

1 The Interplay Between Nutrition and the Dynamics of the Midgut 2 Microbiome of the Mosquito *Aedes aegypti* Reveals Putative Symbionts.

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26 *Elizabethkingia anophelis*.

27 **Abstract**

28
29 Blood meals are crucial for the reproductive cycle of *Aedes aegypti* and represent the
30 means by which arboviruses are transmitted to its hematophagy hosts. It also has been
31 postulated that feeding on blood may modulate the mosquito microbiome, but the
32 compositional shifts in microbial diversity and function remain elusive. In this paper, we analyzed
33 the modulation of the midgut microbiome in 60 females of *Aedes aegypti* throughout the
34 digestive period, 12, 24, and 48 hours after blood or sugar meals using whole-genome shotgun
35 sequencing. Microbial transstadial transmission between larvae and adults was also assessed.
36 This approach provided a high coverage of the midgut metagenome, allowing microbial
37 taxonomic assignments at the species level and gene-based functional profiling. Females at later
38 hours post-feeding and larvae display low microbiome diversities and little evidence of
39 transstadial transmission. However, a striking proliferation of Enterobacterales was observed
40 during early hours of digestion in blood-fed mosquitoes. The compositional shift was
41 concomitant with a predicted functional change in genes associated with carbohydrate and
42 protein metabolism. The observed shifts in blood-fed females' midguts are restored to a sugar-

43 fed-like microbial profile after 48h, when blood digestion is completed. Conversely, as in all
44 blood-fed females, a high abundance of the opportunistic human pathogen *Elizabethkingia*
45 *anophelis* (Flavobacteriales) takes place in this post-digestion stage. This bacterial species has
46 also been described as a symbiont of mosquitoes of the genus *Anopheles* (Culicidae). This work
47 is the first report of the adaptation of the midgut microbiome of *A. aegypti* to a digestive role
48 after a blood meal, at the expense of the proliferation of potential symbionts.

49

50 **Significance statement**

51

52 The findings in this paper can contribute to a better understanding of the dynamics of the
53 mosquito microbiome during digestion and its potential implications for host physiology and
54 metabolism, also informing the future development of sustainable methods for insect-borne
55 diseases control based on microbial components that might influence vectorial capacity and
56 pathogen transmission by *A. aegypti*.

57

58 **1. Introduction**

59

60 The knowledge accumulated in the last decade about the association of multicellular
61 eukaryotes with microorganisms has provided a paradigm shift in what was previously known of
62 metabolic, physiological, and homeostatic fitness in virtually every multicellular host organism
63 (Heiss and Olofsson, 2019; Kang et al., 2019). Microbiome research has primarily focused on
64 humans, but recent advances expanded the investigation to other animals. In this context,
65 several insect vectors have been targeted by metagenomic approaches, unveiling complex
66 microbiome interactions that regulate processes essential to the host life cycle (Angleró-
67 Rodríguez et al., 2017; Cappelli et al., 2019; Junqueira et al., 2017; Rodríguez-Ruano et al., 2018;
68 Vivero et al., 2019). While diverse environmental factors may contribute to variations in the
69 microbiome of insects (Junqueira et al., 2017; Saab et al., 2020), the nutritional source appears
70 to be especially impactful in modulating microbial communities (Mason and Raffa, 2014; Yun et
71 al., 2014). Likewise, the patterns and dynamics of microbial diversity in holometabolous insects
72 can also be determined by their habitats and developmental stages (Douglas, 2015).

73

74 In hematophagous mosquitoes who rely on the blood meal for egg development,
75 oviposition, and lifespan (Gaio et al., 2011; Petersen et al., 2018), the food type and source
76 proved to be fundamental for the dynamics of their intestinal microbiome, influencing the
77 vector's susceptibility to viruses and their capacity to transmit pathogens to hosts (Almire et al.,
78 2021; Apte-Deshpande et al., 2012; Ramirez et al., 2014; Sharma et al., 2013). These findings are
79 essential for developing successful strategies for vector control based on microbiota
80 manipulation, such as those reported for *Wolbachia* infections (Wasi et al., 2019; Aliota et al.,
81 2016). The yellow fever mosquito, *Aedes aegypti*, is the primary vector of viral diseases
82 worldwide, such as yellow fever, Zika, chikungunya, and dengue. The latter, alone, is responsible
83 for a global economic burden of US\$ 9 billion per year (Shepard et al., 2016; Shragai et al., 2017).
84 Previous studies based on 16S sequencing have reported a core microbiome composed of aerobic
85 and facultative-anaerobic bacteria in *Aedes* spp. (Scolari et al., 2019). However, multiple factors
modulate *A. aegypti* microbiota, such as habitat, environmental contamination with fertilizers or

86 antibiotics, sex, developmental stage, or nutrition (Scolari et al., 2019). Significant differences in
87 the bacterial composition and diversity were found in the midgut of *A. aegypti* fed on distinct
88 food sources and in mosquitoes fed with blood from different animal hosts (Muturi et al., 2021,
89 2018). Despite the critical role of hematophagy for *A. aegypti* reproduction, the microbial shifts
90 triggered by the blood meal in the midgut and its modulation throughout the digestion have
91 never been tackled by large-scale metagenomic approaches (Hyde et al., 2020).

92 In the present study, we provide for the first time an in-depth investigation of 70
93 individual metagenomes of *A. aegypti* performed by whole-genome shotgun sequencing of blood
94 and sugar-fed mosquitoes. The microbiome dynamics were followed in both diet types in adults
95 at 12h, 24h, and 48h after feeding. Our metagenomic approach allowed for the microbial
96 taxonomic assignment up to the species level, revealing a large amount of Enterobacteria in the
97 mosquito's midgut during the blood meal digestion. This compositional shift was accompanied
98 by a highly correlated functional change in microbial taxa involved in the catabolism of amino
99 acids, sugar, and virulence in mosquitoes fed with blood. The sugar-fed group presents a
100 significantly higher diversity in its microbiome when compared to the blood-fed group, but no
101 significant functional correlations. The post-digestion period is associated with the increase of
102 the bacterial species *Elizabethkingia anophelis* in both groups. This study is the first report of the
103 occurrence of this symbiotic Flavobacterium in *A. aegypti* and its modulation in the gut
104 microbiome caused by blood meals. Transstadial-transmitted microorganisms were also
105 evaluated by comparing larval and adult microbiomes, showing no evidence for such
106 phenomenon. Larvae displayed a low microbial diversity, with the predominance of the genus
107 *Microbacterium*.

108 109 **2. Results and discussion**

110 *2.1. Metagenomic datasets.*

111 The total DNA extraction of the midgut of 60 females of *A. aegypti* provided an average
112 of 1.078 ng/ μ L \pm 0.663, while ten individual larvae in the fourth instar (group L4) yielded 0.599
113 ng/ μ L \pm 0.121. Adult mosquitoes fed with blood (group AB) showed a lower DNA yield when
114 compared to the mosquitoes fed with sugar (group AS), with an average of 0.783 ng/ μ L \pm 0.385
115 for AB and 1.372 ng/ μ L \pm 0.752 for AS. The total DNA amount recovered from each individual
116 sample is shown in Supplementary Figure 1 and Table S1. Despite the low biomass, the average
117 number of reads generated per sample was approximately 45 million (negative and
118 environmental controls excluded, Table S1). A total of 3,213,701,600 reads were generated, from
119 which 1,376,183,852 reads (~42.82%) were classified as non-host reads (NH) after *in-silico*
120 removal of mosquito genomic sequences. The total DNA and metagenomic reads per group
121 before and after mapping and the reads generated for controls are in Supplementary Table S1. A
122 total of 1,164,457,880 paired-end reads (an average of: L4 = 38,054,610 \pm 6,105,856; AB =
123 20,139,425 \pm 11,488,999; AS = 5,990,967 \pm 624,586) were used in the subsequent metagenomic
124 analyses.

125 To assess whether the number of microbial phylotypes in each sample was a function of
126 the sequencing depth, we performed interpolation and extrapolation of the reads using microbial
127 richness at the genus and species taxonomic levels. The groups L4 and AB reach a *plateau* of

128 rarefaction at approximately 400,000 reads. In comparison, samples from the AS group reached
129 the rarefaction threshold at approximately 50,000 reads, showing that all curves were rarefied
130 to the point where the size of the datasets no longer contributed significantly to the increase of
131 microbial diversity (Supplementary Figure S2). Therefore, the metagenomic dataset sizes used in
132 this work were not creating a bias in the diversity of the microbiomes.

133 2.2. Larval microbiome and experimental controls.

134 Larvae are exclusively colonized by Actinobacteria of the genus *Microbacterium*
135 (3,403,719 reads; 65 phylotypes detected; Figure 1). They display a significantly higher diversity
136 with the Chao1 index (Figure 2A) when compared to the adult groups, but this result is due to a
137 decreased evenness, which is reflected in the diversity analysis with Simpson reciprocal indices
138 (Figure 2A). Recently, the role of *Microbacterium* sp. was assessed in axenic *A. aegypti* larvae,
139 showing that it is the only taxon that was not associated with an increased rate of survival to
140 adulthood (Coon et al., 2014). This finding suggests that *Microbacterium* sp. do not contribute
141 significantly to the development of larvae, despite their dominance. Nevertheless, its
142 colonization in *A. aegypti* larvae may be relevant in other aspects, including symbioses that
143 antagonize the establishment of fungal entomopathogens, such as *Metarhizium robertsii* (Noskov
144 et al., 2021). This perspective may explain why fungal pathogens such as *M. majus* and *Aspergillus*
145 *flavus* coincide with low *Microbacterium* sp. colonization in adult mosquitoes. Additionally, the
146 water sample where larvae were reared did not show the presence of *Microbacterium* sp.
147 (Supplementary Figure S4), further indicating that its dominance in larval samples is not acquired
148 from the environment and is indeed typical of this developmental stage. The Actinobacteria
149 *Leifsonia aquatica* (111,018 reads), *Leucobacter chironomi* (160,140 reads), and *Corynebacterium*
150 *sp.* (223,942 reads) are also found in larvae but not in adult mosquitoes. These results
151 corroborate the hypothesis that there is little-to-no transstadial transmission of microbiome
152 components, with considerable differences in compositional and diversity patterns from larval to
153 adult mosquitoes.

