1 Using the basic reproduction number to assess the risk of

2 transmission of lumpy skin disease virus by biting insects

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- 12 Short running title: R_0 for LSDV
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14 Summary

15 In recent years, lumpy skin disease virus (LSDV) has emerged as a major threat to cattle 16 outside Africa, where it is endemic. Although evidence suggests that LSDV is transmitted by 17 the bites of blood sucking arthropods, few studies have assessed the risk of transmission posed by particular vector species. Here this risk is assessed by calculating the basic 18 19 reproduction number (R_0) for transmission of LSDV by five species of biting insect: the 20 stable fly, Stomoxys calcitrans, the biting midge, Culicoides nubeculosus, and three mosquito 21 species, Aedes aegypti, Anopheles stephensi and Culex quinquefasciatus. Parameters relating 22 to mechanical transmission of LSDV were estimated using new analyses of previously-23 published data from transmission experiments, while vector life history parameters were 24 derived from the published literature. Uncertainty and sensitivity analyses were used to 25 compute R_0 for each species and to identify those parameters which influence its magnitude. 26 Results suggest that S. calcitrans is likely to be the most efficient at transmitting LSDV, with 27 Ae. aegypti also an efficient vector. By contrast, C. nubeculosus, An. stephensi, and Cx. 28 *quinquefasciatus* are likely to be inefficient vectors of LSDV. However, there is considerable 29 uncertainty associated with the estimates of R_0 , reflecting uncertainty in most of the 30 constituent parameters. Sensitivity analysis suggests that future experimental work should 31 focus on estimating the probability of transmission from insect to bovine and on the virus 32 inactivation rate in insects.

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Keywords: cattle; epidemiology; transmission model; Bayesian methods; uncertainty
analysis; sensitivity analysis

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37 **1** Introduction

38 Lumpy skin disease (LSD) is an important transboundary disease of cattle and is caused by 39 lumpy skin disease virus (LSDV). Historically, LSD outbreaks have largely been confined to 40 Africa (EFSA Panel on Animal Health and Welfare, 2015), where the disease contributes to rural poverty and food insecurity (Tuppurainen & Oura, 2012; Molla, de Jong, Gari & 41 42 Frankena, 2017). In recent years, however, LSDV has emerged as a major threat to cattle outside of Africa. In 2012 it spread to the Middle East, through Israel and the Lebanon, 43 44 reaching Turkey in 2013 (Alkhamis & VanderWaal, 2016). In 2015, the first cases of LSD 45 were reported in Greece (Tasioudi et al., 2016) and the virus subsequently spread to much of 46 the Balkans (Mercier et al., 2018).

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48 Evidence from the field and from experiments indicates that transmission of LSDV by most 49 direct and indirect routes is inefficient (Weiss, 1968; Carn & Kitching, 1995). The principal 50 transmission route for LSDV is believed to be via the bites of blood sucking arthropods 51 (Tuppurainen & Oura, 2012; EFSA Panel on Animal Health and Welfare, 2015). This has been shown experimentally for *Aedes aegypti* mosquitos (Chihota, Rennie, Kitching & 52 53 Mellor, 2001) and for *Rhipicephalus appendiculatus* male ticks (Tuppurainen et al., 2013). 54 The stable fly, *Stomoxys calcitrans*, has been incriminated as a potential vector in Israel by 55 comparing its seasonal abundance with the seasonality of LSD cases (Kahana-Sutin, 56 Klement, Lensky & Gottlieb, 2017) and because of its ability to transmit the closely related 57 capripox virus between sheep and goats (Kitching & Mellor, 1986; Mellor, Kitching & 58 Wilkinson, 1987). The potential for the biting midge, *Culicoides nubeculosus*, and two other 59 mosquito species, *Culex quinquefasciatus* and *Anopheles stephensi*, to transmit LSDV has 60 also been assessed, though for these three species attempts at transmission were unsuccessful 61 (Chihota, Rennie, Kitching & Mellor, 2003).

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63 In this study, the risk of transmission of LSDV posed by different insect species is explored 64 by estimating the basic reproduction number for five species of biting insect (S. calcitrans, C. 65 nubeculosus, Ae. aegypti, An. stephensi and Cx. quinquefasciatus). These species were 66 selected as their potential role in LSDV transmission has been investigated previously 67 (Chihota, Rennie, Kitching & Mellor, 2001, 2003) and they represent insect species (or at 68 least genera) that are relevant to Europe. The basic reproduction number, denoted by R_0 , is 69 the "average number of secondary cases arising from the introduction of a single infected 70 individual into an otherwise susceptible population" (Diekmann & Heesterbeek, 2000). An 71 outbreak can occur only if $R_0>1$ and, consequently, R_0 provides a means to assess the risk 72 posed by each vector species.

