

Genome

Next generation sequencing reveals endosymbiont variability in cassava whitefly, Bemisia tabaci, across the agro-ecological zones of Kerala, India

Journal:	Genome
Manuscript ID	gen-2018-0050.R3
Manuscript Type:	Article
Date Submitted by the Author:	20-May-2019
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Keyword:	Arsenophonus, cassava mosaic, NGS, 16S rDNA, symbiotic bacteria
Is the invited manuscript for consideration in a Special Issue? :	Not applicable (regular submission)

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1	Next-generation sequencing reveals endosymbiont variability in cassava
2	whitefly, <i>Bemisia tabaci</i> , across the agro-ecological zones of Kerala, India
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15 ABSTRACT

Silverleaf whitefly, Bemisia tabaci (Gennadius) (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae), is one of 16 the most notorious invasive insect pests reported, infesting more than 900 species of plants 17 and spreading more than 200 viral diseases. This polyphagous agricultural pest harbours 18 diverse bacterial communities in its gut, which perform multiple functions in whiteflies, 19 including nutrient provisioning, amino acid biosynthesis and virus transmission. The present 20 21 exploratory study compares bacterial communities associated with silverleaf whitefly infesting cassava, also known as cassava whitefly, collected from two different zones (zone 22 23 P: plains, zone H: high ranges), from Kerala, India, using next-generation sequencing of 16S rDNA. The data sets for these two regions consisted of 1,321,906 and 690,661 high quality 24 paired end sequences with mean length of 150 bp. Highly diverse bacterial communities were 25 present in the sample containing approximately 3,513 operational taxonomic units (OTUs). 26 Sequence analysis had shown a marked difference in the relative abundance of bacteria in the 27 populations. A total of 16 bacterial phyla, 27 classes, 56 orders, 91 families, 236 genera and 28 409 species were identified from P population, against 16, 31, 60, 88, 225 and 355, 29 respectively in H population. Arsenophonus sp. (Enterobacteriaceae), which is important for 30 virus transmission by whiteflies, was relatively abundant in P population, whereas in H 31 population Bacillus sp. was the most dominant group. The association of whitefly biotypes 32 and secondary symbionts suggests a possible contribution of these bacteria to host 33 34 characteristics such as virus transmission, host range, insecticide resistance and speciation.

35 Keywords: Arsenophonus; cassava mosaic; NGS; 16S rDNA; symbiotic bacteria

36 Introduction

Microorganisms and insects are the two most successful groups of organisms on 37 38 planet earth. The ubiquitous microbes are also present inside the body of insects in close association and are known as endosymbionts. Of the symbionts, bacteria perform the most 39 diverse roles and hence most studied (Engel and Moran 2013). Less than 1% of 40 endosymbionts are culturable, but techniques such as next-generation sequencing enable 41 researchers to explore more deeply the true complexity of insect-microbe associations and to 42 43 understand the profound influence of microbial metabolic activity on the other organisms (Schloss and Handelsman 2003). 44

Endosymbiotic theory (Mereschkowski 1910) classifies endosymbionts into primary 45 46 and secondary. Primary endosymbionts (P-endosymbionts) shall be associated with insect 47 hosts for long period of time and form obligate associations and co-speciation with their insect hosts, whereas secondary endosymbionts (S-endosymbionts) are more recently 48 49 developed associates which sometimes get horizontally transferred between hosts, live in the hemolymph of the insects but never obligate. S-symbionts are not confined into specialized 50 S-bacteriocytes found in gut tissues, glands, body fluids, cells surrounding the P-51 bacteriocytes or even invading the P-bacteriocytes themselves (Baumann et al. 2006). S-52 symbionts seem to be the result of multiple independent infections and, although they are 53 usually maternally inherited, their transmission may also occur horizontally across the hosts. 54

These microbes help in a variety of ways for the dominance of insects. They provide various fitness advantages, such as increased fecundity, increased longevity, female-biased sex ratio as well as greater immunity against natural enemies and pathogens (Su et al. 2013). S-symbionts are shown to increase resistance of insects to fungal pathogens (Aksoy et al. 1997). In their host insects, endosymbionts play various roles such as nutrition; eg. *Buchnera* provides essential amino acids that are lacking in the plant sap diet of its aphid host (Xie et al.

2018), detoxification of toxins, plant allelochemicals and insecticides (Kikuchi et al. 2012), source of cues and signals (Dillon et al. 2002), defense toward pathogens and parasites (Oliver et al. 2003), adaptation to environment shock (Montllor et al. 2002), virus-vector interaction (Chiel et al. 2007), population dynamics (Kikuchi et al. 2012), insect-plant interactions (Hosokawa et al. 2007), biotype determinants (Gueguen et al. 2010) and protectants against natural enemies (Oliver et al. 2003). Rosell et al. (2010) described mutualistic and dependent relationships of endosymbionts with other organisms.

Sequencing the 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) was the most popular method adopted to 68 69 identify the bacteria (Petti et al. 2005; Ranjith et al. 2016). Nearly 1500 bp of 16S rDNA is large enough for bioinformatics analyses (Patel 2001) and additionally, it is present in all 70 bacteria and function is well defined (Janda and Abbott 2007). But, this fails in polymicrobial 71 specimen wherein multiple templates result in uninterpretable Sanger reads (Drancourt 2000). 72 Next-generation sequencing with the primer spanning hypervariable regions (V1-V9) of 16S 73 rRNA gene circumvents these limitations. Metagenomics applies a suite of genomic 74 technologies and bioinformatics tools to directly access the genetic content of entire 75 communities of organisms (Thomas et al. 2012). 76

Root and tuber crops, including cassava, provide a substantial part of the world's food 77 supply (Chandrasekara and Kumar 2016). Cassava whitefly (Bemisia tabaci) transmitted 78 79 cassava mosaic disease causes 30-40% yield losses on a global scale (Malathi et al. 1985). As 80 a phloem-feeding homopteran, B. tabaci harbours various endosymbionts for its nutritional requirements and functionality. These endosymbionts act as carotenoids sources of whiteflies 81 (Sloan and Moran 2012); few endosymbionts such as Portiera aleyrodidarum provides B-82 83 complex vitamins and amino acids lacking in fly feeds (Lai et al. 1996; Xie et al. 2018). They also assist in virus transmission (Nirgianaki et al. 2003; Chiel et al. 2007) and a GroEL 84 homologue from endosymbionts assists in the circulative transmission of virus by protecting 85

the virus from destruction during its passage through the haemolymph (Morin et al. 1999;
Rana et al. 2012). According to Gottlieb et al. (2010), *Hamiltonella* sp. found in B-biotype of
whiteflies help them to become successful vectors of *Tomato yellow leaf curl virus*.