154 In addition to the rearing water used as an environmental control for the larval
155 microbiome, the blood and sugar solutions used to feed the adults were also sequenced to assess
156 the possibility that meals were the source of microorganisms colonization. In general, the
157 number of reads attributed to microbial phylotypes was drastically lower in all control samples,
158 corresponding to a decrease of 98.6% in assigned reads (268,671) compared to the mosquito
159 samples (20,409,956 assigned reads). In the blood sample, more than 95% of reads were assigned
160 to *Sus scrofa*, coinciding with the source of the blood used for the mosquitoes' blood meals. A
161 few viral reads were detected in the blood source and were assigned to the Taterapox virus,
162 which was also present in a small portion of the microbiome of adult mosquitoes fed with blood
163 (Figures 1B and S4), and indicative that females likely acquired these viruses during the blood
164 meal. In the water-sugar solution used for feeding, the bacterial species *Microbacterium* sp. and
165 *Pseudomonas fluorescens* were found with 666 and 441 reads, respectively. In the negative
166 controls (blanks), *Methylobacterium* sp. was detected (34,651 reads; Supplementary Figure S4).
167 This taxon was previously described as a contaminant in commercial kits commonly used for
168 metagenomics DNA extraction (Salter et al., 2014). Together, the metagenomic analyses of
169 experimental controls show that our analyses were not influenced by the microbial components

170 previously present in the environment where larvae were reared, meal solutions, or in the DNA
171 extraction kit.

172 *2.3. Shifts in microbial composition are driven by hematophagy.*

173 The composition of the normalized data sets shows that Bacteria is the prevalent
174 microbial domain in larvae and in the midgut of females of *A. aegypti* (approx. 99.6% Bacteria,
175 0.3% Fungi, 0.05% Viruses, 0.007% Archaea, Supplementary Figure S3), independently of the food
176 source. Individually, the samples in the sugar-fed group displayed the most reads assigned to the
177 Eukarya domain regardless of the time after feeding, unlike blood-fed adult mosquitoes and
178 larvae (Supplementary Figure S3). Even though most of these reads were further confirmed to
179 be remaining fractions of *A. aegypti*'s genome, 10% to 15% of these eukaryotic reads in
180 mosquitoes of the AS group were composed of the fungal phylum Ascomycota (Figure 1A).
181 Nevertheless, Proteobacteria was the phylum with the most significant portion of reads in all
182 metagenomes analyzed, with relative abundances ranging from 45% to 95% of the microbiomes
183 in individual samples (Figure 1A).

184 At the species taxonomic level, the top 50 microorganisms assigned to each sample are
185 detailed in Figure 1B. A total of 802 microbial phylotypes were detected in the metagenomes
186 with a per-group average of $L4 = 301,5 \pm 17.8$; $AB = 166.5 \pm 93$; $AS = 18.5 \pm 11$. A shift in the
187 microbiome composition was observed in the earliest hours after feeding the blood group (Figure
188 1). At 12h and 24h, the AB group displayed a dramatic increase in abundance of the phylum
189 Proteobacteria, with the proliferation of Enterobacterales. At 48h post blood meal, the
190 microbiome of the AB group exhibited yet another shift, and Enterobacterales was no longer
191 detectable. However, at this time of the digestive period, a proliferation of the phylum
192 Bacteroidetes was observed, with an average of 85% of the microbiome of female adults being
193 composed of the flavobacterium *Elizabethkingia anophelis* (146,605 reads in the AB group at 48h
194 of a total of 340,158 reads across all groups; Figure 1B). This shift is similar to what is observed
195 in the AS group at 48h (44,348 reads assigned to *E. anophelis*), indicating a modulation of their
196 proliferation capability triggered by the blood metabolism in the midgut environment (Figure 1).
197 In the post-digestive period (48h), group AB presents a microbial composition similar to that
198 observed in the AS groups at 12h and 24h, but with the presence of ascomycete fungi such as
199 *Aspergillus flavus* and *Metarhizium majus* (with 12,508 and 10,260 reads attributed, respectively;
200 Figure 1B).

201 *2.4. Diversity of the microbiomes under different diets.*

202 In sugar-fed adults, the total number of microbial phylotypes observed (67 phylotypes) is
203 relatively low throughout the digestive period. Blood-fed adults, conversely, display a high
204 variation of observed phylotypes (average of 136 ± 18 phylotypes) during digestion, reaching the
205 peak of 174 phylotypes 24h after the blood meal, as shown in Figure 2. The Simpson reciprocal
206 index, however, indicates that the peak of microbial diversity in the sugar-fed group is reached
207 at 12h, decaying in the next 36h (Figure 2A). The blood-fed group shows an inverse pattern, with
208 its lowest microbial diversity at 12h after feeding and increasing diversity to higher levels, up to
209 48h (Figure 2A). The discrepancies between the indices indicate that a higher evenness (i.e., the
210 lack of dominance of one or a few taxa) drives the increase of the diversity in sugar-fed adults

211 when using indices that account for relative abundances of taxa, such as Simpson or Shannon.
212 The contrary is also true for the blood-fed group, which has less evenness with a few highly
213 abundant species (Figure 1A). Taking into consideration that the time for the digestion of blood
214 in the midgut of *A. aegypti* mosquitoes lasts 30 to 40h (Downe, 1975; Felix et al., 1991), the
215 overlapping of samples from blood and sugar-fed groups at 48h indicates that the microbial
216 composition of both groups is similar after digestion. The major modulation of the microbiome
217 is therefore triggered within 24h after feeding by the type of diet. Further compositional analyses
218 in this work consider these digestive periods, and the 48h groups will henceforth be referred to
219 as the "post-digestive" period.

220 Notably, sample ordinations show divergent beta-diversity patterns (Figure 2B). The
221 microbiomes of sugar-fed mosquitoes at 12h and blood-fed at 12h and 24h are highly unique,
222 forming separate clusters with distinct centroids (Figure 2B). Nevertheless, there is no clear
223 distinction between the sugar-fed groups at 24h and 48h and the blood-fed group at 48h, which
224 can be observed in the NMDS as the superposition of ellipsoids of these groups (Figure 2B, left
225 panel). The scattered distribution of blood-fed individuals analyzed 48h after feeding caused its
226 centroid to overlap with all individuals in the sugar-fed groups at 48h, as opposed to other groups
227 of blood-fed individuals (Figure 2B), demonstrating a convergent shift back to similar
228 compositions after 48h since their last meal, regardless of the diet. However, when individuals
229 from groups AB and AS are analyzed independently of the time elapsed after feeding, the two
230 groups are clearly separated (Figure 2B, right panel), thereby indicating that the type of diet is
231 the best explanatory variable to the compositional microbiome differences ($p < 0.001$; ADONIS =
232 0.27), followed by hours post-feeding ($p < 0.001$; ADONIS = 0.16). These results corroborate
233 previous studies demonstrating that meal sources may directly affect the mosquito microbial
234 community (Almire et al., 2021; Gonzales et al., 2018; Muturi et al., 2018).

235 A high number of shared phylotypes (117 phylotypes) was observed in the microbiome of
236 mosquitoes 12h and 24h after the blood meal (Figure 2C). This shared diversity of the midgut
237 microbiome decreases significantly to 66 phylotypes after 48h of feeding in the AB group and
238 even further when the AS group at 48h is considered (38 phylotypes; Figure 2C). The blood-fed
239 group showed a lower number of unique microbial phylotypes independent of the time post-
240 feeding, with 60 phylotypes at 12h, 105 phylotypes at 24h, and 16 at 48h. Such findings confirm
241 the compositional narrowing of the microbial phylotypes after the blood meal. On the other
242 hand, the sugar-fed group had a higher number of unique phylotypes (25 and 5 phylotypes,
243 respectively) at 12h and 24h, as opposed to shared phylotypes (4 phylotypes shared between all
244 AS groups; 3 phylotypes shared between AS individuals at 12h and 24h as well as between 12h
245 and 48h) further confirming that the sugar feeding is associated with a more diverse microbial
246 repertoire.

247

248 *2.5. Microbial network interaction throughout digestion.*

249 Microbiomes are complex ecological communities that form interactive networks. To
250 infer these interactions in the microbial community structure, we utilized graphs of microbial
251 networks at the species level, aiming to detect taxa with significant co-occurrences (Figure 3).
252 Sugar-fed mosquitoes present fewer microbial co-occurrences than blood-fed adults, but six
253 clusters (S1 to S6) were significantly correlated ($p < 0.05$; $R > 0.75$; Figure 3A). In blood-fed

254 mosquitoes, six clusters (B1 to B6) were also observed, and the densest network consists of three
255 clusters, where B3 and B4 are composed exclusively of specific Enterobacterales phylotypes
256 found in the AB group at 12h and 24h after feeding, respectively (Figure 3B). Intriguingly, a third
257 cluster, B5, is composed of microbial taxa that are distantly related, unlike what was observed in
258 the other clusters (Figure 3B). These results indicate that the structure of *A. aegypti*'s microbial
259 community may not be driven only by the type of diet and digestion periods but also by taxon-
260 specific interactions. The detection of several bacterial phylotypes belonging to the same genera,
261 such as *Pseudomonas* spp. and *Elizabethkingia* spp. in clusters S4, S5, and B1, likely indicates that
262 they are the same species colonizing the midgut of *A. aegypti* but methodological artifacts
263 intrinsic to the sequence homology and similarity in closely related phylotypes may miss such
264 nuances as intraspecific variation. Clusters marked with special characters (*, ○, and #) are
265 highly similar in composition between sugar- and blood-fed groups. These microbial phylotypes
266 are detected only in the blood post-digestive period but are evenly distributed among individuals
267 fed with sugar.

