**Microbial exposure across life reduces susceptibility of *Aedes aegypti* to Zika virus by**

**enhancing blood digestion and limiting midgut cell infection**

William Louie[1], Ana L. Ramírez[1], Rochelle Leung[1], Lindsey K. Mack[2], Erin Taylor Kelly[2],

Geoffrey M. Attardo[2], Lark L. Coffey[1]*

[1]Department of Pathology, Microbiology, and Immunology, School of Veterinary Medicine,

University of California Davis, Davis, California, United States

[2]Department of Entomology and Nematology, University of California, Davis, Davis, CA, United

States

*Corresponding Author, lcoffey@ucdavis.edu

**Short Title:** Microbes reduce Zika virus susceptibility in mosquitoes

**Abstract**

The worldwide expansion of mosquito-borne pathogens necessitates improved control

measures, including approaches to reduce transmission by mosquito vectors. Reducing

transmission is challenging because determinants of vector competence for viruses like Zika

(ZIKV) are poorly understood. Our previous work established that *Aedes (Ae.) aegypti* larvae

reared in environmental water containing microbes are less susceptible to ZIKV as adults

compared to cohorts reared in laboratory tap water with fewer microbial species and lower

microbial abundance. Here, we identify a process by which environment-derived microbes

reduce susceptibility of *Ae. aegypti* for ZIKV. Provided that the midgut represents the first barrier

to mosquito infection, we hypothesized that microbial exposure modulates midgut infection by

ZIKV. Since mosquitoes live in water as larvae and pupae and then transition to air as adults,

we also define the stage in the life of a mosquito when microbial exposure reduces ZIKV

susceptibility. *Ae. aegypti* larvae were reared in water containing microbes and then treated with

antibiotics during the pupal and adult stages, adult stage only, or provided no antibiotics at any

stage. Vector competence was next evaluated in mosquitoes that ingested ZIKV-spiked

bloodmeals. Antibiotic treated mosquitoes with reduced microbiota showed enhanced ZIKV

infection rates in *Ae. aegypti* treated as both pupae and adults. Antibiotic treatment to disrupt

microbes in pupal and adult mosquitoes also resulted in increased midgut epithelium

permeability, higher numbers of ZIKV-infected midgut cells, and impaired bloodmeal digestion.

Parallel control experiments with antibiotic-treated or gnotobiotic mosquitoes reared in

laboratory water showed that the dysbiotic state created by antibiotic use does not influence

ZIKV vector competence or midgut permeability and that more than the bacterial species in

gnotobiotic mosquitoes is responsible for reducing ZIKV vector competence. *Ae. aegypti* with

disrupted microbiota via antibiotic treatment as pupae and adults that ingested ZIKV in

bloodmeals showed reduced expression of genes associated with bloodmeal digestion and

metabolism relative to mosquitoes whose microbes were not reduced with antibiotics. Together,

these data show that exposure to microbes throughout the life of *Ae. aegypti* restricts ZIKV

infection by facilitating blood digestion and reducing midgut cell infection. Understanding the

connections between mosquito microbiota, midgut physiology, and arbovirus susceptibility can

lead to novel approaches to decrease mosquito transmission and will improve understanding of

vector competence in environmental habitats containing microbes.

**Author Summary**

Mosquito-transmitted viruses like Zika continue to threaten human health. Absent vaccines or

treatments, controlling mosquitoes or limiting their ability to transmit viruses represents a primary

way to prevent mosquito-borne viral diseases. The role mosquito microbiota play in shaping

transmission of Zika virus has been limited to association-based studies. Our prior work showed

that *Aedes aegypti* mosquito larvae that develop in water containing bacteria are less susceptible

to Zika virus compared to larvae reared in laboratory tap water with fewer numbers and species

of bacteria. Here we identify a process that explains this association. Since mosquitoes are

aquatic as larvae and pupae and terrestrial as adults, we also define the life stage when microbes

need be present to reduce Zika virus susceptibility. We used antibiotics to reduce environmental

water-derived microbes at pupal and adult or only adult stages and observed that microbial

disruption via antibiotic treatment increases Zika virus infection and midgut permeability and

impairs bloodmeal digestion. These findings advance understanding of microbiota-mosquito-virus

interactions and further implicate microbes as a means to restrict virus infection of mosquitoes.

**Introduction**

*Aedes (Ae.) aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* mosquito-transmitted viruses, including dengue (DENV),

chikungunya (CHIKV), and Zika (ZIKV), pose a massive burden on human health. Vector control

represents the primary means to reduce the diseases they cause. Vector competence studies,

which assess the capacity for mosquitoes to become infected with, develop disseminated

infections, and transmit viruses in laboratory environments, are foundational to defining the

species that maintain arbovirus transmission cycles. For *Ae. aegypti,* prior studies show that

temperature (1,2) and geographic origin (3,4) are major determinants of ZIKV vector

competence. Other factors, including the microbial environment of mosquito vectors, have been

subject to much recent study (reviewed in Ferriera *et al.* (5)). The microbiota of *Aedes spp.*

mosquitoes primarily derive from the environment (6–8), reside dominantly in the midgut (8,9),

and can influence physiology and life history traits through nutritional supplementation

(6,7,10,11) and immune stimulation (12–14). Prior studies from our group and others show that

microbiota influence ZIKV competence for *Ae. aegypti* (15,16), and *Ae. albopictus* (17), and that

these interactions are influenced by mosquito genotype (18). We discovered that when *Ae.*

*aegypti* larvae reared in water with microbes sourced from cemeteries were exposed orally to

ZIKV as adults, they became infected, developed disseminated infections, and transmitted virus

less efficiently than cohorts where larvae were reared in laboratory tap water with fewer

numbers and species of microbes (15). We also determined that the presence of microbes

accelerates mosquito development. Another study demonstrated that disruption of microbiota

via oral treatment of adult *Ae. aegypti* with antibiotics prior to exposure to ZIKV did not affect

vector competence (19). Together, these findings suggest that the influence of microbiota on

ZIKV vector competence may be specific to the mosquito developmental stage (larval, pupal,

adult) during which the microbes are present. To understand whether reduced ZIKV vector

competence after larval development in water containing microbes is conferred transstadially

from larvae to pupae to adults, one goal of this study was to determine whether exposure to

microbes throughout life is required to reduce ZIKV susceptibility in *Ae. aegypti*.

Microbes may modify vector competence of mosquitoes via multiple mechanisms, including to

alter immune system activation, by direct antiviral or antiparasitic activity, or by affecting

physiological processes, including blood digestion. Many of these processes occur in the

mosquito midgut, which represents the first infection barrier for most vector-borne pathogens.

Microbes are likely also involved in maintaining physical barriers that restrict access of an

ingested virus or parasite to the mosquito midgut. The commensal bacterium *Serratia*

*marcescens* increases susceptibility of *Ae. aegypti* for CHIKV by secreting a protein that digests

membrane-bound mucins coating the gut epithelium, rendering the epithelium more accessible

to the virus (20). The bacterium *Bacillus thuringiensis* svar. *israelensis* (Bti) expresses δ-

endotoxins that create pores in midgut cells of larval mosquitoes, which is lethal and has long

been a mainstay of larvicidal vector control (21,22). We hypothesized that disturbance in the

microbiota of pupal and adult *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes would decrease blood digestion, resulting

in increased ZIKV susceptibility by giving the virus more time to access the midgut, since blood

digestion is thought to occur concomitantly with virus infection of the midgut epithelium (23). We

reared *Ae. aegypti* larvae in environmental water containing microbes. Half of the experimental

cohorts were administered antibiotics in water during the pupal stage to reduce microbes. Some

cohorts of adults were also administered antibiotics in sugar water prior to exposure to ZIKV-

spiked bloodmeals. Since antibiotics create a dysbiotic environment, may not eliminate resident

antibiotic-resistant microbiota (24), and can alter cellular metabolism and transcription as

described in mammalian cells (25–28), *Drosophila* (29)*, and *Anopheles* (30) in ways that could

also impact ZIKV infection in *Ae. aegypti*, we first verified that antibiotic treatment did not modify

midgut integrity or ZIKV vector competence. We also generated gnotobiotic mosquitoes by

colonizing larvae with an *Elizabethkingia spp.* strain; this bacterial species was not sufficient to

modulate vector competence, suggesting that many species are required. Next, we measured

physiological differences in the midgut in blood engorged mosquitoes across cohorts treated

with or without antibiotics at different life stages. Microscopy was used to  quantify ZIKV-infected

midgut cells. The magnitude and rate of bloodmeal digestion was measured by quantifying

hemoglobin levels over time. Since the ways microbes modify vector competence are not fully

understood, RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) was used to identify differential gene expression in

cohorts of *Ae. aegypti* treated with or without antibiotics at different life stages and in response

to blood with or without ZIKV. We observed that *Ae. aegypti* given antibiotics as pupae and

adults are more susceptible to ZIKV infection compared to those not given antibiotics. Microbe

reduction by antibiotic treatment of pupae and adults also increased midgut permeability, the

number of ZIKV-infected midgut cells, and impaired bloodmeal digestion. Antibiotic treatment

itself did not reduce ZIKV vector competence or affect midgut permeability, ruling out toxic or

physiologic effects from the antibiotic cocktail used. Gene ontology analyses of ZIKV-exposed

mosquitoes revealed enrichment of PM-associated genes, with more genes related to blood

protein metabolism upregulated in mosquitoes harboring intact microbiota. Together our results

show that exposure to microbes throughout the life of *Ae. aegypti* facilitates blood digestion and

reduces ZIKV midgut cell infection.

**Materials and Methods**

**Biosafety**

All ZIKV infection experiments were conducted in a biosafety level 3 (BSL3) laboratory and were

approved by the University of California, Davis (UC Davis) Institutional Biosafety Committee

under Biological Use Authorization #R1863.

**Mosquito sources**

*Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes colonized from field collections from 2 locations in California were used.

Mosquitoes were field-collected in 2016 as larvae (Los Angeles) and eggs (Clovis). Mosquitoes

from both locations were maintained for generations numbers noted in Figures representing $F_{20}$,

$F_{22,}$ or $F_{26}$, at 28°C, 80% humidity, and a 12 h:12 h light : dark (L : D) cycle with 10% sucrose

provided to adults and periodic presentation of sheep blood to stimulate egg laying, as

described in our previous study (15).

**Mosquito generation and antibiotic treatments**

*Microbe source and preparation*. Microbes from water collected outdoors in cemeteries were

added to water in which *Ae. aegypti* larvae were reared, using an approach as in our previous

study (15). Briefly, 1 liter (L) of collected water was filtered through a 1 mm mesh to remove

large debris, centrifuged at 3000 g to pellet microbes, washed 3 times with sterile 1X phosphate

buffered saline (PBS, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA), and frozen in glycerol at -80°C.

Microbe aliquots were thawed at room temperature and placed in laboratory tap water prior to

addition of mosquito eggs.

*Larval rearing.* Mosquito eggs were hatched in 1 L deionized (diH$_2$O) water spiked with 1 mL of

microbes from a glycerol stock aliquot. Approximately 1500 larvae were reared in three pans at

a density of ~500 larvae/pan. Each pan contained an agarose plug that was prepared by mixing

1% agarose (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) with pulverized fish food (final concentration of 100

g/L, or 10% [Tetra, Melle, Germany]) and rodent chow (final concentration of 80 g/L, or 8%

[Teklad Global 18% Protein Rodent Diet, Envigo, Indianapolis, IN]), which was autoclave-

sterilized before casting into 12-well plates. One to 2 plugs were added to larval pans every

other day until day 15 post-hatch. Larval trays were kept in environmental growth chambers

(Binder, Bohemia, NY) at 28°C, 80% humidity, and a 12 h:12 h L:D cycle.

*Antibiotic treatments to pupae and adults*. Pupae or adults were divided into three treatments: 1)

mosquitoes exposed to antibiotics (Abx) both as **p**upae and **a**dults (AbxPA), 2) mosquitoes

exposed to antibiotics as **a**dults (AbxA) only, and 3) mosquitoes not exposed to antibiotics (No

Abx), where the latter represents the control group. First, pupae were picked and randomly

divided into 2 batches each day. The AbxPA batch of pupae was washed in diH$_2$O containing an

antibiotic cocktail consisting of 50 U/mL each of penicillin, streptomycin, and kanamycin (Sigma-

Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) for 10 minutes before transfer to another water vessel containing fresh

antibiotic cocktail. This concentration is in the middle of the range of doses used previously in

similar studies with *Ae. aegypti* (20) and *An. stephensi* (31). The other batch of pupae, from

which the AbxA and No Abx groups were derived, was transferred to a separate cage without

washing or antibiotics. Adults in the AbxPA group were maintained on the antibiotic cocktail

dissolved in 10% sucrose (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA) *ad libitum*. Adults in the

other batch were initially maintained on filter-sterilized 10% sucrose without antibiotics *ad libitum*

until eclosion was complete. Once adults reached a density of ~500, females were aspirated out

and transferred in cohorts of 80-120 mosquitoes to 32-ounce plastic containers (Amazon,

Seattle, WA) with mesh lids. At this point, the second non-antibiotic treated batch was further

divided into two treatments: AbxA was provided 10% sucrose *ad libitum* with the antibiotic

cocktail, and No Abx was fed 10% sucrose *ad libitum* without the antibiotic cocktail. As a control

for toxicity or physiological effects stemming from antibiotic treatment, we also reared

mosquitoes in laboratory tap water (conventional) with or without antibiotics, which were

provided as described above, to pupal and adult mosquitoes (conventional + Abx). Adult

mosquitoes were maintained at 28°C, 80% humidity, and 12 hour : 12 hour L : D cycle

throughout the experiments. All mosquitoes were housed in the same incubator. Antibiotic

treatment experiments with conventional mosquitoes and experiments with mosquitoes provided

environmental microbes each performed once.

