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Ribosomal RNA (rRNA) sequences from 33 globally distributed mosquito species for

improved metagenomics and species identification

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#### **ABSTRACT**

Total RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) is an important tool in the study of mosquitoes and the RNA viruses they vector as it allows assessment of both host and viral RNA in specimens. However, there are two main constraints. First, as with many other species, abundant mosquito ribosomal RNA (rRNA) serves as the predominant template from which sequences are generated, meaning that the desired host and viral templates are sequenced far less. Second, mosquito specimens captured in the field must be correctly identified, in some cases to the sub-species level. Here, we generate mosquito ribosomal RNA (rRNA) datasets which will substantially mitigate both of these problems. We describe a strategy to assemble novel rRNA sequences from mosquito specimens and produce an unprecedented dataset of 234 full-length 28S and 18S rRNA sequences of 33 medically important species from countries with known histories of mosquito-borne virus circulation (Cambodia, the Central African Republic, Madagascar, and French Guiana). These sequences will allow both physical and computational removal of rRNA from specimens during RNAseq protocols. We also assess the utility of rRNA sequences for molecular taxonomy and compare phylogenies constructed using rRNA sequences versus those created using the gold standard for molecular species identification of specimens—the mitochondrial *cytochrome* c *oxidase I* (COI) gene. We find that rRNA- and COI-derived phylogenetic trees are incongruent and that 28S and concatenated 28S+18S rRNA phylogenies reflect evolutionary relationships that are more aligned with contemporary mosquito systematics. This significant expansion to the current rRNA reference library for mosquitoes will improve mosquito RNA-seq metagenomics by permitting the optimization of species-specific rRNA depletion protocols for a broader range of species and streamlining species identification by rRNA sequence and phylogenetics.

**Keywords:** surveillance, RNA-seq, ribosomal RNA, molecular marker, metagenomics, mosquito

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Mosquitoes top the list of vectors for arthropod-borne diseases, being implicated in the transmission of many human pathogens responsible for arboviral diseases, malaria, and lymphatic filariasis (WHO, 2017). Mosquito-borne viruses circulate in sylvatic (between wild animals) or urban (between humans) transmission cycles driven by different mosquito species with their own distinct host preferences. Although urban mosquito species are chiefly responsible for amplifying epidemics in dense human populations, sylvatic mosquitoes maintain the transmission of these viruses among forest-dwelling animal reservoir hosts and are implicated in spillover events when humans enter their ecological niches (Valentine et al., 2019). Given that mosquito-borne virus emergence is preceded by such spillover events, continuous surveillance and virus discovery in sylvatic mosquitoes is integral to designing effective public health measures to pre-empt or respond to mosquito-borne viral epidemics. Metagenomics on field specimens is the most powerful method in the toolkit for understanding mosquito-borne disease ecology through the One Health lens (Webster et al., 2016). With next-generation sequencing becoming more accessible, such studies have provided unprecedented insights into the interfaces among mosquitoes, their environment, and their animal and human hosts. As mosquito-associated viruses are mostly RNA viruses, RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) is especially informative for surveillance and virus discovery. However, working with lesser studied mosquito species poses several problems. First, metagenomics studies based on RNA-seq are bedevilled by overabundant ribosomal RNAs (rRNAs). These non-coding RNA molecules comprise at least 80% of the total cellular RNA population (Gale & Crampton, 1989). Due to their length and their abundance, they are a sink for precious next generation sequencing reads, decreasing the sensitivity of pathogen detection unless depleted during library preparation. Yet the most common rRNA depletion protocols require prior knowledge of rRNA sequences of the species of interest as they involve hybridizing antisense oligos to the rRNA molecules prior to removal by ribonucleases (Fauver et al., 2019; Phelps et al., 2021) or by bead capture (Kukutla et al., 2013). Presently, reference sequences for rRNAs are limited to only a handful of species from three genera: *Aedes*, *Culex*, and *Anopheles* (Ruzzante et al., 2019). The lack of reliable rRNA depletion methods could deter mosquito metagenomics studies from expanding their

sampling diversity, resulting in a gap in our knowledge of mosquito vector ecology. The inclusion of

lesser studied yet medically relevant sylvatic species is therefore imperative.

Second, species identification based on morphology is notoriously complicated for members of species subgroups. This is especially the case among *Culex* subgroups. Sister species are often sympatric and show at least some competence for a number of viruses, such as Japanese encephalitis virus, St Louis encephalitic virus, and Usutu virus (Nchoutpouen et al., 2019). Although they share many morphological traits, each of these species have distinct ecologies and host preferences, thus the challenge of correctly identifying vector species can affect epidemiological risk estimation for these diseases (Farajollahi et al., 2011). DNA molecular markers are often employed to a limited degree of success to distinguish between sister species (Batovska et al., 2017; Zittra et al., 2016).

To address the lack of full-length rRNA sequences in public databases, we sought to determine the 28S and 18S rRNA sequences of a diverse set of Old and New World sylvatic mosquito species from four countries representing three continents: Cambodia, the Central African Republic, Madagascar, and French Guiana. These countries, due to their proximity to the equator, contain high mosquito biodiversity (Foley et al., 2007) and have had long histories of mosquito-borne virus circulation (Desdouits et al., 2015; Halstead, 2019; Héraud et al., 2022; Jacobi & Serie, 1972; Ratsitorahina et al., 2008; Saluzzo et al., 2018; Zeller et al., 2016). Increased and continued surveillance of local mosquito species could lead to valuable insights on mosquito virus biogeography. Using a unique score-based read filtration strategy to remove interfering non-mosquito rRNA reads for accurate *de novo* assembly, we produced a dataset of 234 novel full-length 28S and 18S rRNA sequences from 33 mosquito species, 30 of which have never been recorded before. We also explored the functionality of 28S and 18S rRNA sequences as molecular markers by comparing their performance to that of the mitochondrial *cytochrome* c *oxidase subunit I* (COI) gene for molecular taxonomic and phylogenetic investigations. The COI gene is the most widely used DNA marker for molecular species identification and forms the basis of the Barcode of Life Data System (BOLD) (Hebert et al., 2003; Ratnasingham & Hebert, 2007). Presently, full-length rRNA sequences are much less represented compared to other molecular markers. However, given the availability of relevant reference sequences, 28S and concatenated 28S+18S rRNA sequences can be the better approach for molecular taxonomy and phylogenetic studies. We hope that our sequence dataset, with its species diversity and eco-geographical breadth, and the assembly strategy we describe would further facilitate the use of rRNA as markers. In addition, this dataset enables the design of species-

- specific oligos for cost-effective rRNA depletion for a broader range of mosquito species and
- streamlined molecular species identification during RNA-seq.

