

1 **Mosquito host background influences microbiome-ZIKV interactions in field and**  
2 **laboratory-reared *Aedes aegypti***

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26

27 **Abstract**

28 The mosquito microbiota represents an intricate assemblage of microorganisms, comprising  
29 bacteria, fungi, viruses, and protozoa. Factors modulating microbiome abundance and  
30 composition include host genetic background, environmental parameters, and pathogen  
31 exposure. Conversely, the microbiome profoundly influences pathogen infection of the  
32 mosquito host and thus harbours considerable potential to impact the transmission of vector-  
33 borne diseases. As such, there is a growing interest in using the microbiome in novel vector-  
34 control strategies, including exploiting the natural ability of some microbes to interfere with  
35 infection of the vectors by pathogens. However, before novel microbiome-based vector  
36 control approaches can move towards translation, a more complete understanding of the  
37 interactions between mosquitoes, their microbiome, and the pathogens they transmit, is  
38 required to better appreciate how variation in the microbiome of field mosquitoes affects  
39 these interactions. To examine the impact of the host background and the associated  
40 diversity of microbiomes within distinct hosts, but without artificially manipulating the  
41 microbiome, we exposed several laboratory-reared and field-collected *Aedes aegypti*  
42 mosquito lines to Zika virus (ZIKV) and correlated their microbial load and composition to  
43 pathogen exposure and viral infection success. We observed significant differences in ZIKV  
44 exposure outcomes between the different mosquito lines and their associated microbiomes,  
45 and found that ZIKV alteration of the microbiomes was distinct in different lines. We also  
46 identified microbial taxa correlating with either ZIKV infection or a lack of infection. In  
47 summary, our study provides novel insights into the variability of pathogen interactions within  
48 the mosquito holobiont. A more complete understanding of which factors influence the  
49 tripartite interactions between *Aedes* mosquitoes, their microbiome, and arboviral  
50 pathogens, will be critical for the development of microbial-based interventions aimed at  
51 reducing vector-borne disease burden.

52

53 **Author summary.**

54 The mosquito microbiome composition differs within an individual across its development, as  
55 well as between individual mosquitoes at the same developmental stage, and between  
56 spatially or genomically different mosquito populations. The microbiome is highly relevant for  
57 the ability of mosquitoes to transmit pathogens. Furthermore, certain microbes have been  
58 shown to influence pathogen infection of the mosquito, while conversely, infection with a  
59 pathogen can alter the mosquito microbiome. However, we have a poor understanding how  
60 universally conserved these pathogen-related effects observed in a specific host-microbiome  
61 combination are in different mosquito populations with their respective microbiomes. To  
62 address this, we infected different mosquito lines, either reared in the laboratory or caught in  
63 the field and examined the microbiomes after exposure to Zika virus (ZIKV) compared to

64 unchallenged microbiomes. We also examined how the virus infection progressed in  
65 different mosquito lines and correlations with further microbiome changes. The observed  
66 microbiome responses differed between host lines, potentially due to either different  
67 microbiomes associated with the respective hosts. Alternatively, the host may respond  
68 differently to the viral infection, which subsequently alters the microbiome in a distinct  
69 manner, or a combination of host and microbiome effects may occur. As microbes are being  
70 evaluated for novel approaches to control mosquito-borne disease, our findings are highly  
71 relevant to contribute to a more complete understanding of host-microbe interactions which  
72 will be critical to develop these approaches. Variation of the microbiome of different  
73 mosquito lines need to be considered in experimental designs and when interpreting results  
74 from specific studies. It is especially relevant for deployment of interventions in the field  
75 where microbial variability is known to be higher and where variation is observed between  
76 mosquito populations.

77

78

## 79 **Background**

80 The mosquito and its associated microbial community collectively form the mosquito  
81 holobiont, a complex ecosystem with multi-layered interactions [1]. The host-microbe  
82 interactions influence several phenotypes of the mosquito host such as growth and  
83 development, reproduction, and the ability to transmit pathogens, all of which are important  
84 for vectorial capacity [2]. The microbiome composition is influenced by the mosquito host  
85 genetic background but also multiple other factors including environmental parameters,  
86 microbe-microbe interactions and exposure to pathogens [3-9]. Variability of microbiomes  
87 could therefore be an explanation for the variation seen in the vector competence of different  
88 mosquito lines of the same species [10-14].

89

90 Interactions between microbes and pathogens are bi-directional and include direct and  
91 indirect effects, with the microbiome affecting the outcomes of infection with human  
92 pathogens, and conversely pathogen infection altering the microbiome composition and  
93 abundance. Bi-directional interactions can be mediated by insect immunity, given that both  
94 pathogens and microbes elicit and are modulated by these pathways [15, 16]. Additionally,  
95 microbes can directly affect pathogen infection via the production of compounds affecting the  
96 parasites or arboviruses [17-19]. These direct microbiome-pathogen interactions can both  
97 positively and negatively affect mosquito susceptibility to pathogens. For instance, in *Aedes*  
98 *aegypti*, some isolates of *Serratia* have been implicated in enhancing susceptibility to  
99 dengue virus (DENV) infection, whereas members of the *Rosenbergiella* genus impair vector  
100 competence to both DENV and Zika virus (ZIKV) [17, 19]. Whilst these studies focus on  
101 specific bacterial taxa with distinct effects in particular host lines, we were interested in  
102 understanding how the collective microbiome interacts with arboviruses and vice versa, and  
103 how conserved the observed interactions are between different host backgrounds.

104

105 In addition, much of our insight on the tripartite interactions between the host, their microbes,  
106 and pathogens, is derived from laboratory-based studies on long-term, inbred mosquito  
107 lines, where the involvement of the microbiome is often assessed by perturbation. This is  
108 typically achieved by administration of antibiotics to alter the microbiome; however, this  
109 approach also impacts host fitness and mitochondria. It does not necessarily completely  
110 clear the microbiota, but rather generates a highly artificial situation of a limited or a heavily  
111 biased microbiome [7, 20, 21]. Alternatively, microbes can be introduced into mosquitoes  
112 either at the aquatic stages in the larval water, or to adults via a sugar meal, and can thus be  
113 added to an already existing microbiome. This may reduce the level of disruption of the  
114 holobiont system, and mimic administration approaches that could occur in control  
115 interventions. Using this approach, field collected bacterial strains have been shown to

116 modulate vector competence [6]. While such manipulation experiments provide evidence for  
117 the microbiomes' role in vector competence, and in the case of the latter, provide candidates  
118 for microbial control, they do not comprehensively address how variability in the microbiome  
119 influences tripartite interactions.

