

<sup>1</sup> **The evolution and spread of target-site  
2 resistance to pyrethroid insecticides in the  
3 African malaria vectors *Anopheles gambiae*  
4 and *Anopheles coluzzii***

<sup>5</sup> Chris S. Clarkson<sup>1</sup>, Alistair Miles<sup>2,1</sup>, Nicholas J. Harding<sup>2</sup>,  
<sup>6</sup> @@TODO<sup>1</sup>, Dominic Kwiatkowski<sup>1,2</sup>, Martin Donnelly<sup>3,1</sup>, and The  
<sup>7</sup> *Anopheles gambiae* 1000 Genomes Consortium<sup>4</sup>

<sup>8</sup> <sup>1</sup>Sanger @@TODO

<sup>9</sup> <sup>2</sup>Oxford @@TODO

<sup>10</sup> <sup>3</sup>Liverpool @@TODO

<sup>11</sup> <sup>4</sup>MalariaGEN @@TODO

<sup>12</sup> Work in progress

<sup>13</sup> **Abstract**

<sup>14</sup> Resistance to pyrethroid insecticides is a major concern for malaria vector control,  
<sup>15</sup> because these are the only compounds approved for use in insecticide-treated bed-nets  
<sup>16</sup> (ITNs) and are also widely used for indoor residual spraying (IRS). Pyrethroids target  
<sup>17</sup> the voltage-gated sodium channel (VGSC), an essential component of the mosquito  
<sup>18</sup> nervous system, but mutations in the *Vgsc* gene can disrupt the activity of these  
<sup>19</sup> insecticides, inducing a “knock-down resistance” phenotype. Here we use Illumina  
<sup>20</sup> whole-genome sequence data from phase 1 of the *Anopheles gambiae* 1000 Genomes

21 Project (Ag1000G) to provide a comprehensive account of genetic variation at the  
22 *Vgsc* locus in mosquito populations from 8 African countries. In addition to three  
23 known resistance variants that alter the protein-coding sequence of the *Vgsc* gene, we  
24 describe 19 previously unknown non-synonymous variants at appreciable frequency in  
25 one or more populations. For each variant we predict a resistance phenotype based on  
26 genetic evidence for recent selection, patterns of linkage between variants, the posi-  
27 tion of the variant within the protein structure, and experimental evidence from other  
28 species. We use analyses of haplotype structure to refine our understanding of the  
29 origins and spread of these resistance variants between species and geographical loca-  
30 tions. These analyses identify 10 distinct lineages, each of which carries one or more  
31 resistance alleles and appears to be undergoing rapid and recent expansion in one or  
32 more populations. The most successful and widespread resistance lineage (F1) origin-  
33 ates in West Africa and has subsequently spread to countries in Central and Southern  
34 Africa. We also reconstruct a putative ancestral haplotype for each lineage, and ana-  
35 lyse patterns of recombination to show that lineages are unrelated and thus represent  
36 independent outbreaks of resistance. Our data demonstrate that the molecular basis  
37 of pyrethroid resistance in African malaria vectors is more complex than previously  
38 appreciated, and provide a foundation for the development of new genetic tools to  
39 inform insecticide resistance management and track the further spread of resistance.

## 40 **Introduction**

41 An estimated 663 million cases of malaria were averted in Africa between 2000 and 2015  
42 due to public health interventions, of which 68% were prevented by insecticide-treated bed-  
43 nets (ITNs) and @@N% through indoor residual spraying of insecticides (IRS). However,  
44 over this same period, insecticide resistance has become increasingly prevalent in malaria  
45 vector populations. Four chemical classes of insecticides – organophosphates, carbamates,  
46 pyrethroids and organochlorines – are licensed for use in public health, but only pyrethroids  
47 are approved by the World Health Organisation (WHO) for use in ITNs. Pyrethroids  
48 are also commonly used for IRS and in agriculture, and mosquito populations are under  
49 pressure to evolve molecular mechanisms of pyrethroid resistance. There is evidence that  
50 pyrethroid resistance has a direct impact on the effectiveness of ITNs and IRS, although  
51 assessing the impact on disease prevalence is difficult and has been hampered by the fact

52 that pyrethroid resistance is now so pervasive that it is nearly impossible to find fully  
53 susceptible mosquito populations to serve as controls. Nevertheless, the position of the  
54 WHO remains that insecticide resistance poses a grave threat to the future of malaria  
55 control in Africa (@@REF GPIRM). Improvements are needed in our ability to monitor  
56 resistance, and gaps must be filled in our knowledge of the molecular mechanisms of  
57 resistance.

58 The voltage-gated sodium channel (VGSC) is the physiological target of pyrethroids  
59 and of the organochlorine DDT. The VGSC protein is integral to the insect nervous sys-  
60 tem, involved in the transmission of nerve impulses. Both pyrethroids and DDT have a  
61 similar mode of action, binding to sites within the protein channel and preventing nor-  
62 mal nerve function, causing paralysis (“knock-down”) and then death. However, amino  
63 acid substitutions at key positions within the channel can alter the interaction between  
64 the channel and the insecticide molecule, and thereby substantially increase the dosage of  
65 insecticide required for knock-down. If this tolerance exceeds the dosage present in ITNs  
66 or on indoor surfaces following IRS, these interventions may be rendered ineffective. In  
67 the African malaria vectors *Anopheles gambiae* and *Anopheles coluzzii*, three substitutions  
68 have been found in natural populations and shown to cause pyrethroid and DDT resist-  
69 ance. Two of these substitutions occur in codon 995<sup>1</sup>, with the Leucine → Phenylalanine  
70 (L995F) substitution prevalent in West and Central Africa, and the Leucine → Serine  
71 (L995S) substitution found in Central and East Africa. A third variant N1570Y has been  
72 found in association with L995F in Central Africa and shown to increase resistance above  
73 L995F alone.

74 Target-site resistance to pyrethroids and DDT has also been studied in a range of other  
75 insect species, including disease vectors as well as domestic and crop pests. Because of  
76 its essential function, the VGSC protein is highly conserved across insect species, and  
77 knowledge gained from one species is relevant to another. Many resistance-associated  
78 variants have been described in these other species, and thus there are many possible  
79 amino acid substitutions that could induce a resistance phenotype in malaria vectors,  
80 other than the known variants in codons 995 and 1570. Some of these variants are within

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<sup>1</sup>Codon numbering is given here relative to transcript @@TODO as defined in the AgamP4.@@N gene annotations. A mapping of codon numbers from @@TRANSCRIPT to *Musca domestica* @@TRAN-  
SCRIPT is given in Table ??.

81 the trans-membrane channel, and thus may directly interact with insecticide molecules.  
82 However, functional studies have also demonstrated that variants within internal linker  
83 domains can substantially enhance the level of resistance, when present in combination  
84 with channel modifications. Most previous studies of *An. gambiae* and/or *An. coluzzii*  
85 have performed targeted sequencing of small regions within the gene, and there has been  
86 no comprehensive survey of variation across the entire gene in multiple populations.

87 Insecticide resistance monitoring in malaria vector populations now often incorporates  
88 some form of genetic assay to detect the allele present at *Vgsc* codon 995. Both alleles  
89 are present at high frequency in multiple geographical locations, and the L995F allele  
90 is present in both *An. gambiae* and *An. coluzzii*. The extent of mosquito migration  
91 remains an open question, however mosquitoes do travel between different locations and  
92 have the potential to spread resistance alleles from one population to another (adaptive  
93 gene flow). Hybridization between mosquito species also occurs and has the potential  
94 to transfer resistance alleles between species (adaptive introgression). Studies in West  
95 African have shown that the L995F allele has been transferred from *An. gambiae* into  
96 *An. coluzzii* populations. A resistance allele may also arise independently in multiple  
97 populations, either because of multiple mutational events occurring after insecticides are  
98 introduced (selection on new mutations), or because resistance alleles were already present  
99 at low frequency in mosquito populations prior to insecticide use (selection on standing  
100 variation). Previous studies have found evidence that the L995F allele occurs on several  
101 different genetic backgrounds, suggesting multiple origins of resistance. However, these  
102 studies have used information from only a small region of the gene, and have limited  
103 resolution to make inferences about geographical origins or history of spread. Better  
104 information about the origins and spread of resistance could improve insecticide resistance  
105 monitoring and inform strategies for insecticide resistance management.

106 Here we provide a detailed and comprehensive account of genetic variation within the  
107 *Vgsc* gene using data from phase 1 of the *Anopheles gambiae* 1000 Genomes Project  
108 (Ag1000G). We use genotype and haplotype data derived from whole-genome Illumina  
109 sequencing of 765 individual mosquitoes collected from natural populations in 8 African  
110 countries to survey genetic diversity and study the evolutionary and demographic history  
111 of insecticide resistance at the *Vgsc* locus. Our results reveal an unexpected diversity

112 of molecular mechanisms of resistance, and shed new light on the evolutionary processes  
113 underlying the rapid increase in the prevalence of resistance across multiple mosquito  
114 populations.

115 **Results**

116 **Functional variation**

117 To identify single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) with a potentially functional role in  
118 pyrethroid resistance, we extracted SNPs from the Ag1000G phase 1 data resource that  
119 alter the amino acid sequence of the VGSC protein, and computed their allele frequencies  
120 among 9 populations defined by species and country of origin. SNPs that confer resistance  
121 are expected to increase in frequency under selective pressure, and we refined the list of  
122 potentially functional SNPs to retain only those at an appreciable frequency (>5%) in one  
123 or more populations (Table ??). The resulting list comprises 20 SNPs, including the known  
124 L995F, L995S and N1570Y variants, and a further 17 SNPs not previously described in these  
125 species. We reported 15 of these novel SNPs in our initial analysis of the Ag1000G phase  
126 1 data (@@REF Ag1000G), and we extend the analyses here to incorporate two tri-allelic  
127 SNPs affecting codons 402 and 410.

