Genomes of *Wolbachia* endosymbionts from the human filarial parasites *Mansonella perstans* and *Mansonella ozzardi*

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Running Title: Genomes of *Wolbachia* from *Mansonella spp.*

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Abstract

Mansonella ozzardi and *Mansonella perstans*, filarial parasites infecting millions of people worldwide, harbor their unique obligate endosymbionts, the alpha-proteobacteria *Wolbachia* *w*Moz and *w*Mpe, respectively. Currently, little is known about these *Wolbachia* and no genome sequences are available. In the current study, high quality draft genomes of *w*Moz and *w*Mpe were assembled from complex clinical samples using a metagenome assembly and binning approach. These represent the first genomes from supergroup F *Wolbachia* originating from human parasites and share features characteristic of filarial as well arthropod *Wolbachia*, consistent with their position in supergroup F. Metagenomic data analysis was also used to estimate *Wolbachia* titers, which revealed wide variation in levels across different clinical isolates, addressing the contradicting reports on presence or absence of *Wolbachia* in *M. perstans*. These findings may have implications for the use antibiotics to treat mansonellosis. The *w*Moz and *w*Mpe genome sequences provide a valuable resource for further studies on symbiosis, evolution and drug discovery.

Introduction

Wolbachia are gram-negative α-proteobacteria of the order *Rickettsiales*, present as intracellular symbionts in many species of parasitic filarial nematodes and arthropods[1]. While the *Wolbachia* associations in arthropods range from reproductive parasites to nutritional mutualists[1,2], *Wolbachia* is an obligate mutualist in the filarial nematodes[3] and is essential for worm development, fecundity and survival[3,4]. The latest phylogenetic classification, based on Multi-Locus Sequence Typing (MLST), assigns *Wolbachia* to various monophyletic supergroups[5–7]. Supergroups A, B, E, H and S are comprised entirely of arthropod *Wolbachia*, while supergroups C, D and J consist of filarial *Wolbachia* exclusively. Interestingly, the *Wolbachia* present in the filarial nematodes of the genus *Mansonella* are classified under supergroup F, the only supergroup to have *Wolbachia* members from nematode as well as arthropod hosts.

Mansonella perstans and *Mansonella ozzardi* are the two main causes of mansonellosis, and harbor their specific *Wolbachia*, *w*Mpe and *w*Moz respectively. Mansonellosis is the most prevalent human filariases, yet the least studied and most neglected of all filarial infections[8–13]. *M. perstans* is considered to be the most common filaria in West and Central Africa[9,12]. It is also found in the Amazon rainforest and the Caribbean coast in South America[12,14]. *M. ozzardi* infections have been reported from many countries in South and Central America, including some Caribbean Islands[10,12,15,16]. Importantly, co-infections of *M. perstans* and *M. ozzardi* have been reported in South America[17,18], making their treatment challenging as the two species respond differently to the commonly used anti-filarial drugs[12]. Antibiotics targeting *Wolbachia* have been successful in treating filarial diseases such as onchocerciasis and lymphatic filariasis[4,19–24]. Doxycycline, an effective anti-*Wolbachia* antibiotic, has been shown to clear *M. perstans* microfilariae[12,25–27]. Although no clinical trials have been reported, it is likley that

antibiotics will have a similar effect against *M. ozzardi*[28], enabling the use of a single drug to

treat co-infections with *M. ozzardi* and *M. perstans*[18].

There is great interest in understanding the nature of the symbiotic relationship between

Mansonella and their *Wolbachia* endosymbionts. The phylogenetic position of the *Mansonella*

Wolbachia in a unique supergroup that also contains arthropod *Wolbachia* could also have

implications for the nature of interactions with their host[5,6,29,30]. While genomic information

could provide fundamental resource for investigating their biology, the only complete genome

from supergroup F *Wolbachia* is the genome of *Wolbachia* from the bedbug *Cimex lectularius*

(*w*Cle)[29]. A draft genome of the supergroup F *Wolbachia* from *Madathamugadia hiepei*

(*w*Mhie), a filarial parasite of geckos, has become available recently[6]. However, since no

genomic information is available for the *Wolbachia* of *Mansonella*, it is not known whether their

biology is more closely aligned to filarial or arthropod *Wolbachia*[12].

Here, the first genomes of supergroup F *Wolbachia w*Moz and *w*Mpe from human filarial

parasites are reported. These draft genomes have been assembled from one isolate of *M. ozzardi*

microfilariae from Venezuela, and one isolate of *M. perstans* from Cameroon. The genomes are

slightly larger than 1 Mb and encode for about 900 genes each. The genome drafts are of high

quality based on assessment of completeness using presence of conserved *Wolbachia* core genes

as a metric. Analysis of deep-sequencing data from additional isolates of *M. ozzardi* and *M.*

perstans was performed and provided some insights into the longstanding controversy around the

status of *Wolbachia* across different *Mansonella perstans* isolates[25–27,31–33]. Additionally,

comparative analyses between *w*Moz and *w*Mpe, as well as across other filarial and arthropod

Wolbachia genomes are also performed and reported.

The availability of the *w*Moz and *w*Mpe genome sequences will provide further insight

into the evolution and phylogenetic relationships of the *Wolbachia* endosymbionts of old and

new world *Mansonella* species. They will serve as an important resource for further studies on

symbiosis, facilitate the development of improved methods for *Wolbachia* detection and

contribute to the on-going search for new anti-*Wolbachia* drugs.

Materials and Methods

Ethics statement

All research involving human subjects was approved by the appropriate committee and

performed in accordance with all relevant guidelines and regulations. Informed consent was

obtained from all participants or their legal guardians.

For *M. perstans*, ethical clearance was obtained from the National Institutional Review

board, Yaoundé (REF: N° 2015/09/639/CE/CNERSH/SP) and administrative clearance from the

Delegation of Public Health, South-West region of Cameroon (Re: R11/MINSANTE/SWR/

RDPH/PS/259/382). Approval for the study was granted by the "National Ethics Committee of

Research for Human Health" in Cameroon. Special consideration was taken to minimize the

health risks to which any participant in this study was exposed. The objectives of the study were

explained to the consenting donor after which they signed an informed consent form. The

participant's documents were given a code to protect the privacy of the study subject. At the end

of the study, the donor received a cure of mebendazole (100 mg twice a day for 30 days).

For *M. ozzardi*, study protocols were approved by the Institutional Review Board of the

Institute of Biomedical Sciences, University of São Paulo, Brazil (1133/CEP, 2013). Written

informed consent was obtained from all patients, or their parents or guardians if participants

were minors aged <18 years. Diagnosed infections were treated with a single dose of 0.2 mg/kg

of ivermectin after blood sampling[34,35].

