

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

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55 **Abstract**

56 *Anopheles* (*An.*) mosquitoes contain bacteria that can influence *Plasmodium* parasites. *Wolbachia*, a  
57 common insect endosymbiont, has historically been considered absent from *Anopheles* but has  
58 recently been found in *An. gambiae* populations. Here, we assessed a range of *Anopheles* species  
59 from five malaria-endemic countries for *Wolbachia* and *Plasmodium* infection. Strikingly, we found  
60 *Wolbachia* infections in *An. coluzzii*, *An. gambiae* s.s, *An. arabiensis*, *An. moucheti* and *An.* species  
61 'A' increasing the number of *Anopheles* species known to be naturally infected by this endosymbiont.  
62 Molecular analysis suggests the presence of phylogenetically diverse novel strains, while qPCR and  
63 16S rRNA sequencing indicates that *Wolbachia* is the dominant member of the microbiota in *An.*  
64 *moucheti* and *An.* species 'A'. We found no evidence of *Wolbachia/Asaia* co-infections, and presence  
65 of these endosymbionts did not have significant effects on malaria prevalence. We discuss the  
66 importance of novel *Wolbachia* strains in *Anopheles* and potential implications for disease control.

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## 95 Introduction

96 Malaria is transmitted to humans through inoculation of *Plasmodium* (*P.*) sporozoites during the  
97 infectious bite of an infected female *Anopheles* (*An.*) mosquito. The genus *Anopheles* consists of 475  
98 formally recognised species with ~40 vector species/species complexes responsible for the  
99 transmission of malaria at a level of public health concern [1]. During the mosquito infection cycle,  
100 *Plasmodium* parasites encounter a variety of resident microbiota both in the mosquito midgut and  
101 other tissues. Numerous studies have shown that certain species of bacteria can inhibit *Plasmodium*  
102 development [2–4]. For example, *Enterobacter* bacteria that reside in the *Anopheles* midgut can  
103 inhibit the development of *Plasmodium* parasites prior to their invasion of the midgut epithelium [5,6].  
104 *Wolbachia* endosymbiotic bacteria are estimated to naturally infect ~40% of insect species [7]  
105 including mosquito vector species that are responsible for transmission of human diseases such as  
106 *Culex* (*Cx.*) *quinquefasciatus* [8–10] and *Aedes* (*Ae.*) *albopictus* [11,12]. Although *Wolbachia* strains  
107 have been shown to have variable effects on arboviral infections in their native mosquito hosts [13–  
108 15], transinfected *Wolbachia* strains have been considered for mosquito biocontrol strategies, due to  
109 a variety of synergistic phenotypic effects. Transinfected strains in *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus*  
110 provide strong inhibitory effects on arboviruses, with maternal transmission and cytoplasmic  
111 incompatibility enabling introduced strains to spread through populations [16–22]. Open releases of  
112 *Wolbachia*-transinfected *Ae. aegypti* populations have demonstrated the ability of the wMel *Wolbachia*  
113 strain to invade wild populations [23] and provide strong inhibitory effects on viruses from field  
114 populations [24], with releases currently occurring in arbovirus endemic countries such as Indonesia,  
115 Vietnam, Brazil and Colombia (<https://www.worldmosquitoprogram.org>).

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

131  
132 Recently, resident *Wolbachia* strains have been discovered in the *An. gambiae* s.l. complex, which  
133 consists of multiple morphologically indistinguishable species including several major malaria vector  
134 species. *Wolbachia* strains (collectively named wAnga) were found in *An. gambiae* s.l. populations in

135 Burkina Faso [39] and Mali [40], suggesting that *Wolbachia* may be more abundant in the *An.*  
136 *gambiae* complex across Sub-Saharan Africa. Globally, there is a large variety of *Anopheles* vector  
137 species (~70) that have the capacity to transmit malaria [41] and could potentially contain resident  
138 *Wolbachia* strains. Additionally, this number of malaria vector species may be an underestimate given  
139 that recent studies using molecular barcoding have also revealed a larger diversity of *Anopheles*  
140 species than would have been identified using morphological identification alone [42,43].

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142 In this study, we collected *Anopheles* mosquitoes from five malaria-endemic countries; Ghana,  
143 Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Guinea, Uganda and Madagascar, from 2013-2017. Wild-  
144 caught adult female *Anopheles* were screened for *P. falciparum* malaria parasites, *Wolbachia* and  
145 *Asaia* bacteria. In total, we analysed mosquitoes from 17 *Anopheles* species that are known malaria  
146 vectors or implicated in transmission, and some unidentified species, discovering five species of  
147 *Anopheles* with resident *Wolbachia* strains; *An. coluzzii* from Ghana, *An. gambiae* s.s., *An.*  
148 *arabiensis*, *An. moucheti* and *Anopheles* species 'A' from DRC. Using *Wolbachia* gene sequencing  
149 we show that the resident strains in these malaria vectors are diverse, novel strains and qPCR and  
150 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing data suggests that the strains in *An. moucheti* and *An.* species 'A'  
151 are higher density infections, compared to the strains found in the *An. gambiae* s.l. complex. We  
152 found no evidence for either *Wolbachia-Asaia* co-infections, or for either endosymbiont having any  
153 significant effect on the prevalence of malaria in wild mosquito populations.

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## 155 **Results**

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157 **Mosquito species and resident *Wolbachia* strains.** *Anopheles* species composition varied  
158 depending on country and mosquito collection sites (**Table 1**). We detected *Wolbachia* in *An. coluzzii*  
159 (previously named M molecular form) mosquitoes from Ghana (prevalence of 4% - termed wAnga-  
160 Ghana) and *An. gambiae* s.s. (previously named S molecular form) from all six collection sites in DRC  
161 (prevalence range of 8-24%) in addition to a single infected *An. arabiensis* from Kalemie in DRC  
162 (**Figure 1, Table 1**). The molecular phylogeny of the ITS2 gene of *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. complex  
163 individuals (including both *Wolbachia*-infected and uninfected individuals analysed in our study)  
164 confirmed molecular species identifications made using species-specific PCR assays (**Figure 2**).  
165 Novel resident *Wolbachia* infections were detected in two additional *Anopheles* species from DRC;  
166 *An. moucheti* (termed wAnM) from Mikalayi, and *An.* species A (termed wAnsA) from Katana.  
167 Additionally, we screened adult female mosquitoes of *An.* species A (collected as larvae and adults)  
168 from Lwiro, a village near Katana in DRC, and detected *Wolbachia* in 30/33 (91%), indicating this  
169 resident wAnsA strain has a high infection prevalence in populations in this region. The molecular  
170 phylogeny of the ITS2 gene revealed *Wolbachia*-infected individuals from Lwiro and Katana are the  
171 same *An.* species A (**Figure 3**) previously collected in Eastern Zambia [43] and Western Kenya [44].  
172 All ITS2 sequences were deposited in GenBank (accession numbers MH598414 – MH598445)  
173 (**Supplementary Table 1**).

174 **Wolbachia strain typing.** Phylogenetic analysis of the 16S rRNA gene demonstrated that the 16S  
175 sequences for these strains cluster with other Supergroup B strains such as *wPip* (99-100%  
176 nucleotide identity) (**Figure 4a**). When compared to the resident *Wolbachia* strains in *An. gambiae*  
177 s.l. populations from Mali [40] and Burkina Faso [39], *wAnga-Ghana* is more closely related to the  
178 Supergroup B strain of *wAnga* from Burkina Faso. Although a resident strain was detected in *An.*  
179 *gambiae* s.s. and a single *An. arabiensis* from DRC through amplification of 16S rRNA fragments  
180 using two independent PCR assays [40,45], we were unable to obtain 16S sequences of sufficient  
181 quality to allow further analysis. The *Wolbachia* surface protein (*wsp*) gene has been evolving at a  
182 faster rate and provides more informative strain phylogenies [46]. As expected, however, and similar  
183 to *Wolbachia*-infected *An. gambiae* s.l. from Burkina Faso [39] and Mali [40], a fragment of the *wsp*  
184 gene was not amplified from *Wolbachia*-positive samples from *An. gambiae* s.s., *An. arabiensis* and  
185 *An. coluzzii*. Similarly, no *wsp* gene fragment amplification occurred from *wAnM*-infected *An.*  
186 *moucheti*. However, *wsp* sequences were obtained from both *Wolbachia*-infected individuals of *An.*  
187 species A from Katana. We also analysed the *wsp* sequences of 22 specimens of *An.* species A from  
188 Lwiro (near Katana) and found identical sequences to the two individuals from Katana. Phylogenetic  
189 analysis of the *wsp* sequences obtained for the *wAnsA* strain, for both individuals from Katana  
190 (*wAnsA wsp DRC-KAT1*, *wAnsA wsp DRC-KAT2*) and three representative individuals from Lwiro  
191 (*wAnsA wsp DRC-LWI1*, *wAnsA wsp DRC-LWI2*, *wAnsA wsp DRC-LWI3*) indicates *wAnsA* is most  
192 closely related to *Wolbachia* strains of Supergroup B (such as *wPip*, *wAlbB*, *wMa* and *wNo*) which is  
193 consistent with 16S rRNA phylogeny. However, the improved phylogenetic resolution provided by *wsp*  
194 indicates they cluster separately (**Figure 4b**). Typing of the *wAnsA wsp* nucleotide sequences  
195 highlighted that there were no exact matches to *wsp* alleles currently in the *Wolbachia* MLST  
196 database (<https://pubmlst.org/wolbachia/>) (**Table 2**). All *Wolbachia* 16S and *wsp* sequences were  
197 deposited into GenBank (accession numbers MH605275 – MH605285) (**Supplementary Table 2**).

198 Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) was undertaken to provide more accurate strain phylogenies. This  
199 was done for the novel *Wolbachia* strains *wAnM* and *wAnsA* in addition to the resident *wAnga-Ghana*  
200 strain in *An. coluzzii* from Ghana. We were unable to amplify any of the five MLST genes from  
201 *Wolbachia*-infected *An. gambiae* s.s. and *An. arabiensis* from DRC (likely due to low infection  
202 densities). New alleles for all five MLST gene loci (sequences differed from those currently present in  
203 the MLST database) confirm the diversity of these novel *Wolbachia* strains (**Table 2**). The phylogeny  
204 of these three novel strains based on concatenated sequences of all five MLST gene loci confirms  
205 they cluster within Supergroup B (**Figure 5a**). This also demonstrates the novelty as comparison with  
206 a wide range of strains (including all isolates highlighted through partial matching during typing of  
207 each locus) shows these strains are distinct from currently available sequences (**Figure 5a, Table 2**).  
208 The concatenated phylogeny indicates that *wAnM* is most closely related to a Hemiptera strain:  
209 Isolate number 1616 found in *Bemisia tabaci* in Uganda, and a Coleoptera strain: Isolate number 20  
210 found in *Tribolium confusum*. Concatenation of the MLST loci also indicates *wAnsA* is closest to a  
211 group containing various Lepidoptera and Hymenoptera strains from multiple countries in Asia,  
212 Europe and America, as well as two mosquito strains: Isolate numbers 1830 and 1831, found in