128 The two alleles in codon 995 are clearly the main drivers of resistance at this locus.  
129 The L995F allele at high frequency in populations of both species from West, Central and  
130 Southern Africa, and the L995S allele at high frequency among *An. gambiae* populations  
131 from Central and East Africa (Table ??; @@REF Ag1000G). All haplotypes carrying  
132 L995F or L995S have evidence for strong recent positive selection (@@REF Ag1000G).  
133 Both alleles were present in populations sampled from Cameroon and Gabon, including  
134 some individuals with a hybrid L995F/S genotype. Within these populations, the L995F  
135 and L995S alleles were (@@TODO were not?) in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (P=@@),  
136 thus there does not (@@does?) appear to be selection against hybrids.

137 The I1527T allele is present in *An. coluzzii* from Burkina Faso at 14% frequency,  
138 and there is evidence that haplotypes carrying this allele have been positively selected  
139 (@@REF Ag1000G). Codon 1527 occurs within trans-membrane domain segment III.S6,  
140 immediately adjacent to a second predicted binding pocket for pyrethroid molecules, thus

**Table 1.** Non-synonymous nucleotide variation in the voltage-gated sodium channel gene. AO=Angola; BF=Burkina Faso; GN=Guinea; CM=Cameroon; GA=Gabon; UG=Uganda; KE=Kenya; GW=Guinea-Bissau; *Ac*=*An. coluzzii*; *Ag*=*An. gambiae*. All variants are at 5% frequency or above in one or more of the 9 Ag1000G phase 1 populations, with the exception of 2,400,071 G>T which is only found in the CMAg population at 0.4% frequency but is included because another mutation (2,400,071 G>A) is found at the same position causing the same amino acid substitution (M490I); and 2,431,019 T>C (F1920S) which is at 4% frequency in GAAg but also found in CMAg and linked to L995F.

Variant			Population allele frequency (%)								Function		
Position <sup>1</sup>	<i>Ag</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>Md</i> <sup>3</sup>	AO <i>Ac</i>	BF <i>Ac</i>	GN <i>Ag</i>	BF <i>Ag</i>	CMAg	GAAg	UGAg	KE	GW	Domain <sup>4</sup>	Resistance phenotype <sup>5</sup>
2,390,177 G>A	R254K	R261	0	0	0	0	32	21	0	0	0	IN (I.S4-I.S5)	L995F enhancer (predicted)
2,391,228 G>C	V402L	V410	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	TM (I.S6)	I1527T enhancer (predicted)
2,391,228 G>T	V402L	V410	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	TM (I.S6)	I1527T enhancer (predicted)
2,399,997 G>C	D466H	-	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	IN (I.S6-II.S1)	L995F enhancer (predicted)
2,400,071 G>A	M490I	M508	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	0	IN (I.S6-II.S1)	none (predicted)
2,400,071 G>T	M490I	M508	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	IN (I.S6-II.S1)	none (predicted)
2,416,980 C>T	T791M	T810	0	1	13	14	0	0	0	0	0	TM (II.S1)	L995F enhancer (predicted)
2,422,651 T>C	L995S	L1014	0	0	0	0	15	64	100	76	0	TM (II.S6)	driver
2,422,652 A>T	L995F	L1014	86	85	100	100	53	36	0	0	0	TM (II.S6)	driver
2,424,384 C>T	A1125V	K1133	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	IN (II.S6-III.S1)	none (predicted)
2,425,077 G>A	V1254I	I1262	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	IN (II.S6-III.S1)	none (predicted)
2,429,617 T>C	I1527T	I1532	0	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	TM (III.S6)	driver (predicted)
2,429,745 A>T*	N1570Y	N1575	0	26	10	22	6	0	0	0	0	IN (III.S6-IV.S1)	L995F enhancer
2,429,897 A>G	E1597G	E1602	0	0	6	4	0	0	0	0	0	IN (III.S6-IV.S1)	L995F enhancer (predicted)
2,429,915 A>C	K1603T	K1608	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	TM (IV.S1)	L995F enhancer (predicted)
2,430,424 G>T	A1746S	A1751	0	0	11	13	0	0	0	0	0	TM (IV.S5)	L995F enhancer (predicted)
2,430,817 G>A	V1853I	V1858	0	0	8	5	0	0	0	0	0	IN (IV.S6-)	L995F enhancer (predicted)
2,430,863 T>C	I1868T	I1873	0	0	18	25	0	0	0	0	0	IN (IV.S6-)	L995F enhancer (predicted)
2,430,880 C>T	P1874S	P1879	0	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	IN (IV.S6-)	L995F enhancer (predicted)
2,430,881 C>T	P1874L	P1879	0	7	45	26	0	0	0	0	0	IN (IV.S6-)	L995F enhancer (predicted)
2,431,019 T>C	F1920S	Y1925	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	0	IN (IV.S6-)	L995F enhancer (predicted)
2,431,061 C>T	A1934V	A1939	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	IN (IV.S6-)	L995F enhancer (predicted)
2,431,079 T>C	I1940T	I1945	0	4	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	IN (IV.S6-)	L995F enhancer (predicted)

<sup>1</sup> Position relative to the AgamP3 reference sequence, chromosome arm 2L. Variants marked with an asterisk (\*) failed conservative variant filters applied genome-wide in the Ag1000G phase 1 AR3 callset, but appeared sound on manual inspection of read alignments.

<sup>2</sup> Codon numbering according to *Anopheles gambiae* transcript AGAP004707-RA in geneset AgamP4.4.

<sup>3</sup> Codon numbering according to *Musca domestica* EMBL accession X96668 [1].

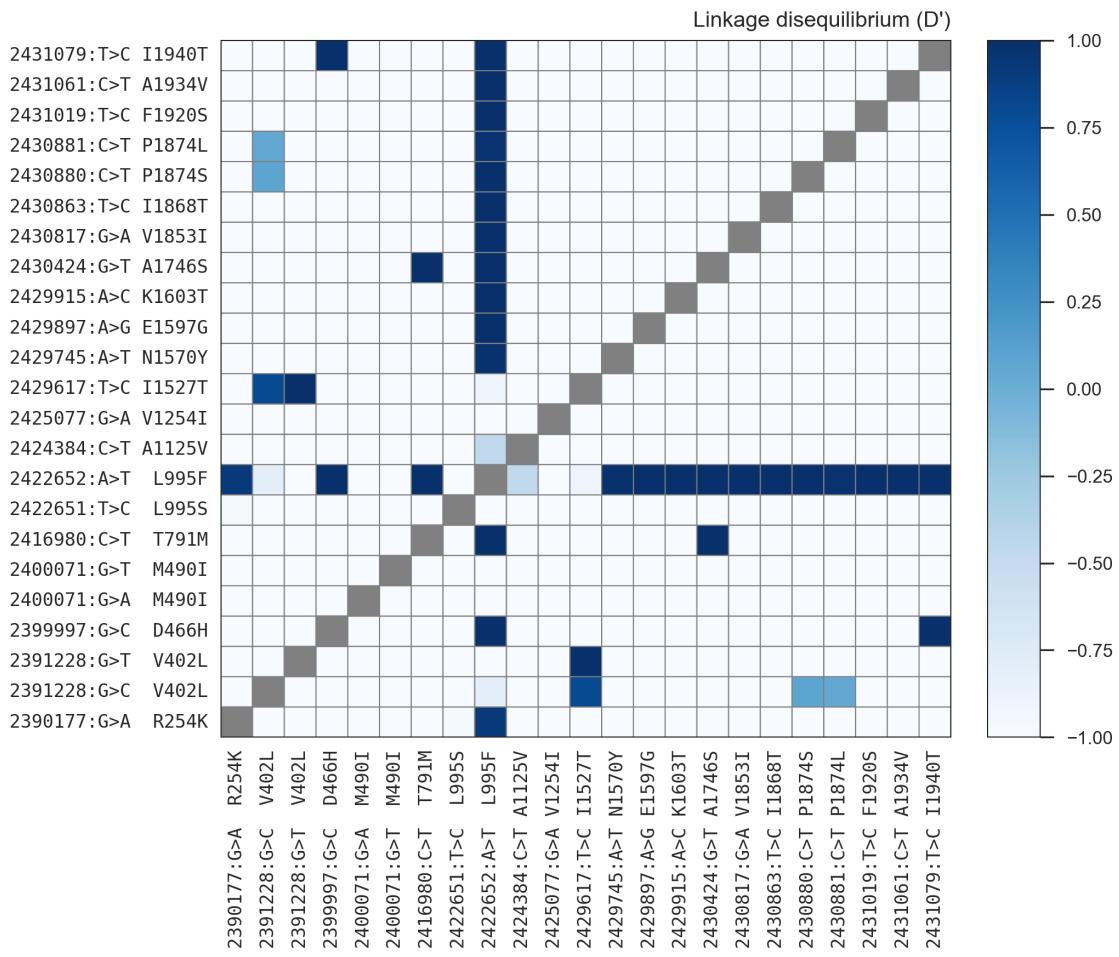
<sup>4</sup> Position of the variant within the protein. IN=internal domain; TM=trans-membrane domain. The protein contains four homologous repeats (I-IV), each having six transmembrane segments (1-6). Codes in parentheses identify the specific domain, e.g., “I.S4” refers to trans-membrane segment 4 in repeat I, and “IS4-IS5” refers to the linker segment between I.S4 and I.S5.