120

121 Exploiting the natural microbiome variation observed in mosquitoes, and particularly those in  
122 the field, offers a potential avenue to further explore the role of the microbiome on mosquito  
123 phenotypes, including vector competence. In this study, we used this natural microbiome  
124 variability to examine tripartite interactions between distinct *Ae. aegypti* mosquito lines, their  
125 microbiomes, and ZIKV. To address how differences in the microbiota between and within  
126 mosquito populations altered interactions with ZIKV, we collected host-seeking females from  
127 different geographic regions, provided them with an infectious ZIKV blood meal, and  
128 monitored viral infection status, viral loads post infection, and microbiome composition.  
129 Additionally, using two different laboratory-reared *Ae. aegypti* colonies, we examined if  
130 microbiomes responded to pathogen infection in a similar fashion in differing host  
131 backgrounds. We show that different mosquito lines, that have difference in host genetics  
132 and associated microbiomes, can profoundly alter ZIKV-microbiome interactions. Our results  
133 highlight the complexity of tripartite interactions in mosquitoes, and are important to consider  
134 for the development of microbial-based control strategies.

135

## 136 **Methods**

### 137 **Mosquito lines**

138 Field mosquitoes were collected outdoors over a three-day period, in Austin, Galveston, and  
139 Brownsville (Texas, USA). On each day, host-seeking mosquitoes were captured using CDC  
140 Fay-Prince traps for three hours at dawn and dusk, with collection cups replaced every hour.  
141 Mosquitoes were retrieved from traps and stored in large cartons kept within plastic bins  
142 containing a moist sponge for humidity and provided with 10% sucrose until their arrival at  
143 the insectaries of the University of Texas Medical Branch (UTMB) (Galveston, Texas, USA).  
144 Mosquitoes were then anesthetized at 4°C and their species and sex were determined by  
145 morphological identification. Female *Ae. aegypti* were transferred to new cages. Laboratory  
146 reared mosquito lines used in this study were Galveston and Rio Grande Valley (RGV), two  
147 recently established colonies at UTMB, the former for three generations and the latter for six.  
148 All mosquito lines were maintained under standard insectary conditions at UTMB (27°C and  
149 80% humidity) and fed with 10% sucrose.

150

### 151 **Viral strains and mosquito infections**

152 The viral strain used in this study was ZIKV MEX 1-7 (KX247632.1), isolated from *Ae.*  
153 *aegypti* in Mexico in 2016 [22]. The virus was acquired as a lyophilized stock from the World  
154 Reference Center for Emerging Viruses and Arboviruses at UTMB. It was cultured in C6/36  
155 cells, an *Ae. albopictus*-derived cell line, followed by four passages in the mammalian Vero  
156 cell line to generate stocks. Vero cells were maintained in high-glucose Dulbecco's modified  
157 Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 5% foetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1%  
158 penicillin/streptomycin at 37°C and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Cages of laboratory-reared and field-collected  
159 mosquitoes were starved for 18 hours before being offered a blood meal spiked with ZIKV  
160 (10<sup>6</sup> FFU/ml) (Austin N=113, Galveston N=40, Brownsville N=19, Galveston-lab N=57, RGV-  
161 lab N=85). Bloodmeals were offered five days post-pupal eclosion to lab mosquitoes and  
162 one to three days post collection to field mosquitoes. Mosquitoes that did not feed were  
163 removed. Galveston and RGV lab-reared mosquitoes were offered an uninfected bloodmeal  
164 (Galveston-lab N=40, RGV-lab N=40) as a control. Ten days after blood feeding, mosquitoes  
165 were euthanised and assessed for ZIKV infection using focus forming assays, and the  
166 microbiome was characterised using qPCR and 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing (**Figure 1**).

167

#### 168 **Focus forming assay**

169 Individual mosquitoes that had fed on an infected bloodmeal were surface sterilized (5  
170 minutes in 70% ethanol followed by three washes in PBS for five minutes each) and  
171 homogenized in 500 µl of tissue culture medium (DMEM supplemented with 5% FBS, 1%  
172 penicillin/streptomycin and 1% amphotericin) using a TissueLyser II (Qiagen) for five minutes  
173 at 60 Hz. Mosquito samples were serially diluted and inoculated onto Vero cells in 48-well  
174 plates and overlaid with 0.8% methylcellulose in DMEM. Mosquito bodies and legs were  
175 used to determine viral infection or dissemination, respectively. Plates were washed with  
176 PBS, incubated at 37°C for four days and fixed with 50:50 methanol:acetone. Foci were  
177 stained using a mouse hyperimmune polyclonal anti-ZIKV primary antibody (World  
178 Reference Center for Emerging Viruses and Arboviruses, UTMB) and HRP-labelled goat  
179 anti-mouse secondary antibody (KPL, Gaithersburg, MD). ZIKV foci were then visualized  
180 using an aminoethylcarbazole (AEC) detection kit (Enzo Diagnostics, Farmingdale, NY)  
181 according to the manufacturer's protocol.

182

#### 183 **Estimation of bacterial density**

184 Genomic DNA was extracted from 250 µl of the homogenate, obtained from the material  
185 used for focus forming assay, using the NucleoSpin Tissue kit (Macherey-Nagel) as  
186 previously described and used as template for qPCR [23]. Universal bacterial 16S rRNA  
187 primers and the housekeeping S7 gene primers were used as previously described [23-25].  
188 Relative gene expression was calculated using the 2<sup>-ΔΔCt</sup> method [26]. Microbiome load

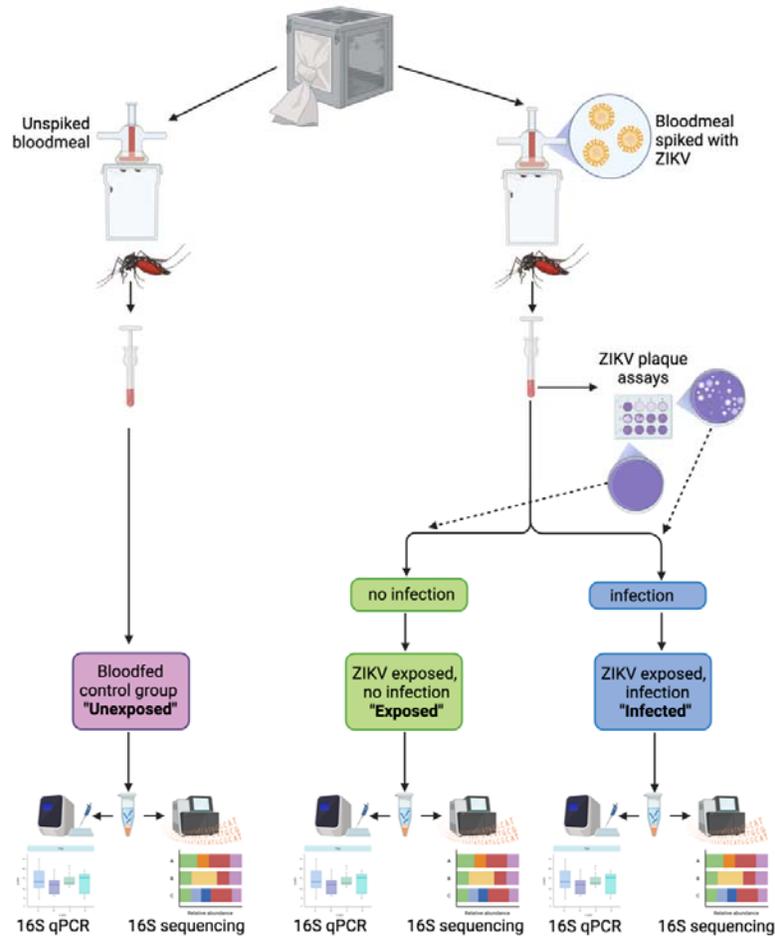
189 (16S/S7) data were analysed in RStudio (version 1.4.1717), density and Q-Q plots with the  
190 *ggpubr* package (version 0.6.0) and Shapiro-Wilk tests using the *stats* package (version  
191 4.3.2) [27, 28]. The data was not normally distributed in any of the groups, so Wilcoxon-Rank  
192 Test was used to compare the means using the *ggpubr* package.

