Analyzing the control of mosquito-borne diseases by a dominant lethal genetic system

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Motivated by the failure of current methods to control dengue fever, we formulate a mathematical model to assess the impact on the spread of a mosquito-borne viral disease of a strategy that releases adult male insects homozygous for a dominant, repressible, lethal genetic trait. A dynamic model for the female adult mosquito population, which incorporates the competition for female mating between released mosquitoes and wild mosquitoes, density-dependent competition during the larval stage, and realization of the lethal trait either before or after the larval stage, is embedded into a susceptible-exposed-infectious-susceptible human-vector epidemic model for the spread of the disease. For the special case in which the number of released mosquitoes is maintained in a fixed proportion to the number of adult female mosquitoes at each point in time, we derive mathematical formulas for the disease eradication condition and the approximate number of released mosquitoes necessary for eradication. Numerical results using data for dengue fever suggest that the proportional policy outperforms a release policy in which the released mosquito population is held constant, and that eradication in \approx 1 year is feasible for affected human populations on the order of 105 to 106, although the logistical considerations are daunting. We also construct a policy that achieves an exponential decay in the female mosquito population; this policy releases approximately the same number of mosquitoes as the proportional policy but achieves eradication nearly twice as fast.

dengue fever | genetically modified mosquitoes | mathematical epidemiology

Worldwide morbidity and mortality from mosquito-borne viral diseases are substantial and on the rise (1). No licensed vaccine exists for the most important of these viruses, the dengue virus, which each year causes 50–100 million cases of dengue fever and 250,000-500,000 cases of the potentially fatal dengue hemorrhagic fever (2). The Aedes aegypti mosquito (also known as Stegomyia aegypti), which is the main vector for dengue fever and yellow fever, is endemic in the southeastern U.S., and the West Nile virus spread easily through the U.S. in recent years, suggesting the U.S. could be vulnerable in coming years to both natural and deliberate outbreaks of mosquito-borne viral diseases. Given the failure of current methods to control the spread of these diseases, considerable effort has gone into novel population-suppression strategies. The sterile insect technique (SIT), which releases sterile (irradiated) male insects that mate with wild females, resulting in no progeny, has been used successfully for >50 years for control and eradication of several pests and disease vectors (3, 4). However, irradiated mosquitoes have difficulty competing with wild males for wild females (5–7) and there are no large-scale SIT mosquito programs currently in operation. A proposed alternative approach that is also environmentally benign is the release of insects carrying a dominant lethal (RIDL) strategy. In this approach, which would operationally resemble SIT, the released male mosquitoes would be homozygous for a repressible dominant lethal gene or genetic system. The repressor would be something that could be provided during mass-rearing but is not found in the wild, for example, a chemical dietary additive. These RIDL male mosquitoes would mate with wild females and produce heterozygous progeny that die under predetermined conditions (8, 9).

We develop a mathematical model for a RIDL strategy and derive analytical expressions for disease eradication conditions and the approximate number of released mosquitoes necessary for eradication. We illustrate this using data for dengue fever, which appears to be a particularly suitable target for RIDL, because it is specific to humans (i.e., it has no significant animal reservoirs) and (unlike malaria) has a single dominant vector, and area-wide programs have previously proven to be effective in controlling this disease (10).

Results

The Model. The dengue virus has four major serotypes, and a person who recovers from an infection and is immune to one serotype may become secondarily infected (and appears to be more susceptible to dengue hemorrhagic fever) with a virus from a different serotype (11). For simplicity, we consider a singleserotype model and, to be conservative (i.e., overestimating the number of infections), we consider a susceptible-exposedinfectious-susceptible model in which all recovered people are susceptible to another infection. Let the subscripts H and Vrepresent human and (adult female) vectors, respectively. For i = $\{H, V\}$, let $I_i(t)$ be the number of infecteds at time $t, E_i(t)$ be the number of exposed (but not infectious), and $N_i(t)$ be the total population size at time t, so that the total number of susceptibles at time t is $N_i(t) - I_i(t) - E_i(t)$. We assume that the human population is constant at N_H and define a model for the adult female vector population $N_{\nu}(t)$ after describing the susceptible– exposed-infectious-susceptible human-vector epidemic model.

Following traditional notation, let a be the biting rate (number of bites per unit time), b be the probability that a bite from an infected mosquito will infect a susceptible human, c be the probability that a susceptible mosquito is infected from biting an infected human, γ be the human recovery rate, and for $i = \{H, \}$

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Abbreviations: SIT, sterile insect technique; RIDL, release of insects carrying a dominant lethal.

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V}, let μ_i be the death rate and τ_i be the deterministic incubation (or latency) period. Then our epidemic model, which is similar to that in section 14.4.1 of ref. 12, is given by

 $\dot{E}_H(t) = \frac{ab}{N_{eff}} N_V(t) [N_H - E_H(t) - I_H(t)] \frac{I_V(t)}{N_{eff}}$

 $-e^{-\mu_H au_H} \frac{ab}{N_{U}} N_V (t- au_H)$

$$\begin{split} \cdot \left[N_{H} - E_{H}(t - \tau_{H}) - I_{H}(t - \tau_{H}) \right] \frac{I_{V}(t - \tau_{H})}{N_{V}(t - \tau_{H})} \\ - \mu_{H}E_{H}(t), & \text{[1]} \\ \dot{I}_{H}(t) = e^{-\mu_{H}\tau_{H}} \frac{ab}{N_{H}} N_{V}(t - \tau_{H}) \\ \cdot \left[N_{H} - E_{H}(t - \tau_{H}) - I_{H}(t - \tau_{H}) \right] \frac{I_{V}(t - \tau_{H})}{N_{V}(t - \tau_{H})} - (\gamma + \mu_{H})I_{H}(t), \end{split}$$

$$[2] \\ \dot{E}_{V}(t) = ac[N_{V}(t) - E_{V}(t) - I_{V}(t)] \frac{I_{H}(t)}{N_{H}} - e^{-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}}ac[N_{V}(t - \tau_{V}) - E_{V}(t - \tau_{V})] \\ - E_{V}(t - \tau_{V}) - I_{V}(t - \tau_{V}) \frac{I_{H}(t - \tau_{V})}{N_{H}} - \mu_{V}E_{V}(t), \end{split}$$

$$[3] \\ \dot{I}_{V}(t) = e^{-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}}ac[N_{V}(t - \tau_{V}) - E_{V}(t - \tau_{V})] \end{split}$$

The temporal behavior of $N_{\nu}(t)$ is dictated by growth, density dependence, RIDL control, and death. A. aegypti reproduce continuously (13), and we assume each adult female mosquito has λ progeny, half female and half male, that survive to adulthood if there is no density-dependent mortality. The dengue infection does not affect the life expectancy of adult female mosquitoes, and so adult females die at rate μ_V . We assume the exponential adult female mosquito "birth" rate (i.e., the rate of emergence as adults) in the absence of density dependence is $r = (\lambda \mu_V)/2$. If there were no density-dependent mortality, we would have $\dot{N}_{V}(t) = rN_{V}(t-\tau_{e}) - \mu_{V}N_{V}(t)$, where τ_e is the deterministic time lag between reproduction and adulthood. In our model, density-dependent mortality occurs in the larval stage and thus affects only the birth term, yielding $\dot{N}_{V}(t) = rN_{V}(t-\tau_{e})D(t)-\mu_{V}N_{V}(t)$, where D(t) is the densitydependent factor. Because larval competition occurs over several days (14), the simplest form of our density-dependent factor is

 $-\left.I_{V}(t-\tau_{V})\right]\frac{I_{H}(t-\tau_{V})}{N_{H}}-\mu_{V}I_{V}(t).$

