

The evolution of stage-specific virulence: differential selection of parasites in juveniles

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Abstract

The impact of infectious disease is often very different in juveniles and adults, but theory has focused on the drivers of stage-dependent defense in hosts rather than the potential for stage-dependent virulence evolution. Stage-structure has the potential to be important to the evolution of pathogens because it exposes parasites to heterogeneous environments in terms of both host characteristics and transmission routes. We develop a stage-structured (juvenile-adult) epidemiological model and examine the evolutionary outcomes of stage-specific virulence under the classic assumption of a transmission-virulence trade-off. We show that selection on virulence against adults remains consistent with the classic theory. However, the evolution of juvenile virulence is sensitive to both demography and contact structure with higher virulence against juveniles being favored either when the contact structure is assortative (juveniles preferentially interact together) and the juvenile stage is short, or in contrast when the contact structure is disassortative and the juvenile stage is long. These results highlight the potentially profound effects of host stage-structure on determining parasite virulence in nature. This new perspective may have broad implications for both understanding and managing disease severity.

1 Introduction

2 Understanding how parasites are selected to exploit their hosts remains a central research question in the
3 evolutionary ecology of host-parasite interactions (Smith 1904; Ball 1943; Anderson & May 1982; Read 1994;
4 Ebert & Herre 1996; Frank 1996; Alizon *et al.* 2009; Schmid-Hempel 2011; Bull & Luring 2014; Cressler
5 *et al.* 2016), with important implications for host persistence (Boots & Sasaki 2003; De Castro & Bolker 2005),
6 disease management (Dieckmann 2005), and host-parasite coevolution (Boots *et al.* 2009). Although most of
7 the theory of evolution of virulence (defined in this literature as the increased death rate due to infection)
8 focuses on homogenous host populations, heterogeneity within host populations is ubiquitous in nature
9 (Anderson & May 1992, Chapter 8-11). One typical form of host heterogeneity is stage-related structure
10 (e.g., juveniles and adults), and a number of recent ecological studies have examined the impacts of host
11 populations' stage-related heterogeneity on disease epidemiology (e.g., Dwyer 1991; Fleming-Davies *et al.*
12 2015; Hite *et al.* 2016; for theory, Ashby & Bruns 2018). In these studies, the differences in virulence across life
13 stages have been explained as age-related variation in tolerance, resistance, exposure, immunocompetence,
14 and susceptibility and affected by maternal and acquired immunity (Hudson & Dobson 1995; Wilson *et al.*
15 2002).

16 In addition to age-related variation in the hosts, different host age-classes expose parasites to specific
17 environmental heterogeneity (see Ashby & Bruns 2018, for theory). Given this, parasites may adaptively tune
18 conditional exploitation against certain stage classes, e.g., through plasticity or by infecting tissues and/or cells
19 that are differentially expressed at different stage classes. In principle, stage-specific virulence may occur as
20 a result of parasite adaptation in two ways. First, stage-structure can generate different infectious periods,
21 for instance due to the substantial difference in natural mortality between juveniles and adults (Jones *et al.*
22 2013). Infectious period is therefore stage-dependent, which, according to the theory (Day 2001; Gandon
23 *et al.* 2001; Day & Proulx 2004; Gandon 2004; Alizon *et al.* 2009; Cressler *et al.* 2016), may induce selection on

24 virulence such that a shorter infectious period in a certain stage of hosts favors higher virulence. Secondly, the
25 hosts' stage-structure can generate biased transmission-pathways, thereby exposing the parasites to temporal
26 heterogeneity, which may induce additional selective pressures (reviewed in Lion & Metz 2018). For instance,
27 spatio-temporal segregation between juveniles and adults, which is typical of humans (Rohani *et al.* 2010),
28 amphibians (Kilpatrick *et al.* 2010), and insects (Briggs & Godfray 1995), can produce assortative contact
29 structure (i.e., juvenile-juvenile and adult-adult contacts might be more likely than juvenile-adult contacts),
30 such that parasites infecting a certain stage of hosts are likely to be transmitted to the same stage of hosts
31 ("assortative" transmission). Despite these potentially important selective forces on stage-specific virulence,
32 the implications of host stage-structure for parasite fitness and evolution of stage-specific virulence have not
33 been examined.

34 Here, we extend classic models of virulence evolution to include two host stage-classes (pre and post
35 reproductive) where the juveniles mature into adults, the adults reproduce, and transmission between the
36 stage-classes is characterized by a contact matrix. We explore the evolutionary outcomes of stage-specific
37 virulence in light of classic theory of life-history evolution in heterogeneous populations. We use the adaptive
38 dynamics toolbox (Hofbauer & Sigmund 1990; Dieckmann & Law 1996), first showing that the evolutionary
39 outcomes of virulence against adults ("adult-virulence") are explained by the classic, optimization-principle
40 (Lion & Metz 2018) (i.e., the evolutionarily stable virulence maximizes the number of secondary infection
41 from infected adult host in a fully susceptible population). Second, we show that the evolutionary outcomes of
42 virulence against juveniles ("juvenile-virulence") are critically impacted by the interplay between assortativity
43 and the duration of the adult-stage. This is in part because juvenile-virulence can attenuate successful
44 maturation of juvenile hosts and consequently loses future secondary infection from adults. We then use
45 Fisher's reproductive values (Fisher 1958; Taylor 1990; Williams 2011; Williams & Kamel 2018; Lion 2018)
46 (i.e., the long-term relative contributions of parasites infecting juveniles and adults to future populations), in
47 order to gain a deeper biological insight into the selection gradients. We highlight the pivotal importance of

48 stage-structure to the evolution of infectious disease.