#### **RESULTS**

#### **Poor rRNA depletion using a non-specific depletion method**

During library preparations of mosquito samples for RNA-seq, routinely used methods for depleting rRNA are commercial kits optimised for human or mice samples (Belda et al., 2019; Bishop-Lilly et al., 2010; Chandler et al., 2015; N. Kumar et al., 2012; Weedall et al., 2015; Zakrzewski et al., 2018) or through 80–100 base pair antisense probe hybridisation followed by ribonuclease digestion (Fauver et al., 2019; Phelps et al., 2021). In cases where the complete reference rRNA sequence of the target species is not known, oligos would be designed based on the rRNA sequence of the closest related species (25, this study). These methods should deplete the conserved regions of rRNA sequences. However, the variable regions remain at abundances high enough to compromise RNA-seq output. In our hands, we have found that using probes designed for the *Ae. aegypti* rRNA sequence followed by RNase H digestion according to the protocol published by Morlan *et al.* (2012) produced poor depletion in *Ae. albopictus*, and in Culicine and Anopheline species (Figure 1), in which between 46– 94% of reads post-depletion were ribosomal. Additionally, the lack of reference rRNA sequences compromises the *in silico* clean-up of remaining rRNA reads from sequencing data, as reads belonging to variable regions would not be removed. To solve this and to enable RNA-seq metagenomics on a broader range of mosquito species, we performed RNA-seq to generate reference rRNA sequences for 33 mosquito species representing 10 genera from Cambodia, the Central African Republic, Madagascar, and French Guiana. Most of these species are associated with vector activity for various pathogens in their respective ecologies (Table 1). In parallel, we sequenced the mitochondrial COI gene to perform molecular species identification of our samples and to comparatively evaluate the use of rRNA as a molecular marker (Figure 2).



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### 130 **Figure 1. Percentage of rRNA reads in mosquito total RNA-seq data after depletion using**

131 **probes antisense to** *Ae. aegypti* **sequences.** Pools of 5 individual mosquitoes were ribodepleted by

132 probe hybridisation followed by RNase H digestion according to the protocol by Morlan *et al.* (2012).

- 133 Percentages of remaining rRNA reads were calculated from the number of rRNA reads over total
- 134 reads per sample pool. Depletion efficiency decreases with taxonomic distance from *Ae. aegypti*
- 135 underlining the need for reference sequences for species of interest.







137 \* () indicates subgenus

138 \*\* Origin countries are listed as their ISO alpha-2 codes: Central African Republic, CF; Cambodia, KH;

139 Madagascar, MG; French Guiana, GF.

140 \*\* dengue virus, DENV; Zika virus, ZIKV; chikungunya virus, CHIKV; Yellow Fever virus, YFV; Oropouche virus,

141 OROV; Japanese encephalitis virus, JEV; Rift Valley Fever virus, RVFV; O'Nyong Nyong virus, ONNV; Usutu

142 virus, USUV; West Nile virus, WNV; Saint Louis encephalitis virus, SLEV; Venezuelan equine encephalitis

143 virus, VEEV; Tonate virus, TONV; Eastern equine encephalitis virus, EEEV; Madariaga virus, MADV; Rocio

144 virus, ROCV.

### 145 **rRNA reads filtering and sequence assembly**

146 Assembling Illumina reads to reconstruct rRNA sequences from total mosquito RNA is not a

147 straightforward task. Apart from host rRNA, total RNA samples also contain rRNA from other

organisms associated with the host (microbiota, external parasites, or ingested diet). As rRNA

sequences share high homology in conserved regions, Illumina reads (150 bp) from non-host rRNA

can interfere with the contig assembly of host 28S and 18S rRNA.

Our score-based filtration strategy, described in detail in the Methods section, allowed us to bioinformatically remove interfering rRNA reads and achieve successful *de novo* assembly of 28S and 18S rRNA sequences for all our specimens. Briefly, for each Illumina read, we computed a ratio of BLAST scores against an Insecta library over scores against a Non-Insecta library (Figure 2A). Based on their ratio of scores, reads could be segregated into four categories (Figure 2B): (i) reads mapping only to the Insecta library, (ii) reads mapping better to the Insecta relative to Non-Insecta library, (iii) reads mapping better to the Non-Insecta relative to the Insecta library, and (iv) reads mapping only to the Non-Insecta library. By applying a conservative threshold at 0.8 to account for the non-exhaustiveness of the SILVA database, we removed reads that likely do not originate from mosquito rRNA. Notably, 15 of our specimens were engorged with vertebrate blood, a rich source of non-mosquito rRNA (Appendix 1—table 1). The successful assembly of complete 28S and 18S rRNA sequences for these specimens demonstrates that this strategy performs as expected even with high amounts of non-host rRNA reads. This is particularly important in studies on field-captured mosquitoes as females are often sampled already having imbibed a blood meal or captured using the human landing catch technique. We encountered challenges for three specimens morphologically identified as *Ma. africana* (Specimen ID S33–S35) (Appendix 1—table 1). COI amplification by PCR did not produce any product, hence COI sequencing could not be used to confirm species identity. In addition, the genome assembler SPAdes (Bankevich et al., 2012) was only able to assemble partial length rRNA contigs, despite the high number of reads with high scores against the Insecta library. Among other *Mansonia* specimens, the partial length contigs shared the highest similarity with contigs obtained from sample "Ma uniformis CF S51". We then performed a guided assembly using the 28S and 18S sequences of this specimen as references, which successfully produced full-length contigs. In two of these specimens (Specimen ID S34 and S35), our assembly initially produced two sets of 28S and 18S rRNA sequences, one of which was similar to mosquito rRNA with low coverage and another with ten-fold higher coverage and 95% nucleotide sequence similarity to a water mite of genus *Horreolanus* known to parasitize mosquitoes. Our success in obtaining rRNA sequences for mosquito and water

- mite shows that our strategy can be applied to metabarcoding studies where the input material
- comprises multiple insect species, provided that appropriate reference sequences of the target
- species or of a close relative are available.
- Altogether, we were able to assemble 122 28S and 114 18S full-length rRNA sequences for 33
- mosquito species representing 10 genera sampled from four countries across three continents. This
- dataset contains, to our knowledge, the first records for 30 mosquito species and for seven genera:
- *Coquillettidia*, *Mansonia*, *Limatus*, *Mimomyia*, *Uranotaenia*, *Psorophora,* and *Eretmapodites*.
- Individual GenBank accession numbers for these sequences and specimen information are listed in
- Appendix 1—table 1.





Schematic of sequencing and bioinformatics analysis performed in this study to obtain full-length 18S

and 28S rRNA sequences as well as COI DNA sequences. Nucleic acids were isolated from mosquito

- specimens for next generation (for rRNA) or Sanger (for COI) sequencing. Two in-house libraries
- were created from the SILVA rRNA gene database: Insecta and Non-Insecta, which comprises 8 585
- sequences and 558 185 sequences, respectively. Following BLASTn analysis against these two
- libraries, each RNA-seq read is assigned a ratio of BLASTn scores to describe their relative
- nucleotide similarity to insect rRNA sequences. Based on these ratios of scores, RNA-seq reads can

then be filtered to remove non-mosquito reads prior to assembly with SPAdes to give full-length 18S and 28S rRNA sequences. Image created with Biorender.com. (**B**) Based on their ratio of scores, reads can be segregated into four categories, as shown on this ratio of scores vs. number of reads plot for the representative specimen "Ae simpsoni CF S27": (i) reads with hits only in the Insecta library (shaded in green), (ii) reads with a higher score against the Insecta library (shaded in blue), (iii) reads with a higher score against the Non-Insecta library (shaded in yellow), and (iv) reads with no hits in the Insecta library (shaded in red). We applied a conservative threshold at 0.8, indicated by the black horizontal line, where only reads above this threshold are used in the assembly with SPAdes. For this given specimen, 175 671 reads (96.3% of total reads) passed the ≥0.8 cut-off, 325 reads (0.18% of total reads) had ratios of scores <0.8, while 6 423 reads (3.52%) did not have hits against the Insecta library.

