

Molecular cloning and characterization of the complete acetylcholinesterase gene (*Ace1*) from the mosquito *Aedes aegypti* with implications for comparative genome analysis

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Abstract

Insensitive acetylcholinesterase (AChE) has been shown to be responsible for resistance to organophosphates and carbamates in a number of arthropod species. Some arthropod genomes contain a single *Ace* gene, while others including mosquitoes contain two genes, but only one confers insecticide resistance. Here we report the isolation of the full-length cDNA and characterization of the complete genomic DNA sequence for the *Ace1* gene in the yellow fever mosquito, *Aedes aegypti*. The *Ace1* homolog in other mosquito species has been associated with insecticide resistance. The full-length cDNA consists of 2721 bp and contains a 2109 bp open reading frame that encodes a 702 amino acid protein. The amino acid sequence is highly conserved with that of other mosquitoes, including greater than 90% identity with *Culex* spp. and about 80% identity with *Anopheles gambiae*. The genomic DNA sequence includes 138,970 bp and consists of eight exons with seven introns ranging from 59 to 114,350 bp. Exons 2 and 8 show reduced amino acid conservation across mosquito species, while exons 3–7 are highly conserved. The *Ace1* introns in *Ae. aegypti* reflect a high frequency of repetitive sequences that comprise about 45% of the total intron sequence. The *Ace1* locus maps to the *p*-arm of chromosome 3, which corresponds to the orthologous genome regions in *Culex* spp. and *An. gambiae*.

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1. Introduction

Acetylcholinesterase (AChE) is critical for hydrolysis of acetylcholine at cholinergic nerve synapses and is a target for organophosphate (OP) and carbamate insecticides. Insensitive AChE has been shown to be responsible for resistance to OPs and carbamates in a number of arthropod species (for review, see Fournier and Mutero, 1994). The first insect AChE gene (*Ace*) was isolated from *Drosophila melanogaster* (Hall and Spierer, 1986). Subsequently, *Ace* mutations conferring resistance were documented in Cyclorrhapha dipteran species including, *D. melanogaster* (Mutero et al., 1994), *Musca domestica* (Kozaki et al., 2001; Walsh et al., 2001), and *Lucilia cuprina* (Chen et al., 2001). However, efforts to identify *Ace*

mutations conferring resistance were unsuccessful in Orthorrhapha dipterans, including the mosquitoes *Culex pipiens* (Malcolm et al., 1998) and *Culex tritaeniorhynchus* (Mori et al., 2001), despite documentation of insensitive AChE-mediated resistance in both species. Of note, the resistance phenotype mapped to a different genome location than the *Ace* locus, suggesting the existence of an independent molecular mechanism.

The existence in some insects of a paralogous AChE gene (*Ace1*) was first determined for the green bug, *Schizaphis graminum* (Gao et al., 2002), although some insect genomes such as *D. melanogaster* carry only one AChE gene (now called *Ace2*). Insensitive AChE-mediated resistance due to nonsynonymous substitutions in the *Ace1* gene has since been documented in a number of insects, including the mosquitoes *Anopheles gambiae* and *Cx. pipiens* (Alout et al., 2007; Weill et al., 2002, 2003), *Anopheles albimanus* (Weill et al., 2004a), and *Cx. tritaeniorhynchus* (Nabeshima

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et al., 2004). The amino acid coding sequence was reported for the mosquito, *Aedes aegypti*, *Ace1* gene, although insensitive AChE-mediated insecticide resistance is rare in natural *Ae. aegypti* populations and no resistance-specific mutations have been identified (Bisset et al., 2006; Weill et al., 2004b).

Among mosquito species, both cDNA and genomic DNA sequence information are available only for *An. gambiae*. Because of the importance of *Ace1* in insecticide resistance and the interest in comparative genome analysis between *An. gambiae* and *Ae. aegypti*, here we report on the isolation and characterization of the full-length cDNA and complete genomic DNA sequence organization for *Ae. aegypti Ace1* and its comparative organization with *An. gambiae*.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Mosquitoes

Ae. aegypti strains used in this study included: Liverpool (cDNA and genomic DNA isolation), MOYO-R and RED (genetic mapping). Larvae were reared on a bovine liver powder suspension. Adults were maintained on a 5% sugar solution. Mosquitoes were maintained in an environmental chamber at 26 °C, a relative humidity of 84%, and under a 16-h light/8-h dark cycle with a 1-h crepuscular period at the beginning and end of each light cycle.