213 *Aedes cinereus* and *Coquillettidia richiardii* in Russia. This highlights the lack of concordance  
214 between *Wolbachia* strain phylogeny and their insect hosts across diverse geographical regions. We  
215 also found evidence of potential strain variants in *wAnsA* through variable MLST gene fragment  
216 amplification and resulting closest-match allele numbers. A second *wAnsA*-infected sample, *An. sp.*  
217 A/1 (W+) DRC-KAT2, only amplified *hcpA* and *coxA* gene fragments and although identical  
218 sequences were obtained for *wsp* (**Figure 4b**) and *hcpA*, genetic diversity was seen in the *coxA*  
219 sequences, with typing revealing a different, but still novel allele for the *coxA* sequence from this  
220 individual (*wAnsA*(2) *coxA* DRC-KAT2) (**Figure 5b**). MLST gene fragment amplification was also  
221 variable for *wAnga*-Ghana-infected *An. coluzzii*, requiring two individuals to generate the five MLST  
222 gene sequences, and for the *hcpA* locus, more degenerate primers (*hcpA\_F3/hcpA\_R3*) were  
223 required to generate sequence of sufficient quality for analysis. This is likely due to the low density of  
224 this strain potentially influencing the ability to successfully amplify all MLST genes, in addition to the  
225 possibility of genetic variation in primer binding regions. Despite the sequences generated for this  
226 strain producing exact matches with alleles in the database for each of the five gene loci, the resultant  
227 allelic profile, and therefore strain type, did not produce a match, showing this *wAnga*-Ghana strain is  
228 also a novel strain type. The closest matches to the *wAnga*-Ghana allelic profile were with strains  
229 from two Lepidopteran species: Isolate number 609 found in *Fabriciana adippe* from Russia, and  
230 Isolate number 658 found in *Pammene fasciana* from Greece, but each of these only produced a  
231 match for 3 out of the 5 loci. The concatenated phylogeny for this strain (**Figure 5a**) indicates that  
232 across the 5 MLST loci, *wAnga*-Ghana is actually most closely related to a Lepidopteran strain found  
233 in *Thersamonia thersamon* in Russia (Isolate number 132). The phylogeny of *Wolbachia* strains  
234 based on the *coxA* gene (**Figure 5b**) highlights the genetic diversity of both the *wAnsA* strain variants  
235 and also *wAnga*-Ghana compared to the *wAnga*-Mali strain [40]; *coxA* gene sequences are not  
236 available for *wAnga* strains from Burkina Faso [39]. All *Wolbachia* MLST sequences were deposited  
237 into GenBank (accession numbers MH605286 – MH605305) (**Supplementary Table 3**).

238  
239 **Resident strain densities and relative abundance.** The relative densities of *Wolbachia* strains were  
240 estimated using qPCR targeting the *ftsZ* [47] and 16S rRNA [40] genes. *ftsZ* and 16S rRNA qPCR  
241 analysis indicated the amount of *Wolbachia* detected in *wAnsA*-infected and *wAnM*-infected females  
242 was approximately 1000-fold higher (Ct values 20-22) than *Wolbachia*-infected *An. gambiae* s.s., *An.*  
243 *arabiensis* and *wAnga*-Ghana-infected *An. coluzzii* (Ct values 30-33). To account for variation in  
244 mosquito body size and DNA extraction efficiency, we compared the total amount of DNA for  
245 *Wolbachia*-infected mosquito extracts and conversely, we found less total DNA in the *wAnsA*-infected  
246 extract (1.36 ng/ $\mu$ L) and the *An. moucheti* (*wAnM*-infected) extract (5.85 ng/ $\mu$ L) compared to the  
247 mean of 6.64 +/- 2.33 ng/ $\mu$ L for *wAnga*-Ghana-infected *An. coluzzii*. To estimate the relative  
248 abundance of resident *Wolbachia* strains in comparison to other bacterial species, we sequenced the  
249 bacterial microbiome using 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing on *Wolbachia*-infected individuals. We  
250 found *wAnsA*, *wAnsA*(2) and *wAnM* *Wolbachia* strains were the dominant operational taxonomic units  
251 (OTUs) of these mosquito species (**Figure 6**). In contrast, the lower density infection *wAnga*-Ghana  
252 strain represented only ~10% of the OTUs within the microbiome.

253 ***P. falciparum*, *Wolbachia* and *Asaia* prevalence.** The prevalence of *P. falciparum* in female  
254 mosquitoes was extremely variable across countries and collection locations (**Figure 1, Table 1**) with  
255 very high prevalence recorded in *An. gambiae* s.s. from villages close to Boke (52%) and Faranah  
256 (44%) in Guinea. Despite the collection of other *Anopheles* species in Guinea, *An. gambiae* s.s. was  
257 the only species to have detectable malaria infections. In contrast, malaria was detected in multiple  
258 major vector species from DRC, including *An. gambiae* s.s., *An. arabiensis* and *An. funestus* s.s. A  
259 high prevalence of *P. falciparum* was also detected in *An. gambiae* s.s. from Uganda for both  
260 collection years; 19% for 2013 and 36% for 2014. In contrast, no *P. falciparum* infections were  
261 detected in any of the *An. coluzzii* or *An. melas* collected in Ghana. In Madagascar, *P. falciparum*  
262 was detected in only two species; *An. gambiae* s.s. and *An. rufipes*. We compared the overall *P.*  
263 *falciparum* infection rates in *An. gambiae* s.s. mosquitoes collected across all locations from DRC to  
264 determine if there was any correlation with the presence of the low density wAnga-DRC *Wolbachia*  
265 resident strain. Overall, of the 128 mosquitoes collected, only 1.56% (n=2) had detectable *Wolbachia*-  
266 *Plasmodium* co-infections compared to 10.16% (n=13) where we only detected *Wolbachia*. A further  
267 11.72% (n=15) were only PCR-positive for *P. falciparum*. As expected, for the vast majority of  
268 mosquitoes (76.56%, n=98) we found no evidence of *Wolbachia* or *P. falciparum* present, resulting in  
269 no correlation across all samples (Fisher's exact *post hoc* test on unnormalized data, two-tailed,  
270  $P=0.999$ ). Interestingly, one *An.* species 'A' female from Katana was infected with *P. falciparum*.  
271  
272 For all *Wolbachia*-infected females collected in our study (including *An. coluzzii* from Ghana and novel  
273 resident strains in *An. moucheti* and *An. species A*), we did not detect the presence of *Asaia*. No  
274 resident *Wolbachia* strain infections were detected in *Anopheles* mosquitoes from Guinea, Uganda or  
275 Madagascar. However, high *Asaia* and malaria prevalence rates were present in *Anopheles*  
276 mosquitoes from Uganda and Guinea (including multiple species in all four sites in Guinea). We  
277 compared the overall *P. falciparum* infection rates in *An. gambiae* s.s. collected across all locations  
278 from Guinea, with and without *Asaia* bacteria, and found no overall correlation (Fisher's exact *post*  
279 *hoc* test on unnormalized data, two-tailed,  $P=0.4902$ ). There was also no overall correlation between  
280 *Asaia* and *P. falciparum* infections in *An. gambiae* s.s. from Uganda for both 2013 (Fisher's exact *post*  
281 *hoc* test on unnormalized data, two-tailed,  $P=0.601$ ) and 2014 (Fisher's exact *post hoc* test on  
282 unnormalized data, two-tailed,  $P=0.282$ ).  
283  
284 *Asaia* can be environmentally acquired at all life stages but can also have the potential to be vertically  
285 and horizontally transmitted between individual mosquitoes. Therefore, we performed 16S  
286 microbiome analysis on a sub-sample of *Asaia*-infected *An. gambiae* s.s. from Kissidougou (Guinea),  
287 a location in which high levels of *Asaia* were detected by qPCR (mean *Asaia* Ct = 17.84 +/- 2.27).  
288 *Asaia* in these individuals is the dominant bacterial species present (**Figure 7a**) but in Uganda we  
289 detected much lower levels of *Asaia* (qPCR mean Ct = 33.33 +/- 0.19) and this was reflected in *Asaia*  
290 not being a dominant species (**Figure 7b**). The alpha and beta diversity of *An. gambiae* s.s. from  
291 Kissidougou, Guinea and Butemba, Uganda shows much more overall diversity in the microbiome for  
292 Uganda individuals (**supplementary figure S1**). Interestingly, 2/5 of these individuals from

293 Kissidougou (Guinea) were *P. falciparum*-infected compared to 3/5 individuals from Uganda. To  
294 determine if the presence of *Asaia* had a quantifiable effect on the level of *P. falciparum* detected, we  
295 normalized *P. falciparum* Ct values from qPCR (**supplementary figure S2a**) and compared gene  
296 ratios for *An. gambiae* s.s. mosquitoes from Guinea, with or without *Asaia* (**supplementary figure**  
297 **S2b**). Statistical analysis using student's t-tests revealed no significant difference between  
298 normalized *P. falciparum* gene ratios ( $p= 0.51$ ,  $df =59$ ). Larger variation of Ct values was seen for  
299 *Asaia* (**supplementary figure S2c**) suggesting the bacterial densities in individual mosquitoes were  
300 more variable than *P. falciparum* parasite infection levels.

301

## 302 Discussion

303 Malaria transmission in Sub-Saharan Africa is highly dependent on the local *Anopheles* vector  
304 species but the primary vector complexes recognised are *An. gambiae* s.l., *An. funestus* s.l. *An. nili*  
305 s.l. and *An. moucheti* s.l. [41,48]. *An. gambiae* s.s. and *An. coluzzii* sibling species are considered  
306 the most important malaria vectors in Sub-Saharan Africa and recent studies indicate that *An. coluzzii*  
307 extends further north, and closer to the coast than *An. gambiae* s.s. within west Africa [49]. In our  
308 study, high malaria prevalence rates in *An. gambiae* s.s. across Guinea would be consistent with high  
309 malaria parasite prevalence (measured by rapid diagnostic tests) in Guéckédou prefecture, and the  
310 overall national malaria prevalence estimated to be 44% in 2013 [50]. However, malaria prevalence  
311 has decreased in the past few years with an overall prevalence across Guinea estimated at 15% for  
312 2016. Although our *P. falciparum* infection prevalence rates were also high in DRC, recent studies  
313 have shown comparable levels of infection with 35% of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes infected from  
314 Kinshasa [51]. We detected *P. falciparum* in *An. gambiae* s.s., *An. arabiensis*, *An. funestus* s.s. and  
315 *An. species A* from DRC. Morphological differences have been widely used for identification of  
316 malaria vectors but species complexes (such as *An. gambiae* s.l. and *An. funestus* s.l.) require  
317 species-diagnostic PCR assays. Historically, malaria entomology studies in Africa have focused  
318 predominantly on species from these complexes, likely due to the fact that mosquitoes from these  
319 complexes dominate the collections [43]. In our study, we used ITS2 sequencing to confirm  
320 secondary vector species that were *P. falciparum*-infected given the difficulties of morphological  
321 identification and recent studies demonstrating the inaccuracy of diagnostic species PCR-based  
322 molecular identification [52]. Our study is the first to report the detection of *P. falciparum* in *An.*  
323 *rufipes* from Madagascar; previously this species was considered a vector of *Plasmodium* species of  
324 non-human origin and has only very recently been implicated in human malaria transmission [53].  
325 However, detection of *P. falciparum* parasites in whole body mosquitoes does not confirm that the  
326 species plays a significant role in transmission. Detection could represent infected bloodmeal stages  
327 or oocysts present in the midgut wall so further studies are warranted to determine this species ability  
328 to transmit human malaria parasites.

