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10 **PREDICTING THE SPATIAL DYNAMICS OF *WOLBACHIA* INFECTIONS IN *AEDES***
11 ***AEGYPTI* ARBOVIRUS VECTOR POPULATIONS IN HETEROGENEOUS**
12 **LANDSCAPES**

13

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16

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27

28 **ABSTRACT**

29 1. A promising strategy for reducing the transmission of dengue and other
30 arboviral human diseases by *Aedes aegypti* mosquito vector populations
31 involves field introductions of the endosymbiotic bacteria *Wolbachia*.

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32 *Wolbachia* infections inhibit viral transmission by the mosquito, and can
33 spread between mosquito hosts to reach high frequencies in the vector
34 population. *Wolbachia* spreads by maternal transmission, and spread
35 dynamics can be variable and highly dependent on natural mosquito
36 population dynamics, population structure and fitness components.

37 2. We develop a mathematical model of an *Ae. aegypti* metapopulation that
38 incorporates empirically validated relationships describing density-
39 dependent mosquito fitness components. We assume that density
40 dependent relationships differ across subpopulations, and construct
41 heterogeneous landscapes for which model-predicted patterns of
42 variation in mosquito abundance and demography approximate those
43 observed in field populations. We then simulate *Wolbachia* release
44 strategies similar to that used in field trials.

45 3. We show that our model can produce rates of spatial spread of *Wolbachia*
46 similar to those observed following field releases.

47 4. We then investigate how different types of spatio-temporal variation in
48 mosquito habitat, as well as different fitness costs incurred by *Wolbachia*
49 on the mosquito host, influence predicted spread rates. We find that
50 fitness costs reduce spread rates more strongly when the habitat
51 landscape varies temporally due to stochastic and seasonal processes.

52 5. *Synthesis and applications.* Our empirically based modelling approach
53 represents effects of environmental heterogeneity on the spatial spread of
54 *Wolbachia*. The models can assist in interpreting observed spread
55 patterns following field releases and in designing suitable release
56 strategies for targeting spatially heterogeneous vector populations.

57

58

59 **KEYWORDS**

60 arbovirus, dengue, gene drive, spatial spread, *wAlbB*, *wMel*, *wMelPop*, Zika

61

62 **INTRODUCTION**

63 *Aedes aegypti* mosquitoes transmit several arboviruses, including dengue which
64 infects an estimated 390 million people per year (Bhatt *et al.* 2013), as well as

65 Zika and chikungunya which have expanded geographically on a global scale in
66 recent years (Nunes *et al.* 2015; Faria *et al.* 2017). Vaccines against these viruses
67 are not yet widely available (Saez-Llorens *et al.* 2017) and disease control
68 strategies rely on interventions that target the mosquito vector. A promising
69 new control strategy involves the field releases of the endosymbiotic bacteria
70 *Wolbachia* into *Ae. aegypti* populations. *Wolbachia* infections in *Ae. aegypti*
71 inhibit virus development and their transmission by the vector (Moreira *et al.*
72 2009; Walker *et al.* 2011). *Wolbachia* is maternally transmitted in the mosquito
73 host, and utilizes a mechanism known as cytoplasmic incompatibility (CI), which
74 drives the invasion of the bacteria throughout the population. CI works by
75 preventing the development of offspring from matings between *Wolbachia*-
76 infected males and uninfected females (Caspari & Watson 1959), conferring a
77 strong relative fitness advantage to infected females that are able to mate with
78 both infected and uninfected males. Field releases conducted in northeast
79 Australia in 2011 achieved the first successful invasion and stable establishment
80 of a *Wolbachia* strain (*wMel*) in wild *Ae. aegypti* populations (Hoffmann *et al.*
81 2011). Current field trials are evaluating the public health impact, as measured
82 by reductions in human disease incidence, of *Wolbachia* infected *Ae. aegypti*
83 (O'Neill *et al.* 2018).

84

85 Given the growing need and potential for applying *Wolbachia* to mosquito vector
86 control and disease prevention, it is necessary to understand the dynamics of
87 *Wolbachia* spread in field *Ae. aegypti* populations. The spatial spread of
88 *Wolbachia* is expected to depend on the natural heterogeneity in mosquito
89 abundance and demography that arises from changing ecological and
90 environmental conditions (Hancock *et al.* 2016a; Hancock *et al.* 2016b).
91 Theoretical studies demonstrate that spatial heterogeneity in host abundance is
92 critical to *Wolbachia* spread, slowing and sometimes stopping the invasion
93 (Barton 1979; Hancock & Godfray 2012). Demographic variation amongst
94 individual hosts, and how this is spatially structured, also has important
95 consequences for spread because the rate of maternal transmission of *Wolbachia*
96 depends directly on its hosts' fitness (Hancock *et al.* 2016b).

97

98 In mosquito populations, important demographic traits such as female fecundity
99 and larval development rates can vary dramatically depending on the levels of
100 density-dependent competition for limited food resources that are experienced
101 during larval development (Barrera *et al.* 2006; Muriu *et al.* 2013; Hancock *et al.*
102 2016a). Parameters describing female fecundity and larval development rates
103 are fundamental to models of *Wolbachia* dynamics in mosquito populations,
104 because the bacteria is only transmitted maternally (Turelli 1994). Incorporation
105 of density-dependent demographic variation in these parameters into models of
106 the spatial dynamics of *Wolbachia* has, however, been hindered by the lack of an
107 empirical understanding of the form of density dependence (Legros *et al.* 2009).
108 Models of the spatial spread of *Wolbachia* in mosquito populations developed
109 thus far have typically either assumed constant demographic rates across space
110 and time (Turelli & Hoffmann 1991; Schmidt *et al.* 2017; Turelli & Barton 2017),
111 or restricted the effects of density-dependence to impacts on larval survival
112 (Hancock & Godfray 2012).

113
114 Here we develop a spatially explicit model of *Wolbachia-Ae. aegypti* dynamics
115 that aims to incorporate realistic patterns of demographic variation in the
116 mosquito population. *Ae. aegypti* is a highly domestic species that is found in or
117 near areas with human habitation and has low rates of dispersal (Harrington *et al.*
118 2005), which makes population size estimation easier than for other mosquito
119 species (Ritchie *et al.* 2013a). Studies from multiple geographic regions show
120 characteristic strong spatial overdispersion in population size (Getis *et al.* 2003;
121 Focks & Alexander 2006; Koenraadt *et al.* 2008; Jeffery *et al.* 2009; Aldstadt *et al.*
122 2011; LaCon *et al.* 2014), which may arise from the reliance of *Ae. aegypti* larvae
123 on developing in water filled artificial containers close to human dwellings
124 (Southwood *et al.* 1972; Aldstadt *et al.* 2011; Williams *et al.* 2013). Many of these
125 containers produce low numbers of pupae (and adults), which is thought to be
126 due limited larval food resources (Arrivillaga & Barrera 2004; Focks & Alexander
127 2006). Adult body size in field populations is typically smaller than those
128 produced from larvae that are fed *ad libitum* in the laboratory (Nasci 1986;
129 Barrera *et al.* 2006), with more crowded field containers typically producing
130 smaller adults (Schneider *et al.* 2004). This indicates that larval development in

131 field *Ae. aegypti* populations is affected by food limitation arising from density-
132 dependent larval competition, which adversely affects juvenile and adult fitness
133 components (Hancock *et al.* 2016a). Thus, density dependent effects on mosquito
134 production and fitness could be an impediment for *Wolbachia* to establish and
135 spread, especially as releases of additional mosquitoes will lead to increased
136 crowding in containers.