#### **Comparative phylogeny of novel rRNA sequences relative to existing records**

To verify the assembly accuracy of our rRNA sequences, we constructed a comprehensive phylogenetic tree from the full-length 28S rRNA sequences generated from our study and included relevant rRNA sequences publicly available from GenBank (Figure 3). We applied a search criterion for GenBank sequences with at least 95% coverage of our sequence lengths (~4000 bp), aiming to represent as many species or genera as possible. Although we rarely found records for the same species included in our study, the resulting tree showed that our 28S sequences generally clustered according to their respective species and subgenera, supported by moderate to good bootstrap support at terminal nodes. Species taxa generally formed monophyletic clades, with the exception of *An. gambiae* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus*. *An. gambiae* 28S rRNA sequences formed a clade with closely related sequences from *An. arabiensis*, *An. merus*, and *An. coluzzii,* suggesting unusually high interspecies homology for Anophelines or other members of subgenus *Cellia* (Figure 3, in purple, subgenus *Cellia*)*.* Meanwhile, *Cx. quinquefasciatus* 28S rRNA sequences formed a taxon paraphyletic to sister species *Cx. pipiens* (Figure 3, in coral, subgenus *Culex*).



**Figure 3. 28S sequences generated from this study clustered with conspecifics or congenerics from existing GenBank records.** A rooted phylogenetic tree based on full-length 28S sequences (3900 bp) from this study and from GenBank was inferred using the maximum-likelihood method and constructed to scale in MEGA X (S. Kumar et al., 2018) using an unknown *Horreolanus* species found among our samples as an outgroup. Values at each node indicate bootstrap support (%) from 500 replications. Sequences from GenBank are annotated with filled circles and their accession numbers are shown. For sequences from this study, each specimen label contains information on taxonomy, origin (in 2-letter country codes), and specimen ID number. Some specimens produced up to two consensus 28S sequences; this is indicated by the numbers 1 or 2 in the beginning of the specimen label. Specimen genera are indicated by colour: *Culex* in coral, *Anopheles* in purple, *Aedes* in dark blue, *Mansonia* in dark green, *Culiseta* in maroon, *Limatus* in light green, *Coquillettidia* in light blue, *Psorophora* in yellow, *Mimomyia* in teal, *Uranotaenia* in pink and *Eretmapodites* in brown. Scale bar at 0.05 is shown.

28S rRNA sequence-based phylogenetic reconstructions (Figure 3, with GenBank sequences; Figure 4—figure supplement 1, this study only) showed marked incongruence to that of 18S rRNA sequences (Figure 4—figure supplement 2). Although all rRNA trees show the bifurcation of family *Culicidae* into subfamilies *Anophelinae* (genus *Anopheles*, in purple) and *Culicinae* (all other genera), the recovered intergeneric phylogenetic relationships vary between the 28S and 18S rRNA trees and are weakly supported. The 18S rRNA tree also exhibited several taxonomic anomalies: (i) the lack of definitive clustering by species within the *Culex* subgenus (in coral) (ii) the lack of distinction between 18S rRNA sequences of *Cx*. *pseudovishnui* and *Cx*. *Tritaeniorhynchus* (in coral); (iii) the placement of Ma sp. 3 CF S35 (in dark green) within a *Culex* clade; and (iv) the lack of a monophyletic *Mimomyia* clade (in teal) (Figure 4—figure supplement 2). However, 28S and 18S rRNA sequences are encoded 245 by linked loci in rDNA clusters and should not be analysed separately.

Indeed, when concatenated 28S+18S rRNA sequences were generated from the same specimens (Figure 4), the phylogenetic tree resulting from these sequences more closely resembles the 28S tree (Figure 3) with regard to the basal position of the *Mimomyia* clade (in teal) within the *Culicinae* subfamily with good bootstrap support in either tree (84% in 28S rRNA tree, 100% in concatenated 28S+18S rRNA tree). For internal nodes, bootstrap support values were higher in the concatenated tree compared to the 28S tree. Interestingly, the 28S+18S rRNA tree formed an *Aedini* tribe-clade

encompassing taxa from genera *Psorophora* (in yellow)*, Aedes* (in dark blue)*,* and *Eretmapodites* (in brown), possibly driven by the inclusion of 18S rRNA sequences. Concatenation also resolved the anomalies found in the 18S rRNA tree and added clarity to the close relationship between *Culex* (in coral) and *Mansonia* (in dark green) taxa. Of note, relative to the 28S tree (Figure 3) the *Culex* and *Mansonia* genera are no longer monophyletic in the concatenated 28S+18S rRNA tree (Figure 4). Genus *Culex* is paraphyletic with respect to subgenus *Mansonoides* of genus *Mansonia* (Figure 3). *Ma*. *titillans* and Ma sp. 4, which we suspect to be *Ma. pseudotitillans,* always formed a distinct branch in 28S or 18S rRNA phylogenies, thus possibly representing a clade of subgenus *Mansonia*. The concatenated 28S+18S rRNA tree (Figure 4) recapitulates what is classically known about the systematics of our specimens, namely (i) the early divergence of subfamily *Anophelinae* from subfamily *Culicinae*, (ii) the division of genus *Anopheles* (in purple) into two subgenera, *Anopheles* and *Cellia,* (iii) the division of genus *Aedes* (in dark blue) into subgenera *Stegomyia* and *Ochlerotatus*, (iv) the divergence of the monophyletic subgenus *Melanoconion* within the *Culex* genus (in coral)

(Harbach, 2007; Harbach & Kitching, 2016).



266

**Figure 4. Concatenating 28S and 18S rRNA sequences produces phylogenetic relationships that are concordant with classical** *Culicidae* **systematics with higher bootstrap support than 28S sequences alone.** This phylogenetic tree based on concatenated 28S+18S rRNA sequences (3900+1900 bp) generated from this study was inferred using the maximum-likelihood method and constructed to scale using MEGA X (S. Kumar et al., 2018) using an unknown *Horreolanus* species found among our samples as an outgroup. Values at each node indicate bootstrap support (%) from 500 replications. Each specimen label contains information on taxonomy, origin (as indicated in 2- letter country codes), and specimen ID number. Some specimens produced up to two consensus 28S+18S rRNA sequences; this is indicated by the numbers 1 or 2 in the beginning of the specimen label. Specimen genera are indicated by colour: *Culex* in coral, *Anopheles* in purple, *Aedes* in dark blue, *Mansonia* in dark green, *Limatus* in light green, *Coquillettidia* in light blue, *Psorophora* in yellow, *Mimomyia* in teal, *Uranotaenia* in pink and *Eretmapodites* in brown. Scale bar at 0.05 is shown.