329

330 The mosquito microbiota can modulate the mosquito immune response and bacteria present in wild  
331 *Anopheles* populations can influence malaria vector competence [4,5]. Endosymbiotic *Wolbachia*  
332 bacteria are particularly widespread through insect populations but they were commonly thought to be



333 absent from *Anopheles* mosquitoes. However, the recent discovery of *Wolbachia* strains in the *An.*  
334 *gambiae* s.l. complex in Burkina Faso and Mali [39,40] in addition to our study showing infection in  
335 *Anopheles* from Ghana and DRC, suggest resident strains could be widespread across Sub-Saharan  
336 Africa. The discovery of resident strains in Burkina Faso resulted from sequencing of the 16S rRNA  
337 gene identifying *Wolbachia* sequences rather than screening using *Wolbachia*-specific genes [39].  
338 Intriguingly, *Wolbachia* infections in these mosquitoes could not be detected using conventional PCR  
339 targeting the *wsp* gene. As the *wsp* gene has often been used in previous studies to detect strains in  
340 *Anopheles* species [25,27], this could explain why resident strains in the *An. gambiae* s.l. complex  
341 have gone undetected until very recently. Recent similar methods using 16S rRNA amplicon  
342 sequencing to determine the overall microbiota in wild mosquito populations has provided evidence  
343 for *Wolbachia* infections in *An. gambiae* in additional villages in Burkina Faso [54] and *Anopheles*  
344 species collected in Illinois, USA [55]. Our study describing resident *Wolbachia* strains in numerous  
345 species of *Anopheles* malaria vectors also highlights the potential for *Wolbachia* to be influencing  
346 malaria transmission, as postulated by previous studies [39,40,56]. Although no significant correlation  
347 was present for malaria and *Wolbachia* prevalence in the 128 *An. gambiae* s.s. individuals from DRC,  
348 we only detected co-infections in two individuals compared to 13 and 15 individuals infected only with  
349 *Wolbachia* or *P. falciparum* respectively. As the majority (77%) of samples had neither detectable  
350 *Wolbachia* resident strains or *P. falciparum*, a larger sample size would be needed to determine if  
351 there is a correlation, as shown previously in both Burkina Faso [56] and Mali [40]. The infection  
352 prevalence of resident *Wolbachia* strains in *An. coluzzii* from Ghana (4%) and *An. gambiae* s.s. from  
353 the DRC was variable but low (8-24%), consistent with infection prevalence in Burkina Faso (11%)  
354 [39] but much lower than those reported in Mali (60-80%) [40] where infection was associated with  
355 reduced prevalence and intensity of sporozoite infection in field-collected females.

356  
357 The discovery of a resident *Wolbachia* strain in *An. moucheti*, a highly anthropophilic and efficient  
358 malaria vector found in the forested areas of western and central Africa [41], suggests further studies  
359 are warranted that utilize large sample sizes to examine the influence of the *wAnM* *Wolbachia* strain  
360 on *Plasmodium* infection dynamics in this malaria vector. *An. moucheti* is often the most abundant  
361 vector, breeding in slow moving streams and rivers, contributing to year round malaria transmission in  
362 these regions [57,58]. This species has also been implicated as a main bridge vector species in the  
363 transmission of ape *Plasmodium* malaria in Gabon [59]. There is thought to be high genetic diversity  
364 in *An. moucheti* populations [60,61] which may either influence the prevalence of *Wolbachia* resident  
365 strains or *Wolbachia* could be contributing to genetic diversity through its effect on host reproduction.  
366 A novel *Wolbachia* strain in *An.* species 'A', present at high infection frequencies in Lwiro (close to  
367 Katana in DRC), also suggests more *Anopheles* species, including unidentified and potentially new  
368 species, could be infected with this widespread endosymbiotic bacterium. *An.* species A should be  
369 further investigated to determine if this species is a potential malaria vector given our study  
370 demonstrated *P. falciparum* infection in one of two individuals screened and ELISA-positive samples  
371 of this species were reported from the Western Highlands of Kenya [62].

372

373 The variability of *Wolbachia* prevalence rates in *An. gambiae* s.l. complex from locations within DRC  
374 and Ghana and previous studies in Burkina Faso [39] and Mali [40] suggest the environment is one  
375 factor that influences the presence or absence of resident strains. In our study we found no evidence  
376 of *Wolbachia-Asaia* co-infections across all countries, supporting laboratory studies that have shown  
377 these two bacterial endosymbionts demonstrate competitive exclusion in *Anopheles* species [36,38].  
378 We also found that *Asaia* infection densities (whole body mosquitoes) were variable and location  
379 dependent which would correlate with this bacterium being environmentally acquired at all life stages,  
380 but also having the potential for both vertical and horizontal transmission [37]. Significant variations in  
381 overall *Asaia* prevalence and density across different *Anopheles* species and locations in our study  
382 would also correlate with our data indicating no evidence of an association with *P. falciparum*  
383 prevalence in both Guinea and Uganda populations. Further studies are needed to determine the  
384 complex interaction between these two bacterial endosymbionts and malaria in diverse *Anopheles*  
385 malaria vector species. Horizontal transfer of *Wolbachia* strains between species (even over large  
386 phylogenetic differences) has shaped the evolutionary history of this endosymbiont in insects and  
387 there is evidence for loss of infection in host lineages over evolutionary time [63]. Our results showing  
388 a new strain present in *An. coluzzii* from Ghana (phylogenetically different to strains present in *An.*  
389 *gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes from both Burkina Faso and Mali), strain variants observed in *An.* species A,  
390 and the concatenated grouping of the novel *Anopheles* strains with strains found in different Orders of  
391 insects, support the lack of congruence between insect host and *Wolbachia* phylogenetic trees [64].  
392  
393 Our qPCR and 16S microbiome analysis indicates the densities of wAnM and wAnsA strains are  
394 significantly higher than resident *Wolbachia* strains in *An. gambiae* s.l. However, caution must be  
395 taken as we were only able to analyse selected individuals and larger collections of wild populations  
396 would be required to confirm these results. Native *Wolbachia* strains dominating the microbiome of  
397 *An. species A* and *An. moucheti* is consistent with other studies of resident strains in mosquitoes  
398 showing *Wolbachia* 16S rRNA gene amplicons vastly outnumber sequences from other bacteria in  
399 *Ae. albopictus* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* [65,66]. The discovery of novel *Wolbachia* strains provides  
400 the rationale to undertake vector competence experiments to determine what effect these strains are  
401 having on malaria transmission. The tissue tropism of novel *Wolbachia* strains in malaria vectors will  
402 be particularly important to characterise given this will determine if these endosymbiotic bacteria are  
403 proximal to malaria parasites within the mosquito. It would also be important to determine the  
404 additional phenotypic effects novel resident *Wolbachia* strains have on their mosquito hosts. Some  
405 *Wolbachia* strains induce a reproductive phenotype termed cytoplasmic incompatibility (CI) that  
406 results in inviable offspring when an uninfected female mates with a *Wolbachia*-infected male. In  
407 contrast, *Wolbachia*-infected females produce viable progeny when they mate with both infected and  
408 uninfected male mosquitoes. This reproductive advantage over uninfected females allows *Wolbachia*  
409 to spread within mosquito populations.  
410  
411 *Wolbachia* has been the focus of recent biocontrol strategies in which *Wolbachia* strains transferred  
412 into naïve mosquito species provide strong inhibitory effects on arboviruses [19,20,67–70] and  
413 malaria parasites [31,35]. The discovery of two novel *Wolbachia* strains in *Anopheles* mosquitoes,

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

426

## 427 **Materials and Methods.**

428

429 **Study sites & collection methods.** *Anopheles* adult mosquitoes were collected from five malaria  
430 endemic countries in Sub-Saharan Africa; Guinea, Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Ghana,  
431 Uganda and Madagascar between 2013 and 2017 (**Figure 1**). Human landing catches, CDC light  
432 traps and pyrethrum spray catches were undertaken between April 2014 – February 2015 in 10  
433 villages near four cities in Guinea; Foulayah (10.144633, -10.749717) and Balayani (10.1325, -  
434 10.7443) near Faranah; Djoumaya (10.836317, -14.2481) and Kaboye Amaraya (10.93435, -  
435 14.36995) near Boke; Tongbekoro (9.294295, -10.147953), Keredou (9.208919, -10.069525), and  
436 Gbangbadou (9.274363, -9.998639) near Kissidougou; and Makonon (10.291124, -9.363358),  
437 Balandou (10.407669, -9.219096), and Dalabani (10.463692, -9.451904) near Kankan. Human  
438 landing catches and pyrethrum spray catches were undertaken between January – September 2015  
439 in seven sites of the DRC; Kinshasa (-4.415881, 15.412188), Mikalayi (-6.024184, 22.318251),  
440 Kisangani (0.516350, 25.221176), Katana (-2.225129, 28.831604), Kalemie (-5.919054, 29.186572),  
441 and Kapolowe (-10.939802, 26.952970). We also analysed a subset from collections obtained from  
442 Lwiro (-2.244097, 28.815232), a village near Katana, collected between in September – October  
443 2015. A combination of CDC light traps, pyrethrum spray catches and human landing catches were  
444 undertaken in Butemba, Kyankwanzi District in mid-western Uganda (1.1068444, 31.5910085) in  
445 August and September 2013 and June 2014. CDC light trap catches were undertaken in May 2017 in  
446 Dogo in Ada, Greater Accra, Ghana (5.874861111, 0.560611111). In Madagascar, sampling was  
447 undertaken in June 2016 at four sites: Anivorano Nord, located in the Northern domain, (-  
448 12.7645000, 49.2386944), Ambomiharina, Western domain, (-16.3672778, 46.9928889), Antafia,  
449 Western domain, (-17.0271667, 46.7671389) and Ambohimarina, Central domain, (-  
450 18.3329444, 47.1092500). Trapping consisted of CDC light traps and a net trap baited with Zebu  
451 (local species of cattle) to attract zoophilic species [71].

452

453

454 **DNA extraction and species identification.** DNA was extracted from individual whole mosquitoes or  
455 abdomens using QIAGEN DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kits according to manufacturer's instructions.  
456 DNA extracts were eluted in a final volume of 100  $\mu$ L and stored at  $-20^{\circ}$ C. Species identification was  
457 initially undertaken using morphological keys followed by diagnostic species-specific PCR assays to  
458 distinguish between the morphologically indistinguishable sibling mosquito species of the *An.*  
459 *gambiae* [72–74] and *An. funestus* complexes [75]. To determine species identification for samples of  
460 interest and samples that could not be identified by species-specific PCR, Sanger sequences were  
461 generated from ITS2 PCR products [76].

462  
463 **Detection of *P. falciparum* and *Asaia*.** Detection of *P. falciparum* malaria was undertaken using  
464 qPCR targeting an 120-bp sequence of the *P. falciparum* cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1 (Cox1)  
465 mitochondrial gene [77] as preliminary trials revealed this was the optimal method for both sensitivity  
466 and specificity. Positive controls from gDNA extracted from a cultured *P. falciparum*-infected blood  
467 sample (parasitaemia of  $\sim 10\%$ ) were serially diluted to determine the threshold limit of detection, in  
468 addition to the inclusion no template controls (NTCs). *Asaia* detection was undertaken targeting the  
469 16S rRNA gene [78,79]. Ct values for both *P. falciparum* and *Asaia* assays in selected *An. gambiae*  
470 extracts were normalized to Ct values for a single copy *An. gambiae* rps17 housekeeping gene  
471 (accession no. AGAP004887 on [www.vectorbase.org](http://www.vectorbase.org)) [80,81]. As Ct values are inversely related to  
472 the amount of amplified DNA, a higher target gene Ct: host gene Ct ratio represented a lower  
473 estimated infection level. qPCR reactions were prepared using 5  $\mu$ L of FastStart SYBR Green Master  
474 mix (Roche Diagnostics), a final concentration of 1 $\mu$ M of each primer, 1  $\mu$ L of PCR grade water and 2  
475  $\mu$ L template DNA, to a final reaction volume of 10  $\mu$ L. Prepared reactions were run on a Roche  
476 LightCycler® 96 System and amplification was followed by a dissociation curve ( $95^{\circ}$ C for 10 seconds,  
477  $65^{\circ}$ C for 60 seconds and  $97^{\circ}$ C for 1 second) to ensure the correct target sequence was being  
478 amplified. PCR results were analysed using the LightCycler® 96 software (Roche Diagnostics). A  
479 sub-selection of PCR products from each assay was sequenced to confirm correct amplification of the  
480 target gene fragment.