Parasite materials and DNA extraction

DNA from *M. ozzardi* microfilariae from blood samples of individual subjects were collected as

part of a previous study in Brazil[35]. One of the high microfilaremia samples was selected for

genome sequencing and is denoted as Moz1 in the present study. A Venezuelan isolate of *M.*

ozzardi microfilariae was generously donated by Izaskun Petralanda in 1989 and is denoted as

Moz2 in this study. Genomic DNA was prepared from Moz2 microfilariae by Proteinase K

digestion followed by phenol/chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation, and drop dialysis

(https://www.neb.com/protocols/2013/09/16/drop-dialysis) then stored at –20ºC. Two

independent isolates of *M. perstans* microfilariae, denoted as Mpe1 and Mpe2 in this study, were

obtained on nylon filters from blood samples of consenting individuals in Cameroon[36]. Mpe1

DNA was extracted using a Genomic DNA Tissue MicroPrep kit (Zymo Research, USA) as

described previously[37]. DNA from Mpe2 was isolated as described above for Moz2. DNA

quantity was determined using a Qubit dsDNA HS Assay kit in conjunction with a Qubit 2.0

Fluorometer as directed by the manufacturer (Life Technologies, USA).

Illumina library construction and sequencing

The NEBNext Microbiome DNA enrichment kit (New England Biolabs Inc., USA) was used as

directed to enrich for parasite DNA and reduce human DNA contamination prior to construction

of the libraries from each of the samples, except Moz2. The preparation of Illumina libraries

from Mpe1 and Moz1 samples have been described as part of a previous study[37]. A similar

protocol was used for preparing libraries from Mpe2 and Moz2. Briefly, Illumina libraries were

constructed using the NEBNext Ultra II FS DNA Library Prep Kit (New England Biolabs Inc.,

USA) as described by the manufacturer. Following PCR amplification with different index

primers to enable multiplexing, the libraries were size selected using NEBNext Sample

Purification Beads (NEB cat. # E7767) following manufacturer's instructions. The approximate

insert size and concentration of each library was determined using a 2100 Bioanalyzer with a

high sensitivity DNA chip (Agilent Technologies, USA). Two Mpe2 libraries with insert sizes of

approximately 500 and 800 bps and two Moz2 libraries with insert sizes of approximately 500

and 950 bps were constructed. Libraries were diluted to 4 nM with 10 mM Tris, 0.1 mM EDTA

pH 8 for sequencing. Due to the A:T rich nature of filarial genomes, Phi X DNA was added to

balance base pair composition, then sequenced using the Illumina MiSeq and NextSeq500

platforms (paired end, 150 bps).

Metagenomic assembly and binning

Raw reads were processed using the BBTools package v38.51 (https://jgi.doe.gov/data-and-

tools/bbtools/). Duplicate raw reads and bad tiles were removed using the clumpify.sh and

filterbytile.sh utilities. Adapter trimming, removal of phiX reads and reads with 13-nt or longer

stretches of the same nucleotide (poly-G, -C, -A or-T) was performed using bbduk.sh. Human

host reads were removed by mapping against the human genome (grch38) using the bbmap.sh

utility. The quality metrics of the processed reads at each step were assessed using FastqC

v0.11.9 (https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/).

Reads from different runs of the libraries prepared from the same genomic DNA sample were

combined and used as an input for the assembly of the metagenome using metaSpades v3.14.0[38].

Input reads were mapped back to the assembled contigs using bowtie2 (v.2.4.1)[39]. Binning of

metagenomic contigs into metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) of *Mansonella* and

Wolbachia was performed using the BlobTools v1.1.1 software[40] and additional curation. The

bins annotated as "Proteobacteria" and "Nematoda" were analyzed further to retrieve sequences

originating from *Wolbachia*. A cluster of "Proteobacteria" contigs in the blobplots of each of the

metagenomes was analyzed further using blastn against *w*Cle genome to verify their *Wolbachia*

origin. These contigs were subsequently collected as respective *Wolbachia* assemblies from each

of the isolates. The combined size of contigs collected from the Moz1 isolate was only 120 kb,

much smaller than a 1 Mb genome typically seen for *Wolbachia*, and were not analyzed further.

Similarly, in the Mpe2 sample, only 12 contigs with a total size of 15 kb were identified as

candidate *Wolbachia* sequence and were not analyzed further. The tight clusters of

"Proteobacteria" contigs in the blobplots of Moz2 and Mpe1 were analyzed further as the *w*Moz

and *w*Mpe genome assemblies respectively. For the remaining clusters of metagenome contigs

that were marked also "Proteobacteria" by BlobTools but had a distinctly different %GC as

compared to the *Wolbachia* contigs, blastn searches against the NCBI-nt database was performed

to verify that they did not originate from the *Wolbachia* genome. All the bioinformatics

programs were run using the default parameters unless otherwise stated.

Genome annotation and comparative analysis

For both wMpe and wMoz genomes, protein-coding genes, rRNA, tRNA, ncRNA genes and

pseudogenes were identified using the NCBI prokaryotic genome annotation pipeline[41]. Analysis

of sequence similarity and synteny between wMoz, wMpe and wCle genomes was carried out

using the JupiterPlot tool (https://github.com/JustinChu/JupiterPlot) which uses minimap2[42] for

whole-genome alignments. The parameters used in Jupiter plots are maxGap = 100,000;

minBundleSize = 1,000; m_ref_contig_cutoff = 500; gScaff = 500. The parameter 'ng' was set to

100%, so that all the contigs from the two assemblies being compared are displayed in the

Jupiter plots. Whole-genome alignments of wMoz, wMpe as well as the wMhie genome against

wCle as the reference genome were performed using the nucmer utility in MUMmer4[43] with

default parameters. The resulting alignment blocks were visualized as concentric Circos plots[44]

drawn using the R package circlize v0.4.10 [45]. The completeness of the protein-coding content of

genomes was assessed using the BUSCO pipeline v5.0 beta using the "proteobacteria_odb10"

reference dataset[46]. For global sequence comparisons across multiple Wolbachia genomes the

average nucleotide identity (ANI) scores were calculated using the OrthoANIu tool v1.2[47]. The

pairwise ANI scores were used for hierarchical clustering of different Wolbachia, and a

correlation plot was generated using R package corrplot v0.84

(https://github.com/taiyun/corrplot). For a more sensitive measure of sequence similarity and

divergence between closely related Wolbachia, digital DNA–DNA hybridization (dDDH)

scores[48] were computed using the recommended "formula 2" at the "Genome-to-Genome