137

138 *Wolbachia* spread may also be impacted by spatio-temporal variation in
139 mosquito habitat (Schmidt *et al.* 2017). Field studies have shown that over time
140 it is not always the same houses that are responsible for the production of high
141 numbers of *Ae. aegypti* (Jeffery *et al.* 2009; LaCon *et al.* 2014), suggesting that the
142 quality of mosquito habitat within a given house may be temporally variable. In
143 some environments, including northeast Australia, *Ae. aegypti* abundance is
144 seasonal and higher in the wet season (November-April) than in the dry season
145 (May-October) (Ritchie *et al.* 2013b). In some other environments, however, *Ae.*
146 *aegypti* abundance does not show seasonal variation (Scott *et al.* 2000b;
147 Koenraadt *et al.* 2008).

148

149 We develop a metapopulation model that describes the spatially heterogeneous
150 demography of *Ae. aegypti* using empirically validated relationships that link
151 density-dependent demographic traits to mosquito abundance. Incorporating an
152 empirically realistic form of density-dependence significantly reduces parameter
153 uncertainty compared to other models of *Ae. aegypti* population dynamics. We
154 ask whether our model can produce patterns of demographic variation
155 approximating those observed in field populations, in terms of variation in both
156 mosquito population size and density-dependent demographic traits. We then
157 ask how rates of spatial spread of *Wolbachia* predicted by our model compare to
158 those observed following field releases. We explore the effects on the rate of
159 spread of different types of spatio-temporal variation in the mosquito habitat
160 landscape, including stochastic and seasonal variation, and of different fitness
161 costs incurred by *Wolbachia* on the mosquito host.

162

163 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

164 We develop an age-structured model of an *Ae. aegypti* metapopulation that
165 assumes that variation amongst individuals in two demographic traits, larval
166 development times and per-capita female fecundity, is influenced by varying
167 levels of larval density-dependent competition for limited food resources
168 (Hancock *et al.* 2016b) (Fig. 1). The level of density-dependent competition
169 within each of the subpopulations that make up the metapopulation is assumed
170 to depend on the local larval density as well as the quantity of larval food
171 resources available to the subpopulation (Fig 1A). We conceptualize each
172 subpopulation of the metapopulation as a “house” and define the larval habitat
173 quality in each house as high quality, low quality or empty (no larval habitat
174 present). High quality habitats contain a greater larval food resource quantity
175 than low quality habitats.

176

177 In order to estimate the functional forms of density-dependent demographic
178 variation occurring in high and low quality habitats, we utilize a recently
179 developed methodology that is based on frequent observations of the temporal
180 variation in the abundance of the juvenile life stages of *Ae. aegypti* in
181 experimental field-caged populations (see below and Hancock *et al.* (2016b)).
182 Mathematical functions describing the density-dependent co-variation in per-
183 capita female fecundity and larval development times occurring in each
184 population are then parameterized from the observed variation in juvenile
185 abundance (Hancock *et al.* 2016b). Details of how these different forms of
186 density-dependence are quantified are given below.

187

188 Our model also includes parameters describing density-independent mosquito
189 demographic traits and dispersal. These parameters are assumed to be constant
190 and are estimated using published data. Density-independent demographic traits
191 also affect the level of density-dependent competition occurring in the
192 metapopulation through their effects on population size (Hancock *et al.* 2016b).
193 We describe below the structure of our model, and detail our methodology for
194 estimating density-dependent and density-independent model parameters.
195 Model parameters are provided in Tables 1 & 2.

196

197 **Model Structure**

198 Our model of mosquito dynamics within each subpopulation follows that
 199 described in Hancock et al. (2016b). In summary, the model subdivides the
 200 mosquito subpopulation into a series of juvenile stages (including eggs, larvae
 201 and pupae) and male and female adults, where adult females are classified
 202 according to whether they have reached the minimum age required for
 203 oviposition (T_G ; Fig. 1B and Table 1). For each larval cohort, both the mean larval
 204 development time, $\mu_{c,q}$, and the standard deviation of the larval development
 205 times, $\sigma_{c,q}$, are assumed to depend on $\bar{L}_{c,q}^P$, the average larval density that the
 206 larvae in cohort c in a habitat with quality q experience during the time period
 207 from hatching to eclosion of the first pupa from the cohort. The per-capita
 208 fecundity of adult females aged T_G days or older on day i , $\lambda_{i,q}$, defined as the
 209 number of first instar larvae that hatch per day per adult female, is assumed to
 210 depend on $\bar{L}_{n,q}^A$, the average larval density in the subpopulation over a fixed time
 211 lag of three weeks ending on day $n=i-T_G-T_P$ (where T_P is the duration of the pupal
 212 development stage; see Fig. 1B and Table 1). Mosquito demographic traits that
 213 are assumed to be density-independent include the daily larval mortality, μ_L , the
 214 daily pupal and adult mortality, μ_A , and the developmental time lags T_P , T_G and
 215 the time lag between oviposition and hatching of eggs, T_H (Fig. 1B, Table 1). Adult
 216 mosquitoes migrate between subpopulations according to a daily probability, p_D ,
 217 of moving to an adjacent house within the neighbourhood of the eight adjacent
 218 houses (Fig. 1A). Details of the mathematical formulation of the model are
 219 provided in Section S4.

220

221 **Estimating the form of density-dependent demographic variation**

222 We estimated the forms of density-dependent variation in mosquito
 223 demographic traits occurring in two independent experimental populations of
 224 *Ae. aegypti*. The populations were housed in field-cages designed to simulate the
 225 natural habitat of *Ae. aegypti* and the climatic conditions of northeast Australia
 226 (Darbro et al. 2012) and maintained as described in Hancock et al. (2016a;
 227 2016b) (see also Section S1). Each population received a different larval food

228 regime. One population, which we refer to as the HF (high food) Population,
229 received a fixed quantity of food (0.32g ground lucerne) three times per week,
230 and the other, referred to as the LF (low food) Population, received this same
231 food quantity only once per week.

232

233 We performed counts of all larvae (3 times per week) and pupae (daily) over
234 approximately six months. We obtained an expression for the likelihood of our
235 observed abundances of the juvenile mosquito lifestages conditional on
236 mathematical functions describing the form of larval density-dependent
237 variation in larval development times and per-capita female fecundity. We used
238 Bayesian Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods, described in Hancock *et*
239 *al.* (2016b), to estimate the parameters of these mathematical functions for each
240 field-caged population (see Section S2). For both populations, the fitted models
241 accurately describe the major features of the temporal variation in juvenile
242 mosquito abundances in the field-caged populations (Fig S1). The form of
243 density-dependent demographic variation occurring in the high and low quality
244 habitats in our modelled metapopulation are given by the fitted relationships for
245 the HF and LF Populations, respectively. For the HF Population, these model fits
246 have been reported previously (Hancock *et al.* 2016b), while for the LF
247 Population our results are reported here for the first time. We note that
248 incorporating density-dependent variation in additional demographic traits,
249 such as the daily larval mortality rate, may have produced a closer fit to the field
250 cage observations.

