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HOW RESIDUAL FERTILITY IMPACTS THE EFFICIENCY OF CROP PEST CONTROL BY THE STERILE INSECT TECHNIQUE

Marine A. Courtois^{1,*}, Ludovic Mailleret^{1,2}, Suzanne Touzeau^{1,2},
Louise van Oudenhove¹, Frédéric Grognard²

¹Université Côte d’Azur, INRAE, CNRS, ISA, France

²Université Côte d’Azur, Inria, INRAE, CNRS, MACBES, France

*Corresponding author marine.courtois@inrae.fr

Highlights

- The sterile insect technique allows pest control if not eradication.
- Pest control is possible even with residual fertility.
- Fitness costs of fertile released males matter.

Abstract

The Sterile Insect Technique (SIT) is a biological control technique based on mass-rearing, radiation-based sterilization that can induce fitness costs, and releases of the pest species targeted for population control. Sterile matings, between females and sterilized males, can reduce the overall population growth rate and cause a fall in population density. However, a proportion of irradiated males may escape sterilization, which is termed residual fertility. Our aim in this paper is to study the impact of residual fertility on pest control, by a modeling approach.

We modeled the pest population dynamics with three generic differential equations representing sterilized males, wild males and wild females. We explored the impact of residual fertility, associated or not with fitness costs, on pest control possibilities as compared to a situation in which male sterilization is flawless. We carried out a detailed mathematical analysis of the model dynamics through the computation of its equilibria and their stability. Bifurcation analyses were performed with parameters calibrated on the Mediterranean fruit fly *Ceratitis capitata*.

We showed that when residual fertility is below a threshold value, wild populations can be driven to extinction by flooding the landscape with sterilized males. This threshold is higher when residual fertility is associated with fitness costs. Too high a level of residual fertility makes SIT less effective and hinders population eradication. Nevertheless, substantial decreases in outbreak levels can still be achieved for much larger residual fertility rates.

Keywords: Modeling, Biological control, *Ceratitis capitata*, Bifurcation analysis, Ordinary differential equations, Stability analysis

1 Introduction

The Sterile Insect Technique (SIT) consists in releasing sterile males in order to decrease the number of offspring in the next generation (Dyck *et al.*, 2021). The insects of the targeted species are mass-produced, sexed (when possible) and then sterilized before being massively released in the environment. These releases dilute the population of wild males, thus the females are more likely to meet and mate with a sterile male. These matings do not produce offspring and therefore reduce the population size in the next generation.

The Sterile Insect Technique has been developed to eradicate several pests threatening human health and agriculture. Many SIT projects aim at eradicating different species of mosquitoes, vectors of numerous human diseases (Benedict, 2021). In the agricultural context, SIT has been used to eradicate the melon fly, *Bactrocera cucurbitae*, in Hawaii and the New World screw-worm fly, *Cochliomyia hominivorax*, in several places, in particular Curaçao and Mexico (Oliva *et al.*, 2022). Since its conception in the 1930s-1940s

13 by [Knippling \(1955\)](#), [Bushland \(Melvin and Bushland, 1936\)](#) and [Serebrovsky \(1940\)](#), SIT has developed
14 rapidly and been integrated into operational area-wide integrated pest management (AW-IPM) programs
15 ([Klassen *et al.*, 2021](#)). The range of action of the technique extends from the plot to the regional scale,
16 to eliminate certain insects from vast territories or prevent colonization by new exotic species ([Klassen
17 and Vreysen, 2021](#)). SIT is often associated with insect eradication programs, especially in a human
18 epidemiological context where the objective is to eliminate the disease. However, in agriculture, instead
19 of targeting pest eradication, the objective is to reduce pest density in order to control its economic
20 impact.

21 With regard to the Mediterranean fruit fly *Ceratitidis capitata*, a polyphagous dipterous insect that
22 infects many fruit crops ([Robinson and Hooper, 1989](#)), SIT is an efficient alternative to chemical pesticides
23 ([Dunn and Follett, 2017](#)). When mated with sterile males, females lay non-viable eggs in the fruits, thus
24 reducing damages and increasing crop yields. This technique has been successfully deployed in several
25 countries. Mexico and Guatemala developed the Moscamed program in 1975, joined in 1977 by the
26 United States, to prevent the northward spread of *C. capitata* that was progressing in Central America
27 ([Enkerlin *et al.*, 2017](#)). In 1986, the medfly was eradicated in northern Guatemala and Mexico. This
28 success was explained by the release of billions of sterile insects on hundreds of thousands of hectares, and
29 this for decades to avoid re-infestation. Spain has been using SIT since the 1990s ([Sancho *et al.*, 2021](#)).
30 In France, CeraTIS-Corse is the first SIT project in an agricultural context implemented in Corsica, a
31 French island in the Mediterranean Sea, where fruit growing is an important economic resource ([Odar,
32 2022](#)).

33 In such programs, the deployment of SIT includes several major steps: mass production of insects,
34 sexing (with *C. capitata*, sexing can be effectively achieved thanks to a special strain ([Caceres, 2002](#))),
35 sterilization and finally release of sterile insects into the environment. Sterilization is a crucial step,
36 usually carried out through the irradiation of insect pupae with gamma rays. In many insect groups,
37 such irradiations not only sterilize the insects, but also lead to a decrease in competitiveness ([Dyck *et al.*,
38 2005](#)). Indeed, it can damage many physiological processes leading to a reduction in survival, flight
39 capacity and to the development of malformations ([Guerfali *et al.*, 2011](#)). At best, it is then necessary
40 to release an even greater number of sterile insects to ensure the effectiveness of the technique ([Robinson
41 *et al.*, 2002](#)). At worst, the sterile insects fail to attract and mate with wild insects, which makes the
42 releases useless, especially for species such as *C. capitata*, in which females choose males to mate ([Arita
43 and Kaneshiro, 1985](#)). However, the timing of irradiation can be adjusted to preserve sterilized insect
44 competitiveness ([Hooper, 1971](#)). Indeed, insects are usually less damaged when irradiation is performed
45 shortly after adult emergence ([Estal *et al.*, 1986](#)), but the logistic of irradiating and deploying adult flies
46 is difficult to implement. Therefore, insects are usually irradiated at pupal stage. The irradiation dose
47 must be as low as possible to maintain the competitiveness of sterile individuals, while maintaining the
48 sterilization efficiency ([Parker and Mehta, 2007](#)). If the insects receive too low a dose, a significant part
49 of them may escape sterilization. This leads to the release of fertile individuals into the environment
50 that can be extremely damaging, as they increase the reproductive potential of the wild population and
51 reduce the rate at which the population is suppressed ([Dyck *et al.*, 2005](#)). This proportion of non-sterile
52 insects released is called residual fertility. The recommended sterility percentage for a SIT program is
53 over 99.5% ([FAO/IAEA/USDA, 2003](#)). A dose inducing 100% sterility is rarely used due to the excessive
54 damage it causes to insects ([Robinson, 2005](#); [Bakri and Mehta, 2005](#)).

55 A main challenge is hence to determine how low the residual fertility rate should be to ensure pest
56 control is achievable in the field. The question is thus to predict the residual fertility threshold, i.e. the
57 maximal proportion of fertile irradiated males that can be accepted without threatening SIT effectiveness.
58 Modeling represents an essential and efficient tool to tackle this issue. Indeed, modeling can guide field
59 deployment, which is costly and time-consuming. Models of SIT have been developed for many years
60 ([Knippling, 1955](#); [Dyck *et al.*, 2021](#)), but only a few models focusing on *C. capitata* have been implemented
61 ([Carey, 1982](#); [Messoussi *et al.*, 2007](#); [Manoukis and Hoffman, 2014](#)), and very few modeling studies
62 have looked at residual fertility. [Klassen and Creech \(1971\)](#) constructed a numerical model in which
63 a proportion of the released males remained fertile. They modified the model developed by [Knippling
64 \(1955\)](#) and concluded that if the proportion of fertile males in the release is greater than the inverse of
65 the population growth rate, the population can no longer be controlled by sterile releases. In another
66 approach, [Aronna and Dumont \(2020\)](#) showed that SIT can only be successful if the residual fertility is
67 below $1/\mathcal{R}$ where \mathcal{R} is the basic reproduction number in relation to the reproductive potential of the pest
68 population. The success of SIT is expressed as the theoretical possibility of eradicating the population
69 by evaluating if the pest-free equilibrium is stable. This model was applied to two pest species: *Aedes
70 albopictus* and *Bactrocera dorsalis*. A recent study focusing on *Ceratitidis capitata* and examining the

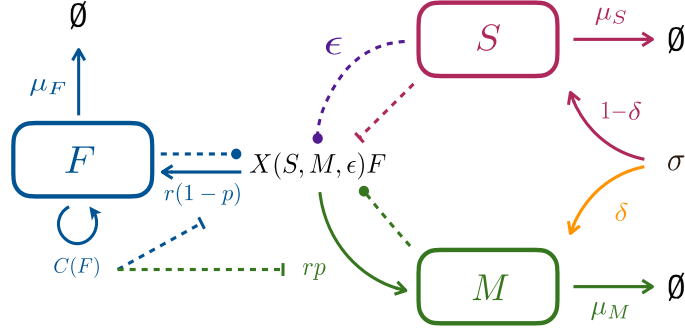


Figure 1: Flow diagram of the population dynamics model (1). The compartments (and color code) correspond to sterilized males S (pink), wild females F (blue) and wild males M (green). Solid arrows correspond to flows, dotted arrows to activating (round tip) or inhibiting effects (bar tip). Irradiated males are released at rate σ . Among these males, a proportion δ (orange) or ϵ (purple) may remain fertile, without or with associated fitness costs, respectively. Reproduction is represented by the emergence rate r , the proportion of males among offspring p , and the proportion of successful matings X . The latter increases with the density of wild males and fertile irradiated males (ϵS), but decreases with the density of sterile males. Competition among females $C(F)$ reduces the emergence rate. Finally, all compartments are affected by specific mortality rates μ .

71 impact of residual fertility and female re-mating, confirmed the threshold found in [Aronna and Dumont](#)
72 [\(2020\)](#) for achieving population elimination ([Dumont and Oliva, 2023](#)).

