Microbes reduce susceptibility of *Aedes aegypti* to Zika virus by enhancing blood

digestion and limiting midgut cell infection

William Louie[1], Ana L. Ramírez[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 mediate Zika virus susceptibility in mosquitoes

Abstract

The worldwide expansion of mosquito-borne pathogens necessitates improved control

measures, including approaches to restrict infection and 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 species and lower abundance of

microbes. 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 reduce

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 single bacterial species

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

depleted microbes 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 microbe

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

impairs bloodmeal digestion. These data show that microbial exposure throughout the life of a

mosquito restricts Zika virus infection by facilitating blood digestion and restricting midgut cell

infection. These findings advance understanding of microbiota-mosquito-virus interactions by

defining how microbes reduce susceptibility of *Aedes aegypti* to Zika virus.

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, especially in

tropical regions. Absent licensed vaccines or specific treatments for these pathogens, 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 which species 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). 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

ablation of microbiota via oral treatment of adult *Ae. aegypti* with antibiotics prior to exposure to

ZIKV in an artificial bloodmeal did not affect vector competence (18). 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.

Beyond ZIKV, microbial effects on mosquito life-stage development and metabolism that

condition pathogen susceptibility may be generalizable to an array of mosquito-borne

pathogens. Depending on the bacterial species, larval gut microbiota can modify lipid

metabolism in *Ae. aegypti* which decreases DENV susceptibility, possibly via metabolism-driven

fitness changes (19). Bacterial infection in *Anopheles (An.) gambiae* larvae increases hemocyte

activity in adults, which correlates with elevated *Plasmodium falciparum* susceptibility in vectors

(20). 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, by modifying resource

competition, 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 (21). 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 (22,23). Treatment of

the malaria vector *An. coluzzi* with antibiotics hinders the synthesis of the peritrophic matrix

(PM), a chitinous mesh that sequesters the bloodmeal and furnishes digestive enzymes used in

bloodmeal digestion (24). Blood digestion in the PM also coincides with immunological sensing

and sequestering of microbiota proliferating in it (25), similar to processes in the mucous layer in

a mammalian intestine (26). Disruption of the PM can also modulate vector competence.

Knockdown of heme peroxidase 1 (HPx1), which promotes PM assembly and increases

reactive oxygen species that restrict microbiota growth, reduces ZIKV or DENV infection of the

Ae. aegypti midgut (27). We hypothesized that an antibiotic-mediated reduction in microbes in

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 (28). 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 ablate microbes. Some cohorts

of adults were also treated with antibiotics administered in sugar water after eclosion and prior

to exposure to ZIKV-spiked bloodmeals. Since antibiotics create a dysbiotic environment and

may not eliminate resident antibiotic-resistant microbiota (29), we first verified that antibiotic

treatment of *Ae. aegypti* reared in laboratory water did not modify midgut integrity or ZIKV vector

competence. We also generated gnotobiotic mosquitoes where larvae and pupae were reared

in water with an *Elizabethkingia spp.* strain isolated from colonized mosquitoes to determine that

this single bacterial species is not sufficient to modulate vector competence, which suggests

that many species, similar to the composition we detected in environmental water sources(15),

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 evaluate midgut anatomy and integrity and to quantify ZIKV-infected midgut cells.

The magnitude and rate of bloodmeal digestion was measured by quantifying hemoglobin levels

over time. 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* treated with antibiotics as pupae

and adults are more susceptible to ZIKV infection compared to mosquitoes that were not

antibiotic-treated. 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 due to the antibiotics. 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 microbiota.

Together our results show that exposure to a 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 Institutional Biosafety Committee under

Biological Use Authorization #R1863.

Mosquito sources

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

in this study. 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 26°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 detailed 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_2O) 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 26°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* (21) and *An. stephensi* (30). 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 26°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 were performed once and experiments

with mosquitoes provided environmental microbes were repeated twice and are represented as

the high and low ZIKV dose.

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$_2$O and a 0.22 μm 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$_2$O 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 AbxAP

groups by performing 16S qPCR on larvae, pupae, and adults 3-5 days post-eclosion (dpe) from

all groups, as well as in L4 larvae and pupae before antibiotic treatment. DNA from 5 L4 larvae,

5 pre-treatment pupae, 5 No Abx, 10 AbxA, and 10 AbxAP 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 µL elution buffer. Extracted DNA was PCR-amplified

in the V3-V4 (31) hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA gene, as previously described (15,31).

Quantification of bacteria was performed by SYBR Green Real-Time PCR (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Emeryville, CA) to amplify the 16S rRNA gene in whole mosquitoes. Each sample

was tested in technical duplicates. 16S quantities were normalized to an *Ae. aegypti* reference

ribosomal protein S17 gene (RPS17) and reported as a 16S:RPS17 ratio (32).

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,

University of California, Davis School of Veterinary Medicine) 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 10^4 and 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. Cohort sizes were

very large to maximize the numbers of bloodfed mosquitoes in the case of low feeding rates.

