

17 exposed to ambient conditions in the insectaries $(27\pm2\degree C, 80\pm5\%$ relative humidity, 12L:12D)

and fed with Tetramin® baby fish food *ad libitum*. Adults were reared in mesh cages

(30x30x30cm) and provided with cotton wool pads imbibed with 5% glucose and water *ad*

libitum. The females were allowed to have three successive blood meals on rabbits to ensure

21 the maturation of their eggs and then were provided with a laying site (plastic cup \emptyset =45mm;

h=40mm).

 We used Direct Membrane Feeding Assays (DMFA) whereby gametocyte-infected blood was drawn from naturally-infected patients and from which mosquitoes feed through a membrane [2]. Gametocyte carriers were selected by examining thick blood smears from school children aged between 5 and 11 years from two villages in southwestern Burkina Faso (Dande and Soumousso, located 60km north and 40km southeast of Bobo-Dioulasso, respectively). The day before the DMFA, a screening campaign was carried out among 100 children (number chosen based on logistical constraints). All infected children with asexual stages above 1000 parasites/µl or with malarial symptoms were immediately treated. Among the 1 to 4 asymptomatic gametocytes carriers remaining for inclusion in the study, we selected up to 3 of them with the highest gametocytemias (low gametocytemias often result in very low infection rates impeding reliable infection intensity assessment) for blood-withdrawal the next day. On the day of DMFA, we withdrew blood from the gametocyte carriers still meeting the above-mentioned criteria as the parasitemia might have changed over the 24-h period. Malaria positive individuals were treated according to national recommendations (Artesunate + Amodiaquine). As negative control (non infected mosquitoes), females were fed on the same blood in which the gametocytes were heat-inactivated. This heat-inactivation inhibits infection and does not affect the nutritive quality of the blood [3]. Heat-inactivation was 42 achieved by placing the reconstituted blood in a thermo-mixer and heated at 43^oC for 15 min and 900 rpm while the remaining blood was maintained at 37°C. Three hundred µl of blood were distributed in membrane feeders maintained at 37°C by water jackets. Four to six day- old female mosquitoes were allowed to feed for up to 2 hours through a Parafilm® membrane. Fed females were sorted out and placed in new cages (30 X 30 X 30 cm) where they had constant access to cotton wool pads imbibed with a 2.5 % glucose solution. This procedure is used in routine in our laboratory [3-13].

Measurements of wing size and eggs volume

 Wing length was used as a surrogate of body size and was measured from the alula to the wing tip, excluding the scales [14]. One wing per individual was dissected for females 7 days post-blood meal and for males 3 days post-emergence. The wings were photographed using a 53 stereomicroscope and measured with ImageJ software (Wayne Rasband, rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/). *Fecundity*. Eggs were photographed using a stereomicroscope and were measured using ImageJ software.

Statistical analyses

 Cox proportional hazard mixed effect models were carried out with the "*coxme*" function in the "*coxme*" package. A Generalized Linear Mixed Model (GLMM) with a binomial error and a logit link function were carried out with the "*glmer*" function in "*lme4*" package. Cox proportional hazard models were carried out with the "*Coxph*" function in the "*Survival*" package. GLMMs with a negative binomial error structure were carried out with the "*glmmadmb*" function in the "*glmmADMB*" package).

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Mathematical model

 We provide details below on the mathematical model used to quantify the epidemiological outcomes of the different nutritional regimes.

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\frac{dL_m}{dt} = [b_S S_m + b_E E_m + b_I I_m] \theta - \epsilon \gamma L_m
$$

\n74
$$
\frac{dS_m}{dt} = \epsilon \gamma L_m - d_S S_m - abI_h \frac{S_m}{S_m + E_m + I_m}
$$

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$$
\frac{dE_m}{dt} = abI_h \frac{S_m}{S_m + E_m + I_m} - (d_E + \sigma)E_m
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\n76
$$
\frac{dI_m}{dt} = \sigma E_m - d_I I_m
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\n77
$$
\frac{dS_h}{dt} = -acI_m \frac{S_h}{S_h + I_h + R_h}
$$

\n78
$$
\frac{dI_h}{dt} = acI_m \frac{S_h}{S_h + I_h + R_h} - \omega I_h
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\n79
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\frac{dR_h}{dt} = \omega I_h
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 The different categories are explained in the main text and the parameters are described in table S2. It is worth pointing out that we did not consider human population demography. Indeed, since we focused on the outbreak size over one season, human demography, definitely slower than that of mosquitoes, is not expected to significantly influence this epidemiological outcome. Similarly, we did not consider an "Exposed" class for human, since this latency period in humans is considered very short compared to the human lifespan. We also chose to focus on the outbreak size during one season in order to include the contribution of mosquito demographic parameters changes between different groups, such as for the proportion of gravid individuals, which could not be included in simple analysis such as R0 that focuses on the transmission potential of only one infectious individual. Finally, the Latin Hypercube Sampling was conducted within the confidence interval of each parameter presented in table S2.

93 **Results**

94 *Development success and time*

95 The male to female sex ratio was 0.86 and 0.96 for the low food and high food groups, 96 respectively $(X_2^1=2.9, P=0.09)$. The males developed significantly faster than did the females

97 (13.64 \pm 0.04 *vs.* 13.84 \pm 0.04 days, respectively; X^2 ₁=7.7, P<0.01). There was no significant

98 interaction between larval diet and the sex of the mosquito $(X^2_{1}=0.97, P=0.32)$.

99 *Wing size* – The males were significantly smaller than were the females (2.68±0.01 *vs.* 100 2.9 \pm 0.01mm, respectively; X^2 ₁=14.5, P<0.0001). There was no significant interaction 101 between larval diet and the sex of the mosquito $(X^2) = 3.7$, P=0.055).

102 *Results of infection intensity effects on the proportion of gravid females*

103 Among infected females, low food females were less likely to harbour eggs $(X^2) = 16.1$, 104 P<0.0001). There was a significant effect of gametocyte carrier on the proportion of gravid 105 females $(X^2)=8.9$, P=0.03), with females fed on the blood from the gametocyte carrier A 106 having a significantly higher proportion of gravid females than the mosquitoes fed on the 107 blood from the three other gametocyte carriers (Tukey's *post-hoc* tests, all P<0.05), all other 108 comparisons being non-significant. There was no significant effect of parasite intensity 109 $(X^2) = 1.5$, P=0.22), wing size $(X^2) = 1.7$, P=0.19) nor of their interaction (wing size*parasite 110 intensity: X^2 ₁=1.04, P=0.3; larval diet*parasite intensity: X^2 ₁=1.9, P=0.17; parasite 111 intensity*gametocyte carrier: X^2 ₃=6.3, P=0.1; wing size*gametocyte carrier: X^2 ₃=1.9, P=0.6; 112 larval diet*gametocytes carrier: X^2 ₃=7.1, P=0.07).

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116 **Tables**

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118 **Table S1: Infection rate and intensity in females**. L = low food mosquitoes, H = high food

119 mosquitoes. Gametocyte density: number of gametocytes per µl.

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124 **Table S2: Parameters used in the theoretical model.**

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126 Sm=Susceptible mosquitoes, Em=Exposed mosquitoes and Im=Infectious mosquitoes

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