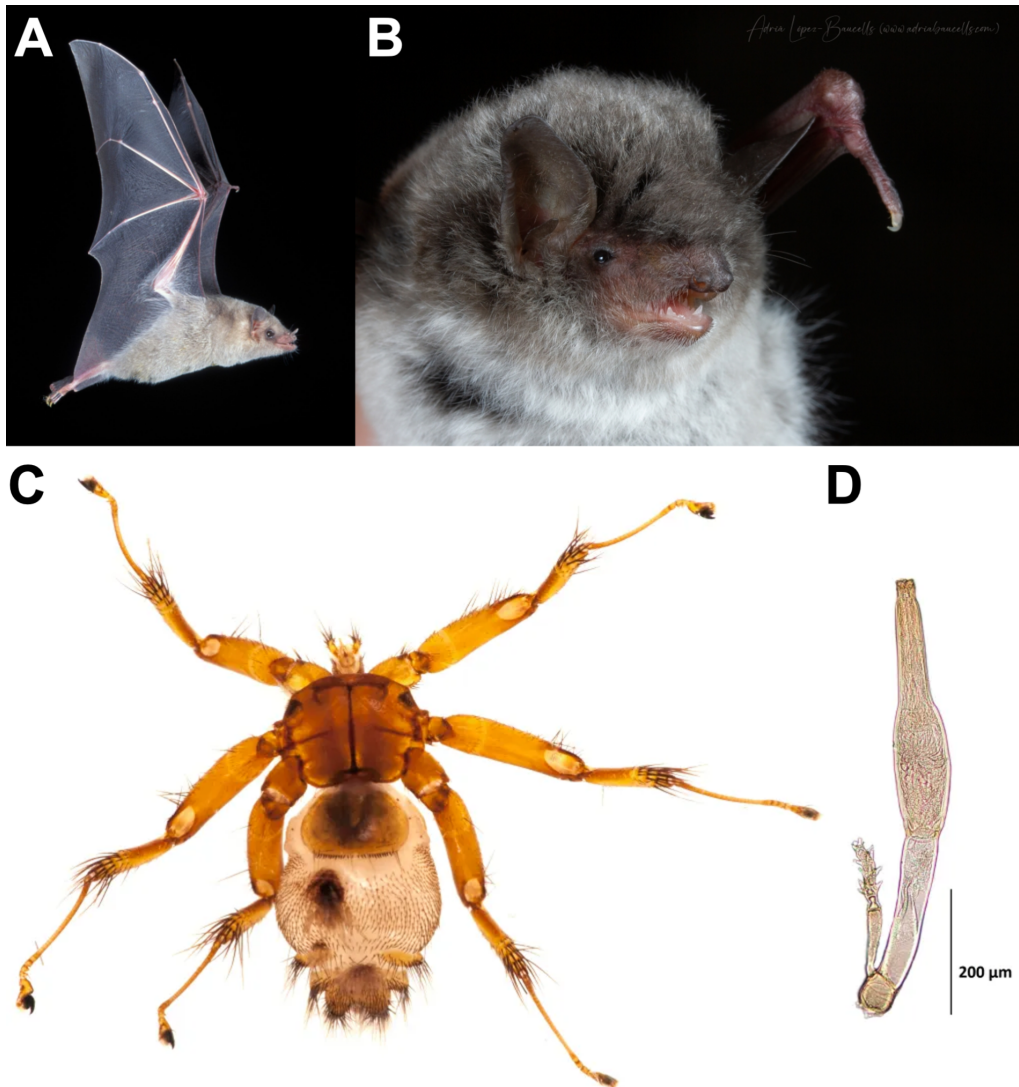
253 **3. Interactions across trophic levels: the example of the bat–bat fly–fungus system**

254 As biodiversity adapts to an increasingly complex world, conservation actions must take into
255 account multi-scale interactions among species of conservation concerns and their parasites,
256 along with the broader environment and all other interacting species (Speer *et al.*, 2020). Yet,
257 under the current conceptual framework in conservation biology, it remains difficult to clearly
258 identify causal relationships across different levels of trophic interactions that could be used to
259 guide conservation and management priorities. Hyperparasitism is an especially interesting
260 model in this regard because, by influencing a parasite species, a hyperparasite can indirectly
261 affect the primary host in multiple ways, and therefore, the whole environment (Gleason *et al.*,
262 2014). In particular, the obligate multitrophic interaction linking bats (Mammalia: Chiroptera), bat
263 flies (Diptera: Hippoboscoidea), and fungal ectoparasites (Laboulbeniomycetes: Laboulbeniales)

264 is receiving growing attention and has been proposed as a model system to help fill the
265 knowledge and conservation gaps mentioned above (**Fig. 1**).
266 Even though hyperparasitism is assumed to be fairly common, only a handful of obligate host-
267 parasite-hyperparasite systems have been well studied to date and used as model systems to
268 address broader questions in community ecology and network theory (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2021).
269 The arguments supporting the case for using the system involving bats, their blood-sucking
270 ectoparasitic flies, and fly-associated fungal ectoparasites as a valuable obligate multitrophic
271 interaction model system are multifold:

- 272 1. This system is widespread globally and can be studied almost anywhere around the
273 globe.
- 274 2. Gaining more insights into the diversity patterns of bats and their parasites will inevitably
275 transcend research fields, as bats and bat flies are frequently studied for their zoonotic
276 potential (Goldberg *et al.*, 2017; Abundes-Gallegos *et al.*, 2018; Xu *et al.*, 2019; Lee *et*
277 *al.*, 2021; Ramírez-Martínez *et al.*, 2021; Chomel *et al.*, 2023).
- 278 3. Bats have important ecosystem functions, including pest control and pollination, and are
279 estimated to be worth \$3.7 billion/year in North American agriculture alone (Boyles *et al.*,
280 2011).
- 281 4. From an eco-evolutionary perspective, bats and their parasites represent an opportunity
282 to study biogeographical patterns across trophic levels, because each host bat acts as a
283 naturally replicated, standardized “microhabitat” for their respective parasite
284 communities (Tello *et al.*, 2008; Torchin *et al.*, 2015; Ingala de Waal *et al.*, 2025). When
285 regarding bats as microhabitats, their different body parts provide local habitat
286 heterogeneity (Hiller *et al.*, 2018), which in turn sustain parasite communities competing
287 for resources and partitioning niches.
- 288 5. This multitrophic network is extremely specialized (i.e., with high host specificity across
289 trophic levels; de Groot *et al.*, 2020), increasing its vulnerability to co-extinction (Colwell
290 *et al.*, 2012; Ozman-Sullivan and Sullivan, 2023) due to the delicate balance between
291 host and parasite (Koh *et al.*, 2004). This opens up the potential of studying extinction
292 cascades within this system. This is especially relevant given that bats are heavily
293 threatened globally, with 221 species listed in one of the threatened categories in the
294 IUCN Red List (Frick *et al.*, 2020; IUCN, 2026).
- 295 6. Parasitic fungi and their host insects form a great opportunity to study co-evolutionary
296 processes due to their short generation times (Joop and Vilcinskis, 2016).
- 297 7. There is great potential to integrate other organisms interacting with each trophic level of
298 the system (e.g., bat- and bat fly-associated viruses, bacteria and microparasites,
299 Szentiványi *et al.* 2019, Speer *et al.*, 2020; or bacterial biofilms associated with
300 Laboulbeniales thalli, Lubbers *et al.*, 2022), thereby allowing for a broader network-
301 based approach to study multitrophic interactions across kingdoms.
- 302 8. Despite the growing recent interest in this system, it remains overlooked and has been
303 studied only descriptively, with many gaps persisting—such as in understanding its
304 diversity and distribution (Linnean and Wallacean shortfalls), its responses to
305 environmental change (Hutchinsonian shortfall), the interactions both among species
306 and across trophic levels (Eltonian shortfall), and the cascading consequences of host
307 extinction on the other partners in the interaction (Scottian and Ostromian shortfalls).