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 (33). 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) using a TaqMan Fast

Virus 1-Step Master Mix and a ZIKV-specific primer set (ZIKV 1086F/1162c, probe: ZIKV 1107-

FAM) using established methodologies (33,34). 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 limit of detection (LOD) was calculated

from the standard curve linear regression line where the Ct value = 40. Samples that did not

yield 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 (35). 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) (36) 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 University of California, 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 University of California, 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 using a hemoglobin colorimetric detection kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Emeryville, CA) was used to measure blood digestion. 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* (37) using default parameters (Quality cutoff >= 30, minimum length of

100 bp). Next, *FastQC* (38) was used to visualize quality scores. Processed reads were then

aligned to version AaegL5.2 of an *Ae. aegypti* transcriptome obtained from VectorBase (39)

using *bowtie2 v2.4.3* (40). Aligned reads were imported into R and analyzed with the package

Differential Expression Analysis using *DESeq2 v1.28.1* (41). 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* (42).

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

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* (43). 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

To understand whether reduced ZIKV vector competence after larval development in water with

microbes that we observed previously (15) 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 susceptibility of *Ae. aegypti* to ZIKV. *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 contained over 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 depletion 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 antibiotic

treatment 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.

After each treatment, mosquitoes were orally presented once at 3-5 days post-eclosion with low

or high-dose ZIKV-spiked bloodmeals for vector competence assessments. To maximize

bloodfeeding success, sugar was withdrawn from mosquitoes 24 hours prior to bloodmeal

presentation. We first assessed the efficacy of antibiotic treatment via qPCR quantification of

16S DNA. Antibiotics significantly reduced the number of prokaryotes in all treated groups.

(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, our proxy for prokaryote levels, were 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) previous observations that microbial abundance decreases during mosquito

development. Antibiotic treatment of pupae and adults significantly increased ZIKV infection

rates at both low (3.2×10^4) and high (4.8×10^6) PFU/ml ZIKV bloodmeal doses compared to

no antibiotic treatment (Fisher's exact test, low dose: P 0.0398, high dose: P < 0.0001).

Antibiotic treatment of adults marginally but not significantly increased infection rates compared

to no antibiotic treatment (Fisher's exact test: P = >0.05) At the low ZIKV dose, antibiotic

treatment of adults resulted in no disseminated infections in mosquitoes whose bodies were

infected, which is significantly lower than 83% dissemination in mosquitoes that were not

antibiotic treated or that were antibiotic treated as pupae and adults (Fisher's exact test,

P<0.001). At the high ZIKV dose, dissemination rates were not significantly different across

antibiotic treatments (Fisher's exact test: P = >0.05). Significantly more mosquitoes treated with

antibiotics as adults that had disseminated infections transmitted ZIKV compared to mosquitoes

that were not antibiotic treated or that were antibiotic treated as both pupae and adults (Fisher's

exact test: P = 0.002) (**Figure 1C**). In the high ZIKV dose groups, levels of ZIKV RNA in saliva

were higher in AbxPA compared to AbxA (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, P = 0.009), but not higher

than No Abx (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, P = 0.71) (**Figure 1E;** transmission in the low dose

[**Figure 1D**] was not evaluated statistically due to low numbers). Collectively, these results

show that antibiotic treatment during both pupal and adult *Ae. aegypti* life stages increases rates

of ZIKV infection after oral exposure to two ZIKV doses and, at the higher dose, the magnitude

of ZIKV transmitted in saliva. The larger effect of AbxPA compared to AbxA treatment on ZIKV

vector competence shows that microbes acquired by larvae must be maintained as adults to

reduce ZIKV susceptibility and suggest that microbe-mosquito interactions that influence ZIKV

susceptibility need to occur in the aqueous phase of mosquito life.

Figure 1. Microbe depletion 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, 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 life stage were sequenced to verify the efficacy of antibiotic

treatment. Adult mosquitoes 3-5 days of age were presented with either of 2 doses of 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 of microbe-depleted antibiotic**

treated 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 at each dose

were conducted once where mosquitoes in different cohorts were presented the same bloodmeal.

ZIKV RNA levels in mosquito tissues after ingestion of low (D) or high (E) dose 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, D, and E, 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 $P<0.05$.

Antibiotic treatment does not impact midgut permeability or ZIKV vector competence

Next, to understand whether increased ZIKV vector competence in antibiotic treated compared

to untreated *Ae. aegypti* is due to antibiotic treatment that could impact mosquito physiology and

influence ZIKV susceptibility, or the dysbiotic environment created by antibiotics that results

from ablation of most microbes, we compared ZIKV vector competence and midgut integrity in

mosquitoes reared in water without environmental microbes that was either treated with

antibiotics (Conventional + Abx) or not antibiotic treated (Conventional), as well as in gnotobiotic

mosquitoes that were not antibiotic treated (Gnotobiotic) (**Figure 2A**). For the antibiotic treated

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

same design as for the AbxPA cohorts. Gnotobiotic mosquitoes have a limited 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 (44). Gnotobiotic *Ae. aegypti* were generated by inoculating larval water

with an *Elizabethkingia spp.* culture isolated from our colonized *Ae. aegypti* from Los Angeles.