<sup>5</sup> Phenotype predictions are based on population genetic evidence and have not been confirmed experimentally.

141 it is plausible that I1527T could alter insecticide binding (@@REF Dong). We also found  
142 that the two variant alleles affecting codon 402, both of which induce a V402L substi-  
143 tution, were in strong linkage with I1527T (D'>@@N; Figure @@LD), and almost all  
144 haplotypes carrying I1527T also carried a V402L substitution. The most parsimonious  
145 explanation for this pattern of linkage is that the I1527T mutation occurred first, and  
146 mutations in codon 402 subsequently arose on this genetic background. Codon 402 also  
147 occurs within a trans-membrane segment (I.S6), and the V402L substitution has by itself  
148 been shown experimentally to increase pyrethroid resistance in @@species and *Xenopus*  
149 oocytes (@@REFs). However, because V402L appears secondary to I1527T in our cohort,  
150 we classify I1527T as a putative resistance driver and V402L as a putative enhancer. Be-  
151 cause of the limited geographical distribution of these alleles, we hypothesize that the  
152 I1527T+V402L combination represents a pyrethroid resistance allele that arose in West  
153 African *An. coluzzii* populations; however, the L995F allele is at higher frequency (85%)  
154 in our Burkina Faso *An. coluzzii* population, and is known to be increasing in frequency  
155 (@@REFs), therefore L995F may provide a stronger resistance phenotype and is replacing  
156 I1527T+V402L in these populations.

157 Of the other 16 SNPs, 13 occurred almost exclusively in combination with L995F (Figure  
158 @@; @@REF Ag1000G). These include the N1570Y allele, known to enhance pyrethroid  
159 resistance in *An. gambiae* in combination with L995F. These also include two variants  
160 in codon 1874 (P1874S, P1874L). P1874S has previously been found in a colony of the  
161 crop pest *Plutoblah blahdiblah* with a pyrethroid resistance phenotype, but has not been  
162 shown to confer resistance experimentally. 10 of these variants, including N1570Y and  
163 P1874S/L, occur within internal linker domains of the protein, and so fit the model of  
164 variants that may enhance or compensate for the driver phenotype by modifying channel  
165 gating behaviour (@@CHECK; @@REFs). The remaining 3 variants are within trans-  
166 membrane domains, and so may enhance resistance by @@TODO how. Because of the  
167 tight linkage between these 13 SNPs and the L995F allele, we classify all as putative L995F  
168 enhancers, although experimental work is required to confirm a resistance phenotype.

169 The remaining 3 variants (M490I, A1125V, V1254I) do not occur in combination with any  
170 known resistance allele, and do not appear to be associated with haplotypes under selection  
171 (@@REF Ag1000G). A possible exception is the M490I allele found at 18% frequency in



**Figure 1. Linkage disequilibrium between non-synonymous variants.** A value of 1 indicates that the two variants always occur in combination, and conversely a value of -1 indicates that the two variants never occur in combination. @TODO nuance this?

the Kenyan population, although the fact that this population has experienced a recent population crash makes it difficult to test for evidence of selection at this locus. All 3 variants occur in internal linker domains, and so do not fit the model of a resistance driver, although experimental work is required to rule out a resistance phenotype.

### 176 Haplotype structure

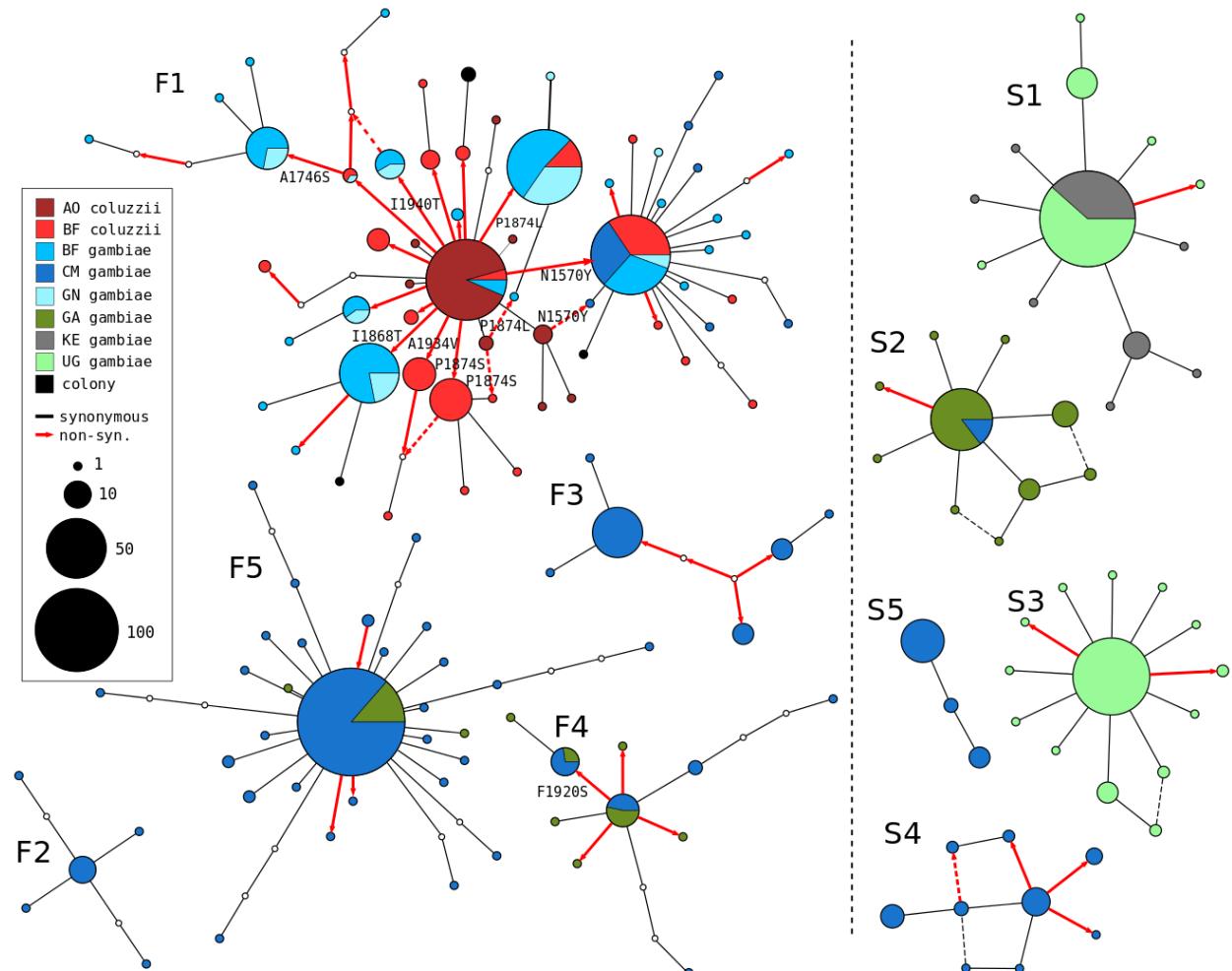
Although it is known that pyrethroid resistance is increasing in prevalence in malaria vector populations across Africa, it has not been clear whether this is being driven by the spread of resistance alleles via gene flow, or by resistance alleles emerging independently in multiple locations, or by some combination of both processes. The Ag1000G data resource provides a potentially rich source of information about the evolutionary and demographic

182 history of insecticide resistance in any given gene, because data are available not only for  
183 SNPs in gene coding regions, but also SNPs in introns and flanking intergenic regions,  
184 and in neighbouring genes. These additional variants can be used to analyse the genetic  
185 backgrounds (haplotypes) on which resistance alleles are found. In sexually reproducing  
186 species, DNA sequences are transmitted from parents to progeny in chunks, rearranged via  
187 recombination at each generation, and haplotypes convey information about this history  
188 of transmission and recombination, especially when haplotypes from many individuals can  
189 be compared.

190 In our initial analysis of the *Vgsc* (@@REF Ag1000G), we used 1710 biallelic SNPs  
191 from within the @@70 kbp *Vgsc* gene (@@N exonic, @@N intronic) to compute the num-  
192 ber of SNP differences between all pairs of 1530 haplotypes derived from 765 wild-caught  
193 mosquitoes. This genetic distance measurement is a rough proxy for the degree of re-  
194 latedness between haplotypes, in the sense that two haplotypes with a small number of  
195 SNP differences must be closely related and share a common ancestor in the recent past.  
196 This measurement cannot be used to directly estimate the time to most recent common  
197 ancestor (TMRCA) for any pair of haplotypes, however, because it does not account for  
198 the possibility of recombination events within the gene, which is increasingly likely for  
199 pairs of haplotypes that are more distantly related. Nevertheless, it provides a useful tool  
200 for exploring patterns of similarity and dissimilarity within the data. To visualise these  
201 patterns, we used the pairwise genetic distances to perform hierarchical clustering, which  
202 groups similar haplotypes together into clusters. We found that haplotypes carrying resist-  
203 ance alleles were grouped into 10 distinct clusters. Five of these clusters carried the L995F  
204 allele (labelled F1-F5), and a further five clusters carried L995S (labelled S1-S5). Within  
205 each cluster, haplotypes were nearly identical across all 1710 SNPs (spanning @@70 kbp),  
206 and therefore each cluster represents a collection of haplotypes with a very recent common  
207 ancestor. Within some of these clusters, we found haplotypes from mosquitoes collected  
208 from different locations. Specifically, cluster F1 contained haplotypes from Guinea, Burk-  
209 ina Faso, Cameroon and Angola; clusters @@ each contained haplotypes from Cameroon  
210 and Gabon; and cluster @@ contained haplotypes from Uganda and Kenya. The F1 cluster  
211 also contained haplotypes from both *An. gambiae* and *An. coluzzii* individuals. If we as-  
212 sume that haplotypes within each cluster share a common ancestor since the introduction

213 of insecticides, which is reasonable given the high degree of similarity, then each of these  
 214 clusters provides evidence that resistance alleles have been spreading between geographical  
 215 locations and species via adaptive gene flow. Here we present several new analyses  
 216 of these haplotype data, to confirm our initial inferences regarding gene flow, and provide  
 217 further details regarding the origins and movement of resistance alleles.