[4]

$$D(t) = \frac{\tilde{K} - \int_{\tau_l^b}^{\tau_l^e} L(t - \tau) d\tau}{\tilde{K}},$$

where L(t) is the larval female population at time t, \bar{K} is the carrying capacity of the larvae population (15), τ_1^b is the time lag between the beginning of larval competition and adulthood, and τ_1^e is the delay between the end of larval competition and adulthood. For simplicity, we approximate

$$\int_{\tau_l^b}^{\tau_l^e} L(t-\tau) d\tau$$

by $L(t-\tau_1^b)(\tau_1^b-\tau_1^e)$, and for further analytic tractability, we assume that $L(t-\tau_1^b)$ is proportional to $N_V(t-\tau_e)$, i.e., $L(t-\tau_1^b)=\beta N_V(t-\tau_e)$, which is natural in light of the definitions of τ_1^b and τ_e . Thus we set our density-dependent factor to $D(t)=[\tilde{K}-\beta(\tau_1^b-\tau_1^e)N_V(t-\tau_e)]/\tilde{K}=[K-N_V(t-\tau_e)]/K$, where $K=\tilde{K}/\beta(\tau_1^b-\tau_1^e)$, and hence K is a population parameter related to the carrying capacity of the larval population. The number of adult female mosquitoes at time t in the absence of control is

$$\dot{N}_V(t) = rN_V(t-\tau_e)\frac{K-N_V(t-\tau_e)}{K} - \mu_V N_V(t). \label{eq:NV}$$

The released adult male mosquitoes with the dominant lethal, which we refer to as the RIDL mosquitoes, can be engineered to have offspring that die either before or after the larval stage, which is where density-dependent competition occurs (e.g., for nutrients, space, or other limited resources). We refer to these two approaches as early- and late-lethal, respectively. In the absence of control, we assume there are equal numbers of wild-type adult male and female mosquitoes (14, 16). The control is modeled by R(t), which is the number of RIDL adult male mosquitoes present at time t. In our analysis below, we consider six control strategies in total, which are early- and late-lethal versions of three classes of control strategies referred to as the proportional, constant, and trajectory policies. We assume RIDL male mosquitoes compete just as well as wild-type males for the adult females [because the dominant lethal trait, unlike irradiation, need not significantly reduce fitness (17, 18)], the fraction of progeny born at time t that have a wild-type father

$$\frac{N_V(t)}{N_V(t) + R(t)}.$$

Taken together, our model for the number of adult female mosquitoes is

$$\begin{split} \dot{N}_{V}(t) \\ & = \begin{pmatrix} rN_{V}(t-\tau_{e}) \left(\frac{N_{V}(t-\tau_{e})}{N_{V}(t-\tau_{e}) + R(t-\tau_{e})}\right) \\ \left(\frac{K-N_{V}(t-\tau_{e})}{K}\right) - \mu_{V}N_{V}(t) \\ \text{for late-lethal;} \\ rN_{V}(t-\tau_{e}) \left(\frac{N_{V}(t-\tau_{e})}{N_{V}(t-\tau_{e}) + R(t-\tau_{e})}\right) \\ \left(\frac{K-\frac{N_{V}(t-\tau_{e})}{N_{V}(t-\tau_{e}) + R(t-\tau_{e})}}{K}N_{V}(t-\tau_{e})}{K}\right) \\ - \mu_{V}N_{V}(t) \\ \text{for early-lethal} \end{split}, \label{eq:equation_equation}$$

and our entire model consists of Eqs. 1-5.

The Proportional Policy. Our main analytical result is the necessary condition for disease eradication [i.e., $I_H(\infty) = I_V(\infty) = 0$, and hence the virus, not the vector, is being eradicated] for the proportional policy, where the RIDL mosquito population is maintained in a fixed proportion to the adult female mosquito population, i.e.,

$$R(t) = \theta N_{\nu}(t).$$
 [6]

[5]

The proof of Proposition 1 is in supporting information (SI) *Appendix*, Section 1.

Table 1. Base-case parameter values

Parameter	Description	Value	Ref.
N _H	Human population	10,000	
$N_{V}(0)$	No. of adult female mosquitoes at time 0 [= K (1 $-\mu_V/r$)]	0.811K	_
a	Biting rate (number of bites per day)	0.7 per day	19–21
b	Probability that a bite infects a susceptible human	0.75	20, 22
С	Probability that a bite infects a susceptible mosquito	0.75	20, 22
γ	Human recovery rate	0.25 per day	23
μн	Human death rate	1 per year	
μ_{V}	Adult female mosquito death rate	0.12 per day	14, 16
λ	Number of progeny per adult female mosquito	10.6	13, 14
r	Female mosquito birth rate (= $\lambda \mu_V/2$)	0.636 per day	13, 14
K	Population parameter	Varies	
τ_H	Human incubation period	7 days	12, 24, 25
τv	Mosquito incubation period	9 days	20, 24, 25
$ au_{e}$	Delay between reproduction and adulthood	18.84 days	14

The initial vector population $N_V(0)$ equals the nontrivial pretreatment steady-state solution in Eq. 5, and we vary K to achieve different $N_V(0)/N_H$ ratios in Figs. 1 and 2.

[7]

Proposition 1. If $\mu_V > r$, then eradication occurs in the absence of RIDL control. If $\mu_V < r$, eradication in the absence of RIDL control occurs only if $\mu_V >$

$$\begin{split} \frac{a^2bcK(r-\mu_V)e^{-\mu_H\tau_H-\mu_V\tau_V}}{(\gamma+\mu_H)rN_H}. \end{split}$$
 If $\mu_V < min \bigg\{ r, \frac{a^2bcK(r-\mu_V)e^{-\mu_H\tau_H-\mu_V\tau_V}}{(\gamma+\mu_H)rN_H} \bigg\},$

then the proportional RIDL strategy in Eq. 6 achieves eradication only if $\theta > \theta^*$, where

$$\theta^* = \begin{cases} \left(1 - \frac{(\mu_H + \gamma)N_H \mu_V e^{\mu_H \tau_H + \mu_V \tau_V}}{a^2 b c K}\right) \frac{r}{\mu_V} - 1 \\ \text{for late-lethal;} \\ \left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - \frac{4\mu_V^2 N_H (\gamma + \mu_H) e^{\mu_H \tau_H + \mu_V \tau_V}}{a^2 b c K r}}}{2}\right) \frac{r}{\mu_V} - 1 \\ \text{for early-lethal.} \end{cases}$$

The right side of Eq. 7 is smaller for late-lethal, and hence late-lethal dominates early-lethal in the sense that it requires a smaller proportion of RIDL mosquitoes to wild-type female mosquitoes than early-lethal to achieve eradication.

Throughout this study, we use numerical values representative of dengue fever (Table 1) for a small urban population of 10,000 humans, which should not egregiously violate our homogeneousmixing nonspatial model (14). We also set the adult female mosquito population at time 0 to $K[1-\mu_V/r]$, which is its steady-state value in Eq. 5 in the absence of treatment, and vary K to obtain different values of the mosquito-to-human population ratio, $N_V(0)/N_H$. For the parameter values in Table 1, eradication in the absence of control occurs only if $N_{\nu}(0)/N_{H}$ < 0.32, whereas $N_{\nu}(0)/N_H$ values for dengue fever range from 2 upward (20, 26), although there will be considerable variation in this value depending on the specific setting.

For the parameter values in Table 1, necessary condition [7] is also a sufficient condition for eradication for early but not for late-lethal. This is because, for small values of θ , the system is unstable, and θ^* is sufficiently bounded away from zero for early but not late-lethal (see SI Appendix, Section 1, and Fig. 1). However, for the examples analyzed in this paper, the instability is not an issue, because θ^* in these cases is much greater than the value required for stability (the system stabilizes for $\theta \ge 0.55$). The mosquito population in the absence of control (i.e., $\theta = 0$) is unstable. This is not inconsistent with a mosquito population model with one density-dependent factor (which is what our model has) in ref. 14 that can have stability issues depending on the parameter values. Our focus, however, is on the controlled system, and we analyze only the uncontrolled population to determine the initial conditions.