Elizabethkingia spp. was selected since it is ubiquitous in the environment (44) and represents a

dominant bacterial sequence in larval and adult *Ae. aegypti* (15). 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, which is a proxy for midgut integrity. Infection, dissemination, and

transmission rates were not statistically different across any group (Fisher's exact test: P >0.09)

(**Figure 2B**). Mean ZIKV RNA levels in ZIKV-positive bodies, legs/wings, and saliva were also

not statistically different across groups (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, P >0.05) (**Figure 2C**). We

visualized and quantified the relative fluorescent intensity of FITC-dextran inside versus outside

the midgut (**Figure 2D**), where higher fluorescence inside versus outside is indicative of greater

midgut integrity. For this assessment, four to five mosquitoes were examined per group, and

three separate sections for each mosquito were randomly selected, quantified, and averaged in

mosquitoes immediately after ingestion of a bloodmeal containing ZIKV. Dextran permeability

measurements showed no significant difference across groups in mean fluorescence inside

versus outside of the midgut (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, P >0.05) (**Figure 2E**). These data

indicate that antibiotic treatment itself does not perturb midgut permeability or affect ZIKV vector

competence. The 100% infection and dissemination rates and high transmissibility (67%) of

ZIKV by gnotobiotic mosquitoes parallels our data from antibiotic-treated cohorts with reduced

microbial diversity and show that a spectrum of bacterial species not present in the gnotobiotic

mosquitoes is required to reduce vector competence. Together these data further implicate

mosquito microbes in modulating ZIKV susceptibility and justify use of antibiotics to reduce the

mosquito microbiome, which is the study design we employed for the experiments that follow to

further understand how microbial exposure in mosquito development impacts ZIKV vector

competence.

Figure 2: A) Experimental design. *Aedes aegypti* from Los Angeles, CA, were reared in laboratory

tap water without any antibiotics (Conventional, 'Conv.'), with antibiotics (Conv. + Abx), where

antibiotics were also provided orally to adults in sugar, or with *Elizabethkingia* (EK) *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 high dose 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) 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 significance across all treatments was determined by Fisher's exact

tests. **C) ZIKV RNA levels in mosquito tissues after ingestion of high dose 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. **D) Dextran**

fluorescence quantification approach that was used to generate data in panel E. 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). **E)**

A

add eggs

diH₂O

diH₂O

Antibiotics
diH₂O (Abx)

Conventional

Conv. + Abx

Gnotobiotic

blood + ZIKV +
dextran-FITC

HIGH

4.2 X 10⁶ PFU/ml

ZIKV RT-qPCR
Body
Legs/Wings
Saliva

Elizabethkingia (EK) spp.
isolate 10⁷ CFU/mL

nutrient plug

cloth sleeve

surface-
sterilized eggs

Hatch larvae	Rear in diH₂O + *EK*	Allow emergence	Blood feed adults	Midgut permeability + Vector competence
Eggs	Larvae	Pupae	Adults 5-7 dpe	Adults <1 hpf, 14 dpf

B

Generation	Group	ZIKV dose (PFU/mL)	Infection		Dissemination		Transmission	
			Rate	P value	Rate	P value	Rate	P value
F₂₆	conv.	4.2 x 10⁶	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)	

C

RNA levels (copies/mosquito)

BODY   LEGS/WINGS   SALIVA

ns   ns   ns

LOD

conventional
conventional + Abx
gnotobiotic

D DEXTRAN QUANTIFICATION

out in
out in
in out

average x3

average x3

E DEXTRAN IN VS OUT OF GUT LUMEN

ns
ns   ns

Relative fluorescence (in vs out)

conventional
conventional + Abx.
gnotobiotic

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.

Microbial depletion via antibiotic treatment increases *Aedes aegypti* midgut permeability

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

aegypti to ZIKV, we assessed permeability by directly visualizing and enumerating midgut

epithelial cell density in DAPI-stained midgut sections. We also applied the midgut integrity

assays (**Figure 2D**) used to evaluate ZIKV-exposed mosquitoes that were microbe-exposed or

microbe-reduced via antibiotic treatment. 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 and AbxA groups compared to the No Abx group are

explained by modified epithelial structure or reduced midgut integrity resulting from microbe

depletion. 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 (45) and

were fully engorged; hemoglobin measurements (see below) also revealed no statistically

significant differences in mean ingested bloodmeal volumes across groups. The midgut

epithelium was less organized, as evidenced by reduced contiguity in DAPI-stained midgut

epithelial cell nuclei in both AbxA and AbxPA compared to No Abx groups (**Figure 3B**). These

qualitative observations of structural disorganization of the midgut were also supported

quantitatively, where marginally fewer cells in a 100 μm length of midgut epithelium were

detected in AbxPA compared to No Abx groups (**Figure 3C**, P = 0.078). 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 3D**). 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 3F**, **S1**). Together these data support a

process where antibiotic treatment to ablate microbes in pupal and adult *Ae. aegypti* life stages

disrupts midgut cell architecture and increases midgut permeability in adult mosquitoes after

ingestion of ZIKV-spiked bloodmeals.

