A Highly Contiguous Genome Assembly of a Polyphagous Predatory Mite *Stratiolaelaps scimitus* (Womersley) (Acari: Laelapidae)

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Abstract

As a polyphagous soil-dwelling predatory mite, *Stratiolaelaps scimitus* (Womersley) (Acari: Laelapidae), formerly known as *Stratiolaelaps miles* (Berlese), is native to the Northern hemisphere and preys on soil invertebrates, including fungus gnats, springtails, thrips nymphs, nematodes, and other species of mites. Already mass-produced and commercialized in North America, Europe, Oceania and China, *S. scimitus* will highly likely be introduced to other countries and regions as a biocontrol agent against edaphic pests in the near future. The introduction, however, can lead to unexpected genetic changes within populations of biological control agents, which might decrease the efficacy of pest management or increase the risks to local environments. To better understand the genetic basis of its biology and behavior, we sequenced and assembled the draft genome of *S. scimitus* using the PacBio Sequel platform II. We generated ~150× (64.81 Gb) PacBio long reads with an average read length of 12.60 kb. Reads longer than 5 kb were assembled into contigs, resulting in the final assembly of 158 contigs with an N50 length of 7.66 Mb, and captured 93.1% of the BUSCO (Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs) gene set (n = 1,066). We identified 16.39% (69.91 Mb) repetitive elements, 1,686 noncoding RNAs, and 13,305 protein-coding genes, which represented 95.8% BUSCO completeness. Combining analyses of genome family evolution and function enrichment of gene ontology and pathway, a total of 135 families experienced significant expansions, which were mainly involved in digestion, detoxification, immunity, and venom. Major expansions of the detoxification enzymes, that is, P450s and carboxylesterases, suggest a possible genetic mechanism underlying polyphagy and ecological adaptions. Our high-quality genome assembly and annotation provide new insights on the evolutionary biology, soil ecology, and biological control for predaceous mites.

Key words: Laelapidae, genome annotation, comparative genomics, gene family evolution, detoxification.

Significance

Recently, *Stratiolaelaps scimitus* has been revealed as a potential biocontrol agent against edaphic pests of agricultural importance. To date, 32 Acari genomes, including 21 mites and 11 ticks have been public. A total of 135 families experienced significant expansions, which were mainly involved in digestion, detoxification, immunity, and venom. Major expansions of the detoxification enzymes, that is, P450s and carboxylesterases, suggest a possible genetic mechanism underlying polyphagy and ecological adaptions. Our high-quality genome assembly and annotation provide new insights on the evolutionary biology, soil ecology, and biological control for predaceous mites.
Introduction

The family Laelapidae comprises a multitude of morphologically and behaviorally diverse mesostigmatic mites that are free living or associated with arthropods, mammals, or birds (Lindquist et al. 2009). Some laelapid mites, especially the subfamily Hypoaspisinae, show important potential for use as biological control agents against agricultural pests, such as *Stratioedaphus scimitus* (Womersley). This species which often appears to have been confused with *S. miles* (Berlese) and has been distinguished from the later based on comparisons of mitochondrial DNA sequences and morphological analysis (Walter and Campbell 2003; Yan et al. 2020). In nature, *S. scimitus* is broadly distributed throughout the Holarctic, and with it is widely marketed for use in mushroom house and greenhouse production systems to manage pests (Walter and Campbell 2003; Xie et al. 2018). Additionally, *S. scimitus* can prey on some pests, including soil-pupating western flower thrips (Thysanoptera: Thripidae) and funguss gnats (Diptera: Sciaridae) in mushroom production facilities, and bulb mites (Acari: Astigmata) on lilies (Cabrera et al. 2005). Recently, *S. scimitus* has been studied for the potential as a biocontrol agent against other edaphic pests, such as *Bradyssia odoriphaga* Yang and Zhang (Diptera: Sciaridae) (Xie et al. 2018; Zhou et al. 2018). This revealed the potential for *S. scimitus* to be used against soil-inhabiting pest of agricultural importance. High-quality genomes could facilitate studies of biology, evolutionary biology, and molecular mechanisms in adaptions to environmental changes. To date, 32 Acari genomes, including 21 mites and 11 ticks (Ixodidae), have been public (NCBI, GenBank) (36.114 N, 117.064 E) in May, 2017, and was bred for more than 23 generations in our lab. A total of 100, 100, 1, 200 females were prepared for Illumina whole-genome, Genome Biol. Evol. 13(3) doi:10.1093/gbe/evab011 Advance Access publication 2 February 2021

Genome Assembly

We performed genome survey based on short-read k-mer distributions using GenomeScope v1.0.0 (Vurture et al. 2017). K-mer frequencies was estimated with 21-mers using khist.sh (one of the BBTools suite), and maximum k-mer coverage cutoffs were set as 1,000 and 5,000.