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74 Using a transmission model, an expression for R_0 is derived that shows how it relates to the 75 underlying transmission processes in insect vectors and cattle. These constituent parameters 76 are then estimated using data from the published literature. In particular, data from transmission experiments involving the five putative vector species (Chihota, Rennie, 77 78 Kitching & Mellor, 2001, 2003) are re-analysed using Bayesian methods to quantify the 79 uncertainty in parameters relating to mechanical transmission. In addition, the latent and 80 infectious periods for LSDV are estimated from the outcome of challenge experiments 81 (Tuppurainen, Venter & Coetzer, 2005; Babiuk et al., 2008), again using Bayesian methods. 82 Finally, uncertainty and sensitivity analyses are used to calculate R_0 and to determine which 83 of the constituent parameters has the greatest influence on its magnitude.

84

85 2 Materials and methods

86 2.1 Basic reproduction number for LSDV

For an infection transmitted mechanically by biting insects the basic reproduction number canbe written as,

$$R_0 = \sqrt{\frac{ba}{(\gamma + \mu)}} \times \frac{\beta ma}{r_l}.$$
 (1)

90 A full mathematical derivation of this expression for R_0 , including the transmission model on 91 which it is based, is presented in the supporting information (Text S1). However, the 92 expression, (1), can be understood heuristically as follows. After it feeds on an infected 93 animal, an insect remains infected (and infectious) until the virus becomes inactivated or it 94 dies, a period which lasts on average $1/(\gamma + \mu)$ days, where γ is the virus inactivation rate and μ 95 is the vector mortality rate. During this time it will bite susceptible cattle a times per day 96 (where a is the reciprocal of the time interval between blood meals) and a proportion, b, of 97 these bites (i.e. the probability of transmission from insect to bovine) will result in a newly 98 infected host. Once infected, a bovine will remain infectious for the duration of its infectious 99 period, which lasts $1/r_l$ days on average. During this time the host will be bitten by 100 susceptible insects on average $m \times a$ times per day (here m = N/H is the vector to host ratio and 101 N and H are the number of vectors and hosts, respectively), a proportion, β , of which will 102 result in a newly infected vector (i.e. the probability of transmission from bovine to insect).

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104 2.2 Mechanical transmission of LSDV by insects

Data on mechanical transmission of lumpy skin disease virus to cattle by five species of biting insect (*S. calcitrans, C. nubeculosus, Ae. aegypti, An. stephensi* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus*) were extracted from the published literature (Chihota, Rennie, Kitching & Mellor, 2001, 2003). This provided the number of positive insects (i.e. those for which viral DNA was detected; virus isolation was only carried out for a small number of pooled samples) and the number of insects tested after feeding on a LSDV-infected bovine (*S.* 111 calcitrans, C. nubeculosus or Ae. aegypti) or a blood-virus mix via a membrane (An. 112 stephensi and Cx. quinquefasciatus) at each day post feeding (Table S1). It also provided 113 information on whether or not transmission occurred when batches of insects that had 114 previously fed on an infected animal or received an infected blood meal were allowed to 115 refeed on a naïve bovine (Table S1).

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117 These data were used to estimate the virus inactivation rate (γ), the probability of 118 transmission from bovine to insect (β) and the probability of transmission from insect to 119 bovine (*b*) for each species. Parameters were estimated in a Bayesian framework to facilitate 120 the incorporation of uncertainty in estimates of R_0 . The likelihood for the data is given by,

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$$L(\gamma, \beta, b) = \prod_{i} {N_{i} \choose Y_{i}} p_{i}^{Y_{i}} (1 - p_{i})^{N_{i} - Y_{i}} \times \prod_{j} q_{j}^{I_{j}} (1 - q_{j})^{1 - I_{j}},$$
(2)

where Y_i and N_i are the number of positive insects and number of insects tested at t_i days post feeding, respectively, and I_j is a variable indicating whether (I_j =1) or not (I_j =0) transmission occurred when insects were allowed to refeed on naïve animal j at t_j days post initial feed. In equation (2),

126 $p_i = \beta \exp(-\gamma t_i), \qquad (3)$

127 is the probability that an insect is positive at t_i days post feeding and,

128
$$q_i = 1 - (1 - b\beta \exp(-\gamma t_i))^{n_i},$$
 (4)

is the probability that transmission occurred from infected insects to bovine *j* at t_j days post initial feed. The probability, (3), is the probability that an insect became infected (β) multiplied by the probability that it was still infected when tested (exp(- γt_i)). The probability, (4), is the probability that at least one insect (out of the n_j feeding) transmitted LSDV, where the probability that an individual insect will transmit LSDV is the product of the probabilities

134	that it became infected (β), that it was still infected when refeeding occurred (exp(- γt_j)) and
135	that it subsequently transmitted LSDV to the animal during refeeding (b). Non-informative
136	priors were assumed for all three parameters: exponential with mean 100 for γ and uniform
137	with range (0,1) for b and β .