251

252 **Estimating density-independent demographic traits**

253 Values of parameters describing density-independent demographic rates
254 (assumed constant) were estimated from published studies (Table 1). We
255 estimated the daily probability, p_d that adults move to an adjacent house using
256 published data from mark-release-recapture (MRR) experiments performed in
257 Thailand (lines 1 and 2 of Table 2 of Harrington *et al.* (2005)) that record
258 numbers of recaptured *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes at different distances from the
259 release sites. We ran our metapopulation model to simulate the MRR protocol
260 described in Harrington *et al.* assuming a constant daily rate of adult mosquito

261 mortality μ_A (Table 1). We calculated the value of p_d that provided the
262 minimum least squares fit to the observed recapture rates. We obtained $p_d =$
263 0.56 (Table 1), but note that the data describing both mosquito mortality and the
264 recapture rates is insufficient to quantify the uncertainty in this estimate. We
265 assumed that larvae experience a constant daily rate of mortality μ_L similar to the
266 value estimated for our field-cage experiments (Hancock *et al.* 2016b), and that
267 pupae experience the same daily mortality rate as adults. Values of the
268 development time lags T_G , T_H and T_P were estimated from our field-cage
269 experiments (Hancock *et al.* 2016b).

270

271 **Estimating spatial variation in habitat quality**

272 We denote the proportion of houses in the metapopulation with high habitat
273 quality, low habitat quality and empty as h_H , h_L , and h_E . We assume that the
274 habitat quality type across houses is spatially uncorrelated (Getis *et al.* 2003)
275 and is described by a multinomial distribution $\text{Mult}(h_H, h_L, h_E)$. We then compare
276 the abundance of pupae across subpopulations simulated by our model with
277 observations from field surveys conducted by Koenraadt *et al.* (2008). They
278 recorded the number of pupae found across a set of residential properties
279 distributed over two villages in Kamphaeng Phet province, Thailand, in four
280 surveys conducted over 2 month periods at the end of the dry season (March and
281 April, which is the beginning of the dengue transmission season) and at the end
282 of the wet season (September and October, which is the end of the dengue
283 transmission season) in 2004 and 2005. They made a total of 2123 observations
284 across 604 houses. For each house, pupae in all water-holding containers were
285 counted. Pupal abundances were determined for all potential larval development
286 sites. The observed distribution of pupal numbers across houses across both
287 surveys shows a spatially aggregated pattern that is typical for *Ae. aegypti* field
288 populations (Getis *et al.* 2003; Focks & Alexander 2006; Jeffery *et al.* 2009; LaCon
289 *et al.* 2014).

290

291 We ran one-year simulations of our metapopulation model across which the only
292 parameters that varied were the proportions of houses with high quality, low

293 quality and empty habitats (h_H , h_L and h_E). We calculated the parameters of the
294 multinomial habitat quality distribution for which the simulated distribution of
295 pupal numbers per house best matched that observed (Table 2). This procedure
296 assumed that the habitat quality of each house does not vary over time because
297 the pupal count data cover short time periods but are not temporally explicit
298 within this time frame (see the Discussion). Further details of this methodology
299 are provided in Section S3.

300

301 **Comparing the predicted intensity of density dependence with observations** 302 **from field populations**

303 We assessed how the intensity of larval density-dependent competition
304 occurring in our modelled metapopulation compared to observations from field
305 populations using observed wing lengths of adult females produced from field-
306 collected *Ae. aegypti* pupae. Food limitation during larval development greatly
307 affects overall adult body size, which can be estimated using wing length (Briegel
308 1990; Barrera *et al.* 2006), so field populations that show smaller adult wing
309 lengths are likely to have experienced more intense larval resource competition
310 (Barrera *et al.* 2006). Temperature conditions can also affect *Ae. aegypti* body
311 size (Scott *et al.* 2000a; Mohammed & Chadee 2011), although in our field-cage
312 populations changes in larval water temperature had less influence on
313 demographic traits than variation in larval density (Hancock *et al.* 2016a) (see
314 the Discussion). We used published observations of the average wing length per
315 household of 2316 female *Ae. aegypti* collected as pupae from 2931 houses in
316 Iquitos, Peru (Schneider *et al.* 2004). The wing lengths of the sampled
317 mosquitoes are highly variable, and median wing length is low relative to that
318 occurring when adult females experience plentiful food conditions during larval
319 development (Fig. 1 of (Schneider *et al.* 2004)). Other observed wing lengths
320 distributions obtained from field-sampled *Ae. aegypti* also show similar
321 characteristics (Nasci 1986; Barrera *et al.* 2006).

322 In order to compare these wing length observations to the output of our model,
323 we used the relationship between wing length and female fecundity obtained by
324 Briegel (1990). Briegel (1990) recorded adult female wing length, w , and the
325 number of eggs oviposited per gonotrophic cycle, $\tilde{\lambda}_c$, for 206 *Ae. aegypti* females

326 reared in a laboratory under varying larval density conditions and blood-fed on
 327 human hosts (Table 3 of Briegel 1990)). He then fitted a linear relationship to
 328 these observations:

329

$$330 \quad \tilde{\lambda}_G = 2.505w^3 - 8.616 \quad (1)$$

331 We applied eqn (1) to estimate the distribution of the average $\tilde{\lambda}_G$ per house, $\lambda_{G,h}$,
 332 from the observed distribution of average female wing lengths per house. This
 333 procedure assumes that individual wing lengths can be approximated by the
 334 house average. We then calculated the distribution of the weekly average per-
 335 capita female fecundity for each house, λ_h , using observations from our field-
 336 cage experiments (see Methods). This procedure makes two further
 337 assumptions: (i) $\lambda_{G,h}$ and λ_h are assumed to be directly proportional; and (ii) the
 338 adult female wing lengths in our field-caged populations under conditions of
 339 plentiful larval food are equal to the highest value observed by Briegel (1990).
 340 Having obtained a distribution of per-capita female fecundity across individuals
 341 derived from the field wing length data, we compared it with the distribution of
 342 per-capita female fecundity values across all subpopulations simulated by our
 343 metapopulation model.

344

345 **Comparing the predicted rate of spatial spread of *w*Mel *Wolbachia* with** 346 **observations from field populations**

347 We compared the rates of spatial spread of *Wolbachia* predicted by our model to
 348 those observed following the *w*Mel field release trials conducted at two sites in
 349 the city of Cairns, northeast Australia, in 2013 (Schmidt *et al.* 2017). The two
 350 sites, Edge Hill and Parramatta Park, are residential areas close to the center of
 351 Cairns. The field trials involved releasing mosquitoes infected with *w*Mel into a
 352 restricted area, or “release zone”, with the aim of allowing the *Wolbachia* to
 353 spread into surrounding areas. Observed rates of spread of *w*Mel beyond the
 354 release zone for both sites over a time period of 20 months are reported in
 355 Schmidt *et al.* (2017) (see Methods). We used their Gaussian/logistic model fits
 356 to observations of *w*Mel frequencies in pooled samples (Fig. S3 of Schmidt *et al.*

357 (2017)) to obtain the estimated distance from the edge of the release zone at
358 which the w Mel frequency was 0.5 at multiple time points following the releases.