Distance Calculator" (GGDC) web-service (https://ggdc.dsmz.de/ggdc.php). The orthologs of

protein coding genes across multiple Wolbachia genomes were inferred using OrthoFinder

v2.4[49], and the results visually represented as UpSet plots[50] using the R package UpSetR

v1.4.0[51]. Insertion sequence (IS) elements were identified via the ISsaga web server[52] and by

parsing the annotations in GenBank format from NCBI-PGAP pipeline. Other transposons and

Group II introns were also inferred via parsing the GenBank files. Phage-derived genes and

regions were annotated by integrating the outputs from the PHASTER web server[53], the PhiSpy

v4.2.6 tool[54] (https://github.com/linsalrob/PhiSpy/), and manual curation based on GenBank

annotations. Functional annotation of protein-coding genes was carried out using the eggNOG-

Mapper[55] web server (http://eggnogdb.embl.de/#/app/emapper). The analysis of different

metabolic pathways was based on the annotations of *w*Cle and *w*Bm genomes available in the

KEGG database[56]. Pseudogene loci and the GenBank accession of the ortholog of their potential

parent genes were annotated as a part of the NCBI-PGAP pipeline. If a pseudogene from

multiple *Wolbachia* shared the same accession for the parent gene ortholog, it was considered to

be a shared pseudogene.

Results

Metagenomic assembly and binning retrieves *Wolbachia* genomes from complex samples

All four isolates sequenced here were obtained as microfilariae from *Mansonella*-positive human

subjects. The genomic DNA extracted from such clinical samples is unlikely to contain pure

DNA originating from the parasite alone, instead each of the samples is expected to yield a

complex assortment of mixed-organism DNA. The analysis of raw genome data from these

samples therefore required a metagenomic assembly and binning approach to de-convolute

parasite, symbiont and contaminants to permit species-specific genome assemblies. Further

complicating correct assembly of *Wolbachia* genomes, is the presence of lateral gene transfer

events where symbiont DNA can integrate into the nuclear genome of the host. Appropriate steps

were taken to avoid including these HGT regions in the bacterial assemblies.

The assembled metagenome contigs were analyzed using BlobTools[40], which is used to

identify clusters of contigs based on their GC content, and read coverage obtained by mapping

back input reads to the assembly, overlaid with sequence-identity based taxonomic classification.

Partitioning the data in this manner generated distinct blobs corresponding to the desired target

Wolbachia genomes from the mixed dataset, the genomes of the worm hosts and contaminating

microbiota. (Supplementary Figure S1). The *Wolbachia* contigs identified from the BlobTools

analysis were extracted as a separate bin of fasta sequences and analyzed further.

Of the two *M. ozzardi* isolates (Moz1 from Brazil and Moz2 from Venezuela), sufficient

coverage was obtained from Moz2 that yielded a draft *w*Moz assembly of 1,073,310 bp in size

comprised of 93 contigs. The N50 size of this assembly is 17.225 kb and the largest contig is

37.481 kb (Table 1). Of the two *M. perstans* isolates, Mpe1 and Mpe2, only Mpe1 yielded a

Wolbachia assembly. The *w*Mpe assembly is comprised of 1,058,123 bp in 170 contigs, with a

N50 size of 10.041 kb and the largest contig is 28.485 kb (Table 1).

The quality and correctness of these *de novo* assemblies were confirmed by various

comparative analyses. Whole genome alignment of *w*Moz and *w*Mpe visualized as a Jupiter plot

demonstrates high sequence similarity and co-linearity of these independently assembled, closely

related *Wolbachia* (Figure 1). A comparison was also made to the most closely related complete

genome available in the Clade F supergroup, namely *w*Cle, where high sequence synteny and co-

linearity were also observed (Figures 2A and 2B).

To determine the nature of the gaps in the draft assemblies, the whole genome alignments

were investigated in more detail. Interestingly, most of the regions absent from wMoz and wMpe

assemblies corresponded to regions containing IS element transposons in the wCle genome

(Figure 3). In a similar analysis using the recently available draft genome of wMhie, the missing

regions were again found to be associated with IS elements in wCle genome (Figure 3). Based on

this analysis, it appears that most of the protein coding regions have been assembled into these

draft genomes, and only the IS elements remain absent from the current assemblies. Due to their

repetitive nature, IS elements are known to present a technical hurdle in assembling complete

genomes, leading to fragmented assemblies[57,58].

Gene prediction using the NCBI PGAP pipeline identified 888 protein coding genes in

wMoz and 864 protein coding genes in wMpe. A BUSCO analysis (v5.beta) was performed on

these proteins, to check for presence of the 219 genes conserved across most proteobacteria

("proteobacteria_odb10" database in BUSCO). The BUSCO scores of wMoz and wMpe were

77.6% and 74.4% respectively (Table 1), with such scores being typical for *Wolbachia,* even

with complete genomes. For comparison, the corresponding scores for other *Wolbachia* were

also calculated. The BUSCO scores for *Wolbachia* wOv from the human filarial parasite

Onchocerca volvulus and wOo, present in the related bovine parasite *Onchocerca ochengi* are

76.7% and 75.8% respectively, and 79.5% for wBm from the human filarial parasite *Brugia*

malayi (Supplementary Figure S2). Within supergroup F, the BUSCO score for filarial

Wolbachia wMhie is 79% and is 81.7% for the arthropod *Wolbachia* wCle.

Different isolates of *Mansonella* harbor varying levels of *Wolbachia*

The metagenomic assembly and binning approach also enables the measurement of the

relative amounts of *Wolbachia* in different isolates, by comparing the sequencing reads coverage

of the *Mansonella* and *Wolbachia* specific contig bins in the metagenomic assemblies (Table 2).