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139 Samples from the joint posterior density were generated using an adaptive Metropolis scheme 140 (Haario, Saksman & Tamminen, 2001), modified so that the scaling factor was tuned during 141 burn-in to ensure an acceptance rate of between 20% and 40% for more efficient sampling of the target distribution (Andrieu & Thoms, 2008). Two chains of 50,000 iterations were run, 142 143 with the preceding 10,000 iterations discarded to allow for burn-in of the chain. The chains 144 were then thinned (taking every fifth sample) to reduce autocorrelation amongst the samples. 145 The adaptive Metropolis scheme was implemented in Matlab (version R2018a; The 146 Mathworks Inc.). Convergence of the scheme was assessed visually and by examining the 147 Gelman-Rubin statistic provided in the coda package (Plummer, Best, Cowles & Vines, 148 2006) in R (R Core Team, 2018).

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150 2.3 Latent and infectious periods for LSDV in cattle

The mean infectious period $(1/r_l)$ for LSDV in cattle was estimated using data from experimental infections (Tuppurainen, Venter & Coetzer, 2005; Babiuk et al., 2008). Three proxy measures of infectiousness were considered: detection of viral DNA in blood by PCR; detection of virus in blood by virus isolation (VI) in cell culture; and detection of virus (by transmission electron microscopy) or viral DNA (by PCR) in skin lesions. For each animal, the minimum infectious period was calculated as the time between the first positive and last positive samples, while the maximum infectious period was calculated as the time between

the last negative and first subsequent negative sample for each measure (i.e. accounting forsampling frequency) (Table S2).

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Although it is not needed for the calculation of R_0 (see equation (1)), the mean latent period was also estimated for each proxy measure using data from experimental infections of cattle (Chihota, Rennie, Kitching & Mellor, 2001; Tuppurainen, Venter & Coetzer, 2005; Babiuk et al., 2008). In this case, the shortest latent period was the time of the last negative sample and the longest latent period was the time of the first positive sample for each measure (i.e. detection of viral DNA in blood, detection of virus in blood and appearance of skin lesions) (Table S2).

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The infectious period was assumed to follow a gamma distribution with mean duration $1/r_I$ and shape parameter n_I , while the latent period was assumed to follow a gamma distribution with mean duration $1/r_E$ and shape parameter n_E (see Text S1). Parameters (i.e. mean and shape parameter) for each proxy measure were estimated using Bayesian methods, with the likelihood given by,

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$$L(r_{i}, n_{i}) = \prod_{j} \int_{t_{\min}^{(j)}}^{t_{\max}^{(j)}} f(\tau) \, \mathrm{d}\tau,$$
 (5)

where t_{\min} and t_{\max} are the minimum and maximum infectious period (*i=I*) or latent period (*i=E*) for an animal, respectively, and *f* is the probability density function for the gamma distribution. Non-informative priors (exponential with mean 100) were assumed for both the mean and the shape parameter.

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180 Samples from the joint posterior distribution were generated using a random walk181 Metropolis-Hastings algorithm (Andrieu & Thoms, 2008), with each parameter updated in

turn. Two chains of 20,000 iterations were run, with the preceding 5,000 iterations discarded to allow for burn-in of the chain. The chains were then thinned (taking every other sample) to reduce autocorrelation amongst the samples. The Metropolis-Hastings scheme was implemented in Matlab (version R2018a; The Mathworks Inc.). Convergence of the scheme was assessed visually and by examining the Gelman-Rubin statistic provided in the coda package (Plummer, Best, Cowles & Vines, 2006) in R (R Core Team, 2018).

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2.4 Vector life history parameters

Life history parameters, specifically the reciprocal of the time interval between blood meals (*a*), the vector to host ratio (*m*) and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector to host ratio (*m*) and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector to host ratio (*m*) and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector to host ratio (*m*) and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector to host ratio (*m*) and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector to host ratio (*m*) and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector to host ratio (*m*) and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector to host ratio (*m*) and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector to host ratio (*m*) and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector to host ratio (*m*) and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector to host ratio (*m*) and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector definition (*m*) and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector definition (*m*), and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector definition (*m*), and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector definition (*m*), and the vector mortality rate (μ), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector definition (*m*), the vector definition (*m*), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector definition (*m*), the vector definition (*m*), were estimated for *S*. (*a*), the vector definition (*m*), the vector definition (*m*), were estimated for *S*.

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196 2.5 Uncertainty and sensitivity analyses

197 Replicated Latin hypercube sampling (LHS) was used to explore the parameters influencing 198 the basic reproduction number, R_0 for each insect species and proxy measure of 199 infectiousness (Blower & Dowlatabadi, 1994; Luz, Codeco, Massad & Struichner, 2003; 200 Gubbins et al., 2008). Parameters were sampled either from their marginal posterior 201 distributions (b, β , γ and $1/r_l$) or uniformly from plausible ranges (a, m and μ). The LHS 202 results were used to compute the median and 95% prediction interval for R_0 . The sensitivity 203 of R_0 to changes in each parameter was assessed by calculating the partial rank correlation 204 coefficients (PRCCs). The uncertainty and sensitivity analyses were implemented in Matlab 205 (version R2018a; The Mathworks Inc.).