73 In this work, we built a generic population dynamics model of SIT with sterilized males S , wild females
74 F and wild males M compartments, from which we derived a sub-model without residual fertility and two
75 concurrent sub-models, both incorporating residual fertility but with or without fitness costs associated to
76 irradiation. In order to determine whether SIT is effective or not, bifurcation analyses were carried out
77 to study the population control capacities associated with each sub-model. Numerical simulations were
78 performed with parameter values specific to *C. capitata* to best account for the biology of the species.

79 In section 2, the general model and the residual fertility sub-models are presented. The general
80 model is studied to determine its equilibria, their stabilities and the associated bifurcations. Section 3 is
81 dedicated to the study of the residual fertility sub-models, calibrated with *C. capitata* parameter values,
82 highlighting the impact of residual fertility and fitness costs. Finally, in section 4, we summarize and
83 discuss the main results obtained.

84 2 Model

85 2.1 Model description

86 2.1.1 General model

87 The model represents the population dynamics of the following three compartments: sterilized males S ,
88 wild females F and wild males M (Fig. 1). It is defined as follows:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{S} = -\mu_S S + (1 - \delta)\sigma, \\ \dot{F} = -\mu_F F + r(1 - p)X(S, M, \epsilon)C(F)F, \\ \dot{M} = -\mu_M M + rpX(S, M, \epsilon)C(F)F + \delta\sigma. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

89 with the dot representing time derivative.

90 The dynamics of sterilized males S are affected by their mortality μ_S and the release rate σ . Among
91 σ releases, only a proportion $(1 - \delta)$ of genuinely sterilized males is added to the compartment. The
92 dynamics of wild females F are affected by their mortality μ_F and the emergence of new females. The
93 latter is determined by the product of the emergence rate r , the proportion of females among the offspring
94 $(1 - p)$, the proportion of successful matings $X(S, M, \epsilon)$, as well as the competition between females for
95 oviposition $C(F)$, all of it multiplied by the number of females engaged in reproduction F . Finally, the
96 dynamics of wild males M are affected by their mortality μ_M , the emergence of new males, which is

97 identical to that of females up to the proportion of male offspring (complementary to that of female
 98 offspring) and a proportion of released males. Indeed, we assumed that the proportion δ of males among
 99 σ releases, that have been irradiated but remain fertile, directly contributes to the wild male population.
 100 We considered that wild individuals have a lower mortality rate than sterilized ones: $\mu_M \leq \mu_S$. Hence,
 101 fitness costs are expressed both in higher mortality and lower attractiveness.

102 We assumed that the proportion of successful matings $X(S, M, \epsilon)$ depends on both the density of
 103 fertile males and the density of attractive males. Fertile males correspond to wild males and a proportion
 104 ϵ of irradiated males. Attractive males correspond to wild and irradiated males, with a potential decrease
 105 in attractiveness linked to the η parameter for irradiated males. This corresponds to the biological
 106 characteristics of the species *C. capitata*, whose males aggregate and form leks in order to attract females
 107 for mating (Prokopy and Hendrichs, 1979). Thus, attractive males must be numerous enough to attract
 108 females. By being numerous and attractive, effectively sterilized males can cause a strong dilution effect,
 109 drastically reducing the number of successful matings. These biological hypotheses on the proportion of
 110 successful matings can be summarized as follows:

- 111 • $0 \leq X(S, M, \epsilon) \leq 1$
- 112 • $X(0, 0, \epsilon) = 0$
- 113 • $X(S, M, \epsilon)$ is increasing in M , concave in M and such that $\lim_{M \rightarrow +\infty} X(S, M, \epsilon) = 1$

114 The first point signifies that X is a proportion, the second one that in the absence of males, no repro-
 115 duction can take place, and the third one that the more wild males there are, the more reproduction
 116 succeeds. As an example, the proportion of successful matings can be expressed as the following function:

$$X(S, M, \epsilon) = \frac{M + \epsilon\eta S}{k + M + \eta S}. \quad (2)$$

117 where $k > 0$ is a constant representing the cost of being too few males and η represents the attractiveness
 118 of sterilized males. Non-zero k accounts for reduced mating at small male density linked to the associated
 119 difficulty of forming leks for *C. capitata*. In addition, we hypothesized that irradiated males suffer from
 120 a lack of attractiveness $\eta \in [0, 1]$.

121 The competition function $C(F)$ is a non-negative decreasing function. This feature corresponds to
 122 the competition among *C. capitata* females for oviposition (access to egg-laying sites) and thus affects the
 123 emergence rate (Papadopoulos *et al.*, 2009). Possible forms for $C(F)$ include: $\frac{1}{1+\beta F}$ which is a Beverton
 124 and Holt-like function, $e^{-\beta F}$ which is a Ricker-like function and $1 - \frac{F}{K}$ which is a logistic-like competition
 125 function, where β represents the competition strength and K the biotic capacity (Hastings and Gross,
 126 2012). All these functions have the following characteristics:

- 127 • $C(0) = 1$ and $C(F)$ is a decreasing function
- 128 • $1/C(F)$ is convex

129 Among such functions, we will focus on the following explicit form:

$$C(F) = \frac{1}{1 + \beta F}. \quad (3)$$

130 where β represents the competition strength among females. In the model, in all cases $1/C(F)$ is strictly
 131 convex or $X(S, M, \epsilon)$ is strictly concave in M , or both.

132 To determine the general model equilibria and their stability in sections 2.2.1 to 2.2.3, we considered
 133 $X(S, M, \epsilon)$ and $C(F)$ satisfying the above hypotheses. For the residual fertility sub-models in section 2.1.2
 134 and the bifurcation analysis in section 2.2.4, we chose X and C as in (2) and (3) respectively.

135 2.1.2 Residual fertility sub-models

136 In order to study the impact of residual fertility, i.e. the proportion of non-sterile irradiated males
 137 released, associated or not with fitness costs, we considered three cases extracted from general model (1).

138 Firstly, the case where $\delta = \epsilon = 0$ corresponds to a basic situation with no residual fertility. The
 139 explicit form of this sub-model called ‘‘Perfect sterilization’’ is as follows:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{S} = -\mu_S S + \sigma, \\ \dot{F} = -\mu_F F + r(1-p) \frac{M}{k+M+\eta S} \frac{1}{1+\beta F} F, \\ \dot{M} = -\mu_M M + rp \frac{M}{k+M+\eta S} \frac{1}{1+\beta F} F. \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

140 Secondly, we considered the existence of residual fertility without associated fitness costs. The fertile
 141 irradiated males are considered as fit as wild males in terms of attractiveness and survival, and are
 142 therefore introduced in the M compartment of the model. This case corresponds to $\epsilon = 0$ and $0 < \delta < 1$.
 143 The explicit form of this sub-model called ‘‘Cost-free residual fertility’’ is:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{S} = -\mu_S S + (1-\delta)\sigma, \\ \dot{F} = -\mu_F F + r(1-p) \frac{M}{k+M+\eta S} \frac{1}{1+\beta F} F, \\ \dot{M} = -\mu_M M + rp \frac{M}{k+M+\eta S} \frac{1}{1+\beta F} F + \delta\sigma. \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

144 And thirdly, we considered the existence of residual fertility with associated fitness costs. All irra-
 145 diated males, even if they are fertile, suffer from a lack of competitiveness (i.e. attractiveness) which is
 146 represented by parameter η in the mating function, and have a higher mortality rate compared to wild
 147 males. Therefore, fertile irradiated males remain in the S compartment. This case corresponds to $\delta = 0$
 148 and $0 < \epsilon < 1$. The explicit form of this sub-model called ‘‘Costly residual fertility’’ is:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{S} = -\mu_S S + \sigma, \\ \dot{F} = -\mu_F F + r(1-p) \frac{M + \epsilon\eta S}{k+M+\eta S} \frac{1}{1+\beta F} F, \\ \dot{M} = -\mu_M M + rp \frac{M + \epsilon\eta S}{k+M+\eta S} \frac{1}{1+\beta F} F. \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

149 These three sub-models: ‘‘Perfect sterilization’’ (4), ‘‘Cost-free residual fertility’’ (5) and ‘‘Costly
 150 residual fertility’’ (6), correspond to an increasing gradient of biological realism.

151 2.2 Model analysis

152 In this section, we carry out an equilibrium search and stability study on the general model (1), as the
 153 analyses on the three sub-models detailed in 2.1.2 are similar.

154 Under the above mentioned hypotheses the model (1) is biologically well-posed: S , F and M remain
 155 non-negative for positive time if their initial conditions are non-negative. The \dot{S} equation is actually
 156 decoupled from the other two, and we assumed that S reaches its equilibrium $S^* = \frac{(1-\delta)\sigma}{\mu_S}$ very fast.
 157 Thus, we only considered the (F, M) subsystem. For readability reasons, we rewrite $X(S^*, M, \epsilon)$ as
 158 $X(M)$.

159 2.2.1 Reproduction numbers

160 From the second equation of the general model (1) with $\sigma = 0$, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\dot{F}}{F} &= -\mu_F + r(1-p)X(M)C(F), \\ &\leq -\mu_F + r(1-p)\sup_M(X(M))C(0), \\ &\leq -\mu_F + r(1-p). \end{aligned}$$

161 This inequation is used to introduce the maximal reproduction number for females:

$$\mathcal{R}_F = \frac{r(1-p)}{\mu_F}. \quad (7)$$

162 \mathcal{R}_F is the average number of females produced by a female during its lifetime when males M are not
 163 limiting and female competition is neglected. A necessary condition for the female population to not go
 164 extinct is that \mathcal{R}_F be greater than 1.

165 From the third equation of (1), we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\dot{M}}{M} &= -\mu_M + rp\frac{X(M)}{M}C(F)F, \\ &\leq -\mu_M + rpX'(0)\sup_{F \geq 0}(C(F)F),\end{aligned}$$

because $X(M)$ is concave in M . This inequation allows to introduce the maximal reproduction number for males:

$$\mathcal{R}_M = \frac{rpX'(0)\sup_{F \geq 0}(C(F)F)}{\mu_M}.$$

166 With the explicit expressions of $X(M)$ (2) and $C(F)$ (3), we get:

$$\mathcal{R}_M = \frac{rp}{\beta k \mu_M}. \quad (8)$$

167 \mathcal{R}_M is the average number of males produced by a male during its lifetime for the optimal number of
168 females in the population maximizing $C(F)F$. A necessary condition for the male population to not go
169 extinct is that \mathcal{R}_M be greater than 1.