218 To provide an alternative view of the genetic similarity between haplotypes carrying  
 219 resistance alleles, we used haplotype data from within the Vgsc gene region to construct  
 220 median-joining networks (Figure 2). This analysis is very similar to hierarchical cluster-  
 221 ing, except that it allows for the reconstruction and placement of intermediate haplotypes  
 222 that may not be observed in the data. We constructed these networks up to a maximum



**Figure 2. Haplotype networks.** @@TODO redo the figure. @@TODO annotate non-syn edges in cluster F3. @@TODO mention if any clusters fixed for non-syn variants so not shown. @@TODO annotate other non-syn edges, e.g., in S4?

223 distance of @@2 SNP differences, to ensure that each connected component in the result-  
224 ing networks represents a collection of haplotypes with a recent common ancestor, and  
225 thus which is also likely to be minimally affected by recombination within the gene. For  
226 haplotypes carrying L995F, the resulting network confirms the presence of five distinct  
227 clusters, with close correspondance to the clusters F1-F5 identified previously. The L995S  
228 network also confirms five distinct clusters, in concordance with our previous analysis.

229 The haplotype networks bring into sharp relief the explosive evolution of amino acid  
230 substitutions secondary to the L995F allele. Within the F1 network, nodes carrying non-  
231 synonymous variants radiate out from a central node carrying only L995F, indicating that  
232 the central node represents the ancestral haplotype carrying L995F alone which initially  
233 came under selection, and these secondary variants have arisen subsequently as new muta-  
234 tions. Many of the nodes carrying secondary variants are large, consistent with positive  
235 selection and a functional role for these secondary variants as enhancers of the L995F res-  
236 istance phenotype. The F1 network also allows us to infer multiple introgression events  
237 between the two species. The central (ancestral) node comprises haplotypes from both  
238 species, as do nodes carrying the N1570Y, P1874L, and @@TODO one more variant@@.  
239 This structure is consistent with an initial introgression of the ancestral F1 haplotype, fol-  
240 lowed by introgression of haplotypes carrying secondary mutations. The contrast between  
241 the haplotype networks for the L995F and L995S alleles is striking because of the near-total  
242 absence of non-synonymous variation within the L995S networks. As we reported previ-  
243 ously, this difference is highly significant – the ratio of non-synonymous to synonymous  
244 nucleotide diversity (@@piN/piS) is @@N times higher among haplotypes carrying L995F  
245 relative to haplotypes carrying L995S (@@Test; P=@@) (@@REF Ag1000G). Some sec-  
246 ondary variants are present within the L995S networks, but all are at low frequency, and  
247 thus may be neutral or mildly deleterious variants that are hitch-hiking on selective sweeps  
248 for the L995S allele.

249 While the haplotype clustering and network analyses provide evidence for the spread  
250 of resistance alleles via adaptive gene flow, and for the secondary evolution of L995F  
251 enhancer alleles, they have several limitations. Within haplotype clusters where gene flow  
252 has occurred, they have poor resolution to infer the origin and direction of gene flow. This  
253 is because the analyses only leverage information about genetic distance within the *Vgsc*

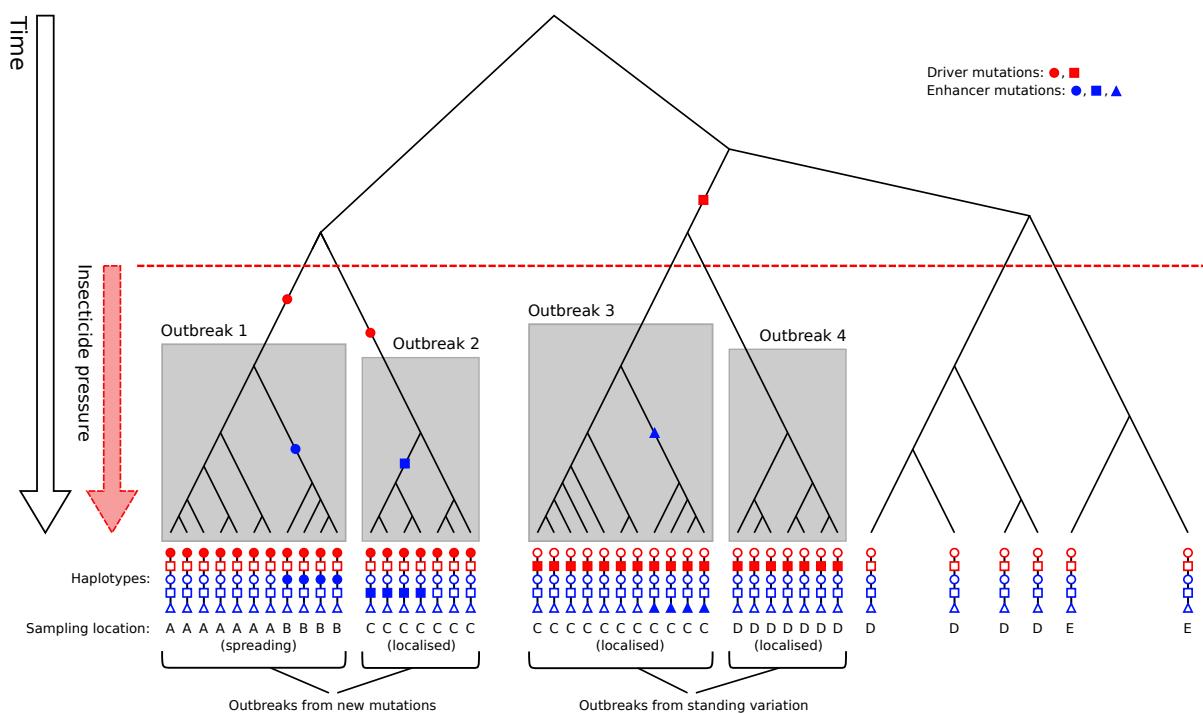
254 gene, and for very recent events, insufficient time has elapsed for informative mutations  
255 to accumulate within this relatively small genome region. Also, the fact that we observe  
256 five distinct clusters for each of the codon 995 alleles suggests that each cluster is in some  
257 sense independent from the others, and thus gene flow is not required for resistance to  
258 emerge in multiple geographical locations. However, the threshold for the genetic distance  
259 at which we have chosen to divide haplotypes into different networks or clusters is to  
260 a certain extent arbitrary, and based on an intuitive sense of how much variation could  
261 have accumulated among the descendants of a single resistant ancestor since the onset of  
262 selective pressure. We also need to clarify what we mean by “independent”, as there are  
263 several possible scenarios under which resistance could evolve in multiple populations in  
264 the absence of gene flow. Finally, analyses of genetic distance within a fixed genome region  
265 can be confounded by recombination events occurring within that region. For example,  
266 a recombination event within the *Vgsc* gene upstream of codon 995 could cause us to  
267 split a collection of haplotypes into two clusters, even though they are ancestrally related  
268 within the region downstream of the recombination event. In the next sub-sections we  
269 provide some conceptual foundations to help clarify these ambiguities, and use analyses  
270 of haplotype sharing from the genome regions flanking the *Vgsc* gene to provide finer  
271 resolution to diagnose recent gene flow events.

## 272 **Insecticide resistance outbreaks**

273 To provide an aid to further interpretation of the genetic data, and relating them to the  
274 challenges of insecticide resistance management, we introduce the concept of an **insect-**  
275 **icide resistance outbreak**. Informally, we define a resistance outbreak by analogy with  
276 the epidemiological concept of an outbreak, as a rapid increase in the prevalence of in-  
277 secticide resistance among mosquitoes at a particular place and time. Note that this does  
278 not imply that the overall abundance of mosquitoes is increase, just that the relative fre-  
279 quency of resistance within mosquito populations is increasing. We also require that all  
280 occurrences of insecticide resistance within the same outbreak are connected by a chain  
281 of transmission of resistance alleles from parent to progeny mosquitoes, and thus can be  
282 traced back to a single resistant common ancestor. A resistance outbreak can be **local-**  
283 **ised**, meaning that it affects a small group of mosquitoes of a single species from a limited

284 geographical area. Alternatively, a resistance outbreak may be **spreading**, meaning that  
 285 resistance alleles have been transmitted since the introduction of insecticides by inter-  
 286 breeding of mosquitoes of different species and/or originating from different geographical  
 287 locations.