481  
482 ***Wolbachia* detection.** *Wolbachia* detection was first undertaken targeting three conserved *Wolbachia*  
483 genes previously shown to amplify a wide diversity of strains; 16S rDNA gene [40,45], *Wolbachia*  
484 surface protein (wsp) gene [46] and FtsZ cell cycle gene [82]. DNA extracted from a *Drosophila*  
485 *melanogaster* fly (infected with the wMel strain of *Wolbachia*) was used a positive control, in addition  
486 to no template controls (NTCs). 16S rDNA [45] and wsp [46] gene PCR reactions were carried out in  
487 a Bio-Rad T100 Thermal Cycler using standard cycling conditions and PCR products were separated  
488 and visualised using 2% E-Gel EX agarose gels (Invitrogen) with SYBR safe and an Invitrogen E-Gel  
489 iBase Real-Time Transilluminator. FtsZ [47] and 16S rDNA [40] gene real time PCR reactions were  
490 prepared using 5  $\mu$ L of FastStart SYBR Green Master mix (Roche Diagnostics), a final concentration  
491 of 1 $\mu$ M of each primer, 1  $\mu$ L of PCR grade water and 2  $\mu$ L template DNA, to a final reaction volume of  
492 10  $\mu$ L. Prepared reactions were run on a Roche LightCycler® 96 System for 15 minutes at  $95^{\circ}$ C,  
493 followed by 40 cycles of  $95^{\circ}$ C for 15 seconds and  $58^{\circ}$ C for 30 seconds. Amplification was followed by

494 a dissociation curve (95°C for 10 seconds, 65°C for 60 seconds and 97°C for 1 second) to ensure the  
495 correct target sequence was being amplified. PCR results were analysed using the LightCycler® 96  
496 software (Roche Diagnostics). To estimate *Wolbachia* densities across multiple *Anopheles* mosquito  
497 species, *ftsZ* and 16S qPCR Ct values were compared to total dsDNA extracted measured using an  
498 Invitrogen Qubit 4 fluorometer. A serial dilution series of a known *Wolbachia*-infected mosquito DNA  
499 extract was used to correlate Ct values and amount of amplified target product.

500 ***Wolbachia* MLST.** Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) was undertaken to characterize *Wolbachia*  
501 strains using the sequences of five conserved genes as molecular markers to genotype each strain.  
502 In brief, 450-500 base pair fragments of the *gatB*, *coxA*, *hcpA*, *ftsZ* and *fbpA* *Wolbachia* genes were  
503 amplified from individual *Wolbachia*-infected mosquitoes using previously optimised protocols [83]. A  
504 *Cx. pipiens* gDNA extraction (previously shown to be infected with the *wPip* strain of *Wolbachia*) was  
505 used a positive control for each PCR run, in addition to no template controls (NTCs). If no  
506 amplification was detected using standard primers, further PCR analysis was undertaken using  
507 degenerate primers [83]. PCR products were separated and visualised using 2% E-Gel EX agarose  
508 gels (Invitrogen) with SYBR safe and an Invitrogen E-Gel iBase Real-Time Transilluminator. PCR  
509 products were submitted to Source BioScience (Source BioScience Plc, Nottingham, UK) for PCR  
510 reaction clean-up, followed by Sanger sequencing to generate both forward and reverse reads.  
511 Sequencing analysis was carried out in MEGA7 [84] as follows. Both chromatograms (forward and  
512 reverse traces) from each sample was manually checked, edited, and trimmed as required, followed  
513 by alignment by ClustalW and checking to produce consensus sequences. Consensus sequences  
514 were used to perform nucleotide BLAST (NCBI) database queries, and searches against the  
515 *Wolbachia* MLST database (<http://pubmlst.org/wolbachia>) [85]. If a sequence produced an exact  
516 match in the MLST database we assigned the appropriate allele number, otherwise the closest  
517 matches and number of differences were noted. The Sanger sequencing traces from the *wsp* gene  
518 were also treated in the same way and analysed alongside the MLST gene locus scheme, as an  
519 additional marker for strain typing

520 **Phylogenetic analysis.** Alignments were constructed in MEGA7 by ClustalW to include all relevant  
521 and available sequences highlighted through searches on the BLAST and *Wolbachia* MLST  
522 databases. Maximum Likelihood phylogenetic trees were constructed from Sanger sequences as  
523 follows. The evolutionary history was inferred by using the Maximum Likelihood method based on the  
524 Tamura-Nei model [86]. The tree with the highest log likelihood in each case is shown. The  
525 percentage of trees in which the associated taxa clustered together is shown next to the branches.  
526 Initial tree(s) for the heuristic search were obtained automatically by applying Neighbor-Join and  
527 BioNJ algorithms to a matrix of pairwise distances estimated using the Maximum Composite  
528 Likelihood (MCL) approach, and then selecting the topology with superior log likelihood value. The  
529 trees are drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured in the number of substitutions per site. Codon  
530 positions included were 1st+2nd+3rd+Noncoding. All positions containing gaps and missing data  
531 were eliminated. The phylogeny test was by Bootstrap method with 1000 replications. Evolutionary  
532 analyses were conducted in MEGA7 [84].

533 **Microbiome Analysis.** The microbiomes of selected individual *Anopheles* were analysed using  
534 barcoded high-throughput amplicon sequencing of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene. Sequencing  
535 libraries for each isolate were generated using universal 16S rRNA V3-V4 region primers [87] in  
536 accordance with Illumina 16S rRNA metagenomic sequencing library protocols. The samples were  
537 barcoded for multiplexing using Nextera XT Index Kit v2. Sequencing was performed on an Illumina  
538 MiSeq instrument using a MiSeq Reagent Kit v2 (500-cycles). Quality control and taxonomical  
539 assignment of the resultant reads were performed using CLC Genomics Workbench 8.0.1 Microbial  
540 Genomics Module (<http://www.clcbio.com>). Low quality reads containing nucleotides with quality  
541 threshold below 0.05 (using the modified Richard Mott algorithm), as well as reads with two or more  
542 unknown nucleotides were removed from analysis. Additionally reads were trimmed to remove  
543 sequenced Nextera adapters. Reference based OTU picking was performed using the SILVA SSU  
544 v128 97% database [88]. Sequences present in more than one copy but not clustered to the database  
545 were then placed into de novo OTUs (97% similarity) and aligned against the reference database with  
546 80% similarity threshold to assign the “closest” taxonomical name where possible. Chimeras were  
547 removed from the dataset if the absolute crossover cost was 3 using a k-mer size of 6. Alpha diversity  
548 was measured using Shannon entropy (OTU level).

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

551

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553 performed field collections. CLJ, GGL, MK, JO, KS, EH & TW performed sample analysis. CLJ  
554 performed sequence analysis. GG, SH, KK, MP, YF and GLH performed 16S microbiome sample  
555 analysis. SRI, GLH and TW provided overall supervision. CLJ and TW wrote the initial draft.

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573

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873 **Figure legends**

874 **Figure 1. Locations of *Anopheles* species collections (including *Wolbachia*-infected species)**  
875 **and *P. falciparum* malaria prevalence rates in mosquitoes (across all species for each**  
876 **location). A)** Overall map showing the five malaria-endemic countries where mosquito collections  
877 were undertaken. **B)** High malaria prevalence rates in Guinea, and *Wolbachia*-infected *An. coluzzii*  
878 from Ghana (no *P. falciparum* detected). **C)** *Wolbachia* strains in *An. gambiae* s.s., *An. arabiensis*, *An.*  
879 *species A* and *An. moucheti* from DRC and variable *P. falciparum* prevalence rate in DRC and  
880 Uganda. **D)** Low *P. falciparum* infection rates in Madagascar and no evidence of resident *Wolbachia*  
881 strains. (W+; *Wolbachia* detected in this species).

882  
883 **Figure 2. Maximum Likelihood molecular phylogenetic analysis of *Anopheles gambiae***  
884 **complex ITS2 sequences from field-collected mosquitoes.** The tree with the highest log likelihood  
885 (-785.65) is shown. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured in the number of  
886 substitutions per site. The analysis involved 42 nucleotide sequences. There were a total of 475  
887 positions in the final dataset. DRC = Democratic Republic of the Congo (red): KAL = Kalemie, MIK =  
888 Mikalayi, KIN = Kinshasa, KAT = Katana. GHA = Ghana (blue): DOG = Dogo. GUI = Guinea (green):  
889 KSK = Kissidougou. MAD = Madagascar (purple): ANT = Antafia. UGA = Uganda (maroon): BUT =  
890 Butemba. (W+; individual was *Wolbachia* positive, W-; individual was *Wolbachia* negative).

891  
892 **Figure 3. Maximum Likelihood molecular phylogenetic analysis of *Anopheles* ITS2 sequences**  
893 **from field-collected mosquitoes outside of the *An. gambiae* s.l. complex.** The tree with the  
894 highest log likelihood (-3084.12) is shown. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured  
895 in the number of substitutions per site. The analysis involved 118 nucleotide sequences. There were a  
896 total of 156 positions in the final dataset. DRC = Democratic Republic of the Congo (red): KAT =  
897 Katana, LWI = Lwiro, MIK = Mikalayi. GUI = Guinea (green): FAR = Faranah, KAN = Kankan, KSK =  
898 Kissidougou. MAD = Madagascar (purple): AMB = Ambomiharina. (W+; individual was *Wolbachia*  
899 positive, W-; individual was *Wolbachia* negative).

900  
901 **Figure 4. Resident *Wolbachia* strain phylogenetic analysis using 16S rRNA and *wsp* genes. A)**  
902 **Maximum Likelihood molecular phylogenetic analysis of the 16S rRNA gene for resident strains in *An.***  
903 ***coluzzii* (wAnga-Ghana; blue), *An. moucheti* (wAnM; green) and *An. species A* (wAnsA; red). The tree**  
904 **with the highest log likelihood (-660.03) is shown. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths**  
905 **measured in the number of substitutions per site. The analysis involved 17 nucleotide sequences.**  
906 **There were a total of 333 positions in the final dataset. Accession numbers of additional sequences**  
907 **obtained from GenBank are shown, including wPip (navy blue), wAnga-Mali (purple) and wAnga-**  
908 **Burkina Faso strains (maroon). B)** **Maximum Likelihood molecular phylogenetic analysis of the *wsp***  
909 **gene for wAnsA-infected representative individuals from the DRC (red). (KAT = Katana, LWI = Lwiro.)**  
910 **The tree with the highest log likelihood (-3663.41) is shown. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch**  
911 **lengths measured in the number of substitutions per site. The analysis involved 83 nucleotide**  
912 **sequences. There were a total of 443 positions in the final dataset. Reference numbers of additional**

913 sequences obtained from the MLST database (IsoN = Isolate number) or GenBank (accession  
914 number) are shown. Strains isolated from mosquitoes are highlighted in navy blue.

