

ERGA-BGE Genomes of *Culex laticinctus*, *Culex modestus*, *Culex perexiguus*, and *Culex theileri*: Unveiling the Genomes of the Key Vectors of West Nile Virus in the Mediterranean Basin

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Abstract

The reference genomes of *Culex laticinctus*, *Culex modestus*, *Culex perexiguus*, and *Culex theileri* offer crucial resources for exploring the genetic basis of vector competence for different pathogens, including the emerging West Nile virus. Each genome was assembled into three contiguous chromosomal pseudomolecules. These chromosome-level assemblies encompass 834, 698, 436, and 934 Mb, respectively. They are composed of 3,284, 4,220, 1,917, and 2,704 contigs and 312, 979, 475, and 709 scaffolds, with contig N50 values of 434, 313, 473, and 770 kb, and scaffold N50 values of 292, 246, 150, and 281 Mb, respectively. These genomes offer an essential genomic resource for advancing our understanding of *Culex* evolution and population genomic analyses, which will help to implement sustainable mosquito control efforts and disease prevention.

Key words: *Culex*, Culicidae, mosquito genome, European reference genome atlas, biodiversity genomics Europe, Earth BioGenome project.

Significance Statement

Despite their medical and ecological importance, *Culex* mosquitoes are underrepresented in genomic resources. Here we present high-quality reference genomes for four new species, *Culex laticinctus*, *Culex perexiguus*, *Culex modestus*, and *Culex theileri*. These genomes will support research on mosquito evolution, vector competence, behavior, and insecticide resistance. They also provide a foundation for population-level genomic studies that will help unravel local adaptation patterns or inform sustainable control strategies. Expanding genomic coverage across *Culex* species is essential for uncovering evolutionary adaptations and enhancing long-term efforts in vector surveillance and management.

Introduction

The genus *Culex* comprises key disease vectors occurring worldwide. However, despite their relevance, the genomes of mosquito species from this genus are underrepresented in public databases. Here we present high-quality genomes of four species never sequenced before: *Culex* (*Culex*) *laticinctus*, *Culex* (*Barraudius*) *modestus*, *Culex* (*Culex*) *perexiguus*, and *Culex* (*Culex*) *theileri*.

Cx. (*Culex*) *laticinctus* (Edwards 1913) occurs mainly in Mediterranean and Afrotropical regions, with its range extending from Madeira and the Canary Islands east through the Mediterranean. The larvae inhabit mainly freshwater sources, both natural and anthropogenic (pools, wells, drums, fountains, troughs, etc.). *Cx. laticinctus* is more frequently found during the spring and summer months (April to October). Adult females mainly feed on birds and are not known to bite humans (Harbach 1988).

Cx. (*Barraudius*) *modestus* (Ficalbi, 1890) presents a Palearctic distribution. In Europe, it is commonly found in central and southern countries (Becker et al. 2010). The larvae occur in open areas such as meadows, vegetated freshwater, or slightly saline habitats, including rice fields and marshes in southern Europe; it is predominantly associated with saltwater marshes (Ribeiro et al. 1988) and rice fields. The larvae can be found from early spring to late autumn. Adults frequently feed on birds (Muñoz et al. 2012), and they rarely enter buildings, mainly biting humans outdoors.

Cx. (*Culex*) *perexiguus* (Theobald, 1903) belongs to the *Cx. univittatus* complex. Despite the morphological similarities between these species, they can be distinguished using DNA barcoding (Bravo-Barriga et al. 2023) or by the larvae and male genitalia (Becker et al. 2010). *Cx. perexiguus* distribution includes arid regions of northern and eastern Africa, south-west Asia and several countries of the Mediterranean basin (Harbach 1988, Snow and Ramsdale 1999). Although its larvae are occasionally found in anthropic habitats, they are more abundant in natural waterlogged areas with emergent vegetation that are clean to moderately polluted. The species is common from spring to autumn, although there might be some variation depending on the habitat. For example, in some areas like the lower Guadalquivir in southern Spain, the adult phase can be found throughout the year and be very abundant

from July to October in association with rice cultivation (Figueroa et al. 2022). The adult females feed primarily on birds (Harbach 1988, Muñoz et al. 2012).

