

Wolbachia modulates Chikungunya replication in Aedes albopictus.

Laurence Mousson, Estelle Martin, Karima Zouache, Yoann Madec, Patrick Mavingui, Anna-Bella Failloux

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1	Wolbachia modulates Chikungunya replication in Aedes albopictus
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4	L. MOUSSON, [*] E. MARTIN, [*] K. ZOUACHE, [#] Y. MADEC, [†] P. MAVINGUI [#] and AB.
5	FAILLOUX [*]
6	
7	
8	
9	* Institut Pasteur, Génétique moléculaire des Bunyavirus, 25-28 rue du Dr Roux, F-75724
10	Paris cedex 15, France
11	[†] Institut Pasteur, Unité de Recherche et d'Expertise Epidémiologie des Maladies Emergentes,
12	25-28 rue du Dr Roux, F-75724 Paris cedex 15, France
13	[#] Université Lyon, F-69022, Lyon, France, Université de Lyon 1, Villeurbanne, CNRS,
14	UMR5557, Ecologie Microbienne, Lyon, France
15	
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20	([*]) Corresponding author:
21	Anna-Bella FAILLOUX
22	Institut Pasteur, Génétique moléculaire des Bunyavirus, 25-28 rue du Dr Roux, F-75724 Paris
23	cedex 15, France.
24	FAX: 00 33 1 40 61 31 51. E-mail: afaillou@pasteur.fr

25 Abstract

26 The Aedes albopictus mosquito has been involved as the principal vector of recent major 27 outbreaks due to the chikungunya virus (CHIKV). The species is naturally infected by two 28 strains of Wolbachia (wAlbA and wAlbB). Wolbachia infections are thought to have spread 29 by manipulating the reproduction of their hosts; cytoplasmic incompatibility is the mechanism 30 used by Wolbachia to invade natural populations of many insects including Ae. albopictus. 31 Here, we report a study on the effects of removing Wolbachia from Ae. albopictus on CHIKV 32 replication and examine the consequences of CHIKV infection on some life-history traits 33 (survival and reproduction) of Wolbachia-free Ae. albopictus. We found that Wolbachia-free 34 mosquitoes maintained a highly heterogeneous CHIKV replication compared to Wolbachia-35 infected individuals. In Wolbachia-infected Ae. albopictus, the regular increase of CHIKV 36 followed by a steady viral load from day 4 post-infection onwards was concomitant with a 37 decline in Wolbachia density. This profile was also detected when examining the two key 38 organs for viral transmission, the midgut and the salivary glands. Moreover, Wolbachia-free 39 Ae. albopictus was not altered in life history traits such as survival, oviposition and hatching 40 characteristics whether infected or not with CHIKV. We found that Wolbachia is not essential 41 for viral replication, its presence could lead to optimize replication from day 4 post-infection 42 onwards, coinciding with a decrease in Wolbachia density. Wolbachia may regulate viral 43 replication in Ae. albopictus, with consequences on survival and reproduction.

44 Introduction

45

46 The Asian tiger mosquito, Aedes albopictus (Skuse), originates from the forests of South-East Asia (Smith 1956). This species does not display any ecological specialization, and has 47 48 succeeded in colonizing temperate zones such as the United States (Sprenger & 49 Wuithiranyagool 1986) and Europe (Scholte & Schaffner 2007), and is currently invading African countries (Fontenille & Toto 2001; Toto et al. 2003; Coffinet et al. 2007). Ae. 50 51 albopictus was incriminated as the main vector of chikungunya virus (CHIKV) in the Indian 52 Ocean region in 2005-2006 (Delatte et al. 2008). In the Reunion Island, a variant of CHIKV 53 harboring an A226V substitution in the E1 glycoprotein (E1-226V) (Schuffenecker et al. 54 2006) was demonstrated to be efficiently transmitted by Ae. albopictus (Vazeille et al. 2007).

55 First discovered in the Culex pipiens mosquito in 1924 (Hertig 1936), the Wolbachia 56 endosymbiont is widely found in natural populations of Ae. albopictus (Ahantarig et al. 57 2008). Most populations are multi-infected with two different Wolbachia strains designated wAlbA and wAlbB (Dobson et al. 2001; Kittayapong et al. 2002; Zhou et al. 1998). Most 58 59 Wolbachia infections in insects are thought to have spread by host reproductive alterations 60 leading to successful increase of bacterial transmission through the female germline (Werren 61 1997). These manipulations can be described as one of two classes. Sex-ratio-distorting strains increase the production of daughters at the expense of sons by male killing (Husrt et 62 63 al. 1999), feminizing genetic males (Rousset et al. 1992) or inducing parthenogenesis 64 (Stouthamer et al. 1993). Other strains induce cytoplasmic incompatibility (CI) (Hoffmann & 65 Turelli 1997) that is known to occur in Ae. albopictus (Kambhampati et al. 1993). When a Wolbachia-infected male mates with an uninfected female, eggs or embryos die and this leads 66 to a decrease in the fitness of uninfected females. CI is due to a failure in histone deposition in 67

68 the male pronucleus after fertilization (Landmann et al. 2009) and to a delay in the nuclear 69 envelope breakdown of the paternal chromatin nucleus, leading to improper condensation of 70 chromatin in the embryo and embryonic death (Tram & Sullivan 2002). In females, 71 Wolbachia infections rescue the modified pronucleus so that normal karyogamy and 72 development can continue. Typically, modification and rescue components are specific for 73 different Wolbachia strains: one Wolbachia strain is often unable to rescue the modification 74 induced by a different strain. CI penetrance is particularly high in mosquitoes and is typically 75 associated with a 90-100% failure of eggs to hatch (Dutton & Sinkins 2005), making Wolbachia a promising candidate for vector control programs (Sinkins & Gould 2006; 76 77 McMeniman et al. 2009).