915

916 **Figure 5. *Wolbachia* MLST phylogenetic analysis of resident *Wolbachia* strains in *An. coluzzii*,**

917 ***An. moucheti* and *An. species A*. A)** Maximum Likelihood molecular phylogenetic analysis from  
918 concatenation of all five MLST gene loci for resident *Wolbachia* strains from *An. coluzzii* (*w*Anga-  
919 Ghana; blue), *An. moucheti* (*w*AnM; green) and *An. species A* (*w*AnsA; red). The tree with the highest  
920 log likelihood (-10606.13) is shown and drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured in the number  
921 of substitutions per site. The analysis involved 94 nucleotide sequences. There were a total of 2067  
922 positions in the final dataset. Concatenated sequence data from *Wolbachia* strains downloaded from  
923 MLST database for comparison shown with isolate numbers in brackets (IsoN). *Wolbachia* strains  
924 isolated from mosquito species highlighted in navy blue, bold. Strains isolated from other Dipteran  
925 species are shown in navy blue, from Coleoptera in olive green, from Hemiptera in purple, from  
926 Hymenoptera in teal blue, from Lepidoptera in maroon and from other, or unknown orders in black.

927 **B).** Maximum Likelihood molecular phylogenetic analysis for *coxA* gene locus for resident *Wolbachia*  
928 strains from *An. coluzzii* (*w*Anga-Ghana; blue), *An. moucheti* (*w*AnM; green) and *An. species A*  
929 (*w*AnsA and *w*AnsA(2); red). The tree with the highest log likelihood (-1921.11) is shown and drawn to  
930 scale, with branch lengths measured in the number of substitutions per site. The analysis involved 84  
931 nucleotide sequences. There were a total of 402 positions in the final dataset. Sequence data for the  
932 *coxA* locus from *Wolbachia* strains downloaded from MLST database for comparison shown in black  
933 and navy blue with isolate numbers (IsoN) from MLST database shown in brackets. *Wolbachia* strains  
934 isolated from mosquito species highlighted in navy blue. GenBank sequence for *w*Anga-Mali *coxA*  
935 shown in maroon with accession number.

936

937 **Figure 6. The relative abundance of resident *Wolbachia* strains in *Anopheles*.** Bacterial genus  
938 level taxonomy was assigned to OTUs clustered with a 97% cut-off using the SILVA SSU v128 97%  
939 database, and individual genera comprising less than 1% of total abundance was merged into  
940 “Others”.

941

942 **Figure 7. The relative abundance of bacteria in *An. gambiae* s.s. comparing two locations with**  
943 **contrasting *Asaia* infection densities.** Bacterial genus level taxonomy was assigned to OTUs  
944 clustered with a 97% cut-off using the SILVA SSU v128 97% database, and individual genera  
945 comprising less than 1% of total abundance was merged into “Others”.

946

947 **Supplementary Figure S1. Alpha and beta diversity of *An. gambiae* s.s. from Kissidougou,**  
948 **Guinea and Butemba, Uganda. A)** Alpha diversity using the Shannon diversity index shows the  
949 relative abundance of bacterial genera. **B)** To identify dissimilarities in the bacterial community  
950 structure between the microbiome, principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) was performed based on a  
951 Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix based on 97% clustered OTUs.

952 **Supplementary Figure S2. Prevalence of the bacterial endosymbiont *Asaia* and malaria**  
953 **parasites in *An. gambiae* s.s. mosquitoes from Guinea. A)** Normalised *P. falciparum*: *An. gambiae*  
954 gene Ct ratio for mosquitoes that are infected with malaria and +/- *Asaia* bacteria. **B)** *P. falciparum*  
955 and *Asaia* infection rates (%) in 152 *An. gambiae* s.s. females. **C)** Box and whisker plot of Ct values  
956 for detection of *Asaia* and *P. falciparum* malaria showing more variable levels of *Asaia* detected.

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993 **Table 1.** *Anopheles* mosquito species collected from locations within five malaria-endemic countries  
 994 and *P. falciparum*, *Wolbachia* and *Asaia* prevalence rates. Species in different locations infected with  
 995 *Wolbachia* are in bold. \*Adult individuals from Lwiro (Katana), DRC were collected as both larvae and  
 996 adults so have been excluded from *P. falciparum* and *Asaia* prevalence analysis.  
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Country	Location	Species	Individuals	Infection prevalence (%)		
				<i>P. falciparum</i>	<i>Wolbachia</i>	<i>Asaia</i>
Guinea	Faranah	<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	48	43.8	0.0	50.0
		<i>An. arabiensis</i>	7	0.0	0.0	100.0
		<i>An. nili</i>	9	0.0	0.0	100.0
	Kissidougou	<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	44	18.2	0.0	100.0
		<i>An. species O</i>	1	0.0	0.0	100.0
	Boke	<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	21	52.4	0.0	28.6
Kankan	<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	48	38.1	0.0	56.3	
	<i>An. sp. unknown</i>	1	0.0	0.0	0.0	
DRC	Mikalayi	<b><i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.</b>	16	29.4	11.8	11.8
		<b><i>An. moucheti</i></b>	1	0.0	100.0	0.0
		<i>An. funestus</i> s.s.	13	30.8	0.0	15.4
	Kisangani	<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	25	12.0	8.0	20.0
		<i>An. arabiensis</i>	4	25.0	0.0	0.0
	Katana	<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	23	8.7	8.7	4.4
		<i>An. funestus</i> s.s.	5	0.0	0.0	0.0
		<b><i>An. species A</i></b>	2	50.0	100.0	0.0
	Lwiro (Katana)	<b><i>An. species A</i>*</b>	33	N/A	90.1	N/A
	Kapolowe	<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	9	11.1	11.1	0.0
		<i>An. funestus</i> s.s.	5	20.0	0.0	0.0
	Kalemie	<b><i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.</b>	28	7.1	21.4	3.6
		<b><i>An. arabiensis</i></b>	2	0.0	50.0	0.0
	Kinshasa	<b><i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.</b>	27	22.2	14.8	3.7
<i>An. funestus</i> s.s.		2	50.0	0.0	0.0	
Ghana	Dogo	<b><i>An. coluzzii</i></b>	286	0.0	4.2	32.9
		<i>An. melas</i>	1	0.0	0.0	100.00
Uganda	Butemba (2013)	<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	57	19.3	0.0	80.7
	Butemba (2014)	<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	135	36.3	0.0	48.1
		<i>An. arabiensis</i>	1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Madagascar	Anivorano Nord	<i>An. funestus</i>	8	0.0	0.0	25.0
		<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	3	0.0	0.0	33.3
		<i>An. arabiensis</i>	2	0.0	0.0	100.0
		<i>An. mascarensis</i>	38	0.0	0.0	39.5
		<i>An. maculipalpis</i>	9	0.0	0.0	11.1
		<i>An. coustani</i>	22	0.0	0.0	27.3
		<i>An. rufipes</i>	11	0.0	0.0	27.3
	Ambomiharina	<i>An. funestus</i>	12	0.0	0.0	83.3
		<i>An. pharoensis</i>	7	0.0	0.0	42.9
		<i>An. rufipes</i>	19	10.5	0.0	68.4
		<i>An. maculipalpis</i>	9	0.0	0.0	0.0
		<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	8	0.0	0.0	0.0
		<i>An. coustani</i>	24	0.0	0.0	25.0
		<i>An. squamosus</i>	10	0.0	0.0	20.0
	Antafia	<i>An. mascarensis</i>	2	0.0	0.0	50.0
		<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	11	27.3	0.0	45.5
		<i>An. pauliani</i>	2	0.0	0.0	50.0
		<i>An. rufipes</i>	2	0.0	0.0	50.0
	Ambohimarina	<i>An. mascarensis</i>	2	0.0	0.0	0.0
		<i>An. funestus</i>	1	0.0	0.0	0.0
		<i>An. gambiae</i> s.s.	1	0.0	0.0	0.0
		<i>An. arabiensis</i>	2	0.0	0.0	0.0
		<i>An. rufipes</i>	7	0.0	0.0	42.9
<i>An. coustani</i>		18	0.0	0.0	11.1	
<i>An. maculipalpis</i>		8	0.0	0.0	12.5	
<i>An. squamosus</i>	52	0.0	0.0	3.9		
<i>An. mascarensis</i>	11	0.0	0.0	0.0		

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1001 **Table 2. Novel resident *Wolbachia* strain *wsp* and MLST gene allelic profiles.** Exact matches to  
 1002 existing alleles present in the database are shown in bold, novel alleles are denoted by the allele  
 1003 number of the closest match and shown in red (number of single nucleotide differences to the closest  
 1004 match). \*alternative degenerate primers (set 3) used to generate sequence.  
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Mosquito species	<i>Wolbachia</i> strain	<i>Wolbachia</i> gene allele					
		<i>wsp</i>	<i>gatB</i>	<i>coxA</i>	<i>hcpA</i>	<i>ftsZ</i>	<i>fbpA</i>
<i>An. species A</i>	wAnsA	152 (34)	140 (4)	122 (16)	6 (7)	7 (1)	10 (1)
<i>An. species A</i>	wAnsA(2)	152 (34)	-	36 (1)	6 (7)	-	-
<i>An. moucheti</i>	wAnM	-	9 (2)	11 (1)	74 (3)	7 (2)	7 (12)
<i>An. coluzzii</i>	wAnga-Ghana	-	9	64	3*	177	4

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1007 **Supplementary Table 1. Additional sample details and ITS2 GenBank accession numbers.**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Figure 1