Figure 3. Antibiotic-mediated microbe depletion increases *Aedes aegypti* midgut

permeability. A) Schematic of bloodfeeding experiment and sample preparation for

immunofluorescence microscopy. *Aedes aegypti* from Los Angeles, 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 containing 1 mg/mL dextran-FITC (green) and 3.3 x 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 depletion qualitatively disrupts regularity of DAPI staining in midgut epithelium of

AbxA and AbxPA compared to No Abx mosquitoes. Anterior-zoomed cross sections of whole,

Ae. aegypti at 0 dpf 30 to 60 minutes post-engorgement visualized at 10X magnification. **C)**

Antibiotic treatment of pupae and adults marginally reduces midgut cell density after AbxPA

compared to no Abx treatments. Cell density was calculated as the number of cell nuclei (blue)

per 100 µm length of gut. Each symbol represents one mosquito. **D) Microbe depletion 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 2D. Each symbol represents 9

measurements from one mosquito. Grey arrows indicate the same mosquito represented in panel B.

E) Antibiotic treated 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. **F) 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. For C lines show means and

for C, D and E error bars show standard deviations. ns is not significantly different at p<0.05.

Microbe depletion via antibiotic treatment increases ZIKV infection of the midgut

epithelium

Next, we asked whether disruptions to midgut integrity with antibiotic treatment translate to

greater 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 3E**). 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 depletion 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 S2A**) 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 S2B**). 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, as well to measure the 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 (K-W 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 (K-W test, P = 0.0063). By 3 dpf, mean hemoglobin levels in the

AbxPA group were significantly higher than both AbxA and No Abx groups (K-W 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 (K-W 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 (K-W 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 immediately after bloodmeal ingestion on 0 dpf, mean hemoglobin

digestion was significantly faster in No Abx and AbxA on 1 dpf (K-W test, $P_{No\ Abx}$ = 0.0163, P_{AbxA}

= 0.0009) but not AbxPA (K-W test, P = 0.25) in ZIKV-exposed mosquitoes compared to

mosquitoes that ingested blood without ZIKV (**Figure 4D**). These data show that ablation of

larval and pupal microbes reduce bloodmeal digestion, and that blood with ZIKV is digested

more quickly than blood lacking virus.

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

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

ingested blood with or without ZIKV**.** *Aedes aegypti* from Los Angeles, 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 high dose (2.1 x 10^6 PFU/mL) ZIKV. On day 0 within 1 hour of

feeding and at 1, 2 and 3 days post feeding (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.

Despite ingesting equivalent bloodmeal sizes, microbe-reduction via antibiotic treatment reduced

blood digestion in the absence of ZIKV at 2 and 3 dpf. The number of *Ae. aegypti* that ingested

blood that were assayed per day is: No Abx = 12, AbxA = 10, AbxPA 15. In mosquitoes that also

ingested ZIKV, despite ingesting equivalent bloodmeal sizes, antibiotic treatment reduces blood

digestion at 1 and 2 dpf. 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) Microbe depletion 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-depleted

mosquitoes do not augment early dissemination.

Hemolytic bacteria do not augment bloodmeal digestion *Ae. aegypti* that were not microbe reduced 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 two types of 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. 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.

Impaired blood digestion in the presence of microbes extends to genetically distinct *Ae. aegypti*

To evaluate whether our observations of impaired blood digestion with antibiotic treatment are generalizable to *Ae. aegypti* from a different genetic background than Los Angeles, CA, we performed the similar analyses with *Ae. aegypti* from Clovis, CA. Genome sequencing shows that *Ae. aegypti* from Los Angeles and Clovis are genetically distinct (46), and were probably derived from separate independent introductions into California since 2013 when the species became established in the state. *Ae. aegypti* from Clovis were reared under the same antibiotic treatments as for Los Angeles mosquitoes. Blood digestion kinetics and ZIKV vector competence were quantified in Clovis mosquitoes (**Figure 5A**). As observed for mosquitoes from Los Angeles, AbxA and AbxPA groups from Clovis demonstrated significantly lower blood digestion relative to the No Abx group 2 dpf (K-W test with multiple comparisons, adjusted $P_{AbxPA-No\ Abx} = 0.0013$, adjusted $P_{AbxPA-AbxA} = 0.027$) (**Figure 5B**). In parallel to Los Angeles mosquitoes, the Clovis AbxPA group exhibited a marginally but not statistically significantly

higher infection rate (34%) compared to both the Clovis AbxA (26%) and No Abx (15%) groups

(Chi-square [χ^2] test, P = 0.106). The dissemination rates and mean RNA levels in ZIKV-positive

Clovis mosquitoes were not different for any treatment (**Figure 5C**). These results from

genetically distinct *Ae. aegypti* support the generalizability of our observations wherein microbes

augment blood digestion in *Ae. aegypti* from more than one genetic lineage.

Figure 5. Bloodmeal digestion in antibiotic-mediated microbe depleted *Ae. aegypti* 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 Los Angeles, 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) Microbe depletion 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.