78 Vertical transmission of symbionts is more efficient in healthy hosts as the fitness of 79 both interacting partners is directly linked to each other. Consequently, vertically transmitted 80 symbionts are in conflict with horizontally transmitted pathogens (Haine 2008). Thus, 81 Wolbachia may protect the host by restricting the uptake or development/replication of a 82 secondary horizontally transmitted pathogen. Whilst the two parasites may be viewed as 83 competing for the host in some sense, both the horizontally transmitted pathogen (e.g., a 84 virus) and the vertically transmitted parasite (Wolbachia) may benefit from the interaction. 85 Drosophila melanogaster is commonly concomitantly infected with Wolbachia and a viral 86 pathogen, Drosophila C virus. The bacterial infection renders the flies more resistant to the 87 virus, reducing the viral load (Hedges et al. 2008; Teixera et al. 2008). The induced resistance 88 to natural viral pathogens may explain Wolbachia prevalence in natural populations 89 (Kittayapong et al. 2002).

Wolbachia is usually facultative (secondary symbionts) in arthropods as aposymbiotic
 individuals are not affected physiologically. Here, we describe experiments in which we

92	sought to examine (i) the effects of removing Wolbachia from Ae. albopictus on CHIKV
93	replication, and (ii) the consequences of CHIKV infection on some life-history traits (survival
94	and reproduction) of Wolbachia-free Ae. albopictus.
95	
96	
97	Materials and Methods
98	
99	Mosquitoes
100	The ALPROV strain of Ae. albopictus from La Reunion Island is naturally infected with
101	wAlbA and wAlbB (Tortosa et al. 2008). The 3 rd generation mosquitoes was maintained using
102	standard conditions at 28°C ± 1°C, 80 % of relative humidity, and under a 16/8 light/dark
103	cycle. Eggs were hatched in water and larvae were reared in pans containing one yeast tablet
104	per liter of dechlorinated tap water. For adult mosquito maintenance, a constant supply of
105	10% sucrose was provided. Females were fed on mice three times a week (OF1 mice obtained
106	from Charles River laboratories, France) and eggs were collected weekly. All experiments
107	involving live vertebrates were performed in compliance with French and European
108	regulations and according to the Institute Pasteur guidelines for laboratory animal husbandry
109	and care.

110

111 Antibiotic treatment to clear Wolbachia

The ALPROV *Ae. albopictus* strain was treated with tetracycline and rifampicin to obtain *Wolbachia*-free ALPROV. Larvae were raised for four successive generations with 10 mg/L (F3), 20 mg/mL (F4), and two times 40 mg/mL of tetracycline (F5 and F6). Briefly, eggs were hatched and first instar larvae were placed in a tetracycline solution until the pupal stage. The

adults hence obtained were reared at 28° C and blood-fed to obtain fresh eggs of the next generation. After each treatment, 10 adults were tested by quantitative PCR for *Wolbachia* infection. After the last larval treatment, one treatment of adults (F6) consisted of introducing a solution of rifampicin (2.5 g/L) dissolved in 10% sucrose into the cage. After one generation of amplification (F7), the 8th generation of ALPROV resulting from four generations of antibiotic treatment and two generations of amplification was used for experiments.

122

123 Virus production

124 The CHIKV (E1-226V) was kindly provided by the French National Reference Center for 125 Arboviruses at the Institut Pasteur. This strain presented an A->V change at position 226 in 126 the E1 glycoprotein (E1-226V) (Schuffenecker *et al.* 2006). Stock virus was produced 127 following three passages on *Ae. albopictus* C6/36 cells (Figure S1), being harvested and 128 stored at -80°C. The titer of the frozen stock virus was estimated as 10^9 plaque-forming units 129 (PFU)/mL.

130

131 Experimental oral infections

Blood-meals were prepared as follows: 1 mL of viral suspension in L-15 medium supplemented with 2 % fetal bovine serum (FBS), was added to 2 mL of washed rabbit erythrocytes supplemented with ATP (5 x 10^{-3} M) as a phagostimulant. The infectious blood, at a titer of $10^{7.5}$ PFU/mL, was transferred to a glass feeder maintained at 37°C and placed on top of the mesh of a plastic box containing 60 of 1-week-old female mosquitoes that had been starved for 24 hours prior to the infection experiment. After 15 min of feeding, engorged females were sorted on ice and transferred to cardboard containers. Females were fed with

139 10% sucrose at 28°C. The entire feeding period lasted one hour during which time no
140 significant change in the viral titer in glass feeders occurred.

141

142 Nucleic acid extraction and quantitative PCR

Individual mosquitoes and dissected organs (midguts and salivary glands) were used to extract total nucleic acids. Extraction was done with NucleoSpin® RNA/DNA buffer set (Macherey-Nagel) coupled to the NucleoSpin® RNA II kit that enables the isolation of both RNA and DNA. RNA was used to determine viral load by quantitative RT-PCR, and DNA to

147 measure *Wolbachia* (wAlbA and wAlbB) density and actin gene content by quantitative PCR.