308 9. Finally, each partner in this interaction is considered non-charismatic (see Boso *et al.*,
309 2021; Cazabonne *et al.*, 2025), resulting in this multitrophic system being either
310 unpopular or largely unknown to the general public, and not considered in conservation
311 efforts. Further research on this system has the potential to spark greater public
312 engagement with the conservation of non-charismatic species—traditionally sidelined in
313 conservation policies—as well as with the protection of their interactions.
314



315
316 **Figure 1.** Selected photographs of bats, bat flies, and hyperparasitic Laboulbeniales. **A.** *Leptonycteris*
317 *nivalis* (IUCN Endangered). **B.** *Myotis capaccinii* (IUCN Vulnerable). **C.** *Penicillidia conspicua*. **D.**
318 *Arthrorhynchus nycteribiae*. Credits: **A.** J. Scott Altenbach, **B.** Adrià López-Baucells, **C.** **D.** Danny
319 Haelewaters.

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321
322

323 **3.1. Species diversity**

324 Bats (Mammalia: Chiroptera), serving as the primary host in these associations, are the second-
325 most successful group of mammals in terms of species diversity, with around 1500 species
326 currently recognized (Simmons and Cirranello, 2025). Present on nearly every continent, they
327 play an essential role in ecosystems as insectivores, pollinators and seed dispersers (Ramírez-
328 Fráncel *et al.*, 2022). Bats are host to a wide range of parasite species, including several ecto-
329 and haemoparasites (Marshall, 1982; Szentiványi *et al.*, 2019).

330
331 A striking group among these parasites are bat flies (Diptera: Hippoboscoidea), highly derived
332 arthropods that feed off the bat's blood and have co-evolved alongside bats since the Eocene
333 (Dittmar *et al.*, 2015). As obligate ectoparasites, they exhibit a high degree of host specificity,
334 and they are only able to survive for a limited time off-host (Overal, 1980; Dick, 2007; Dick and
335 Dittmar, 2014). These parasitic dipterans are viviparous, only leaving their host for pupa deposit
336 (Dittmar *et al.*, 2009). Currently, two families are recognized: Nycteribiidae and Streblidae (Dick
337 and Dittmar, 2014). Each family is roughly restricted to a hemisphere: Nycteribiidae are
338 predominantly found on Eastern Hemisphere bats (Europe, Africa, Asia, Oceania), whereas
339 Streblidae are most speciose in the tropics of the Western Hemisphere (North and South
340 America) (Dick and Patterson, 2006). While Nycteribiidae are recognizable by their striking
341 resemblance to arachnids, Streblidae are less confined to one particular habitus, exhibiting
342 diverse morphologies ranging from winged to wingless, laterally compressed or dorsoventrally
343 flattened (Dick and Patterson, 2006). Nycteribiidae currently counts 285 species in 11 genera
344 globally (Graciolli and Dick, 2018). For Streblidae, recent checklists report 252 species in 35
345 genera (Dick and Graciolli, 2018).

346
347 Some of these bat flies can be host to parasites themselves, thus partaking in hyperparasitic
348 associations. One such instance are Laboulbeniales (Ascomycota: Laboulbeniomyces), which
349 are an order of microscopic ectoparasitic fungi (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2019, 2021a).
350 Laboulbeniales have radiated widely across the spectrum of hosts and can be found on
351 representatives from the subphyla Chelicerata, Hexapoda, and Myriapoda (Haelewaters *et al.*,
352 2021a). Currently over 2400 species have been described in 145 genera, and many are thought
353 to be undiscovered, with estimates of the true diversity pointing towards 75,000 species (Weir
354 and Hammond, 1997; Haelewaters *et al.*, 2021a, 2022a; Kaishian, 2021). Laboulbeniales fungi
355 are characterized by a peculiar morphology. When released from the perithecium, sticky, two-
356 celled ascospores will adhere to the host integument (Blackwell *et al.*, 2020). Spore
357 transmission has been demonstrated to mainly rely on direct contact between hosts, e.g.,
358 through grooming or mating. Once they are out in the open, spores have limited survival
359 capacities, limiting the opportunities for transfer through the environment (De Kesel, 1995).
360 Upon attachment to the new host (or the same host in case of auto-infection), consecutive
361 mitotic divisions will lead to the formation of a multicellular receptacle, an antheridia-bearing
362 appendage and one or multiple perithecia.

363
364 Four genera are known to associate with bat flies: *Arthrorhynchus*, *Dimeromyces*,
365 *Gloeandromyces*, and *Nycteromyces*. The genus *Gloeandromyces* is currently the most
366 speciose, with 10 species (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2017b; Haelewaters and Pfister, 2019; Liu *et al.*,

367 2020; Van Caenegem *et al.*, 2023). In *Arthrorhynchus*, six species are recognized, but this
368 number is debated due to hypothesized synonymy on the one hand and cryptic diversity on the
369 other (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2017a, 2020). In *Nycteromyces*, only two species are presently
370 known, and also *Dimeromyces* encompasses two bat fly-associated species in addition to many
371 other that are associated with different host groups (Dogonniuck *et al.*, 2019).

372
373 Another instance of secondary parasitism associated with bats are neotromboid mites that live
374 on streblid bat flies. Only one species of mite (*Monunguis streblida* (Trombidiformes:
375 Neotrombidiidae) has been described for this association. For this species, only larval stadia are
376 known, and the adults remain uncollected (Lindquist and Vercammen, 1971). This
377 hyperparasitic interaction has only been reported for Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, and the West
378 Indies, on seven species of bat flies (da Silva Reis *et al.*, 2019; López-Rivera *et al.*, 2024).

379
380 For some Laboulbeniales species, biofilms consisting of bacterial colonies have been found on
381 the thallus surfaces (Lubbers *et al.*, 2022). These have not been brought into culture yet. As a
382 result, the identity of the bacteria populating these biofilms remains unknown. These bacterial
383 communities could produce antimicrobial compounds or contribute to the development of
384 ascospores to mature thalli, but this remains speculative.

385
386 Bat flies have also been suggested to play a role in the transmission of *Pseudogymnoascus*
387 *destructans* or *Pd* (Ascomycota: Leotiomycetes), the causal agent of white-nose syndrome,
388 which has had a devastating effect on North-American bat populations (Hoyt *et al.*, 2021). The
389 possibility of bat ectoparasites as vectors for this ascomycete was explored for *Spinturnix* mites
390 by Lučan *et al.* (2016), where all wing mite samples tested positive for *P. destructans* DNA.
391 Zahradníková *et al.* (2018) additionally detected *P. destructans* DNA on bat flies, further
392 supportive of this theory. Another study found species-specific alterations in the skin
393 microbiome of bats infected with white-nose syndrome. For one species, skin microbiome
394 diversity was found to be remarkably lower, whereas in other species included in this study,
395 diversity remained unaltered regardless of *P. destructans* presence (Ange-Stark *et al.*, 2023).

396
397 The study of bat-associated parasites and hyperparasites has been hampered by knowledge
398 gaps in current diversity assessments. In Laboulbeniomycetes, the Linnean shortfall is expected
399 to be very high, as many species are yet to be described (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2024a). For
400 Laboulbeniales associated with bat flies, research has been especially limited. The reasons for
401 this are multifold. First of all, infection prevalences of bat flies with Laboulbeniales are low to
402 very low, ranging from 3 to 7% in the Eastern and Western Hemisphere respectively (Blackwell,
403 1980; Haelewaters *et al.*, 2017a; Haelewaters *et al.*, 2021b). This implies that many bat fly
404 specimens need to be screened in order to detect infected individuals. An added hurdle is the
405 presence of both cryptic diversity as well as morphological plasticity in these bat fly-associated
406 Laboulbeniales, which makes the inclusion of molecular data into species descriptions
407 indispensable (Haelewaters and Pfister, 2019; Haelewaters *et al.*, 2020; Van Caenegem *et al.*,
408 2023, 2026).

409
410

411 **3.2. Response to the abiotic environment**

412 Another important aspect of the conservation of fungal parasites is understanding how both the
413 parasites and the interacting partners respond to abiotic environmental changes (Hutchinsonian
414 shortfall), especially anthropogenic-driven ones (Wolinska and King, 2009) (**Fig. 2**). Although
415 data remain very scarce on how this multitrophic system responds to abiotic factors
416 (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2018a, 2018b), some studies suggest that abiotic factors such as climate
417 change and habitat modification do affect the partners across trophic levels.

