Received: 8 November 2023

Revised: 29 February 2024

(wileyonlinelibrary.com) DOI 10.1002/ps.8086

Check for updates

CI

Economic optimization of *Wolbachia*-infected *Aedes aegypti* release to prevent dengue

Brandon D. Hollingsworth,^{a,b} [©] Chanheung Cho,^c Michael Vella,^b Hyeongyul Roh,^c Julian Sass,^b Alun L. Lloyd^b and Zachary S. Brown^{c,d*} [©]

Abstract

BACKGROUND: Dengue virus, primarily transmitted by the *Aedes aegypti* mosquito, is a major public health concern affecting \approx 3.83 billion people worldwide. Recent releases of *Wolbachia*-transinfected *Ae. aegypti* in several cities worldwide have shown that it can reduce dengue transmission. However, these releases are costly, and, to date, no framework has been proposed for determining economically optimal release strategies that account for both costs associated with disease risk and releases.

RESULTS: We present a flexible stochastic dynamic programming framework for determining optimal release schedules for *Wolbachia*-transinfected mosquitoes that balances the cost of dengue infection with the costs of rearing and releasing transinfected mosquitoes. Using an ordinary differential equation model of *Wolbachia* and dengue in a hypothetical city loosely describing areas at risk of new dengue epidemics, we determined that an all-or-nothing release strategy that quickly brings *Wolbachia* to fixation is often the optimal solution. Based on this, we examined the optimal facility size, finding that it was inelastic with respect to the mosquito population size, with a 100% increase in population size resulting in a 50–67% increase in optimal facility size. Furthermore, we found that these results are robust to mosquito life-history parameters and are mostly determined by the mosquito population size and the fitness costs associated with *Wolbachia*.

CONCLUSIONS: These results reinforce that *Wolbachia*-transinfected mosquitoes can reduce the cost of dengue epidemics. Furthermore, they emphasize the importance of determining the size of the target population and fitness costs associated with *Wolbachia* before releases occur.

© 2024 The Authors. Pest Management Science published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd on behalf of Society of Chemical Industry. Supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

Keywords: Wolbachia; Aedes aegypti; optimal control

1 INTRODUCTION

Dengue virus is a major public health concern worldwide with an estimated 3.83 billion people at risk of infection,¹ resulting in 100 million symptomatic cases and 10 000 deaths per year in \geq 125 countries.²⁻⁵ Accounting for fatal and nonfatal infections, dengue was responsible for >2.38 million disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) in 2019 alone.^{3,5} Dengue is primarily spread by the vector Aedes (Stegomyia) aegypti and to a lesser extent by Ae. (Stegomyia) albopictus. Both species are anthropophilic mosguitoes that primarily blood-feed on human hosts, making them highly effective vectors. The risk of dengue infection is expected to increase drastically in coming decades as a consequence of climate change, the spread of Ae. aegypti, increasing international travel, and growing urban centers in endemic areas,^{1,6,7} with an estimated 6.1 billion people at risk by 2080.¹ Currently, there are no effective drug treatments available and the only available vaccine, Dengvaxia, is controversial,⁸ and is only recommended for use in seropositive individuals in endemic regions.⁹ Control of dengue outbreaks therefore relies on vector control, historically through the use of chemical adulticides.⁶

Vector control programs successfully eliminated *Ae. aegypti* in >20 countries in the Americas from 1947 to 1962 through the

intensive use of chemical adulticides and larvicides, resulting in dengue elimination in previously endemic regions.⁶ Since then, *Ae. aegypti* has reinvaded much of its previous range,^{7,10} bringing with it risk of dengue outbreaks.⁶ The use of adulticides for routine control of *Ae. aegypti* in many of these regions has proven challenging owing to the emergence of insecticide resistance^{11,12}

* Correspondence to: ZS. Brown, Department of Agricultural and Resource Economics, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC 27695, USA. E-mail: zsbrown2@ncsu.edu

[Correction added after first online publication on 25 April 2024; Equation 1 has been updated.]

- a Department of Entomology, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY, USA
- b Biomathematics Graduate Program and Department of Mathematics, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC, USA
- c Department of Agricultural and Resource Economics, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC, USA
- d Genetic Engineering and Society Center, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC, USA

© 2024 The Authors. *Pest Management Science* published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd on behalf of Society of Chemical Industry. This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited and is not used for commercial purposes.

and concern about their environmental impact. Additionally, the ability of reactive vector control to reduce dengue outbreaks have had mixed results and are likely to be dependent on several factors, including the timing of the control in respect to both the outbreak and season.^{13,14}

Several new vector control techniques (e.g. Wolbachia transinfection, sterile insect technique and gene drives) have been proposed to help reduce dengue burden worldwide. Many of these methods take advantage of self-spreading elements, either genetic sequences or bacteria, that aim to either reduce the vector population or replace it with a population that is resistant to dengue infection.¹⁵ Currently, the most widely deployed technique relies on Wolbachia transinfection, where Ae. aegypti are infected with species of Wolbachia that do not naturally infect Ae. aegypti but do naturally infect other species of insects (e.g. Drosophila melanogaster)^{16,17} or even mosquitoes (e.g. Aedes albopictus).¹⁷ Wolbachia are maternally-inherited intracellular bacteria with species that infect >50% of insect species worldwide, but no species of which naturally infect Ae. aegypti.¹⁸ Wolbachia trans-infections are able to spread quickly through populations as a result of maternal inheritance and cytoplasmic incompatibility,^{16,19,20} where females infected with Wolbachia are able to successfully mate with both infected and uninfected males, but matings between uninfected females and infected males result in inviable eggs, biasing inheritance towards infected mosquitoes.^{16,20,21} Aedes aegypti have been successfully transinfected with several strains of Wolbachia,22 resulting in reduced mosquito lifespan and/or reduced susceptibility of the mosquito to dengue,^{16,19,23} making it a potentially powerful tool for both stopping dengue transmission in endemic settings and preventing new outbreaks.²⁴ However, the success of these programs requires the bias in inheritance to overcome any fitness costs, typically defined as the reduction in the expected genetic contribution of an individual to the next generation, associated with Wolbachia infection. Although, in general, the expectation is that transinfection results in a fitness cost, counter-examples have been observed,²⁵ and it has long been observed that the relationship can evolve over time to reduce fitness cost or even provide a fitness benefit.²⁶ The release of Wolbachia-infected mosquitoes for dengue control has now occurred in Indonesia,^{31,32} Brazil^{33–35} Australia, 27–29 Vietnam,³⁰ and Malaysia¹⁷ with releases planned or ongoing in at least eight other countries.³⁶ Wolbachia has been able to spread through local Ae. aegypti populations in most cases with an estimated 77% reduction in dengue incidence in Yogyakarta, Indonesia.^{31,37} However, spread of Wolbachia infection was slower than expected in Cairns, Australia owing to unaccounted-for population structure,³⁸ and lost in Tri Nguyen Village, Vietnam,³⁰ as a consequence of high temperatures, 30,39 and Brazil, following release of insecticidesusceptible mosquitoes into a highly resistant population.³⁵

There are significant costs associated with rearing and releasing *Wolbachia*-infected *Ae. aegypti.*⁴⁰ These include fixed, capital expenditures – primarily, constructing a mass rearing facility at a given scale – and variable, operational costs of maintaining and deploying the modified organisms.⁴¹ Consequentially, release programs will seek to successfully replace the wild-type (WT) *Ae. aegypti* population with *Wolbachia*-infected *Ae. aegypti*, or to minimize dengue burden, while minimizing the costs associated with the release program. The design of cost-effective release programs will be essential as releases of *Wolbachia*-infected mosquitoes become common and releases begin in resource-limited regions. It is vital for this analysis to account for

the interactions between the mosquito population, *Wolbachia* transmission and dengue transmission dynamics. However, previous research has focused on *post hoc* analysis of cost-effectiveness,^{40,42} and there has been limited work designing cost-effective release strategies for *Wolbachia*-infected mosquitoes or other self-spreading methods for population reduction or replacement.