49 Method

50 We consider a host population structured into juvenile (J) and adult (A) stages, in which juveniles are
 51 obviously incapable of reproduction. The density of susceptible or infected juveniles is denoted S_J or I_J
 52 respectively, and that of susceptible or infected adults is denoted S_A or I_A respectively. Combining an
 53 epidemiological SI-model with a stage-structured model yields the following ordinary differential equations
 54 (ODEs; Appendix A1):

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{dS_J}{dt} &= (r - \kappa(S_A + I_A)) \cdot (S_A + I_A) - (u + \varphi_{JJ} + \varphi_{JA} + m_J) S_J \\
 \frac{dS_A}{dt} &= uS_J - (m_A + \varphi_{AJ} + \varphi_{AA}) S_A \\
 \frac{dI_J}{dt} &= (\varphi_{JJ} + \varphi_{JA}) S_J - \underbrace{(u + m_J + v_J)}_{=: \mu_J} I_J \\
 \frac{dI_A}{dt} &= (\varphi_{AJ} + \varphi_{AA}) S_A + uI_J - \underbrace{(m_A + v_A)}_{=: \mu_A} I_A,
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

55 where: r represents a fecundity of the adult hosts per capita (assumed to be the same for susceptible and
 56 infected adults), which is reduced by a density-dependent factor κ ; juveniles mature into adults at a rate u ; m_X
 57 represents the background mortality for a stage-X host; φ_{XY} represents the rate at which a susceptible stage-X
 58 host gets transmitted from an infected stage-Y host (i.e., force of infection from infectious Y to susceptible X
 59 per capita, Fig 2; also see below for formula); v_X represents the virulence against a stage-X host (an evolving
 60 trait). The reciprocal of the infectious period for juveniles (or adults) is given by $\mu_J = u + m_J + v_J$ (or by $\mu_A =$
 61 $m_A + v_A$ respectively). For alternative approaches including physiologically structured population modeling
 62 and infection-age modeling with continuous stage structure, see Day *et al.* (2011), Mideo *et al.* (2011), and de
 63 Roos & Persson (2013). The present methodology allows us to evaluate the relative virulence against juveniles

64 compared to adults.

65 Maturation and natural mortality can both affect the relative length of a adult-stage of the hosts. To
 66 quantify this, let θ_A be the expected fraction of time a host individual spends as an adult in the entire lifespan
 67 in the absence of disease, which reads (Appendix A2):

$$\theta_A = \frac{u}{u + m_J - m_A} \left(1 + \frac{m_A}{u + m_J - m_A} \cdot \log \left(\frac{m_A}{u + m_J} \right) \right), \quad (2)$$

68 from which we can check that extremely slow (or fast) maturation, $u \rightarrow 0$ (or $u \rightarrow +\infty$ respectively), leads to
 69 $\theta_A \rightarrow 0$ (or 1 respectively. We will omit the degenerated case in which $u + m_J = m_A$, as this situation turns
 70 out to give no reasonable measure for stage-period; Appendix A2). We use θ_A as a characteristic parameter of
 71 the stage-structured host populations.

72 The force of infection for a stage-X host from a stage-Y host (with X and Y running across J and A) in Eqn (1)
 73 involves with three processes: susceptibility α_X (the likeliness for which a stage-X host becomes infected, given
 74 a reception of disease-propagule), contact structure σ_{XY} (which represents the fraction of time a Y-stage host
 75 spends with a X-stage host), and infectiousness β_Y (the propagule-production from a stage-Y host; see Fig 2):

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{JJ} &= \frac{\alpha_J \sigma_{JJ} \beta_J I_J}{H}, \\ \varphi_{JA} &= \frac{\alpha_J \sigma_{JA} \beta_A I_A}{H}, \\ \varphi_{AJ} &= \frac{\alpha_A \sigma_{AJ} \beta_J I_J}{H}, \\ \varphi_{AA} &= \frac{\alpha_A \sigma_{AA} \beta_A I_A}{H}, \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

76 with $H = S_J + I_J + S_A + I_A$ the total density of hosts, such that the transmission is frequency-dependent, as is
 77 assumed in previous studies of stage-structured epidemiological dynamics (e.g., Bernhauerová 2016). Also, to
 78 link virulence and transmission, we use the trade-off relationship given by $\beta_J = \frac{b_J k_J v_J}{1 + k_J v_J}$, $\beta_A = \frac{b_A k_A v_A}{1 + k_A v_A}$, where k_X

79 tunes the efficiency of virulence for infectiousness from stage-X hosts, and b_X represents the upper bound of
80 infectiousness from stage-X hosts. Note that we assumed that transmission is a concave function of virulence
81 to restrict our primary attention to stable evolutionary outcomes (Otto & Day 2007).