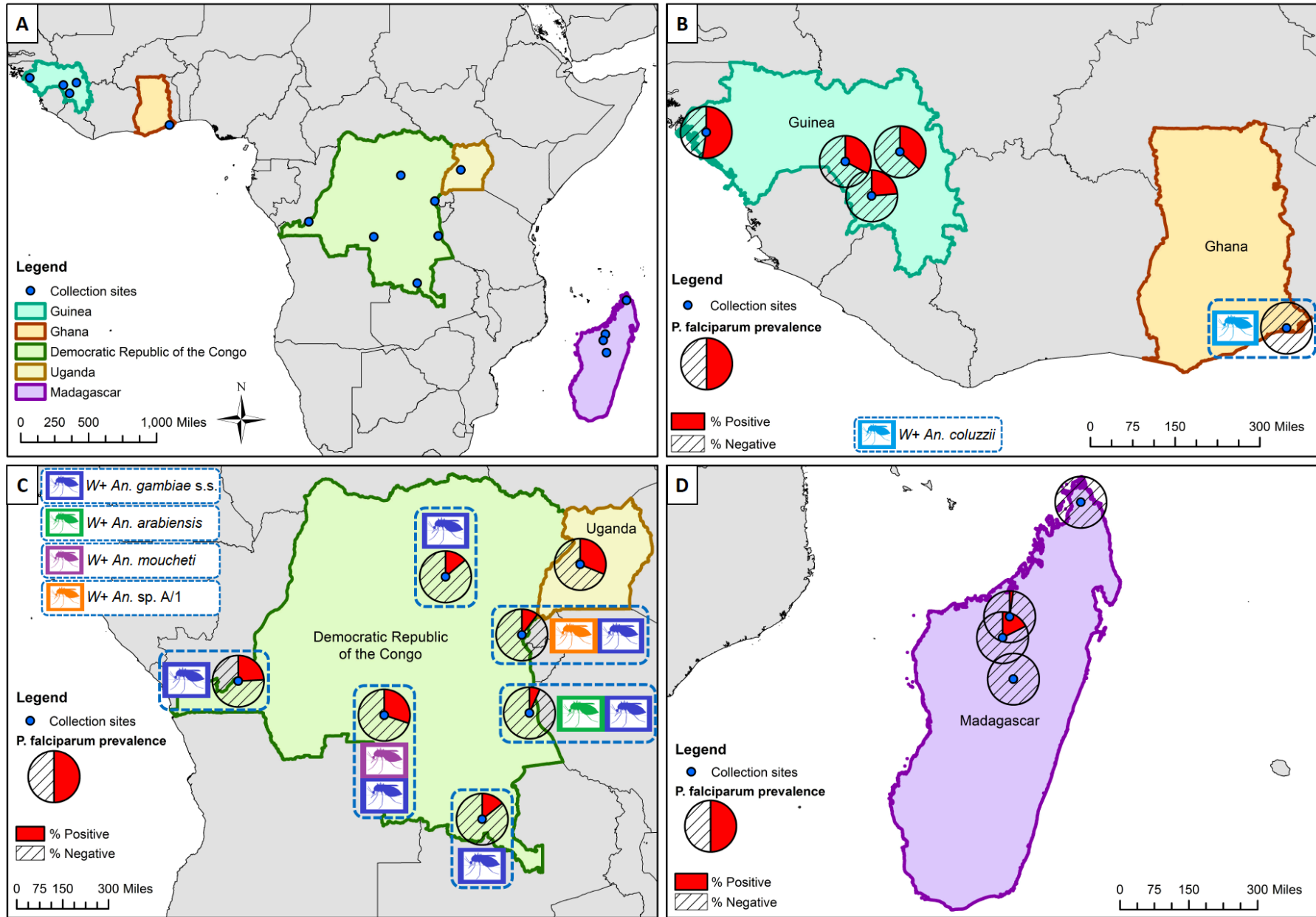
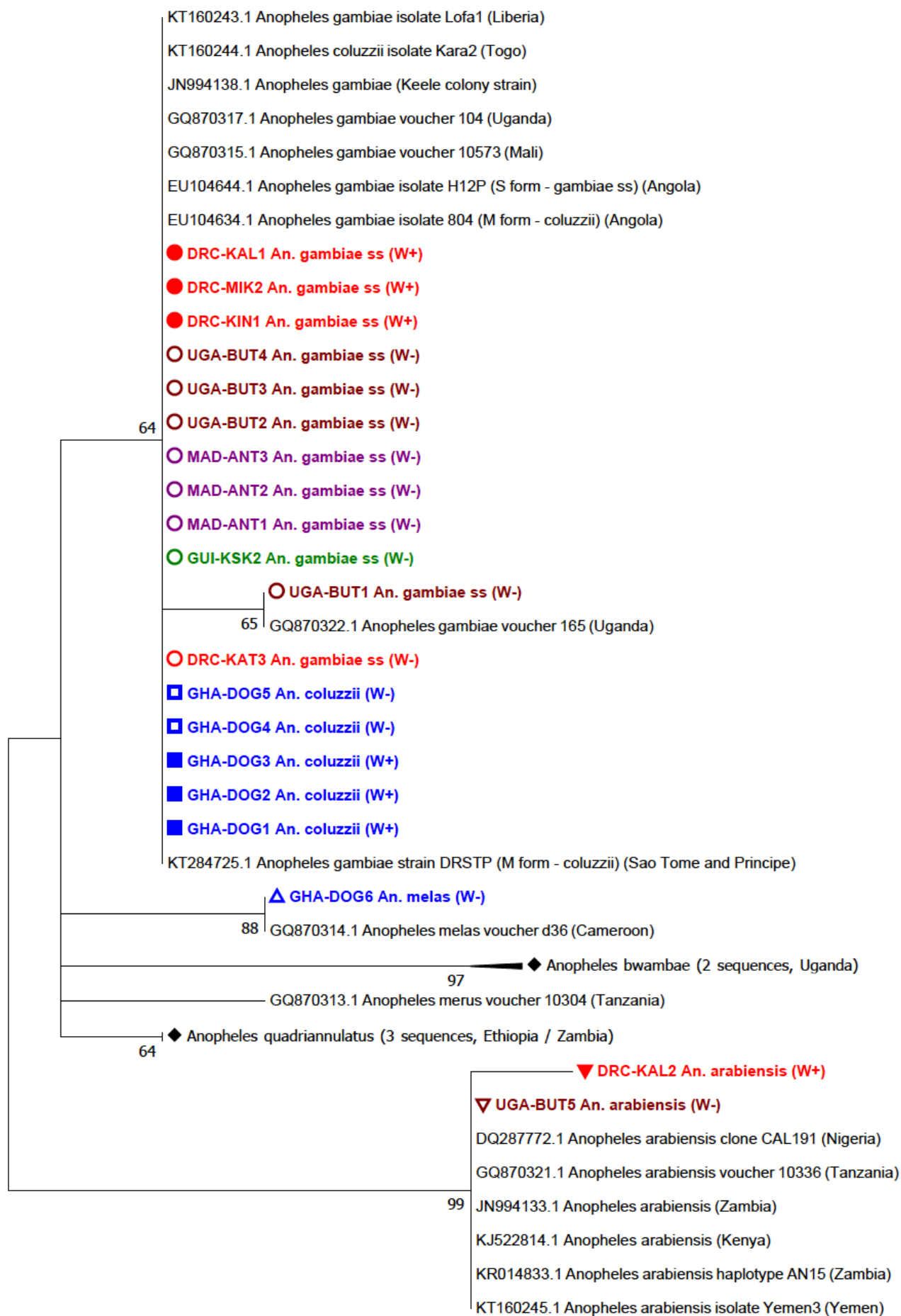


Figure 2



0.001



Figure 3

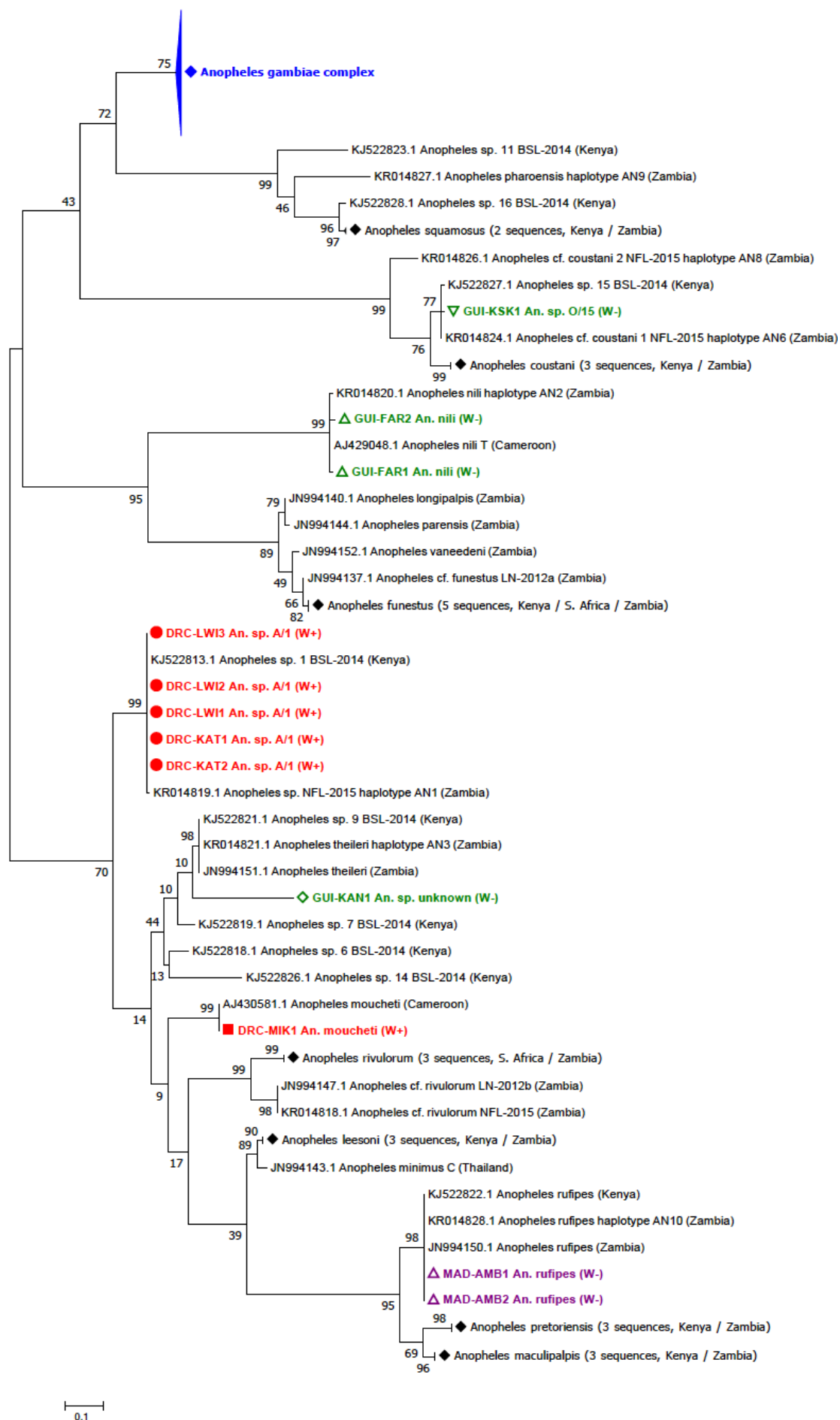
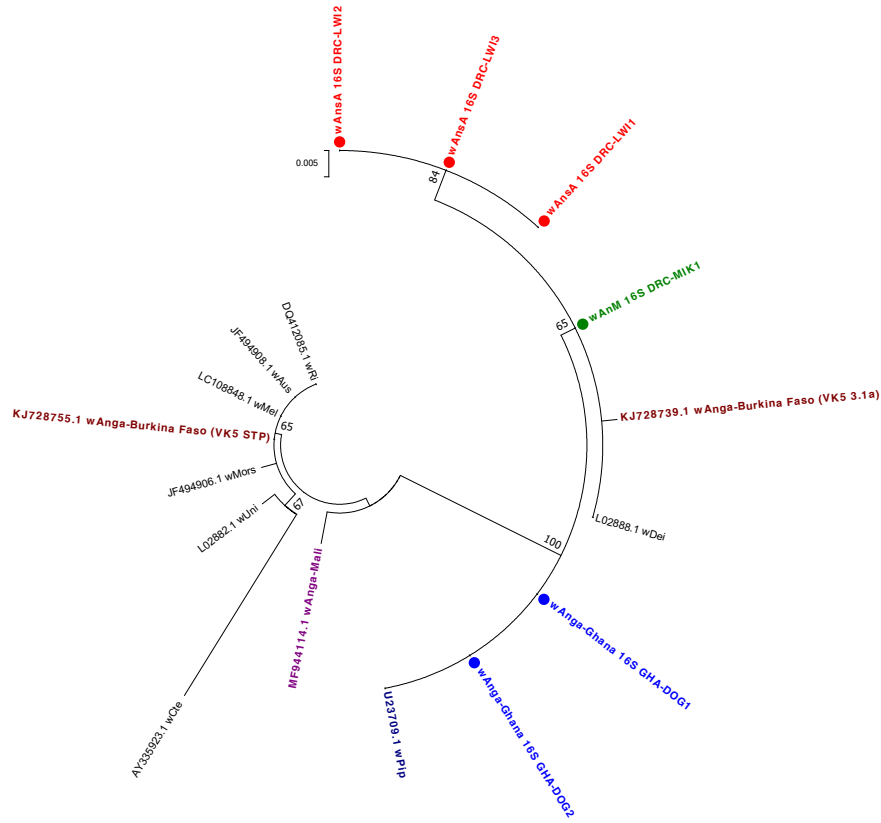