206

207 **3 Results**

208 3.1 Mechanical transmission of LSDV by insects

209 The model, (3), adequately captured the data for all five species of biting insect, with the 210 observed number of positive insects lying within the 95% credible intervals for the posterior 211 predictive distribution (Figure 1). Although there is uncertainty associated with all the 212 parameters related to mechanical transmission, there are still clear differences amongst the 213 species (Figure 2). The virus inactivation rate is lowest for Ae. aegypti (0.08 day⁻¹), intermediate for An. stephensi (0.2 day⁻¹) and Cx. quinquefasciatus (0.3 day⁻¹) and highest for 214 S. calcitrans (1.6 day⁻¹) and C. nubeculosus (71.4 day⁻¹) (Table 2). The probability of 215 216 transmission from bovine to insect is highest for the three mosquito species, lower for S. 217 *calcitrans* and lowest for *C. nubeculosus* (Table 2; Figure 2).

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219 There is considerable uncertainty in the estimates for the probability of transmission from 220 insect to bovine for all five insect species (Figure 2; Table 2). The posterior mode was non-221 zero only for Ae. aegypti, though the probability of transmission from insect to bovine could 222 not be precisely estimated for this species (Figure 2). The posterior median for the probability 223 of transmission from insect to bovine was low for An. stephensi (0.03) and Cx. quinquefasciatus (0.04), though the upper 95% credible limit for both species is an order of 224 225 magnitude higher (Figure 2; Table 2). Finally, the probability of transmission from insect to 226 bovine could not be reliably estimated for either S. calcitrans or C. nubeculosus (Figure 2; 227 Figure S1). This is, in part, because the number of insects refeeding when attempting 228 transmission to cattle was not reported for these species (Chihota, Rennie, Kitching & Mellor, 229 2003). For C. nubeculosus, the posterior distribution for the probability of transmission from 230 insect to bovine was identical to the prior distribution (Figure S1), regardless of assumptions 231 made about the numbers of insects that refed (either 1, 5, 10, 20, 50 or 100). For S. calcitrans 232 the posterior mass for the probability of transmission from insect to bovine was shifted 233 towards zero if a larger number of insects was assumed to refeed, though the 95% credible 234 interval remained large (Figure S1). For both species, estimates for the virus inactivation rate 235 and probability of transmission from bovine to insect were not affected by the number of 236 insects assumed to refeed (Figure S1). In the uncertainty and sensitivity analyses for these 237 species, the posterior distributions for parameters related to mechanical transmission (b, β and 238 γ) were those obtained when 100 insects were assumed to refeed, as this provides the most 239 conservative assessment of the risk they pose.

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241 3.2 Latent and infectious periods for LSDV in cattle

The mean infectious period depends on the proxy measure used to determine when an animal is infectious (Table 3). It is shortest when based on virus isolation from blood (8.8 days), intermediate when based on detection of viral DNA in blood (16.3 days) and longest when based on detection of virus or viral DNA in skin lesions (23.1 days). The mean latent period also depends on the proxy measure used to determine when an animal is infectious. It was estimated to be 5.8 days for blood (PCR), 8.1 days for blood (VI) and 7.3 days for skin lesions (Table 3).

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250 3.3 Uncertainty and sensitivity analyses

The basic reproduction number for LSDV was highest for transmission by *S. calcitrans*, intermediate for *Ae. aegypti*, low for *C. nubeculosus* and *An. stephensi* and lowest *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (Figure 3; Table 4). Indeed, the median R_0 for *Cx. quinquefasciatus* was below the threshold for an outbreak to occur (i.e. $R_0=1$). The magnitude of R_0 depended on the proxy measure of infectiousness used (through its influence on the duration of infectiousness), with higher values when based on detection of virus or viral DNA in skin lesions, intermediate when based on detection of viral DNA in blood and lowest when basedon detection of virus in blood (Figure 3; Table 4).

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260 The sensitivity of R_0 to changes in its constituent parameters differed amongst the insect 261 species, though some patterns emerge (Figure 4). For all species, the strongest correlations 262 were with the probability of transmission from insect to bovine (b; PRCC>0.66), the biting 263 rate (a; PRCC>0.75, except for Ae. aegypti), the vector to host ratio (m; PRCC>0.58) and the 264 virus inactivation rate (y; PRCC<-0.47, except An. stephensi and Cx. quinquefasciatus). For 265 the three mosquito species, there was also correlation with the vector mortality rate $(\mu;$ 266 PRCC<-0.45), but this was not the case for the other dipteran species (PRCC \approx 0). The 267 probability of transmission from bovine to insect (β) and the mean infectious period ($1/r_I$) 268 were also positively correlated with R_0 (PRCC=0.3-0.4 and PRCC=0.2-0.5, respectively). 269 These patterns are independent of the proxy measure of infectiousness used (Figure 4).