The two eradication thresholds in Eq. 7 are increasing and convex in the mosquito-to-human population ratio (Fig. 1) and converge to the asymptotic limit,

$$\lim_{N_{V}(0)} N_{H} \to \infty \theta^{*} = \frac{r}{\mu_{V}} - 1 = 4.30,$$

which is the threshold where $N_{\nu}(\infty)$ switches from positive to zero. The late-lethal threshold converges more slowly than the early-lethal threshold and hence there is a significant difference between the two thresholds for moderate (i.e., < 5) population ratios.

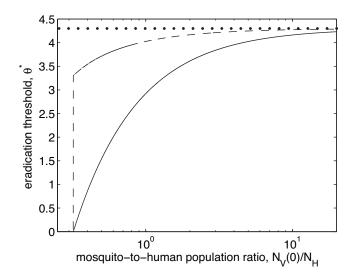


Fig. 1. The RIDL eradication threshold (θ^*) for the proportional policy vs. the logarithm of the pretreatment mosquito-to-human population ratio $(N_V(0)/$ N_H), which is generated by varying the population parameter K, for late-lethal (—), early-lethal (- -), and the asymptotic (as $N_V(0)/N_H \rightarrow \infty$) limit (· · ·).

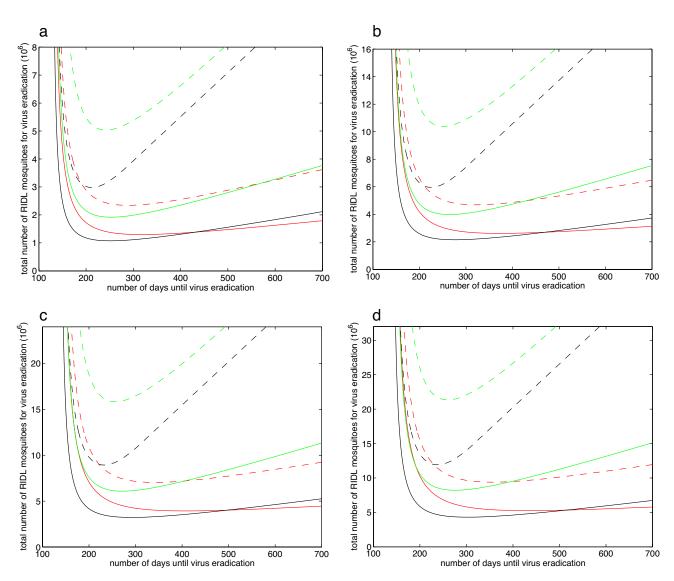


Fig. 2. The number of RIDL mosquitoes required for eradication in Eq. 8 vs. the number of days until eradication t^* [i.e., $I_V(t^*) \le 0.1$] for both late-lethal (—) and early-lethal (--) for all three policies: the proportional policy (red), the constant policy (green), and the trajectory policy (black). These curves are generated by varying the free parameter (θ , C, and ϕ , respectively) in the three policies (the curves are in the upper-left portion of the graphs for larger values of the free parameters) and numerically computing Eqs. 1–5 with the initial state variables set at their nontrivial pretreatment steady-state values (see *SI Appendix*, Section 1). We consider four values of $N_V(0)/N_H$. (a) 4, (b) 8, (c) 12, and (d) 16.

From a practical point of view, it is also important to understand how many RIDL mosquitoes are required for eradication, and how long it takes to eradicate the virus. In the case where $\theta > \theta^*$, we consider eradication to be achieved when $I_V(t) \le 0.1$, and let t^* denote the eradication time; i.e., t^* is the minimum t such that $I_V(t) = 0.1$. The number of RIDL mosquitoes required for eradication is (see *SI Appendix*, Section 2, for a derivation)

$$M = R(t^*) + \mu_{\nu} \int_0^{t^*} R(t) dt.$$
 [8]

For each of the three policies, Fig. 2 displays the tradeoff between these two performance measures, and SI Figs. 3 and 4 show how these two measures vary with the parameters of the three policies; although we refer to the curves in Fig. 2 as tradeoff curves, both performance measures simultaneously increase as the free policy parameter (e.g., θ for the proportional policy) is reduced to near its eradication threshold value. Fig. 2 reveals that

late-lethal offers a 44% reduction in the number of RIDL mosquitoes required for eradication relative to early-lethal. For the four cases in Fig. 2 ($N_{\nu}(0)/N_H=4$, 8, 12, 16), $\approx \! 10^6$ RIDL mosquitoes are required to eradicate the virus. The value of θ that minimizes M in Fig. 2 is 6.0 for late-and 8.3 for early-lethal. Eradication can take several years for θ values close to the critical θ^* , but for values closer to the M-minimizing θ eradication takes between 10 and 15 months (Fig. 2). Given the nature of the curves in Fig. 2, the inherent uncertainty in some of the parameter values, and the difficulty of achieving uniform spatial dispersion of mosquitoes, it would be prudent in practice to choose a somewhat larger value of θ than the M-minimizing value.

The Constant Policy. The constant policy, R(t) = C, maintains a constant number of RIDL mosquitoes in circulation. Compared with the proportional policy in Eq. 6, the constant policy requires ≈ 1.5 -fold more mosquitoes to achieve eradication for late-and 2.2-fold more for early-lethal (Fig. 2). Moreover, the number of

mosquitoes required for eradication by the constant policy is very sensitive to the value of C (SI Fig. 3), which makes it a less robust policy than the proportional policy. Although the Mminimizing constant policy requires significantly more mosquitoes to achieve eradication than the M-minimizing proportional policy, it does achieve eradication in less time (Fig. 2).

The Trajectory Policy. Our final policy is reverse-engineered in an attempt to maintain an exponential decline in the total number of infected female mosquitoes $[I_{V}(t)]$. Analytically, we construct the trajectory policy so it achieves an exponential decay in the total number of female mosquitoes $[N_{\nu}(t)]$ in the late-lethal version of Eq. 5 in the absence of time lags (i.e., setting $\tau_e = 0$). This calculation (see *SI Appendix*, Section 2) yields the trajectory

$$R(t) = \phi \frac{N_{V}(t)(K - N_{V}(t))}{K} - N_{V}(t),$$
 [9]

where θ is a free parameter that dictates the rate of exponential decay. Under this policy, the RIDL-to-female ratio is

$$\frac{R(t)}{N_V(t)} = (\phi - 1) - \frac{\phi N_V(t)}{K},$$

which equals $(\phi \mu_V)/r - 1$ at time 0 and (for practical values of θ) steadily increases (SI Fig. 5, which provides a detailed comparison of the dynamics of all three policies) as the female mosquito population decreases, eventually approaching $\theta - 1$ as eradication nears. This behavior suggests that the trajectory policy can be viewed in more general terms as a variable proportional policy, where the proportion of RIDL mosquitoes increases as the female mosquito population decreases. Under late-lethal (which is what the trajectory policy was constructed for), at the M-minimizing value of θ , the trajectory policy requires slightly fewer mosquitoes for eradication than the M-minimizing proportional policy. However, when the two policies both release the minimum number of mosquitoes required under the proportional policy, eradication occurs nearly twice as fast for the trajectory policy (Fig. 2).

Overall, late-dominates early-lethal for all three policies, and the trajectory policy outperforms the other two policies. The trajectory policy slightly dominates the proportional policy if the main performance measure is the total number of RIDL mosquitoes required for eradication and significantly dominates the proportional policy if the primary measure is the time until eradication. The proportional policy significantly outperforms the constant policy if the main performance measure is the number of mosquitoes required for eradication. A third performance measure not shown in Fig. 2 is the peak release quantity, which in general is the initial deployment when R(0) RIDL mosquitoes are released into the system (the only situation where the peak release is not at t = 0 is the trajectory policy for $R(0)/N_V(0) < 0.2$). This value is higher for the proportional policy than the other two policies (SI Fig. 3). However, if production capacity is limited, factories could stockpile male mosquitoes before the start of a program, when the peak release occurs.

