Title: *Culex saltanensis* and *Culex interfor* (Diptera: Culicidae) are

susceptible and competent to transmit St. Louis encephalitis virus (Flavivirus:

Flaviviridae) in central Argentina.

Short title: *Culex* competent vectors for the SLEV

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Abstract

Infectious diseases caused by mosquito-borne viruses constitute health and economic problems worldwide. St. Louis encephalitis virus (SLEV) is endemic and autochthonous in the American continent. *Culex pipiens quinquefasciatus* is the primary urban vector of SLEV; however, *Culex interfor* and *Culex saltanensis* have also been found naturally infected with the virus, suggesting their potential role as vectors.

OBJETIVE The aim of this study was to determine the vector competence of *Cx. interfor* and *Cx. saltanensis* for SLEV from central Argentina in comparison to a recognized vector.

METHODS Adult female mosquitoes of the three *Culex* species were orally infected by feeding on viremic chicks that had been inoculated with SLEV CbaAr-4005. Then, abdomens, legs and saliva blood-fed mosquitoes were analyzed by viral plaque assay and the presence of cytopathic effect on the cell culture monolayer.

RESULTS Mosquitoes were permissive to orally acquire infections, to virus dissemination, and to viral replication in the salivary glands. *Culex saltanensis* and *Cx. interfor* are potential vectors of SLEV.

CONCLUSIONS Our results demonstrate that in Argentina both *Culex saltanensis* and *Culex interfor* are susceptible to SLEV and competent for its transmission. Moreover they are abundant during SLEV activity period in urban area, positive for this virus in nature, and found to feed on natural hosts.

Key words

Introduction

St. Louis encephalitis virus (SLEV) is an endemic neurothropic flavivirus in temperate and subtropical areas of the New World that is maintained between multiple avian hosts and vector mosquito species [1]. In 2002, SLEV reemerged in the central area of Argentina and southern Brazil causing neurological diseases in humans. In 2005, the first outbreak occurred in Córdoba City with 47 confirmed cases and nine fatalities. Factors that promoted this emergence in Argentina include the introduction of a more virulent SLEV strain into a highly susceptible avian hosts community along with possible land use changes (urbanization, agriculture) [2]. Moreover, after 11 years of apparent absence, SLEV was detected as the causative agent of human encephalomyelitis in Arizona and California. Phylogenetic analysis suggested that the SLEV strain detected in Arizona and California, CbaAR-4005, was potentially introduced from Argentina belonging to the same genotype as the reemerging Argentinean virus [2].

SLEV, a similar to other arboviruses transmitted by mosquitoes, is dependent upon a complex interaction with the tissues of mosquito vectors. The virus-vector interaction is essential for its effective transmission and is influenced by both viral and vector components. There are two critical factors in mosquitoes that affect the likelihood for viral transmission after ingesting an infectious bloodmeal. The first occurs after a bloodmeal and infection of the midgut epithelial cells followed by dissemination to the hemocele. Following dissemination, infection of the salivary gland epithelial cells must occur, followed by the subsequent transmission through the saliva [3]. The intrinsic limitations of vector competence are the midgut infection barrier (MIB), the midgut escape barrier (MEB), the salivary gland infection barrier (SGIB) and the salivary gland escape barrier

(SGEB) [3, 4]. Mosquito vector competence [susceptibility, extrinsic incubation period

(EIP), transmission rate], longevity, and host bloodmeal preferences are included among

intrinsic factors. Each of these factors is affected by extrinsic factors such as larval density

and nutrition, temperature, rainfall, host availability and host immunity [4].

In Argentina, the Eared Dove (*Zenaida auriculata*) and Picui Ground-Dove

(*Columbina picui*) are natural hosts of SLEV, while *Culex pipiens quinquefasciatus* is an

efficient vector for the virus [1, 5]. For example, SLEV was detected and isolated in *Cx. p.*

quinquefasciatus mosquitoes during an outbreak of encephalitis in humans in Córdoba City