82 For quantifying the contact structure, we use a single parameter given by $\sigma = 1 - \sigma_{AJ} = \sigma_{JJ} = 1 - \sigma_{JA} = \sigma_{AA}$,
83 (Dieckmann *et al.* 2012, Chapter 12). With this symmetry, the measure of assortativity is given by:

$$\rho = \sigma_{JJ} + \sigma_{AA} - 1 = 2\sigma - 1, \quad (4)$$

84 where ρ varies from -1 to 1 . If $-1 \leq \rho < 0$, then within-stage contact is less frequent compared to
85 between-stage contact (such a contact is said to be “disassortative”). Instead, if $0 < \rho \leq 1$, then within-stage
86 contact is more likely than between-stage contact (“assortative” contact). $\rho = 0$ indicates that contact is
87 unbiased (“random” contact). In the extreme case, $\rho = 1$ (or -1) indicates that contact occurs exclusively
88 within the stages (or between the stages, respectively).

89 We use the adaptive dynamics toolbox (Hofbauer & Sigmund 1990; Dieckmann & Law 1996) to study the
90 long-term evolutionary dynamics of stage-specific virulence. Throughout the paper we assume that parasites
91 show specific virulence: v_J and v_A , with no association or correlation between them (i.e., we study the joint
92 evolutionary dynamics of (v_J, v_A)). First, suppose that the system of ODEs in Eqn (1) has reached a steady
93 state: $(S_J, S_A, I_J, I_A) = (S_J^\#, S_A^\#, I_J^\#, I_A^\#)$ for a given (or wild-type) virulence strategy $\mathbf{v} := (v_J, v_A)$. We then
94 introduce a rare mutant $\mathbf{v}' := (v'_J, v'_A)$ attempting to invade a monomorphic wild-type virulence \mathbf{v} . We assume
95 weak selection ($|\mathbf{v}' - \mathbf{v}|$ is very small). For more details, see Appendix A3.

96 To assess the possibility of mutant invasion, we define the invasion fitness, denoted w , by using the
97 Next-Generation Theorem (van den Driessche & Watmough 2002; Hurford *et al.* 2010). The “next-generation

98 matrix” (that determines the long term growth of the mutant) can be written as the product of five matrices:

$$\mathbf{G}' = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} S_J^\# & 0 \\ 0 & S_A^\# \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{no. of susceptibles}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_J & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha_A \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{susceptibility}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{JJ} & \sigma_{JA} \\ \sigma_{AJ} & \sigma_{AA} \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{contact}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\beta'_J}{H^\#} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\beta'_A}{H^\#} \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{infectiousness}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\mu'_J} & 0 \\ \frac{u}{\mu'_J \mu'_A} & \frac{1}{\mu'_A} \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{infectious period}} \quad (5)$$

99 (see Appendix), where $H^\# = S_J^\# + S_A^\# + I_J^\# + I_A^\#$ (the total density of the hosts at the endemic equilibrium),
 100 $\mu'_J = u + m_J + v'_J$ (the reciprocal of the infectious period of juveniles infected by the mutant), and $\mu'_A =$
 101 $m_A + v'_A$ (the mortality rate of adults infected by the mutant). Eqn (5) offers a natural interpretation of the
 102 reproductive success of the mutant by partitioning the epidemiological process, in agreement with models of
 103 transmission dynamics in heterogeneous host populations (Craft 2015; VanderWaal & Ezenwa 2016; White
 104 *et al.* 2017). The first matrix represents the availability of susceptible hosts, each with a specific susceptibility
 105 (the second matrix); the third matrix represents the contact pattern across stages; the fourth matrix represents
 106 the infectiousness of infected hosts per capita, and the fifth matrix represents the stage-specific infectious
 107 period with the effect of maturation being included.

108 The invasion fitness is determined by the dominant eigenvalue of \mathbf{G}' (denoted $\Lambda[\mathbf{G}']$), which turns out to
 109 exhibit a complicated expression. We therefore use a simpler (but equivalent) measure for the invasion fitness:

$$\begin{aligned} \omega(\mathbf{v}', \mathbf{v}) &= \frac{\alpha_J S_J^\# \sigma_{JJ}}{H^\#} \cdot \frac{\beta'_J}{\mu'_J} + \frac{u}{\mu'_J} \cdot \frac{\alpha_J S_J^\# \sigma_{JA}}{H^\#} \cdot \frac{\beta'_A}{\mu'_A} + \frac{\alpha_A S_A^\# \sigma_{AA}}{H^\#} \cdot \frac{\beta'_A}{\mu'_A} - \rho \frac{\alpha_J S_J^\# \alpha_A S_A^\#}{(H^\#)^2} \cdot \frac{\beta'_J \beta'_A}{\mu'_J \mu'_A} \\ &= q_{JJ}^\# \frac{\beta'_J}{\mu'_J} + \pi'_1 q_{JA}^\# \frac{\beta'_A}{\mu'_A} + q_{AA}^\# \frac{\beta'_A}{\mu'_A} - (q_{JJ}^\# q_{AA}^\# - q_{JA}^\# q_{AJ}^\#) \frac{\beta'_J \beta'_A}{\mu'_J \mu'_A}, \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

110 with short-hand notation $\pi'_1 := u/\mu'_J$ (the probability of maturation of juveniles infected by the mutant)
 111 and $q_{XY}^\# := \frac{\alpha_X S_X^\# \sigma_{XY}}{H^\#}$ (the availability of X-stage hosts to the parasites infecting a Y-stage host per
 112 propagule-production). The factor β'_X/μ'_X represents the total number of propagule produced by a X-stage
 113 host infected by the mutant. We find that the condition for which the mutant outcompetes the wild type

114 $\omega(\mathbf{v}', \mathbf{v}) > 1$ holds if and only if $\Lambda[\mathbf{G}'] > 1$, under weak selection (see Appendix A4).