Endosymbionts play crucial roles in making whitefly a pest of global importance. 89 Keeping in view of the economic losses by cassava whitefly, as the vector of *Cassava mosaic* 90 *virus*, this study answers the hypothesis that under different agro-ecological zones, at various 91 92 disease severities and in genetically varying populations, the endosymbiont population varies. Using next-generation sequencing of 16S rDNA from gut microbiome, variation in the 93 94 relative abundance of different bacterial endosymbionts in cassava whitefly populations from different agro-ecological zones of Kerala, India, is shown. Further, the pest management 95 application of the understanding of endosymbiont variability under specific physiological 96 conditions is also discussed. 97

98 Materials and methods

99 Collection of whiteflies

Bemisia tabaci samples were collected from cassava fields of 13 different agroecological zones of Kerala (Mohankumar 2007) (Latitudes 8.1730° N to 12. 4740° N and
Longitudes 74.2747° E to 77.3712° E), India (Harish et al. 2016; Supplementary Table 1;
Supplementary Figure 1). Whiteflies were collected individually (March 2014-May 2016) in
microfuge tubes containing 70% ethanol and stored at -20 °C. Each sample was identified as *B. tabaci* by adopting the morphological identification keys (Martin 1987).

Genetic variability study/ barcoding using mitochondrial *Cytochrome oxidase1* gene (primers C1-J2195 and L2-N-3014) had shown the presence of two biotypes/ genetic groups of *Bemisia*, Asia I and Asia II5 in cassava plants of Kerala and the biotypes were confirmed by using reference sequences from NCBI database. According to Dinsdale et al. (2010), 3.5% genetic divergence is the minimum requirement to separate two putative species/ biotypes/

genetic groups of whitefly. In this case, up to 15.96% sequence divergence was observed 111 between the biotypes. Whiteflies collected from plains (elevation less than 150 m from MSL) 112 belonged to Asia II5 biotype, whereas whiteflies collected from hilly regions (elevation more 113 than 900 m) belonged to Asia I biotype. Composite samples, P and H, were made from the 114 two biotypes identified (biotypes Asia II5 from plains and Asia I from hills) and analysed 115 using metagenomic approach to compare the endosymbiont variations. Sample P included 116 117 one whitefly each from 12 agro-ecological zones of plains (<150 m from MSL) and H had 12 whiteflies from hilly regions of Sulthan Bathery. Also, from the cassava plants surveyed for 118 119 severity of cassava mosaic disease symptoms, plants in high elevations of Sulthan Bathery region (> 900 m from MSL) had shown very less severity with a score of 1 compared to 120 plants from other areas (severity score 3-5, Ikotun and Hahn 1994). 121

122 Isolation of metagenomic DNA from adult *Bemisia tabaci*

The insects were surface sterilized with ethanol and household chlorine bleach, as 123 described by Davidson et al. (1994). Metagenomic DNA from samples P and H were isolated 124 through the direct method (Zhou et al. 1996). They were homogenized in 400 µl of extraction 125 buffer [200 mM Tris-HCl (pH-8.0), 25 mM EDTA (pH-8.0), and 250 mM NaCl, SDS 126 (0.5%)] in a 1.5 ml Eppendorf tube, using liquid nitrogen. The homogenized samples were 127 incubated at room temperature for 1 hr and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 5 min. at 4 °C. The 128 supernatants were collected in fresh tubes, and equal volume of phenol:chloroform:isoamyl 129 130 alcohol (24:25:1) was added to the supernatants and again centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 20 min. at 4 °C. The aqueous phase was transferred to fresh tube and equal volume of iso 131 propanol was added, the mixture was incubated at room temperature for 15 min., centrifuged 132 at 13,000 rpm for 5 min. at room temperature and the metagenomic DNA pellet was 133 precipitated out. DNA pellet was washed with ethanol (95%) by centrifugation at 10,000 rpm 134

for 10 min., air dried, dissolved in 25 μ l of autoclaved distilled water and stored in deep freezer (-80 °C) for future use.

137 Quality checking of metagenomic DNA

The 16S rDNA fragment was amplified by polymerase chain reaction from the 138 metagenomic DNA the universal 16S rDNA fD1 (5'-139 using primers GAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG-3') and rP2 (5'-ACGGCTACCTTGTTACGACTT-3') 140 141 (Haris et al., 2014). Reaction had 0.2 µl template DNA (20 ng), 0.1 µl each of the forward and reverse primers, 1 µl of 10 mM dNTP (Genei[®]), 0.2 µl of Taq DNA polymerase 142 143 (Genei[®]), 2.5 µl of Taq DNA buffer A (Genei[®]) and 15.9 µl of grade I water. Thermal cycling included initial denaturation at 94 °C for 2 min. followed by 29 cycles with 144 denaturation at 94 °C for 45 sec., primer annealing at 55 °C for 1 min. and primer extension 145 at 72 °C for 2 min. and final extension at 72 °C for 10 min. The products were 146 electrophoresed on agarose gel (0.8%). 147

148 Sequencing of 16S ribosomal RNA amplicon

The metagenomic DNA isolated from *B. tabaci* adults were sequenced using Next-Generation Illumina MiSeqTM. Amplicon library was prepared with specific primers spanning the hypervariable V3 region of 16S rRNA gene (Supplementary Figure 2) and used for sequencing and subsequent classification.

153 Amplicon PCR

154 Metagenomic DNA samples were normalized to 5 ng/ μ l in 10 mM Tris (pH 8.5) and 155 amplicon PCR was carried out using V3 primers (341F - 5'CCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGGA', 156 518R - 5'ATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG3') (Bartram et al. 2011). PCR master mix consisted of 157 2 μ l each of forward and reverse primers (10 pM/ μ l), 0.5 μ l 40 mM dNTPs, 5 μ l 5X Phusion 158 HF reaction buffer, 0.2 μ l 2U/ ul or μ l F-540 Special Phusion HS DNA polymerase, 5 ng 159 input DNA and water to make up the volume to 25 μ l. PCR reaction was programmed with initial denaturation at 98 °C for 30 sec. followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 98 °C for 10
sec., primer annealing at 55 °C for 30 sec., primer extension at 72 °C for 30 sec. and final
extension at 72 °C for 5 min. PCR products were quantified using the fluorescence
quantitative fluorometer (Qubit 2.0[®]) with the Qubit dsDNA HS assay kit (Invitrogen, USA).

164 **16S rDNA amplicon library preparation**

165 PCR clean-up

PCR clean-up was carried out using AMPure XP beads to purify the 16S V3 amplicon away from free primers and primer dimer species. The reagents consisted of 10 mM Tris (pH 8.5) (52.5 μ l per sample), AMPure XP beads (20 μ l per sample) and freshly prepared ethanol (80%) (400 μ l per sample). Standard protocol (Amplicon et al. 2013) was followed and the cleaned products were stored at -20 °C.

