Cat fleas in flux: Rampant gene duplication, genome size plasticity, and

paradoxical *Wolbachia* infection

Timothy P. Driscoll [1,^], Victoria I. Verhoeve [2,^], Joseph J. Gillespie [2,^,*], J. Spencer Johnston [3],

Mark L. Guillotte [2], Kristen E. Rennoll-Bankert [2], M. Sayeedur Rahman [2], Darren Hagen [4],

Christine G. Elsik [5,6,7], Kevin R. Macaluso [8], Abdu F. Azad [2]

Author details

[1] Department of Biology, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia

[2] Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Maryland School of Medicine,

Baltimore, Maryland

[3] Department of Entomology, Texas A&M University, College Station, Texas

[4] Department of Animal and Food Sciences, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma

[5] Division of Animal Sciences, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO, USA.

[6] Division of Plant Sciences, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO, USA.

[7] MU Informatics Institute, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO, USA.

[8] Vector-borne Disease Laboratories, Department of Pathobiological Sciences, School of

Veterinary Medicine, Louisiana State University

* Correspondence to: Joe Gillespie, JGillespie@som.umaryland.edu

[^] Contributed equally.

Running head: Cat fleas have inordinate copy number variation

Key words: *Ctenocephalides felis*; cat flea; genome; Hi-C assembly; PacBio sequencing;

25   *Wolbachia*; gene duplication; copy number variation; parasitism

Abstract

Background: Fleas (Insecta: Siphonaptera) are small flightless parasites of birds and mammals;

their blood-feeding can transmit many serious pathogens (i.e. the etiological agents of bubonic

plague, endemic and murine typhus). The lack of flea genome assemblies has hindered research,

especially comparisons to other disease vectors. Accordingly, we sequenced the genome of the

cat flea, *Ctenocephalides felis*, an insect with substantial human health and veterinary importance

across the globe.

Results: By combining Illumina and PacBio sequencing with Hi-C scaffolding techniques, we

generated a chromosome-level genome assembly for *C. felis*. Unexpectedly, our assembly

revealed extensive gene duplication across the entire genome, exemplified by ~38% of protein-

coding genes with two or more copies and over 4,000 tRNA genes. A broad range of genome

size determinations (433-551 Mb) for individual fleas sampled across different populations

supports the widespread presence of fluctuating copy number variation (CNV) in *C. felis*.

Similarly broad genome sizes were also calculated for individuals of *Xenopsylla cheopis*

(Oriental rat flea), indicating that this remarkable "genome-in-flux" phenomenon could be a

siphonapteran-wide trait. Nevertheless, cat flea genomes have not experienced substantial

inflation due to rampant CNV, nor do we find a significant reduction in gene families as has been

described for other parasites. Quizzically, individual fleas were found to be co-infected with

parasitic and symbiotic *Wolbachia*, both of which are novel strains unique to *C. felis*.

Conclusion: Rampant CNV in *C. felis* has dire implications for gene-targeting pest control

measures and stands to complicate standard normalization procedures utilized in comparative

transcriptomics analysis. Coupled with paradoxical co-infection with novel *Wolbachia*

endosymbionts, which are potential tools for blocking pathogen transmission, these oddities

highlight a unique and underappreciated human disease vector.

Background

With over 2,500 described species, fleas (Hexapoda: Siphonaptera) are small (~3 mm) flightless

insects that parasitize mainly mammals and birds [1]. Diverging from Order Mecoptera

(scorpionflies and hangingflies) in the Jurassic period [2], fleas are one of 11 extant orders of

Holometabola, a superorder of insects that collectively go through distinctive larval, pupal, and

adult stages. The limbless, worm-like flea larvae contain chewing mouthparts and feed primarily

on organic debris, while adult mouthparts are modified for piercing skin and sucking blood.

Other adaptations to an ectoparasitic lifestyle include wing loss, extremely powerful hind legs for

jumping, strong claws for grasping, and a flattened body that facilitates movement on host fur

and feathers.

The Oriental rat flea, *Xenopsylla cheopis*, and to a lesser extent the cat flea, *Ctenocephalides*

felis, transmit *Yersinia pestis*, the causative agent of bubonic plague [3–5]. Fleas that feed away

from their primary hosts (black rats and other murids) can introduce *Y. pestis* to humans, which

historically has eliminated a substantial fraction of the world's human population; e.g., the

Plague of Justinian and the Black Death [5]. Bubonic plague remains a significant threat to

human health [6,7] as do other noteworthy diseases propagated by flea infestations, including

murine typhus (*Rickettsia typhi*), murine typhus-like illness (*R. felis*), cat-scratch disease

(*Bartonella henselae*), and Myxomatosis (myxoma virus) [8,9]. Fleas also serve as intermediate

hosts for certain medically-relevant helminths and trypanosome protozoans [10]. In addition to

the potential for infectious disease transmission, flea bites are also a significant nuisance and can

lead to serious dermatitis for both humans and their companion animals. Epidermal burrowing

by the jigger flea, *Tunga penetrans*, causes a severe inflammatory skin disease known as

Tungiasis, which is a scourge on many human populations within tropical parts of Africa, the

Caribbean, Central and South America, and India [11,12]. Skin lesions that arise from flea

infestations also serve as sites for secondary infection. Collectively, fleas inflict a multifaceted

human health burden with enormous public health relevance [13].

Most flea species reproduce solely on their host; however, their ability to feed on a range of

different animals poses a significant risk for humans cohabitating with pets that are vulnerable to

flea feeding – which includes most warm-blooded, hairy vertebrates [14]. As such, fleas also

have a substantial economic impact from a veterinary perspective [15]. Many common pets are

susceptible to flea infestations that often cause intense itching, bleeding, hair loss, and potential

development of flea allergy dermatitis, an eczematous itchy skin disease. In the United States

alone, annual costs for flea-related veterinary bills tally approximately $4.4 billion, with another

$5 billion for prescription flea treatment and pest control [16]. Despite intense efforts to control

infestations, fleas continue to pose a significant burden to companion animals and their owners

[17].

Notwithstanding their tremendous impact on global health and economy, fleas are relatively

understudied compared to other arthropod disease vectors [18]. While transcriptomics data for

mecopteroids (Mecoptera + Siphonaptera) have proven useful for Holometabola phylogeny

estimation [2], assessment of flea immune pathways [19], and analysis of opsin evolution [20],

the lack of mecopteroid genomes limits further insight into the evolution of Antliophora

(mecopteroids + Diptera (true flies)) and severely restricts comparative studies of disease

vectors. Thus, sequencing flea genomes stands to greatly improve our understanding of the

shared and divergent mechanisms underpinning flea and fly vectors, a collective lineage

comprised of the deadliest animals known to humans [21]. To address this glaring void in insect

genomics and vector biology, we sequenced the genome of *C. felis*, a principal vector of *R. typhi*,

R. felis, and *Bartonella* spp. [22–25] and an insect with substantial human health and veterinary

importance across the globe [1].

Results

Pooled female fleas from the Elward Laboratory colony (Soquel, California; hereafter EL fleas)

were used to generate short (Illumina), long (PacBio), and chromatin-linked (Hi-C) sequencing

reads. A total of 7.2 million initial PacBio reads were assembled into 16,622 contigs (773.8 Mb;

N50 = 61 Kb), polished with short-read data, then scaffolded using Hi-C into 3,926 scaffolds

with a final N50 of 71.7 Mb. A total of 193 scaffolds were identified as arising from microbial

sources and removed before gene model prediction and annotation. A large fraction of the total

assembly (85.6%, or 654 Mb) was found in nine scaffolds (all greater than 10 Mb, hereafter

BIG9), while the remaining 14.4% (119.8 Mb) comprised scaffolds less than 1 Mb in length;

therefore, we suggest the *C. felis* genome contains nine chromosomes (**Fig. 1A**), an estimate

consistent with previously determined flea karyotypes [26,27]. The 3,724 shorter scaffolds (all

less than 1 Mb) mapped back to unique locations on BIG9 scaffolds (**fig. S1A**) but were not

assembled into the BIG9 scaffolds via proximity ligation. Comparison of *C. felis* protein-

encoding genes to the Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologues (BUSCO [28]) for

eukaryotes, arthropods, and insects indicates our BIG9 assembly is robust and lacks only a few

conserved genes (**fig. S1B**). As a result, we focus our subsequent analyses on the BIG9 scaffolds

unless otherwise noted.

The *C. felis* genome and unprecedented gene duplication

Previous work using flow cytometry estimated the size of the female *C. felis* genome at 465 Mb,

while our BIG9 assembly contained 654 Mb total bases (25% larger). Furthermore, BUSCO

analysis suggested that roughly 30% of conserved, single-copy Insecta genes in the BUSCO set

were duplicated in our assembly (**fig. S1B**). In order to investigate whether this duplication might

be widespread across the genome, and thereby account for the larger size of our assembly, we

used BLASTP to construct *C. felis*-specific protein families at varying levels of sequence identity

from 85-100%. Remarkably, 61% (10,088) of all protein-encoding genes in *C. felis* arise from

duplications at the 90% identity threshold or higher (**Fig. 1B**). Over 68% of these comprise true

(n=2) duplications, most of which occur as tandem or proximal loci less than 12 genes apart (**Fig.**

1C, fig. S1L). We observed little change in either the total number of duplications or the

distribution at thresholds below 90% identity; consequently, we define "duplications" here as

sequences that are 90% identical or higher (see **Methods**).

Duplications are on-going and rapidly diverging as evinced by: 1) their high concentration on

individual BIG9 scaffolds (**Fig. 1D**, **fig. S1**, **C** to **K**), 2) a lack of increasing divergence with

greater distance on scaffolds (**fig. S1L**), and 3) a lack of increasing divergence for duplicate

genes found across different scaffolds (**fig. S1M**). Among cellular functions for duplicate genes,

certain transposons and related factors (GO:0015074, "DNA integration") are enriched relative

to 6,430 single copy protein-encoding genes (**Fig. 1E**, **table S1**). However, the frequency and

distribution of these elements are dwarfed by total duplicate genes (**fig. S1N**). Additionally,

transposons and other repeat elements encompass only 10% of the genome (**fig. S1O**), indicating

that selfish genetic elements do not contribute significantly to the rampant gene duplication

observed. Thus, the *C. felis* genome is remarkable given that genes producing duplications

(n=3,863 or ~38% of total protein-encoding genes) are 1) indiscriminately dispersed across

chromosomes, 2) not clustered into blocks that would suggest whole or partial genome

duplications, and 3) not the product of repeat element-induced genome obesity.