**Gnotobiotic mosquito generation**

An *Elizabethkingia spp.* strain isolated from colonized *Ae. aegypti* from Los Angeles was

cultured in LB broth at 37°C for 24 hours prior to inoculation into larval flasks. *Ae. aegypti* eggs

attached to their egg papers cut into strips were surface sterilized by submersion in 1% bleach

for 10 minutes. After 10 minutes, bleach was removed by vacuum filtration of eggs through 1000

mL of $diH_2O$ and a 0.22 $\mu$m filter (Genesee Scientific, San Diego, CA). Eggs were then washed

twice in 70% ethanol and allowed to dry. To prepare larval flasks, 50 mL of $diH_2O$ and one larval

nutrient plug were added to four T75 tissue culture flasks. Paper strips containing ~200 eggs

were placed into each tissue culture flask and spiked with 1 mL of 1.4 x $10^8$ CFU/mL

*Elizabethkingia* culture before sealing the lid and incubating at 28°C with 80% humidity and 12

h:12 h L:D cycle for 5 days. When pupae developed, lids of the tissue culture flasks were

removed, and a sterilized fabric sleeve feeding into a makeshift plastic bucket with a mesh lid

was taped around the opening of the flask to allow adults to emerge into the new holding

container. Individual mosquitoes of each life stage were sampled, homogenized, and cultured

on LB plates to confirm *Elizabethkingia* colonization and the absence of other contaminating

bacteria, which was verified by colony morphology.

**Bacterial quantification by 16S qPCR**

We measured the efficacy of antibiotic treatment for removing bacteria from AbxA and AbxPA

groups and to verify dominance of *Elizabethkingia* in gnotobiotic mosquitoes by performing 16S

qPCR. AbxA and AbxPA larvae, pupae, and adults 3-5 days post-eclosion (dpe) were

evaluated. L4 larvae and pupae before antibiotic treatment were also included. Whole adult

mosquitoes in the gnotobiotic group were evaluated and conventional and conventional+ Abx

mosquitoes were included as comparators. DNA from 5 L4 larvae, 5 pre-treatment pupae, 5 No

Abx, 10 AbxA, 10 AbxPA, 8 gnotobiotic, 10 conventional, and 10 conventional + Abx individuals

was extracted with the Quick-DNA Tissue/Insect Microprep Kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA,

USA), according to the manufacturer instructions and eluted in 30-40 μL elution buffer.

Extracted DNA was PCR-amplified in the V3-V4 (32) hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA

gene, as previously described (15,32). FASTQ files were processed using a standard DADA2

pipeline(33) (package version 1.22.0) into phyloseq (package version 1.38.0)(34). Sequences

were assigned to ASVs, and samples were filtered by prevalence (ASVs at > 0.1% abundance),

known taxonomy (filtered unknown taxa), and presence in the negative control (ASVs also

present in the negative control were excluded).Quantification of bacteria was performed by

SYBR Green Real-Time PCR (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA) to amplify the 16S

rRNA gene. No Abx, AbxA, and AbxPA samples were assayed in technical duplicates;

gnotobiotic, conventional, and conventional + Abx were assayed once. 16S quantities were

normalized to an *Ae. aegypti* reference ribosomal protein S17 gene (RPS17) and reported as a

16S:RPS17 ratio (35). The rationale for reporting the ratio instead of absolute values was to

enable comparison of relative measurements across mosquito treatment groups to verify that

antibiotic treatment reduces bacteria in mosquitoes.

**Hemolytic activity**

Hematophagous bacteria can directly lyse blood cells and confound hemoglobin digestion measurements. Bacterial isolates from adult female *Ae. aegypti* were screened for hemolytic activity via culturing on agar plates. Individual mosquitoes were homogenized (TissueLyser, Retsch, Haan, Germany) in 500 µL PBS and 40 µL of supernatant was plated on either R2A agar (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) or sheep blood agar plates (Biological Media Services, UC Davis) for 3 days at 37°C. Up to 10 colonies from each mosquito were streaked on media plates 2-3 additional times to generate axenic cultures. Resulting colonies were streaked on sheep blood agar at both 30°C and 37°C and screened for clearing zones around colonies over the course of 3 days. The viability of this assay was tested in-house with hemolytic *Streptococcus spp.* isolates from the UC Davis School of Veterinary Medicine.

**Virus source and titrations**

We used ZIKV strain BR15 (Brazil 2015, SPH2015, GenBank Accession # KU321639), the same strain we used previously for mosquito infection experiments (15). This virus strain was originally isolated from human serum from a patient in Brazil in 2015 and passaged 3 times in Vero cells (CCL-81, ATCC, Manassas, VA) before freezing in stocks. Stocks were titrated on Vero cells prior to bloodmeal presentation to approximate stock titers, and ZIKV-spiked sheep blood was also titrated after bloodfeeding to confirm the dose presented in each bloodmeal. For titrations, serial 10-fold dilutions of cell culture supernatant containing virus stock or ZIKV-spiked blood were inoculated into multi-well plates containing confluent Vero cells at one dilution per well and incubated for 1 hour at 37°C in 5% $CO_2$ with rocking every 10 minutes. After incubation, each well was filled with an agar overlay (0.5% agarose [Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA] in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium [DMEM, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA], + 2% fetal bovine serum [FBS, Genesee Scientific, San Diego, CA] + penicillin/streptomycin [Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA]). The cells were incubated for

1 week at 37°C in 5% $CO_2$, then fixed with 4% formalin (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville,

CA). Fixed cells were stained with 0.025% crystal violet (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville,

CA) in 20% ethanol and visualized on a light table to count plaques. ZIKV bloodmeal titers are

represented as plaque-forming units (PFU) per mL of blood.

**ZIKV vector competence experiments**

Stock ZIKV in DMEM, or DMEM with no virus as a control, were diluted in 10-fold increments

with fresh heparinized sheep blood (HemoStat Laboratories, Dixon, CA) to achieve ZIKV titers

of $10^6$ PFU/mL. Bloodmeals were presented to female *Ae. aegypti* at 3-5 days post-eclosion in

cohorts of 80-120 per container, at 2-3 containers per treatment. Mosquitoes were sucrose-

starved 18-24 hours before the presentation of bloodmeals. Mosquitoes were offered

bloodmeals for 60 minutes through a collagen membrane rubbed with an artificial human scent

(BG-Sweetscent mosquito attractant, Biogents USA) and heated to 37°C in a membrane feeder

(Hemotek Limited, Blackburn, United Kingdom). Bloodmeals were presented to mosquitoes

inside a plexiglass glove box containing an open bottle of boiling water to maximize humidity.

After feeding, mosquitoes were immobilized with $CO_2$ for 5 seconds and then immobilized on a

chill table (Bioquip (R.I.P.), Compton, CA, USA) to assess their bloodfeeding status using a

microscope at 10X magnification.  Fully engorged females (18-45 per treatment for each

experiment) were sorted into fresh plastic containers at a density of 10-20 mosquitoes per

container and held at 28°C with 80% humidity and 12 h:12 h L:D cycle for 14 days. No Abx

cohorts were provided 10% sucrose *ad libitum,* while AbxPA, AbxA, and conventional + Abx

cohorts were maintained on 10% sucrose with the antibiotic cocktail *ad libitum*.

At 14 days post-bloodfeed (dpf), surviving mosquitoes were $CO_2$-anesthetized and immobilized

on a chill table. Bodies, legs/wings, and saliva were collected to assess infection, dissemination,

and transmission rates, respectively. Legs/wings were removed before collection of expectorate

into capillary tubes containing PBS by forced salivation, using an established approach (36). To

minimize cross-contamination, surgical tools were washed once in CaviCide® (Metrex, Orange,

CA) and twice in 70% ethanol between dissections. Each capillary tube was placed in a 1.5-mL

tube containing 250 µL PBS and pulse-centrifuged at 8,000 g to recover saliva. Bodies and

legs/wings were placed into 2-mL tubes containing 500 µL PBS and a 5-mm glass bead

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA), then homogenized at 30 hertz for 5 minutes in a

TissueLyser (Retsch, Haan, Germany). Viral RNA was extracted using a MagMax Viral RNA

Extraction Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA), into 60 µL elution buffer following the

manufacturer's recommendations.

Detection and quantification of viral RNA in mosquito tissues and saliva were performed by

quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR). The rationale for using

RT-qPCR was to enable rapid and high throughput analyses, because the limit of detection

(LOD) is lower than for titrations of volume limited samples, and to reproducibly enable

comparison of relative measurements across mosquito treatment groups. Furthermore, our prior

studies with ZIKV strain BR15 in Vero cells showed high reproducibility and a ZIKV RNA:PFU

ratio of 100-2000 (37). We used a TaqMan Fast Virus 1-Step Master Mix and a ZIKV-specific

primer set (ZIKV 1086F/1162c, probe: ZIKV 1107-FAM) using established methodologies

(36,37). Cycle threshold (Ct) values from the RT-qPCR were converted to RNA genome copies

using standard curves established with ZIKV RNA of known concentration. Each sample was

assayed in technical duplicates and converted to copies per mosquito before calculating the

average value. The LOD was calculated from the standard curve linear regression line where

the Ct value = 40. Samples without a detectable Ct of less than 40 were reported at the LOD.

Infection rates are reported as the number of ZIKV-positive individuals divided by the number

that ingested ZIKV-spiked blood. Dissemination rates are reported as the number of ZIKV-

positive legs and wings divided by the number of ZIKV-infected individuals. Transmission rates

are reported as the number of ZIKV-positive saliva samples divided by the number individuals

with disseminated ZIKV in legs and wings.

**Midgut permeability assessments**

A low molecular weight dextran-FITC (MW 4000, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) was co-spiked

into ZIKV-bloodmeals and used to measure midgut permeability in No Abx, AbxA, AbxPA,

conventional, conventional + Abx, and gnotobiotic groups that were evaluated within 1 hour

after bloodfeeding. Permeability was assessed by measuring the fluorescent intensity of

dextran-FITC inside versus outside at three locations in the midgut for each mosquito for a total

of 5 mosquitoes per treatment. A stock solution of 20 mg/mL dextran-FITC dissolved in PBS

was spiked into sheep blood at a 1:20 dilution to achieve 1 mg/mL, the concentration used in a

previous study (38). Dextran-spiked blood mixed with $10^5$ PFU/ml ZIKV and presented to

mosquitoes as described above for vector competence assessments. Blood-engorged

mosquitoes were visualized by fluorescence microscopy to detect FITC in tissues. Samples

were covered in foil for all post-dissection steps to minimize photobleaching. Quantification of

FITC fluorescence was then performed on Fiji (ImageJ) (39) by measuring intensity relative to

background by subtracting fluorescence of an equal-sized region outside the sample area.

Fluorescence intensity ratios between the gut lumen and hemocoel were calculated at three

randomly drawn areas of equal size around the gut perimeter, then averaged together. Each

average was also conducted across three slices per sample to minimize focal plane variation in

fluorescence. At least 4 mosquitoes per group were included in each permeability assessment.

**Fluorescence imaging of mosquito midguts**

Mosquitoes in No Abx, AbxA, and AbxPA groups that ingested ZIKV-spiked bloodmeals were

imaged using immunofluorescence microscopy to examine midgut structure and to quantify the

number of ZIKV-infected midgut epithelial cells. Legless and wingless mosquito bodies or

dissected midguts from mosquitoes at 2 or 3 dpf were placed in 10% formalin in PBS for 24

hours, then prepared for various image-based assessments as described below. Mosquitoes

were imaged at the UC Davis Advanced Imaging Facility using a Leica TCS SP8 STED 3X

inverted microscope.

*Midgut structure*: Mosquito bodies were washed once in PBS, submerged in PBS with 30%

sucrose overnight, and then molded and frozen at -80°C in Tissue Plus OCT medium (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA). Tissue molds were cut into 10 µm slices at the median sagittal

plane (at a depth where the blood bolus reaches maximum diameter, determined with test

samples) using a Leica CM1860 Cryostat Microtome (Leica Biosystems, Deer Park, IL, USA)

and embedded onto charged microscope slides. A single drop of ProLong Gold Antifade

Mountant with DAPI (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA) was used to mount each slide.

*ZIKV infection of midguts:* Dissected midguts in 10% formalin were washed twice in PBS.

Tissues were submerged in a blocking solution consisting of 1X PBS, 0.2% Triton X-100

(PBS+T) (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA), 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA, Sigma-Aldrich,

St. Louis, MO), and 10% normal goat serum (Lampire Biological Laboratories, Pipersville, PA)

for 10 minutes before staining with a primary monoclonal antibody that reacts with multiple

flaviviruses (Flavivirus treatment antigen antibody D1-4G2-4-15, Novus Biologicals, Littleton,

CO) at a 1:1000 dilution in blocking solution at 4°C overnight. Midguts were washed five times

via direct tube transfer in PBS+T before staining with the secondary antibody (Goat anti-mouse

Alexa Fluor 594, Abcam, Cambridge, United Kingdom) at a 1:1000 dilution in blocking solution

for 1 hour at room temperature. Midguts were washed 5X in PBS+T before mounting onto

microscope slides with ProLong Gold Antifade Mountant with DAPI. ZIKV detection and

quantification were done by manually counting distinct red patches, using blue DAPI as a

reference for individual cells across three slices of a single midgut, and averaging the values.

FITC, DAPI, and Alexa Fluor 594 were each visualized (and FITC was quantified) in their

respective channels before merging.