170 2.2.2 Equilibria

171 For the (F, M) subsystem at $S = S^*$, equilibria of system (1) are the solutions of the following equations:

$$\begin{cases} F(-\mu_F + r(1-p)X(M)C(F)) = 0, \\ -\mu_M M + rpX(M)C(F)F + \delta\sigma = 0. \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

172 Population densities at equilibrium hence verify $F^* = 0$ or $X(M^*)C(F^*) = \frac{\mu_F}{r(1-p)} = \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$ from the first
173 equation of (9).

174 **Pest-free equilibrium** We easily deduce the pest-free equilibrium $(F^*, M^*) = (0, \frac{\delta\sigma}{\mu_M})$. When $\delta = 0$ it
175 is a true pest-free equilibrium of the form $(0, 0)$, whereas when $\delta > 0$ the male compartment is maintained
176 by non-sterile males within the releases.

177 **Infestation equilibria** The other equilibria must satisfy:

$$X(M)C(F) = \frac{\mu_F}{r(1-p)} = \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}. \quad (10)$$

178 Injecting (10) into the second equation of (9), we obtain:

$$M(F) = \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F + \frac{\delta\sigma}{\mu_M}. \quad (11)$$

179 Replacing M in (10) by its value in (11), we get an equation that only depends on the female density:

$$X(M(F))C(F) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}. \quad (12)$$

180 As $X(M(F))$ is concave and $1/C(F)$ is convex, this equation has 2, 1 or no solutions (Appendix A). We
181 note $G(F) = X(M(F))C(F)$ and detail these different cases below.

182 (i) If $G(0) < \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$ and $\max(G(F)) > \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$ (Fig. 2A) there are two solutions $F_2^* > F_1^* > 0$, such that
183 $\frac{dG}{dF}(F_1^*) > 0$ and $\frac{dG}{dF}(F_2^*) < 0$. We then have two infestation equilibria (F_1^*, M_1^*) and (F_2^*, M_2^*) .

184 (ii) If $G(0) > \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$ (Fig. 2B) there is only one solution, at which $\frac{dG}{dF} < 0$. This solution is named F_2^*
185 and corresponds to the infestation equilibrium (F_2^*, M_2^*) .

186 In the perfect sterilization case corresponding to model (4): $X(M(0)) = X(0) = 0$, so $G(0) = 0$
187 and this second situation cannot happen.

188 (iii) If $G(F) < \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$, $\forall F > 0$, there is no solution, so there is no infestation equilibrium.

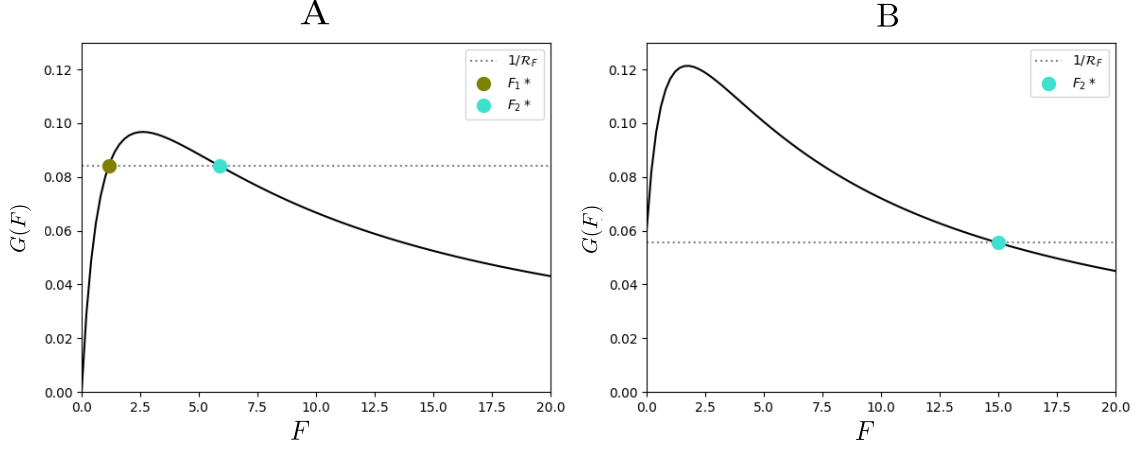


Figure 2: Female density values at the infestation equilibria of model (1). They correspond to the intersections of function $G(F)$ (in black), and the horizontal dotted line $1/\mathcal{R}_F$ (in grey). The two simulated cases correspond to different parameter values. Case A: when $G(0) < \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$ and $\max(G(F)) > \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$, there are two infestation equilibria F_1^* and F_2^* . Case B: when $G(0) > \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$, there is only one infestation equilibrium F_2^* .

189 2.2.3 Local stability of equilibria

190 We consider the Jacobian matrix of the (F, M) subsystem at $S = S^*$ of general model (1):

$$J_{(F,M)} = \begin{pmatrix} -\mu_F + r(1-p)X(M)(C'(F)F + C(F)) & r(1-p)C(F)X'(M)F \\ rpX(M)(C'(F)F + C(F)) & -\mu_M + rpC(F)X'(M)F \end{pmatrix}$$

191 **Pest-free equilibrium** At the pest-free equilibrium $(0, \frac{\delta\sigma}{\mu_M}) = (0, M(0))$:

$$J_{(0,M(0))} = \begin{pmatrix} -\mu_F + r(1-p)X(M(0)) & 0 \\ rpX(M(0)) & -\mu_M \end{pmatrix}$$

192 So $(0, M(0))$ is locally asymptotically stable if $X(M(0)) < \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$, i.e. $G(0) < \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$. This corresponds to
193 cases (i) and (iii) above: there are no infestation equilibria or two infestation equilibria.

194 **Infestation equilibria** At the positive equilibria (F^*, M^*) , the Jacobian is:

$$J_{(F^*,M^*)} = \begin{pmatrix} -\mu_F + r(1-p)X(M^*)(C'(F^*)F^* + C(F^*)) & r(1-p)C(F^*)X'(M^*)F^* \\ rpX(M^*)(C'(F^*)F^* + C(F^*)) & -\mu_M + rpC(F^*)X'(M^*)F^* \end{pmatrix}$$

195 The nullcline $r(1-p)X(M)C(F) = \mu_F$ from system (9) allows us to simplify the matrix, as follows:

$$J_{(F^*,M^*)} = \begin{pmatrix} r(1-p)X(M^*)C'(F^*)F^* & r(1-p)C(F^*)X'(M^*)F^* \\ rpX(M^*)(C'(F^*)F^* + C(F^*)) & -\mu_M + rpC(F^*)X'(M^*)F^* \end{pmatrix}$$

196 To determine the stability of the positive equilibria, we compute the trace and the determinant of this
197 matrix.

198 For the trace, the other nullcline $rpX(M)C(F)F + \delta\sigma = \mu_M M$ from system (9), allows us to obtain:

$$J_{(F^*,M^*)} = \begin{pmatrix} r(1-p)X(M^*)C'(F^*)F^* & r(1-p)C(F^*)X'(M^*)F^* \\ rpX(M^*)(C'(F^*)F^* + C(F^*)) & -\frac{rpX(M^*)C(F^*)F^* + \delta\sigma}{M^*} + rpC(F^*)X'(M^*)F^* \end{pmatrix}$$

199 The computation of the trace yields:

$$\text{Tr}(J_{(F^*,M^*)}) = r(1-p)X(M^*)C'(F^*)F^* - \frac{\delta\sigma}{M^*} + rpC(F^*)F^* \left(X'(M^*) - \frac{X(M^*)}{M^*} \right)$$

200 The first two terms are negative since $C(F)$ is decreasing. Furthermore, as $X(M)$ is concave, the last
201 term is nonpositive. Indeed:

$$X(M^*) = X(0) + \int_0^{M^*} X'(M)dM \geq \int_0^{M^*} X'(M^*)dM = M^* X'(M^*)$$

202 since $X(0) \geq 0$ and $X'(M) \geq X'(M^*)$, for all $M \leq M^*$. Therefore, the trace is negative.

203 Regarding the determinant, we get (Appendix B):

$$\text{Det}(J_{(F^*, M^*)}) = -r(1-p)\mu_M F^* \cdot \frac{dG}{dF}(F^*)$$

204 Therefore the sign of the slope of $G(F)$ at equilibrium determines the stability.

205 Exploiting the properties of F_1^* and F_2^* defined in cases (i) and (ii), we conclude that the infestation
206 equilibrium (F_1^*, M_1^*) is unstable and (F_2^*, M_2^*) is asymptotically stable.

207 **Summary: equilibria and local stability**

208 (i) If $G(0) < \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$ and $\max(G(F)) > \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$, there are three equilibria: the infestation equilibrium (F_1^*, M_1^*)
209 is unstable, while the pest-free equilibrium $(0, M(0))$ and the other infestation equilibrium (F_2^*, M_2^*)
210 are asymptotically stable.

211 (ii) If $G(0) > \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$, there are two equilibria: the pest-free equilibrium $(0, M(0))$ is unstable and the
212 unique infestation equilibrium (F_2^*, M_2^*) is asymptotically stable. This situation cannot occur for
213 the perfect sterilization sub-model (4).

214 (iii) If $G(F) < \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$ for all $F \geq 0$, there is only one equilibrium, the pest-free equilibrium $(0, M(0))$,
215 which is asymptotically stable.