288 Our goal for the *Vgsc* gene can now be restated, which is to perform an insecticide  
 289 resistance outbreak analysis. We would like to diagnose how many separate outbreaks have  
 290 occurred, which outbreaks are localised, and which are spreading. For spreading outbreaks,  
 291 we would like to reconstruct the path of transmission of resistance alleles between mosquito  
 292 populations, and to provide information on the probable source. We would, of course, also  
 293 like to identify the primary and secondary genetic factors that are driving each outbreak.  
 294 Stated in this way, it is easier to discuss how this information is potentially relevant  
 295 to insecticide resistance management, and to frame key epidemiological questions. For  
 296 example, we would like to begin to build a picture of where and when local conditions  
 297 have favoured the evolution of insecticide resistance, and whether those conditions are  
 298 relatively patchy (and hence outbreaks are mainly localised) or whether conditions are



**Figure 3. Illustration of insecticide resistance outbreaks.** @@TODO explanation.

299 consistent over broad areas (and hence can support a spreading outbreak). We would also  
300 like to know which mosquito populations are sufficiently connected to enable outbreak  
301 spread, and if there is any consistent pattern to the direction of spread. This information  
302 could be relevant to discussions about how resources for insecticide resistance management  
303 might be targeted, what strategies are appropriate in which settings, and where and when  
304 insecticide resistance management needs to be coordinated between different countries  
305 and/or at different levels of administration.

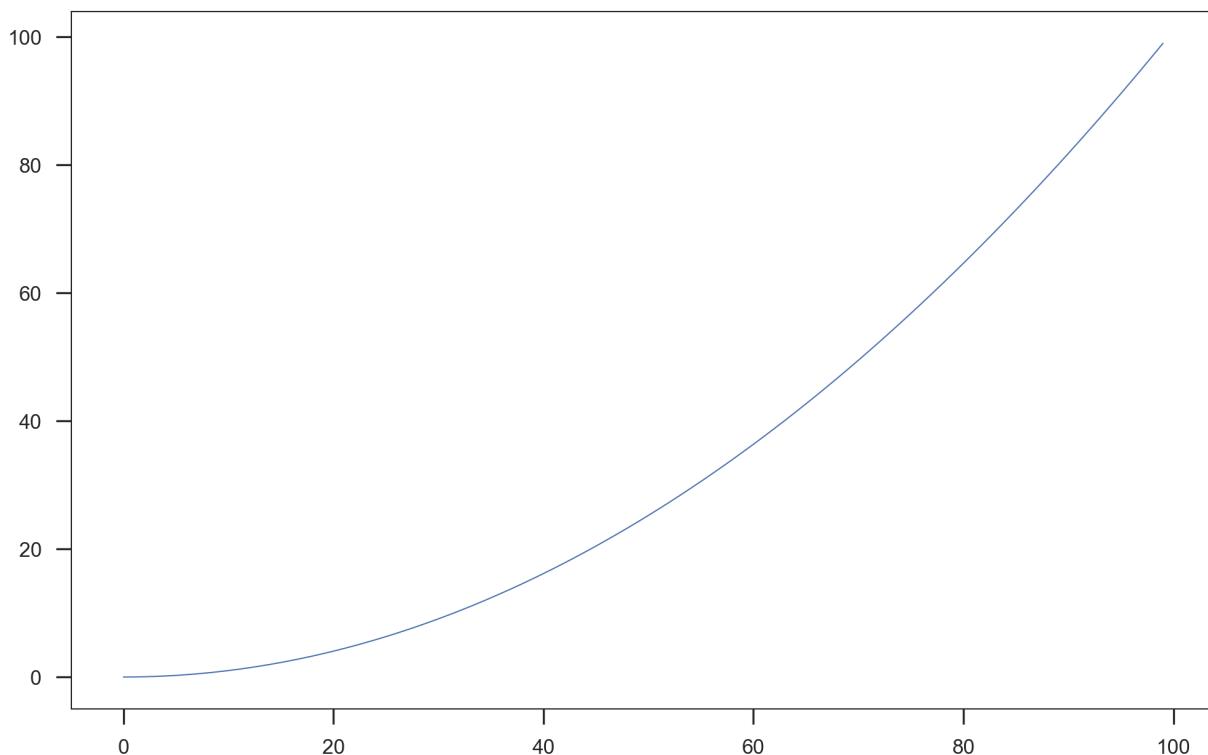
306 For clarity, we also define the concept of an insecticide resistance outbreak formally  
307 in terms of coalescent theory, as a collection of lineages (1) sharing a resistance driver  
308 allele by descent, (2) coalescing more recently than the onset of insecticide pressure, and  
309 (3) having increased in frequency because of positive selection due to insecticides. This  
310 definition is illustrated for four hypothetical outbreaks in Figure 3. Because mosquitoes  
311 are sexually recombining, genealogical trees vary along the genome, and so we define  
312 resistance outbreaks with respect to a specific gene locus, which for the present study  
313 is codon 995 within the *Vgsc* gene. Note that separate outbreaks may be driven by  
314 the same resistance allele, and this can occur if multiple mutational events occur after  
315 the introduction of insecticides (Figure 3, outbreaks 1 and 2), or if a resistance allele  
316 is present in mosquito populations as standing variation prior to insecticide use (Figure  
317 3, outbreaks 3 and 4). Here we are primarily concerned with whether outbreaks are  
318 localised or spreading, because this has immediate epidemiological relevance. We do not  
319 attempt to infer whether separate outbreaks with the same driver allele arose via standing  
320 variation or new mutations, however this is an interesting biological question to address  
321 in future studies. As a technical note, there is a simple correspondance with terminology  
322 conventionally used in the population genetics literature to describe selective sweeps. At  
323 a given gene locus, a hard selective sweep gives rise to a single resistance outbreak, and a  
324 soft selective sweep gives rise to multiple resistance outbreaks.

### 325 **Outbreak analysis from haplotype age**

326 As described above, haplotype data from genome regions both within and flanking the  
327 *Vgsc* gene provide a higher resolution for reconstructing recent historical events. To lever-  
328 age this information, we used a heuristic approach to estimate the time to most recent

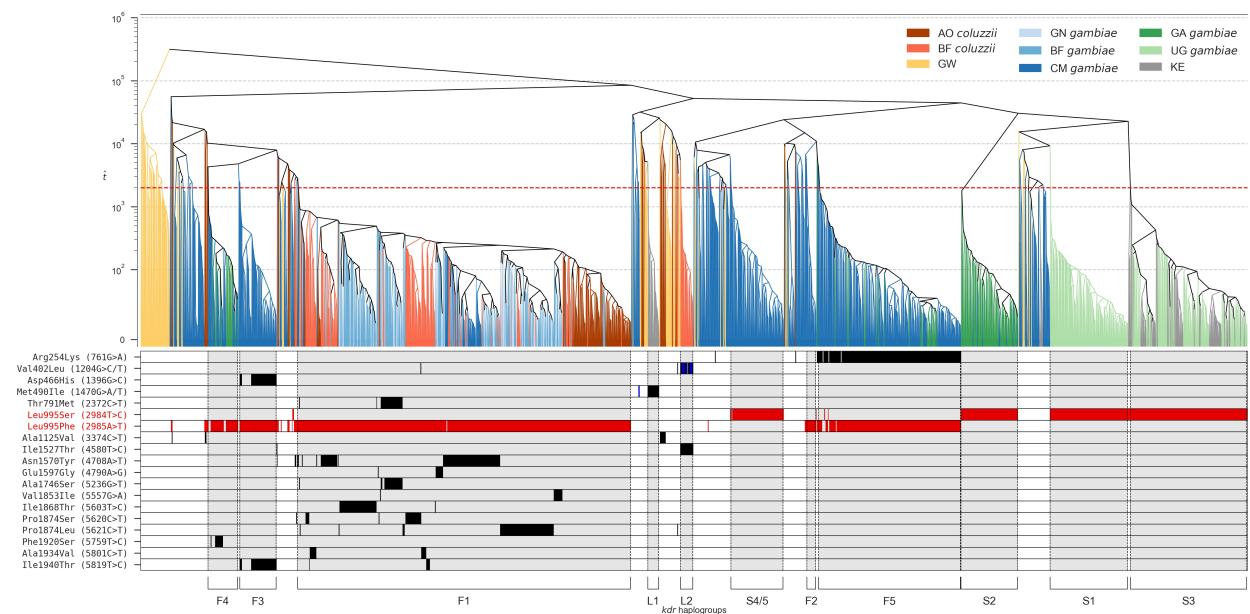
common ancestor (TMRCA) or “age” for each pair of haplotypes in our dataset, centering the analysis on *Vgsc* codon 995. For each pair of haplotypes, we estimated the length of the region shared identical by descent (IBD), and the number of mutations that have accumulated since the most recent common ancestor. We then combined these two pieces of information to produce a point estimate for the haplotype age (Methods). We studied the overall distribution of pairwise haplotype ages (Figure 4), and used hierarchical clustering to construct a dendrogram and visualise the overall age structure (Figure 5). We caution that although the estimated ages are in units of generations, these estimates have not been calibrated, and there is substantial uncertainty regarding both the mutation and recombination rate parameters. The ages therefore should not be interpreted as reliable absolute values, but they can be compared to each other to investigate the relative age of different events.