Figure 4

A



B

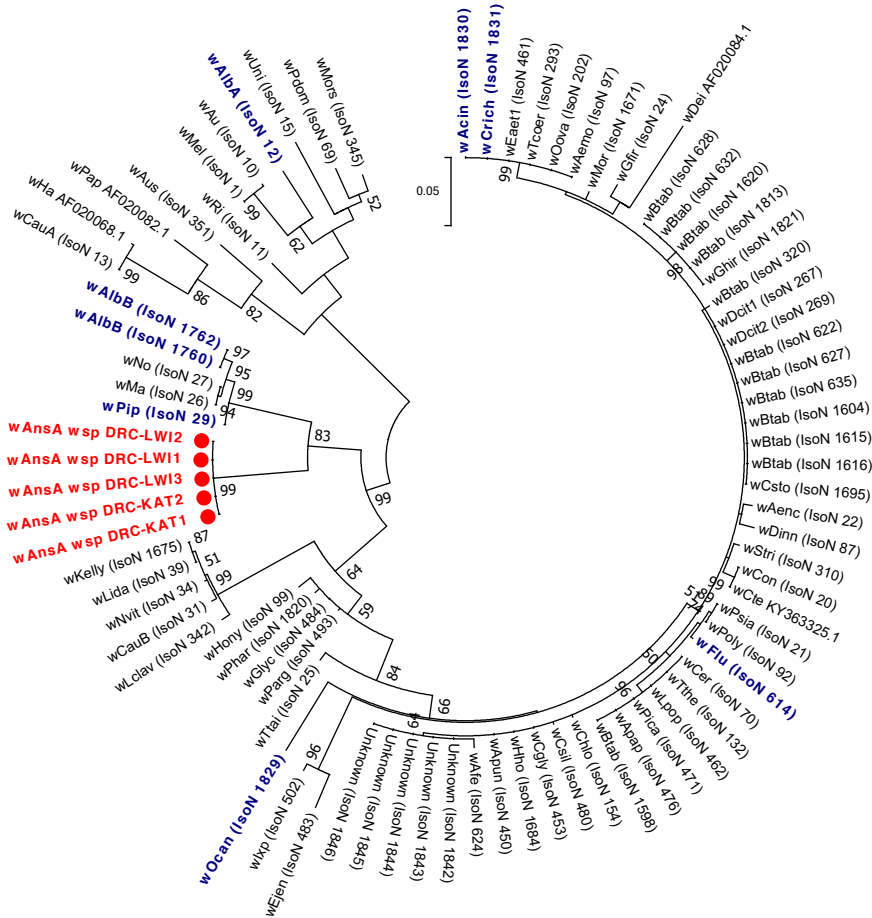
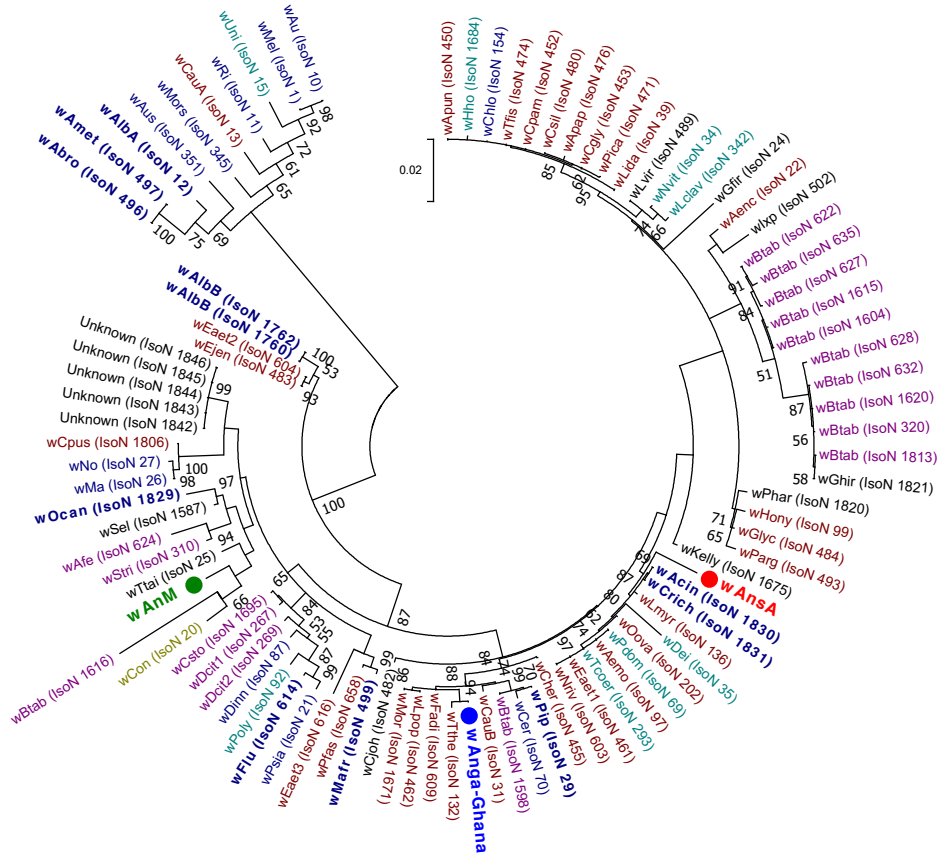


Figure 5

A



B

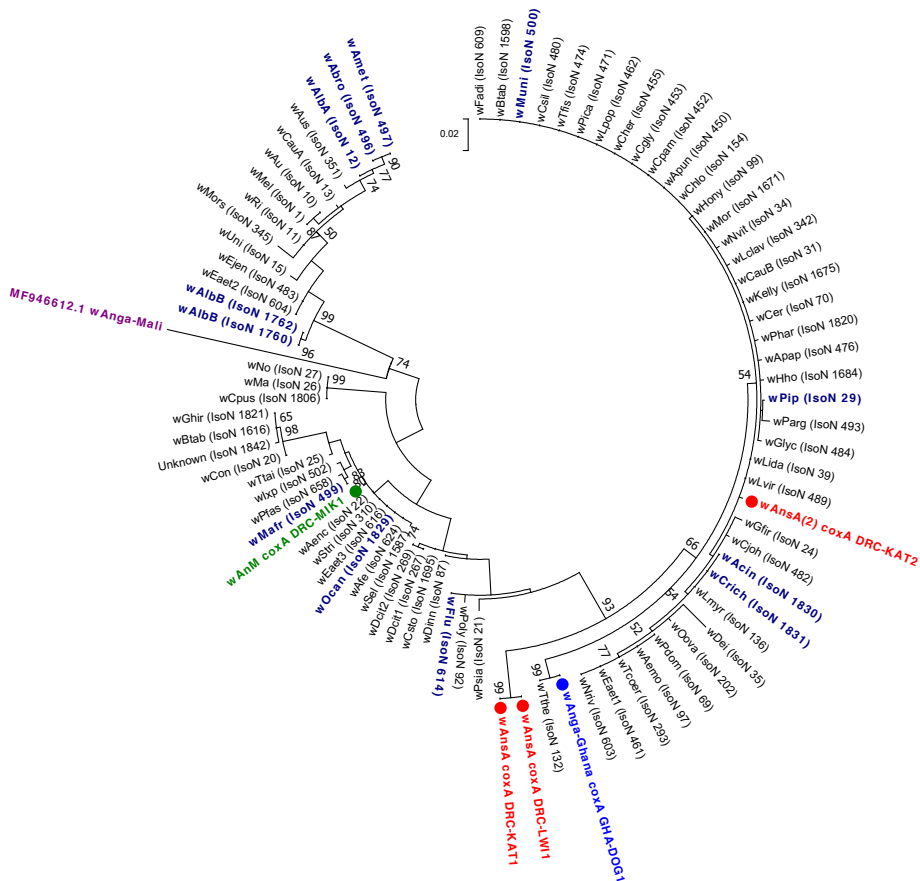
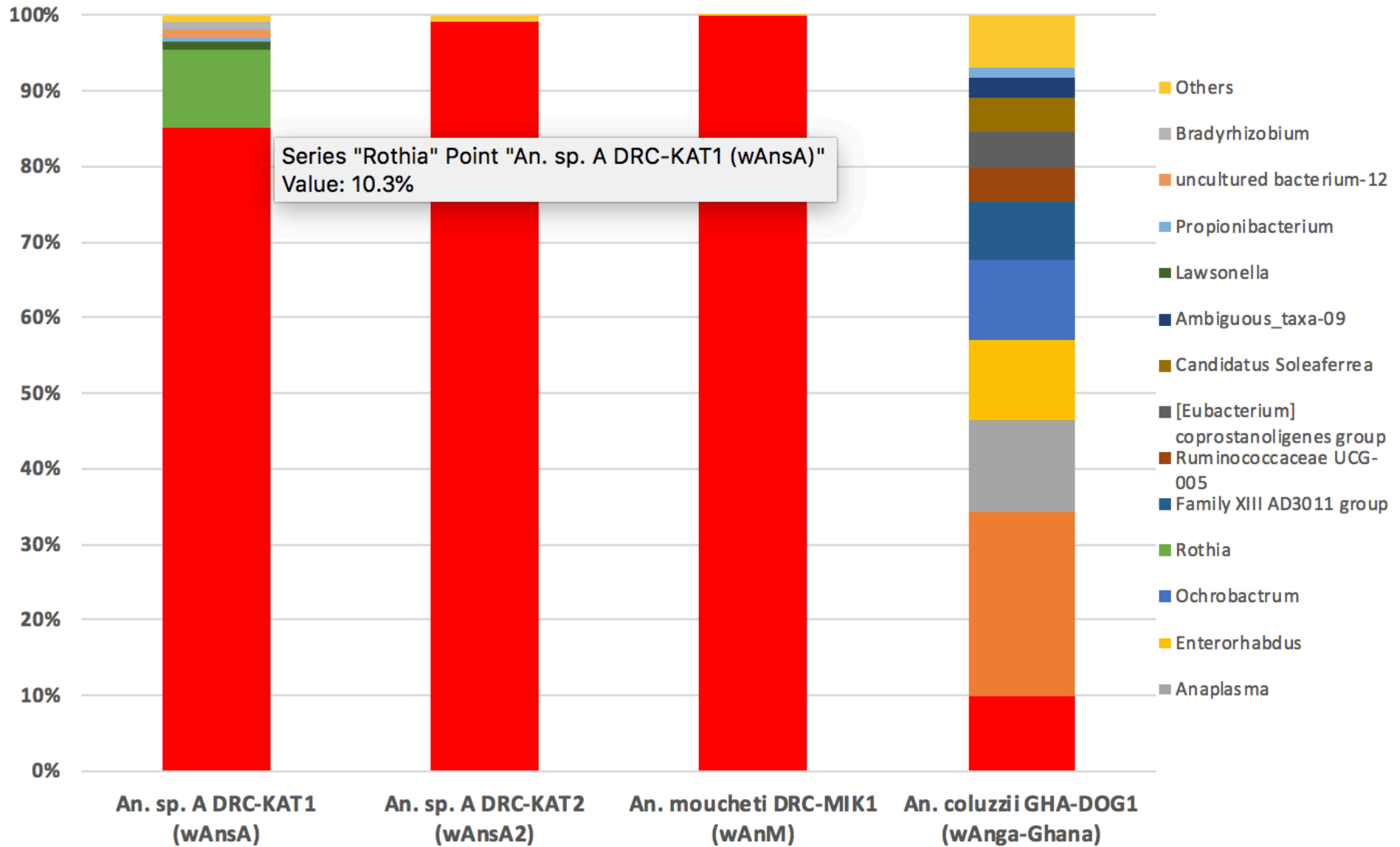
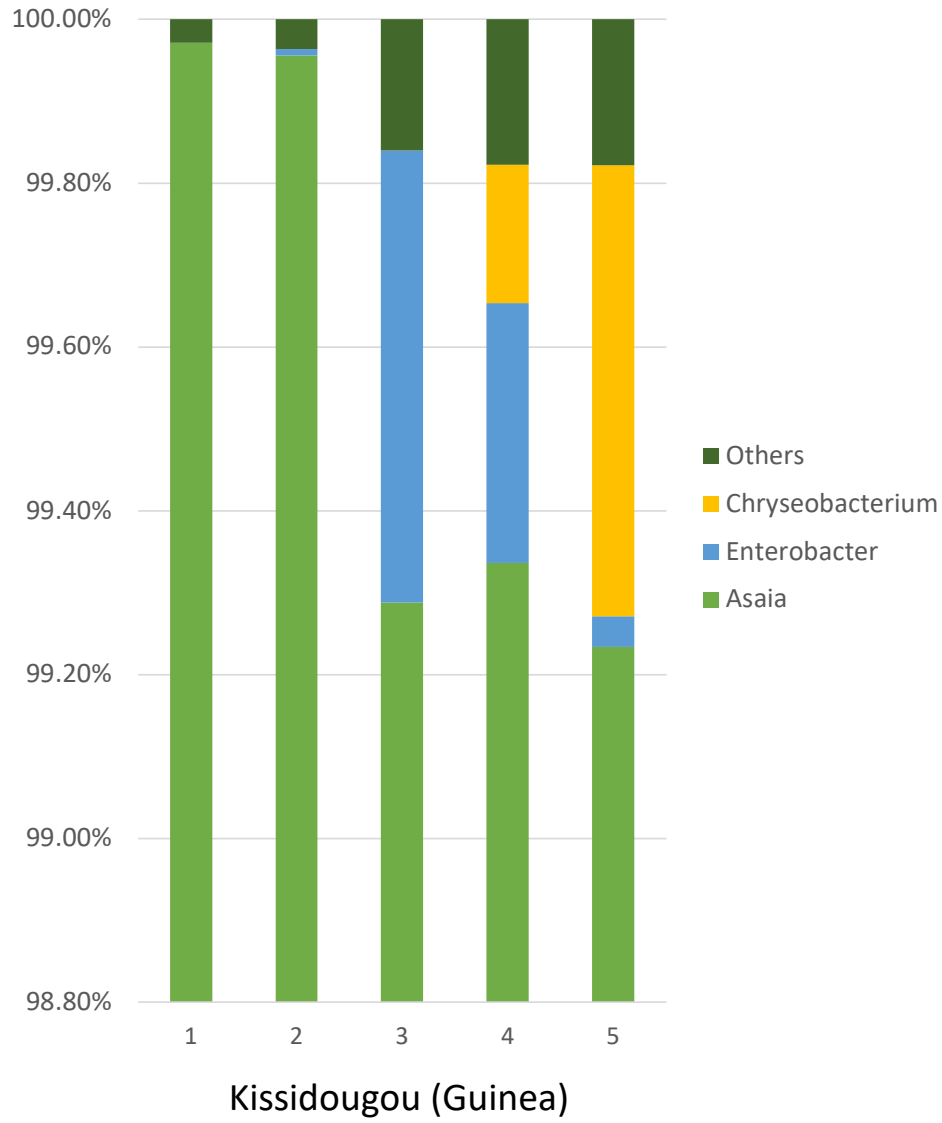