193

#### 194 **Analysis of 16S rRNA amplicon sequences**

195 Genomic DNA from all mosquitoes was then used for high-throughput sequencing targeting  
196 the bacterial 16S ribosomal RNA gene. Sequencing libraries for each isolate were generated  
197 using universal 16S rRNA V3-V4 region primers following Illumina 16S rRNA metagenomic  
198 sequencing library protocols [29]. The samples were barcoded for multiplexing using Nextera  
199 XT Index Kit v2. Sequencing was performed on an Illumina MiSeq instrument using a MiSeq  
200 Reagent Kit v2 (500 cycles). Quality control and taxonomical assignment of the resulting  
201 reads was performed using CLC Genomics Workbench 8.0.1 Microbial Genomics Module  
202 (<http://www.clcbio.com>). Low quality reads containing nucleotides with a quality threshold  
203 below 0.05 (using the modified Richard Mott algorithm), as well as reads with two or more  
204 unknown nucleotides or sequencing adapters were removed. Reference based OTU  
205 selection was performed using the SILVA SSU v128 97% database [30]. Sequencing of 16S  
206 failed for seven samples (five field collected individuals (Austin) and two unexposed  
207 individuals (RGV)). Chimeras were removed from the dataset if the absolute crossover cost  
208 was 3 using a k-mer size of 6. Data were then transferred to RStudio (version 1.4.1717) for  
209 subsequent analyses. Samples with fewer than 2,000 reads were removed (18 from Austin,  
210 one from Galveston-field, one from Brownsville, two from Galveston-lab and six from RGV-  
211 lab), resulting in a final data set comprising 359 samples (90 from Austin, 39 from Galveston-  
212 field, 18 from Brownsville, 95 from Galveston-lab and 117 from RGV-lab; (**Table S1; Figure**  
213 **S1**)). Data were then converted to a phyloseq object using the *Phyloseq* package [31].  
214 Diversity parameters (Shannon entropy and Bray-Curtis distance) were assessed using the  
215 *vegan* package [32]. Shannon diversity index data were tested for normality using density  
216 and Q-Q plots and Shapiro-Wilk tests. All data groups failed tests for normality, so a  
217 Wilcoxon-Rank Test was used to compare the means. Overall differences in beta diversity  
218 between groups was carried out using permutational multivariate analysis of variance  
219 (PERMANOVA) testing using the 'Adonis2' function in the *vegan* package with subsequent  
220 pairwise testing using the *PairwiseAdonis* package [33]. Beta diversity was visualised using  
221 NMDS plots and ellipses were added to the plots using the 'stat\_ellipse' function in *ggplot2*  
222 using the default 95% confidence levels assuming multivariate t-distribution [34].  
223 Determination of differentially abundant taxa between groups was calculated using Analysis  
224 of compositions of microbiomes with bias correction (ANCOM-BC) [35]. A heatmap showing  
225 differentially abundant taxa in RGV-lab mosquitoes to Galveston-lab mosquitoes for each of

226 the three groups (unexposed, exposed and infected) was generated using the *phetmap*  
227 package using the ANCOM-BC results [36].  
228



229

230 **Figure 1. Experimental design for ZIKV infection of lab-reared *Ae. aegypti* lines.** After  
231 ZIKV infectious blood meals mosquitoes were designated into groups termed “Exposed”  
232 indicating exposure but a lack of infection, or “Infected”, indicating infection of ZIKV in  
233 mosquitoes. An “Unexposed” group consisted of blood meal without virus.  
234

## 235 Results

### 236 Mosquito line influences the ZIKV-microbiome interaction

237 To investigate whether interactions between ZIKV and the microbiome differ when using *Ae.*  
238 *aegypti* from different backgrounds, we fed two laboratory-reared *Ae. aegypti* lines  
239 (Galveston-lab and RGV-lab) with either a non-infectious bloodmeal (unexposed control  
240 group) or a bloodmeal spiked with ZIKV. Subsequently, we assessed the latter group for viral  
241 infection and categorised them as exposed (no ZIKV infection detected) or infected (ZIKV  
242 infection detected in the midgut). Only a subset of mosquitoes developed an infection, and  
243 this percentage differed significantly between lines, with 44% infection in RGV-lab