#### **rRNA as a molecular marker for taxonomy and phylogeny**

We sequenced a 621 bp region of the COI gene to confirm morphological species identification of our specimens and to compare the functionality of rRNA and COI sequences as molecular markers for taxonomic and phylogenetic investigations. COI sequences were able to unequivocally determine the species identity in most specimens except for the following cases. *An. coustani* COI sequences from our study regardless of specimen origin shared remarkably high nucleotide similarity (>98%) with several other *Anopheles* species such as *An. rhodesiensis*, *An. rufipes*, *An. ziemanni*, *An. tenebrosus*, although *An. coustani* remained the most frequent and closest match. In the case of *Ae. simpsoni*, three specimens had been morphologically identified as *Ae. opok* although their COI sequences showed 97–100% similarity to that of *Ae. simpsoni.* As GenBank held no records of *Ae. opok* COI at the time of this study, we instead aligned the putative *Ae. simpsoni* COI sequences against two sister species of *Ae. opok*: *Ae. luteocephalus* and *Ae. africanus.* We found they shared only 90% and 89% similarity, respectively. Given this significant divergence, we concluded these specimens to be *Ae. simpsoni*. Ambiguous results were especially frequent among *Culex* specimens belonging to the *Cx. pipiens* or *Cx. vishnui* subgroups, where the query sequence differed with either of the top two hits by a single nucleotide. For example, between *Cx. quinquefasciatus* and *Cx. pipiens* of the *Cx. pipiens* subgroup, and between *Cx. vishnui* and *Cx. tritaeniorhynchus* of the *Cx. vishnui* subgroup. Among our three specimens of *Ma. titillans*, two appeared to belong to a single species that is different from but closely related to *Ma. titillans*. We surmised that these specimens could instead be *Ma. pseudotitillans* based on morphological similarity but were not able to verify this by molecular means as no COI reference sequence is available for this species. These specimens are hence putatively labelled as "Ma sp.4". Phylogenetic reconstruction based on the COI sequences showed clustering of all species taxa

into distinct clades, underlining the utility of the COI gene in molecular taxonomy (Figure 5)(Hebert et

al., 2003; Ratnasingham & Hebert, 2007). However, species delineation among members of *Culex* subgroups were not as clear cut, although sister species were correctly placed as sister taxa (Figure 5, in coral). This is comparable to the 28S+18S rRNA tree (Figure 4, in coral) and is indicative of lower intraspecies distances relative to interspecies distances.

To evaluate the utility of 28S and 18S rRNA sequences for molecular taxonomy, we used the 28S+18S rRNA tree to discern the identity of six specimens for which COI sequencing could not be performed. These specimens include three unknown *Mansonia* species (Specimen ID S33–S35), a *Ma. uniformis* (Specimen ID S51), an *An. gambiae* (Specimen ID S47), and a *Ur. geometrica* (Specimen ID S113) (Appendix 1—table 1). Their positions in the 28S+18S rRNA tree relative to adjacent taxa confirms the morphological identification of all six specimens to the genus level and, for three of them, to the species level (Figure 4; *Mansonia* in dark green, *Anopheles* in purple, *Uranotaenia* in pink). The phylogenetic relationships indicated by the COI tree compared to the 28S+18S rRNA tree present only few points of similarity, with key differences summarised in Table 2. COI-based phylogenetic inference indeed showed clustering of generic taxa into monophyletic clades albeit with very weak bootstrap support, except for genera *Culex* and *Mansonia* (Figure 5; *Culex* in coral, *Mansonia* in dark green). Contrary to the 28S+18S rRNA tree (Figure 4), *Culex* subgenus *Melanoconion* was depicted as a polyphyletic taxon with *Cx. spissipes* being a part of the greater *Culicini* clade with members from subgenera *Oculeomyia* and *Culex* while *Cx. pedroi* and *Cx. portesi* formed a distantly related clade. Among the *Mansonia* specimens, the two unknown Ma sp.4 specimens were not positioned as the nearest neighbours of *Ma. titillans* and instead appeared to have diverged earlier from most of the other taxa from the *Culicidae* family. Notably, the COI sequences of genus *Anopheles* (Figure 5, in purple) is not basal to the other members of *Culicidae* and is instead shown to be sister to Culex COI sequences (8% bootstrap support). This is a direct contrast to what is suggested by the rRNA phylogenies (Figures 3 and 4, Figure 4—figure supplements 1 and 2; *Anopheles* in purple), which suggests *Culex* (in coral) rRNA sequences to be among the most recently diverged. Bootstrap support for the more internal nodes of the COI trees were remarkably low compared to those of rRNA-based trees. In all rRNA trees, it is clear that the interspecific and intersubgeneric evolutionary distances within

the genus *Anopheles* are high relative to any other genera, indicating a greater degree of divergence

- 333 (Figure 3, Figure 3—figure supplement 1, Figure 4, Figure 4—figure supplements 1 and 2; *Anopheles* 334 in purple). This is evidenced by the longer branch lengths connecting Anopheline species-clades to 335 the node of the most recent common ancestor for subgenera *Anopheles* and *Cellia*. This feature is not 336 evident in the COI tree, where the Anopheline interspecies distances are comparable to those within 337 the *Culex*, *Aedes*, and *Mansonia* taxa (Figure 5; *Anopheles* in purple, *Culex* in coral, *Aedes* in dark
- 338 blue, *Mansonia* in dark green).



339<br>340



341 **those derived from rRNA trees.** A phylogenetic tree based on COI sequences (621–699 bp) was

342 inferred using the maximum-likelihood method and constructed to scale using MEGA X (S. Kumar et

343 al., 2018) with three water mite species to serve as outgroups. Outgroup sequences obtained from

- 344 GenBank are annotated with filled circles and their accession numbers are shown. Values at each
- 345 node indicate bootstrap support (%) from 500 replications. Each specimen label contains information
- 346 on taxonomy, origin (as indicated in 2-letter country codes), and specimen ID. Specimen genera are
- 347 indicted by colour: *Culex* in coral, *Anopheles* in purple, *Aedes* in dark blue, *Mansonia* in dark green,
- 348 *Limatus* in light green, *Coquillettidia* in light blue, *Psorophora* in yellow, *Mimomyia* in teal, *Uranotaenia*
- 349 in pink and *Eretmapodites* in brown. Scale bar at 0.05 is shown.



350 **Table 2.** Summary of differences between rRNA and COI phylogenies.

*Culex* (subgenus *Culex*) specimens of this study comprise several closely related sister species belonging to the *Cx. vishnui* and *Cx. univittatus* subgroups, which are notoriously difficult to differentiate based on morphology. Accordingly, in the 28S+18S rRNA (Figure 4, in coral) and COI (Figure 5, in coral) trees these species and their known sister species were clustered together within the *Culex* (subgenus *Culex*) clade: *Cx. tritaeniorhynchus* with *Cx. pseudovishnui* (*Cx. vishnui* subgroup); *Cx. perexiguus* with *Cx. neavei* (*Cx. univittatus* subgroup). The use of the COI sequence to distinguish between members of the *Culex* subgroups was limited. For example, for the two *Cx. quinquefasciatus* samples in our taxonomic assemblage (Specimen ID S74 and S75) (Appendix 1—table 1), BLAST analyses of their COI sequences revealed they are a single nucleotide away from *Cx. pipiens* or *Cx. quinquefasciatus* COI sequences (Appendix 2—table 1). In the 28S rRNA tree with GenBank sequences (Figure 3), two *Cx. pipiens* GenBank sequences formed a clade sister to another containing three *Cx. quinquefasciatus* GenBank sequences and the "Cx quinquefasciatus MG S74" sequence with 78% bootstrap support. This is in accordance with other studies examining mitochondrial sequences (Sun et al., 2019) and morphological attributes (Harbach et al., 2017). This shows that the 28S rRNA sequence can distinguish the two species and confirms that "Cx quinquefasciatus MG S74" is indeed a *Cx. quinquefasciatus* specimen. However, "Cx quinquefasciatus MG S75" is shown to be basal from other sequences within this *Cx. pipiens* subgroup-clade with 100% bootstrap support. Given that *Cx. quinquefasciatus* and *Cx. pipiens* are known to interbreed, it is plausible that this individual is a hybrid of the two species (Farajollahi et al., 2011).

