Multiple bouts of blood feeding in mosquitoes allow for prolonged survival and are predicted to increase viral transmission during drought

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Abstract

Survival through periods of drought is critical for mosquitoes to reside in semi-arid regions with humans, but water sources may be limited. Previous studies have shown that dehydrated mosquitoes will increase blood feeding propensity, but how this would occur over extended dry periods is unknown. Following a bloodmeal, prolonged exposure to dry conditions increased secondary blood feeding in mosquitoes by nearly two-fold, and chronic blood feeding allowed mosquitoes to survive twenty days without access to water sources. This refeeding did not alter the number of eggs generated, suggesting this refeeding is for hydration and nutrient replenishment. Exposure to desiccating conditions following a bloodmeal resulted in increased activity, decreased sleep levels, and prompted a return of CO_2 sensing before egg deposition. The increased blood feeding during the vitellogenic stage and higher survival during dry periods are predicted to increase pathogen transmission and explain the elevated levels of specific arbovirus cases during dry conditions. These results solidify our understanding of the role of dry periods on mosquito blood feeding and how mosquito dehydration contributes to vectorial capacity and disease transmission dynamics.

Keywords: disease transmission, vectorial capacity, modeling, Gr3, Ir8a, Ir93a, Orco5, Orco16, activity, sleep

Significance statement

Bouts of dehydration yield substantial changes to insects' physiology and behavior. Mosquitoes are exceptionally prone to dehydration due to high water loss rates, but few integrative studies have examined the comprehensive impact of drought conditions on mosquitoes. Here, we demonstrate that dry conditions lead to multiple blood feeding events, allowing mosquitoes to survive dry periods. This early blood feeding is associated with higher activity and an early return of attraction to vertebrate hosts. Increased dry season survival and more frequent blood feeding are predicted to yield higher transmission of mosquito-borne viruses. This suggests a higher prevalence of drought associated with climate change will have varying impacts on mosquito-borne diseases.

Introduction

Blood feeding by female mosquitoes primarily functions as a means for reproduction (1), resulting in the spread of mosquito-borne pathogens. When an infected female mosquito feeds on an uninfected host, a transfer of pathogens is possible. While considerable research has been conducted on pathogen transmission in mosquitoes, more research is needed to examine how environmental factors impact mosquito feeding (2–4) and refeeding in the context of vectorial capacity. Recent studies have uncovered interesting developments involving these factors, such as thermal changes, their role in pathogen transmission, and how drought impacts blood feeding (2–4). These ecophysiological studies have increased our understanding of the direct effects of environmental factors on mosquito physiology and behavior. Still, studies on the impact of dry periods on mosquito biology remain limited compared to the focus on thermal effects (5–7).

Drought exposure and dehydration significantly impact mosquitoes, shifting population levels, altering feeding propensity, and increasing pathogen transmission (5–8). Of interest is that dry periods have been linked to increased transmission of arboviruses (9–11), which is unexpected as periods with reduced water availability have been associated with lower mosquito populations (12, 13). This increased viral transmission has been linked to specific environmental factors, which allows for increased mosquito blood feeding and survival rates. For example, culverts become stagnant, altering mosquito-predator interactions and enabling mosquito growth (5, 6, 14). When mosquitoes are blood-fed before dehydration, individuals show an increased survival time compared to their non-blood-fed counterparts, likely due to higher water content at the

start of dehydration exposure (6). These findings underscore the critical function of blood

feeding for the replenishment of water content in dehydrated mosquitoes (5, 6, 15).

However, the extent of water replenishment by blood feeding during short dry conditions

(hours to days), that can extend into a drought (days to weeks), has yet to be examined.

Interactions between multiple bloodmeals during a single reproductive cycle and

the resulting hydration status of mosquitoes have also not been examined. This is

surprising as refeeding has been implicated in many other biological changes that occur

following dehydration, including fecundity, nutritional reserve supplementation, and virus

dissemination within the mosquito (16, 17). Notably, a recent study on refeeding in *Aedes*

aegypti established higher rates of viral dissemination when a second (uninfected)

bloodmeal was allowed within the extrinsic incubation period (16). These refeeding events

produced disturbances and microperforations in the basal lamina, which could increase

viral particles escaping from the midgut, resulting in increased viral transmission potential

(16). Combining this increased pathogen dissemination following a second bloodmeal

(16) with the propensity of mosquitoes to blood feed when dehydrated (5, 6), mosquitoes

exposed to dry conditions may exhibit increased rates of blood feeding and viral

transmission during periods when mosquitoes are not typically expected to refeed.