148 To measure viral load at different days post-infection (pi), five females were killed every day 149 until day 14 pi. After total RNA extraction, a one-step RT-PCR reaction was performed with a Power SYBR® Green RNA-to-CTTM one step kit (Applied Biosystem) in a volume of 25 150 µL containing 2 µL RNA template, 12.5 µL 2X Power SYBR® Green I RT-PCR Mix, 0.25 151 152 μL sense primer (0.1 μM), 0.25μL anti-sense primer (0.1 μM), 0.2 μL RT enzyme mix and 9.8 153 µL of ddH₂O. Primers selected in the E2 structural protein coding region were: sense 154 Chik/E2/9018/+ (CACCGCCGCAACTACCG) and anti-sense Chik/E2/9235/-155 (GATTGGTGACCGCGGCA). The PCR program was: 48°C for 30 min, 95°C for 10 min; 40 156 cycles of 95°C for 15 s, 60°C for 1min, and 72°C for 30 s; 95°C for 20 s with a final ramping 157 of 19 min 59 sec. The size of the PCR product was 217 bp. A standard curve was generated 158 using duplicates of 10-fold serial dilutions of RNA synthetic transcripts. Quantification of 159 viral RNA was achieved by comparing the threshold cycle (Ct) values of samples to those of 160 standards according to the ΔC_t analysis. One Log of infectious viral particles corresponds to 1-2 Log RNA virus (Figure S2). To quantify Wolbachia (wAlbA and wAlbB) and actin gene, 161 162 total DNA was extracted and used for quantitative PCR. For standardization between

163 Wolbachia specific genes and mosquito genes, a plasmid (qQuantAlb) kindly provided by 164 Tortosa et al. (2008) that contains the three loci wAlbA, wAlbB, and the Ae. albopictus actin 165 gene was used. The plasmid was serially diluted to build a standard curve. Primers were: actAlb-dir (GCA AAC GTG GTA TCC TGA C) and actAlb-rev (GTC AGG AGA ACT 166 167 GGG TGC T), QAdir1 (GGG TTG ATG TTG AAG GAG) and QArev2 (CAC CAG CTT 168 TTA CTT GAC C), 183F (AAG GAA CCG AAG TTC ATG) and QBrev2 (AGT TGT GAG 169 TAA AGT CCC), for wAlbA, wAlbB and actin, respectively. From 60 µl of DNA solution 170 extracted from one mosquito, 2 µl of DNA was mixed with 0.3 µM of each primer and 12.5 µl 171 of FastStart Universal SYBR Green Master (Rox). PCR was run for 40 cycles (95°C for 10 172 min, 95°C for 15 sec, 60°C for 1 min). A new standard curve was built for each run, so 173 signals could be normalized with the nuclear actin reference. The mean number of genomes of 174 wAlbA and wAlbB was given per actin copies.

175

176 *Female life history traits*

177 Two traits were examined: survival and reproduction (oviposition/egg hatching). Dead 178 mosquitoes were scored every day to estimate the female life duration following exposure to a 179 blood-meal. Their infection status was checked by quantitative RT-PCR to estimate the viral 180 RNA load. Oviposition was examined by assessing three parameters: (i) the time from the 181 blood-meal to the female's first egg laying, (ii) the number of eggs laid per female, (iii) the 182 time between the first egg laying and female death. Hatching was studied by estimating: (i) 183 the hatching capacity (the proportion of mosquitoes with at least one egg hatched relative to 184 mosquitoes which have laid) and (ii) the hatching rate (the number of eggs hatched compared 185 to the number of eggs laid per mosquito).

187 Measurement of vertical transmission efficiency

Adults resulting from the progeny of *Wolbachia*-free ALPROV exposed to a blood-meal containing E1-226V CHIKV (see above) were screened to detect viral RNA by quantitative RT-PCR in pools of adults.

191

192 Statistical analysis.

193 Kaplan-Meier survival curves were used to describe survival in CHIKV-infected and 194 uninfected mosquitoes, and these curves were compared using the logrank test. The CHIKV 195 load estimated in females at their death was compared using an analysis of variance according 196 to the life duration divided into three categories (≤ 5 days, 6-10 days, and 11-15 days).

197 For Wolbachia-free mosquitoes, exposed or not to an infectious blood-meal with E1-226V 198 CHIKV, the time to the first egg laying was also described using Kaplan-Meier estimates, and 199 survival curves were compared using the logrank test. Then the effect of CHIKV infection on 200 the total number of eggs laid was investigated using a negative binomial regression model. 201 This model is relevant when analyzing incidence, as it enables the control for life duration, 202 and effectively provides incidence rate ratios (IRR) and their 95% confidence intervals. The 203 significance level of the covariate was tested using Wald's test. We also estimated the time between the first oviposition and mosquito death, using Kaplan-Meier estimates, and 204 205 compared these curves using the logrank test.

For each mosquito strain, the hatching capacity was studied through the assessment of the proportion of mosquitoes with at least one hatched egg. These proportions were compared using a Fisher's exact test. Hatching rates, i.e. the proportion of hatched eggs among all eggs laid by a given mosquito, were compared using an analysis of variance according to the status of infection (infectious blood-meal or non-infectious blood-meal).

211 All statistical analyses were performed using the STATA software (StataCorp LP, Texas,

- 212 USA).
- 213
- 214
- 215 **Results**
- 216

217 Removing Wolbachia from infected mosquitoes by antibiotic treatments

Attempts to clear *Wolbachia* from a doubly-infected *Ae. albopictus* were only successful when both larvae and adults were treated. Rearing larvae under different concentrations of tetracycline (10, 20 and 40 mg/mL) from the F3 to the F6 generation did not totally clear the *Wolbachia* infection. An additional treatment of adult mosquitoes with rifampicin was necessary to completely remove the bacteria. PCR assays of the F8 generation demonstrated that all adults tested were *Wolbachia*-free (Figure 1) as compared to positive signals detected on untreated individuals.

