Title: Natural *Wolbachia* infections are common in the major malaria vectors in

Central Africa

Running title: *Wolbachia* diversity in African *Anopheles*

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Abstract

During the last decade, the endosymbiont bacterium *Wolbachia* has emerged as a

biological tool for vector disease control. However, during long time, *Wolbachia* was

thought to be absent in natural populations of *Anopheles*. The recent discovery that

species within the *Anopheles gambiae* complex hosts *Wolbachia* in natural conditions

has opened new opportunities for malaria control research in Africa. Here, we

investigated *Wolbachia* infectious status in 25 African *Anopheles* species in Gabon

(Central Africa). Our results revealed the presence of *Wolbachia* in 16 of these

species, including the major malaria vectors in this area. The infection prevalence

varies greatly among species, confirming that sample size is a key factor to detect the

infection. Moreover, our sequencing and phylogenetic analyses showed the important

diversity of *Wolbachia* strains that infect *Anopheles*. Co-evolutionary analysis

unveiled patterns of *Wolbachia* transmission within *Anopheles* species, suggesting

that past independent acquisition events were followed by co-cladogenesis. The large

diversity of *Wolbachia* strains that infect natural populations of *Anopheles* offers a

promising opportunity to select suitable phenotypes for suppressing *Plasmodium*

transmission and/or manipulating *Anopheles* reproduction, which in turn could be

used to reduce the malaria burden in Africa.

Key-words: *Anopheles*, *Wolbachia*, diversity, co-evolution, disease control.

Introduction

Malaria still affects millions of people and causes thousands of victims worldwide, and sub-Saharan Africa pays the highest tribute [1]. Currently, vector-control measures (e.g., insecticide-treated bed nets or indoor residual spray) are the largest contributors to malaria eradication [2]. Indeed, if these interventions are maintained or increased, malaria burden should be drastically reduced in Africa before 2030 [3]. These predictions are based on the constant effectiveness of these methods. However, the spread of insecticide resistance [4] and vector behavioural changes related to the massive use of bed nets [5] will challenge malaria eradication in the coming decades. Therefore, it is indispensable to develop alternative and environmentally friendly control strategies for the millennium development goal of malaria eradication [6].

Several methods have been proposed to accompany or replace the use of synthetic insecticides [7]. Among them, the use of the maternally inherited *Wolbachia* bacteria (α-proteobacteria, Anaplasmataceae family) has emerged as a promising alternative biological tool for fighting malaria and other vector-borne diseases [7-11]. This bacterium exhibits a large spectrum of interactions with its hosts: from mutualism and commensalism to parasitism [12]. Moreover, *Wolbachia* has proved its ability to invade mosquito populations and/or to prevent pathogen infections in some of the most important mosquito vectors [11]. Indeed, artificial *Wolbachia* infection has been successfully used to suppress dengue transmission in natural populations of *Aedes aegypti* [13,14]. Similarly, artificial infection of *Anopheles* (the vector of human malaria) with *Wolbachia* strains has a negative impact on the transmission of *Plasmodium* parasites [15-17], providing a relevant alternative for malaria control. However, during long time, *Wolbachia* was thought to be absent in natural populations of *Anopheles* [18].

Yet, since 2014, *An. gambiae, An. coluzzii* and *An. arabiensis* (three major malaria

vectors) populations from Burkina Faso and Mali (West Africa) were found naturally

infected by *Wolbachia* [19-21]. Noteworthy, they showed a negative correlation between

Wolbachia infection and *Plasmodium* development [20,21]. These findings support the

development of novel vector control strategies based on *Wolbachia-Anopheles*

interactions. However, although *Wolbachia* naturally infects 40% - 60% of arthropods

[22,23], infection was delimited to *Anopheles* species within the *gambiae* complex.

Indeed, during the last decade, many other malaria mosquito species worldwide

(n=38) were unsuccessfully screened for *Wolbachia* infection [9,18,24]. Therefore, the

recent discovery of *Wolbachia* infecting species within the gambiae complex across

West Africa couple with the development of new molecular tools, make necessary to

screen other natural occurring *Anopheles* populations for the presence of the

bacterium.

