FULL TITLE: Mayaro Virus Infection Elicits an Innate Immune Response in *Anopheles stephensi*

SHORT TITLE: Mayaro virus molecular infection dynamics using an *Anopheles* model

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ABSTRACT:

Mayaro virus (MAYV) is an arboviral pathogen in the genus *Alphavirus* that is circulating in South America with potential to spread to naïve regions. MAYV is also one of the few viruses with the ability to be transmitted by mosquitoes in the genus *Anopheles*, as well as the typical arboviral transmitting mosquitoes in the genus *Aedes*. Few studies have investigated the infection response of *Anopheles* mosquitoes. In this study we detail the transcriptomic and small RNA responses of *An. stephensi* to infection with MAYV via infectious bloodmeal at 2, 7, and 14 days post infection (dpi). 487 unique transcripts were significantly regulated, 78 putative novel miRNAs were identified, and an siRNA response is observed targeting the MAYV genome. Gene ontology analysis of transcripts regulated at each timepoint suggested activation of the Toll pathway at 7 dpi and repression of pathways related to autophagy and apoptosis at 14 dpi. These findings provide a basic understanding of the infection response of *An. stephensi* to MAYV and help to identify host factors which might be useful to target to inhibit viral replication in *Anopheles* mosquitoes.

AUTHOR SUMMARY:

Mayaro virus (MAYV) is a mosquito-borne Alphavirus responsible for outbreaks in South America and the Caribbean. In this study we infected *Anopheles stephensi* with MAYV and sequenced mRNA and small RNA to understand how MAYV infection impacts gene transcription and the expression of small RNAs in the mosquito vector. Genes involved with innate immunity and signaling pathways related to cell death are regulated in response to MAYV infection of *An. stephensi*, we also discover novel miRNAs and describe the expression patterns of miRNAs,

44   siRNAs, and piRNAs following bloodmeal ingestion. These results suggest that MAYV does

45   induce a molecular response to infection in its mosquito vector species.

INTRODUCTION

Mayaro virus (MAYV) is a mosquito-borne, enveloped positive-sense single-stranded

RNA virus in the genus *Alphavirus*, first isolated from the blood of five febrile workers in

Mayaro county, Trinidad in 1954 [1]. Symptoms of MAYV infection are similar to other arboviral

infections such as Dengue (DENV) or Chikungunya viruses, (CHIKV) and include rash, fever,

retro-orbital pain, headache, diarrhea, and arthralgia [2]. While no epidemics or outbreaks with

MAYV being the causative agent have been recorded outside of South America, there have

been imported cases reported in the Netherlands, Germany, France, and Switzerland [3-6],

which demonstrates a need to understand the capacity for the virus to spread into naïve

regions, such as the United States.

The principal mosquitoes transmitting MAYV naturally are thought to be the canopy-

dwellers of the genus *Haemogogus*, maintaining the sylvatic cycle between non-human

primates as primary hosts and birds as secondary hosts [7]. Human infections are sporadic due

to the rare display of anthropophilic biting behaviors by *Haemogogus* mosquitoes, with

transmission due to these species primarily occurring in rural regions with close proximity to

forests [8]. Vector competence studies have identified anthropophilic and urban adapted

species such as *Aedes aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus,* as well as the malaria parasite transmitters

Anopheles gambiae, *An. stephensi*, *An. freeborni*, and *An. quadrimaculatus*, as being competent

vectors for MAYV under laboratory conditions [9-12]. Transmission of an arbovirus with an

anopheline mosquito as a primary vector is rare, only having been observed occurring regularly

for O'nyong'nyong virus by *An. gambiae* and *An. funestus* in Uganda [13], with some limited

evidence for CHIKV and Semliki Forest virus (SFV) [14].

As arboviral pathogens are transmitted between hosts primarily by arthropod vectors,

transmission requires the virus to infect and disseminate from the midgut and salivary glands of

the mosquito following an infectious bloodmeal [15]. The molecular underpinnings controlling

why MAYV and these closely related viruses can infect *Anopheles* salivary glands is of

epidemiological interest, yet remains poorly understood. A more complete understanding of

this phenomenon requires investigation of the molecular pathways involved in viral infection of

anopheline mosquitoes. Recent transcriptomic studies have identified a number of genes

involved in classical immune pathways, RNA interference (RNAi), metabolism, energy

production, and transport as being regulated in response to arboviral infection of mosquitoes

[16-19]. In addition, studies focusing on small RNA identification and regulation have identified

RNAi activity, such as miRNA, piRNA, and siRNA expression, in response to infection of

mosquitoes by arboviruses [20-23].