Analytical Approximations for M. In SI Appendix, Section 4, we derive the following approximation for the number of released mosquitoes in 8 under the proportional policy, denoted by \tilde{M} , assuming the adult female mosquito population is in its pretreatment steady-state at time 0:

$$\tilde{M} = \begin{cases} \mu_V \tau_e \theta N_V(0) - (1+\theta) \frac{\mu_V \theta}{r} K \ln \left(1 - \frac{r-\mu_V}{\mu_V \theta}\right) \\ \text{for late-lethal;} \\ \mu_V \tau_e \theta N_V(0) - (1+\theta)^2 \frac{\mu_V \theta}{r} \\ K \ln \left(1 - \frac{r-\mu_V}{\theta(\mu_V(1+\theta) - (r-\mu_V))}\right) \\ \text{for early-lethal.} \end{cases}$$

[10]

This approximation is valid only if $\theta > (r/\mu_V) - 1$, because this is a necessary and sufficient condition for $N_{\nu}(\infty) = 0$ (see SI Appendix, Section 1). Although it is possible to eradicate the virus for $\theta < (r/\mu_V) - 1$, the quantity M in Eq. 8 is a convex function of θ and achieves a unique minimum in the region $\theta >$ (r/μ_V) – 1, where approximation 10 is valid (SI Fig. 3). The expression M in Eq. 10 is sufficiently accurate to provide a useful ballpark approximation for the number of mosquitoes required for eradication (SI Fig. 6). The values of θ that minimize M in Eq. 10 are 5.2 for late- and 6.4 for early-lethal, which are smaller than the values 6.0 and 8.3 that minimize M in SI Fig. 3. Finally, in SI Appendix, Section 5 and SI Fig. 7, we derive and assess somewhat cruder (i.e., less accurate than Eq. 10) approximations for M that act as lower bounds for the total number of mosquitoes required for eradication for all three release policies.

Discussion

Although Eq. 5 captures the important features of the RIDL policy, the epidemic model in Eqs. 1-4 lacks the fidelity to accurately predict the outcome of an epidemic. In the case of dengue fever, the inclusion of four serotypes with serotypespecific immunity rates (27), age-dependent susceptibility and disease severity, seasonality (28), and spatial aspects would be required. In addition, the model does not allow for the immigration of infected humans or vectors, which could lead to some secondary infections even if eradication is ultimately achieved. Nonetheless, the susceptible-exposed-infectious-susceptible human-vector epidemic model and its variants (in the absence of RIDL intervention) have a long history of capturing the salient characteristics of a variety of mosquito-based disease outbreaks (ref. 12, chapter 14), including dengue fever (20, 26, 28). Similarly, the density dependence modeled in Eq. 5 is consistent with data for a variety of insects, including the A. aegypti mosquito (13). Consequently, our model should suffice for an order-of-magnitude assessment of the effectiveness and practicality of the RIDL strategy, as well as providing a relative comparison of six reasonable and applicable control strategies.

Proposition 1 and the identity $r = \lambda \mu_V/2$ suggest that eradication of the virus requires the RIDL population to be maintained at a population $\approx (\lambda/2)-1$ times larger than the adult female mosquito population in the proportional policy, where λ is the number of progeny per adult female mosquito. For A. aegypti in our dengue fever example, this value is 4.3. Although eradication can be achieved at some smaller values (Fig. 1), to minimize the number of RIDL mosquitoes required for eradication, it is optimal to maintain a somewhat higher ratio (\approx 6); at the optimal ratio, eradication takes ≈13 months. Under the proportional policy, the total number of mosquitoes required for eradication is \approx 45% less for late-than for early-lethal, because of the strong density-dependent competition during the larval stage. Hence, late-lethal RIDL offers another benefit, beyond improved fitness, relative to SIT, which kills before the larval stage. By Eq. 10 and $r = \lambda \mu_V/2$, the total number of mosquitoes required for eradication in the late-lethal case of the proportional policy can be approximated by

$$\left(\mu_V \tau_e \theta - \frac{(1+\theta)}{\delta} \ln(1-\delta)\right) N_V(0),$$

where the megaparameter

$$\delta = \frac{1}{\theta} \left(\frac{\lambda}{2} - 1 \right).$$

In particular, this equation shows that the number of RIDL mosquitoes required for eradication is approximately linear in the initial number of adult female mosquitoes, $N_V(0)$ (see also Fig. 2) and is $\approx 25.9 N_V(0)$ for A. aegypti when using the M-minimizing θ . Although our main analytical results are for the proportional policy, the trajectory policy is the best policy under late-lethal RIDL; the M-minimizing trajectory policy requires roughly the same number of RIDL mosquitoes for eradication as the M-minimizing proportional policy, but by being more aggressive when the infected female mosquito population gets small (SI Fig. 5), it is able to achieve faster eradication than the proportional policy.

Given that eggs can be stored for up to 2 years and that A. aegypti mosquitoes are easy to breed, 10^8 - 10^9 could be stockpiled for a given project [Culex quinquefasciatus mosquitoes have been released at 3×10^5 per day (29, 30), and Anopheles albimanus mosquitoes have been released at 10^6 per day (30, 31)], and given the female mosquito-to-human population ratio in endemic areas is ≈ 10 (20, 26), it would appear that the RIDL strategy is capable of eradicating dengue fever for millions of people worldwide. The worldwide population in areas where dengue fever is endemic is $\approx 10^9$ (32), suggesting that the number of adult

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female mosquitoes in these regions is $\approx 10^{10}$, and the total number of RIDL mosquitoes required for worldwide eradication is $\approx 10^{11}$. Given that production facilities for Mediterranean fruit flies exist with a capacity in excess of 5×10^8 per day (4), rearing insects on this scale is not infeasible (i.e., 200 days of production at 5×10^8 per day is 10^{11} insects). The biggest logistical challenge is not breeding but distribution; *A. aegypti* mosquitoes disperse only up to one-half mile (33, 34), although there is some uncertainty in this value, and hence distribution would likely need to be performed on a household basis, at least in rural areas.

We do not believe that our model is sufficiently detailed to solely and reliably determine a release schedule that would result in disease eradication. Rather, for implementation purposes and using the proportional policy as an example, we envision starting with a conservative estimate of θ (i.e., a value somewhat higher than derived by our analysis) and then to sample over time to obtain estimates of the number of RIDL mosquitoes $[\hat{R}(t)]$, the number of adult female mosquitoes $[\hat{N}_V(t)]$, and the number of infected adult female mosquitoes $[\hat{I}_V(t)]$. If the sampled fraction infected $\{[\hat{I}_V(t)]/\hat{N}_V(t)\}$ is greater than the value of $[I_V(t)]/N_V(t)$ predicted by our model, then we increase θ to some value $\hat{\theta}$ (and perhaps decrease θ if $[\hat{I}_V(t)]/\hat{N}_V(t)$ is less than predicted by our model). Our release schedule would be altered so that Eq. 5 is satisfied with our new values $[i.e., R(t) = \hat{\theta}\hat{N}_V(t)]$.