**Histologic analyses**

Histological images at 20X and 40X magnification were used to visualize mosquito anatomy and

to validate that sample preparation for immunofluorescence microscopy did not mechanically

disrupt the midgut, which could affect interpretations of midgut integrity. Blood-engorged

mosquitoes with their legs and wings removed were placed in 10% formalin in PBS for 24 h,

then encased within tissue cassettes (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA) submerged in

70% ethanol. Samples were submitted to the UC Davis School of Veterinary Medicine Anatomic

Pathology Service, where whole mosquitoes were paraffin-embedded, cut into 5 µm slices, and

stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Slides were visualized at 20X and 40X magnification

under a Zeiss Axio Vert A1 inverted light microscope connected to an Axiocam 208 color

camera (Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany). Although we evaluated sections from 5 individual

mosquitoes each for No Abx, AbxA, and AbxPA, groups, we used histology readouts as a

qualitative approach to evaluate gross midgut anatomy. Anatomical structures were identified by

an expert in mosquito anatomy. Representative images for each of the three groups are shown.

**Blood digestion analyses**

Quantification of hemoglobin in bloodfed mosquitoes with a hemoglobin colorimetric detection

kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA) was used to measure blood digestion. The blood

only and ZIKV-spiked bloodmeals each included 3 ml of blood. An additional 150 ul ZIKV was

added to the ZIKV-spiked bloodmeal, such that the volume of virus was 5% of the total

bloodmeal volume. At 0, 1, 2, or 3 dpf, 10-12 individual mosquitoes each in No Abx, AbxA, and

AbxPA, groups exposed to blood only or ZIKV-spiked blood with their legs/wings removed were

homogenized in 300 µL hemoglobin diluent, 100 µL of which was used for the assay, per

manufacturer's instructions. Absorbance at 570 nm was measured from each sample once in

96-well plates using a SpectraMax iD5 Multimode Microplate Reader (Molecular Devices, San

Jose, CA). Absorbance values were converted to hemoglobin concentrations via standard

curves generated from hemoglobin standards and serial dilutions of fresh sheep blood used for

feeding. Output absorbance values were normalized to homogenized, non-bloodfed mosquito

negative controls, and units were converted to µg per mosquito body. Before conducting the

assay, we validated and optimized this kit for bloodfed mosquitoes, including ensuring that heat

incubation of mosquitoes at 60°C for 10 minutes to destroy ZIKV infectivity did not affect

hemoglobin quantification (**Figure S1**).**RNA sequencing and bioinformatics**

Mosquito messenger RNA was sequenced to determine differences in gene expression

associated with antibiotic treatments after ZIKV exposure. Total RNA was extracted from adult

female mosquitoes in triplicate pools of 5 individuals each for No Abx, AbxA, and AbxPA groups

using the Quick-RNA Tissue/Insect Microprep kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA). RNA

extracts were eluted into 20 µL elution buffer and quantified using a Qubit fluorometer RNA

high-sensitivity (HS) assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA). Approximately 1 µg of

total RNA per sample was submitted to Genewiz Inc. from Azenta Life Sciences (Chelmsford,

MA, USA), where poly-A selection, library preparation, and paired-end Illumina HiSeq 2x150 bp

were performed. Raw FASTQ data files were received and treated by filtering and trimming

reads with *cutadapt v3.2* (40) using default parameters (Quality cutoff >= 30, minimum length of

100 bp). Next, *FastQC* (41) was used to visualize quality scores. Processed reads were then

aligned to version AaegL5.2 of an *Ae. aegypti* transcriptome obtained from VectorBase (42)

using *bowtie2 v2.4.3* (43). Aligned reads were imported into R and analyzed with the package

Differential Expression Analysis using *DESeq2 v1.28.1* (44). Default parameters were used to

determine the differential abundance of each gene using an input experimental design of

[antibiotic treatment + bloodmeal status + interaction].  Genes with a significance (adjusted P

value) below 0.05 are reported. Significant genes were mapped to biological processes using

the Gene Ontology program *topGO* (45).

**Statistical analyses**

The 16S:RPS17 ratios to verify antibiotic efficacy from qPCR were compared using a Kruskal-

Wallis test with multiple comparisons for adult mosquito treatments and across life stages.

Differences in ZIKV infection, dissemination, and transmission rates between groups were

determined using Fisher's exact tests. Differences in ZIKV RNA levels in bodies, legs/wings,

and saliva across groups were assessed by Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. Differences in ASV and

Evenness were evaluated using unpaired t tests. Differences in hemoglobin levels across

groups were evaluated using Kruskal-Wallis tests with repeated measures. Relative

fluorescence values and numbers of nuclei were averaged in triplicate and tested for

significance by one-way ANOVA tests. Differences in numbers of ZIKV-infected midgut

epithelial cells were assessed using Fisher's exact tests. For RNA-Seq, statistical tests built into

the *DESeq2* package were used. In short, each sample was normalized by library size, and the

geometric mean for each gene was calculated. Negative binomial generalized linear models

(glm) were used for each gene to determine differential expression across antibiotic-treated

groups. The Wald test was used for statistical significance, with correction for the false

discovery rate (FDR) set to 0.05. For principal components analyses (PCA), variance stabilized

transformation was implemented before plotting. All statistical analyses, except RNA-Seq, were

performed using GraphPad PRISM 9.0.2 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA). RNA-Seq

analyses were conducted in R *v3.6* (46). P-values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically

significant. For gene ontology (GO), Fisher's exact tests were used on GO terms and corrected

for the false discovery rate.

**Data availability.** Raw sequencing data are available from the NCBI Sequence Read Archive

under BioProject entry PRJNA818687. Scripts for the RNA-Seq analysis are available on Github

(DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.7259822).

**Results**

**Reduced *Ae. aegypti* susceptibility to ZIKV conferred by microbial exposure is life stage-**

**dependent**

In our previous study, we observed that adult *Ae. aegypti* reared in environmental water as

larvae were less competent ZIKV vectors, assessed as lower infection and transmission rates,

compared to *Ae. aegypti* reared in laboratory tap water (15). In this study, to understand

whether reduced ZIKV vector competence is conferred transstadially from larvae to pupae to

adults, we first determined whether exposure to microbes throughout life (i.e. at larval, pupal,

and adult stages) is required to reduce ZIKV susceptibility. *Ae. aegypti* larvae were reared in

laboratory water spiked with microbes that were collected from water in cemeteries that we

characterized in a previous study (15) which contain >1000 bacterial species from the phyla

*Bacteroides*, *Firmicutes*, and *Proteobacteria*. Control mosquitoes were not provided antibiotics

(No Abx) at any life stage. To assess the effects of microbe modulation at pupal and adult life

stages, cohorts of **p**upae and the **a**dults they developed into were administered an antibiotic

(Abx) cocktail (AbxPA) that was provided to pupae in water and orally in sucrose to adults from

eclosion to 3 days of age (**Figure 1A**). To study the effects of microbe modulation on adult

mosquitoes that were not antibiotic treated at earlier life stages, we also included cohorts where

**a**dults were provided antibiotics (AbxA) orally for 3-5 days post-eclosion. Antibiotics significantly

reduced the number of prokaryotes in Abx treated adults as assessed by 16S:RPS17 ratios, our

proxy for prokaryote levels (Kruskal-Wallis [K-W] with multiple comparisons, P = 0.002 between

No Abx and AbxA [adj. P = 0.002] and No Abx and AbxPA [adj. P = 0.006]) (**Figure 1B**).

Significantly higher 16S:RPS17 ratios were also observed in No Abx L4 larvae and pupae

relative to adult mosquitoes (K-W multiple comparisons, P = <0.0001 between No Abx and larva

[adj. P = 0.0012] and No Abx and pupa [adj. P = 0.0079]). This is consistent with ours (15) and

others' (7,13) observations that microbial abundance decreases during mosquito development.

Mosquitoes were orally presented with ZIKV-spiked bloodmeals for vector competence

assessments. AbxPA showed significantly increased ZIKV infection rates compared to No Abx

(Fisher's exact test, P < 0.0001) while AbxA and No Abx infection rates were not different

(Fisher's exact test: P = >0.05). Dissemination rates were not significantly different across

treatments (Fisher's exact test: P = >0.05). Significantly more AbxA mosquitoes transmitted

compared to No Abx or AbxPA (Fisher's exact test: P < 0.002) (**Figure 1C**). Levels of ZIKV RNA

in saliva were higher in AbxPA compared to AbxA (Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test, P = 0.009),

but not higher than No Abx (KS test, P = 0.71) (**Figure 1D**). Collectively, these results show that

microbe disruption across *Ae. aegypti* life stages increases rates of ZIKV infection (AbxPA),

transmission (AbxA) and the magnitude of ZIKV transmitted in saliva (AbxPA).

**Figure 1. Microbial disruption using antibiotic treatment of *Ae. aegypti* pupae and adults from**

**Los Angeles, California, increases ZIKV susceptibility. A) Experimental design**. Microbes from

cemetery headstones were added to tap water during rearing of *Ae. aegypti* larvae from Los Angeles

(LA), CA. Pupae in the antibiotic (Abx) groups were treated by adding an antibiotic cocktail to pupal

water and orally in sugar to adults (AbxPA). Antibiotics were delivered orally in sugar to adult Abx

(AbxA) groups. No antibiotics (No Abx) groups received no antibiotics at any life stage. Mosquitoes

from each group and some life stages were sequenced to verify the efficacy of antibiotic treatment.

Adult mosquitoes 3-5 days of age were presented with ZIKV spiked into bloodmeals, and ZIKV

vector competence was assessed by measuring ZIKV RNA levels in bodies to determine infection,

legs/wings of individuals with infected bodies to assess dissemination, and in saliva of individuals

with infected legs/wing to measure transmission, which are presented as rates in cohorts and mean

levels from individuals. **B) Antibiotic treatment reduces bacterial DNA in mosquitoes.** Bacteria

was quantified in mosquitoes by 16S qPCR. Each point represents a single mosquito (N larvae,

pupae, No Abx = 5; N AbxA, AbxPA = 10). 16S copies were normalized to the *Ae. aegypti* RPS17

gene. The limit of detection (LOD) was a 0.1 16S:RPS17 ratio; below this value, 16S was not

detected. Statistical significance across all groups was determined by a Kruskal-Wallis test with

multiple comparisons. **C) ZIKV vector competence in microbe-modulated mosquitoes.** Bar

graphs show ZIKV infection, dissemination, and transmission rates from cohorts as determined by

ZIKV RNA RT-qPCR. The summary table shows the same data in the bar graphs. Rates are

calculated as the number of bodies, legs/wings, or expectorates that yielded at detectable ZIKV

RNA, divided by the total number of individuals that ingested blood within a cohort, were infected, or

developed disseminated infections, respectively. Statistical significance across all treatments was

determined by Fisher's exact tests. Vector competence experiments were conducted once where

mosquitoes in different cohorts were presented the same bloodmeal. **D) ZIKV RNA levels in**

**mosquito tissues after ingestion of ZIKV-spiked bloodmeals**. Each dot shows the mean value

for an individual mosquito based on triplicate measurements. The average LOD across all

experiments was 3 copies per mosquito and is represented as the dotted line. Mosquitoes without

detectable ZIKV RNA are not shown. Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were used to compare mean RNA

levels. For B and D geometric means are shown and error bars show standard deviations. *Denotes

$P < 0.05$ **denotes $P < 0.01$, *** denotes $P < 0.001$, ns is not significant at $P<0.05$.

**Antibiotics do not directly impact midgut permeability or ZIKV vector competence**

Next, we performed experiments to understand whether increased ZIKV vector competence in

*Ae. aegypti* is due to direct effects of antibiotics on mosquito physiology or the dysbiotic

microbial environment. We compared ZIKV vector competence and midgut integrity in

mosquitoes treated with antibiotics (Conventional + Abx) or not antibiotic treated (Conventional),

as well as in gnotobiotic mosquitoes (Gnotobiotic) (**Figure 2A**). For the antibiotic treated group,

antibiotics were administered to both larval water and adults in sugar water using the same

**A** STUDY DESIGN

**B** VERIFICATION OF TREATMENT STATUS

**C** VECTOR COMPETENCE

| Generation | Group | ZIKV dose (PFU/mL) | Infection | | Dissemination | | Transmission | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Rate | P value | Rate | P value | Rate | P value |
| $F_{26}$ | conv. | 4.2 x 10^6 | 94% (31/33) | 0.87 | 90% (28/31) | 0.09 | 71% (20/28) | 0.41 |
| | conv. + Abx | | 92% (24/26) | | 100% (24/24) | | 54% (13/24) | |
| | gnotobiotic | | 100% (24/24) | | 100% (24/24) | | 67% (16/24) | |

**D** MAGNITUDE OF ZIKV INFECTION

BODY    LEGS/WINGS    SALIVA

**E** DEXTRAN QUANTIFICATION

average x3

average x3

**F** DEXTRAN IN VS OUT OF GUT LUMEN

design as for the AbxPA cohorts. Gnotobiotic mosquitoes have a known microbiome compared

to mosquitoes reared in environmental water, and, unlike axenic mosquitoes that do not

possess any microbes, do not suffer from the lack of microbiome-derived essential nutrients that

can impact fitness (47). Gnotobiotic *Ae. aegypti* were generated by inoculating larval water with

an *Elizabethkingia spp.* culture isolated from colonized *Ae. aegypti* from LA. *Elizabethkingia*

*spp*. was selected since it is ubiquitous in the environment (47) and represents a dominant

bacterial sequence in our larval and adult *Ae. aegypti* colonies (15). We verified the gnotobiotic

status by sequencing (**Figure 2B**). Gnotobiotic mosquitoes showed significantly lower mean

observed ASV and evenness (where lower evenness indicates dominance by fewer species)

compared to Conventional or Conventional+Abx (p<0.05, unpaired t test). A mean of 180 ASVs

were detected in Conventional mosquitoes, Conventional +Abx had 139, and Gnotobiotic had

47. Conventional mosquitoes reared with or without antibiotics had *Chryseobacteria* as the

dominant ASV while in gnotobiotic mosquitoes, *Elizabethkingia* and *Asaia* comprised >95% of

all observed ASVs (**Figure S2**). The co-dominance of our intended *Elizabethkingia* inoculum

and *Asaia* spp., a commonly found bacterium in our mosquito colony that may be vertically

transmitted (15), supports a successful gnotobiotic state. The three groups were presented with

high dose ZIKV-spiked blood with and without fluorescent dextran (FITC-dextran). A subset of

mosquitoes were evaluated within 1 hour of bloodfeeding for midgut permeability assays and

the remaining bloodfed individuals were assessed for vector competence at 14 days. The

purpose of adding FITC-dextran, which is a small molecule that can traverse cell membranes,

was to evaluate whether antibiotics or a gnotobiotic environment influence midgut permeability.