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271 **4 Discussion**

The results of the uncertainty analysis for the basic reproduction number (Figure 3; Table 4) suggest that *S. calcitrans* is likely to be the most efficient vector of LSDV (out of the five species considered in the present study), with *Ae. aegypti* also an efficient vector of the virus. By contrast, *C. nubeculosus*, *An. stephensi* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* are likely to be inefficient as vectors of LSDV.

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These conclusions would potentially be different if the risk posed by each species was assessed on the outcome of the transmission experiments alone (Table 2). While the experimental outcome suggests *Ae. aegypti* might be an efficient vector, it could be concluded that *S. calcitrans* is likely to be a poor vector given the very short duration of 282 infection (<1 day) and the comparatively low probabilities of transmission from bovine to 283 insect or insect to bovine for this species. By contrast, the results of the transmission 284 experiments suggest that Cx. quinquefasciatus could be a more efficient vector than it is 285 based on the estimates for R_0 , because of the relatively long duration of infection and the high 286 probability of transmission from bovine to insect. This highlights the importance of 287 considering all factors associated with transmission, including vector life history, when 288 assessing the risk of transmission for each species. For both S. calcitrans and Cx. 289 quinquefasciatus the main reason for the difference in conclusions between transmission 290 experiments and R_0 is the time interval between blood meals, which is shorter than the 291 duration of infection for S. calcitrans, but longer than the duration of infection for Cx. 292 quinquefasciatus (Tables 1 & 2).

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294 A certain amount of care should be taken in interpreting these results, however, because there 295 is substantial uncertainty associated with the estimates of R_0 for all five species, but 296 especially for S. calcitrans and C. nubeculosus. One of the major sources of uncertainty is the 297 probability of transmission from insect to bovine (Figure 2; Table 2). Although transmission 298 to naïve cattle was attempted (Chihota, Rennie, Kitching & Mellor, 2003), it was done at 299 times when S. calcitrans and C. nubeculosus were unlikely to still be infectious (see Figure 1; 300 refeeding was at 1-3 days post infection for S. calcitrans and 3-5 days post infection for C. 301 *nubeculosus*). Consequently, there is little information in the data to estimate this parameter, 302 which is reflected in the posterior distributions being almost the same as the prior 303 distributions, especially in the case of C. nubeculosus (Figure 2; Figure S1). Yet the 304 probability of transmission from insect to bovine was identified as one of the parameters to 305 which the basic reproduction number is most sensitive for all five vector species considered 306 (Figure 4).

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The influence of the virus inactivation rate and vector mortality rate on R_0 differed amongst the species (Figure 4). The duration of infection (i.e. the reciprocal of the virus inactivation rate) for *C. nubeculosus* or *S. calcitrans* is much shorter than the lifespan of an insect and, consequently, only the virus inactivation rate is important for determining the magnitude of R_0 . By contrast, the duration of infection and insect lifespan are comparable for *Ae. aegypti*, *An. stephensi* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, so that both of these parameters have an influence on

the basic reproduction number.

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316 As with all uncertainty and sensitivity analyses, the conclusions drawn from them are valid 317 only over the parameter ranges considered. For parameters related to mechanical 318 transmission, these ranges were estimated from the available data on the outcome of 319 transmission experiments (Chihota, Rennie, Kitching & Mellor, 2001, 2003) and so represent 320 the best current estimates. Given the uncertainty in these parameters (which reflects the small 321 numbers of animals and insects tested at each time point in the studies; Table S1), a focus of 322 future experimental work should be to more precisely measure parameters related to 323 mechanical transmission and, in particular, the probability of transmission from insect to 324 bovine and the virus inactivation rate.

325

All three vector life history parameters were identified as influencing the magnitude of R_0 (Figure 4). Plausible ranges for these parameters were drawn from the published literature (Table 1). Wherever possible, ranges were derived using data relating to the species themselves. If suitable data were not available, however, ranges were derived using data for related species. In addition, the vector life parameters were assumed to be constant, but they will depend on environmental factors, including temperature and rainfall. Consequently, the

basic reproduction number, and so the risk of transmission, is unlikely to be constant overspace or time, but will vary both geographically and seasonally.

