MGDrivE 3: A decoupled vector-human framework for epidemiological simulation of mosquito genetic control tools and their surveillance

S1 Text: Description of the modeling framework

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Malaria transmission model ¹

Malaria transmission is a complex process involving dynamics between host, parasite ² and vector, with influence from the environment. While the dynamics of MGDrivE $[1]$ 3 and MGDrivE 2 [\[2\]](#page-5-1) focus on vector dynamics, several models are available that focus on ⁴ pathogen transmission in the host $[3, 4]$ $[3, 4]$. In MGDrivE 3, we incorporate an adapted version of the Imperial College London (ICL) malaria transmission model [\[4\]](#page-6-0), as it ⁶ represents a suitable level of parsimony and has been fitted to extensive malaria data ⁷ sets throughout sub-Saharan Africa. The ICL malaria model contains several important components:

- 1. Time and age-structured equations describing the movement of humans into ¹⁰ various disease states; 11
- 2. Equilibrium distribution based on baseline entomological innoculation rate (EIR) 12 and age structure of the population; and 13
- 3. Population-level immunity functions which modulate various infection ¹⁴ probabilities.

The state space is modeled as a set of partial differential equations (PDEs). The 16 infection states are: susceptible (S), treated symptomatic disease (T), untreated 17 symptomatic disease (D) , asymptomatic infection that is detectable by rapid diagnostic $\frac{18}{18}$ test (RDT) (A) , sub-patent infection that is undetectable by RDT (U), and 19 post-treatment prophylaxis (P) . The force of infection on humans (which depends on \sim 20 the EIR) is denoted Λ , the probability that symptoms develop after an infectious 21 challenge is denoted Φ , and the fraction of clinical cases that receive effective treatment 22 is denoted f_T . The set of human state PDEs is shown below, with a representing age 23 and t representing time. $\frac{24}{t}$

$$
\frac{\partial S}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial S}{\partial a} = -\Lambda S + \frac{P}{d_P} + \frac{U}{d_U}
$$

$$
\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial a} = \Phi f_T \Lambda (S + A + U) - \frac{T}{d_T}
$$

$$
\frac{\partial D}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial D}{\partial a} = \Phi (1 - f_T) \Lambda (S + A + U) - \frac{D}{d_D}
$$

$$
\frac{\partial A}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial A}{\partial a} = (1 - \Phi) \Lambda (S + U) + \frac{D}{d_D} - \Phi \Lambda A - \frac{A}{d_A}
$$

$$
\frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial a} = \frac{A}{d_A} - \frac{U}{d_U} - \Lambda U
$$

$$
\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial P}{\partial a} = \frac{T}{d_T} - \frac{P}{d_P}
$$

Here, d_i indicates the mean duration of state *i*. Additionally, the model includes four $\frac{1}{25}$ forms of population-level immunity: ²⁶

- Pre-erythrocytic immunity, I_B , reduces the probability of infection if bitten by an 27 infectious mosquito; 28
- Acquired and maternal clinical immunity, I_{CA} and I_{CM} , represent the effects of 29 blood stage immunity in reducing the probability of developing clinical symptoms; $\frac{30}{20}$ and $\overline{31}$
- Detection immunity, I_D , represents the effect of blood stage immunity in reducing $\frac{32}{2}$ the detectability of an infection and onward transmission to mosquitoes. $\frac{33}{2}$

The PDEs describing immunity are below. Note that ε represents the EIR, u_i limits the \sim 34 rate at which immunity can be boosted at high exposure for immunity state i, and d_i 35 determines the duration of immunity for immunity state i .

$$
\frac{\partial I_B}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial I_B}{\partial a} = \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon u_B + 1} - \frac{I_B}{d_B}
$$

$$
\frac{\partial I_{CA}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial I_{CA}}{\partial a} = \frac{\Lambda}{\Lambda u_c + 1} - \frac{I_{CA}}{d_{CA}}
$$

$$
\frac{\partial I_{CM}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial I_{CM}}{\partial a} = \frac{-I_{CM}}{d_{CM}}
$$

$$
\frac{\partial I_D}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial a} = \frac{\Lambda}{\Lambda u_d + 1} - \frac{I_D}{d_D}
$$

Each immunity function is transformed to a reduction in the appropriate infection $\frac{37}{20}$ probability via a Hill function.

