

Supplementary Information for

A machine learning approach to map landscape connectivity in *Aedes aegypti* using genetic and environmental data

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Dataset S1 to S3

Supplementary Information Text

Details on the Genetic Analysis: Genetic drift

In this supplemental material, we include tests for the effect of 7 years (~70 *Aedes aegypti* generations) of genetic drift in two ways: a) simulating expected differentiation due to 70 generations of drift, and b) using empirical data to calculate genetic differentiation for samples collected from the same population sampled at different time-points.

We ran simulations using the individual-based forward-time program simuPOP [1, 2]. We simulated a population with 12 loci, random mating, no migration, and an N_e equal to 500. We took random samples of 20 individuals from generation 0 (after 100 generations of burn-in) and from generation 70, and used Genepop [3] to calculate the CSE between the two samples. This process was repeated three times, and the resulting CSE values were 0.173, 0.236, and 0.168. These values are similar to the temporal empirical results and significantly less than the mean CSE results between different sites reported in the submitted paper (p=0.02), giving us additional confidence that genetic drift is not confounding the model. The three replicates produced F_{ST} values of 0.173, 0.236, and 0.168, with corresponding p-values of 0.13, 0.00000054, and 0.10. Although these are not statistically different than values in the paper ($p = 0.13$), two of three are not statistically significant from zero.

Additionally, we identified 12 populations in North America (including 5 that are included in the submitted paper) for which we have samples from 2, 3, or 4 different years. In total this yields 35 time interval pairs, and these time intervals range from 1 to 12 years (mean = 3.4 years). The mean CSE among these points is 0.22 ± 0.07 , significantly lower than the 0.34 ± 0.07 0.065 mean reported for CSE values in the manuscript ($p < 10^{-11}$). (Just considering the populations that also appear in the manuscript, the mean time interval is 3.3 years and the CSE is 0.21 ± 0.70 .) A linear regression shows no correlation between the length of the time interval and the value of CSE (adjusted R^2 = -0.0037, p-value = 0.36) (Fig. 15A). Similarly, the mean linearized F_{ST} (0.051 \pm 0.087) for these time intervals. The temporal samples were significantly lower than the linearized FST values presented in the paper (0.086 ± 0.043) (p=0.017). A linear regression shows no correlation between the length of the time interval and the value of linearized F_{ST} (adjusted $R^2 = -0.0065$, p-value = 0.38) (Fig. 15B). These results indicate the genetic distance caused by resampling the same site at different years can be explained by a small amount of noise, possibly related to sampling error. Genetic drift is evidently not playing a large role, even for time samples taken more then 70 generations apart.

Details on the modeling process:

Leave-two-out cross-validation

A concern with the leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOCV) is that we would expect the error values of the training dataset and the full dataset to converge as the size of the training dataset increases. To ensure that the root mean square error (RMSE) of the LOOCV is not simply due to the large training dataset, we also ran a leave-two-out cross-validation (LTOCV) using CSE, in which two points and all their affiliated pairs were withheld as the testing dataset for each of the 16 runs (38 points/2). While the LOOCV testing datasets only contain 5.2% of the data (37/706 pairs of points), the LTOCV testing datasets each contain 11.9% of the data (75/706 pairs of points), very similar to the proportion of data withheld for testing during the widely-used ten-fold cross-validation procedure.

Comparing LOOCV and LTOCV we found that the mean $RMSE_{test}$ and $RMSE_{train}$ values showed essentially no change (Table S9). Additionally, the mean $RMSE_{train}$ for the crossvalidations (0.036) is similar to RMSE_{full} for the full model run using CSE (0.035). These results strongly suggest that the consistent values RMSE between the cross-validations and full model

run are not simply due to the large size of the training dataset, but rather to the model's performance.

Linear regression

As a basis for comparison, we also fit our model using a standard linear regression in place of Random Forest (RF). In order to highlight certain advantages of RF, we kept the input data the same in the linear regression model as the RF model, including using all 29 environmental and anthropogenic spatial datasets. We used CSE as genetic distance, and we used all the genetic data to build the model (i.e. no cross-validation). We modeled genetic connectivity using straight lines (iteration 0) and one round of least cost path analysis (iteration 1), as this was sufficient to demonstrate the issues with this approach.

Modeling genetic distance with straight lines (iteration 0), the $R²$ of the linear regression model was 0.433 (p < 10⁻¹⁶), much lower than the RF model from the same iteration (R² = 0.618). The most important variables from the linear regression model (p<0.001) were altitude, potential evapotranspiration, precipitation of the wettest month, precipitation of the driest month, and the kernel density map. The prediction surface from the linear regression contained extremely large values (>470,000) that are not within the expected range for the inverse of CSE (2-6) (Fig. S16A). These values likely distort the least cost path analysis. When these high-value outliers were removed, the prediction surface could be visualized, and it showed little spatial detail (Fig. S16A).