[6]. These mosquitoes also have been detected during periods without reports of clinical

disease symptoms in Santa Fe province between 1978-1983 [7] and Córdoba between

2001-2004 [8]. In addition viral isolations from field collected mosquitoes, and the

population abundance throughout the City [6], laboratory studies have confirmed horizontal

transmission [5, 9], and the infrequent vertical transmission of SLEV in *Cx. p.*

quinquefasciatus [10]. The presence of naturally SLEV-infected *Culex interfor* and *Culex*

saltanensis, dominant species in urban-vegetated sub-assemblage that frequently feed on

competent hosts, suggest they could participate as vectors in the transmission network of

SLEV [1, 5, 6, 11]. Based on these evidences we argue that *Cx. saltanensis* and *Cx. interfor*

could be playing a role as vectors of SLEV in central Argentina; yet vector competence

experiments have not been conducted on these species. Therefore, we evaluated the vector

competence of *Cx. interfor* and *Cx. saltanensis* against SLEV from central Argentina

compared to the natural vector, *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus*.

Materials and Methods

Capture and maintenance of mosquito colonies

Egg rafts of *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus*, *Cx. interfor* and *Cx. saltanensis* were collected during 2015 at the Bajo Grande sewage treatment plant (31°24'13"S 64°06'08"W) located in east of Córdoba City. The site is surrounded by aquatic vegetation, reservoirs, low income human settlements and crop lands (vegetables and fruits). Authorization for mosquito field collections was obtained from the Municipality of Córdoba.

Egg rafts were collected with a dipper (350 ml) and transferred to polypropylene bottles with a fine brush and transported to the Instituto de Virología "Dr. *J. M. Vanella*" Facultad de Medicina, Universidad Nacional de Córdoba (FM-UNC). Mosquitoes were maintained 27°C, 70% humidity, and 12:12 h light: dark (L: D) photoperiodic. Adult F1 females from the field collected rafts were used in the vector competence assay (Table 1). Egg rafts were placed in a plastic container with distilled water and hatched larvae were fed with suspension of liver powder (0.25 mg/0.5 ml distilled water) every 48 h. After identification, larvae were grouped by species, pupae of the same species were placed inside screened cages (26 x 22 cm) until emergence, are adults provided a 10% sugar solution by soaked cotton balls. Identification of adult females and 4th instars were based on morphological keys [12]. Adult males were also collected to confirm the taxonomic identification based on the genitalia morphology [13, 14].

Viral stock

Adult female mosquitoes were orally infected by feeding than on viremic chicks that had been inoculated with SLEV CbaAr-4005, a strain isolated from *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus*

mosquitoes during the 2005 human encephalitis outbreak in Córdoba City [6]. Viral stock

was obtained from collections stored at the Instituto de Virología "Dr. *J. M. Vanella*" (FM-

UNC). Viral stock was prepared from brain of a infected Swiss albino suckling mice

homogenized in 10% P/V solution in Eagle's minimal essential medium (MEM) (Gibco,

Ireland), supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Natocor, Argentina) and 1% of

gentamycin (Klonal, Argentina). Viral titration was carried out by viral plaque assay in

VERO cell monolayer (African green monkey kidney, *Cercophitecus aethiops*). We

inoculated 0.1 ml of the samples onto VERO cell monolayer on a 12-well plate and

incubated the plates for 60 min at 37°C with 5% CO_2 and a humid atmosphere to favor the

adsorption of the virus to the cell. After incubation 0.5 ml of MEM 2x was mixed with 1%

methylcellulose and added to plate followed by incubation at 37°C for 7 days, until the

formation of lytic plaques. The plates were then fixed with 10% formalin solution for 2 h

and stained with crystal violet for the observation and plaque forming units (PFU) counts.

Viral concentrations were then expressed as $\log_{10}$ PFU per milliliter (PFU/ml).

Vector competence assay

Twenty-four h-old chicks (*Gallus gallus*) were inoculated intraperitoneally with 0.1

ml of a viral suspension containing approximately 400 PFU of SLEV. In accordance with

viremia kinetic [5], 48 hr post-inoculation starved female mosquitoes were fed on chicks

(Table 1). Prior to and following blood feeding by mosquitoes, 0.1 ml of blood was taken

from the chick jugular vein to determine the viremia titer (potential viral load ingested by

mosquitoes). The chick blood was diluted in 0.45 ml of MEM supplemented with 10% FBS

and 1% gentamycin, followed by centrifugation at 4°C for 20 min at 2,300 g before

supernatant stored at -80°C. Titers were determined by plaque assay and expressed as the

mean viremia load before and after feeding ($\log_{10}$ PFU/ml). Mosquitoes were anesthetized

by cold and fully engorged females were maintained in a screened cage at 27°C, H° 70%,

