Novel *Wolbachia* strains in *Anopheles* malaria vectors from Sub-Saharan Africa

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Abstract

Anopheles (*An.*) mosquitoes contain bacteria that can influence *Plasmodium* parasites. *Wolbachia*, a common insect endosymbiont, has historically been considered absent from *Anopheles* but has recently been found in *An. gambiae* populations. Here, we assessed a range of *Anopheles* species from five malaria-endemic countries for *Wolbachia* and *Plasmodium* infection. Strikingly, we found *Wolbachia* infections in *An. coluzzii*, *An. gambiae* s.s, *An. arabiensis*, *An. moucheti* and *An.* species 'A' increasing the number of *Anopheles* species known to be naturally infected by this endosymbiont. Molecular analysis suggests the presence of phylogenetically diverse novel strains, while qPCR and 16S rRNA sequencing indicates that *Wolbachia* is the dominant member of the microbiota in *An. moucheti* and *An.* species 'A'. We found no evidence of *Wolbachia/Asaia* co-infections, and presence of these endosymbionts did not have significant effects on malaria prevalence. We discuss the importance of novel *Wolbachia* strains in *Anopheles* and potential implications for disease control.

Introduction

Malaria is transmitted to humans through inoculation of *Plasmodium (P.)* sporozoites during the infectious bite of an infected female *Anopheles (An.)* mosquito. The genus *Anopheles* consists of 475 formally recognised species with ~40 vector species/species complexes responsible for the transmission of malaria at a level of public health concern [1]. During the mosquito infection cycle, *Plasmodium* parasites encounter a variety of resident microbiota both in the mosquito midgut and other tissues. Numerous studies have shown that certain species of bacteria can inhibit *Plasmodium* development [2–4]. For example, *Enterobacter* bacteria that reside in the *Anopheles* midgut can inhibit the development of *Plasmodium* parasites prior to their invasion of the midgut epithelium [5,6]. *Wolbachia* endosymbiotic bacteria are estimated to naturally infect ~40% of insect species [7] including mosquito vector species that are responsible for transmission of human diseases such as *Culex (Cx.) quinquefasciatus* [8–10] and *Aedes (Ae.) albopictus* [11,12]. Although *Wolbachia* strains have been shown to have variable effects on arboviral infections in their native mosquito hosts [13–15], transinfected *Wolbachia* strains have been considered for mosquito biocontrol strategies, due to a variety of synergistic phenotypic effects. Transinfected strains in *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* provide strong inhibitory effects on arboviruses, with maternal transmission and cytoplasmic incompatibility enabling introduced strains to spread through populations [16–22]. Open releases of *Wolbachia*-transinfected *Ae. aegypti* populations have demonstrated the ability of the *w*Mel *Wolbachia* strain to invade wild populations [23] and provide strong inhibitory effects on viruses from field populations [24], with releases currently occurring in arbovirus endemic countries such as Indonesia, Vietnam, Brazil and Colombia (https://www.worldmosquitoprogram.org).

The prevalence of *Wolbachia* in *Anopheles* species has not been extensively studied, with most studies focused in Asia using classical PCR-based screening, and up until 2014 there has been no evidence of resident strains in mosquitoes from this genus [25–29]. Furthermore, significant efforts to establish artificially-infected lines were, up until recently, also unsuccessful [30]. Somatic, transient infections of the *Wolbachia* strains *w*MelPop and *w*AlbB in *An. gambiae* were shown to significantly inhibit *P. falciparum* [31] but the interference phenotype is variable with other *Wolbachia* strain-parasite combinations [32–34]. A stable line was established in *An. stephensi*, a vector of malaria in southern Asia, using the *w*AlbB strain and this was also shown to confer resistance to *P. falciparum* infection [35]. One potential reason postulated for the absence of *Wolbachia* in *Anopheles* species was thought to be due to the presence of other endosymbiotic bacteria, particularly from the genus *Asaia* [36]. This acetic acid bacterium is stably associated with several *Anopheles* species and is often the dominant species in the mosquito microbiota [37]. In laboratory studies, *Asaia* has been shown to impede the vertical transmission of *Wolbachia* in *Anopheles* [36] and was shown to have a negative correlation with *Wolbachia* in mosquito reproductive tissues [38].

Recently, resident *Wolbachia* strains have been discovered in the *An. gambiae* s.l. complex, which consists of multiple morphologically indistinguishable species including several major malaria vector species. *Wolbachia* strains (collectively named *w*Anga) were found in *An. gambiae* s.l. populations in

Burkina Faso [39] and Mali [40], suggesting that *Wolbachia* may be more abundant in the *An.*

gambiae complex across Sub-Saharan Africa. Globally, there is a large variety of *Anopheles* vector

species (~70) that have the capacity to transmit malaria [41] and could potentially contain resident

Wolbachia strains. Additionally, this number of malaria vector species may be an underestimate given

that recent studies using molecular barcoding have also revealed a larger diversity of *Anopheles*

species than would have be identified using morphological identification alone [42,43].

In this study, we collected *Anopheles* mosquitoes from five malaria-endemic countries; Ghana,

Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Guinea, Uganda and Madagascar, from 2013-2017. Wild-

caught adult female *Anopheles* were screened for *P. falciparum* malaria parasites, *Wolbachia* and

Asaia bacteria. In total, we analysed mosquitoes from 17 *Anopheles* species that are known malaria

vectors or implicated in transmission, and some unidentified species, discovering five species of

Anopheles with resident *Wolbachia* strains; *An. coluzzii* from Ghana, *An. gambiae* s.s., *An.*

arabiensis, An. moucheti and *Anopheles* species 'A' from DRC. Using *Wolbachia* gene sequencing

we show that the resident strains in these malaria vectors are diverse, novel strains and qPCR and

16S rRNA amplicon sequencing data suggests that the strains in *An. moucheti* and *An*. species 'A'

are higher density infections, compared to the strains found in the *An. gambiae* s.l. complex. We

found no evidence for either *Wolbachia-Asaia* co-infections, or for either endosymbiont having any

significant effect on the prevalence of malaria in wild mosquito populations*.*

Results

Mosquito species and resident *Wolbachia* strains. *Anopheles* species composition varied

depending on country and mosquito collection sites (**Table 1**). We detected *Wolbachia* in *An. coluzzii*

(previously named M molecular form) mosquitoes from Ghana (prevalence of 4% - termed *w*Anga-

Ghana) and *An. gambiae* s.s. (previously named S molecular form) from all six collection sites in DRC

(prevalence range of 8-24%) in addition to a single infected *An. arabiensis* from Kalemie in DRC

(**Figure 1, Table 1**). The molecular phylogeny of the ITS2 gene of *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. complex

individuals (including both *Wolbachia*-infected and uninfected individuals analysed in our study)

confirmed molecular species identifications made using species-specific PCR assays **(Figure 2).**

Novel resident *Wolbachia* infections were detected in two additional *Anopheles* species from DRC;

An. moucheti (termed *w*AnM) from Mikalayi, and *An*. species A (termed *w*AnsA) from Katana.

Additionally, we screened adult female mosquitoes of *An*. species A (collected as larvae and adults)

from Lwiro, a village near Katana in DRC, and detected *Wolbachia* in 30/33 (91%), indicating this

resident *w*AnsA strain has a high infection prevalence in populations in this region. The molecular

phylogeny of the ITS2 gene revealed *Wolbachia*-infected individuals from Lwiro and Katana are the

same *An*. species A (**Figure 3**) previously collected in Eastern Zambia [43] and Western Kenya [44].

All ITS2 sequences were deposited in GenBank (accession numbers MH598414 – MH598445)

(**Supplementary Table 1**).