Infection, dissemination, and transmission rates were not statistically different across any group

(Fisher's exact test: P >0.09) (**Figure 2C**). Mean ZIKV RNA levels in ZIKV-positive bodies,

legs/wings, and saliva were also not statistically different across groups (KS test, P >0.05)

(**Figure 2D**). We visualized and quantified the relative fluorescent intensity of FITC-dextran

inside versus outside the midgut (**Figure 2E**), where higher fluorescence inside versus outside

is indicative of greater midgut integrity. Dextran permeability measurements showed no

significant difference across groups in mean fluorescence inside versus outside of the midgut

(KS test, P >0.05) (**Figure 2F**). These data indicate that antibiotics themselves or a gnotobiotic

state do not perturb midgut permeability or affect ZIKV vector competence and rule out

confounding effects of these treatments on the structural integrity of the mosquito midgut

epithelium.

**Figure 2: A) Experimental design.** *Aedes aegypti* from LA, CA, were reared in laboratory tap water

without any antibiotics (Conventional), with antibiotics (Conventional + Abx), where antibiotics were

also provided orally to adults in sugar, or with *Elizabethkingia spp*. (Gnotobiotic) bacteria isolated

from our *Ae. aegypti* colony. Mosquito eggs in the Gnotobiotic group were surface sterilized before

hatching and reared in sterile flasks. Adult mosquitoes 3-5 days of age were presented with ZIKV

spiked into bloodmeals, and ZIKV vector competence was assessed by measuring ZIKV RNA levels

in bodies to determine infection, legs/wings of individuals with infected bodies to assess

dissemination, and in saliva of individuals with infected legs/wing to measure transmission, which

are presented as rates in cohorts and mean levels from individuals. The bloodmeals also contained

1 μg dextran-FITC (green drop) for midgut permeability assessments. **B) Verification of treatment**

**status using 16S sequencing from adult mosquitoes in each treatment group.** The scatterplot

shows the relationship between observed ASVs and bacterial species evenness. ASVs with

unassigned taxonomy were included. Evenness is calculated by dividing Shannon diversity by the

natural log of observed ASVs. Ellipses encompass the 95% confidence interval for samples within

the group. Each dot on Observed ASV and Evenness graphs represents an individual mosquito

(N=10 Conventional, N=10 Conventional + Abx, N=8 Gnotobiotic). P values reported were

determined using unpaired t tests. **C) ZIKV vector competence** data comparing infection,

dissemination, or transmission rates in Conventional, Conventional + Abx, and Gnotobiotic *Ae.*

*aegypti* groups**.** Vector competence experiments were conducted once where mosquitoes in

different cohorts ingested the same bloodmeal. Statistical evaluation across all treatments used

Fisher's exact tests. **D) ZIKV RNA levels in mosquito tissues after ingestion of ZIKV-spiked**

**bloodmeals**. Each dot shows the mean value for an individual mosquito based on triplicate

measurements. The average LOD across all experiments was 62 copies per mosquito and is

represented as the dotted line. Mosquitoes without detectable ZIKV RNA are not shown. **E) Dextran**

**fluorescence quantification approach** that was used to generate data in panel F. Fluorescence

ratios were calculated in triplicate from randomly selected areas in a single midgut slice. Dextran

permeation was calculated as the ratio of fluorescence intensity inside the gut lumen to fluorescence

intensity outside the gut lumen for randomly selected regions of the midgut (red rectangles). **F)**

**Mosquito midgut permeability assessed by relative dextran inside versus outside the midgut**

**lumen**. Each symbol represents 9 measurements from one mosquito, N=4 mosquitoes per

treatment. For C and E geometric means are shown, and error bars show standard deviations.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were used to compare mean RNA or fluorescence levels. ns is not

significant at P<0.05.

**Microbe disruption increases *Aedes aegypti* midgut permeability**

To understand how microbial exposure of larvae, pupae, and adults reduces susceptibility of *Ae.*

*aegypti* to ZIKV, we applied the midgut permeability assays (**Figure 2E**) to evaluate ZIKV-

exposed mosquitoes that were microbe-exposed or microbe-disrupted. Our rationale for

focusing on the midgut is that it represents the first barrier to infection of *Ae. aegypti* by ZIKV

after oral exposure. We asked whether higher infection rates in AbxPA compared to No Abx are

explained by reduced midgut integrity resulting from microbe disruption. We compared

fluorescent intensity across antibiotic-treated groups immediately after ingestion of a bloodmeal

with ZIKV (**Figure 3A**). All mosquitoes had only bloodfed once, eliminating potential

confounding effects of repeated bloodfeeding on midgut integrity (48) and were fully engorged;

hemoglobin measurements (see below) also revealed no statistically significant differences in

mean ingested bloodmeal volumes across groups. The relative dextran-FITC fluorescence

inside versus outside of the midgut lumen for the AbxPA group was significantly lower than the

No Abx group (P = 0.009), and the AbxA group trended lower (although not significantly) than

the No Abx group (**Figure 3B**). To rule out physical rupture or other disruptions to the midgut

during sample preparation that may have reduced structural integrity, we treated and stained

midgut sections from a separate cohort of similarly treated mosquitoes with DAPI or H&E. At

10X, 20X, and 40X magnification, midgut epithelia across treatments did not appear structurally

different (**Figures 3D**, **S1**). Together these data support a process where disruption of microbial

colonization at pupal and adult *Ae. aegypti* life stages increase midgut cell permeability in adult

mosquitoes after bloodmeal ingestion.

**Figure 3. Microbial disruption increases *Aedes aegypti* midgut permeability. A) Schematic of**

**bloodfeeding experiment and sample preparation for immunofluorescence microscopy.**

*Aedes aegypti* from LA, CA were used to generate three groups of mosquitoes: no antibiotics (No

Abx), antibiotics as adults (AbxA), and antibiotics as larvae, pupae, and adults (AbxPA). Adult

mosquitoes aged 3-5 days were presented with a bloodmeal containing 1 mg/mL dextran-FITC

(green) and $3.3 \times 10^6$ PFU/mL ZIKV. Whole mosquitoes were harvested within 1 hour of feeding at 0

days post-feed (dpf), cryosectioned, DAPI stained, and examined using fluorescence microscopy.

Midguts from the same cohorts were harvested at 2 and 3 dpf, and ZIKV antigen and DAPI were

stained before fluorescence microscopy. **B) Microbe disruption of pupae and adults increases**

**midgut permeability, evidenced by reduced relative dextran inside versus outside the gut**

**lumen in AbxPA compared to No Abx mosquitoes**. Dextran permeation was calculated as the

ratio of fluorescence intensity inside the gut lumen to fluorescence intensity outside the gut lumen

using the same approach as in Figure 2E. Each symbol represents 9 measurements from one

mosquito. **C) Mosquitoes that were antibiotic treated as pupae and adults have more ZIKV-**

**infected midgut epithelial cells**. The number of ZIKV-infected cells, as determined by ZIKV antigen

staining, were counted for each ZIKV-positive midgut on 2 and 3 dpf. Data from both days is shown.

Each symbol represents one mosquito. **D) Antibiotic treated ZIKV-positive midguts at 2 and 3**

**dpf.** Midguts examined under immunofluorescence at 10X magnification, at 2 and 3 dpf. Cell nuclei

(blue) and ZIKV antigen (red) are shown with the combined (merged) channels. Images reflect

representative observations for each antibiotic treatment. Arrows point to ZIKV antigen positive cells.

P values in B and C use ANOVA with multiple comparisons and error bars show standard deviations.

ns is not significant.

**Microbe disruption via antibiotic treatment increases ZIKV infection of the midgut**

**epithelium**

Next, we asked microbe disruption leads to increased midgut infection success, measured as

higher numbers of ZIKV-infected midgut epithelial cells. We detected ZIKV in midguts by

staining sections with a flavivirus binding antibody 2 or 3 dpf and counting the total number of

cells in each midgut that were stained with fluorescent anti-ZIKV antibody (**Figure 3A**). The

number of ZIKV-positive cells in midguts was significantly higher in the AbxPA group compared

to the No Abx group (Brown-Forsythe ANOVA test with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test, P =

0.048) (**Figure 3C**). These data support the role of microbes in larvae and pupae in maintaining

the integrity of the mosquito midgut which associates with reduced midgut epithelium infection

by ZIKV.

**Microbial disruption via antibiotic treatment impairs blood digestion**

Since midgut integrity can affect physiology of blood digestion in addition to ZIKV susceptibility,

we next assessed whether elevated midgut permeability stemming from microbe reduction by

antibiotic treatment affects blood digestion. We employed a commercially available hemoglobin

colorimetric assay as a proxy for blood protein digestion by quantifying the reduction of

hemoglobin levels in blood-engorged mosquitoes on 1 and 2 dpf compared to immediately after

feeding on 0 dpf. Before performing the assay, which is typically used for human blood, we first

validated and optimized the approach for use with homogenized mosquitoes that ingested

sheep bloodmeals. We observed that sheep blood absorbance varies linearly as a function of

hemoglobin concentration, like the kit standard (**Figure S3A**) and that absorbance decreases

reproducibly in serially diluted mosquitoes at both 560 and 580 nm wavelengths. The assay was

unaffected by the 10-minute 60°C heat treatment of homogenized fed mosquitoes used to

inactivate ZIKV infectivity in the samples (**Figure S3B**). Blood-engorged females were

homogenized and assayed for hemoglobin immediately after bloodfeeding at 0 dpf to assess

whether different groups ingested the same bloodmeal volume and  to measure kinetics of

bloodmeal digestion 1, 2, and 3 dpf (**Figure 4A**). Although hemoglobin levels that approximate

bloodmeal size varied in individual mosquitoes, there was no significant difference in mean

ingested hemoglobin levels on 0 dpf across antibiotic-treated groups regardless of whether the

bloodmeal contained ZIKV, which shows that antibiotic treatment did not influence bloodmeal

size (KW test with multiple comparisons, P = 0.522) (**Figure 4B, C**). After ingestion of blood

without ZIKV, mean hemoglobin levels in the AbxPA group were significantly higher than in the

No Abx group 2 dpf (KW test, P = 0.0063). By 3 dpf, mean hemoglobin levels in the AbxPA

group were significantly higher than both AbxA and No Abx groups (KW test with multiple

comparisons, adjusted $P_{AbxPA-No Abx}$ = 0.0347, adjusted $P_{AbxPA-AbxA}$ = 0.051) (**Figure 4B**). The

same pattern was observed after ingestion of blood with ZIKV: AbxPA showed a significantly

reduced rate of blood digestion compared to No Abx 1 dpf (KW test with multiple comparisons,

adjusted $P_{AbxPA-No Abx}$ = 0.0368, adjusted $P_{AbxPA-AbxA}$ = 0.0035) and both No Abx and AbxA 2 dpf

(KW test with multiple comparisons, adjusted $P_{AbxPA-No Abx}$ = 0.0037, adjusted $P_{AbxPA-AbxA}$ =

0.0027) (**Figure 4C**). Hemoglobin levels at 3 dpf for individuals that ingested blood with ZIKV

was not assayed since uneven bloodfeeding rates across cohorts and the desire to maintain

statistically robust group sizes led us to prioritize use these mosquitoes for infection and

dissemination assessments. We also compared mean hemoglobin levels across treatments and

days post-feed for mosquitoes that ingested blood with or without ZIKV. Although levels did not

differ significantly after bloodmeal ingestion on 0 dpf, mean hemoglobin digestion was

significantly faster in No Abx and AbxA on 1 dpf (KW test, $P_{No\ Abx}$ = 0.0163, $P_{AbxA}$ = 0.0009) but

not AbxPA (KW test, P = 0.25) in ZIKV-exposed mosquitoes compared to mosquitoes that

ingested blood without ZIKV (**Figure 4D**). To evaluate whether these observations extend to *Ae.*

*aegypti* from a different genetic background than LA, CA, we performed the similar analyses

with *Ae. aegypti* from Clovis, CA. Genome sequencing shows that *Ae. aegypti* from LA and

Clovis are genetically distinct (49), and were probably derived from separate independent

introductions into CA since 2013 when the species became established in the state. Using a

similar design (**Figure S4A**), as for mosquitoes from LA, AbxA and AbxPA from Clovis showed

significantly lower blood digestion relative to No Abx 2 dpf (KW test with multiple comparisons,

adjusted $P_{AbxPA-No\ Abx}$ = 0.0013, adjusted $P_{AbxPA-AbxA}$ = 0.027) (**Figure S4B**). Clovis AbxPA

exhibited a marginally but not statistically significantly higher infection rate (34%) compared to

AbxA (26%) and No Abx (15%) groups (Chi-square [$\chi^2$] test, P = 0.106). The dissemination

rates and mean RNA levels in ZIKV-positive Clovis mosquitoes were not different for any

treatment (**Figure S4C**). These data show that disruption of larval and pupal microbes reduces

bloodmeal digestion in two genetic lineages of *Ae. aegypti*, and that blood with ZIKV is digested

more quickly than blood lacking virus.