171 Index PCR

IlluminaTM Truseq adapters and indices were added to the cleaned PCR products.
PCR master mix consisted of 2 μl each of 10 pM/ μl forward and reverses primers, 1.0 μl 40
mM dNTP, 10 μl 5X Phusion HF reaction buffers, 0.4 μl 2U/ μl F-540 special Phusion HS
DNA polymerase, 10 μl (minimum 5 ng) PCR1 amplicon and water to make up the total
volume to 50 μl. PCR reaction was programmed with initial denaturation at 98 °C for 30 sec.,
15 cycles with denaturation at 98 °C for 10 sec., primer annealing at 55 °C for 30 sec. and
primer extension at 72 °C for 30 sec. followed by final extension at 72 °C for 5 min.

179 PCR clean-up 2

- AMPure XP beads were used to clean up the final library before quantification. The
 reagents consisted of 10 mM Tris (pH 8.5) (27.5 µl per sample), AMPure XP beads (56 µl per
 sample), freshly prepared 80% ethanol (400 µl per sample).
- 183 Library quantification, normalization, and pooling

Libraries were quantified using a fluorometric quantification method and concentrated final library was diluted using distilled water. Diluted DNA (5 μl) from each library was pooled with unique indices.

187 Library denaturing and MiSeq sample loading

In preparation for cluster generation and sequencing, pooled libraries were denatured with NaOH, diluted with hybridization buffer, and then heat denatured before MiSeq[®] sequencing. Each run included a minimum of PhiX (5%) to serve as an internal control for these low diversity libraries. Denatured library was loaded into the reagent cartridge of Illumina MiSeqTM sequencer. The output files (fastq) generated from the sequencer were analysed.

194 Analysis of NGS data

Total raw reads of samples obtained from Illumina sequencing platform were quality checked for base quality (Phred Score), base composition, adapter dimer contamination, ambiguous bases and GC content using Fast QC (Version0.11.8) tool with default parameter. The 16S rDNA V3 hypervariable region specific primers were checked in the paired-end reads and allowed to merge using Clustal Omega (version 1.2.0) program with minimum overlap length of 10 bp. The merged consensus fasta of all samples were pooled and taken for various downstream analyses.

As a part of pre-processing of sequence reads, singletons, generated due to the sequencing errors and could result in spurious operational taxonomic units (OTUs), were removed before starting OTU clustering, by removing the reads that did not cluster with other sequences (abundances <2). Singleton are the R1+R2 merged consensus of V3 FASTA contig sequence whose frequency is only one, or present only one time. Chimeras were also removed using the *de novo* chimera removal method UCHIME implemented in the tool USEARCH.

Using Uclust program, pre-processed reads from all samples were pooled and 209 clustered into OTUs based on their sequence similarity (similarity cut off at 0.97). QIIME 210 (Caporaso et al. 2010) and MG-RAST (Meyer et al. 2008) programmes were used in 211 downstream analyses. Representative sequences were identified for each OTU and aligned 212 against Greengenes core set of sequences using PyNAST program (DeSantis et al. 2006a, 213 2006b). Further, these representative sequences were aligned against reference chimeric 214 215 datasets, and taxonomic classification was performed using RDP classifier and Greengenes OTUs database. 216

The taxonomic categories of bacteria (from phylum to species level) present in both P and H populations of *Bemisia tabaci* were compared using Jaccard distance (a measure of how dissimilar the sets are) in R software (version 3.6.0). More the distance between each taxonomic category means more the variation between them.

Community matrices at phylum, class, order, family, genus and species levels were 221 prepared for both the populations and the relative abundances (Pi) were prepared based on OTU 222 counts. The data was further analyzed using Shannon Weiner diversity Index, with function H =223 \sum [(Pi) x ln(Pi)]. Pi is per cent of a particular bacterium compared to the total bacteria identified 224 in that population at that taxonomic level, using the pre-processed total reads. For example, when 225 we compare the variability between P and H populations at Phylum level in terms of the 226 bacterium Proteobacteria, P population has the per cent abundance of 87.57 whereas it is 13.40 in 227 228 H population. Thus, Pi values shall be 0.8757 and 0.1340, respectively and corresponding index values -0.116 (0.8757*-0.1327) and -0.269 (0.1340*-2.0099), respectively. Index ratio between 229 the populations indicated the variation across both the populations in each level. Similarly, at 230 each level of taxonomic classification, indices for every bacterial community were calculated and 231 compared. 232

Rarefaction analysis was carried out to assess species richness of the samples based on the construction of rarefaction curves using MG-RAST software. A phylogenetic tree of bacteria at family level was also constructed using MG-RAST with Illumina sequencing data set. The RDP database was used as annotation source, and a minimum identity cutoff (90%) was applied.

238 Sequence Read Archive (SRA) submission

Metagenomic sequences were submitted to Sequence Read Archive (SRA) at https://submit.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/subs/sra/. Experiment ID and Run ID were received for each submission.

242 **Results**

243 Isolation and quality checking of metagenomic DNA from adult *Bemisia tabaci*

Metagenomic DNA isolated from the two samples of *B. tabaci* were confirmed with the presence of 16S rDNA fragment in the isolated products by amplification of band of 1500 bp with universal 16S rDNA primers (Supplementary Figure 3). The metagenomic DNA was quantified with fluorometer (Qubit 2.0) and the concentrations were 30.6 ng/ µl and 30.4 ng/ µl, respectively, in samples H and P. The hypervariable V3 region of 16S rDNA was amplified with specific primers (Supplementary Figures 4a, 4b) and preceded with 16S rDNA library preparations.

251 Illumina sequencing data

Total raw sequencing reads (paired end) of 1,321,906 and 690,661 with average sequence length of 150 bp each was obtained from Illumina MiSeqTM sequencer. The quality of left and right end of the paired-end read sequences of the sample are shown in the Supplementary Figures 5a, 5b and 6a, 6b. Nearly 90% of the total reads had phred score greater than 30 (>Q30; error-probability <= 0.001).

The base composition distribution of two samples was adenine (24.05%, 23.63%), 257 cytosine (24.06%, 24.64%), guanine (27.46%, 27.78%) and thiamine (24.43%, 23.95%) and 258 the average GC content was 40-50%. Application of multiple filters such as conserved region 259 filter, spacer filter, quality filter and mismatch filter had resulted 1240613, 1240116, 1239993 260 and 640996 reads, respectively for sample P. For H, corresponding values were 640923, 261 640500, 640450 and 341937. While making consensus V3 sequence, more than 48% of the 262 263 paired-end reads were aligned to each other with zero mismatches with an average contig length of 135 to 165 bp (Supplementary Figures 7a and 7b). 264

From the 640,996 and 341,937 consensus reads from samples, singletons and chimeric sequences were removed to obtain 611,218 and 334,634 high quality pre-processed reads. These were pooled and clustered into OTUs based on their sequence similarity (similarity cut off = 0.97) and a total of 3,513 OTUs were identified from 945,852 reads (Figure 1).