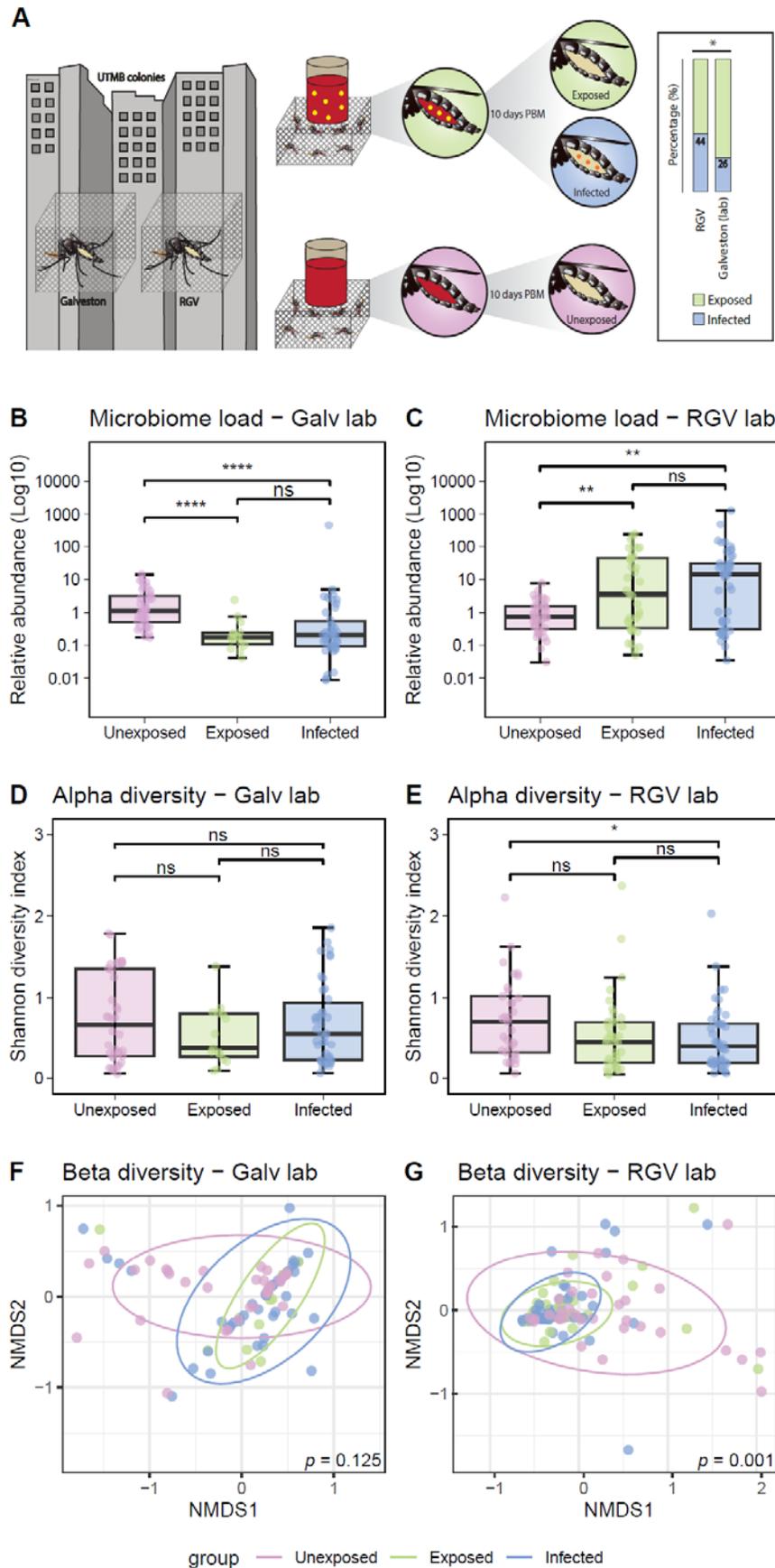
244 mosquitoes and 26% infection in Galveston-lab mosquitoes (Chi-square,  $p=0.04$ ) (**Figure**  
245 **2A**).

246

247 To assess whether ZIKV affected the microbiomes of these two distinct laboratory-reared  
248 mosquito lines in a similar fashion, we compared density, diversity, and composition of the  
249 microbiome among the three groups (unexposed, exposed, and infected) for each host line.  
250 In the Galveston-lab line, ZIKV exposure and infection led to a reduction in bacterial density  
251 compared to unexposed (Wilcoxon Rank Test,  $p<0.0001$ ) (**Figure 2B**). Conversely, in the  
252 RGV-lab line, ZIKV exposure and infection resulted in an increase in bacterial density  
253 (Wilcoxon Rank Test,  $p<0.01$ ) (**Figure 2C**). In the Galveston-lab line, neither ZIKV exposure  
254 nor infection caused significant differences in alpha or beta diversity (**Figure 2D, F**).  
255 However, ZIKV infection led to a significant reduction in Shannon's diversity of the RGV lines  
256 microbiome (Wilcoxon Rank Test,  $p<0.05$ ) (**Figure 2E**), while both exposure and infection  
257 significantly altered beta diversity compared to unexposed (PERMANOVA,  $p<0.01$ ) (**Figure**  
258 **2G**).

259

260 To evaluate whether the native microbiome was different between the two mosquito lines,  
261 we examined the diversity of the unaltered (ZIKV-unexposed) microbiome. While no  
262 significant difference was observed in alpha diversity between the lines (**Figure 3A**), beta  
263 diversity displayed a significant difference (PERMANOVA,  $p=0.006$ ) (**Figure 3B**). These  
264 findings suggested that the differential impact of ZIKV on the RGV-lab and Galveston-lab  
265 lines may be attributed, at least partially, to the distinct composition of their microbiomes  
266 prior to infection. To elucidate whether ZIKV exposure and infection similarly affect  
267 microbiome composition in the two distinct lab lines, we characterised the microbiomes of  
268 unexposed, exposed and infected individuals in individuals from each line. Irrespective of  
269 ZIKV infection status, both host lines were dominated by *Acetobacteraceae* (**Figure 3C,D**)  
270 but members of the *Enterobacteriaceae* family were notable in the Galveston-lab line.