In this study, we investigated the presence of *Wolbachia* in 25 *Anopheles* species in

Gabon, Central Africa. We sampled mosquitoes across the country and in a variety of

ecological settings, from deep rainforest to urban habitats. By using a molecular

approach, we confirmed *Wolbachia* presence in 16 species, including all the major

malaria vectors in Central Africa (*An. gambiae, An. coluzzii, An. funestus, Anopheles*

nili and *Anopheles moucheti*). The prevalence of *Wolbachia* infection was particularly

high in *An. nili* and *An. moucheti*. Phylogenetic analysis revealed that all the infected

mosquito species hosted *Wolbachia* bacteria belonging to the supergroups A or B that

exhibit high genetic diversity. Finally, we explored the co-evolution between

Wolbachia and *Anopheles*. The results have direct implications for the development of

new and environmentally friendly vector control strategies and open new directions

for research on pathogen transmission and reproductive manipulation.

Results

Wolbachia naturally infects a large number of Anopheles species from Gabon.

In this study, we screened 648 mosquitoes from eight sites in Gabon (Fig 1, Table 1,

Table S1). Based on morphological traits [25] and molecular analysis [26-30], we identified

25 *Anopheles* species (Text S1), although further molecular studies may be conducted

to confirm the species status of the new taxa. Our sample included all the species in

which the presence of *Wolbachia* was previously investigated in Africa (*An. gambiae,*

An. coluzzii, An. funestus and *An. coustani)*, with the exception of *An. arabiensis* that

is absent in Gabon (Table 1). By PCR-amplification of a *16S* rRNA fragment [20], we

found 70 *Wolbachia*-positive specimens that belonged to 16 different *Anopheles*

species, distributed throughout the country (Fig 1, Table S1). With few exceptions,

Wolbachia infection rate was lower than 15% in most species (n=11), as observed in

other arthropods [22,23]. The exceptions concerned the *An. moucheti* complex, *An.*

jebudensis and *An. nili,* in which more than 50% of sampled mosquitoes were infected

(Table 1). None of these species was previously screened for *Wolbachia* infection. We

also found an important correlation between the number of screened and the number

of infected individuals (r^2=0.36, Table S1), confirming that the screening effort is the

critical factor for *Wolbachia* detection in *Anopheles*. Indeed, we estimated that a

sample size of 60 individuals per species was needed to quantify correctly a

prevalence lower than 15%, with a probability of 95% (Fig 2). As our sample size

mostly varied from 1 to 58 individuals for each species, with few exceptions in which

sample size was lower than five individuals, the probability of a correct estimation of

Wolbachia prevalence ranged between 68% and 93% (Fig 2).

Wolbachia is maternally inherited in An. moucheti.

Although *Wolbachia* is mainly maternally transmitted [12], horizontal transmission may

occasionally occur in natural conditions [31-33]. To confirm the vertical transmission in

the infected mosquito species, we focused on *An. moucheti* for logistic reasons (i.e.,

highest *Wolbachia* prevalence and ease of sampling). Although *An. moucheti* has

never reproduced in insectary conditions to date, we obtained eggs from six

Wolbachia-infected females that were placed individually in 1.5ml Eppendorf tubes

for egg laying. In total, we analysed the infectious status of 79 progeny by PCR

amplification of the same *16S* rRNA fragment [20] (Table S2) and found that 70 were

infected, with an average vertical transmission frequency of 97.54% (range: 90% -

100%).

Naturally occurring *Wolbachia* strains in *Anopheles* reveal high genetic diversity.