359

360 To represent their spatial release strategy, we assume in our model that
361 mosquitoes infected with w Mel are liberated within a square-shaped release
362 zone located at the center of a larger area of potential habitat containing 10,000
363 houses (also square-shaped; 2.5 km²). We set parameters specifying the release
364 protocol to values matching those used in the field trials (these included the area
365 of the release zone, the duration and frequency of releases, and the frequency of
366 w Mel inside the release zone at the time of the final release; Table 2). We
367 assumed that a fixed number of infected mosquitoes are released within each
368 house inside the release zone once per week. Because released mosquitoes were
369 reared in the laboratory, we also assumed that the per-capita fecundity of the
370 released females is high and equal to that observed when larval food resources
371 are plentiful (Hancock *et al.* 2016b). Our results assume that houses have
372 dimensions of 25m² (Table 2), which is approximately equal to average area of
373 the housing blocks within the two release zones in Cairns, calculated by
374 randomly sampling 100 houses within each release zone and obtaining the
375 dimensions of each housing block using Google Maps. The available data do not
376 allow estimation of the mosquito habitat quality in the houses within the study
377 site, so we simulated w Mel releases for 50 landscapes where the habitat quality
378 in each house (low, high, or empty) was randomly drawn from a multinomial
379 distribution with parameters h_H , h_L , and h_E (Table 1).

380

381 Our model of the *Wolbachia* dynamics in each subpopulation of the
382 metapopulation is based on that described in Hancock *et al.* (2016b). The
383 approach subdivides each mosquito life stage into classes infected and
384 uninfected with *Wolbachia*, and describes the effects of cytoplasmic
385 incompatibility on mosquito demography (Fig. 1B); mathematical details are
386 provided in Section S5. We assume high values of the strength of cytoplasmic
387 incompatibility, s_b , and the rate of maternal transmission of *Wolbachia*, ω
388 (Table 1), consistent with observations of the *Wolbachia* strain w Mel that has
389 been used in recent field release trials (Hoffmann *et al.* 2011). We begin by

390 assuming that *Wolbachia* infection does not affect the fitness of its mosquito host
391 (Hancock *et al.* 2016b), and then explore the effects of varying fitness costs on
392 spread dynamics.

393

394 **Sensitivity analysis**

395 We performed local sensitivity analysis to investigate how changes in mosquito
396 demographic parameters affect three aspects of the dynamics of our
397 metapopulation model: (i) the distance that *Wolbachia* spreads beyond the
398 release zone in 20 months following the final release (using 0.5 *Wolbachia*
399 frequency contour as described above); (ii) the total mosquito population size
400 and (iii) the average per-capita female fecundity across the entire spatial region
401 ((ii) and (iii) are evaluated the equilibrium in the absence of *Wolbachia*). We
402 chose to vary three demographic parameters that are known to be important to
403 the predictions of mosquito population dynamic models, but are poorly
404 quantified for mosquito populations (Schofield 2002; Hancock *et al.* 2016b;
405 Legros *et al.* 2016): the daily larval mortality, μ_L , the daily pupal and adult
406 mortality, μ_A , and the daily probability of adult dispersal, p_D (Table 1). We
407 assume in this analysis that *Wolbachia* infection does not affect mosquito fitness
408 and that the mosquito habitat quality landscape is temporally invariant.

409

410 **RESULTS**

411

412 **Modelling spatially varying demography in the mosquito population**

413

414 *Modelling spatial variation in mosquito abundance*

415 The fitted distribution of the numbers of pupae across houses is similar in both
416 shape and range to that obtained from the field surveys (Fig. 2A). The predicted
417 pupal numbers are highly aggregated across space due to the small proportion of
418 houses with high quality habitat ($h_H = 0.1$). The fitted proportions of houses with
419 low and empty habitat quality (h_L and h_E) were equal (Fig. 2A). These results
420 demonstrate that the relationships describing density-dependent demography
421 derived from our field-caged population experiments can be applied directly,

422 without rescaling, to approximate patterns of variation in abundance that occur
423 in field *Ae. aegypti* populations.

424

425 *Modelling the intensity of density-dependent competition*

426 The median of the field-derived per-capita female fecundity distribution is in the
427 lower part of the per-capita fecundity range and is close to that predicted by our
428 model (Fig. 2B). Thus both field observations and model predictions indicate
429 that density-dependent competition is relatively intense. While both the
430 distributions from the field and model show wide variation in per-capita female
431 fecundity across subpopulations, the variance predicted by our model is larger.
432 The larval development times predicted by our model also vary widely across
433 the metapopulation, with the majority of subpopulations having protracted
434 larval development (Fig. 2B).

435

436 **Predicting the speed of spatial spread of *Wolbachia***

437 We simulated *Wolbachia* field releases for 50 landscapes where habitat quality
438 in each house is randomly drawn from a multinomial distribution with
439 parameters h_H , h_L , and h_E (Table 1). We begin by assuming that *Wolbachia*
440 infection has no effect on mosquito fitness. The mean of the simulated rates of
441 spread across all landscapes agrees well with the rates observed at Edge Hill and
442 Parramatta Park (Fig. 3A). This demonstrates that under our default parameter
443 assumptions (Table 1) our model is able to predict *Wolbachia* spread rates
444 similar to those observed in field populations. Spread rates were spatially
445 heterogeneous, however, and spread dynamics varied considerably depending
446 on random differences between the realized habitat quality landscapes (see the
447 credible intervals in Fig. 3A and see also Animation S1).

448

449 *Effects of stochastic habitat variation*

450 We first extend our analysis to consider landscapes where habitat quality shows
451 stochastic temporal variation. We defined a fixed daily probability t_q that the
452 habitat quality in each house is reassigned to a value chosen randomly from
453 $\text{Mult}(h_H, h_L, h_E)$. We then defined the expected habitat quality turnover period,
454 $\bar{t}_q = 1/t_q$, as the expected time interval between a reassignment of habitat quality

455 for each house, and considered cases where turnover is slow ($\bar{t}_q = 3$ months) and
456 relatively fast ($\bar{t}_q = 1$ month). For each value of \bar{t}_q we repeated the analysis
457 described in the previous section to obtain predictions of the speed of spatial
458 spread of *Wolbachia* by simulating the release protocol used in the field releases
459 conducted in Edge Hill and Parramatta Park, Cairns (Table 2). We found that the
460 predicted rates of spatial spread of *Wolbachia* for both values of t_q was similar to
461 that obtained when habitat quality was assumed not to vary temporally (Fig. 3B-
462 C).