115 Direction of selection is determined by selection gradient:

$$\begin{aligned} g_J(\mathbf{v}) &:= \left. \frac{\partial w(\mathbf{v}', \mathbf{v})}{\partial v'_J} \right|_{\mathbf{v}'=\mathbf{v}}, \\ g_A(\mathbf{v}) &:= \left. \frac{\partial w(\mathbf{v}', \mathbf{v})}{\partial v'_A} \right|_{\mathbf{v}'=\mathbf{v}}, \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

116 with the partial derivatives evaluated at $\mathbf{v}' = \mathbf{v}$ (“neutrality”). Virulence evolves in the direction of selection
117 gradient until singular strategy (SS) is reached, $g_J(\mathbf{v}) = g_A(\mathbf{v}) = 0$ at $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}^*$. We assess two stability criteria
118 of SS: the first criterion, attainability (Takada & Kigami 1991; Christiansen 1991), concerns whether SS can
119 be reached by recurrent small mutations. The second is referred to as evolutionary stability (Maynard Smith
120 & Price 1973), which assures that SS can resist against any invasion of alternative, mutant strategies. If SS
121 meets both of these criteria, it is then called as Continuously Stable Strategy (CSS; Eshel 1983). Analytical
122 investigation revealed that the SS is always a CSS, and thus we do not detail the stability analyses in the main
123 text (see results).

124 We use the following default parameter-values: $r = 6$, $\kappa = 0.06$, $m_J = 1$, $\alpha_J = \alpha_A = 1$, $k_J = k_A = 1$, $b_J =$
125 $b_A = 10$, while varying m_A , u (thus θ_A) and ρ . That is, the parameter values are symmetric for juveniles and
126 adults. We subsequently check the effects of the differences in α (susceptibility), k (efficiency of exploitation
127 for transmission), and b (upper bound in infectiousness). In addition, we check whether recovery or tolerance
128 in the host can affect the results. Finally, we examined the outcomes when we assume density-dependent
129 rather than frequency dependent transmission in the dynamics.

130 Results

131 The selection gradient for adult-virulence reads:

$$g_A(\mathbf{v}) \propto \left(\frac{1}{\beta_A} \cdot \frac{d\beta_A}{dv_A} - \frac{1}{\mu_A} \cdot \frac{d\mu_A}{dv_A} \right)^\circ = \left(\frac{1}{\beta_A} \cdot \frac{d\beta_A}{dv_A} - \frac{1}{\mu_A} \right)^\circ \quad (8)$$

132 (where $^\circ$ represents neutrality, $\mathbf{v}' = \mathbf{v}$; Appendix A5), which is consistent with a number of previous studies:
 133 under the transmission-virulence trade-off, higher exploitation is expected to increase the infectiousness (i.e.,
 134 a marginal benefit) at the immediate (marginal) cost owing to a reduced infectious period (Day 2001; Gandon
 135 *et al.* 2001; Day & Proulx 2004; Gandon 2004; Alizon *et al.* 2009; Cressler *et al.* 2016). This is because the
 136 reproductive success of parasites infecting adults is, in effect, determined by a single transmission-pathway,
 137 from adults to any susceptible hosts in the population, regardless of the contact-structure and the stationary
 138 stage-distribution. Therefore, the direction of selection on adult virulence is completely determined by the
 139 balance between such marginal benefits and costs, regardless of the characteristics of hosts' stage-structure.

140 In contrast, juvenile-virulence in the model is influenced by additional costs associated with hosts'
 141 stage-structure. To make the biological meaning clearer, we present the reproductive-value based form of the
 142 selection gradient (Fisher 1958; Taylor 1990; Caswell 2001; Frank 1998; Grafen 2006; Lion 2018). Reproductive
 143 values give a proper weightings of fitness effects for age-classes, by taking the contributions of classes to future
 144 gene-pool into account (Fisher 1958; Taylor 1990; Caswell 2001; Frank 1998; Grafen 2006; Lion 2018). Using
 145 reproductive values, $g_J(\mathbf{v})$ reads:

$$g_J(\mathbf{v}) = \overbrace{\left(\underbrace{\ell_J^\circ q_{JJ}^\#}_{\text{juveniles}} + \underbrace{\ell_A^\circ q_{AJ}^\#}_{\text{adults}} \right)}^{\text{transmission from a juvenile to:}} \cdot \frac{\beta_J}{\mu_J} \cdot \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{\beta_J} \frac{d\beta_J}{dv_J} - \frac{1}{\mu_J} \frac{d\mu_J}{dv_J} \right)}_{\text{marginal benefit/cost}} - \frac{\pi_1^\circ}{\mu_J} \cdot \frac{d\mu_J}{dv_J} \cdot \overbrace{\left(\underbrace{\ell_J^\circ q_{JA}^\#}_{\text{juveniles}} + \underbrace{\ell_A^\circ q_{AA}^\#}_{\text{adults}} \right)}^{\text{transmission from an adult to:}} \cdot \frac{\beta_A}{\mu_A} \quad (9)$$