In the *M. ozzardi* sample (Moz2), the median coverage of contigs classified as *Mansonella* was

observed to be 360X, while that of the *Wolbachia* contigs was found to be 13X. Assuming 1000

nematode cells per microfilaria[59], each parasite is estimated to harbor 37 *Wolbachia* cells. For the

other *M. ozzardi* isolate (Moz1) the median coverage for nematode contigs was only 57X and

this low coverage is the most likely reason why this isolate did not yield sufficient *Wolbachia*

contigs in its metagenomic assembly. Therefore, the titer calculations were not performed for the

Moz1 isolate as they would not be robust at such low coverage and incomplete assembly. For the

M. perstans sample (Mpe1), the median coverage of nematode contigs was 1032X and the

Wolbachia coverage was 30X, yielding an estimated titer of 30 *Wolbachia* per microfilaria. In

the other *M. perstans* isolate Mpe2, where only 12 *Wolbachia* contigs were produced in the

metagenomic assembly, the median coverage for nematode contigs is relatively high 633X,

indicating that the lack of *Wolbachia* contigs is not due to insufficient depth of coverage and is

rather most likely due to a very low titer of *Wolbachia* in this sample. Since both isolates were

collected in Cameroon, these observations point to variation in *Wolbachia* titers within the same

species in a geographical area and could explain the conflicting reports on detection of

Wolbachia in *M. perstans*[25–27,31–33].

Genome comparisons with other *Wolbachia*

The sequence similarity and divergence between different *Wolbachia* genomes from filarial

nematodes, a plant parasitic nematode, and arthropod hosts representing different supergroups

(Supplementary Table S1) was measured using the genome-wide average nucleotide identity

(gANI) and digital DNA–DNA hybridization (dDDH) scores. The gANI scores (Figure 4A) for

closely related sympatric *Wolbachia* are: 99% for the *w*Oo : *w*Ov pair from *Onchocerca spp*. and

99% for the *w*Bm : *w*Bpa pair from *Brugia spp*. Within supergroup F, high gANI scores were

observed as expected; namely 97% between the *w*Moz : *w*Mpe pair, and 92% between *w*Moz :

*w*Cle and *w*Mpe : *w*Cle pairs (Figure 4A). *w*Mhie shared a higher similarity with *w*Cle (95%),

than to *w*Moz and *w*Mpe (92%). Comparisons between Clade F members and those of other

clades generated gANI scores of a maximum value of 85% (Figure 4A).

Using dDDH, a more sensitive metric for sequence divergence between very closely

related species, the dDDH score of the *w*Moz : *w*Mpe pair was found to be 71.7% (Figure 4B).

For comparison, the dDDH scores for other pairs of closely related *Wolbachia* are: 96.1% for the

*w*Oo : *w*Ov pair from *Onchocerca spp*. (Figure 4C) and 93.3% for the *w*Bm : *w*Bpa pair from

Brugia spp. (Figure 4D). Within supergroup F, the dDDH scores of more diverged pairs, namely

*w*Moz : *w*Cle and *w*Mpe : *w*Cle are only ~44%, while the scores obtained for *w*Mhie : *w*Cle is

considerably higher at 61.8%.

The core proteome of filarial *w*Mpe and *w*Moz

305   Orthologs for *w*Moz and *w*Mpe proteins were identified with OrthoFinder[49] using the predicted

306   proteomes of various *Wolbachia*, including complete genomes representing each arthropod

307   *Wolbachia* supergroup, all filarial *Wolbachia* genomes and the only *Wolbachia* genome from a

308 plant parasitic nematode (Supplementary Table 2). From a total input set of 17,720 proteins, 96%

309 of proteins (n = 17,020) could be clustered into 1,440 orthogroups that were present in at least

310 two *Wolbachia* proteomes, while 1.5% of proteins (n = 253) were grouped into 65 orthogroups

311 that were species-specific (Supplementary Table S2-A). Only 2.5% (n = 447) of all the input

312 proteins could not be assigned to any orthogroups. For *w*Moz and *w*Mpe, 851 and 821 of their

313 protein-coding genes (~95%) were assigned to one of the 1,440 shared orthogroups, while 35 of

314 *w*Moz proteins and 39 of *w*Mpe proteins (less than 5% in both cases) could not be assigned to

315 any orthogroup (Supplementary Table S2-B, C). These trends are very similar for the other

316 genomes analyzed, with more than 95% of proteins for each *Wolbachia* assigned to a shared

317 orthogroup, and the proportion of potentially genome-specific orthogroups being lower than 5%

318 (Supplementary Table S2-C). The only exception to this trend was observed for the *Folsomia*

319 *candida Wolbachia* (*w*Fol) genome, for which 9.6% of its protein-coding genes were clustered

320 into *w*Fol-specific orthogroups, while 9% of its proteins could not be assigned to any

321 orthogroups.

322  A total of 411 orthogroups were found to be conserved across all the *Wolbachia* analyzed

323 (Figure 5). Interestingly, 29 orthogroups were found that are present in *w*Mpe and *w*Moz, but not

324 in the two other clade F *Wolbachia, w*Cle and *w*Mhie. However, further analysis revealed most

325 of these genes to be hypothetical proteins with a median size of 80 aa. From these patterns of

326 shared orthologs, it can be seen that the set of proteins encoded in supergroup F *Wolbachia*

327 genomes, particularly *w*Moz and *w*Mpe, do not deviate significantly from those of other filarial

328 *Wolbachia*.

Mobile genetic elements in *w*Moz and *w*Mpe genomes

Genes encoding various kinds of transposable elements, including IS elements, were identified

based on annotation descriptions obtained from the PGAP pipeline. The *w*Moz genome assembly

has 25 transposable elements (3 intact protein coding genes and 22 pseudogenes, Supplementary

Table 3A), while the *w*Mpe genome assembly contains 23 transposable elements (1 intact protein

coding gene, 22 pseudogenes, Supplementary Table 3B). Applying the same search strategy to

the *w*Mhie genome assembly identified 66 transposon elements (16 intact protein coding genes,

50 pseudogenes, Supplementary Table 3C). Within the set of these transposable elements, the

*w*Moz assembly harbors only 1 intact IS3 family gene and 12 pseudogenes from various families

of IS elements. The *w*Mpe draft genome contains 10 pseudogenes from various IS families but

no intact IS element gene, while 14 intact and 42 pseudogenized IS elements were identified in

the wMhie genome. Additional search for IS elements in *w*Moz and *w*Mpe genome assemblies

using the ISsaga web-server[52] did not reveal any other IS elements in these genomes. In the

complete *w*Cle genome, ISsaga web-service could identify 149 IS elements, with the IS5 family

being the most abundant (121 copies). The low number of IS elements observed in *w*Moz and

*w*Mpe is most likely due to the limitations of short-read data in capturing repeated elements.

Group II introns are a common mobile element found in high copy numbers in many

Wolbachia genomes, e.g. 53 copies in the *w*AlbB genome[57]. Both the *w*Moz and *w*Mpe assembly

contain only 1 pseudogene derived from a Group II intron, while no intact gene or pseudogene

for these elements could be found in *w*Mhie and *w*Cle genomes as reported earlier[6].