216 **2.2.4 Bifurcation diagram**

217 The aim of this section is to determine the effect of the release rate of irradiated males σ on the long-
218 term population dynamics. A convenient way to address this issue is to compute a bifurcation diagram.
219 In an agricultural context, it is important to focus on the population dynamics of females, as they are
220 the ones which cause agricultural damages. So, we chose to represent the bifurcation diagram linking
221 the density of females F^* to the release rate σ . An expression of σ as a function of F^* was deduced
222 from equations (10) and (12), taking explicit expressions for $X(S, M, \epsilon)$ (2) and $C(F)$ (3) described in
223 section 2.1.1. Detailed calculations can be found in Appendix C. Thus $\sigma(F^*)$ can be expressed as follows
224 for the general model (1):

$$\sigma(F^*) = \frac{\frac{\beta p \mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M} (F^*)^2 + \left(\frac{p \mu_F (1-\mathcal{R}_F)}{(1-p)\mu_M} + \beta k \right) F^* + k}{\frac{\mathcal{R}_F \delta}{\mu_M} + \frac{\mathcal{R}_F \epsilon \eta (1-\delta)}{\mu_S} - \left(\frac{\delta}{\mu_M} + \frac{\eta (1-\delta)}{\mu_S} \right) - \left(\frac{\delta}{\mu_M} + \frac{\eta (1-\delta)}{\mu_S} \right) \beta F^*} \quad (13)$$

225 The bifurcation diagram corresponds to the locus of the points $(\sigma(F^*), F^*)$ (Fig. 3). The effect of the
226 residual fertility can be estimated according to how parameter δ or ϵ affect the shape of this bifurcation
227 diagram. We proceeded in two stages to study $\sigma(F^*)$: firstly, the numerator, then the denominator.

228 **$\sigma(F^*)$ numerator** The numerator is a second degree polynomial in F^* that does not depend on δ
229 and ϵ . The roots of the numerator (F_A^* and F_B^*) then always represent the F^* equilibria for $\sigma = 0$,
230 independently of δ and ϵ , illustrated by crosses in Fig. 3. The roots were determined classically after
231 calculating the discriminant. We show in Appendix D that the discriminant is positive and both roots are
232 positive when (D.20) holds ; a sufficient condition for this is that the harmonic mean of the reproduction
233 number of females and males is greater than 4:

$$H(\mathcal{R}_M, \mathcal{R}_F) > 4.$$

234 It is a stronger condition than $\mathcal{R}_M > 1$ and $\mathcal{R}_F > 1$, that were identified as necessary conditions to avoid
235 extinction of male and female populations. For this bifurcation study, we assume that this condition
236 holds. The numerator is hence negative between F_A^* and F_B^* , positive outside.

237 **$\sigma(F^*)$ denominator** The denominator of (13) can cancel out which leads to the existence of an asymp-
238 tote and several shapes for the σ bifurcation diagram. The denominator equals zero for values of F^* ,
239 named F_-^* , such that:

$$F_-^*(\delta, \epsilon) = \frac{1}{\beta} \left(\frac{\mathcal{R}_F \delta \mu_S + \mu_M \mathcal{R}_F \epsilon \eta (1-\delta)}{\delta \mu_S + \mu_M \eta (1-\delta)} - 1 \right) \quad (14)$$

240 It can be easily shown that F_-^* is increasing in δ and ϵ . Without residual fertility ($\epsilon = 0$ or $\delta = 0$), F_-^* is
 241 negative and smaller than F_A^* . When all released males are fertile ($\epsilon = 1$ or $\delta = 1$), F_-^* goes up to $\frac{\mathcal{R}_F - 1}{\beta}$,
 242 which is larger than $F_A^* + F_B^*$ (D.21). Therefore, when the residual fertility (ϵ or δ) is large enough, F_-^*
 243 is larger than F_A^* and F_B^* . The denominator is negative above the asymptote.

244 **Bifurcation diagram shape** A bifurcation diagram of F^* as a function of the release rate σ is deter-
 245 mined for fixed residual fertility rates. The shape of the bifurcation diagram depends on the value of the
 246 asymptote F_-^* , and in particular its position in relation to the two roots F_A^* and F_B^* of the numerator
 247 of (13). The stability of the different branches is deduced from section 2.2.3: when there are two infes-
 248 tation equilibria, the smaller is always unstable and the larger stable; when there is only one infestation
 249 equilibrium, it is always stable (Fig. 3). The asymptotic behavior of the model is therefore extremely
 250 dependent on both the release rate and the residual fertility of released individuals (Fig. 4).

251 In the perfect sterilization case, when $\delta = \epsilon = 0$ (sub-model (4)), $F_-^*(0, 0) = -1/\beta$, the denominator
 252 of (13) is always negative, and the bifurcation diagrams generated has no non-negative asymptote. The
 253 sign of $\sigma(F^*)$ is the opposite of the sign of the numerator of (13); it is therefore positive for F^* between F_A^*
 254 and F_B^* and negative elsewhere. A similar reasoning applies for low residual fertility rates. It corresponds
 255 to shape A' in Fig. 3. With regard to stability, as the release rate σ increases, a zone of bistability
 256 precedes a zone where only the pest-free equilibrium is stable (Fig. 4).

257 As δ or ϵ increases so does $F_-^*(\delta, \epsilon)$, which eventually becomes positive and smaller than F_A^* ; the
 258 denominator of (13) is then negative between $F^* = 0$ and F_-^* , as is the numerator. A second positive
 259 branch of $\sigma(F^*)$ thus appears between $F^* = 0$ and F_-^* , which converges from below towards a horizontal
 260 asymptote in F_-^* . $\sigma(F^*)$ remains positive between F_A^* and F_B^* . It corresponds to shape B' in Fig. 3.
 261 With regard to stability, as the release rate σ increases, three zones follow one another: a bistability
 262 zone, a zone where only the pest-free equilibrium is stable, and finally a zone where only the infestation
 263 equilibrium is stable (Fig. 4).

264 While δ or ϵ increases further, F_-^* gets larger than F_A^* which causes a drastic change in the bifur-
 265 cation diagram. There are positive branches below F_A^* and between F_-^* and F_B^* where the numerator
 266 and denominator of (13) have the same sign, with now convergence to the asymptote from above. It
 267 corresponds to shape C' in Fig. 3. With regard to stability, as the release rate σ increases, a zone of
 268 bistability precedes a zone where only the infestation equilibrium is stable (Fig. 4).

269 Finally, when δ or ϵ increases even further, F_-^* gets larger than F_B^* . The positive upper branch
 270 increases now from F_B^* and converges to F_-^* from below. It corresponds to shape D' in Fig. 3. With
 271 regard to stability, as the release rate σ increases, a zone of bistability precedes a zone where only the
 272 infestation equilibrium is stable (Fig. 4). This infestation equilibrium is characterized by an increase in
 273 female density as compared with a situation without releases.

274 It is possible to summarise the different dynamics occurring when both a component of residual
 275 fertility (ϵ or σ) and the release rate σ vary. This co-dimension 2 bifurcation diagram is sketched in
 276 Fig. 4.

277 3 Application to *Ceratitis capitata*

278 In this section, results focus on the analysis and comparison of the residual fertility sub-models presented
 279 in section 2.1.2. The parameter values used to perform the simulations were taken from the published
 280 literature and are listed in Table 1. Data and calculations related to the mortality rates, emergence rate
 281 and oviposition competition coefficient are detailed in Appendix E.

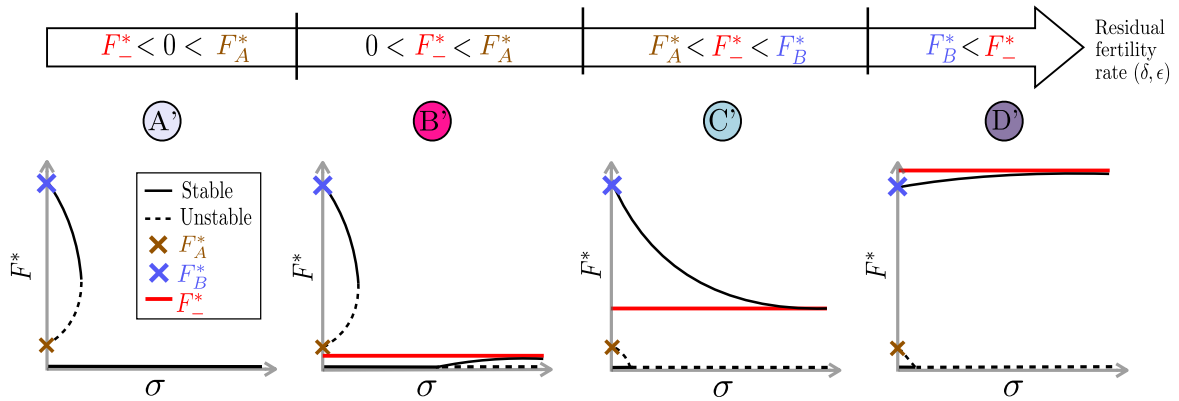


Figure 3: Qualitative σ -bifurcation diagram for sub-models with cost-free residual fertility (5) or costly residual fertility (6). The diagram, representing the density of females F^* as a function of the release rate σ , has four different shapes (A', B', C' and D') corresponding to increasing values of the residual fertility rate (δ or ϵ from 0 to 1). For sub-model with perfect sterilization (4), only shape A' applies. Stable equilibria are represented by solid lines, and unstable by dashed lines. The red line corresponds to asymptote F_-^* (14) and the crosses to the roots of the numerator of $\sigma(F^*)$ (13). These shapes do not reproduce parameter values, but are sketched manually for understanding purposes.