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Appendix

1. Proof of Proposition 1

In this proof, we analyze the stability properties necessary to eradicate the virus for the proportional control policy. To determine the steady-state solutions of this system, which is given by equations (1)-(5) of the main text, we set these equations to zero and ignore the time lags. Because equation (5) decouples, we can solve for the steady-state solutions of equations (1)-(4) separately from equation (5). The possible steady-state solutions of equations (1)-(4) are $(E_H, I_H, E_V, I_V) = (0, 0, 0, 0)$ and

$$I_{V} = \frac{ac\mu_{H}e^{-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}}}{ac\mu_{H} + ((\mu_{H} + \gamma)e^{\mu_{H}\tau_{H}} - \gamma)\mu_{V}} (N_{V} - \frac{(\mu_{H} + \gamma)\mu_{V}N_{H}e^{\mu_{H}\tau_{H} + \mu_{V}\tau_{V}}}{a^{2}bc}), \tag{A.1}$$

$$I_{H} = \frac{\mu_{V} I_{V}}{\frac{ac}{N_{H}} e^{-\mu_{V} \tau_{V}} [N_{V} - I_{V} e^{\mu_{V} \tau_{V}}]},$$
(A.2)

$$E_H = \frac{(\mu_H + \gamma)(e^{\mu_H \tau_H} - 1)}{\mu_H} I_H, \tag{A.3}$$

$$E_V = (e^{\mu_V \tau_V} - 1)I_V,$$
 (A.4)

and the possible steady-state solutions of equation (5) are $N_{V}=0$ and

$$N_V = \begin{cases} K(1 - \frac{(1+\theta)\mu_V}{r}) & \text{for late - lethal;} \\ (1+\theta)K(1 - \frac{(1+\theta)\mu_V}{r}) & \text{for early - lethal.} \end{cases}$$
(A.5)

Although there are four possible steady-state solutions, we are only interested in the two solutions that achieve eradication of the virus (i.e., $I_V = I_H = 0$):

$$(E_H, I_H, E_V, I_V, N_V) = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0),$$
 (A.6)

$$(E_{H}, I_{H}, E_{V}, I_{V}, N_{V}) = \begin{cases} \left(0, 0, 0, 0, K\left(1 - \frac{(1+\theta)\mu_{V}}{r}\right)\right) & \text{for late - lethal;} \\ \left(0, 0, 0, 0, (1+\theta)K\left(1 - \frac{(1+\theta)\mu_{V}}{r}\right)\right) & \text{for early - lethal.} \end{cases}$$
(A.7)

In the remainder of this section, we analyze the stability properties of solutions (A.6)-(A.7). These solutions are stable if all of the roots of the characteristic equations have negative real part.

Because we are dealing with a system of delay differential equations, the characteristic equation has an infinite number of roots and is given by [1]

$$\det(\mathbf{J} + e^{-\eta \tau_H} \mathbf{J}_{\tau_H} + e^{-\eta \tau_V} \mathbf{J}_{\tau_V} + e^{-\eta \tau_e} \mathbf{J}_{\tau_e} - \eta \mathbf{I}) = 0,$$

where **I** is the identity matrix and the matrices J, J_{τ_H} , J_{τ_V} , and J_{τ_e} have entries that are the partial derivatives of the right sides of (1)-(5) in the main text with respect to, respectively,

$$(E_H(t), I_H(t), E_V(t), I_V(t), N_V(t)), (E_H(t-\tau_H), I_H(t-\tau_H), E_V(t-\tau_H), I_V(t-\tau_H), N_V(t-\tau_H)),$$
 $(E_H(t-\tau_V), I_H(t-\tau_V), E_V(t-\tau_V), I_V(t-\tau_V), N_V(t-\tau_V)),$ and $(E_H(t-\tau_e), I_H(t-\tau_e), E_V(t-\tau_e), I_V(t-\tau_e), N_V(t-\tau_e)).$ These matrices are given by

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{ab}{N_H} I_V - \mu_H & -\frac{ab}{N_H} I_V & 0 & \frac{ab}{N_H} [N_H - E_H - I_H] & 0\\ 0 & -(\mu_H + \gamma) & 0 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & \frac{ac}{N_H} [N_V - E_V - I_V] & -\frac{ac}{N_H} I_H - \mu_V & -\frac{ac}{N_H} I_H & \frac{ac}{N_H} I_H\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -\mu_V & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -\mu_V \end{pmatrix}, (A.8)$$

$$\mathbf{J}_{\tau_{V}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -e^{-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}} \frac{ac}{N_{H}} [N_{V} - E_{V} - I_{V}] & e^{-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}} \frac{ac}{N_{H}} I_{H} & e^{-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}} \frac{ac}{N_{H}} I_{H} & -e^{-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}} \frac{ac}{N_{H}} I_{H} \\ 0 & e^{-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}} \frac{ac}{N_{H}} [N_{V} - E_{V} - I_{V}] & -e^{-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}} \frac{ac}{N_{H}} I_{H} & -e^{-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}} \frac{ac}{N_{H}} I_{H} & e^{-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}} \frac{ac}{N_{H}} I_{H} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (A.10)$$

The matrices $\mathbf{J}, \mathbf{J}_{\tau_V}$, and \mathbf{J}_{τ_e} depend on whether the late-lethal or early-lethal policy is used.

Beginning with solution (A.6), we find that the characteristic equation is the same for both

late-lethal and early-lethal, and reduces to

$$\det\begin{pmatrix} -\mu_H - \eta & 0 & 0 & ab(1 - e^{-\mu_H \tau_H} e^{-\eta \tau_H}) & 0\\ 0 & -(\mu_H + \gamma) - \eta & 0 & abe^{-\mu_H \tau_H} e^{-\eta \tau_H} & 0\\ 0 & 0 & -\mu_V - \eta & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -\mu_V - \eta & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{r}{1+\theta} e^{-\eta \tau_e} - \mu_V - \eta \end{pmatrix} = 0. \quad (A.12)$$

Therefore, we need to analyze the roots of

$$\frac{r}{1+\theta}e^{-\eta\tau_e} - \mu_V - \eta = 0. {(A.13)}$$

The left side of (A.13) is a decreasing function of η , and so we need to ensure that the function is less than zero at $\eta = 0$. Thus, we have the necessary requirement

$$\frac{r}{1+\theta} < \mu_V. \tag{A.14}$$

We now need to check that (A.14) is a sufficient condition for all complex roots of (A.13) to have a negative real part. Setting $\eta = \kappa + i\omega$ in (A.13) gives us two equations, corresponding to the real and imaginary components

$$e^{-\kappa \tau_e} \cos \omega \tau_e = \frac{1+\theta}{r} (\mu_V + \kappa),$$

$$e^{-\kappa \tau_e} \sin \omega \tau_e = -\frac{1+\theta}{r} \omega.$$
(A.15)

We want to show that all solutions are such that $\kappa < 0$. If we assume that there exists a solution such that $\kappa \geq 0$, then equation (A.15) implies that

$$\kappa \le \frac{r}{1+\theta} - \mu_V. \tag{A.16}$$

However, expressions (A.14) and (A.16) imply that $\kappa < 0$, and thus we have arrived at a contradiction. Therefore, the steady-state solution (0,0,0,0,0) is stable for both the early-lethal and late-lethal policies if and only if $\mu_V > \frac{r}{1+\theta}$.