**Figure 4. Bloodmeal digestion kinetics in antibiotic-treated microbe-disrupted *Ae. aegypti*. A)**

**Experimental design** for detection of hemoglobin in homogenized antibiotic treated mosquitoes that

ingested blood with or without ZIKV. *Aedes aegypti* from LA, CA were reared as in Figure 1A to

generate three groups of mosquitoes: no antibiotics (No Abx), antibiotics as adults (AbxA), and

antibiotics as larvae, pupae, and adults (AbxPA). Adult mosquitoes aged 3-5 days were presented

with a bloodmeal with or without 2.1 x $10^6$ PFU/mL ZIKV. On day 0 (within 1 hour of feeding) and at

1, 2 and 3 days dpf a subset of 10-15 mosquitoes were homogenized and heat treated to destroy

ZIKV infectivity for bloodmeal volume detection using a hemoglobin assay. Infection and

dissemination were assessed 3 dpf. **Hemoglobin levels in *Ae. aegypti* as a proxy for bloodmeal**

**digestion in groups that were (B) bloodfed or (C) bloodfed with ZIKV.** The number of *Ae.*

*aegypti* that ingested blood that were assayed per day is: No Abx = 12, AbxA = 10, AbxPA 15. The

number of *Ae. aegypti* that ingested blood spiked with ZIKV that were assayed per day is: No Abx =

18, AbxA = 12, AbxPA = 15. **D) Hemoglobin levels in bloodfed versus ZIKV exposed *Ae.***

*aegypti*. Mosquitoes that ingested ZIKV that were not treated with antibiotics or treated only as

adults show increased blood digestion compared to mosquitoes treated with antibiotics as pupae

and adults. The bar graphs show the percent reduction in hemoglobin at 1 and 2 dpf compared to

the 0 dpf, calculated for all Abx groups and between ZIKV exposed and bloodfed only groups. **E)**

**Microbial disruption of pupae and adults does not impact ZIKV dissemination rates 3 dpf.**

Legs and wings of individual bloodfed females from the same cohort were assayed by ZIKV RT-

qPCR at three dpf. Each symbol in B, C and E shows the mean measurement for 1 mosquito. Bars

show mean and error bars indicate the standard deviation. * Denotes $P < 0.05$; ** denotes $P < 0.01$;

**** denotes $P<0.0001$, ns is not significantly different.

**Reduced bloodmeal digestion does not influence ZIKV dissemination from the *Ae.***

*aegypti* **midgut**

We next hypothesized that, in addition to disrupting midgut cell integrity, antibiotic mediated

reduction of microbes in mosquitoes and resulting reduced bloodmeal digestion provides the

virus more time to bind and enter midgut epithelial cells, manifest as increased ZIKV infection

and dissemination very early (3 dpf) after bloodfeeding. However, the rates and magnitude of

ZIKV RNA in bodies and legs/wings in antibiotic-treated groups was not different from the

mosquitoes that were not antibiotic treated that ingested ZIKV-spiked blood 3 days earlier

(Fisher's exact test, $P > 0.05$) (**Figure 4E**). Together with the midgut cell infectivity data, these

results suggest that increased ZIKV midgut cell infection observed in antibiotic treated pupae

and adults establishes after 3 dpf and that augmented rates of infection in microbe-disrupted

mosquitoes do not augment early dissemination.

**Hemolytic bacteria do not augment bloodmeal digestion in *Ae. aegypti* that were not**

**microbe modulated via antibiotic treatment**

To determine whether bacteria with hemolytic activity contribute to enhanced bloodmeal

digestion in the No Abx groups, bacteria from 5 No Abx treated adult mosquitoes were cultured

on LB and R2A agar and then Sanger sequenced. Although different species of bacteria were

detected, none showed hemolytic activity (**Table S1**), suggesting that bloodmeal digestion is not

directly mediated by bacteria in the mosquito midgut in the *Ae. aegypti* studied with the assays

used here. Together, these data show that microbes enhance the ability of *Ae. aegypti* to digest

blood, likely via a mechanism not tied directly to bacteria mediated hemolysis since the

culturable bacteria recovered from mosquitoes that were not antibiotic treated were not

hemolytic.

**Blood ingestion and ZIKV exposure influence the *Ae. aegypti* transcriptome**

Absent increased dissemination from the midgut, to identify gene expression differences

associated with increased ZIKV infection in AbxPA, we employed RNA-Seq analyses on pooled

adult female *Ae. aegypti* from LA before bloodfeeding and at 2 dpf (**Figure 5A**). We also

analyzed females that ingested blood with our without ZIKV. On average, 94.5% (min: 92.7,

max: 95.7%) of reads from all samples aligned at least once to the Liverpool *Ae. aegypti*

transcriptome. Mosquitoes that had not bloodfed clustered separately from those that ingested

blood with or without ZIKV (**Figure 5B**, **Figure S5A**). Bloodmeal status correlated more strongly

with variance (accounting for 84%, P<0.001) in the overall transcriptomic profile compared to

antibiotic treatment (<5%, P = 0.83). ZIKV in the bloodmeal also yielded differentially expressed

genes (DEGs) for each antibiotic treated group. Prior to blood with or without ZIKV, 20

**A** RNA-SEQ WORKFLOW

Los Angeles, CA
*Ae. aegypti*

No Abx

AbxA

AbxPA

only
blood only
sheep blood + ZIKV

pool of 5 x3 per treatment
pool of 5 x3 per treatment
pool of 5 x3 per treatment

Total RNA

Library prep + Sequence
Poly-A selection
Illumina HiSeq

Map reads

Generate groups | Blood feed/ Sugar | Whole body collection | RNA extraction | RNA-Seq | Align to transcriptome

Adults 3-5 dpe | Before blood-feed or 2 dpf

**B** PCA: BLOOD MEAL STATUS & ABX TREATMENT

PC2: 11%
PC1: 73%

Bloodmeal content
▲ before bloodfeed
● blood only
■ blood + ZIKV

Antibiotic treatment
● No Abx
● AbxA
● AbxPA

**C** DEGs: ZIKV vs. BLOOD ONLY

AbxA 953
AbxPA 49
6
5
1010
2
No Abx 241

**D** KEGG ASSIGNMENT OF DEGs

AbxPA
AbxA
No Abx

Number of DEGs

■ Thermogenesis
■ Metabolic processes
■ Glycan degradation
■ unknown

**E** LACK OF IMMUNE GENES AMONG DEGs (AbxA vs. AbxPA)

AMPs | apoptosis | DENV H.F. | Imd | JAK–STAT | other | RNAi | ROS | Toll

Log2-Fold Change

padj
● NonSig
● Sig

Gene name

significant DEGs were identified between AbxPA and No Abx (**Table S2**): the most

downregulated in AbxPA relative to No Abx was uncharacterized and other downregulated

genes in AbxPA included membrane components and ATP binding proteins. After bloodfeeding,

over a third of genes in the *Ae. aegypti* genome were differentially expressed, consistent with

other RNA-Seq studies (50). At 2 dpf, 7846 genes in No Abx, 9356 genes in AbxA, and 7846

genes in AbxPA were differentially expressed compared to sugar-fed only mosquitoes. Among

them, 6676 genes were shared among No Abx, AbxA, and AbxPA, representing an

overwhelming majority of the total DEGs (**Figure S5B**). Between bloodfed without and with

ZIKV, DEG differences were more apparent: AbxA had 1974 DEG, and No Abx had 1258, and

AbxPA had 62 (**Figure 5C**, only DEGs that differed significantly across antibiotic treatments are

shown [adjusted $P < 0.05$ by Wald test]). Most shared DEGs were between AbxA and No Abx

groups; AbxPA expressed a unique set of DEGs. Assignment of Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes

and Genomes (KEGG) pathway identity (IDs) to DEGs identified many unknown genes.

Hypothetical protein products with no homology to genes with functional annotations were

common (No Abx: 526, AbxA: 792, AbxPA: 29), as were genes involved in metabolic processes

(No Abx: 371, AbxA: 599, AbxPA: 25) and thermogenesis (No Abx: 277, AbxA: 452, AbxPA: 9)

(**Figure 5D**). In ZIKV bloodfed mosquitoes, AbxPA reduced differential gene expression more

than AbxA or NoAbx. Taken together, these data suggest that bloodfeeding has a larger effect

than microbial exposure on *Ae. aegypti* gene expression and implicate microbe-mediated

effects on factors other than changes in transcription as modifiers of ZIKV vector competence.

**Figure 5. Differentially expressed genes between antibiotic-treated adult *Ae. aegypti* females**

**that had or had not taken a bloodmeal. A) Experimental design.** For each antibiotic treatment

and bloodfeeding state, triplicate pools of 5 whole, legless mosquito bodies were RNA-extracted,

pre-processed, and sequenced. **B) Transcriptome profile differs more by bloodmeal status than**

**by antibiotic treatment.** PCA plot after variance stabilized transformation. Shapes indicate the

bloodmeal status and colors represent antibiotic treatments. Separate PCAs for individual variables,

are shown in **Figure S5**. **C) ZIKV-responsive DEGs are shared between *Ae. aegypti* that were**

**not antibiotic-treated or antibiotic-treated as adults.** Venn diagram of DEGs in non-bloodfed and

bloodfed *Ae. aegypti* for each treatment. **D) DEGs correspond to metabolic processes,**

**thermogenesis, and unknown genes.** KEGG Pathway ID assignment of DEGs in panel C. **E)**

**DEGs between *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes treated with antibiotics as pupae and adults**

**compared to adults only and between mosquitoes that ingested ZIKV in blood or blood only**

**do not correspond to known immune response genes.** Relative expression of select immune-

related genes from literature (51–66). Expression is higher in AbxA if the $\log_2$-fold change is positive,

while expression is higher in AbxPA if $\log_2$-fold change is negative. Points are considered significant

(red) if the adjusted P value is < 0.01. Comparisons of the same genes between AbxA or AbxPA and

the control treatment, No Abx, are shown in **Figure S6**.

Provided that microbes mediate immunomodulatory effects in mosquitoes (13,67,68), we

theorized their presence could influence ZIKV susceptibility by modifying the expression of

immune response pathways where some respond to both bacteria and viruses. We identified

immunity-related DEGs across antibiotic-treated mosquitoes 2 dpf in the RNA-Seq data.

Transcripts representing components of various immune pathways were accessioned from

existing literature and used to filter the dataset before analyses of DEG profiles. Representative

genes examined include regulators from Toll (51–53), RNAi (54–57), JAK-STAT (52,58,59), and

Imd pathways (60,69), as well as general immune and immune-adjacent genes such as

hormones (61–63,70), antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) (59,64), reactive oxygen species (ROS)

(65,66), and known DENV host factors (59,64). There were few DEGs demonstrating significant

changes in transcript abundance in immune pathways between AbxA and AbxPA, No Abx and

AbxA, or No Abx and AbxPA groups (**Figures 5E, S5**). Comparison of immune genes transcript

abundance differences between No Abx and AbxA and between No Abx and AbxPA revealed

several JAK-STAT pathway genes (**Figure S6**). These data suggest that gene expression

changes after microbe disruption via antibiotic treatment of *Ae. aegypti* that show different

susceptibility to ZIKV infection are not related to known immune response pathways.

**Gene ontology assignments reveal the role of microbiota in stimulating expression of**

**protein digestion-associated genes in *Ae. aegypti* orally exposed to ZIKV**

Given that RNA-Seq revealed no major differences in expression of immune response genes

after microbe disruption, we next performed Gene Ontology (GO) analyses to predict enriched

functions in non-immune associated DEGs. We identified DEGs displaying significant changes

in abundance between  antibiotic treated mosquitoes that ingested ZIKV in blood or that

ingested blood only. The AbxA and No Abx groups that ingested ZIKV in blood showed

increased expression of genes enriched in general translation processes (AbxA: 125, adjusted

$P < 10^{-10}$; No Abx: 127, adjusted $P < 10^{-20}$) and proteolysis (AbxA: 84, adjusted P = 0.0006; No

Abx: 56, adjusted P = 0.015). The AbxPA group showed few upregulated genes resulting in a

lack of enriched functions (**Figure 6A**). Conversely, enrichments in genes downregulated in

mosquitoes that ingested ZIKV in blood versus mosquitoes that ingested blood showed reduced

transcript abundance for genes associated with DNA metabolism (8) and redox processes (4) in

the ZIKV exposed AbxPA mosquitoes. AbxA and No Abx were depleted in genes for DNA

replication (N=48 and 34, respectively) and DNA repair (N=18 and 2, respectively). All treatment

groups that ingested blood with ZIKV compared to blood only exhibited downregulation of

carbohydrate metabolism genes (AbxPA: N=8, adjusted P = 0.006; AbxA: N=6, adjusted P =

0.0002; No Abx: N=16, adjusted P = 0.017) (**Figure 6B**). These data suggest that microbiota

during early ZIKV infection promote expression of genes associated with proteolysis and

translation while downregulating genes relating to DNA synthesis. The magnitude of change in

DEGs in antibiotic treated mosquitoes that ingested ZIKV in blood or blood only were also

compared. Gene AAEL008117, the most depleted transcript in AbxA and No Abx groups (~20

log$_2$-fold reduced), corresponds to nompC, a mechanosensitive ion channel that senses balance

and touch in *Drosophila melanogaster* (71). The most common DEGs that changed in response

to ZIKV exposure matched to proteolytic and PM-associated enzymes, including

endopeptidases, collagenases, and dehydrogenases (72). Multiple serine-type endopeptidases

were differentially expressed depending on antibiotic treatment (**Figure 6C**). In addition, some

vitellogenesis associated proteins were more enriched in antibiotic treated mosquitoes

compared to the No Abx group. In AbxPA, the gene demonstrating the biggest reduction in

transcript abundance corresponds to a m1 zinc metalloprotease, showed increased expression

in the No Abx group. Overall, GO analyses revealed *Ae. aegypti* with disrupted microbiota are

deficient in genes that influence blood protein metabolism.