Previous studies have highlighted that multiple bloodmeals could be common

within mosquito species, where up to 10-40% of mosquitoes will ingest a second

bloodmeal before the previous blood has been digested to allow for egg production (18–

23). Ordinarily, a combination of mechanisms, predominantly regulated by hormonal

cues, suppress additional blood feeding (24, 25), but when feeding to repletion is

interrupted, the signals that prevent a secondary bloodmeal can be suppressed (19, 23,

26). Another such mechanism is the acquisition of nutrients through a secondary

bloodmeal that will supplement poor larval nutrition levels, which can be necessary for

oogenesis (19, 23, 26). Even though multiple blood feedings are observed, a general

reduction in blood-fed females in host mimic traps suggests that host attraction is likely

to be reduced even if a second meal is possible (27–29). This reduction in post-blood

feeding attraction is supported by specific molecular changes in the mosquito

neurotranscriptome that reduce responsiveness to host cues (30). An overlooked aspect

of this interaction is that the bloodmeal can represent a substantial source of hydration

(6), allowing immediate replenishment of water stores in dehydrated mosquitoes. After

the bloodmeal has been processed and excess fluid from the blood has been expelled, a

blood-fed female requires 3-4 days to process the blood under preferred conditions (25,

31). During this time, a female prefers to reside in environments that prevent dehydration

until egg development is complete (32, 33). If a suitable refuge is not found, dehydration

is likely to occur, and increased water ingestion from blood, nectar, or free water sources

will be required (5, 34, 35). Significantly, prolonged dry periods will reduce free water and

the water content of nectar sources (5, 36), suggesting that blood from vertebrates may

be a more reliable source of water, especially for anthropophilic and endophilic mosquito

species (5, 15, 34, 35).

Here, we characterize the role of dehydrating conditions on the refeeding

propensity of mosquitoes. Specifically, we assessed the impact of drought-induced

refeeding on survival and reproduction, behavioral changes that occurred to increase

blood feeding, and how these changes could allow for mosquito survival and pathogen

transmission during dry periods. Briefly, these studies revealed a drastic increase in

refeeding during dry periods associated with a resumption of attraction to CO_2 before the

end of a gonotrophic cycle, allowing mosquitoes to survive as adults through periods with

low water availability. Transmission and population modeling suggests that this increase

in secondary feeding may directly underlie mosquito survival through periods of low water

availability and result in higher drought-induced viral transmission.

Results

Dry conditions result in substantial refeeding that allows extended survival.

A common assumption is that mosquitoes feed once and produce eggs before a second

bloodmeal is consumed (19, 25), but multiple blood feedings have been previously

observed in both *Aedes spp.* and *Anopheles spp.* (18, 20, 22). Under stable conditions

(70-80% RH with access to water sources), we confirmed that nearly 50% of mosquitoes

would take a secondary bloodmeal after being allowed to feed to repletion during the first

feeding (Fig. 1). These resting conditions between bloodmeals represent conditions that

would be common in human dwellings (18, 20, 22). This was observed under three

scenarios - small cages (BugDorm, 17.5 x 17.5 x 17.5 cm) with single mosquitoes along

with medium cages (BugDorm, 30 x 30 x 30 cm), and large cages (BioQuip, 1.8 x 1.8 x

1.8 m) with multiple *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes. Refeeding was observed for *Anopheles*

stephensi under favorable resting conditions, but this was substantially lower than in *Ae.*

aegypti as only a few took a secondary bloodmeal under colony conditions.

Mosquitoes allowed to blood feed and then held under dehydrating conditions (30-

40% RH without access to water sources) had substantial increases in blood feeding

during vitellogenesis (Fig. 1). Specifically, one day of post-blood feeding dehydration had

a minimal impact on refeeding, but 48 hours under these dry conditions yielded increased

feeding under small, medium, and large cage assays (Fig. 1, observed for *An. stephensi*

- tested in small cages only). An average of 2.5 feeding events occurred in medium-sized

cages, and 2.0 feeding events occurred in large cages, when mosquitoes were held under

dry conditions (Fig. 1D-E, Fig. S1). Under these conditions, most, if not all, mosquitoes

would undergo at least one, if not two, additional feedings before egg deposition in a

single gonotrophic cycle (Fig. 1). Of importance, these refeeding events allowed the

mosquitoes to survive through periods of no water for up to twenty days (Fig. 2B). When

allowed to deposit eggs after a prolonged period of chronic blood feeding, there was a

reduction in eggs deposited compared to those that were allowed to deposit only four

days after a bloodmeal (Fig. 2B). This suggests that prolonged retention will allow eggs

to remain viable, a finding that has been previously observed when oviposition sites are

not available (37). Overall, these studies indicate that dry conditions are likely to result in

the ingestion of multiple bloodmeals during each gonotrophic cycle, allowing females to

survive for extended dry periods.

Increased blood feeding does not increase egg production.