146 (Appendix A6-8), where $(\ell_J^\circ, \ell_A^\circ)$ represents the pair of individual reproductive values of the parasites infecting
147 juvenile and adult hosts (or the left eigenvector of \mathbf{G} at neutrality; Appendix A6) and the factor $\ell_J^\circ \times q_{JA}^\#$
148 for instance represents the reproductive success due to transmission from an adult host to a juvenile
149 per propagule-production. The first term is multiplied by $(\ell_J^\circ q_{JJ}^\# + \ell_A^\circ q_{AJ}^\#) (\beta_J/\mu_J)^\circ$, which represents the
150 reproductive success of a parasite infecting juveniles, who can receive the marginal benefit due to increased
151 infectiousness $(d\beta_J/dv_J)^\circ / \beta_J^\circ$ but pay the marginal cost due to the reduction in infectious periods $1/\mu_J^\circ$ as
152 in the selection gradient for adult-virulence (Eqn (8)). In addition, juvenile-virulence incurs the additional
153 cost of increased mortality of infected juveniles associated with the loss of expected reproductive success
154 via adult hosts that the parasites could otherwise gain through the maturation of the juvenile hosts, and
155 thus multiplied by $(\ell_J^\circ q_{JA}^\# + \ell_A^\circ q_{AA}^\#) (\beta_A/\mu_A)^\circ$ (the reproductive success of a parasite infecting adults) and the
156 marginal decrease in the probability of maturation $(\pi_1/\mu_J)^\circ$. Hence, Eqn (9) clearly captures the selection
157 forces on juvenile-virulence, including the marginal benefits, marginal costs, and maturation-mediated costs.

158 We investigated the effects of two stage-structure characteristics: (i) post-maturation span θ_A and (ii)
159 stage-assortativity ρ on the evolutionary outcomes (i.e., CSS; Appendix A9). Strikingly, the CSS for adult-
160 virulence is necessarily $v_A^* = \sqrt{m_A/k_A}$ which is independent of any demographic and disease characteristics
161 of juveniles (as expected from Eqn (8)). Therefore, we used v_A^* as a reference value in comparison with v_J^* .

162 In contrast, CSS for juvenile-virulence is dramatically affected by hosts' stage-structure and maturation.
163 This is because the parasites infecting the juveniles can utilize two transmission-pathways: either from the
164 juvenile (to any susceptible hosts), or from the adult who has successfully matured from the juvenile stage.
165 The expression for v_J^* is analytically intractable, and as such we numerically evaluated v_J^* by jointly solving
166 the wild-type ODE Eqn (1) and the selection gradients Eqns (8) and (9).

167 We can immediately see that the evolutionary outcome of adult-virulence increases with adult natural
168 mortality, in agreement with the previous studies (reviewed in Alizon *et al.* 2009; Cressler *et al.* 2016). To assess
169 when selection favors higher juvenile-virulence than adult-virulence, we quantified v_J^*/v_A^* as a function of the

170 assortativity (ρ , abscissa) and post-maturation span (θ_A , ordinate; Fig 3). We found that either disassortative
171 hosts with a long post-maturation span or assortative hosts with a short post-maturation span select for higher
172 virulence against juveniles. This result slightly changes given stage-specific mortality rates ($m_J \neq m_A$) such
173 that a higher mortality for juveniles can bias the outcomes towards higher virulence for juveniles, but the
174 general trend is robust (Fig 3A-C). Also, the combination of disassortativity and long post-maturation span
175 (one of the conditions favoring higher virulence against juveniles) leads to parasite extinction as a result of
176 overexploitation against juveniles (Fig 3B, C; Appendix A10). Note that under these conditions, I_J is very
177 small (tending to zero; Fig 3B), while S_J is not (Fig 3C), meaning that hosts do persist but parasites do not.

178 By relaxing the assumptions of the symmetry in disease-related parameters k_J, k_A (efficiency of
179 exploitation for transmission), b_J, b_A (maximum infectiousness), and α_J, α_A (susceptibility) for juveniles and
180 adults, or by incorporating recovery or tolerance, we showed that the results are robust and qualitatively
181 unchanged (Appendix B). Finally, we checked that density-dependent transmission yields quantitatively
182 similar results (Appendix B). Therefore, we conclude that the combined effects of maturation and assortativity
183 are critical to the evolution of virulence.

184 Discussion

185 We have shown how parasites may be subject to different selective pressures when they infect adults as
186 opposed to adults. Our key insight is that the combination between maturation rates and contact-structure
187 determines the evolutionary outcomes of juvenile-virulence. Higher virulence against juveniles is favored
188 either if: (i) the adult-stage is relatively long and the contact-structure is disassortative (between age class
189 interactions are high; Fig 3, left-top zone), or (ii) the juvenile-stage is relatively long and the contact
190 structure is assortative (interactions occur preferentially within classes; Fig 3, right-bottom zone). These
191 results can be understood as follows: when the post-maturation span is long and the contact structure is

192 disassortative, adult hosts are abundant in the population and the transmission from juveniles to adults
193 is more likely than between juveniles; in this case, the availability of adult hosts is higher, which selects
194 for higher exploitation against juveniles to exploit more abundant resource of adults. Equivalent reasoning
195 explains higher juvenile-virulence in short maturing and assortative hosts. These considerations mean that
196 host-demography alongside the maturation of juveniles strongly affects the evolutionary outcomes of parasite
197 virulence. Spatial and/or temporal segregation in the niches of juveniles and adults therefore has the potential
198 to drive the evolution of differential virulence. Our novel result is therefore, that virulence is highly sensitive
199 to stage-structured life-history characteristics of hosts such as ontogeny and any associated, spatio-temporal
200 niche-shifts.

