A chromosome-level assembly of the cat flea genome uncovers rampant gene

duplication and genome size plasticity

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Running head: Cat fleas have inordinate copy number variation

27 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. Finally, from the *C. felis* sequence reads we also generated closed

genomes for two novel strains of *Wolbachia*, one parasitic and one symbiotic, found to co-infect

individual fleas.

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 co-infection by novel *Wolbachia* endosymbionts –

potential tools for blocking pathogen transmission – these oddities highlight a unique and

underappreciated 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]. To overcome the minute body size of individual fleas, we

pooled multiple individuals to generate sufficient DNA for sequencing, sampled from an inbred

colony to reduce allelic variation, and applied orthogonal informatics approaches to account for

challenges arising from the potential misassembly of haplotypes.

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 (**Additional file 1: 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 (**Additional file 1: 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 (**Additional file 1: 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, Additional file 1: 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**, **Additional file 1: Fig. S1C-K**), 2) a lack of increasing

divergence with greater distance on scaffolds (**Additional file 1: Fig. S1L**), and 3) a lack of

increasing divergence for duplicate genes found across different scaffolds (**Additional file 1:**

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**, **Additional file 2: Table S1**). However, the frequency and distribution of these

elements are dwarfed by total duplicate genes (**Additional file 1: Fig. S1N**). Additionally,

transposons and other repeat elements encompass only 10% of the genome (**Additional file 1:**

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,**

Additional file 2: 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 (**Additional file 1: Fig. S1P**); however, *C. felis* codon

usage is typical of holometabolan genomes (**Additional file 1: 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**;

Additional file 3: Fig. S2). 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 (**Additional file 2: 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 (**Additional file 4: Fig.**

S3A). Other conserved protein-encoding genes that define higher-generic groups (**Fig. 3C**,

inset) will inform lineage diversification within Holometabola (**Additional file 5: 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 (**Additional file 4: Fig. S3B**, **Additional file 5: Table S2**).

Overall, despite its parasitic lifestyle and reductive morphology, *C. felis* has not experienced a

significant reduction in gene families (**Additional file 4: Fig. S3A**, **Additional file 5: Table S2**)

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, Additional file 6: 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, Additional file 6: 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**, **Additional file 7: 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**; **Additional file 7: 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 [60] and Galveston, Texas [61], 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 [62], 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) [63] 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 [64] 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:

404 $$S_m = bIQ$$

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

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

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

each database d:

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

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 $C(q,\text{eukDB}) = 1$; conversely, if none of the top n

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

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

microbial):

$$P \; = \; C(q, eukDB) \; - \; C(q, abvDB)$$
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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

misassembly 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 [65] using default parameters (**Additional file 1: 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 (**Additional file 1: 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 [66] (**Additional file 1: Fig. S1C-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) (**Additional file 1: Fig. S1L**). Clusters that span

multiple scaffolds (mapped across all BIG9 scaffolds in **Additional file 1: 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

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

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

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

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

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

(**Additional file 1: 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 (**Additional file 1: 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 (**Additional file 1: 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 (**Additional file 1: 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 [67] 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 (**Additional file 2: 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 (**Additional file 2: Table S1**). Assuming a linear relationship

between genome size and number of repair genes [68], 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 [69]. 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 (**Additional file 3: 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 [70] to map our short-

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

samtools v0.1.19 [71], 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

[72]. 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 [73]

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 [73]. 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 [74] 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 (**Additional file 6: 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 [75], 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 (**Additional file 5: 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 [76]. Intersections of various

holometabolous taxa that lack *C. felis* were computed to gain insight on possible reductive

evolution in fleas (**Additional file 4: Fig. S3**, **Additional file 5: Table S2**).

Microbiome Composition

A composite *C. felis* microbiome was estimated using Kraken Metagenomics-X v1.0.0 [77], 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 (**Additional**

file 7: 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 [78], 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) (**Additional file 7: 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; [79]). Ortholog groups (n=2,750) were

subsequently constructed using FastOrtho, an in-house version of OrthoMCL [80], 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 [81] using default

parameters, and regions of poor alignment were masked with trimal v1.4.rev15 [82] 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 [83], 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 wCfeJ and wCfeT 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 wCfeJ (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 at https://www.github.com/wvuvectors/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/wvuvectors/cfelis_genome. Sequences

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

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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

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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 [84]) and eukaryotes carrying over 1000

tRNA genes (GtRNAdb [29]; ratios show number of genomes with > 1000 tRNA genes per

taxon.

A

C. felis

LONG-READ SEQUENCING

Tot. reads generated	7,239,750
Error-corrected reads	1,719,943
Estimated coverage	25X

ASSEMBLY	ALL	BIG9
Tot. seq. length (Mb)	773.8	654.0
Contigs assembled	16,622	12,348
Contig N50 (Mb)	0.061	0.082
Longest contig (Mb)	1.9	1.9
Mean contig %GC	30.2	29.2
Scaffolds constructed	3,926	9
Scaffold N50 (Mb)	71.7	86.1
Scaffold L50	4	3
Longest scaffold (Mb)	185.5	185.5
No. scaffolds > 10Mb	9	9

ANNOTATION	ALL	BIG9
Scaffolds annotated	3,733	9
Tot. seq annotated (Mb)	763.8	654.0
No. total genes	26,844	23,558
No. protein coding genes	18,878	16,518
No. rRNA genes	466	184
No. tRNA genes	5,847	4,358
Mean tRNA length	74 (66-85)	74 (66-85)

B

C

Genes per duplicate family

Duplicate gene proximity

D

Scaffold	⑨	⑧	⑦	⑥	⑤	④	③	②	①
9 (NW_020539727)	304								
8 (NW_020539724)	2	360							
7 (NW_020539726)	4	2	444						
6 (NW_020537758)	3	7	18	573					
5 (NW_020537646)	22	15	44	34	909				
4 (NW_020539725)	6	19	23	14	42	1120			
3 (NW_020537324)	5	2	45	19	76	21	1135		
2 (NW_020536999)	4	13	48	32	64	43	68	1320	
1 (NW_020538040)	23	5	91	47	137	52	81	137	1314

E

Fig. 1

F

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 **Additional file 3: 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, $p < 2.2e\text{-}16$) 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.

