

RESEARCH

Open Access



Evaluation of *ebony* as a potential selectable marker for genetic sexing in *Aedes aegypti*

Katerina Nikolouli^{1*†}, Austin Compton^{2,3†}, Zhijian Jake Tu^{2,3} and Kostas Bourtzis¹

Abstract

Background *Aedes aegypti* is expected to invade previously unoccupied areas, mainly due to the climate change, the increase in travel and trade activities and the continuous transformation of the rural environment into urban areas. The sterile insect technique (SIT), which relies on the mass production and release of sterile males, is an environmentally friendly approach that can be applied for population control of *Ae. aegypti*. SIT programs can be greatly benefited by a genetic sexing strain (GSS) and a reliable sex sorting system to minimize any accidental female release. Visually detectable or conditionally lethal selectable markers can be used for the development of new GSSs. In this study, we evaluated the suitability and competence of a mutant *Ae. aegypti* *ebony* strain for the development of a new GSS. The *ebony* gene is known to be involved in the pigmentation pathway of several dipteran insects, including *Ae. aegypti*.

Methods An *ebony* gene knockout was developed through CRISPR/Cas9 mutagenesis. G₀ individuals with the desired phenotype were crossed, and progeny were screened in every generation. PCR and sequencing were performed using gDNA from a pulled leg to determine the mutant genotype. Quality control tests, including pupae and adult recovery rates, male sex ratio and fecundity, were applied to the *ebony* mutant line to determine whether the mutation confers any fitness cost.

Results An *Ae. aegypti* *ebony* knockout mutant carrying a 5-bp deletion was obtained, which presented darker head and siphon phenotypes at the larval stage. However, genetic analysis revealed that this *ebony* mutation results in incomplete penetrance and variable expressivity. The establishment of a pure *ebony* mutant line was not possible because of the fitness costs conferred by the mutation.

Conclusions In this study, the adequacy and suitability of the *ebony* gene as a selectable marker for the development of a GSS in *Ae. aegypti* were assessed. Despite its clear phenotype early in larval development, the homozygous mutant line presented phenotypic inconsistency and loss of fertility. These drawbacks clearly indicate that this particular mutation is not suitable for the development of a new GSS. Nonetheless, it cannot be excluded that a different mutation will lead to a different expression and penetrance profile and a viable homozygous mutant line.

Keywords *Ebony*, Genetic sexing strain, *Aedes aegypti*, Sterile insect technique

[†]Katerina Nikolouli and Austin Compton contributed equally to this work.

*Correspondence:
Katerina Nikolouli
k.nikolouli@iaea.org

¹ Insect Pest Control Laboratory, Department of Nuclear Sciences and Applications, Joint FAO/IAEA Centre of Nuclear Techniques in Food and Agriculture, IAEA Laboratories, 2444 Seibersdorf, Austria

² Department of Biochemistry, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg VA24061, USA

³ Fralin Life Sciences Institute, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg VA24061, USA

Background

Aedes aegypti L. (Diptera: Culicidae) mosquitoes are responsible for the transmission of several vector-borne diseases attributed to arboviruses, including Zika, dengue, yellow fever and chikungunya. [1–4] Mosquito population control methods currently rely on insecticide application, an approach that has led to the development of resistance, which has severely jeopardized efforts to control the vector population [5]. Therefore, there is a



growing interest in environmentally friendly approaches, such as the sterile insect technique (SIT), which relies on the mass production and release of sterile males [6, 7]. SIT has already been applied in the field to control mosquito populations, with remarkable results [8–10]. However, sex separation and female elimination remain major obstacles in the large-scale application of SIT against mosquitoes [11].

Accidental release of female mosquitoes can increase not only biting nuisance but, most importantly, the spread of arboviruses since females bite and transmit diseases. Regarding *Wolbachia*-infected mosquitoes, which are used in the frame of the incompatible insect technique (IIT), any accidental release of *Wolbachia*-infected females can jeopardize the success of the program since a population replacement is possible [12]. To mitigate this risk, the combination of IIT with SIT has been proposed as it ensures that any inadvertently released *Wolbachia*-infected females are irradiation-sterilized [13]. Regardless of the approach (SIT or SIT/IIT), scientists are hunting for reliable sex sorting systems that will allow for efficient and error-free male-female separation at the earliest developmental stage possible [14, 15].

Sex sorting can be performed either based on inherent species characteristics or by developing genetic sexing strains (GSSs). Development of a GSS using classical or neo-classical genetic approaches requires a visually detectable or conditionally lethal selectable marker that is detected either by population screening or induction of mutagenesis [16, 17]. The wild-type allele of this marker is linked to the Y chromosome or to the sex-determining genetic locus of the species [16]. *Aedes aegypti* males are defined by a dominant male-determining locus (M locus) on chromosome 1. While males are heterogametic (Mm), females are homogametic (mm) and lack the M-locus [18, 19]. Selectable markers that reside on chromosome 1 are strong candidates for the development of a GSS in which males are heterozygotes and express the “wild-type” phenotype, while females are homozygotes for the recessive alleles and express the mutant phenotype [16]. Two *Ae. aegypti* GSSs based on genes related to eye color are currently available [20]. Both genes (*red-eye* (*re*) and *white-eye* (*w*) markers) are located on chromosome 1 and are linked to the M-locus, showing complete penetrance and expressivity [21, 22].

Efforts to develop new GSSs for mosquitoes with phenotypes expressed as early as possible in the developmental process are continuous and diverse, employing both transgenic and non-transgenic approaches [14, 15, 23–26]. The quest for new marker genes has triggered the emergence of a new strategy called the generic (neo-classical) approach, which focuses on developing non-transgenic GSSs for SIT applications [24, 25]. Through

the generic approach, genes and their specific mutations linked to desirable traits in a species are identified. The next step involves the induction of these mutations in orthologous genes of other species and the linkage of the wild-type allele to the male sex, which will result in a new GSS [26–30]. In the frame of this approach and because *ebony* is significantly closer to the sex locus than both *re* and *w* [31, 32], the *ebony* gene was selected as a candidate for gene editing in *Ae. aegypti* using CRISPR/Cas9 technology. *ebony* is involved in the pigmentation of *Drosophila* and encodes the enzyme N- β -alanyl dopamine (NBAD) synthetase, which converts dopamine to NBAD [33]. In *Ae. aegypti*, the disruption of the orthologous gene (AAEL005793) has been previously reported, and a prominent phenotype was observed at the larval and pupal stages [32]. In this study, we created a mutant *Ae. aegypti* *ebony* strain and evaluated its suitability and competence for the development of a new GSS for SIT applications.