418
419 Bats are organisms known to be sensitive to climate change and anthropogenic-induced
420 disturbances, with lasting efforts to detect current and predict future impacts of these changes
421 on multiple aspects of their diversity, ecology, distribution, and reproduction (e.g., Duchamp and
422 Swihart, 2008; Adams, 2010; Sherwin *et al.*, 2012; García-Morales *et al.*, 2013; Korine *et al.*,
423 2016; Hayes and Adams, 2017; Festa *et al.*, 2023; Van de Vuurst *et al.*, 2025). For example,
424 Dondini *et al.* (2025) showed in a long-term monitoring study in Italy that bat population size is
425 modulated by fluctuations in precipitation and that bat phenology is modified by climate change,
426 possibly impacting reproductive success. Hussain *et al.* (2025) showed that for the Indian flying
427 fox (*Pteropus medius*, Chiroptera: Pteropodidae), temperature and humidity are among the
428 most important factors determining roost site selection and populations are negatively affected
429 by tree cutting and hunting. However, the response of bat flies to environmental changes has
430 been comparatively less studied. Pilosof *et al.* (2012) showed that human population density
431 and climate change-related factors (i.e., temperature, precipitation, elevation) had indirect
432 negative influence on the abundance of bat flies across four American tropical bat species in
433 Venezuela. Bats and their interaction with bat flies have also been found to be directly and
434 indirectly influenced by forest loss, habitat fragmentation, and landscape modification (Meyer *et al.*,
435 2016; Hiller *et al.*, 2020; Palheta *et al.*, 2020; Eriksson *et al.*, 2023). Bats and their bat flies
436 are also known to be sensible to climate change-related factors. For example, studies have
437 suggested that climatic seasonal variations and microclimate could affect bat fly species
438 composition, their prevalence, and intensity (e.g., Patrício *et al.*, 2016; Zarazúa-Carbajal *et al.*,
439 2016; Salinas-Ramos *et al.*, 2018; Barbier *et al.*, 2021; Tlapaya-Romero *et al.*, 2021), but these
440 responses may be species-dependent.

441
442 For bat fly-associated fungal ectoparasites, this type of knowledge is even more limited.
443 Szentiványi *et al.* (2019) studied the effects of climate change factors on the fungal parasites
444 associated with ants (*Myrmica scabrinodis*) and bat flies (*Nycteribia schmidlii* and *Penicillidia*
445 *conspicua*), and showed that Laboulbeniales parasites were more likely to be present under low
446 annual mean temperature and humidity. These results should be treated with some caution,
447 given limited sampling, non-standardized collecting methods, and use of outside climatic data
448 (instead of data from within bat roosts/ant nests, which likely have greater importance). Péter *et al.*
449 *et al.* (2022) hypothesized that higher humidity levels may enhance the spread of bat fly-
450 associated Laboulbeniales infections. More recently, Burazerović *et al.* (2025a) reported that the
451 presence and prevalence of *A. nycteribiae* on *P. conspicua* were significantly influenced by
452 seasons. The authors attributed these patterns primarily to seasonal variations in bat fly density,
453 which would influence the chances of transmission from one host to another and therefore
454 fungal reproductive success. They also observed differences in the prevalence of *A. nycteribiae*

455 on *P. conspicua* between eastern and western Serbia, but the extent to which these differences
456 can be explained by variations in abiotic environmental factors across geographical scales
457 remains to be further investigated. To our knowledge, studies looking at the effects of abiotic
458 environmental variables on Laboulbeniales parasitism in controlled laboratory experiments have
459 been conducted only for *Hesperomyces harmoniae* associated with an invasive ladybird (see
460 Haelewaters *et al.*, 2022; de Groot *et al.*, 2025). How abiotic factors, whether they are linked or
461 not to anthropogenic disturbances, affect the presence and prevalence of Laboulbeniales on bat
462 flies remain largely unknown to date. Monitoring both outside abiotic variables and/or
463 microclimatic variables in roost environments (see Péter *et al.*, 2022) will be important avenues
464 to help answer these questions.

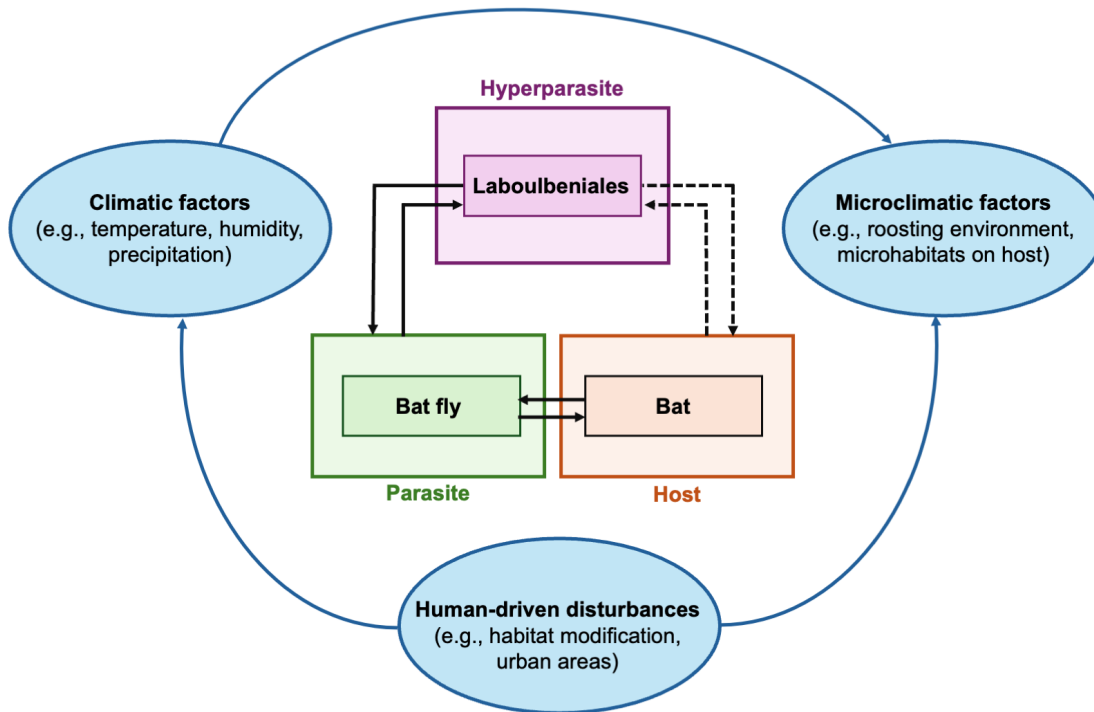
465
466 Several limitations hinder our ability to fully resolve the Hutchinsonian shortfall for the bat–bat
467 fly–fungus multitrophic system. First, most of the studies exploring the response of this system
468 to abiotic environmental changes have focused on a single species or trophic level, not at the
469 community-level. However, as it has been suspected for other trophic systems like plant–insect
470 interactions (e.g., de Sassi *et al.*, 2012; Zhu *et al.*, 2015), the responses of bats, bat flies, and
471 fungal parasites to environmental changes are likely to be modulated at the community scale,
472 both within and across trophic levels (Pedersen and Fenton, 2007; Tylianakis *et al.*, 2008;
473 Walther, 2010; Rynkiewicz *et al.*, 2015). It therefore remains unknown what the direct effects of
474 environmental changes are on each trophic level, as well as the indirect cascade effects
475 mediated through interspecific interactions—e.g., how climate change-driven effects on bats
476 may indirectly influence bat flies and their fungal parasites, and vice versa.

477
478 Second, current literature on the effects of environmental changes on this system, especially on
479 the parasites, is geographically limited. For example, most studies exploring the effects of
480 logging and habitat modification on bat flies have been conducted in the American tropics,
481 whereas studies focusing on the links between Laboulbeniales parasites and environmental
482 variables are mainly from Central Europe. In future studies, more geographically-spread
483 localities should be included, notably in regions where the landscape matrix mixes natural and
484 managed habitats and where the effects of climate change are expected to be important.

485
486 Third, the response of parasites in this system is mostly assessed through the lens of
487 prevalence, intensity, and species diversity, which are classically used measures in parasitology
488 (e.g., Rózsa *et al.*, 2000). Beyond that, it would be interesting for future studies to also explore
489 the effects of environmental changes on these parasites using a broader range of response
490 variables, e.g., related to parasite morphology, phenology, ecology, and interaction network
491 metrics. Identifying different types of traits in bats, bat fly parasites, and their hyperparasites,
492 and examining how these traits vary in response to abiotic factors, will help build a trait-based
493 approach to understanding how these multitrophic interactions respond to environmental
494 changes (Marjakangas *et al.*, 2022; de Bello *et al.*, 2025).