The *C. felis* genome also carries an impressive number of tRNA-encoding genes (*n*=4,358 on

BIG9 scaffolds) (**Fig. 1A**). While tRNA gene numbers and family compositions vary

tremendously across eukaryotes [29], the occurrence of more than 1000 tRNA genes per genome

is rare (**Fig. 1F**). Notably, the elevated abundance of tRNA genes in *C. felis* is complemented by

an enrichment in translation-related functions among duplicated protein-coding genes (**Fig. 1E,**

table S1). While this possibly indicates increased translational requirements to accommodate

excessive gene duplication, it is more likely a consequence of the indiscriminate nature of the

gene duplication process. Relative to tRNA gene frequencies in other holometabolan genomes,

C. felis has several elevated (Arg, Val, Phe, Thr) and reduced (Gly, Pro, Asp, Gln) numbers of

tRNA families (**fig. S1P**); however, *C. felis* codon usage is typical of holometabolan genomes

(**fig. S1Q**). Like proliferated protein-encoding genes, the significance of such high tRNA gene

numbers is unclear but further accentuates a genome in flux.

Genome size estimation

Duplicated regions (including intergenic sequences) account for approximately 227 Mb of the *C.*

felis genome; when subtracted from the BIG9 assembly (654 Mb), the resulting "core" genome

size of 427 Mb is congruous with a previous flow cytometry-based genome size estimate (mean

of 465 Mb, range of 32 Mb) for cat fleas previously assayed from a different geographic locale

[30]. To determine if EL fleas possess a greater genome size due to pronounced gene

duplication relative to other cat fleas, we similarly used flow cytometry to estimate genome sizes

for individual EL fleas and compared them to the previous findings. As expected, mean genome

size was not significantly different between sex-matched *C. felis* from the two populations (p =

0.1299). Remarkably, however, no two individual EL fleas possessed comparable genome sizes,

with an overall uniform size distribution and relatively large variability (118 Mb) (**Fig. 2A**).

Indeed, the coefficient of variation for *C. felis* (0.13; n = 26) was 3.2X higher than that of either

Drosophila melanogaster (0.040; n = 26) or *D. viridis* (0.039; n = 26), which were prepared and

measured concurrently (**Fig. 2A**, inset), underscoring the extraordinary extent of inter-individual

variation in *C. felis*. Genome size estimates for another flea (the rat flea, *X. cheopis*, also sex-

matched) show a similar uniform distribution and range across individuals (**Fig. 2A**), pointing to

an extraordinary genetic mechanism that may define siphonapteran genomes.

Accordingly, we propose that our assembly captured a conglomeration of individual flea

copy number variations (CNV) that is cumulative for all expansions and contractions of

duplicate regions (**Fig. 2B**). The presence of extensive gene duplications is further supported by

mapping short read Illumina data to our assembly, which showed a significantly reduced mean

read depth across duplicated loci versus single-copy genes (**Fig. 2C**). As an alternative to CNV,

we considered that allelic variation could also be contributing to extensive gene duplication in

our assembly. To address this concern, we took three approaches. First, polished contigs were

scanned for haplotigs using the program *Purge Haplotigs* [31]; no allelic variants were detected.

Second, we mapped 1KITE transcriptome reads [2] generated from fleas of an unrelated colony

(Kansas State University) to our assembly (**Fig. 2D**). If our sequence duplication is a result of

allelic variation within the EL colony, we would expect to see a lack of congruence in the

distribution of transcripts mapping to single copy genes versus duplicates (different colonies with

different allelic variation). We might also expect to see a significant proportion of transcripts

that do not map at all. Instead, 91% of 1KITE reads map to CDS in our assembly, and the

distributions of transcripts mapping to single copy and duplicate genes are identical.

Third, we reasoned if sequence duplications are the result of misassembled allelic variants,

then most duplicate CDS within a cluster would be the same length. Alternatively, if

duplications are true CNVs, we would expect a significant number of truncations as a

consequence of gene purging associated with unequal crossing over. To assess this, we

determined the proportion of duplicate clusters with one or more truncated members, as well as

the extent of truncation relative to the longest member of the cluster (**Fig. 2E**). Approximately

70% of gene duplications are not comparable in length. In addition, mean extent of truncation is

25% or greater across all clusters regardless of % identity. Together with genome size

estimations, short read mapping analysis, and transcript mapping to our assembly, these data

indicate active gene expansion and contraction underpinning CNV in fleas and dispel allelic

variation as a significant contributor to gene duplication. While the cytogenetic mechanisms are

unclear, elevated numbers of DNA repair enzymes (GO:0006281) relative to genome size may

correlate with excessive CNV (**table S1**).

Genome evolution within Holometabola

Despite inordinate gene duplication, the completeness of the *C. felis* proteome as estimated by

occurrence of 1,658 insect Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologues (BUSCOs) is

congruous with those of other sequenced holometabolan genomes (**Fig. 3A**). Only one other

genome (*Aedes albopictus*) contains greater gene duplication among BUSCOs than *C. felis*;

however, this mosquito genome is much larger (~2 Gb) and riddled with repeat elements [32]. A

genome-wide analysis of shared orthologs among 53 holometabolan genomes indicates a slight

affinity of *C. felis* with Coleoptera, though the divergent nature of Diptera and availability of

only a single flea genome likely mask inclusion of fleas with flies (**Fig. 3B**). Overall,

phylogenomics analysis reveals that *C. felis* harbors 3,491 orthologs found in at least one other

taxon from each holometabolan order (**Fig. 3C**); however, only 577 "core" orthologs were

present in all taxa from every order (**Fig. 3C**, yellow bar), reflecting either incomplete genome

assemblies or an incredibly patchwork Holometabola accessory genome (**fig. S3A**). Other

conserved protein-encoding genes that define higher-generic groups (**Fig. 3C**, inset) will inform

lineage diversification within Holometabola (**table S2**). Conversely, 29 protein-encoding genes

absent in *C. felis* but conserved in Panorpida species (Antliophora + Lepidoptera (butterflies and

moths)) stand to illuminate patterns and processes of flea specialization via reduction (**fig. S3B**,

table S2). Overall, despite its parasitic lifestyle and reductive morphology, *C. felis* has not

experienced a significant reduction in gene families (**fig. S3B, table S2F**) as seen in other host-

dependent eukaryotes [33].

Unique cat flea genome features

C. felis protein-encoding genes that failed to cluster with other Holometabola (4,282 sequences

in 2,055 ortholog groups, **Fig. 3C**) potentially define flea-specific attributes. Elimination of

divergent "holometabolan-like" proteins, identified with BLASTP against the nr database of

NCBI, left 2,084 "unique" *C. felis* proteins (**Fig. 4A, table S3**). These include proteins lacking

counterparts in the NCBI nr database (n=766), and proteins with either limited similarity to

Holometabola or greater similarity to non-holometabolan taxa (n=1,318). Proteins comprising

the latter set were assigned an array of functional annotations (GO, KEGG, InterPro, EC) and

stand to guide efforts for deciphering flea-specific innovations (**Fig. 4B**, **table S3**).

Two isoforms (A and B) of resilin, an elastomeric protein that provides soft rubber-elasticity

to mechanically active organs and tissues, were previously identified in *C. felis* and proposed to

underpin tarsal-mediated jumping [34]. Resilins typically have 1) highly repetitive Pro/Gly

motifs that provide high flexibility, 2) key Tyr residues that facilitate intermolecular bonds

between resilin polypeptides, and 3) a chitin-binding domain (CBD), though *C. felis* isoform B

lacks the CBD [34,35]. The *C. felis* assembly has two adjacent genes encoding resilins (gray

box, **Fig. 4C**): the larger (680 aa) protein is more similar to both resilin A and B isoforms

identified previously (>99 %ID), while the smaller (531 aa) protein is more divergent (98.8

%ID). These divergent resilins accentuate the observed CNV in *C. felis* and indicate additional

genetic complexity behind flea jumping. Furthermore, a cohort of diverse proteins containing

multiple resilin-like features and domains were identified, opening the door for future studies

aiming to characterize the molecular mechanisms underpinning the great jumping ability of fleas.

The *C. felis* microbiome: evidence for symbiosis and parasitism

Analysis of microbial-like Illumina reads revealed a bacterial dominance, primarily represented

by *Proteobacteria* (**Fig. 5A**, **table S4**). Aside from the *Wolbachia* reads (discussed below), none

of the bacterial taxa match to species previously detected in environmental [36,37] or colony

fleas [38]. Thus, a variable bacterial microbiome exists across geographically diverse fleas and

is likely influenced by the presence of pathogens [38]. Strong matches to lepidopteran-

associated *Chrysodeixis chalcites* nucleopolyhedrovirus and *Choristoneura occidentalis*

granulovirus, as well as *Pandoravirus dulcis*, identify underappreciated viruses that may play

important roles in the vectorial capacity of *C. felis*.

Remarkably, two divergent *Wolbachia* genomes were assembled, circularized and annotated.

Named *w*CfeT and *w*CfeJ, these novel strains were previously identified (using 16S rDNA) in a

cat flea colony maintained at Louisiana State University [38–40], which historically has been

replenished with EL fleas. Robust genome-based phylogeny estimation indicates *w*CfeT is

similar to undescribed *C. felis*-associated strains that branch ancestrally to most other *Wolbachia*

lineages [36,41], while *w*CfeJ is similar to undescribed *C. felis*-associated strains closely related

to *Wolbachia* supergroups C, D and F [42] (**Fig. 5B**; **table S4**). The substantial divergence of

*w*CfeT and *w*CfeJ from a *Wolbachia* supergroup B strain infecting *C. felis* (*w*Cte) indicates a

diversity of Wolbachiae capable of infecting cat fleas.

*w*CfeT and *w*CfeJ are notable for carrying segments of WO prophage, which are rarely

present in genomes of Wolbachiae outside of supergroups A and B [43]. Further, each genome

contains features that hint at contrasting relationships with *C. felis*. *w*CfeT carries the unique

biotin synthesis operon (**Fig. 5C**), which was originally discovered in *Rickettsia buchneri* by us

[44] and later identified in certain *Wolbachia* [45–47], *Cardinium* [48,49] and *Legionella* [50]

species. Given that some *Wolbachia* strains provide biotin to their insect hosts [45,51], we posit

that *w*CfeT has established an obligate mutualism with *C. felis* mediated by biotin-provisioning.