268 Part of the microbial richness consistently observed in co-occurrence networks may be
269 used as predictors of the diet and the time elapsed after a meal. This relationship can be observed
270 in Figure 4A, which shows that *P. fluorescens*, *A. flavus*, and *M. majus* have the strongest
271 association ($p < 0.05$) with the AS group at 12h. On the other hand, the microbiome of the AB
272 group was dominated by the bacterial phylotype *Raoultella ornithinolytica* (169,307 reads) at 12h
273 post-feeding, while *Kluyvera intermedia* (196,549 reads) is predominant at 24h post-feeding. The
274 midgut of individuals metabolizing blood (12 and 24h) share a significant association with the
275 phylotypes *Salmonella enterica*, *Enterobacter cloacae*, and other Enterobacterales phylotypes.
276 After 48h, the relative abundance of *E. anophelis* is assigned to both groups of adult mosquitoes
277 regardless of the diet, making this phylotype the most descriptive of the post-digestive state
278 (Figure 4A). Further analysis of the abundance of Flavobacteriales and Enterobacterales revealed
279 that both orders reach their peak richness opposite to all other taxonomic orders. The order
280 Flavobacteriales showed less distinct peaks in the diversity distributions, whereas the
281 Enterobacterales displayed only two well-defined richness peaks when no other microorganisms
282 were detected. This finding indicates that the proliferation of these bacteria in the midgut of
283 mosquitoes is mutually exclusive with the presence of other microbial components given the
284 microenvironmental pressure presented by blood digestion (Figure 4B).

285 The presence of *E. anophelis* in the post-digestion microbiomes of adult females is
286 noteworthy, mainly because this gram-negative flavobacterium has been identified as the
287 causative agent of multiple outbreaks in humans worldwide. The species has also been isolated
288 from *Anopheles gambiae*, raising concerns about the possibility of its vectorial transmission
289 (Chew et al., 2018; McTaggart et al., 2019; Perrin et al., 2017; Reed et al., 2020). Its pathogenesis
290 is characterized by nosocomial bacteremia leading to sepsis in humans and has been associated
291 with neonatal meningitis (Lau et al., 2016). Recent evidence suggests that this bacterium is also
292 found in the saliva and salivary glands of *A. albopictus* (Onyango et al., 2021), indicating that
293 transmission by mosquitoes is a possible route. Interestingly, in the same study, the colonization
294 by *E. anophelis* was correlated with lower ZIKV titers in mosquito co-infection assays *in-vivo*.
295 Although previous studies using metabarcoding have shown a high abundance of the
296 flavobacterium *Chryseobacterium* sp. (Kim et al., 2005), our results do not indicate the prevalence
297 of this phylotype in our datasets. However, *Chryseobacterium* and *Elizabethkingia* are closely

298 related taxa, and the assignment differences found may be explained by the higher taxonomic
299 resolution power of the WGS metagenomics, thus indicating that *Elizabethkingia*, in particular *E.*
300 *anophelis*, is likely the dominant genus in the midgut microbiome of *A. aegypti*.

301 This evidence is further supported by the recovery of the metagenome-assembled
302 genome (MAG) from the reads assigned to *Elizabethkingia* spp. The MAG is fragmented into 558
303 contigs with a total length of 4,667,330 bp (N50 = 32,698 bp). A ribosomal multilocus sequence
304 typing (rMLST) resulted in 38 loci (out of 53) with 92% support for the MAG assignment to *E.*
305 *anophelis*. Further fIDBAC analysis provided the identification of the MAG as *E. anophelis* based
306 on >98% average nucleotide identity (ANI). Furthermore, the comparative phylogenomic analysis
307 of 1,254 single-copy orthologs of 185 genomes corroborated the grouping of the recovered MAG
308 into *E. anophelis* species clade (Supplementary Figure 5). This study reports the first evidence of
309 the colonization of *A. aegypti* by *E. anophelis*. Our results show that both sugar and blood diets
310 interfere with the proliferation of this bacterium in the midgut. The relationship between *E.*
311 *anophelis*, blood meal ingestion, antiviral activity, and pathogen transmission is worth further
312 investigation.

313 2.5. Functional profiling of the microbiomes throughout digestion.

314 The functional profile of metagenomes was characterized using the SEED database
315 (Overbeek et al. 2014) to analyze microbial composition's impact on the midgut's functional
316 diversity. Results indicate that, similarly to what was observed in the microbial compositional
317 analyses, the functional profiles of midguts of blood-fed mosquitoes are strikingly different at
318 12h and 24h compared to other adult experimental groups (Figure 5). Most of the metabolic
319 classifications are pathways related to the cell wall and ultrastructure (4,395 reads), nucleotide
320 metabolism (44,694 reads), and stress response (1,861 reads in the AB groups). However, 12
321 hours after feeding, fewer genes are related to motility and chemotaxis than in other groups
322 (30,194 reads). After 48 hours, the functional profile of the AB group shifts back to a state that
323 resembles those observed in sugar-fed groups (Figure 5), further showing that the shifts in
324 microbial composition and function are concomitant.

325 A principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) demonstrated that reads assigned to carbohydrate
326 metabolism (209,958 reads), amino acids and derivatives (127,903 reads), and virulence (100,710
327 reads) are responsible for the uniqueness observed in the functional profile of blood-fed
328 mosquitoes at 12 and 24h (Figure 6A). Such singularity displays a strong positive correlation with
329 the proliferation of Enterobacterales (Figure 6B), namely *S. enterica* (28,351 reads; Rho = 0.83),
330 *Ko. radicinicans* (8,480 reads; Rho = 0.73), *Kle. aerogenes* (2,863 reads; Rho = 0.74) and *Klu.*
331 *intermedia* (196,549 reads; Rho = 0.70). These bacterial phylotypes are the most significantly
332 correlated with the functional uniqueness in the AB group at 12 and 24h, as shown in Figure 6C.
333 Additionally, the principal coordinate that best explains the variability of all SEED metabolic
334 pathways (PC1 = 58,2%) has a significant negative correlation with the relative abundance of
335 Enterobacterales (Figure 6D), thereby indicating that these bacteria are likely responsible for
336 narrowing the metabolic spectrum in the mosquito midgut during the digestion of blood, and are
337 in agreement with the functional diversity analysis shown in Figure 5. This trend can be better
338 observed in Figure 6A (upper panel), which shows a higher number of metabolic pathways in the
339 midgut of mosquitoes in groups AB at 12 and 24h than in other groups (Figure 6E, top). Yet, the
340 functional variability (Evar; Figure 6E, bottom) observed in group AB at 12 and 24h is lower when

341 compared to all other groups, showcasing that, even though a large number of pathways is
342 detected, most of the reads are concentrated in the three pathways aforementioned. These
343 results indicate that the blood meal triggered the proliferation of specialized opportunistic
344 Enterobacterales, also suggesting that these bacteria play a more significant role than previously
345 thought in the digestion of blood in the mosquito's midgut. This hypothesis corroborates previous
346 work describing the main association of the mosquito microbiome with gene expression related
347 to metabolic and nutritional pathways (Hyde et al., 2020). Different Enterobacteria species also
348 have been associated with an increased digestive capability of fructose in *A. albopictus* (Scolari
349 et al., 2019), but this is the first study that describes their potential for partaking in blood
350 digestion in hematophagous insects. It is possible to speculate that these Enterobacteria may be
351 related to all digestive processes of the mosquito *in vivo*, albeit not associated with non-natural
352 processes, such as the digestion of sucrose utilized in our analyses.

353 To further analyze the modulation of significantly correlated Enterobacterales phylotypes
354 (*S. enterica*, *Ko. radicincitans*, *Kle. aerogenes*, and *Klu. intermedia*) in the digestive period, the
355 relative abundance of reads assigned to each phylotype and principal functional pathways (Rho
356 > 0.70; carbohydrate metabolism, amino acids and derivatives, and virulence) are shown for the
357 AB group at 12 and 24h in Figure 7. It is possible to observe an overlap of metabolic pathways
358 and microbial abundance of specific Enterobacterales, reiterating the strong relationship
359 between the taxonomic and functional classification in the midgut of blood-digesting
360 mosquitoes. Considering the virulence pathway, it is possible to detect the presence of functional
361 classes related to multiple antimicrobial resistances, notoriously multi-resistance efflux pumps
362 (12,324 reads), and fluoroquinolone resistance (4,743 reads; Figure 7C). The detection of
363 commensal microorganisms that present antimicrobial resistances has already been reported in
364 *A. aegypti*'s midgut with culture-dependent methods (Hyde et al., 2019), but this is the first
365 metagenomic evidence of the presence of a putative resistome associated with the microbiome
366 in these mosquitoes. Under the carbohydrate metabolism pathway, most of the SEED classes are
367 related to the utilization and anabolism of sugars, including maltose and maltodextrin (9,527
368 reads), and serine utilization in the glyoxylate cycle (15,409 reads). The enrichment of these
369 genes may indicate an increase in the metabolic demand caused by the proliferation of
370 Enterobacteria, in particular that of *Klu. intermedia* after blood meals in *A. aegypti*. Nonetheless,
371 previous studies demonstrate that the consumption of dextrose may increase adult mosquitoes'
372 lifespan (Alvarado et al., 2021; Carter and Evans, 2005; de Campos et al., 2016; Posidonio et al.,
373 2021; Singh et al., 2004), suggesting that the blood meal may indirectly influence the hosts'
374 fitness by driving the proliferation of beta-hemolytic Enterobacteria which may be reducing or
375 increasing the availability of macro-nutrients to the host, but further studies are needed to
376 confirm this hypothesis. Lastly, the amino acids and derivatives pathway include functional
377 classes related to glycine and serine metabolism (10,368 reads), as well as biosynthesis (16,643
378 reads) and degradation (12,018 reads) of methionine (Figure 7C). These pathways have key
379 enzymes for the digestion of blood, which is the case of the glycine and serine utilization pathway,
380 detected in the microbiome of adult mosquitoes. The silencing of one of the pivotal enzymes in
381 the latter pathway (serine transferase, SMHT) caused the formation of clots of non-digested
382 blood in female mosquitoes' midguts and a phenotype of ovarian underdevelopment (Li et al.,
383 2019), corroborating with our results and strengthening the hypothesis of a nutritional symbiosis
384 between Enterobacteria and *A. aegypti*.