The available evidence suggests that, should MAYV be introduced into a naïve region,

outbreaks and epidemics of the resulting disease could be driven by anopheline vectors [9, 24-

25]. Because anopheline, and not aedine, mosquitoes could act as the primary transmitting

vectors for MAYV, this study also provides an opportunity to understand how vector

competence might emerge in this system and provide insight into why *Anopheles* are generally

poor viral transmitters when compared to *Aedes* mosquitoes. We used RNA sequencing to

study the transcriptomic and small RNA responses of *An. stephensi* to infection with MAYV via

infectious bloodmeal at 2, 7, and 14 days post infection (dpi).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Anopheles stephensi Rearing

Protocols pertaining to mosquito rearing and presentation of infectious bloodmeal has

been described elsewhere [9]. Briefly, *An. stephensi* (Liston strain) were provided by Johns

Hopkins University (Baltimore, MD, USA). Mosquito colonies were reared and maintained at the

Millennium Sciences Complex insectary (The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA,

USA) at 27˚C ± 1˚C, 12 hour light 12 hour dark diurnal cycle at 80% relative humidity in

30×30×30-cm cages. Ground fish flakes (TetraMin, Melle, Germany) were used to feed larvae,

and upon emergence adult mosquitoes were maintained with a 10% sucrose solution.

<u>Viral Production and Infection via Bloodmeal</u>

Mayaro virus strain BeAn 343102 (BEI Resources, Manassas, VA, USA) was utilized in this

study, a genotype D strain originally isolated from a monkey in Para, Brazil, in May 1978. Virus-

infected supernatant was aliquoted and stored at −80˚C until used for mosquito infections. Viral

stock titers were obtained by focus forming assay (FFA) technique. Adult female mosquitoes at

6 days post emergence that had not previously blood-fed were used for experimentation.

Mosquitoes were allowed to feed on either human blood spiked with MAYV at $1*10^7$ FFU/mL

or a control bloodmeal with no virus via a glass feeder jacketed with 37˚C distilled water for 1 h.

At 2, 7, and 14 days post infection, mosquitoes were anesthetized with triethylamine

(Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) and RNA was extracted from each individual mosquito

using mirVana RNA extraction kit (Life Technologies) applying the protocol for extraction of

total RNA. Infection was confirmed via qPCR using primers published by Wiggins et. al. 2018

(Forward: 5'-TGGACCTTTGGCTCTTCTTATC-3', Reverse: 5'-GACGCTCACTGCGACTAAA-3') [10], a

CT value of 20 or less was used to confirm infection (Supplementary Table 1). 3 pools of total

RNA were created for each time point and infection status to be used for library preparation,

each consisting of 750 ng of RNA from 4 mosquitoes for a total of 3 mg per pool as confirmed

via nanodrop. The protocol for mosquito rearing, viral production, and infection via bloodmeal

is described in more detail in Brustolin et al. 2018 [9].

<u>Transcriptomic Library Preparation and Sequencing</u>

All pools were sent to University of Texas Medical Branch for library preparation where

total RNA was quantified using a Qubit fluorescent assay (Thermo Scientific) and RNA quality

was assessed using an RNA 6000 chip on an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies).

See Etebari et all. 2017 for more detail on library preparation and sequencing [17]. 1 mg of total

RNA per pool was poly-A selected and fragmented using divalent cations and heat (940 C, 8

min). The NEBNext Ultra II RNA library kit (New England Biolabs) was used for RNA-Seq library

construction. Fragmented poly-A RNA samples were converted to cDNA by random primed

synthesis using ProtoScript II reverse transcriptase (New England Biolabs). After second strand

synthesis, the double-stranded DNAs were treated with T4 DNA polymerase, 5' phosphorylated

and then an adenine residue was added to the 3' ends of the DNA. Adapters were then ligated

to the ends of these target template DNAs. After ligation, the template DNAs were amplified (5-

9 cycles) using primers specific to each of the non-complimentary sequences in the adapters.

This created a library of DNA templates that have non-homologous 5' and 3' ends. A qPCR

analysis was performed to determine the template concentration of each library. Reference

standards cloned from a HeLa S3 RNA-Seq library were used in the qPCR analysis. Cluster

formation was performed using 15.5-17 billion templates per lane using the Illumina cBot v3

system. Sequencing by synthesis, paired end 75 base reads, was performed on an Illumina

NextSeq 5500 using a protocol recommended by the manufacturer.