By sequence analysis of the *16S* rRNA fragment PCR-amplified from each *Anopheles*

sample (Table 1), we could assign the *Wolbachia* strains to three pre-existing

supergroups: A (n=5), B (n=64) and C (n=1) (Fig 3). Specifically, we detected

supergroup B *Wolbachia* in 64 mosquitoes belonging to all 16 infected *Anopheles*

species. We found supergroup A *Wolbachia* in five individuals from four species (*An.*

funestus, An. coluzzii, An. vinckei and *An. carnevalei*), thus providing examples of

superinfection, as previously observed in *Ae. albopictus* [34] (Fig 3). Noteworthy, none

of the mosquitoes examined was co-infected by *Wolbachia* strains belonging, for

instance, to the supergroups A and B. Moreover, we confirmed that *Wolbachia*

previously identified in *An. gambiae s.l.* from Burkina Faso and Mali are included in

the supergroups A and B [19,21]. Finally, we found that one *An. coustani* individual was

infected by a *Wolbachia* strain from the supergroup C that is strictly known to infect

filarial worms. We thus investigated the presence of filarial nematode DNA in the

mosquito by PCR amplification and sequencing of a fragment of the *COI* filarial gene

[35], followed by phylogenetic analysis with RAxML. Our results confirmed the

presence of *Dirofilaria immitis* in this specimen (Fig. S1). This canine filarial parasite

hosts *Wolbachia* and is transmitted by many mosquitoes, including *Anopheles* [36].

Therefore, it is not surprising to find an *An. coustani* specimen infected by this filarial

nematode. This specimen was excluded from further investigations.

To expand our knowledge on the *Wolbachia* strains that infect natural *Anopheles*

populations, we PCR-amplified, sequenced and analysed the *16S* rRNA fragment and

also fragments from three other conserved *Wolbachia* genes (*coxA, fbpA* and *ftsZ*) that

are commonly used for strain typing and evolutionary studies [37] (Fig 3). We used a

new nested PCR protocol (see *Methods*) for samples that could not be genotyped

using the classical Multi Locus Sequence Typing (MLST) primers (Table S1). Our

phylogenetic analyses confirm the *16S* results, assigning most of the species to

supergroups A and B. Few exceptions (Fig 3, gene *coxA*) showed some incongruence

with regard to *16S*. They suggest signals of recent recombination between the

supergroups A and B, as it was previously demonstrated [37]. Detailed sequence

analysis revealed that mosquito species belonging to the same group or complex (i.e.,

An. moucheti and *An. gambiae*) displayed a common *Wolbachia* haplotype (Fig. 3 and

Fig. 4). Conversely, some species with lower prevalence displayed a variety of

haplotypes (i.e., *An. coluzzii, An. marshallii, An. vinckei* or *An. funestus*). The case of

An. vinckei was particularly interesting because the three infected specimens

displayed different haplotypes for the analysed *Wolbachia* genes. Moreover, one

specimen (*An. vinckei* M002, Fig 3) revealed a completely different *Wolbachia* strain.

Overall, none of the *Wolbachia* strains discovered in this study matched previously

annotated *Wolbachia* strains or the strain that infects *An. gambiae* in Burkina Faso

and Mali [19,21] (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4). Within the supergroup B, we could easily

distinguish at least two strains. The strain infecting *An. moucheti* (*wANMO*) was

similar to several *Anopheles* species, such as *An. gambiae* or *An. marshallii*, while the

strain infecting *An. nili* (*wANNI*) was more closely related to those found in other

mosquitoes species like *Ae. albopictus* or *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4).

Conversely, the other haplotypes were associated with one specific host.

***Wolbachia* independently evolves in malaria-transmitting mosquitoes.**

As *Wolbachia* is mainly a maternally inherited bacterium, the host mitochondrial

DNA (mtDNA) is a suitable marker to study its evolutionary history in *Anopheles* [38].

Analysis of *COII* sequences from 176 specimens belonging to the 25 *Anopheles*

species collected in Gabon provided the most exhaustive phylogenetic tree of

Anopheles in Central Africa (Fig 4). Concerning *Wolbachia* infection, we observed

the independent acquisition and loss across the different *Anopheles* species clades.

Moreover, the genetic distances of *Anopheles* species and their *Wolbachia*

counterparts were not correlated (Mantel test, p >0.05) (Fig. S2). Despite, mosquitoes

from the same complex, and therefore genetically very close, shared similar

Wolbachia haplotypes (Fig 4 and Fig. S2). Finally, we investigated how *Wolbachia*

evolves within each *Anopheles* species [39]. Our results revealed that *Wolbachia-*

infected and non-infected mosquitoes shared the same mtDNA haplotype (Fig 3),

indicating that infection status and host haplotypes are not associated.