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335 This study considered the potential of five species of biting insects to transmit LSDV. This 336 was primarily because their ability to transmit LSDV had been assessed experimentally for 337 each of the species. However, the present analysis did not consider the effect of vector 338 feeding preferences on their potential role in transmission. The stable fly, S. calcitrans, is one 339 of the most damaging arthropod pests of cattle worldwide, both through its impact on 340 production (Taylor, Moon & Mark, 2012) and its ability to transmit a number of pathogens 341 (Baldacchino et al., 2013). Consequently, this species' feeding preferences are unlikely to 342 affect its efficiency as a vector of LSDV. Similarly, C. nubeculosus and other Culicoides 343 species for which C. nubeculosus can be considered a model are livestock-associated (Lassen, 344 Nielsen & Kristensen, 2012; Purse, Carpenter, Venter, Bellis & Mullens, 2015), suggesting 345 host preference will not reduce their efficiency as a vector of LSDV. By contrast, Ae. aegypti 346 feeds primarily on humans (Reiter, 2010), potentially limiting its role in the transmission of 347 LSDV, despite its apparent efficiency as a vector. However, there are other Aedes species (for 348 example, Ae. cinereus or Ae. vexans), which display a preference for feeding on cattle 349 (Hayes, Tempelis, Hess & Reeves, 1973; Magnarelli, 1977) and for which Ae. aegypti could 350 act as a model vector species. Many Anopheles species, including those in the Maculipennis 351 subgroup, which is of most relevance to Europe (Sinka et al., 2010; ECDC, 2019), are 352 described as zoophilic (Sinka et al., 2010). Accordingly, host preference is unlikely to limit 353 their ability to transmit LSDV. Finally, host preference in Cx. quinquefasciatus varies 354 according to environmental conditions and geographical area, though it does feed on 355 mammals (Hayes, Tempelis, Hess & Reeves, 1973; Molaei, Huang & Andreadis, 2012; 356 Janssen et al., 2015). However, any preference for non-bovine hosts in this species (or other

357 *Culex* species for which it is a suitable model) will only further reduce its importance in the 358 transmission of LSDV.

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360 The magnitude of the basic reproduction number depends on the proxy measure used for 361 infectiousness (Figure 3). Viral titres in blood can be low and detection of virus intermittent 362 (Tuppurainen, Venter & Coetzer, 2005; Babiuk et al., 2008), suggesting this may not be the 363 best proxy measure. By contrast, skin nodules have high titres of virus (Babiuk et al., 2008) 364 and insects which feed on nodules become infected (Chihota, Rennie, Kitching & Mellor, 365 2001, 2003), indicating that this may be a reasonable proxy measure. This could be tested 366 experimentally by feeding insects on areas with and without lesions of clinically-affected 367 cattle and on infected, but subclinical cattle and relating viral titres in skin and blood to the 368 probability of insects becoming infected.

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370 The expression for the basic reproduction number presented in equation (1) assumes there is 371 negligible disease-associated mortality in cattle (see Text S1). Reported mortality for LSD 372 outbreaks in the Balkans was very low, with the median within-herd mortality being zero in 373 all affected countries (EFSA, 2017). In endemic settings, mortality is generally low (1-3%) 374 (Tuppurainen & Oura, 2012; Molla, Frankena & de Jong, 2017), but it may sometimes reach 375 40% (Tuppurainen & Oura, 2012). If disease-associated mortality (up to 40%) is included in 376 the computation of R_0 , it does not greatly affect the conclusions of the present study regarding 377 either the magnitude of R_0 for each vector species or the sensitivity of R_0 to changes in its 378 constituent parameters (see Text S2).

379

380 Two previous studies have estimated the basic reproduction number for LSDV using outbreak data. In the first, Magori-Cohen et al. $(2012)^1$ estimated R_0 to be around 4 for an 381 outbreak in a large dairy herd in Israel in 2006, where S. calcitrans was likely to be the 382 383 principal vector species (Kahana-Sutin, Klement, Lensky & Gottlieb, 2017). Because of the 384 control measures implemented on the farm (removal of cattle showing generalised disease on 385 the day of detection), this implicitly assumed an infectious period of around one day. If a 386 mean infectious period of 23 days is used instead (i.e. the maximum estimated in the present 387 study; Table 3), the corresponding value for R_0 is around 19, which is similar to the median 388 estimate for transmission by S. calcitrans obtained in the present study (Figure 3; Table 4). 389 By contrast, the second study estimated R_0 to be around 1.1 for outbreaks in eight cattle herds 390 in Ethiopia in 2014-2015, using viraemia as a proxy for infectiousness (Molla, Frankena & de 391 Jong, 2017). This is substantially lower than the ranges estimated for either S. calcitrans or 392 Ae. aegypti, but is consistent with those for C. nubeculosus, An. stephensi or Cx. 393 quinquefasciatus (Figure 3; Table 4). However, the vector species involved in transmission of 394 LSDV in Ethiopia are not known (Molla, de Jong & Frankena, 2017).

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396 In this paper, the risk of transmission of LSDV was assessed for five species of biting insect 397 using the basic reproduction number. The results suggest that S. calcitrans and Ae. aegypti 398 are likely to be efficient vectors (i.e. R_0 is substantially above one), while C. nubeculosus, An. stephensi and Cx. quinquefasciatus are likely to be inefficient vectors (i.e. R_0 is close to or 399 400 below one). However, there is considerable uncertainty associated with the estimates of R_0 401 for LSDV and future work should focus in particular on estimating the probability of 402 transmission from insect to bovine and the virus inactivation rate. Finally, using the basic 403 reproduction number has demonstrated that any assessment of the risk posed by an insect

¹ Because of differences in model formulation, the value of R_0 presented by Magori-Cohen et al. (2012) is the square of R_0 in the current paper. Here the square root transformed values are presented.