225

226 CHIKV replication in Wolbachia-infected and Wolbachia-free mosquitoes

227 For Wolbachia-infected Ae. albopictus, the number of viral RNA copies increased after exposure to the blood-meal containing CHIKV (Figure 2A); from $10^{5.7} \pm 10^{0.2}$ viral RNA 228 copies/mosquito (trial 1) or $10^{6.2} \pm 10^{0.2}$ viral RNA copies/mosquito (trial 2) at day 0 pi to 229 $10^{8.5} \pm 10^{0.3}$ viral RNA copies/mosquito (trial 1) or $10^{8.9} \pm 10^{0.4}$ viral RNA copies/mosquito 230 (trial 2) at day 4 pi. This number stayed steady until day 14 pi: $10^{8.3} \pm 10^{0.1}$ viral RNA 231 copies/mosquito (trial 1) and $10^{8.5} \pm 10^{0.2}$ viral RNA copies/mosquito (trial 2). The two trials 232 233 that concerned Wolbachia-infected Ae. albopictus gave similar profiles of viral replication 234 (Figure 2A). By contrast, Wolbachia-free Ae. albopictus exhibited a high heterogeneity in the

number of viral RNA harbored by mosquitoes (Figure 2B); despite a roughly similar kinetic of replication with an increase from ingestion until day 4 pi $[10^{7.3} \pm 10^{1.3} \text{ viral RNA}$ copies/mosquito (trial 1) and $10^{8.7} \pm 10^{0.5}$ viral RNA copies/mosquito (trial 2)] followed by a plateau until day 14 pi. Some mosquitoes were able to efficiently sustain viral replication beyond this time, whereas others presented slightly less viral RNA than that ingested (Figure 2B).

241

242 Variation of Wolbachia density following CHIKV infection

243 The relative numbers of Wolbachia are presented as a ratio of gene copy numbers of Wolbachia to host actin. At day 0 pi, when Wolbachia-infected Ae. albopictus ingested an 244 245 infectious blood-meal containing E1-226V CHIKV, the Log number of wAlbA and wAlbB per mosquito was close to 1: $10^{1.0} \pm 10^{0.01}$ for wAlbA strain and $10^{1.0} \pm 10^{0.02}$ for wAlbB strain. 246 At day 2 pi, these numbers started to decrease to gradually reach $10^{0.6} \pm 10^{0.07}$ wAlbA and 247 $10^{0.5} \pm 10^{0.08}$ wAlbB at day 14 pi (Figure 3A). Conversely, for *Wolbachia*-infected mosquitoes 248 249 having ingested a non-infectious blood-meal, Wolbachia densities did not vary substantially (Figure 3B) from day 0 pi $(10^{1.0} \pm 10^{0.02} \text{ wAlbA} \text{ and } 10^{0.9} \pm 10^{0.03} \text{ wAlbB})$ to day 14 pi $(10^{1.0} \pm 10^{0.02} \text{ wAlbA} \text{ and } 10^{0.9} \pm 10^{0.03} \text{ wAlbB})$ 250 $10^{0.04}$ wAlbA and $10^{0.9} \pm 10^{0.08}$ wAlbB). 251

252

253 Viral and bacterial densities in midguts and salivary glands

To examine the microbial density in the midgut and the salivary glands, each organ was dissected and tested separately. The load of viral RNA in *Wolbachia*-infected *Ae. albopictus* was found to reach a maximum at day 3 pi in the midgut $(10^{8.8} \pm 10^{0.5} \text{ viral RNA})$ and at day 4 pi in the salivary glands $(10^{2.5} \pm 10^{0.5} \text{ viral RNA})$ (Figure 4A). After this, values varied from $10^{8.9} \pm 10^{0.1}$ viral RNA (day 4 pi) to $10^{9.3} \pm 10^{0.1}$ viral RNA (day 12 pi) in midguts, and from 259 $10^{2.4} \pm 10^{0.8}$ viral RNA (day 5 pi) to $10^{2.7} \pm 10^{0.6}$ viral RNA (day 12 pi) in the salivary glands 260 (Figure 4A). As *Wolbachia*-free *Ae. albopictus* individuals exhibited high variability in viral 261 load (see above), no measurement was performed on these organs.

When examining the two organs, we only considered *Wolbachia*-positive organs as the bacteria were not detectable in some of them. Thus, the mean number of *w*AlbA strain tends to decrease from $10^{1.0} \pm 10^{0.1}$ at day 1 pi to 0 at day 7 pi in midguts, and from $10^{0.9} \pm 10^{0.5}$ at day 2 pi to 0 at day 7 pi in the salivary glands (Figure 4B). In contrast, after only a slight reduction, the relative number of *w*AlbB strain remained stable at around $10^{0.5}$ *Wolbachia* per *actin* copies (Figure 4C).

268

269 CHIKV infection and life-history traits of Ae. albopictus cleared of Wolbachia

270 Female survival after CHIKV infection

In *Wolbachia*-free *Ae. albopictus*, the mean (\pm standard deviation) lifespan of CHIKVinfected mosquitoes was 11.6 \pm 7.0 days (trial 1) and 8.4 \pm 5.3 days (trial 2) (see Table). This lifespan was slightly increased in CHIKV-uninfected mosquitoes: 14.6 \pm 11.9 days and 9.6 \pm 6.3 days for trial 1 and trial 2, respectively (see Table). Nevertheless, survival was not significantly different between CHIKV-infected and uninfected mosquitoes (logrank test: p = 0.08 and p = 0.022 in trials 1 and 2, respectively) (Figure 5).