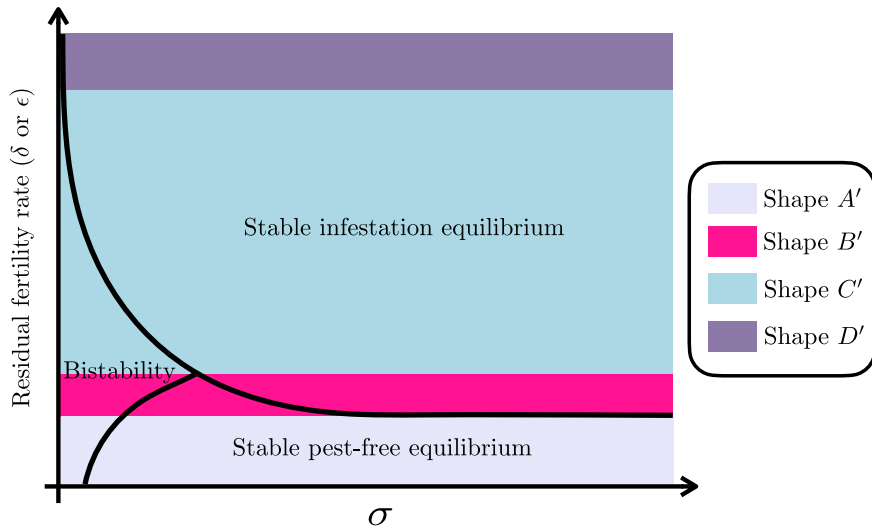


Figure 4: Stability zones as a function of the residual fertility rate δ or ϵ and the release rate σ . Three zones are defined by the black curve: the bistability zone, both the pest-free and the infestation equilibria are stable; in the other zones, only one of the two is stable. The colored areas are associated with the different shapes of bifurcation diagrams depicted in Fig. 3. The graphic was hand-drawn.

Table 1: Model parameters.

| Parameters | Descriptions | Values & [Range] | Units |
|------------|---|-----------------------|---|
| μ_F | Female mortality rate ^{1,6} | 0.050 [0.018 - 0.083] | day ⁻¹ |
| μ_M | Male mortality rate ^{1,6} | 0.036 [0.014 - 0.057] | day ⁻¹ |
| μ_S | Sterilized male mortality rate ^{2,6} | 0.057 [0.037 - 0.077] | day ⁻¹ |
| p | Sex ratio ³ | 0.500 [0.450 - 0.550] | - |
| r | Emergence rate ^{4,6} | 23.7 [19.2 - 28.5] | day ⁻¹ |
| k | Mating half-saturation constant ⁵ | 1 [0.01 - 100] | ind.ha ⁻¹ |
| $1 - \eta$ | Sterilization cost ⁵ | 0.8 [0 - 1] | - |
| β | Oviposition competition between females ⁶ | 0.24 [0.18 - 0.30] | (ind.ha ⁻¹) ⁻¹ |
| σ | Sterilized male release rate ⁷ | 250 [0.01 - 500] | ind.ha ⁻¹ .day ⁻¹ |
| δ | Proportion of non-sterile males among the releases ⁷ (cost-free fertility) | 0.5 [0.01 - 1] | - |
| ϵ | Proportion of non-sterile males among the releases ⁷ (costly fertility) | 0.5 [0.01 - 1] | - |

ind.ha⁻¹ corresponds to individuals per hectare.

¹ Female and male mortality rates are extracted from Vargas *et al.* (2000) and Pieterse *et al.* (2020).

² Sterilized male mortality rate is extracted from Juan-Blasco *et al.* (2013).

³ Sex ratio is deduced from Juan-Blasco *et al.* (2013).

⁴ Emergence rate is calculated from Pieterse *et al.* (2020).

⁵ Arbitrary values.

⁶ Detailed calculations in Appendix E.

⁷ Studied values.

3.1 Population control capacities with SIT deployment

The ability to control pest populations can be deduced from the different shapes of bifurcation diagrams described in section 2.2.4, and thus depends on the residual fertility rate and the fitness cost associated with irradiated males.

Residual fertility impact The existence of residual fertility in the releases has a considerable impact on SIT efficiency. Without residual fertility, by adjusting the release rate σ , it is always possible to only have a stable pest-free equilibrium, and therefore to theoretically go as far as population eradication (Fig. 3, Shape A').

For very low residual fertility rates ($\delta < 5.349 \times 10^{-4}$ for sub-model (5) and $\epsilon < 4.219 \times 10^{-3}$ for sub-model (6)), Shape A' is obtained. SIT can lead to eradication of the pest population by adapting the release rate σ . Indeed, increasing σ makes it possible to move from a bistability zone, where the pest-free equilibrium but also the highest infestation equilibrium are stable, to a zone where only the pest-free equilibrium is stable (Fig. 5, purple zones).

For intermediate residual fertility rates ($5.349 \times 10^{-4} < \delta < 5.353 \times 10^{-4}$ for sub-model (5) and $4.219 \times 10^{-3} < \epsilon < 4.222 \times 10^{-3}$ for sub-model (6)), Shape B' is obtained. SIT can theoretically still lead to pest extinction. By progressively increasing σ , three different zones follow one another: first the bistability zone, then the stable pest-free equilibrium stability zone, and finally the stable infestation equilibrium stability zone (Fig. 5, tiny pink zones). In practice, this shape represents negligible fertility rate ranges as F_A^* is very close to zero.

For medium to high residual fertility rates ($5.353 \times 10^{-4} < \delta < 0.994$ for sub-model (5) and $4.222 \times 10^{-3} < \epsilon < 0.999$ for sub-model (6)), Shape C' is obtained. SIT cannot lead to the eradication of the pest population but, in the best case, to a drastic reduction in its density. Indeed, the stable infestation equilibrium zone follows the bistability zone when σ increases (Fig. 5, blue zones). However, with high sigma values, it is possible to reduce population density by more than 80% (Fig. 6). Obviously, the higher the fertility rate, the less likely it is that the population will be drastically reduced.

For even higher residual fertility rates ($\delta > 0.994$ for sub-model (5) and $\epsilon > 0.999$ for sub-model (6)), Shape D' is obtained. Population growth is enhanced by releases, which is not realistic and has therefore not been represented in this section.

So, in summary, depending on the release rate σ and the residual fertility rate, there are different zones with associated specific stabilities (Fig. 5), resulting in greater or lesser population reduction capacities (Fig. 6). Without residual fertility, by adjusting the value of the release rate it is always possible to

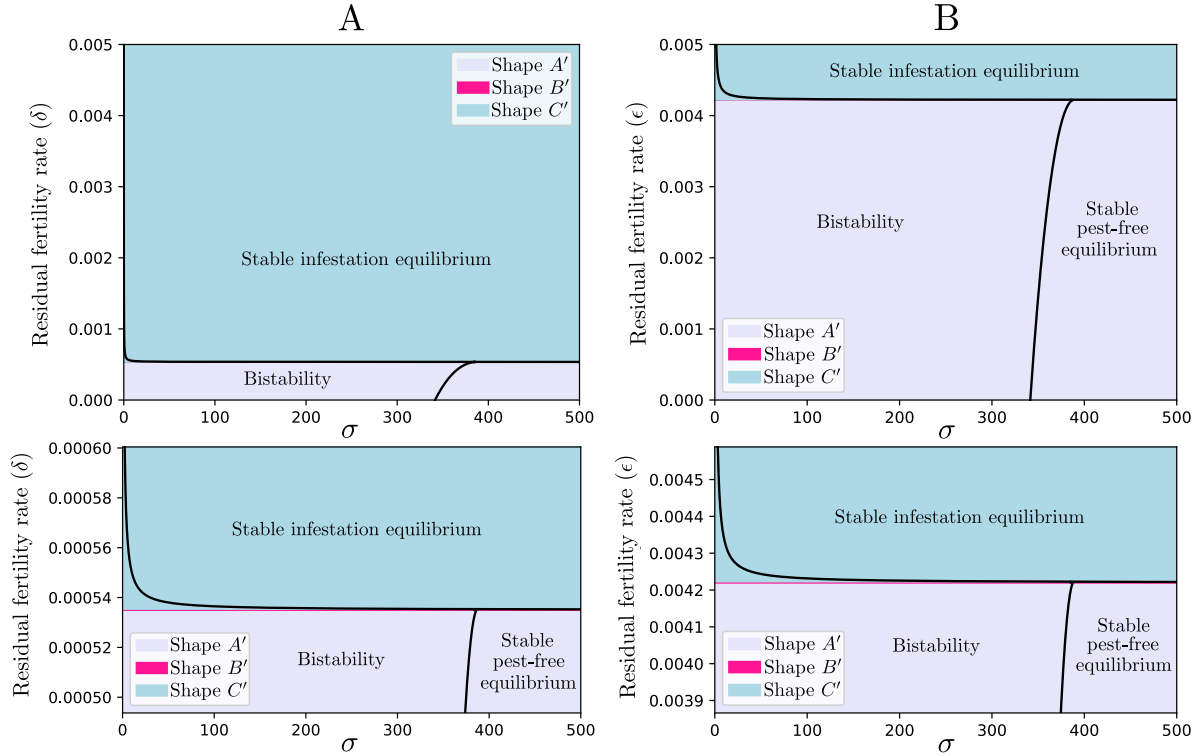


Figure 5: Stability zones as functions of residual fertility δ or ϵ and the release rate σ , for A: cost-free fertility model (5) and B: costly residual fertility model (6). The lower figures correspond to zooms of the upper figures to show the tiny pink area corresponding to Shape B' . Three zones are defined by the black curve: the bistability zone, both the pest-free and the infestation equilibria are stable; in the other zones, only one of the two is stable. The colored areas are associated with the different shapes of bifurcation diagrams depicted in Fig. 3. The scale used does not allow shape D' to be visualized.

314 eradicate the population, whereas with residual fertility the population can only be eradicated for a very
 315 small range of residual fertility rate values (δ or $\epsilon < 0.5\%$).

316 **Fitness cost impact** Whether there is a cost associated with the sterilization process (sub-model (6))
 317 or not (sub-model (5)), the same four bifurcation diagram shapes are obtained (Fig. 3), but for different
 318 residual fertility rates. For example, Shape A' is obtained for higher rates for costly residual fertility
 319 compared to cost-free residual fertility (Fig. 5). In terms of population control potential, with an asso-
 320 ciated cost, the population can be reduced for higher residual fertility rates (Fig. 6). However, in both
 321 cases, when residual fertility rates are too high, population density cannot be controlled, regardless of the
 322 release rate σ . Similarly, for low σ values, population control cannot be achieved whatever the residual
 323 fertility rates.