Wolbachia strain typing. Phylogenetic analysis of the 16S rRNA gene demonstrated that the 16S

sequences for these strains cluster with other Supergroup B strains such as _w_Pip (99-100%

nucleotide identity) (**Figure 4a).** When compared to the resident _Wolbachia_ strains in _An. gambiae_

s.l. populations from Mali [40] and Burkina Faso [39], _w_Anga-Ghana is more closely related to the

Supergroup B strain of _w_Anga from Burkina Faso. Although a resident strain was detected in _An._

gambiae s.s. and a single _An. arabiensis_ from DRC through amplification of 16S rRNA fragments

using two independent PCR assays [40,45], we were unable to obtain 16S sequences of sufficient

quality to allow further analysis. The _Wolbachia_ surface protein (wsp_)_ gene has been evolving at a

faster rate and provides more informative strain phylogenies [46]. As expected, however, and similar

to _Wolbachia_-infected _An. gambiae_ s.l. from Burkina Faso [39] and Mali [40], a fragment of the wsp

gene was not amplified from _Wolbachia_-positive samples from _An. gambiae_ s.s_, An. arabiensis_ and

An. coluzzii. Similarly, no wsp gene fragment amplification occurred from _w_AnM-infected _An._

moucheti. However, wsp sequences were obtained from both _Wolbachia_-infected individuals of _An._

species A from Katana. We also analysed the wsp sequences of 22 specimens of _An_. species A from

Lwiro (near Katana) and found identical sequences to the two individuals from Katana. Phylogenetic

analysis of the wsp sequences obtained for the _w_AnsA strain, for both individuals from Katana

(_w_AnsA wsp DRC-KAT1, _w_AnsA wsp DRC-KAT2) and three representative individuals from Lwiro

(_w_AnsA wsp DRC-LWI1, _w_AnsA wsp DRC-LWI2, _w_AnsA wsp DRC-LWI3) indicates _w_AnsA is most

closely related to _Wolbachia_ strains of Supergroup B (such as _w_Pip, _w_AlbB, _w_Ma and _w_No) which is

consistent with 16S rRNA phylogeny. However, the improved phylogenetic resolution provided by wsp

indicates they cluster separately (**Figure 4b**). Typing of the _w_AnsA wsp nucleotide sequences

highlighted that there were no exact matches to wsp alleles currently in the _Wolbachia_ MLST

database (https://pubmlst.org/wolbachia/) (**Table 2)**. All _Wolbachia_ 16S and wsp sequences were

deposited into GenBank (accession numbers MH605275 – MH605285) **(Supplementary Table 2)**.

Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) was undertaken to provide more accurate strain phylogenies. This

was done for the novel _Wolbachia_ strains _w_AnM and _w_AnsA in addition to the resident _w_Anga-Ghana

strain in _An. coluzzii_ from Ghana. We were unable to amplify any of the five MLST genes from

Wolbachia-infected _An. gambiae_ s.s_. and _An. arabiensis_ from DRC (likely due to low infection

densities). New alleles for all five MLST gene loci (sequences differed from those currently present in

the MLST database) confirm the diversity of these novel _Wolbachia_ strains (**Table 2**). The phylogeny

of these three novel strains based on concatenated sequences of all five MLST gene loci confirms

they cluster within Supergroup B (**Figure 5a**). This also demonstrates the novelty as comparison with

a wide range of strains (including all isolates highlighted through partial matching during typing of

each locus) shows these strains are distinct from currently available sequences (**Figure 5a, Table 2**).

The concatenated phylogeny indicates that _w_AnM is most closely related to a Hemiptera strain:

Isolate number 1616 found in _Bemisia tabaci_ in Uganda, and a Coleoptera strain: Isolate number 20

found in _Tribolium confusum_. Concatenation of the MLST loci also indicates _w_AnsA is closest to a

group containing various Lepidoptera and Hymenoptera strains from multiple countries in Asia,

Europe and America, as well as two mosquito strains: Isolate numbers 1830 and 1831, found in

Aedes cinereus and *Coquillettidia richiardii* in Russia. This highlights the lack of concordance

between *Wolbachia* strain phylogeny and their insect hosts across diverse geographical regions. We

also found evidence of potential strain variants in *w*AnsA through variable MLST gene fragment

amplification and resulting closest-match allele numbers. A second *w*AnsA-infected sample, *An. sp.*

A/1 (W+) DRC-KAT2, only amplified hcpA and coxA gene fragments and although identical

sequences were obtained for wsp **(Figure 4b)** and hcpA, genetic diversity was seen in the coxA

sequences, with typing revealing a different, but still novel allele for the coxA sequence from this

individual (*w*AnsA(2) coxA DRC-KAT2) **(Figure 5b)**. MLST gene fragment amplification was also

variable for *w*Anga-Ghana-infected *An. coluzzii,* requiring two individuals to generate the five MLST

gene sequences, and for the hcpA locus, more degenerate primers (hcpA_F3/hcpA_R3) were

required to generate sequence of sufficient quality for analysis. This is likely due to the low density of

this strain potentially influencing the ability to successfully amplify all MLST genes, in addition to the

possibility of genetic variation in primer binding regions. Despite the sequences generated for this

strain producing exact matches with alleles in the database for each of the five gene loci, the resultant

allelic profile, and therefore strain type, did not produce a match, showing this *w*Anga-Ghana strain is

also a novel strain type. The closest matches to the *w*Anga-Ghana allelic profile were with strains

from two Lepidopteran species: Isolate number 609 found in *Fabriciana adippe* from Russia, and

Isolate number 658 found in *Pammene fasciana* from Greece, but each of these only produced a

match for 3 out of the 5 loci. The concatenated phylogeny for this strain **(Figure 5a)** indicates that

across the 5 MLST loci, *w*Anga-Ghana is actually most closely related to a Lepidopteran strain found

in *Thersamonia thersamon* in Russia (Isolate number 132). The phylogeny of *Wolbachia* strains

based on the coxA gene (**Figure 5b**) highlights the genetic diversity of both the *w*AnsA strain variants

and also *w*Anga-Ghana compared to the *w*Anga-Mali strain [40]; coxA gene sequences are not

available for *w*Anga strains from Burkina Faso [39]. All *Wolbachia* MLST sequences were deposited

into GenBank (accession numbers MH605286 – MH605305) **(Supplementary Table 3)**.

Resident strain densities and relative abundance. The relative densities of *Wolbachia* strains were

estimated using qPCR targeting the ftsZ [47] and 16S rRNA [40] genes. ftsZ and 16S rRNA qPCR

analysis indicated the amount of *Wolbachia* detected in *w*AnsA-infected and *w*AnM-infected females

was approximately 1000-fold higher (Ct values 20-22) than *Wolbachia*-infected *An. gambiae s.s., An.*

arabiensis and *w*Anga-Ghana-infected *An. coluzzii* (Ct values 30-33). To account for variation in

mosquito body size and DNA extraction efficiency, we compared the total amount of DNA for

Wolbachia-infected mosquito extracts and conversely, we found less total DNA in the *w*AnsA-infected

extract (1.36 ng/µL) and the *An. moucheti (w*AnM-infected) extract (5.85 ng/µL) compared to the

mean of 6.64 +/- 2.33 ng/µL for *w*Anga-Ghana-infected *An. coluzzii*. To estimate the relative

abundance of resident *Wolbachia* strains in comparison to other bacterial species, we sequenced the

bacterial microbiome using 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing on *Wolbachia*-infected individuals. We

found *w*AnsA, *w*AnsA(2) and *w*AnM *Wolbachia* strains were the dominant operational taxonomic units

(OTUs) of these mosquito species (**Figure 6**). In contrast, the lower density infection *w*Anga-Ghana

strain represented only ~10% of the OTUs within the microbiome.