Methods

Aedes aegypti strains and rearing conditions

The *Ae. aegypti* Liverpool (LVP) strain was used in all the experiments. The genome assembly AaegL5.0, which originated from the Liverpool strain, was also the reference genome used throughout the study [34]. Mosquitoes were reared in the insectaries of Virginia Tech and the Insect Pest Control Laboratory (Joint FAO/IAEA Centre, Seibersdorf, Austria) at 26–28 °C and 60–70% relative humidity with a 14/10 h day/night light cycle and 27 \pm 1 °C, 80% relative humidity and a 12/12 h day/night photoperiod, respectively.

Larvae were fed a 4% liquid diet that included powdered yeast, tuna meal and black soldier fly [35], while adult mosquitoes were fed a 10% sucrose solution. At Virginia Tech, female mosquitoes were blood-fed defibrinated sheep's blood (Colorado Serum Company, Denver, CO, USA) via artificial membrane feeders. At the IPCL, porcine blood was offered twice per week, and egg collection was initiated 72 h after the last blood feeding using moistened oviposition papers (white germination paper, Sartorius Stedium Biotech, Austria). The blood used was collected in Himberg, Austria, during routine slaughtering of pigs in a nationally authorized abattoir, conducted at the highest possible standards strictly following EU laws and regulations.

CRISPR/Cas9-mediated knockout microinjections

The sgRNA 5'- GGCCGTGTTTCGGCGCAACGC-3' targeting exon 3 of the AAEL005793 gene was previously shown to successfully induce knockout of the *ebony* gene [32]. This sgRNA was synthesized by Synthego (www.synthego.com) with standard 2' and 3' base modifications

and resuspended following the product guide (<https://app.hubspot.com/documents/2418554/view/28153958?accessId=61e7dc>). Approximately 500 embryos of the *exu-Cas9* transgenic line [32] were injected with 100 ng/ μ l sgRNA using an Eppendorf FemtoJet injector. The surviving larvae and early pupae presented similar phenotypes in the head and siphon, as noted in [32]. Fourteen G_0 adult survivors (six males and eight females) were mated together to increase the probability of generating homozygous individuals for easier screening of mutants in the following generation. The ebony phenotype was observed in 17 individuals at the larval and pupal stages of the ~500 total individuals screened. The line was maintained by crossing males and females exhibiting the ebony phenotype. The DsRed marker is the transformation marker for the *exu-Cas9* line [32], which was used to generate the *ebony* knockout. We crossed DsRed-negative G_2 individuals to generate a line without the *exu-Cas9* transgene.

Screening and genotyping

Larvae at L3–L4 stages were visually screened in every generation under a stereoscope, and non-ebony phenotypes (larvae that did not present dark heads and siphons) were removed. Non-lethal genotyping was initially performed at G_1 (Virginia Tech) and then at G_7 (IPCL) to determine the mutant genotype. For non-lethal genotyping, genomic DNA was extracted from single legs of adult mosquitoes following an adapted version of the protocol by [36]. Mosquitoes were anesthetized at 4 °C, and single legs were cut, placed in Eppendorf tubes and homogenized. The Platinum Direct PCR Universal Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used for DNA extraction and PCR amplification, following the manufacturer's instructions. The primer pair used for confirming the *ebony* mutation was AAEL005793_01_F5'-TTTGGCCCTTGTTTAACCGA-3' and AAEL005793_02_R5'-AGAGACGTAAAGCCATTGAGATGT-3'. PCRs were performed in a 25- μ l reaction volume and at the following PCR settings [94 °C, 2 min; 35 cycles of (94 °C, 15 s; 60 °C, 15 s; 68 °C, 20 s)]. The PCR amplicons were purified using the DNA Clean & Concentrator kit (Zymo Research) and Sanger sequenced (Eurofins Genomics, Germany). The sequencing trace files were processed with Geneious Prime 2022.0.2.

Biological character assessment

The *Ae. aegypti ebony* mutant line at the fifth generation was compared with the wild-type LVP strain with respect to the following biological parameters:

Recovery rates: Eggs from both *Ae. aegypti* lines were hatched in airtight glass jars containing water with low dissolved oxygen content (boiled water). The jars were

incubated in a climate chamber at 27 °C for 2 h. First-instar larvae (L1) were counted in batches of 100 and placed in trays containing 2 L of water and 30 ml of larval diet. For each line, we performed three replicates ($n=100$ L1 per tray per line). Pupal and adult recoveries were recorded by counting the total number of pupae and adults, respectively.

Fecundity: For each strain, 20 newly emerged virgin females and 10 virgin males were placed in a BugDorm-4M2222 insect-rearing cage and mated for 3 to 4 days. Females were then blood-fed, and 3 days after the blood meal, plastic cups containing deionized water and lined with germination paper were provided in each cage for 48 h. The cages were monitored daily, and when dead females were noticed, they were replaced with other gravid females of the same age. Eggs were collected for the first two gonotrophic cycles, and the total number of eggs was counted under a stereoscope. Three replicates per strain were performed. Mean female fecundity was calculated by dividing the total number of eggs laid by all females by the total number of females.

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using R version 4.2.0 [37]. Pupal recovery and adult emergence rates represent recovery ratios; therefore, they were analyzed using a GLM-binomial family and a logit link function [38]. The fecundity data are count data and were analyzed with a generalized linear model (GLM) with Quasi-Poisson distribution and a log link function. The generalized linear model (GLM) overdispersion was checked with the DHARMA package [39]. Analysis of deviance was performed with a Chi-square test for the recovery and sex ratio rates and with an F test for the fecundity data [40]. In all boxplots, both the mean and the median values are depicted.