2.2. Full-length *Ace1* cDNA sequence determination

To isolate full-length cDNA, total RNA was extracted from pooled *Ae. aegypti* adults (Liverpool strain) using TRI-REAGENT (Molecular Research Center, Inc.). Near-full-length cDNA was synthesized using *Ace1* specific primers (AaAce1-F7: 5'-CCGAGACCAAAGAACT-CAGC and AaAce1-R8: 5'-ATGCAGTGACACCGAGACAG) based on a partial *Ae. aegypti Ace1* sequence available in GenBank (AJ621915) and the SMART PCR cDNA synthesis kit (Clontech). Full-length cDNA was obtained by 5'-3' RACE using the Gene Racer Core Kit (Invitrogen). Total RNA was treated with calf intestinal phosphatase to remove 5' phosphates, and then with tobacco acid pyrophosphatase to remove the 5' mRNA cap structure which leaves a 5' phosphate required for ligation to the GeneRacer RNA Oligo (5'-CGACUG-GAGCAGGAGACACUGACAUGGACUGAAGGA-GUAGAAA-3'). The GeneRacer RNA Oligo was ligated to the 5' end of the decapped mRNA using T4 RNA ligase. The ligated mRNA was reverse-transcribed using SuperScript II reverse transcriptase and the GeneRacer Oligo dT Primer (5'-GCTGTCAACGATACGCTACGTAACGG-CATGACAGTG(T)₁₈) to synthesize complete cDNA carrying GeneRacer kit-specific oligonucleotide sequences at the 5'- and 3'-ends. The 5'-, 3'-cDNA ends were amplified with gene specific primers: 5'-RACE (AaAce1-R7: 5'-GGAGCTTCGAGTGTGAGTCC), 3'-RACE

(AaAce1-F5: 5'-TGGGCTCAACACAACCTATG) and GeneRacer primers: 5'-Primer (5'-GCACGAGGACACUGACAUGGACUGA: Position 9–33 of GeneRacer RNA Oligo), 3'-Primer (5'-GCTGTCAACGATACGCTACGTAACG: Position 1–25 of GeneRacer Oligo dT Primer). After 20 fold dilution of full-length RACE cDNA, 1 µl was added to a 25 µl PCR reaction (35 cycles of 94 °C for 1 min, 63 °C for 1 min and 72 °C for 2 min) with 5 min preheating at 94 °C and 10 min final extension at 72 °C. Amplified 5'- and 3'-RACE DNA was cloned using the TOPO TA cloning kit (Invitrogen) following the supplier's protocol. Sequencing reactions were performed using Big Dye Terminators and analyzed using an ABI 310 or ABI 3700 sequencer (Perkin-Elmer Applied BioSystems). The full-length cDNA sequence was submitted to the BLASTX program (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>) for homology searches and confirmation as the *Ace1* gene. Multiple sequence alignment of the *Ace1* protein to homologs from the mosquitoes *Cx. pipiens*, *Culex pipiens (pallens)*, *Cx. tritaeniorhynchus*, and *An. gambiae* (GenBank accession nos. AJ489456, AY762905, AB122152, AJ488492, respectively) was performed using ClustalW (<http://pbil.univ-lyon1.fr/pbil>).

2.3. Determination of *Ace1* genomic DNA sequence

PCR primers were designed based on a partial *Ae. aegypti Ace1* sequence available in GenBank (accession no. AJ428049) using Primer3 (http://frodo.wi.mit.edu/cgi-bin/primer3/primer3_www.cgi). A 204 bp genomic DNA fragment was amplified in a total volume of 25 µl containing 50 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris (pH 9.0), 0.1% Triton X, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 200 µM dNTPs, 2.5 pmol each of forward primer AaAce1-F2 (5'-ATGGTCGGAGATTATCACTTCA) and reverse primer AaAce1-R3 (5'-ATCCTCCATGTACCC-CAGATCA), 5 ng genomic DNA (Liverpool strain) and 1 unit of *Taq* polymerase. PCR conditions were 5 min at 94 °C, followed by 30 cycles of 1 min at 94 °C, 1 min at 62 °C, and 2 min at 72 °C, with a final extension at 72 °C for 10 min. The PCR amplicon was used as a radiolabeled probe to screen an *Ae. aegypti* BAC library (Liverpool strain) as previously described (Jiménez et al., 2004; Severson, 1997). BAC plasmid from one positive clone was isolated and purified following our standard procedures (Jiménez et al., 2004), and was subjected to direct cycle sequencing on both strands by primer walking with gene specific primers and the ABI Prism Big Dye Terminator kit v. 3.1. Sequencing reactions were analyzed using an ABI 310 or ABI 3700 automated sequencer (Perkin-Elmer Applied BioSystems). Sequences were assembled using CAP3 (Huang and Madan, 1999).