Cx. (*Culex*) *theileri* (Theobald 1903) is an Afrotropical and Palearctic species, present in the southern half of Europe, Africa, the Middle East, and parts of Asia (Becker et al. 2010). This polycyclic species occurs across a wide range of elevations, from lowlands to 1,000 to 3,000 meters in the Himalayas (Sirivanakarn 1976). It can breed in freshwater or slightly saline waters (Pires et al. 1982). Adult females are mammophilic and bite humans occasionally, mostly outdoors, but can sometimes enter buildings in large numbers (Gutsevich et al. 1974; Ramos et al. 1977).

All four species play important roles in transmitting wildlife and zoonotic diseases. *Cx. laticinctus*, traditionally considered of limited public health relevance (Ribeiro et al. 1988; Schaffner et al. 2001), has recently been found infected with West Nile virus (Figueroa unpublished data) and Sindbis virus (Gutiérrez-López et al. 2025). *Cx. modestus* is a known vector of Bunyaviruses (Lundström 1994), West Nile virus (Soto and Delang 2023), and Usutu virus (Soto et al. 2024) and has also been found naturally infected with Sindbis virus (Gutiérrez-López et al. 2025) and tularemia (Gutsevich et al. 1974). *Cx. perexiguus* transmits several flaviviruses, including West Nile and Usutu viruses, with a key role in virus amplification in southwestern Spain (Figueroa et al. 2022). It has also been found infected with Sindbis virus (Gutiérrez-López et al. 2025). Ornithophilic *Culex* species, including these, are frequently infected with avian malaria parasites such as *Plasmodium relictum*, one of the world's 100 most invasive species (Martínez-de la Puente et al. 2021). *Cx. theileri* has been found carrying West Nile and Sindbis viruses in South Africa (McIntosh et al. 1975), and its competence for West Nile virus has been recently confirmed (Burgas-Pau et al. 2025). It also transmits Rift Valley fever virus and *Dirofilaria* spp. in North Africa and Portugal (Smith 1973; Ribeiro et al. 1988).

Assembling high-quality reference genomes for *Cx. laticinctus*, *Cx. modestus*, *Cx. perexiguus*, and *Cx. theileri* is essential for advancing our understanding of these species' evolution and ecological role, aiding in implementing sustainable mosquito control efforts and disease prevention.