A search for prophage elements identified 9 phage derived genes in both *w*Moz and

*w*Mpe assemblies of which 4 have been pseudogenized in both *Wolbachia* (Supplementary Table

3D). A gene encoding gp6-like head-tail connector phage protein and a pseudogene derived from

a phage portal protein were found only in *w*Moz, while a pseudogene derived from major tail-

tube phage protein was found only in *w*Mpe. This is in accordance with the trend of none or very

few phage derived genes in filarial *Wolbachia* genomes[6].

Analysis of various biological pathways in *w*Moz and *w*Mpe genomes

For a detailed functional analysis, the proteins encoded by the *w*Moz and *w*Mpe genomes were

annotated using the eggNOG database (Supplementary Tables S4A-B). Additionally,

biosynthetic pathway annotations for the *w*Cle genome were obtained from the KEGG database

and corresponding orthologs were identified in *w*Moz and *w*Mpe. The genes encoding members

of various metabolic pathways characteristic of *Wolbachia* proteomes, namely the heme

pathway, purine and pyrimidine biosynthesis pathways, riboflavin metabolism, and Type IV

secretion systems were found to be mostly present in *w*Moz and *w*Mpe (Supplementary Tables

S5A-E). Ribosomal protein subunits, a common target for anti-*Wolbachia* drugs such as

doxycycline, as well as candidate drug targets such as pyruvate phosphate dikinase (PPDK)[60]

were also present in both *w*Moz and *w*Mpe.

Biotin biosynthesis genes are absent in *w*Mpe and *w*Moz draft assemblies

The bedbug *Wolbachia w*Cle genome harbors an operon encoding the enzymes involved in

biosynthesis of biotin, supporting a nutritional mutualism between the bedbug and its

Wolbachia[29]. Interestingly, this operon has most likely been laterally acquired by *w*Cle from a

co-infecting *Rickettsia* or *Cardinium* symbiont[29]. Given the paucity of genome data on other

members of supergroup F, it is not clear whether this pathway is also present in other *Wolbachia*

from this supergroup. Searches of the *w*Moz and *w*Mpe proteomes did not reveal any members

of the biotin pathway suggesting that unlike the *w*Cle and bedbug symbiosis, biotin

supplementation is not the basis of mutualism between these *Wolbachia* and their filarial host.

The absence of biotin pathway genes is unlikely to be due to the incomplete nature of the draft

assemblies. Given the high BUSCO score (~80%) of the assemblies, there is a high probability

that at least fragments of a few of the 6 genes in the biotin pathway would have been detected if

present in the genomes. Further, the biotin pathway genes were also found to be absent in the

draft genome of *w*Mhie - the other filarial *Wolbachia* from the supergroup F[6]. In contrast, the

biosynthetic genes of other vitamin pathways present in *w*Cle were easily found in *w*Mpe and

*w*Moz (Supplementary Table S5A-E).

Shared pseudogenes point to a common ancestor of *w*Moz and *w*Mpe being

present in the common ancestor of *M. perstans* and *M. ozzardi*

Intracellular bacteria such as *Wolbachia* are expected to accumulate deleterious mutations over

evolutionary timescales, with one consequence being the formation of pseudogenes[61]. Analysis

of these pseudogenes can also shed light on the nature of genes that are dispensable during a

symbiotic association with the host organism. Pseudogenes in *w*Moz (n = 118) and *w*Mpe (n =

132) were annotated as a part of the NCBI PGAP pipeline and compared with corresponding

annotations in *w*Mhie (n = 87) and *w*Cle (n = 212). These annotations include information on the

ortholog of ancestral protein-coding gene for each pseudogene (Supplementary Table 6). If the

same ancestral gene was found to have converted to a pseudogene in two or more *Wolbachia*, it

was counted as a shared pseudogene (Figure 6). Transposons such as IS elements were excluded

from this analysis due to their tendency to frequently pseudogenize.

For each *Wolbachia*, the majority of its pseudogenes were found to be unique to its

genome, and only 1 pseudogene was shared among all the 4 *Wolbachia*. In pairwise comparisons

of *Wolbachia*, only 2 to 7 pseudogenes were common among pairs of *Wolbachia*, except for the

*w*Moz : *w*Mpe pair, which share a much larger set (n = 38). This large proportion of common

pseudogenes suggests that these pseudogenes were already present in the last common ancestor

(LCA) of *w*Moz and *w*Mpe.

Discussion

To date, there are only two complete *Wolbachia* genomes available from human filarial

parasites; *w*Bm from *Brugia malayi*[62], one of several parasites responsible for lymphatic

filariasis or elephantiasis, and *w*Ov from *O. volvulus*, the causative agent of onchocerciasis or

river blindness[63]. These genomes belong to different phylogenetic lineages - *w*Bm is a member

of supergroup D, whereas *w*Ov has been assigned to supergroup C. This is the first report

describing the genomes of supergroup F *Wolbachia* from *Mansonella*. In this study a

metagenomic approach was utilized to successfully retrieve the *w*Moz genome from one isolate

of *M. ozzardi* collected in Venezuela and the *w*Mpe genome from one isolate of *M. perstans*

from Cameroon. The metagenomic assembly and binning approach that combines information

from GC content of assembled contigs in conjunction with their read-coverage played a critical

role in the generation of high-quality, draft genomes for *w*Mpe and *w*Moz, from complex clinical

samples containing a mixture of DNA from the human host, the filarial parasite and its

intracellular symbiont and possibly other organisms that might be present in humans. The use of

BlobTools[40] for binning of contigs has been successfully employed previously to disentangle

genomes of the *Wolbachia w*Dimm from its host *Dirofilaria immitis*[64,65], a filarial parasite of

dogs and cats that occasionally infects humans.

The metagenomic approach also enables an accurate determination of levels of

endosymbiont present in the worm host. In a previous analysis of *Wolbachia* burden in different

strains and stages of *D. immitis*, use of a BlobTools-like approach identified distinct blobs of

contigs with levels of coverage consistent with high or low *Wolbachia* abundance[65]. Performing

a similar analysis for *Mansonella* samples in the current study, the number of *Wolbachia* was

estimated to be around 30 cells per microfilaria for samples Moz2 and Mpe1. This level of

Wolbachia in *Mansonella* is considerably lower than the reported levels of 100 *Wolbachia* per

microfilaria in *Brugia malayi*[66]. For the other *M. perstans* sample Mpe2 obtained from the same

geographical location as Mpe1, only 12 small contigs corresponding to *Wolbachia* were found at

very low coverage, demonstrating that the endosymbiont was present at extremely low levels,

precluding accurate titer estimation. These observations indicate that even within a locality,

Wolbachia levels can vary between different isolates, and could be a possible explanation for

conflicting reports on the presence and absence of *Wolbachia* in *M. perstans*[25–27,31–33]. In addition

to potential natural variation, previous exposure to antibiotics can also be a cause of very low

Wolbachia levels, and could be another explanation for the occasional failures to detect

Wolbachia in PCR-based assays[25–27,31–33].