- 404 vector needs to consider all factors which influence its ability to transmit the virus, including
- 405 life history parameters.

406

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413	Conflict of interest						
414	None to declare.						
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419

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parameter	symbol	range	comments	references
Stomoxys calcitrans				
biting rate (day ⁻¹)	а	0.33-6	time interval between blood meals	Salem et al. (2013); Baldacchino et al. (2013)
			(1/ <i>a</i>) of 4-72 hours	
vector to host ratio	т	30-145	-	Kunz & Monty (1976); Jacquiet et al. (2014)
mortality rate (day ⁻¹)	μ	0.04-0.11	median lifespan $(1/\mu)$ of 9-26 days	Salem et al. (2013); Skovgård & Nachman
				(2017)
Culicoides nubeculosus				
biting rate (day ⁻¹)	а	0-0.4	based on duration of gonotrophic cycle	Birley & Boorman (1982); Braverman et al.
				(1985); Mullens et al. (2004)
vector to host ratio	т	0-5000	based on a maximum host biting rate	Gerry et al. (2001)
			$(m \times a)$ of 2500 bites per host per day	
mortality rate (day ⁻¹)	μ	0.1-0.5	based on proportion of females	Birley & Boorman (1982); Braverman et al.
			surviving gonotrophic cycle	(1985)
Aedes aegypti				
biting rate (day ⁻¹)	а	0.18-0.23	-	Scott et al. (2000); Liu-Helmersson et al. (2014)
vector to host ratio	т	0-80	modelled ratio of Aedes to cattle	Gachohi et al. (2016)
mortality rate (day ⁻¹)	μ	0.07-0.2	lifespan of 5-15 days estimated using a	Brady et al. (2013)
			modelling analysis of 50 mark-release-	
			recapture field studies	
Anopheles stephensi				
biting rate (day ⁻¹)	а	0.25-0.5	time interval between blood meals	Killeen et al. (2000); Charlwood et al. (2016)
			(1/a) of 2-4 days	
vector to host ratio	т	0.6-60	based on a host biting rate $(m \times a)$ of	Killeen et al. (2000); Ryan et al. (2017)
			around 2 to 120 bites per host per day	
mortality rate (day ⁻¹)	μ	0.02-0.38	daily survival probability $(\exp(-\mu))$ of	Kiszewski et al. (2004)
			0.68-0.98	

	C C*			1 * 1* *
Table 1. Life history parameters	tor five	putative insect	vectors of lumpy	J skin disease virus
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parameter	symbol	range	comments	references
Culex quinquefasciatus				
biting rate (day ⁻¹)	а	0.08-0.25	time interval between blood meals $(1/a)$ of 4-12 days	Griffith & Turner (1996); Reisen et al. (2006)
vector to host ratio	т	0-80	modelled ratio of <i>Culex</i> to cattle	Gachohi et al. (2016)
mortality rate (day ⁻¹)	μ	0.07-0.84	-	Gad et al. (1989); Jones et al. (2012)

	virus inactivation rate $(\gamma; day^{-1})$		mean duration of infection $(1/\gamma; \text{ days})$		probability of transmission from bovine to insect (β)		probability of transmission from insect to bovine (<i>b</i>)	
species								
	estimate†	95% CI‡	estimate	95% CI	estimate	95% CI	estimate	95% CI
S. calcitrans§	1.71	(0.80, 3.34)	0.58	(0.30, 1.26)	0.46	(0.23, 0.71)	0.07	(0.002, 0.64)
C. nubeculosus§	71.16	(4.65, 390.0)	0.01	(0.003, 0.22)	0.27	(0.09, 0.54)	0.50	(0.03, 0.98)
Ae. aegypti	0.09	(0.01, 0.19)	11.23	(5.19, 79.11)	0.90	(0.64, 0.99)	0.48	(0.04, 0.97)
An. stephensi	0.24	(0.10, 0.42)	4.08	(2.38, 9.64)	0.61	(0.36, 0.83)	0.03	(0.001, 0.16)
Cx. quinquefasciatus	0.34	(0.17, 0.55)	2.96	(1.81, 5.74)	0.72	(0.47, 0.91)	0.04	(0.002, 0.28)