In contrast, *w*CfeJ appears to be a reproductive parasite, as it contains a toxin-antidote (TA)

operon that is similar to the CinA/B TA operon of *w*Pip_Pel that induces cytoplasmic

incompatibility (CI) in flies [52]. CinA/B operons are analogous to the CidA/B TA operons of

*w*Mel and *w*Pip_Pel, which also induce CI in fly hosts [53–55], yet the CinB toxin harbors dual

nuclease domains in place of the CidB deubiquitnase domain [56] (**Fig. 5D**). Given that the

genomes of many *Wolbachia* reproductive parasites harbor diverse arrays of CinA/B-and

CidA/B-like operons [56,57], wCfeJ's CinA/B TA operon might function in CI or some other

form of reproductive parasitism. Quizzically, the co-occurrence of *w*CfeJ and *w*CfeT in

individual fleas (gel image in **Fig. 5B**) indicates dual forces (mutualism, parasitism) that

potentially drive their infection in EL fleas.

Discussion

We set out to generate a genome sequence for the cat flea, a surprisingly absent resource for

comparative arthropod genomics and vector biology. Our efforts to generate a *C. felis* assembly

brought forth an unexpected finding, namely that no two cat fleas share the same genome

sequence. We provide multiple lines of evidence supporting flea genomes in flux (**Table 1**).

Table 1. Evidence Supporting Extensive Gene Duplication in Cat Fleas.		
Approach	**Source**	**Key Points**
Genome size estimation	Fig. 2A, Fig S2	- *C. felis* from two populations have same mean genome size. - Individual cat fleas vary ~118 Mb in estimated genome size. - Individual rat fleas vary ~100 Mb in estimated genome size.
Long read assembly with proximity ligation	Fig. 1 Fig. S1, Table S5	- Nine scaffolds > 10 Mb are littered with gene duplications, which comprise 38% of protein coding genes. - No misassembly of allelic variants in the BIG9 scaffolds.
Transcript mapping	Fig. 2D	- 98% of duplicate genes have transcriptional support in RNA-Seq data from an independent colony (1KITE).
Short read mapping	Fig. 2C	- Short read data map with far greater depth to single-copy genes versus duplicate genes.
Assessment of duplication lengths	Fig. 2E	- 69% of duplications are divergent in length; heterogeneity in length and composition are positively correlated.

First, genome size estimations for over two dozen individual cat fleas from the EL colony

revealed over 150 Mb variation, a result consistent with prior genome size estimates for *C. felis*

from a different colony as well as rat fleas. Second, our haplotig-resolved assembly identified

rampant gene duplication throughout the genome. Third, RNA-Seq data from an independent

colony confirmed the pervasive gene duplication. Finally, ~70% of gene duplications are not

comparable in length, indicating active gene expansion and contraction. Since transposons and

other repeat elements are relatively sparse in *C. felis* and cannot account for such rampant CNV,

and given that no individual flea genome size was estimated to be larger than our BIG9

assembly, we posit that unequal crossing over and gene conversion continually create and

eliminate large linear stretches of DNA to keep the *C. felis* genome in a fluctuating continuum.

We favor this hypothesis over an ancient whole genome duplication event in Siphonaptera

provided that the majority of these duplications are tandem or proximal.

Ramifications of a genome in flux are readily identifiable. First, as gene duplication is a

major source of genetic novelty, extensive CNV likely affords *C. felis* with a dynamic platform

for innovation, allowing it to outpace gene-targeting pest control measures. Second, extensive

CNV will complicate standard normalization procedures utilized in comparative transcriptomics

analysis, requiring a more nuanced interpretation of standard metrics that are based on gene

length (i.e. RPKM, TPM, etc.). Furthermore, achieving high confidence with read-mapping to

cognate genes will be difficult in the face of neofunctionalization, subfunctionalization and early

pseudogenization, as well as dosage-based regulation of duplicate genes. Third, genetic markers

typically utilized for evolutionary analyses (e.g., phylotyping, population genetics,

phylogeography [58]) may yield erroneous results when applied to *C. felis* and related

Ctenocephalides species if targeted to regions of CNV (and particularly neofunctionalization).

Finally, as a *C. felis* chromosome-level genome assembly was only attainable by coupling

Illumina and PacBio sequencing with Hi-C scaffolding techniques, short-read based sequencing

strategies will be inadequate for other organisms with high CNV. The ability of the BIG9

assembly to serve as a reference genome in future short-read based sequencing efforts for other

cat fleas will be determined. Moving forward, newly developed low-input protocols for PacBio

sequencing will allow us to query individual fleas to robustly assess the degree of gene

duplication.

Excessive CNV in *C. felis*, and likely all Siphonaptera, requires the determination of the

genetic mechanisms at play. Why extreme gene duplication, when predicted across arthropods

using genomic and transcriptomic data [59], was not previously detected in fleas is unclear.

Excessive CNV aside, our study provides the first genome sequence for Siphonaptera, which will

substantially inform comparative studies on insect vectors of human disease. Furthermore,

newly-identified symbiotic (*w*CfeT) and parasitic (*w*CfeJ) *Wolbachia* will be paramount to

efforts for biocontrol of pathogens transmitted by cat fleas. The accrued resources and

knowledge from our study are timely. A drastic rise of murine typhus cases alone in Southern

California (https://www.cdph.ca.gov/Programs/CID/DCDC/Pages/Typhus.aspx) and Galveston,

Texas [60], which are directly attributable to fleas associated with increasing population sizes of

rodents and opossums, requires immediate and re-focused efforts to combat this serious and

underappreciated risk to human health.

Conclusion

Fleas are parasitic insects that can transmit many serious pathogens (i.e. bubonic plague,

endemic and murine typhus). The lack of flea genome assemblies has hindered research,

especially comparisons to other disease vectors. Here we combined Illumina and PacBio

sequencing with Hi-C scaffolding techniques to generate a chromosome-level genome assembly

for the cat flea, *Ctenocephalides felis*. Our work has revealed a genome characterized by

inordinate copy number variation (~38% of proteins) and a broad range of genome size estimates

(433-551 Mb) for individual fleas, suggesting a bizarre genome in flux. Surprisingly, the flea

genome exhibits neither inflation due to rampant gene duplication nor reduction due to their

parasitic lifestyle. Based on these results, as well as the nature and distribution of the gene

duplications themselves, we posit a dual mechanism of unequal crossing-over and gene

conversion may underpin this genome variability, although the biological significance remains to

be explored. Coupled with paradoxical co-infection with novel *Wolbachia* endosymbionts and

reproductive parasites, these oddities highlight a unique and underappreciated human disease

vector.

Methods

Experimental design

This study was undertaken to generate a high-quality reference genome assembly and annotation

for the cat flea, *C. felis*, and represents the first sequenced genome for a member of Order

Siphonaptera. Our approach leveraged a combination of long-read PacBio sequencing, short-

read Illumina sequencing, and Hi-C (Chicago and HiRise) data to construct a chromosome-level

assembly; RNA-seq data and BLAST2GO classifications to assist in gene model prediction and

annotation; sequence mapping to address assembly fragmentation and short scaffolds (<1Mb);

and ortholog group construction to explore a genetic basis for the cat flea's parasitic lifestyle.

Gene duplications were confirmed via orthogonal approaches, including genome size estimates

of individual fleas, gene-based read coverage calculations, genomic distance between

duplications, and correlation between duplications and repeat elements or contig boundaries.

Genome Sequencing and Assembly

Newly emerged (August 2017), unfed female *C. felis* (n = 250) from Elward Laboratories (EL;

Soquel, CA) were surface-sterilized for 5 min in 10% NaClO followed by 5 min in 70% C_2H_5OH

and 3X washes with sterile phosphate-buffered saline. Fleas were flash-frozen in liquid N_2 and

ground to powder with sterile mortar and pestle. High-molecular weight DNA was extracted

using the MagAttract HMW DNA Kit (Qiagen; Venlo, Netherlands), quantified using a Qubit

3.0 fluorimeter (Thermo-Fisher Scientific; Waltham, MA), and assessed for quality on a 1.5%

agarose gel. DNA (50 µg) was submitted to the Institute for Genome Sciences (University of

Maryland) for size-selection and preparation of sequencing libraries. Libraries were sequenced

on 12 SMRT cells of a PacBio Sequel (Pacific Biosciences; Menlo Park, CA), generating

7,239,750 reads (46.7 Gb total). Raw reads were corrected, trimmed, and assembled into 16,622

contigs with Canu v1.5 in "pacbio-raw" mode, using an estimated genome size of 465 Mb [30].

A second group of newly emerged (January 2016), unfed female EL fleas (n=100) was surface-

sterilized and homogenized as above, and genomic DNA extracted using the QIAgen DNeasy®

Blood and Tissue Kit (QIAgen, Hilden, Germany). DNA was submitted to the WVU Genomics

Core for the preparation of a paired-end 250bp sequencing library with an average insert size of

500bp. The library was sequenced on 4 lanes of an Illumina HiSeq 1500 (Illumina Inc.; San

Diego, CA), generating 450,132,548 reads which were subsequently trimmed to remove adapters

and filtered for length and quality using FASTX-Toolkit v0.0.14 (available from

http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/). These short read data were used to polish the Canu

assembly with Pilon v1.1.6 in "fix-all" mode [61], and to determine the composition of the *C.*

felis microbiome (see below). Haplotigs in the polished contigs were resolved using

purge_haplotigs [31] with coverage settings of 5 (low), 65 (mid), and 180 (high). A third group

of newly-emerged (Feburary 2018), unfed female EL fleas (n = 200) were surface-sterilized as

above, frozen at -80°C, and submitted for Chicago and Dovetail Hi-C proximity ligation

(Dovetail Genomics, Santa Cruz, CA) [62] using the polished Canu assembly as a reference.

The resulting scaffolded assembly (3,926 scaffolds) was subjected to removal of microbial

sequences as described in the next section.