The observed differences in *Wolbachia* detection have raised doubts on the essentiality of

Wolbachia in *M. perstans*[32]. However, the success of antibiotic treatments in reducing *M.*

perstans microfilaremia supports an essential role of *Wolbachia* in this species[25–27]. Interestingly,

Wolbachia has recently been reported in *Mansonella sp.* "DEUX" [33], a potentially new species of

Mansonella parasite of humans, which is closely related to *M. perstans*[67]. To date, *Wolbachia*

has been consistently found in all *M. ozzardi* isolates[5,28], including the two isolates in the current

study. Therefore, *Wolbachia* is most likely essential and present in all *Mansonella* parasites of

humans, but can be present at different levels, sometimes below the limit of detection in *M.*

perstans.

Analysis of whole-genome alignments of the *w*Mpe and *w*Moz to the complete *w*Cle

genome in the same supergroup F identified regions of high sequence similarity and synteny, and

also revealed that the location of alignment gaps mainly corresponded to the locations of IS

elements in *w*Cle genome. Due to their repetitive nature, the high-copy number IS elements are

challenging to assemble with short-read data alone, and produce assemblies fragmented into

multiple contigs, with the contig breakpoints mostly caused by the un-assembled IS elements[57,58].

Based on these observations, it is quite likely that both *w*Moz and *w*Mpe contain some as yet

unidentified IS elements present in high copy numbers in their genomes. Consistent with this, 10

pseudogenized IS elements could be identified in both *w*Moz and *w*Mpe assemblies and only one

1 intact IS element could be identified in *w*Moz. The pseudogene copies diverge in sequence

from their parent gene and therefore become low-copy variants that can be successfully

assembled even with short-read data. Assuming at least one IS element in each of the alignment

gaps, the number of IS elements in *w*Moz and *w*Mpe is predicted to be similar to the number of

their contigs, that is around 100 copies. Using the same annotation pipeline on the *w*Mhie draft

genome, 42 pseudogenized and 14 intact IS elements could be identified. Together, these

observations point to presence of around 50 to 100 IS elements in filarial *Wolbachia* from

supergroup F. This is in contrast to the trend in supergroups C and D, where fewer than 5 IS

elements could be identified in complete genomes[6,57,68]. It is common for arthropod *Wolbachia*

from other supergroups (such as A and B) to have hundreds of copies of IS elements, for

example, comprising as high as 13% of the genome sequence in *w*AlbB[57]. Supergroup F is

unique in having members from both filarial and arthropod hosts. It is interesting that the number

of IS elements in filarial *Wolbachia* from this clade is intermediate between those observed in

other arthropod and filarial *Wolbachia*.

The *w*Moz and *w*Mpe genomes enable analysis of their evolutionary history from

multiple perspectives. Insights can be gained from comparison of pseudogene content across

different supergroup F *Wolbachia*. Since pseudogenes are evolutionary accidents, and the

probability of such disruptions happening in the same gene in two independent lineages is low,

the presence of multiple shared pseudogenes suggests that these pseudogenes were already

present in the last common ancestor (LCA) of *w*Moz and *w*Mpe. Since these endosymbionts are

restricted to survive only within their host nematodes, it can be extrapolated that the LCA of

*w*Moz and *w*Mpe should have been already present in the last common ancestor of *M. ozzardi*

and *M. perstans*. After the split, both *w*Moz and *w*Mpe have continued to accumulate lineage-

specific pseudogenes (n = 56 for *w*Moz, n = 62 for *w*Mpe).

Comparisons of genome-wide sequence similarity within supergroup F were also made

using the dDDH score. The dDDH scores simulate the results of DNA : DNA hybridization, and

provide a sensitive measure of sequence similarity and divergence between closely related

bacteria at the whole-genome level. Additionally, this measure has been used to determine

species boundaries, with dDDH scores above 70% typically indicating the same species[48]. The

dDDH score for the *w*Moz : *w*Mpe pair was found to be 71.7%, while the corresponding scores

between other closely related but distinct *Wolbachia* e.g., *w*Bm : *w*Bpa pair and *w*Oo : *w*Ov pair

were even higher (93.3% and 96.1% respectively). Since each of these *Wolbachia* pairs (e.g.,

*w*Moz and *w*Mpe) are found in distinct nematode hosts and cannot exchange genetic material,

they are biologically distinct species. Therefore, the threshold used to delineate species

boundaries in free-living bacteria is most likely not directly applicable to intracellular

endosymbionts, which would have very different population dynamics as compared to free-living

species. The dDDH score is nonetheless a useful metric for measuring sequence divergence. The

lower dDDH scores of the *w*Moz : *w*Mpe pair as compared to the *w*Bm : *w*Bpa and *w*Ov : *w*Oo

pairs indicates that the nucleotide sequence divergence between *Wolbachia* of *Mansonella* is

much higher than the corresponding divergence in *Wolbachia* from either the *Brugia* or

Onchocerca pair. While *w*Moz and *w*Mpe are both derived from filarial parasites of humans,

they still show higher divergence than other pairs that comprise of one *Wolbachia* from a human

filarial parasite (*w*Bm, *w*Ov) and one from a non-human filaria (*w*Bpa, *w*Oo). One potential

cause for the higher divergence observed in *w*Moz : *w*Mpe pair could be the *Mansonella* lineages

splitting into two species (*M. perstans* and *M. ozzardi*) much earlier than the splitting within

Brugia or *Onchocerca* lineages. Additionally, other ecological factors such as geographical

location and vectors involved might contribute to sequence divergence of filarial nematodes and

their endosymbionts.

Orthology analysis and annotation of key biological pathways were performed to infer

biological functions of the *w*Moz and *w*Mpe endosymbionts. These comparisons included

Wolbachia genomes from other filarial hosts, as well as representative genomes from other

supergroups. Similar to other *Wolbachia*, genes encoding enzymes of various biosynthetic

pathways, namely heme, purine, pyrimidine and riboflavin were present in *w*Moz and *w*Mpe.