495

DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGES ON EACH TROPHIC LEVEL AND INTER-TROPHIC INTERACTIONS



496
 497 **Figure 2.** Schematic illustration of direct and indirect effects of abiotic traits on each trophic level and on
 498 interactions between trophic levels. For simplicity, only the principal direct and indirect effects are shown.
 499 Solid arrows indicate direct interactions, while dashed arrows represent indirect interactions.
 500

501 **3.3. Ecological interaction across trophic levels**

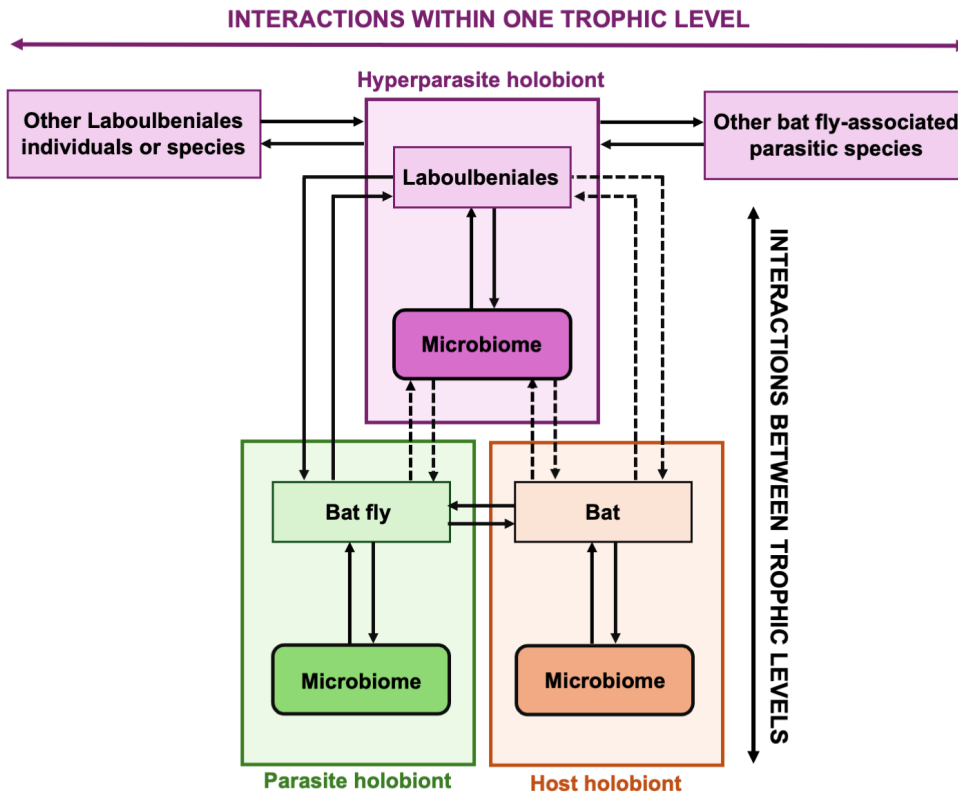
502 The partners of an interaction system are not isolated units, but instead mediators of complex
 503 interactions within and between each trophic level. Indeed, multiples levels of interactions can
 504 occur: (i) direct and indirect (or latent) interactions across trophic levels, i.e., interactions
 505 between bats and bat flies, between bat flies and their fungal parasites (**Tab. 1**), and also
 506 between bats and the bat fly-associated fungal parasites; and (ii) intra- or inter-species
 507 interaction within trophic levels (Ingala de Waal *et al.*, 2025). Furthermore, each partner of this
 508 system has an associated microbiome (Speer *et al.*, 2022), and interactions among these
 509 microbiomes across and within trophic levels may also occur (i.e., holobiont–holobiont
 510 interactions; Skičková *et al.*, 2025), although they remain largely understudied (**Fig. 3**).
 511

512 Bat fly sex appears to be an important factor affecting Laboulbeniales infection prevalence, with
 513 infections more commonly observed in females than in males. This is likely due to the fact that
 514 females live longer, are physically larger, and have more fat reserves than males (Haelewaters
 515 *et al.*, 2017a; Szentiványi *et al.*, 2018; Péter *et al.*, 2022; Burazerović *et al.*, 2025a). The
 516 relationship of bat fly ecomorphology with parasitism was explored by de Groot *et al.* (2020);
 517 they suggested that, at the species-level, the presence of hyperparasites may be associated
 518 with positions on bat flies that are linked to their ecomorphological type, such as the long hind

519 legs of fur-runners. Such position specificity has already been observed in Laboulbeniales
520 infecting other hosts (e.g., Goldmann and Weir, 2012), but the lack of quantitative data on this
521 multitrophic system prevents similar investigations for bat fly-associated hyperparasites. Indeed,
522 Hiller *et al.* (2018) quantitatively demonstrated that hind leg morphology determines bat fly
523 ecomorphological groups. That would suggest the morphological characteristics associated with
524 bat fly ecological type should be considered when assessing Laboulbeniales position specificity
525 patterns in future studies. An interesting hypothesis that could be further explored is whether
526 distinct ecomorphological groups can be defined for the hyperparasite, and whether these
527 ecomorphotypes are explained by their position of growth on the host integument. Factors
528 driving morphological differences within phylogenetic species of bat fly-associated
529 Laboulbeniales are still unknown to date (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2018). Haelewaters and Pfister
530 (2019) showed the existence of position-induced morphological plasticity and multiple
531 morphotypes depending on the position on the host within phylogenetic species. Dogonniuck *et al.*
532 (2019) also suggested that intra-specific variations may result from growing on different
533 positions of the host integument. Laboulbeniales morphotypes (e.g., *Gloeandromyces*
534 *plesiosaurus* f. *asymmetricus* and f. *plesiosaurus*; Van Caenegem *et al.*, 2023) are probably the
535 result of morphological adaptations induced by position-related stresses (e.g., nutrient
536 availability). However, as with the effects of abiotic factors on this multitrophic system, the lack
537 of comprehensive, standardized datasets spanning multiple trophic levels currently prevents us
538 from assessing and answering these types of questions.

539
540 Beyond the influence of bat flies on Laboulbeniales parasitism, the hyperparasite may in turn
541 have an impact on its host. However, this type of knowledge for bat-associated Laboulbeniales
542 is also still very limited (de Groot *et al.*, 2020). In-situ or in-lab studies exploring the effects of
543 Laboulbeniales parasitism on their hosts have mainly focused on two study systems, namely
544 *Rickia wasmannii* on *Myrmica* ants (e.g., Csata *et al.*, 2014; Báthori *et al.*, 2015, 2017) and *He.*
545 *harmoniae* on *Harmonia axyridis* ladybirds (e.g., Haelewaters *et al.*, 2020). A few studies have
546 also explored the effects of *Stigmatomyces majewskii* on *Drosophila suzukii* (Yamazaki *et al.*,
547 2023). To our knowledge, only one published study studied the effects of Laboulbeniales
548 parasitism on bat flies using *A. eucampsipodae* and *A. nycteribiae* infecting *Nycteribia schmidlii*
549 and *Penicillidia conspicua* bat flies (Szentiványi *et al.*, 2020). The authors showed that survival
550 rates of *P. conspicua* were reduced by half as a result of infection by Laboulbeniales, whereas
551 no significant effects of fungal infection were observed for *N. schmidlii*. These results suggest
552 that the effects of hyperparasitism on bat fly parasites may depend on bat fly species, and likely
553 also on the Laboulbeniales species involved. Beyond impacting bat fly life span, Laboulbeniales
554 hyperparasitism could likely also influence population size, density, and individual reproductive
555 success of bat flies (Szentiványi and Estók, 2024). However, further studies covering a broader
556 range of bat fly and Laboulbeniales species are needed to explore these questions more in
557 depth. Moreover, the mechanisms underlying these negative effects on bat fly hosts remain
558 largely unknown, but they are likely related to the lifestyle of the hyperparasites. Indeed, light
559 microscopy, transmission electron microscopy and three-dimensional reconstructions based on
560 micro-computed tomography have confirmed that *A. nycteribiae* possesses a haustorium that
561 attaches to the bat fly host and presumably serves to acquire nutrients (Reboleira *et al.*, 2021).

562 However, studies directly investigating nutrient and matter transfer between hyperparasites and
 563 bat flies are still needed to confirm these mechanisms.
 564



565
 566 **Figure 3.** Schematic illustration of the interactions occurring between and across trophic levels in the bat–
 567 bat fly–fungus multitrophic system. Solid arrows indicate direct interactions, while dashed arrows indicate
 568 indirect interactions. To avoid overcrowding the figure, within-trophic interactions are illustrated using only
 569 the example of the hyperparasite.