Genome Decontamination

A comparative BLAST-based pipeline slightly modified from our prior work [63] was used to

identify and remove microbial scaffolds before annotation. Briefly, polished contigs were

queried using BLASTP v2.2.31 against two custom databases derived from the nr database at

NCBI (accessed July 2018): (1) all eukaryotic sequences (eukDB), and (2) combined archaeal,

bacterial, and viral sequences (abvDB). For each query, the top five unique subject matches (by

bitscore) in each database were pooled and scored according to a comparative sequence

similarity measure, S_m:

398 $$S_m = bIQ$$
399

400   where b is the bitscore of the match; I is the percent identity; and Q is the percent aligned

401   based on the longer of the two sequences. The top 5 scoring matches from the pooled lists of

402   subjects were used to calculate a comparative rank score C for each individual query q against

403   each database d:

404
$$C(q,d) = \frac{2(\sum_{n}^{i=1}(n - r_i(q,d)) + 1)}{n(n + 1)}$$

where $r_i(q,d)$ is the rank of subject i for query q against database d. For example, if all of the

top n matches for query q are in eukDB then $C(q,eukDB) = 1$; conversely, if none of the top n

matches are in database abvDB then $C(q,abvDB) = 0$. Finally, each query q was scored

according to a comparative pairwise score P between 1 (purely eukaryotic) and -1 (purely

microbial):

$$P = C(q,eukDB) - C(q,abvDB)$$
411

Scaffolds that contained no contigs with $P > 0.3$ (n = 183), including 5 *Wolbachia*-like

scaffolds, were classified "not eukaryotic" and set aside. Scaffolds that contained contigs with a

range of P scores (n = 32) were manually inspected to identify and remove scaffolds arising from

mis-assembly or contamination (n = 10). The remaining scaffolds (n = 3,733) comprised the

initial draft assembly for *C. felis* and were deposited in NCBI under the accession ID

GCF_003426905.1.

Genome Annotation

Assembled and decontaminated scaffolds were annotated with NCBI Eukaryotic Genome

Annotation Pipeline (EGAP) v8.1 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK143764/). To

facilitate gene model prediction, we generated RNA-seq data from 6 biological replicates of

pooled *C. felis* females (Heska Corporation, Fort Collins, CO). Briefly, total RNA was isolated

and submitted to the WVU Genomics Core for the preparation of paired-end, 100 bp sequencing

libraries using ScriptSeq Complete Gold Kit for Epidemiology (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA).

Barcoded libraries were sequenced on 2 lanes of an Illumina HiSeq 1500 in High Throughput

mode, yielding approximately 26 million reads per sample (Q > 30). Raw sequencing reads from

all 6 samples were deposited in NCBI under the BioProject accession PRJNA484943. In addition

to these data, the EGAP pipeline also integrated previously-published *C. felis* expression data

from the 1KITE project (accession SRX314844; [2]) and an unrelated EST library (Biosample

accession SAMN00161855). The final set of annotations is available as "Ctenocephalides felis

Annotation Release 100" at the NCBI.

Genome Completeness and Deflation

The distribution of scaffold lengths in our assembly, together with the relatively large number of

fleas in our sequenced pool, warranted evaluating short scaffolds as possible sources of genomic

heterogeneity among individual fleas. To address this possibility, assembly scaffolds shorter

than 1 Mb (n = 3,724) were mapped to scaffolds larger than 1 Mb (n = 9; the BIG9) with BWA-

MEM v0.7.12 [64] using default parameters (**fig. S1A**). Additionally, genome completeness of

the full assembly compared to just the BIG9 scaffolds was assessed with Benchmarking Using

Single Copy Orthologs (BUSCO) v3.0.2 [28] in "protein" mode, using the *eukaryota_odb9*,

arthropoda_odb9, and *insecta_odb9* data sets (**fig. S1B**). Isoforms were removed before

BUSCO analysis by identifying CDSs that derived from the same protein-coding gene and

removing all but the longest sequence.

Assessing the Extent of Gene Duplication

Proteins encoded on the BIG9 scaffolds (n = 16,518) were queried against themselves with

BLASTP v2.2.31 using default parameters. Pairs of unique sequences that met or exceeded a

given amino acid percent identity (%ID) threshold over at least 80% of the query length were

binned together. Bins of sequence pairs that shared at least one sequence in common were

subsequently merged into clusters. Isoforms were removed after clustering by identifying CDSs

in a cluster that derived from the same protein-coding gene and removing all but the longest

sequence. This process was used to generate cluster sets at integer %ID thresholds from 90% to

100%. These duplicate protein-encoding genes were then mapped onto each of the BIG9

scaffolds using Circos [65] (**fig. S1**, **C** to **K**). Cluster diameters were calculated as the number of

non-cluster genes that lie between the edges of the cluster (*i.e.*, the two cluster genes that are

farthest apart on the scaffold) (**fig. S1L**). Clusters that span multiple scaffolds (mapped across

all BIG9 scaffolds in **fig. S1M**) defy an accurate calculation of diameter and were assigned a

cluster diameter of -1. In order to estimate the fraction of our assembly comprising gene

duplications, cluster coverages (by %ID threshold) were calculated in three ways. First, the

coverage by CDS was estimated by comparing the number of single-copy (protein-encoding)

genes to the total number of clusters; the latter number is assumed to represent a theoretical set

of minimal "seed" sequences. Second, the *coverage by gene length* was calculated as the total

number of nucleotides encoding the proteins in each cluster (including introns and exons) minus

the mean gene length (to account for a hypothetical "ancestor" gene). Finally, the *coverage by*

genome region was estimated by adding $i*(n-1)$ to each calculation of coverage by gene length,

where n is the number of genes in the cluster and i is the mean intergenic length across all BIG9

scaffolds (17,344 nt). In order to assess possible enrichment of cellular functions among

duplicated genes, clusters at the 90% ID level were compared to the remaining BIG9 proteins by

Fisher's Exact Test (corrected for multiple testing) which is integrated into the FatiGO package

of BLAST2GO (see section "*Functional Classification of* C. felis *Proteins*" below). GO

categories were reduced to their most specific terms whenever possible.

Length Variation Within Gene Duplication Clusters

475   Variability in intra-cluster CDS length was assessed in two ways. First, the length of each CDS

476   in a cluster was compared to the longest CDS of the cluster, and the proportion of clusters with

477   any truncation (>1 AA) was calculated for each integer %ID threshold between 90 and 100% ID.

478   Second, the mean and distribution of length differences (i.e., the extent of truncation) was

479   calculated across all clusters for each integer %ID threshold between 90 and 100% ID.

Analysis of Repeat Regions

The extent and composition of repeat elements in the *C. felis* genome were assessed in two ways.

First, proteins annotated in the GO category "DNA Integration GO:0015074" (including

retrotransposons) were extracted, plotted by genomic coordinate on each BIG9 scaffold, and

assessed for co-localization either with gene duplicates (see above) or near the ends of scaffolds

(**fig. S1N**). Second, repeat elements were identified on the BIG9 scaffolds with RepeatMasker

v4.0.9 (available from http://www.repeatmasker.org/) in "RMBlast" mode (species

"holometabola"), using Tandem Repeat Finder v4.0.9 and the Repbase RepeatMasker (October

2018) and Dfam 3.0 databases (**fig. S1O**).

Codon Usage and tRNA Gene Family Analysis

Given the relatively large number of tRNA genes in our assembly, and the AT richness of our

genome, we were interested in exploring connections between tRNA gene frequencies and codon

usage. To this end, tRNA gene abundance on BIG9 scaffolds (n = 4,358) was determined by

binning genes into families according to their cognate amino acid and calculating the percent of

each family compared to the total number of tRNA genes (**fig. S1P**). A similar approach was

taken to quantify tRNA gene abundance by anticodon. TA richness of each anticodon was

subsequently calculated as the percent of A+T bases in the anticodon corrected for the size of the

tRNA family. Codon usage was calculated as the percent of total codons using the coding

sequences for genes on the BIG9 scaffolds, with isoforms removed as described previously (**fig.**

S1Q).

Functional Classification of *C. felis* Proteins

Protein sequences encoded on the BIG9 scaffolds (n = 16,518) were queried with BLASTP

v2.2.31 against the nr database of NCBI (accessed July 2018) using a maximum e-value

threshold of 0.1. The top 20 matches to each *C. felis* sequence were used to annotate queries

with Gene Ontology (GO) categories, Enzyme Classification (EC) codes, and protein domain

information using BLAST2GO v1.4.4 [66] under default parameters. A local instance of the GO

database (updated February 2019) was used for GO classification, and the online version of

InterPro (accessed April 2019) was used for domain discovery, including InterPro, PFAM,

SMART, PANTHER, PHOBIUS, and GENE3D domains; PROSITE profiles; SignalP-TM

(signal peptide) domains; and TMHMM (transmembrane helix) domains. InterPro data was used

to refine GO annotations whenever possible (**table S1**). A subset of *C. felis* proteins (n = 153)

classified as "DNA repair" (GO:0006281) was identified and all child GO terms of these proteins

tabulated (**table S1**). Assuming a linear relationship between genome size and number of repair

genes [67], we estimate *C. felis* has an enriched repertoire closer to that of a 3 Gb genome.

Genome Size Estimation

Estimations for flea genome size largely followed previously reported approaches [68]. For *C.*

felis individuals, 1/20 of the flea head was combined with two standards: 1/20 of the head of a

female (YW) *Drosophila melanogaster* (1C = 175 Mbp) and 1/20 of the head of a lab strain *D.*

virilis female (1C = 328). The tissues were placed in 1ml of cold Galbraith buffer and ground to

release nuclei in a 2ml Kontes Dounce, using 15 strokes of the "A" pestle at a rate of three

strokes every two seconds. The resulting solution was strained through a 45µ filter, stained for 3

hours in the dark at 4°C with 25µl of propidium iodide, then scored for total red fluorescence

using a Beckman-Coulter CytoFLEX flow cytometer. The average channel number of the 2C

nuclei of the sample and standards were determined using the CytExpert statistical software.

Briefly, the amount of DNA was estimated as the ratio of the average red fluorescence of the

sample to the average red fluorescence of the standard multiplied by the amount of DNA (in

Mbp) of the standard. The estimates from the two standards were averaged. At least 500 nuclei

were counted in each sample and standard peak. The coefficients of variation (CV) for all peaks

were < 2.0. Fluorescence activation and gating based on scatter were used to include in each

peak only intact red fluorescent nuclei free of associated cytoplasmic or broken nuclear tags.

Histograms generated for the largest and smallest determined genome sizes show the minimal

change in position for the two standards, demonstrating the significant change in the relative

fluorescence (average 2C channel number) between *C. felis* individuals (**fig. S2**).

Characterizing Copy Number Variation

In order to test the hypothesis that our genome assembly represents an agglomeration of

individuals with different levels of gene duplication, we used minimap2 [69] to map our short-

read sequence data against the full scaffolded assembly. After extracting the mapped reads with

samtools v0.1.19 [70], including primary and alternative mapping loci, a vector of sequence

depth (in bases) per position was generated with the genomecov function of bedtools v2.25.0

[71]. Mean depths for all 16,518 protein-coding genes on the BIG9 scaffolds were calculated as

total bases covering each gene divided by gene length. Finally, the mean depth across all

duplicated genes was compared to the mean depth across all single-copy genes using a Student's

t-test.