BLASTn analysis of the full-length cDNA sequence (see Section 2.2) against the *Ae. aegypti* whole genome sequence assembly (Liverpool-IB12 strain) that became available at The Broad Institute (http://www.broad.mit.edu/annotation/disease_vector/aedes_aegypti/) identified an assembly

(supercontig1.9, GenBank accession no. CH477194) that included the first exon and the large first intron sequences for the complete *Ace1* gene. The first intron contained two gaps of unknown size that spanned three contig assemblies (GenBank accession nos. AAGE02000752, AAGE02000753, AAGE02000754). Gap sequences were determined following PCR amplification of a genomic fragment spanning the gap with specific primers anchored in the linking contig sequences or by isolation and cloning of a restriction fragment containing the gap from the *Ace* gene-containing BAC clone described above.

2.4. *Ace1* gene annotation

The assembled *Ae. aegypti* genomic sequence containing the complete *Ace1* gene was compared to gene build AaegL1.1 annotations on VectorBase (www.vectorbase.org). Repeat sequences were identified using VectorBase and CENSOR (Jurka et al., 1996). The repeat-masked as well as the unmasked sequences were annotated for gene content with GENESCAN 1.0 (Burge and Karlin, 1997) using the vertebrate training data set, and GENEID 1.1 (Parra et al., 2000) using the human and *D. melanogaster* training data set. ESTs corresponding to this genomic region were identified on VectorBase.

2.5. Genetic mapping

Genetic data are based on F₁ intercross progeny ($n = 96$) from pairwise matings between the *Ae. aegypti* RED and MOYO-R strains. The RED strain carried multiple morphological markers including *red-eye* (*re*) on chromosome 1, *spot-abdomen* (*s*) on chromosome 2, and *black-tarsus* (*blt*) on chromosome 3. DNA extractions from individual mosquitoes, digestion with *EcoRI*, Southern blotting and hybridizations were performed as previously described (Severson, 1997). Informative marker loci distributed across the genome were identified by pre-screening individual mosquitoes from both parental strains with a panel of markers selected from the existing genetic map (Severson et al., 2002). For mapping the *Ace1* locus, a PCR amplicon of the *Cx. tritaeniorhynchus* *Ace1* gene was obtained using specific primers (GenBank accession no. AB122152, Forward: 5'-GGAGGA-GAACGTGATCGTGGTT and Reverse: 5'-GATCTT-CCGGCTAAAGTCCTTC), and hybridized as a heterologous probe to Southern blots under low stringency conditions at 65 °C (post-hybridizations washes: 15-min at room temperature followed by 15-min at 65 °C in 2X SSC/0.1% SDS). Multipoint linkage mapping was performed using MAPMAKER/EXP (3.0b) with a minimum LOD threshold of 3.0 (Lander et al., 1987). Map distances were calculated as Kosambi centiMorgans (Kosambi, 1944).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. *Ace1* cDNA

The full-length *Ae. aegypti* *Ace1* cDNA sequence was determined to consist of 2720 bp and contains a 2109 bp open reading frame that encodes the 702 amino acid protein (Fig. 1). The 5'-UTR is 465 bp long, while the 3'UTR is 147 bp and contains two copies of the standard polyadenylation signal (AATAA). The sequence has been deposited in GenBank (accession no. EF209048). The amino acid sequence is 100% identical to that reported by Weill et al. (2004b), (GenBank accession no. AJ621915). The *Ae. aegypti* amino acid sequence is also highly conserved with the *Ace1* homolog in other mosquito species, sharing 93.3% identity with *Cx. pipiens*, 93.3% with *Cx. pipiens pallens*, 90.8% with *Cx. tritaeniorhynchus*, and 79.9% with *An. gambiae* (Fig. 2).