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 **Additional file 5: Table S2**).

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.

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).

1011

Fig. 5

1012   **Table 1. Evidence Supporting Extensive Gene Duplication in Cat Fleas.**
1013
1014 | Approach | Source | Key Points |
1015
1016   Genome size   Fig. 2A   - *C. felis* from two populations have same mean genome size.
1017   estimation   Fig. S2   - Individual cat fleas vary ~118 Mb in estimated genome size.
1018   - Individual rat fleas vary ~100 Mb in estimated genome size.
1019
1020   Long read   Fig. 1,   - Nine scaffolds >10Mb are littered with gene duplications,
1021   assembly with   Fig. S1   which comprise 38% of protein coding genes.
1022   proximity ligation Table S5   - No misassembly of allelic variants in the BIG 9 scaffolds.
1023
1024   Transcript   Fig. 2D   - 98% duplicate genes have transcriptional support from RNA-
1025   mapping   Seq data from an independent study (1KITE).
1026
1027   Short read   Fig. 2C   - Illumina reads maps with far greater depth to single copy
1028   mapping   genes versus duplicate genes.
1029
1030   Assessment of   Fig. 2E   - 69% of duplications are divergent in length; heterogeneity
1031   duplication lengths   in length and composition are positively correlated.
1032
1033

Additional file 1: Fig. S1. Assessing assembly fragmentation, gene duplication and repeat

elements within the *C. felis* assembly. (**A**) Evaluating assembly fragmentation via mapping of

scaffolds shorter than 1 Mb (n = 3,724) to scaffolds larger than 1 Mb (n = 9, "BIG9 scaffolds").

All but 2 short scaffolds mapped to a BIG9 scaffold at least once; confidence intervals are based

on the probability of mapping to a single unique location. (**B**). Assessing the "genome

completeness" of the *C. felis* full assembly and BIG9 scaffolds through comparison to eukaryote,

arthropod and insect BUSCOs. (**C**) Tandem and proximal duplicate gene locations on BIG9

scaffold 1, (**D**) BIG9 scaffold 2, (**E**) BIG9 scaffold 3, (**F**) BIG9 scaffold 4, (**G**) BIG9 scaffold 5,

(**H**) BIG9 scaffold 6, (**I**) BIG9 scaffold 7, (**J**) BIG9 scaffold 8, (**K**) BIG9 scaffold 9. (**L**)

Duplications by proximity. Only true duplications (n=2) are shown. Red bars (*) depict

"dispersed" clusters that span multiple scaffolds. (**M**) Dispersed duplicate gene locations across

BIG9 scaffolds. (**N**) Distribution across BIG9 scaffolds of *C. felis* proteins annotated as "DNA

integration" (GO:0015074, see **Additional file 2: Table S1** for specific accession numbers) and

their relation to gene duplications. (**O**) Compilation of retroelements, DNA transposons and

other repeat elements predicted across the BIG9 scaffolds. Overall totals are highlighted yellow.

(**P**) tRNA gene abundances and (**Q**) codon usage/amino acid for select Holometabola.

1050

1051 **Additional file 2: Table S1.** Functional predictions and enrichment analysis of *C. felis* proteins.

1052 <click for link to Table S1>

1053

1054 **Additional file 3: Fig. S2.** Representative histograms produced by flow cytometry showing the

1055 peak positions of the 2C nuclei of *Drosophila melanogaster* (left) and *D. virilis* (center) female

1056 standards, and individual *C. felis* females (right) from the sequenced EL strain. (**A**) A 434 Mb

1057   flea. (**B**) A 553 Mb flea. All peaks have CV < 1.5 and > 500 nuclei under the statistical gates

1058   (red lines spanning the 2C peaks).

1059

Additional file 4: Fig. S3. Phylogenomics analysis of select Holometabola. (**A**) Assessment of

holometabolan accessory genomes. (**B**) *Top:* Identification of conserved protein families present

in select taxa from each holometabolan order but absent from *C. felis*. *Bottom:* Protein families

conserved across all sequenced holometabolan genomes except *C. felis* (see **Additional file 5:**

Table S2). Four assemblies were identified as particularly patchy (*Oryctes borbonicus*,

Operophtera brumata, *Heliothis virescens*, and *Plutella xylostella*) and 100% conservation

("perfect") was also relaxed to exclude these taxa. Inset, redrawn phylogeny estimation of

Holometabola [2].

1068

1069   **Additional file 5: Table S2.** Pan-genomes across sequenced Holometabola.

1070   <click for link to Table S2>

1071

1072   **Additional file 6: Table S3.** Analysis of *C. felis* proteins that did not cluster with other

1073   Holometabola.

1074   <click for link to Table S3>

1075

1076   **Additional file 7: Table S4.** Elements of the *C. felis* microbiome and associated *Wolbachia*

1077   phylogeny estimation.

1078   <click for link to Table S4>

1079

1080   **Additional file 8: Table S5.** Coverage of corrected PacBio reads against all 16,622 polished

1081   assembly contigs.

1082   <u><click for link to Table S5></u>

1083