A key feature of the overall age distribution is that it is bimodal, with a minor mode of haplotypes coalescing recently, and a major mode coalescing further in the past (Figure 4). This is expected at an insecticide resistance locus experiencing one or more resistance



**Figure 4. Haplotype age distribution.** @@TODO real figure.

344 outbreaks. Within each outbreak, all haplotypes share a very recent common ancestor,  
 345 but between outbreaks and among haplotypes without any resistance allele, haplotypes are  
 346 more distantly related, and the distribution of ages is influenced by mosquito population  
 347 size and other demographic factors. In particular, mosquito populations generally have  
 348 a large effective population size (@@REF Ag1000G), and so in the absence of selection,  
 349 haplotypes are expected to coalesce slowly. The bimodal age distribution is not due to  
 350 geographical population structure, because the same bimodality is observed within several  
 351 populations. We take the midpoint between these two modes as an estimate for the earliest  
 352 time of onset of selective pressure due to insecticides, and thus for the maximum age of  
 353 a resistance outbreak. To identify haplotype clusters representing putative resistance  
 354 outbreaks, we then cut the haplotype dendrogram at this maximum outbreak age (Figure  
 355 5). Comparing this to previous analyses of haplotype structure based on genetic distance,  
 356 we find clusters F1-F5 and S1-S3 recapitulated with close correspondence, and S4 and  
 357 S5 merged into a single cluster. We label a new cluster “L@@” representing an outbreak  
 358 driven by the I1527T allele in combination with one or the other V402L allele. We also label  
 359 a cluster “L@” capturing a set of haplotypes from Kenya carrying the M490I variant,  
 360 although the fact that these haplotypes all share a recent common ancestor may be a  
 361 reflection of the unusual demography of the Kenyan population which has experienced

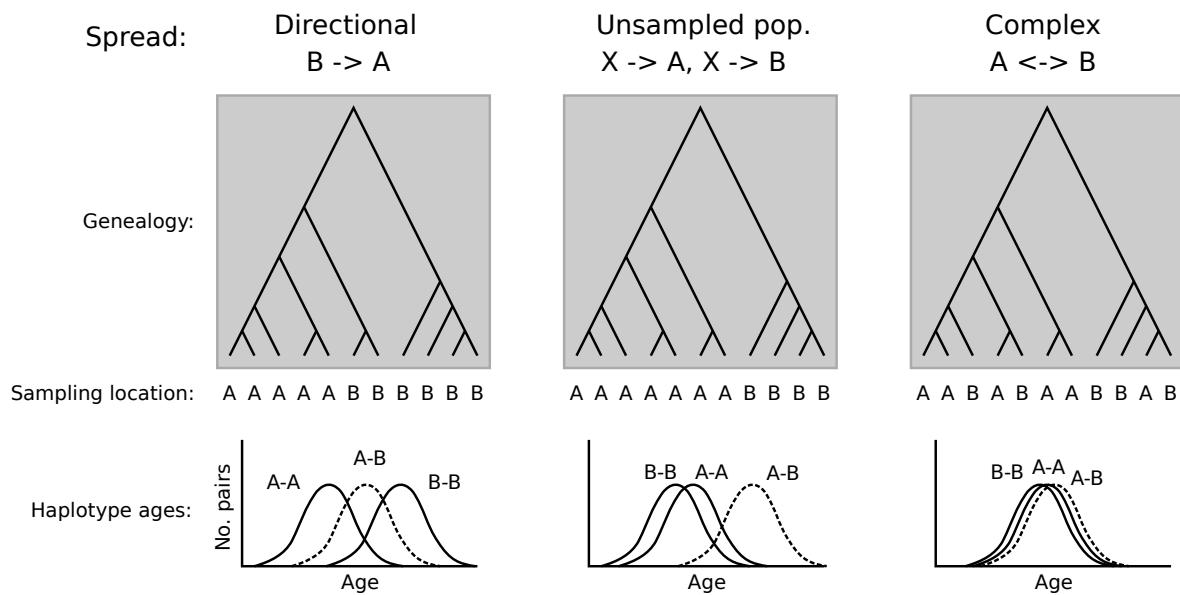


**Figure 5. Clustering of haplotypes by age.** @@TODO bigger font. @@TODO change "kdr haplogroups" to something else. @@TODO yticks to show number of haplotypes.

362 a severe population crash (@@REF) and not be due to recent selection for insecticide  
 363 resistance. As in earlier analyses, clusters F1, F4, F5 and S3 all include haplotypes  
 364 sampled from multiple geographical locations, and thus represent spreading outbreaks.  
 365 Clusters F2, F3, S1, S2, S4/5 and L1 include only haplotypes from a single sampling  
 366 location, and thus appear to represent localised outbreaks.

367 We then studied the distribution of haplotype ages within each spreading outbreak, to  
 368 attempt to reconstruct information about the historical path of transmission of resistance  
 369 alleles between locations. To do this, we grouped the haplotypes within each spreading  
 370 outbreak by sampling location, and compared the distribution of haplotype ages both  
 371 within and between locations. To aid in interpreting these data, we define three pos-  
 372 sible spreading scenarios, being: (1) a directional spread from one population to another;  
 373 (2) spread from an unsampled population into the sampled populations; and (3) a com-  
 374 plex scenario involving multiple gene flow events. In Figure 6 we illustrate the expected  
 375 genealogy and haplotype age distribution under each of these scenarios.

376 The clearest result was obtained for outbreak F1 (Figure 7). Within this outbreak,  
 377 haplotypes from Cameroon and Angola are significantly younger than haplotypes from  
 378 Burkina Faso and Guinea. The age distributions are consistent with an outbreak originat-  
 379 ing in West Africa and subsequently spreading towards Cameroon and separately towards

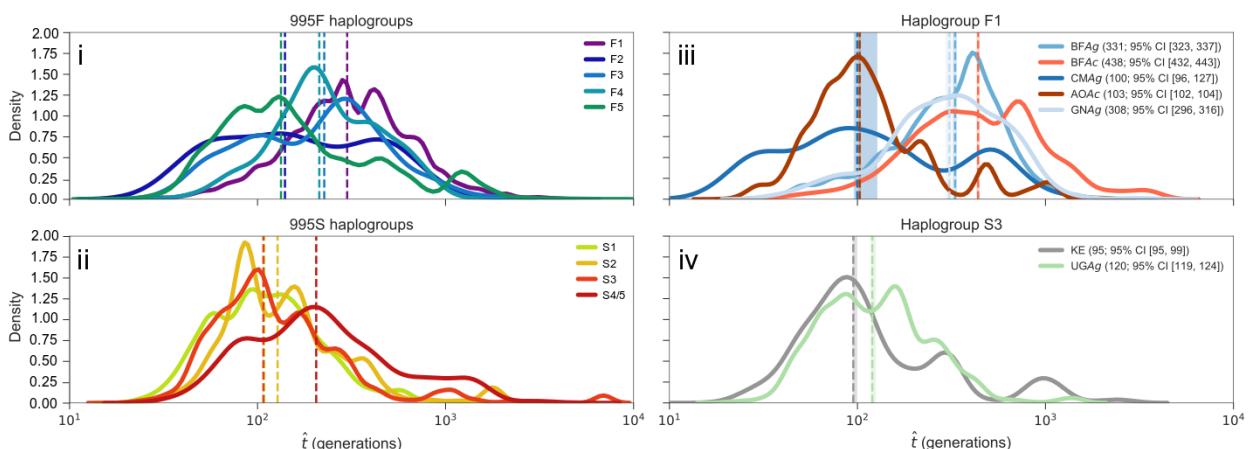


**Figure 6. Inferring history of spread from haplotype ages.** @@TODO explain.

380    Angola. We were surprised that the age distributions for *An. gambiae* and *An. coluzzii*  
 381    from Burkina Faso are very similar, despite the fact that previous studies have shown that  
 382    introgression has occurred from *An. gambiae* into *An. coluzzii*. This may indicate that  
 383    the initial introgression event happened during the early phases of the outbreak, but is  
 384    also consistent with a complex history of multiple gene flow events between the species.

385    Outbreaks F4, F5 and S2 each involve haplotypes from both Cameroon and Gabon.  
 386    Interpreting the age distributions for these outbreaks is difficult, because mosquitoes from  
 387    Gabon were collected at a much earlier time point (2000) than mosquitoes from Cameroon  
 388    (20@@). If our haplotype age estimates were well-calibrated, and we also had reliable  
 389    estimates for the number of mosquito generations per year, then we might be able to  
 390    adjust for this time difference, however we are not able to do so presently. An interesting  
 391    feature of these outbreaks, however, is that we would expect haplotypes from Gabon to  
 392    appear older due to the time of sampling, which is observed for outbreak S2 but not  
 393    for F4 or F5. Indeed, S2 is at a high frequency among all Gabon haplotypes and a low  
 394    frequency among Cameroon haplotypes, whereas the reverse is true for F4 and F5. These  
 395    data suggest that F4 and F5 have spread from Cameroon towards Gabon, while S2 has  
 396    spread in the opposite direction. A lot can happen in mosquito populations in @@N years,  
 397    however, and these conclusions remain highly speculative pending further sampling from  
 398    both locations.