To date, three amino acid substitutions have been associated with insensitive AChE-mediated insecticide resistance in mosquitoes. A G119S substitution (using *Torpedo californica* nomenclature; Toutant, 1989) is associated with resistance in *Cx. pipiens*, *An. gambiae*, and *An. albimanus* (Weill et al., 2003, 2004a), but was not evident among samples of *Ae. aegypti* representing 28 populations collected worldwide (Weill et al., 2004b). The second amino acid substitution associated with insensitive AChE-mediated insecticide resistance in mosquitoes, an F455W substitution (*T. californica* nomenclature), was reported for *Cx. tritaeniorhynchus* (Nabeshima et al., 2004). A third amino acid substitution, F290V, associated with insensitive AChE-mediated insecticide resistance, was recently reported for *Cx. pipiens* (Alout et al., 2007). Weill et al. (2004b) suggested that the G119S substitution is less likely to occur in *Ae. aegypti* due to the observed codon usage (GGA), which requires two independent mutation events to generate a serine codon (applies to TCN or AGY). However, the F455W substitution in *Cx. tritaeniorhynchus* (Nabeshima et al., 2004) does reflect two independent mutation events (TTT to TGG). No broad investigation of *Ace1* polymorphism among *Cx. tritaeniorhynchus* populations has been conducted and, therefore, it is not known whether one or both of the necessary T–G mutations are actively segregating and effect resistance through a single-step mutation process. With *Ae. aegypti* Liverpool strain, codon 119 (TTC) also would require two independent mutations to generate a F455W substitution and possible resistance. Thus, the random likelihood of either the G119S or F455W substitutions seems equally probable in *Ae. aegypti* populations. Of note, the F290V substitution with *Ae. aegypti* requires only a single mutation event (TTT to GTT).

3.2. *Ace1* genomic sequence

Genomic sequence analysis of the *Ae. aegypti* *Ace1* gene was determined from a BAC clone by primer walking and