Discussion

The present study provides three key conclusions. First, the genus *Anopheles* includes

a large number of species that are naturally infected by *Wolbachia* (16/25), with high

infection prevalence among major malaria vectors. Second, *Anopheles*-infecting

Wolbachia bacteria show high genetic diversity, with similar haplotypes detected in

different *Anopheles* species. Third, the independent evolution of *Wolbachia* and

Anopheles might be interpreted as multiple acquisition events with horizontal

transmission. The large diversity of *Wolbachia* strains that infect many natural

Anopheles populations opens new perspectives about their use for reducing pathogen

transmission and/or for reproductive manipulation in *Anopheles* with the aim of

decreasing malaria burden in Africa.

For long time, the scientific community has investigated how to use *Wolbachia* for

fighting vector-borne diseases [7-9,11]. In arthropods, *Wolbachia* is broadly spread,

including among *Culex* and *Aedes* mosquitoes. At the genus *Anopheles*, the infection

was delimited to species within the gambiae complex [19,21]. Several hypotheses can be

put forward to explain this underrepresentation. First, low infection prevalence or

local variations could have hindered the discovery of *Wolbachia* infections. In our

study, most *Anopheles* species exhibited a prevalence lower than 15% (Table 1). This

pattern is common in many other arthropods [22,23], and it is usually associated with a

weak manipulation of the host reproduction and/or imperfect maternal transmission [40].

Our statistical analysis confirmed that important sampling and screening efforts are

required to detect *Wolbachia* in species with low infection rates, such as *Anopheles*

(Fig 2). In general, our sampling effort was higher than in previous studies (n <30)

[9,24], which could explain why we found more species infected. Moreover, local

frequency variations among populations could also hinder the detection of *Wolbachia*

infections [41]. For instance, we sampled *An. coluzzii* in three different sites, but we

only found *Wolbachia*-infected mosquitoes at La Lopé (Fig 1, Table S1). Therefore,

sampling in different localities at seasons would improve detection rates. Second,

low-density W*olbachia* infections may not be detected in *Anopheles* by the routinely

used molecular tools, as previously reported for other arthropods [42,43] and recently in

Anopheles gambiae [21]. Our results indicate that conventional amplification

(conventional PCR) analysis allowed detecting *Wolbachia* infection only in 6 of 16

species (*An. moucheti, An m. nigeriensis, An. "GAB-3", An nili, An. jebudensis* and

An. vinckei), presumably with high *Wolbachia* density. Moreover, some *Anopheles*

species with high *Wolbachia* infection rates, such as *An. moucheti* or *An. nili*, were

never screened before this study [9].

Unexpectedly, our work revealed that *Anopheles* species are infected by different

Wolbachia species. Although three previous studies reported *Wolbachia* infection in

the *An. gambiae* germline [19-21], we do not know whether *Wolbachia* naturally invade

and is maternally inherited in the infected mosquito species from Gabon. Indeed,

horizontal gene transfer (resulting in the insertion of *Wolbachia* genes within the

mosquito genome), or parasitism (e.g., by filarial nematodes) could explain the

presence of *Wolbachia* in an organism without vertical transmission. However, the

Wolbachia sequences we identified were genetically close to those found in other

Diptera and we did not observe any signal of extensive divergence, which would be

expected in the case of horizontal gene transfer [44,45] (Figs 3 and 4). Alternatively,

mosquitoes could have been parasitized by *Wolbachia*-hosting nematodes [46,47] or

mites [48]. However, these *Wolbachia* strains belong to other, easily distinguishable

supergroups (Fig 3 and Fig. S1). Moreover, the analysis of *An. moucheti* F1 confirm,

at least in this species, that no other biological *Wolbachia* contamination were present

in our analysis. In conclusion, we found evidences to suggest that *Wolbachia* is

naturally present and maternally inherited in the natural populations of *Anopheles*

species of Central Africa analysed in our study, as in *An. moucheti* (Table S2).