Turning to solution (A.7), $(E_H, I_H, E_V, I_V, N_V) = (0, 0, 0, 0, N_V)$, with $N_V > 0$ given by equation (A.5), we derive the characteristic equation (this depends on the policy since N_V is a parameter)

$$\det\begin{pmatrix} -\mu_{H} - \eta & 0 & 0 & ab(1 - e^{-\mu}H^{\tau}H e^{-\eta\tau}H) & 0 \\ 0 & -(\mu_{H} + \gamma) - \eta & 0 & abe^{-\mu}H^{\tau}H e^{-\eta\tau}H & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{ac}{N_{H}}N_{V}(1 - e^{-\mu}V^{\tau}V e^{-\eta\tau}V) & -\mu_{V} - \eta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{ac}{N_{H}}N_{V}e^{-\mu}V^{\tau}V e^{-\eta\tau}V & 0 & -\mu_{V} - \eta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -\mu_{V} + (2\mu_{V} - \frac{r}{1+\theta})e^{-\eta\tau}e - \eta \end{pmatrix} = 0, \quad (A.17)$$

which reduces to

$$\left(-\mu_{V} + (2\mu_{V} - \frac{r}{1+\theta})e^{-\eta\tau_{e}} - \eta\right) \times \left((\mu_{V} + \eta)^{2}(\mu_{H} + \eta)(\mu_{H} + \gamma + \eta) - \frac{ac}{N_{H}}N_{V}e^{-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}}e^{-\eta\tau_{V}}(\mu_{V} + \eta)(\mu_{H} + \eta)abe^{-\mu_{H}\tau_{H}}e^{-\eta\tau_{H}}\right) = 0.$$
(A.18)

At least one of the two terms in (A.18) needs to be zero in order for this equation to be satisfied. Simplifying the second term (noting that two roots, $-\mu_V$ and $-\mu_H$, are always negative and real), we write the two factors of interest as

$$-\mu_V + (2\mu_V - \frac{r}{1+\theta})e^{-\eta\tau_e} - \eta, \tag{A.19}$$

$$(\mu_V + \eta)(\mu_H + \gamma + \eta) - \frac{a^2 bc}{N_H} N_V e^{-\mu_H \tau_H - \mu_V \tau_V} e^{-\eta(\tau_V + \tau_H)}.$$
 (A.20)

Expression (A.19) tends to $-\infty$ as $\eta \to \infty$. Thus, requiring expression (A.19) to be less than zero at $\eta = 0$ yields the necessary condition

$$\mu_V < \frac{r}{1+\theta}.\tag{A.21}$$

Expression (A.20) tends to ∞ as $\eta \to \infty$, and consequently expression (A.20) must be greater than zero at $\eta = 0$. Substituting the value of N_V from (A.5) into expression (A.20) gives the necessary condition

$$\mu_{V} > \frac{a^{2}bcK(r-(1+\theta)\mu_{V})}{(\mu_{H}+\gamma)N_{H}r}e^{-\mu_{H}\tau_{H}-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}} \quad \text{for late - lethal;}$$

$$\mu_{V} > \frac{a^{2}bcK(r-(1+\theta)\mu_{V})(1+\theta)}{(\mu_{H}+\gamma)N_{H}r}e^{-\mu_{H}\tau_{H}-\mu_{V}\tau_{V}} \quad \text{for early - lethal.}$$
(A.22)

Taken together, inequalities (A.21) and (A.22) give us a necessary condition on θ for the roots of equation (A.18) to have negative real part:

$$\left(1 - \frac{(\mu_H + \gamma)N_H \mu_V e^{\mu_H \tau_H + \mu_V \tau_V}}{a^2 b c K}\right) \frac{r}{\mu_V} - 1 < \theta < \frac{r}{\mu_V} - 1 \qquad \text{for late - lethal;}$$

$$\left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - \frac{4\mu_V^2 N_H (\gamma + \mu_H) e^{\mu_H \tau_H + \mu_V \tau_V}}{a^2 b c K r}}}{2}\right) \frac{r}{\mu_V} - 1 < \theta < \frac{r}{\mu_V} - 1 \quad \text{for early - lethal.}$$
(A.23)

Now we investigate whether condition (A.23) is also sufficient for the roots of equation (A.18) to have negative real part. First, we assume all roots of both expressions (A.19) and (A.20) are real,

then we can show that condition (A.23) is sufficient for these roots to be negative. If $2\mu_V > \frac{r}{1+\theta}$ then expression (A.19) is decreasing in η for $\eta > 0$, and if $2\mu_V \le \frac{r}{1+\theta}$ then expression (A.19) is less than zero for $\eta > 0$; in either case, condition (A.21) prevents any roots of (A.19) from being positive. Condition (A.23) is also sufficient for the roots of (A.20) to be negative, because then expression (A.20) is increasing for $\eta > 0$.

We now drop the assumption that the roots of (A.19)-(A.20) are real, and explore whether condition (A.23) is sufficient for all complex roots of expressions (A.19)-(A.20) to have negative real parts, starting with (A.20). Introducing the positive constants A, B, D, and τ we express equation (A.20) as

$$(A + \eta)(B + \eta) - De^{-\eta\tau} = 0.$$
 (A.24)

Substituting $\eta=\kappa+i\omega$ into (A.24) gives us equations for the real and imaginary components,

$$De^{-\kappa\tau}\cos\omega\tau = \kappa^2 - \omega^2 + (A+B)\kappa + AB,$$

$$De^{-\kappa\tau}\sin\omega\tau = -2\kappa\omega - (A+B)\omega.$$
(A.25)

If (κ, ω) is a solution to these two equations then so is $(\kappa, -\omega)$ and thus we can assume $\omega > 0$. We want to show that $\kappa < 0$. If we assume $\kappa \geq 0$ then the right side of equation (A.25) is negative, and hence $\omega \tau \mod 2\pi \in (\pi, 2\pi)$. Therefore, equation (A.25) gives two conditions,

$$\omega > \frac{\pi}{\tau} = \frac{\pi}{\tau_H + \tau_V},\tag{A.26}$$

$$\omega < \frac{D}{2a+A+B} \le \frac{D}{A+B}. (A.27)$$

Substituting for A, B, and D into (A.27) gives

$$\omega \le \frac{D}{A+B} = \frac{a^2 b c N_V}{N_H} e^{-\mu_H \tau_H - \mu_V \tau_V} \frac{1}{\mu_V + \mu_H + \gamma}.$$
 (A.28)

But by condition (A.22), inequality (A.28) simplifies to

$$\omega \le \frac{(\mu_H + \gamma)\mu_V}{\mu_V + \mu_H + \gamma} < \mu_V. \tag{A.29}$$

If $\mu_V(\tau_H + \tau_V) < \pi$, as it is using the parameter values in Table 1 of the main text, then conditions (A.26) and (A.29) lead to a contradiction, implying that $\kappa \ngeq 0$. Therefore, if $\mu_V(\tau_H + \tau_V) < \pi$ then condition (A.23) is sufficient for the roots of expression (A.20) to have negative real components.

Unfortunately, condition (A.23) for late-lethal is not sufficient for the roots of (A.19) to have negative real parts, and thus it is possible to have instabilities in the system. Expression (A.19) can be analyzed in terms of the Lambert W function [2], $W(x) = \{w : x = we^w\}$. Rearranging (A.19) yields

$$\eta = \frac{W\left(\tau_e e^{\mu_V \tau_e} \left(2\mu_V - \frac{r}{1+\theta}\right)\right)}{\tau_e} - \mu_V. \tag{A.30}$$

For the parameter values in Table 1 of the main text, the η given by equation (A.30) can have a positive real component for $\theta \leq 0.55$ and thus the system only stabilizes for $\theta > 0.55$. For all examples in the main text, θ^* is much greater than 0.55 and thus stability is not an issue. It should be noted that $\theta = 0$ corresponds to the system in the absence of control and thus the natural mosquito population is unstable in our model. Other mosquito population models can also exhibit instabilities [3]. However we are studying the effects of the RIDL program and thus only need the natural population to set the initial conditions of the the controlled system.

However, condition (A.23) for early-lethal is sufficient for the roots of (A.19) to have negative real component because the early-lethal lower bound in (A.23) sufficiently bounds θ away from 0, and thus prevents the instability that occurs for small values of θ in the late-lethal case. Substituting $\eta = \kappa + i\omega$ into expression (A.19) gives two equations for the real and imaginary component,

$$e^{-\kappa \tau_e} \cos \omega \tau_e = \frac{1+\theta}{2\mu_V (1+\theta) - r} (\mu_V + \kappa),$$

$$e^{-\kappa \tau_e} \sin \omega \tau_e = -\frac{1+\theta}{2\mu_V (1+\theta) - r} \omega.$$
(A.31)

Condition (A.23) for early-lethal implies $2\mu_V(1+\theta)-r>0$, which is not the case for late-lethal.