<u>Small RNA Library Preparation and Sequencing</u>

Small RNA libraries were created using the New England Biolabs small RNA library

protocol. See Saldaña et. al. 2017 for more information on small RNA sequencing [21]. Library

construction used a two-step ligation process to create templates compatible with Illumina

based next generation sequence (NGS) analysis. Where appropriate, RNA samples were

quantified using a Qubit fluorometric assay. RNA quality was assessed using a pico-RNA chip on

an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer. Library creation uses a sequential addition of first a 3' adapter

sequence followed by a 5' adapter sequence. A cDNA copy was then synthesized using

ProtoScript reverse transcriptase and a primer complimentary to a segment of the 3' adapter.

Amplification of the template population was performed in 15 cycles (94˚C for 30 sec; 62˚C for

30 sec; 70˚C for 30 sec) and the amplified templates were PAGE (polyacrylamide gel

electrophoresis) purified (147 bp DNA) prior to sequencing. All NGS libraries were indexed. The

final concentration of all NGS libraries was determined using a Qubit fluorometric assay and the

DNA fragment size of each library was assessed using a DNA 1000 high sensitivity chip and an

Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer. Single end 75 base sequencing by synthesis on an Illumina NextSeq

5500.

<u>Transcriptomic RNA Sequencing Data Analysis</u>

Raw sequencing data was uploaded to the ICS-ACI high performance computing cluster

at Pennsylvania State University to perform all computational analyses. Transcriptomic libraries

had adapters trimmed and low-quality bases removed using Trimmomatic read trimming

software with base settings [26]. Quality trimmed reads were aligned to the current build of the

Anopheles stephensi Indian strain genome in Vectorbase (AsteI2) using the STAR RNA

sequencing aligner [27]. Reads less than 75 bp in length and with a mapping quality of less than

20 were dropped from the analysis, and read counts were calculated in R using the rSubread

package [28], following which a principal components analysis was performed and differential

expression conducted using a negative binomial GLM with the EdgeR package [29]. Contrasts

considered in the GLM were infected against control at 2, 7, and 14 dpi, and differences

between 2 -7 dpi and 7 – 14 dpi for infected treatments corrected for the response from the

control treatments between the same time points. Gene IDs that were differentially expressed

with a log2FC value of +/- 1 and P value < 0.05 were uploaded to g:Profiler to run GO term

overrepresentation analysis [30].

Small RNA Sequencing Data Analysis

Small RNA libraries had adapters trimmed using Trimmomatic and were subsequently

passed into the miRDeep2 pipeline to identify novel and known miRNAs in all samples and

determine expression of all known and novel miRNAs at each time point and treatment status

[31, 26]. Novel miRNAs with a miRDeep score of less than 3, a minimum free energy value of

less than – 20, or a non-significant Randfold p-value were considered false IDs and excluded

from further analysis. miRNA targets were identified in the AsteI2 genome using miRanda

software package [32]. Differential expression of miRNAs in response to infection status and

time point was conducted using a negative binomial GLM with the EdgeR package and contrasts

as described for the transcriptomic analysis [29]. miRNAs which were differentially expressed

with log2FC +/- 1 and P value < 0.05 had their miRanda genomic targets uploaded to g:Profiler

to determine if any GO terms were overrepresented by transcripts potentially regulated by

differentially expressed miRNAs [33]. piRNAs and siRNAs were isolated from the small RNA

libraries by selecting all 18 – 24 nt reads (siRNA) and 24 – 35 nt (piRNA) reads from the trimmed

datasets and filtering out all identified mature miRNAs, and those mapping to the MAYV

NC_003417.1 genome were considered potential piRNAs or siRNAs. piRNA and siRNA alignment

to the AsteI2 genome was performed using Bowtie RNA sequencing aligner within the MSRG

pipeline [34]. Observation of fastQC output for Control Day 7 Replicate 1 small RNA sequencing

revealed poor sequencing results, so this replicate was omitted from all analyses in the small

RNA focused portions of this study [35].

Data availability

Sequencing data have been deposited in the GEO depository under accession number

GSE165488.

RESULTS/DISCUSSION

Transcriptome

RNA Sequencing

We assayed genome-wide gene expression in pools of *An. stephensi* (Liston strain)

experimentally infected with MAYV at 2, 7, and 14 dpi, along with blood fed uninfected

negative controls. RNAseq libraries were sequenced on the Illumina NextSeq 550 platform,

yielding 20.6 - 28.4 million paired end reads per library. (Supplementary Table 1). Principal

components analysis (PCA) performed on read counts of each annotated gene in the *An.*

stephensi (Indian strain) reference transcriptome (AsteI2) at each time point distributed

infected and control samples into distinct groups (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Principal Components Analysis (PCA) on filtered read counts mapping to annotated

genes from the AsteI2 build of the *Anopheles stephensi* genome in Vectorbase. A., B., and C. are

read counts from samples in the 2, 7, and 14 dpi groupings respectively. In all PCAs, blue is

Mayaro infected, and red are control.