Instead of numerically solving the PDEs directly, we first discretize the model by age $\frac{39}{2}$ category and biting heterogeneity. To discretize by age, we augment each infection state ⁴⁰ by an age category. For example, if we had two age categories 0-10 years and 10-100 ⁴¹ years, then we would have susceptible compartments S_1 and S_2 , where S_1 contains the $\frac{42}{5}$ people in the 0-10 year category and S_2 contains the people in the 10-100 year category. \rightarrow This would apply for all infection states. In addition, each compartment contains a rate ⁴⁴ at which people age and therefore move between age compartments. ⁴⁵ Then, each PDE becomes a discrete ODE representing an age compartment. For ⁴⁶ $\exp(-\sec(\theta))$ and $\cos(\theta)$ are $\sin(\theta)$ and $\sin(\theta)$ and $\$

$$
\frac{dS_i}{dt} = -\Lambda S_i + \frac{P_i}{d_P} + \frac{U_i}{d_U} - \eta_i S_i + \eta_{i-1} S_{i-1}
$$

gives the rate equation for the susceptible (S) state for age category i where η_i gives the aging rate from $S_i \longrightarrow S_{i+1}$ and similarly η_{i-1} gives the aging rate from $S_{i-1} \longrightarrow S_i$. For the youngest age group, the $\eta_{i-1}S_{i-1}$ term would be left out, and for the oldest age so group, the $\eta_i S_i$ term would be left out.

One implementation note is that the model assumes a fixed latent period of 12 days 52 after an infectious challenge from a mosquito, after which either symptoms develop or $\frac{53}{100}$ an asymptomatic infection proceeds. Because of this fixed delay, the equations are ⁵⁴ technically formulated as "delay differential equations," where the current state depends 55 $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}$ on the previous state.

To initialize the distribution of disease and immunity states, the model takes as input $\frac{5}{57}$ the baseline EIR, the age structure of the population, the proportion of treated cases, $\frac{58}{100}$ and baseline entomological parameters. Some of the mosquito life cycle parameters will ⁵⁹ vary in the presence of interventions, which will be described in the next section. $\frac{60}{2}$

Finally, an important novel contribution of this work incorporates a model for $\frac{61}{100}$ genotype-specific transmission probabilities. In the gene drive context, it is important ϵ to understand how mosquitoes modified with a certain allele can affect disease 63 transmission. In the traditional context [\[5\]](#page-6-2), force of infection on humans (λ_H) is proportional to the EIR (ε) and the probability of successful infection upon biting (b) . 65 In the ICL malaria model, the force of infection is expanded to include a term 66 corresponding to pre-erythrocytic immunity (I_B) : $\qquad \qquad \text{or}$

$$
\lambda_H \propto \varepsilon b I_B
$$

In our adapted model, we allow for varying transmission probabilities depending on the ϵ_{68} genotype distribution of circulating mosquitoes in the model. For example, we may ⁶⁹ consider a gene drive system in which the homozygous transgenic mosquito (denoted η "HH") confers perfect infection blocking such that $b_{HH} = 0$, and where wildtype η mosquitoes (denoted "WW") have an infection probability of 0.55 ($b_{WW} = 0.55$). Then, τ to calculate the total infection probability for any time point, t , we take the weighted $\frac{73}{20}$ average over the circulating proportion of infectious mosquitoes of each genotype $(p_{HH} - p_{HH})$ and p_{WW}) at time t, i.e.: $\frac{1}{75}$

$$
b(t) = p_{WW}(t)b_{WW} + p_{HH}(t)b_{HH}
$$

More generally, for a genotype set \mathcal{G} , we have the total infection probability as the $\frac{76}{6}$ weighted average: $\frac{77}{27}$

$$
b(t) = \sum_{g \in \mathcal{G}} p_g(t) b_g
$$

where $p_g(t)$ represents the population frequency of mosquitoes having genotype g at $\frac{1}{78}$ time t, and b_g represents the infection probability for genotype g. With all of the above $\frac{79}{20}$ components in place, the epidemiology model is fully specified.