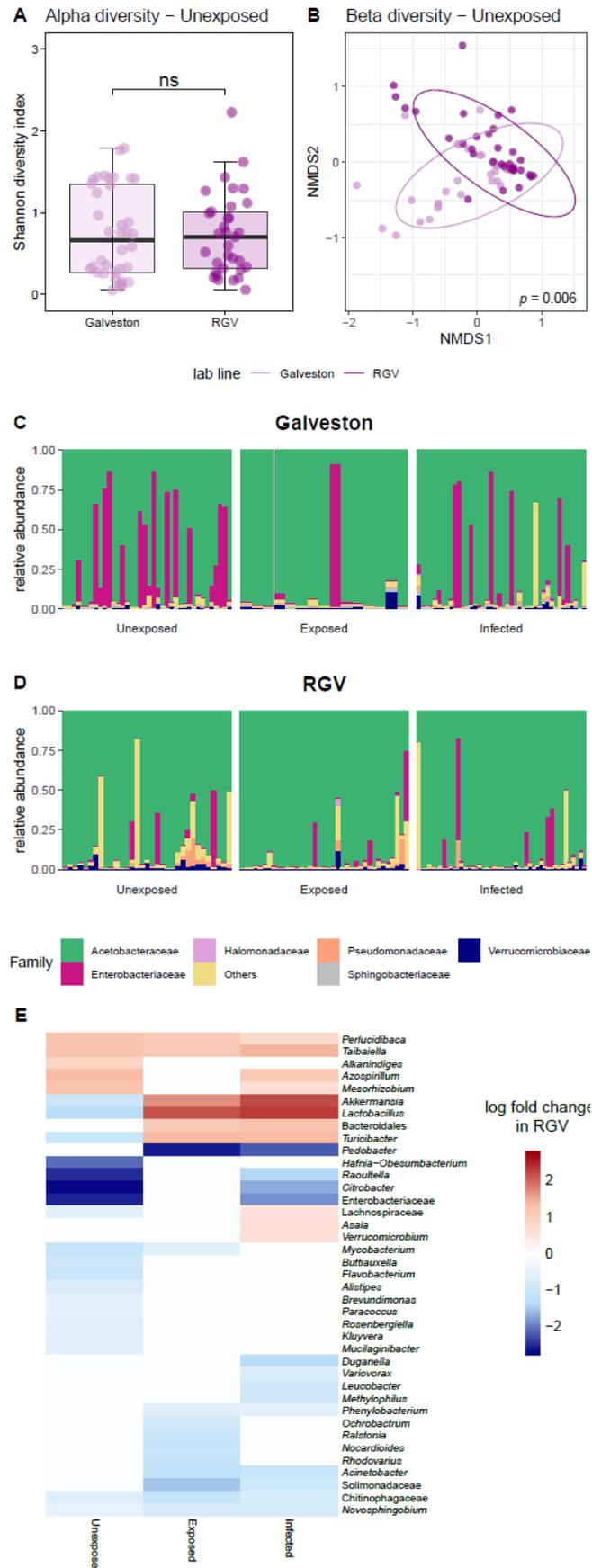
272

273 **Figure 2. Viral infection of lab-reared mosquitoes and impact on the microbiome.** Two  
274 *Ae. aegypti* lines reared in the insectaries of UTMB, Galveston (N=97) and Rio Grande  
275 Valley (RGV) (N=125), were offered a bloodmeal (red) spiked with ZIKV (yellow).  
276 Additionally, laboratory-reared mosquitoes were offered an uninfected bloodmeal  
277 (unexposed, pink). Ten days post bloodmeal (PBM) infection was assessed and mosquitoes  
278 were classified in exposed (ZIKV was not detected) (green) or infected (ZIKV was detected)  
279 (blue). Infection rate was assessed (right) and statistical difference is shown as \* (Chi-  
280 square,  $p < 0.05$ ) (**A**). Relative abundance of bacterial 16S rRNA was measured in Galveston  
281 (**B**) and RGV (**C**) mosquitoes. Alpha diversity (Shannon diversity index) of the microbiome  
282 was assessed in Galveston (**D**) and RGV (**E**) mosquitoes. Statistical differences are shown  
283 as \*\*\*\* ( $p < 0.0001$ ), \*\* ( $p < 0.01$ ), \* ( $p < 0.05$ ) and ns (non-significant) (Wilcoxon Rank Test).  
284 Beta diversity of the microbiome was assessed in Galveston (**F**) and RGV (**G**) mosquitoes.  $p$   
285 values show results of PERMANOVA analysis of Bray-Curtis dissimilarity. Subsequent  
286 pairwise testing of beta diversity indicated in the RGV group, there were statistically  
287 significant differences between both unexposed vs. exposed and unexposed vs. infected  
288 (both  $p < 0.003$ ).  
289

290

291 The two mosquito lines, which were derived from different regions, had distinct microbiome  
292 compositions, potentially leading to certain microbial taxa responding differently to ZIKV  
293 exposure and infection. To identify whether particular taxa show opposing trends between  
294 lines, we examined differential abundance in the microbiome composition between the  
295 Galveston-lab and RGV-lab lines, considering each condition. A total of 39 taxa exhibited  
296 significant differential abundance between the two lines when comparing each condition  
297 separately (**Figure 3E**). *Turicibacter*, *Akkermansia* and *Lactobacillus* showed the most  
298 pronounced changes. These bacteria had higher relative abundances in Galveston-lab  
299 mosquitoes in the unexposed cohort but this shifted in the infected and exposed groups with  
300 increases in the RGV-lab line. Conversely, both ZIKV exposure and infection resulted in a  
301 relative decrease of *Pedobacter* and *Acinetobacter* in RGV-lab mosquitoes compared to  
302 Galveston-lab mosquitoes. Taken together, these findings demonstrate the specific microbial  
303 taxa in distinct mosquito lines respond differently to ZIKV exposure and infection.

304



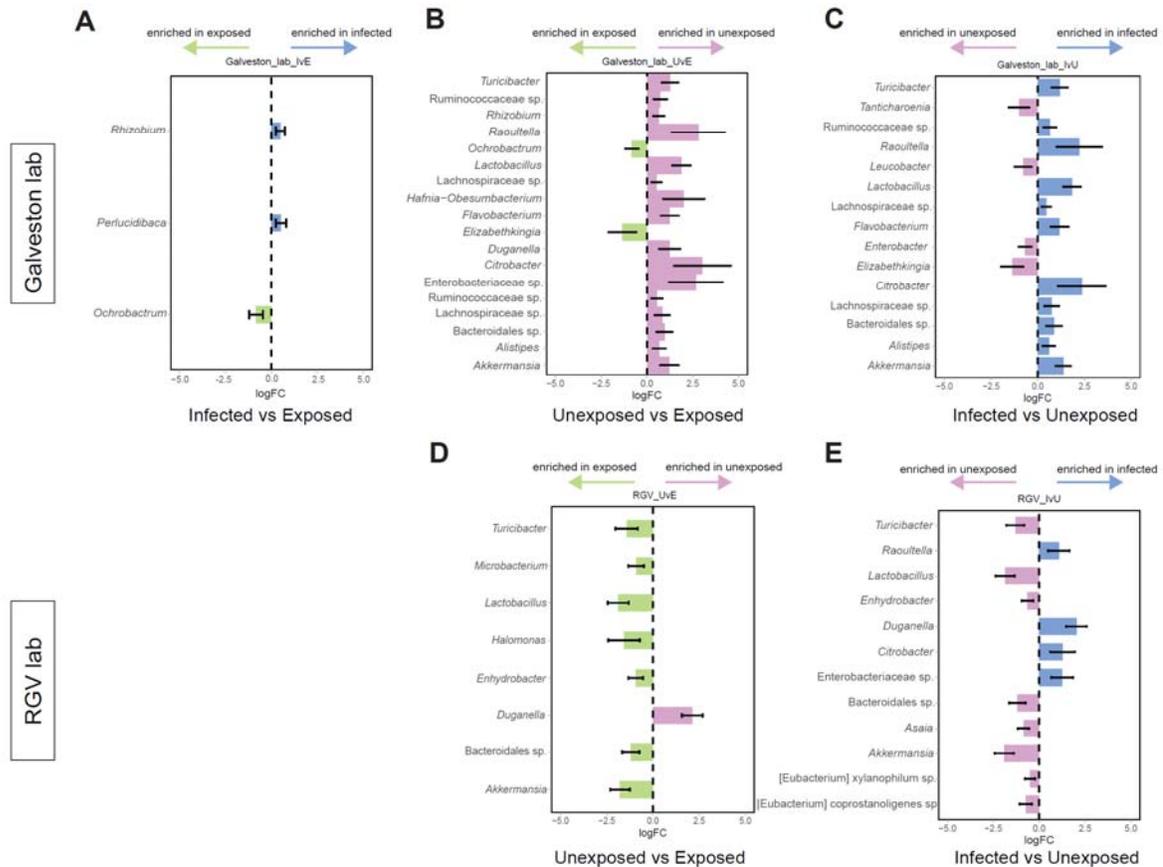
306 **Figure 3. Comparison of microbiome diversity between *Ae. aegypti* laboratory lines.**  
307 Alpha diversity (A) and beta diversity (B) were assessed in unexposed RGV and Galveston  
308 mosquitoes. Statistical differences are shown as ns (non-significant) (Wilcoxon Rank Test). *p*  
309 values show results of PERMANOVA analysis of Bray-Curtis dissimilarity. Relative  
310 abundance of bacterial families was explored in Galveston (C) and RGV (D) mosquitoes  
311 either unexposed, ZIKV exposed or ZIKV infected. The heatmap shows the ANCOM-BC  
312 results (adjusted *p*-value<0.05) of enriched taxa (red) or depleted taxa (blue) in RGV  
313 mosquitoes in comparison with Galveston mosquitoes within the unexposed, ZIKV-infected  
314 and ZIKV-exposed groups (E).  
315