201 The incorporation of the maturation shows that higher parasite exploitation against juveniles incurs an
202 additional cost associated with increased maturation failure. In particular, while the marginal value theorem
203 (Charnov 1976) does correctly predict the evolutionary outcomes of adult virulence it does not predict that of
204 juvenile virulence. Therefore, sources of heterogeneity in hosts can clearly lead to different predictions than
205 classic virulence evolution theory based on the marginal value theorem, as claimed in a recent conceptual
206 review (Lion & Metz 2018). Gandon (2004) and Osnas & Dobson (2011) introduced multiple hosts' types or
207 species and studied virulence against them. In previous theory, heterogeneity is incorporated on the basis
208 of hosts species (Regoes *et al.* 2000; Gandon 2004; Osnas & Dobson 2011), vaccination (Gandon *et al.* 2001;
209 Gandon *et al.* 2003; Yates *et al.* 2006; Zurita-Gutiérrez & Lion 2015), or sex (Úbeda & Jansen 2016) (reviewed in
210 Lion & Metz 2018). However, none of these studies incorporated stage-structure with associated stage-specific
211 virulence. Our novel results arise because we explicitly assumed stage-structure with maturation from
212 juveniles to adults and reproduction by adults rather than more generic heterogeneity between different types
213 of hosts.

214 Finding examples of stage-specific virulence in empirical systems can be difficult due to the intricacies
215 of specific host-pathogen systems. Stage-related trends in virulence can be complicated by age-related

216 trends in maternal immunity, adaptive immunity, and exposure rate, and specific host-parasite system
217 characteristics including maladaptation and immuno-pathogenicity (Hudson & Dobson 1995; Wilson
218 *et al.* 2002). Additionally, studies looking at age-related virulence or case mortality do not exclusively
219 look at differences between adult and juvenile stages and may focus on old age-mediated declines in
220 immuno-competence. However, despite these issues, we found data on several empirical systems that lend
221 support to our predictions and may offer opportunities for testing our hypotheses (Fig 1). For most of these
222 systems, we were unable to find data on the assortativity of transmission which therefore limited our ability
223 to make conclusions about trends in the data. However, both of the two wildlife systems for which we found
224 data describing all three of our variables (v_j^*/v_A^* , post-maturation lifespan, and transmission assortativity)
225 matched our model's predictions. Wanelik *et al.* (2017) showed that Great Island Virus (GIV) transmission in
226 guillemots (*Uria aalge*) is assortative across age classes because of the spatial structure of breeding grounds.
227 GIV is transmitted by poorly motile ticks and pre-breeding stages of guillemots do not enter breeding areas
228 of the colony. As a consequence, the virus does not readily transmit between guillemot age-stages (Wanelik
229 *et al.* 2017). Previous work on guillemot life-history shows that the birds spend more than three quarters
230 of their life-span as mature breeders (Harris & Wanless 1995), and therefore the combination of assortative
231 transmission and fast maturation predicts that GIV should be more virulent in breeders. In line with the
232 predictions of our model, infection associated mortality risk is 1.45 times higher for adults than for juveniles
233 (Nunn *et al.* 2006).

234 In the second example, Jones *et al.* (2008) showed that salmon louse caused mortality in juvenile pink
235 salmon (*Oncorhynchus gorbuscha*), but had no effect on mortality risk for adults. Salmon louse is also
236 assortatively transmitted between age classes, because pink salmon have strict two-year lifespans where they
237 are only ever associated with individuals of their same age class (Heard 1991; Krkošek *et al.* 2007). The salmon
238 only reproduce once at the very end of their lives (semelparity), and therefore have a short adult period. This
239 short post-maturation stage and assortative transmission correctly predicts the higher salmon louse virulence

240 in juveniles.

241 Better data on mixing matrices for more disease systems could provide interesting insights into the
242 maintenance of either high juvenile or high adult virulence. One system where these insights could prove
243 especially important is in Bd (*Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*, or chytrid fungus) infection in frogs, which
244 has been causing catastrophic worldwide declines in frog populations (Kilpatrick *et al.* 2010). Bd infection has
245 been shown to have different virulence effects in the different frog life-stages (Medina *et al.* 2015; Hite *et al.*
246 2016) and these effects also vary by frog species (Berger *et al.* 1998; Blaustein *et al.* 2005). Recent work has
247 shown that adult virulence in several frog populations has not decreased even after 20 years of Bd presence
248 (Voyles *et al.* 2018). Already, frog demography has been implicated as an important factor for population
249 persistence in the face of Bd with frog species where adults move away from breeding waters being more
250 resistant to population declines (Lips *et al.* 2006; McCaffery *et al.* 2015), and frogs in habitats with multi-year
251 larvae having more severe epidemics because the older stages maintain high levels of infection that then spill
252 over to infect other stages and species (Medina *et al.* 2015; Hite *et al.* 2016). Changes in the assortivity of
253 mixing clearly has important implications for disease transmission across stages, and our model suggests that
254 it could also have implications for the maintenance of high virulence in different age stages.