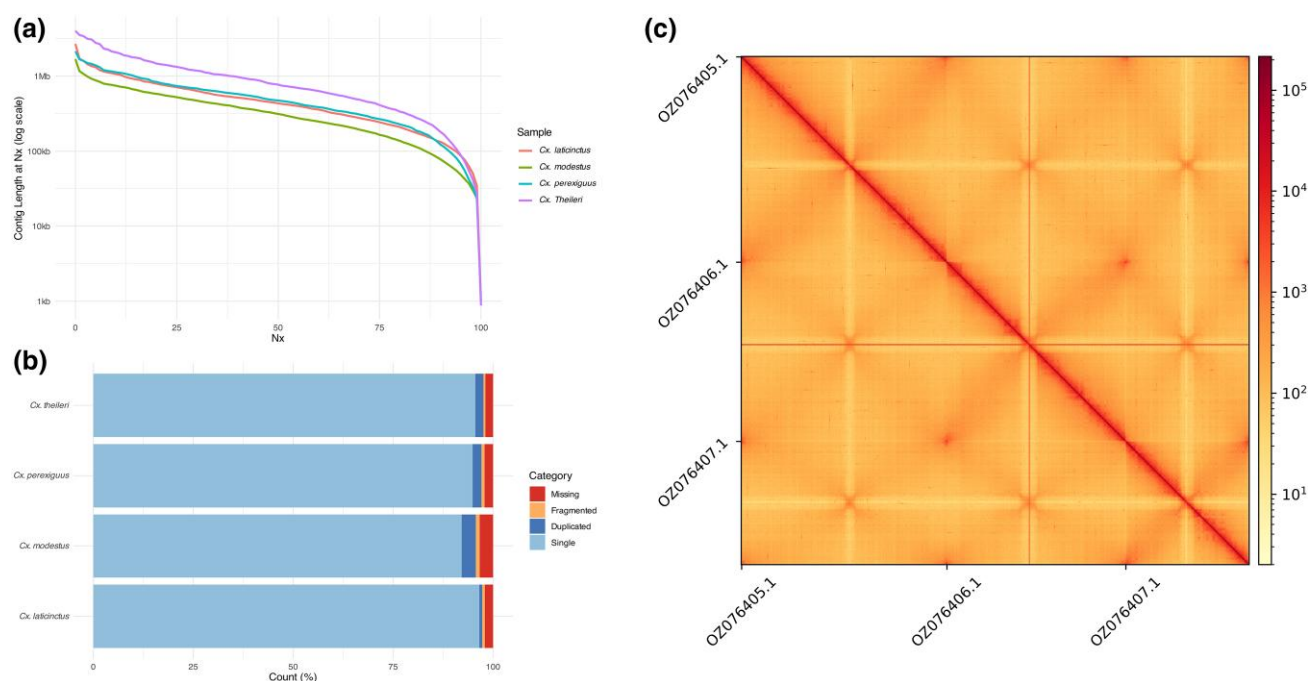


Fig. 1. Genome assembly quality. a) Contiguity of each *Culex* assembly. Shown are the lengths of each contig sorted from smallest to largest, displaying the proportion of the genome (Nx) made up of contigs of at least this length. b) Genome completeness as assessed by BUSCO using the diptera_odb10 database. c) Representative Hi-C map showing 3-dimensional interactions in the *Cx. latincinctus* genome and the chromosomal territories. The diagonal corresponds to intrachromosomal contacts, depicting chromosome boundaries. The frequency of contacts is shown on a logarithmic heatmap scale. Hi-C matrix bins were merged into a 25 kb bin size for plotting.

These genomic resources will assist in informing more effective control measures by (i) facilitating the identification of genes that influence vector competence; (ii) improving our understanding of mosquito behavior, such as feeding and breeding preferences; (iii) being the basis for population genomic studies which provide insights into mosquito dispersal, gene flow, and adaptation, including the evolution of insecticide resistance. Furthermore, these high-quality reference genomes will help study the evolutionary adaptations of mosquitoes to changing environments, helping predict shifts in disease transmission patterns and informing long-term strategies.

This genome was generated as part of European Reference Genome Atlas (ERGA, Mazzoni et al. 2023) initiative's Biodiversity Genomics Europe (BGE) project.

Results and Discussion

To generate the assemblies, 39 Gb (47X) PacBio HiFi, with mean length of 8.4 kb, and 163 Gb (196X) HiC data were sequenced for *Cx. latincinctus*; 21 Gb (30X) PacBio HiFi, mean length 10.3 kb, and 115 Gb (164X) HiC data for *Cx. Modestus*; 19 Gb (43X) PacBio HiFi, mean length 10.5 kb, and 82 Gb (186X) HiC data for *Cx. Perexiguus*; and 62 Gb (75X) PacBio HiFi, mean length 7.8 kb, and 119 Gb (143X) HiC data for *Cx. theileri*. For genome annotation, 32.5 million read pairs of RNA-seq data were

sequenced for *Cx. latincinctus*, with a mapping rate of 95.35%; 33.4 million read pairs for *Cx. modestus*, with a mapping rate of 87.9%; 32.9 million read pairs for *Cx. perexiguus*, with a mapping rate of 85.7%; and 35.5 million read pairs for *Cx. theileri*, with a mapping rate of 92.64% as given by Hisat2 v2.2.1.

Genome Assemblies

The genome assemblies for all four species ranged in size from 436,197,037 bp—833,828,062 bp with contig N50 s between 312 and 770 kb and scaffold N50s between 150 and 291 Mb. The genome assemblies contained between 95.6% and 97.6% single-copy orthologs from the BUSCO diptera odb10 database (Manni et al. 2021); all assemblies are chromosome-level with between 95% and 6%, 99.2% of each assembly assigned to the three chromosomes; and all assemblies were highly accurate, with quality values (QVs) between 54.9% and 57.0% as calculated by Merquy (Rhie et al. 2020 , Fig. 1, Table S1). The mitochondrial sequences were all recovered and are included in the submitted genome assemblies, with consistent lengths around 15.6 kb.