570
 571 Indirect interactions may also occur between bats and the hyperparasite of their ectoparasite.
 572 For example, Péter *et al.* (2022) showed that bat host behavior, social behavior, and roost
 573 selection may influence parasitism of Laboulbeniales on their bat flies using data from
 574 southeastern Europe. They found that Laboulbeniales more likely infect bat flies found on bat
 575 females and bats that roost together in close proximity and in underground environments like
 576 caves. Burazerović *et al.* (2025a) also found slightly higher infections by Laboulbeniales on bat
 577 flies found on bat females, likely due to the fact that females form denser and larger groups
 578 during pregnancy and when raising young individuals. These cascading effects across multiple
 579 trophic levels are often more difficult to detect because they are indirect, but they are important
 580 to consider in order to obtain a full understanding of the ecological interactions that shape
 581 multitrophic interaction networks and, ultimately, how they shape species- and community-level
 582 responses to environmental changes.

583

Table 1. Summary of Laboulbeniales species associated with bat flies.

| Genus | species | Bat fly hosts | Source(s) |
|-----------------------|--|--|--------------------------------------|
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>acrandros</i> | <i>Phthiridium biarticulatum</i> | Merola (1952) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>cyclopodiae</i> | <i>Cyclopodia macrura</i> | Thaxter (1901) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>diesingii</i> | <i>Nycteribia vexata</i> | Kolenati (1857) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>diesingii</i> [as <i>A. eucampsipodae</i>] | <i>Nycteribia schmidlii</i> | Haelewaters <i>et al.</i> , (2017a) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | cf. <i>diesingii</i> [as <i>A. eucampsipodae</i>] | <i>Nycteribia kolenatii</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | cf. <i>diesingii</i> [as <i>A. eucampsipodae</i>] | <i>Nycteribia pedicularia</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>eucampsipodae</i> | <i>Eucampsipoda hyrtlii</i> | Thaxter (1901) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>eucampsipodae</i> | <i>Eucampsipoda africana</i> | Haelewaters <i>et al.</i> , (2020) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>eucampsipodae sensu lato</i> | <i>Basilisa pumila</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>eucampsipodae sensu lato</i> | <i>Nycteribia progressa</i> [as <i>Eremoctenia progressa</i>] | Balazuc (1971) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>eucampsipodae sensu lato</i> | <i>Nycteribia schmidlii scotti</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>eucampsipodae sensu lato</i> | <i>Cyclopodia ferrarii</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>eucampsipodae sensu lato</i> | <i>Nycteribia parvula</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>eucampsipodae sensu lato</i> | <i>Eucampsipoda inermis</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae</i> | <i>Penicillidia conspicua</i> | Haelewaters <i>et al.</i> , (2017b). |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae</i> | <i>Penicillidia dufourii</i> | Haelewaters <i>et al.</i> , (2017b). |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Phthiridium biarticulatum</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Penicillidia fulvida</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Penicillidia pachymela</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Penicillidia oceanica oceanica</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Penicillidia indica</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Penicillidia jenynsii</i> | Thaxter (1931) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Phthiridium ceylonicum</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Phthiridium phillipsi</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Nycteribia pedicularia</i> | Ryberg (1947) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Nycteribia latreillii</i> | Balazuc (1971) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Nycteribia schmidlii</i> | Blackwell (1980) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Nycteribia blasii</i> | Balazuc (1971) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Nycteribia kolenatii</i> | Nosawad (1973) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>nycteribiae sensu lato</i> | <i>Eucampsipoda africana</i> | Haelewaters <i>et al.</i> , (2020) |
| <i>Arthrorhynchus</i> | <i>westrumbii</i> | <i>Penicillidia conspicua</i> | Kolenati (1857) |
| <i>Dimeromyces</i> | <i>capensis</i> | <i>Brachytarsina africana</i> | Doggoniuck <i>et al.</i> , (2019) |

| | | | |
|-----------------------|---|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <i>Dimeromyces</i> | <i>streblidarum</i> | <i>Brachytarsina amboinensis</i> | Dogonniuck <i>et al.</i> , (2019) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>cusucoensis</i> | <i>Trichobius uniformis</i> | Van Caenegem <i>et al.</i> , (2023) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>dickii</i> | <i>Trichobius joblingi</i> | Haelewaters & Pfister (2019) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>diversiformis</i> f. <i>diversiformis</i> | <i>Strebla wiedemanni</i> | Van Caenegem <i>et al.</i> , (2023) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>diversiformis</i> f. <i>musiformis</i> | <i>Strebla wiedemanni</i> | Van Caenegem <i>et al.</i> , (2023) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>diversiformis</i> f. <i>vanillicarpiformis</i> | <i>Strebla wiedemanni</i> | Van Caenegem <i>et al.</i> , (2023) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>hilleri</i> | <i>Mastoptera guimaraesi</i> | Liu <i>et al.</i> , (2020) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>nycteribiidarum</i> | <i>Megistopoda aranea</i> | Thaxter (1931) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>nycteribiidarum</i> sensu lato | <i>Trichobius yunkerii</i> | Haelewaters <i>et al.</i> , (2017b) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>nycteribiidarum</i> sensu lato | <i>Exastinion clovisi</i> | Van Caenegem <i>et al.</i> , (2023) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>nycteribiidarum</i> sensu lato | <i>Trichobius sparsus</i> | Van Caenegem <i>et al.</i> , (2023) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>pageanus</i> f. <i>pageanus</i> | <i>Trichobius dugesioides</i> | Haelewaters & Pfister (2019) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>pageanus</i> f. <i>alarum</i> | <i>Trichobius joblingi</i> | Haelewaters & Pfister (2019) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>pageanus</i> f. <i>polymorphus</i> | <i>Trichobius dugesioides</i> | Haelewaters & Pfister (2019) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>pageanus</i> f. <i>polymorphus</i> | <i>Trichobius joblingi</i> | Haelewaters & Pfister (2019) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>plesiosaurus</i> f. <i>plesiosaurus</i> | <i>Trichobius yunkerii</i> | Van Caenegem <i>et al.</i> , (2023) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>plesiosaurus</i> f. <i>asymmetricus</i> | <i>Trichobius yunkerii</i> | Van Caenegem <i>et al.</i> , (2023) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>pseudodickii</i> | <i>Trichobius longipes</i> | Van Caenegem <i>et al.</i> , (2023) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>streblae</i> f. <i>streblae</i> | <i>Strebla wiedemanni</i> | Thaxter (1931) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>streblae</i> f. <i>streblae</i> | <i>Trichobius joblingi</i> | Haelewaters & Pfister (2019) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>streblae</i> f. <i>streblae</i> | <i>Trichobius dugesioides</i> | Haelewaters & Pfister (2019) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>streblae</i> f. <i>sigmomorphus</i> | <i>Trichobius joblingi</i> | Haelewaters & Pfister (2019) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>verbekeniae</i> f. <i>verbekeniae</i> | <i>Strebla galindoi</i> | Van Caenegem <i>et al.</i> , (2023) |
| <i>Gloeandromyces</i> | <i>verbekeniae</i> f. <i>inflexus</i> | <i>Strebla galindoi</i> | Van Caenegem <i>et al.</i> , (2023) |
| <i>Nycteromyces</i> | <i>orientalis</i> | <i>Brachytarsina alluaudi</i> | Dogonniuck <i>et al.</i> , (2019) |

| | | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| <i>Nycteromyces</i> | <i>orientalis</i> | <i>Brachytarsina africana</i> | Doggoniuck <i>et al.</i> , (2019) |
| <i>Nycteromyces</i> | <i>orientalis</i> | <i>Brachytarsina amboinensis</i> | Doggoniuck <i>et al.</i> , (2019) |
| <i>Nycteromyces</i> | <i>orientalis</i> | <i>Brachytarsina modesta</i> | Doggoniuck <i>et al.</i> , (2019) |
| <i>Nycteromyces</i> | <i>streblidinus</i> | <i>Strebla wiedemanni</i> | Thaxter (1917) |