As increased feeding is typically associated with a higher egg output, we evaluated

if increased blood feeding under dehydrating conditions resulted in the generation of more

eggs (Fig. 2). When single mosquitoes were evaluated, oocyte numbers were not shifted

following an additional bloodmeal (Fig. 2E), and in medium cage assays, the same

number of eggs per mosquito were deposited, regardless of exposure to dry conditions

(Fig. 2C). However, the eggs per bloodmeal were reduced, indicating decreased use of

blood for vitellogenesis (Fig. S2B). Oocyte size did not vary based on the number of

bloodmeals when individual mosquitoes were examined (Fig. S2E-F). Even one day after

a secondary bloodmeal, the oocyte size and number did not vary compared to the control

group (Figs. 2E, S2F). These studies suggest that secondary bloodmeals during dry

periods are primarily used to increase water content and survival in lieu of reproductive

output.

To assess the replenishment of water stores, we examined mass changes

following a bloodmeal (Fig. 2D). A significant loss of mass occurred when mosquitoes

were held under dry conditions, featuring a 30-40% decline in mass following a bloodmeal

after two days for *Ae. aegypti* (Fig. 2). When held in stable conditions, a decline was

noted, but mosquitoes retained nearly 0.8 mg more of mass compared to the dehydrated

controls after two days under dehydration. Ingestion of a second bloodmeal allowed the

mosquitoes to immediately replenish mass up to the amount after the first bloodmeal. As

these changes are predominantly due to water loss, prolonged exposure to dry conditions

following a bloodmeal will yield mosquitoes that lose nearly half of their water content

within two days if unable to rest in stable, relatively humid areas after a bloodmeal. The

water content can be replenished if a mosquito obtains a second bloodmeal. Each period

of bloodmeal-associated hydration allows survival for another two days under dry

conditions until a water source can be located to ingest free water and deposit eggs.

Along with these studies on *Ae. aegypti*, similar effects were noted for *An. stephensi* (Fig.

S2C-E).

Dry conditions increase activity and prompt an early return of carbon dioxide

sensing.

As dry conditions prompted a substantial increase in secondary blood feeding, we

examined how activity and behavior of *Ae*. *aegypti* shifted following a bloodmeal with and

without access to water sources (Fig. 3). When activity levels were assessed, a general

suppression of activity occurred until three days after a bloodmeal, where there was a

significant increase in activity of mosquitoes held under dry conditions (Fig. 3B-C).

However, the movement for both groups was still considerably lower than the non-blood

fed group (Fig. 3B). As activity increased, we showed that sleep decreased in the

dehydrated group (Fig. D). This suggests an early increase in activity and decrease in

sleep after a bloodmeal when females do not rest in an environment with sufficient relative

humidity to maintain water balance.

Increases in activity and host feeding suggest there may be a reconstitution of

host-sensing, which we examined through the utilization of mutant mosquitoes with

impaired or altered host or humidity detection (38–42). In general, most of the mutant

strains showed a similar response to the control lines, both in the time it took the

mosquitoes to feed on the host (Fig. S3), and in the amount that dehydration increased

blood feeding (Fig. 3). The lone exception was Gr3 mutants with impaired CO_2 sensing,

which did not show an increase in blood feeding during dehydration (Fig. 3E). To confirm

if increased CO_2 sensing was associated with dehydration, we performed host feeding

assays with and without the presence of CO_2, which showed increased refeeding on an

artificial host when CO_2 was present (Fig. 3F). A secondary experiment was conducted

where mosquitoes were exposed to butanal to reduce response to CO_2 (43), which

confirmed that increased CO_2 sensing is a significant factor associated with dehydration-

induced refeeding (Fig. 3E-F). These studies highlight that dehydration leads to mosquito

sensory and behavioral changes that increase blood feeding, even within a single

gonotrophic cycle.

Increased blood feeding and survival will shift viral transmission and mosquito

populations.

Previous studies have shown that dry conditions increase the transmission of specific

viruses (9, 10) and impact viral dissemination in mosquitoes (7, 44). We built upon these

observations with our study to model how multiple refeeding events may impact vectorial

capacity, mosquito survival, and viral transmission, details are provided in the

Supplemental modeling. The multiple feeding events observed under dry conditions are

predicted to constitute a 2-3 fold increase in vectorial capacity for mosquitoes (Fig. 4A).

When the population growth rates were assessed for *Ae. aegypti* (Fig. 4, Supplemental

modeling), the capability of *Ae. aegypti* to remain viable for extended periods (45) allowed

populations to rebound after dry periods. With the ability to obtain a bloodmeal more

frequently (every two days), *Ae. aegypti* can maintain low populations that can rapidly

increase when conditions are more favorable (Fig. 4B, C). The increased feeding events,

and resultant increase in survival, during dry periods lead to predicted increases in the

transmission of Zika by *Ae. aegypti* (Fig. 4D, E). Similar results were obtained for *C.*

pipiens in relation to population growth and for West Nile virus transmission

(Supplemental modeling).