Genome Annotations

Gene model annotations for all species resulted in detection of 12,534 to 14,175 genes. The protein-coding

Table 1 Statistics from assembled gene models including proteome completeness as evaluated by BUSCO using the diptera_odb10 database and proteome completeness and consistency as evaluated by OMArk using the Culicidae HOGs

	<i>Culex laticinctus</i>	<i>Culex modestus</i>	<i>Culex perexiguus</i>	<i>Culex theileri</i>
# Genes	13,725	14,175	12,534	12,627
# Transcripts	20,830	21,650	18,231	18,558
BUSCO Complete single	3,126 (95.2%)	2,975 (90.6%)	3,024 (92.1%)	3,066 (93.3%)
BUSCO complete duplicated	34 (1.0%)	135 (4.1%)	91 (2.8%)	66 (2.0%)
BUSCO fragmented	27 (0.8%)	27 (0.8%)	35 (1.1%)	31 (0.9%)
BUSCO missing	98 (3.0%)	148 (4.5%)	135 (4.0%)	122 (3.8%)
OMark Complete single	6,323 (89.94%)	6,059 (86.19%)	6,026 (85.72%)	6,098 (86.74%)
OMark complete duplicated	313 (4.45%)	509 (7.24%)	399 (5.68%)	395 (5.62%)
OMark missing	394 (5.60%)	462 (6.57%)	605 (8.61%)	537 (7.64%)
OMark consistent	11,914 (86.81%)	12,270 (86.56%)	11,390 (90.87%)	11,516 (91.20%)
OMark inconsistent	428 (3.12%)	473 (3.34%)	382 (3.05%)	357 (2.83%)
OMark unknown	1,383 (10.08%)	1,432 (10.10%)	762 (6.08%)	754 (5.97%)

annotations show complete and consistent detection, with BUSCO completeness scores ranging from 94.7% to 96.2% based on the diptera_odb10 database and OMArk completeness scores ranging from 91.39% to 94.4% and consistency scores ranging from 86.56% to 91.2% based on the *Culicidae* Hierarchical Ortholog Groups (Table 1).

Materials and Methods

Sample and Sampling Information

Mosquitoes were collected from Andalusia, Spain (Table S1), using BG-Sentinel traps and identified using MosKeyTool (Gunay et al. 2018). Specimens were euthanized by freezing in dry ice after identification and all samples were then preserved at -80°C until DNA and RNA extraction. Individuals of *Cx. laticinctus*, *Cx. modestus*, *Cx. perexiguus*, and *Cx. theileri* were selected and barcoding was performed following Folmer et al. (1994). Sampling was performed under permission of article 9, law 8/2003, issued on 28/06/2022 by the Consejería de Agricultura, Ganadería, Pesca y Desarrollo Sostenible, Junta de Andalucía. See Supplementary Material for vouchering data.

DNA/RNA Processing

Whole *Culex* mosquitoes were homogenized using a PowerMasher II (Denton et al. 2023). HMW DNA was extracted using the Automated MagAttract v2 (Oatley et al. 2023a). For Ultra-Low Input (ULI) PacBio sequencing, DNA was fragmented using a Covaris g-TUBE (Oatley et al. 2023c). Sheared DNA was purified using AMPure PB to eliminate shorter fragments and concentrate the DNA (Oatley et al. 2023b). RNA was extracted from whole-organism tissues of all species using the Automated MagMax mirVana kit (do Amaral et al. 2023).

Tissues from whole *Culex* mosquitoes were fixed, and the DNA crosslinked using 22% formaldehyde. After

crosslinking, the tissues were homogenized with a Diagnocine Power Masher-II/BioMasher-II. Samples were processed using the Arima v2 Hi-C library preparation kit (see Supplementary Material for further details).

Library Preparation and Sequencing

Ultra-low input libraries were prepared using the PacBio SMRTbell Express Template Prep 2.0 and PacBio SMRTbell gDNA Sample Amplification kits, respectively. Samples were normalized to 20 ng of DNA and processed following manufacturer's instructions until the SMRTbell gDNA Sample Amplification Kit adapters were ligated. A 0.85X pre-PCR clean-up was performed using the Promega ProNex (Promega, Madison, Wisconsin, USA) system and the sample was divided into two. Both PCR reactions followed the PCR programs and were pooled ensuring the total mass was ≥ 500 ng in 47.4 μL . The pooled DNA sample was processed again to repair DNA damage, end repair/A-tailing, and additional hairpin adapter ligation. After a 1X clean-up and DNA quantification, size selection was performed to target fragments between 4,000 and 9,000 bp. Size-selected libraries then had a final 1.0x clean-up. Prepared libraries were normalized to 2 nM and 15 μL were used for making complexes. Circularized complexes were created according to the manufacturer's instructions. The complexes were purified with the 1.2x clean-up with magnetic beads (SMRTbell). The purified complexes were then diluted to the PacBio Revio loading concentration, between 200 and 300 pM, spiked with a Revio sequencing internal control and sequences using the Revio system on Revio 25 M SMRT cells. (See Supplementary Material for further details.)