#### **DISCUSSION**

RNA-seq metagenomics on field-captured sylvatic mosquitoes is a valuable tool for tracking mosquito viruses through surveillance and virus discovery. However, the lack of reference rRNA sequences hinders good oligo-based depletion and efficient clean-up of RNA-seq data. Additionally, *de novo* assembly of rRNA sequences is complicated due to regions that are highly conserved across all distantly related organisms that could be present in a single specimen, i.e., microbiota, parasites, or vertebrate blood meal. Hence, we sought to establish a method to bioinformatically filter out non-host rRNA reads for the accurate assembly of novel 28S and 18S rRNA reference sequences.

We found that phylogenetic reconstructions based on 28S sequences or concatenated 28S+18S rRNA sequences were able to correctly cluster mosquito taxa according to species and corroborate current mosquito classification. This demonstrates that our bioinformatics methodology reliably generates bona fide 28S and 18S rRNA sequences, even in specimens parasitized by water mites or engorged with vertebrate blood. Further, we were able to use 28S+18S rRNA taxonomy for molecular species identification when COI sequences were unavailable or ambiguous, thus supporting the use of rRNA sequences as a marker. They have the advantage of circumventing the need to additionally isolate and sequence DNA from specimens, as RNA-seq reads can be directly mapped against reference sequences. Post-depletion, in our hands there are sufficient numbers of remaining reads (5–10% of reads per sample) for assembly of complete rRNA contigs (unpublished data). Phylogenetic inferences based on 28S or 18S rRNA sequences alone do not recover the same interspecific relationships (Figure 4—figure supplements 1 and 2). Relative to 28S sequences, we observed more instances where multiple specimens have near-identical 18S rRNA sequences. This can occur for specimens belonging to the same species, but also for conspecifics sampled from different geographic locations, such as *An. coustani*, *An. gambiae*, or *Ae. albopictus.* More rarely, specimens from the same species subgroup, such as *Cx. pseudovishnui* and *Cx. tritaeniorhynchus*, also shared 18S rRNA sequences. This was surprising given that the 18S rRNA sequences in our dataset is 1900 bp long. Concatenation of 28S and 18S rRNA sequences resolved this issue, enabling species delineation even among sister species of *Culex* subgroups, where morphological identification meets its limits. In Cambodia and other parts of Asia, the *Cx. vishnui* subgroup includes *Cx*. *tritaeniorhynchus*, *Cx*.

*vishnui*, and *Cx*. *pseudovishnui*, which are important vectors of JEV (Maquart & Boyer, 2022). The former two were morphologically identified in our study but later revealed by COI sequencing to be a sister species. Discerning sister species of the *Cx. pipiens* subgroup is further complicated by interspecific breeding, with some populations showing genetic introgression to varying extents (Cornel et al., 2003). The seven sister species of this subgroup are practically indistinguishable based on morphology and require molecular methods to discern (Farajollahi et al., 2011; Zittra et al., 2016). Indeed, the 621 bp COI sequence amplified in our study did not contain enough nucleotide divergence to allow clear identification, given that the COI sequence of *Cx*. *quinquefasciatus* specimens differed from that of *Cx. pipiens* by a single nucleotide. Batovska et al. (2017) found that

even the Internal Transcribed Spacer 2 (ITS2) rDNA region, another common molecular marker, could not differentiate the two species. Other DNA molecular markers such as nuclear Ace-2 or CQ11 genes (Aspen & Savage, 2003; Zittra et al., 2016) or *Wolbachia pipientis* infection status (Cornel et al., 2003) are typically employed in tandem. In our study, 28S rRNA sequence-based phylogeny validated the identity of specimen "Cx quinquefasciatus MG S74" (Figure 3, in coral) and suggested that specimen "Cx quinquefasciatus MG S75" might have been a *pipiens*-*quinquefasciatus* hybrid. These examples demonstrate how 28S rRNA sequences, concatenated with 18S rRNA sequences or alone, contain enough resolution to differentiate between *Cx. pipiens* and *Cx*. *quinquefasciatus*. rRNA-based phylogeny thus allows for more accurate species identification and ecological observations in the context of disease transmission. Additionally, tracing the genetic flow across hybrid populations within the *Cx. pipiens* subgroup can inform estimates of vectorial capacity for each species. As only one or two members from the *Cx. pipiens* and *Cx. vishnui* subgroups were represented in our taxonomic assemblage, an explicit investigation including all member species of these subgroups in greater sample numbers is warranted to further test the degree of accuracy with which 28S and 18S rRNA sequences can delineate sister species. Our study included French Guianese *Culex* species *Cx. spissipes* (group Spissipes*)*, *Cx. pedroi*  (group Pedroi), and *Cx. portesi* (group Vomerifer). These species belong to the New World subgenus *Melanoconion*, section Spissipes, with well-documented distribution in North and South Americas (Sirivanakarn, 1982) and are vectors of encephalitic alphaviruses EEEV and VEEV among others

(Talaga et al., 2021; M. J. Turell et al., 2008; Weaver et al., 2004). Indeed, our rooted rRNA and COI

trees showed the divergence of the three *Melanoconion* species from the major *Culex* clade

comprising species broadly found across Africa and Asia (Auerswald et al., 2021; Farajollahi et al.,

2011; Nchoutpouen et al., 2019; Takhampunya et al., 2011). The topology of the concatenated

28S+18S rRNA tree places the *Cx. portesi* and *Cx. pedroi* species-clades as sister groups (92%

bootstrap support), with *Cx. spissipes* as a basal group within the *Melanoconion* clade (100%

bootstrap support) (Figure 4, in coral). This corroborates the systematics elucidated by Navarro and

Weaver (2004) using the ITS2 marker, and those by Sirivanakarn (1982) and Sallum and Forattini

(1996) based on morphology. Curiously, in the COI tree, *Cx. Spissipes* sequences were clustered

with unknown species Cx. Sp1, forming a clade sister to another containing other *Culex* (*Culex*) and

*Culex* (*Oculeomyia*) species, albeit with very low bootstrap support (Figure 5, in coral). Previous

phylogenetic studies based on the COI gene have consistently placed *Cx. spissipes* or the Spissipes group basal to other groups within the *Melanoconion* subgenus (Torres-Gutierrez et al., 2016, 2018). However, these studies contain only *Culex* (*Melanoconion*) species in their assemblage, apart from *Cx. quinquefasciatus* to act as an outgroup. This clustering of *Cx. spissipes* with non-*Melanoconion* species in our COI phylogeny could be an artefact of a much more diversified assemblage rather than a true phylogenetic link.