277

278 CHIKV load in females according to lifespan

Wolbachia-free Ae. albopictus females were categorized according to their life duration of: $\leq 5, 6$ to 10, and 11 to 15 days. Females living more than 16 days were not considered in this study, as they were so few. The CHIKV viral load distribution in these three categories of mosquitoes is presented in Figure 6. Using an ANOVA, lifespan had a significant effect on

283	the CHIKV viral load ($p = 0.004$ and $p < 10^{-4}$ in trials 1 and 2, respectively). In both trials, the
284	CHIKV viral load was higher in females living 6 to 10 days than in females living less or
285	equal to 5 days. On the other hand, the CHIKV viral load was similar in females living 6 to 10
286	days to those living 11 to 15 days.
287	
288	Oviposition
289	Time to first egg laying
290	The proportions of Wolbachia-free mosquitoes that laid eggs when exposed to CHIKV
291	(68.9% and 73.3% in trials 1 and 2, respectively) were close to those that were not exposed to
292	CHIKV (47.4% and 82% in trials 1 and 2, respectively). Although Wolbachia-free
293	mosquitoes exposed to CHIKV laid eggs slightly earlier (see Table), the Kaplan-Meier
294	estimates did not show any significant difference in the time from the blood-meal to egg
295	laying $(p = 0.05 \text{ in trial } 1 \text{ and } p = 1 \text{ in trial } 2)$.
295 296	laying ($p = 0.05$ in trial 1 and $p = 1$ in trial 2). Number of eggs laid per mosquito
295 296 297	 laying (p = 0.05 in trial 1 and p = 1 in trial 2). <i>Number of eggs laid per mosquito</i> Using a negative binomial regression model, no significant difference was found in the
295 296 297 298	 laying (p = 0.05 in trial 1 and p = 1 in trial 2). <i>Number of eggs laid per mosquito</i> Using a negative binomial regression model, no significant difference was found in the number of eggs laid, between <i>Wolbachia</i>-free mosquitoes that had taken an infectious blood-
295 296 297 298 299	 laying (p = 0.05 in trial 1 and p = 1 in trial 2). <i>Number of eggs laid per mosquito</i> Using a negative binomial regression model, no significant difference was found in the number of eggs laid, between <i>Wolbachia</i>-free mosquitoes that had taken an infectious blood-meal and those that received a non-infectious blood-meal (incidence rate ratio [IRR] (95% CI)
295 296 297 298 299 300	 laying (p = 0.05 in trial 1 and p = 1 in trial 2). <i>Number of eggs laid per mosquito</i> Using a negative binomial regression model, no significant difference was found in the number of eggs laid, between <i>Wolbachia</i>-free mosquitoes that had taken an infectious blood-meal and those that received a non-infectious blood-meal (incidence rate ratio [IRR] (95% CI) of 1.16 (0.75 – 1.79)) (see Table).
295 296 297 298 299 300 301	laying (p = 0.05 in trial 1 and p = 1 in trial 2). Number of eggs laid per mosquito Using a negative binomial regression model, no significant difference was found in the number of eggs laid, between Wolbachia-free mosquitoes that had taken an infectious blood- meal and those that received a non-infectious blood-meal (incidence rate ratio [IRR] (95% CI) of 1.16 (0.75 – 1.79)) (see Table). <i>Time between first oviposition and mosquito death</i>
295 296 297 298 299 300 301 302	 laying (p = 0.05 in trial 1 and p = 1 in trial 2). <i>Number of eggs laid per mosquito</i> Using a negative binomial regression model, no significant difference was found in the number of eggs laid, between <i>Wolbachia</i>-free mosquitoes that had taken an infectious blood-meal and those that received a non-infectious blood-meal (incidence rate ratio [IRR] (95% CI) of 1.16 (0.75 – 1.79)) (see Table). <i>Time between first oviposition and mosquito death</i> Time between the first oviposition and mosquito death was estimated using Kaplan-Meier
 295 296 297 298 299 300 301 302 303 	laying (p = 0.05 in trial 1 and p = 1 in trial 2). Number of eggs laid per mosquito Using a negative binomial regression model, no significant difference was found in the number of eggs laid, between Wolbachia-free mosquitoes that had taken an infectious blood-meal and those that received a non-infectious blood-meal (incidence rate ratio [IRR] (95% CI) of 1.16 (0.75 – 1.79)) (see Table). Time between first oviposition and mosquito death Time between the first oviposition and mosquito death was estimated using Kaplan-Meier survival curves. No significant difference between mosquitoes exposed and those not exposed
 295 296 297 298 299 300 301 302 303 304 	 laying (p = 0.05 in trial 1 and p = 1 in trial 2). <i>Number of eggs laid per mosquito</i> Using a negative binomial regression model, no significant difference was found in the number of eggs laid, between <i>Wolbachia</i>-free mosquitoes that had taken an infectious blood-meal and those that received a non-infectious blood-meal (incidence rate ratio [IRR] (95% CI) of 1.16 (0.75 – 1.79)) (see Table). <i>Time between first oviposition and mosquito death</i> Time between the first oviposition and mosquito death was estimated using Kaplan-Meier survival curves. No significant difference between mosquitoes exposed and those not exposed to CHIKV was observed in either trial (p = 0.21 and p = 0.90 in trials 1 and 2, respectively)
 295 296 297 298 299 300 301 302 303 304 305 	 laying (p = 0.05 in trial 1 and p = 1 in trial 2). <i>Number of eggs laid per mosquito</i> Using a negative binomial regression model, no significant difference was found in the number of eggs laid, between <i>Wolbachia</i>-free mosquitoes that had taken an infectious blood-meal and those that received a non-infectious blood-meal (incidence rate ratio [IRR] (95% CI) of 1.16 (0.75 – 1.79)) (see Table). <i>Time between first oviposition and mosquito death</i> Time between the first oviposition and mosquito death was estimated using Kaplan-Meier survival curves. No significant difference between mosquitoes exposed and those not exposed to CHIKV was observed in either trial (p = 0.21 and p = 0.90 in trials 1 and 2, respectively) (see Table).