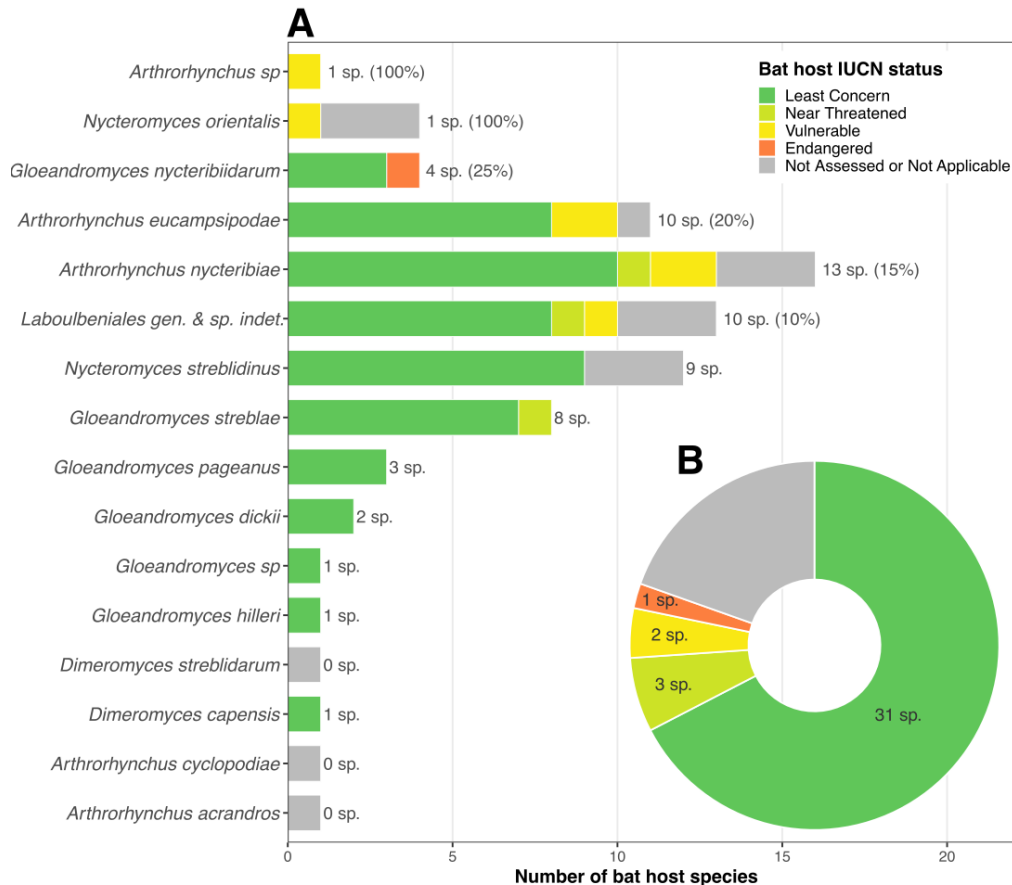
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586 3.4. Conservation of interactions

587 The growing importance of multitrophic interactions and interaction networks in the literature
588 also highlights how current conservation actions and metrics still largely fail to take these
589 phenomena into account. Currently, the IUCN Red List is based on the assessments of single
590 species and does not allow to consider the dimension of interacting species. Similarly, other
591 conservation avenues, such as protected areas, Key Biodiversity Areas (KBAs), Alliance for
592 Zero Extinction (AZE) and Evolutionarily Distinct and Globally Endangered (EDGE) species
593 approaches, are also built on single-species assessments, as are most national and continental
594 biodiversity protection laws. This is particularly concerning given that co-extinctions and
595 cascading extinction events are one of the least understood threats to biodiversity, especially
596 when it comes to parasite diversity and ecological functions (Dunn *et al.*, 2009; Lafferty, 2012;
597 Strona, 2015; Okamura *et al.*, 2018; Herrera *et al.*, 2021; Truter *et al.*, 2025). Many parasites in
598 host–parasite systems still remain undescribed and could potentially go extinct before being
599 described (e.g., Brian and Aldridge, 2022).

600

601 In the case of bats, they face many threats and represent a major conservation concern,
602 particularly due to their high sensitivity to habitat fragmentation and disease (Mickleburgh *et al.*,
603 2002; Frick *et al.*, 2020). Based on the dataset compiled by de Groot *et al.* (2020), to date,
604 among the bat species associated with Laboulbeniales-bearing bat flies, one species is
605 considered Endangered (*Leptonycteris nivalis*) and two are classified as Vulnerable (*Myotis*
606 *capaccinii* and *Miniopterus schreibersii*) on the IUCN Red List (**Fig. 4**). Only *Gloeandromyces*
607 *nycteribiidarum* has been recorded in association with an Endangered bat host, while three
608 Laboulbeniales species (*Arthrorhynchus eucampsipodae*, *A. nycteribiae*, *Nycteromyces*
609 *orientalis*) have been found associated with at least one bat host listed as Vulnerable (**Fig. 4**).
610 Interestingly, the fact that Laboulbeniales species identified to species or even genus are
611 associated with bat hosts listed as Vulnerable or Near Threatened highlights that still-
612 undescribed Laboulbeniales diversity may already be facing extinction risks, especially
613 considering that there are 24 Critically Endangered, 88 Endangered, and 109 Vulnerable bat
614 species overall (IUCN, 2026). One could argue that in such a system of obligate interactions
615 across trophic levels, if bat hosts are considered threatened, then the Laboulbeniales species
616 associated with bat flies found on those hosts—and the bat flies themselves—should be given
617 at least similar conservation attention, as they are likely exposed to comparable threats and
618 extinction risks. It is nevertheless likely that many Laboulbeniales and bat fly species associated
619 with already threatened bat hosts likely face similar threats and potentially comparable
620 extinction risks, especially those species that display high host specificity.



621
 622 **Figure 4.** IUCN Red List status of bat species associated with bat flies known to host Laboulbeniales. **A.**
 623 For each Laboulbeniales species recorded in association with bat flies found on bat hosts, IUCN
 624 conservation status of the corresponding bat species is indicated. Note that "*Laboulbeniales gen. & sp.*
 625 *indet.*" represents multiple undescribed and/or unidentified genera and species. To the right of each bar,
 626 the total number of bat species with known IUCN status is shown, and in parentheses, when applicable,
 627 the percentage of those species classified as threatened (Vulnerable or Endangered; no Critically
 628 Endangered bat species were present in the analyzed dataset). **B.** Pie chart showing the proportion of
 629 IUCN statuses among bat species according to the IUCN Red List (v. 2025–2). Bat host species that
 630 could not be identified to species level or that have not been evaluated are grouped under the category
 631 "Not Assessed or Not Applicable". Data compiled and edited from de Groot et al. (2020).

632
 633 The conservation of species interactions comes with many challenges that limit their integration
 634 into conservation frameworks. For example, questions remain about which metrics or traits of
 635 interaction networks should be preserved to maintain network stability and functioning in a
 636 conservation perspective (Tyllianakis *et al.*, 2010). As discussed in previous sections, the many
 637 knowledge gaps regarding species diversity, geographic distribution, interactions with other
 638 species, and responses to environmental change all represent data shortfalls that make it
 639 difficult for conservation frameworks to shift from species-focused to interaction network-
 640 focused approach goals. There is therefore a need to develop ecological frameworks that
 641 account for species interactions and cascading effects across trophic levels in order to better

642 understand these complex interaction networks and to encourage the integration of fungal
643 parasites into conservation goals (de Groot *et al.*, 2020; Ingala de Waal *et al.*, 2025). Beyond
644 advocating for the conservation of species interactions and helping prevent cascading
645 extinctions, such ecological frameworks could also help better understand, protect and manage
646 parasite diversity and the ecological functions and ecosystem services supported by these
647 interaction networks (see Heinen *et al.*, 2020; Lymbery and Smit, 2023; Haelewaters *et al.*,
648 2026b).