Here we present a stochastic dynamic programming (SDP) framework⁴³ for designing an economically optimal release strategy for Wolbachia-infected Ae. aegypti. As an example, we use an ordinary differential equation model of Wolbachia spread in a panmictic Ae. aegypti population that is divided into aquatic juvenile and terrestrial adult life-stages. We determine the economically optimal release strategy for a region at risk of dengue introduction and examine how the strategy varies with key parameter values. The economic optimization implies a strategy of maximal release of Wolbachia-infected mosquitoes, followed by rapid tapering and cessation once Wolbachia becomes established in the mosquito population. Given that the maximal release rate is determined by facility capacity, we then illustrate how to determine the economically optimal release capacity for a given mosquito population size, given that higher capacity mosquito-rearing facilities are more expensive to build. To do this, we use our SDP framework to estimate the marginal benefits of releases as a function of capacity and compare these to previously published cost-by-capacity estimates. Finally, we examine how results from the SDP and fixed cost analysis are affected by the biological and economic parameters. While our model neglects several biological factors that would be important in real world releases (e.g. spatial population structure in both the human and vector population), the framework that we present here can easily be extended to include these factors and only requires that the biological model can be simulated.

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

We describe the formulation of the mosquito population, dengue transmission, and *Wolbachia* release and transmission model, define the economic objective of the *Wolbachia* release program, and explain the mathematical and numerical optimization methods used to obtain solutions. Releases are modeled as occurring weekly until the introduction of dengue, with population dynamics between releases following a standard ordinary differential equation model. Table 1 summarizes the key parameters and baseline values in the integrated model. Univariate sensitivity analysis was conducted by varying relevant parameters by $\pm 10\%$, repeating the analysis, and comparing the optimal facility size to the baseline results.

2.1 Combined dengue and Wolbachia transmission model

We simulated the simultaneous spread of dengue and *Wolbachia* in a region using a previously developed host-vector model that includes *Wolbachia* dynamics [Eqn (1)].⁴⁸ The human population is divided into susceptible (*S*_H), infective (*I*_H) or recovered (*R*_H) humans, and is assumed to have equal per-capita birth and mortality rates, $\mu_{\rm H}$, maintaining a constant population size, *N*_H. Likewise, the adult mosquito population is divided into susceptible (*A*_U), *Wolbachia*-infected (*A*_W) and dengue-infected (*A*_D). For simplicity, we assume that the ability of *Wolbachia* to block dengue

15264998, 0, Downloaded from https://onlinelibaary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/ps.8086 by North Carolina State University, Wiley Online Library on [04/06/2024]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

www.soci.org



Table 1. Parameters, notation, estimates and ranges for the model							
Parameter	Notation	Value	Range	Units	Source		
Human population size	N	2 × 10 ⁶		Humans			
Human birth rate/death rate (annual)	μ_{H}	2.75×10^{-4}		1 week			
Transmission parameter (mosq. to human)	B _{MH}	0.278			44		
Transmission parameter (human to mosq.)	B _{HM}	0.278			44		
Per-capita human recovery rate	γ	0.0168		<u>1</u> week			
Equilibrium number of female Ae. Aegypti	Т	2 million	1–4 million	Mosquitoes			
Larvae scaling parameter	k	Value depends on choice of T					
Per-capita adult mosquito recruitment rate	Ь	3.57		1 week	44		
Per-capita adult mosquito mortality rate	μ_{M}	0.0143		1 week	44		
Per-capita larval mortality rate	μ_{L}	0.00143		1 week			
Wolbachia fitness cost	α	0.15					
Per-capita larval emergence rate	е	0.5		<u>1</u> week			
Lethality of cytoplasmic Incompatibility	q	1			44		
Wolbachia transmission proportion	η	1					
Cost of dengue infection	COI	2900		US\$	45		
Release capacity	R	300	150–600	1000 larvae week			
Marginal cost of release	с	US\$458		<u>US\$</u> 1000 larvae	46		
Discount rate	r	0.03		1 year	47		
Dengue invasion probability	θ	10%		 year			

Note: Only equilibrium number of mosquitos, release capacity and larvae scaling parameter are varied. All parameters with percentage values are in annual terms. Discount rate and dengue invasion probability given as annual rates for interpretability.

infection is perfect, so that no individuals are simultaneously infected with both dengue and Wolbachia. To account for density-dependent dynamics, we included an aquatic larval stage, which is divided into uninfected $(L_{\rm U})$ and Wolbachia infected $(L_{\rm W})$ mosquitoes. Larvae are recruited into the population at per-adult rate, b, and either emerge as adults of the corresponding class, at per-capita rate e, or die at a density-dependent rate that increases proportionally to the larval population size, according to the carrying capacity term (k). Despite being a simplification, the inclusion of density-dependent mortality in the aquatic larval stage is a standard assumption based on the observation that larval populations are constrained by resource competition, whereas the adult population has no such constraint.⁴⁹ Naturally, the existence of a larval carrying capacity constrains the size of the adult population. (Supplementary information in Appendix S1) In the presence of Wolbachia, larval recruitment into the uninfected and infected classes is determined by the proportion of Wolbachiainfected mosquitoes, the proportion of offspring from matings between Wolbachia-infected males and uninfected females that fail to develop as a result of cytoplasmic incompatibility (q), the proportion of offspring that inherit Wolbachia infections from their mother (ξ) and the reproductive fitness cost of Wolbachia (α) . While our model allows for imperfect maternal inheritance and cytoplasmic incompatibility, we assume perfect inheritance and cytoplasmic incompatibility ($\eta = 1, q = 1$) for simplicity. Dengue transmission is modeled using a standard form, where transmission from humans to mosquito is determined by transmission parameter B_{HM} and from mosquito to human by transmission parameter $B_{\rm MH}$, which account for biting rates and transmission probabilities.⁵⁰ Following infection, humans are assumed to be infectious for an average of $1/\gamma$ weeks before recovering, at which time they are immune to additional infections, corresponding to only one serotype of dengue circulating.

$$\frac{dS_{H}}{dt} = \mu_{H}(N_{H} - S_{H}) - B_{MH} \frac{S_{H}A_{D}}{N_{H}}$$

$$\frac{dI_{H}}{dt} = B_{MH} \frac{S_{H}A_{D}}{N_{H}} - (\gamma + \mu_{H})I_{H}$$

