

1 Subject strapline: Public Health

2 **Malaria nets shape up for resistance**

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9 **Standfirst**

10 Adding a flap on the top of an insecticide-treated bednet helps to
11 intercept blood-seeking mosquitoes, and allows a wider range of
12 insecticides to be used together. Net-buyers must now make a
13 challenging decision for each target area: which net-product will be
14 most cost-effective, given the resistance in the local vectors?

15 (274 words)

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17 **Main text**

18 The technology of LLINs – long-lasting insecticidal nets - has been remarkably successful,
19 however you measure success. A series of field-trials in the 1990s demonstrated that
20 insecticide-treated nets were remarkably effective at preventing all-cause mortality in under-
21 five children, and a subsequent economic analysis showed that they were as cost-effective as
22 measles vaccine, as a child-survival intervention¹. This was remarkable, because at the time,
23 measles vaccine was regarded as a gold standard of cost-effectiveness. It led to massive
24 investment in increasing coverage, through the Global Fund, the President's Malaria Initiative,
25 and UNICEF². In Africa, coverage has increased from less than 2% in the year 2000 to more
26 than 50% by 2017³, and a project tracking LLIN supplies to malaria control programmes recently
27 announced the delivery of the two-billionth LLIN⁴. This scaling-up, together with
28 standardisation of designs and sizes, has contributed to a reduction in the mean unit price of a
29 conventional pyrethroid-treated LLIN, which has come down from about USD\$4.50 in 2006-9 to
30 about \$2.50 per LLIN in 2013-6⁵. Nevertheless, LLINs remain the largest single item in most
31 malaria budgets: for example, the commodity costs of LLINs represented more than 42% of the
32 total expenditure on malaria by the Global Fund in 2010².

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34 The resulting public health impact has been equally impressive. According to WHO, the scaling
35 up of coverage of modern malaria interventions from 2000 to 2015 prevented approximately
36 six million deaths due to malaria, mostly among young children in tropical Africa⁶. A separate
37 analysis found that LLINs were responsible for the bulk of the decline in malaria burden during
38 the same period: 68% was due to LLINs, the remainder to other forms of vector control,
39 improved drugs and case management, etc.⁷.

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41 However, increased coverage also had another effect: it accelerated the evolution of insecticide
42 resistance in the African vectors. Resistance is present widespread, and in some places, the
43 dose needed to kill the local mosquitoes is now several hundred-fold higher than it would be in
44 the absence of resistance⁸. In the African region, insecticide resistance is by far the most
45 dangerous threat facing malaria control: the achievements described above are at risk and
46 could be lost.

47 In response to this threat, the WHO developed the 'GPIRM', the Global Plan for Insecticide
48 Resistance Management in malaria vectors. The GPIRM offers strategic recommendations
49 about how to deploy products containing new non-pyrethroid insecticides, alone or in
50 combination with conventional pyrethroids, in order to preserve susceptibility and slow down
51 the evolution of resistance. The first problem is finding non-pyrethroid insecticides that are
52 both safe and effective as a net-treatment. Some well-known insecticides, developed
53 originally for agriculture, are effective enough against the mosquitoes, but too toxic to be used
54 in fabric that will surround sleeping children, and lie in close contact with their faces⁹. A clever
55 idea to address this problem has been investigated by Murray et al, and their findings are
56 reported in this issue of Nature Microbiology¹⁰.

57 This idea arises from previous studies, carried out by Phillip McCall's team in the Liverpool
58 School of Tropical Medicine. They used video to describe how female mosquitoes approach a
59 mosquito-net with a person inside. These studies suggested that the approach route is typically
60 downward from above: the mosquito makes initial contact with the roof, and then tracks
61 sideways across the roof. Their simple innovation was to attach a vertical flap or baffle of
62 netting to the roof of the net, which acts as a barrier to, and therefore tends to be contacted
63 by, insects tracking sideways across the top of the net (Figure 1). McCall and colleagues
64 painstakingly identified the most cost-effective size, shape and orientation, and then compared
65 the performance of the modified nets to that of ordinary nets in experimental huts. It was
66 observed that the addition of a barrier treated with fenitrothion (an organophosphate) to an
67 ordinary pyrethroid-treated LLIN produces a substantial increase in the proportion of female
68 mosquitoes that are killed as they seek a meal inside the experimental hut. The researchers
69 then used this data to predict that if the new design nets were deployed, and if the
70 performance-improvements in ordinary houses were as good as those seen in experimental
71 huts, then substantial epidemiological benefits would be expected.