Using this inequality, equation (A.31), and assuming $\kappa \ge 0$ implies that

$$\kappa \le \mu_V - \frac{r}{1+\theta}.\tag{A.32}$$

However, expressions (A.21) and (A.32) imply that $\kappa < 0$ and hence a contradiction. Therefore, the steady-state solution $(0,0,0,0,N_V)$, $N_V > 0$, is stable for early-lethal if and only if condition (A.23) holds. However for late-lethal we can only claim equation (A.23) is a necessary condition for stability.

Finally, it can be shown that the two non-eradicating steady-state solutions (i.e., using equations (A.1)-(A.4)) are not stable in the range of θ we are interested in (i.e., equations (A.14) and (A.23)). Therefore, conditions (A.14) and (A.23) are necessary for eradication.

2. Derivation of the Trajectory Policy

Our goal is to find a function R(t) that leads to an exponential decay of $N_V(t)$ in the latelethal policy if we ignore the time lag (i.e., set $\tau_e=0$ in equation (5) of the main text). Substituting $R(t)=\phi\frac{N_V(t)(K-N_V(t))}{K}-N_V(t) \text{ into the late-lethal version of equation (5) of the main text gives}$

$$\dot{N}_{V}(t) = rN_{V}(t - \tau_{e}) \left(\frac{N_{V}(t - \tau_{e})}{N_{V}(t - \tau_{e}) + \phi \frac{N_{V}(t - \tau_{e})(K - N_{V}(t - \tau_{e}))}{K} - N_{V}(t - \tau_{e})} \right) \left(\frac{K - N_{V}(t - \tau_{e})}{K} \right) - \mu_{V}N_{V}(t),$$
(A.33)

$$= \frac{r}{\phi} N_V(t - \tau_e) - \mu_V N_V(t). \tag{A.34}$$

Setting $\tau_e=0$ in (A.34) and solving gives $N_V(t)=N_V(0)e^{(\frac{r}{\phi}-\mu_V)t}$, as desired.

3. Derivation of M in Equation (8)

Before deriving equation (8) in the main text, we note that a practical control policy must satisfy two constraints on the function R(t), which are $R(t) \ge 0$ and

$$R'(t) + \mu_V R(t) \ge 0.$$
 (A.35)

Condition (A.35) follows because RIDL mosquitoes can only be added, and not removed, from the system, and because the RIDL population evolves according to $R'(t) = -\mu_V R(t)$ in the absence of new releases.

The constant control policy, R(t)=C, satisfies condition (A.35). By equation (5) in the main text, the proportional policy, $R(t)=\theta N_V(t)$, leads to

$$R'(t) + \mu_V R(t) = \begin{cases} \theta r N_V(t - \tau_e) \left(\frac{1}{1+\theta}\right) \left(\frac{K - N_V(t - \tau_e)}{K}\right) & \text{for late - lethal;} \\ \theta r N_V(t - \tau_e) \left(\frac{1}{1+\theta}\right) \left(\frac{K - \frac{1}{1+\theta}N_V(t - \tau_e)}{K}\right) & \text{for early - lethal,} \end{cases}$$
(A.36)

and hence to satisfy (A.35) we require

$$K \geq N_V(t)$$
 for late – lethal;
$$(1+\theta)K \geq N_V(t)$$
 for early – lethal. (A.37)

Both the initial condition $N_V(0) = K(1 - \frac{\mu_V}{r})$ and the final steady state (either 0 or equation (A.5)) satisfy condition (A.37). For the range of θ we investigate, $N_V(t)$ evolves over time from the initial state to its steady state in a monotone or slightly oscillatory manner, and thus condition (A.37) is satisfied. However for small values of θ where the system can destabilize, it is possible for condition (A.37) and hence (A.36) to fail. There is no straightforward analytical condition to verify (A.35) for the trajectory policy, however numerical and analytic investigations reveal that for ϕ in the range of interest in this paper, condition (A.35) is satisfied.

To derive equation (8) in the main text, we sum the initial release, R(0), and the number of mosquitoes we must add to the system to maintain the RIDL population at R(t). The number of mosquitoes released in the small time interval $[t, t + \Delta t)$ is $R(t + \Delta t) - R(t)e^{-\mu_V \Delta t}$; condition (A.35) ensures that this quantity is nonnegative. Letting $\Delta t \to 0$, noting that $e^{-\mu_V \Delta t} \to 1 - \mu_V \Delta t$, and integrating from time 0 to t yields the total number of RIDL mosquitoes released into the system up to time t,

$$M(t) = R(t) + \mu_V \int_0^t R(s) ds.$$
 (A.38)

Setting $t=t^*$ in (A.38) and defining $M=M(t^*)$ yields equation (8) in the main text.

For any control policy that depends only upon the value of $N_V(t)$ (such as the proportional and trajectory policies), the lag between birth and adulthood (see equation (5) in the main text) implies that R(t) = R(0) for all $t \le \tau_e$. In this case, we can write equation (8) in the main text as

$$M = R(t^*) + \mu_V \tau_e R(0) + \mu_V \int_{\tau_e}^{t^*} R(t) dt.$$
 (A.39)

4. Derivation of \tilde{M} in Equation (10)

By equations (A.39) and (6) and (8) in the main text, the total number of RIDL mosquitoes required for eradication using the proportional control policy is

$$M = \theta N_V(t^*) + \mu_V \tau_e \theta N_V(0) + \mu_V \theta \int_{\tau_e}^{t^*} N_V(t) dt.$$
 (A.40)

We have been unable to find a closed-form solution to equation (5) in the main text for $R(t) = \theta N_V(t)$. In an attempt to derive a closed-form expression that approximates M in equation (A.40), we ignore the time lags in equation (5) in the main text, so that $N_V(t)$ satisfies

$$\dot{N}_{V}(t) = \begin{cases}
rN_{V}(t) \left(\frac{1}{1+\theta}\right) \left(\frac{K-N_{V}(t)}{K}\right) - \mu_{V} N_{V}(t) & \text{for late - lethal;} \\
rN_{V}(t) \left(\frac{1}{1+\theta}\right) \left(\frac{K-\left(\frac{1}{1+\theta}\right) N_{V}(t)}{K}\right) - \mu_{V} N_{V}(t) & \text{for early - lethal,}
\end{cases}$$
(A.41)

Equation (A.41) can be solved using straightforward ODE techniques. Denoting the solution to equation (A.41) by $\tilde{N}_V(t)$, we have (our initial time being τ_e and $N_V(\tau_e) = N_V(0)$)

$$\tilde{N}_{V}(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{\frac{[r-\mu_{V}(1+\theta)]KN_{V}(0)}{[r-\mu_{V}(1+\theta)]K-rN_{V}(0)}}{e^{-(\frac{r}{1+\theta}-\mu_{V})(t-\tau_{e})} + \frac{rN_{V}(0)}{[r-\mu_{V}(1+\theta)]K-rN_{V}(0)}} & \text{for late } - \text{ lethal;} \\ \frac{\frac{[r-\mu_{V}(1+\theta)](1+\theta)KN_{V}(0)}{[r-\mu_{V}(1+\theta)](1+\theta)K-rN_{V}(0)}}{e^{-(\frac{r}{1+\theta}-\mu_{V})(t-\tau_{e})} + \frac{rN_{V}(0)}{[r-\mu_{V}(1+\theta)](1+\theta)K-rN_{V}(0)}} & \text{for early } - \text{ lethal.} \end{cases}$$
(A.42)

Modifying equation (A.40) gives an estimate, \tilde{M} , for M:

$$\tilde{M} = \theta \tilde{N}_V(t^*) + \mu_V \tau_e \theta N_V(0) + \mu_V \theta \int_{\tau_e}^{t^*} \tilde{N}_V(t) dt.$$
(A.43)