† posterior median

‡ CI: credible interval

§ estimates are shown for the analysis assuming 100 insects refed when attempting transmission to cattle

shape j	parameter	mean (days)		
estimate†	95% CI‡	estimate†	95% CI‡	
25.4	(4.8, 82.7)	7.3	(5.9, 9.7)	
3.4	(1.6, 6.4)	5.8	(4.4, 7.8)	
5.7	(1.8, 13.6)	8.1	(5.9, 12.1)	
10.4	(2.1, 36.1)	23.1	(16.4, 36.2)	
3.1	(1.1, 7.1)	16.3	(11.4, 25.4)	
2.6	(0.7, 6.7)	8.8	(5.5, 17.8)	
	estimate† 25.4 3.4 5.7 10.4 3.1	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	estimate† 95% CI‡ estimate† 25.4 (4.8, 82.7) 7.3 3.4 (1.6, 6.4) 5.8 5.7 (1.8, 13.6) 8.1 10.4 (2.1, 36.1) 23.1 3.1 (1.1, 7.1) 16.3	

Table 3. Parameters for latent and infectious	neriods for lumpy skin disease virus in cattle
Table 3. Falameters for fatent and infectious	perious for fumpy skill disease virus in caule.

† posterior median

‡ CI: credible interval

anacias	proxy measure of infectiousness					
species –	skin lesions	blood (PCR)	blood (VI)			
S. calcitrans‡	15.5 (1.4, 81.9)	13.1 (1.2, 70.8)	9.7 (0.9, 51.7)			
C. nubeculosus‡	1.8 (0.06, 13.5)	1.5 (0.05, 11.3)	1.1 (0.04, 8.8)			
Ae. aegypti	7.4 (1.3, 17.6)	6.3 (1.1, 14.5)	4.6 (0.8, 11.2)			
An. stephensi	1.6 (0.2, 6.0)	1.4 (0.2, 5.0)	1.0 (0.1, 3.9)			
Cx. quinquefasciatus	0.8 (0.09, 3.5)	0.7 (0.08, 2.8)	0.5 (0.06, 2.2)			

Table 4. Basic reproduction number (R_0) for lumpy skin disease virus (LSDV) for five
species of biting insect.

† median (95% prediction interval) based on replicated Latin hypercube sampling

‡ estimates are shown for the analysis assuming 100 insects refed when attempting transmission to cattle

Figure 1. Proportion of biting insects positive for viral DNA after feeding on a bovine infected with lumpy skin disease virus. Results are shown for five species of biting insect: (*a*) *Stomoxys calcitrans*; (*b*) *Culicoides nubeculosus*; (*c*) *Aedes aegypti*; (*d*) *Anopheles stephensi*; and (*e*) *Culex quinquefasciatus*. Each plot shows the observed proportion of infected insects (open squares), the expected proportion of infected insects (black line: posterior median; shading: percentiles of the posterior distribution in 5% bands from 5% to 95%) and the posterior predictive distribution for the proportion of infected insects (grey circles: median; grey error bars: 95% prediction intervals).

Figure 2. Parameters for mechanical transmission of lumpy skin disease virus by five species of biting insect: (*a*) virus inactivation rate (γ ; day⁻¹); (*b*) probability of transmission from bovine to insect (β ; Pr(B to I)); and (*c*) probability of transmission from insect to bovine (*b*; Pr(I to B)). Each plot shows the median (black circle), 25th and 75th percentiles (black line) and density (shape) for the marginal posterior distribution. Results shown for *S. calcitrans* and *C. nubeculosus* assume 100 insects refed when attempting transmission to cattle.

Figure 3. Basic reproduction number (R_0) for lumpy skin disease virus (LSDV) when transmitted by *Stomoxys calcitrans, Culicoides nubeculosus, Aedes aegypti, Anopheles stephensi* or *Culex quinquefasciatus*. The estimated values for R_0 are shown for three proxy measures of infectiousness: detection of virus or viral DNA in skin lesions (light grey); detection of viral DNA in blood (mid grey); or detection of virus in blood (dark grey). Box and whisker plots show the median (black horizontal line), interquartile range (coloured box) and 95% range (whiskers) based on replicated Latin hypercube sampling (100 replicates with the range for each parameter subdivided into 100 steps). Results shown for *S. calcitrans* and *C. nubeculosus* used the posterior distributions assuming 100 insects refed when attempting transmission to cattle.

Figure 4. Sensitivity analysis of the basic reproduction number (R_0) for lumpy skin disease virus (LSDV) when transmitted by: (*a*) *Stomoxys calcitrans*; (*b*) *Culicoides nubeculosus*; (*c*) *Aedes aegypti*; (*d*) *Anopheles stephensi*; or (*e*) *Culex quinquefasciatus*. Plots show the partial rank correlation coefficients (PRCC) for each parameter when the estimated values for R_0 are calculated using three proxy measures of infectiousness: detection of virus or viral DNA in skin lesions (light grey); detection of viral DNA in blood (mid grey); or detection of virus in blood (dark grey). Box and whisker plots show the median (black horizontal line), interquartile range (coloured box) and 95% range (whiskers) for the PRCCs based on replicated Latin hypercube sampling (100 replicates with the range for each parameter subdivided into 100 steps). Results shown for *S. calcitrans* and *C. nubeculosus* used the posterior distributions assuming 100 insects refed when attempting transmission to cattle.