316

### 317 **Bacterial taxa correlate with ZIKV infection in *Ae. aegypti***

318 Next, we examined whether variation in the microbiome correlated to viral infection in the  
319 mosquito. We therefore examined the differential abundance of the microbiome, comparing  
320 the infection status (exposed and infected) in both the RGV-lab and Galveston-lab lines. We  
321 saw no differentially abundant bacteria in the RGV-lab line, while three bacteria were  
322 different in the Galveston-lab line; a *Rhizobium* and *Perlucidaca* were more prevalent in  
323 infected mosquitoes while *Ochrobactrum* was enriched in exposed mosquitoes (Figure 4A).  
324 To determine how the presence of the virus in the mosquito midgut shaped the microbiome,  
325 we also compared unexposed mosquitoes to both exposed and infected. Here we saw more  
326 profound effects with several taxa altered. In Galveston-lab mosquitoes, the majority of  
327 differentially abundant bacteria were more enriched in the unexposed group, and only  
328 *Ochrobactrum* and *Elizabethkingia* were enriched in the exposed group (Figure 4B). Four  
329 bacteria (*Tanticharoenia*, *Leucobacter*, *Enterobacter*, *Elizabethkingia*) were enriched in the  
330 infected group (Figure 4C). Conversely, the majority of taxa that showed significant changes  
331 in the RGV-lab line were enriched in the exposed or infected group compared to the  
332 unexposed control (Figure 4D,E), further highlighting the distinction between these two lab  
333 lines.

334



335

336 **Figure 4. Differential abundance of microbes based on infection status.** ANCOM  
 337 (adjusted  $p$ -value  $<0.05$ ) was used to identify taxa that were enriched in exposed (green) or  
 338 infected (blue) Galveston mosquitoes (**A**). No differentially abundant taxa were identified in  
 339 RGV mosquitoes. Differentially abundant taxa comparing unexposed to exposed (**B,D**) and  
 340 unexposed to infected (**C,E**) in Galveston (**B,C**) and RGV (**D,E**) mosquitoes. Colours indicate  
 341 taxa enriched in unexposed (pink), exposed (green) and infected (blue) mosquitoes.  
 342

#### 343 **Microbiome-ZIKV interactions in field-collected mosquitoes**

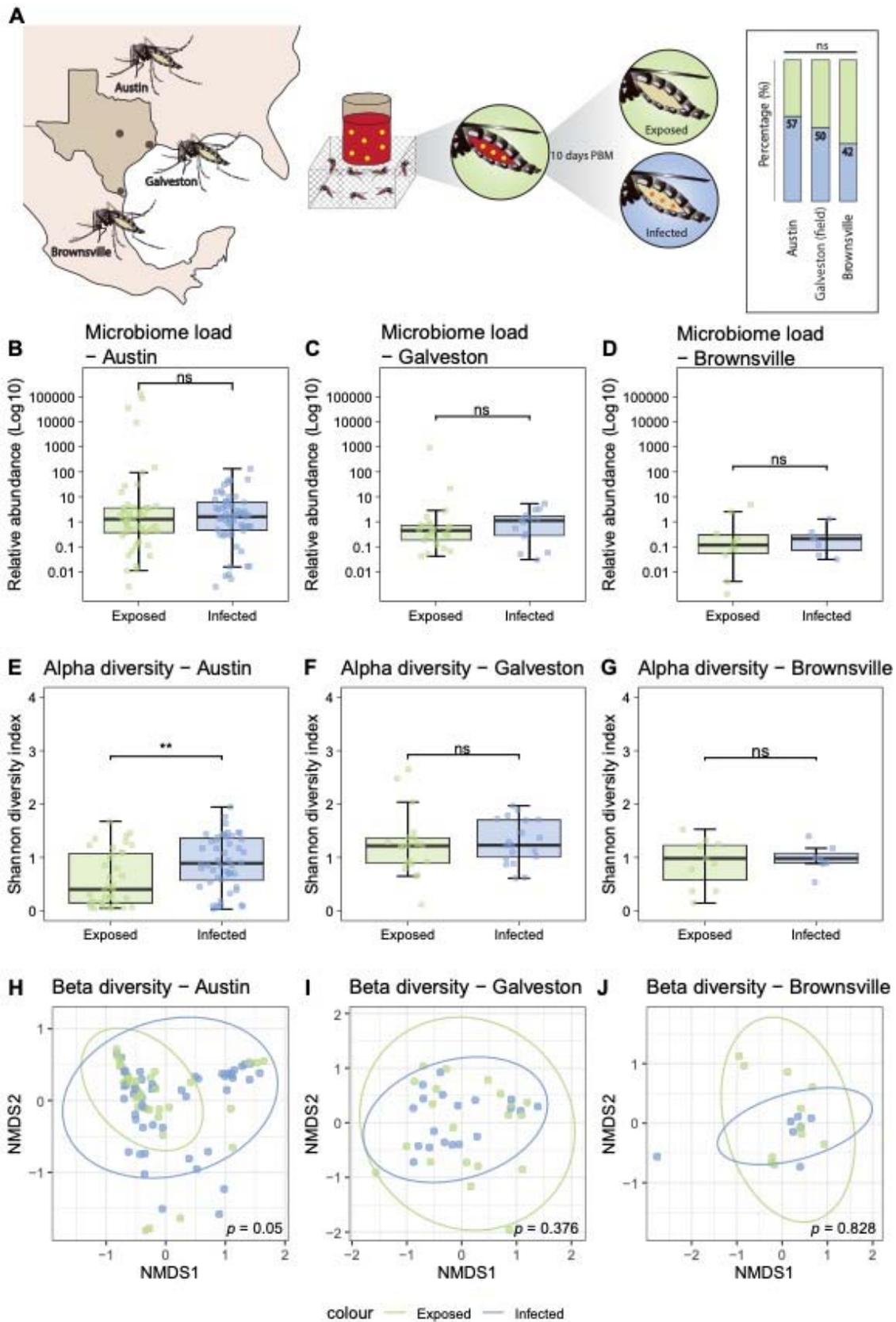
344 In order to ascertain whether our insights from laboratory findings would be representative of  
 345 observations from field conditions, we examined if different mosquitoes collected from the  
 346 field influenced progression of ZIKV infection. Host seeking *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes were  
 347 caught in three regions in Texas and immediately offered a blood meal spiked with ZIKV.  
 348 After 10 days, virus infection status, microbiome composition and load were determined.  
 349 Infection status was evaluated as done previously, whereby mosquitoes were categorised as  
 350 exposed, if the virus did not progress, or infected if virus infection in the midgut could be  
 351 determined. The prevalence of infection was comparable across sites, with infection rates  
 352 recorded at 57%, 50% and 42% in mosquitoes collected in Austin, Galveston, and  
 353 Brownsville, respectively (**Figure 5A**).  
 354