**Figure 6. Gene Ontology assignment of DEGs and identity of most enriched/depleted genes**

**in *Ae. aegypti* that were** antibiotic treated and that ingested ZIKV in bloodmeals or blood only. **A)**

**Upregulated GO hits for mosquitoes treated with antibiotics as adults or not antibiotic treated**

**map to general translational processes and proteolysis.** Mosquitoes treated with antibiotics as

pupae and adults demonstrate a reduced complement of proteolysis associated genes, and **B) GO**

**enrichments in genes showing reduced transcript abundance for all antibiotic treatments**

**primarily map to DNA synthesis and repair mechanisms.** GO terms for the DEGs (determined

from Figures 6C-D) and their descriptions on the y-axis, and statistical significance (P-values,

Fisher's exact test) of the GO term on the x-axis, with the exact number of DEGs within the colored

circles. DEGs farther to the left (lower P-values) are more significant. **C) ZIKV-responsive DEGs**

**demonstrating the highest magnitude fold change are distinct between AbxPA and No Abx**

**treatment groups.** The top 10 upregulated and top 10 downregulated DEGs, by magnitude log$_2$-fold

change for each antibiotic treatment. A positive log$_2$-fold change refers to more transcripts after a

ZIKV-spiked bloodmeal, while a negative value refers to fewer transcripts. The right y-axis is the

gene description from annotations retrieved from transcriptome metadata as well as VectorBase

(42). Red text indicates the top genes shared between No Abx and AbxA. Purple text indicates the

top genes shared between AbxPA and AbxA.

**Discussion**

This study shows that microbial exposure confers resistance to ZIKV infection of *Ae. aegypti*

and that microbes enhance bloodmeal digestion and midgut integrity and reduce midgut cell

infection. Reduced microbial colonization during both pupal and adult *Ae. aegypti* life stages

produced the largest increases in ZIKV susceptibility. These effects were not due to antibiotic

treatment itself and our studies with gnotobiotic mosquitoes show that exposure to more than

*Elizabethkingia spp.* is required to reduce ZIKV susceptibility. The lack of modified ZIKV

susceptibility in microbe-reduced Clovis *Ae. aegypti* contrasts with our observations from Los

Angeles mosquitoes and highlights the need for further work to understand whether microbes

have differential impacts on ZIKV competence in *Aedes* mosquitoes from different regions,

which is supported by a recent study showing mosquito genotype effects in Senegalese *Ae.*

*aegypti* (18).

Augmented rates of ZIKV infection but not dissemination in *Ae. aegypti* after microbe reduction

via antibiotic treatment suggest that microbes act at the midgut infection barrier. Augmented

transmission by AbxA but not AbxPA could be explained by a stochastic effect due to the

smaller group size of AbxA versus AbxPA or another mechanism we do not yet understand.

Hematophagous feeding introduces a unique problem in that engorgement immensely distends

the midgut. Midgut distention can result in breaches in the integrity of the epithelial barrier,

presenting an opportunity for a virus ingested with blood to bypass infection of the epithelium.

Prior studies detected bloodmeal-induced perforations in the midgut basal lamina, which do not

fully recover after digestion, supporting a process where successive bloodmeals increase rates

of ZIKV dissemination (48). Considering that we observed a reduced magnitude of and rate of

bloodmeal digestion in antibiotic-treated mosquitoes as pupae and adults, we envision a

process where microbes accelerate digestion, decreasing the window of time the virus has to

escape the bloodmeal and access the midgut epithelium. We did not observe gross structural

differences in the midgut epithelium with DAPI or H&E staining, so we theorize that microbes do

not impact midgut permeability by physically modifying the midgut epithelium, although electron

microscopy studies could yield more insight into structural changes. We acknowledge that

increased midgut permeability may also allow for extracellular ZIKV traversion of the midgut

epithelium and that this is a process we did not measure in these studies. Our 0 dpf midgut

permeability assays were performed within 1 hour of feeding, which could be too early to

observe structural differences in the midgut epithelium. Future studies focusing on midgut

integrity at higher temporal resolution are warranted.

Given that there are conserved elements of mosquito antiviral defenses and gut microbial

homeostasis, including immune signaling and off-target suppression by ROS and AMPs (12,67),

we were initially surprised that gene expression analyses did not detect differences in antiviral

immune responses in response to antibiotic treatment. Rather, our RNA-Seq analyses confirm

prior observations that show protein digestion and vitellogenesis dominate mosquito

physiological processes after bloodfeeding (50), in parallel with other work showing upregulation

of proteases and trypsins 2 days post-ZIKV exposure (73).  Blood digestion and vitellogenesis

may be hampered without microbial symbionts. Midgut symbionts may also indirectly reduce

mosquito vector competence in multiple ways. These include supplementation of larval nutrition

and development to increase mosquito fitness (10,74–77), stimulation of bloodfeeding behavior

resulting in larger bloodmeals (although bloodmeal size differences were not observed in our

studies) and increased nutrition (78), and regulation of midgut epithelial cell proliferation, where

the physical microbe-midgut interface can block virus access to midgut infection (79) [although

this may be pathogen specific as increased midgut infection has also been observed (20,80)].

Both microbes and ZIKV in bloodmeals resulted in increased blood digestion relative to microbe-reduced antibiotic treated mosquitoes that ingested blood without virus. It is unclear why ZIKV enhances digestion; this may result from the virus modulating cell metabolism to benefit viral replication, a pattern shown for many viruses (81). In human cells, infection with DENV elevates glycolysis to meet cellular energy needs (82). ZIKV infection of mosquito midgut cells may increase energy demand, which can be met by increasing blood metabolism. Absent ZIKV in the bloodmeal, antibiotic-treated mosquitoes exhibited digestive deficiencies during late digestion, defined here as periods beyond 2 dpf. Since blood ingestion is followed by rapid proliferation of midgut microbes that results from a heme-mediated reduction in ROS (83), the delayed digestion kinetics in antibiotic treated mosquitoes could be influenced by the disrupted microbial environment that promotes digestion.

Determining how microbes modulate the susceptibility of mosquitoes to arboviruses can help identify approaches to reduce transmission and decrease human disease. Microbial effects may also explain variability in vector competence across laboratories and geographic origins where each has different microbial communities (84), together with conventionally acknowledged factors like inbreeding during colonization (85,86). Our previous work, together with a growing body of mosquito microbiome studies, suggests that mosquito-microbe-virus interactions are environmentally variable and warrant investigation in more field-relevant contexts (15,77,87,88). Our study has several limitations. These include use of a single microbial community, ZIKV strain and dose, where disparate microbial species, community structures, and other ZIKV strains could impact susceptibility differently. Changes in microbiome composition due to antibiotic modification may differentially impact microbes with more than one copy of 16S rRNA, which could bias our evaluation of antibiotic efficacy. Unculturable bacterial species could potentially play a role in mediating hemolytic activity that could have impacted blood digestion

assays. Our use of antibiotics, which incompletely eliminates microbiota, most closely

represents a dysbiotic phenotype. Additionally, our gnotobiotic studies were limited to use of a

single bacterial species. Newer tools including auxotrophic symbionts (89) and axenic

mosquitoes (10) can be used to further investigate the metabolic roles of microbes in influencing

arboviral infection of mosquitoes. The addition of ZIKV to comprise 5% of the bloodmeal volume

could have resulted in augmented bloodmeal digestion compared to blood without ZIKV;

mechanistic studies to determine how ZIKV impacts bloodmeal digestion are warranted. Future

studies of infection dynamics at the microbe-mosquito midgut interface could prove useful in

reconciling disparate vector competence outcomes and discovering novel vector control

approaches.

**Acknowledgments** We acknowledge Elise Ladouceur for helping interpret H&E imaging.

**Funding Acknowledgements**: This project was funded by the Training Grant Program of the

Pacific Southwest Regional Center of Excellence for Vector-Borne Diseases funded by the U.S.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (cooperative agreement 1U01CK000516). WL was

supported by the University of California, Davis, School of Veterinary Medicine Graduate

Student Support Program. ALR was supported by the Coachella Valley Mosquito and Vector

Control District. LLC was supported by the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases

of the National Institutes of Health under award number U01AI151814. The content is solely the

responsibility of the authors and does not represent the official views of the National Institutes of

Health. None of the funders played a role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision

to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

**Author Contributions**

Conceptualization: WL, LLC

Data Curation: WL, LKM, ETK

Formal Analysis: WL, LKM, ETK

Funding Acquisition: WL, LLC

Investigation: WL, LC

Methodology: WL, ALR, RL, LLC, GMA

Project Administration: LLC

Resources: LLC

Supervision: LLC, GMA

Validation: WL

Visualization: WL, ALR, LLC

Writing-Original Draft: WL

Writing-Reviewing and Editing: WL, ALR, LLC, LKM, ETK, GMA

**Figure S1. Histology of bloodfed female midguts.** Cross sections of whole, bloodfed female

*Ae. aegypti* along the median sagittal plane. H&E staining and bright field microscopy with a

focus on the blood bolus perimeter was used to assess and identify potential structural artifacts

during sample preparation that could confound immunofluorescence observations. Both 20X

and 40X magnification of the same section are shown side-by-side. MG epithelium = midgut

epithelium. PM region = peritrophic matrix region (where the fully formed PM would be seen).

RBCs = red blood cells, from bloodmeal. BL side = basal laminal side.

**Figure S2. Bacterial relative abundance.** Only bacteria with assigned taxonomy are shown.

Each group shown represents all adult mosquitoes sequenced (N=10 Conventional, N=10

Conventional + Abx, N=8 Gnotobiotic). ASVs were agglomerated into their respective genera,

represented by the colored bars.

**Figure S3. Validation of hemoglobin colorimetric assay kit for bloodfed mosquitoes. A)**

Serial 1:2-fold dilutions of heparinized sheep blood were tested in parallel with the kit

hemoglobin standard at the absorbance extremes of 560nm and 580nm. Lines indicate

standard curves generated from linear regression that were used in the hemoglobin assays. **B)**

Absorbance values of sheep blood hemoglobin after heat-treating at 60°C for 10 minutes in

duplicates (rep = replicate).

**Figure S4. Bloodmeal digestion in microbe-disrupted *Ae. aegypti* as pupae and adults from**

**Clovis, California. A) Experimental design** using the same groups as in Figure 1 and hemoglobin

assessments as in Figure 4 where an *Ae. aegypti* colony from Clovis, CA was used instead of *Ae.*

*aegypti* from LA, CA. Mosquitoes were harvested 14 dpf for vector competence assessments. **B)**

**Hemoglobin levels in *Ae. aegypti* as a proxy for bloodmeal digestion in groups that were ZIKV**

**exposed.** Despite ingesting equivalent bloodmeal sizes, antibiotic treatment reduced blood digestion

with ZIKV at 2 dpf in Clovis mosquitoes. Error bars show the means and standard deviations. N = 15

for each treatment on  0 dpf, 20 per treatment on 2 dpf. **C) Microbial disruption of pupae and**

**adults does not impact ZIKV infection or dissemination in Clovis mosquitoes.** Rates of

infection and mean ZIKV RNA levels from bloodfed Clovis *Ae. aegypti* subjected to different

antibiotic treatments were not significantly different at 14 dpf. Error bars denote the geometric means

and standard deviations. The dotted line denotes the average LOD which was 62 RNA

copies/mosquito. ZIKV levels in bodies and legs/wings with detectable ZIKV RNA are shown in panel

C. (* is $P < 0.05$; ** is $P < 0.01$; ns is not significantly different). Each symbol in B and C shows the

mean value for 1 mosquito based on triplicate ZIKV RT-qPCR measurements.

1007

1008    **Figure S5. DEGs from bloodfed antibiotic-treated mosquitoes that were not exposed to**

1009    **ZIKV. A) Individual PCA plots** by a single variable representing the same data in Figure 6B.

1010    Shapes indicate the bloodmeal status while colors represent the antibiotic treatments. B) **DEGs**

1011    **between blood- and sugar-fed *Ae. aegypti***.

1012

1013    **Figure S6. Change in immune response gene expression across antibiotic treated groups**

1014    **of *Ae. aegypti*.** A positive $\log_2$-fold change indicates enrichment in AbxA or AbxPA, while a

1015    negative $\log_2$-fold change indicates enrichment in No Abx.

1016

1017

1018

| Closest bacterial species to sequences from *Ae. aegypti* not treated with antibiotics | E-value | Percent identity | Accession Number | Culture medium | Hemolytic activity? |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Elizabethkingia ursingii* strain EM514-03 | 3.00E-124 | 99% | ON714894.1 | R2A agar, sheep blood agar | no |
| *Elizabethkingia bruuniana* strain KMUH55 | 3.00E-124 | 99% | ON714884.1 | R2A agar, sheep blood agar | no |
| *Elizabethkingia miricola* strain BM10 | 7.00E-56 | 85% | CP011059.1 | R2A agar, sheep blood agar | no |
| *Pseudomonas sp.* MF0 | 3.00E-125 | 99% | AY331340.1 | R2A agar | NA |
| *Pseudacidovorax intermedius* strain HMF4787 | 1.00E-124 | 99% | MN595029.1 | R2A agar | NA |
| *Salmonella* clone (uncultured) | 8.00E-126 | 99% | EF605247.1 | R2A agar, sheep blood agar | no |

1019

**Table S1. Bacterial isolates from adult *Ae. aegypti* that were not treated with antibiotics**

**(No Abx).** Cultured and isolated bacterial colonies from adult female *Ae. aegypti*, 3-5 dpe were

Sanger sequenced at the V4 region of the 16S gene. Sequences were input into nucleotide

BLAST, and the closest hits are reported. Hemolytic activity was tested by presence of ring of

clearance around colonies (from lysed red blood cells) when cultured on sheep blood agar at

37°C. NA indicates hemolytic activity was not evaluated.