Results

The *Ae. aegypti ebony* gene is located in the recombination desert near the sex locus on chromosome 1 [31] and is 139,046 bp long. A total of seven exons constitute its coding region, which encodes a protein of 884 amino acids (Fig. 1a). A sgRNA targeting the third exon of the *Ae. aegypti ebony* gene was injected into approximately 500 LVP embryos. G_0 individuals who survived the injection process were screened at the larval stage. Fourteen G_0 males and females exhibiting the ebony phenotype presented dark larval heads and darker heads at the pupal stage (Fig. 1b). These 14 individuals were inbred to form a homozygous *ebony* line without being previously genotyped. Our results confirm the phenotypes previously described in *Ae. aegypti* by [32].

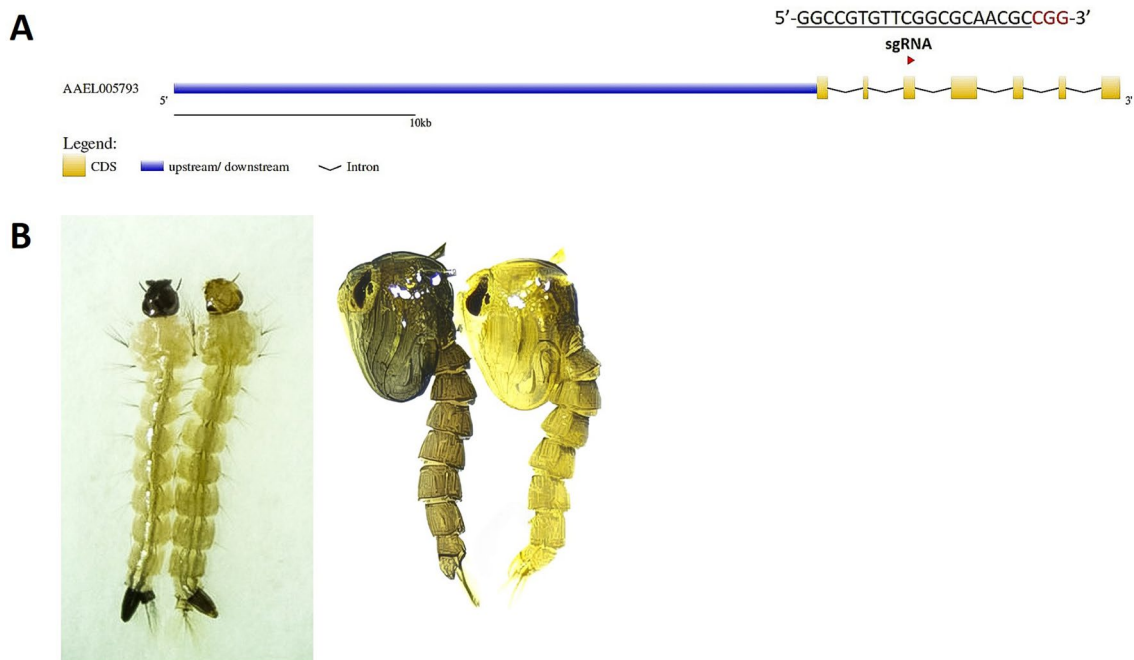


Fig. 1 **A** Schematic representation of the *ebony* gene in *Aedes aegypti* spanning seven exons. The location and sequence of the sgRNA target [32] are indicated, with the PAM region shown in red. The scheme was designed using GSDS 2.0 [67]. **B** The *ebony* (left) and wild-type (right) phenotypes of larvae and 1-day pupae

During larval screening at G_6 , mixed phenotypes, which included the *ebony* (black larval heads), intermediate (dark brown larval heads) and wild-type phenotypes (Fig. 2a), were detected. The intermediate *ebony* phenotype exhibited phenotypic inconsistency by showing a spectrum of pigmentation levels. Thirty-six larvae with the *ebony* phenotype were set apart to re-establish a pure *ebony* colony. G_7 individuals were screened both

phenotypically and genotypically. A 5-bp deletion in exon 3 was detected, resulting in an early stop codon and yielding a shorter protein of only 161 amino acids (Fig. 2b and Additional file 1: Fig. S1). Phenotype screening, single-leg PCR, Sanger sequencing and crosses were performed during the next generations (starting from G_8) to isolate mosquitoes carrying the *eb⁻/eb⁻* genotype and create a homozygous line. The number of genotyped

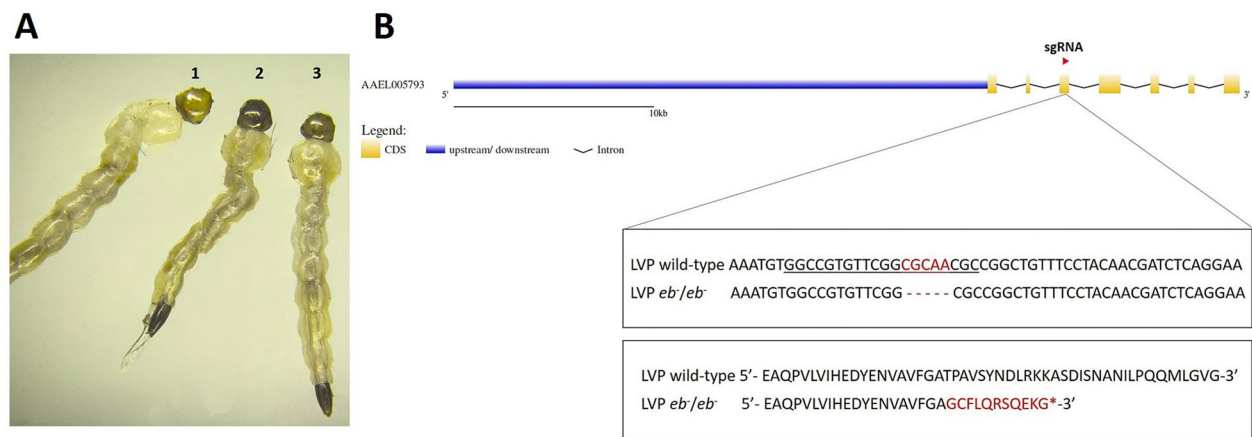


Fig. 2 **A** Wild-type (1), *ebony* (2) and intermediate (3) phenotypes in larvae. **B** Sanger sequencing showed a 5-bp deletion (in red) in homozygous adults. The sgRNA sequence is underlined. The deletion results in an early stop codon and yields a shorter protein of only 161 amino acids (in red) compared to the 884 amino acids of the wild-type protein

males and females per generation is shown in Additional file 2: Table S1.