307 *Proportion of mosquitoes with at least one egg hatched*

308 When comparing the proportion of mosquitoes with at least one egg hatched, using the

309 Fisher's exact test, no significant difference was found between mosquitoes exposed to a non-

- 310 infectious blood-meal and those exposed to an infectious blood-meal (p = 0.66 and p = 0.84 in
- 311 trials 1 and 2, respectively) (see Table).
- 312 Hatching rate per female
- 313 Using an ANOVA, the hatching rate was not found to be significantly different in CHIKV-
- infected than in uninfected mosquitoes (p = 0.43 and p = 0.23 in trials 1 and 2, respectively).
- 315 It should be noted that overall the number of eggs laid and the hatching rate of eggs were

surprisingly low. The BSL-3 conditions in which the experiments were carried out might

317 explain this, as these two traits have higher values in regular insectaries (data not shown).

318

316

- 319 Vertical transmission efficiency
- 320 In both trials, no viral RNA was detected in offspring whose Wolbachia-free parents had been
- 321 exposed to CHIKV. A total of 1054 offspring (528 males and 526 females) resulting from 66
- 322 females in trial 1 and 1070 individuals (538 males and 532 females) from 87 females in trial 2

323 were negative for CHIKV as monitored by PCR.

324

325

326 Discussion

327

We have shown that the clearance of *Wolbachia* infection from one line of *Ae. albopictus* originated from La Reunion Island induced distinct CHIKV replication profiles: some individuals of *Wolbachia*-free mosquitoes harbored less viral RNA and others hosted 10,000

times more viral RNA than the amount ingested. In contrast in *Wolbachia*-infected *Ae*. *albopictus*, a homogeneous profile of viral replication concomitant with a decrease in *Wolbachia* density was observed. This profile was also detected when examining the two key
organs for viral transmission, midgut and salivary glands. Nevertheless, removing *Wolbachia*did not induce any significant changes of mosquito response to infection by CHIKV. Indeed,
life history traits, survival, oviposition and hatching characteristics did not differ between *Wolbachia*-free mosquitoes that had been exposed and those not exposed to viral infection.

338

339 CHIKV infection leads to a decrease of Wolbachia density in Ae. albopictus

340 When infected with CHIKV, Ae. albopictus harboring Wolbachia became the site of intensive 341 viral replication yielding an ~1000-fold increase in viral RNA copies at day 4 pi (Figure 2A). 342 Concomitantly, the Wolbachia load decreased from day 2 to day 5 pi at a time when viral 343 replication was increasing (Figure 3A). The Wolbachia load was 3 times less from day 5 pi. 344 (~0.5 log). The Wolbachia decrease might result from competition for resources with 345 replicating CHIKV in mosquito cells. Since both Wolbachia and CHIKV occupy the same 346 niche, i.e. the cell cytoplasm, the presence of Wolbachia could reduce the pool of amino acids 347 available to ensure the achievement of the viral cycle. Thus, the intensive phase of CHIKV replication in mosquitoes coincides with a decrease of Wolbachia densities. The decline was 348 349 not observed when Wolbachia-infected mosquitoes ingested a non-infectious blood-meal 350 (Figure 3B). Moreover, it has been shown that in insecticide-resistant Culex pipiens, 351 Wolbachia densities tended to increase, suggesting that resistant mosquitoes suffering from a 352 physiological resistance cost might control Wolbachia loads less efficiently (Berticat et al. 353 2002). This pattern was not observed from our data, which suggests a different relationship in 354 Ae. albopictus dealing with multiple infection, virus plus bacteria, in accordance with the

355 work of Tortosa et al. (2008). Indeed, naturally occurring Wolbachia strains are proved to 356 present antiviral protection in insects (Teixera et al. 2008; Hedges et al. 2008). Virus particles 357 accumulate more slowly and virus induced mortality is delayed. Wolbachia density plays an 358 important role for antiviral protection. Thus, high densities may be important for antiviral 359 protection resulting from a competition between virus and bacteria for limited host resources 360 (Osborne et al. 2009). Nevertheless, Wolbachia-mediated antiviral protection is not 361 ubiquitous (Osborne et al. 2009). It is therefore likely that the interactions between Wolbachia 362 and viruses impact on the distribution of both microbes in insect populations. It has been 363 proposed that a life-shortening strain, Wolbachia pipientis (wMelPop) transfected in Ae. 364 *aegypti* might be used to alter mosquito population age structure, thereby reducing arbovirus 365 transmission without eradicating the mosquito population (McMeniman et al. 2009). 366 Moreover, wMelPop probably causes tissue damages which leads to reduced blood-feeding 367 success (Turley et al. 2009).

368 One question that needed to be addressed was whether this effect was detectable in all organs, 369 given that Wolbachia is widespread throughout tissues. Salivary glands and the midgut have 370 both been reported to be target tissues for Wolbachia infection in Ae. albopictus (Zouache et 371 al. 2009a). In addition, CHIKV must infect and subsequently pass through the epithelium of 372 the mosquito midgut and then reach the salivary glands for further replication before 373 transmission can occur. We showed that the two organs, midgut and salivary glands, sustained 374 CHIKV replication in agreement with the pattern obtained when examining entire 375 mosquitoes: an increase of viral load from day 0 to day 4 pi and a plateau from day 5 pi 376 onwards (Figure 4). In addition, the load of Wolbachia detected in both organs decreased over 377 time as we have shown in the entire body. Thus, CHIKV replication might interfere with 378 Wolbachia densities hosted in the midgut and salivary glands of Ae. albopictus. Conversely, it

379 has been shown that the strain wMelPop-CLA transfected in Ae. aegypti reduces the ability of 380 dengue and chikungunya viruses to establish high infections in the mosquito suggesting an 381 interference effect of Wolbachia with the pathogen through the expression of some immune 382 effector genes (Moreira et al. 2009). To control viral infection, insects can activate immune 383 signaling pathways such as Toll (Sanders et al. 2005; Xi et al. 2008), JAK/STAT (Souza-384 Neto et al. 2009) or Imd/JNK (Sanders et al. 2005) that may in turn also affect the bacterial 385 symbionts (for a review on mosquito antiviral responses to arboviruses, Fragkoudis et al. 386 2009). Thus, the competence of Ae. albopictus naturally infected by Wolbachia to CHIKV is 387 suggested to be related to lower densities of Wolbachia limiting its ability to effectively 388 interfere with virus replication. It is not clear whether Wolbachia is able to remain a benign 389 symbiont simply by maintaining a very low replication rate independently of the host cell 390 cycle, or whether the bacteria actively coordinates its replication with that of the host through 391 unknown mechanisms. Most studies tend to suggest that Wolbachia may simply be slow 392 replicators. However, work of Ruang-Areerate et al. (2004) supports the existence of 393 synchrony between Wolbachia replication and that of its host cells in Ae. albopictus.