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \gamma I_{H} - \mu_{H}R_{H}$$

$$\frac{dL_{U}}{dt} = \left(1 - q \frac{A_{W}}{A_{U} + A_{W} + A_{D}}\right)bA_{U} + (1 - \eta)[A_{W}(1 - \alpha)b]$$

$$-eL_{U} - \mu_{L}[1 + k(L_{U} + L_{W})]L_{U}$$

$$\frac{dL_{W}}{dt} = \eta[A_{W}(1 - \alpha)b] - eL_{W} - \mu_{L}[1 + k(L_{U} + L_{W})]L_{W}$$

$$\frac{dA_{U}}{dt} = eL_{U} - \mu_{M}A_{U} - B_{HM} \frac{A_{U}I_{H}}{N_{H}}$$

$$\frac{dA_{W}}{dt} = eI_{W} - \mu_{W}A_{W}$$

A sufficiently high larval recruitment rate, $b > \mu_{\rm M} (1 + \frac{\mu_{\rm L}}{a})$, in this model ensures persistence of the (WT) mosquito population. In the absence of dengue, the model has two stable equilibria, the Wolbachia-free equilibrium and an equilibrium where the Wolbachia prevalence is between 0 and 1, and two unstable equilibria, the mosquitofree equilibrium and an internal equilibrium (Appendix S1). Importantly, the unstable internal equilibrium results in an invasion threshold, above which Wolbachia will self-spread to fixation and below which the prevalence of Wolbachia will decline to zero.

 $\frac{dA_{\rm D}}{dt} = B_{\rm HM} \frac{A_{\rm U}I_{\rm H}}{N_{\rm H}} - \mu_{\rm M}A_{\rm D}$

For our analysis, we consider a scenario in which a 'virgin soil' dengue outbreak occurs in an immuno-naïve population of 2 million people. This represents a worst-case scenario in terms of dengue control as pre-existing immunity leads to an increased short-term impact of controls.51,52 Wolbachia releases are

wileyonlinelibrary.com/journal/ps Pest Management Science published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd on behalf of Society of Chemical Industry.

conducted preventively to reduce the capability of the mosquito population to transmit dengue of the mosquito population at the time of dengue introduction. For the dengue transmission model, the human population is further assumed to be wellmixed and homogeneous with regard to infection. In the human population, the expected lifespan is 70 years, the average length of infection is taken to be 1.21 weeks, and any deaths resulting from dengue infection are assumed to be negligible.⁴⁴

In order to calculate the economic damages from an outbreak, we simulated the dynamics of an epidemic for 1 year (52 weeks) following the introduction of dengue, which was sufficient for the initial epidemic to run its course. The outbreak cost was calculated as the total number of unique infection events in that year multiplied by the cost of infection (COI). Where the total number of unique infection events was found by integrating the transmission term over the length of the outbreak. [Eqn (2)]

$$D(\cdot) = \text{COIx} \int_{0}^{52} B_{\text{MH}} \frac{S_{\text{H}}(t) A_{\text{D}}(t)}{N_{\text{H}}(t)} dt$$
(2)

Damages $D(\cdot)$, resulting from the costs of the outbreak, are a function of state variables at the onset of the outbreak, as well as model parameters, because in general a higher number of uninfected mosquitoes facilitates higher dengue transmission rates, whereas higher prevalence of *Wolbachia* reduces transmission. To apply the SDP technique described below, we simulate the model and calculate (2) across a $20 \times 20 \times 20 \times 20$ grid of values for initial conditions on L_U , L_W , A_U and A_W at the time of disease introduction and use linear interpolation to obtain a continuous damage function.

2.2 Economic optimization

We applied stochastic dynamic programming (SDP) methods⁴³ to compute the *Wolbachia* release policy that minimizes the expected net present value (ENPV) of dengue damage and the recurring costs of rearing and releasing *Wolbachia*-infected mosquitoes. The ENPV⁴³ is the standard economic efficiency criterion in the presence of uncertainty and accounting for time discounting (i.e. that a given payoff earlier in time is valued more than the same amount later). This is done to account for the added benefits of an earlier payoff (e.g. being able to reinvest). Fixed costs are excluded from this part of the analysis, as they are assumed have already been incurred, cannot be recovered and are constant across all release strategies. We address these fixed costs and optimal capacity decisions regarding rear-and-release facility at the end of this section.

In order to apply SDP methods, we evaluate mosquito population dynamics and *Wolbachia* spread at weekly intervals. Let us denote the vector x_t as containing all state variables in the model at week t, and summarize the dynamics of our system as the discrete-time state-transition equation:

$$\boldsymbol{x}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{x}_t, \boldsymbol{r}_t) \tag{3}$$

where $F(\cdot)$ is the function specifying the weekly transition dynamics and $r_t \ge 0$ is the control (i.e. releases of *Wolbachia*-infected mosquitoes). This transition function simply consists of evaluating the continuous time model in (1) for 1 week, starting from x_t and with the release rate r_t constant over that week.

We assume that dengue is absent from the system until a random time τ >0, when a dengue outbreak occurs, at which point we assume releases cease and monetized ENPV damages $D(x_r) \ge 0$ from the outbreak are assessed [Eqn (2)]. In the context of *Wolbachia* releases for dengue control, this is equivalent to assuming that *Wolbachia* releases are conducted only before the onset of a dengue epidemic, at which point releases cease. This assumption is motivated by the premise that *Wolbachia* is unlikely to be used as a reactive control measure and that resources would shift to more immediate control and treatment strategies during an outbreak, and it greatly facilitates mathematical optimization.

We assume a constant per-unit cost *c* of *Wolbachia* releases r_t with a maximum release capacity, the number of female *Ae. aegypti* larvae that the facility is able to produce, of *R* (which we include in the optimization in subsequent analysis). Future costs and damages are weighted according to a discount factor $\beta \in (0,1)$. Lower β reflects a greater preference on the part of the decision-maker for near-term over long-term payoffs. The optimal release policy $r(x_t)$, as a function of the current mosquito population state, seeks to minimize expected NPV (ENPV) of costs and damages, given an initial biological state, x_0 :

$$V(x_0) \equiv \min_{r(\cdot) \in [0,R]} \mathbb{E} \left\{ D(x_\tau) \beta^\tau + \sum_{t=0}^{\tau-1} c \cdot r(x_t) \cdot \beta^t \, \middle| \, x_0 \right\}$$
(4)

subject to the state transition dynamics in: (1). The function $V(x_0)$ is the minimized ENPV of costs and damages yielded by the above optimization, conditional on the initial conditions x_0 in the biological model. SDP methods use a recursive approach to solve (4).⁴³ Assuming that the random dengue introduction time τ is distributed according to a geometric distribution with a constant introduction probability, θ , (conditional on dengue not having arrived earlier) and that all other model components are deterministic [as per Eqn (3)], the function $V(\cdot)$ (4) can be shown to satisfy the following recursive equation⁴³:

$$V(x_t) = \min_{r \in [0,R]} \left\{ cr + \beta \left[\theta D\left(\underbrace{F(x_t, r)}_{x_{t+1}} \right) + (1-\theta) V\left(\underbrace{F(x_t, r)}_{x_{t+1}} \right) \right] \right\}$$
(5)