As shown in Table 2, genotyping at G_7 revealed that the wild-type phenotype can occur in all possible genotypes (+/+, +/eb⁻ and eb⁻/eb⁻). Larvae expressing the intermediate phenotype could be either heterozygotes or homozygotes for the deletion, while larvae with the ebony phenotype were always homozygotes for the deletion. During the next generations (from G_8 to G_{13}), female and male homozygotes for the deletion were selected and crossed to create an eb⁻ homozygous line. All the selected males expressed the ebony phenotype, while all the selected females expressed the intermediate phenotype. Crossing of the homozygous adults led to zero progeny or to a minimum number of eggs that did not hatch. The homozygous line could not be maintained, and it was eventually lost. This restriction in maintaining a clear homozygous mutant line was further confirmed by the quality control results. Quality

tests were performed at G_5 before we verified that our line was not genotypically pure. Despite the presence of all three genotypes (although the ratio among them is not known), we observed a fitness cost of the mixed line compared with the wild-type LVP strain regarding fecundity (ANOVA, $F_{(1, 4)}=12.806$, $df=1$, $P=0.0232$) and the sex ratio (Chi-square test, $\chi^2=1.4347$, $df=1$, $P=0.01115$) (Fig. 3A, B). The pupal and adult recovery rates did not differ significantly (pupae: ANOVA, $F_{(1, 4)}=7.1871$, $df=1$, $P=0.01236$; adults: ANOVA, $F_{(1, 4)}=6.5424$, $df=1$, $P=0.9332$) (Fig. 3C, D). The cost conferred by the *ebony* mutation, either in homozygosity or heterozygosity, was later validated by our unsuccessful efforts to create a pure homozygous mutant line.

Discussion

Insect body coloration is formed mainly by melanin, a pigment group that is synthesized, metabolized and transported by a complex set of genes [41]. *ebony* has

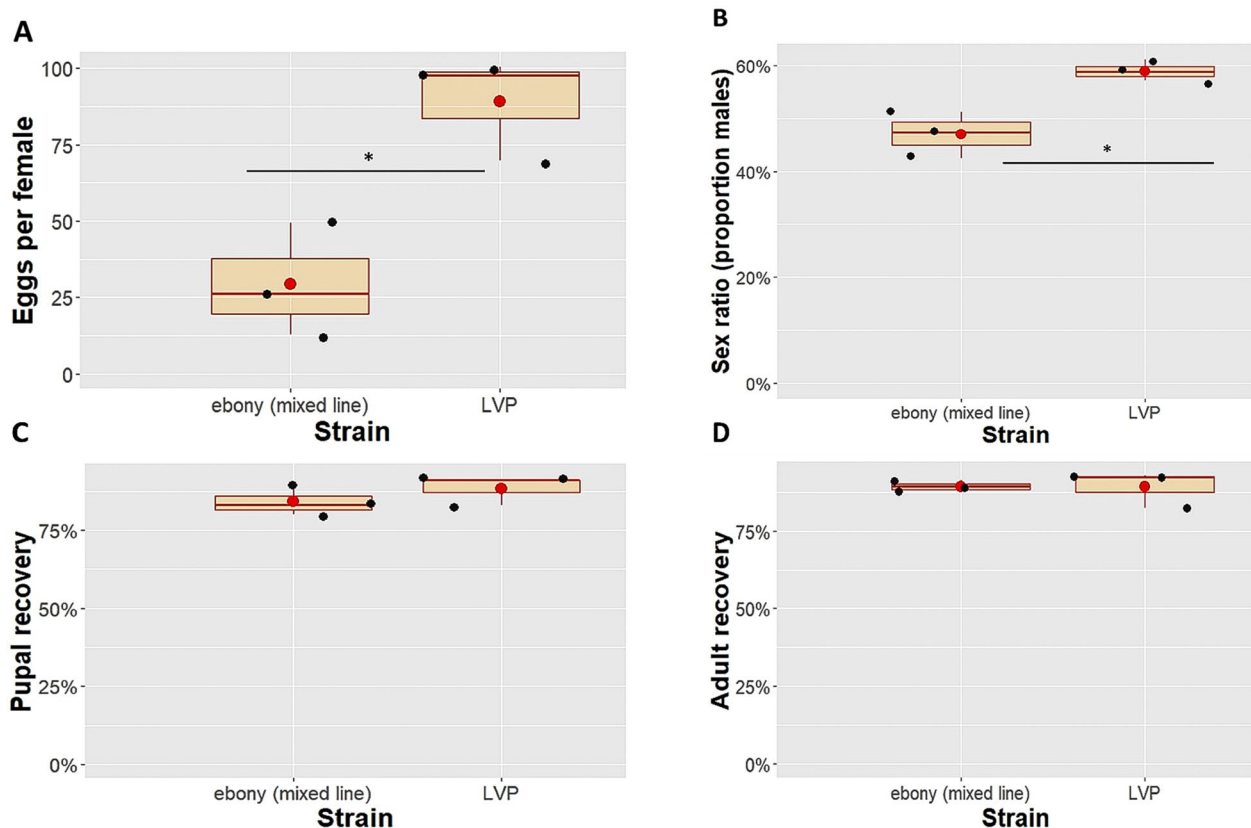


Fig. 3 **A** Effect of *ebony* mutation on female fecundity. The number of eggs per female is shown on the y-axis for the *ebony* and LVP groups. The fecundity of the two lines differs significantly ($P=0.0232$). **B** Sex ratio of males produced from the *ebony* and the LVP groups. The *ebony* line had a significantly lower male proportion ($P=0.01115$). **C, D** Effect of *ebony* mutation on pupal and adult recovery. No significant difference in pupal ($P=0.1236$) or adult ($P=0.9332$) recovery was detected. In all the cases, the boxplots span the interquartile range, and the whiskers indicate the highest and lowest observations. The red line and the red dot inside each box represent the median and the mean, respectively. The black dots represent the three different replicates. Significant differences between treatment groups are indicated with asterisks (*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, ns: $p > 0.05$; confidence level used: 0.95, $\alpha = 0.05$)

been described as one of these genes involved in epidermal pigmentation and promoting light-color cuticle tanning [42–47]. Body pigmentation can determine how insects interact with the environment and guide their adaptation and evolution [42, 47, 48]. *ebony* has been widely studied in insects not only because of its profound phenotype when mutated but also because of its conserved function across phylogenetically distant insect species, including *Diptera* and *Lepidoptera* [49]. At the protein level, Ebony is highly conserved among species (Table 1), which underscores its essential role in body coloration.

ebony is considered a melanin-inhibiting gene and takes part in the melanism pathway, along with *yellow*, which promotes melanin synthesis [33, 47]. Both genes display visible pigmentation changes when mutated, with *yellow* mutants having a lighter body color and *ebony* a darker body phenotype [32, 47]. Mutations in *yellow* genes in insects have also been associated with fitness costs that include reduced male mating success due to altered copulatory structures and impaired locomotor performance [50, 51]. These fitness costs highlight the critical role of these genes not only in cuticle pigmentation but also in the strain's viability and performance.