385

386 **3. Concluding remarks**

387 Associations between microorganisms and insect hosts have contributed to a better
388 understanding of physiology, metabolism, and their relation to vector capacity and transmission
389 of insect-borne diseases. In this work, we sequenced individual microbiomes of larval and female
390 adults of *A. aegypti* fed with blood and sugar, demonstrating that transstadial transmission of
391 microorganisms from larval to adult stages is not prominent in *A. aegypti*. We also observed that,
392 after digestion (48h), no significant difference was observed in the microbiome of blood-fed or
393 sugar-fed individuals. In fact, significant and transient changes in microbial composition,
394 diversity, and putative function are mainly driven by blood meal and last for the digestion period
395 in adults. Furthermore, we observed a significant association of Enterobacterales phylotypes,
396 especially of *Klu. intermedia* with blood digestion in the midgut. Hematophagy is a habit
397 intimately associated with the mosquito's reproductive cycle, and the Enterobacteria
398 proliferation in response to the blood meal stimulus is likely associated with important metabolic
399 and physiological changes required to cope with oxidative stress and blood digestion. The
400 functional characterization inferred from the metagenome showed that potential changes in
401 pathways follow the microbial compositional shifts that occur after a blood meal intake. The
402 digestive process is capable of modulating the presence of fungi and prominent bacteria, such as
403 *E. anophelis*, which are consistently observed colonizing the midguts of individual mosquitoes
404 during the post-digestive period and may act as symbionts of *A. aegypti*. Both, *Klu. Intermedia*
405 and *E. anophelis* are promising candidates for further assessment of their physiological impacts
406 on the mosquito host and could potentially serve as control agents for both the vector population
407 and the transmission of arboviruses.

408

409 **4. Material and methods**

410

411 *4.1. Mosquito rearing and feeding.*

412 *A. aegypti* Singapore strain was reared in a Climatic Test and Plant Growth chamber
413 (Panosnoic MLR-352H) at a temperature of $28 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, relative humidity of $80 \pm 5\%$, and a
414 photoperiodic regime of 12:12 h (light:dark). Mosquito breeding followed a previously
415 established protocol (Zhang H et al., 2023). In brief, 2–4-week-old *Ae. aegypti* eggs were hatched
416 in sterile water using a vacuum for 15 minutes. Newly hatched L1 larvae were bred in a plastic
417 bowl with a density of 2.5 mL/larva in sterile water. Mosquito larvae were fed with a mixture of
418 fish food (TetraMin Tropical Flakers)/brewer's yeast (yeast instant dry blue/Bruggeman) at a ratio
419 of 2:1. The feeding regimen was as follows: 25 mg (day 1), 32 mg (day2), 56 mg (day 3), 130 mg
420 (day 4), 200 mg (day 5), and 100 mg (day 6). Pupae were collected and placed into a 17.5 x 17.5
421 x 17.5 cm cage (BugDorm-4S 1515) supplied with one vial of sugar and one vial of sterile water,
422 both of which were replaced twice per week.

423 *4.2. Experimental design*

424 For sugar-feeding (AS group) mosquitoes, 80 newly emerged *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes (40
425 females and 40 males) were maintained in a 17.5 x 17.5 x 17.5 cm cage (BugDorm-4S 1515)

426 supplied with one vial of sugar and one vial of sterile water. For blood-fed (AB group) mosquitoes,
427 80 newly emerged *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes (40 females and 40 males) were maintained in a 17.5
428 x 17.5 x 17.5 cm cage (BugDorm-4S 1515) supplied with one vial of sugar and one vial of sterile
429 water for three days to allow maturation before being fed with *Sus scrofa domesticus* blood using
430 an artificial membrane feeding system (Hemotek Ltd, UK, or Orinnotech, Singapore). For each
431 group, three subgroups of ten adults were separated based on time elapsed after their last blood
432 (AB) or sugar (AS) meal: 12h, 24h, and 48h. Additionally, ten individuals in the L4 larval stage were
433 analyzed to compare the two developmental stages and assess whether the larval microbiome is
434 transmitted to adults. One sample of the larvae rearing water (W), one sample of the distilled
435 water source used to prepare the water-sugar solution (DW), one sample of the water-sugar
436 solution itself (WS), and one sample of the *Sus scrofa domesticus* blood (B) were analyzed to
437 assess their contribution to the microbiome of mosquitoes. Additionally, three non-mosquito
438 (NM) samples for DNA extraction reagent control were also sequenced, corresponding to the
439 three extraction protocols we used: (NM-1) one negative control for the kit DNeasy Blood and
440 Tissue (Qiagen) used for mosquito DNA extraction, (NM-2) one negative control for the kit
441 DNeasy Blood and Tissue (Qiagen) used for DNA extraction of minipig blood and (NM-3) one
442 negative control for the kit DNeasy PowerWater (Qiagen) used for the DNA extraction of water
443 samples. Thus, a total of 77 samples (Supplementary Table 1) were sequenced, processed, and
444 analyzed with the same workflow.
445

446 4.3. DNA extraction and sequencing.

447 Midguts of adult female mosquitoes were dissected in ice-cold PBS using a stereoscope
448 (Olympus SZ61) and kept in 300 μ L of Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS) 1X, pH 7.4 (Gibco –
449 ThermoFisher). The midguts and larvae were individually macerated with an electric tissue
450 grinder (VWR International), and the homogenates were used for DNA extraction following the
451 insect tissues protocol of the DNeasy Blood and Tissue (Qiagen) kit, according to the
452 manufacturer's instructions. The mini pig blood sample was extracted with the same kit but
453 following the specific protocol for blood DNA extraction. We followed the standard protocol of
454 the kit DNeasy PowerWater (Qiagen) for the water sample extractions. Negative control DNA
455 extractions followed the respective protocols, but no sample was added. DNA yield quantification
456 was performed with the Qubit™ 1X dsDNA HS Assay Kit (ThermoFisher) in a Qubit 2 fluorometer
457 (ThermoFisher), and DNA integrity was assessed on a Bioanalyzer 2100 system (Agilent) using the
458 High Sensitivity DNA Kit (Agilent). The total DNA for each sample was fragmented using the
459 ultrasonicator Covaris S220 (Covaris Inc.), and the fragments were separated by size in a Pippin
460 Prep electrophoretic system (Sage Science) with 2% agarose gel. Fragments of 300 to 450 bp
461 were collected and purified with Agencourt AMPure XP magnetic beads (Beckman Coulter).
462 Libraries were then built with the Accel-NGS 2S Plus DNA Library Kit (Swift Biosciences), following
463 the manufacturer's protocol. All libraries were indexed with the 2S Dual Indexing Kit (Swift
464 Biosciences), quantified with Quant-iT™ Picogreen® (Invitrogen), and validated by qPCR with the
465 KAPA SYBR® FAST qPCR kit (Kapa Biosystems). Equimolar quantities of each indexed library were
466 pooled for multiplex sequencing on the HiSeq 2500 (Illumina Inc.) platform, with a 251 bp paired-
467 end protocol. Sequencing was performed at the Singapore Centre for Environmental Life Sciences
468 Engineering, Nanyang Technological University (Singapore).

469

470 4.4. Processing of sequenced datasets.

471 The raw fastq sequencing files were trimmed for both adapter and low-quality sequences
472 using cutadapt v. 1.15 (Martin, 2011). A maximum error rate of 0.2 was allowed to recognize and
473 remove adapters. A quality cutoff of Q20 was used to trim low-quality ends from reads before
474 adapter removal. High-quality reads were aligned against the complete *A. aegypti* genome
475 (GCA_002204515.1) to filter out the host reads. Mapping was carried out using *Bowtie2*
476 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) with selective parameters for a high sensitivity rate, and reads
477 were filtered with SAMtools (Li et al., 2009). The remaining fraction of reads was subsequently
478 translated in six frames and aligned against the NCBI NR protein database with RapSearch2 v.
479 2.15 (Zhao et al., 2012) using default parameters. The number of reads generated and analyzed
480 is listed in Supplementary Table S2.

481

482 4.5. Taxonomic and functional assignment.