For Hi-C library preparation, DNA was fragmented to a size of 400 to 600 bp using the Covaris E220 sonicator (Woburn, Massachusetts, USA). The DNA was then enriched, barcoded, and amplified using the NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit (NEB, Ipswich, Massachusetts,

USA) following manufacturers' instructions. The Hi-C sequencing was performed using paired-end sequencing with a read length of 150 bp on an Illumina NovaSeq X instrument.

Poly(A) RNA-Seq libraries were constructed using the Ultra II RNA Library Prep kit (NEB, Ipswich, Massachusetts, USA), following the manufacturer's instructions. RNA sequencing was performed on the Illumina NovaSeq X instrument.

Genome Assembly Methods

The HiFi reads were first assembled using Hifiasm (Cheng et al. 2021) with the `–primary` option. The Hi-C reads were mapped to the primary contigs using `bwa-mem2` (Vasimuddin et al. 2019). The contigs were further scaffolded using the provided Hi-C data (Rao et al. 2014) in YaHS (Zhou et al. 2023) using the `–break` option.

The mitochondrial genomes were assembled using MitoHiFi (Uliano-Silva et al. 2023) in default mode, with the reference sequence from *Culex quinquefasciatus* (NC_014574.1) used to find mitochondrial reads in the PacBio HiFi datasets.

The assembly was decontaminated using the Assembly Screen for Cobionts and Contaminants (ASCC) pipeline. Manual curation was performed with PretextView, JBrowse2 (Diesh et al. 2023), HiGlass (Kerpedjiev et al. 2018), and the TreeVal pipeline (Pointon et al. 2023). Scaffolds were visually inspected and corrected as described by Howe et al. (2021), removing contamination and duplicate sequences and correcting missed- and misjoins. Summary analyses of the released assemblies were performed using the ERGA-BGE Genome Report ASM Galaxy workflow (<https://doi.org/10.48546/workflowhub.workflow.1104.1>).

For *Cx. theileri*, 435 Mb of contaminant sequence was removed, with the majority (97%) identified as *Acinetobacter*. We applied 181 scaffold breaks and 198 joins to correct the assembly and removed 61 erroneous haplotypic duplications. The *Cx. laticinctus* assembly was separated from 990 Mb of *Wolbachia* group B sequence. It required two scaffold breaks and 285 joins to correct the assembly structure, plus three removals of erroneous haplotypic duplication. *Cx. modestus* showed no contamination; however 564 scaffold breaks, 54 joins, and 423 removals were necessary. Lastly, *Cx. perexiguus* was separated from 84 Mb of mitochondrial sequence and required 142 scaffold breaks, 167 joins, and 342 removals.

Genome Annotation Methods

A gene set was generated using the Ensembl Gene Annotation system (Aken et al. 2016), primarily by aligning short-read RNA-seq data to the genomes, which were generated in this study. Gaps in the annotation were filled via

protein-to-genome alignments of clade-specific proteins from UniProt ("UniProt: A Worldwide Hub of Protein Knowledge," 2019), with experimental evidence at the protein or transcript level. Models were aggregated and consolidated, prioritizing those from RNA-seq data, giving final gene model sets and associated nonredundant transcripts. Low-quality transcript models, such as those showing evidence of fragmented ORFs, were removed. In cases where RNA-seq data were fragmented or absent, homology data were prioritized, favoring longer transcripts with strong intron support from short-read data. The resulting gene models were classified as protein-coding and long noncoding (lncRNA). Models that did not overlap protein-coding genes and were constructed from transcriptomic data were considered potential lncRNA and were further filtered to remove single-exon loci. Putative microRNAs were predicted by mapping miRBase (Kozomara et al. 2019) against the genome using BLAST, followed by RNAfold analysis (Gruber et al. 2008). Other small noncoding loci were identified using the Rfam database (Kalvari et al. 2018) and passing the results through Infernal (Nawrocki and Eddy 2013). Summary analysis of the released annotation was carried out using the ERGA-BGE Genome Report ANNOT Galaxy workflow (<https://doi.org/10.48546/workflowhub.workflow.1096.1>).