Similar to our results in *Ae. aegypti*, *ebony* mutants in other insect species showed a darker body phenotype that, depending on the case, was to a certain extent evident at the larval, pupal or adult stage [32, 42, 47, 49, 52, 53]. In *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Plutella xylostella*, heterozygous *ebony* mutants exhibited incomplete melanization, while complete melanization was evident only in individuals homozygous for the deficiency [49, 54]. The intermediate phenotype exhibited in these two species indicates a semi-dominant character of *ebony*, which, however, was not confirmed in a *Bombyx mori* study [42] or in *Ae. aegypti* (this study). In *B. mori*, all heterozygotes for the mutation presented the wild-type phenotype, and homozygous mutants were completely melanized. On the other hand, in *Ae. aegypti*, an intermediate phenotype was also present at the larval and pupal stages in both males and females, but the genotypes were either homozygous (*eb⁻/eb⁻*) or heterozygous (*+/eb⁻*) for the

mutation. *Aedes aegypti* exhibiting the wild-type phenotype added extra layers of complexity since they had all possible genotypes (*+/+, +/eb⁻, eb⁻/eb⁻*). Unlike the previously studied *Diptera* and *Lepidoptera*, it seems that, at least in *Ae. aegypti*, the *ebony* mutation is not fully penetrant and expressive. Incomplete penetrance and variable expressivity are an interplay of various factors, including but not limited to interactions of *ebony* with other genes, the genetic background of the strain used to develop the mutation, the presence of regulatory factors that influence the expression of the gene as well as the position of the gene itself and the chromatin structure of the area [55]. However, it cannot be excluded that a different *ebony* mutation in the promoter region or in another exon might present a different expression and penetrance profile that could lead to a viable homozygous mutant line.

Despite the high conservation of the Ebony protein across insect species, the effects caused by a gene mutation can vary among different genomic and environmental backgrounds [56, 57]. The *ebony* phenotype has been extensively described in several mosquito species, which exhibit a variety of expression patterns. In *Anopheles albimanus*, the homozygous larvae are uniformly black, but they die before they transform into pupae. Conversely, heterozygotes present an intermediate phenotype but are fully viable [45]. The same black larval phenotype has also been described in *Culex tritaeniorhynchus* [58], while in *Culex quinquefasciatus*, the dark phenotype is expressed only at the larval head [59], similar to *Ae. aegypti*. In *Culex tarsalis* adult *ebony* mutants, white scale bands from the proboscis, legs and abdomen are lost [44]. This lack of universality in mutant *ebony* phenotypes could be attributed to epistasis phenomena that can lead to different phenotypic outcomes due to complex gene interactions among species [60]. The sister species *Drosophila yakuba* and *Drosophila santomea* differ in terms of abdominal pigmentation due to cis-regulatory changes. In *D. yakuba*, *ebony* expression is restricted to the anterior abdominal segments, while in *D. santomea*, it is expressed along the anterior-posterior axis [61]. Cis-regulatory mutations can alter the gene network topology

Table 1 Protein alignment (% identity) of Ebony in several insect species

	<i>Aedes aegypti</i> (%)	<i>Aedes albopictus</i> (%)	<i>Anopheles gambiae</i> (%)	<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> (%)	<i>Bombyx mori</i> (%)
<i>Aedes aegypti</i>		94.6	73.1	57.2	47
<i>Aedes albopictus</i>	94.6		73.3	57.4	47.2
<i>Anopheles gambiae</i>	73.1	73.3		58.9	48.2
<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	57.2	57.4	58.9		47.5
<i>Bombyx mori</i>	47	47.2	48.2	47.5	

as well as any direct or indirect gene interactions. On the other hand, mosquito mutants discovered and characterized decades ago might not result from mutations of “*ebony*” gene. Thus, the mutants characterized as “*ebony*” must be treated cautiously to avoid any misleading conclusions.

Pleiotropy is a common trait among genes that determine body coloration. *ebony* is involved in a wide range of biological functions, including cuticular hydrocarbon composition, mating behavior, vision, circadian rhythm and innate immunity, in *Drosophila* species [43, 51, 62–64]. Knockout mutants of *ebony* can therefore affect multiple discrete phenotypic traits and confer fitness costs related to either mild or detrimental effects. In *D. melanogaster*, homozygous mutant male flies are partially blind and suffer from low mating competitiveness [65]. In *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, CRISPR attempts to create *ebony*-knockout mutants led to either G₀ lethality or a low number of survivors [59]. In *A. albimanus*, complete lethality has been recorded for homozygous mutants before they reach the pupal stage, while lower hatchability and larval survival rates have been reported in *P. xylostella* [45, 49]. In *Ae. aegypti*, female pupae expressing the ebony phenotype were scarce in every generation (no more than one or two individuals per generation), and they were all genotyped. All of them were homozygotes for the deletion and died at the pupal stage. On the other hand, the homozygous females expressing the intermediate phenotype survived to adulthood and were used for the crosses. Interestingly, all the homozygous male mosquitoes expressing the ebony phenotype survived to adulthood (Table 2). In addition, crosses among homozygous adults led to non-viable embryos or the complete absence of egg laying. Our data indicate that complete melanization, and not the homozygosity, is lethal to female but not to male *Ae. aegypti*, which can be linked to the pleiotropic nature of the gene [64]. Excessive production of pigments might interact with sex-linked genes and lead to early female lethality; however, this hypothesis requires further investigation.