Discussion

This study established that prolonged exposure to low humidity conditions is a major

factor that increased multiple blood feeding events. Therefore, we expect mosquitoes

experiencing water loss will frequently refeed to compensate for lost water when provided

ample opportunities. By repeatedly refeeding, mosquitoes can prolong survival under

desiccating conditions with no apparent detriments to their behavior or physiology, other

than reduced egg production, if dehydration persists for an extended period. Our findings

indicate that this increase in blood feeding is associated with a return of increased activity

and CO_2 sensing. Modeling based on increased blood feeding rates during dehydration

for rehydration purposes (this study; (5)), increased viral transmission from multiple

bloodmeals (16), and prolonged survival by refeeding (this study), indicates that this

dehydration-induced refeeding will lead to substantial increases in viral transmission. This

provides a key mechanism explaining previous observations that viral transmission

increases during dry periods (9, 10).

Water availability may be limited during dry periods, as floral nectar and liquid

water sources are reduced (5, 36). We have previously shown that dry periods will

increase mosquito blood feeding propensity (5, 6), which we now expand to show

substantial increases in multiple bloodmeals within a single gonotrophic cycle. Multiple

blood feeding events have been previously attributed to an interruption in feeding or a

lack of nutrient reserves obtained during larval development (18, 19), which this study

expands upon to indicate that dry conditions can be a major underlying factor in this

process. As both *An. stephensi* and *Ae. aegypti* have highly anthropophilic tendencies,

there could be specific fitness advantages to taking multiple bloodmeals as human hosts

are readily available (46–48). A determining factor of dehydration-induced refeeding is

the ability of mosquitoes to locate a resting site with relatively high humidity (this study)

and moderate temperature (49). If unable to locate a suitable resting site, dehydration will

be rapid under warm and dry conditions, leading to an increased likelihood of multiple

bloodmeals. Importantly, as conditions within human dwellings are commonly drier or

have less access to free water than in outdoor environments (50), locating a resting site

that suppresses dehydration-induced refeeding may be difficult. This could explain the

high prevalence of multiple bloodmeals when mosquitoes are collected within a

household compared to lower observations of multiple feeding in outdoor biomes (18, 21,

22, 25). If mosquitoes rest in an indoor or outdoor biome, warmer conditions, low humidity,

and a lack of water sources will lead to substantial refeeding events, yielding two or three

bloodmeals during a single gonotrophic cycle. In fact, survival was recently implicated in

a study on *Ae. aegypti* in relation to human preference during dry seasons, indicating that

mosquito urbanization resulted in increased human feeding and anthropophilic behaviors

(47). Importantly, our observation of multiple bloodmeals improving survival could extend

beyond a single gonotrophic cycle, allowing adult mosquitoes to survive for weeks at a

time without access to water.

Our observed compensatory feeding is consistent with previous research that

found small, undernourished female *Ae. aegypti* could initially use a bloodmeal for follicle

development and then again for ovary maturation, whereas large, properly nourished

females could use a single bloodmeal for ovary maturation (19, 51). The flexibility of these

mosquitoes to forego reproduction in exchange for survival or increased nutritional

reserves (52) permits them to refeed with only minimal physiological impacts (19, 51, 52).

Furthermore, refeeding may be necessary if the first bloodmeal is interrupted. Previous

observations and those in this study of multiple feeding events have observed that the

process of oogenesis has commenced before a second or third bloodmeal during the

same gonotrophic cycle (18, 19). Here, we show little impact on oocyte size or

reproductive output in egg number following a second dehydration-induced bloodmeal as

long as mosquitoes can locate a spot to lay eggs even after 20 days of retaining the eggs.

Specific genes have been previously linked with egg retention during drought periods in

Ae. aegypti (37), which supports these studies that eggs can be retained under

suboptimal conditions until a water source can be located to deposit eggs. Our studies

suggest that the second bloodmeal is not directly required for oogenesis; instead, the

primary role is to ensure hydration and survival until eggs can be deposited.

Following a bloodmeal, host sensing is suppressed among most mosquito species

until eggs are deposited (25, 53–56) but exceptions are known. For example, *Anopheles*

mosquitoes have been shown to have increased behavioral attraction to the host following

a bloodmeal (25, 53). Suppression of blood feeding is due to a combination of three

specific factors - mechanosensation of the ingested blood due to abdominal distension,

bloodmeal digestion and processing, and egg development (25, 53). Here, we observe

that mosquitoes held under dehydrating conditions resume blood feeding activity and host

attraction two-to-three days after an initial bloodmeal. Since this increased blood feeding

occurs during oocyte development, the cause is likely associated with improper nutrient-

sensing or altered levels of hormones that regulate vitellogenesis and oogenesis

processes (see reviews (19, 25)). Another potential mechanism is that factors underlying

water-seeking may be altered and increase host detection (57, 58). Interestingly, a return

to blood feeding also occurs in mutants with altered humidity detection (Ir8a and Ir93a,