Supplementary Material

Supplementary material is available at *Genome Biology and Evolution* online.

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Author Contributions

M.J.R.L. coordinated the project; S.C.C. collected and identified the species; M.J.R.L. and S.C.C. sampled and preserved biological material and provided metadata; J.F., J.M.P., S.M. and I.I. provided sampling and metadata support and management; R.M.W. contributed to logistics and project coordination; Members of the Wellcome Sanger Institute Tree of Life Management, Samples and

Laboratory team extracted DNA, prepared libraries, and performed sequencing; Members of the Wellcome Sanger Institute Tree of Life Core Informatics team performed genome assembly and curation under the supervision of M.B.; L.H. performed genome annotation under the supervision of F.M.; and T.B. generated the analysis and report. All authors contributed to the writing, review, and editing of this genome report and read and approved the final version.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Data Availability

Cx. laticinctus, *Cx. modestus*, *Cx. Perexiguus*, and *Cx. theileri* and the related genomic studies were assigned to Tree of Life IDs (ToLIDs) idCulLati1, idCulMode1, idCulPerx1, and idCulThei1, respectively, and all sample, sequence, and assembly information are available under the umbrella BioProjects PRJEB75414, PRJEB75163, PRJEB75165, and PRJEB76570. The sample information is available at the following BioSample accessions: *Cx. laticinctus*, SAMEA114402094, SAMEA114402091, SAMEA114402090, and SAMEA114402071; *Cx. modestus*, SAMEA114402081, SAMEA114402100, SAMEA114402102, and SAMEA114402103; *Cx. perexiguus*, SAMEA114402066, SAMEA114402085, SAMEA114402086, and SAMEA114402089; and *Cx. theileri*, SAMEA114402076, SAMEA114402095, SAMEA114402096, and SAMEA114402099. The genome assemblies are accessible from GenBank under accession numbers *Cx. laticinctus*, GCA_964187845.1; *Cx. modestus*, GCA_964213205.1; *Cx. perexiguus*, GCA_964243045.1; and *Cx. theileri*, GCA_964340515.1, and the annotated genomes are available via Ensembl (<https://beta.ensembl.org/>). Raw sequencing data produced as part of this project are available from SRA at the following accessions: *Cx. laticinctus*, ERX12405204, ERX12405205, ERX12433627, and ERX12519568; *Cx. modestus*,

ERX12326303, ERX12317845, and ERX12519565; *Cx. perexiguus*, ERX12326304, ERX12317846, and ERX12519566; and *Cx. theileri*, ERX12671962, ERX12671963, and ERX13020690. Barcoding sequences used for species identification are available at the following BioProject accessions: *Cx. laticinctus*, PRJEB90329; *Cx. modestus*, PRJEB90328; *Cx. perexiguus*, PRJEB90330; and *Cx. theileri*, PRJEB90331. Supporting data used to generate the statistics, tables, and figures in this report are available at the following repository: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15655399>. Documentation related to the genome assembly and curation can be found in the ERGA Assembly Report (EAR) documents available at the following locations: https://github.com/ERGA-consortium/EARs/tree/main/Assembly_Reports/Culex_laticinctus/idCulLati1 https://github.com/ERGA-consortium/EARs/tree/main/Assembly_Reports/Culex_modestus/idCulMode1 https://github.com/ERGA-consortium/EARs/tree/main/Assembly_Reports/Culex_perexiguus/idCulPerx1 https://github.com/ERGA-consortium/EARs/tree/main/Assembly_Reports/Culex_theileri/idCulThei1. Further details and data about the project are hosted on the ERGA portal at the following locations: https://portal.erga-biodiversity.eu/data_portal/1464561, https://portal.erga-biodiversity.eu/data_portal/545656, https://portal.erga-biodiversity.eu/data_portal/943103 and https://portal.erga-biodiversity.eu/data_portal/5612.

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