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

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

underlying increased susceptibility to ZIKV infection after antibiotic treatment of pupae and

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
Adults 3-5 dpe

Blood feed
Adults 0-2 dpf

Digestion assay

Vector competence
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

adults, we employed RNA-Seq analyses on pooled adult female *Ae. aegypti* from Los Angeles

before bloodfeeding and at 2 dpf. We also analyzed females that ingested blood only or ZIKV-

spiked blood (**Figure 6A**). On average, 94.5% (min: 92.7, max: 95.7%) of reads from all

samples aligned at least once to the Liverpool *Ae. aegypti* (LVP_WG) transcriptome. PCA

showed clustering of mosquitoes prior to bloodfeeding that was distinct from mosquitoes that

ingested blood with or without ZIKV (**Figure 6B**, **Figure S3A**). Using constrained analysis of

principal coordinates, we found that bloodmeal status correlated more strongly with variance in

the overall transcriptomic profile than antibiotic treatment, accounting for 84% of the variance (P

< 0.001) compared to <5% (P = 0.83), respectively. While most of the differences in gene

expression related to bloodfeeding status, the presence of ZIKV in the bloodmeal also yielded

differentially expressed genes (DEGs) for each antibiotic treatment. At baseline (prior to blood

or blood with ZIKV), 20 significant DEGs were found between AbxPA and No Abx (**Table S2**).

The most downregulated gene in AbxPA relative to No Abx was uncharacterized (AAEL021374,

adjusted P = 0.019). Other downregulated genes in AbxPA included membrane components

(AAEL020586, adjusted P = 0; AAEL003626, adjusted P = 0.047) and ATP binding proteins

(AAEL019793, adjusted P = 0.026; AAEL010711, adjusted P = 0.005). After bloodfeeding, over

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

RNA-Seq studies (47). 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 S3B**). Between bloodfed and bloodfed with ZIKV, differences

were more apparent. The AbxA and No Abx groups each had more DEGs between bloodfed

and bloodfed with ZIKV (No Abx: 1258 DEGs, AbxA: 1974) than AbxPA (62 DEGs) (**Figure 6C**,

only DEGs that differed significantly across antibiotic treatments are shown [adjusted P < 0.05

by Wald test]). Most shared DEGs were between the 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 6D**). In ZIKV

bloodfed mosquitoes, antibiotic treatment of both pupal and adult stages reduces differential

gene expression more than treatment of adults only or no antibiotic treatment, indicating that

pupal-derived microbes have a greater effect on the gene expression profile than adult-derived

microbes. 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 6. Differentially expressed genes between antibiotic-treated adult *Ae. aegypti* females

before and after a bloodmeal. A) Experimental design showing *Ae. aegypti* from Los Angeles,

CA, pooling and RNA sequencing approach. For each antibiotic treatment and each 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

while colors represent the antibiotic treatments. Separate PCAs for individual variables, for ease of

visibility, are shown in Figure S3. **C) ZIKV-responsive DEGs are shared among between *Ae.***

***aegypti* not antibiotic-treated and antibiotic-treated as adults.** Venn diagram of DEGs before

and after bloodfeeding by *Ae. aegypti* for each antibiotic treatment. **D) DEGs correspond to**

metabolic processes, thermogenesis, and unknown genes for all antibiotic treatments. KEGG

Pathway ID assignment of DEGs in panel C. **E) DEGs between mosquitoes treated with**

antibiotics as pupae and adults compared to as adults only and ZIKV-bloodmeals or blood

only do not correspond to known immune response genes. Comparison of immune response

gene expression between AbxA and AbxPA groups. Relative expression of select known and

suspected immune-related genes from relevant literature (48–63). 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 S4.

Provided that microbes mediate immunomodulatory effects in mosquitoes (13,64,65), 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 (48–50), RNAi (51–54), JAK-STAT (49,55,56), and

Imd pathways (57,66), as well as general immune and immune-adjacent genes such as

hormones (58–60,67), antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) (56,61), reactive oxygen species (ROS)

(62,63), and known DENV host factors (56,61). 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 6E, S4**). Exceptions are gene CTP4H32

(AAEL007812, cytochrome p450 (47)) which was elevated in AbxA, and Unkn566

(AAEL000566, transmembrane protein in the JAK-STAT pathway (56)) which was elevated in

AbxPA (**Figure 6E**). Comparison of immune genes between No Abx and AbxA and between No

Abx and AbxPA, revealed a handful of genes that passed the statistical threshold; these are in

the JAK-STAT pathway (Ukn566 between No Abx and AbxA; Ukn566 and Ukn7703 between No

Abx and AbxPA) (**Figure S4**). These data suggest that gene expression changes after microbe

depletion via antibiotic treatment *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 with antibiotic treatment, 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 the antibiotic treatments in 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 $P = 0.015$). In contrast, the AbxPA group showed few upregulated genes resulting in a lack of enriched functions (**Figure 7A**). Conversely, enrichments in genes downregulated in mosquitoes that ingested ZIKV in blood versus mosquitoes that ingested blood only revealed that the ZIKV the AbxPA treatment group showed reduced transcript abundance for genes associated with DNA metabolism (8) and redox processes (4). 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 7B**). 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 mosquitoes that ingested ZIKV in blood or blood only for each antibiotic treatment 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* (68). The most common DEGs that changed in response to ZIKV exposure matched to proteolytic and PM-associated enzymes, including endopeptidases, collagenases, and

dehydrogenases (69). Multiple serine-type endopeptidases were differentially expressed

depending on antibiotic treatment (No Abx: AAEL001693, all three: AAEL008769, AbxA, and