(38, 39, 59)), suggesting that our observations are not solely the result of increased water

detection and ingestion. Previous studies have shown that dehydrated mosquitoes are

remarkably efficient at reequilibrating hemolymph osmolality following a bloodmeal (60),

and that dehydration prompts general dysfunction in circulating hemolymph levels

through increased osmolarity and altered heart rates (61), likely resulting in direct impacts

to behavioral and physiological processes. As an example, female mosquitoes detect

CO_2 with a specific class of olfactory receptor neurons (ORNs) designated cpA that

express three conserved members of the Gustatory receptor (Gr) gene family associated

with CO_2 detection (43, 62). A possibility is that cpA is reactivated to detect changes in

CO_2 during dehydration, allowing mosquitoes to recover sensitivity to this host cue after

blood feeding. Additional studies will be required to establish the specific mechanism for

how dehydration triggers increased activity and CO_2 sensing in mosquitoes.

Dry periods have been associated with increased viral transmission (9, 10). This

increase was associated with a multitude of factors, which range from altered mosquito-

predator interactions associated with temporal water pools (14), altered blood feeding

propensity (5), and altered viral dissemination in the mosquito (7, 44, 63). We expand on

these observations to show that dry conditions will increase refeeding, which is commonly

observed in field-collected mosquitoes (18, 19). Chronic feeding under dry conditions is

predicted to substantially increase mosquito survival and elevate blood feeding,

prompting predicted increases in vectorial capacity and viral transmission. Alternative

water sources may reduce chronic feeding during dry periods, such as increased sugar

feeding, as observed in *Ae. albopictus* (35). As the water content of nectar is reduced

during drought and few water sources are available (5, 14, 36), increased interactions

with a host to blood feed could represent the most reliable water sources. This could

explain why as much as half of field collected mosquitoes had ingested multiple

bloodmeals when collected during dry seasons (18, 22).

Conclusions

Dehydration stress has repeatedly been implicated in water and nutrient depletion, and

compensatory mechanisms have been utilized to offset the detriments (5, 6, 31).

Unfortunately, many of those mechanisms operate through blood feeding, likely resulting

in altered disease propagation dynamics within the vector and through host-vector

interactions. In addition to postulating the effects on disease transmission, the

characterization of refeeding behaviors in dehydrated mosquitoes is essential for

determining influences on survival, reproduction, as well as rehydration during and after

a bout of dehydration. This study continues to build on the knowledge that environmental

factors, especially drought-like conditions, influence the behavior and physiology of

mosquitoes. Understanding the effects of behavioral adaptations, such as refeeding, must

be considered since recent publications have underscored their importance in disease

transmission dynamics.

Materials and Methods

Mosquito husbandry: Standard practices were used for rearing and containment of *Ae.*

aegypti mosquitoes (Rockefeller strain). Larvae were fed ground fish food (Tetramin) with

the addition of yeast extract (Fisher). Adults were maintained in 30 x 30 x 30 cm cages

(BugDorm), under a 16h:8h light:dark cycle, with unlimited access to cotton wicks soaked

in deionized water and a 10% sucrose solution, all under insectary conditions at

approximately 80% relative humidity (RH) and 27ºC (vapor pressure deficit (VPD) = 0.71

kPa), unless otherwise specified.

Mosquito refeeding: For small cages, individual mosquitoes were placed in 17.5 x 17.5 x

17.5 cm cages (BugDorm) held at 33 ± 4% RH and 26 ± 2°C (low humidity; VPD = 2.34

kPa) and two at 75 ± 4% RH and 26 ± 2°C (high humidity; VPD = 0.87 kPa) with access

to water. For medium cages, 10 adult mosquitoes (7-14 days old) were placed into four

30 x 30 x 30 cm cages (BugDorm), two with access to DI water and 10% sucrose solution

ad libitum and two without (+/-), before the cages were placed into separate humidity-

controlled 60-quart plastic containers with lids. Four plastic containers were used, two

held at low and high humidity. This design yielded four experimental conditions: Two

cages of 10 mosquitoes at 33% RH, one with access to water and sucrose solutions *ad*

libitum (33+) and one without (33-), and two cages at 75% RH, one with water and sucrose

solutions (75+), and one without (75-). Mosquitoes were placed into these experimental

containers for 18 hours before being provided the opportunity to blood feed on a live

human host for approximately 10 minutes (27-year-old male, leg inside the cage; IRB

2021-0971, University of Cincinnati). A feeding opportunity was presented every 12 hours

after the initial feeding for a total of three days. After the 72-hour feeding period, all

experimental cages remained within their respective humidified chambers but were

supplemented with water, 10% sucrose solution, and oviposition dishes. The mosquitoes

were permitted to lay eggs for one week before total egg counts were determined. This

protocol was replicated four times for a total of 40 mosquitoes in each group. If a mosquito

died during the experiment, all subsequent measurements that were normalized to

mosquito count (e.g., eggs per mosquito) were adjusted accordingly. In addition, in the

small cage assays, mosquitoes were dissected, and the ovariole number was assessed

to ensure that there were no changes in the number of progeny generated due to multiple

feeding events in our experiments.