In Central African *Anopheles*, *Wolbachia* acquisition seems to be independent of the

host phylogeny (Figs 3 and 4). Our results revealed that the genetic distances between

Wolbachia and *Anopheles* are not positively correlated (Mantel test, p >0.05) (Fig.

S2). Therefore, *Wolbachia* evolves independently of the host lineage, suggesting that

lateral transfers (i.e., predation [49], parasitism [50]) are the principal ways for *Wolbachia*

acquisition in Gabonese *Anopheles*. For instance, it could be the situation between *An.*

moucheti, An. marshallii An. gambiae and *An. coluzzii*, which share similar

Wolbachia strains. Although the different larval ecology between those species would

suggest other ways of lateral transfer (i.e. during nectar feeding [32]). On the other hand,

we found that all the *Anopheles* species belonging to the same complex shared related

Wolbachia strains (Fig. 4). Permeable reproductive barriers among members of the

same complex could facilitate the intermittent movement of the bacterium [51].

Interestingly, although they share similar *Wolbachia* strains, sibling species showed

different infection prevalence. Indeed, *An. carnevalei* and *An. m. nigeriensis* exhibited

frequencies lower than 15%, whereas *An. nili* and *An. moucheti*, their respective

counterparts and the most important malaria vectors in their complex, displayed

frequencies higher than 60% (Table 1). Moreover, our *An. gambiae* and *An. coluzzii*

populations are infected by different *Wolbachia* strains than those detected in Burkina

Faso and Mali. Similarly, in mosquitoes [41] and ants [52], the same species is infected by

different *Wolbachia* strains according to the region. The availability of whole-genome

sequences for *Wolbachia* strains will enlighten the intricate phylogenetic relationships

among the different strains in *Anopheles* [53].

Conclusions

Wolbachia has emerged as a tangible and compelling tool for controlling vector-borne

diseases [13,14]. In this study, we demonstrated the natural presence of this

endosymbiont bacterium in a large number of *Anopheles* species, including the five

major malaria vectors in Central Africa. It has been shown that *Wolbachia* ability to

interfere with pathogen transmission depends on the bacterium strain. Therefore, our

results offer the opportunity to determine the roles of the different *Anopheles*-

infecting *Wolbachia* strains in suppressing *Plasmodium* transmission and/or

manipulating *Anopheles* reproduction. For instance, the three most infected species

(*An. moucheti*, *An. nili* and *An. vinckei*) play an important role in human (the first

two) and non-human malaria transmission in the deep forest of Gabon [54,55]. Therefore,

we could investigate *Wolbachia* positive [20] and negative [56,57] effects on the

susceptibility to *Plasmodium* infection in their natural hosts. Moreover, the strongest

phenotype impact on suppressing pathogen transmission or reproductive manipulation

has been observed in exogenous *Wolbachia* infections [15,17,58,59]. Therefore, the

availability of *Wolbachia* strains that infect natural *Anopheles* populations offers

promising opportunities for experimental and theoretical studies on *Anopheles*, but

also on other mosquito families that are vectors of other diseases, including *Ae.*

aegypti and *Ae. albopictus*. In conclusion, our findings are merely the "tip of the

iceberg" in the research field on *Wolbachia* use to control vector-borne diseases,

particularly in malaria.

Methods

Research and ethics statements

Mosquitoes were collected in Gabon under the research authorization

AR0013/16/MESRS/CENAREST/CG/CST/CSAR and the national park entry

authorization AE16008/PR/ANPN/SE/CS/AEPN. Mosquito sampling using the

human-landing catch (HLC) method was performed under the protocol

0031/2014/SG/CNE approved by the National Research Ethics Committee of Gabon.