255 While data on age-related contact patterns are difficult to find in wildlife populations, a wealth of mixing
256 data exists for humans (Mossong *et al.* 2008; Rohani *et al.* 2010). These suggest that contacts relevant for
257 the transmission of directly transmitted pathogens are highly assortative by age. While the evolutionary
258 drivers of human pathogens are often complicated, we posit that chickenpox (varicella virus) virulence in
259 humans proves an intriguing case study. Given that humans have a long juvenile period in the context of our
260 model, even when we only consider pre-reproductive and reproductive periods (Bogin & Smith 1996), the
261 higher virulence in adults of chickenpox (23-29 times higher mortality risk in adults (Heininger & Seward
262 2006) for primary infections in naïve individuals fits the predictions of our model. This higher mortality
263 risk corresponds to increased viral titers with age (Malavige *et al.* 2008) and, perhaps most interestingly,

264 while varicella virus infects many cell-types, T cell infection is thought to be important for transport and
265 pathogenesis (Zerboni & Arvin 2016). Therefore, age-related trends in T-cell abundance could be implicated
266 in chickenpox pathogenesis, although this relationship is complicated by the fact that VSV-specific T-cell
267 responses are also correlated with decreased viral titer and diminish with age (Erkeller-Yuksel *et al.* 1992;
268 Nader *et al.* 1995; Malavige *et al.* 2008). Still, this example points towards one mechanism that may underlie
269 the mediation of age-specific virulence in pathogens.

270 Our models have implications for disease management especially in farmed and other managed animal
271 populations. For instance, if the post-maturation span is short (i.e. if u is small), then artificial restriction of
272 the contacts between stages is predicted to select for higher virulence. However, if the post-maturation span
273 is long, restricting the contacts into juvenile-juvenile and adult-adult (by e.g., separating the cohorts) can lead
274 to the parasite extinction as a result of overexploitation against the juveniles. These contrasting outcomes can
275 occur for any given host species, depending on how management modulates host stage-structure. Our models
276 thus predict that, to prevent evolutionary changes towards higher virulence, one needs to carefully take into
277 account the cohort structure.

278 For simplicity and tractability we chose to use simple two-stage models rather than continuous
279 “infection-age” models (which would entail the formalism based on partial differential equations and dynamic
280 programming approach). Future studies that capture more continuous age structure are an important next
281 step. Also, although we assumed that parasites can express conditional virulence depending on the stage of
282 the hosts they infect with, more data are needed to test this idea. In addition, coevolutionary models and
283 multiple infections are both likely to give further important insights to the determinants of age-dependent
284 disease interactions in nature. Our approach offers the basis for modeling these coevolutionary dynamics
285 between hosts and parasites when there is stage structure.

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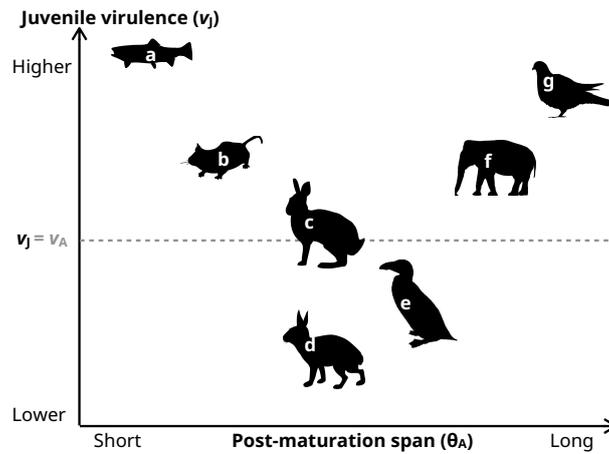


Figure 1: A graphical representation of the empirical data on stage-specific virulence. In the following, H indicates “host” while P indicates “parasites”: (a) H: Pink Salmon (*Oncorhynchus gorbuscha*); P: Salmon Louse (Heard 1991; Jones *et al.* 2008). (b) H: Gerbil (*Gerbillus andersoni*); P: Ectoparasites (Wassif & Soliman 1980; Hawlena *et al.* 2006). (c) H: European Rabbit (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*); P: Nematode (Holst *et al.* 2002; Cornell *et al.* 2008). (d) H: Rabbits (*Leporidae*); P: RHD Virus (Morisse *et al.* 1991; Reluga *et al.* 2007). (e) H: Common Guillemot (*Uria aalge*); P: Great Island Virus (Harris & Wanless 1995; Nunn *et al.* 2006; Wanelik *et al.* 2017). (f) H: Asian Elephant (*Elephas maximus*); P: Parasites (Sukumar *et al.* 1997; Lynsdale *et al.* 2017). (g) H: Pigeon (*Columba livia*) P: Blood parasites (Lack 1968; Sol *et al.* 2003)

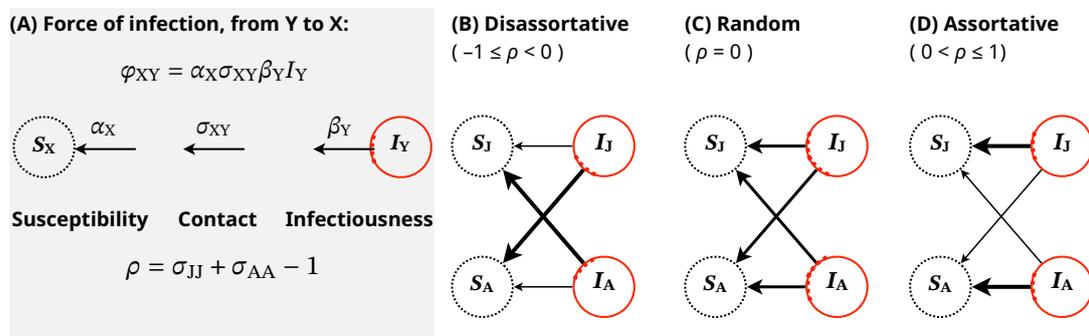


Figure 2: A schematic illustration of the model on the force of infection and assortativity. (A) Force of infection from Y to X, φ_{XY} , is a compound factor of susceptibility (likeliness of X-hosts becoming infected), contact intensity (likeliness of contacts between X and Y), and infectiousness (propagule production of the parasite carried by Y). (B-D) Degrees of assortativity. Negative assortativity indicates that contacts occur more frequently between stages than within stages (panel B). The contact structure is unbiased (random) when $\rho = 0$ (panel C). Positive assortativity indicates that contacts occur more frequently within stages than between stages (panel D).