During an additional experiment, mosquitoes were held under dry conditions (75%

RH, no access to water) with or without access to water and sugar and allowed to blood

feed every 48 hours and survival was assessed. After 20 days, all experimental cages

were provided access to water, 10% sucrose solution, and oviposition dishes. The

mosquitoes were permitted to lay eggs for one week before total egg counts were

determined.

Groups of 10 adult mosquitoes were collected into two 1.8 x 1.8 x 1.8 m cages

(BioQuip) kept at 33 ± 4% RH and 23 ± 2°C (VPD = 1.99 kPa), one with access to DI

water and 10% sucrose solution *ad libitum* and one without (+/-). Mosquitoes were placed

into these experimental cages for 18 hours before being provided the opportunity to

bloodfeed on a live human host for approximately 15 minutes (27-year-old, 34-year-old,

and 40-year-old male volunteer, leg inside the cage; IRB 2021-0971, University of

Cincinnati). A feeding opportunity was presented every 24 hours after the initial feeding

for a total of three days. These assays were repeated with the use of mutant lines to

assess refeeding potential, which included the following mutants: ionotropic receptor 8a

(38), gustatory receptor 3 - Gr3 (40), Ir93a (39), and odorant receptor co-receptor - Orco5

and Orco16 (41) to assess host cue detection. The time until each mosquito bite was

recorded to determine the time until initial feeding (bites on day 1) and time until refeeding

(days 2-4).

<u>Activity and sleep measurements after blood feeding:</u> The rest-activity rhythms of the

mosquitoes were quantified with the aid of a Locomotor Activity Monitor 25 (LAM25)

system (TriKinetics Inc., Waltham, MA, USA) and the DAMSystem3 Data Collection

Software (TriKinetics) based on methods developed for mosquitoes (64–66). Individuals

were blood-fed (27-year-old, male volunteer, leg inside the cage; IRB 2021-0971,

University of Cincinnati) before being transferred to glass tubes simulating wet or dry

conditions, with sponges soaked in DI water or with dry sponges, respectively. The glass

tubes were then positioned horizontally in the LAM25 system, allowing the simultaneous

recording of 32 individuals in an "8 x 4" horizontal by vertical matrix. Replicates were

intermixed between trials to allow for randomization. The entire set-up was placed in a

secluded incubator at 24°C, 70-75% RH, under a 12hr:12hr L/D cycle. After 3-6 hours

(coinciding with the start of the night phase), activity level was measured in 1 min bins

(the number of times an individual crosses an infrared beam) for three days. Sleep and

activity levels were assessed as previously described in mosquitoes (64–66). For

comparison with unfed mosquitoes, some individuals were included in the set-up as

described above, and data was also retrieved from a previous study (64). Data collected

with the DAMSystem3 was processed using the Rethomics platform in R with associated

packages, including *behavr*, *ggetho*, *damr,* and *sleepr* (67).

<u>Uniport assays for blood feeding assessment:</u> A modified uniport assay was developed

based on Castillo et al. (68). Briefly, three mosquito cages (30 x 30 x 30 cm, BugDorm)

were connected by a 10 cm i.d. acrylic tube (10 cm in length with removable covers to

prevent mosquito movement). Mosquitoes were released into the first cage and provided

a bloodmeal. Mosquitoes were held under conditions that allowed for hydration (30-40%

RH with access to multiple water sources) or promoted dehydration (30-40% RH without

access to water sources) and confined to the first cage. After two days, mosquitoes were

allowed access to all three chambers, and a human host or host mimic (Hemotek) was

added to the third chamber. After 5, 10, and 30 minutes, the number of mosquitoes that

had successfully started blood feeding was assessed.

<u>Vectorial capacity, disease transmission modeling analyses, and statical analyses:</u> As in

a previous study (6), vectorial capacity was calculated to determine fold-changes between

wet and dry conditions over the 3-day testing period. Egg production was determined from

our prolonged survival data, and the overall biting rate per day was determined from our

large-cage refeeding data. Disease and population growth modeling was determined

based on methods previously developed for mosquito survival and viral transmission in

relation to drought stress (5). The full description of the modeling and statistical analyses

are provided in the supplement.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Christopher J. Holmes: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Resources, Data curation, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration.

Souvik Chakraborty: Formal analysis, Investigation, Resources, Data curation, Writing – review & editing.