The rarefaction analysis, carried out to verify the amount of sequencing reflected in the diversity of original microbial community, has revealed that the slopes of the curves decline markedly with increasing sequences (Figure 2). The alpha diversity (6.22 and 3.82 for P and H populations, respectively) indicated the extent of bacterial species diversity present in *B. tabaci*.

275 Composition of bacterial community of *Bemisia tabaci*

The bacteria present in adult *B. tabaci* were analysed and taxonomically grouped from phyla to species levels using RDP classifier and Greengenes OTUs database. The relative abundance of 10 major bacterial groups in each taxonomic category is given in Tables 1 and 2. Altogether, 16 bacterial phyla were detected from samples P and H. Most dominant phylum in P population was *Proteobacteria* (87.5% of total bacterial community) and in H

population, it was *Firmicutes* (82.6%). This was followed by *Firmicutes* (9.3%) in P
population and *Proteobacteria* (13.4%) in H population.

283 P population had *Bacteroidetes* bacteria to the tune of 2.9%. Chlorobi, Verrucomicrobia, Actinobacteria. *Planctomvcetes*. Spirochaetae, *Tenericutes* 284 and Acidobacteria were other phyla, constituting less than 1% whereas, H population had only a 285 meagre count of Bacteroidetes, Chlorobi, Actinobacteria, Planctomycetes, Verrucomicrobia, 286 287 Spirochaetae, Tenericutes and Acidobacteria. A total of 27 and 31 bacterial classes were identified for P and H population, respectively. For sample P, class Gammaproteobacteria 288 289 was most dominant (86.4%) and for H, it was *Bacilli* (82.6%). In population P, 56 bacterial orders have been detected of which Enterobacteriales was dominant (85%). Of the 60 orders 290 seen in population H, Bacillales was most dominant (82.5%). Analyses at family level have 291 revealed a total of 91 and 88 bacterial families in P and H population, respectively, major 292 Enterobacteriaceae, Bacillaceae, Flavobacteriaceae, Vibrionaceae, 293 groups being Oxalobacteraceae etc. for P and Enterobacteriaceae, Bacillaceae, Alcanivoracaceae etc. for 294 H (Figure 3). Among the 236 genera identified in P sample, Bacillus (35.5%) and 295 Arsenophonus (24.6%) were the most dominant. Other important genera in P population were 296 Vibrio, Riemerella, Lysinibacillus, Flavobacterium, Janthinobacterium, Sphingobacterium, 297 Bacteroides and Enterococcus. For H population, the order of abundance was Bacillus 298 followed by Alcanivorax, Staphylococcus, Pantoea, Lysinibacillus, Bacteroides, Alistipes, 299 300 *Photorhabdus*, *Terribacillus* and *Enterococcus*. A total of 409 species were identified in sample P and 355 in sample H (Figure 2). From RDP database, sequence similarities were 301 observed with Arsenophonus spp., Bacillus spp., Riemerella anatipestifer, Vibrio harveyi, 302 Lysinibacillus sphaericus and Janthinobacterium spp. for P population and Bacillus 303 thuringiensis, Staphylococcus spp. Bacillus amyloliquefaciens, Bacillus megaterium, Pantoea 304 dispersa and Bacillus pumilus for H population. 305

Comparison between different taxonomic categories of bacteria present in P and H 306 populations of *Bemisia tabaci* using Jaccard dissimilarity index shows that at species level, the 307 bacteria present in both P and H populations of B. tabaci showed maximum dissimilarity to the 308 tune of 99.9%, whereas the bacteria at genus level were recorded the least dissimilarity of 50.5%. 309 At phylum level, the bacteria were dissimilar to the tune of 84.9%, whereas 82.7% of 310 dissimilarity at class level was observed among bacteria population in P and H populations of B. 311 312 tabaci. The bacteria at order and family level were dissimilar to the tune of 88.8-88.9%. Shannon Weiner diversity index was used to assess the relative diversity of bacteria in both the 313 314 populations at each taxonomic level (Supplementary Table 4). Higher index values had shown higher diversity of the bacterium. At phylum, class and order levels, both the populations were 315 found to have equal level of diversity, though they differed in four bacterial orders. At family 316 level, population H was distinctly more diverse but at genus level population P had shown better 317 diversity. This shows that different genus found in population P belonged to same family and 318 even though the number of genera was less, bacteria in population H belonged to different 319 family. Diversity index at species level was high (> 1.0) in both the populations and the species 320 accommodated in both populations varied. 321

322 SRA submission: SRA submission has generated the experiment ID SRX1592694 and run
323 ID SRR3178391.

324 **Discussion**

325 Microbial community vary between our study populations

Polyphagous agricultural pests harbour diverse bacterial communities in their gut, which assist diverse functions including polyphagy and general fitness. In the present study, bacterial communities associated with cassava whiteflies collected from different agroecological zones of Kerala, India were compared. Metagenomic DNA of *B. tabaci* strains have been isolated by standard protocol (Zhou et al. 1996) and sequenced in Illumina NGS

platform. Analysis of hypervariable V3 region of 16S rDNA fragment resulted in 1,321,906 331 and 690,661 high quality paired end sequences with mean length of 150 bp. Number of 332 bacterial species detected was a function of the number of sequence analyzed (Shi et al. 333 2012). Highly diverse bacterial communities were present in the sample containing 334 approximately 3,513 operational taxonomic units (OTUs). Studies by Chiel et al. (2007) and 335 Gueguen et al. (2010) for identifying bacterial community of B. tabaci also have used the 336 337 amplification of 16S rDNA of bacteria. Parallel studies on B. tabaci from 14 different locations in Northern India, using 16S rDNA clone library sequences had shown that Portiera 338 339 is the primary endosymbiont and secondary endosymbionts include Cardinium, Wolbachia, Rickettsia and Arsenophonus along with Bacillus, Enterobacter, Paracoccus and 340 Acinetobacter (Singh et al. 2012) but in the present study Portiera was not identified, 341 whereas secondary endosymbionts such as Bacillus, Arsenophonus, Enterococcus, 342 Bacteroides etc. were identified. 343