Substituting (A.42) into (A.43) and recalling that $N_V(t)$ starts in it pre-treatment steady state (i.e., $N_V(0) - K(1 - \frac{\mu_V}{2})$) yields

$$\tilde{M} = \begin{cases} \theta \tilde{N}_{V}(t^{*}) + \mu_{V} \tau_{e} \theta N_{V}(0) + \frac{(1+\theta)}{r} \mu_{V} \theta K \ln(\frac{\mu_{V} \theta - (r - \mu_{V}) e^{(\frac{r}{1+\theta} - \mu_{V})(t^{*} - \tau_{e})}}{\mu_{V} \theta - (r - \mu_{V})}) & \text{for late - lethal;} \\ \theta \tilde{N}_{V}(t^{*}) + \mu_{V} \tau_{e} \theta N_{V}(0) + (1+\theta)^{2} \frac{\mu_{V} \theta}{r} K \ln(\frac{1 - \frac{(r - \mu_{V})}{\theta (\mu_{V}(1+\theta) - (r - \mu_{V}))} e^{(\frac{r}{1+\theta} - \mu_{V})(t^{*} - \tau_{e})}}{1 - \frac{(r - \mu_{V})}{\theta (\mu_{V}(1+\theta) - (r - \mu_{V}))}}) & \text{for early - lethal.} \end{cases}$$
(A.44)

Equation (A.44) still requires an estimate of the eradication time t^* to complete the approximation. The simplest approach is to let $t^* \to \infty$. However, from equation (A.44), this is only valid for $\frac{r}{\mu_V} - 1 < \theta$, which also implies that $N_V(t) \to 0$ by (A.14). Assuming $\frac{r}{\mu_V} - 1 < \theta$ and letting $t^* \to \infty$ simplifies expression (A.44) to

$$\tilde{M} = \begin{cases} \mu_V \tau_e \theta N_V(0) - \frac{(1+\theta)}{r} \mu_V \theta K \ln(1 - \frac{r-\mu_V}{\mu_V \theta}) & \text{for late - lethal;} \\ \mu_V \tau_e \theta N_V(0) - (1+\theta)^2 \frac{\mu_V \theta}{r} K \ln(1 - \frac{r-\mu_V}{\theta(\mu_V(1+\theta) - (r-\mu_V))}) & \text{for early - lethal,} \end{cases}$$
(A.45)

which is equation (10) in the main text. As expected, the argument of the logarithm is positive if and only if $\frac{r}{\mu_V} - 1 < \theta$. Fig. 4 compares the approximation in (A.45) to their exact values. This approximation performs well for late-lethal.

5. Crude Approximations for M for all Three Policies

In this section, we derive crude approximations for M that act as lower bounds for practical versions of all three policies. The crux of this approximation is to assume that the RIDL control prevents all future births, which reduces equation (5) in the main text to $\dot{N}_V(t) = -\mu_V N_V(t)$.

For the constant policy, R(t)=C, we assume eradication occurs when $N_V(t^*)=0.1$ (rather than $I_V(t^*)=0.1$), i.e., at time $\tau_e+\frac{\ln(10N_V(0))}{\mu_V}$. Hence, by equation (8) in the main text, the number of mosquitoes required for eradication for the constant policy is

$$\hat{M}_{\text{constant}} = [1 + \mu_V \tau_e + \ln(10N_V(0))]C.$$
 (A.46)

For the proportional and trajectory policies, we substitute the solution of $\dot{N}_V(t)=-\mu_V N_V(t)$ into equation (A.39), and assume $t^*=\infty$ and $R(t^*)=0$ to obtain our approximations. For the

proportional policy $(R(t) = \theta N_V(t))$, we have

$$\hat{M}_{\text{proportional}} = \mu_V \tau_e \theta N_V(0) + \mu_V \theta \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} N_V(t) dt, \tag{A.47}$$

$$= \mu_V \tau_e \theta N_V(0) + \mu_V \theta N_V(\tau_e) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\mu_V(t - \tau_e)} dt, \qquad (A.48)$$

$$= (\mu_V \tau_e + 1)\theta N_V(0)$$
 because $N_V(\tau_e) = N_V(0)$. (A.49)

A similar calculation for the trajectory policy $(R(t) = \phi \frac{N_V(t)(K - N_V(t))}{K} - N_V(t))$ yields

$$\hat{M}_{\text{trajectory}} = \left(\frac{\phi}{r}(\mu_V^2 \tau_e + \frac{r + \mu_V}{2}) - \mu_V \tau_e - 1\right) N_V(0). \tag{A.50}$$

Fig. 5 compares these three approximations to their exact values in the special case where $N_V(0) = 8 \times 10^4$ and for late-lethal. Except when the policy parameters are very close to their threshold values, these approximations provide useful lower bounds for the number of mosquitoes required for eradication.

References

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 3. The number of RIDL mosquitoes required for eradication in equation (8) of the main text vs. the initial RIDL-to-female ratio, $\frac{R(0)}{N_V(0)}$, for both late-lethal (- -) and early-lethal (—) for all three policies: the proportional policy (red), the constant policy (green), and the trajectory policy (black). The ratio $\frac{R(0)}{N_V(0)}$ equals θ , $\frac{C}{N_V(0)}$, and $\phi \frac{\mu_V}{r} - 1$, respectively, for the three policies. When computing equations (1)-(5) in the main text, we set the initial state variables to their nontrivial pre-treatment steady-state values. We consider four values of $\frac{N_V(0)}{N_H}$: (a) 4, (b) 8, (c) 12, (d) 16.

Figure 4. The number of days until eradication t^* (i.e., $I_V(t^*) \leq 0.1$) vs. the initial RIDL-to-female ratio, $\frac{R(0)}{N_V(0)}$, for both late-lethal (- -) and early-lethal (—) for all three policies: the proportional policy (red), the constant policy (green), and the trajectory policy (black). The ratio $\frac{R(0)}{N_V(0)}$ equals θ , $\frac{C}{N_V(0)}$, and $\phi \frac{\mu_V}{r} - 1$, respectively, for the three policies. When computing equations (1)-(5) in the main text, we set the initial state variables to their nontrivial pre-treatment steady-state values. We consider four values of $\frac{N_V(0)}{N_H}$: (a) 4, (b) 8, (c) 12, (d) 16.

Figure 5. The system dynamics using late-lethal RIDL for the proportional policy (red), the constant control (green), and the trajectory policy (black) using the M-minimizing values of the free parameters ($\theta = 6$, $C = 1.5N_V(0)$, and $\phi = 11$), and for $\frac{N_V(0)}{N_H} = 8$. (a) The number of infected mosquitoes, $I_V(t)$, (b) the wild female population, $N_V(t)$, (c) the RIDL population, R(t), (d) the total number of RIDL mosquitoes added to the system, M(t) from equation (A.38), (e) M'(t), and (f) $\frac{R(t)}{N_V(t)}$.

Figure 6. The exact (red) and approximate (black) number of RIDL mosquitoes required for eradication vs. the initial RIDL-to-female ratio, $\frac{R(0)}{N_V(0)}$, for both late-lethal (- -) and early-lethal (—) using the proportional policy. The exact value, M, is given by equation (8) of the main text and the approximation, \tilde{M} , is equation (10) in the main text. When computing equations (1)-(5) in the main text, we set the initial state variables to their nontrivial pre-treatment steady-state values. We

consider four values of $\frac{N_V(0)}{N_W}$: (a) 4, (b) 8, (c) 12, (d) 16.

Figure 7. The exact (—) and approximate (--) number of RIDL mosquitoes required for eradication

Proportional policy, (b) constant policy, and (c) trajectory policy.

using late-lethal control policies and $\frac{N_V(0)}{N_H} = 8$. The exact value, M, is given by equation (8) of

the main text and the approximations are derived in $\S 5$. When computing equations (1)-(5) in the

main text, we set the initial state variables to their nontrivial pre-treatment steady-state values. (a)