1026

1027

| Gene | Log$_2$Fold Change | Adjusted P | GO accession | GO term | Gene description |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AAEL021374 | -4.99 | 0.019 | NA | NA | NA |
| AAEL020586 | -2.88 | 0.000 | GO:0016020 | membrane | NA |
| AAEL003626 | -1.27 | 0.047 | GO:0016021 | integral component of membrane | sodium/chloride dependent amino acid transporter |
| AAEL019793 | -1.00 | 0.026 | GO:0005524 | ATP binding | NA |
| AAEL010711 | -1.00 | 0.005 | GO:0005524 | ATP binding | eph receptor tyrosine kinase |
| AAEL020123 | -0.95 | 0.040 | NA | NA | NA |
| AAEL019444 | -0.87 | 0.022 | GO:0003723 | RNA binding | NA |
| AAEL004715 | -0.86 | 0.041 | GO:0008285 | negative regulation of cell population proliferation | b-cell translocation protein |
| AAEL017280 | -0.85 | 0.040 | GO:0003677 | DNA binding | NA |
| AAEL007041 | -0.83 | 0.033 | GO:0005509 | calcium ion binding | low-density lipoprotein receptor (ldl) |
| AAEL027453 | 1.49 | 0.019 | GO:0004550 | nucleoside diphosphate kinase activity | NA |
| AAEL012832 | 1.88 | 0.026 | GO:0031902 | late endosome membrane | cytochrome B561 |
| AAEL000384 | 3.58 | 0.000 | GO:0055085 | transmembrane transport | vesicular acetylcholine transporter |
| AAEL012340 | 4.56 | 0.026 | GO:0016788 | hydrolase activity, acting on ester bonds | lipase 1 precursor |
| AAEL029026 | 8.16 | 0.026 | NA | NA | NA |
| AAEL014561 | 8.47 | 0.040 | GO:0005576 | extracellular region | NA |

1028

1029 **Table S2. DEGs between sugar-fed *Ae. aegypti* without antibiotics or antibiotic treated as**

1030 **pupae and adults.** A negative Log$_2$fold-change refers to downregulation in AbxPA vs No Abx,

1031 while a positive Log$_2$fold-change refers to upregulation in AbxPA vs No Abx.

1032

1033

1034

1035

1036

1037

1038

1039

|  | 20X | 40X |
|---|---|---|
| No Abx | gut lumen | RBCs, luminal side, PM region, microvilli, BL side |
|  | fat body, MG epithelium |  |
| AbxA | gut lumen, fat body, MG epithelium | RBCs, microvilli, PM region, BL side |
| AbxPA | gut lumen, fat body, MG epithelium | RBCs, luminal side, PM region, BL side |

# A
## ZIKV INFECTION AND DISSEMINATION AND HEMOGLOBIN ASSAYS

Clovis, CA *Ae. aegypti*

No Abx
AbxA
AbxPA

sheep blood + ZIKV

14 dpf    N = 46-50

ZIKV RT-qPCR
Body
Legs/Wings

0 dpf    N = 15
2 dpf    N = 20

homogenize + heat inactivate

hemoglobin assay

| Generate Abx groups | Blood feed | Digestion assay | Vector competence |
|---|---|---|---|
| Adults 3-5 dpe | Adults 0-2 dpf | Adults 14 dpf | |

# B
## HEMOGLOBIN LEVELS AT 0 AND 2 DPF BLOOD + ZIKV

Hemoglobin (µg/body)

ns

**

*        ns

No Abx    AbxA    AbxPA        No Abx    AbxA    AbxPA
0 dpf                          2 dpf

# C
## INFECTION AND DISSEMINATION RATES AND ZIKV RNA LEVELS IN POSITIVE SAMPLES

RNA levels (copies/mosquito)

Body                              Legs/Wings

LOD

No Abx       AbxA        AbxPA        No Abx       AbxA        AbxPA
15%          26%         34%          71%          39%         77%
(7/46)       (13/50)     (17/50)      (5/7)        (5/13)      (13/17)
                 ns                             ns

**References**

1.  Winokur OC, Main BJ, Nicholson J, Barker CM. Impact of temperature on the extrinsic incubation period of Zika virus in *Aedes aegypti*. Althouse B, editor. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2020 Mar 18;14(3):e0008047.

2.  Onyango MG, Bialosuknia SM, Payne AF, Mathias N, Kuo L, Vigneron A, et al. Increased temperatures reduce the vectorial capacity of *Aedes* mosquitoes for Zika virus. Emerg Microbes Infect. 2020 Jan 1;9(1):67–77.

3.  Kain MP, Skinner EB, Athni TS, Ramirez AL, Mordecai EA, van den Hurk AF. Not all mosquitoes are created equal: A synthesis of vector competence experiments reinforces virus associations of Australian mosquitoes. Brackney DE, editor. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2022 Oct 4;16(10):e0010768.

4.  Boyer S, Calvez E, Chouin-Carneiro T, Diallo D, Failloux AB. An overview of mosquito vectors of Zika virus. Microbes Infect. 2018 Dec;20(11–12):646–60.

5.  Ferreira QR, Lemos FFB, Moura MN, Nascimento JO de S, Novaes AF, Barcelos IS, et al. Role of the Microbiome in Aedes spp. Vector Competence: What Do We Know? Viruses. 2023 Mar 17;15(3):779.

6.  Coon KL, Brown MR, Strand MR. Mosquitoes host communities of bacteria that are essential for development but vary greatly between local habitats. Mol Ecol. 2016 Nov;25(22):5806–26.

7.  Coon KL, Vogel KJ, Brown MR, Strand MR. Mosquitoes rely on their gut microbiota for development. Mol Ecol. 2014 Jun;23(11):2727–39.

8.  Scolari F, Casiraghi M, Bonizzoni M. *Aedes* spp. and Their Microbiota: A Review. Front Microbiol. 2019 Sep 4;10:2036.

9.  Mancini MV, Damiani C, Accoti A, Tallarita M, Nunzi E, Cappelli A, et al. Estimating bacteria diversity in different organs of nine species of mosquito by next generation sequencing. BMC Microbiol. 2018 Dec;18(1):126.

10. Correa MA, Matusovsky B, Brackney DE, Steven B. Generation of axenic *Aedes aegypti* demonstrate live bacteria are not required for mosquito development. Nat Commun [Internet]. 2018 Dec [cited 2019 Mar 1];9(1). Available from: http://www.nature.com/articles/s41467-018-07014-2

11. Gaio A de O, Gusmão DS, Santos AV, Berbert-Molina MA, Pimenta PF, Lemos FJ. Contribution of midgut bacteria to blood digestion and egg production in *Aedes aegypti* (diptera: culicidae) (L.). Parasit Vectors. 2011;4(1):105.

12. El-Sherbini M, Hamed A, Abdeltawab M. The Mosquito Microbiota Interplay in Immune Signalling, Vector competence, and Control Prospects. Egypt Acad J Biol Sci G Microbiol. 2022 Mar 25;14(1):101–12.

13. Guégan M, Zouache K, Démichel C, Minard G, Tran Van V, Potier P, et al. The mosquito
holobiont: fresh insight into mosquito-microbiota interactions. Microbiome. 2018
Dec;6(1):49.

14. Engel P, Moran NA. The gut microbiota of insects – diversity in structure and function.
FEMS Microbiol Rev. 2013 Sep;37(5):699–735.

15. Louie W, Coffey LL. Microbial Composition in Larval Water Enhances *Aedes aegypti*
Development but Reduces Transmissibility of Zika Virus. Einav S, editor. mSphere. 2021
Dec 22;6(6):e00687-21.

16. Hegde S, Khanipov K, Albayrak L, Golovko G, Pimenova M, Saldaña MA, et al. Microbiome
interaction networks and community structure from laboratory-reared and field-collected
*Aedes aegypti*, *Aedes albopictus*, and *Culex quinquefasciatus* mosquito vectors. Front
Microbiol [Internet]. 2018 Sep 10 [cited 2019 Feb 13];9. Available from:
https://www.frontiersin.org/article/10.3389/fmicb.2018.02160/full

17. Onyango MG, Payne AF, Stout J, Dieme C, Kuo L, Kramer LD, et al. Potential for
transmission of *Elizabethkingia anophelis* by *Aedes albopictus* and the role of microbial
interactions in Zika vector competence. bioRxiv. 2020; https://doi.org/10.1101/702464

18. Accoti A, Multini LC, Diouf B, Becker M, Vulcan J, Sylla M, et al. The influence of the larval
microbiome on susceptibility to Zika virus is mosquito genotype-dependent. McGraw EA,
editor. PLOS Pathog. 2023 Oct 30;19(10):e1011727.

19. Möhlmann TWR, Vogels CBF, Göertz GP, Pijlman GP, ter Braak CJF, te Beest DE, et al.
Impact of Gut Bacteria on the Infection and Transmission of Pathogenic Arboviruses by
Biting Midges and Mosquitoes. Microb Ecol. 2020 Oct;80(3):703–17.

20. Wu P, Sun P, Nie K, Zhu Y, Shi M, Xiao C, et al. A gut commensal bacterium promotes
mosquito permissiveness to arboviruses. Cell Host Microbe. 2019 Jan;25(1):101-112.e5.

21. Deng SQ, Zou WH, Li DL, Chen JT, Huang Q, Zhou LJ, et al. Expression of *Bacillus
thuringiensis* toxin Cyt2Ba in the entomopathogenic fungus *Beauveria bassiana* increases
its virulence towards *Aedes* mosquitoes. Kittayapong P, editor. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2019
Jul 15;13(7):e0007590.

22. Silva-Filha MHNL. Bacterial Toxins Active against Mosquitoes: Mode of Action and
Resistance. 2021 Aug; 13(8): 523.

23. Franz A, Kantor A, Passarelli A, Clem R. Tissue Barriers to Arbovirus Infection in
Mosquitoes. Viruses. 2015 Jul 8;7(7):3741–67.

24. Hyde J, Gorham C, Brackney DE, Steven B. Antibiotic resistant bacteria and commensal
fungi are common and conserved in the mosquito microbiome. Butaye P, editor. PLOS
ONE. 2019 Aug 14;14(8):e0218907.

25. Kalghatgi S, Spina CS, Costello JC, Liesa M, Morones-Ramirez JR, Slomovic S, et al.
Bactericidal antibiotics induce mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative damage in
Mammalian cells. Sci Transl Med. 2013 Jul 3;5(192):192ra85.

26. Moullan N, Mouchiroud L, Wang X, Ryu D, Williams EG, Mottis A, et al. Tetracyclines Disturb Mitochondrial Function across Eukaryotic Models: A Call for Caution in Biomedical Research. Cell Rep. 2015 Mar 17;10(10):1681–91.

27. Badal S, Her YF, Maher LJ. Nonantibiotic Effects of Fluoroquinolones in Mammalian Cells. J Biol Chem. 2015 Sep 4;290(36):22287–97.

28. Gopinath S, Kim MV, Rakib T, Wong PW, van Zandt M, Barry NA, et al. Topical application of aminoglycoside antibiotics enhances host resistance to viral infections in a microbiota-independent manner. Nat Microbiol. 2018 May;3(5):611–21.

29. Ballard JWO, Melvin RG. Tetracycline treatment influences mitochondrial metabolism and mtDNA density two generations after treatment in *Drosophila*. Insect Mol Biol. 2007 Dec;16(6):799–802.

30. Chabanol E, Behrends V, Prévot G, Christophides GK, Gendrin M. Antibiotic Treatment in *Anopheles coluzzii* Affects Carbon and Nitrogen Metabolism. Pathog Basel Switz. 2020 Aug 21;9(9):679.

31. Kalappa DM, Subramani PA, Basavanna SK, Ghosh SK, Sundaramurthy V, Uragayala S, et al. Influence of midgut microbiota in *Anopheles stephensi* on *Plasmodium berghei* infections. Malar J. 2018 Dec;17(1):385.

32. Klindworth A, Pruesse E, Schweer T, Peplies J, Quast C, Horn M, et al. Evaluation of general 16S ribosomal RNA gene PCR primers for classical and next-generation sequencing-based diversity studies. Nucleic Acids Res. 2013 Jan 1;41(1):e1–e1.

33. Callahan BJ, McMurdie PJ, Rosen MJ, Han AW, Johnson AJA, Holmes SP. DADA2: High-resolution sample inference from Illumina amplicon data. Nat Methods. 2016 Jul;13(7):581–3.

34. Callahan BJ, Sankaran K, Fukuyama JA, McMurdie PJ, Holmes SP. Bioconductor workflow for microbiome data analysis: from raw reads to community analyses. 2016;48.

35. Dzaki N, Ramli KN, Azlan A, Ishak IH, Azzam G. Evaluation of reference genes at different developmental stages for quantitative real-time PCR in *Aedes aegypti*. Sci Rep. 2017 Apr;7(1):43618.

36. Main BJ, Nicholson J, Winokur OC, Steiner C, Riemersma KK, Stuart J, et al. Vector competence of *Aedes aegypti*, *Culex tarsalis*, and *Culex quinquefasciatus* from California for Zika virus. Turell MJ, editor. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2018 Jun 21;12(6):e0006524.