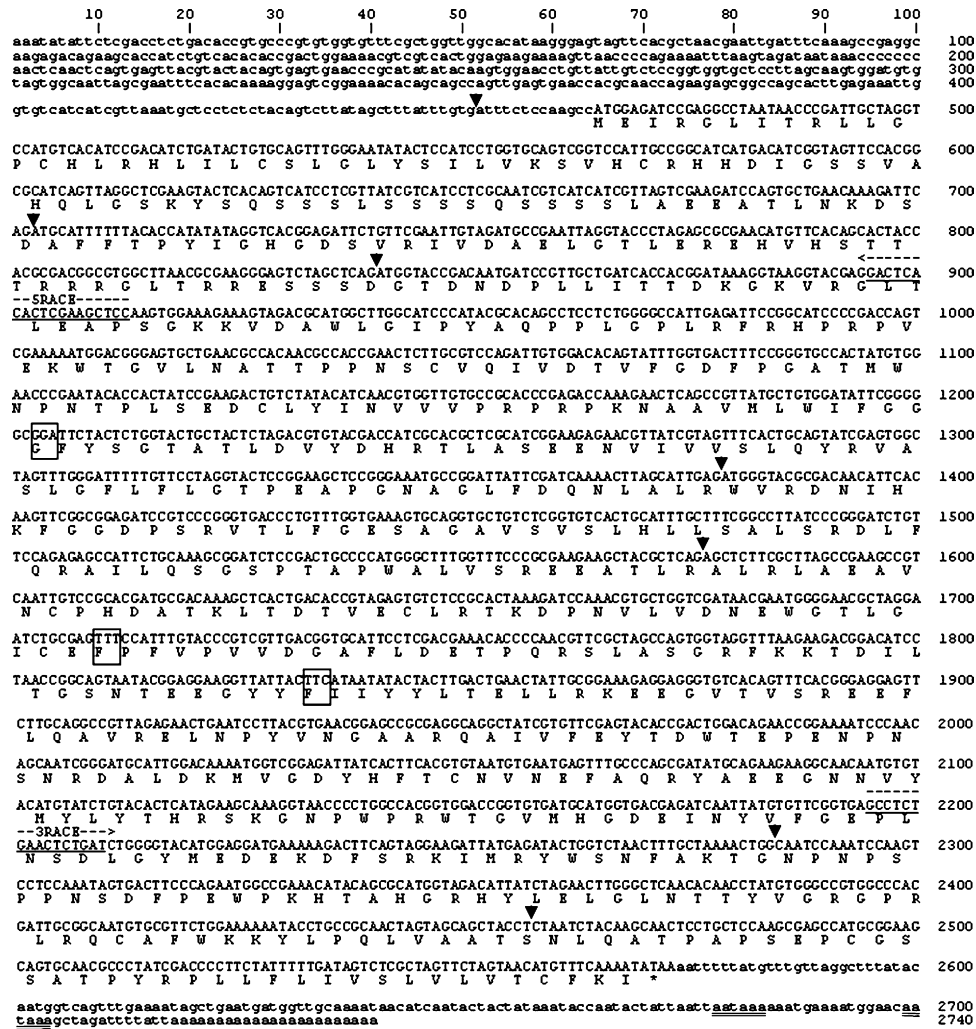


Fig. 1. Sequence and deduced amino acid translation products of the *Ae. aegypti* full-length *Ace1* cDNA. The deduced amino acid sequence is shown under the nucleotide sequence in a single letter code; the poly(A) signal site is underlined; primer sites for 5' and 3' RACE analysis are noted above the sequence; triangles indicate intron positions. Positions for amino acid substitutions associated with insensitive AChE-mediated insecticide resistance are indicated in boxes. The previously described partial *Ace1* cDNAs encompass nucleotides 125,763–126,051 (Genbank accession no. AJ428049) and 114,816–138,413 (Genbank accession no. AJ621915) in the complete genome sequence (Genbank accession no. BK006052). The full-length cDNA sequence has been submitted to Genbank under accession no. EF209048.

genome sequence data that became available at The Broad Institute via the *Ae. aegypti* whole genome sequencing project. We determined that the *Ace1* gene is contained within a 138,970 bp genome region, and consists of eight exons, with seven introns that vary markedly in length from 59 to 114,350 bp (Fig. 3). The exon–intron splice junctions all have the conserved GT-AG motifs (Table 1). The sequence has been deposited in GenBank (accession no. BK006052). The first intron sequence as represented in the *Ae. aegypti* genome assembly (GenBank accession no. CH477194) contained two gaps. We determined that Gap1, which spanned contigs AAGE02000752 and AAGE02000753, was an artifact of the whole genome shotgun sequencing assembly process that reflected misassembly of repetitive sequence that linked the two contigs. Correct sequence orientation was determined only following sequence analysis of a BAC subclone containing the

putative Gap1 region. For Gap2, which spanned contigs AAGE02000753 and AAGE02000754, we were able to design unique primers spanning the gap, and direct PCR product sequencing determined that the gap sequence consisted of only 19 bp. Here too, the gap in sequence assembly was likely a consequence of the complex repetitive nature of the genome in that region. Of note regarding gap closure, our efforts were greatly hampered by the difficulty in identifying single copy genome sequence in the regions, which made even identification of suitable PCR primer sequences problematic. This is a likely characteristic of most gaps in the *Ae. aegypti* genome assembly, as ~68% of the sequence consists of known transposable elements and other interspersed repeat sequences (Nene et al., 2007).

Comparison of the *Ae. aegypti* genome sequence to that for the *An. gambiae* *Ace1* homolog revealed considerable