Residual fertility thresholds to eradicate the population Shape A' (Fig. 3) is the (almost) only
 case for which the pest-free equilibrium can be the only stable equilibrium (shape B' being negligible),
 provided that the release rate is high enough (Fig. 5, purple zones). It is obtained when the asymptote
 F_-^* , defined in (14) is negative, which corresponds to the following residual fertility thresholds for cost-free
 sub-model (5):

$$\delta < \frac{\eta\mu_M}{(\mathcal{R}_F - 1)\mu_S + \eta\mu_M} = 0.001,$$

324 and for costly sub-model (6):

$$\epsilon < \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F} = 0.004. \quad (15)$$

325 This last result generalizes the condition obtained by Aromna and Dumont (2020) for $k = 0$.

326 Both thresholds are very small (less than 0.5%) and arguably hardly achievable in practice. Therefore,
 327 a more realistic goal would be to drastically reduce the population and not aim for eradication.

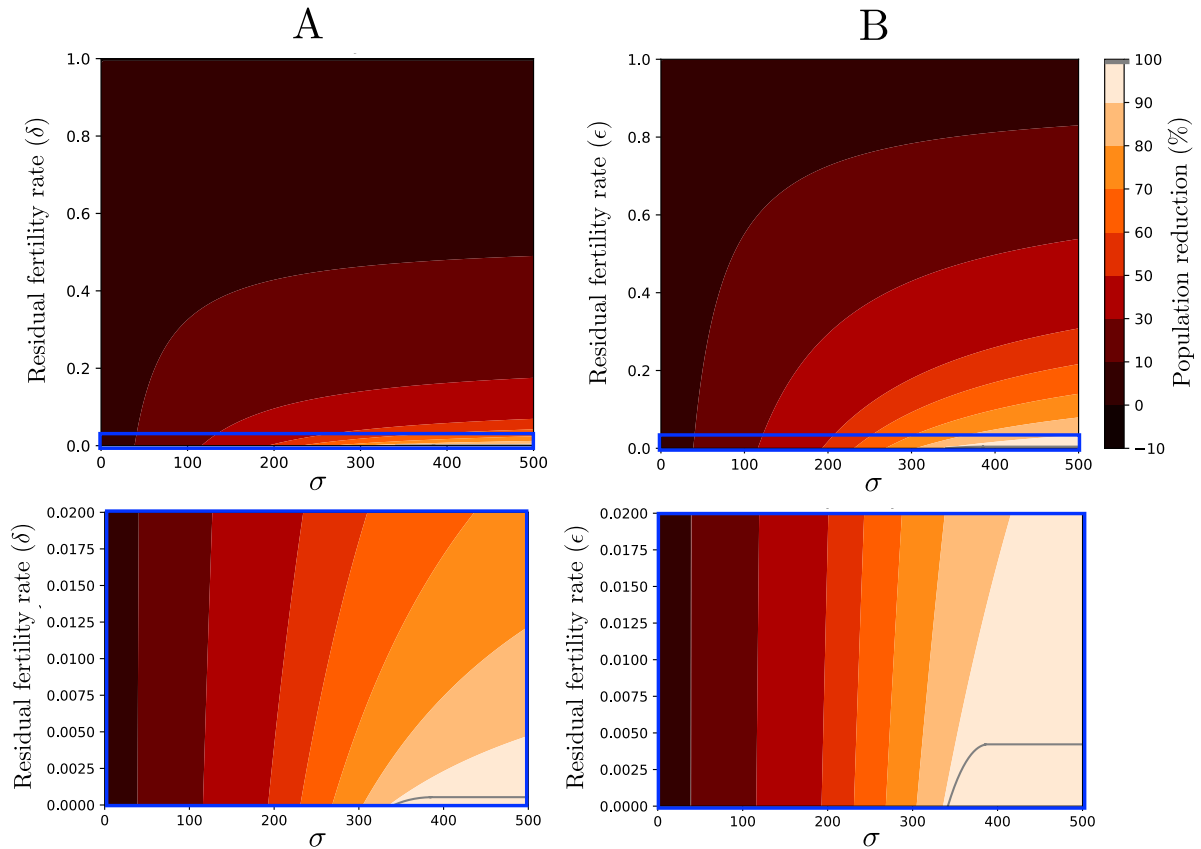


Figure 6: Contour plot illustrating the percentage of population reduction ($1 - q$), with q defined in (16), as a function of the release rate σ and the residual fertility rate, for A: cost-free residual fertility model (sub-model (5)) and B: costly residual fertility model (sub-model (6)). The lower graphs correspond to zooms of the blue boxes in the upper graphs. The grey curve visible on the zoomed-in graphs corresponds to the limit between a 90% reduction and a 100% reduction (eradication) of the population.

328 **Residual fertility thresholds to control the population** When eradication is not possible regard-
 329 less of the release rate, the population reduction must be significant for the technique to be considered
 330 effective. It corresponds to shape C' (Fig. 3), in which the infestation equilibrium decreases towards
 331 the asymptote F_-^* when the release rate increases. Thus, the maximum residual fertility rate allowing a
 332 $(1 - q)$ reduction of the female population density compared to the $\sigma = 0$ case is determined by solving:

$$F_-^* = qF_B^*, \quad (16)$$

333 For instance, a 90% population reduction corresponds to $q = 0.1$.
 For the cost-free sub-model (5), we obtain:

$$\delta = \frac{(q\beta F_B^* + 1)\mu_M\eta}{\mathcal{R}_F\mu_S + (q\beta F_B^* + 1)(\mu_M\eta - \mu_S)}.$$

334 For a 90% female population reduction, this threshold is equal to 0.014.

335 Finally, for the costly sub-model (6), we obtain the following tolerable residual fertility threshold:

$$\epsilon = \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F} + \frac{qF_B^*\beta}{\mathcal{R}_F}. \quad (17)$$

336 The threshold for population control is thus $\frac{qF_B^*\beta}{\mathcal{R}_F}$ higher than the threshold required for population
 337 eradication, it is equal to 0.103.

338 For the particular case where $k = 0$, we obtain:

$$\epsilon = \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F} + q\left(1 - \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}\right), \quad (18)$$

339 so that for a 90% female population reduction, this threshold is equal to 0.104.

340 **Convergence time** To optimize the effectiveness of SIT, it is essential to consider not only the residual
 341 fertility rate, but also the release rate σ . In Fig. 6, for a given residual fertility rate, a range of σ values
 342 will lead to the same population reduction range. However, σ has an influence on the convergence time
 343 to reach a given population reduction range, so that higher σ values allow for faster population control.
 344 For example, a release rate σ ten times higher allows to reach extinction or population reduction much
 345 faster for all sub-models (Fig. 7): 75 days are enough for the higher release rate, but it takes between
 346 200 and 300 days for the lower rate to get close to the equilibrium value, starting from the uncontrolled
 347 infestation equilibrium.

348 3.2 Sensitivity analysis

349 A global sensitivity analysis was performed to determine the most influential parameters on percentage
 350 of female population reduction $(1 - q)$, with q defined in (16), in order to study how to improve pest
 351 population control.

352 We used a variance-based method (Sobol, 1990; Wu *et al.*, 2013). For each parameter, three values
 353 were tested, corresponding to the reference value, plus the minimum and maximum values of the range
 354 specified in Table 1). A full factorial design was used to explore the parameter space. An ANOVA was
 355 then performed to obtain the variance decomposition based on a linear model with two-way interactions
 356 between the output and the parameters. Finally, Sobol Sensitivity Indices (SI) and Total Sensitivity
 357 Indices (TSI) were calculated for each parameter as follows: the SI as the ratio between the sum of
 358 squares of the parameter main effect and the total sum of squares; the TSI as the ratio between the sum
 359 of squares of the parameter main effect plus its interactions and the total sum of squares.

360 The parameter with the greatest influence on female density reduction is the female mortality rate μ_F
 361 with a total sensitivity index greater than 50% (Fig. 8). The competition coefficient between females β
 362 and the emergence rate r , which both relate to the biology of the species, also have a significant influence.
 363 Finally, parameters directly related to SIT - the residual fertility rate (δ or ϵ), the release rate σ and the
 364 cost of sterilization η - also have a major influence on female density reduction. The other parameters,
 365 i.e. male and sterilized male mortality rates (μ_M and μ_S) and the mating half-saturation constant k ,
 366 have a negligible influence compared to the others.

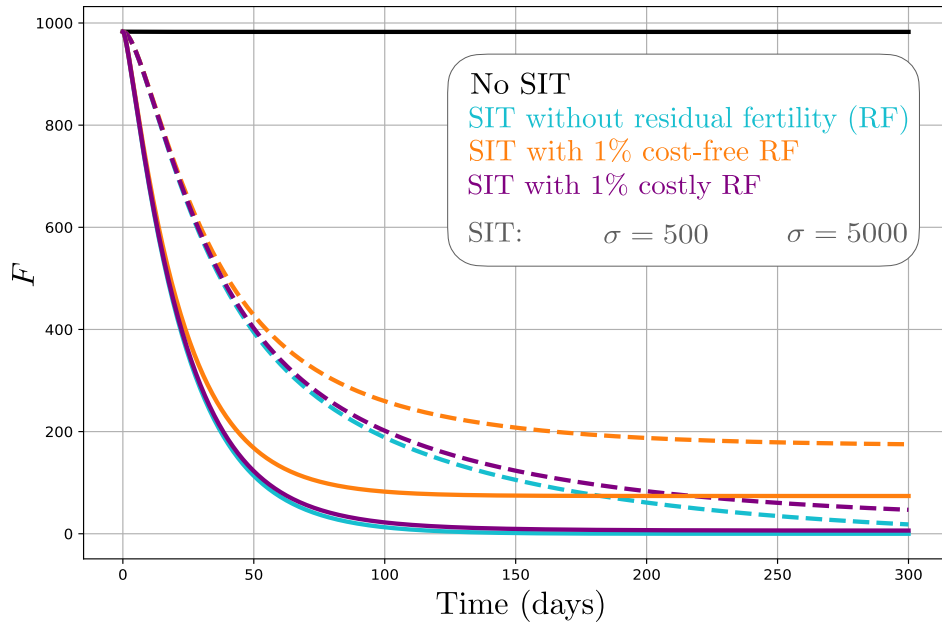


Figure 7: Temporal simulations of female population dynamics (F). Four cases are considered: no SIT (black curve), SIT without residual fertility (blue curves), SIT with 1% cost-free residual fertility (orange curves) and SIT with 1% costly residual fertility (purple curves). The dotted curves were obtained with the release rate $\sigma = 500 \text{ ind.ha}^{-1}.\text{day}^{-1}$ and the solid curves with $\sigma = 5000 \text{ ind.ha}^{-1}.\text{day}^{-1}$.