To evaluate the extent of gene duplication across different *C. felis* populations, reads from

the 1KITE transcriptome sequencing project (NCBI Sequence Read Archive accession

SRR921588) were mapped to the 3,733 scaffolds from our assembly using HISAT2 v2.1.0 [72]

under the --dta and --no_unal options. Mapped reads were sorted with samtools and abundance

per gene calculated as transcripts per million reads (TPM) using stringtie v1.3.4d [72]. TPM

values were binned and plotted against the number of duplicated (90% aa ID or higher) and

single-copy genes in the BIG9 assembly.

Comparative Genomics

Protein sequences (n=1,077,182) for 51 sequenced holometabolan genomes were downloaded

directly from NCBI (n=47) or VectorBase (n=3) or sequenced here (n=1). Isoforms were

removed before analysis wherever possible, by identifying CDSs that derived from the same

protein-coding gene and removing all but the longest CDS. Genome completeness was

estimated with BUSCO v3.0.2 in "protein" mode, using the *insecta_odb9* data set. Ortholog

groups (OGs; n=50,118) were constructed in three sequential phases: 1) CD-HIT v4.7 [73] in

accurate mode (-g 1) was used to cluster sequences at 50% ID; 2) PSI-CD-HIT (accurate mode,

local identity, alignment coverage minimum of 0.8) was used to cluster sequences at 25% ID; 3)

clusters were merged using clstr_rev.pl (part of the CD-HIT package). Proteins from *C. felis* that

did not cluster into any OG (n=4,282) were queried with BLASTP v2.2.31 against the nr

database of NCBI (accessed July 2018). Queries (n=2,170) with a top hit to any Holometabola

taxon, at a minimum %ID of 25% and query alignment of 80%, were manually added to the

original set of ortholog groups where possible (n=2,142) or set aside where not (n=28). The

remaining queries with at least one match in nr (n=1,318) were grouped by GO category level 4

and manually inspected; these included queries with top hits to Holometabolan taxa that did not

meet the minimum %ID or query coverage thresholds. Finally, *C. felis* proteins with no match in

nr (n=766) were binned by query length. These last two sets (n=2,084) comprise the set of

proteins unique to *C. felis* among all other Holometabola (**table S3**). Congruence between OG

clusters and taxonomy was determined by calculating a distance (Euclidean) between each pair

of taxa based on the number of shared OGs. The resulting matrix was scaled by classic

multidimensional scaling with the cmdscale function of R v3.5.1 [74], and visualized using the

ggplot package in R. Finally, pan-genomes were calculated for several key subsets of

Holometabola: 1) *C. felis* alone (Siphonaptera); 2) Antliophora (Siphonaptera and Diptera); 3)

Panorpida (Siphoanptera, Diptera, and Coleoptera); 4) all taxa except Hymenoptera; and 5) all

Holometabola (**table S2**). In order to account for differences in genome assembly quality and

taxon sampling bias, we define the pan-genome here as the set of all OGs that contain at least

one protein *from at least one taxon* in a given order. These intersections were visualized as upset

plots using UpSetR v1.3.3 [75]. Intersections of various holometabolous taxa that lack *C. felis*

were computed to gain insight on possible reductive evolution in fleas (**fig. S3**, **table S2**).

Microbiome Composition

A composite *C. felis* microbiome was estimated using Kraken Metagenomics-X v1.0.0 [76], part

of the Illumina BaseSpace toolkit. Briefly, 105,256,391 PE250 reads from our short read data set

were mapped against the Mini-Kraken reference set (12-08-2014 version), resulting in 2,390,314

microbial reads (2.27%) that were subsequently assigned to best possible taxonomy (**table S4**).

Assembly of *Wolbachia* Endosymbiont Genomes

Corrected reads from the Canu assembly of *C. felis* were recruited using BWA-MEM v0.7.12

(default settings) to a set of concatenated closed *Wolbachia* genome sequences (n=15)

downloaded from NCBI (accessed February 2018). Reads that mapped successfully were

extracted with samtools v0.1.19 and assembled separately into seed contigs (n=22) with Canu

v1.5 using default settings. Gene models on these seed contigs were predicted using the Rapid

Annotation of Subsystems Technology (RAST) v2.0 server [77], yielding two small subunit

(16S) ribosomal genes that were queried with BLASTN against the nr database of NCBI to

confirm the presence of two distinct *Wolbachia* strains. Seed contigs were further analyzed by

%GC and top BLASTN matches in the nr database of NCBI, and binned into three groups: *C.*

felis mitochondrial (n=1), *C. felis* genomic (n=6), and *Wolbachia*-like (n=15) contigs. The

Wolbachia-like contigs were subsequently queried with BLASTN against the full *C. felis*

assembly (before decontamination). A single *Wolbachia*-like contig (tig00000005; wCfeJ)

containing one of the two distinct 16S genes was retrieved intact from the full assembly. It was

removed from the primary assembly and manually closed by aligning the contig ends with

BLASTN. Gaps in the aligned regions were resolved by mapping our short read data to the

contig with BWA-MEM (default settings) and manually inspecting the read pileups. Six

additional contigs were also retrieved intact from the full assembly; these were likewise removed

and manually stitched together using end-alignment and short read polishing, resulting in a

second closed *Wolbachia* genome (*w*CfeT). The remaining *Wolbachia*-like contigs (n=8) were

found to be fractions of much longer flea-like contigs; these were left in the primary *C. felis*

assembly. Both *w*CfeJ and *w*CfeT sequences were submitted to the RAST v2.0 server for gene

model prediction and functional annotation.

Phylogenomics of *Wolbachia* Endosymbionts

Protein sequences (n=66,811) for 53 sequenced *Wolbachia* genomes plus 5 additional

Anaplasmataceae (*Neorickettsia helminthoeca* str. Oregon, *Anaplasma centrale* Israel, *A.*

marginale Florida, *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* Arkansas, and E. *ruminantium Gardel*) were either

downloaded directly from NCBI (n=30), retrieved as genome sequences from the NCBI

Assembly database (n=13), contributed via personal communication (n=8; Michael Gerth,

Oxford Brookes University), or sequenced here (n=2) (**table S4**). For genomes lacking

functional annotations (n=15), gene models were predicted using the RAST v2.0 server (n=12)

or GeneMarkS-2 v1.10_1.07 (n=3; [78]). Ortholog groups (n=2,750) were subsequently

constructed using FastOrtho, an in-house version of OrthoMCL [79], using an expect threshold

of 0.01, percent identity threshold of 30%, and percent match length threshold of 50% for

ortholog inclusion. A subset of single-copy families (n=47) conserved across at least 52 of the

58 genomes were independently aligned with MUSCLE v3.8.31 [80] using default parameters,

and regions of poor alignment were masked with trimal v1.4.rev15 [81] using the "automated1"

option. All modified alignments were concatenated into a single data set (10,027 positions) for

phylogeny estimation using RAxML v8.2.4 [82], under the gamma model of rate heterogeneity

and estimation of the proportion of invariant sites. Branch support was assessed with 1,000

pseudo-replications. Final ML optimization likelihood was -183020.639712.

Confirmation of the presence of *Wolbachia* in *C. felis*

To assess the distribution of *w*CfeJ and *w*CfeT in *C. felis*, individual fleas from the sequenced

strain (EL) and a separate colony (Heska) not known to be infected with *Wolbachia* were pooled

(n=5) by sex and colony, surface-sterilized with 70% ethanol, flash-frozen, and ground in liquid

N_2. Genomic DNA was extracted using the GeneJET Genomic DNA Extraction Kit (Thermo-

Fisher Scientific; Waltham, MA), eluted twice in 50µl of PCR-grade H_2O, and quantified by

spectrophotometry with a Nanodrop 2000 (Thermo-Fisher Scientific; Waltham, MA). 100ng of

DNA from each pool was used as template in separate 25 µl PCR reactions using AmpliTaq

Gold 360 (Thermo-Fisher Scientific; Waltham, MA) and primer pairs (400 nmoles each) specific

for: 1) a 76nt fragment of the *cinA* gene specific to *w*CfeJ (Fwd: 5'-

AGCAACACCAACATGCGATT-3'; Rev: 5'- GAACCCCAGAGTTGGAAGGG-3'); 2) a 75nt

fragment of the *apaG* gene specific to *w*CfeT (Fwd: 5'- GCCGTCACTGGCAGGTAATA-3';

Rev: 5'- GCTGTTCTCCAATAACGCCA-3'); or 3) a 122nt fragment of *Wolbachia* 16S rDNA

(Fwd: 5'- CGGTGAATACGTTCTCGGGTY-3'; Rev: 5'- CACCCCAGTCACTGATCCC-3').

Primer specificities were confirmed with BLASTN against both the *C. felis* assembly and the nr

database of NCBI (accessed June 2018). Reaction conditions were identical for all primer sets:

initial denaturation at 95°C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 30 sec, 60°C for 30

sec, and 72°C for 30 sec, and a final extension at 72°C for 7 min. Products were run on a 2%

agarose gel and visualized with SmartGlow Pre Stain (Accuris Instruments; Edison, NJ).

Primers were tested before use by quantitative real-time PCR on a CFX Connect (Bio-Rad

Laboratories; Hercules, CA).

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analyses were carried out in R v3.5.1. Mean coverages across duplicated (n=7852) and

single-copy (n=7061) genes at the 90% ID threshold were compared for significance using a

Welch Two Sample t-test (unpaired, two-tailed) with 12,930 degrees of freedom and a p-value <

2.2×10^{-16}. Mean coverage of duplicated genes at %ID thresholds from 85-100% were compared

for significance using one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with 15 degrees of freedom and

a p-value = 0.2. A similar ANOVA was used to compare single-copy genes at 85-100% ID

thresholds, with a p-value < 2.2×10^{-16}.

Data and Scripts

Data generated for this project that is not published elsewhere, including BLAST2GO

annotations and OG assignments, as well as custom analysis scripts, are provided on GitHub in

the "cfelis_genome" repository (available from https://github.com/driscollmml/cfelis_genome).

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate. Not applicable.

Consent for publication. Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials. All of the sequence data generated for this work are available

at the NCBI under Bioproject accessions PRJNA489463 (genome sequence and annotation) and

PRJNA484941 (RNA-seq data used to support annotation). Additional tables with GO

annotations, ortholog groups, and microbiome data, as well as scripts used to generate data

visualizations can be accessed at https://www.github.com/driscollmml/cfelis_genome.