Downstream analysis using QIIME (Caporaso et al. 2010) and MG-RAST (Meyer et 344 al. 2008) and statistical analysis using Shannon Weiner diversity index (Shannon and Weaver 345 1949) had shown a marked difference in relative diversity of bacteria in the populations at 346 various taxonomic levels. Altogether, 16 bacterial phyla were detected from P and H samples. 347 Among the phyla from P population, Proteobacteria was most dominant followed by 348 Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes and for H population, it was Firmicutes, Proteobacteria and 349 350 Bacteroidetes. Su et al. (2016), identified 27 different phyla of bacterial community associated with *B. tabaci*, from different crops, in which; *Proteobacteria* (94.0-98.0%) was 351 the most dominant, followed by Bacteroidetes (0.5-4.5%) and Firmicutes (0.2-2.0%) and the 352 present study also shown similar results. 353

354 Importance of endosymbionts for insect function

355

Bacterial endosymbionts are essential for survival, spread and evolution of B. tabaci

(Thao and Baumann 2004; Himler et al. 2011). Even though they are known to perform a 356 variety of roles in whiteflies (Rana et al. 2012; Xie et al. 2018), functions of many of these 357 endosymbionts remain still unknown. Detailed examination of their presence and functions in 358 other insects with the help of literature can provide an idea about their possible roles in 359 whiteflies (Supplementary Tables 2 and 3). Proteobacteria associated with insects aid in 360 carbohydrate degradation (Delalibera et al. 2005), synthesis of B vitamins and essential 361 362 amino acids (Bennet et al. 2014) and pesticide detoxification (Werren 2012). Oesi-Poku et al. (2012) and Jones et al. (2013) found that Proteobacteria is typically the predominant 363 364 bacterial taxon in the gut of mosquitoes. Proteobacteria followed by Firmicutes and Actinobacteria were the major bacterial phyla detected in the midgut of H. armigera larvae 365 (Priya et al. 2012), gut and reproductive organs of both male and female fruit fly Bactrocera 366 minax, gut of ground beetles (Jonathan et al. 2007), and desert locust, Schistocerca gregaria 367 (Dillon et al. 2010). However, Bacteriodetes and Firmicutes were dominant in gut of termites 368 (Xiang et al. 2012) and bees (Mohr and Tebbe 2006). Some members of Firmicutes assist 369 insects in cellulose and hemicellulose digestion (Brown et al. 2012). Higher termites harbour 370 Bacteroidetes, in their hindgut, to degrade lignocellulose, with the host enzymes acting on the 371 amorphous regions of cellulose and the symbiotic enzymes targeting the crystalline regions 372 (Brune 2014). These bacteria also induce cytoplasmic incompatibility in the parasitoid wasp 373 Encarsia pergandiella (Hunter et al. 2003). 374

In the present study on whiteflies, for both P and H populations, reads for phyla *Chlorobi, Actinobacteria, Planctomycetes, Verrucomicrobia, Spirochaetes, Tenericutes* and *Acidobacteria* were also seen. *Chlorobi* is a salivary-associated unique bacterial community in *Anopheles culicifacies* (Sharma et al. 2014), and their role in the insect is unknown. In insects, *Actinobacteria* exhibit diverse physiological and metabolic properties such as production of extracellular enzymes and formation of a wide variety of secondary metabolites

(Schrempf 2001). In termites, they assist in nutrient acquisition from polysaccharides
including cellulose (Pasti and Belli 1985; Watanabe et al. 2003) and hemicellulose (Schafer
et al. 1996). According to Douglas (2015), *Actinobacteria* is the most dominant phylum of
bacteria in whitefly, followed by *Bacteroidetes*, *Firmicutes*, and *Proteobacteria*. This
variation can be attributed to the host variations.

The extreme alkalinity in some compartments of termite guts supports the growth of 386 387 specialized alkaline-tolerant symbiotic bacteria from *Planctomycetes* (Köhler et al. 2008; Bignell 2010). Beetles and termites feeding on wood or detritus have higher populations of 388 389 Verrucomicrobia in their gut (Colman et al. 2012), and in the hindgut of the wood-feeding termites, Spirochaetae are present in abundance (Köhler et al. 2012). The Tenericutes are 390 present in termites and cockroaches also (Sabree and Moran 2014). Acidobacteria were 391 identified from the larvae of the cerambycid Leptura rubra feeding on rotten softwood 392 (Grünwald et al. 2010). Acidobacteria uses plant polymers, including xylan and cellulose, 393 and degrade these polymers in the larval gut (Eichorst et al. 2011). 394

Using 16S rDNA clone library sequences, Singh et al. (2012) identified more than 395 300 bacterial genera from whiteflies, including secondary endosymbionts such as *Cardinium*, 396 Wolbachia, Rickettsia and Arsenophonus, Bacillus, Enterobacter, Paracoccus and 397 Acinetobacter. Secondary endosymbionts were not uniformly distributed in different 398 locations. In the present study, 236 and 225 bacterial genera were present in P and H 399 400 population, respectively. For P population, Bacillus was the most dominant group followed by Arsenophonus, Vibrio, Riemerella, Lysinibacillus, Flavobacterium, Janthinobacterium, 401 Sphingobacterium, Bacteroides, Enterococcus and for H population, the order of relative 402 abundance was Bacillus, Alcanivorax, Staphylococcus, Pantoea, Lysinibacillus, Bacteroides, 403 Alistipes, Photobacterium, Terribacillus and Enterococcus. At species level, a total of 409 404 species were identified in sample P and total of 355 species were identified in sample H. 405

Secondary endosymbiont of Bemisia tabaci [unspecified/ unidentified by the software and 406 identified as a single species group], Arsenophonus, Bacillus cereus, Bacillus megaterium, 407 Bacillus flexus, Riemerella anatipestifer, Vibrio harveyi, Lysinibacillus sphaericus, 408 Janthinobacterium sp. and Bacillus pumilus were the major 10 species identified for P 409 population. For H population, the major species identified were Bacillus thuringiensis, 410 Alcanivorax sp., SBR proteobacterium, Staphylococcus pasteuri, Bacillus amyloliquefaciens, 411 412 Staphylococcus sciuri, Bacillus megaterium, Pantoea dispersa, Lysinibacillus sphaericus and 413 Bacillus pumilus.