12:12 h L: D photoperiod and provided a 10% sugar solution. After 14 days EIP, the

females were aspirated and anesthetized for 2 min at 4°C, placed on a refrigerated plate

where the legs and wings were gently removed. Saliva samples were recovered after live

females were placed on a flat surface with adhesive tape and the proboscis inserted for 30

min into a capillary tube with 0.001 ml glycerin (Todo Droga, Argentina) [15]. The

abdomen was then removed, and saliva, legs and abdomen samples individually stored at -

80°C with 1 ml of MEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% gentamycin. Legs and

abdomen were individually homogenized by agitation with glass beads for 4 min and

centrifuged at 11,200 g for 30 min. Subsequently, 0.1 ml of the sample was inoculated with

two cellular and viral controls and infective virus particles detected by plaque assay as

described above.

SLEV-negative saliva samples from females with positive abdomen samples were re-

analyzed to reduce false negatives due to dilution. Thus, 0.2 ml of each sample was

inoculated in two cell monolayer plates ('A' and 'B' plates) using the same controls as

mentioned above. 'A' plates followed the same culture protocol described above. For 'B'

plates, MEM, FBS (2%) and gentamycin (1%) were added, and after 96 h the cytopathic

effect (cell detachment, rounding and non confluent monolayer) was determined under an

inverted microscope. To amplify viral particles not detected in the first passage, monolayer

from the 'B' plates were harvested on the fourth day post inoculation, by collecting 0.75 ml

from each of the duplicates wells followed by centrifugation at 9,300 g for 30 min (passage

1). Finally, another plate was inoculated (duplicate, same 'B' plates protocol) with 0.2 ml

of the samples without cytopathic effect in the 'B' plates. Therefore, PFU/ml was recorded

in 'A' plates and the cytopathic effect presence in 'B' plates.

Ethical Guidelines

The protocol used was approved by Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones

Científicas y Técnicas (CONICET) and Instituto de Virología "Dr. *J. M. Vanella*" (FM-

UNC). The chicks were maintained in cages with a substrate of wood shavings and with a

12:12 h L: D photoperiod, 40-80% humidity and 20-26□ temperature. Food and water were

available *ad libitum* (balanced concentrate feed, Gepsa Feeds, Argentina). The

experimental procedures used were to minimize or eliminate pain and distress. Awareness

were taken to avoid chicks suffering, as anesthetic protocols were not used. Euthanasia was

carried out with neck dislocation by a trained laboratory technician.

Statistics analysis

Abdomens, legs, and saliva were considered positive when they showed at least one

PFU or the presence of cytopathic effect on the cell culture monolayer. Infection rates were

defined as the numbers of positive mosquito abdomens of the total number of blood feed

mosquitoes. Dissemination rates were calculated as the number of mosquitoes with positive

legs out of the number of mosquitoes fed analyzed. Transmission rates were determined by

the number of mosquitoes with positive saliva of the total number of mosquitoes that blood

fed. Variations in the infection, dissemination and transmission rates between the three

Culex spp., were analyzed using a generalized linear model (GLM) with binomial

distributions of errors and logit link function. *Culex p. quinquefasciatus* was used as the

control SLEV vector as infections and transmission has been determined [5]. Differences in

viremia levels (range: 2.4-3.4 $\log_{10}$ PFU/ml) between feeding trials could be a source of

variation confounding the outcomes analyzed, therefore viremia level was added as a co-

variable. Significance at infections, dissemination, and transmission models were evaluated

by Likelihood Ratio test (α=0.05, type II error) [16]. Contrast between species using the

Tukey test, where the odds ratio (OR) informed the magnitude for the differences between

species for each significant rate. Normal distribution and homogeneity of the variance of

the residuals for each model were graphically explored [17]. All analyses and graphical

presentations were made in the R [18] with car [19], factorplot [20] and ggplot2 [21]

packages.