Differential Expression

To determine which genes exhibit differential expression by infection status and

between time points a general-linearized model (GLM) was performed on filtered and

normalized read counts mapping to the AsteI2 genome (Supplementary Table 2; Figure 2).

Differential expression was also computed for a newer chromosome level genome assembly

(Supplementary Table 3), however, the results from the older assembly are discussed here as

the genes in the older assembly contain better annotations than those in the newer assembly

[36]. Contrasts considered in the GLM were infected compared to control at 2, 7, and 14 dpi,

and differences between 2 -7 dpi and 7 – 14 dpi for infected treatments correcting for results

from control treatments between those time points. Genes were considered significantly

regulated if they had a log fold-change (log2FC) value of +/- 1 and P value < 0.05.

Figure 2: Volcano plots visualizing differential expression of *Anopheles stephensi* transcripts in

response to Mayaro infection. The Y-axis shows -log10 transformed P-values, and the X-axis

shows log2 transformed fold change values. Red points represent transcripts depleted by more

than -1 log2FC in response to infection with a FDR < 0.05, while blue points are transcripts

enriched by more than 1 log2FC in response to infection with a P value < 0.05. A. - C. are

transcripts regulated in the 2 dpi, 7 dpi, and 14 dpi groupings respectively, while D. and E. are

transcripts regulated in the infected treatment between 2 - 7 dpi and 7 - 14 dpi respectively.

There were 161 (64 enriched, 97 depleted), 45 (29 enriched, 16 depleted), and 204 (149

enriched, 55 depleted) of 10,313 annotated genes regulated between control and infected at 2,

7, and 14 dpi respectively. 3 genes were regulated in the same direction at each time point, 2

enriched (ASTEI09037, ASTEI03083) and 1 depleted (ASTEI04716). The gene with the strongest

response to infection at any time point was ASTEI04601 at 2 dpi with a log2FC of -9.8 and the

most enriched gene was ASTEI04639 at 14 dpi with log2FC of 5.7. When considering changes

between time points for the infected treatment when controlling for the response from the

uninfected treatments, there were 96 positively and 44 negatively regulated genes between 2 -

7 dpi, and 129 enriched and 32 depleted genes between 7 - 14 dpi. Regulated transcripts for 2-7

dpi ranged from -6.2 (ASTEI08168) to 7.5 (ASTEI09252) log2FC in terms of magnitude of

expression, and -3.4 (ASTEI10804) to 7.4 (ASTEI04639) log2FC for 7-14 dpi. When considering a

FDR threshold as a multiple testing correction very few transcripts in any contrast can be

considered significantly regulated; 3 transcripts at 2 dpi (ASTEI04601, ASTEI05497, ASTEI05732)

and 2 transcripts at 14 dpi (ASTEI00644, ASTEI08604) fall below a FDR < 0.1 threshold for

significance.

Gene Ontology

A gene ontology (GO) over-representation analysis was performed using g:Profiler on

gene IDs which were significantly enriched or depleted in any considered contrast in the GLM

described above when using a P value cutoff of 0.05 and any overrepresented GO terms with an

FDR < 0.5 were considered significant (Supplementary Table 4) [33]. At 2 dpi significantly

regulated molecular function terms were overrepresented by peptidase activity, specifically

serine type endopeptidase activity, however this overrepresentation is not observed when just

considering depleted or enriched genes it is only present when considering all regulated genes

at 2 dpi together. Depleted genes at 2 dpi are overrepresented by cell-cell adhesion terms in

the biological function category, and components of the membrane for cellular component,

enriched genes are not significantly biased for any terms. At 7 dpi molecular function terms

related to odorant binding and carboxylic acid binding were overrepresented in depleted genes,

and for enriched genes however with a slightly less than significant FDR of 0.06. Molecular

function terms relating to dioxygenases, transferases, and oxidoreductases are

overrepresented by depleted genes at 7 dpi, and different types of amino acid binding as well

as serine type endopeptidase terms are overrepresented by enriched genes. Biological process

terms related to nervous system processes, sensory perception of smell, and mannose

metabolism are overrepresented by depleted genes at 7 dpi. At 14 dpi the enriched transcripts

were biased for molecular function GO terms related to sensory perception, specifically

perception of mechanical, light, and sound stimuli, while depleted transcripts were biased for

those related to MAPK/JNK signaling cascades, apoptosis, and amino acid biosynthesis for

molecular functions and peroxisome and nucleosome for cellular component terms. From 2 to