P. falciparum, Wolbachia and Asaia prevalence. The prevalence of *P. falciparum* in female mosquitoes was extremely variable across countries and collection locations (**Figure 1, Table 1**) with very high prevalence recorded in *An. gambiae* s.s. from villages close to Boke (52%) and Faranah (44%) in Guinea. Despite the collection of other *Anopheles* species in Guinea, *An. gambiae* s.s. was the only species to have detectable malaria infections. In contrast, malaria was detected in multiple major vector species from DRC, including *An. gambiae* s.s, *An. arabiensis* and *An. funestus* s.s. A high prevalence of *P. falciparum* was also detected in *An. gambiae* s.s. from Uganda for both collection years; 19% for 2013 and 36% for 2014. In contrast, no *P. falciparum* infections were detected in any of the *An. coluzzii or An. melas* collected in Ghana. In Madagascar, *P. falciparum* was detected in only two species; *An. gambiae s.s.* and *An. rufipes*. We compared the overall *P. falciparum* infection rates in *An. gambiae* s.s. mosquitoes collected across all locations from DRC to determine if there was any correlation with the presence of the low density *w*Anga-DRC *Wolbachia* resident strain. Overall, of the 128 mosquitoes collected, only 1.56% (n=2) had detectable *Wolbachia-Plasmodium* co-infections compared to 10.16% (n=13) where we only detected *Wolbachia*. A further 11.72% (n=15) were only PCR-positive for *P. falciparum*. As expected, for the vast majority of mosquitoes (76.56%, n=98) we found no evidence of *Wolbachia* or *P. falciparum* present, resulting in no correlation across all samples (Fisher's exact *post hoc* test on unnormalized data, two-tailed, P=0.999). Interestingly, one *An.* species 'A' female from Katana was infected with *P. falciparum*.

For all *Wolbachia*-infected females collected in our study (including *An. coluzzii* from Ghana and novel resident strains in *An. moucheti* and *An. species* A), we did not detect the presence of *Asaia*. No resident *Wolbachia* strain infections were detected in *Anopheles* mosquitoes from Guinea, Uganda or Madagascar. However, high *Asaia* and malaria prevalence rates were present in *Anopheles* mosquitoes from Uganda and Guinea (including multiple species in all four sites in Guinea). We compared the overall *P. falciparum* infection rates in *An. gambiae* s.s. collected across all locations from Guinea, with and without *Asaia* bacteria, and found no overall correlation (Fisher's exact *post hoc* test on unnormalized data, two-tailed, P=0.4902). There was also no overall correlation between *Asaia* and *P. falciparum* infections in *An. gambiae* s.s. from Uganda for both 2013 (Fisher's exact *post hoc* test on unnormalized data, two-tailed, P=0.601) and 2014 (Fisher's exact *post hoc* test on unnormalized data, two-tailed, P=0.282).

Asaia can be environmentally acquired at all life stages but can also have the potential to be vertically and horizontally transmitted between individual mosquitoes. Therefore, we performed 16S microbiome analysis on a sub-sample of *Asaia*-infected *An. gambiae* s.s. from Kissidougou (Guinea), a location in which high levels of *Asaia* were detected by qPCR (mean *Asaia* Ct = 17.84 +/- 2.27). *Asaia* in these individuals is the dominant bacterial species present (**Figure 7a**) but in Uganda we detected much lower levels of *Asaia* (qPCR mean Ct = 33.33 +/- 0.19) and this was reflected in *Asaia* not being a dominant species (**Figure 7b**). The alpha and beta diversity of *An. gambiae* s.s. from Kissidougou, Guinea and Butemba, Uganda shows much more overall diversity in the microbiome for Uganda individuals (**supplementary figure S1**). Interestingly, 2/5 of these individuals from

Kissidougou (Guinea) were *P. falciparum*-infected compared to 3/5 individuals from Uganda. To

determine if the presence of *Asaia* had a quantifiable effect on the level of *P. falciparum* detected, we

normalized *P. falciparum* Ct values from qPCR (**supplementary figure S2a**) and compared gene

ratios for *An. gambiae s.s.* mosquitoes from Guinea, with or without *Asaia* (**supplementary figure**

S2b). Statistical analysis using student's t-tests revealed no significant difference between

normalized *P. falciparum* gene ratios (p= 0.51, df =59). Larger variation of Ct values was seen for

Asaia (**supplementary figure S2c**) suggesting the bacterial densities in individual mosquitoes were

more variable than *P. falciparum* parasite infection levels.

Discussion

Malaria transmission in Sub-Saharan Africa is highly dependent on the local *Anopheles* vector

species but the primary vector complexes recognised are *An. gambiae* s.l.*, An. funestus* s.l. *An. nili*

s.l. and *An. moucheti* s.l. [41,48]. *An. gambiae* s.s. and *An. coluzzii* sibling species are considered

the most important malaria vectors in Sub-Saharan Africa and recent studies indicate that *An. coluzzii*

extends further north, and closer to the coast than *An. gambiae s.s.* within west Africa [49]. In our

study, high malaria prevalence rates in *An. gambiae* s.s. across Guinea would be consistent with high

malaria parasite prevalence (measured by rapid diagnostic tests) in Guéckédou prefecture, and the

overall national malaria prevalence estimated to be 44% in 2013 [50]. However, malaria prevalence

has decreased in the past few years with an overall prevalence across Guinea estimated at 15% for

2016. Although our *P. falciparum* infection prevalence rates were also high in DRC, recent studies

have shown comparable levels of infection with 35% of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes infected from

Kinshasa [51]. We detected *P. falciparum* in *An. gambiae* s.s, *An. arabiensis*, *An. funestus* s.s. and

An. species A from DRC.   Morphological differences have been widely used for identification of

malaria vectors but species complexes (such as *An. gambiae* s.l. and *An. funestus* s.l.) require

species-diagnostic PCR assays. Historically, malaria entomology studies in Africa have focused

predominantly on species from these complexes, likely due to the fact that mosquitoes from these

complexes dominate the collections [43]. In our study, we used ITS2 sequencing to confirm

secondary vector species that were *P. falciparum*-infected given the difficulties of morphological

identification and recent studies demonstrating the inaccuracy of diagnostic species PCR-based

molecular identification [52]. Our study is the first to report the detection of *P. falciparum* in *An.*

rufipes from Madagascar; previously this species was considered a vector of *Plasmodium* species of

non-human origin and has only very recently been implicated in human malaria transmission [53].

However, detection of *P. falciparum* parasites in whole body mosquitoes does not confirm that the

species plays a significant role in transmission. Detection could represent infected bloodmeal stages

or oocysts present in the midgut wall so further studies are warranted to determine this species ability

to transmit human malaria parasites.