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650 **5. Solutions to fill knowledge and conservation shortfalls of complex interaction** 651 **networks**

652

652 **5.1. Long-term multitrophic sampling and databases**

653

653 Knowledge of this tripartite and hyperparasitic interaction system is biased toward bats, with
654 virtually nothing known about the Laboulbeniales ectoparasites infecting bat flies. Studying this
655 system requires sampling the bat host, then searching for bat flies, and finally screening those
656 flies for the presence of Laboulbeniales infections. Such a sampling scheme is meticulous and
657 time-consuming, and often requires the screening of hundreds to thousands of bat flies to
658 collect a few thalli given the generally low prevalence of these ectoparasites on their hosts.
659 Therefore, researchers working on this system have called for the development of unbiased,
660 large-scale datasets spanning all three trophic levels in order to help fill knowledge and
661 conservation shortfalls (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2018, 2021b). Achieving this requires increased bat
662 sampling across a range of ecosystem types, but this also raises questions about which
663 monitoring approaches should be implemented. Haelewaters *et al.* (2024b) recently showed that
664 standardized approaches do not perform equally well across different habitats and are not a
665 “one-size-fits-all” solution, suggesting that bat sampling techniques need to be adapted to the
666 specific ecosystem being surveyed.

667

668 Such multitrophic sampling efforts and databases also need to be global in scope. Most regions
669 worldwide have not been specifically surveyed to study this multitrophic interaction system,
670 which means that our current understanding remains strongly geographically biased. Increasing
671 sampling efforts for bats, bat flies, and their parasitic fungi—especially in understudied regions
672 and habitats, but also in areas that have already been surveyed—often leads to new country
673 records, new host–parasite associations and the discovery of undescribed Laboulbeniales
674 species. For example, López-Rivera *et al.* (2024), while sampling for hyperparasites of bat flies
675 in Colombia, recently reported a likely undescribed species of *Gloeandromyces* parasitizing
676 *Paratrichobius longicrus* (Streblidae) bat flies. To address these gaps, comprehensive sampling
677 efforts spanning bats, bat flies, and their fungal parasites should be encouraged across a wide
678 range of ecosystems, habitat types, and sites globally. Moreover, it is known that a way to
679 minimize bias and obtain the most comprehensive picture of fungal diversity at a given site is
680 through repeated, long-term monitoring (Stallman *et al.*, 2024). Sampling approaches should
681 therefore include repeated monitoring of bats at selected sites over several years.

682

683 **5.2. Working with other disciplines**

684

684 Collaborations across actors, disciplines, and countries is key to achieving conservation goals
685 (Kark *et al.*, 2015). A prominent example is the growing involvement of citizen scientists and

686 non-professionals in data collection for conservation purposes across many fields of research,
687 including mycology (Irga *et al.*, 2018; Haelewaters *et al.*, 2024a, 2026a). Another historical
688 example are the benefits that collaborations between mammalogists and parasitologists can
689 bring in expanding diversity and ecological research (Galbreath *et al.*, 2019). Similarly, since
690 mammalogists, parasitologists, and mycologists working on this interaction system all capture
691 bats for their respective research, this synergy could be taken advantage of to foster cross-
692 disciplinary collaborations, help increase sampling efforts and advance conservation for all
693 species involved in these interactions (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2021b). In this case, mammalogists
694 can greatly help broaden the scope of research conducted by those studying parasites and
695 hyperparasites by sampling bat flies while capturing bats and making these specimens available
696 for screening for hyperparasites by mycologists. Since the field of fungal conservation is
697 relatively young compared to that of animals and plants, such cross-disciplinary collaborations
698 across countries will play an important role for the development of this research area and to
699 ensure that its impact reaches beyond the mycological community—because other organismal
700 groups can only benefit if all fungi are better protected (Minter, 2011). We therefore believe that
701 mammalogists and parasitologists working with bat flies are in a good position to help draw
702 attention to this parasitic and hyperparasitic tripartite interaction system and to the need to
703 better understand and protect it.

704 **5.3. Leveraging new approaches and conceptual frameworks**

705 **5.3.1 Integrative taxonomy**

706 Studying the diversity of understudied, cryptic groups or interaction systems comes with many
707 challenges, one of the foremost being how to delimit species. The approach now widely adopted
708 to describe fungal species is integrative taxonomy, which involves combining as many
709 independent lines of evidence as possible for species delimitation, such as morphology,
710 geometric morphometrics, molecular phylogenetics, sequence-based identification, ecology and
711 information on habitats, and geography (Lücking *et al.*, 2021; Stengel *et al.*, 2022). Integrative
712 taxonomy has already shown its usefulness to describe diversity across a wide range of fungal
713 groups, especially in those with many cryptic species (Maharachchikumbura *et al.*, 2021;
714 Ekanayaka *et al.*, 2025). Integrative taxonomy approaches are becoming increasingly standard,
715 but there is still much work to be done for researchers working with bat flies and Laboulbeniales
716 (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2021b). Even though bats are the second-largest group of mammals in
717 terms of species number (Findley, 1995), there are still species unknown to science, especially
718 in understudied areas and habitats (e.g., Novaes *et al.*, 2021; Curran *et al.*, 2022; Barquez *et al.*,
719 2023; Grunwald *et al.*, 2023; Wang *et al.*, 2024; Saikia *et al.*, 2025). This is the same
720 situation for bat flies and Laboulbeniales, which both are poorly studied groups, with new
721 species recently described and many more awaiting formal descriptions (e.g., for bat flies:
722 Ramasindrazana *et al.*, 2017; Hrycyna *et al.*, 2022; Tlapaya-Romero *et al.*, 2023; for
723 Laboulbeniales: Dogonniuck *et al.*, 2019; Liu *et al.*, 2020; Van Caenegem *et al.*, 2023). Using
724 integrative taxonomy to identify new species of parasitic bat flies and hyperparasitic
725 Laboulbeniales, combined with large-scale multitrophic sampling and databases, will help close
726 the Linnean shortfall and open up new research opportunities in this system, like unraveling
727 patterns of diversity and host specificity across trophic levels and geographic regions (e.g.,
728 latitudinal diversity gradients, see e.g., Weir, 2004; Haelewaters *et al.*, 2021c).

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5.3.2 Omics tools

Another growing approach is the use of omics technologies to study the diversity, ecology and interactions between species (Xu, 2006; Cuadros-Orellana *et al.*, 2013). The use of environmental DNA metabarcoding could help improve our understanding of the microorganism communities associated with each of the species involved in these multitrophic interactions. This approach could, for example, be applied to detect emerging fungal diseases in bat hosts, such as white-nose syndrome caused by *Pd* (e.g., Wang *et al.*, 2026), as well as other pathogens (Dhivahar *et al.*, 2023). It could also help characterize microbial communities associated with bat flies and Laboulbeniales thalli (e.g., Lubbers *et al.*, 2022; André *et al.*, 2023; Marcatti *et al.*, 2025). When combined with genome sequencing and annotation, and metatranscriptomic approaches, these tools could also shed light on the mechanisms underlying interactions among and within the three trophic levels (e.g., Moreno Santillan *et al.*, 2021; Porter *et al.*, 2022; Koga *et al.*, 2024; Huang *et al.*, 2025). Since genome-based studies in Laboulbeniomycetes are still in their infancy, only one draft genome of a Laboulbeniomycete species has been published to date, i.e., *Herpomyces periplanetae* (Haelewaters *et al.*, 2020), but ongoing efforts are underway to sequence representative species across the Laboulbeniomycetes tree, including species associated with bat flies (Cazabonne *et al.*, 2025). These tools open the door to a range of new exciting research questions, for example, whether and how pathogens move from one trophic level to another, what consequences this has for each trophic level, and how bat flies or Laboulbeniales respond to the presence of other parasites or organisms sharing the same host. Answering these questions will help develop a more holistic and integrated understanding of the diversity and functioning of multitrophic interaction networks as a whole.