Preliminary genome was assembled using Flye v2.6 (Kolmogorov et al. 2019) with a minimum overlap between reads of 1,000 and two rounds of self-polishing (“-r1 1000 -i 2”). Redundant contigs were removed using PurgeHaplotigs v1.1.0 (Roach et al. 2018) with a cutoff of 60 for identifying a contig as a haplotig (“-a 60”). Nonredundant assembly was polished with short reads using two rounds of NextPolish v1.1.0 (Hu et al. 2020). Minimap2 v2.12 (Li 2018) was used as read aligner during all Flye and NextPolishing steps. Potential contaminant sequences were inspected with HS-BlastN (Chen et al. 2015) and BlastN v2.7.1 (Camacho et al. 2009) against the NCBI nucleotide (nt) and UniVec databases. Genome completeness was assessed using Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs (BUSCO) v3.0.2 pipeline (Waterhouse et al. 2018) against arthropod reference gene set (n = 1,066).

Genome Annotation

The essential genomic elements, that is, repetitive elements, ncRNAs, and protein-coding genes, were annotated for *S. scimitus*. We masked the repeats in the genome using RepeatMasker v4.0.9 (Smit et al. 2013–2015) based on a custom library, which combined RepBase-20181026 database (Bao et al. 2015), Dfam_3.1 (Hubley et al. 2016), and a de novo species-specific library. The de novo repeat library was generated using RepeatModeler v2.0.1 (Flynn et al. 2020). ncRNAs were identified using Infernal v1.1.2 (Nawrocki and Eddy 2013) and tRNAscan-SE v2.0.6 (Chan and Lowe 2019) with only tRNAs of high confidence selected by tRNAscan-SE script “EuKHighConfidenceFilter.”

Protein-coding gene models were predicted by MAKER v2.31.10 pipeline (Holt and Yandell 2011), which integrated ab initio, transcriptome- and protein homology-based evidence. Ab initio predictions, as well as gene model training, were constructed using BRAKER v2.1.5 pipeline (Hoff et al. 2015).
and passed to MAKER. BRAKER trained Augustus v3.3.2 (Stanke et al. 2004) and GeneMark-ES/ET/EP 4.48_3.60_ltc (Lomsadze et al. 2005) from transcriptomic data and OrthoDB protein database (Kriventseva et al. 2019) and automatically generated gene structure annotations in the genome. Input transcriptomic alignments were generated with HISAT2 v2.2.0 (Kim et al. 2019). For the transcriptomic evidence required by MAKER, we assembled transcripts with genome-guided assembler StringTie v2.1.2 (Kovaka et al. 2019). Protein sequences of Drosophila melanogaster, Daphnia pulex, kodes scapularis, Tetranychus urticae, Galendromus occidentalis, and Varroa destructor were downloaded from the NCBI as the protein homology information was used in MAKER. Gene functions were assigned to MAKER-derived gene models using Diamond v0.9.24 (Buchfink et al. 2015) against the UniProtKB database with the sensitive mode “-momore-sensitive -e 1e-5.” We also annotated protein domains, Gene Ontology (GO), and pathways (KEGG, Reactome) using InterProScan 5.41-78.0 (Finn et al. 2017) against Pfam (El-Gebali et al. 2019), Gene3D (Lewis et al. 2018), Superfamily (Wilson et al. 2009), and CDD (Marchler-Bauer et al. 2017) databases, and using eggNOG-mapper v2.0 (Huerta-Cepas et al. 2017) against the eggNOGv5.0 database (Huerta-Cepas et al. 2019).