414 Many Bacillus members are present in B. tabaci and they may contribute in nutrition. According to Chandler et al. (2011), host diet has a greater effect on the bacterial microbiome 415 composition. As Bacillus strains have the ability to produce amylase enzyme (Amund and 416 Ogunsina 1987; Oyewole and Odunfa 1992), these amylases may be involved in the initial 417 breakdown of cassava starch into simple sugars. Bacillus megaterium isolates were found to 418 produce medium-length sugars from sucrose (Davidson et al. 1994). Also, Bacillus spp. 419 associated with *B. tabaci* may produce long-chain sugars which contribute to the stickiness of 420 the honeydew of the insect (Davidson et al. 1994). 421

Interestingly, Bemisia also harbours various entomopathogens such as Bacillus 422 thuringiensis (Raymond et al. 2010; Walters et al. 1995) and Bacillus cereus (Song et al. 423 2014), which are effective biocontrol agents for whiteflies (El-Assal et al. 2013). Bacillus 424 *pumilus* is effective in reducing second nymphal instar populations of *B. tabaci* (Ateyyat et 425 al. 2010) and entomopathogen Bacillus megaterium manages Aphis pomi (Aksoy and Ozman-426 Sullivan 2008). Bacillus flexus induces the oviposition of sand fly (Phlebotomus papatasi) 427 (Mukhopadhyay et al. 2012), whereas Bacillus amyloliquefaciens has strong mosquito 428 larvicidal and pupicidal action, and are used in mosquito control programmes (Geetha et al. 429 2014). 430

Endosymbiont, Arsenophonus is important in virus transmission by whiteflies (Rana 431 et al. 2012) and are relatively abundant in P population. GroEL molecular chaperones from 432 Arsenophonus sp. are found to be associated with coat proteins of Cassava mosaic virus and 433 help them from disintegration in the insect haemolymph. Similar results are reported by 434 Morin et al. (1999) and Gottlieb et al. (2010) in the case of TYLCV (Tomato yellow leaf curl 435 virus), for Buchnera GroEL and Hamiltonella GroEL respectively. Since cassava plants from 436 437 where P population of whiteflies are collected had shown high severity (Scale 3-5) (Ikotun and Hahn 1994) of cassava mosaic disease, the results are in agreement with the findings of 438 439 Rana et al. (2012). Our results indicate a possible association of whitefly endosymbiont, Arsenophonus with Cassava mosaic virus in its transmission. Compared to disease spread by 440 P population, cassava mosaic disease intensity was negligible (Scale 0-1) in Sulthan Bathery, 441 where Arsenophonus was absent in the H population. Arsenophonus is also suspected to 442 reduce the fecundity of its host (Gherna et al. 1991; Duron et al. 2008). Raina et al. (2015) 443 observed that the elimination of Arsenophonus and decrease in the diversity of bacterial 444 symbionts by antibiotic treatment leads to increase in fitness of whiteflies. 445

Luciferases from luminous bacteria, Vibrio harveyii and the presence of Riemerella, 446 in ant species, Nylanderia fulva were reported by Schmidt et al. (1989) and McDonald 447 (2012), respectively. Santos-Garcia et al. (2014) reported symbiotic association of 448 Alcanivorax in moss bugs to fulfil their nutritional requirements, resulting from their 449 450 unbalanced diet and their role in marine oil-spill degradation is reported by McGenity et al. (2012). Apart from whitefly management, Lysinibacillus sphaericus (El-Assal et al. 2013) 451 can also be used as a biological control agent for insecticide-resistant Aedes aegypti (Rojas-452 Pinzón and Dussán 2017). Staphylococcus from Bemisia produces medium length sugars 453 from sucrose and contributes to the stickiness of the honeydew secreted by the host insect 454 (Indiragandhi et al. 2010). McDonald (2012) reported the presence of Staphylococcus 455

pasteuri and *Staphylococcus sciuri* from ant species *Nylanderia fulva* and Ateyyat et al.
(2010) reported their potential as biocontrol agents.

458 Rosenblueth et al. (2012) reported evolutionary relationships of flavobacterial endosymbionts with their scale insect hosts. The endosymbiont Pantoea, observed in the 459 study may perform semiochemical effects, as it is already reported for *Pantoea agglomerans*, 460 which is producing a chemical Guaiacol and helps in the aggregation of desert locust, 461 462 Locusta migratoria (Dillon and Charnley 2002; Davis et al. 2013). Pantoea dispersa is reported in wild mosquito Aedes albopictus (Moro et al. 2013). Evidence for the microbial 463 464 utilization of nitrogenous waste products by Bacteroides has been obtained for termites, cockroaches and hemipterans (Potrikus and Breznak 1981). Janthinobacterium strains 465 reported to have the capacity to degrade chitin (Gleave et al. 1995; Xiao et al. 2005) and 466 Janthinobacterium sp. J3 isolated from the gut contents of Batocera horsfieldi larvae (Zhang 467 et al. 2011). 468

Sphingobacterium griseoflavum sp. nov., isolated from the insect *Teleogryllus occipitalis* living in deserted crop land (Long et al. 2016) and *Sphingobacterium* isolate exhibiting xylanolytic activity has been isolated from the gut of a cerambycid larva (Zhou et al. 2009). *Alistipes finegoldii* and *Alistipes putredinis* are reported in the gut of medicinal leech (*Hirudo verbena*) (Maltz et al. 2014) and *Alistipes finegoldii* attenuates colitis in mice (Dziarski et al. 2016). *Photorhabdus luminescens* is a bioluminescent entomopathogen which comes under the genus *Photorhabdus*, reported in the study (Schmidt et al. 1989).

An et al. (2007) reported the presence of *Terribacillus halophilus* in various insects, even though their role is unknown. *Enterococcus* sp. found in *Bemisia* was reported to produce cyanide oxygenase and utilize cyanide as a nitrogenous growth substance (Fernandez and Kunz 2005). According to Bressan et al. (2008) *SBR proteobacterium* is a pathogen associated with the disease syndrome "basses richesses" of sugar beet in France and are

481 spread by planthoppers - *Cixius wagneri*, *Hyalesthes obsoletus*, and *Pentastiridius leporinus*.

482

Concluding remarks

Our study revealed the composition and diversity of bacterial community associated 483 with B. tabaci based on Illumina next-generation sequencing of 16S rDNA amplicons. The 484 study was not extrapolated to know the correlation of endosymbiont bacterium and genetic 485 variability in whitefly, as the study conducted by Singh et al. (2012) already ruled out any 486 487 such possibility. Mining the diversity of bacterial community present in the insects has revealed their role in making *B. tabaci* a successful vector and polyphagous pest of global 488 489 importance. Our analysis had shown that the specific endosymbiont Asenophonus is present only in the heavily cassava mosaic disease infested areas. Insecticidal toxin producing 490 opportunistic bacteria such as Bacillus thuringiensis and Bacillus cereus were also found in 491 B. tabaci. Further studies from more regions and detailed analyses are required to determine 492 493 the trend in endosymbiont variations based on genetic as well as agro-ecological zone variations. Functional roles of endosymbionts in making *B. tabaci* as a successful vector and 494 invasive plant pest have to be thoroughly studied. Elaborated understanding on 495 endosymbionts could very well be utilized not only for planning alternative pest management 496 strategies but also for enhancing efficiency of beneficial insects. 497

498 Acknowledgements

Senior author acknowledges ICAR-CTCRI for granting the permission to carry out
the research work. The facilities provided by various departments of College of Horticulture
(Kerala Agricultural University), *viz.*, Department of Agricultural Entomology, Centre for
Plant Biotechnology and Molecular Biology, Department of Agricultural Microbiology and
SciGenom, Cochin are gratefully acknowledged.