The mosquito microbiota can modulate the mosquito immune response and bacteria present in wild

Anopheles populations can influence malaria vector competence [4,5]. Endosymbiotic *Wolbachia*

bacteria are particularly widespread through insect populations but they were commonly thought to be

absent from *Anopheles* mosquitoes. However, the recent discovery of *Wolbachia* strains in the *An.*
gambiae s.l. complex in Burkina Faso and Mali [39,40] in addition to our study showing infection in
Anopheles from Ghana and DRC, suggest resident strains could be widespread across Sub-Saharan
Africa. The discovery of resident strains in Burkina Faso resulted from sequencing of the 16S rRNA
gene identifying *Wolbachia* sequences rather than screening using *Wolbachia*-specific genes [39].
Intriguingly, *Wolbachia* infections in these mosquitoes could not be detected using conventional PCR
targeting the wsp gene. As the wsp gene has often been used in previous studies to detect strains in
Anopheles species [25,27], this could explain why resident strains in the *An. gambiae* s.l. complex
have gone undetected until very recently. Recent similar methods using 16S rRNA amplicon
sequencing to determine the overall microbiota in wild mosquito populations has provided evidence
for *Wolbachia* infections in *An. gambiae* in additional villages in Burkina Faso [54] and *Anopheles*
species collected in Illinois, USA [55]. Our study describing resident *Wolbachia* strains in numerous
species of *Anopheles* malaria vectors also highlights the potential for *Wolbachia* to be influencing
malaria transmission, as postulated by previous studies [39,40,56]. Although no significant correlation
was present for malaria and *Wolbachia* prevalence in the 128 *An. gambiae* s.s. individuals from DRC,
we only detected co-infections in two individuals compared to 13 and 15 individuals infected only with
Wolbachia or *P. falciparum* respectively. As the majority (77%) of samples had neither detectable
Wolbachia resident strains or *P. falciparum,* a larger sample size would be needed to determine if
there is a correlation, as shown previously in both Burkina Faso [56] and Mali [40]. The infection
prevalence of resident *Wolbachia* strains in *An. coluzzii* from Ghana (4%) and *An. gambiae* s.s. from
the DRC was variable but low (8-24%), consistent with infection prevalence in Burkina Faso (11%)
[39] but much lower than those reported in Mali (60-80%) [40] where infection was associated with
reduced prevalence and intensity of sporozoite infection in field-collected females.
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The discovery of a resident *Wolbachia* strain in *An. moucheti*, a highly anthropophilic and efficient
malaria vector found in the forested areas of western and central Africa [41], suggests further studies
are warranted that utilize large sample sizes to examine the influence of the *w*AnM *Wolbachia* strain
on *Plasmodium* infection dynamics in this malaria vector. *An. moucheti* is often the most abundant
vector, breeding in slow moving streams and rivers, contributing to year round malaria transmission in
these regions [57,58]. This species has also been implicated as a main bridge vector species in the
transmission of ape *Plasmodium* malaria in Gabon [59]. There is thought to be high genetic diversity
in *An. moucheti* populations [60,61] which may either influence the prevalence of *Wolbachia* resident
strains or *Wolbachia* could be contributing to genetic diversity through its effect on host reproduction.
A novel *Wolbachia* strain in *An*. species 'A', present at high infection frequencies in Lwiro (close to
Katana in DRC), also suggests more *Anopheles* species, including unidentified and potentially new
species, could be infected with this widespread endosymbiotic bacterium. *An.* species A should be
further investigated to determine if this species is a potential malaria vector given our study
demonstrated *P. falciparum* infection in one of two individuals screened and ELISA-positive samples
of this species were reported from the Western Highlands of Kenya [62].
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The variability of *Wolbachia* prevalence rates in *An. gambiae* s.l. complex from locations within DRC
and Ghana and previous studies in Burkina Faso [39] and Mali [40] suggest the environment is one
factor that influences the presence or absence of resident strains. In our study we found no evidence
of *Wolbachia-Asaia* co-infections across all countries, supporting laboratory studies that have shown
these two bacterial endosymbionts demonstrate competitive exclusion in *Anopheles* species [36,38].
We also found that *Asaia* infection densities (whole body mosquitoes) were variable and location
dependent which would correlate with this bacterium being environmentally acquired at all life stages,
but also having the potential for both vertical and horizontal transmission [37]. Significant variations in
overall *Asaia* prevalence and density across different *Anopheles* species and locations in our study
would also correlate with our data indicating no evidence of an association with *P. falciparum*
prevalence in both Guinea and Uganda populations. Further studies are needed to determine the
complex interaction between these two bacterial endosymbionts and malaria in diverse *Anopheles*
malaria vector species. Horizontal transfer of *Wolbachia* strains between species (even over large
phylogenetic differences) has shaped the evolutionary history of this endosymbiont in insects and
there is evidence for loss of infection in host lineages over evolutionary time [63]. Our results showing
a new strain present in *An. coluzzii* from Ghana (phylogenetically different to strains present in *An.*
gambiae s.l. mosquitoes from both Burkina Faso and Mali), strain variants observed in An. species A,
and the concatenated grouping of the novel *Anopheles* strains with strains found in different Orders of
insects, support the lack of congruence between insect host and *Wolbachia* phylogenetic trees [64].

392
Our qPCR and 16S microbiome analysis indicates the densities of *w*AnM and *w*AnsA strains are
significantly higher than resident *Wolbachia* strains in *An. gambiae* s.l. However, caution must be
taken as we were only able to analyse selected individuals and larger collections of wild populations
would be required to confirm these results. Native *Wolbachia* strains dominating the microbiome of
An. species A and *An. moucheti* is consistent with other studies of resident strains in mosquitoes
showing *Wolbachia* 16S rRNA gene amplicons vastly outnumber sequences from other bacteria in
Ae. albopictus and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* [65,66]. The discovery of novel *Wolbachia* strains provides
the rationale to undertake vector competence experiments to determine what effect these strains are
having on malaria transmission. The tissue tropism of novel *Wolbachia* strains in malaria vectors will
be particularly important to characterise given this will determine if these endosymbiotic bacteria are
proximal to malaria parasites within the mosquito. It would also be important to determine the
additional phenotypic effects novel resident *Wolbachia* strains have on their mosquito hosts. Some
Wolbachia strains induce a reproductive phenotype termed cytoplasmic incompatibility (CI) that
results in inviable offspring when an uninfected female mates with a *Wolbachia*-infected male. In
contrast, *Wolbachia*-infected females produce viable progeny when they mate with both infected and
uninfected male mosquitoes. This reproductive advantage over uninfected females allows *Wolbachia*
to spread within mosquito populations.

410
411 *Wolbachia* has been the focus of recent biocontrol strategies in which *Wolbachia* strains transferred
412 into naïve mosquito species provide strong inhibitory effects on arboviruses [19,20,67–70] and
413 malaria parasites [31,35]. The discovery of two novel *Wolbachia* strains in *Anopheles* mosquitoes,

potentially present at much higher density than resident strains in the *An. gambiae* s.l. complex, also suggests the potential for these strains to be transinfected into other *Anopheles* species to produce inhibitory effects on *Plasmodium* parasites. *Wolbachia* transinfection success is partly attributed to the relatedness of donor and recipient host so the transfer of high density *Wolbachia* strains between *Anopheles* species may result in stable infections (or co-infections) that have strong inhibitory effects on *Plasmodium* development. Finally, if the resident strain present in *An. moucheti* is at low infection frequencies in wild populations, an alternative strategy known as the incompatible insect technique (IIT) could be implemented where *Wolbachia*-infected males are released to suppress the wild populations through CI (reviewed by [22]). In summary, the important discovery of diverse novel *Wolbachia* strains in *Anopheles* species will help our understanding of how *Wolbachia* strains can potentially impact malaria transmission, through natural associations or being used as candidate strains for transinfection to create stable infections in other species.

Materials and Methods.