AbxPA: AAEL013284, AAEL001690) (**Figure 7C**). In addition, some vitellogenesis associated

proteins were more enriched in antibiotic treated mosquitoes compared to the No Abx group

(AbxA and AbxPA: AAEL014561 [vitelline membrane protein 15a-3], AbxPA: AAEL013027

[vitelline membrane protein 15a-1]). In AbxPA, the gene demonstrating the biggest reduction in

transcript abundance corresponds to a m1 zinc metalloprotease (AAEL003012), 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 7. Gene Ontology assignment of DEGs and identity of most enriched/depleted genes.

Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of significant DEGs comparing antibiotic treatment mosquitoes that

ingested ZIKV in bloodmeals versus blood only. **A) Upregulated GO hits for mosquitoes treated**

with antibiotics as adults or untreated primarily 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 (39). Red text indicates the top genes shared

between No Abx and AbxA. Purple text indicates the top genes shared between AbxPA and AbxA.

Discussion

Our data show that larval microbial exposure confers developmental resistance to ZIKV

infection of the mosquito midgut. We observed that microbial exposure in two genetically distinct

populations of *Ae. aegypti* enhances bloodmeal digestion via increased midgut integrity.

Together these effects reduce ZIKV infection of the midgut epithelium (**Figure 8**). Reduced

microbial colonization during both pupal and adult *Ae. aegypti* life stages, together with higher

bloodmeal titers, 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 a single bacterial species (*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 *Aedes* mosquitoes from

different regions.

Figure 8. Schematic representation showing how microbes across mosquito life stages

promote midgut permeability, increase bloodmeal digestion, and increase ZIKV infection in

the *Ae. aegypti* midgut.

Augmented rates of ZIKV infection but not dissemination or transmission in *Ae. aegypti* after

microbe reduction via antibiotic treatment suggest that microbial effects act at the midgut

infection barrier but not at midgut escape or salivary gland infection or escape barriers.

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 (45). Considering that we observed an increased magnitude of and rate

of bloodmeal digestion in ZIKV-exposed mosquitoes without antibiotics compared to antibiotic-

treated pupae and adults, we envision a process where microbes accelerate digestion,

decreasing the window of time the virus has to escape the bloodmeal, traverse the PM, and

access the midgut epithelium. We did not observe gross structural differences in the midgut

epithelium with 10-40X DAPI and 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. Studies with the Plasmodium vector *An.*

stephensi show that antibiotic treatment disrupts the PM 2 dpf (70); our future work will assess

whether a similar phenomenon occurs in *Ae. aegypti*, as changes in the PM could also impact

ZIKV vector competence. 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.

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 (12,64),

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 (47). Our results are also similar to another

transcriptomic study which found immense upregulation of proteases and trypsins 2 days post-

ZIKV exposure (71). It stands to reason that blood digestion and vitellogenesis are hampered

without the presence of 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 (10,72–75), stimulation of bloodfeeding behavior

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

studies) and increased nutrition (76), and regulation of midgut epithelial cell proliferation, where

the physical microbe-midgut interface can block virus access to midgut infection (77) [although

this may be pathogen specific as increased midgut infection has also been observed (21,78)].

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 (79). In human cells, for example,

infection with DENV elevates glycolysis to meet cellular energy needs (80). Conceivably, a

similar trend is true for ZIKV-infected mosquito midgut cells, where increased energy demand

produced by viral infection is 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 (25), the delayed

digestion kinetics in antibiotic treated mosquitoes could be influenced by the near absence of

microbes to promote digestion. Since blood digestion occurs in 2 phases where disparate

enzymes dominate each phase (81), it is also possible that the digestive enzymes that have

different efficiencies were differentially expressed across antibiotic treatments. We observed

late trypsins and serine-type endopeptidases (enzyme types commonly found in the latter phase

of digestion) (81–84) in all bloodfed antibiotic groups at 2 dpf; greater resolution of how

digestion enzymes change over time is warranted to test this hypothesis. While over 300 serine

protease-like proteins have been described in *Aedes spp.* (85,86), very few have been studied

experimentally, with the exception of HPx1 (25), which was not differentially regulated in

mosquitoes in our study. One study implicated matrix metalloproteases and collagenase activity

in degrading the basal lamina, which increased dissemination of CHIKV from the midgut (87).

Our finding of a downregulated metalloprotease (AAEL003012) in mosquitoes with disrupted

microbiota as pupae and adults, as well as an elevated serine collagenase precursor

(AAEL007432) in mosquitoes that ingested ZIKV in blood supports a role of digestive enzymes

in promoting arboviral dissemination. The potential interaction between blood protein

metabolism and arboviral infection of mosquitoes warrants further study, including gene

silencing or knockout studies to confirm functional roles of candidate genes that affect vector

competence.