Sequences for *w*CfeT and *w*CfeJ are available on NCBI under Bioproject PRJNA622233.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Funding. Research reported in this publication was supported by the National Institute of Health

(NIH)/National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID) grants R01AI017828 and

R01AI126853 to AFA, R21AI26108 and R21AI146773 to JJG & MSR, and R01AII122672 to

KRM. KER-B and MLG were supported in part by the NIH/NIAID Grants T32AI095190

(Signaling Pathways in Innate Immunity) and T32AI007540 (Infection and Immunity). TPD and

VIV were supported by start-up funding provided to TPD by West Virginia University. The

content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official

views of the funding agencies. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and

analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Authors' contributions. TPD, VIV, JJG, KRM, and AFA conceived this study and developed the

overall experimental framework. TPD, VIV, and KRM isolated genomic DNA from fleas.

MLG, KER-B, and MSR performed flea dissections and isolated RNA from flea midgut tissues.

TPD, VIV, JJG, DH, and CGE conceptualized the strategies for assembly and annotation. TPD,

VIV, and JJG performed quality control at various stages of the assembly, executed the overall

analyses of flea annotation, performed the phylogenomics analyses, and analyzed the flea

microbiome. JSJ estimated genome sizes for individual cat and rat fleas. All authors contributed

to writing and review of the final manuscript, with TPD, VIV, JJG, JSJ, KRM, and AFA playing

the key roles. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgements. We would like to thank Luke Tallon and Lisa Sadzewicz (Institute for

Genome Sciences, University of Maryland, Baltimore) for assistance with PacBio sequencing,

Ryan Percifield (Genomics Core, West Virginia University) for Illumina sequencing, and Mark

Daly, Elizabeth Fournier, Shaune Hall, and Thomas Swale (Dovetail Genomics) for facilitating

Hi-C assembly. We acknowledge the generous gift of unpublished *Wolbachia* endosymbiont of

Zootermopsis nevadensis (wZoo), *Wolbachia* endosymbiont of *Mengenilla moldrzyki* (wMen),

and *Wolbachia* endosymbiont of *Ctenocephalides felis* (wCte) contigs from Michael Gerth

(University of Liverpool). We thank Dr. Joe Hinnebusch (National Institute of Allergy and

Infectious Diseases) for providing the rat fleas used for genome size estimation. We are grateful

to Dr. John Beckmann (Auburn University) for critical discussion regarding *Wolbachia* biology

and Magda Beier-Sexton (University of Maryland, Baltimore) for administrative support.

References

1. Rust MK, Dryden MW. The Biology, Ecology, and Management of the Cat Flea. Annu Rev

Entomol [Internet]. 1997 [cited 2019 Jan 20];42:451–73. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9017899

2. Misof B, Liu S, Meusemann K, Peters RS, Donath A, Mayer C, et al. Phylogenomics resolves

the timing and pattern of insect evolution. Science (80-) [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2017 Feb

2];346:763–7. Available from: http://www.sciencemag.org/cgi/doi/10.1126/science.1257570

3. Leulmi H, Socolovschi C, Laudisoit A, Houemenou G, Davoust B, Bitam I, et al. Detection of

Rickettsia felis, Rickettsia typhi, Bartonella Species and Yersinia pestis in Fleas (Siphonaptera)

from Africa. Vinetz JM, editor. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. Public Library of Science; 2014;8:e3152.

4. Eisen RJ, Gage KL. Transmission of flea-borne zoonotic agents. Annu Rev Entomol.

2012;57:61–82.

5. Perry RD, Fetherston JD. Yersinia pestis--etiologic agent of plague. Clin Microbiol Rev

[Internet]. 1997 [cited 2019 Jan 17];10:35–66. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8993858

6. Nikiforov V V., Gao H, Zhou L, Anisimov A. Plague: Clinics, Diagnosis and Treatment. Adv

Exp Med Biol [Internet]. 2016 [cited 2019 Jan 17]. p. 293–312. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27722868

7. Stenseth NC, Atshabar BB, Begon M, Belmain SR, Bertherat E, Carniel E, et al. Plague: past,

present, and future. PLoS Med [Internet]. 2008 [cited 2019 Jan 17];5:e3. Available from:

https://dx.plos.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.0050003

8. Bertagnoli S, Marchandeau S. Myxomatosis. Rev Sci Tech [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2019 Jan

17];34:549–56, 539–47. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26601455

9. McElroy KM, Blagburn BL, Breitschwerdt EB, Mead PS, McQuiston JH. Flea-associated

zoonotic diseases of cats in the USA: bartonellosis, flea-borne rickettsioses, and plague. Trends

Parasitol [Internet]. 2010 [cited 2019 Jan 17];26:197–204. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20185369

10. Votýpka J, Suková E, Kraeva N, Ishemgulova A, Duží I, Lukeš J, et al. Diversity of

Trypanosomatids (Kinetoplastea: Trypanosomatidae) Parasitizing Fleas (Insecta: Siphonaptera)

and Description of a New Genus Blechomonas gen. n. Protist [Internet]. 2013 [cited 2019 Jan

17];164:763–81. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24113136

11. Feldmeier H, Heukelbach J, Ugbomoiko US, Sentongo E, Mbabazi P, von Samson-

Himmelstjerna G, et al. Tungiasis—A Neglected Disease with Many Challenges for Global

Public Health. PLoS Negl Trop Dis [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2017 Jun 22];8:e3133. Available

from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25356978

12. Feldmeier H, Keysers A. Tungiasis – A Janus-faced parasitic skin disease. Travel Med Infect

Dis [Internet]. 2013 [cited 2019 Jan 17];11:357–65. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24211240

13. Millán J. Comments on the manuscript by Bitam et al., 'Fleas and flea-borne diseases.' Int J

Infect Dis [Internet]. 2011 [cited 2019 Jan 17];15:e219. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21193340

14. Krasnov BR. Functional and evolutionary ecology of fleas : a model for ecological

parasitology [Internet]. [cited 2019 Jan 17]. Available from:

https://www.cambridge.org/vi/academic/subjects/life-sciences/entomology/functional-and-

evolutionary-ecology-fleas-model-ecological-parasitology?format=HB

15. Mullen GR, Durden LA. Medical and veterinary entomology. Elsevier; 2009.

16. Hinkle NC, Koehler PG. Cat Flea, Ctenocephalides felis felis Bouché (Siphonaptera:

Pulicidae). In: Capinera JL, editor. Encycl Entomol [Internet]. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands;

2008. p. 797–801. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-6359-6_536

17. Halos L, Beugnet F, Cardoso L, Farkas R, Franc M, Guillot J, et al. Flea control failure?

Myths and realities. Trends Parasitol [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2019 Jan 18];30:228–33. Available

from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24661796

18. Rust M. The Biology and Ecology of Cat Fleas and Advancements in Their Pest

Management: A Review. Insects [Internet]. 2017 [cited 2018 Oct 14];8:118. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29077073

19. Rennoll SA, Rennoll-Bankert KE, Guillotte ML, Lehman SS, Driscoll TP, Beier-Sexton M,

et al. The cat flea (Ctenocephalides felis) immune deficiency signaling pathway regulates

Rickettsia typhi infection. Infect Immun. 2018;86.

20. Böhm A, Meusemann K, Misof B, Pass G. Hypothesis on monochromatic vision in

scorpionflies questioned by new transcriptomic data. Sci Rep [Internet]. 2018 [cited 2019 Jan

18];8:9872. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29959337

21. Tolle MA. Mosquito-borne Diseases. Curr Probl Pediatr Adolesc Health Care [Internet].

2009 [cited 2019 Jan 20];39:97–140. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19327647

22. Glickman LT, Moore GE, Glickman NW, Caldanaro RJ, Aucoin D, Lewis HB. Purdue

University-Banfield National Companion Animal Surveillance Program for emerging and

zoonotic diseases. Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis [Internet]. 2006 [cited 2019 Jan 14];6:14–23.

Available from: https://www.liebertpub.com/doi/10.1089/vbz.2006.6.14

23. Bouhsira E, Franc M, Boulouis H-J, Jacquiet P, Raymond-Letron I, Liénard E. Assessment

of persistence of Bartonella henselae in Ctenocephalides felis. Appl Environ Microbiol

[Internet]. 2013 [cited 2019 Jan 14];79:7439–44. Available from:

http://aem.asm.org/lookup/doi/10.1128/AEM.02598-13

24. Nogueras MM, Pons I, Ortuño A, Miret J, Pla J, Castellà J, et al. Molecular detection of

Rickettsia typhi in cats and fleas. Munderloh, Ph.D. UG, editor. PLoS One [Internet]. 2013 [cited

2019 Jan 14];8:e71386. Available from: https://dx.plos.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0071386

25. Angelakis E, Mediannikov O, Parola P, Raoult D. Rickettsia felis: The Complex Journey of

an Emergent Human Pathogen. Trends Parasitol [Internet]. 2016 [cited 2019 Jan 14];32:554–64.

Available from: https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1471492216300125

26. Kichijo H. A note on the chromosomes of the flea, Ctenocephalus canis. Japanese J Genet.

1941;17.3:122–3.

27. Thomas C, Prasad RS. Chromosome variations in Xenopsylla astia Rothschild, 1911

(Siphonaptera). A preliminary report. Experientia [Internet]. Birkhäuser-Verlag; 1978 [cited

2019 Jun 10];34:1440–1. Available from: http://link.springer.com/10.1007/BF01932337

28. Seppey M, Manni M, Zdobnov EM. BUSCO: Assessing Genome Assembly and Annotation

Completeness. Methods Mol Biol [Internet]. 2019 [cited 2019 May 7]. p. 227–45. Available

from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31020564

29. Chan PP, Lowe TM. GtRNAdb 2.0: an expanded database of transfer RNA genes identified

in complete and draft genomes. Nucleic Acids Res [Internet]. 2016 [cited 2019 Jan

29];44:D184–9. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26673694

30. Hanrahan SJ, Johnston JS. New genome size estimates of 134 species of arthropods.

Chromosom Res [Internet]. 2011 [cited 2017 Feb 7];19:809–23. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21877225

31. Roach MJ, Schmidt SA, Borneman AR. Purge Haplotigs: allelic contig reassignment for

third-gen diploid genome assemblies. BMC Bioinformatics [Internet]. 2018 [cited 2019 Mar

29];19:460. Available from:

https://bmcbioinformatics.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12859-018-2485-7

32. Chen X-G, Jiang X, Gu J, Xu M, Wu Y, Deng Y, et al. Genome sequence of the Asian Tiger

mosquito, *Aedes albopictus* , reveals insights into its biology, genetics, and evolution. Proc Natl

Acad Sci [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2019 Jun 17];112:E5907–15. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26483478