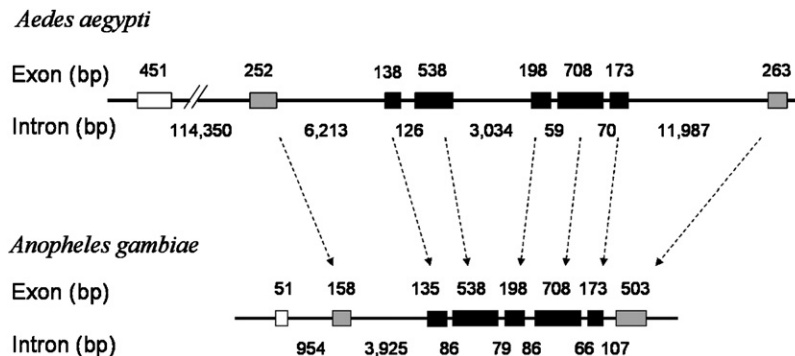
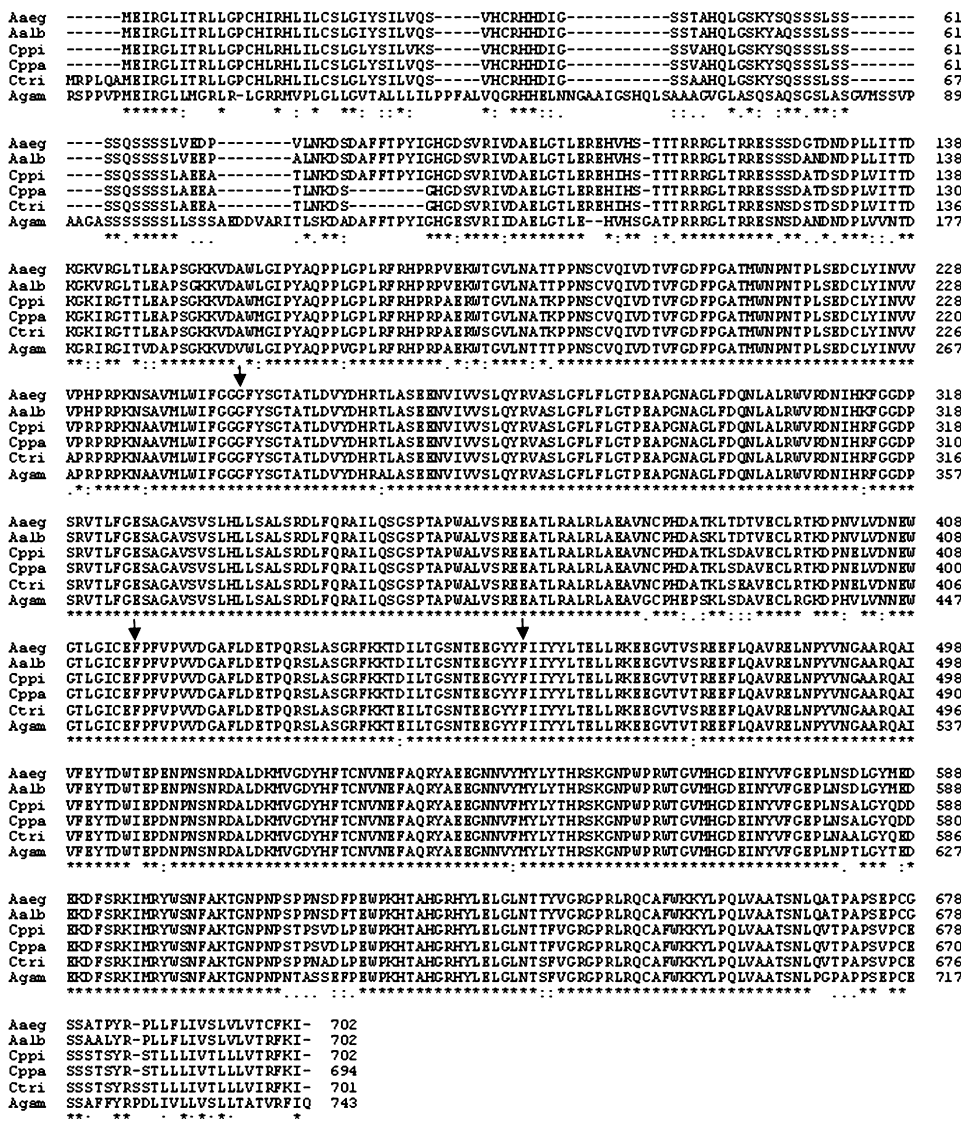


Fig. 3. Comparative genomic structure of the *Ae. aegypti* and *An. gambiae* *Acel* genes. Exon 1 is noncoding in both species. Exon 2 contains the start codon (ATG) and exhibits partial amino acid conservation between species. Exons 3–7 are highly conserved between species. Exon 8 contains the stop codon and exhibits partial amino acid conservation between species.