Gene Family Evolution

We inferred orthogroups of 11 Chelicerata species using OrthoFinder v2.3.8 (Emms and Kelly 2019) covering representative Chelicerata lineages: Merostomata (Tachypleus tridentatus), Scorpiones (Centuroioides sculpturatus), Araneae (Stegodyphus mimosarum), Acanformes (Tetranychus urticae, Dermatophagoides pteronyssinus), and Parasitiformes (kodes scapularis, Galendromus occidentalis, Tropilaelaps mercedensis, Varroa destructor, Varroa jacobsoni, and S. scimitus). Most protein sequences were downloaded from the NCBI except for T. tridentatus (doi: 10.5061/dryad.68pk1kv). Single-copy orthologs inferred from OrthoFinder were used for phylogenetic analyses. Protein sequences were aligned using MAFFT v7.394 (Katoh and Standley 2013) with the L-INS-i strategy, trimmed using trimAl v1.4.1 (Capella-Gutiérrez et al. 2009) with the heuristic method “automated1” and concatenated using FAsconCAT-G v1.04 (Kück and Longo 2013) with the phylogenic tree was estimated using IQ-TREE v2.0.1-c1 (Minh et al. 2020) with the partitioning strategy (“-m mFP -mset LG -msub nuclear -rclusterf 10 8 1000 7 1000 7 100”) genes that violate models were also removed prior tree inference (“-symtest-remove-bad -symtest-pval 0.10”). Species divergence time was estimated using Markov chain Monte Carlo Tree of the PAML v4.9j package (Yang 2007). Fossil calibrations were extracted from the PBDB database (https://www.paleobiodb.org/navigator/): Scorpiones (430.5–443.8 Ma), Arachnida (407.6–419.2 Ma), and Chelicerata (516–541 Ma). Gene family evolution, that is, expansions and contractions, was estimated using CAFÉ v4.2.1 (Han et al. 2013) with the single birth–death parameter lambda. Those significantly expanded families were functionally enriched (GO and KEGG) using R package clusterProfiler v3.10.1 (Yu et al. 2012) with the default significance values (P value as 0.01 and q value as 0.05).

**Results and Discussion**

**Genome Assembly and Annotation**

We generated 64.81 Gb (152×) PacBio long reads and 75.55 Gb (177×) Illumina short reads for assembly. The long PacBio subreads had a mean and N50 length of 12.60 kb and 15.53 kb, respectively. We estimated a genome size of 411.22–424.59 Mb, a heterozygosity rate of 0.062–0.068% and a repeat length of 18.27–31.45 Mb (4.44–7.41%)(supplementary table S1, Supplementary Material online). A single simple peak implied that the S. scimitus genome had a low level of heterozygosity and repetitive content (supplementary fig. S1, Supplementary Material online).

Our final draft assembly had 158 scaffolds/contigs of 426.50 Mb, a scaffold/contig N50 length of 7.66 Mb, the longest sequence of 31.29 Mb, and a Guanine-Cytosine content of 45.85%. It has the highest contiguity quality compared with five public Mesostigmata genomes. Assembly size was almost identical with the estimated ones. BUSCO assessment against arthropod set (n = 1,066) revealed the high completeness and very low redundancy of our assembly: 93.1%
We identified 16.39% (69.91 Mb) of the genome as repetitive elements. The top five abundant repeat categories were unclassified (4.73%), Long Interspersed Nuclear Elements (LINEs) (4.50%), DNA elements (2.70%), simple repeats (2.49%), and long terminal repeat (1.73%); SINE hold a very low proportion (0.06%) (supplementary table S2, Supplementary Material online). A total of 1,686 ncRNAs were identified by Infernal and tRNAscan: 257 rRNAs, 112 small nuclear RNAs (snRNAs), 16 miRNAs, 2 long ncRNAs (lncRNAs), 1 small RNA (sRNA), 1,215 tRNAs (22 isotypes), and 81 other ncRNAs (supplementary table S3, Supplementary Material online). Among 112 snRNAs, 96 were classified as spliceosomal RNAs (U1, U2, U4, U5, U6, U11), 3 minor spliceosomal RNAs (U4atac, U6atac, U12), and 10 C/D box snoRNAs; H/ACA box snoRNAs were not discovered.

MAKER pipeline predicted 13,305 protein-coding gene models. The mean lengths of genes, exons, and introns complete, 1.9% complete and duplicated, 1.5% fragmented, and 5.4% missing BUSCO genes.