Study sites & collection methods. *Anopheles* adult mosquitoes were collected from five malaria endemic countries in Sub-Saharan Africa; Guinea, Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Ghana, Uganda and Madagascar between 2013 and 2017 (**Figure 1**). Human landing catches, CDC light traps and pyrethrum spray catches were undertaken between April 2014 – February 2015 in 10 villages near four cities in Guinea; Foulayah (10.144633, -10.749717) and Balayani (10.1325, -10.7443) near Faranah; Djoumaya (10.836317, -14.2481) and Kaboye Amaraya (10.93435, -14.36995) near Boke; Tongbekoro (9.294295, -10.147953), Keredou (9.208919, -10.069525), and Gbangbadou (9.274363, -9.998639) near Kissidougou; and Makonon (10.291124, -9.363358), Balandou (10.407669, -9.219096), and Dalabani (10.463692, -9.451904) near Kankan. Human landing catches and pyrethrum spray catches were undertaken between January – September 2015 in seven sites of the DRC; Kinshasa (-4.415881, 15.412188), Mikalayi (-6.024184, 22.318251), Kisangani (0.516350, 25.221176), Katana (-2.225129, 28.831604), Kalemie (-5.919054, 29.186572), and Kapolowe (-10.939802, 26.952970). We also analysed a subset from collections obtained from Lwiro (-2.244097, 28.815232), a village near Katana, collected between in September – October 2015. A combination of CDC light traps, pyrethrum spray catches and human landing catches were undertaken in Butemba, Kyankwanzi District in mid-western Uganda (1.1068444, 31.5910085) in August and September 2013 and June 2014. CDC light trap catches were undertaken in May 2017 in Dogo in Ada, Greater Accra, Ghana (5.874861111, 0.560611111). In Madagascar, sampling was undertaken in June 2016 at four sites: Anivorano Nord, located in the Northern domain, (-12.7645000, 49.2386944), Ambomiharina, Western domain, (-16.3672778, 46.9928889), Antafia, Western domain, (-17.0271667, 46.7671389) and Ambohimarina, Central domain, (-18.3329444, 47.1092500). Trapping consisted of CDC light traps and a net trap baited with Zebu (local species of cattle) to attract zoophilic species [71].

DNA extraction and species identification. DNA was extracted from individual whole mosquitoes or

abdomens using QIAGEN DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kits according to manufacturer's instructions.

DNA extracts were eluted in a final volume of 100 µL and stored at –20°C. Species identification was

initially undertaken using morphological keys followed by diagnostic species-specific PCR assays to

distinguish between the morphologically indistinguishable sibling mosquito species of the *An.*

gambiae [72–74] and *An. funestus* complexes [75]. To determine species identification for samples of

interest and samples that could not be identified by species-specific PCR, Sanger sequences were

generated from ITS2 PCR products [76]*.*

Detection of P. falciparum and Asaia. Detection of *P. falciparum* malaria was undertaken using

qPCR targeting an 120-bp sequence of the *P. falciparum* cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1 (Cox1)

mitochondrial gene [77] as preliminary trials revealed this was the optimal method for both sensitivity

and specificity. Positive controls from gDNA extracted from a cultured *P. falciparum*-infected blood

sample (parasitaemia of ~10%) were serially diluted to determine the threshold limit of detection, in

addition to the inclusion no template controls (NTCs). *Asaia* detection was undertaken targeting the

16S rRNA gene [78,79]. Ct values for both *P. falciparum* and *Asaia* assays in selected *An. gambiae*

extracts were normalized to Ct values for a single copy *An. gambiae* rps17 housekeeping gene

(accession no. AGAP004887 on www.vectorbase.org) [80,81]. As Ct values are inversely related to

the amount of amplified DNA, a higher target gene Ct: host gene Ct ratio represented a lower

estimated infection level. qPCR reactions were prepared using 5 µL of FastStart SYBR Green Master

mix (Roche Diagnostics), a final concentration of 1µM of each primer, 1 µL of PCR grade water and 2

µL template DNA, to a final reaction volume of 10 µL. Prepared reactions were run on a Roche

LightCycler® 96 System and amplification was followed by a dissociation curve (95°C for 10 seconds,

65°C for 60 seconds and 97°C for 1 second) to ensure the correct target sequence was being

amplified. PCR results were analysed using the LightCycler® 96 software (Roche Diagnostics). A

sub-selection of PCR products from each assay was sequenced to confirm correct amplification of the

target gene fragment.

***Wolbachia* detection.** *Wolbachia* detection was first undertaken targeting three conserved *Wolbachia*

genes previously shown to amplify a wide diversity of strains; 16S rDNA gene [40,45], *Wolbachia*

surface protein (wsp) gene [46] and FtsZ cell cycle gene [82]. DNA extracted from a *Drosophila*

melanogaster fly (infected with the *w*Mel strain of *Wolbachia*) was used a positive control, in addition

to no template controls (NTCs). 16S rDNA [45] and wsp [46] gene PCR reactions were carried out in

a Bio-Rad T100 Thermal Cycler using standard cycling conditions and PCR products were separated

and visualised using 2% E-Gel EX agarose gels (Invitrogen) with SYBR safe and an Invitrogen E-Gel

iBase Real-Time Transilluminator. FtsZ [47] and *16S* rDNA [40] gene real time PCR reactions were

prepared using 5 µL of FastStart SYBR Green Master mix (Roche Diagnostics), a final concentration

of 1µM of each primer, 1 µL of PCR grade water and 2 µL template DNA, to a final reaction volume of

10 µL. Prepared reactions were run on a Roche LightCycler® 96 System for 15 minutes at 95°C,

followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 seconds and 58°C for 30 seconds. Amplification was followed by

a dissociation curve (95˚C for 10 seconds, 65˚C for 60 seconds and 97˚C for 1 second) to ensure the

correct target sequence was being amplified. PCR results were analysed using the LightCycler® 96

software (Roche Diagnostics). To estimate *Wolbachia* densities across multiple *Anopheles* mosquito

species, *ftsZ* and 16S qPCR Ct values were compared to total dsDNA extracted measured using an

Invitrogen Qubit 4 fluorometer.   A serial dilution series of a known *Wolbachia*-infected mosquito DNA

extract was used to correlate Ct values and amount of amplified target product.

Wolbachia MLST. Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) was undertaken to characterize *Wolbachia*

strains using the sequences of five conserved genes as molecular markers to genotype each strain.

In brief, 450-500 base pair fragments of the gatB, coxA, hcpA, ftsZ and fbpA *Wolbachia* genes were

amplified from individual *Wolbachia*-infected mosquitoes using previously optimised protocols [83]. A

Cx. pipiens gDNA extraction (previously shown to be infected with the *w*Pip strain of *Wolbachia*) was

used a positive control for each PCR run, in addition to no template controls (NTCs).   If no

amplification was detected using standard primers, further PCR analysis was undertaken using

degenerate primers [83]. PCR products were separated and visualised using 2% E-Gel EX agarose

gels (Invitrogen) with SYBR safe and an Invitrogen E-Gel iBase Real-Time Transilluminator. PCR

products were submitted to Source BioScience (Source BioScience Plc, Nottingham, UK) for PCR

reaction clean-up, followed by Sanger sequencing to generate both forward and reverse reads.

Sequencing analysis was carried out in MEGA7 [84] as follows. Both chromatograms (forward and

reverse traces) from each sample was manually checked, edited, and trimmed as required, followed

by alignment by ClustalW and checking to produce consensus sequences. Consensus sequences

were used to perform nucleotide BLAST (NCBI) database queries, and searches against the

Wolbachia MLST database (http://pubmlst.org/wolbachia) [85]. If a sequence produced an exact

match in the MLST database we assigned the appropriate allele number, otherwise the closest

matches and number of differences were noted. The Sanger sequencing traces from the wsp gene

were also treated in the same way and analysed alongside the MLST gene locus scheme, as an

additional marker for strain typing

Phylogenetic analysis. Alignments were constructed in MEGA7 by ClustalW to include all relevant

and available sequences highlighted through searches on the BLAST and *Wolbachia* MLST

databases. Maximum Likelihood phylogenetic trees were constructed from Sanger sequences as

follows. The evolutionary history was inferred by using the Maximum Likelihood method based on the

Tamura-Nei model [86]. The tree with the highest log likelihood in each case is shown. The

percentage of trees in which the associated taxa clustered together is shown next to the branches.