The proposed anti-*Wolbachia* drug target PPDK involved in the glycolysis/gluconeogenesis

pathway[60] was conserved in all *Wolbachia*. Doxycycline, a commonly used anti-*Wolbachia*

antibiotic that targets protein synthesis machinery, is reported to be effective against *Mansonella*

perstans[25–27]. Consistent with this, all ribosomal subunits were found in *w*Moz and *w*Mpe.

The supergroup F *Wolbachia w*Cle provides biotin as a nutritional supplement to its host

bedbug and contains the complete pathway for biotin biosynthesis[29]. However, none of the genes

of the biotin pathway could be found in *w*Moz, *w*Mpe or in *w*Mhie, indicating that biotin

supplementation is not the basis of their filarial symbiosis. The biotin pathway in the *w*Cle

genome has been acquired via LGT from another *Rickettsia*[29] and does not seem to be a feature

common to other *Wolbachia* of supergroup F.

In summary, high quality draft genomes of *Wolbachia w*Moz and *w*Mpe from human

filarial parasites *M. ozzardi* and *M. perstans* have been generated from genomic analysis of

multiple isolates from different continents. These genomes provide an important resource for

studies of symbiosis, evolution, comparative genomics, as well as searches for new drug targets.

In addition, the successful use of a metagenomic assembly and binning approach for obtaining

endosymbiont genomes exemplifies the wider applicability of this method to other systems

where the DNA samples can only be obtained as complex mixtures of multiple organisms. Since

the genomes from the host and endosymbiont are sequenced simultaneously, this approach

uniquely enables a method for directly and robustly estimating the relative abundance of

different organisms in a metagenomic sample.

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Author Contributions

538 N.F. L., M. U. F., F.F. F., S.W. collected the clinical samples. A.S., Z. L, C.B. P., L. E.

539 performed the sequencing experiments and bioinformatics analysis. A.S., Z. L, C.B. P., L.E.,

540 C.K.S.C. analyzed the data. A.S., Z. L, C.B. P., C.K.S.C wrote the initial manuscript. A.S., Z. L,

541 C.B. P., L.E., M. U. F., S.W., C.K.S.C and all authors contributed to the final manuscript.

Tables

Table 1. Characteristics of genomes of wMoz and wMpe, and other Wolbachia from supergroup F

	*w*Moz	*w*Mpe	*w*Mhie	*w*Cle
Assembled genome size	1,073,310	1,058,123	1,025,329	1,250,060
Number of contigs	93	170	208	1
Largest contig	37.481 kb	28.485 kb	21.863 kb	-
Contig N50 size	17.225 kb	10.041 kb	6.845 kb	-
%GC	35.61	35.45	36.1	36.3
Predicted genes	1,079	1,058	1,081	1,238
Predicted proteins	888	864	907	1,020
Predicted pseudogenes	145	153	137	177
tRNA genes	36	34	30	34
BUSCO score (%)	78.1	75.3	79.0	81.7

Table 2. Estimation of *Wolbachia* levels per microfilaria

Host species	Isolate name, Location	Median coverage of Mansonella contigs (M)	Number and total size of assembled *Wolbachia* contigs	*Wolbachia* genome assembled	Median coverage of *Wolbachia* contigs (W)	Number of *Wolbachia* per microfilaria* (1000 x W/M)
M. ozzardi	Moz1 , Brazil	57	173 contigs, 0.12 Mb	No	3	NA[#]
M. ozzardi	Moz2, Venezuela	360	93 contigs, 1.073 Mb	*w*Moz	13	37

M. perstans	Mpe1, Cameroon	1,032	170 contigs, 1.058 Mb	wMpe	30	30
M. perstans	Mpe2, Cameroon	633	5 contigs, 8.781 kb	No	NA[#]	NA[#]

550   ***** Assuming 1000 cells per microfilaria

551   [#] Not calculated due to the very low number or coverage of *Wolbachia* contigs

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Jupiter plot showing high synteny between the *de novo* assembled *w*Moz and

_w_Mpe genomes

The *Wolbachia* genomes assembled from two biologically and geographically distinct isolates

display a high level of synteny and inter-genome consistency. The genomes were aligned using

minimap2 and visualized using the JupiterPlot software. The *w*Moz contigs are displayed as

colored boxes in the left semi-circle, while the *w*Mpe contigs are shown as gray boxes in the

right semi-circle. The syntenic regions are marked by bands connecting contigs from one

assembly to the corresponding region in the other assembly. Regions of rearrangement are shown

as bands crisscrossing the horizontal bands of the syntenic regions.

Figure 2. Jupiter plots showing synteny between (A) *w*Moz and (B) *w*Mpe with the *w*Cle

genome

The *w*Cle chromosome is represented in linear form as the blue semi-circle on the left in both

panels. The gray boxes represent contigs of (A) *w*Moz draft genome, and (B) *w*Mpe draft

genome. The horizontal bands connect the conserved regions across the two *Wolbachia*. Regions

of re-arrangements are shown as bands crisscrossing the horizontal bands of syntenic regions.

Figure 3. Comparison of genome sequences of all supergroup F *Wolbachia*

Whole genome alignments of *w*Moz (blue ring), *w*Mpe (light-blue ring) and *w*Mhie (innermost

gray ring) to the *w*Cle chromosome (outermost black circle) are visualized as a circos plot. The

red bars mark the locations of the IS elements in the *w*Cle genome.

Figure 4. Global comparisons between multiple *Wolbachia* genomes using genome-wide

Average Nucleotide Identity (gANI) scores, and digital DNA:DNA Hybridization (dDDH)

scores.

(A) gANI scores were calculated between pairs of *Wolbachia* from filarial and plant-parasitic

nematodes, and the arthropod *Wolbachia w*Cle. Hierarchical clustering of pairwise gANI scores,

presented as a correlation matrix, ordered the various *Wolbachia* in a pattern recapitulating their

supergroup assignments. The red lines mark the boundaries between clusters representing

different supergroups. (B) dDDH scores between members of supergroup F (C) dDDH scores

between members of supergroup C, and (D) dDDH scores between members of supergroup D.

Figure 5. Orthogroups conserved in *w*Mpe and *w*Moz compared to 18 other *Wolbachia*

genomes

Orthology relationships between proteins encoded by *w*Moz and *w*Mpe and 18 other *Wolbachia*

were determined using OrthoFinder and visualized as UpSet plots. Black dots represent presence

of an orthogroup while light gray dots denote absence. The *Wolbachia* supergroup is indicated

except for the currently un-assigned *Wolbachia* from *Ctenocephalides felis* J (*w*CfeJ) and

Ctenocephalides felis T (*w*CfeT).