This equation says that the ENPV of costs and damages in the current week *t* is equal to the current release costs *c*·*r* plus the discounted ENPV in the *next period*. In turn, if dengue arrives next period with probability θ , the conditional NPV in the next period is equal to the damages $D(x_{t+1})$. Otherwise, if with probability $1-\theta$ dengue does not arrive, the next-period ENPV is given by $V(x_{t+1})$. Equation (5) represents a functional equation for the ENPV function $V(\cdot)$. Under standard regularity conditions that exist in our model, existence and uniqueness of the solution is guaranteed. The solution $V(\cdot)$ can then be used to obtain the optimal policy $r^*(x_t)$ for any current biological state x_t , by solving the optimization problem on the right-hand-side of (5), as shown in Eqn (6):

$$r^{*}(x_{t}) \equiv \arg\min_{r \in [0,B]} \{cr + \beta[\theta D(F(x_{t},r)) + (1-\theta)V(F(x_{t},r))]\}$$
(6)

In our model, Eqn (4) can only be solved numerically. Function approximation, for example using a piecewise linear interpolation, with different iterative procedures is the standard numerical solution method.⁵³ To implement this method, we use the open-source COMPECON software toolkit⁵⁴ in MATLAB.⁵⁵

The optimal release policy $r^*(\cdot)$ and ENPV function $V(\cdot)$ depend on the rearing facility capacity constraint R, and so R can be included as an argument in both functions: $r^*(R,x_t)$ and $V(R,x_t)$.

www.soci.org

It is easy to see mathematically that the ENPV of total costs - both damages and recurring costs - of the release program is nonincreasing in the capacity constraint, $V(R', x_t) \leq V(R, x_t)$ for any R' > R > 0, because R does not affect total costs in our model and any release level that is feasible with capacity constraint R must still be feasible for any higher capacity R' > R. Therefore, the benefits of increased capacity are given by reductions in the ENPV of total costs.

In order to analyze economically optimal facility capacity, we repeatedly solve the dynamic optimization problem in (5) across a dense grid of values for R, to analyze how ENPV improves with increased capacity. For a given Wolbachia-free initial state of the mosquito population given by x_0 , the benefits of a given capacity R are defined as:

$$B(R, x_0) \equiv V(0, x_t) - V(R, x_t) \ge 0 \quad (R \ge 0)$$
(7)

We compare these benefits to estimates of the fixed costs of facility construction at different capacity sizes. We follow Brown et al.⁵⁶ and employ a power-law relationship, $C(R) \equiv \kappa R^{\xi}$ ($\kappa, \xi > 0$) to model fixed costs.⁵⁶ The economically optimal facility level R^* therefore solves the optimization problem to achieve maximal net benefits (NB^*), given the costs [C(R)] and benefits [$B(R, x_0)$] associated with building a facility with a given capacity R:

$$NB^* \equiv \max_{R \ge 0} B(R, x_0) - C(R)$$
(8)

Equation (8) is a simple univariate optimization problem which we solve numerically. In general, there exists a finite capacity R^* solving this optimization problem: this is because the cost function is unbounded as $R \rightarrow \infty$, the benefits function is bounded (i.e. the most an arbitrarily capacious facility could hope to achieve is zero dengue damage), and both functions are continuous over the relevant domain for R.

The baseline economic parameter values (varied in later sensitivity analyses) are as follows: The COI is assumed to be US\$2900 per dengue case.⁴⁵ Unit release costs are set at US\$458 per thousand larvae based on rearing facility cost estimates.⁴⁶ Following a previous publication,⁵⁶ we used fixed costs for 17 different sterile insect technique (SIT) programs worldwide, 11 targeting the Mediterranean fruit fly, Ceratitis capitata (Medfly) and six targeting various other species. For the full 17-observation sample, $\kappa = 0.13, \xi = 0.6713$, whereas restricting to only Medfly facilities changes these estimates to $\kappa = 0.232, \xi = 0.6194.^{56}$ For the discount factor, we use the World Health Organization (WHO)'s recommended discount rate of 3% per year, resulting in a weekly discount factor of $\beta = (1+0.03/52)^{-1} \approx 0.999.^{47}$

3 RESULTS

As examples, we calculated optimal release (OR) strategies and their resulting ENPV of costs and dengue damages for all combinations of three different equilibrium population sizes of adult female Ae. aegypti (1 million, 2 million and 4 million) and three different representative release capacities (150 000, 300 000 and 600 000 larvae per week).

3.1 Optimal release strategies and expected net present value

Minimization of Eqn (5) allows for the calculation of the ENPV of releasing 1000 female larvae, given an observed population

density and Wolbachia prevalence in adult and larval mosquitoes (Appendix S1). Because ENPV is a function of all four state variables (L_U , L_W , A_U and A_W), we choose to show ENPV as a function of adult population density and Wolbachia prevalence, as these are the most likely to be measured in the field. To do this, we assume that the larval population is 1.4-fold larger than that of the adult population (the relationship that occurs at equilibrium) with equal Wolbachia prevalence. Although the ENPV is not calculated for the optimal release, it illustrates how the ENPV of releasing a number of individuals changes drastically depending on the state variables, which drives the optimal release strategy. The ENPV of releases is high (>US\$100 000), driven by the cost of a potentially large dengue outbreak, when Wolbachia prevalence is low (<25%), but drops quickly as Wolbachia prevalence increases above 25% (Fig. S1 in Appendix S1). This corresponds to Wolbachia prevalence surpassing the invasion threshold (25.7%; Table S1 in Appendix S1), reducing the benefit of additional releases. ENPV of releases is higher at intermediate (25%-40%) Wolbachia prevalence for larger equilibrium population sizes, owing to the increased Wolbachia prevalence necessary to prevent a dengue outbreak when mosquito population sizes are high.

The OR surfaces, based on the ENPV and cost of releases, show that the optimal release size is 100% of the maximum capacity when Wolbachia prevalence is low and mosquito population sizes are high, a direct result of the high NPV of releases from a dengue epidemic (Fig. 1). Sizes of OR decrease sharply as Wolbachia prevalence increases and more gradually as the mosquito population size decreases compared to its equilibrium, reflecting the reduced number of Wolbachia-infected mosquitoes required to surpass the invasion threshold. Notably, additional releases are optimal even after Wolbachia prevalence surpasses the invasion threshold (25.7%) until \approx 50%. This is a consequence of the slow spread of Wolbachia near the invasion threshold and the potential for a denque outbreak occurring before Wolbachia spread. Furthermore, the region of state space where intermediate release sizes are optimal increases with higher maximum release capacity and lower equilibrium mosquito population size, as intermediate release sizes are sufficient for speeding Wolbachia fixation. Whereas this region of state space increases with maximum release capacity, intermediate releases are rarely seen in simulations (discussed below) owing to initial releases being sufficient to overcome the invasion threshold. This means that although intermediate release sizes are optimal across a large range of the state space in these situations, they are rarely seen in the simulations. However, intermediate-sized releases may be more common in practice owing to stochastic fluctuations.