FIG. 1.—Phylogeny, orthologs, and gene family evolution. (a) Dating tree with node values representing the number of expanded, contracted, and rapidly evolving families. “1:1:1” represents shared single-copy genes, “N:N:N” as multicopy genes shared by all species, “Mesostigmata” as shared orthologs unique to Mesostigmata, “Others” as unclassified orthologs, “Unassigned” as orthologs which cannot be assigned into any gene families (orthogroups). (b) The top 25 significantly expanded families with number as the number of genes within the family. Nodes lacking bootstrap support indicated the values of SH-alrt and ultrafast bootstrap are 100/100. The y axis means number of genes.
Fig. 2.—GO (a) and KEGG (b) function enrichment of significantly expanded gene families. Only the top 20 categories shown.
were 7,870.13, 372.35, and 1,105.66 bp, respectively. BUSCO completeness assessment using protein mode “-m prot” identified 95.8% complete, 2.3% complete and duplicated, 0.9% fragmented, and 3.3% missing BUSCO genes (table 1), implying the high completeness of our predicted gene set. BUSCO completeness against predicted genes was slightly higher than assessment against genome assembly. It indicated the Augustus-based gene prediction under genome mode within BUSCO pipeline may had weaker capability of capturing complete genes using the default fly gene model training parameters. Diamond searches aligned 11,687 (87.84%) genes to the Uniprot proteins. InterproScan and eggNOG functional annotations assigned protein domains of 10,248 (77.02%) genes; 8,943 GO terms; 7,147 KEGG ko terms; 2,576 Enzyme Codes; 4,422 KEGG and 4,083 Reactome pathways; and 9,453 COG categories, respectively.

Phylogeny
A total of 89.1% (183,669) genes were clustered into 18,319 orthogroups (gene families). Among them, 3,161 families were shared by all 11 species and 399 are single-copy ones; orthogroups (gene families). Among them, 3,161 families and 6,309 orthologs are common to five Mesostigmata species (fig. 1a). For S. scimitus, 12,274 (92.25%) genes were assigned into 9,296 orthogroups; 571 families and 3,672 genes were species specific.

Thirty-nine single-copy loci were removed by IQ-TREE “symtest” prior to formal phylogenetic analyses. Phylogenetic reconstruction based on 360 single-copy loci revealed that S. scimitus were clustered with other four Mesostigmata species and were sistered to Varroa (Varroidae) rather than Tropilaelaps mercedesae (Laelapidae), questioning the current classification of Varroidae and Laelapidae. Considering that many members of both families acted as parasites associated with honeybees. Varroa is possibly the ingroup of Laelapidae. Mesostigmata, Dermanyssoidea, and S. scimitus originated from early Cretaceous (132–142 Ma), early Paleocene (65–70 Ma), and middle Eocene (44–48 Ma), respectively (fig. 1a). The emergence of these Parasitiformes mites may be related to the pervasive reptiles, birds, mammals, and insects since Cretaceous.

Gene Family Evolution
We identified 221 rapidly evolving gene families using CAFÉ, 135 and 86 of them experiencing significant expansions and contractions, respectively (fig. 1a). The top 25 largest expanded families were shown in figure 1b. Many of them are related to dietary digestion and detoxification, such as cytochrome P450, ABC transporter, carboxylesterase, trypsin, cathepsin L, long-chain fatty acid transport protein, lipase, tyrophorulin, salivary protein, and salivary gland protein. It explains the possible mechanism of this wide family, cytochrome P450, obviously plays an important role in digestion and detoxification by contributing to xenobiotic metabolism, insecticide resistance, odorant, or pheromone metabolism (Feyereisen 2005). Interestingly, toxin-related proteins, that is, cysteine-rich secretory protein family referred from Pfam annotations, may be helpful for predatory progress by inhibiting both smooth muscle contraction and cyclic nGated ion channels (Yamazaki and Morita 2004). GO (fig. 2a) and KEGG (fig. 2b) enrichment further confirmed above hypotheses, most categories related to digestion and detoxification, such as GO terms monooxygenase activity, lipid hydroxylation, and KEGG pathways steroid hormone biosynthesis, metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450, vitamin digestion and absorption, ABC transporters, and ovarian steroidogenesis, etc. Gene family evolution provides essential evidence, supporting genetic mechanisms of polyphagy and ecological adaptions for S. scimitus.

Supplementary Material
Supplementary data are available at Genome Biology and Evolution online.

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Data Availability
Raw sequencing data and genome assembly have been deposited at the NCBI under the accessions SRR12214311–SRR12214313 and JABWDB00000000, respectively. Genome annotations are available at the Figshare under the link https://figshare.com/account/home#upload.

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