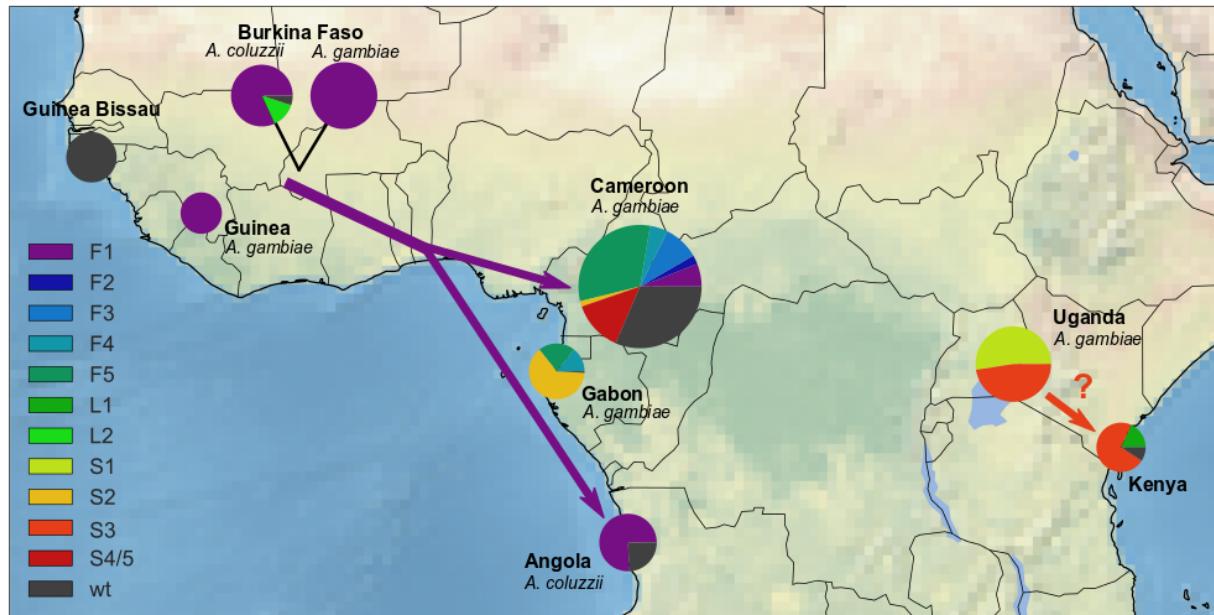
399    For outbreak S3 involving haplotypes from Uganda and Kenya, the age distributions



**Figure 7. Haplotype age distributions.** @@TODO rethink what goes in here, also if this needs to be here or can go to supplementary.

400 do not suggest any clear direction of gene flow. This could reflect multiple gene flow  
 401 events in either or both directions. However, another outbreak (S1) is localised in Uganda  
 402 and represented within the Ugandan population at roughly equal frequency with S3. If  
 403 transmission was occurring from Uganda towards Kenya, we might expect both outbreaks  
 404 to have spread to Kenya. Thus the localisation of S1 suggests S3 has spread into Uganda  
 405 from Kenya or another location. Again, this conclusion remains tentative and requires  
 406 confirmation via further sampling.

407 To summarise these conclusions in a concise way, we have depicted the distribution and  
 408 spread of resistance outbreaks via the map shown in Figure 8. We have plotted haplotypes  
 409 from each sampling location as a pie chart. The overall size of each pie chart represents  
 410 the number of haplotypes sampled, and coloured wedges within each pie represent the  
 411 frequency of each resistance outbreak within the population. Coloured arrows are used  
 412 to depict our inferences regarding the transmission paths for spreading outbreaks. Our  
 413 conclusions regarding direction of spread for outbreaks F4, F5, S2 and S3 are tentative,  
 414 and we indicate this with a question mark. Because of the relatively sparse geographical  
 415 representation within the Ag1000G phase 1 dataset, and the fact that collections were



**Figure 8. Geographical distribution of resistance outbreaks.** @@TODO arrows for Gabon  
 <-> Cameroon. @@TODO change arrow for Kenya -> Uganda. @@TODO add source area for  
 F1.

not synchronized but span several years, we cannot be precise about the geographical origins of these resistance outbreaks. Even for outbreak F1 where we have clear evidence of spread from West Africa towards Central and Southern Africa, we have only sampled mosquitoes from Guinea and Burkina Faso, and the true source of the outbreak may not be either of these countries. We indicate this uncertainty regarding the outbreak source as a coloured area with a dashed border. This representation is imperfect, as is our knowledge regarding the sources and transmission paths of these outbreaks, but we hope this depiction may at least serve to stimulate further sampling, analysis and discussion, with the aim of improving our knowledge of resistance outbreaks for *Vgsc* as well as other insecticide resistance genes.

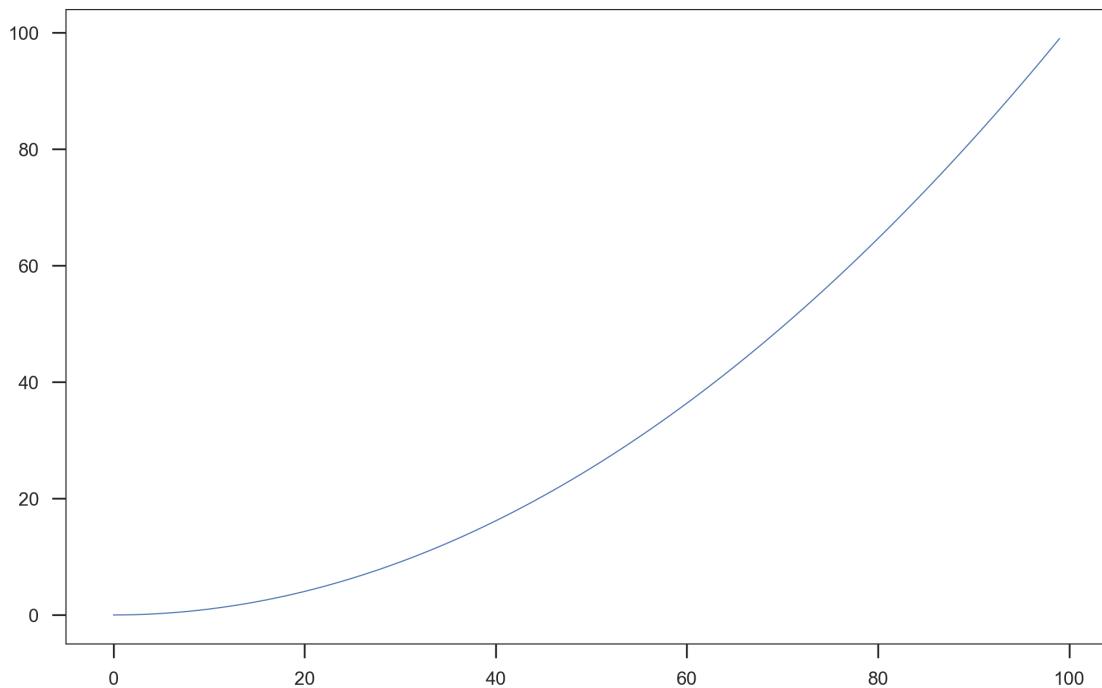
#### 426 **Design of genetic assays for outbreak surveillance**

The insecticide resistance outbreaks we have identified here are undoubtedly ongoing, affecting many more mosquito populations than we have sampled in Ag1000G phase 1, and continuing to spread. In addition, other outbreaks may be occurring in populations that we have not sampled, or in populations we have sampled but since the sampling date. Whole genome sequencing of individual mosquitoes clearly provides data of sufficient resolution to detect resistance outbreaks and provide ongoing outbreak surveillance. The cost of whole genome sequencing continues to fall, with the present cost being approximately 100 GBP to obtain 30X coverage of an individual genome. Mobile sequencing technology is also developing rapidly, and may be a realistic prospect for mosquito population surveillance within a few years. There is an interim period, however, during which it may be more practical to develop targeted genetic assays for outbreak surveillance that could scale to tens of thousands of mosquitoes at a fraction of the cost of whole genome sequencing. For example, SNP genotyping using mass spectrometry and amplicon sequencing are two available technologies that could be applied now at scale and at modest cost.

To facilitate the development of targeted genetic assays for *Vgsc* insecticide resistance outbreak surveillance, we have produced two supplementary data tables. In Supplementary Table 1 we provide a list of all SNPs discovered in this study within the *Vgsc* gene and in the @@20 kbp upstream and downstream flanking intergenic regions. Both amplicon sequencing and genotyping by mass spectrometry require the design of PCR primers to

amplify the targeted genome region. To aid in primer design, for each SNP we provide the flanking sequence for @@200 bp upstream and downstream of the SNP position, including information about any polymorphisms within these flanking regions. Not all SNPs are informative for detecting whether an individual mosquito carries a haplotype from a resistance outbreak, and we provide some summary statistics for each SNP to aid in the selection of the most informative SNPs. For each SNP we report the allele frequencies within each of the outbreaks identified here, as well as for populations of susceptible haplotypes. We also provide the overall variance in allele frequencies, the information gain, and the Gini impurity for each SNP. Note that recombination events are more likely at increasing distances upstream and downstream of the resistance variants under selection, and thus the most informative SNPs are found closest to the resistance variants within the gene (@@REF Figure @@). However, SNPs with some information gain are available throughout the gene and in flanking regions.

We suggest that the design of a genetic assay proceed by (1) performing an initial round of filtering to remove SNPs which are not informative (e.g., low information gain); (2) performing a round of primer design to remove SNPs for which primers are unlikely to



**Figure 9. Information gain.** @@TODO make the figure. @@TODO also include cross-validation scores for trees versus number of features, or separate figure?

462 be successful; (3) performing a full analysis of the remaining SNPs to select a subset that is  
463 sufficient to classify all outbreaks identified here; (4) finalise primer designs for the chosen  
464 panel of SNPs. A possible methodology for step 3 would be to use an algorithm such  
465 as ID3 to build a decision tree. To aid in the development of a classification algorithm,  
466 in Supplementary Table 2 we provide our classification for each of the 1530 haplotypes  
467 sampled here, along with the alleles carried by each haplotype for each of the SNPs included  
468 in Supplementary Table 1. To test the methodology, we constructed decision trees using  
469 the ID3 algorithm and using all available SNPs as input features (i.e., assuming primers  
470 could be designed in all cases). In Figure @@REF we show the cross-validation scores  
471 obtained for trees constructed at increasing numbers of SNPs. This analysis suggests that  
472 it should be possible to construct a reasonable classifier using @@N SNPs or less.