3.2 Optimal release simulations

For cases where the release facility was small (150 000 larvae per week), the OR strategy was to release the maximum number of larvae for between 3 and 17 weeks, depending on the mosquito population size. As the facility size increases, the number of weeks at 100% maximum release size decreased from between two and nine for the intermediate facility size, and one and six for the largest facility size. Several optimal release strategies included one release below the maximum release size, but no simulation called for a second, suggesting that an all-or-nothing approach will be optimal, or near-optimal, in most cases (Fig. 2). In simulations, Wolbachia prevalence increased nearly linearly with time in the population as releases occurred. Once releases stopped, Wolbachia continued to spread to fixation, albeit slowly at first (Fig. 2).



Figure 1. Optimal release size (as proportion of maximum) for a given proportion of carrying capacity and prevalence of *Wolbachia*. Rows represent three different population sizes (1 million, 2 million and 4 million) of adult mosquitoes and columns depict three different release capacities (150 000, 300 000 and 600 000 larvae); these are shown to illustrate their effects on our results. Larval populations are assumed to be 1.4-fold larger than that of the adult population, with equal *Wolbachia* prevalence. Intermediate releases are only optimal in a small region when the maximum release rate is high compared to the population size. This suggests that all-or-nothing strategies will be optimal, or nearly optimal, in most cases.

Mosquito population density decreased monotonically and stabilized at the *Wolbachia*-fixed equilibrium (Fig. 2).

3.3 Fixed cost analysis and optimal scale of mass-rearing facility

Calculating the net benefit of optimal releases from varying sizes of facilities showed that the marginal benefit associated with increasing facility size decreased rapidly as facility size increased (Fig. 3). Expectedly, marginal benefits were higher for situations when the mosquito population was larger. Comparing the marginal benefits associated with facility size to the marginal costs of a larger facility, we found that the optimal facility size was between 120 000-300 000 and 150 000-400 000 larvae, depending on the mosquito population size, for marginal costs resembling Medfly and non-Medfly SIT facilities, respectively (Fig. 3). The large range of possible optimal facility sizes highlights the importance of accurate estimates of the target mosquito population sizes. Further sensitivity analysis, to examine how these results depend on our parameter choices, suggests that the optimal facility size is most sensitive to the dengue invasion probability, θ , and the fitness cost associated with *Wolbachia*, α (Table 2).

4 DISCUSSION

9

We presented a highly flexible framework for designing an optimal release strategy for *Wolbachia*-infected *Ae. aegypti* that minimizes the impact of an expected dengue outbreak when the precise timing of the outbreak is unknown. This framework calculates the NPV and OR surfaces and determines the optimal release strategies by simulating the spread of Wolbachia. Herein we present a simple model of Wolbachia spread, yet this framework can incorporate any level of biological realism deemed appropriate, assuming sufficient computational resources are available. Our results show that an all-or-nothing release strategy for Wolbachia-infected mosquitoes is often optimal, owing to high costs associated with a dengue outbreak. This suggests that care should be taken in determining the size of the rearing facility, and thus the number of Wolbachia-infected mosquitoes that can be released weekly, before construction. We found that the optimal size of the rearing facility was highly dependent on mosquito population size and fitness costs associated with Wolbachia infection, suggesting that an upper bound on these parameters for the target population should be determined before a rearing facility is constructed. However, mosquito population size is difficult to accurately estimate and can fluctuate significantly through time.^{57,58} Finally, we have shown that these results are driven by the high cost associated with dengue outbreaks and are relatively insensitive to parameters associated with mosquito life history.

Several modeling studies have presented frameworks for determining an optimal release strategy for *Wolbachia*-infected mosquitoes.^{59–64} These studies also found that the optimal release strategy was to release the maximum number of *Wolbachia*-

www.soci.org



Figure 2. Simulated optimal releases. Simulations show that the optimal release strategy (red bars) involves the release of larvae at the maximum release rate (grey dashed line) to bring *Wolbachia* prevalence above the threshold for self-spread, followed by a sharp decrease in releases until they are stopped. Mosquito population size (black line) and *Wolbachia* prevalence in adults (green line) are also shown. Three different equilibrium population sizes (1 million, 2 million and 4 million) and three different release capacities (150 000, 300 000 and 600 000 larvae) are shown to illustrate their effects on our results. In all cases, optimal releases involve releases at the maximum release rate and at most one intermediate release. Releases are then stopped once *Wolbachia* is capable of self-spreading at sufficiently high rates.

infected mosquitoes possible until the invasion threshold was surpassed. However, the aims of these papers were either to minimize the number of dengue cases in a dengue endemic region,^{59,60} or to minimize mosquito densities.^{61–63} Further, none of these studies compared the cost associated with releases to the benefits they provide. One additional study examined the optimal allocation of resources for controlling dengue with a constrained budget⁶⁴ and found that a mixture of childhood vaccine and *Wol*bachia releases were optimal, but did not examine how interventions should be deployed over time. Post hoc quantification of the cost-effectiveness of dengue control through releases of Wolbachia-infected mosquitoes in Yogyakarta found that releases were cost-effective, costing approximately US\$1500 per DALY averted.⁴⁰ Additional modeling studies examining the potential cost-effectiveness of theoretical releases in Singapore and Thailand found that programs would be cost-effective, costing US\$50 000-100 000⁴² and US\$343-420^{65,66} per DALY averted, respectively. While these results are not directly comparable with

the results presented here, and come from a dengue-endemic region, it highlights the low costs associated with *Wolbachia* releases compared to the cost of dengue infection. Although our results show that, if undertaken, releases of *Wolbachia*infected mosquitoes should occur as quickly as possible, there are other important considerations when determining if the release of *Wolbachia*-infected mosquitoes is appropriate. For this reason, we are not advocating for or against future releases.

The results we present here come from an extremely simplified model of *Wolbachia* and dengue spread. The spread of both *Wolbachia* and dengue are likely to vary both seasonally and spatially across a region. *Wolbachia* spread is known to be heavily influenced by temperature, particularly when high,³⁹ and mosquito population structure,^{38,67} which is likely to be seasonally varying and affected by spatial variation in microclimate and environment. Likewise, dengue incidence is known to be affected by local variation in mosquito population in mosquito population density,⁶⁹ mosquito dispersal



Figure 3. Fixed costs analysis (log-scale). Fixed costs analysis was performed for three different equilibrium population sizes (1 million, 2 million and 4 million). Without estimates for Wolbachia rearing facilities, fixed costs from both Mediterranean fruit fly (MedFly) SIT facilities (blue dashed line) and other facilities (purple dashed line) are used for comparison. For facility costs resembling medFly facilities, the optimal facility size has a release capacity of between 120 000 (1 million adult females, red line) and 300 000 (4 million adult females, green line) larvae. For costs resembling non-Medfly facilities, the optimal release capacity is between 150 000 (1 million adult females, red line) and 400 000 (4 million adult females, green line) larvae.

rates^{70–73} and human movement patterns.^{74,75} Although our model neglects this variation, our key conclusions that Wolbachia releases should occur as rapidly as possible and that the size of the local mosquito population should be carefully considered when determining the size of a rearing facility would be expected to hold. We also make the simplifying assumption that releases are occurring in a dengue-free location. Finally, our assumption of a constant hazard rate for dengue introduction is unlikely to be realistic. A nonconstant hazard rate (e.g. seasonally varying) could be included using a more general, nonautomonous form of the Bellman equation. Although this extension deserves follow-up, we expect that the likely effect would be accelerated releases before high-risk seasons and more intermediate releases if risk was sufficiently reduced. However, this would not affect our overall conclusions. Additionally, how risk of dengue introduction changes with time is likely to be context-dependent. These assumptions would affect the cost associated with any dengue outbreak but would again be unlikely to affect our key conclusions. Importantly, the framework that we present is sufficiently flexible to include any level of realism future researchers or policymakers deem appropriate. The only constraint on realism presented by our framework is the computational resources necessary for the large number of simulations required.