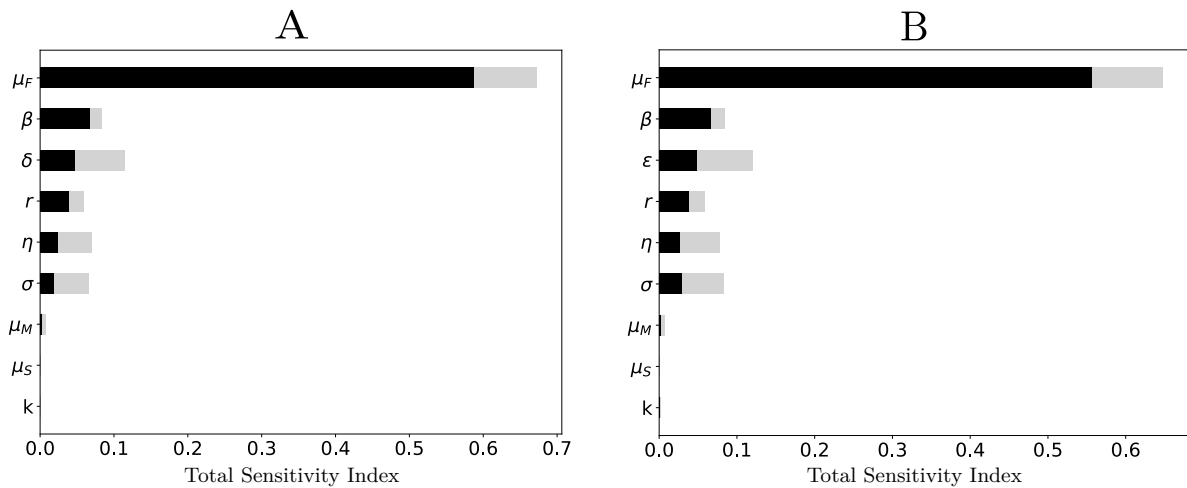


Figure 8: Total sensitivity index per parameter, separated into main effect (black bar, SI) and two-way interactions (grey bar). Sensitivity analysis performed on female density reduction for A: cost-free residual fertility sub-model (5) and B: costly residual fertility sub-model (6).

4 Discussion

We investigated the impact of residual fertility on sterilized male release efficiency in the context of SIT deployment. We showed that, as hypothesized, imperfect sterilization has a significant impact on the effectiveness of SIT. In addition, when a fitness cost is associated with radiation exposure, higher residual fertility rates can be tolerated to achieve effective control of the pest. The analysis carried out shows the impact of residual fertility, and emphasizes the need to better understand the sterilization and release process. Indeed, the fertile released males threaten more the effectiveness of SIT if they present the same phenotypic and behavioral traits as the wild males (cost-free sub-model), rather than when they share their characteristics with the sterilized males (costly sub-model). This analysis shows that it is capital to apprehend the mechanisms underpinning the residual fertility and to understand how the males escaping sterilization are impacted by the different SIT processes (mass-breeding, irradiation, transport and release). Have the irradiated males lost their fitness but have some conserved viable sperm? Or have some males escaped the sterility-inducing rays and retained all their fitness? In a nutshell, our results illustrate the importance of considering not only the sterilized male release rate required to reduce the population density in a timely manner, but also the residual fertility rate and associated fitness costs.

In our study, costs were associated with irradiated males at two levels: firstly, sterilized males had a higher mortality than wild-type males and secondly, a lower mating rate (parameter η). The latter can be due to reduced attractiveness, flight and dispersal capacity (Guerfali *et al.*, 2011), or limited competitiveness (Dyck *et al.*, 2005). The dose needed to induce total sterility in *C. capitata* induces a significant drop in male performance (Robinson *et al.*, 2002), so SIT programs rarely aim at 100% sterility (Parker and Mehta, 2007) and the addition of aromatherapy based on ginger root oil, known to improve the attractiveness of sterile males, is often adopted (Morelli *et al.*, 2013). Aromatherapy has been confirmed as an essential step in the success of SIT against *C. capitata* (Dumont and Oliva, 2023). In this species, the attractiveness of sterilized males is indeed essential, as males gather in leks (Whittier *et al.*, 1992), to court wild females, attract them and finally mate (Shelly and McInnis, 2016). According to our sensitivity analysis, the influence of this η cost on the reduction of population density is significant, which highlights the importance of determining the traits affected by the sterilization process and of quantifying their impact on the male mating capacity. In contrast, the mortality rate of sterilized males, linked to the radiation dose they received, does not have a major influence. This point illustrates the complexity of the trade-off between radiation dose and fitness, and hence competitiveness of irradiated males. Other authors addressed this trade-off issue and suggested that lower doses than those applied to achieve high sterilization rates can optimize SIT, noting that any increase in residual fertility is more than offset by the increased competitiveness of the released insects (Parker and Mehta, 2007). In our study, the sensitivity analysis shows that residual fertility rate (δ or ϵ) has a similar if slightly higher impact on SIT effectiveness compared to sterilization cost ($1 - \eta$), which suggests that increased residual fertility rates could be mitigated by increased irradiated male competitiveness. Other species-specific parameters had a significant influence on population reduction: they were either linked to density-dependence processes (e.g. competition strength) or population growth (e.g. fertility and emergence rate). This underlines the importance of understanding both qualitatively and quantitatively the demographic processes driving the pest population dynamics.

The objective of SIT programs in the agricultural context is to reduce fruit damages, and therefore population levels, below an economic damage threshold (Dyck *et al.*, 2021). This study confirms that the effectiveness of SIT depends largely on the residual fertility rate in the releases (Dyck *et al.*, 2005; Parker and Mehta, 2007; Dumont and Oliva, 2023). The lower the residual fertility rate, the more effective the control. In the majority of theoretical studies, the effectiveness of SIT is associated with a stable pest-free equilibrium and thus with the possibility of eradicating the population (Bliman *et al.*, 2019; Aronna and Dumont, 2020). As Aronna and Dumont (2020), we show that the threshold allowing population eradication in the costly sub-model is $1/\mathcal{R}_F$ (15), which is less than 0.5%. It is even lower for the cost-free residual fertility sub-model. Hence, the possibility of eradicating the population exists only for very low residual fertility rates. However, even if eradication is theoretically impossible, it does not mean that control is impossible and that the technique is useless. Indeed, in the South African SIT program against *C. capitata*, the objective was to bring fly populations below an economic threshold and then create an internationally recognised low pest prevalence area (Zavala-López and Enkerlin, 2017). This can be achieved when the pest-free equilibrium is stable, but also when it is unstable and a low pest equilibrium is stable. Thus, we show that a residual fertility threshold $\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F} + \frac{qF_B\beta}{\mathcal{R}_F}$ (17), higher than the eradication threshold, is theoretically acceptable to control the population. We showed that, up to this threshold of 10% of residual fertility, the population can be reduced by $1 - q = 90\%$ of the uncontrolled equilibrium

424 density. This 90% reduction would indeed be acceptable as it would bring the amount of males caught
425 by 50 traps over an hectare from 982, at the uncontrolled equilibrium density, down to 98 which is below
426 the economic threshold of about 3 males per trap and per day for *C. capitata* (Hafsi *et al.*, 2020a). Thus,
427 efficiently deploying this technique does not necessarily require the eradication of the species in the area
428 of interest, where the persistence of a low population density causes negligible economic losses.

429 With a residual fertility threshold of 1%, which is the typical threshold for *C. capitata*, the IAEA
430 recommends releasing about 4000 individuals per week and per hectare. Our results suggest, for a costly
431 residual fertility of 1%, that a release of about 400 sterilized males per day per hectare would be sufficient
432 to control the population (at least 90% reduction in Fig. 6), which corresponds to 2,800 males per week
433 and per hectare. So, our model allows us to estimate release rates of the same order of magnitude as
434 those recommended for *C. capitata*. According to our model, for a cost-free residual fertility of 1%, a
435 release of more than 8,000 males per week and per hectare would be necessary to ensure a 90% population
436 reduction. If fertile released males are as fit as wild males, our results show that the releases should be
437 more than twice the IAEA recommendations. Therefore, release recommendations should not only take
438 into account residual fertility but also the fitness of released individuals.

439 By studying residual fertility, we are considering the possibility of introducing fertile irradiated males
440 into the environment, which raises ethical and safety issues (Oliva *et al.*, 2021). With current IAEA
441 recommendations, the risk that residual fertility might compromise pest population control is fairly low.
442 However, the release of non-sterile irradiated males raises issues relative to the introduction of non endemic
443 strains into a wild population (Lynch and Thomas, 2000; Benedict *et al.*, 2018). Indeed, non-sterile males
444 can reproduce and transfer their genes, potentially introducing new alleles and new phenotypes into the
445 target population. Moreover, strains used for releases in the SIT context might be different from wild
446 population in many regards. First, strains might be genetically selected to choose specific properties, such
447 as the developing of genetic sexing traits (Robinson, 2002; Ramírez-Santos *et al.*, 2016). Second, mass
448 rearing during many generations has probably lead to adaptation to laboratory conditions (Hoffmann and
449 Ross, 2018). And third, individuals are irradiated to induce sterilization, which can lead to numerous
450 unknown mutations. Residual fertility is thus a threat to SIT programs in the sense that it makes
451 self-replication possible, making sterile insects comparable to other biocontrol agents (Kapranas *et al.*,
452 2022). Indeed, crosses between introduced and local biocontrol agents are possible, making hybrids with
453 non-controlled traits that potentially increase the risk of invasion (Turgeon *et al.*, 2011). The context
454 of SIT is generally comparable to inundation biological control (mass introduction of macro-organisms
455 (Eilenberg *et al.*, 2001)), because (i) the released species is already established in the target area (since it
456 is the target species) and (ii) sterile insects are mass released. In inundation or classical biological control,
457 the main non-target effects concern the risk that the introduced biocontrol agents attack other species
458 than the target pest (Lynch and Thomas, 2000). SIT is based on intra-specific competition between the
459 released and the wild males and is thus highly specific to the target species (Abram *et al.*, 2021). Residual
460 fertility might thus lead to two different non-target effect: (i) when SIT is used preventively against a
461 species not present in the target area, it might promote its earlier establishment (Kapranas *et al.*, 2022),
462 and (ii) it might allow gene flow between introduced individuals and wild populations. To our knowledge,
463 no gene flows have been observed (or studied) following the release of sterile insects but further studies
464 might be necessary for quantitative risk assessment (David *et al.*, 2013; Kapranas *et al.*, 2022).