483 After importing alignment results into MEGAN 6 v.6.18.8 (Huson et al., 2016), we
484 performed taxa assignment with strict parameters of the Lowest Common Ancestor (LCA)
485 algorithm, considering the read length generated for each sample with the following settings:
486 Max Expected = 0.01, Top Percentage = 10.0, Min Support = 25, Min Complexity = 0.33, Paired
487 Reads = On. Next, we individually normalized all metagenomes to the dataset with the smallest
488 number of reads of the 70 experimental or seven control samples to obtain the representative
489 relative abundances of assigned microbial taxa. The functional profiles for the different
490 microbiomes were assessed by assigning enriched genes identified to functional classes using the
491 SEED hierarchy (Mitra et al., 2011) database. Results were visualized in a heatmap adjusted to a
492 z-score scale, with hierarchical grouping of classes.

493 All reads assigned to *E. anophelis* in the metagenomic analysis were extracted with an in-
494 house script and used as input in SPAdes v. 3.15.2 to assemble the genome (Prijbelski et al., 2020).
495 The resulting MAG was evaluated using QUAST v. 5.0.0 (Mikheenko et al., 2018) and ribosomal
496 multilocus sequence typing (rMLST) was performed using the speciesID tool available in the
497 public databases for molecular typing and microbial genome diversity PubMLST (Jolley et al.,
498 2012; release 2023-03-10) to confirm the metagenomic assignment. The average nucleotide
499 identification (ANI) was performed with fIDBAC (Liang et al., 2021). A pangenome approach was
500 also conducted to identify orthologs for tree reconstruction. Briefly, protein datasets of 183
501 annotated, non-redundant genomes of *E. anophelis* available on NCBI (Supplementary Table S2
502 for accession numbers; downloaded on 12/21/2021) were used as an input for the software
503 Orthofinder v. 2.5.4 (Emms and Kelly, 2019). The genome of *Elizabethkingia miricola*
504 (GCF_001483145.1) was used as an outgroup. A total of 1,254 single-copy orthologs present in
505 all samples were assigned by Orthofinder and individually aligned with MAFFT v. 7 (Katoh and
506 Standley, 2013). The concatenated alignment of orthologs was then used as input to IQ-TREE v.
507 1.6.12 (Nyugen et al., 2015) to perform the best-fit model search (JTT+F+R4) with ModelFinder
508 (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017) and reconstruct the maximum likelihood tree with 10,000
509 replicates of ultrafast bootstraps (Minh et al., 2013).

510

511 *4.6. Diversity estimations and statistical analyses.*

512 Species diversity analyses using the Simpson Reciprocal (Simpson, 1949) and Shannon-
513 Weaver Indexes (Shannon, 1948) were performed in MEGAN 6, while the package vegan v. 2.5-6
514 (Oksanen et al., 2019) was used to generate the chao1 richness index (CHAO et al., 1990) using
515 "species" level for Bacterial, Fungal and Viral taxa of NCBI taxonomy. Analysis of variance
516 (ANOVA) was performed for each method with 1000 permutations, and pairwise group
517 significance was assessed with Wilcox's post hoc test. To display diversity as a function of the
518 sampling size, rarefaction curves were computed with functions of the package iNEXT v. 2.0.20
519 (Hsieh et al., 2016), with parameters of interpolation and extrapolation for Hill numbers (Hill,
520 1973). Calculation of non-metrical multidimensional scaling (NMDS) was also performed in
521 vegan, using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity (Bray and Curtis, 1957) and calculating ellipsoids with
522 confidence intervals based on the centroids for each experimental group. For the statistical
523 interpretation of the results, multivariate analyses with distance matrices (ADONIS) and analysis
524 of similarities (ANOSIM) were employed with 1000 permutations. The distribution of functional
525 classes was calculated with the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity using a principal coordinates analysis
526 (PCoA). To further investigate the functional diversity, a fuzzy set ordination (FSO) was employed
527 using the functional dissimilarities, using the package fso (Roberts, 2008). Visualizations were
528 plotted using the package ggplot2 v. 3.3.0 (Wickham, 2016).
529

530 *4.7. Distribution of significant species.*

531 Linear regressions were directly employed in the dispersion of quantitative variables to
532 assess the correlation of relative species abundance to the observed functional variability in the
533 metagenomes. To test whether microbial species originate from the same time-diet distribution,
534 we used a phyloseq (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013) implementation of the Kruskal-Wallis non-
535 parametric test coupled with decision trees, in a model adapted from Torondel et al. (2016).
536 Briefly, the p-values were calculated and corrected for multiple testing using familywise error
537 rate for each pair "phyloptype - experimental group". The significance was based on the corrected
538 threshold of $p < 0.05$. Significant species most frequently predicted were then assigned
539 importance in the Random Forest classifier based on the mean decrease in accuracy of their
540 classification (Breiman, 2001). To map the probabilistic density of abundant bacterial orders,
541 their kernel bivariate densities (Venables and Ripley, 2002) were estimated as a function of the
542 median distribution of reads assigned to other microbial orders, and their relationships are
543 visualized in logarithmic scale. Additionally, co-occurrence networks were estimated for the
544 microbiome of adult mosquitoes to detect potential microbial interactions related to different
545 diets and the time of the digestive process. The networks were generated based on an adjacency
546 matrix with a significance threshold $p \leq 0.05$ for each microbial association with a bivariate
547 Pearson correlation coefficient > 0.75 (Pearson, 1895). The attribution of edges was automated
548 with the module iGraph (Csardi et al., 2006), removing vertices with null edges, thereby
549 facilitating the visualization with the software Gephi (Bastian et al., 2009). As the input to these
550 analyses, we generated a new abundance matrix based on the presence of species in at least 10%

551 of the samples, with a minimum of 200 reads, removing likely contaminations and rare taxa to
552 avoid algorithm miscomputations. All packages were accessed with *in-house* scripts written in R
553 v.3.6.3 and are available upon request (R Core Team, 2013).

554

555 **Data availability statement**

556 Sequencing data and metagenomes of *A. aegypti* will be available at Short Read Archive under
557 the BioProject accession number PRJNA1065965. The specific BioSample accession numbers for each
558 mosquito are found in Supplementary Table S3.

559

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565

566 **Author contributions**

567 A.C.M.J., Y.C. and S.C.S. designed the study; Y.C., F.G.G and X.H. performed the breeding
568 and feeding experiments as well as the midgut dissection. E.L.O. processed the samples and
569 performed DNA extractions. D.I.D.-M. conducted the library preparation and sequencing.
570 B.N.V.P., A.C.M.J. and S.C.S processed the raw sequencing data. J.F.M.S., B.N.V.P. and A.C.M.J.
571 analyzed the metagenomic data. J.F.M.S. performed the statistical analyses. J.F.M.S and A.C.M.J
572 wrote the manuscript with the input from B.N.V.P., D.I.D.-M., Y.C., and S.C.S.