Releases of Wolbachia-infected Ae. aegypti are either ongoing or planned in more than a dozen countries worldwide.³⁶ The number of regions where releases occur is likely to increase rapidly in the coming years, as evidence of its effectiveness and costeffectiveness builds and as dengue risk increases in the coming decades.^{1,6,10} Evaluation of current release programs has

00

Table 2.	Sensitivity of optimal facility capacity to variation in key
parameter	values, assuming facility costs similar to either Medfly or
non-Medfl	y SIT facilities

Parameter	Low	High				
<i>Wolbachia</i> transmission proportion (η) (<i>Default value</i> = 1)						
Medfly	220 000 (0.9)	260 000 (0.95)				
Non-Medfly	300 000 (0.9)	340 000 (0.95)				
Dengue invasion probability (θ) (Default value = 10% per year)						
Medfly	260 000 (5%)	140 000 (20%)				
Non-Medfly	400 000 (5%)	180 000 (20%)				
Transmission parameter (mosq. to human) (B _{MH}) (Default						
<i>value</i> = 0.278)						
Medfly	200 000 (0.2502)	200 000 (0.3058)				
Non-Medfly	240 000 (0.2502)	240 000 (0.3058)				
<i>Wolbachia</i> fitness cost (α) (<i>Default value</i> = 0.15)						
Medfly	190 000 (0.135)	240 000 (0.165)				
Non-Medfly	200 000 (0.135)	250 000 (0.165)				
Marginal cost of release (mc) (Default value = \$458)						
Medfly	200 000 (\$412.2)	200 000 (\$503.8)				
Non-Medfly	240 000 (\$412.2)	240 000 (\$503.8)				

Note: The transmission parameter (B_{MH}), fitness cost (α), and marginal cost of release (mc) are varied by $\pm 10\%$, imperfect Wolbachia transmission (τ) is considered at 90% and 95%, and the dengue invasion probability is increased/decreased by a factor of 2. The equilibrium number of female Ae. aegypti was set equal to the human population. For baseline parameters, optimal facility sizes are 200 000 larvae per week (Medfly) and 240 000 (non-Medfly facility costs).

suggested that they were cost-efficient for dengue reduction according to WHO guidelines,⁷⁶ cost-effectiveness can be further improved through the design of optimal release strategies that are tailored to, and informed by the ecology of, the targeted area. Reducing costs will be even more important as releases begin in more economically constrained regions and when deployed at larger scales. The framework presented here represents a significant step towards designing release programs that can reduce incidence while also minimizing costs, and the flexibility of the modeling framework allows for its adaptation to a variety of settings. We have also shown that, as these programs are being set-up, a key consideration will be the choice of facility size, which should be tailored to the size of the local mosquito population.

We have presented a framework for designing an optimal release strategy for Wolbachia-infected mosquitoes for dengue control. Using an example of releases occurring in a city where the expected time until a dengue outbreak is 10 years, we have shown that the optimal strategy is to release Wolbachia-infected mosquitoes as quickly as possible to thwart the potential outbreak. Additionally, we have shown that the choice of facility size is key for designing a cost-effective release program. These results highlight the low costs associated with releases of Wolbachia-transinfected mosquitoes, especially compared to potential dengue outbreaks. Although this framework represents a significant advancement in the design of optimal release programs, it should be further improved through the inclusion of biological realism tailored to potential release areas. In addition, the importance placed on the choice of facility size, combined with the short timeframe for releases, suggests that the design of nonpermanent or movable facilities will be vital to reducing costs associated with releases.

FUNDING

BDH, MV, JSS and ALL were supported by supported by grants from the National Science Foundation (RTG/DMS-1246991). ALL was supported by the National Institutes of Health (R01-Al139085). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are openly available in OpenICPSR at https://www.openicpsr.org, reference number 198746.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

REFERENCES

- 1 Messina JP, Brady OJ, Golding N, Kraemer MUG, Wint GRW, Ray SE et al., The current and future global distribution and population at risk of dengue. Nature. Microbiology 4:1508-1515 (2019).
- 2 Bhatt S, Gething PW, Brady OJ, Messina JP, Farlow AW, Moyes CL et al., The global distribution and burden of dengue. Nature 496:504-507 (2013)
- 3 Stanaway JD, Shepard DS, Undurraga EA, Halasa YA, Coffeng LE, Brady OJ et al., The global burden of dengue: an analysis from the global burden of disease study 2013. Lancet Infect Dis 16:712-723 (2016).
- 4 Messina JP, Brady OJ, Pigott DM, Brownstein JS, Hoen AG and Hay SI, A global compendium of human dengue virus occurrence. Sci Data 1: 140004 (2014).
- 5 Vos T, Lim SS, Abbafati C, Abbas KM, Abbasi M, Abbasifard M et al., Global burden of 369 diseases and injuries in 204 countries and territories, 1990-2019: a systematic analysis for the global burden of disease study 2019. Lancet 396:1204-1222 (2020).
- 6 Brady OJ and Hay SI, The global expansion of dengue: how Aedes aegypti mosquitoes enabled the first pandemic arbovirus. Annu Rev Entomol 65:191-208 (2020).
- 7 Messina JP, Brady OJ, Scott TW, Zou C, Pigott DM, Duda KA et al., Global spread of dengue virus types: mapping the 70 year history. Trends Microbiol 22:138-146 (2014).
- 8 Yu VG, Lasco G and David CC, Fear, mistrust, and vaccine hesitancy: narratives of the dengue vaccine controversy in The Philippines. Vaccine **39**:4964–4972 (2021).
- 9 World Health Organization, Dengue vaccine: WHO position paper, September 2018 - recommendations. Vaccine 37:4848-4849 (2019).
- 10 Kraemer MUG, Reiner RC, Brady OJ, Messina JP, Gilbert M, Pigott DM et al., Past and future spread of the arbovirus vectors Aedes aegypti and Aedes albopictus. Nat Microbiol 4:854-863 (2019).
- 11 Vontas J, Kioulos E, Pavlidi N, Morou E, Della Torre A and Ranson H, Insecticide resistance in the major dengue vectors Aedes albopictus and Aedes aegypti. Pestic Biochem Physiol 104:126-131 (2012).
- 12 Moyes CL, Vontas J, Martins AJ, Ng LC, Koou SY, Dusfour I et al., Contemporary status of insecticide resistance in the major aedes vectors of arboviruses infecting humans. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 11:e0005625 (2017).
- 13 Eisen L, Beaty BJ, Morrison AC and Scott TW, Proactive vector control strategies and improved monitoring and evaluation practices for dengue prevention. J Med Entomol 46:1245-1255 (2009).
- 14 Stoddard ST, Wearing HJ, Reiner RC Jr, Morrison AC, Astete H, Vilcarromero S et al., Long-term and seasonal dynamics of dengue in Iquitos, Peru. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 8:e3003 (2014).
- 15 Sinkins SP and Gould F, Gene drive systems for insect disease vectors. Nat Rev Genet 7:427-435 (2006).
- 16 Walker T, Johnson PH, Moreira LA, Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Frentiu FD, McMeniman CJ et al., The wMel Wolbachia strain blocks dengue and invades caged Aedes aegypti populations. Nature 476: 450-455 (2011).