Taking advantage of our multi-country sampling, we examined whether rRNA or COI phylogeny can be used to distinguish conspecifics originating from different geographies. Our assemblage contains five of such species: *An. coustani*, *An. funestus*, *An. gambiae*, *Ae. albopictus*, and *Ma. uniformis*. Among the rRNA trees, the concatenated 28S+18S and 28S rRNA trees were able to discriminate between *Ma. uniformis* specimens from Madagascar, Cambodia, and the Central African Republic (in dark green), and between *An. coustani* specimens from Madagascar and the Central African Republic (in purple) (100% bootstrap support). In the COI tree, only *Ma. uniformis* was resolved into geographical clades comprising specimens from Madagascar and specimens from Cambodia (in dark green) (72% bootstrap support). No COI sequence was obtained from one *Ma. uniformis* specimen from the Central African Republic. The 28S+18S rRNA sequences ostensibly provided more population-level genetic information than COI sequences alone with better support. The use of rRNA sequences in investigating the biodiversity of mosquitoes should therefore be explored with a more comprehensive taxonomic assemblage.

The phylogenetic reconstructions based on rRNA or COI sequences in our study are hardly congruent (Table 2), but two principal differences stand out. First, the COI phylogeny does not recapitulate the early divergence of *Anophelinae* from *Culicinae* (Figure 5). This is at odds with other studies estimating mosquito divergence times based on mitochondrial genes (Logue et al., 2013; Lorenz et al., 2021) or nuclear genes (Reidenbach et al., 2009). The second notable feature in the rRNA trees is the remarkably large interspecies and intersubgeneric evolutionary distances within genus *Anopheles* relative to genera in the *Culicinae* subfamily (Figure 3, Figure 3—figure supplement 1, Figure 4, Figure 4—figure supplements 1 and 2; *Anopheles* in purple) but this is not apparent in the COI tree. The hyperdiversity among *Anopheles* taxa may be attributed to the earlier diversification of the *Anophelinae* subfamily in the early Cretaceous period compared to that of the *Culicinae* subfamily, a difference of at least 40 million years (Lorenz et al., 2021). The differences in rRNA and COI tree

topologies indicate a limitation in using COI alone to determine evolutionary relationships. Importantly, drawing phylogenetic conclusions from short DNA barcodes such as COI has been cautioned against due to its weak phylogenetic signal (Hajibabaei et al., 2006). The relatively short length of our COI sequences (621–699 bp) combined with the 100-fold higher nuclear substitution rate of mitochondrial genomes relative to nuclear genomes (Arctander, 1995) could result in homoplasy (Danforth et al., 2005), making it difficult to clearly discern ancestral sequences and correctly assign branches into lineages, as evidenced by the poor nodal bootstrap support at genus-level branches. Indeed, in the study by Lorenz et al. (2021), a phylogenetic tree constructed using a concatenation of all 13 protein-coding genes of the mitochondrial genome was able to resolve ancient divergence events. This affirms that while COI sequences can be used to reveal recent speciation events, longer or multi-gene molecular markers are necessary for studies into deeper evolutionary relationships (Danforth et al., 2005).

In contrast to Anophelines where 28S rRNA phylogenies illustrated higher interspecies divergence compared to COI phylogeny, two specimens of an unknown *Mansonia* species, "Ma sp.4 GF S103" and "Ma sp.4 GF S104", provided an example where interspecies relatedness based on their COI sequences is greater than that based on their rRNA sequences in relation to "Ma titillans GF S105". While all rRNA trees placed "Ma titillans GF S105" as a sister taxon with 100% bootstrap support, the COI tree placed Ma sp.4 basal to all other species except *Ur. Geometrica* (Figure 5; *Mansonia* in dark green, *Uranotaenia* in pink). This may hint at a historical selective sweep in the mitochondrial genome, whether arising from geographical separation, mutations, or linkage disequilibrium with inherited symbionts (Hurst & Jiggins, 2005), resulting in the disparate mitochondrial haplogroups found in French Guyanese Ma sp.4 and *Ma. titillans*. In addition, both haplogroups are distant from those associated with members of subgenus *Mansonoides*. To note, the COI sequences of "Ma sp.4 GF S103" and "Ma sp.4 GF S104" share 87.12 and 87.39% nucleotide similarity, respectively, to that of "Ma titillans GF S105". Interestingly, the endosymbiont *Wolbachia pipientis* has been detected in *Ma. titillans* sampled from Brazil (De Oliveira et al., 2015), which may contribute to the divergence of "Ma titillans GF S105" COI sequence away from those of Ma sp.4. This highlights other caveats of using a mitochondrial DNA marker in determining evolutionary relationships (Hurst & Jiggins, 2005), which nuclear markers such as 28S and 18S rRNA sequences may be immune to.

**Conclusions**

Total RNA-seq is a valuable tool for surveillance and virus discovery in sylvatic mosquitoes but it is impeded by the lack of full-length rRNA reference sequences. Here we presented a rRNA sequence assembly strategy and a dataset of 234 newly generated mosquito 28S and 18S rRNA sequences. Our work has expanded the current mosquito rRNA reference library by providing, to our knowledge, the first full-length rRNA records for 30 species in public databases and paves the way for the assembly of many more. These novel rRNA sequences can improve mosquito metagenomics based on RNA-seq by enabling physical and computational removal of rRNA from specimens and streamlined species identification using rRNA markers. Given that a reference sequence is available, rRNA markers could serve as a better approach for mosquito taxonomy and phylogeny than COI markers. In analysing the same set of specimens by their COI and rRNA sequences, we showed that rRNA sequences can discriminate between members of a species subgroup as well as conspecifics from different geographies. Phylogenetic inferences from a tree based on 28S rRNA sequences alone or on concatenated 28S+18S rRNA sequences are more aligned with contemporary mosquito systematics, showing evolutionary relationships that agree with other phylogenetic studies. While COI-based phylogeny can reveal recent speciation events, rRNA sequences may be better suited for investigations of deeper evolutionary relationships as they are less prone to selective sweeps and homoplasy. The advantages and disadvantages of rRNA and COI sequences as molecular markers are summarised in Table 3. Further studies are necessary to reveal how rRNA sequences compare against other nuclear or mitochondrial DNA marker systems (Batovska et al., 2017; Beebe, 2018; Behura, 2006; Ratnasingham & Hebert, 2007; Reidenbach et al., 2009; Vezenegho et al., 2022). **Table 3.** Comparison of 28S or concatenated 28S+18S rRNA and COI sequences as molecular

523 markers.





524

#### 525 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### 526 **Sample collection**

- 527 Mosquito specimens were sampled from 2019 to 2020 by medical entomology teams from the Institut
- 528 Pasteur de Bangui (Central African Republic, Africa; CF), Institut Pasteur de Madagascar
- 529 (Madagascar, Africa; MG), Institut Pasteur du Cambodge (Cambodia, Asia; KH), and Institut Pasteur
- 530 de la Guyane (French Guiana, South America; GF). Adult mosquitoes were sampled using several
- 531 techniques including CDC light traps, BG sentinels, and human-landing catches. Sampling sites are
- 532 sylvatic locations including rural settlements in the Central African Republic, Madagascar, and French
- 533 Guiana and national parks in Cambodia. Mosquitoes were morphologically identified using taxonomic
- 534 identification keys (Edwards, 1941; Grjebine, 1966; Huang & Ward, 1981; Oo et al., 2006;
- 535 Rattanarithikul et al., 2007, 2010; Rattanarithikul, Harbach, et al., 2005; Rattanarithikul, Harrison, et
- 536 al., 2005; Rattanarithikul, Harrison, Harbach, et al., 2006; Rattanarithikul, Harrison, Panthusiri, et al.,
- 537 2006; Rueda, 2004) on cold tables before preservation by flash freezing in liquid nitrogen and
- transportation in dry ice to Institut Pasteur Paris for analysis. A list of the 112 mosquito specimens
- included in our taxonomic assemblage and their related information are provided in Appendix 1—table
- 1. To note, specimen ID S53, S80, and S81 were removed from our assemblage as their species
- identity could not be determined by COI or rRNA sequencing.