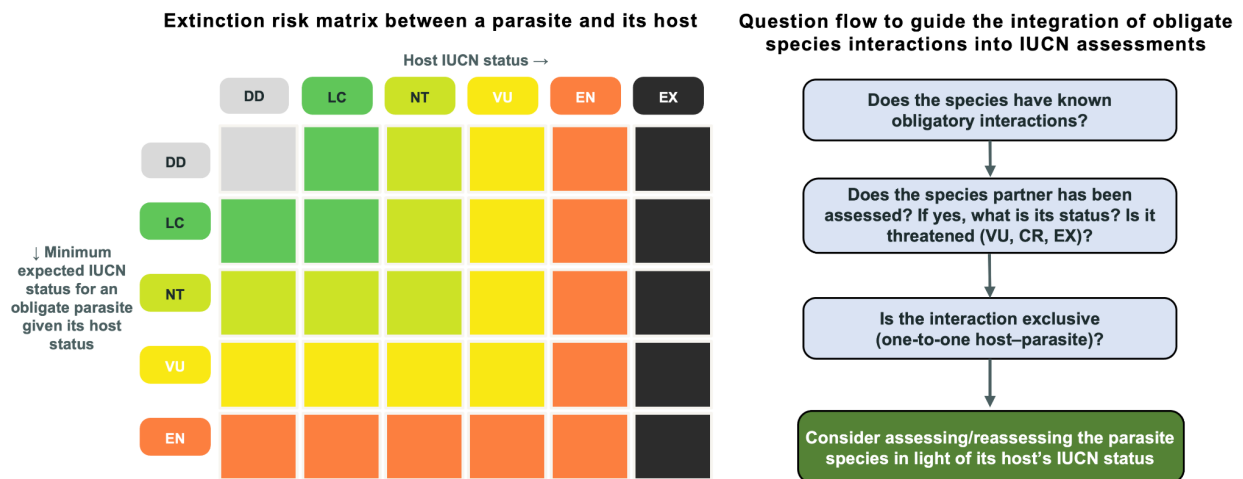
5.3.3 Bring parasites and hyperparasites into conservation

Haelewaters *et al.* (2024a) recently described the Scottian shortfall, which quantifies the lack of IUCN Red List assessments in a given group of organisms. For bats, this shortfall is relatively small, as the vast majority of bat species have been evaluated. Out of the roughly 1,500 known bat species (Simmons and Cirranello, 2025), 89% (i.e., 1,336 species) have been assessed against IUCN criteria (IUCN, 2026). To date, no species of bat flies or Laboulbeniales ectoparasites have been assessed for the IUCN Red List. This hinders the integration of these poorly studied groups into conservation plans or actions that are based on assessed species. With global, unbiased sampling and datasets for this multitrophic system, data could be gathered on the distribution, population trends of these species and the threats they face, and lead to the very first IUCN Red List assessments for these groups. As noted by Hopkins and Wood (2026), the current IUCN Red List framework and criteria are already sufficient to assess parasitic species when enough data are available, and it is the increasing participation of parasitologists in data collection and IUCN assessments that will be key to advancing parasite conservation.

We also advocate for the integration of known species interactions and their existing conservation status (if any) into the IUCN assessment process rather than making species assessments individually. Indeed, for example, a species listed as Least Concern could be

774 pushed to extinction if its host disappears or is considered threatened (i.e., co-extinction
 775 events). If a host goes extinct, its uniquely associated parasites will inevitably vanish too, along
 776 with their hyperparasites. We term this series of hidden and indirect, trickle-down effects across
 777 multiple trophic levels “dark cascades”. These dark cascades may also lead to what has been
 778 termed “dark extinctions” (see Boehm and Cronk, 2021, Essl *et al.*, 2026), meaning in our case
 779 the extinction of parasites and hyperparasites that have not yet been described. Considering
 780 host–parasite and multitrophic interactions involving parasites in IUCN Red Listing will help
 781 implement conservation actions that are both parasite-safe and host-safe, and help manage
 782 potential conflicts that may arise between the conservation of the parasite and its host (Hopkins
 783 and Wood, 2026).

784
 785 To contribute to the discussion on how organisms involved in obligate multitrophic interactions
 786 could be protected, we propose a simple conceptual framework based on the existing IUCN Red
 787 List for integrating obligate species interactions into IUCN species assessments (**Fig. 5**). Since
 788 this research domain remains largely unexplored, we encourage the scientific community
 789 working on this multitrophic interaction system, as well as on species involved in obligate
 790 interactions more broadly, to conduct IUCN assessments that explicitly consider species
 791 interactions. We also encourage the mycological and parasitological research communities to
 792 consider developing guidelines to facilitate the interpretation of IUCN criteria for obligate
 793 interactions (e.g., generation lengths between host and parasite, definition of individuals, etc.).
 794 There is also a need to develop and propose a solid, globally applicable conceptual framework
 795 to study extinction cascades and to build models that assess and predict potential biodiversity
 796 collapses of parasites following host extinctions.
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798
 799 **Figure 5.** Conceptual framework for integrating obligate species interactions into IUCN assessments. On
 800 the left, a conceptual matrix illustrating the minimum extinction risk expected for an obligate parasite
 801 based on the IUCN status of its host. For a given parasite status, the more threatened the host is, the
 802 greater the extinction risk for the obligate parasite. On the right, a series of three simple questions that
 803 can be asked during the assessment or reassessment of a parasite species to ensure that its assigned
 804 status is considered in light of the IUCN status of its host.

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6. Implications for other host-parasite multitrophic interaction networks

This chapter focuses on the tripartite bat–bat fly–fungus study system, but the knowledge and conservation gaps identified here, as well as the solutions proposed to address them, could also apply to other host–parasite multitrophic interaction networks that are in need of study. For example, another interesting multitrophic interaction involving Laboulbeniales is the one with species of *Trenomyces*, which parasitize lice that themselves parasitize birds, such as woodpeckers and domestic chickens (e.g., Chatton and Picard, 1909; Thaxter, 1926). While the bat–bat fly–fungus system has recently received increasing attention in the literature, these hyperparasites and their interactions with arthropod parasites of other mammals remain comparatively understudied. Given that nearly all organisms on the planet are involved in at least one parasitic relationship, the number of potential obligate multitrophic interactions is likely very high. Other types of multitrophic interactions, more or less obligate, are also gaining attention—for example, interactions between fungal pathogens, insect hosts, and their associated bacteria (e.g., Płoszka *et al.*, 2025), or between endophytes, host plants, and soil mycorrhizal fungi (e.g., Afkhami *et al.*, 2020). We believe that the framework and approaches proposed in this chapter could also benefit the study and conservation of these other multitrophic interaction systems.

7. Future directions: a synergistic, system-based ecological framework to better know and protect complex interaction network

Even though parasitism is one of the most widespread lifestyles in the living world, parasites continue to suffer from a bad reputation and remain among the least studied and least protected organisms. Multitrophic interactions involving parasites offer new opportunities to better understand diversity across trophic levels, how biotic and abiotic factors influence interactions both between and within trophic levels, how these interactions respond to anthropogenic disturbances and current or future global changes, and how we can better protect species interactions within conservation frameworks. Based on the remaining knowledge gaps, the challenges we face, and potential solutions to advance the study and conservation of parasites in the light of the bat–bat fly–fungus system, we outline a list of future directions and research priorities in the field of multitrophic interactions involving fungal parasites.

1. Describe the taxonomic and phylogenetic diversity across trophic levels and how it is geographically distributed using integrative taxonomy approaches. Sampling efforts should cover different types of ecosystems and regions of the world, ideally targeting understudied habitats.
2. Understand how abiotic factors influence interactions across trophic levels. In particular: how environmental changes linked to local microclimatic conditions and bat roosting habits, or human-driven disturbances affect Laboulbeniales parasitism on bat flies.
3. Understand species interactions both across and within trophic levels. In particular, what is the influence of other parasites or pathogens on Laboulbeniales parasitism of bat flies? Does infection of bats with pathogens affect Laboulbeniales parasitism on their bat flies?

- 848 4. Develop long-term, global, unbiased, and trait-based sampling schemes and databases
849 to study the diversity, ecology, and conservation of multitrophic interactions.
850 5. Build bridges between disciplines and foster collaborations with other conservationists
851 working with mammals and arthropods to leverage sampling synergies, raise
852 awareness, and advance parasite conservation beyond disciplinary and national
853 boundaries.
854 6. Integrate species interactions into conservation frameworks, particularly IUCN Red
855 Listing. Conduct IUCN assessments for all species involved in multitrophic interactions,
856 taking into account the IUCN status and threats faced by hosts when assessing or
857 reassessing parasite species.
858 7. Create a global, cross-country, and cross-discipline ecological framework that considers
859 interacting species as a whole to better understand and protect multitrophic interactions.
860

861 To address these questions and close knowledge and conservation shortfalls in this field, new
862 tools and approaches should be leveraged, such as integrative taxonomy, omics techniques,
863 conservation metrics and tools, as well as novel statistical and modeling approaches. We hope
864 that the example of the bat–bat fly–Laboulbeniales system can serve as a model to deepen our
865 understanding of multitrophic interactions involving fungal parasites, while also providing
866 insights applicable to other types of multitrophic interactions, whether or not they involve fungi.
867 We also hope that increasing research in these fields will help ensure that species interactions
868 across trophic levels are one day taken into account in ecosystem management and
869 conservation strategies across multiple temporal and spatial scales.
870

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