Figure 6. Venn diagram comparing pseudogenes in supergroup F *Wolbachia*

Pseudogenes for *w*Moz and *w*Mpe were annotated as a part of the NCBI PGAP pipeline.

Transposons such as IS elements were excluded from this analysis due to their tendency to

frequently convert into pseudogenes.

Supplementary Information

Figure S1. BlobTools based binning of the metagenomes assembled from *Mansonella*

isolates (A) *M. ozzardi* isolate Moz1, from Brazil (B) *M. ozzardi* isolate Moz2, from

Venezuela (C) *M. perstans* isolate Mpe1, from Cameroon and (D) *M. perstans* isolate Mpe2,

from Cameroon.

Each dot in the plot represents a contig in the assembled metagenome, plotted by its %GC

content on the x-axis and log10 of its coverage on the y-axis. The dot size is scaled according to

log10 of the length of each contig. Colors were assigned based on taxonomic annotations from

BlobTools and manual annotations. Bins that were finally assigned to the *Mansonella* host and

the *Wolbachia* endosymbiont are marked by enclosing boxes. Boxes with dashed borders

indicate locations of expected *Wolbachia* contigs, but very few or very small contigs were

actually recovered for these samples.

Figure S2. BUSCO scores of various *Wolbachia*

The BUSCO pipeline was used to measure the proportion of highly conserved, single copy

orthologs (BUSCO groups). The set of reference BUSCO groups was set to the lineage

"proteobacteria_odb10", which contains 219 BUSCOs derived from proteobacterial species. The

*w*Oo genome has the lowest BUSCO score, marked by a vertical dotted line. The supergroups

are indicated within a parenthesis after the corresponding *Wolbachia* names.

Table S1. *Wolbachia* genomes used for comparative analysis with *w*Moz and *w*Mpe

genomes

Table S2: Orthology analysis using OrthoFinder

Table S2-A. Orthogroups and their member genes for different *Wolbachia*

Table S2-B. Genes not assigned to any orthogroups.

Table S2-C. Overall OrthoFinder statistics for each *Wolbachia* genome analyzed.

Table S3: Mobile genetic elements in *w*Moz and *w*Mpe genome assemblies. (A) Transposons

and Group II introns in *w*Moz (B) Transposons and Group II introns in *w*Mpe (C) Transposons in

*w*Mhie (D) Phage derived genes in *w*Moz and *w*Mpe

Table S4: eggNOG annotations of (A) wMoz and (B) wMpe proteins

Table S5: Various biological pathways in *w*Moz and *w*Mpe and other supergroup F

Wolbachia. (A) Heme pathway (B) Purine (C) Pyrimidine (D) Type IV and Type VI secretion

systems

Table S6: Pseudogenes present in the genomes of supergroup F *Wolbachia*

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Figure 1 : Jupiter plot showing high synteny between the de novo assembled *w*Moz and *w*Mpe genomes

*w*Moz contigs

*w*Mpe contigs

Figure 2 : Jupiter plots showing synteny between (A) *w*Moz and (B) *w*Mpe with the wCle genome

(A)

(B)

*w*Cle chromosome

*w*Moz contigs

*w*Cle chromosome

*w*Mpe contigs

Figure 3
Comparison of genome sequences of all supergroup F *Wolbachia*

Whole genome alignments of *w*Moz (blue ring), *w*Mpe (light-blue ring) and *w*Mhie (innermost gray ring) to the *w*Cle chromosome (outermost black circle) are visualized as a Circos plot. The red bars mark the locations of the IS elements in the *w*Cle genome.

Figure 4: Global comparisons between multiple *Wolbachia* genomes using genome-wide Average Nucleotide Identity (gANI) scores, and digital DNA:DNA Hybridization (dDDH) scores

(A)

(B)

	*w*Mpe		
*w*Mpe		*w*Moz	
*w*Moz	**71.7** **[68.7 - 74.5]**		*w*Mhie
*w*Mhie	45.7 [43.1 - 48.2]	45.3 [42.7 - 47.9]	
*w*Cle	44.1 [41.5 - 46.6]	43.6 [41.1 - 46.2]	61.80 [58.9 - 64.6]

(C)

	*w*Oo	
*w*Oo		*w*Ov
*w*Ov	**96.1** **[94.8 - 97.2]**	
*w*Dimm	29.2 [26.8 - 31.7]	29.1 [26.7 - 31.6]

(D)

	*w*Bm		
*w*Bm		*w*Bp	
*w*Bp	**93.3** **[91.4 - 94.8]**		*w*Wb
*w*Wb	70.7 [67.7 - 73.5]	70.30 [67.3 - 73.1]	
*w*Lsig	36.5 [34 - 39]	36.40 [33.9 - 38.9]	36.80 [34.3 - 39.3]

Figure 5 :Orthogroups conserved across *w*Mpe, *w*Moz compared to 18 other *Wolbachia* genomes

Figure 6. Venn diagram comparing pseudogenes in supergroup F *Wolbachia*

Figure S1(C)

Mansonella perstans
Isolate **Mpe1**

Bin1 : *Mansonella*
- 59 Mb in 4,557 contigs
- Log10(Median coverage) = 3.01

Bin 2 : Wolbachia
- 1.03 Mb in 156 contigs
- Log10(Median coverage) = 1.47

Bin 3 : Other Nematoda
- 0.48 Mb in 724 contigs

Bin 4: Other proteobacteria
- 0.16 Mb in 201 contigs

Figure S1(D)

Mansonella perstans
Isolate **Mpe2**

Bin1 : *Mansonella*
- L = 60 Mb
- n = 4,297 contigs
- Median coverage (Log10) = 2.8

Bin 2 : Wolbachia

Bin 3 : Other Nematoda

Bin 4: Other proteobacteria
- 2.07 Mb in 1,553 contigs

log10(length)
- 3.0
- 3.5
- 4.0
- 4.5
- 5.0

Taxonomic bin
- Mansonella
- Other Nematoda
- Other Proteobacteria
- Wolbachia

Figure S2. BUSCO scores of various *Wolbachia*

The BUSCO pipeline was used to measure the proportion of highly conserved, single copy orthologs (BUSCO groups). The set of reference BUSCO groups was set to the lineage "proteobacteria_odb10", which contains 219 BUSCOs derived from proteobacterial species. The *w*Oo genome has the lowest BUSCO score, marked by a vertical dotted line. The supergroups are indicated within a parenthesis after the corresponding *Wolbachia* names.