#### **RNA and DNA isolation**

- Nucleic acids were isolated from mosquito specimens using TRIzol reagent according to
- manufacturer's protocol (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA). Single 545 mosquitoes were homogenised into 200 µL of TRIzol reagent and other of the reagents within the protocol were volume-adjusted accordingly. Following phase separation, RNA were isolated from the aqueous phase while DNA were isolated from the remaining interphase and phenol-chloroform phase. From here, RNA is used to prepare cDNA libraries for next generation sequencing while DNA is used in PCR amplification and Sanger sequencing of the mitochondrial *cytochrome* c *oxidase subunit I*
- (COI) gene as further described below.

#### **Probe depletion of rRNA**

We tested a selective rRNA depletion protocol by Morlan *et al.* (2012) on several mosquito species from the *Aedes*, *Culex*, and *Anopheles* genera. We designed 77 tiled 80 bp DNA probes antisense to the *Ae. aegypti* 28S, 18S, and 5.8S rRNA sequences. A pool of probes at a concentration of 0.04 µM 555 were prepared. To bind probes to rRNA, 1 µL of probes and 2 µL of Hybridisation Buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl and 200 mM NaCl) was added to rRNA samples to a final volume of 20 µL and subjected to 557 a slow-cool incubation starting at 95 °C for 2 minutes, then cooling to 22 °C at a rate of 0.1 °C per second, ending with an additional 5 minutes at 22 ºC. The resulting RNA:DNA hybrids were treated with 2.5 µL Hybridase™ Thermostable RNase H (Epicentre, Illumina, Madison, Wisconsin, USA) and 560 incubated at 37 °C for 30 minutes. To remove DNA probes, the mix was treated with 1 µL DNase I (Invitrogen) and purified with Agencourt RNAClean XP Beads (Beckman Coulter, Brea, California, USA). The resulting RNA is used for total RNA sequencing to check depletion efficiency.

#### **Total RNA sequencing**

To obtain rRNA sequences, RNA samples were quantified on a Qubit Fluorometer (Invitrogen) using the Qubit RNA BR Assay kit (Invitrogen) for concentration adjustment. Non-depleted total RNA was used for library preparation for next generation sequencing using the NEBNext Ultra II RNA Library

Preparation Kit for Illumina (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, Massachusetts, USA) and the NEBNext

Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (Dual Index Primers Set 1) (New England Biolabs). Sequencing was

- performed on a NextSeq500 sequencing system (Illumina, San Diego, California, USA). Quality
- control of fastq data and trimming of adapters were performed with FastQC and cutadapt,

respectively.

#### **28S and 18S rRNA assembly**

To obtain 28S and 18S rRNA contigs, we had to first clean our fastq library by separating the reads representing mosquito rRNA from all other reads. To achieve this, we used the SILVA RNA sequence database to create 2 libraries: one containing all rRNA sequences recorded under the "Insecta" node of the taxonomic tree, the other containing the rRNA sequences of many others nodes distributed throughout the taxonomic tree, hence named "Non-Insecta" (Quast et al., 2013). Each read was aligned using the nucleotide Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLASTn,

**https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/**) of the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) against

- each of the two libraries and the scores of the best high-scoring segment pairs from the two BLASTns
- are subsequently used to calculate a ratio of Insecta over Non-Insecta scores (Altschul et al., 1990).
- Only reads with a ratio greater than 0.8 were used in the assembly. The two libraries being non-
- exhaustive, we chose this threshold of 0.8 to eliminate only reads that were clearly of a non-insect

origin. Selected reads were assembled with the SPAdes genome assembler using the "-rna" option,

allowing more heterogeneous coverage of contigs and kmer lengths of 31 , 51 and 71 bases

(Bankevich et al., 2012). This method successfully assembled rRNA sequences for all specimens,

including a parasitic *Horreolanus* water mite (122 sequences for 28S and 114 sequences for 18S).

Initially, our filtration technique had two weaknesses. First, there is a relatively small number of

complete rRNA sequences in the Insecta library from SILVA. To compensate for this, we carried out

several filtration cycles, each time adding in the complete sequences produced in previous cycles to

the Insecta library. Second, when our mosquito specimens were parasitized by other insects, it was

not possible to bioinformatically filter out rRNA reads belonging to the parasite. For these rare cases,

- we used the " --trusted-contigs" option of the SPAdes assembler (Bankevich et al., 2012), giving it
- access to the 28S and 18S rRNA sequences of the mosquito closest in terms of taxonomic distance.

By doing this, the assembler was able to reconstruct the rRNA of the mosquito as well as the rRNA of

the parasitizing insect. All assembled rRNA sequences from this study have been deposited in

- GenBank with accession numbers OM350214–OM350327 for 18S rRNA sequences and OM542339–
- OM542460 for 28S rRNA sequences.

#### **COI amplicon sequencing**

- The mitochondrial COI gene was amplified from DNA samples using the universal "Folmer" primer set
- LCO1490 (5'- GGTCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTGG -3') and HCO2198 (5'-
- TAAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAAATCA-3'), as per standard COI marker sequencing practices,
- producing a 658 bp product (Folmer et al., 1994). PCRs were performed using Phusion High-Fidelity
- DNA Polymerase (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Every 50 µL reaction contained 10 µL of 5X High Fidelity
- buffer, 1 µL of 10 mM dNTPs, 2.5 µL each of 10 mM forward (LCO1490) and reverse (HCO2198)
- primer, 28.5 µL of water, 5 µL of DNA sample, and 0.5 µL of 2 U/µL Phusion DNA polymerase. A 3-
- step cycling incubation protocol was used: 98 ºC for 30 seconds; 35 cycles of 98 ºC for 10 seconds,
- 60 ºC for 30 seconds, and 72 ºC for 15 seconds; 72 ºC for 5 minutes ending with a 4 ºC hold. PCR
- products were size-verified using gel electrophoresis and then gel-purified using the QIAquick Gel
- Extraction Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Sanger sequencing of the COI amplicons were performed
- by Eurofins Genomics, Ebersberg, Germany.

#### **COI sequence analysis**

- Forward and reverse COI DNA sequences were end-trimmed to remove bases of poor quality (Q
- score < 30). At the 5' ends, sequences were trimmed at the same positions such that all forward
- sequences start with 5'- TTTTGG and all reverse sequences start with 5'- GGNTCT. Forward and
- reverse sequences were aligned using BLAST to produce a 621 bp consensus sequence. In cases
- where good quality sequences extends beyond 621 bp, forward and reverse sequences were
- assembled using Pearl (**https://www.gear-genomics.com/pearl/**) and manually checked for errors
- against trace files (Rausch et al., 2019, 2020). We successfully assembled a total of 106 COI
- sequences. All assembled COI sequences from this study have been deposited in GenBank with
- accession numbers OM630610–OM630715.