- 17 Nazni WA, Hoffmann AA, NoorAfizah A, Cheong YL, Mancini MV, Golding N et al., Establishment of Wolbachia strain wAlbB in Malaysian populations of Aedes aegypti for dengue control. Curr Biol 29: 4241-4248.e4245 (2019).
- 18 Werren JH, Windsor D and Guo L, Distribution of Wolbachia among Neotropical Arthropods. Proceedings of the Royal Society B, Biological Sciences (1995)
- 19 Moreira LA, Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Jeffery JA, Lu G, Pyke AT, Hedges LM et al., A Wolbachia symbiont in Aedes aegypti limits infection with dengue, chikungunya, and plasmodium. Cell 139:1268-1278 (2009).
- 20 Sinkins SP, Braig HR and O'Neill SL, Wolbachia Superinfections and the Expression of Cytoplasmic Incompatibility. Proceedings of the Royal Society B, Biological Sciences (1995).
- 21 Zabalou S, Riegler M, Theodorakopoulou M, Stauffer C, Savakis C and Bourtzis K, Wolbachia-induced cytoplasmic incompatibility as a means for insect pest population control. Proc Natl Acad Sci 101: 15042-15045 (2004).
- 22 Ross PA, Designing effective Wolbachia release programs for mosquito and arbovirus control. Acta Trop 222:106045 (2021).
- 23 McMeniman CJ and O'Neill SL, A virulent Wolbachia infection decreases the viability of the dengue vector Aedes aegypti during periods of embryonic quiescence. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 4:e748 (2010).
- 24 Wang G-H, Du J, Chu CY, Madhav M, Hughes GL and Champer J, Symbionts and gene drive: two strategies to combat vector-borne disease. Trends Genet 38:708-723 (2022).
- 25 Ruang-areerate T and Kittayapong P, Wolbachia transinfection in Aedes aegypti: A potential gene driver of dengue vectors. Proc Natl Acad Sci 103:12534-12539 (2006).
- 26 Weeks AR, Turelli M, Harcombe WR, Reynolds KT and Hoffmann AA, From parasite to mutualist: rapid evolution of Wolbachia in natural populations of drosophila. PLoS Biol 5:e114 (2007).
- 27 Hoffmann AA, Montgomery BL, Popovici J, Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Johnson PH, Muzzi F et al., Successful establishment of Wolbachia in aedes populations to suppress dengue transmission. Nature 476:454-457 (2011).
- 28 Hoffmann AA, Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Callahan AG, Phillips BL, Billington K, Axford JK et al., Stability of the wMel Wolbachia infection following invasion into Aedes aegypti populations. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 8: e3115 (2014).
- 29 Ritchie SA, Montgomery BL and Hoffmann AA, Novel estimates of Aedes aegypti (Diptera: Culicidae) population size and adult survival based on Wolbachia releases. J Med Entomol 50:624-631 (2013).
- 30 Hien NT, Anh DD, Le NH, Yen NT, Phong TV, Nam VS et al., Environmental factors influence the local establishment of Wolbachia in Aedes aegypti mosquitoes in two small communities in central Vietnam. Gates Open Res 5:147 (2021).
- 31 Utarini A, Indriani C, Ahmad RA, Tantowijoyo W, Arguni E, Ansari MR et al., Efficacy of Wolbachia-infected mosquito deployments for the control of dengue. N Engl J Med 384:2177-2186 (2021).
- 32 Tantowijoyo W, Andari B, Arguni E, Budiwati N, Nurhayati I, Fitriana I et al., Stable establishment of wMel Wolbachia in Aedes aegypti populations in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 14:e0008157 (2020).
- 33 Gesto JSM, Ribeiro GS, Rocha MN, Dias FBS, Peixoto J, Carvalho FD et al., Reduced competence to arboviruses following the sustainable invasion of Wolbachia into native Aedes aegypti from southeastern Brazil. Sci Rep 11:10039 (2021).
- 34 Gesto JSM, Pinto SB, Dias FBS, Peixoto J, Costa G, Kutcher S et al., Largescale deployment and establishment of Wolbachia into the Aedes aegypti population in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Front Microbiol 12: 711107 (2021)
- 35 Garcia GA, Sylvestre G, Aguiar R, da Costa GB, Martins AJ, Lima JBP et al., Matching the genetics of released and local Aedes aegypti populations is critical to assure Wolbachia invasion. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 13: e0007023 (2019).
- 36 World Mosquito Program. https://www.worldmosquitoprogram.org/ en/global-progress [accessed Feb 2 2023].
- 37 Indriani C, Tanamas SK, Khasanah U, Ansari MR, Rubangi TW et al., Impact of randomised wmel Wolbachia deployments on notified dengue cases and insecticide fogging for dengue control in Yogyakarta City. Glob Health Action 16:2166650 (2023).
- 38 Schmidt TL, Filipović I, Hoffmann AA and Rašić G, Fine-scale landscape genomics helps explain the slow spatial spread of Wolbachia through the Aedes aegypti population in Cairns, Australia. Heredity 120:386-395 (2018).