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875

Tables

- 876
- 877 Table 1. Ten major bacteria in each taxonomic category, recorded from P population (Values in the parenthesis are per cent of particular
- taxonomic category of the bacteria compared to the total identified, when the pre-processed total reads were taken for downstream analyses)

Sl. No.	Phylum	Class	Order	Family	Genus	Species
1	Proteobacteria (87.57)	Gammaproteobacteria (86.47)	Enterobacteriales (85.00)	Enterobacteriaceae (85.01)	Bacillus (35.57)	Secondary endosymbiont of <i>Bemisia tabaci</i> [non-specified] (70.38)
2	Firmicutes (9.29)	Bacilli (9.14)	Bacillales (8.70)	Bacillaceae (8.25)	Arsenophonus (24.69)	<i>Arsenophonus</i> endosymbiont of <i>Bemisia tabaci</i> (7.19)
3	Bacteroidetes (2.91)	Flavobacteriia (1.70)	Flavobacteriales (1.71)	Flavobacteriaceae (1.71)	<i>Vibrio</i> (5.83)	Bacillus cereus (4.07)
4	Chlorobi (0.16)	Betaproteobacteria (0.94)	Vibrionales (1.30)	Vibrionaceae (1.30)	Riemerella (4.53)	Bacillus megaterium (3.78)
5	Actinobacteria (0.02)	Bacteroidia (0.59)	Burkholderiales (0.69)	Oxalobacteraceae (0.65)	Lysinibacillus (4.20)	Bacillus flexus (1.70)
6	Planctomycetes (0.01)	Sphingobacteriia (0.59)	Bacteroidales (0.60)	Sphingobacteriaceae (0.58)	Flavobacterium (2.87)	<i>Riemerella anatipestifer</i> (1.32)
7	Verrucomicrobia (0.007)	Chlorobia (0.16)	Sphingobacteriales (0.59)	Bacteroidaceae (0.39)	Janthinobacterium (2.94)	Vibrio harveyi (1.30)
8	Spirochaetae (0.005)	Deltaproteobacteria (0.16)	Lactobacillales (0.47)	Enterococcaceae (0.38)	Sphingobacterium (2.79)	<i>Lysinibacillus sphaericus</i> (1.22)
9	Tenericutes (0.004)	Negativicutes (0.15)	Pseudomonadales (0.38)	Pseudomonadaceae (0.37)	Bacteroides (1.90)	Janthinobacterium sp. J3 (0.86)
10	Acidobacteria (0.002)	Cytophagia (0.03)	Chlorobiales (0.17)	Staphylococcaceae (0.24)	Enterococcus (1.83)	Bacillus pumilus (0.69)

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880	Table 2. Ten major bacteria in each ta	xonomic category, recorded	from H population (Values in	n the parenthesis are per	cent of particular
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taxonomic category of the bacteria compared to the total identified, when the pre-processed total reads were taken for downstream analyses)

Sl. No.	Phylum	Class	Order	Family	Genus	Species
1	Firmicutes	Bacilli	Bacillales	Bacillaceae	Bacillus	Bacillus thuringiensis
	(82.67)	(82.65)	(82.58)	(77.42)	(82.27)	(72.62)
2	Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Enterobacteriales	Enterobacteriaceae	Alcanivorax	Alcanivorax sp. EPR 6
	(13.40)	(16.28)	(8.34)	(8.34)	(8.19)	(7.58)
3	Bacteroidetes	Bacteroidia	Oceanospirillales	Alcanivoracaceae	Staphylococcus	SBR proteobacterium
	(0.84)	(0.71)	(7.62)	(7.62)	(5.58)	(6.97)
4	Actinobacteria	Flavobacteriia	Bacteroidales	Staphylococcaceae	Pantoea	Staphylococcus pasteuri
	(0.07)	(0.12)	(0.71)	(5.19)	(1.13)	(3.31)
5	Chlorobi	Deltaproteobacteria	Vibrionales	Bacteroidaceae	Lysinibacillus	Bacillus amyloliquefaciens
	(0.05)	(0.09)	(0.23)	(0.41)	(0.76)	(1.75)
6	Planctomycetes	Actinobacteria (class)	Lactobacillales	Vibrionaceae	Bacteroides	Staphylococcus sciuri
	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.16)	(0.23)	(0.44)	(1.63)
7	Verrucomicrobia	Betaproteobacteria	Flavobacteriales	Rikenellaceae	Alistipes	Bacillus megaterium
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.12)	(0.20)	(0.22)	(1.10)
8	Spirochaetae	Chlorobia	Actinomycetales	Enterococcaceae	Photorhabdus	Pantoea dispersa
	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.05)	(0.09)	(0.21)	(1.02)
9	Tenericutes	Negativicutes	Chlorobiales	Prevotellaceae	Terribacillus	Lysinibacillus sphaericus
	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.07)	(0.16)	(0.70)
10	Acidobacteria	Cytophagia	Pseudomonadales	Paenibacillaceae	Enterococcus	Bacillus pumilus
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.10)	(0.34)

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Legends to Tables and Figures

Table 1. Ten major bacteria in each taxonomic category, recorded from P population (Values 884 in the parenthesis are per cent of particular taxonomic category of the bacteria compared to 885 the total identified, when the pre-processed total reads were taken for downstream analyses) 886 Table 2. Ten major bacteria in each taxonomic category, recorded from H population (Values 887 in the parenthesis are per cent of particular taxonomic category of the bacteria compared to 888 the total identified, when the pre-processed total reads were taken for downstream analyses) 889 Figure 1. A graphical representation of reads and OTU proportion (The blue bar represents percentage of total OTUs in the read-count groups. The red bar represents percentage of total read contributed by the OTUs in the read-count group) Figure 2. Rarefaction analyses of Bemisia tabaci bacterial communities (P-population: blue 890 891 line, H-population: red line) Figure 3. Phylogenetic tree of bacteria at family level constructed in MG-RAST with 892 893 Illumina sequencing data set (Tree is present with orders (colored slices) and families belong

to each orders are given inside colored slices. Magenta box inside the colored slice indicate
P-population and green box indicate H-population. The RDP database was used as annotation
source, and a minimum identity cutoff (90%) was applied).