7 dpi molecular function terms related to serine protease activity were represented by both

enriched and depleted genes, but primarily by enriched genes, and enriched genes were biased

for cell membrane proteins for cellular component. 7 to 14 dpi had enriched genes biased for

molecular functions related to ATP dependent microtubule activity and G-protein coupled

receptors while depleted genes were biased for different types of amino acid binding. Biological

process terms overrepresented by enriched genes between 7 and 14 dpi were related to

sensory perception, and depleted genes were overrepresented for various types of metabolic

and biosynthetic processes, NF-kB signaling, and the MAPK/JNK cascade.

Endopeptidases, specifically serine proteases were enriched at 7 dpi and from 2 – 7 dpi,

suggesting an activation of the Toll pathway as part of the innate humoral response to infection

once the virus has had time to establish an infection in the mosquito [33]. Activation of serine

proteases is not uncommon in pathogenic infection of insects and has been identified

specifically as enriched in *Ae. aegypti* in response to DENV and Zika virus (ZIKV) infection, and in

An. gambiae and *An. coluzzii* in response to O'nyong'nyong virus (ONNV) infection [16-18, 37].

At late stages of infection there was depletion of the autophagic and apoptotic inducing JNK

and MAPK cascades in addition to repression of JAK/STAT signaling pathways through

repression of MAPK signaling. Autophagy and apoptosis both have demonstrated positive

impacts on alphaviral replication [33, 38], suggesting another possible molecular response from

the mosquito to prevent viral replication at late stages of infection.

Small RNA

<u>miRNA Identification</u>

We next identified novel miRNAs in the small RNA transcriptomes of the MAYV infected

samples and controls using miRDeep [31]. We searched for matches in our sequencing reads to

all miRNAs in the miRBase database for the species *An. gambiae*, *Aedes aegypti, Culex*

quinquefasciatus, Drosophila melanogaster, Bombyx mori, Apis mellifera, and *Acyrthosiphon*

pisum. We found matches to 73 known miRNAs, all from *An. gambiae*, and 78 novel miRNAs

identified across all samples, with between 2.2 – 4.0 million reads mapping to identified

miRNAs per-sample (Supplementary Table 5 and 6). We found no explicit relationship between

diversity of miRNA population and either dpi or infection status. Of the 153 total miRNAs

identified across all samples, 83 were present in at least one replicate per treatment (Figure 3).

PCA of normalized read counts shows a correlation between infection status and grouping

along the PC1/PC2 axis at each time point (Figure 4).

Figure 3: The top histogram represents the number of miRNAs shared between treatments

(intersection size), and each row below the histogram represents a treatment. The lines

connecting treatments below the top histogram represent treatments which share that number

of miRNAs, and the histogram to the side of the treatments represents the number of miRNAs

contained within each treatment.

Figure 4: Principal Components Analysis (PCA) on read counts mapping to miRNAs identified in

the AsteI2 build of the *Anopheles stephensi* genome in Vectorbase. A. - C. are the 2 dpi, 7 dpi,

and 14 dpi groupings respectively. In all PCAs, blue is Mayaro infected, and red is control.

miRNA Differential Expression

We next identified known and novel miRNAs that were differentially expressed by

infection status (Fig. 5; Table 1, Supplementary Table 7). Contrasts considered in the GLM were

infected against control at 2, 7, and 14 dpi, and differences between 2 -7 dpi and 7 – 14 dpi for

infected treatments relative to control. miRNAs were considered differentially expressed by

having a log fold-change (log2FC) value of +/- 1 and P value < 0.05. There were a total of 8

miRNAs differentially regulated in any considered contrast, novel miRNAs as-mirNOV10, as-

mirNOV16, and as-mirNOV17 as well as known miRNAs aga-miR-286b, aga-miR-2944a, aga-miR-

2944b, aga-miR-307, and aga-miR-309. as-mirNOV10 was enriched at 2 dpi, as-mirNOV16 was

enriched at 7 dpi, and as-mirNOV 17 was depleted at 14 dpi and between 7 – 14 dpi. The known

miRNAs were depleted as a group at 7 dpi and in the 2 - 7 dpi contrast but enriched in the 7 –

14 dpi contrast.