Mosquito sampling and DNA extraction

Mosquitoes were sampled in eight sites across Gabon, Central Africa, from 2012 to

2016 (Fig 1, Table 1, Fig. S1). These sites included sylvatic (national parks) and

anthropic habitats (villages and cities). Adult females were collected using CDC light

traps, BG traps and HLC. Collected specimens were taxonomically identified

according to standard morphological features [25,60]. Then, they were individually stored

in 1.5 mL tubes at -20°C and sent to CIRMF for molecular analysis. When possible,

at least 30 mosquitoes (from 1 to 58) for each *Anopheles* species from different sites

were selected for genomic analysis. Total genomic DNA was extracted from the

whole body using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Genomic DNA was eluted in 100 μL of TE buffer.

Specimens belonging to the *An. gambiae* complex, *An. funestus* group, *An. moucheti*

complex and *An. nili* complex were molecularly identified using PCR-based

diagnostic protocols [26-29,61].

***Wolbachia* screening and Multi Locus Sequence Typing (MLST) analysis**

Wolbachia infection in adult females was detected by nested PCR amplification of a

Wolbachia-specific *16S* rDNA fragment (~400 bp) using 2 μL of host genomic DNA,

according to the protocol developed in Catteruccia's laboratory [20]. Amplification of

this *16S* rDNA fragment in infected *Aedes albopictus* and *Culex pipiens* genomic

DNA (data not shown) confirmed the performance of this nested PCR protocol to

detect *Wolbachia* in broad number of mosquitoes [20]. In order to avoid potential

contaminations, we used *Ae. albopictus* and *Cx quinquefasciatus* from Gabon as

positive controls. As negative controls, we used water and *Ae. aegypti*. Moreover, we

included species and timing control, carrying out the PCR amplifications for each

species independently and in different days. The amplicon size was checked on 1.5%

agarose gels, and amplified *16S* rDNA fragments were sent to Genewiz (UK) for

sequencing (forward and reverse) to confirm the presence of *Wolbachia*-specific

sequences. The DNA quality of all samples was confirmed by the successful

amplification of a fragment (~800 bp) of the mitochondrial gene *COII* in all the

Anopheles species under study [30,62]. PCR products were run on 1.5% agarose gels, and

COII fragments from 176 mosquito specimens of the 25 species were sequenced

(forward and reverse) by Genewiz (UK) for the *Anopheles* phylogenetic studies.

Wolbachia-positive genomic DNA samples (2 μL/sample) were then genotyped by

MLST using three loci, *coxA (~450 bp) ftsZ (~500 bp)* and *fbpA (~460 bp)* [63], and

according to standard conditions [37]. If the three fragments could not be amplified, a

newly-developed nested PCR protocol was used. Specifically, after the first run with

the standard primers, 2 μL of the obtained product was amplified again using internal

primers specific for each gene: *coxA* (coxA_NF-2: 5'-

TTTAACATGCGCGCAAAAGG-3'; coxA_NR-2: 5'-

TAAGCCCAACAGTGAACATATG-3'), *ftsZ* (ftsZ_NF-2: 5'-

ATGGGCGGTGGTACTGGAAC-3'; ftsZ_NR-2: 5'-

AGCACTAATTGCCCTATCTTCT-3'), and *fbpA* (fbpA_NF-1: 5'-

AGCTTAACTTCTGATCAAGCA-3'; fbpA_NR-1: 5'-

TTCTTTTTCCTGCAAAGCAAG-3'). Cycling conditions for *coxA* and *ftsZ* were:

94°C for 5min followed by 36 cycles at 94°C for 15s, 55°C for 15s and 72°C for 30s,

and a final extension step at 72°C for 10min. For *fbpA*, they were: 94°C for 5min

followed by 36 cycles at 94°C for 30s, 59°C for 45s and 72°C for 90s, and a final

extension step at 72°C for 10 min. The resulting fragments (*coxA*, 357bp; *fbpA*, 358-

bp; and *ftsZ*, 424-bp) were sequenced bidirectionally by Genewiz (UK). The new

sequences obtained in this study were submitted to GenBank (accession numbers XX

to XX, Supplementary Table 1).