Results

The numbers of eggs collected *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus*, *Cx. interfor*, *Cx. saltanensis*

and females that fed and were positive for SLEV is shown in Table 1. There was a narrow

range of viremia during blood feeding (*Cx. p. quinquefasciatus*=2.9 $\log_{10}$ PFU/ml, *Cx.*

interfor=3.5 $\log_{10}$ PFU/ml and *Cx. saltanensis*=3.2 $\log_{10}$ PFU/ml) not contribute to the

variation in infection (LR X^2=1.01, df=2, n=76, p=0.604), dissemination (LR X^2=4.94,

df=2, n=76, p=0.084) and transmission (LR X^2=1.20, df=2, n=76, p=0.548) (Table 2).

Infection rates were not significantly difference among the three species (LR

X^2=3.42, df=2, n=76, p=0.181), although infections rates of *Cx. saltanensis* being slightly

higher (8/12, 67%), followed by *Cx. interfor* (14/25, 56%), and lastly *Cx. p.*

quinquefasciatus (13/39, 33%) (Figure). Viral loads (range=1.3-5.3 $\log_{10}$ PFU/ml) were

evaluated in 89% (31/35) of the three species mosquitoes.

Dissemination rates were significantly higher in *Cx. saltanensis* (8/12, 67%; p=0.01;

OR=8.9, 95% CI [2.12-44.10]) than *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus* (7/39, 18%) and *Cx. interfor*

(10/25, 40%; p=0.09). Both, *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus* and *Cx. interfor* showed similar

dissemination rates (p=0.813). Among infected mosquitoes, dissemination was achieved in

100% of those individuals tested (8/8) for *Cx. saltanensis*, while are 71% (10/14) of *Cx.*

interfor and 54% (7/13) of *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus* demonstrated disseminated infections.

These results represent a potential midgut barrier in *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus* (Figure). Viral

load ranged from 1.0-5.4 $\log_{10}$ PFU/ml for 76% (19/25) of the three species mosquitoes

with viral dissemination.

Transmission rates between *Cx. interfor* (20%, 5/25), *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus* (18%,

7/39) and *Cx. saltanensis* (17%, 2/12); (LR X^2=2.82, df=2, n=76, p=0.093) were not

significantly different (Figure). All *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus* females with disseminated

infections demonstrated SLEV in their saliva (7/7); this rate was only 50% (5/10) in *Cx.*

interfor and 25% (2/8) in *Cx. saltanensis*, indicating a potential salivary gland barrier in

both *Cx. interfor* and *Cx. saltanensis* (Figure). The saliva viral load range was 1.1-2.3 $\log_{10}$

PFU/ml in *Cx. saltanensis* and *Cx. interfor* (5/7, 71%). Because lysis plaques in *Cx. p.*

quinquefasciatus were not confluent the SLEV load in saliva was not able to measure.

Discussion

Culex p. quinquefasciatus, *Cx. interfor* and *Cx. saltanensis* were competent vectors

for SLEV based on 1) acquired infections, 2) disseminated virus, and 3) transmission of

SLEV in the saliva. The three *Culex* species displayed similar infection susceptibility and

comparable salivary gland infections, whereas dissemination patterns appeared to be

species specific. While, *Cx. saltanensis* had a greater chance of becoming infected and

disseminating (67%) SLEV than *Cx. interfor* (infection=56%; dissemination=40%), and

both with respect to *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus* (infection=33%; dissemination=18%) they

were not observed differences.

To be considered a vector, a mosquito species must fulfill several biological and

ecological characteristics [4]. The coevolution between viruses and arthropods determine

the vector competence, and thus the ability to acquire, maintain and eventually transmit an

arbovirus [22]. To systemically infect the vector, the virus must cope with innate immune

responses and overcome tissue barriers associated with the midgut and the salivary glands

[3]. The tested species showed similar infection and transmission rates, but *Cx. p.*

quinquefasciatus and *Cx. saltanensis* demonstrated differences in dissemination rates that

could be related to a species-specific tissue barriers affecting the infection-transmission

kinetics [23-25]. In *Cx. saltanensis* the SGIB/SGEB likely partially limited the transmission

of SLEV since (100%, 8/8) of the infected mosquitoes demonstrated disseminated virus,

transmission, while only 25% (2/8) transmitted it. Turell et al. found that *Psorophora*

cingulata and *Coquillettidia venezuelensis* were susceptible to infection by Venezuelan

equine encephalitis virus; however they had low transmission rates, even after intrathoracic

inoculation, which indicated the presence of SGIB/SGEB in these species [26]. A salivary

gland barrier of *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus* was not observed since 100% those disseminated

with to SLEV transmitted the virus in saliva, while *Cx. interfor* was intermediate vector.