## 473 **Recombination**

474 @@TODO?

## 475 **Discussion**

476 @@TODO Discuss accessibility, have we missed any functional variation?

477 @@TODO Discuss weaknesses, caveats and potential improvements to method for es-  
478 timating haplotype age.

479 @@TODO What are the implications for insecticide resistance management? Realistic-  
480 ally how could this information be used?

481 @@TODO What about DDT? If prior selection for DDT resistance, how might this  
482 complicate the picture? Do we see any evidence for multiple phases of selection?

483 @@TODO Speculate on why L995F but not L995S has evolved secondary variation.

## 484 **Legacy**

485 @@TODO describe how we put together the map (Figure 8).

## 486 **Recombination and independent outbreaks of resistance**

487 @@TODO

488 @@TODO

489 @@TODO

490 Discussion

491 @@TODO

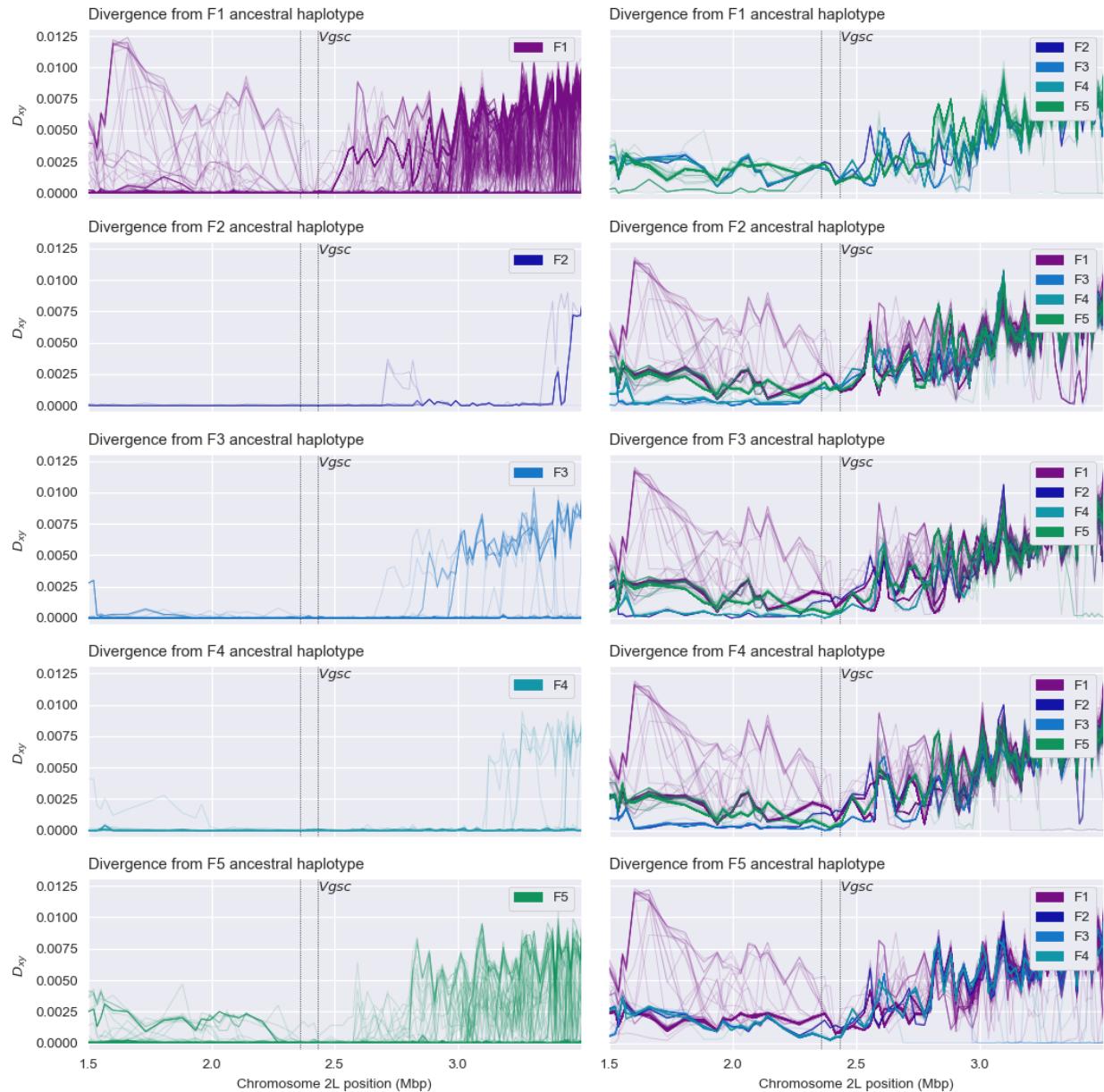
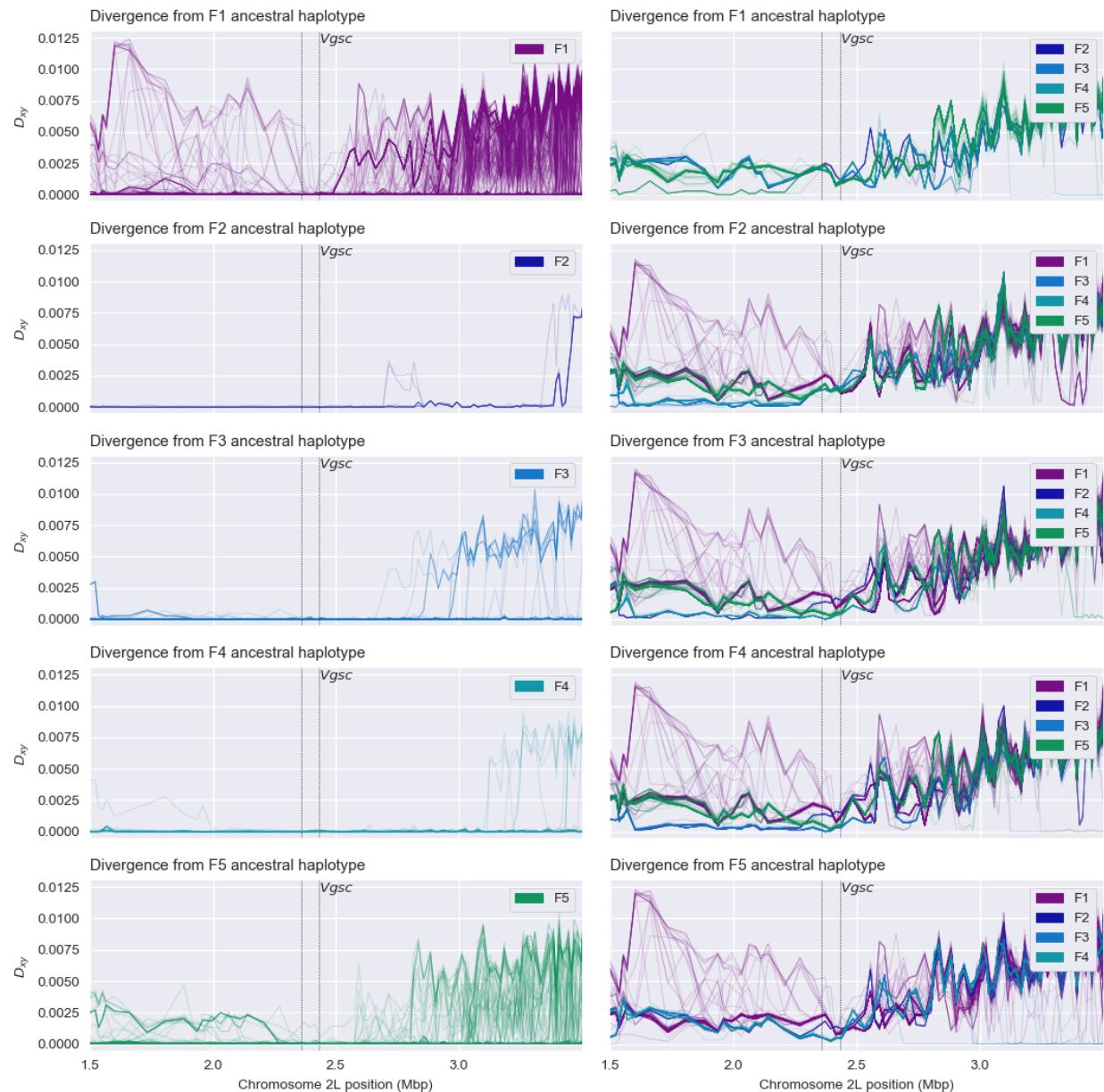


Figure 10. Recombination and ancestral haplotypes for L995F. @@TODO legend

492 **Methods**

493 @@TODO



**Figure 11.** Recombination and ancestral haplotypes for L995S. @@TODO legend

494 **References**

- 495 [1] Martin S Williamson et al. 'Identification of mutations in the houseflypara-type so-  
496 dium channel gene associated with knockdown resistance (kdr) to pyrethroid insect-  
497 icides'. In: *Molecular and General Genetics MGG* 252.1 (1996), pp. 51–60.