Figure 6

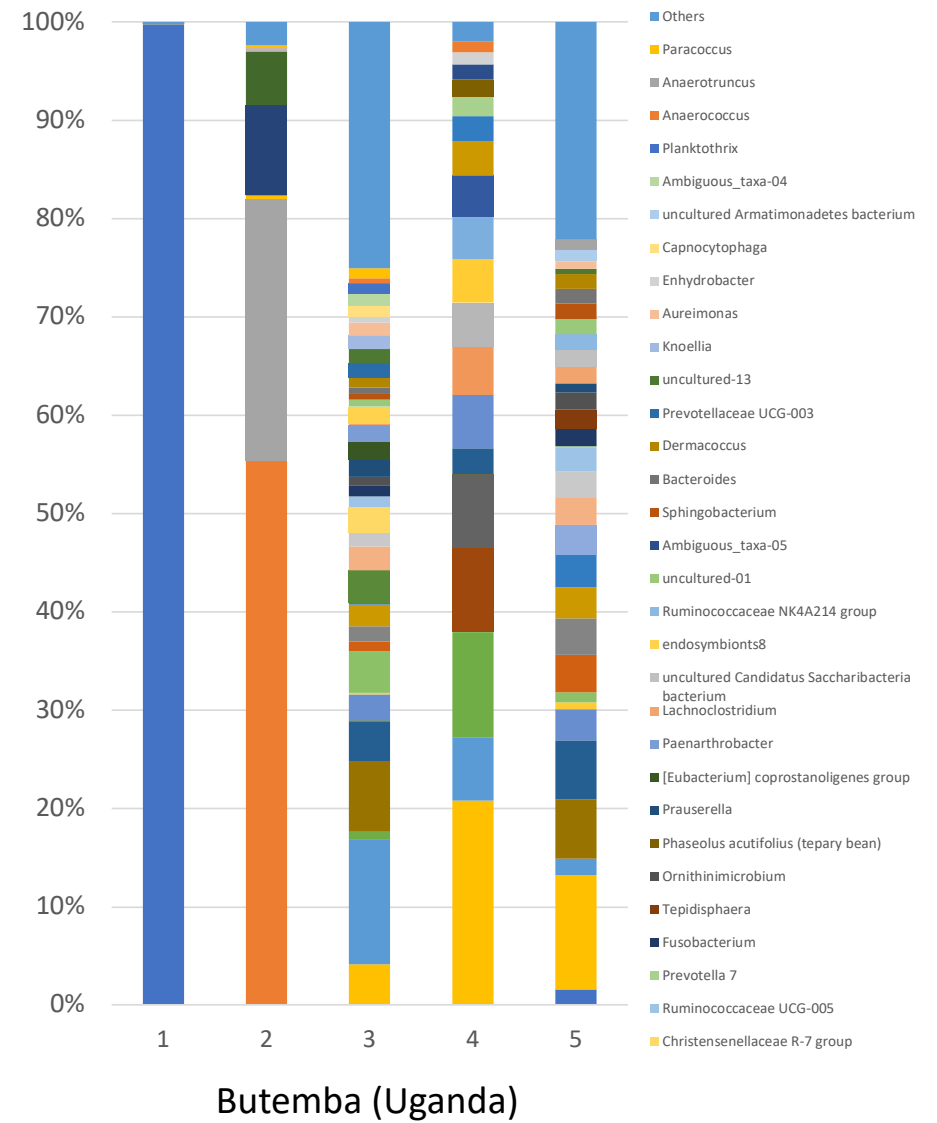


**Figure 7**

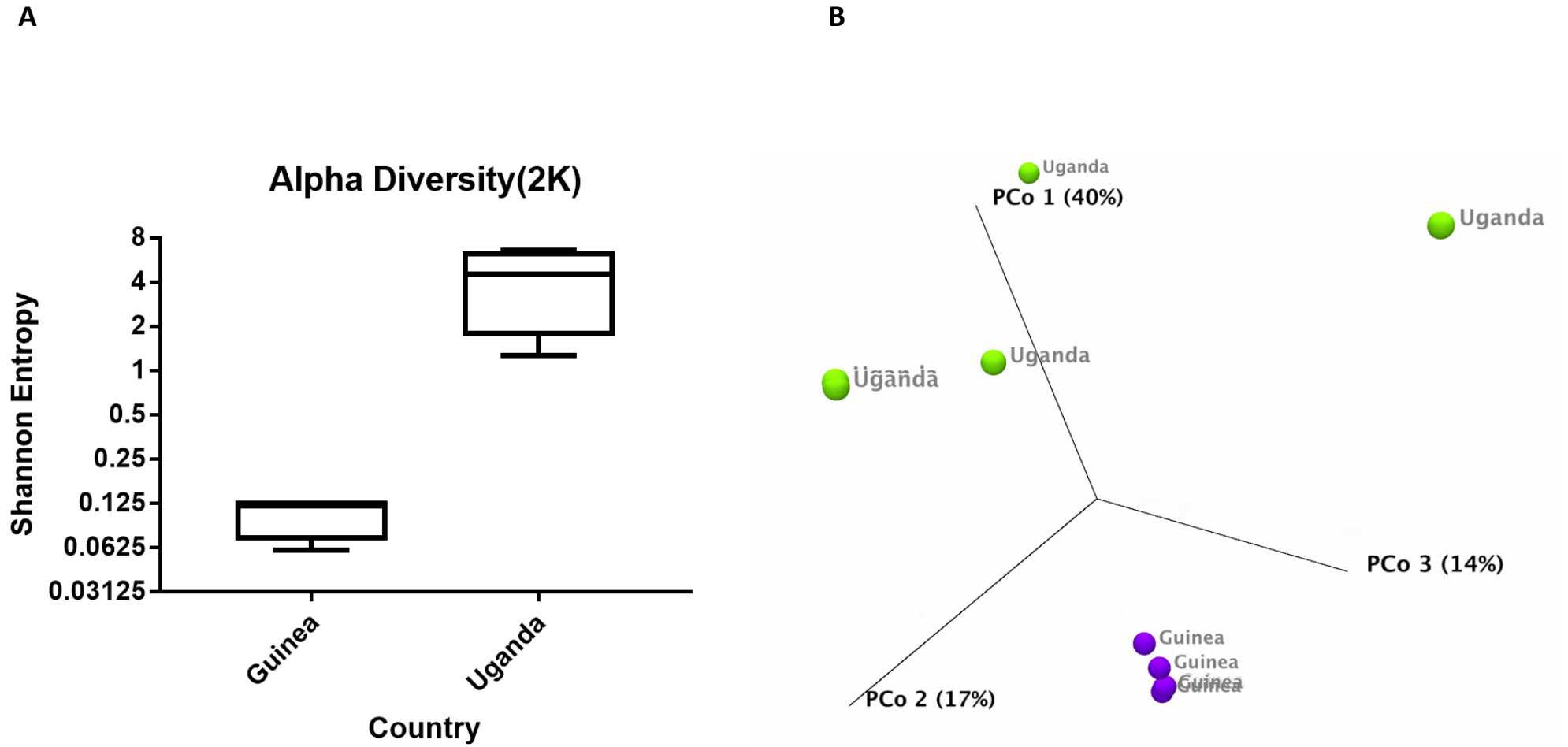
**A**



**B**



Supplementary Figure S1



Supplementary Figure S2