394

395 CHIKV infection does not affect life history traits of Wolbachia-free Ae. albopictus

We found that infection with CHIKV did not significantly affect mosquito survival, female oviposition and egg hatching of *Wolbachia*-free mosquitoes, as no significant differences was found between CHIKV-infected females and CHIKV-uninfected females (see Table and Figure 5). Conversely, we found increased life spans with *Wolbachia*-infected *Ae. albopictus* regardless of the infection with CHIKV (unpublished data). These results are in agreement with a theory predicting that as a vertically transmitted bacterium, *Wolbachia* should be 402 selected to increase its transmission by providing fitness benefits to its host (Lipsitch *et al.*403 1995).

404 Furthermore, removing Wolbachia from Ae. albopictus necessitated four generations of 405 antibiotic treatments: larval treatment with tetracycline for three generations and both 406 larval/adult treatment with tetracycline and rifampicin for one generation. These two 407 antibiotics differ in their modes of action; tetracycline affects protein synthesis while 408 rifampicin inhibits prokaryotic DNA-dependent RNA polymerase (Raoult & Drancourt 1991). 409 Tetracycline alone failed to completely clear Wolbachia. This ineffectiveness of tetracycline 410 treatment may come from either the potential resistance of Wolbachia (Kambhampati et al. 411 1993) or the inability of the antibiotic to reach all Wolbachia cell niches. Treatments 412 associating tetracycline and rifampicin generated Wolbachia-free individuals, avoiding a 413 requirement of establishing isofemale lines to produce aposymbiotic lines. Their maintenance 414 would have been difficult with a higher mortality due to an increased homozygosity of 415 deleterious loci generated by inbreeding effects. However, Wolbachia may not be the only 416 bacteria removed by antibiotic treatments. Other intracellular bacteria could be affected by 417 antibiotic treatment (Zouache et al. 2009b), contributing to the observed effects on CHIKV 418 replication in mosquitoes. Indeed, the bacteria Acinetobacter has been detected in the midgut 419 and salivary glands of Ae. albopictus females (Zouache et al. 2009a). Our repeated treatments 420 with antibiotics did not succeed to completely remove bacteria of the genus Acinetobacter 421 from Ae. albopictus (data not shown). Interestingly, a recent study has shown that 422 Acinetobacter antiviralis sp. nov. from Tobacco plant roots was able to produce an antiviral 423 compound with inhibitory effects on tobacco mosaic virus multiplication (Lee et al. 2009). 424 Thus, the role of other bacteria hosted by Ae. albopictus on the transmission of CHIKV 425 should be investigated.

426

427 Removing Wolbachia does not reduce enough Ae. albopictus lifespan to affect the 428 transmission of CHIKV

429 A female mosquito must survive longer than the extrinsic incubation period to successfully 430 contribute to pathogen transmission (Hardy et al. 1983). This time period lasts from pathogen 431 ingestion to potential infectivity; this period has been estimated to be two days for Ae. 432 albopictus infected with CHIKV (Dubrulle et al. 2009). Mosquito survival is therefore 433 considered a critical component of a vector's population capacity for pathogen transmission. 434 Thus, removing Wolbachia does not reduce enough the mosquito lifespan to alter the 435 transmission efficiency of CHIKV. However, when transinfected into a naturally Wolbachia-436 free Aedes aegypti, the main vector of several arboviruses, Wolbachia wMelPop strain is able 437 to shorten the adult mosquito lifespan, with the potential to reduce disease transmission 438 (Brownstein et al. 2003). CHIKV replication in Ae. aegypti exhibits a similar profile to that in 439 Wolbachia-infected Ae. albopictus (data not shown). Horizontal gene transfer from 440 Wolbachia to Ae. aegypti has been reported which might explain this similarity (Klasson et al. 441 2009). The transfer of some genes from Wolbachia to Ae. aegypti is probably accomplished 442 through a mechanism of transfer via nuclear-phage recombination.

Although the distribution patterns of *Wolbachia* vary among hosts, *Wolbachia* is consistently found in the gonads (Dobson *et al.* 1999). It is from this organ that *Wolbachia* ensures its transmission to subsequent generations *via* eggs. As for other vertically transmitted intracellular symbionts, *Wolbachia* must maintain a replication rate that does not exceed that of its host cells if it is to remain benign. Bacterial densities in the ovaries have a direct bearing on transmission efficiencies. Therefore, too high densities of *Wolbachia* in the ovaries could cause a reduction in reproductive fitness. It has been shown that in *Drosophila*, low densities

450 of Wolbachia in ovaries are sufficient to secure perfect transmission of bacteria to progenies. 451 Thus, an attenuation of fitness costs could be explained by concomitant reductions in 452 Wolbachia replication rates in ovaries (McGraw et al. 2002). In addition, the absence of 453 Wolbachia does not favor maternal transmission of CHIKV as no virus has been detected in 454 2124 mosquito offspring (1,054 adults in the trial 1 and 1,070 in the trial 2). Moreover, when 455 analyzing Wolbachia-infected Ae. albopictus from the Reunion Island, Vazeille et al. (2009) 456 did not succeed in detecting CHIKV under laboratory conditions. Vertical transmission of 457 CHIKV might be a rare and uncommon phenomenon (Mourya 1987) as we did not find any 458 infected individuals in the progenies of infected females. Even rare, vertical transmission is 459 described as one mechanism for alphavirus maintenance in nature (Dhileepan et al. 1996; 460 Fulhorst et al. 1994).