Table 1
Exon–intron junctions of the *Ace1* gene

No.	Exon size (bp)	Splice-donor	Intron size (bp)	Splice-acceptor
1	451	–14 TTGTG gt gagtaatg	114898	–13 tcagtt gcag ATTCT
2	251	238 GATTCAG g taattacca asp ser asp	6213	239 aatttt tcag ATGCATTT ala phe
3	138	376 AGCTCAG gt gagatcgg ser ser asp	126	377 aacatt tcag ATGGTACC gly thr
4	538	914 GCATTGAG gt gagtgaaa ala leu arg	3034	915 ataatt ctag ATGGGTA trp val
5	198	1112 ACGCTCAG g taagaacta thr leu arg	59	1113 tattcc acag AGCTCTT ala leu
6	708	1820 AAA ACTGG gtaagttat lys thr gly	70	1821 gtcttt atag CAATCCA asn pro
7	173	1993 GCTACCT g taagtttc ala thr ser	11987	1994 ttcttt tcag CTAATCTA asn leu
8	116	2109 AAAATATA A aattttat lys ile		

Coding sequences are shown in uppercase letters and noncoding regions in lower case letters. The conserved GT/AG exon/intron junctions are shown in bold. Amino acid codons split by exon/intron junctions are underlined. Amino acid residues are indicated with respect to each boundary and the stop codon (TAA) is indicated by italics. Numbers refer to the corresponding positions in the *Ace1* cDNA starting with +1 at the adenosine defining the initiation codon ATG.

conservation among most exons, but extensive divergence in intron structure that reflects overall genome contrasts between the two species (Fig. 3). At the amino acid level, exons 3–7 are largely conserved in size and content, while exons 2 and 8 share only 34.2% and 51.3% sequence identity, respectively. The *Ace1* gene in *An. gambiae* is contained within a 7767 bp genome region; therefore, the *Ae. aegypti* genome sequence is ca. 17.8-fold larger. This difference is due to the presence of three large introns in the *Ae. aegypti* gene, ranging from ca. 3–115 kb, in contrast to the fairly consistent intron size of ca. 100 bp in the *An. gambiae* gene. This is undoubtedly reflective of the overall differences in genome organization of the two species, as the *An. gambiae* genome size is ca. 243 Mbp, while *Ae. aegypti* is about 5-fold larger at ca. 1.31 Gbp. Most of this difference is due to the high frequency of repetitive sequences in the *Ae. aegypti* genome (Nene et al., 2007).

3.3. *Ace1* annotation

Annotation of the *Ae. aegypti Ace1* 138,970 bp genome sequence (Fig. 4) provided insight into the basis for the increased gene size compared to *An. gambiae* and reflects problems affecting annotation accuracy in the *Ae. aegypti* genome sequencing project (Nene et al., 2007). The sequence was compared to the *Ae. aegypti* genome assembly *in silico* gene build (AaegL1.1) at VectorBase to see if the entire *Ace1* gene was identified and annotated

correctly, as well as if there were any other genes or known repetitive elements present within the introns. The VectorBase gene Q6A2E2_AEDAE (AAEL000511) represented most of the *Ace1* gene with the exception of the 5' exon, which was not identified. In addition, two *ab initio* gene prediction programs that we tested (GENESCAN 1.0 and GENEID 1.1) did not correctly identify the entire *Ace1* gene (data not shown). Although both correctly identified most of the *Ace1* exons, they were incorrectly assembled as representing multiple genes, and the 3' exon was missed by both programs. These observations are likely a consequence of the large introns and the unusually large number of interspersed repetitive element ORFs present in the introns. Repetitive elements identified with CENSOR (Jurka et al., 1996) coincided with those seen on VectorBase. All these were present within introns and the most abundant of these was *Feilai* (Tu, 1999). Finally, no additional genes were identified within the *Ace1* genomic sequence.