#### **COI validation of morphology-based species identification**

- We analysed assembled COI sequences with BLASTn against the nucleotide collection (nr/nt)
- database to confirm morphology-based species identification. BLAST analyses revealed 32 cases
- where top hits indicated a different species identity, taking <95% nucleotide sequence similarity as the

threshold to delineate distinct species (Appendix 2—table 1). In these cases, the COI sequence of the specimen was then BLAST-aligned against a GenBank record representing the morphological species to verify that the revised identity is a closer match by a significant margin, i.e., more than 2% nucleotide sequence similarity. All species names reported hereafter reflect identities determined by COI sequence except for cases where COI-based identities were ambiguous, in which case morphology-based identities were retained. In cases where matches were found within a single genus but of multiple species, specimens were indicated as an unknown member of their genus (e.g., *Culex* sp.). Information of the highest-scoring references for all specimens, including details of ambiguous BLASTn results, are recorded in Appendix 2—table 1.

Within our COI sequences, we found six unidentified *Culex* species (including two that matched to GenBank entries identified only to the genus level), four unidentified *Mansonia* species, and one unidentified *Mimomyia* species. For *An. baezai*, no existing GenBank records were found at the time this analysis was performed.

#### **Phylogenetic analysis**

Multiple sequence alignment (MSA) were performed on assembled COI and rRNA sequences using the MUSCLE software (Edgar, 2004; Madeira et al., 2019). As shown in Figure 3—figure supplement 2, the 28S rRNA sequences contain many blocks of highly conserved nucleotides, which makes the result of multiple alignment particularly obvious. We therefore did not test other alignment programs. The multiple alignment of the COI amplicons is even more evident since no gaps are necessary for this alignment.

Phylogenetic tree reconstructions were performed with the MEGA X software using the maximum-likelihood method (S. Kumar et al., 2018). Default parameters were used with bootstrapping with 500 replications to quantify confidence level in branches. For rRNA trees, sequences belonging to an unknown species of parasitic water mite (genus *Horreolanus*) found in our specimens served as an outgroup taxon. In addition, we created and analysed a separate dataset combining our 28S rRNA sequences and full-length 28S rRNA sequences from GenBank totalling 169 sequences from 58 species (12 subgenera). To serve as outgroups for the COI tree, we included sequences obtained from GenBank of three water mite species, *Horreolanus orphanus* (KM101004), *Sperchon fuxiensis* (MH916807), and *Arrenurus* sp. (MN362807).

#### **DECLARATIONS**

#### **Availability of data and materials**

- The multiple sequence alignments that gave rise to the presented phylogenetic reconstructions are
- included as source data files linked to the relevant figures. All sequences generated in this study have
- been deposited in GenBank under the accession numbers OM350214–OM350327 for 18S rRNA
- sequences, OM542339–OM542460 for 28S rRNA sequences, and OM630610–OM630715 for COI
- sequences (Appendix 1—table 1).

#### **Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no financial or non-financial competing interests.

#### **Impact statement**

- A score-based read filtration strategy enables assembly of full-length ribosomal RNA sequences for
- lesser-studied mosquito species, opening the doors to the use of these sequences as a novel
- molecular marker for taxonomic and phylogenetic studies.

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### **FIGURE SUPPLEMENTS**

#### **Figure 3—figure supplement 1**

- **Interspecific and intersubgeneric distances within the genus** *Anopheles* **indicate a greater**
- **degree of divergence than those within any other genera of family** *Culicidae***.** The phylogenetic
- tree presented in Figure 3 based on 28S sequences from this study and from GenBank (annotated
- with filled circles) is depicted here in radial format to illustrate how the branch lengths separating
- Anopheline taxa are longer relative to other members of family *Culicidae*. An unknown Horreolanus

species found among our samples serves as an outgroup. For sequences from this study, each

specimen label contains information on taxonomy, origin (in 2-letter country codes), and specimen ID

- number. Specimen genera are indicated by colour: *Culex* in coral, *Anopheles* in purple, *Aedes* in dark
- blue, *Mansonia* in dark green, *Limatus* in light green, *Coquillettidia* in light blue, *Psorophora* in yellow,
- *Mimomyia* in teal, *Uranotaenia* in pink and *Eretmapodites* in brown. Scale bar at 0.05 is shown.
- **Figure 3—figure supplement 2**





**Sequence conservation among 169 28S rRNA sequences obtained from this study and from** 

- **GenBank combined**. Multiple sequence alignment was performed on 28S rRNA sequences, 3900 bp
- in length. Each bar represents a 25-bp sliding window of the 28S rRNA sequence alignment where
- the y-axis values are the lowest percentage nucleotide identity found.
- **Figure 4—figure supplement 1**





**Phylogenetic tree based on 28S rRNA sequences generated from this study (3900 bp).** This tree was inferred using maximum-likelihood method and constructed to scale in MEGA X (S. Kumar et al., 2018) using an unknown *Horreolanus* species found among our samples as an outgroup. Values at each node indicate bootstrap support (%) from 500 replications. For sequences from this study, each specimen label contains information on taxonomy, origin (in 2-letter country codes), and specimen ID number. Some specimens produced up to two consensus 28S rRNA sequences; this is indicated by the numbers 1 or 2 in the beginning of the specimen label. Specimen genera are indicated by colour: *Culex* in coral, *Anopheles* in purple, *Aedes* in dark blue, *Mansonia* in dark green, *Limatus* in light green, *Coquillettidia* in light blue, *Psorophora* in yellow, *Mimomyia* in teal, *Uranotaenia* in pink and *Eretmapodites* in brown. Scale bar at 0.05 is shown.

#### **Figure 4—figure supplement 2**



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**Phylogenetic tree based on 18S rRNA sequences (1900 bp).** This tree was inferred using maximum-likelihood method and constructed to scale in MEGA X (S. Kumar et al., 2018) using an unknown *Horreolanus* species found among our samples as an outgroup. Values at each node indicate bootstrap support (%) from 500 replications. For sequences from this study, each specimen label contains information on taxonomy, origin (in 2-letter country codes), and specimen ID number. One 18S rRNA sequence was obtain for each specimen. Specimen genera are indicated by colour: *Culex* in coral, *Anopheles* in purple, *Aedes* in dark blue, *Mansonia* in dark green, *Limatus* in light green, *Coquillettidia* in light blue, *Psorophora* in yellow, *Mimomyia* in teal, *Uranotaenia* in pink and *Eretmapodites* in brown. Scale bar at 0.05 is shown.

#### 724 **APPENDICES**

725 **Appendix 1—table 1.** Taxonomic and sampling information on mosquito specimens and associated accession numbers of their COI, 18S rRNA, and 28S

726 rRNA sequences (XLSX).

















#### 727

## 728 **Appendix 2—table 1.** COI sequence BLAST analyses summary (XLSX).





#### quinquefasciatus









#### **SOURCE DATA FILES**

**Figure 3—source data 1.** Multiple sequence alignment of 169 28S rRNA sequences from this study

and from GenBank (FASTA).

- **Figure 4—source data 1.** Multiple sequence alignment of 122 28S rRNA sequences, including two
- sequences from *Horreolanus sp.* (FASTA).
- **Figure 4—source data 2.** Multiple sequence alignment of 114 18S rRNA sequences, including two
- sequences from *Horreolanus sp*. (FASTA).
- **Figure 5—source data 1.** Multiple sequence alignment of 106 COI sequences (FASTA).

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