463

464 *Effects of seasonal habitat variation*

465 Next we extended our analysis to explore effects of seasonal variation in *Ae.*
466 *aegypti* abundance on *Wolbachia* spread. We simulated seasonal variation in *Ae.*
467 *aegypti* abundance by periodically increasing the proportion of high quality
468 habitat, h_H . This involved randomly selecting a set of houses (of size n_s) with
469 either low or empty habitat quality, and reassigning the habitat quality in these
470 houses to high, once every 365 days. This “wet season” habitat quality landscape
471 remained fixed for 182 days, and then a set of high quality habitat houses, also of
472 size n_s , was selected at random and the habitat quality in these houses was
473 reassigned to either low, or empty, with a probability of 0.5. We set the value of
474 n_s such that the proportion of houses with high quality habitat, h_H , increased to
475 0.175 at the start of the wet season (and returned to 0.1 at the start of the dry
476 season). This produced a simulated pattern of seasonal variation in adult
477 abundance with wet season peak about 4 times higher than the dry season
478 trough (Fig. S3). Published observations of the seasonal variation in the numbers
479 of *Ae. aegypti* caught in Biogents Sentinel traps (BGS) throughout Cairns show a
480 similar relative amplitude across seasons (Fig. 1 of Ritchie et al. (2013b)). We
481 again simulated the above *Wolbachia* field release protocol, starting the releases
482 40 days into the wet season, and again found that the predicted rate of spatial
483 spread of *Wolbachia* was similar to that obtained when habitat quality was
484 assumed not to vary temporally (Fig. 3D).

485

486 *Effects of fitness costs*

487 We then investigated how these spread patterns are affected by fitness costs
488 imposed by *Wolbachia* on its mosquito host. Specifically, we assumed that
489 *Wolbachia*-infected individuals experience a reduction in average adult lifespan
490 relative to uninfected individuals by a proportion s . Estimates of fitness costs
491 incurred by *wMel* on *Ae. aegypti* are highly uncertain (Hoffmann *et al.* 2011;
492 Hancock *et al.* 2016b; Schmidt *et al.* 2017) (and see the Discussion) but high
493 costs are unlikely; here we consider values of $s=0.15$ and $s=0.3$. For all four types
494 of temporal variation in mosquito habitat quality considered above (including
495 static landscapes with no temporal variation), we simulated the *Wolbachia*
496 release protocol previously described, but augmented the total release size so
497 that the *Wolbachia* frequency reached the required value at the time of the final
498 release (Table 2).

499

500 For environments where the habitat quality landscape is static, either fitness
501 cost resulted in slower rates of *Wolbachia* spread that show less agreement with
502 the rates observed in the field populations (Figs. 3E & 3I). When $s=0.15$ the
503 observed spread rates are above the mean of the simulated rates, but within the
504 95% quantiles (Fig. 3E), and when $s=0.3$ the observed rates are higher than the
505 quantiles of the simulated rates for times later than six months following the
506 final release (Fig. 3I).

507

508 In the presence of fitness costs, predicted *Wolbachia* spread rates also differ
509 across the different types of spatio-temporal variation in mosquito habitat
510 quality. They are slower in landscapes where house habitat quality undergoes
511 stochastic changes over time compared to landscapes where house habitat
512 quality is static, with differences being larger when the fitness cost is higher
513 (Figs. 3F-G & 3J-K). Seasonal variation in mosquito habitat quality also results in
514 slower predicted spread rates, with the difference again being strongest for
515 higher fitness costs (Figs. 3H & 3L). When the *Wolbachia* imposes fitness costs,
516 these types of temporal variation in habitat quality result in slower rates of
517 spatial spread because a reduction in a house's habitat quality causes a localized
518 increase in mosquito mortality. If this occurs before the *Wolbachia* has spread to
519 fixation, the frequency dependent advantage that the *Wolbachia* has gained by

520 invading and spreading in areas with good habitat quality is lost; thus spread
521 slows down, and may fail if frequencies fall too low. Interestingly, the higher
522 rates of mosquito mortality in temporally variable habitat quality landscapes
523 lead to reductions in the intensity of density-dependent larval competition,
524 which can lead to faster *Wolbachia* spread rates (Hancock *et al.* 2016b). However
525 in the presence of fitness costs this effect did not compensate for the inhibitory
526 effects on rates of spread of temporal changes in house habitat quality.

527

528 **Sensitivity analysis**

529 The effects of variation in daily larval mortality are relatively straightforward;
530 when larval mortality is lower, the total mosquito population size is higher and
531 average per-capita female fecundity is lower because larval density-dependent
532 competition is more intense (Fig. 4A). Lower values of larval mortality result in
533 slower *Wolbachia* spread, firstly because mosquito generation times are longer
534 when density-dependence is more intense, and secondly because the release of a
535 fixed number of *Wolbachia* infected mosquitoes is less effective at elevating the
536 *Wolbachia* frequency when the abundance of the wild mosquito population is
537 greater. The effects of variation in pupal and adult mortality on mosquito
538 population size and density-dependent demographic rates are the same in
539 direction but stronger in magnitude. Due to these effects, *Wolbachia* spreads
540 more quickly when pupal and adult mortality is higher, even though shorter-
541 lived adults have a reduced lifetime dispersal distance, which inhibits the spatial
542 spread of *Wolbachia* (Fig. 4B,C). Variation in the daily dispersal probability has
543 less effect on mosquito demography, in terms of the total population size and the
544 intensity of density dependence, but effects on the spatial spread of *Wolbachia*
545 across the full range of dispersal probabilities are substantial (Fig. 4C).
546 *Wolbachia* spreads more quickly when the dispersal probability is higher
547 because the bacterium is propagated more quickly through the landscape.

548

549 **DISCUSSION**

550 Our metapopulation model describes the dynamics of *Ae. aegypti* populations
551 with spatially heterogeneous abundance and demography, incorporating
552 empirically derived relationships that model density-dependent demographic

553 traits. We demonstrated that the model could approximate the patterns of
554 demographic variation that occur in field populations and predict rates of spatial
555 spread of *Wolbachia* close to those observed following field releases. We discuss
556 below how our representation of spatially structured population dynamics is
557 important to predicting *Wolbachia* spread, and also identify limitations of our
558 model in describing the dynamics of natural populations.

559

560 Previous studies have demonstrated several mechanisms through which the
561 dynamics of *Wolbachia* spread are affected by spatial heterogeneity in host
562 abundance (Barton 1979; Hancock & Godfray 2012), and demographic
563 heterogeneity across individuals (Hancock *et al.* 2016a; Hancock *et al.* 2016b).
564 Our modelling approach empirically relates variation in mosquito abundance to
565 density-dependent variation in two demographic traits, namely larval
566 development times and per-capita female fecundity, which are major
567 determinants of the rate of *Wolbachia* transmission through successive
568 (overlapping) mosquito generations. By allowing density dependence
569 relationships to vary across subpopulations, our model is able to represent
570 realistically two important demographic features of *Ae. aegypti* field
571 populations: (i) highly variable, spatially aggregated patterns of abundance; and
572 (ii) a relatively intense level of density-dependent larval resource competition on
573 average across the metapopulation.