1020

Whether blood digestion genes other than HPx1 (25), including those that are differentially

upregulated in mosquitoes exposed to antibiotics, can also modulate mosquito immune

responses is currently unclear. A link between metabolism and immunity is possible (88). Some

proteases have immune functions (89,90), including cleavage of proenzymes that activate the

prophenoloxidase pathway required for melanization (91). Metabolites influence and regulate

immune pathways like Toll and Imd, and metabolic regulators balance microbial resistance and

tolerance to gut symbionts in arthropods, including mosquitoes (71,88). In *Ae. aegypti*, blood-

derived heme induces iron- and ROS-dependent signaling that also regulates immune genes,

affecting DENV susceptibility (92). Metabolism of *Bacteroides* associates with elevated ZIKV

susceptibility and conditions insecticide resistance (93), implicating a complex metabolic

network that can also influence arbovirus susceptibility. Further investigation of the relationship

between blood digestion and immunity could uncover novel determinants of mosquito vector

competence.

1034

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 (94), together with conventionally acknowledged

factors like inbreeding during colonization (95,96). 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 (15,19,75,97).

A limitation of our studies is the use of a single microbial community and ZIKV strain. We

acknowledge that disparate microbial species and community structures and other ZIKV strains

could impact susceptibility differently. We also acknowledge that 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 (98) and axenic

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

arboviral infection of mosquitoes. 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.

1053

1054 **Acknowledgments** We acknowledge Elise Ladouceur for helping interpret H&E imaging.

1055

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, 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

1080

1081

1082

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.

1090

Figure S2. 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).

1097

1098 **Figure S3. DEGs from bloodfed antibiotic-treated mosquitoes that were not exposed to**

1099 **ZIKV. A) Individual PCA plots** by a single variable representing the same data in Figure 6B.

1100 Shapes indicate the bloodmeal status while colors represent the antibiotic treatments. B) **DEGs**

1101 **between blood- and sugar-fed *Ae. aegypti*.**

1102

1103 **Figure S4. Change in immune response gene expression across antibiotic treated groups**

1104 **of *Ae. aegypti*.** A positive $\log_2$-fold change indicates enrichment in AbxA or AbxPA, while a

1105 negative $\log_2$-fold change indicates enrichment in No Abx.

1106

1107

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

1108

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.

1115

1116

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

1117

1118 **Table S2. DEGs between sugar-fed *Ae. aegypti* without antibiotics or antibiotic treated as**

1119 **pupae and adults.** A negative Log$_2$fold-change refers to downregulation in AbxPA vs No Abx,

1120 while a positive Log$_2$fold-change refers to upregulation in AbxPA vs No Abx.

1121

1122

1123

1124

1125

1126

1127

1128

A

Antibiotic treatment
- ● No Abx
- ● AbxPA
- ● AbxA

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

B

DEGs BEFORE vs AFTER BLOODFEED

AbxA   AbxPA

1448   797   569

435   6676   455

No Abx

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;

18. 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.

19. 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.

20. Brown LD, Shapiro LLM, Thompson GA, Estévez-Lao TY, Hillyer JF. Transstadial
immune activation in a mosquito: Adults that emerge from infected larvae have
stronger antibacterial activity in their hemocoel yet increased susceptibility to
malaria infection. Ecol Evol. 2019 May;9(10):6082–95.

21. 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.

22. 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.

23. Silva-Filha MHNL. Bacterial Toxins Active against Mosquitoes: Mode of Action and
Resistance. 2021;37.

24. Rodgers FH, Gendrin M, Wyer CAS, Christophides GK. Microbiota-induced
peritrophic matrix regulates midgut homeostasis and prevents systemic infection of

malaria vector mosquitoes. Dimopoulos G, editor. PLOS Pathog. 2017 May 17;13(5):e1006391.

25. 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.

26. Terra WR, Dias RO, Oliveira PL, Ferreira C, Venancio TM. Transcriptomic analyses uncover emerging roles of mucins, lysosome/secretory addressing and detoxification pathways in insect midguts. Curr Opin Insect Sci. 2018 Oct;29:34–40.

27. Talyuli OAC, Oliveira JHM, Bottino-Rojas V, Silveira GO, Alvarenga PH, Barletta ABF, et al. The Aedes aegypti peritrophic matrix controls arbovirus vector competence through HPx1, a heme–induced peroxidase. Aksoy S, editor. PLOS Pathog. 2023 Feb 13;19(2):e1011149.

28. Franz A, Kantor A, Passarelli A, Clem R. Tissue Barriers to Arbovirus Infection in Mosquitoes. Viruses. 2015 Jul 8;7(7):3741–67.

29. 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.

30. 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.

31. 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.

32. 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.

33. 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.

34. 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

35. 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

36. 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.

37. Martin M. Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput sequencing reads. EMBnet.journal. 2011 May 2;17(1):10.

38. 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/

39. 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.