37. Lemos D, Stuart JB, Louie W, Singapuri A, Ramírez AL, Watanabe J, et al. Two Sides of a Coin: a Zika Virus Mutation Selected in Pregnant Rhesus Macaques Promotes Fetal Infection in Mice but at a Cost of Reduced Fitness in Nonpregnant Macaques and Diminished Transmissibility by Vectors. J Virol [Internet]. 2020 Nov 23 [cited 2020 Dec 14];94(24). Available from: https://jvi.asm.org/content/94/24/e01605-20

38. Talyuli OAC, Oliveira JHM, Bottino-Rojas V, Silveira GO, Alvarenga PH, Kantor AM, et al. The *Aedes aegypti* peritrophic matrix controls arbovirus vector competence through HPx1, a

heme–induced peroxidase [Internet]. Microbiology; 2022 Jun [cited 2022 Sep 13]. Available
from: http://biorxiv.org/lookup/doi/10.1101/2022.06.02.494599

39. Schindelin J, Arganda-Carreras I, Frise E, Kaynig V, Longair M, Pietzsch T, et al. Fiji: an
open-source platform for biological-image analysis. Nat Methods. 2012 Jul;9(7):676–82.

40. Martin M. Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput sequencing reads.
EMBnet.journal. 2011 May 2;17(1):10.

41. Andrews S. FastQC:  A Quality Control Tool for High Throughput Sequence Data [Online]
[Internet]. 2010. Available from: http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/

42. Giraldo-Calderón GI, Emrich SJ, MacCallum RM, Maslen G, Dialynas E, Topalis P, et al.
VectorBase: an updated bioinformatics resource for invertebrate vectors and other
organisms related with human diseases. Nucleic Acids Res. 2015 Jan 28;43(D1):D707–13.

43. Langmead B, Salzberg SL. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nat Methods. 2012
Apr;9(4):357–9.

44. Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-
seq data with DESeq2. 2014;21.

45. Adrian Alexa JR. topGO: Enrichment Analysis for Gene Ontology [Internet]. Bioconductor;
2022 [cited 2022 Oct 24]. Available from: https://bioconductor.org/packages/topGO

46. R Core Team. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing [Internet]. Vienna,
Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2022. Available from: https://www.R-
project.org/

47. Steven B, Hyde J, LaReau JC, Brackney DE. The Axenic and Gnotobiotic Mosquito:
Emerging Models for Microbiome Host Interactions. Front Microbiol. 2021 Jul 12;12:714222.

48. Armstrong PM, Ehrlich H, Bransfield A, Warren JL, Pitzer VE, Brackney DE. Successive
bloodmeals enhance virus dissemination within mosquitoes and increase transmission
potential [Internet]. Microbiology; 2018 Jan [cited 2019 Dec 9]. Available from:
http://biorxiv.org/lookup/doi/10.1101/246306

49. Lee Y, Schmidt H, Collier TC, Conner WR, Hanemaaijer MJ, Slatkin M, et al. Genome-wide
divergence among invasive populations of *Aedes aegypti* in California. BMC Genomics.
2019 Dec;20(1):204.

50. Bonizzoni M, Dunn WA, Campbell CL, Olson KE, Dimon MT, Marinotti O, et al. RNA-seq
analyses of blood-induced changes in gene expression in the mosquito vector species,
*Aedes aegypti*. BMC Genomics. 2011 Dec;12(1):82.

51. Chowdhury A, Modahl CM, Tan ST, Wong Wei Xiang B, Missé D, Vial T, et al. JNK pathway
restricts DENV2, ZIKV and CHIKV infection by activating complement and apoptosis in
mosquito salivary glands. Dimopoulos G, editor. PLOS Pathog. 2020 Aug
10;16(8):e1008754.

52. Xi Z, Ramirez JL, Dimopoulos G. The *Aedes aegypti* Toll pathway controls dengue virus
infection. Schneider DS, editor. PLoS Pathog. 2008 Jul 4;4(7):e1000098.

53. Zhao L, Alto BW, Jiang Y, Yu F, Zhang Y. Transcriptomic analysis of *Aedes aegypti* innate
immune system in response to ingestion of chikungunya virus. Int J Mol Sci. 2019 Jun
27;20(13):3133.

54. Olmo RP, Ferreira AGA, Izidoro-Toledo TC, Aguiar ERGR, de Faria IJS, de Souza KPR, et
al. Control of dengue virus in the midgut of *Aedes aegypti* by ectopic expression of the
dsRNA-binding protein Loqs2. Nat Microbiol. 2018 Dec;3(12):1385–93.

55. Gestuveo RJ, Parry R, Dickson LB, Lequime S, Sreenu VB, Arnold MJ, et al. Mutational
analysis of *Aedes aegypti* Dicer 2 provides insights into the biogenesis of antiviral
exogenous small interfering RNAs. McGraw EA, editor. PLOS Pathog. 2022 Jan
6;18(1):e1010202.

56. Sánchez-Vargas I, Scott JC, Poole-Smith BK, Franz AWE, Barbosa-Solomieu V, Wilusz J,
et al. Dengue virus type 2 infections of *Aedes aegypti* are modulated by the mosquito's RNA
interference pathway. Rice CM, editor. PLoS Pathog. 2009 Feb 13;5(2):e1000299.

57. Almire F, Terhzaz S, Terry S, McFarlane M, Gestuveo RJ, Szemiel AM, et al. Sugar feeding
protects against arboviral infection by enhancing gut immunity in the mosquito vector Aedes
aegypti. Goodman AG, editor. PLOS Pathog. 2021 Sep 2;17(9):e1009870.

58. Souza-Neto JA, Sim S, Dimopoulos G. An evolutionary conserved function of the JAK-STAT
pathway in anti-dengue defense. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2009 Oct 20;106(42):17841–6.

59. Jupatanakul N, Sim S, Angleró-Rodríguez YI, Souza-Neto J, Das S, Poti KE, et al.
Engineered *Aedes aegypti* JAK/STAT pathway-mediated immunity to dengue virus. Olson
KE, editor. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2017 Jan 12;11(1):e0005187.

60. Feng Y, Chen L, Gao L, Dong L, Wen H, Song X, et al. Rapamycin inhibits pathogen
transmission in mosquitoes by promoting immune activation. Strand MR, editor. PLOS
Pathog. 2021 Feb 24;17(2):e1009353.

61. Hyde J, Correa MA, Hughes GL, Steven B, Brackney DE. Limited influence of the
microbiome on the transcriptional profile of female *Aedes aegypti* mosquitoes. Sci Rep.
2020 Dec;10(1):10880.

62. Shin D, Kang S, Smartt CT. Profiling Transcripts of Vector Competence between Two
Different *Aedes aegypti* Populations in Florida. Viruses. 2020 Jul 29;12(8):823.

63. Colpitts TM, Cox J, Vanlandingham DL, Feitosa FM, Cheng G, Kurscheid S, et al.
Alterations in the *Aedes aegypti* transcriptome during infection with West Nile, dengue and
yellow fever viruses. Rice CM, editor. PLoS Pathog. 2011 Sep 1;7(9):e1002189.

64. Sim S, Jupatanakul N, Ramirez JL, Kang S, Romero-Vivas CM, Mohammed H, et al.
Transcriptomic profiling of diverse *Aedes aegypti* strains reveals increased basal-level
immune activation in dengue virus-refractory populations and identifies novel virus-vector
molecular interactions. Ribeiro JMC, editor. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2013 Jul 4;7(7):2295.

65. Oliveira JHM, Talyuli OAC, Goncalves RLS, Paiva-Silva GO, Sorgine MHF, Alvarenga PH,
et al. Catalase protects *Aedes aegypti* from oxidative stress and increases midgut infection
prevalence of dengue but not Zika. Apperson C, editor. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2017 Apr
5;11(4):e0005525.

66. Wang JM, Cheng Y, Shi ZK, Li XF, Xing LS, Jiang H, et al. *Aedes aegypti* HPX8C
modulates immune responses against viral infection. Dumonteil E, editor. PLoS Negl Trop
Dis. 2019 Apr 15;13(4):e0007287.

67. Caragata EP. Curious entanglements: interactions between mosquitoes, their microbiota,
and arboviruses. Curr Opin Virol. 2019;11.

68. Ramirez JL, Souza-Neto J, Torres Cosme R, Rovira J, Ortiz A, Pascale JM, et al.
Reciprocal tripartite interactions between the *Aedes aegypti* midgut microbiota, innate
immune system and dengue virus influences vector competence. O'Neill SL, editor. PLoS
Negl Trop Dis. 2012 Mar 6;6(3):e1561.

69. Barletta ABF, Nascimento-Silva MCL, Talyuli OAC, Oliveira JHM, Pereira LOR, Oliveira PL,
et al. Microbiota activates IMD pathway and limits Sindbis infection in *Aedes aegypti*. Parasit
Vectors. 2017 Dec;10(1):103.

70. Ferreira PG, Tesla B, Horácio ECA, Nahum LA, Brindley MA, de Oliveira Mendes TA, et al.
Temperature Dramatically Shapes Mosquito Gene Expression With Consequences for
Mosquito–Zika Virus Interactions. Front Microbiol. 2020 Jun 12;11:901.

71. Wang Y, Guo Y, Li G, Liu C, Wang L, Zhang A, et al. The push-to-open mechanism of the
tethered mechanosensitive ion channel NompC. eLife. 2021 Jun 8;10:e58388.

72. Whiten SR, Ray WK, Helm RF, Adelman ZN. Characterization of the adult *Aedes aegypti*
early midgut peritrophic matrix proteome using LC-MS. Weiss BL, editor. PLOS ONE. 2018
Mar 23;13(3):e0194734.

73. Etebari K, Hegde S, Saldaña MA, Widen SG, Wood TG, Asgari S, et al. Global
Transcriptome Analysis of *Aedes aegypti* Mosquitoes in Response to Zika Virus Infection.
Fernandez-Sesma A, editor. mSphere. 2017 Dec 27;2(6):mSphere.00456-17, e00456-17.

74. Valzania L, Martinson VG, Harrison RE, Boyd BM, Coon KL, Brown MR, et al. Both living
bacteria and eukaryotes in the mosquito gut promote growth of larvae. Bartholomay LC,
editor. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2018 Jul 6;12(7):e0006638.

75. Minard G, Tran FH, Tran Van V, Fournier C, Potier P, Roiz D, et al. Shared larval rearing
environment, sex, female size and genetic diversity shape *Ae. albopictus* bacterial
microbiota. Oliveira PL, editor. PLOS ONE. 2018 Apr 11;13(4):e0194521.

76. Coon KL, Valzania L, McKinney DA, Vogel KJ, Brown MR, Strand MR. Bacteria-mediated
hypoxia functions as a signal for mosquito development. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2017 Jul
3;114(27):E5362–9.

77. Dickson LB, Jiolle D, Minard G, Moltini-Conclois I, Volant S, Ghozlane A, et al. Carryover
effects of larval exposure to different environmental bacteria drive adult trait variation in a
mosquito vector. Sci Adv. 2017 Aug;3(8):e1700585.

78. Kozlova EV, Hegde S, Roundy CM, Golovko G, Saldana MA, Hart CE, et al. Microbial
interactions in the mosquito gut determine *Serratia* colonization and blood feeding
propensity. [Internet]. Microbiology; 2020 Apr [cited 2020 Nov 2]. Available from:
http://biorxiv.org/lookup/doi/10.1101/2020.04.14.039701

79. Taracena ML, Bottino-Rojas V, Talyuli OAC, Walter-Nuno B, Oliveira JHM, Wells MB, et al.
Regulation of midgut cell proliferation impacts *Aedes aegypti* susceptibility to dengue virus.
2018;21.

80. Apte-Deshpande AD, Paingankar MS, Gokhale MD, Deobagkar DN. *Serratia odorifera*
mediated enhancement in susceptibility of *Aedes aegypti* for chikungunya virus. Indian J
Med Res. 2014;139(5):762–8.

81. Goodwin CM, Xu S, Munger J. Stealing the Keys to the Kitchen: Viral Manipulation of the
Host Cell Metabolic Network. Trends Microbiol. 2015 Dec;23(12):789–98.

82. Fontaine KA, Sanchez EL, Camarda R, Lagunoff M. Dengue Virus Induces and Requires
Glycolysis for Optimal Replication. Sandri-Goldin RM, editor. J Virol. 2015 Feb
15;89(4):2358–66.

83. Oliveira JHM, Gonçalves RLS, Lara FA, Dias FA, Gandara ACP, Menna-Barreto RFS, et al.
Blood meal-derived heme decreases ROS levels in the midgut of *Aedes aegypti* and allows
proliferation of intestinal microbiota. Schneider DS, editor. PLoS Pathog. 2011 Mar
17;7(3):e1001320.

84. Kauffman EB, Kramer LD. Zika Virus Mosquito Vectors: Competence, Biology, and Vector
Control. J Infect Dis. 2017 Dec 16;216(suppl_10):S976–90.

85. Powell JR, Evans BR. How Much Does Inbreeding Reduce Heterozygosity? Empirical
Results from *Aedes aegypti*. Am J Trop Med Hyg. 2017 Jan 11;96(1):157–8.

86. Soma DD, Maïga H, Mamai W, Bimbile-Somda NS, Venter N, Ali AB, et al. Does mosquito
mass-rearing produce an inferior mosquito? Malar J. 2017 Dec;16(1):357.

87. Giraud É, Varet H, Legendre R, Sismeiro O, Aubry F, Dabo S, et al. Mosquito-bacteria
interactions during larval development trigger metabolic changes with carry-over effects on
adult fitness. Mol Ecol. 2022 Jan 3;mec.16327.

88. Coatsworth H, Caicedo PA, Van Rossum T, Ocampo CB, Lowenberger C. The composition
of midgut bacteria in *Aedes aegypti* (Diptera: Culicidae) that are naturally susceptible or
refractory to dengue viruses. J Insect Sci [Internet]. 2018 Nov 1 [cited 2019 Feb 13];18(6).
Available from:
https://academic.oup.com/jinsectscience/article/doi/10.1093/jisesa/iey118/5228717

89. Romoli O, Schönbeck JC, Hapfelmeier S, Gendrin M. Production of germ-free mosquitoes
via transient colonisation allows stage-specific investigation of host–microbiota interactions.
Nat Commun. 2021 Dec;12(1):942.

1301