574

575 However, other aspects of demographic and environmental variation that were
576 not included in our model may also cause variable rates of *Wolbachia* spread.
577 Mosquito mortality and dispersal rates also affect *Wolbachia* spread dynamics
578 (Schofield 2002; Hancock *et al.* 2016b), but these traits are poorly quantified and
579 likely to vary with changing environmental conditions (Harrington *et al.* 2005;
580 Maciel-De-Freitas *et al.* 2007; Hoffmann 2014). Several demographic traits vary
581 due to changes in weather and climate (Scott *et al.* 2000a; Mohammed & Chadee
582 2011), and predation (Bowatte *et al.* 2013). Moreover, density dependence may
583 impact other demographic traits such as stage-specific daily survival rates
584 (Hancock *et al.* 2016a), and mating success (Segoli *et al.* 2014). Density-
585 dependent dynamics may be further complicated by preferential oviposition

586 behaviour by adult females, whereby females are more likely to oviposit in
587 containers that are already inhabited by conspecific larvae (Wong *et al.* 2011).
588 Thus our model cannot fully describe the demographic variability in a particular
589 metapopulation. By specifying realistic forms of density dependence, however,
590 our model offers a useful tool for exploring dynamic behaviour across different
591 assumptions about uncertain aspects of mosquito-*Wolbachia* demography and
592 different types of environmental variation, as our results demonstrate. In order
593 to understand the effects of variation in demographic parameters, it is necessary
594 to consider how these demographic rates impact the dynamics of the full system,
595 as demonstrated by our sensitivity analysis (Fig. 4).

596

597 A current challenge in forecasting *Wolbachia* dynamics is the difficulty of
598 estimating fitness costs in the field (Hancock *et al.* 2016b), which is exacerbated
599 by the very high levels of demographic variation caused by environmental and
600 genetic effects (Hoffmann *et al.* 2011; Walker *et al.* 2011; Hoffmann 2014;
601 Hancock *et al.* 2016b; Ross *et al.* 2016; Schmidt *et al.* 2017). This is problematic
602 because theory suggests that even small fitness costs strongly affect the spatial
603 spread of *Wolbachia* (Turelli & Hoffmann 1991; Hancock & Godfray 2012). For
604 example, the classical reaction-diffusion models of Barton and Turelli (Barton
605 1979; Turelli & Hoffmann 1991) predict that a fitness cost of 0.25 halves the
606 equilibrium wave speed of *Wolbachia*. These reaction-diffusion approaches
607 assume spatial and temporal constancy of mosquito abundance and demography
608 (Turelli & Barton 2017). Under plausible sets of demographic and environmental
609 parameters (Tables 1 & 2), and across a range of models of spatio-temporal
610 habitat variation, our model accurately described observed spread rates without
611 assuming that *Wolbachia* incurs fitness costs. It is important to note that, while
612 *Ae. aegypti* abundance varies seasonally in northeast Australia, in many dengue-
613 endemic regions (such as parts of Thailand and Peru) abundance does not show
614 a strong seasonal signal (Morrison *et al.* 2004; Koenraadt *et al.* 2008).
615 Interestingly, however, for cases where the fitness cost incurred by *Wolbachia*
616 was low, our predicted spread rates were relatively robust to the different forms
617 of seasonal and stochastic habitat variation that we considered. While our results
618 predict that fitness costs incurred by *wMel* are usually small, the uncertainty

619 surrounding the demographic and environmental parameters and processes that
620 we aim to model prevents us from making accurate inferences about the effects
621 of *Wolbachia* on fitness experienced in field *Ae. aegypti* populations.

622

623 In summary, we present a mathematical model of the spatial dynamics of
624 *Wolbachia* in *Ae. aegypti* populations that incorporates realistic features of
625 mosquito demographic variation that impact *Wolbachia* spread. Our approach
626 facilitates exploration of the effects of demographic and environmental
627 heterogeneity on the spread of *Wolbachia* following field releases. Our models
628 can be applied to compare the performance of different field release strategies,
629 for example by varying the release size and timing, and the spatial distribution of
630 the release locations. Further, our approach can be extended to explore the
631 dynamics of other mosquito control interventions, such as the release of
632 *Wolbachia*-infected male mosquitoes in order to suppress vector abundance, or
633 the release of mosquitoes carrying gene drive constructs that aim to suppress
634 abundance or lower vectorial capacity (Flores & O'Neill 2018). By developing our
635 understanding of the ecological dynamics of *Ae. aegypti* arbovirus vector
636 populations, and their interactions with vector control interventions, our models
637 can contribute to interpreting observed impacts in field populations and
638 allowing effects of environmental heterogeneity to be considered in designing
639 intervention strategies.

640

641 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

642 PAH, HCG and SAR conceived the ideas; PAH designed the methodology; PAH
643 collected the data; PAH analysed the data; PAH led the writing of the manuscript.
644 All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for
645 publication.

646

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651

652 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

653 Mosquito age-class abundances for LF Population and observed pupal
 654 abundances per house from the pupal suveys conducted by Koenraadt *et al.*
 655 (2008) are available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.8117939.v1> (Hancock et
 656 al. 2019)

657
 658 C++ Computer Code for implementing the metapopulation model is available via
 659 Zenodo <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2784071> (Hancock 2019)

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821

822 **FIGURE AND TABLE LEGENDS**

823

824 **Table 1.** Values of model parameters describing mosquito demographic traits
 825 and dispersal.

826

827 **Table 2.** Values of model parameters describing spatial structure and the sizes of
 828 mosquito releases.

829

830 **Figure 1. A.** Diagram of the metapopulation model showing interactions between
 831 mosquito demographic traits, larval density and habitat quality across
 832 subpopulations. The coloured triangle represents the age structure of the
 833 mosquito subpopulation in a given house, depicting the relatively long larval
 834 development stage (light blue), the short pupal development stage (dark blue)
 835 and the adult stage (pink). Houses with different habitat quality levels are
 836 arranged in a regular grid. The larval development rate and the per-capita female
 837 fecundity within a subpopulation depend on both the total larval density in the
 838 subpopulation and the house habitat quality. **B.** Model of mosquito-
 839 *Wolbachia* dynamics. Double red arrows indicate demographic rates that depend
 840 on larval density, solid arrows indicate fixed time lags, dotted arrows indicate
 841 mating interactions, and open circle terminators indicate mortality rates. Grey
 842 shading and no shading indicate *Wolbachia*-infected and uninfected life stages,
 843 respectively. Parameter symbols and values are defined in Table 1.

844

845 **Figure 2. (A)** The distribution of the number of pupae per house. Red bars show
 846 observations from the field surveys and black bars show the simulated
 847 distribution given by our metapopulation model. The pie chart shows the fitted
 848 proportions of houses with high (H), low (L) and empty (E) habitat quality (h_H

849 h_L and h_E , respectively). **(B)** Boxplots showing the distribution of per-capita
 850 female fecundity across subpopulations predicted by our model (black, left), the
 851 per-capita fecundity distribution estimated from field-caught mosquitoes (red;
 852 see text), and the distribution of the mean development times of the larval
 853 cohorts predicted by our model (black, right).