Initial tree(s) for the heuristic search were obtained automatically by applying Neighbor-Join and

BioNJ algorithms to a matrix of pairwise distances estimated using the Maximum Composite

Likelihood (MCL) approach, and then selecting the topology with superior log likelihood value. The

trees are drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured in the number of substitutions per site. Codon

positions included were 1st+2nd+3rd+Noncoding. All positions containing gaps and missing data

were eliminated. The phylogeny test was by Bootstrap method with 1000 replications. Evolutionary

analyses were conducted in MEGA7 [84].

Microbiome Analysis. The microbiomes of selected individual *Anopheles* were analysed using barcoded high-throughput amplicon sequencing of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene. Sequencing libraries for each isolate were generated using universal 16S rRNA V3-V4 region primers [87] in accordance with Illumina 16S rRNA metagenomic sequencing library protocols. The samples were barcoded for multiplexing using Nextera XT Index Kit v2. Sequencing was performed on an Illumina MiSeq instrument using a MiSeq Reagent Kit v2 (500-cycles). Quality control and taxonomical assignment of the resultant reads were performed using CLC Genomics Workbench 8.0.1 Microbial Genomics Module (http://www.clcbio.com). Low quality reads containing nucleotides with quality threshold below 0.05 (using the modified Richard Mott algorithm), as well as reads with two or more unknown nucleotides were removed from analysis. Additionally reads were trimmed to remove sequenced Nextera adapters. Reference based OTU picking was performed using the SILVA SSU v128 97% database [88]. Sequences present in more than one copy but not clustered to the database were then placed into de novo OTUs (97% similarity) and aligned against the reference database with 80% similarity threshold to assign the "closest" taxonomical name where possible. Chimeras were removed from the dataset if the absolute crossover cost was 3 using a k-mer size of 6. Alpha diversity was measured using Shannon entropy (OTU level).

Statistical analysis. Fisher's exact *post hoc* test in Graphpad Prism 7 was used to compare infection rates. Normalised qPCR Ct ratios were compared using unpaired t-tests in GraphPad Prism 7.

Authors' contributions. MK, JO, JB, EH, MLT, FNR, KK, DC, YB, FW, EZM, YAA, ARM, TAA performed field collections. CLJ, GGL, MK, JO, KS, EH & TW performed sample analysis. CLJ performed sequence analysis. GG, SH, KK, MP, YF and GLH performed 16S microbiome sample analysis. SRI, GLH and TW provided overall supervision. CLJ and TW wrote the initial draft.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. **Locations of *Anopheles* species collections (including *Wolbachia*-infected species)**

and *P. falciparum* malaria prevalence rates in mosquitoes (across all species for each

location). A) Overall map showing the five malaria-endemic countries where mosquito collections

were undertaken. **B)** High malaria prevalence rates in Guinea, and *Wolbachia*-infected *An. coluzzii*

from Ghana (no *P. falciparum* detected). **C)** *Wolbachia* strains in *An. gambiae* s.s., *An. arabiensis*, *An.*

species A and *An. moucheti* from DRC and variable *P. falciparum* prevalence rate in DRC and

Uganda. **D)** Low *P. falciparum* infection rates in Madagascar and no evidence of resident *Wolbachia*

strains. (*W*+; *Wolbachia* detected in this species).

Figure 2. **Maximum Likelihood molecular phylogenetic analysis of *Anopheles gambiae***

***complex* ITS2 sequences from field-collected mosquitoes**. The tree with the highest log likelihood

(-785.65) is shown. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured in the number of

substitutions per site. The analysis involved 42 nucleotide sequences. There were a total of 475

positions in the final dataset. DRC = Democratic Republic of the Congo (red): KAL = Kalemie, MIK =

Mikalayi, KIN = Kinshasa, KAT = Katana. GHA = Ghana (blue): DOG = Dogo. GUI = Guinea (green):

KSK = Kissidougou. MAD = Madagascar (purple): ANT = Antafia. UGA = Uganda (maroon): BUT =

Butemba. (W+; individual was *Wolbachia* positive, W-; individual was *Wolbachia* negative).

Figure 3. Maximum Likelihood molecular phylogenetic analysis of *Anopheles* ITS2 sequences

from field-collected mosquitoes outside of the *An. gambiae* s.l. complex. The tree with the

highest log likelihood (-3084.12) is shown. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured

in the number of substitutions per site. The analysis involved 118 nucleotide sequences. There were a

total of 156 positions in the final dataset. DRC = Democratic Republic of the Congo (red): KAT =

Katana, LWI = Lwiro, MIK = Mikalayi. GUI = Guinea (green): FAR = Faranah, KAN = Kankan, KSK =

Kissidougou. MAD = Madagascar (purple): AMB = Ambomiharina. (W+; individual was *Wolbachia*

positive, W-; individual was *Wolbachia* negative).

Figure 4. **Resident *Wolbachia* strain phylogenetic analysis using 16S rRNA and wsp genes. A)**

Maximum Likelihood molecular phylogenetic analysis of the 16S rRNA gene for resident strains in *An.*

coluzzii (*w*Anga-Ghana; blue), *An. moucheti* (*w*AnM; green) and *An. species A* (*w*AnsA; red). The tree

with the highest log likelihood (-660.03) is shown. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths

measured in the number of substitutions per site. The analysis involved 17 nucleotide sequences.

There were a total of 333 positions in the final dataset. Accession numbers of additional sequences

obtained from GenBank are shown, including *w*Pip (navy blue), *w*Anga-Mali (purple) and *w*Anga-

Burkina Faso strains (maroon). **B)** Maximum Likelihood molecular phylogenetic analysis of the wsp

gene for *w*AnsA-infected representative individuals from the DRC (red). (KAT = Katana, LWI = Lwiro.)

The tree with the highest log likelihood (-3663.41) is shown. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch

lengths measured in the number of substitutions per site. The analysis involved 83 nucleotide

sequences. There were a total of 443 positions in the final dataset. Reference numbers of additional