Oluwaseun Ajayi: Formal analysis, Investigation, Resources, Data curation, Writing – review & editing.

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Joshua B. Benoit: Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Investigation, Resources, Data curation, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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Figure legends

Figure 1 - Dehydration induces refeeding in mosquitoes.

A. Summary of the studies with mosquitoes held under wet (hydrating) and dry (dehydrating) conditions. B. and C. Small cages (10 x 10 x 10 cm, single mosquitoes, N=15-25) for *Aedes aegypti* and *Anopheles stephensi*, D. Medium cages (30 x 30 x 30 cm, 10 mosquitoes, N=4), and E. Large cages (1.8 x 1.8 x 1.8 m, N=8, ten mosquitoes per cage). Dry conditions increased refeeding for both *Ae. aegypti* and *An. stephensi* (Pairwise Chi-Squared test, ANOVA with Tukey HSD, and Student's t-test, P < 0.05) under small, medium, and large cage sizes, respectively.

Figure 2 - Mosquito mass changes and reproductive output following the secondary bloodmeal. A. Summary of the studies with mosquitoes held under wet (hydrating) and dry (dehydrating) conditions. B. Left - Survival of *Aedes aegypti* under dry and wet conditions with and without access to water, sucrose solution, and blood (30 x 30 x 30 cm, 10 mosquitoes, N=3), Right - Egg production following prolonged periods of refeeding (30 x 30 x 30 cm, 10 mosquitoes, N=3). C. Egg production by *Ae. aegypti* in medium cages (30 x 30 x 30 cm, 10 mosquitoes, N=4). D and E. Mass and ovariole changes measured in small cages (10 x 10 x 10 cm, single mosquitoes, N =15-25) for *Ae. aegypti*, and each group was held under wet or dry conditions following feeding. Prolonged refeeding reduced the number of eggs oviposited, and bloodmeals resulted in consistently higher masses in *Ae. aegypti* (ANOVA with Tukey HSD, and Student's t-test, *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01 ***, P < 0.001).

Figure 3 - Shifts in activity and impact of impaired host sensing on dehydration-induced refeeding. A. Summary of the studies with mosquitoes held under wet (hydrating) and dry (dehydrating) conditions. B-D. Activity and sleep profiles in blood-fed *Aedes aegypti* when held under dehydrating conditions (33% +/- 5% RH) and hydrating conditions (75% +/- 5% RH with access to water) compared to non-blood-fed mosquitoes with access to 10% sucrose (N=32-48). Dry conditions prompted increased activity and reduced sleep on day three following a bloodmeal, but prior to oviposition (differences driven by light-phase, Wilcoxon rank sum test, $P < 0.001$). E. Use of *Ae. aegypti* mutant lines to assess host feeding (N=5-14). All mutant lines showed increased blood feeding under dehydration (ANOVA with Tukey HSD, $P < 0.05$), except for mutant lines with defects in CO_2 (both GR3 mutant alleles), percent values indicate mean biting differences between dry and wet conditions of each mosquito line. F. Utilization of three-box choice assays to directly examine the role of CO_2 detection on multiple feeding attempts using both a live host and an artificial feeder (Hemotek). A lack of CO_2 with artificial feeding or impaired sensing of CO_2 (Gr3 mutants with a live host or butanal treatment with artificial feeding) leads to a reduction in dehydration-induced refeeding (Pairwise Chi-Squared test, ***, $P < 0.0001$; *, $P < 0.05$).

Figure 4 - Vectorial capacity and mosquito population growth are increased by multiple bloodmeals. A. Vectorial capacity was determined according to previous studies (6, 69) with modified parameters based on this study. Each day represents post-

blood feeding time, with day 0 indicating the fold-change immediately after the initial

bloodfeeding. B-F. *Aedes aegypti* population and Zika transmission dynamics in

simulated environments, each including dry periods of 14 days with various wet period

lengths both without (B) and with access to multiple bloodmeals (C). In D., cumulative

incidence rates for Zika virus per 100,000 humans were determined using population

estimates from mosquitoes that did not take multiple bloodmeals (shown in B). In E.,

cumulative incidence rates for Zika virus were determined using population estimates

from mosquitoes imbibing multiple bloodmeals (shown in C). Details on modeling are

provided in the supplemental materials.

Supplemental figure legends

Figure S1 - Dehydration increases refeeding in mosquitoes. A. Summary of the

studies with mosquitoes held under wet (hydrating) and dry (dehydrating) conditions. B.

Medium cages with *Ae. aegypti* (30 x 30 x 30 cm, 10 mosquitoes, N=4), and C. Large

cages with *An. stephensi* (1.8 x 1.8 x 1.8 m, N=8, 10 mosquitoes per cage). Dry conditions

increased refeeding (total bites – initial bites) for both *Ae. aegypti* and *An. stephensi*

(ANOVA with Tukey HSD, and Student's t-test, P < 0.05).