Identifying genes responsible for phenotypic variation in insects can reveal promising targets that could be used for pest management in SIT applications. These targets can be disrupted through genome editing techniques, such as CRISPR/Cas9 technology, and can be used for the construction of a new GSS. Marker genes should fulfill certain criteria to be considered eligible for GSS development. They should be easily identifiable and should not impose fitness costs on the species. *ebony* is a well-studied gene that has been edited via CRISPR in various species, including *Ae. aegypti* [32]. In *Spodoptera litura*, *ebony* has been suggested as a promising candidate for genome editing and control strategies [53]. On the

Table 2 Genotyping of G₇ individuals expressing the wild-type, intermediate and ebony phenotypes

Code	Sex	Phenotype	Genotype
1	F	Wild type	± + / -
2	F	Wild type	± + / -
3	F	Wild type	± + / -
4	F	Wild type	± + / -
5	F	Wild type	+ / +
6	F	Wild type	± + / -
7	F	Wild type	+ / +
8	F	Wild type	+ / +
9	F	Wild type	+ / +
10	M	Wild type	- / -
11	M	Wild type	- / -
12	M	Wild type	- / -
13	M	Intermediate	- / -
14	M	Intermediate	- / -
15	M	Intermediate	± + / -
16	M	Intermediate	± + / -
17	M	Intermediate	- / -
18	M	Ebony	- / -
19	M	Ebony	- / -
20	M	Ebony	- / -

other hand, it has been recently shown that disruption of *ebony* in *Bactrocera tryoni* results in reduced hatchability and eclosion [66]. In this study, we showed that the *ebony* mutant we created is not suitable for the development of an *Ae. aegypti* GSS because of its phenotypic inconsistency and the loss of fertility of the homozygous mutant line.

Conclusions

Aedes aegypti is widely distributed in tropical and sub-tropical regions, and it is able to breed in human-made breeding sites. *Aedes aegypti* is also expected to invade and establish in previously unoccupied areas due to the high volatility of climate conditions. The development of a GSS that minimizes the possibility of accidental female release is critical to the environmentally friendly and sustainable SIT approaches for the control of *Ae. aegypti* populations. In this study, we evaluated whether the ebony phenotype could serve as a selectable marker for the development of a GSS. The results revealed that the *ebony* mutation we developed results in reduced penetrance and expressivity and presents fertility loss in the homozygous state. Therefore, it cannot be recommended as a robust and reliable selectable marker, and additional mutants or genes need to be investigated to identify suitable markers.

Abbreviations

GLM	Generalized linear model
GSS	Genetic sexing strain
IPCL	Insect pest control laboratory
LVP	Liverpool
NBAD	N- β -alanyl dopamine
SIT	Sterile insect technique

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-025-06709-y>.

Supplementary Materials 1. Fig. S1. *ebony* gene Sanger sequencing of wild-type, homozygous and heterozygous individuals.

Supplementary Materials 2. Table S1: Number of genotyped males and females per generation.

Acknowledgements

We thank Ms. Eda Özel for her assistance in colony maintenance at the Insect Pest Control Laboratory, Seibersdorf, Austria. This study also benefited from discussions during meetings that took place within the frame of the IAEA Coordinated Research Project "Generic approach for the development of genetic sexing strains for SIT applications."

Author contributions

KN, AC, ZJT and KB designed the research; KN and AC performed the experimental work; ZJT and KB supervised the work; KN wrote the manuscript with input from all the authors; all the authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Funding

This study was supported by the Insect Pest Control Subprogramme of the Joint FAO/IAEA Centre of Nuclear Techniques in Food and Agriculture and the United States State Department in the frame of the "Enhance Agency's Capacity to Provide Support to Member States to Control *Aedes* Mosquitoes as Vectors of Human Pathogens, Particularly Zika Virus, Using Integrated Vector Management Approaches with a Sterile Insect Technique Component" project. This work was also supported in part by the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases grant AI123338 and the Virginia Agricultural Experimental Station.

Availability of data and materials

All data of this study are available in the manuscript, its associated supplementary files, and upon request.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Received: 13 October 2024 Accepted: 4 February 2025