Table 1: Differentially expressed *Anopheles stephensi* miRNAs in response to Mayaro virus

miRNA ID	logFC	logCPM	F	P Value	FDR	Direction	Contrast
as-mirNOV10	8.99	4.11	6.06	0.04	0.57	POSITIVE	2 dpi
as-mir1NOV16	6.21	2.27	6.36	0.03	0.31	POSITIVE	7 dpi
aga-miR-309	-7.13	10.57	16.78	0.00	0.08	NEGATIVE	7 dpi
aga-miR-286b	-7.78	11.31	11.12	0.01	0.13	NEGATIVE	7 dpi
aga-miR-2944a	-6.23	12.45	21.04	0.00	0.07	NEGATIVE	7 dpi
aga-miR-2944b	-6.74	10.93	13.54	0.00	0.11	NEGATIVE	7 dpi
as-mirNOV17	-8.12	2.05	7.71	0.02	0.16	NEGATIVE	14 dpi
aga-miR-286b	-6.67	11.31	6.10	0.03	0.52	NEGATIVE	2 - 7 dpi
aga-miR-2944a	-5.58	12.45	11.52	0.01	0.47	NEGATIVE	2 - 7 dpi
aga-miR-2944b	-5.96	10.93	7.44	0.02	0.47	NEGATIVE	2 - 7 dpi
aga-miR-309	-6.33	10.57	9.48	0.01	0.47	NEGATIVE	2 - 7 dpi
aga-miR-286b	7.80	11.31	7.05	0.02	0.14	POSITIVE	7 - 14 dpi
aga-miR-2944a	6.46	12.45	14.94	0.00	0.09	POSITIVE	7 - 14 dpi
aga-miR-2944b	7.29	10.93	10.55	0.01	0.09	POSITIVE	7 - 14 dpi
aga-miR-307	1.09	4.84	7.68	0.02	0.13	POSITIVE	7 - 14 dpi
aga-miR-309	7.30	10.57	11.72	0.01	0.09	POSITIVE	7 - 14 dpi
as-mirNOV17	-8.76	2.05	5.42	0.05	0.21	NEGATIVE	7 - 14 dpi

318   infection.

Figure 5: Volcano plots visualizing differential expression of identified *Anopheles stephensi*

miRNAs in response to Mayaro infection. The Y-axis shows -log10 transformed P-values, and the

X-axis shows log2 transformed fold change values. Red points represent transcripts depleted by

more than -1 log2FC in response to infection with a FDR < 0.05, while blue points are transcripts

enriched by more than 1 log2FC in response to infection with a FDR < 0.05. A. - C. are the 2 dpi,

7 dpi, and 14 dpi groupings respectively, while D. and E. are miRNAs regulated in the infected

treatment between 2 - 7 dpi and 7 - 14 dpi respectively.

The miR-309/286/2944 has been found to be enriched in *An. gambiae* in response to

blood feeding [39 – 40], and to be associated with Argonaute proteins post-bloodmeal [39].

When experimentally repressed aga- miR-309 was found to retard oocyte development [39],

depletion in response to MAYV infection may suggest that viral replication or the host immune

response sequesters resources normally requires for host oocyte development, and as a result

associated miRNAs are also depleted. Experimental infections have demonstrated that for *Ae.*

aegypti, infection with CHIKV does not impact the number of eggs laid but it does have a

detrimental impact on the viability of the eggs produced, however this is not observed with

ZIKV [41, 42]. Infection of *Culex tarsalis* with West Nile Virus demonstrates a decrease in

fecundity as measured by egg raft size and number of eggs laid [43].

miRNA Target Prediction

We next identified putative targets in the *An. stephensi* genome for all known and novel

miRNAs identified in all samples [32]. For each of the identified miRNAs we found an average

537 potential annotated targets within the Astel2 genome (Supplementary Table 8). Targets for

significantly regulated miRNAs were loaded into g:Profiler and any overrepresented GO terms

with an FDR < 0.5 were considered significant (Supplementary Table 9) [33].

No overrepresented GO terms were identified by the genomic targets of as-mirNOV-10

or aga-miR-307. as-mirNOV-16 was significantly enriched in response to infection at 7 dpi and

the only GO terms overrepresented by the predicted genomic targets of this miRNA are

associated with protein binding. as-mirNOV17 was depleted at 14 dpi and between 7 – 14 dpi

and has GO terms related to transmembrane ion channels overrepresented by its genomic

targets. aga-mir-2944a and aga-mir-2944b were both depleted at 7 dpi and between 2 – 7 dpi

but enriched between 7 – 14 dpi and both have GO terms primarily associated with intracellular

signaling and various binding functions, and aga-mir-2944b also appears to be involved with

lipid localization and transport. aga-mir-286b and aga-miR-309 were both also depleted at 7 dpi

and between 2 and 7 dpi, and were enriched between 7 and 14 dpi; aga-mir-286b only had

acetylglucosaminyltransferase activity overrepresented by its genomic targets, and aga-miR-

309 had terms related to calcium ion transport, actin filament binding, and catalytic activity

overrepresented by its genomic targets.