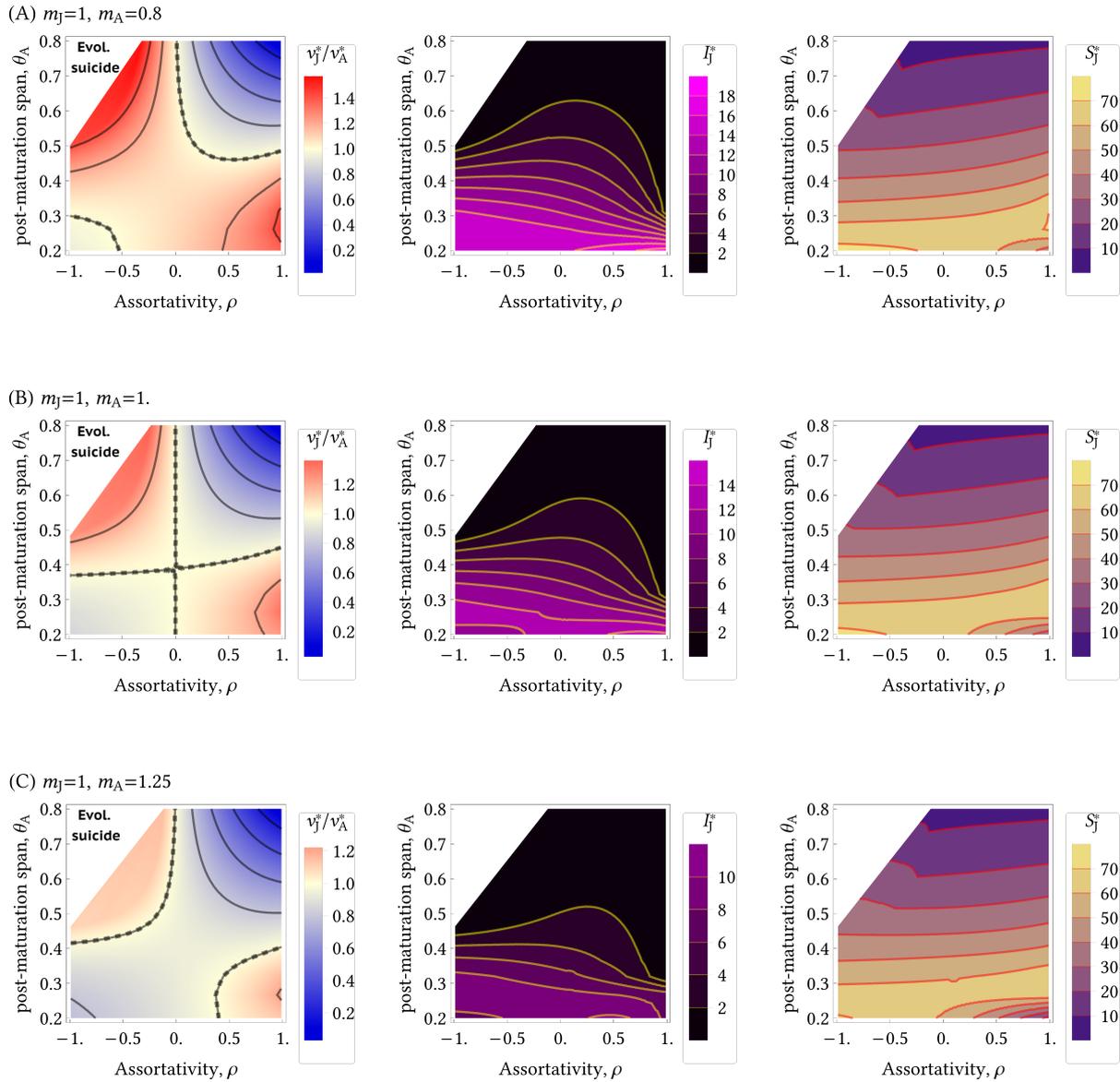


Figure 3: Left panels: Evolutionary outcomes of relative virulence (v_J^*/v_A^*), in which red color indicates $v_J^* > v_A^*$ and blue color indicates $v_J^* < v_A^*$. Color scales used are the same in the three panels. Middle panels: Densities of infected juveniles at equilibrium, I_J^* . Right panels: Densities of susceptible juveniles at equilibrium, S_J^* . In each panel, abscissa: assortativity; ordinate: post-maturation span θ_A ; from (A) to (C): $m_A = 0.8, 1.0, 1.25$ as indicated; White zone: evolutionary suicide; dotted curve: $v_J^* = v_A^*$ (equal virulence); parameters: default values. We numerically evaluated CSS-virulence and densities of infected juveniles and adults.