Figure S2 - Mosquito mass and ovariole changes following a secondary bloodmeal.

A. Summary of the studies with mosquitoes held under wet (hydrating) and dry

(dehydrating) conditions. B. Number of eggs produced per *Aedes aegypti* bite over three

days of refeeding under dry and wet conditions, with and without access to water and

sucrose solution (30 x 30 x 30 cm, 10 mosquitoes, N=4). C. and D. Mass and ovariole

counts for *An. stephensi* measured in small cages (10 x 10 x 10 cm, single mosquitoes,

N =15-25). E. and F. Ovariole widths for *An. stephensi* and *Ae. Aegypti,* respectively,

were measured in small cages (10 x 10 x 10 cm, single mosquitoes, N =15-25). Eggs per

bite and ovariole widths differed in *Ae. aegypti, An. stephensi* ovariole widths increased

in size, while ovariole counts and mosquito weights did not show consistent differences

over three days of refeeding (ANOVA with Tukey HSD).

Figure S3 - *Ae. aegypti* bite ratios and time until feeding comparisons for mutant

lines. A. Summary of the studies with mosquitoes held under wet (hydrating) and dry

(dehydrating) conditions. B. Mean biting ratios between dry and wet treatments for all

mutant lines. C. and D. Combined and separate feeding (day 1) and refeeding times (days

2-4) for all mutant lines, wet and dry conditions. E. Ratios between feeding and refeeding

times for wet and dry treatments and all mutant lines. Consistent differences were not

apparent in the biting, feeding, nor refeeding data (ANOVA with Tukey HSD and

confidence interval comparisons for ratios).

Supplemental modeling methods - Details for mosquito population growth and viral

transmission are provided in the supplement for analyses underlying Figure 4.

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Figure 1

A. Summary of refeeding studies

Offered additional bloodmeals

Wet conditions

Day 1 Day 2 Day 3

Assays in three different cage sizes

Dry conditions

Day 1 Day 2 Day 3

$(17.5cm)^3$ $(30cm)^3$ $(180cm)^3$

B. *Aedes aegypti* refeeding

$(17.5cm)^3$

P < 0.0001

P < 0.001

Day 1 Day 2 Day 3

Proportion refeeding

C. *Anopheles stephensi* refeeding

$(17.5cm)^3$

P < 0.002

P < 0.0001

Day 1 Day 2 Day 3

Proportion refeeding

D. *Aedes aegypti* refeeding

P < 0.015

Bites per mosquito

$(30cm)^3$

E. *Aedes aegypti* refeeding

P < 0.01

Bites per mosquito

$(180cm)^3$

33%+ **Wet conditions (Hydrating)**
75%+
33%- **Dry conditions (Dehydrating)**
75%-

A. Survival and mass changes description

B. Prolonged blood feeding

C. Egg production

D. Mass changes

E. Ovariole numbers

A. Summary of activity and host-seeking

Wet conditions

Sleep and activity assay in relation to humidity levels and blood feeding status
IR emitter
IR detector

Dry conditions

Host attraction and blood feeding assays
Multiple transgenic lines examined to assess behavioral changes in relation to host detection before egg laying

B. Activity in relation to feeding and humidity

Non-blood fed
Blood fed (dry)
Blood fed (wet)

C. Activity levels 3 days after bloodmeal

D. Sleep levels 3 days after bloodmeal

Dry
Wet

E. Blood feeding rates in transgenic lines

Wet - Dark (left) Dry - light (right)

58.0%* 79.3%* 53.6%* 53.6%* 46.1%* 40.0%* 45.3%* 3.0% -2.0%

Wild-type Ir93a-YFP Ir93a-RFP Ir8a-dsRed Ir8a-attp Orco5 Orco16 Gr3-4 Gr3-eCFP

F. Blood feeding in three box assays

Wet - Dark (left) Dry - light (right)

Live human host Artifical feeder

Wild-type Gr3-4 Gr3-eCFP Wild-type No CO_2 Wild-type CO_2 Wild-type CO_2 + butanal

A. Vectorial capacity

B. Perioidic dehydration - *Aedes aegypti*

C. Perioidic dehydration - *Aedes aegypti*
with multiple bloodmeals

D. Perioidic dehydration - Zika transmission

E. Perioidic dehydration - Zika transmission-
with multiple bloodmeals

Key for B-E

— 1.0 (14 days dry/14 days wet)
— 1.5 (14 days dry/21 days wet)
— 2.0 (14 days dry/28 days wet)
— 2.5 (14 days dry/35 days wet)
— 3.0 (14 days dry/42 days wet)
— 3.5 (14 days dry/49 days wet)
— 4.0 (14 days dry/56 days wet)