- 39 Ross PA, Ritchie SA, Axford JK and Hoffmann AA, Loss of cytoplasmic incompatibility in Wolbachia-infected Aedes aegypti under field conditions. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* **13**:e0007357 (2019).
- 40 Brady OJ, Kharisma DD, Wilastonegoro NN, O'Reilly KM, Hendrickx E, Bastos LS et al., The cost-effectiveness of controlling dengue in Indonesia using wMel Wolbachia released at scale: a modelling study. BMC Med 18:1–12 (2020).
- 41 Mumford JD, Application of benefit/cost analysis to insect Pest control using the sterile insect technique, in *Sterile Insect Technique: Principles and Practice in Area-Wide Integrated Pest Management*, ed. by Dyck VA, Hendrichs J and Robinson AS. Dordrecht, Springer Netherlands, pp. 481–498 (2005).
- 42 Soh S, Ho SH, Seah A, Ong J, Dickens BS, Tan KW *et al.*, Economic impact of dengue in Singapore from 2010 to 2020 and the cost-effectiveness of Wolbachia interventions. *PLOS Glob Public Health* **1**: e0000024 (2021).
- 43 Puterman ML, Markov Decision Processes: Discrete Stochastic Dynamic Programming. John Wiley & Sons, Hoboken, New Jersey (2014).
- 44 Andraud M, Hens N, Marais C and Beutels P, Dynamic epidemiological models for dengue transmission: a systematic review of structural approaches. *PloS One* 7:e49085 (2012).
- 45 Shepard DS, Undurraga EA and Halasa YA, Economic and disease burden of dengue in Southeast Asia. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 7:e2055 (2013).
- 46 Alphey N, Alphey L and Bonsall MB, A model framework to estimate impact and cost of genetics-based sterile insect methods for dengue vector control. *PloS One* **6**:e25384 (2011).
- 47 Gold MR, Siegel JE and Russell LB, Cost-Effectiveness in Health and Medicine. Oxford university press, Oxford, UK (1996).
- 48 Okamoto KW, Gould F and Lloyd AL, Integrating transgenic vector manipulation with clinical interventions to manage vector-borne diseases. *PLoS Comput Biol* **12**:e1004695 (2016).
- 49 Legros M, Lloyd AL, Huang Y and Gould F, Density-dependent intraspecific competition in the larval stage of Aedes aegypti (Diptera: Culicidae): revisiting the current paradigm. J Med Entomol 46:409–419 (2009).
- 50 McCallum H, Barlow N and Hone J, How should pathogen transmission be modelled? *Trends Ecol Evol* **16**:295–300 (2001).
- 51 Hollingsworth B, Okamoto KW and Lloyd AL, After the honeymoon, the divorce: unexpected outcomes of disease control measures against endemic infections. *PLoS Comput Biol* **16**:e1008292 (2020).
- 52 McLean AR and Anderson RM, Measles in developing countries. Part II. The predicted impact of mass vaccination. *Epidemiol Infect* **100**:419– 442 (1988).
- 53 Judd KL, Numerical methods in economics. Cambridge, Massachusetts (1998).
- 54 Miranda MJ and Fackler PL, *Applied Computational Economics and Finance*. MIT Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts (2004).
- 55 Matlab. version 9.6.0 (R2019a). The Mathworks Inc: Natick, Massachusetts (2019).
- 56 Brown ZS, Jones M and Mumford J, Chapter 10: Economic Principles and Concepts in Area-Wide Genetic Pest Management, in *The Economics of Integrated Pest Management for Insects*. CABI, Boston (2019).
- 57 Cianci D, van den Broek J, Caputo B, Marini F, Torre AD, Heesterbeek H et al., Estimating mosquito population size from mark-releaserecapture data. J Med Entomol 50:533–542 (2013).
- 58 Williams CR, Johnson PH, Long SA, Rapley LP and Ritchie SA, Rapid estimation of Aedes aegypti population size using simulation modeling, with a novel approach to calibration and field validation. *J Med Entomol* 45:1173–1179 (2008).

- 59 Cardona-Salgado D, Campo-Duarte DE, Sepulveda-Salcedo LS, Vasilieva O and Svinin M, Optimal release programs for dengue prevention using Aedes aegypti mosquitoes transinfected with wMel or wMelPop Wolbachia strains. *Math Biosci Eng* 18:2952–2990 (2021).
- 60 Supriatna AK, Anggriani N, Nurulputri L, Wulantini R and Aldila D, The optimal release strategy of Wolbachia infected mosquitoes to control dengue disease. Adv. Sci. Eng. Med 6:831–837 (2014).
- 61 Campo-Duarte DE, Vasilieva O, Cardona-Salgado D and Svinin M, Optimal control approach for establishing wMelPop Wolbachia infection among wild Aedes aegypti populations. J Math Biol **76**:1907–1950 (2018).
- 62 Zheng B, Liu X, Tang M, Xi Z and Yu J, Use of age-stage structural models to seek optimal Wolbachia-infected male mosquito releases for mosquito-borne disease control. J Theor Biol 472:95–109 (2019).
- 63 Almeida L, Privat Y, Strugarek M and Vauchelet N, Optimal releases for population replacement strategies: application to Wolbachia. SIAM J. Math. Anal 51:3170–3194 (2019).
- 64 Knerer G, Currie CSM and Brailsford SC, Reducing dengue fever cases at the lowest budget: a constrained optimization approach applied to Thailand. *BMC Public Health* **21**:807 (2021).
- 65 Knerer G, Currie CSM and Brailsford SC, The economic impact and costeffectiveness of combined vector-control and dengue vaccination strategies in Thailand: results from a dynamic transmission model. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* **14**:e0008805 (2020).
- 66 Turner HC, Quyen DL, Dias R, Huong PT, Simmons CP and Anders KL, An economic evaluation of Wolbachia deployments for dengue control in Vietnam. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* **17**:e0011356 (2023).
- 67 Engelstädter J and Telschow A, Cytoplasmic incompatibility and host population structure. *Heredity* **103**:196–207 (2009).
- 68 Yoon I-K, Getis A, Aldstadt J, Rothman AL, Tannitisupawong D, Koenraadt CJ et al., Fine scale spatiotemporal clustering of dengue virus transmission in children and Aedes aegypti in rural Thai villages. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 6:e1730 (2012).
- 69 Mammen MP, Pimgate C, Koenraadt CJ, Rothman AL, Aldstadt J, Nisalak A *et al.*, Spatial and temporal clustering of dengue virus transmission in Thai villages. *PLoS Med* **5**:e205 (2008).
- 70 Vazquez-Prokopec GM, Kitron U, Montgomery B, Horne P and Ritchie SA, Quantifying the spatial dimension of dengue virus epidemic spread within a tropical urban environment. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 4:e920 (2008).
- 71 Salje H, Lessler J, Endy TP, Curriero FC, Gibbons RV, Nisalak A et al., Revealing the microscale spatial signature of dengue transmission and immunity in an urban population. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 109:9535–9538 (2012).
- 72 Getis A, Morrison AC, Gray K and Scott TW, Characteristics of the spatial pattern of the dengue vector, Aedes aegypti, in Iquitos, Peru. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* **69**:494–505 (2003).
- 73 LaCon G, Morrison AC, Astete H, Stoddard ST, Paz-Soldan VA, Elder JP *et al.*, Shifting patterns of Aedes aegypti fine scale spatial clustering in lquitos, Peru. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* **8**:e3038 (2014).
- 74 Stoddard ST, Forshey BM, Morrison AC, Paz-Soldan VA, Vazquez-Prokopec GM, Astete H *et al.*, House-to-house human movement drives dengue virus transmission. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **110**: 994–999 (2013).
- 75 Reiner RC, Stoddard ST and Scott TW, Socially structured human movement shapes dengue transmission despite the diffusive effect of mosquito dispersal. *Epidemics* **6**:30–36 (2014).
- 76 Marseille E, Larson B, Kazi DS, Kahn JG and Rosen S, Thresholds for the cost–effectiveness of interventions: alternative approaches. *Bull World Health Organ* **93**:118–124 (2015).