The novel miRNA as-mirNOV-17 has 498 predicted genomic targets, and those targets

overlap with 8 enriched and 3 depleted genes at 14 dpi and 6 enriched and 2 depleted genes

between 7 and 14 dpi, when as-mirNOV-17 was significantly repressed in response to MAYV

infection (Table 1). Neither as-mirNOV-10 or as-mirNOV-16 showed a bias for enriched or

depleted genomic targets in the contrasts they were significantly regulated in. The known

miRNAs also showed a bias for enriched targets between 2-7 dpi and 7-14 dpi where they are

repressed and activated in each contrast respectively. These patterns are consistent with the

miRNAs acting as effector molecules for RNAi, except for the known miRNAs between 7 - 14 dpi

where their expression is enhanced but they still have a bias for enriched genomic targets [38].

Recent studies have demonstrated that through targeting of promotor elements miRNAs can

have a positive impact on gene transcription, so this could explain the phenomenon happening

between 7 – 14 dpi where miRNA targets are enriched when the miRNAs themselves are also

enriched [45].

<u>piRNA Identification</u>

We identified putative viral piRNAs in the small RNA datasets by tracking the 24-35 nt

reads, removing those that were identified as miRNAs, and mapping these reads to the Mayaro

Virus NC_003417.1 genome using the Bowtie sequence aligner, all of which was performed

within the MSRG pipeline [26 – 27, 34, 52]. There was viral piRNA expression in infected

samples with a bias for the positive strand over the negative strand, and the proportion of

potential piRNAs mapping to the viral genome remained consistent across time points with no

particular peaks or hotspots identified across the viral genome (Figure 6) [53].

Figure 6: Histograms demonstrating read depth across the Mayaro virus genome for reads with

a piRNA size profile (24 - 35 nt) and a siRNA size profile (18 – 23). Y-axis is read depth in reads

per million, and X-axis is position in viral genome. Blue demonstrates reads for that sample

mapping to the negative strand, while red demonstrates those mapping to the positive strand.

A. - C. 2, 7, and 14 dpi respectively, those on the left are control and on the right are infected

for that time point. Underneath the y-axis is a visualization of the positions of the proteins

along the viral genome.

Virus-derived piRNA-like small RNAs have been identified in insects and insect cells

infected with Flaviviruses, Bunyaviruses and Alphaviruses. Knockdown of the piRNA pathway

proteins leads to enhanced replication of arboviruses in mosquito cells, suggesting their

potential antiviral properties in mosquitoes [46 – 51]. For example, knockdown of Piwi-4 in *Ae.*

aegypti Aag2 cell line increased replication of SFV, and silencing of Ago3 and Piwi-5 led to

significantly reduced production of piRNAs against Sindbis virus (SINV) [47, 50].

siRNA Identification

We also identified putative viral siRNAs in the small RNA datasetsby tracking the 18-24

nt reads that were not miRNAs and could map to the Mayaro Virus NC_003417.1 genome [26,

27, 34, 46]. There was minimal alignment of potential siRNAs to the MAYV genome in the

control samples, but in the infected samples there was significant siRNA alignment across the

genome (Figure 6). There was a slight negative-strand bias of MAYV siRNAs (Day2 [103+, 124],

Day7 [287+, 319-], Day14 [667+, 762-], and the steady increase of siRNAs over time suggests

ongoing amplification of the innate immune response with time during the infection process.

There were two peaks for siRNA alignment, one at nonstructural protein 1 and another at

envelope protein 1 and the number of siRNA reads mapping to the viral genome increased from

2 to 14 dpi.

The siRNA pathway is thought to be the main antiviral component of immunity in insects

at the cellular level [54]. Functional studies in *Aedes* mosquitoes have implicated the siRNA

pathway as integral to the antiviral response in the midgut stage of infection as well as at later

systemic stages of infection for DENV and SINV [54]. Studies of the siRNA response in *An.*

gambiae have shown that ONNV does not stimulate a siRNA response at early midgut stages of

infection but is present at later stages of infection in the systemic compartments [54]. Our

results differ from the findings from *An. gambiae* and ONNV in that the siRNA response is

detectable at early stages of infection and is persistent until later stages.