573

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575

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579

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Figures

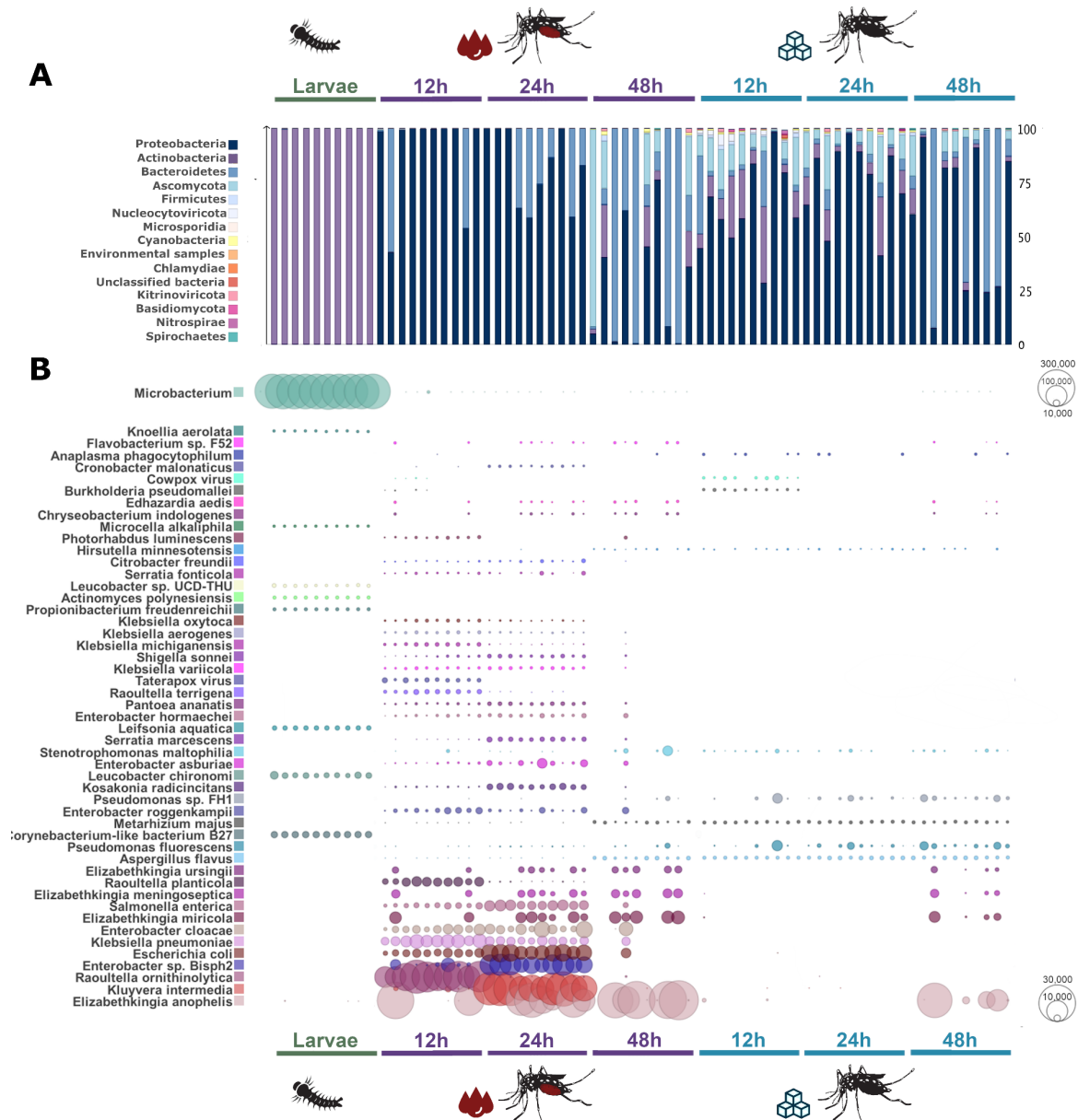
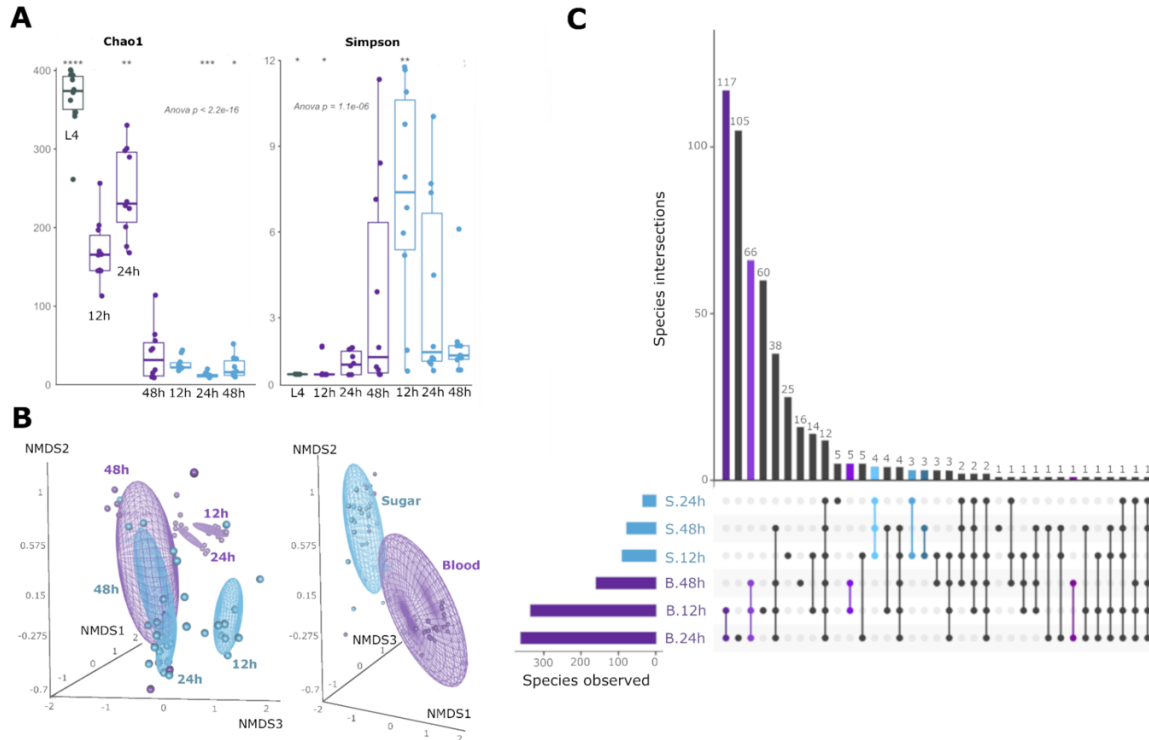


Figure 1. The microbiome composition of female adults and larval stages at phylum (A) and species (B) levels. Bubbles display the relative abundance of microbial species in quadratic scale based on the normalized number of assigned reads for each adult midgut or larval sample. The bins in the bar chart are scaled percentually. *Microbacterium* sp. were collapsed to the taxonomic level of the genus and displayed in its own scale (top-left) to enable the comparison between different taxa in the experimental groups.



3

Figure 2. Diversity profiles of mosquitoes' microbiome in different developmental stages and throughout 48 h of the digestion of different diets in adults. A) Boxplots showing the distribution of different diversity indices and entropies. The global and pairwise significances are assessed with ANOVA and Wilcoxon's tests, respectively. B) NMDS of the Bray-Curtis dissimilarities (stress = 0.07, model fit = 99%) of AS and AB groups collected 12, 24, and 48 h after feeding. Ellipses represent confidence intervals of the distances calculated from each group's centroids. ADONIS and ANOSIM tests support the contribution of each dependent variable (type of diet and time elapsed after feeding) in the distribution of microbial species. The different size of spheres is a function of the tridimensional perspective. C) Shared and unique microbial species between blood or sugar-fed adult mosquitoes. The intersections (connected dots) are color-coded by type of diet (Purples = Blood; Blues = Sugar), as are their correspondent bins in the histogram. The intersections sizes, representing the respective number of shared species between given groups are displayed in the histogram. Bins and dots of Species shared between different diets are black.

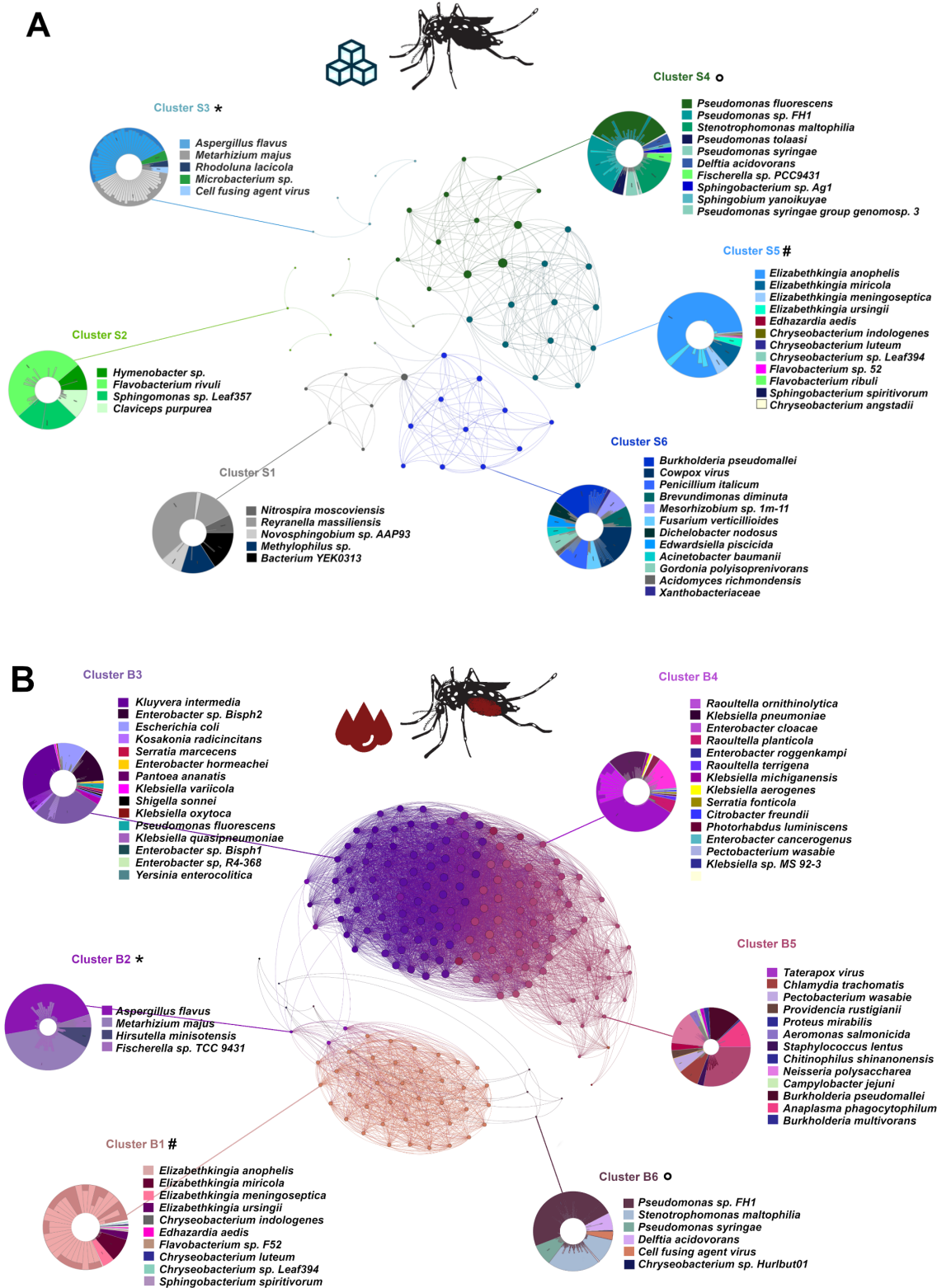


Figure 3. Co-occurrence networks representing the graph structure of the microbial community in adult mosquitoes fed with sugar (A) and blood (B), and their interactions. Graph vertices display microbial

species, and edges represent their co-occurrences calculated with the Pearson correlation coefficient ($r > 0.75$; $p < 0.05$). Clusters marked with special characters (*, ° and #) are similar in species composition.