33. Poulin R, Randhawa HS. Evolution of parasitism along convergent lines: from ecology to

genomics. Parasitology [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2019 May 17];142:S6–15. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24229807

34. Lyons RE, Wong DCC, Kim M, Lekieffre N, Huson MG, Vuocolo T, et al. Molecular and

functional characterisation of resilin across three insect orders. Insect Biochem Mol Biol

[Internet]. 2011 [cited 2019 Feb 27];41:881–90. Available from:

https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0965174811001603

35. Su RS-C, Kim Y, Liu JC. Resilin: protein-based elastomeric biomaterials. Acta Biomater

[Internet]. 2014 [cited 2019 Mar 30];10:1601–11. Available from:

https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1742706113003310

36. Vasconcelos EJR, Billeter SA, Jett LA, Meinersmann RJ, Barr MC, Diniz PPVP, et al.

Assessing Cat Flea Microbiomes in Northern and Southern California by 16S rRNA Next-

Generation Sequencing. Vector-Borne Zoonotic Dis [Internet]. 2018 [cited 2018 Oct 14];18:491–

9. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29893631

37. Lawrence AL, Hii S-F, Chong R, Webb CE, Traub R, Brown G, et al. Evaluation of the

bacterial microbiome of two flea species using different DNA-isolation techniques provides

insights into flea host ecology. Olson J, editor. FEMS Microbiol Ecol [Internet]. 2015 [cited

2017 Feb 9];91:fiv134. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26542076

38. Pornwiroon W, Kearney MT, Husseneder C, Foil LD, Macaluso KR. Comparative

microbiota of Rickettsia felis-uninfected and -infected colonized cat fleas, Ctenocephalides felis.

ISME J [Internet]. 2007 [cited 2017 Feb 9];1:394–402. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18043659

39. Sunyakumthorn P, Bourchookarn A, Pornwiroon W, David C, Barker SA, Macaluso KR.

Characterization and growth of polymorphic Rickettsia felis in a tick cell line. Appl Environ

Microbiol [Internet]. 2008 [cited 2018 Oct 14];74:3151–8. Available from:

http://aem.asm.org/cgi/doi/10.1128/AEM.00025-08

40. Gillespie JJ, Driscoll TP, Verhoeve VI, Utsuki T, Husseneder C, Chouljenko VN, et al.

Genomic Diversification in Strains of Rickettsia felis Isolated from Different Arthropods.

Genome Biol Evol [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2018 Apr 27];7:35–56. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25477419

41. González-Álvarez VH, de Mera IGF, Cabezas-Cruz A, de la Fuente J, Ortega-Morales AI,

Almazán C. Molecular survey of Rickettsial organisms in ectoparasites from a dog shelter in

Northern Mexico. Vet Parasitol Reg Stud Reports [Internet]. 2017;10:143–8. Available from:

http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2405939017301442

42. Casiraghi M, Bordenstein SR, Baldo L, Lo N, Beninati T, Wernegreen JJ, et al. Phylogeny of

Wolbachia pipientis based on gltA, groEL and ftsZ gene sequences: clustering of arthropod and

nematode symbionts in the F supergroup, and evidence for further diversity in the Wolbachia

tree. Microbiology [Internet]. 2005 [cited 2018 Nov 19];151:4015–22. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16339946

43. Bordenstein SR, Bordenstein SR. Eukaryotic association module in phage WO genomes

from Wolbachia. Nat Commun [Internet]. 2016 [cited 2017 Aug 3];7:13155. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27727237

44. Gillespie JJ, Joardar V, Williams KP, Driscoll TP, Hostetler JB, Nordberg E, et al. A

Rickettsia genome overrun by mobile genetic elements provides insight into the acquisition of

genes characteristic of an obligate intracellular lifestyle. J Bacteriol [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2015

Jan 15];194:376–94. Available from:

http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=3256634&tool=pmcentrez&renderty

pe=abstract

45. Nikoh N, Hosokawa T, Moriyama M, Oshima K, Hattori M, Fukatsu T. Evolutionary origin

of insect-Wolbachia nutritional mutualism. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A [Internet]. 2014 [cited

2016 Aug 23];111:10257–62. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24982177

46. Gerth M, Bleidorn C. Comparative genomics provides a timeframe for Wolbachia evolution

and exposes a recent biotin synthesis operon transfer. Nat Microbiol [Internet]. 2017 [cited 2019

Jan 10];2:16241. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28005061

47. Balvín O, Roth S, Talbot B, Reinhardt K. Co-speciation in bedbug Wolbachia parallel the

pattern in nematode hosts. Sci Rep [Internet]. 2018 [cited 2019 Jan 22];8:8797. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29891919

48. Penz T, Schmitz-Esser S, Kelly SE, Cass BN, Müller A, Woyke T, et al. Comparative

Genomics Suggests an Independent Origin of Cytoplasmic Incompatibility in Cardinium hertigii.

Moran NA, editor. PLoS Genet [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2017 May 5];8:e1003012. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23133394

49. Zeng Z, Fu Y, Guo D, Wu Y, Ajayi OE, Wu Q. Bacterial endosymbiont Cardinium cSfur

genome sequence provides insights for understanding the symbiotic relationship in Sogatella

furcifera host. BMC Genomics [Internet]. 2018 [cited 2019 Jan 22];19:688. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30231855

50. Ríhová J, Nováková E, Husník F, Hypša V. Legionella Becoming a Mutualist: Adaptive

Processes Shaping the Genome of Symbiont in the Louse Polyplax serrata. Genome Biol Evol

[Internet]. 2017 [cited 2018 Dec 13];9:2946–57. Available from:

http://academic.oup.com/gbe/article/9/11/2946/4562435

51. Ju J-F, Bing X-L, Zhao D-S, Guo Y, Xi Z, Hoffmann AA, et al. Wolbachia supplement

biotin and riboflavin to enhance reproduction in planthoppers. ISME J [Internet]. Nature

Publishing Group; 2019 [cited 2020 Jan 17];1–12. Available from:

http://www.nature.com/articles/s41396-019-0559-9

52. Chen H, Ronau JA, Beckmann JF, Hochstrasser M. A Wolbachia Nuclease and Its Binding

Partner Comprise a Novel Mechanism for Induction of Cytoplasmic Incompatibility. 2019;

53. Beckmann JF, Ronau JA, Hochstrasser M. A Wolbachia deubiquitylating enzyme induces

cytoplasmic incompatibility. Nat Microbiol [Internet]. 2017 [cited 2017 Jun 30];2:17007.

Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28248294

54. LePage DP, Metcalf JA, Bordenstein SR, On J, Perlmutter JI, Shropshire JD, et al. Prophage

WO genes recapitulate and enhance Wolbachia-induced cytoplasmic incompatibility. Nature

[Internet]. 2017 [cited 2017 Jun 30];543:243–7. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28241146

55. Beckmann JF, Fallon AM. Detection of the Wolbachia protein WPIP0282 in mosquito

spermathecae: Implications for cytoplasmic incompatibility. Insect Biochem Mol Biol [Internet].

2013 [cited 2018 Jan 16];43:867–78. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23856508

56. Gillespie JJ, Driscoll TP, Verhoeve VI, Rahman MS, Macaluso KR, Azad AF. A Tangled

Web: Origins of Reproductive Parasitism. Eric B, editor. Genome Biol Evol [Internet]. 2018

[cited 2018 Dec 14];10:2292–309. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30060072

57. Beckmann JF, Bonneau M, Chen H, Hochstrasser M, Poinsot D, Merçot H, et al. The Toxin–

Antidote Model of Cytoplasmic Incompatibility: Genetics and Evolutionary Implications. Trends

Genet [Internet]. 2019 [cited 2019 Jan 29]; Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30685209

58. Lawrence AL, Webb CE, Clark NJ, Halajian A, Mihalca AD, Miret J, et al. Out-of-Africa,

human-mediated dispersal of the common cat flea, Ctenocephalides felis: The hitchhiker's guide

to world domination. Int J Parasitol [Internet]. 2019 [cited 2019 May 22];49:321–36. Available

from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30858050

59. Li Z, Tiley GP, Galuska SR, Reardon CR, Kidder TI, Rundell RJ, et al. Multiple large-scale

gene and genome duplications during the evolution of hexapods. Proc Natl Acad Sci [Internet].

2018 [cited 2019 Feb 5];115:201710791. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29674453

60. Blanton LS, Idowu BM, Tatsch TN, Henderson JM, Bouyer DH, Walker DH. Opossums and

Cat Fleas: New Insights in the Ecology of Murine Typhus in Galveston, Texas. Am J Trop Med

Hyg [Internet]. 2016 [cited 2017 Feb 13];95:457–61. Available from:

http://www.ajtmh.org/cgi/doi/10.4269/ajtmh.16-0197

61. Walker BJ, Abeel T, Shea T, Priest M, Abouelliel A, Sakthikumar S, et al. Pilon: an

integrated tool for comprehensive microbial variant detection and genome assembly

improvement. Wang J, editor. PLoS One [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2019 Mar 27];9:e112963.

Available from: https://dx.plos.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0112963

62. Putnam NH, O'Connell BL, Stites JC, Rice BJ, Blanchette M, Calef R, et al. Chromosome-

scale shotgun assembly using an in vitro method for long-range linkage. Genome Res [Internet].

2016 [cited 2019 Mar 27];26:342–50. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26848124

63. Driscoll TP, Gillespie JJ, Nordberg EK, Azad AF, Sobral BW. Bacterial DNA sifted from the

Trichoplax adhaerens (Animalia: Placozoa) genome project reveals a putative rickettsial

endosymbiont. Genome Biol Evol [Internet]. 2013 [cited 2014 Dec 22];5:621–45. Available

from:

http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=3641634&tool=pmcentrez&renderty

pe=abstract

64. Li H, Durbin R. Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows-Wheeler transform.

Bioinformatics [Internet]. 2009 [cited 2019 May 24];25:1754–60. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19451168

65. Krzywinski M, Schein J, Birol I, Connors J, Gascoyne R, Horsman D, et al. Circos: an

information aesthetic for comparative genomics. Genome Res [Internet]. 2009 [cited 2019 Apr

16];19:1639–45. Available from: http://genome.cshlp.org/cgi/doi/10.1101/gr.092759.109

66. Gotz S, Garcia-Gomez JM, Terol J, Williams TD, Nagaraj SH, Nueda MJ, et al. High-

throughput functional annotation and data mining with the Blast2GO suite. Nucleic Acids Res

[Internet]. 2008 [cited 2019 May 24];36:3420–35. Available from:

https://academic.oup.com/nar/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/nar/gkn176

67. Voskarides K, Dweep H, Chrysostomou C. Evidence that DNA repair genes, a family of

tumor suppressor genes, are associated with evolution rate and size of genomes. Hum Genomics

[Internet]. 2019 [cited 2019 Jun 18];13:26. Available from:

https://humgenomics.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s40246-019-0210-x

68. Johnston JS, Bernardini A, Hjelmen CE. Genome size estimation and quantitative

cytogenetics in insects. In: Brown SJ, Pfrender ME, editors. Insect Genomics. New York:

Humana Press; 2019. p. 15–26.