Conclusion

The transcriptomic profiles suggest that MAYV activates the Toll pathway at early and

mid-stages of infection as an innate humoral response from the host to fight infection. At later

stages of infection there appears to be a repression of JNK and MAPK signaling cascades,

potentially impacting autophagic and apoptotic processes as a way to limit MAYV replication.

The small RNA profiles suggests a reliance on siRNA silencing as an antiviral immune response.

There was a minimal piRNA response to infection with a positive strand bias, but it did not

appear to play a major role in antiviral immunity in this study. miRNAs were also elicited in

response to infection and some overlap was observed with transcripts identified as regulated in

response to infection, but not to the extent that they appear to be strongly regulating

transcriptional profiles in response to infection.

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Supplementary Table 1: Information related to infection of *Anopheles stephensi* with Mayaro

virus. Includes number of mosquitoes in each treatment and time point and associated

mortality, nanodrop readings for all RNA extractions collected, pooling scheme for sequencing

of mRNA and small RNA, and qPCR data from each sample using primers specific for Mayaro

virus strain BeAn to confirm infection status.

Supplementary Table 2: Differentially expressed transcripts from the *Anopheles stephensi*

AsteI2 genome.

Supplementary Table 3: Differential expression results from the *Anopheles stephensi*

PRJNA629843 genome.

Supplementary Table 4: GO term overrepresentation for differentially regulated transcripts.

Supplementary Table 5: Read counts mapping to the identified *Anopheles stephensi* miRNAs in

each small RNA sample sequenced, both raw counts and counts normalized to library size

(reads per million, RPM) are presented.

Supplementary Table 6: All known and novel mature and precursor miRNA sequences

identified.

Supplementary Table 7: Differential expression of *Anopheles stephensi* miRNAs.

Supplementary Table 8: Genomic targets from the *Anopheles stephensi* AsteI2 genome for all

identified miRNAs.

Supplementary Table 9: Overrepresented GO terms represented by targets of significantly

regulated miRNAs.

Figure 1: Principal Components Analysis (PCA) on filtered read counts mapping to annotated genes from the AsteI2 build of the *Anopheles stephensi* genome in Vectorbase. A., B., and C. are read counts from samples in the 2, 7, and 14 dpi groupings respectivey. In all PCAs, blue are Mayaro infected, and red are control.

Figure 2: Volcano plots visualizing differential expression of Anopheles stephensi transcripts in response to Mayaro infection. The Y-axis shows -log10 transformed P-values, and the X-axis shows log2 transformed fold change values. Red points represent transcripts downregulated by more than -1 logFC in response to infection with a P value < 0.05, while blue points are transcripts upregulated by more than 1 logFC in response to infection with a P value < 0.05. A. - C. are trasncripts regulated in the 2 dpi, 7 dpi, and 14 dpi groupings respectively, while D. and E. are transcripts regulated in the infected treatment between 2 - 7 dpi and 7 - 14 dpi respectively.

Figure 3: The top histogram represents the number of miRNAs shared between treatments (intersection size), and each row below the histogram represents a treatment. The lines connecting treatments below the top histogram represent treatments which share that number of miRNAs, and the histogram to the side of the treatments represents the number of miRNAs contained within each treatment.

Figure 4: Principal Components Analysis (PCA) on read counts mapping to miRNAs identified in the AsteI2 build of the *Anopheles stephensi* genome in Vectorbase. A. - C. are the 2 dpi, 7 dpi, and 14 dpi groupings respectively. In all PCAs, blue is Mayaro infected, and red is control.

Figure 5: Volcano plots visualizing differential expression of identified *Anopheles stephensi* miRNAs in response to Mayaro infection. The Y-axis shows -log10 transformed P-values, and the X-axis shows log2 transformed fold change values. Red points represent transcripts downregulated by more than -1 logFC in response to infection with a P Value < 0.05, while blue points are transcripts upregulated by more than 1 logFC in response to infection with a P Value < 0.05. A. - C. are the 2 dpi, 7 dpi, and 14 dpi groupings respectively, while D. and E. are miRNAs regulated in the infected treatment between 2 - 7 dpi and 7 - 14 dpi respectively.

Figure 6: Histograms demonstrating read depth across the Mayaro virus genome for reads with a piRNA size profile (24 - 35 nt) and a siRNA size profile (18 – 23). Y-axis is read depth in reads per million, and X-axis is position in viral genome. Blue demonstrates reads for that sample mapping to the negative strand, while red demonstrates those mapping to the positive strand. A. - C. 2, 7, and 14 dpi respectively, those on the left are control and on the right are infected for that time point. Underneath the y-axis is a visualization of the positions of the proteins along the viral genome.