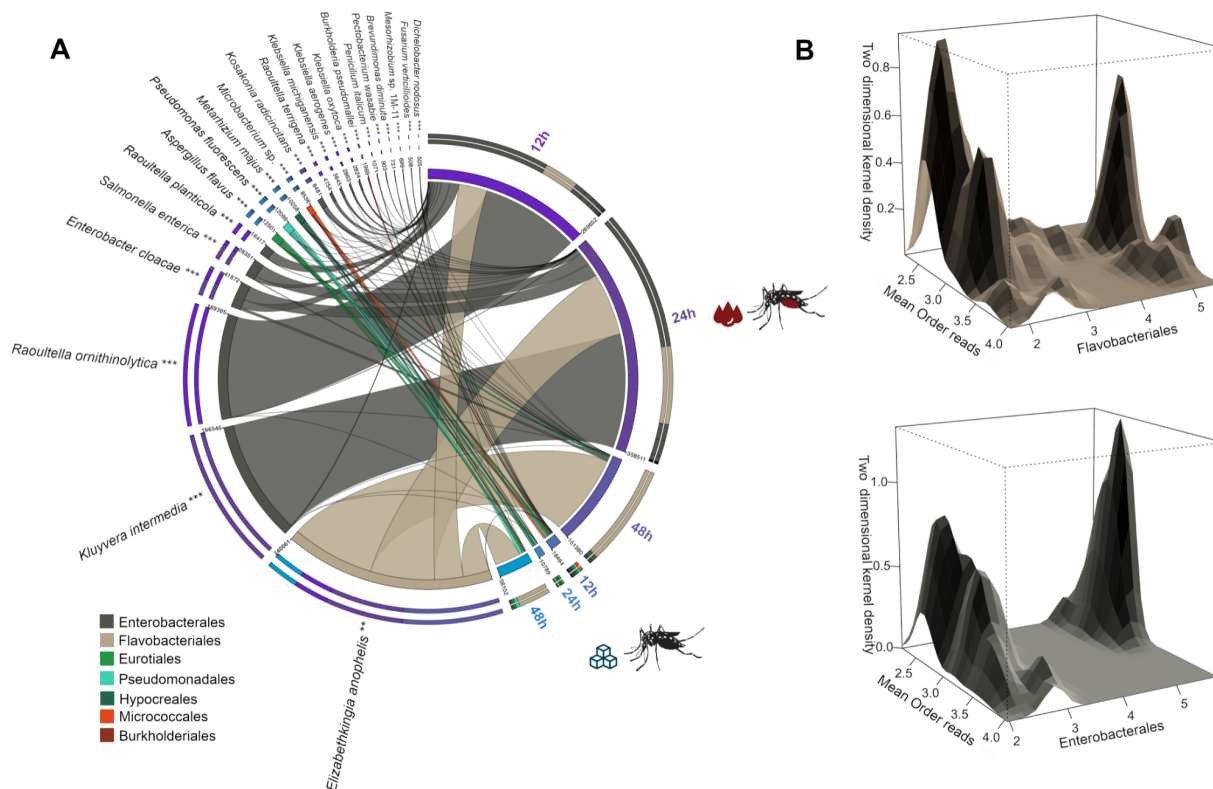


Figure 4. Microbial composition landscape in the midgut of adult mosquitoes. A) Occurrence of 22 microbial species predictive of digestive states (diet and digestion time). The width of the ribbons indicates the relative abundance in the linear scale. Ribbons link species to experimental groups (represented by the color of external circles; Blue = AS, Purple = AB) and are color-coded by the taxonomic order. B) Density estimates displaying the occurrence of reads identified in the taxonomic orders Flavobacteriales (top) or Enterobacteriales (bottom) in the x-axis, with the mean of reads attributed to other microbial taxonomic orders in the y-axis, transformed to the log10 scale.

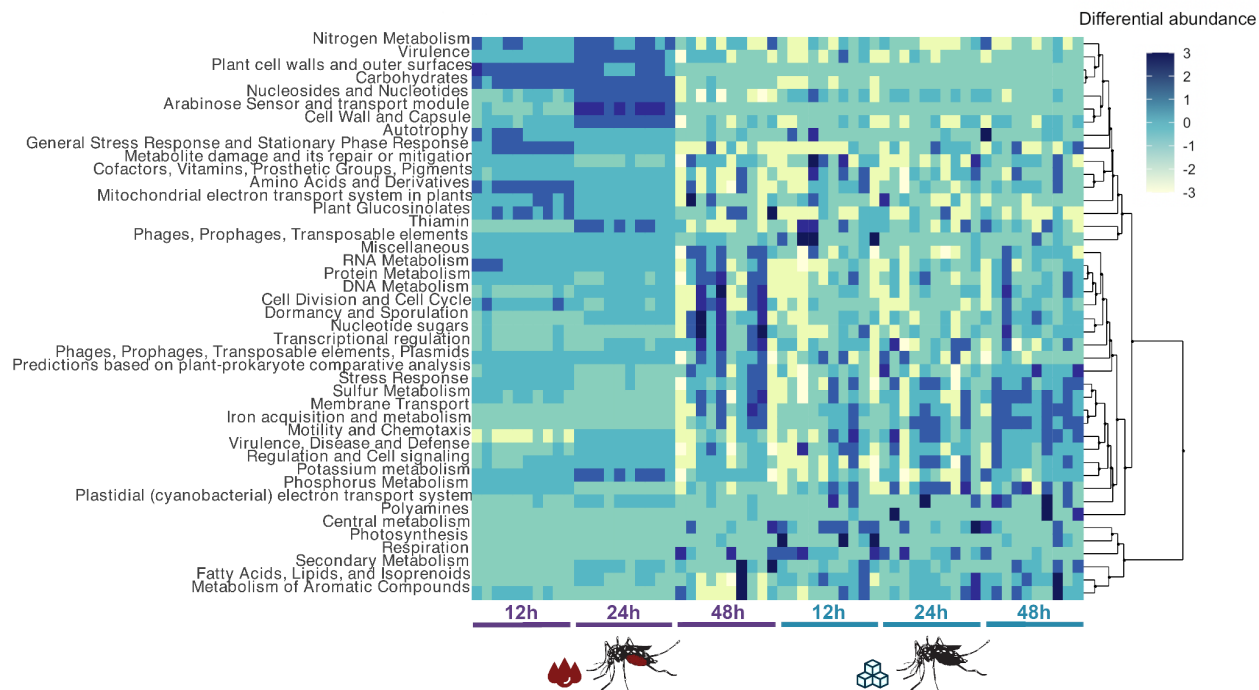


Figure 5. Functional classification of microbial reads in the midgut of adult females fed with blood and sugar. The heatmap was generated using z-score transformed values acquired in the metabolic pathway enrichment using SEED pathways functional classes in the metagenomes analyzed. Functional pathways are organized by hierarchical clustering.