Reisen et al. quantified the viral particles of SLEV expectorated in the saliva of *Culex*

tarsalis (1.1-2.2 $\log_{10}$ PFU) [27] and we obtained similar data for *Cx. interfor* (range=1.1-

2.3 $\log_{10}$ PFU) and *Cx. saltanensis* (1.8 $\log_{10}$ PFU). However, the number of tested

mosquitoes was low, thus our results are not conclusive. Further studies are needed to have

deeper understanding regarding the SLEV infection and dissemination barriers in these

three *Culex* species.

Our results corroborate the findings reported by Diaz et al. on the susceptibility of *Cx.*

p. quinquefasciatus for SLEV infection [5]. These authors observed an infection rate of

70% using the same viral strain CbaAr-4005 and feeding viremia level of 5.2 $\log_{10}$ PFU/ml.

In our study only one third of the *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus* females became infected. This

difference could be related to the lower viremia level that the mosquitoes were exposed to

in this assay (2.9 $\log_{10}$ PFU/ml). Mitchell et al. obtained a transmission rate of (90.5%,

19/21) with strain 78V-6507 for *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus* from Santa Fe Province [9]. In our

study, the transmission rate was (18%, 7/39). Dissemination and transmission rate

formulation in Mitchell and herein are different. Even through dissemination rates are

higher with a higher infectious dose (Mitchell, 4.1-4.8 $\log_{10}$ PFU/ml vs our study, 2.9 $\log_{10}$

PFU/ml), adjusting the formulation for rates the dissemination between Mitchell and the

current study would be similar.

This is the first completed vector competence evaluation of *Cx. interfor* and *Cx.*

saltanensis against SLEV. Future studies to determine the Minimum Infection Threshold

(MIT) and the EIP are needed. Furthermore, we were able to obtain an approximation of

the MIT and EIP for *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus*, *Cx. interfor* and *Cx. saltanensis* of 2.9, 3.5

and 3.2 $\log_{10}$ PFU/ml, respectively, because the infected mosquitoes transmitted SLEV 14

days after infection. Mitchell et al. estimated an MIT in *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus* for SLEV

and determined a value of 2.9 log PFU/ml and 3.5 log PFU/ml for 79V-2533 and 78V-6507

strains, respectively [28]. The low MIT likely was caused by the low viremia titers of the

hosts [29]. For the species used in our study regardless of the host's viremia, we did not

find differences between infection, dissemination and transmission rates. The effect of

viremia could be affected by the small number of individuals used in this study, caused by

low feeding success and high mortality, which limited the sample size. Future studies to

determine the MIT for different time periods are needed, even though our findings showed

at least 14 days of incubation were sufficient for transmission.

The maintenance of SLEV in nature is complex and requires the coexistence in time

and space of mosquito vectors and avian hosts. The detection of naturally infected

mosquitoes does not represent, by itself, a reliable proof of their role as a competent vector.

In the case of *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus*, *Cx. interfor* and *Cx. saltanensis*, there is evidence

supporting their intervention as vectors in SLEV transmission. *Culex p. quinquefasciatus* is

considered the primary vector, because it was abundant and *pools* assayed were positive for

SLEV [6-8, 11]. In 2004, prior to the outbreak of encephalitis in Córdoba City, SLEV-

infected *Cx. interfor* were detected [8]. In 2010, there were small outbreaks of SLEV in

provinces, e.g., Buenos Aires, Córdoba and San Juan [30]. Not long thereafter, SLEV-

infected *Cx. saltanensis* were detected for first time in Córdoba City [11]. The local

populations of *Culex* spp. increase in abundance with peaks in summer, with are temporal

distribution of *Culex* spp. coinciding with the activity peaks of SLEV in human infection