40. Langmead B, Salzberg SL. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nat Methods. 2012 Apr;9(4):357–9.

41. Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. 2014;21.

42. Adrian Alexa JR. topGO: Enrichment Analysis for Gene Ontology [Internet]. Bioconductor; 2022 [cited 2022 Oct 24]. Available from: https://bioconductor.org/packages/topGO

43. 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/

44. 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.

45. 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

46. 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.

47. 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.

48. 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.

49. 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.

50. 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.

51. 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.

52. 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.

53. 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.

54. 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.

55. 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.

56. 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.

57. 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.

58. 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.

59. 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.

60. 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.

61. 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):e2295.

62. 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.

63. 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.

64. Caragata EP. Curious entanglements: interactions between mosquitoes, their
microbiota, and arboviruses. Curr Opin Virol. 2019;11.

65. 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.

66. 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.

67. 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.

68. 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.

69. 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.

70. Song X, Wang M, Dong L, Zhu H, Wang J. PGRP-LD mediates A. stephensi vector
competency by regulating homeostasis of microbiota-induced peritrophic matrix
synthesis. Dimopoulos G, editor. PLOS Pathog. 2018 Feb 28;14(2):e1006899.

71. 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.

72. 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.

73. 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.

74. 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.

75. 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.

76. 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

77. 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.

78. 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.

79. 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.

80. 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.

81. Felix CR, Betschart B, Billingsley PF, Freyvogel TA. Post-feeding induction of trypsin in the midgut of *Aedes aegypti* L. (Diptera: Culicidae) is separable into two cellular phases. Insect Biochem. 1991 Jan;21(2):197–203.

82. Barillas-Mury C, Graf R, Hagedorn HH, Wells MA. cDNA and deduced amino acid sequence of a blood meal-induced trypsin from the mosquito, *Aedes aegypti*. Insect Biochem. 1991 Jan;21(8):825–31.

83. Kalhok. SE, Tabak LM, Prosser DE, Brook W, Downe AER, White BN. Isolation, sequencing and characterization of two cDNA clones coding for trypsin-like enzymes from the midgut of *Aedes aegypti*. Insect Mol Biol. 1993 Oct;2(2):71–9.

84. Li X, Yang J, Pu Q, Peng X, Xu L, Liu S. Serine hydroxymethyltransferase controls blood-meal digestion in the midgut of *Aedes aegypti* mosquitoes. Parasit Vectors. 2019 Dec;12(1):460.

85. Brackney DE, Isoe J, W.C. B, Zamora J, Foy BD, Miesfeld RL, et al. Expression profiling and comparative analyses of seven midgut serine proteases from the yellow fever mosquito, *Aedes aegypti*. J Insect Physiol. 2010 Jul;56(7):736–44.

86. Saboia-Vahia L, Cuervo P, Borges-Veloso A, de Souza NP, Britto C, Dias-Lopes G, et al. The midgut of *Aedes albopictus* females expresses active trypsin-like serine peptidases. Parasit Vectors. 2014 Dec;7(1):253.

87. Dong S, Balaraman V, Kantor AM, Lin J, Grant DG, Held NL, et al. Chikungunya virus dissemination from the midgut of *Aedes aegypti* is associated with temporal basal lamina degradation during bloodmeal digestion. Powers AM, editor. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2017 Sep 29;11(9):e0005976.

88. Samaddar S, Marnin L, Butler LR, Pedra JHF. Immunometabolism in Arthropod Vectors: Redefining Interspecies Relationships. Trends Parasitol. 2020 Oct;36(10):807–15.

89. Borovsky D. Biosynthesis and Control of Mosquito Gut Proteases. IUBMB Life Int Union Biochem Mol Biol Life. 2003 Aug 1;55(8):435–41.

90. Gorman MJ, Paskewitz SM. Serine proteases as mediators of mosquito immune responses. Insect Biochem Mol Biol. 2001 Mar;31(3):257–62.

91. El Moussawi L, Nakhleh J, Kamareddine L, Osta MA. The mosquito melanization response requires hierarchical activation of non-catalytic clip domain serine protease homologs. Dimopoulos G, editor. PLOS Pathog. 2019 Nov 25;15(11):e1008194.

92. Bottino-Rojas V, Talyuli OAC, Jupatanakul N, Sim S, Dimopoulos G, Venancio TM, et al. Heme Signaling Impacts Global Gene Expression, Immunity and Dengue Virus Infectivity in *Aedes aegypti*. Missirlis F, editor. PLOS ONE. 2015 Aug 14;10(8):e0135985.

93. Arévalo-Cortés A, Damania A, Granada Y, Zuluaga S, Mejia R, Triana-Chavez O. Association of Midgut Bacteria and Their Metabolic Pathways with Zika Infection and Insecticide Resistance in Colombian *Aedes aegypti* Populations. Viruses. 2022 Oct 6;14(10):2197.

94. Kauffman EB, Kramer LD. Zika Virus Mosquito Vectors: Competence, Biology, and Vector Control. J Infect Dis. 2017 Dec 16;216(suppl_10):S976–90.

95. 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.

96. 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.

97. 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

98. 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.