355 We first confirmed that the microbiome of field collected mosquitoes differed compared to  
356 their lab-counterparts by comparing Galveston-field to Galveston-lab mosquitoes from within  
357 the exposed or infected groups. Both the alpha and beta diversity was significantly different  
358 when comparing lab to field mosquitoes (**Figure S2**). To further explore microbiome  
359 dynamics associated with ZIKV infection in field-collected mosquitoes, we examined the  
360 relative abundance of bacterial taxa in ZIKV-exposed and ZIKV-infected mosquitoes. Across  
361 all locations, no taxa were significantly differentially abundant when comparing infected and  
362 exposed groups. *Acetobacteraceae* represented the major microbiome component in Austin-  
363 field mosquitoes, while *Pseudomonadaceae* were more prevalent in Galveston-field  
364 mosquitoes (**Figure S3**).

365

366 To examine the impact of the microbiome on ZIKV infection in mosquitoes from three  
367 geographically distant locations, we conducted a comparative analysis of the microbiome  
368 between exposed and infected mosquitoes from each field site. We observed no differences  
369 in the bacterial load following viral infection in mosquitoes from any location (**Figure 5B-D**).  
370 However, when examining the diversity of the microbiome in exposed and infected  
371 mosquitoes from each location, significant differences in alpha (Wilcoxon Rank Test,  $p < 0.01$ )  
372 and beta (PERMANOVA,  $p = 0.04$ ) diversity uniquely observed in mosquitoes collected from  
373 Austin (**Figure 5E-J**).

374



375

376

377 **Figure 5. ZIKV infection of field-collected *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes and impact of virus**  
378 **on the microbiome load and diversity.** Field collected *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes were  
379 collected from three locations in Texas; Austin (N=113), Galveston (N=40) and Brownsville  
380 (N=19), and offered a ZIKV infected blood meal. Infection was assessed and mosquitoes  
381 were classified in exposed (ZIKV was not detected, green) or infected (ZIKV was detected,  
382 blue). Infection rate was assessed (right) and statistical difference is shown as \* (Chi-square,  
383  $p < 0.05$ ) (A). Relative abundance of bacterial 16S rRNA in Austin (B), Galveston (C) and  
384 Brownsville (D) mosquitoes. Alpha diversity (Shannon diversity index) of the microbiome in  
385 Austin (E), Galveston (F) and Brownsville (G) mosquitoes. Statistical differences are shown  
386 as \*\* ( $p < 0.01$ ) and ns (non-significant) (Wilcoxon rank test). Beta diversity of the microbiome  
387 in Austin (H), Galveston (I) and Brownsville (J) mosquitoes. Pairwise PERMANOVA was  
388 used for statistical analysis of the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity distance of microbiomes (bottom  
389 right of panel).

390

## 391 Discussion

392

393 The microbiome of mosquitoes is highly variable and shaped by factors such as the  
394 environment, host, and microbial interactions [37, 38]. As such, mosquitoes of the same  
395 species collected in different geographical settings often harbour diverse microbiomes.  
396 Similarly, colonisation of mosquitoes alters their microbiome which is often less diverse  
397 compared to their field counterparts, while mosquitoes reared in distinct insectaries can  
398 exhibit considerable variation in their microbiome [4, 39]. It is therefore imperative to  
399 understand how microbiome variation influences vector competence and how universal  
400 these effects are between distinct mosquito lines. Here we show that ZIKV infection  
401 modulates the microbiome of mosquitoes in a host-line dependant manner. Importantly, we  
402 demonstrate this in both lab-reared and field-collected mosquitoes that have distinct  
403 microbiomes of differing complexity.

404

405 While a range of diverse arboviruses have been shown to alter the mosquito microbiome [6,  
406 40-43], the effect on different mosquito lines had not yet been examined. We showed that  
407 viral exposure or infection of two lab colonies resulted in profoundly different microbial  
408 responses. An infectious blood meal reduced the total bacterial load of Galveston-lab  
409 mosquitoes yet increased load in the RGV-lab line. Similarly, we saw differences between  
410 the two lab lines in the alpha and beta diversity when comparing the unexposed to infected  
411 groups. In corroboration of our results for the RGV-lab group, Chikungunya virus (CHIKV)  
412 infection reduced alpha diversity in *Ae. aegypti*; however, in contrast, another study has  
413 shown that both ZIKV and La Crosse virus (LACV) infection increased bacterial richness in  
414 *Ae. aegypti*, *Ae. japonicus* and *Ae. triseriatus* [41, 42]. Importantly, we also found variable  
415 effects of viral infection and exposure on the microbiome in field collected samples. Infection  
416 altered both alpha and beta diversity of mosquito microbiomes collected in Austin but not  
417 those collected from Brownsville or Galveston. Our sampling was conducted in three

418 regions in Texas, however more granular sampling may be required to examine within region  
419 differences in a mosquito population. To delve further into the difference seen in the lab-  
420 reared lines we examined bacterial taxa that differed between the viral exposed and infected  
421 groups which could accounts for the observed shifts in the microbiome. In the Galveston-lab  
422 line, bacteria including *Pedobacter*, *Enterobacter* and *Citrobacter* were significantly enriched  
423 in infected individuals, while *Lactobacillus*, *Akkermansia*, and *Turicibacter* were enriched in  
424 exposed and infected RGV-lab mosquitoes. Both *Enterobacter* and *Citrobacter* have been  
425 shown to increase in abundance after a CHIKV infection in *Aedes albopictus* mosquitoes  
426 [40, 44].

427

428 We were also interested in correlating microbes that were differentially abundant in infected  
429 compared to exposed individuals as these were potential microbes that could facilitate or  
430 interfere with infection respectively. Again, we saw distinct differences between the lines,  
431 with *Rhizobium* and *Perlucidibace* more prevalent in the infected while *Ochrobactrum* was  
432 more abundant in the exposed individuals in the Galveston-lab line, but no differentially  
433 abundant bacteria were found in the RGV-lab line. Little is known about these species in  
434 mosquitoes although *Ochrobactrum* has been associated with insecticide resistant  
435 mosquitoes [45]. In contrast, we saw no differentially abundant bacteria between exposed  
436 and infected groups in field collected mosquitoes. This could be related to these mosquitoes  
437 harbouring a more diverse microbiome or that life histories and age of field collected  
438 mosquitoes were unknown but likely less uniform compared to the lab-reared mosquitoes.  
439 Alternatively, it could be due to changes in the microbiome post viral exposure. In our  
440 experiments we assessed both ZIKV infection and the microbiome at 10 days post exposure  
441 to an infectious blood meal. However, the microbiome is dynamic and changes over the  
442 course of the mosquito's life, and these changes may mask initial differences that influenced  
443 virus progression at the time of blood feeding [46]. Supporting this is the finding microbiome  
444 differences were less pronounced in ZIKV-infected mosquitoes at 21 compared to seven dpi,  
445 suggesting that microbiomes reverted toward the non-infectious state over time, potentially  
446 as the immune response returns to baseline or due to prolonged sugar feeding [41].