854 **Figure 3.** Comparing predicted and observed rates of spatial spread of μ Mel
 855 *Wolbachia*. Black circles show the mean across all simulations of the distance of
 856 the 0.5 μ Mel frequency contour from the edge of the release area and vertical
 857 black lines connect the 5% and 95% quantiles. The observed mean position of
 858 the 0.5 μ Mel frequency contour from the edge of the release area following the
 859 μ Mel releases conducted in Cairns is shown for two release areas, Edge Hill (red
 860 crosses) and Parramatta Park (blue crosses). Four types of temporal variation in
 861 house habitat quality are shown: Static habitat quality (Top row **(A,E,I)**); Slow
 862 stochastic temporal variation ($\bar{t}_q = 3$ months; Second row **(B,F,J)**); Fast stochastic
 863 temporal variation ($\bar{t}_q = 1$ month; Second row **(C,G,K)**); Seasonal variation
 864 (Fourth row **(D,H,L)**). Three values of the fitness cost incurred by *Wolbachia* are
 865 shown: No cost ($s=0$; First column **(A-D)**); $s=0.15$ (Second column **(E-H)**); $s=0.3$
 866 (Third column **(I-L)**).

867

868 **Figure 4.** Sensitivity analysis showing the effects of variation in **A.** Daily larval
 869 mortality; **B.** Daily pupal and adult mortality, and **C.** Daily dispersal probability
 870 on predicted mosquito-*Wolbachia* dynamics. Effects on the *Wolbachia* spread
 871 distance from the release zone (red lines), the total mosquito population size
 872 (blue lines) and the average per-capita female fecundity across the
 873 metapopulation (green lines) are shown. Values of the daily pupal and adult
 874 mortality above 0.15 resulted in elimination of the mosquito population.

Table 1. Values of model parameters describing mosquito demographic traits and dispersal.

Symbol	Definition	Value		Source
T_P	Duration of the pupal stage	2 days		(Hancock <i>et al.</i> 2016)
T_G	Minimum time for females to become gravid following emergence	4 days		(Hancock <i>et al.</i> 2016)
T_H	Time between oviposition and hatching of eggs	6 days		(Hancock <i>et al.</i> 2016)
	The proportion of uninfected offspring produced by <i>Wolbachia</i> -infected females	0.01		(Walker <i>et al.</i> 2011)
s_h	The proportion of unviable offspring from an incompatible mating	0.99		(Walker <i>et al.</i> 2011)
s	The reduction in average adult lifespan caused by <i>Wolbachia</i> carriage	varies		
μ, σ	Parameters of functions describing mean larval development time	<i>Low quality habitats</i>	<i>High quality habitats</i>	This study
		19.6, 2.74, 0.43	1.2, 0.154, 0.68	
μ, σ	Parameters of functions describing the standard deviation of larval development time	-0.97, 1.0, 0.32	12, 0.24, 0.44	This study
a, b	Parameters of functions describing per-capita female fecundity	15.4, -2.03	28.5, -3.25	This study
μ_{min}^* , μ_{max}^*	Lower limit on per-capita female fecundity, and upper limits on	0.5, 60 days, 40 days		This study

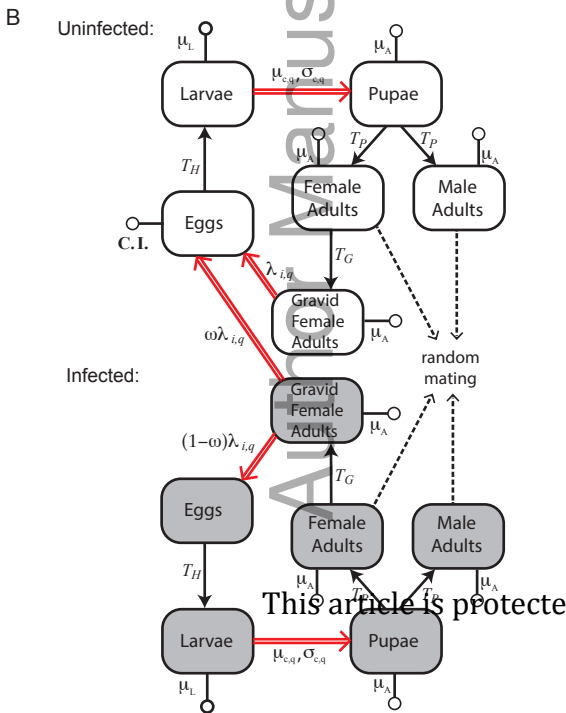
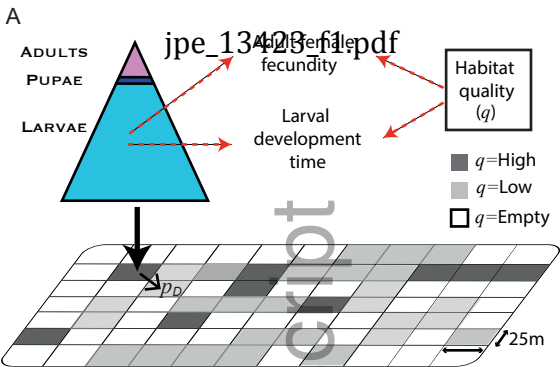
	larval development time means and standard deviations			
L	Daily larval mortality	0.05		(Hancock <i>et al.</i> 2016)
A	Daily pupal and adult mortality	Field-cage	Field release simulations	(Muir & Kay 1998; Walker <i>et al.</i> 2011)
		0.03	0.1	
p_d	Daily probability that adults move to adjacent house	0.56		(Harrington <i>et al.</i> 2005)

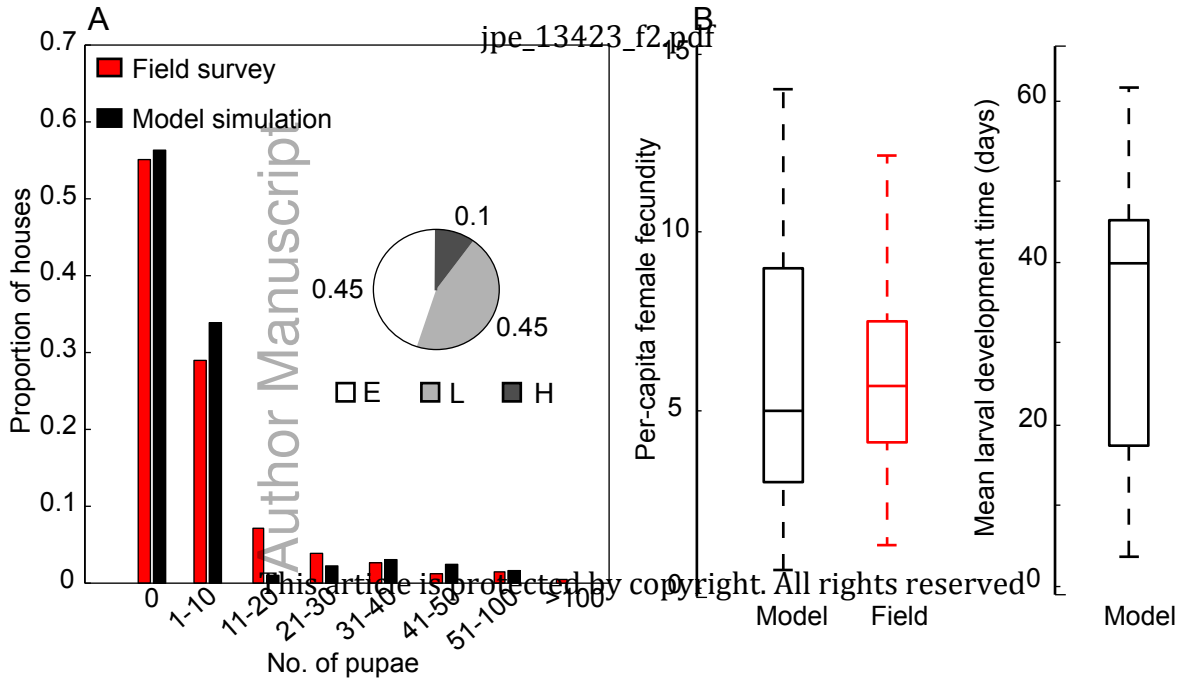
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Table 2. Values of model parameters describing spatial structure and the sizes of mosquito releases.