sequences obtained from the MLST database (IsoN = Isolate number) or GenBank (accession
number) are shown. Strains isolated from mosquitoes are highlighted in navy blue.
915
Figure 5. *Wolbachia* **MLST phylogenetic analysis of resident *Wolbachia* strains in *An. coluzzii,***
***An. moucheti* and *An.* species A. A**) Maximum Likelihood molecular phylogenetic analysis from
concatenation of all five MLST gene loci for resident *Wolbachia* strains from *An. coluzzii* (*w*Anga-
Ghana; blue), *An. moucheti* (*w*AnM; green) and *An.* species A (*w*AnsA; red). The tree with the highest
log likelihood (-10606.13) is shown and drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured in the number
of substitutions per site. The analysis involved 94 nucleotide sequences. There were a total of 2067
positions in the final dataset. Concatenated sequence data from *Wolbachia* strains downloaded from
MLST database for comparison shown with isolate numbers in brackets (IsoN). *Wolbachia* strains
isolated from mosquito species highlighted in navy blue, bold. Strains isolated from other Dipteran
species are shown in navy blue, from Coleoptera in olive green, from Hemiptera in purple, from
Hymenoptera in teal blue, from Lepidoptera in maroon and from other, or unknown orders in black.
B). Maximum Likelihood molecular phylogenetic analysis for coxA gene locus for resident *Wolbachia*
strains from *An. coluzzii* (*w*Anga-Ghana; blue), *An. moucheti* (*w*AnM; green) and *An.* species A
(*w*AnsA and *w*AnsA(2); red). The tree with the highest log likelihood (-1921.11) is shown and drawn to
scale, with branch lengths measured in the number of substitutions per site. The analysis involved 84
nucleotide sequences. There were a total of 402 positions in the final dataset. Sequence data for the
coxA locus from *Wolbachia* strains downloaded from MLST database for comparison shown in black
and navy blue with isolate numbers (IsoN) from MLST database shown in brackets. *Wolbachia* strains
isolated from mosquito species highlighted in navy blue. GenBank sequence for *w*Anga-Mali coxA
shown in maroon with accession number.
936
937 **Figure 6**. **The relative abundance of resident *Wolbachia* strains in *Anopheles*.** Bacterial genus
938 level taxonomy was assigned to OTUs clustered with a 97% cut-off using the SILVA SSU v128 97%
939 database, and individual genera comprising less than 1% of total abundance was merged into
940 "Others".
941
942 **Figure 7. The relative abundance of bacteria in *An. gambiae* s.s. comparing two locations with**
943 **contrasting *Asaia* infection densities.** Bacterial genus level taxonomy was assigned to OTUs
944 clustered with a 97% cut-off using the SILVA SSU v128 97% database, and individual genera
945 comprising less than 1% of total abundance was merged into "Others".
946
Supplementary Figure S1. **Alpha and beta diversity of *An. gambiae* s.s. from Kissidougou,**
Guinea and Butemba, Uganda. A) Alpha diversity using the Shannon diversity index shows the
relative abundance of bacterial genera. **B)** To identify dissimilarities in the bacterial community
structure between the microbiome, principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) was performed based on a
Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix based on 97% clustered OTUs.

Supplementary Figure S2. Prevalence of the bacterial endosymbiont *Asaia* and malaria

parasites in *An. gambiae* s.s. mosquitoes from Guinea. **A)** Normalised *P. falciparum*: *An. gambiae*

gene Ct ratio for mosquitoes that are infected with malaria and +/- *Asaia* bacteria. **B)** *P. falciparum*

and *Asaia* infection rates (%) in 152 *An. gambiae* s.s. females. **C)** Box and whisker plot of Ct values

for detection of *Asaia* and *P. falciparum* malaria showing more variable levels of *Asaia* detected.

Table 1. *Anopheles* mosquito species collected from locations within five malaria-endemic countries and *P. falciparum*, *Wolbachia* and *Asaia* prevalence rates. Species in different locations infected with *Wolbachia* are in bold. *Adult individuals from Lwiro (Katana), DRC were collected as both larvae and adults so have been excluded from *P. falciparum* and *Asaia* prevalence analysis.

Country	Location	Species	Individuals	Infection prevalence (%)		
				P. falciparum	*Wolbachia*	*Asaia*
Guinea	Faranah	*An. gambiae* s.s.	48	43.8	0.0	50.0
		An. arabiensis	7	0.0	0.0	100.0
		An. nili	9	0.0	0.0	100.0
	Kissidougou	*An. gambiae* s.s.	44	18.2	0.0	100.0
		An. species O	1	0.0	0.0	100.0
	Boke	*An. gambiae* s.s.	21	52.4	0.0	28.6
	Kankan	*An. gambiae* s.s.	48	38.1	0.0	56.3
		An. sp. unknown	1	0.0	0.0	0.0
DRC	Mikalayi	**An. gambiae s.s.**	16	29.4	11.8	11.8
		An. moucheti	1	0.0	100.0	0.0
		An. funestus s.s.	13	30.8	0.0	15.4
	Kisangani	*An. gambiae* s.s.	25	12.0	8.0	20.0
		An. arabiensis	4	25.0	0.0	0.0
	Katana	*An. gambiae* s.s.	23	8.7	8.7	4.4
		An. funestus s.s.	5	0.0	0.0	0.0
		An. species A	2	50.0	100.0	0.0
	Lwiro (Katana)	**An. species A***	33	N/A	90.1	N/A
	Kapolowe	*An. gambiae* s.s.	9	11.1	11.1	0.0
		An. funestus s.s.	5	20.0	0.0	0.0
	Kalemie	**An. gambiae s.s.**	28	7.1	21.4	3.6
		An. arabiensis	2	0.0	50.0	0.0
	Kinshasa	**An. gambiae s.s.**	27	22.2	14.8	3.7
		An. funestus s.s.	2	50.0	0.0	0.0
Ghana	Dogo	**An. coluzzii**	286	0.0	4.2	32.9
		An. melas	1	0.0	0.0	100.00
Uganda	Butemba (2013)	*An. gambiae* s.s.	57	19.3	0.0	80.7
	Butemba (2014)	*An. gambiae* s.s.	135	36.3	0.0	48.1
		An. arabiensis	1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Madagascar	Anivorano Nord	*An. funestus*	8	0.0	0.0	25.0
		An. gambiae s.s.	3	0.0	0.0	33.3
		An. arabiensis	2	0.0	0.0	100.0
		An. mascarensis	38	0.0	0.0	39.5
		An. maculipalpis	9	0.0	0.0	11.1
		An. coustani	22	0.0	0.0	27.3
		An. rufipes	11	0.0	0.0	27.3
	Ambomiharina	*An. funestus*	12	0.0	0.0	83.3
		An. pharoensis	7	0.0	0.0	42.9
		An. rufipes	19	10.5	0.0	68.4
		An. maculipalpis	9	0.0	0.0	0.0
		An. gambiae s.s.	8	0.0	0.0	0.0
		An. coustani	24	0.0	0.0	25.0
		An. squamosus	10	0.0	0.0	20.0
		An. mascarensis	2	0.0	0.0	50.0
	Antafia	*An. gambiae* s.s.	11	27.3	0.0	45.5
		An. pauliani	2	0.0	0.0	50.0
		An. rufipes	2	0.0	0.0	50.0
		An. mascarensis	2	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Ambohimarina	*An. funestus*	1	0.0	0.0	0.0
		An. gambiae s.s.	1	0.0	0.0	0.0
		An. arabiensis	2	0.0	0.0	0.0
		An. rufipes	7	0.0	0.0	42.9
		An. coustani	18	0.0	0.0	11.1
		An. maculipalpis	8	0.0	0.0	12.5
		An. squamosus	52	0.0	0.0	3.9
		An. mascarensis	11	0.0	0.0	0.0

Table 2. Novel resident *Wolbachia* strain wsp and MLST gene allelic profiles. Exact matches to existing alleles present in the database are shown in bold, novel alleles are denoted by the allele number of the closest match and shown in red (number of single nucleotide differences to the closest match). *alternative degenerate primers (set 3) used to generate sequence.

Mosquito species	*Wolbachia* strain	*Wolbachia* gene allele					
		wsp	*gatB*	*coxA*	*hcpA*	*ftsZ*	*fbpA*
An. species A	*w*AnsA	152 (34)	140 (4)	122 (16)	6 (7)	7 (1)	10 (1)
An. species A	*w*AnsA(2)	152 (34)	-	36 (1)	6 (7)	-	-
An. moucheti	*w*AnM	-	9 (2)	11 (1)	74 (3)	7 (2)	7 (12)
An. coluzzii	*w*Anga-Ghana	-	9	64	3*	177	4

Supplementary Table 1. Additional sample details and ITS2 GenBank accession numbers.