[1, 31]. Adult mosquitoes belonging to the species *Cx. saltanensis* and *Cx. interfor* have

been found in increasing numbers in Córdoba City, with a higher abundance in urban and

periurban areas where vegetation is more robust. This differs from *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus*,

which is predominant throughout a vast range of city-type environments [31]. As far as

vector competence is concerned, all three species were essentially identical in transmitting

SLEV (ranged 17-20%). Our results support the hypothesis that SLEV is transmitted by

multiple sympatric *Culex* spp., and that both *Cx. saltanensis* and *Cx. interfor* can be

considered potential vectors of SLEV. In the United States, this has been observed as well;

however, different mosquito species serve as the primary vector transmitting SLEV in

different geographical areas. *Cx. quinquefasciatus* and *Cx. nigripalpus* are vectors for the

virus in Florida, *Cx. tarsalis* in the western and *Cx. pipiens* in the northern United States

[32].

SLEV is a multi-host and multi-vector flavivirus in the process of an ongoing

reemergence in Argentina. Further studies are required to understand the spatial

compartmentalization of these mosquito species in the transmission network of SLEV by

performing vector capacity studies. By having insights into its ecoepidemiology, we will

have a better understanding of which factors are causing this reemergence and how

biological and environmental factors interact with and affect its activity. In addition,

knowledge of the potential mosquito species vectors of SLEV will provide information to

be used by different public agencies related to human health for the control of vector

mosquito populations and improve efficiency in SLEV prevention programs.

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Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of

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Table 1: The egg collections and number females of *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus*, *Cx. interfor*

and *Cx. saltanensis* in Córdoba City.

Specie	N. egg rafts*	Female total†	Female fed‡	Female infected§
Culex p. quinquefasciatus	12	64	39	13
Culex interfor	15	32	25	14
Culex saltanensis	9	18	12	8

*Number of egg rafts collected for each mosquito species, assuming that each raft was

from a different female. Number of eggs not determined. Male/female ratio of hatched

individuals was ~50%.

† Number of females provided blood meals on viremic chicks.

‡Number of engorged females after feeding on viremic chicks.

§Number of females positives for SLEV.

Table 2: Vector competence for St. Louis encephalitis virus of *Culex p. quinquefasciatus*,
Cx. interfor and *Cx. saltanensis*

Specie	Rate	N*	Rate† (0.95%CIs)	Viral load‡ (0.95%CIs)
Culex p. quinquefasciatus	Infection	13/39	33 (19.1-50.2)	2.4 (1.3-2.9)
Culex p. quinquefasciatus	Dissemination	7/39	18 (7.5-33.5)	2.9
Culex p. quinquefasciatus	Transmission	7/39	18 (7.5-33.5)	No data
Culex interfor	Infection	14/25	56 (34.9-75.6)	4.8 (2.4-5.3)
Culex interfor	Dissemination	10/25	40 (21.1-61.3)	4.8 (1-5.4)
Culex interfor	Transmission	5/25	20 (6.8-40.7)	1.8 (1.1-2.3)
Culex saltanensis	Infection	8/12	67 (34.9-90.1)	4.8 (3.8-5.1)
Culex saltanensis	Dissemination	8/12	67 (34.9-90.1)	4.6 (1.6-5.1)
Culex saltanensis	Transmission	2/12	17 (2.1-48.4)	1.8

*Number of mosquitoes positive for SLEV/total number of mosquitoes assayed

†Infection rate (number of positive mosquito abdomens/total number of mosquitoes

fed); dissemination rate (number of mosquitoes with positive legs/total number of

mosquitoes fed) and transmission rate (number of mosquitoes with positive

saliva/total number of mosquitoes fed) with their 0.95% CIs.

‡ Average SLEV titers ($\log_{10}$ PFU/ml) in abdomen, legs and saliva of each mosquito

species (0.95% CIs).

Figure: Vector competence for SLEV of *Cx. p. quinquefasciatus*, *Cx. interfor* and *Cx.*

***saltanensis*.** Infection rate (number of positive mosquito abdomens/total number of

mosquitoes fed) in light gray, dissemination rate (number of mosquitoes with positive

legs/total number of mosquitoes fed) in gray and transmission rate (number of mosquitoes

with positive saliva/total number of mosquitoes fed) in dark gray; with their 0.95% CIs.

Dashed line indicates significance difference based on pairwise comparison between

species (Tukey Test). OR: Odds ratio.