Symbol	Definition	Value
x_h	Side length of square grid units (houses)	25 m
X_A	Side length of square spatial region containing the target mosquito vector population	2.5 km
h_H, h_L, h_E	Proportions of houses with high, low and empty habitat quality	0.1, 0.45, 0.45
n_r	Number of releases	15
t_r	Duration of release period	15 weeks
s_r	Number of mosquitoes released per release house per release*	5*
X_r	Size of the release zone*	725 m ²
f_r	Wolbachia frequency in the release zone at the time of the final release*	0.85

*Used for model simulations where the fitness cost $s=0$ and the habitat quality landscape was static.



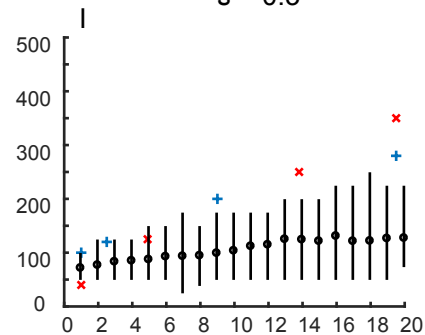
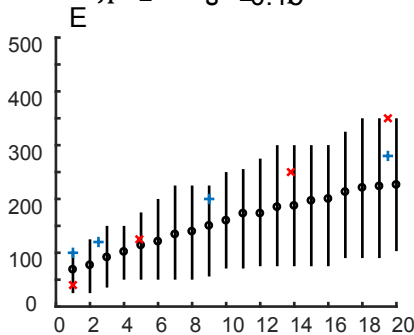
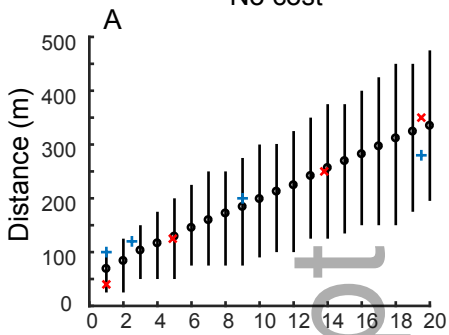


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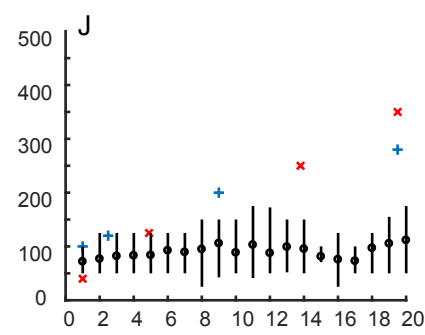
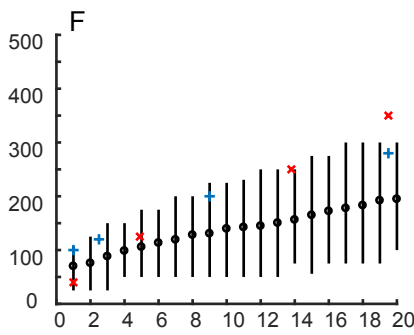
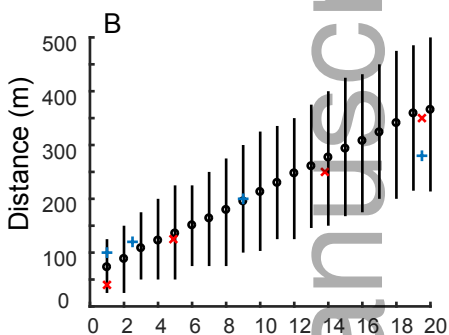
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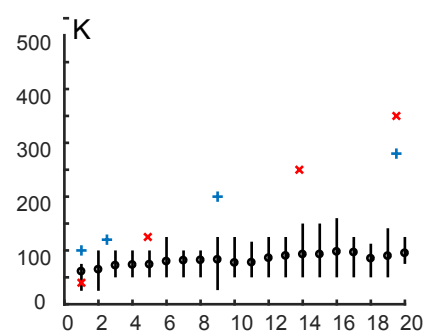
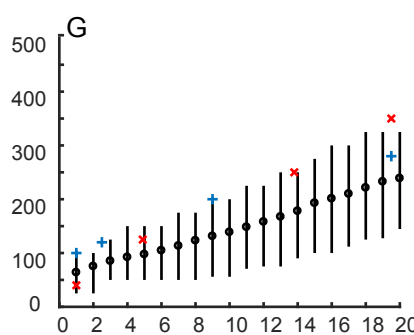
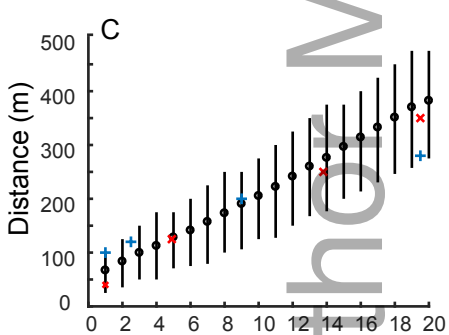
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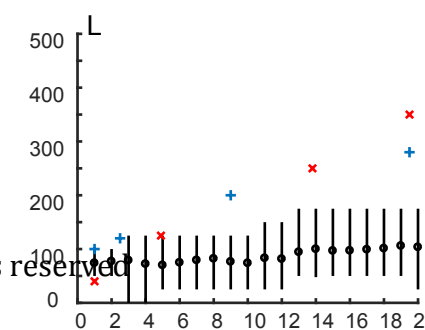
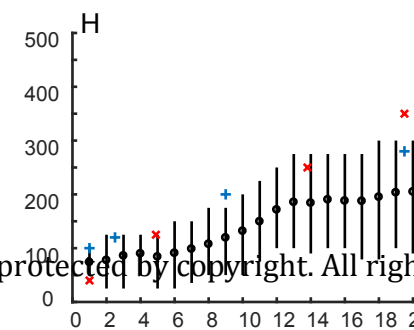
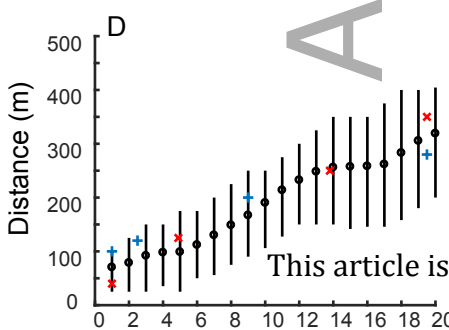
Stochastic (slow):



Stochastic (fast):



Seasonal:



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Time after final release (months)