72 Some caveats must be mentioned. Experimental huts try to replicate the conditions in
73 ordinary houses, but they do so imperfectly. In particular, it seems possible that horizontal air
74 movement in ordinary houses may be both larger and more variable than in experimental huts.
75 Also, it would probably be preferable to use a different insecticide: there are other
76 organophosphates that are less malodorous and have a better reputation for safety in practical
77 spraying programmes. Moreover, nets are often taken down for washing, and may be used as
78 a sheet for sleeping on or under, leading to at least some direct contact with the insecticide on
79 the barrier. There would have to be a formal risk assessment, using WHO-recommended
80 methods, to take such additional exposures into account.

81 The evolution of LLINs, as a technology, has so far been relatively simple. Stage 1 was the ITN,
82 the insecticide-treated net, which was treated in the field by dipping in an emulsion of
83 insecticide. Unfortunately, ITNs need to be re-dipped annually, and in practice, this rarely
84 happened. The first LLINs, which were designed to last 3 years without the need for re-
85 treatment, appeared in the early 2000s. WHO soon developed standards and specification to
86 define what an LLIN is, and it then suggested that public health agencies should give up ITNs
87 and buy only WHO-recommended LLINs. Since these standards were fixed, there has been
88 conspicuously little further technological evolution in LLIN design. With most paradigm-
89 changing technologies, the process of becoming widely adopted is accompanied by rapid and
90 substantial technical evolution, through incremental improvement and adaptation. In the case
91 of LLINs, this process seems to have been constrained.

92 The Global Fund is the most important buyer of LLINs². It relies on WHO for all technical
93 matters, and its procurement process has no technical content. It therefore treats all WHO-
94 recommended nets as identical, although some nets perform better than others. Durability is a
95 conspicuous example: it is a key determinant of cost-effectiveness, and more cost-effective
96 LLINs, that are slightly more expensive per unit but much more long-lasting, could certainly be
97 developed. Yet manufacturers who tried to introduce such products (e.g. Bayer's Lifenet⁷)
98 found no interest among institutional buyers. Thus, any new technical advance in net design
99 must consider the way in which it can win market-share. The WHO does test new LLINs,
100 comparing each new product with a set of minimum standards. However, these methods do
101 not take any account of insecticide resistance, and there is no system to compare products with
102 other.

103 A range of LLIN products, with new active ingredients, are now arriving on the scene. Most
104 come with a higher price but also impressive claims of improved performance. The arrival of
105 nets with roof-barriers, containing yet more insecticides, could make this range considerably
106 wider. This is of course a very good thing from the point of view of resistance management,
107 but it means that buyers will now face a new and bewilderingly complex choice: which product
108 to buy for given target area? A further dimension of complexity comes from fact that the
109 relative cost-effectiveness of alternative products depends on the resistance in the local
110 vectors, and this also varies, both geographically and between species. Therefore,
111 procurement decisions will need to be tailored to the local situation, and informed not only by
112 evidence on the characteristics of alternative products, but also by data on local resistance.
113 The system used to make such decisions will determine the future technological evolution of

114 LLINs. However, decisions of this kind are currently not within the mandates of either the
115 WHO or the Global Fund.

116 The roof barriers on nets studied by Murray et al are clearly a good idea, but before they can
117 become widely used, we will have to see some shift in the structures and processes by which
118 donor-funded agencies choose which net to buy for a given target area.

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120 **Competing Interests**

121 Jo Lines was Coordinator of the Vector Control Unit of the Global Malaria Programme, WHO
122 Geneva, from 2009 to 2011, and during this period he led the development of the WHO's
123 *Global Plan for Insecticide Resistance Management in malaria vectors*.

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125

126 **Figure legend**

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128 **Figure 1. This new bednet design improves the performance of long-lasting insecticidal nets,**
129 **and enables the use of new combinations of insecticides.** A vertical flap containing insecticide
130 is attached to the roof of standard nets, to intercept blood-seeking female mosquitoes
131 attracted by the odour of, and searching for access to, the person sleeping inside the net.

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133 (54 words, 362 characters).

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