Published online: 25 February 2025

References

1. Lucey DR, Gostin LO. The emerging Zika pandemic: enhancing preparedness. *JAMA*. 2016;315:865.
2. Siraj AS, Oidman RJ, Huber JH, Kraemer MUG, Brady OJ, Johansson MA, et al. Temperature modulates dengue virus epidemic growth rates through its effects on reproduction numbers and generation intervals. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis*. 2017;11:e0005797.
3. Weaver SC, Reisen WK. Present and future arboviral threats. *Antiviral Res*. 2010;85:328–45.
4. Wilder-Smith A. Epidemic arboviral diseases: priorities for research and public health. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2017;17:e101–6.
5. Sene NM, Mavridis K, Ndiaye EH, Diagne CT, Gaye A, Ngom EHM, et al. Insecticide resistance status and mechanisms in *Aedes aegypti* populations from Senegal. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis*. 2021;15:e0009393.
6. Bourtzis K, Lees RS, Hendrichs J, Vreysen MJB. More than one rabbit out of the hat: radiation, transgenic and symbiont-based approaches for sustainable management of mosquito and tsetse fly populations. *Acta Trop*. 2016;157:115–30.
7. Lees RS, Carvalho DO, Bouyer J. Potential impact of integrating the sterile insect technique into the fight against disease-transmitting mosquitoes. In: sterile insect technique. Boca Raton: CRC Press; 2021.
8. Bellini R, Medici A, Puggioli A, Balestrino F, Carrieri M. Pilot field trials with *Aedes albopictus* irradiated sterile males in Italian urban areas. *J Med Entomol*. 2013;50:317–25.
9. Carvalho DO, Morreale R, Stenhouse S, Hahn DA, Gomez M, Lloyd A, et al. A sterile insect technique pilot trial on Captiva Island: defining mosquito population parameters for sterile male releases using mark–release–recapture. *Parasites Vectors*. 2022;15:402.
10. Gato R, Menéndez Z, Prieto E, Argilés R, Rodríguez M, Baldoquín W, et al. Sterile insect technique: Successful suppression of an *Aedes aegypti* field population in Cuba. *Insects*. 2021;12:469.
11. Lutrat C, Giesbrecht D, Marois E, Whyard S, Baldet T, Bouyer J. Sex sorting for pest control: It's raining men! *Trends Parasitol*. 2019;35:649–62.
12. Ritchie SA, Van Den Hurk AF, Smout MJ, Staunton KM, Hoffmann AA. Mission accomplished? We need a guide to the 'post release' world of *Wolbachia* for *Aedes*-borne disease control. *Trends Parasitol*. 2018;34:217–26.
13. Soh S, Ho SH, Ong J, Seah A, Dickens BS, Tan KW, et al. Strategies to mitigate establishment under the *Wolbachia* incompatible insect technique. *Viruses*. 2022;14:1132.
14. Lutrat C, Olmo RP, Baldet T, Bouyer J, Marois E. Transgenic expression of *Nix* converts genetic females into males and allows automated sex sorting in *Aedes albopictus*. *Commun Biol*. 2022;5:210.
15. Weng SC, Antoshechkin I, Marois E, Akbari OS. Efficient sex separation by exploiting differential alternative splicing of a dominant marker in *Aedes aegypti*. *PLoS Genet*. 2023;19:e1011065.
16. Franz G, Bourtzis K, Caceres C. Practical and operational genetic sexing systems based on classical genetic approaches in fruit flies, an example for other species amenable to large-scale rearing for the sterile insect technique. In: Sterile insect technique principles and practice in area-wide integrated pest management. Boca Raton: CRC Press; 2021.
17. Li J, Handler AM. Temperature-dependent sex-reversal by a transformer-2 gene-edited mutation in the spotted wing drosophila, *Drosophila suzukii*. *Sci Rep*. 2017;7:12363.
18. Hall AB, Basu S, Jiang X, Qi Y, Timoshevskiy VA, Biedler JK, et al. A male-determining factor in the mosquito *Aedes aegypti*. *Science*. 2015;348:1268–70.
19. Aryan A, Anderson MAE, Biedler JK, Qi Y, Overcash JM, Naumenko AN, et al. *Nix* alone is sufficient to convert female *Aedes aegypti* into fertile males and *myo-sex* is needed for male flight. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2020;117:17702–9.
20. Koskinioti P, Augustinos AA, Carvalho DO, Misbah-ul-Haq M, Pillwax G, de la Fuente LD, et al. Genetic sexing strains for the population suppression of the mosquito vector *Aedes aegypti*. *Phil Trans R Soc B*. 2018;2021:20190808.
21. Bhalla SC, Craig GB. Linkage analysis of chromosome I of *Aedes aegypti*. *Can J Genet Cytol*. 1970;12:425–35.
22. Munstermann LE, Craig GB. Genetics of *Aedes aegypti*. *J Hered*. 1979;70:291–6.
23. Scussel S, Gaudillat B, Esnault J, Lejarre Q, Duployer M, Messaoudi D, et al. Optimization of dieldrin selection for the genetic sexing of *Aedes albopictus*. *Insects*. 2023;14:630.
24. Spinner SAM, Barnes ZH, Puinean AM, Gray P, Dafaalla T, Phillips CE, et al. New self-sexing *Aedes aegypti* strain eliminates barriers to scalable and sustainable vector control for governments and communities in