3.4. *Ace1* genome location

The *Ae. aegypti Ace1* locus was mapped to a region on the *p*-arm of chromosome 3 between the LF106 and LF386 loci (Fig. 5). In comparison, the *Ace2* locus is located on chromosome 1 and is tightly linked with the sex determination locus (Severson et al., 1997). The *Ace1* homolog in *Cx. tritaeniorhynchus* (listed as *Ace2*;

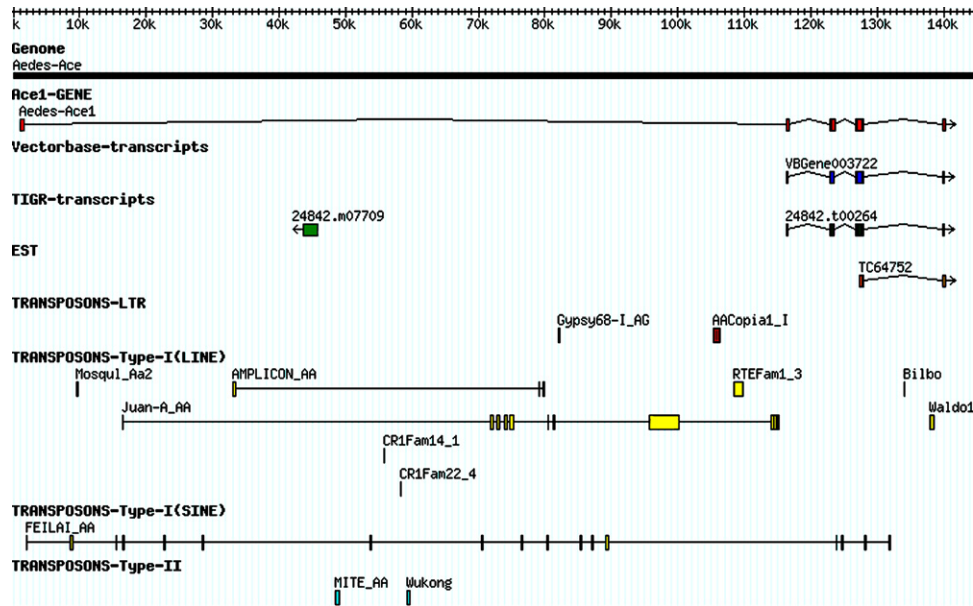


Fig. 4. *In silico* annotation of the *Ae. aegypti Ace1* genome sequence. Comparison of the *Aedes Ace1* genomic region to the genome assembly and gene build (AAegL1.1) indicates that the 5' exon was missed. Two ESTs correspond to the 3' end of the gene. Introns contain various transposons.

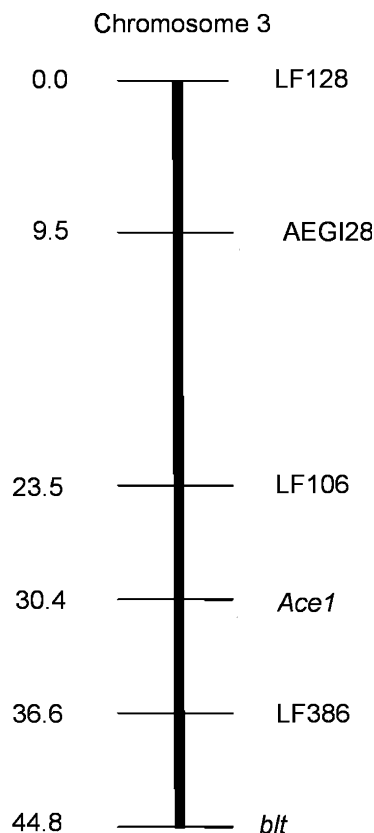


Fig. 5. Genetic map position of the *Ae. aegypti Ace1* locus. Map distances are in Kosambi centiMorgans (Kosambi, 1944).

Nabeshima et al., 2004) and likely also in *Cx. pipiens* (Malcolm et al., 1998) is located in the orthologous genome region, although the two *Culex* spp. reflect whole chromosome arm translocations that involve a breakpoint between

the LF106 and LF386 loci when compared to *Ae. aegypti* (Mori et al., 1999, 2001). The *Ace1* homolog in *Cx. tritaeniorhynchus* is linked with the chromosome arm containing the LF106 locus. Similarly, the *Ace1* homolog in *An. gambiae* is located on chromosome 2R; this chromosome arm carries the genome region orthologous to the *Ae. aegypti* p-arm of chromosome 3 (Severson et al., 2004). As previously suggested, the multiple *Ace* genes identified in some insects likely arose due to gene duplication (Gao et al., 2002). Our results indicate that this event occurred prior to the evolution of the mosquito subfamily (Culicinae and Anophelinae) lineages that split about 150 million years ago (Krzywinski et al., 2006).

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