447

448 We also compared differentially abundant bacteria in unexposed mosquitoes to exposed and  
449 infected mosquitoes within a line. The bidirectionality of the system complicates  
450 understanding these interactions, as the presence of the microbe could affect pathogen  
451 progression or alternatively the presence of microbe may be indicative of their ability to  
452 persist within the pathogen-infected host compared to other members of the microbiome.  
453 Differences in bacterial abundance in the exposed group, whereby host immune pathways  
454 are triggered compared to the infected group, may be useful in differentiating between these

455 scenarios. The Galveston-lab and RGV-lab mosquitoes were distinct regarding these  
456 differences, with the majority of bacterial taxa more abundant in the unexposed Galveston-  
457 lab group, whereas the reverse was the case for the RGV-lab line. *Akkermansia*,  
458 *Bacteroidales*, and *Turicibacter* had contrasting infection patterns. When looking at specific  
459 bacterial taxa that are more well known for in their interactions with mosquitoes, saw the  
460 *Elizabethkingia* was enriched in the Galveston-lab line in exposed and infected groups.  
461 *Elizabethkingia* has previously been shown to have ZIKV blocking potential and the  
462 identification of its presence here in exposed and infected mosquitoes provides credence to  
463 the comparative design to identify bacteria with anti-pathogen effects [47]. *Asaia* was  
464 enriched in the infected in the RGV-lab line. It's dominance of the microbiome and known  
465 ability to influence pathogens makes it a candidate to further examine its influence on vector  
466 competence to ZIKV [48, 49]. *Tanticharoenia*, which belongs to the same family as *Asaia*,  
467 displayed a similar pattern to *Asaia* with greater abundance in the ZIKV infection Galveston-  
468 lab line.

469

470 While *Akkermansia* and *Turicibacter* are less well-known members of the mosquito  
471 microbiome, they have been observed in descriptive studies [43, 50, 51]. These bacteria are  
472 more recognized for their colonisation of mammalian guts and higher abundances of both  
473 these taxa were seen in the guts of *Plasmodium*-infected compared to uninfected mice,  
474 suggesting these bacteria are modulated by infection in general across diverse hosts [52-  
475 54]. While the mechanism(s) are unclear, it is known that *Turicibacter* is modulated by  
476 serotonin in vertebrates. In mosquitoes, ZIKV infection can alter serotonin levels of the  
477 neurotransmitter, Serotonin, so this could be a potentially under-explored mechanism by  
478 which infection alters the microbiome [55]. Further work is required to determine if distinct  
479 mosquito lines have differential serotonin responses to infection which could lead to  
480 microbiome variation in response to pathogens.

481

482 It is well established that pathogen infection or microbiota colonization elicits an immune  
483 response in the mosquito and, in turn, these immune pathways interfere and control gut-  
484 associated bacteria and arboviruses, respectively [15, 16]. To that end, it has been  
485 postulated that insect immune pathways evolved alongside microbes and are used to  
486 maintain homeostasis of the gut microbiota, and these processes are particularly important  
487 for mosquitoes as they are immersed within these microbes in the larval environment [56].  
488 As such, there are intricate tripartite interactions at play whereby both pathogens and  
489 microbiome abundance and composition are modulated by one another's presence.  
490 Therefore, differences in immune profiles, microbiome compositions, and susceptibility of  
491 microbiota to host pathways could potentially explain the differential responses of the

492 microbiomes of distinct mosquito lines to viral infection. Distinct global transcription profiles  
493 are observed in different host backgrounds in response to viral infection or microbial  
494 colonization [57-61]. As such, the variable response to infection in the host could mediate  
495 divergent microbial outcomes. Further comparative studies examining the variation in the  
496 transcriptional response to infection in a controlled system, investigating how host pathways  
497 influence microbial composition, would likely provide insights to the mechanisms mediating  
498 variability seen in our studies.

499

500 Here, we employed an approach to exploit the natural variation in the microbiome in  
501 mosquitoes and correlated this to viral infection outcomes. Furthermore, our design  
502 investigated host-microbe-pathogen interactions without the need for artificial perturbation of  
503 the microbiome, which can have adverse effect on the host. However, we do appreciate  
504 there are caveats to our design which should be considered when interpreting our results.  
505 For example, while field caught mosquitoes have more biological relevant microbiomes, they  
506 do impose other challenges such as the unknown variables regarding their genetics, age, life  
507 history, exposure to pathogens, and previous blood feeding status. Our infection process  
508 required these adult mosquitoes to be housed in containment facilities, and the influence on  
509 the microbiome when of maintaining adults on sucrose in a lab-environment is not fully  
510 appreciated. Procedures which transplant field microbiomes to mosquitoes in the lab [62-64]  
511 could be used in conjunction with approaches here to overcome some of these caveats.  
512 Despite these challenges, our approach did illuminate our understanding of mosquito-  
513 microbiome-pathogen interactions.

514

515 In conclusion we show that exposure to, or infection with, ZIKV in *Ae. aegypti* lines alters  
516 their microbiome in distinct fashions. These differences were observed in both lab-reared  
517 and field-collected mosquitoes. Different bacterial taxa were modulated between mosquito  
518 lines which may be due to bacterial alteration of viral infection or the susceptibility of  
519 bacterial taxa after virus infection, which is likely mediated by host pathways. Our results  
520 highlight how variation of the microbiomes of mosquitoes needs to be considered for  
521 interpretation of lab-based experiments and implementation of microbial-based strategies for  
522 vector-borne disease.

523

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537

### 538 **Conflicts of interest**

539 None to declare.

540

### 541 **Author contributions**

542 Conceptualization – GLH, MAS; Data curation MAS, CCU, GG, KK; Formal analysis - MAS,  
543 CCU, GG, KK, LEB, EH; Funding acquisition GLH, SCW, EH; Investigation MAS, ALW;  
544 Methodology MAS, GG, KK, GLH; Project administration SCW, GLH; Resources SCW, GLH,  
545 ALW, EH; Software GG, KK; Supervision SCW, EH, GLH; Validation CCU, LEB, EH, GLH;  
546 Visualization CCU, LEB; Writing – original draft - MAS, CCU; Writing – review & editing -  
547 LEB, EH, GLH, SCW.

548

### 549 **Availability of data and materials**

550 The datasets generated, analysed, and supporting the conclusions of this article are  
551 available at **PRJNA1113645**, the detailed per-sample accession numbers are in Table S1.  
552 The R code used to analyse the data and produce all figures is publicly available at  
553 <https://github.com/grant-hughes-lab/Zika-microbiome-interactions> under zenodo id  
554 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14786744>.

555

556

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