Modeling genetic distance with least cost paths (iteration 1), the linear regression model's R^2 was 0.402 (p < 10⁻¹⁶), lower than the R^2 from iteration 0 of the same model and much lower than the RF model from the same iteration ($R^2 = 0.681$). The most important variables ($p < 0.001$) were aridity, human density, friction, and potential evapotranspiration, all different from the most important variables in the first iteration. Again, the prediction surface contained outliers (>55,000,000), and when the outliers were removed the prediction surface showed little spatial detail (Fig. S16B). Although this is a toy model it clearly illustrates some of the advantages of RF over a standard linear regression when modeling complex relationships among many variables, some correlated. The RF approach we employ provides greater accuracy across the distribution of the species, more spatial detail, fewer unreasonable (extreme outlier) predictions of connectivity, and more stable assessment of variable importance.

Fig. S1. Relationship between geographic distance and genetic distance for all sites. (A) Log geographic distance vs. CSE and (B) Log geographic distance vs. linearized F $_{ST}$.

Fig S2. Genetic structure of North America using Principal Component Analysis. Ellipses indicate the distribution of individuals within each population. Populations groups are labeled by their site abbreviation and state. (See Table S1 for full list of sites and corresponding abbreviations.)

Fig. S3. STRUCTURE plot of North America dataset. Each vertical bar represents an individual, and the proportion of each color assigned to each individual represents the proportion of the individual's ancestry attributable to each of the K theoretical genetic clusters (K=2).

Fig. S4. Root mean square error (RMSE_{test}) for each site in the leave-one-out cross-validation for CSE (A) and linearized F_{ST} (B). Circle size corresponds to RMSE_{test} value. In the same vein of Fig. S9, the goal of this model is to determine the influence of spatial autocorrelation on the model. Although there are some clusters of low/high RMSE_{test} values, there are a range of RMSE_{test} values across the map and between points that are in low or highly sampled areas.

Fig. S5. CSE leave-one-out cross-validation root mean square error (RMSE_{test}) before (A) and after (B) weighting the RF bootstrapping. The RF bootstrapping was weighted by the inverse of the kernel density of the lower kernel density site for each pair of sites, ensuring that low density sites were sampled more frequently. The first purpose of this figure is to show that weighting the RF bootstrapping decreases the difference in $RMSE_{test}$ between the high and low density sites. The second purpose is to show the difference in RMSE_{test} between the points with the highest (10%) values on the kernel density map, those with the lowest (10%), and all points. Although the ranges are overlapping, the low density points category has higher and more variable RMSE_{test} than the high density category.

Fig. S6. The four most important variables for the leave-one-out cross-validation using CSE as genetic distance. A. maximum temperature (Celsius x 100), B. slope (degree), C. altitude (meters), and D. mean temperature (Celsius x 100).

Fig. S7. Importance (left) and relative importance (right) of all variables for leave-one-out crossvalidation with CSE as genetic distance. Importance is mean decrease in model accuracy when removing each variable, and relative importance is scaled such that the most important variable has importance equal to 1. Results across all 38 folds are depicted to show the relatively high consistency for which variables were ranked as most or least important. The point circled in red shows the result from the full dataset run for comparison.

Fig. S8. The four most important variables for the leave-one-out cross-validation using linearized F_{ST} as genetic distance. A. maximum temperature (Celsius x 100), B. accessibility (travel time to the nearest major city), C. slope (degree inclination), and D. mean temperature (Celsius x 100).

Fig. S9. Importance (left) and relative importance (right) of all variables for leave-one-out crossvalidation with linearized F_{ST} as genetic distance. Importance is mean decrease in model accuracy when removing each variable, and relative importance is scaled such that the most important variable has importance equal to 1. Results across all 38 folds are depicted to show the relatively high consistency for which variables were ranked as most or least important.

Fig. S10. Straight lines (top row) and least cost path lines using Bexar, Texas as the focal point. We show iterations 1-10 for a full dataset model run using CSE as genetic distance. Behind the lines are the predicted connectivity surfaces generated from the model built using those lines. Each map is labeled with the iteration number and root mean square error of the associated RF model (RMSEfull). The optimized model was reached after five iterations (the iteration with the lowest RMSE_{full}) in this case. In the connectivity surfaces, green is high connectivity and red is low connectivity. Least cost path lines are show in dark green, and the straight lines used to initialize the model are shown in black.

Fig. S11. Mean of the 38 leave-one-out cross-validation optimized resistance surfaces for (A) CSE and (B) linearized FST. Light colors (yellow) indicate high connectivity, while dark colors (purple) indicate low connectivity.