Phylogenetic and statistical analysis

All *Wolbachia* sequences for the *16S, coxA, fbpA* and *ftsZ* gene fragments and for

Anopheles COII were corrected using *Geneious* R10 [64]. The resulting consensus

sequences for each gene were aligned with sequences that represent the main known

Wolbachia supergroups obtained from GenBank (see Table S1). Only unique

haplotypes for each species were included in the analysis. Inference of phylogenetic

trees was performed using the maximum likelihood (ML) method and RAxML [65] with

a substitution model GTR + CAT [66] and 1000 bootstrapping replicates. Finally, all

MLST *Wolbachi*a sequences were used to build phylogenetic trees using RAxML

(GTR+CAT model, 1000 bootstrapping replicates). Trees were visualized with iTOL

v.3.4.3 [67].

To quantify the accuracy of the observed *Wolbachia* infection prevalence, the

influence of sample size on its estimation was assessed. Assuming that *Wolbachia*

prevalence within a host species follows a beta binomial distribution [23] yielding many

species with a low or a high *Wolbachia* prevalence but few with an intermediate one,

we quantified, for each sample size, the proportion of samples (over 1,000

realizations) that could yield an estimate that was not significantly different from the

prevalence over the whole population with a z-test and a significance threshold at

95%. As expected, sample size can be small for very low or very high prevalence (60

individuals are enough in 95% of cases for these extreme prevalence), while it has to

be much higher for intermediate prevalence values (up to 150 individuals for a

prevalence close to 50%).

All statistical analyses were performed using "R" v3.2.5 (R Development Core Team,

http://cran.r-project.org/), with the addition of the "ggplot2" library [68].

Author contributions

D.A., O.D. and C.P. designed the experiments. D.A., O.A., N.R. and P.K., performed

the experiments. D.A., F.S., C.C., O.D and C.P. analysed the data. D.A. performed the

sequencing analysis. D.A. and B.R. performed the statistical analysis. D.A., N.R.,

M.N., F.M., B.M., C.P. and F.P. provided samples for the analysis. D.A., O.D. and

C.P. wrote the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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628

630 **Figures and Tables**

632 **Table 1**. Summary of the *Anopheles* species screened in this study.

Group/complex	Species	Malaria role	Infected	Tested	Infection (%)
gambiae	*An. gambiae*	H	5	44	11
	An. coluzzii	H	2	58	3
	An. brunnipes		0	1	0
	An. cinctus		0	2	0
moucheti	*An. moucheti*	H, P, A	30	42	71
	An. nigeriensis	h	1	27	4
	An. "GAB-2"		5	8	63
	An. "GAB-3"		1	1	100
funestus	*An. gabonensis*	A	0	29	0
	An. funestus	H	2	37	5
	An. implexus		1	26	4
	An. jebudensis		1	2	50
	An. maculipalpis		0	29	0
nili	*An. nili*	H, A	11	19	58
	An. carnevalei	h, A	2	29	7
	An. "GAB-1"		0	19	0
coustani	*An. hancocki*	h	1	41	2
	An. theileri	h	0	24	0
	An. rodhesiensis		0	4	0
	An. coustani	h, A	2	35	6
	An. paludis	h, A	1	16	6
	An. gr coustani	h	0	51	0
	An. squamosus		0	32	0
	An. marshallii	h, P, A	2	42	5
	An. vinckei	P, A	3	30	10
			70	**648**	

Malaria role: known role for each species in malaria transmission [46,54,69,70] in humans

(H: major, h: secondary), primates (P), other animals (A), or unknown (blank).

Figure 1. Sampling sites and *Wolbachia* infection prevalence.

Map of Gabon showing the main African habitat types (⁷¹, freely available at

http://maps.tnc.org/gis_data.html) and the sampled villages (black dots) was done

using ArcGIS Basic v.10. The prevalence of *Wolbachia* infection (number of infected

Anopheles species and individuals) per site is presented in bar charts. The pink colour

indicates positive species/individuals and blue the total number of species/individuals

screened for *Wolbachia* infection at that site. CCB: Cocobeach; LOP: Lopé; MKG:

Mikongo; BTK: National Park of Plateaux Batékés; FCV: Franceville; LBV:

Libreville; MKB: National Park of Moukalaba-Doudou; BKB: Bakoumba.

Figure 2. Probability of detecting *Wolbachia* infection.