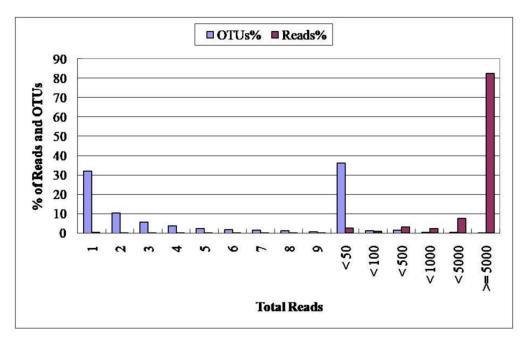
Genome

Table 1. Ten major bacteria in each taxonomic category, recorded from P population (Values in the parenthesis are per cent of particular
taxonomic category of the bacteria compared to the total identified, when the pre-processed total reads were taken for downstream analyses)

Sl. No.	Phylum	Class	Order	Family	Genus	Species
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2	Firmicutes (9.29)	Bacilli (9.14)	Bacillales (8.70)	Bacillaceae (8.25)	Arsenophonus (24.69)	Arsenophonus endosymbiont of Bemisia tabaci (7.19)
3	Bacteroidetes (2.91)	Flavobacteriia (1.70)	Flavobacteriales (1.71)	Flavobacteriaceae (1.71)	<i>Vibrio</i> (5.83)	Bacillus cereus (4.07)
4	Chlorobi (0.16)	Betaproteobacteria (0.94)	Vibrionales (1.30)	Vibrionaceae (1.30)	Riemerella (4.53)	Bacillus megaterium (3.78)
5	Actinobacteria (0.02)	Bacteroidia (0.59)	Burkholderiales (0.69)	Oxalobacteraceae (0.65)	Lysinibacillus (4.20)	Bacillus flexus (1.70)
6	Planctomycetes (0.01)	Sphingobacteriia (0.59)	Bacteroidales (0.60)	Sphingobacteriaceae (0.58)	<i>Flavobacterium</i> (2.87)	<i>Riemerella anatipestifer</i> (1.32)
7	Verrucomicrobia (0.007)	Chlorobia (0.16)	Sphingobacteriales (0.59)	Bacteroidaceae (0.39)	Janthinobacterium (2.94)	Vibrio harveyi (1.30)
8	Spirochaetae (0.005)	Deltaproteobacteria (0.16)	Lactobacillales (0.47)	Enterococcaceae (0.38)	Sphingobacterium (2.79)	<i>Lysinibacillus sphaericus</i> (1.22)
9	Tenericutes (0.004)	Negativicutes (0.15)	Pseudomonadales (0.38)	Pseudomonadaceae (0.37)	Bacteroides (1.90)	Janthinobacterium sp. J3 (0.86)
10	Acidobacteria (0.002)	Cytophagia (0.03)	Chlorobiales (0.17)	Staphylococcaceae (0.24)	Enterococcus (1.83)	Bacillus pumilus (0.69)

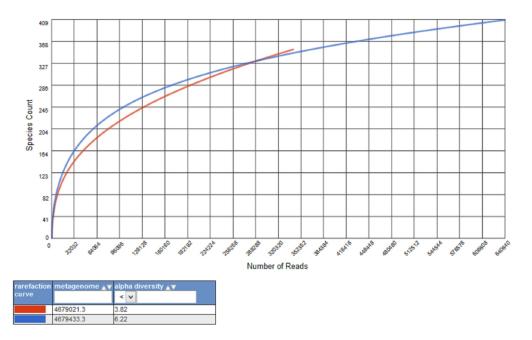
Table 2. Ten major bacteria in each taxonomic category, recorded from H population (Values in the parenthesis are per cent of particular
taxonomic category of the bacteria compared to the total identified, when the pre-processed total reads were taken for downstream analyses)

Sl.	Phylum	Class	Order	Family	Genus	Species
No.		D 111			D 11	
1	Firmicutes	Bacilli	Bacillales	Bacillaceae	Bacillus	Bacillus thuringiensis
	(82.67)	(82.65)	(82.58)	(77.42)	(82.27)	(72.62)
2	Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Enterobacteriales	Enterobacteriaceae	Alcanivorax	Alcanivorax sp. EPR 6
	(13.40)	(16.28)	(8.34)	(8.34)	(8.19)	(7.58)
3	Bacteroidetes	Bacteroidia	Oceanospirillales	Alcanivoracaceae	Staphylococcus	SBR proteobacterium
	(0.84)	(0.71)	(7.62)	(7.62)	(5.58)	(6.97)
4	Actinobacteria	Flavobacteriia	Bacteroidales	Staphylococcaceae	Pantoea	Staphylococcus pasteuri
	(0.07)	(0.12)	(0.71)	(5.19)	(1.13)	(3.31)
5	Chlorobi	Deltaproteobacteria	Vibrionales	Bacteroidaceae	Lysinibacillus	Bacillus amyloliquefaciens
	(0.05)	(0.09)	(0.23)	(0.41)	(0.76)	(1.75)
6	Planctomycetes	Actinobacteria (class)	Lactobacillales	Vibrionaceae	Bacteroides	Staphylococcus sciuri
	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.16)	(0.23)	(0.44)	(1.63)
7	Verrucomicrobia	Betaproteobacteria	Flavobacteriales	Rikenellaceae	Alistipes	Bacillus megaterium
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.12)	(0.20)	(0.22)	(1.10)
8	Spirochaetae	Chlorobia	Actinomycetales	Enterococcaceae	Photorhabdus	Pantoea dispersa
	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.05)	(0.09)	(0.21)	(1.02)
9	Tenericutes	Negativicutes	Chlorobiales	Prevotellaceae	Terribacillus	Lysinibacillus sphaericus
	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.07)	(0.16)	(0.70)
10	Acidobacteria	Cytophagia	Pseudomonadales	Paenibacillaceae	Enterococcus	Bacillus pumilus
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.10)	(0.34)



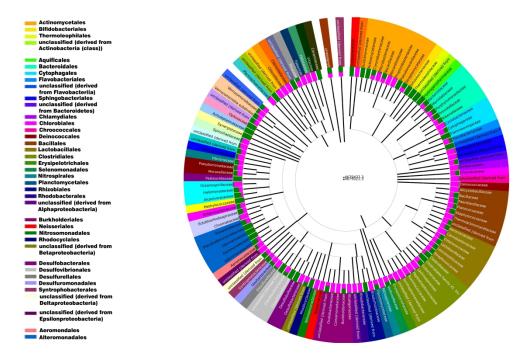
A graphical representation of reads and OTU proportion (The blue bar represents percentage of total OTUs in the read-count groups. The red bar represents percentage of total read contributed by the OTUs in the readcount group)

677x423mm (150 x 150 DPI)



Rarefaction analyses of Bemisia tabaci bacterial communities (P-population: blue line, H-population: red line)

952x592mm (96 x 96 DPI)



Phylogenetic tree of bacteria at family level constructed in MG-RAST with Illumina sequencing data set (Tree is present with orders (colored slices) and families belong to each orders are given inside colored slices. Magenta box inside the colored slice indicate P-population and green box indicate H-population.The RDP database was used as annotation source, and a minimum identity cutoff (90%) was applied).

304x203mm (300 x 300 DPI)