69. Li H. Minimap2: pairwise alignment for nucleotide sequences. Birol I, editor. Bioinformatics

[Internet]. Narnia; 2018 [cited 2019 May 29];34:3094–100. Available from:

https://academic.oup.com/bioinformatics/article/34/18/3094/4994778

70. Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, et al. The Sequence

Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. Bioinformatics [Internet]. 2009 [cited 2019 May

24];25:2078–9. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19505943

71. Quinlan AR, Hall IM. BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing genomic features.

Bioinformatics [Internet]. Narnia; 2010 [cited 2019 May 29];26:841–2. Available from:

https://academic.oup.com/bioinformatics/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/bioinformatics/btq033

72. Pertea M, Kim D, Pertea GM, Leek JT, Salzberg SL. Transcript-level expression analysis of

RNA-seq experiments with HISAT, StringTie and Ballgown. Nat Protoc. Nature Publishing

Group; 2016;11:1650–67.

73. Fu L, Niu B, Zhu Z, Wu S, Li W. CD-HIT: accelerated for clustering the next-generation

sequencing data. Bioinformatics [Internet]. Oxford University Press; 2012 [cited 2019 May

29];28:3150–2. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23060610

74. R Core Team. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing [Internet]. Vienna,

Austria; 2018. Available from: https://www.r-project.org/

75. Gehlenborg N. UpSetR: A More Scalable Alternative to Venn and Euler Diagrams for

Visualizing Intersecting Sets [Internet]. 2017. Available from: https://cran.r-

project.org/package=UpSetR

76. Wood DE, Salzberg SL. Kraken: ultrafast metagenomic sequence classification using exact

alignments. Genome Biol [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2017 Feb 8];15:R46. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24580807

77. Aziz RK, Bartels D, Best AA, DeJongh M, Disz T, Edwards RA, et al. The RAST Server:

Rapid Annotations using Subsystems Technology. BMC Genomics. 2008;9:75.

78. Lomsadze A, Gemayel K, Tang S, Borodovsky M. Modeling leaderless transcription and

atypical genes results in more accurate gene prediction in prokaryotes. Genome Res [Internet].

2018 [cited 2019 May 24];28:1079–89. Available from:

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29773659

79. Li L, Stoeckert CJ, Roos DS. OrthoMCL: identification of ortholog groups for eukaryotic

genomes. Genome Res [Internet]. 2003 [cited 2017 Apr 23];13:2178–89. Available from:

http://www.genome.org/cgi/doi/10.1101/gr.1224503

80. Edgar RC. MUSCLE: Multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high throughput.

Nucleic Acids Res. 2004;32:1792–7.

81. Capella-Gutiérrez S, Silla-Martínez JM, Gabaldón T. trimAl: a tool for automated alignment

trimming in large-scale phylogenetic analyses. Bioinformatics [Internet]. 2009 [cited 2019 Jan

10];25:1972–3. Available from: https://academic.oup.com/bioinformatics/article-

lookup/doi/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp348

82. Stamatakis A. RAxML version 8: A tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-analysis of large

phylogenies. Bioinformatics. 2014;30:1312–3.

83. Giraldo-Calderón GI, Emrich SJ, MacCallum RM, Maslen G, Dialynas E, Topalis P, et al.

VectorBase: an updated bioinformatics resource for invertebrate vectors and other organisms

related with human diseases. Nucleic Acids Res [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2018 Oct 15];43:D707-

13. Available from: https://academic.oup.com/nar/article/43/D1/D707/2437683

Figures, tables and additional files

Fig. 1. *C. felis* genome characteristics. (**A**) Summary statistics for long-read sequencing,

assembly and gene annotation. (**B**) Of 16,518 total protein-encoding genes (BIG9 scaffolds),

10,088 are derived from gene duplications (6,225 duplication events within 3,863 OGs at a

threshold of 90% aa identity). (**C**) Assessment of the number of genes per duplication (*left*) and

the relative distances between duplicate genes (*right*). Distances were computed only for true

duplications (n=2 genes) at a threshold of 90% aa identity. (**D**) Gene duplications are enriched

within BIG9 scaffolds (tandem and proximal, red numbers) versus across scaffolds (dispersed,

black numbers). (**E**) Enriched cellular functions of duplicate genes relative to single-copy genes.

(**F**) *C. felis* belongs to a minimal fraction of eukaryotes containing abundant tRNA genes. tRNA

gene counts are shown for disease vectors (VectorBase [83]) and eukaryotes carrying over 1000

tRNA genes (GtRNAdb [29]; ratios show number of genomes with > 1000 tRNA genes per

taxon.

1010

1011

Fig. 1

Fig. 2. Evidence for excessive copy number variation in the *C. felis* genome. (**A**) Flea

genome size estimates. Flow cytometer-based estimates were performed for male and female

individuals of *X. cheopis* (Texas), *C. felis* (Texas), and for female *C. felis* EL from the sequenced

colony (see **fig. S2**). The inset (top right) depicts the coefficients of variation in measured

fluorescence (relative fluorescence units; RFU) for *Drosophila melanogaster* (n=26), *D. viridis*

(n=26), and *C. felis* EL (n=26) females prepared and analyzed simultaneously. (**B**) Graphic

depiction of assembling CNV. Two theoretical individual fleas are shown with different CNVs

for loci A and B. Regions unique to each individual genome are shown by the red dashed boxes.

Only reads concordant between individuals are included in the conglomerate assembly. (**C**)

Comparison of Illumina read coverage-mapping between duplicate genes (blue) and single-copy

genes (green) at different %ID thresholds. Reads that mapped to multiple locations (alternative

mappings) were included. Asterisks indicate statistically significant difference (Welch Two-

Sample t-test, $p < 2.2e-16$) between mean coverage of single-copy and duplicate genes at the 90

%ID threshold. (**D**) Transcriptional support for *C. felis* EL genes within the 1KITE

transcriptomic data. Counts of transcripts per million reads (TPM) were mapped (Hisat2 &

Stringtie), binned, and plotted against the number of duplicated (blue) and single-copy (green)

genes in the BIG9 assembly. (**E**) Extent of truncation within clusters of duplicated genes in *C.*

felis. The number of clusters with truncated members at each integer %ID threshold (left) was

calculated as the proportion of total clusters at that threshold (center). The distribution of length

differences in these clusters (relative to the longest member in each cluster) is plotted as a violin

plot (right); black diamonds represent the mean length difference at each %ID threshold.

1033

1034

Fig. 2

Fig. 3. Phylogenomics analysis of the *C. felis* genome. (**A**) Assessing completeness and

conservation of select holometabolan genomes using insect (n=1,658) Benchmarking Universal

Single-Copy Orthologues (BUSCOs) [28]. (**B**) Multidimensional scaling plots gauging within-

and across-order similarity of protein orthologous groups. Inset show color scheme for

holometabolous orders. (**C**) Upset plot illustrating *C. felis* protein orthologous groups that

intersect with other holometabolous insects. Inclusion criteria: one protein from at least one

genome/order must be present. Yellow bar, 577 proteins found in all analyzed genomes. Inset,

redrawn phylogeny estimation of Holometabola [2]; numbers indicate *C. felis* unique protein

groups or higher-generic monophyletic groups (see **table S2**).

1044

1045

Fig. 3

Fig. 4. Identifying *C. felis*-specific genes. (**A**) *C. felis* proteins failing to cluster with

counterparts in other holometabolan genomes were determined to lack (top) or possess limited

similarity to (bottom) proteins from holometabolan or other genomes (bottom). (**B**) For 1,318

proteins, Gene Ontologies and Interpro domains were included in annotation and clustering into

broad cellular function categories. (**C**) *C. felis* carries tandemly-arrayed resilin homologs (gray

inset) as well as a cohort of other proteins containing resilin-like features. Red boxes indicate

other tandemly-arrayed genes.

1053

1054

Fig. 4

Fig. 5. The microbiome of EL fleas. (**A**) Breakdown of the *C. felis* (EL fleas) microbiome. Bar

at top graphically depicts the taxonomic distribution of non-flea Illumina reads across Bacteria,

viruses and Archaea. Each group is further classified, with the major taxa (genus-level in most

cases) and compiled read size (Mb) provided. Taxa with asterisks are AT-rich genomes that

were later determined to match to *C. felis* mitochondrial reads. (**B**) *Wolbachia* genome-based

phylogeny estimation. *Wolbachia* supergroups are within gray ellipses. *C. felis*-associated

Wolbachiae are within black boxes. Red (*w*CfeT) and blue (*w*CfeJ) stars depict the two novel

Wolbachiae infecting *C. felis*, with assembly information for each genome provided at right.

Inset: color scheme for nematode and arthropod hosts. For tree estimation see **Methods**. Gel

image (unaltered) depicts PCR results using 100ng of flea template DNA (quantified via

nanodrop) in separate reactions with gene-specific primers. (**C**) *w*CfeT contains the unique biotin

synthesis operon carried by certain obligately host-associated microbes. Schema follows our

previous depiction of the unique *bio* gene order [44], with all proteins drawn to scale (as a

reference, *w*CfeT BioB is 316 aa). Comparisons are made to the *bio* proteins of *Cardinium*

endosymbiont of *Encarsia pergandiella* (cEper1, CCM10336-CCM10341) and *Wolbachia*

endosymbiont of *Cimex lectularius* (*w*Cle, BAP00143-BAP00148). Red shading and numbers

indicate % identity across pairwise protein alignments (blastp). (**D**) *w*CfeJ contains a CinA/B

operon. Comparisons are made to the CidA/B (top, CAQ54390/1) and CinA/B (bottom) operons

of *Wolbachia* endosymbiont of *Culex quinquefasciatus* Pel (wPip_Pel, CAQ54402/3). Green,

CE clan protease; brown, PD-(D/E)XK nuclease. All proteins are drawn to scale (as a reference,

*w*CfeJ CinB is 777 aa). Red shading and numbers indicate % identity across pairwise protein

alignments (blastp).

1077

Fig. 5