Fig. S12. Importance (left) and relative importance (right) of all variables for the full dataset model using CSE as genetic distance. Importance is mean decrease in model accuracy when removing each variable, and relative importance is scaled such that the most important variable has importance equal to 1. The results are shown for all 10 iterations to show the relatively high stability for which variables are chosen as most/least important. The point circled in red represents the result from the best iteration (lowest RMSE_{test}), and the point in yellow is the result from the initialization of the model with straight lines (iteration 0).

Fig. S13. Pearson correlation between the mean resistance map generated by the leave-one-out cross-validation and the resistance map generated by the full dataset run, using CSE as genetic distance in both cases. Darker green show areas of high correlation, while yellow shows areas of low correlation.

Fig. S14. Semivariograms to show the influence of spatial autocorrelation, i.e. systematic spatial variation in a variable. The x axis is distance bins, the y axis is semivariance, and the blue line shows the best model fit. Spatial autocorrelation and geographic distance influence CSE up until 200km, as shown by increasing semivariance up until this distance (A). There is a large reduction of the impact of spatial autocorrelation on the semivariance of the model residuals (observed – predicted CSE), as shown the leveling of the model fit line at a much shorter distance (B).

Fig. S15. The effect of interval time (assuming 10 generations/year) and genetic distance for populations sampled in multiple years. A. CSE, B. Linearized Fst.

Fig. S16. Predicted connectivity surfaces for full model with CSE and using a standard linear regression in place of Random Forest, for iteration 0 (A) and iteration 1 (B).

Table S1. Sampled locations, corresponding abbreviation, latitude, longitude, sampling year, number of individuals sampled, and whether the data are being published here for the first time.

Table S2. Spatial data list, sources, resolution of the original dataset, and resampling method used (if any).

Table S3. Description and equations for each performance metric recorded for the model. The equations reference the randomforestSRC package in R and variables are defined as follows: RF = Random Forest model under consideration, GD = genetic distance measure (CSE or linearized FsT), TestingData = predictor and observational data from 1 site and affiliated pairs, TrainingData = predictor and observational data from the other 37 sites.

Table S5: Mean relative importance of all variables for the leave-one-out cross-validation using CSE as genetic distance.

Table S6. Leave-one-out cross-validation results for iterative Random Forest model using linearized F_{ST} as genetic distance. Best iteration selected by lowest RMSE_{test}; Site = the site excluded for the training dataset; RSQ = Pseudo R-squared (percent variance explained by the model); **RMSE**_{train} = root mean squared error of model for training dataset; **RMSE**_{test} = root mean squared error of model for testing dataset; **MAEtrain** = mean absolute error of model for training dataset; **MAEtest** =mean absolute error of model for validation dataset; **Rtrain** = correlation between observed and predicted linearized F_{ST} using training dataset; R_{test} = correlation between observed and predicted linearized F_{ST} using testing dataset; **Most Important variables** are the four most important variables for optimized Random Forest model. For detailed information about these metrics, see Table S5.

Table S7: Mean relative importance of all variables for the leave-one-out cross-validation using linearized F_{ST} as genetic distance.

Table S8: Result for full dataset run of iterative Random Forest model using CSE as genetic distance. **Best iteration** selected by lowest RMSEtest; **Site** = the site excluded for the training dataset; **RSQ** = Pseudo R-squared (percent variance explained by the model); **RMSEfull** = root mean squared error of model for training dataset; **MAEfull** = mean absolute error of model for training dataset; **Rfull** = correlation between observed and predicted CSE; **Most Important variables** are the four most important variables for optimized Random Forest model. For detailed information about these metrics, see Table S5.

Table S9: Comparison of root mean squared error (RMSE) among full model, leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOCV), and leave-two-out crossvalidation (LTOCV).

Dataset S1 (separate file). Input dataset for the iterative Random Forest model. Each row represents a pair of sites; the latitude and longitude for each site is listed as well as the genetic distance (CSE and linearized F_{ST}) between each pair of sites.

Dataset S2 (separate file). Microsatellite calls for all individuals in STRUCTURE format.

Dataset S3 (separate file). Most important variables for each iteration of the full dataset run using CSE as genetic dataset.

SI References

[1] B. Peng, M. Kimmal, simuPOP: a forward-time population genetics simulation environment. *bioinformatics* 21(18), 3686-3687 (2005).

[2] B. Peng, C. Amos, Forward-time simulations of nonrandom mating populations using simuPOP. *bioinformatics* 24(11), 1408-1409 (2008).

[3] F. Rousset, genepop'007: a complete re-implementation of the genepop software for Windows and Linux. *Molecular Ecology Resources* 8, 103-106 (2008).