461

462 Our results pertaining to CHIKV replication in Wolbachia-infected Ae. albopictus adds to the 463 perception that the response of a host to a particular pathogen also depends on the presence of 464 other microorganisms as described in the case of Ae. aegypti infected with dengue virus (Xi et 465 al. 2008). The infection by Wolbachia may alter the intracellular environment to allow its 466 survival within the host. For example, Wolbachia could interfere with iron in a way that limits 467 oxidative stress and cell death, thus promoting its persistence within host cells (Kremer et al. 468 2009). Here, we have shown that in spite of the fact that Wolbachia is not essential for viral 469 replication, its presence could lead to optimize replication from day 4 pi onwards, coinciding 470 with a decrease in Wolbachia density. Thus the presence of the symbiont could maintain the 471 complexity of the viral population. Whether this observation could be extrapolated to other 472 viruses remains to be determined.

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633 Figure Legends

634

Figure 1. Wolbachia densities, wAlbA (■) and wAlbB (♦), across treatments with antibiotics.
Larval treatments were done with tetracycline from generations F3 to F5 and both larval/adult
treatments with tetracycline/rifampicin from generations F6 to F8. To quantify *Wolbachia*,
total DNA was extracted and used for quantitative PCR. The mean number of genomes of
wAlbA and wAlbB was given per *actin* copies.

640

Figure 2. Variations of viral loads in *Wolbachia*-infected (A) and *Wolbachia*-free (B) *Ae. albopictus* after exposure to a blood-meal with CHIKV E1-226V. Two trials were carried out and measures were done with 5 females sacrificed at different days pi. Individual mosquitoes were used to extract both DNA and RNA. RNA was used to determine viral load by quantitative RT-PCR, and DNA to measure *Wolbachia* density and *actin* gene content by quantitative PCR. The mean number of genomes of *w*AlbA and *w*AlbB was given per *actin* copies.

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649 Figure 3. Variations of wAlbA and wAlbB in Wolbachia-infected Ae. albopictus after 650 exposure to an infectious blood-meal with CHIKV E1-226V (A) or to a non-infectious blood-651 meal (B). Two trials were carried out and measures were done with 5 females sacrificed at 652 different days pi. DNA was extracted from each individual mosquito to measure Wolbachia 653 density and *actin* gene by quantitative PCR. The mean number of genomes of wAlbA and 654 wAlbB was given per actin copies. These low levels of wAlbA and wAlbB which are not found in field-collected mosquitoes could be the consequence of laboratory rearing 655 656 conditions.

658 Figure 4. Densities of viral RNA (A), wAlbA (B) and wAlbB (C) in midguts and salivary 659 glands of Wolbachia-infected Ae. albopictus after exposure to an infectious blood-meal with 660 CHIKV E1-226V. Five females were dissected at different days post-infection. From each 661 female, organs were dissected and treated individually to extract both DNA and RNA. RNA 662 was used to determine viral load by quantitative RT-PCR, and DNA to measure Wolbachia 663 density and *actin* gene content by quantitative PCR. The mean number of genomes of wAlbA 664 and wAlbB was given per actin copies. 665 Figure 5. Survival of Wolbachia-free Ae. albopictus after exposure to an infectious or non-666 infectious blood-meal with CHIKV at a titer of 10^{7.5} PFU/mL. Dead mosquitoes were scored 667 668 every day to estimate the female life duration following exposure to a blood-meal. 669 670 Figure 6. CHIKV loads in Wolbachia-free Ae. albopictus according to life duration. Mosquitoes were exposed to an infectious blood-meal at a titer of 10^{7.5} PFU/mL. Dead 671 mosquitoes were collected and their infection status was checked by quantitative RT-PCR to 672 673 estimate the viral RNA load.

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Table. Life duration, oviposition characteristics (delay to laying, number of laid eggs and time between first oviposition and female death) and hatching characteristics (proportion of females with at least one egg hatched and hatching rate per female) of *Wolbachia*-free *Ae. albopictus* from the Reunion Island after exposure to a blood-meal (non-infectious or infectious with CHIKV E1-226V).

			Oviposition (in days)					Hatching (%)				
Blood-meal	Life duration ± SD (N)		Delay to laying ± SD (N)		Number of laid eggs ± SD (N)		Time between first oviposition and female death ± SD (N)		Proportion of females with at least one egg hatched (N)		Hatching rate per female ± SD (N)	
	1*	2#	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Non-infectious	14.6 ± 11.9 (19)	9.6 ± 6.3 (50)	9.4 ± 10.3 (9)	6.2 ± 3.8 (41)	26.3 ± 31.6 (19)	35.4 ± 24.6 (50)	9.9 ± 13.6 (9)	3.7 ± 4.8 (41)	77.8 (9)	75.6 (41)	27.9 ± 24.2 (9)	31.6 ± 27.3 (41)
Infectious with E1-226A	11.6 ± 7.0 (132)	8.4 ± 5.3 (161)	6.3 ± 4.0 (91)	5.2 ± 2.0 (118)	33.2 ± 31.0 (132)	32.5 ± 29.2 (161)	6.1 ± 6.0 (91)	3.7 ± 4.3 (118)	76.9 (91)	77.1 (118)	35.7 ± 28.6 (91)	25.8 ± 26.2 (118)

N, number of female analysed; SD, standard deviation; ^{*}, trial 1; [#], trial 2.



