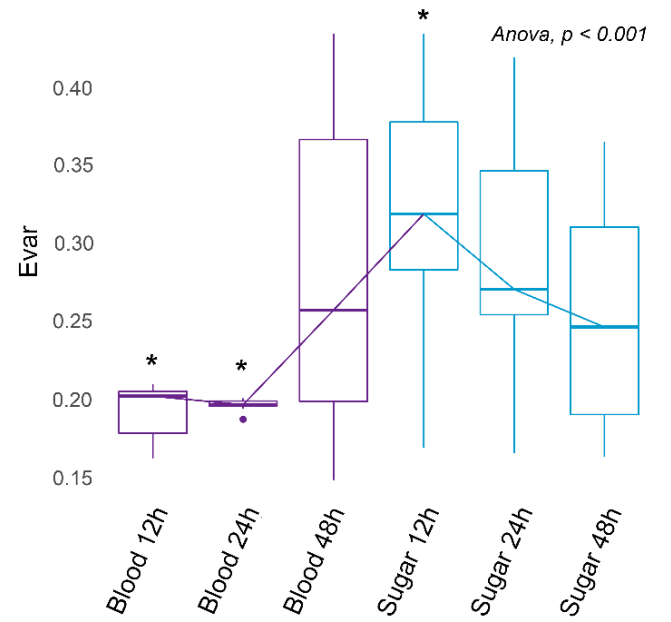
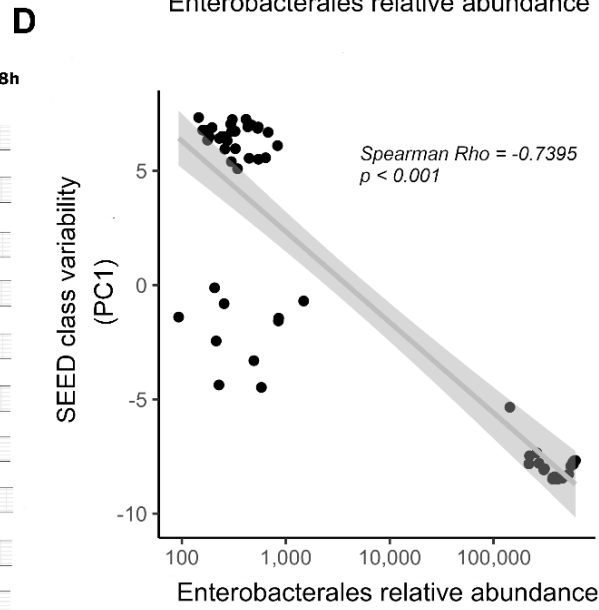
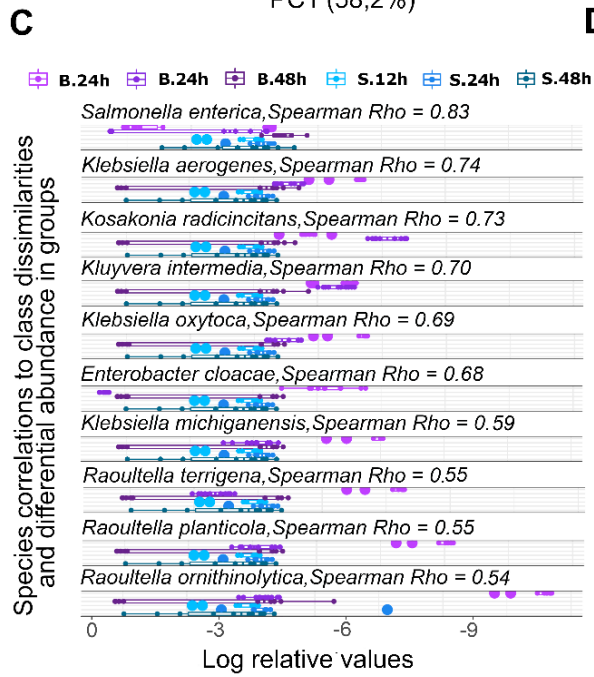
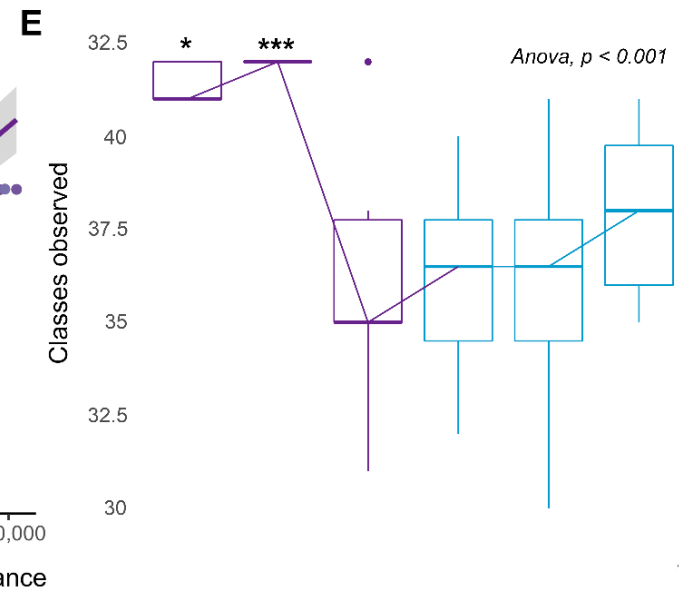
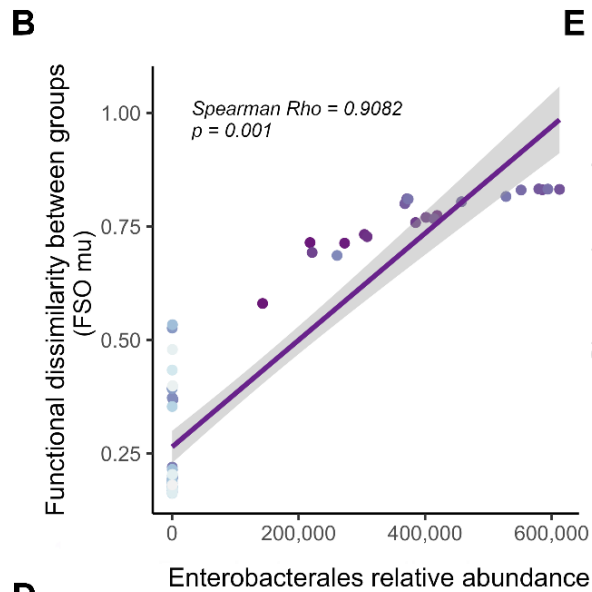
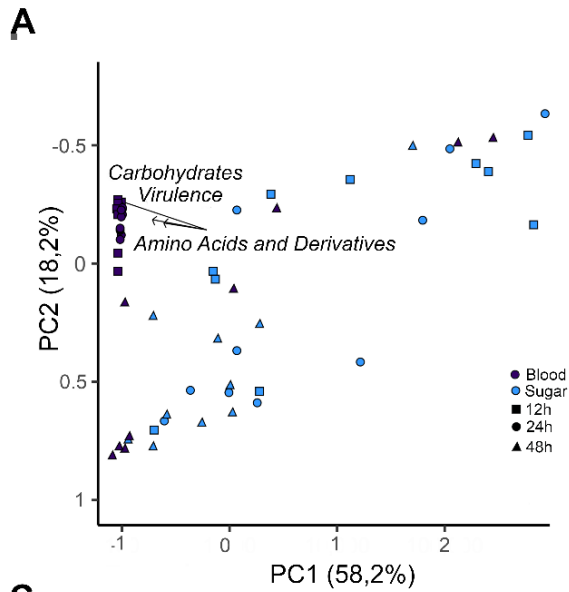


Figure 6. Functional diversity of the midgut microbiome in adult mosquitoes. A) PCoA of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities (PC1 = 58.2% vs PC2 = 18.2%) displaying SEED pathways responsible for the sample ordination. Colors represent different diets and shapes represent hours post-feeding. B) Fuzzy set ordination using a generalized linear model (GLM) to display the correlation between a functional dissimilarity matrix and the relative abundance of Enterobacteriales. C) Differential occurrence of Enterobacteriales species classified as predictors for the blood diet in log-relative scale and their individual correlations with the functional dissimilarities. D) Scatter plot using GLM to display the correlation between the principal explanatory coordinate (PC1) and the relative abundance of Enterobacteriales. E) Boxplots showing the distribution of observed SEED pathways and their variability indices (Evar). Medians are indicated by the trend line, and the global and pairwise significances are assessed with ANOVA and Wilcoxon's tests, respectively.

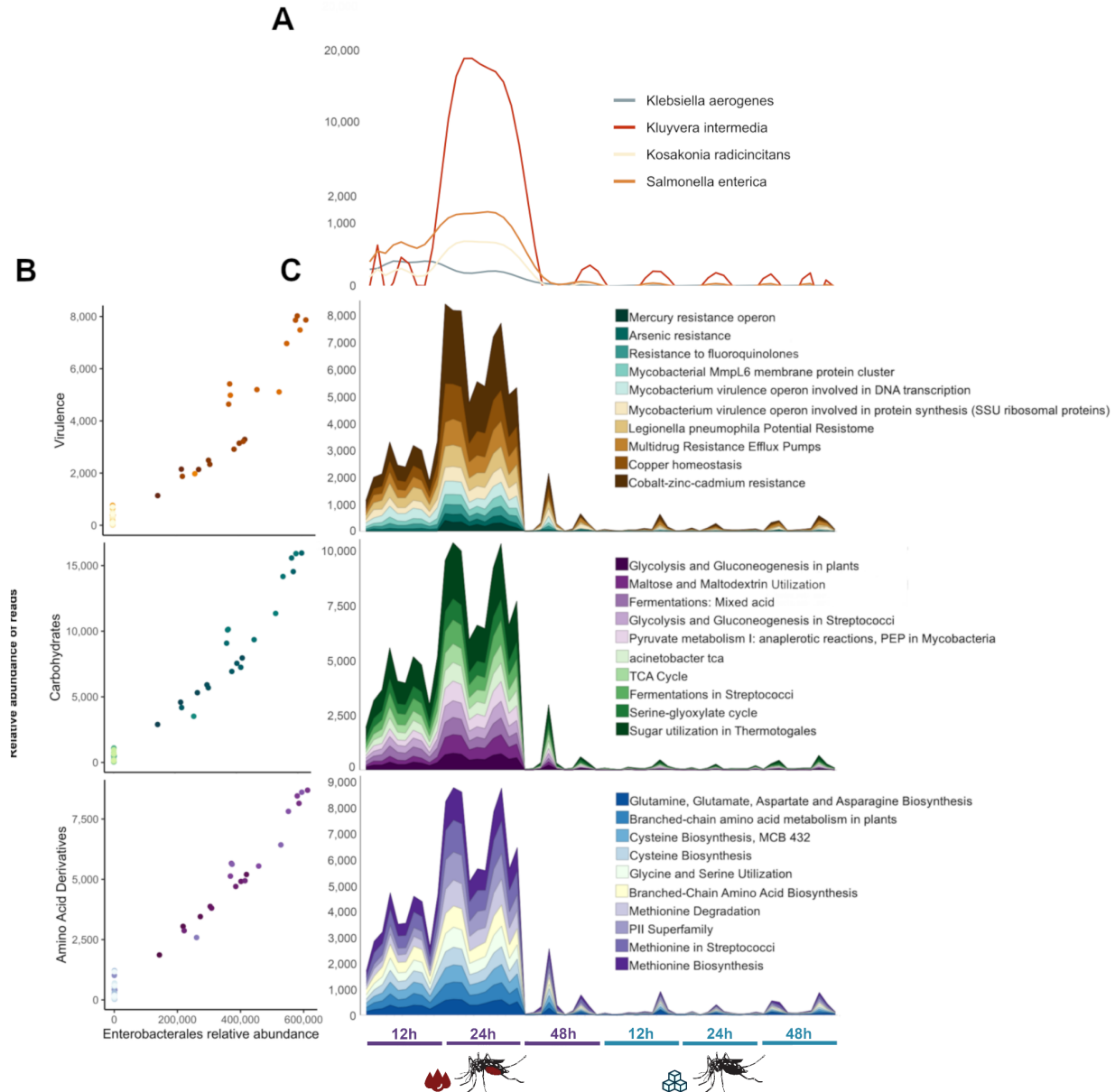


Figure 7. Distribution of the relative abundance of reads attributed to highly explanatory SEED pathways, and Enterobacteria in the metagenomic datasets. A) Polynomial distribution of reads attributed to Enterobacteria species correlated to the variability of functional profiles. These distributions are displayed in quadratic scale in the y axis. B) Scatter plots displaying the comparison between the distribution of reads attributed to Enterobacteria *sensu lato* and to the Amino Acids and Derivatives, Carbohydrates Metabolism and Virulence pathways. The stacked line charts display the distribution of the respective SEED pathways and its uncollapsed branches in quadratic scale.