- dengue-prone environments. *Front Bioeng Biotechnol.* 2022;10:975786. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fbioe.2022.975786>.
25. Lebon C, Benlali A, Atyame C, Mavingui P, Tortosa P. Construction of a genetic sexing strain for *Aedes albopictus*: a promising tool for the development of sterilizing insect control strategies targeting the tiger mosquito. *Parasites Vectors.* 2018;11:658.
 26. Lutrat C, Burckbuchler M, Olmo RP, Beugnon R, Fontaine A, Akbari OS, et al. Combining two genetic sexing strains allows sorting of non-transgenic males for *Aedes* genetic control. *Commun Biol.* 2023;6:646.
 27. FAO/IAEA. Report of the First Research Coordination Meeting on the "Generic approach for the development of genetic sexing strains for sterile insect technique applications." 2019. https://www.iaea.org/sites/default/files/20/11/d44003-rcm1report_20200304_0.pdf
 28. FAO/IAEA. Report of the Second Research Coordination Meeting on the "Generic approach for the development of genetic sexing strains for sterile insect technique applications." 2021. d44003-rcp2-report.pdf
 29. Ward CM, Aumann RA, Whitehead MA, Nikolouli K, Leveque G, Gouvi G, et al. White pupae phenotype of tephritids is caused by parallel mutations of a MFS transporter. *Nat Commun.* 2021;12:491.
 30. Sollazzo G, Nikolouli K, Gouvi G, Aumann RA, Schetelig MF, Bourtzis K. Deep orange gene editing triggers temperature-sensitive lethal phenotypes in *Ceratitis capitata*. *BMC Biotechnol.* 2024;24:7.
 31. Chen C, Compton A, Nikolouli K, Wang A, Aryan A, Sharma A, et al. Marker-assisted mapping enables effective forward genetic analysis in the arboviral vector *Aedes aegypti*, a species with vast recombination deserts. *Genetics.* 2021;21:142.
 32. Li M, Bui M, Yang T, Bowman CS, White BJ, Akbari OS. Germline Cas9 expression yields highly efficient genome engineering in a major worldwide disease vector *Aedes aegypti*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci.* 2017;114(49):E10540-E10549. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1711538114>.
 33. Wittkopp PJ, Carroll SB, Kopp A. Evolution in black and white: genetic control of pigment patterns in *Drosophila*. *Trends Genet.* 2003;19:495–504.
 34. Matthews BJ, Dudchenko O, Kingan SB, Koren S, Antoshechkin I, Crawford JE, et al. Improved reference genome of *Aedes aegypti* informs arbovirus vector control. *Nature.* 2018;563:501–7.
 35. FAO/IAEA. Guidelines for routine colony maintenance of *Aedes* mosquito species. Version 1.0. 2017. <https://www.iaea.org/sites/default/files/21/06/nafa-ipc-manual-guidelines-for-routine-colony-maintenance-of-aedes-mosquito-species-v1.0.pdf>
 36. Carvalho GB, Ja WW, Benzer S. Non-lethal PCR genotyping of single *Drosophila*. *Biotechniques.* 2009;46:312–4.
 37. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. 2022. <https://www.R-project.org/>
 38. Dunn PK, Smyth GK. Generalized linear models with examples in R, vol. 53. New York: Springer; 2018.
 39. Hartig F. DHARMA: Residual diagnostics for hierarchical (multi-level / mixed) regression models. 2021.
 40. Nelder JA, Wedderburn RWM. Generalized linear models. *J. R. Stat.* 1972;135:370.
 41. Liu J, Lemonds TR, Marden JH, Popadić A. A pathway analysis of melanin patterning in a hemimetabolous insect. *Genetics.* 2016;203:403–13.
 42. Futahashi R, Sato J, Meng Y, Okamoto S, Daimon T, Yamamoto K, et al. *yellow* and *ebony* are the responsible genes for the larval color mutants of the silkworm *Bombyx mori*. *Genetics.* 2008;180:1995–2005.
 43. Lamb AM, Wang Z, Simmer P, Chung H, Wittkopp PJ. Ebony affects pigmentation divergence and cuticular hydrocarbons in *Drosophila americana* and *D. novamexicana*. *Front Ecol Evol.* 2020;8:184.
 44. Asman SM. Three new sex-linked mutants in *Culex tarsalis* and their relationships in linkage group I. *J Hered.* 1980;71:195–8.
 45. Benedict MQ, Seawright JA, Anthony DW, Avery SW. *ebony*, a semidominant lethal mutant in the mosquito *Anopheles albimanus*. *Can J Genet Cytol.* 1979;21:193–200.
 46. Inoue S, Watanabe T, Hamaguchi T, Ishimaru Y, Miyawaki K, Nikawa T, et al. Combinatorial expression of *ebony* and *tan* generates body color variation from nymph through adult stages in the cricket, *Gryllus bimaculatus*. *PLoS ONE.* 2023;18:e0285934.
 47. Wittkopp PJ, True JR, Carroll SB. Reciprocal functions of the *Drosophila* *Yellow* and *Ebony* proteins in the development and evolution of pigment patterns. *Dev J.* 2002;129:1849–58.
 48. Gompel N, Prudhomme B, Wittkopp PJ, Kassner VA, Carroll SB. Chance caught on the wing: cis-regulatory evolution and the origin of pigment patterns in *Drosophila*. *Nature.* 2005;433:481–7.
 49. Xu X, Harvey-Samuel T, Yang J, You M, Alpey L. CRISPR/Cas9-based functional characterization of the pigmentation gene *ebony* in *Plutella xylostella*. *Insect Mol Biol.* 2021;30:615–23.
 50. Wilson R, Burnet B, Eastwood L, Connolly K. Behavioural pleiotropy of the *yellow* gene in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Genet Res.* 1976;28:75–88.
 51. Massey JH, Akiyama N, Bien T, Dreisewerd K, Wittkopp PJ, Yew JY, et al. Pleiotropic effects of *ebony* and *tan* on pigmentation and cuticular hydrocarbon composition in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Front Physiol.* 2019;10:518.
 52. Zhang L, Martin A, Perry MW, Van Der Burg KRL, Matsuoka Y, Monteiro A, et al. Genetic basis of melanin pigmentation in butterfly wings. *Genetics.* 2017;205:1537–50.
 53. Bi H, Xu J, He L, Zhang Y, Li K, Huang Y. CRISPR/Cas9-mediated *ebony* knockout results in puparium melanism in *Spodoptera litura*. *Insect Sci.* 2019;26:1011–9.
 54. True JR. Insect melanism: the molecules matter. *Trends Ecol Evol.* 2003;18:640–7.
 55. Lezcano ÓM, Sánchez-Polo M, Ruiz JL, Gómez-Díaz E. Chromatin structure and function in mosquitoes. *Front Genet.* 2020;11:602949.
 56. Chandler CH, Chari S, Kowalski A, Choi L, Tack D, DeNieu M, et al. How well do you know your mutation? Complex effects of genetic background on expressivity, complementation, and ordering of allelic effects. *PLoS Genet.* 2017;13:e1007075.
 57. Wilson TG, Wang S, Beño M, Farkaš R. Wide mutational spectrum of a gene involved in hormone action and insecticide resistance in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Mol Genet Genomics.* 2006;276:294.
 58. Sakai RK, Baker RH, Iqbal MP. Genetics of *ebony*, a nonlethal recessive melanotic mutant in a mosquito. *J Hered.* 1972;63:275–9.
 59. Feng X, Kambic L, Nishimoto JHK, Reed FA, Denton JA, Sutton JT, et al. Evaluation of gene knockouts by CRISPR as potential targets for the genetic engineering of the mosquito *Culex quinquefasciatus*. *CRISPR J.* 2021;4:595–608.
 60. Phillips PC. Epistasis — the essential role of gene interactions in the structure and evolution of genetic systems. *Nat Rev Genet.* 2008;9:855–67.
 61. Liu Y, Ramos-Womack M, Han C, Reilly P, Brackett KL, Rogers W, et al. Changes throughout a genetic network mask the contribution of Hox gene evolution. *Curr Biol.* 2019;29:2157–2166.e6.
 62. Takahashi A. Pigmentation and behavior: potential association through pleiotropic genes in *Drosophila*. *Genes Genet Syst.* 2013;88:165–74.
 63. Williams AM, Ngo TM, Figueroa VE, Tate AT. The effect of developmental pleiotropy on the evolution of insect immune genes. *Genome Biol Evol.* 2023;15:evad044.
 64. Wittkopp PJ, Beldade P. Development and evolution of insect pigmentation: genetic mechanisms and the potential consequences of pleiotropy. *Semin Cell Biol.* 2009;20:65–71.
 65. Kyriacou CP, Burnet B, Connolly K. The behavioural basis of overdominance in competitive mating success at the *ebony* locus of *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Anim Behav.* 1978;26:1195–206.
 66. Paulo DF, Nguyen TNM, Ward CM, Corpuz RL, Kauwe AN, Rendon P, et al. The genetic basis of the black pupae phenotype in tephritid fruit flies. *bioRxiv.* 2024. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.06.07.597636>.
 67. Hu B, Jin J, Guo AY, Zhang H, Luo J, Gao G. GSDS 2.0 an upgraded gene feature visualization server. *J Bioinform.* 2015;31:1296–7.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.