\mathbf{Epidem} iological outcomes $\mathbf{E}\text{ind}_{\mathbf{E}}$

In this modeling framework, it is important to specify the epidemiological outcomes of $\frac{82}{2}$ interest. Generally, we are interested in clinical incidence of disease, which refers to the $\frac{83}{100}$

. ⁴⁹

number of new symptomatic cases per day, and P . falciparum pathogen prevalence $\frac{1}{84}$ $(PfPr)$, which refers to the proportion of the population harboring the malaria pathogen, whether symptomatic or asymptomatic. Because our model is age-structured, so we can consider these outcomes for different age categories. Malaria outcomes are often $\frac{1}{87}$ more severe for younger individuals $[6]$, so it makes sense to consider incidence and $\frac{88}{88}$ prevalence for younger age groups (e.g., 0-2 years) in order to better understand how $\frac{89}{90}$ gene drive interventions will mitigate these cases. Additionally, we can consider all-ages $\frac{90}{2}$ prevalence and incidence to understand how the intervention will perform in the entire ⁹¹ p population. $\frac{92}{2}$

Mathematically, we define $PfPr$ as the sum of all individuals in infectious disease states: $\frac{93}{2}$ symptomatic and treated (T) , symptomatic and untreated (D) , asymptomatic patent $\frac{94}{94}$ infection (A) , and asymptomatic subpatent infection (U) . Therefore, the all-ages (often $\overline{}$ denoted by the subscript 0-99 to denote the entire lifespan in years) pathogen prevalence at a given time point, t , is given by: $\frac{97}{97}$

$$
PfPr_{[0-99]}(t) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} (A_a(t) + U_a(t) + D_a(t) + T_a(t))
$$

where A is the set of all age compartments. Similarly, the 0-2 years $PfPr$ is given by: $\qquad \qquad$

$$
PfPr_{[0-2]}(t) = A_{[0-2]}(t) + U_{[0-2]}(t) + D_{[0-2]}(t) + T_{[0-2]}(t)
$$

As for clinical incidence, we first define some parameters: 100

- ϕ : the probability of acquiring clinical disease upon infection (proportional to ϕ immunity levels via a Hill function); 102
- λ_H : the force of infection on humans (linearly proportional to the EIR, ε); and 103
- Y: the sum of non-clinical disease states, susceptible (S) , asymptomatic patent 104 infection (A) , and subpatent infection (U) .

Then we can define the all-ages clinical incidence as: $\frac{106}{200}$

$$
CI_{[0-99]}(t) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \phi_a(t) \lambda_{H,a}(t) Y_a(t)
$$

and the $0-2$ years clinical incidence as: 107

$$
CI_{[0-2]}(t) = \phi_{[0-2]}(t)\lambda_{H,[0-2]}(t)Y_{[0-2]}(t)
$$

Generally, we are interested in these outcomes with respect to their baseline or 108 pre-intervention values. In our analyses, we will calculate the reduction in prevalence ¹⁰⁹ and clinical incidence as our outcomes of interest. As we will be running many 110 stochastic repetitions of the simulation for a given parameter set, the mean reduction $\frac{1}{111}$ over the repetition set and simulation timespan will be used. Note that in this ¹¹² formulation, each disease state is a proportion, with all disease states summing to 1. If μ instead we wish to model a population of N_H humans, then we would simply divide 114 each outcome by N_H to obtain the proportional value. 115

$\rm{Additional}\,\,interventions$ 116

Here we show the full derivation of how indoor residual spraying (IRS), long-lasting $_{117}$ insecticide-treated nets (LLIN), and artemisisin-based combination therapy (ACT) 118

interventions modify baseline mosquito life cycle parameters. This derivation is adapted ¹¹⁹ from previous work $[4, 7]$ $[4, 7]$.

First, we assume that, at baseline, we have three proportions of active vector control 121 interventions, $\{\chi_{IRS}, \chi_{LLIN}, \chi_{ACT}\}$, which represent the proportion of humans in the 122 model covered by the given intervention. Then, χ_{ACT} corresponds to the proportion of 123 symptomatically infected humans that are treated upon infection, f_T .

Then, $\{\chi_{IRS}, \chi_{LLIN}\}$ jointly modify various mosquito life cycle parameters. First, we 125 model the impact of LLINs and IRS on the length of the mosquito gonotrophic cycle $_{126}$ (i.e., the time taken for a mosquito to take a blood meal and lay eggs before seeking its ¹²⁷ next blood meal). This time can be divided into τ_1 (the time spent foraging) and τ_2 128 (the time spent ovipositing and resting). Then, the length of the gonotrophic cycle in ¹²⁹ the presence of vector control is given by: 130

$$
\frac{1}{\delta_c} = \frac{\tau_1(0,0)}{1-z} + \tau_2
$$

where $\tau_1(0,0)$ represents the time time spent foraging with LLIN and IRS coverages of zero, and:

$$
z = Q_0 c_{LLIN} \theta_B r_{LLIN} + Q_0 c_{IRS} \theta_I r_{IRS} +
$$

$$
Q_0 c_{LLIN,IRS} (\theta_I - \theta_B) r_{IRS} +
$$

$$
Q_0 c_{LLIN,IRS} \theta_B r_{IRS,LLIN}
$$

Here, Q_0 represents the human blood index, θ_B represents the proportion of bites taken on a person in bed, θ_I represents the proportion of bites taken on a person outdoors, r_{IRS} represents the probability of repeating a feeding attempt in the presence of IRS, $r_{IRS, LLIN}$ represents the probability of repeating a feeding attempt in the presence of IRS and LLINs, and:

$$
c_{LLIN} = \chi_{LLIN} - \chi_{LLIN} \chi_{IRS}
$$

$$
c_{IRS} = \chi_{IRS} - \chi_{LLIN} \chi_{IRS}
$$

$$
c_{LLIN,IRS} = \chi_{LLIN} \chi_{IRS}
$$

$$
c_0 = 1 - \chi_{LLIN} - \chi_{IRS} + \chi_{LLIN} \chi_{IRS}
$$

Then, with the modified gonotrophic cycle calculated (δ_C) , we can model the impact of 131 LLINs and IRS on the adult mosquito death rate. We express the mortality rate in the 132 presence of vector control as: 133

$$
\mu_{V,C} = -\log p(\chi_{IRS}, \chi_{LLIN})
$$

where p represents the probability of an adult mosquito surviving one day. Then we can $_{134}$ break down p into two components p_1 (the probability of surviving the mosquito stage) 135 and p_2 (the probability of surviving the blood meal stage): 136

$$
p(\chi_{IRS}, \chi_{LLIN}) = (p_1(\chi_{IRS}, \chi_{LLIN})p_2)^{\delta_c}
$$

$$
p(\chi_{IRS}, \chi_{LLIN}) = (p_1(\chi_{IRS}, \chi_{LLIN})p_2)^{c_c}
$$

 $p_1(\chi_{IRS}, \chi_{LLIN}) = \frac{p_1(0,0)w}{1 - zp_1(0,0)}$

where:
$$
\frac{137}{2}
$$

 z is the same as above and w gives the probability that a mosquito successfully feeds and survives a single feeding attempt:

$$
w = 1 - Q_0 + Q_0c_0 + Q_0c_{LLIN}(1 - \theta_B + \theta_B s_{LLIN}) +
$$

\n
$$
Q_0c_{IRS}(1 - \theta_I + \theta_I s_{IRS}) +
$$

\n
$$
Q_0c_{IRS,LLIN}((\theta_B - \theta_I)s_{IRS} + 1 - \theta_I + \theta_B s_{LLIN,IRS})
$$

Here, s_{LLIN} and s_{IRS} represent the probability of feeding and surviving in the presence of LLINs and IRS, respectively. The non-intervention survival probabilities are given by:

$$
p_1(0,0) = e^{-\mu_V \tau_1(0,0)}
$$

$$
p_2 = e^{-\mu_V \tau_2}
$$

Now, we have mathematical expressions for the gonotrophic cycle length and adult mortality rate (δ_c and $\mu_{V,c}$ respectively). We can finally model the impact of LLINs and 139 IRS on the egg laying rate of the adult female mosquito. In the absence of vector ¹⁴⁰ control, the egg laying rate is given by: 141

$$
\beta = \frac{\varepsilon \mu_V}{e^{\frac{\mu_V}{\delta}} - 1}
$$

where ε is the number of viable eggs laid per oviposition cycle. Then, with the $\frac{142}{142}$ previously defined parameters, the egg laying rate in the presence of vector control ¹⁴³ interventions is simply: 144

$$
\beta_c = \frac{\varepsilon \mu_{V,c}}{e^{\frac{\mu_{V,c}}{\delta_c}} - 1}
$$

Finally, we can modify the human biting rate per mosquito in the presence of LLINs $_{145}$ and IRS. In the absence of interventions, the biting rate is given by: ¹⁴⁶

$$
a_V = \delta Q_0
$$

The biting index under intervention is given by: 147

$$
Q_c = 1 - \frac{1 - Q_0}{w}
$$

where w is the calculated probability from above. Then, using the modified gonotrophic $\frac{148}{1480}$ cycle length previously derived (δ_c) , the modified biting rate is thus:

$$
a_{V,c} = \delta_c Q_c
$$

With these definitions in place, we have fully specified the impact of vector control interventions on mosquito life cycle parameters.

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