The probability was estimated for each sample size an infection prevalence value. The

probabilityof correct estimation follows a black-blue gradient. Dashed-line delimits

the probability of infection detection at 90%.

Figure 3. Circular phylograms for the 16 *Anopheles* species that were infected with

Wolbachia.

The phylogenetic trees were built with RAxML ⁶⁵. The names of the *Anopheles*

species from which the *Wolbachia*-specific sequences were isolated in this study are

shown in blue (positive for *Wolbachia* supergroup B), red (positive for supergroup A)

and brown (positive for supergroup C), while the names of mosquitoes species

(*Diptera*) from which the previously published *Wolbachia* sequences were isolated

are in green.   Red dots show branches supporting a bootstrap >70% from 1000

replicates.. (A) Circular phylogenetic tree using the *Wolbachia*-specific *16S* rRNA

fragment and *Anaplasma marginale* as outgroup. Different *Wolbachia* strains found in

the same *Anopheles* species are connected by pink lines. Pink bar charts indicate the

number of identical *Wolbachia* haplotypes found in each species. Scale bar

corresponds to nucleotide substitutions per site. (B) Circular phylogenetic trees based

on *coxA, fbpA and ftsZ* fragment sequences using *Dirofilaria immitis* (supergroup C)

as outgroup. Specimens with a different supergroup assignation than *16S* are marked

with asterisks.

Figure 4. Maximum likelihood phylogeny of the 25 *Anopheles* species under study

and *Wolbachia* haplotypes.

The tree was inferred with RAxML [65] using the sequences of *COII* fragments from

176 *Anopheles* specimens belonging to the 25 species under study and rooted with

Anopheles darlingi as outgroup (New World mosquito, diverged 100 Myr ago [72]). Red

dots in branches represent bootstrap values >70% from 1000 replicates. The shape of

each field column represent the *16S* (rectangle), *coxA* (rhombus), *fbpA* (triangle) and

ftsZ (hexagon) genes. The different *Wolbachia* gene haplotypes are indicated with

colour codes (all pink = the newly identified wANMO strain). The bar chart size

indicates the number of specimens for each haplotype and the colour their infection

status: grey, non-infected; blue, infected by the *Wolbachia* supergroup B; red, infected

by supergroup A; brown, infected by supergroup C.

Supplementary Materials

Table S1. Mosquitoes screened in this study and their accession numbers.

ID: Specimen identification name; Sites: Collection locations; Species: Morphological

and molecular identification; COII_hap: COII haplotype for each species; COII:

accession number for cytochrome oxidase subunit II gene; 16S: accession number for

16S rRNA gene; ftsZ: accession number for filamenting temperature-sensitive mutant

Z protein; fbpA: accession number fructose-bisphosphate putative aldolase protein;

coxA: accession number for cytochrome c oxidase subunit I.

Text S1. Mosquito taxonomic and molecular identification.

Table S2. *Anopheles moucheti* F1 used to estimate vertical transmission.

Figure S1. Rooted maximum likelihood phylogeny of the filarial *Wolbachia* sequence

isolated from one *An. coustani* specimen.

The tree was inferred with RAxML [65] using the sequence of the filarial *COII* fragment

amplified from the *An. coustani* specimen BNG78 (in blue) and public sequences

(NCBI) and rooted with *Brugia malayi* as outgroup. The black dot on the branch

indicate a bootstrap value >70% from 1000 replicates.

Figure S2. Scatterplot showing the genetic distances between *Wolbachia* strains (*16S*)

and infected *Anopheles* species *(COII)*.

Genetic distances were estimated as the number of different bases between the

sequences of each pair of infected *Anopheles* specimens. The smoothed conditional

mean (blue line) and the 95% confidence intervals (grey area) were plotted using the

smoothing "gam" function of the ggplo2 library [68].

Major Habitat Types

- Mangroves
- Savanna
- Rainforest
- Water

CCB

LOP

LBV

MKG

FCV

BKB

MKB

BTK

N

0   50   100   200

Km

Tree scale: 0.01 ⊢—⊣