Location	Species	Sample ID	Wolbachia status	ITS2 accession number
Guinea: Kissidougou	*Anopheles* sp. O/15	GUI-KSK1	W-	MH598414
Guinea: Kissidougou	*Anopheles gambiae s.s.*	GUI-KSK2	W-	MH598415
Guinea: Faranah	*Anopheles nili*	GUI-FAR1	W-	MH598416
Guinea: Faranah	*Anopheles nili*	GUI-FAR2	W-	MH598417
Guinea: Kankan	*Anopheles* sp. unknown	GUI-KAN1	W-	MH598418
DRC: Lwiro	*Anopheles* sp. A/1	DRC-LWI1	W+	MH598419
DRC: Lwiro	*Anopheles* sp. A/1	DRC-LWI2	W+	MH598420
DRC: Lwiro	*Anopheles* sp. A/1	DRC-LWI3	W+	MH598421
DRC: Katana	*Anopheles* sp. A/1	DRC-KAT1	W+	MH598422
DRC: Katana	*Anopheles* sp. A/1	DRC-KAT2	W+	MH598423
DRC: Mikalayi	*Anopheles moucheti*	DRC-MIK1	W+	MH598424
DRC: Kinshasa	*Anopheles gambiae s.s.*	DRC-KIN1	W+	MH598425
DRC: Mikalayi	*Anopheles gambiae s.s.*	DRC-MIK2	W+	MH598426
DRC: Kalemie	*Anopheles gambiae s.s.*	DRC-KAL1	W+	MH598427
DRC: Kalemie	*Anopheles arabiensis*	DRC-KAL2	W+	MH598428
DRC: Katana	*Anopheles gambiae s.s.*	DRC-KAT3	W-	MH598429
Ghana: Dogo	*Anopheles coluzzii*	GHA-DOG1	W+	MH598430
Ghana: Dogo	*Anopheles coluzzii*	GHA-DOG2	W+	MH598431
Ghana: Dogo	*Anopheles coluzzii*	GHA-DOG3	W+	MH598432
Ghana: Dogo	*Anopheles coluzzii*	GHA-DOG4	W-	MH598433
Ghana: Dogo	*Anopheles coluzzii*	GHA-DOG5	W-	MH598434
Ghana: Dogo	*Anopheles melas*	GHA-DOG6	W-	MH598435

Uganda: Butemba	*Anopheles gambiae s.s.*	UGA-BUT1	W-	MH598436
Uganda: Butemba	*Anopheles gambiae s.s.*	UGA-BUT2	W-	MH598437
Uganda: Butemba	*Anopheles gambiae s.s.*	UGA-BUT3	W-	MH598438
Uganda: Butemba	*Anopheles gambiae s.s.*	UGA-BUT4	W-	MH598439
Uganda: Butemba	*Anopheles arabiensis*	UGA-BUT5	W-	MH598440
Madagascar: Antafia	*Anopheles gambiae s.s.*	MAD-ANT1	W-	MH598441
Madagascar: Antafia	*Anopheles gambiae s.s.*	MAD-ANT2	W-	MH598442
Madagascar: Antafia	*Anopheles gambiae s.s.*	MAD-ANT3	W-	MH598443
Madagascar: Ambomiharina	*Anopheles rufipes*	MAD-AMB1	W-	MH598444
Madagascar: Ambomiharina	*Anopheles rufipes*	MAD-AMB2	W-	MH598445

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1009 **Supplementary Table 2. *Wolbachia* 16S and wsp GenBank accession numbers**

Sample ID	Strain	16S	wsp
DRC-LWI1	*w*AnsA	MH605275	MH605281
DRC-LWI2	*w*AnsA	MH605276	MH605282
DRC-LWI3	*w*AnsA	MH605277	MH605283
DRC-KAT1	*w*AnsA	-	MH605284
DRC-KAT2	*w*AnsA(2)	-	MH605285
DRC-MIK1	*w*AnM	MH605278	-
GHA-DOG1	*w*Anga-Ghana	MH605279	-
GHA-DOG2	*w*Anga-Ghana	MH605280	-

1010

1011 **Supplementary Table 3. *Wolbachia* MLST gene GenBank accession numbers**

Sample ID	Strain	gatB	coxA	hcpA	ftsZ	fbpA
DRC-LWI1	*w*AnsA	MH605286	MH605290	MH605295	MH605299	MH605302
DRC-KAT1	*w*AnsA	MH605287	MH605291	-	-	MH605303
DRC-KAT2	*w*AnsA(2)	-	MH605292	MH605296	-	-
DRC-MIK1	*w*AnM	MH605288	MH605293	MH605297	MH605300	MH605304
GHA-DOG1	*w*Anga-Ghana	MH605289	MH605294	-	MH605301	MH605305
GHA-DOG2	*w*Anga-Ghana	-	-	MH605298	-	-

1012

Figure 1

Figure 2

KT160243.1 Anopheles gambiae isolate Lofa1 (Liberia)

KT160244.1 Anopheles coluzzii isolate Kara2 (Togo)

JN994138.1 Anopheles gambiae (Keele colony strain)

GQ870317.1 Anopheles gambiae voucher 104 (Uganda)

GQ870315.1 Anopheles gambiae voucher 10573 (Mali)

EU104644.1 Anopheles gambiae isolate H12P (S form - gambiae ss) (Angola)

EU104634.1 Anopheles gambiae isolate 804 (M form - coluzzii) (Angola)

● DRC-KAL1 An. gambiae ss (W+)

● DRC-MIK2 An. gambiae ss (W+)

● DRC-KIN1 An. gambiae ss (W+)

○ UGA-BUT4 An. gambiae ss (W-)

○ UGA-BUT3 An. gambiae ss (W-)

○ UGA-BUT2 An. gambiae ss (W-)

○ MAD-ANT3 An. gambiae ss (W-)

○ MAD-ANT2 An. gambiae ss (W-)

○ MAD-ANT1 An. gambiae ss (W-)

○ GUI-KSK2 An. gambiae ss (W-)

○ UGA-BUT1 An. gambiae ss (W-)

65 └ GQ870322.1 Anopheles gambiae voucher 165 (Uganda)

○ DRC-KAT3 An. gambiae ss (W-)

□ GHA-DOG5 An. coluzzii (W-)

□ GHA-DOG4 An. coluzzii (W-)

■ GHA-DOG3 An. coluzzii (W+)

■ GHA-DOG2 An. coluzzii (W+)

■ GHA-DOG1 An. coluzzii (W+)

KT284725.1 Anopheles gambiae strain DRSTP (M form - coluzzii) (Sao Tome and Principe)

△ GHA-DOG6 An. melas (W-)

88 └ GQ870314.1 Anopheles melas voucher d36 (Cameroon)

◆ Anopheles bwambae (2 sequences, Uganda)

GQ870313.1 Anopheles merus voucher 10304 (Tanzania)

◆ Anopheles quadriannulatus (3 sequences, Ethiopia / Zambia)

▼ DRC-KAL2 An. arabiensis (W+)

▽ UGA-BUT5 An. arabiensis (W-)

DQ287772.1 Anopheles arabiensis clone CAL191 (Nigeria)

GQ870321.1 Anopheles arabiensis voucher 10336 (Tanzania)

99 JN994133.1 Anopheles arabiensis (Zambia)

KJ522814.1 Anopheles arabiensis (Kenya)

KR014833.1 Anopheles arabiensis haplotype AN15 (Zambia)

KT160245.1 Anopheles arabiensis isolate Yemen3 (Yemen)

0.001

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

B

Figure 5

A

B

Figure 6

Figure 7

A

B

Supplementary Figure S2