465 The model's bistability cases show that with low release rates, it is possible to control a population
466 quickly if the initial conditions are not too high, i.e. below the unstable equilibrium. This is why SIT
467 is particularly effective at low population densities. In order to achieve effective population control,
468 the idea is either to start releases particularly early, before the strong invasion phase of the pest, or
469 to combine with other control methods to reduce densities beforehand. The most obvious method is
470 prophylaxis, i.e. all measures designed to prevent the arrival of the pest in the crop or greatly reduce its
471 outbreak, thus limiting the size of the pest population even before the implementation of SIT (Benedict,
472 2021). For fruit flies such as *C. capitata*, crushing fallen fruits and ploughing the soil over winter to
473 expose pupae to moisture, frost and predators can be effective prophylactic measures. SIT is often part
474 of area-wide integrated pest management programs, in which the technique is used in combination with
475 pesticides (Vreysen *et al.*, 2006). Indeed, pesticides can help to reduce population densities before the
476 start of releases, but they have a detrimental effect on sterilized males released, problems of resistance in
477 *C. capitata* have been reported (Magaña *et al.*, 2007) and the current aim is to reduce their use. So, to
478 eliminate a part of pests without using pesticides, SIT can be considered in combination with trapping.
479 However, this option is subject to debate. Indeed, some authors claim that for *C. capitata*, mass trapping
480 in a limited area is compatible with SIT without requiring an increase in release effort (Duarte *et al.*,
481 2022). On the one hand, if the traps preferentially attract males (Leza *et al.*, 2008), whether wild or

sterile, they will be trapped, thus maintaining the proportion of wild and sterile males and preserving SIT effectiveness. On the other hand, it seems ineffective to release sterilized males doomed to be captured. So, for effective pest population control, theoretical study of this option may represent a real challenge, in order to have a prior idea of the effectiveness associated with the trap deployment effort to be envisaged.

5 Data accessibility and reproducibility

All analyses were performed using the Python programming language (version 3.11.0). The complete script coded in Python, specifying the versions of the libraries used, is available on the following link: https://gitlab.com/marinecourtoism2/sit_residual_fertility.

A Existence of equilibria

The infestation equilibria are the solutions of $G(F) = X(M(F))C(F) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}$ (12) for the female density, from which the male density is deduced using (11). Equilibria thus correspond to intersections between the curves $X(M(F))$ and $\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F C(F)}$. The first being concave and the second convex, there can be 2, 1 or 0 infestation equilibria.

In order to study the derivative of $G(F)$ (12) we first note that:

$$\frac{d}{dF} \left[\left(X(M(F)) - \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F C(F)} \right) C(F) \right] = \frac{d}{dF} (X(M(F))C(F)).$$

Developing the derivative in the square brackets, we have:

$$\frac{d}{dF} \left[\left(X(M(F)) - \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F C(F)} \right) C(F) \right] = \frac{d}{dF} \left(X(M(F)) - \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F C(F)} \right) C(F) + \left(X(M(F)) - \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F C(F)} \right) \frac{d}{dF} C(F).$$

Merging the two equations and noting that at equilibrium $X(M(F^*)) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F C(F^*)}$, we obtain:

$$\frac{d}{dF} (X(M(F))C(F)) = \left(\frac{d}{dF} (X(M(F)) - \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F C(F)}) \right) C(F).$$

As $C(F) > 0$, the sign of the derivative of $X(M(F))C(F)$ depends on the sign of the difference between the derivatives of $X(M(F))$ and $\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F C(F)}$. The difference is non-negative for the first equilibrium called F_1^* (when it exists) as $X(M(F)) < \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F C(F)}$ for $F < F_1^*$, the reverse is true for F_2^* (Fig. A.1). From the concavity and convexity conditions, this non-negativity, respectively non-positivity, turns positive, respectively negative (Fig. A.1).

Thus, when $\frac{d}{dF} X(M(F)) > \frac{d}{dF} \left(\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F C(F)} \right)$, we have $\frac{dG}{dF}(F^*) > 0$ as $X(M(F))C(F) = G(F)$, it corresponds to F_1^* ; and when $\frac{d}{dF} X(M(F)) < \frac{d}{dF} \left(\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F C(F)} \right)$, we have $\frac{dG}{dF}(F^*) < 0$, it corresponds to F_2^* .

To sum up:

- (i) If the curves intersect at two positive points (Fig. A.1A): there are two solutions $F_2^* > F_1^* > 0$, such that $\frac{dG}{dF}(F_1^*) > 0$ and $\frac{dG}{dF}(F_2^*) < 0$. We then have two infestation equilibria (F_1^*, M_1^*) and (F_2^*, M_2^*) .
- (ii) If the curves intersect at one positive point only (Fig. A.1B): there is only one solution, at which $\frac{dG}{dF} < 0$. This solution is named F_2^* and corresponds to the infestation equilibrium (F_2^*, M_2^*) .
- (iii) If there is no intersection between the curves: there is no solution, so there is no infestation equilibrium.

B Determinant computation

In this section, the calculation of the determinant of the Jacobian matrix defined in section 2.2.3 is detailed. As a reminder, the Jacobian matrix $J_{(F^*, M^*)}$ is expressed as follows:

$$J_{(F^*, M^*)} = \begin{pmatrix} -r(1-p)X(M^*)C(F^*) + r(1-p)X(M^*)(C'(F^*)F^* + C(F^*)) & r(1-p)C(F^*)X'(M^*)F^* \\ rpX(M^*)(C'(F^*)F^* + C(F^*)) & -\mu_M + rpC(F^*)X'(M^*)F^* \end{pmatrix}.$$

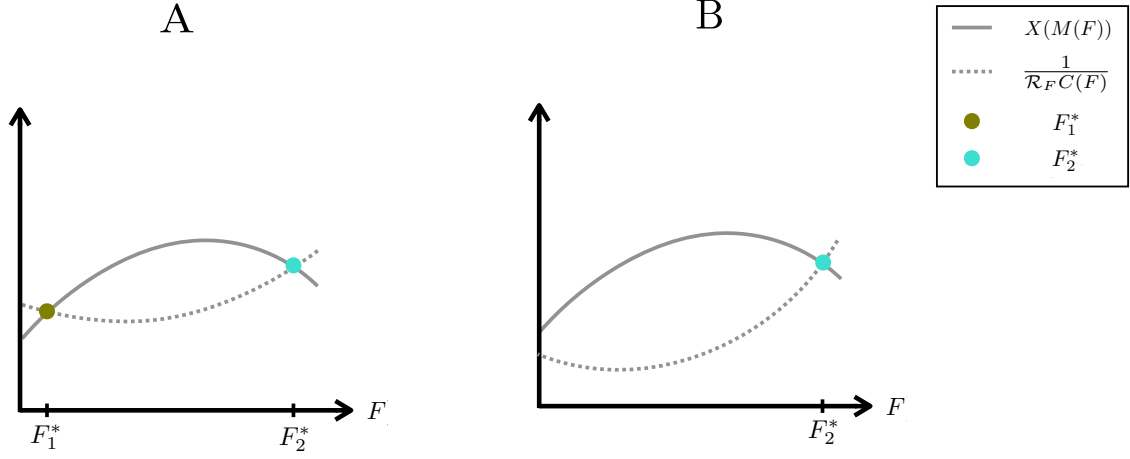


Figure A.1: Female density values at the infestation equilibria of the model (1). They correspond to the intersections between concave curve $X(M(F))$ (grey solid line) and convex curve $\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F C(F)}$ (grey dotted line). Curves were sketched by hand. In case A, there are two infestation equilibria F_1^* (green point) and F_2^* (blue point). In case B, there is only one infestation equilibrium F_2^* (blue point).

515 The determinant is calculated as follows:

516

$$\begin{aligned}
 Det(J(F^*, M^*)) &= r(1-p)X(M^*)C'(F^*)F^*(-\mu_M + rpC(F^*)X'(M^*)F^*) \\
 &\quad - r(1-p)C(F^*)X'(M^*)F^*rpX(M^*)(C'(F^*)F^* + C(F^*)), \\
 &= r(1-p)F^*[X(M^*)C'(F^*)(-\mu_M + rpC(F^*)X'(M^*)F^*) \\
 &\quad - C(F^*)X'(M^*)rpX(M^*)(C'(F^*)F^* + C(F^*))], \\
 &= r(1-p)F^*[-\mu_M X(M^*)C'(F^*) - C(F^*)X'(M^*)rpX(M^*)C(F^*)], \\
 &= r(1-p)F^* \left[-\mu_M X(M^*)C'(F^*) - C(F^*)X'(M^*) \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)} \right],
 \end{aligned}$$

517 as $X(M^*)C'(F^*) = \frac{\mu_F}{r(1-p)}$ (10). In addition, according to (11), $M'(F^*) = \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}$, so the determinant
518 can be written:

$$\begin{aligned}
 Det(J(F^*, M^*)) &= -r(1-p)\mu_M F^* \left[(X(M^*)C'(F^*) + \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M})C(F^*)X'(M^*) \right], \\
 &= -r(1-p)\mu_M F^* [X(M^*)C'(F^*) + M'(F^*)C(F^*)X'(M^*)], \\
 &= -r(1-p)\mu_M F^* \frac{dG}{dF}(F^*),
 \end{aligned}$$

519 as $X(M^*)C'(F^*) + X'(M^*)M'(F^*)C(F^*) = \frac{dG}{dF}(F^*)$.

520 Thus, the sign of the determinant is equal to the sign of the slope of $G(F)$ at the equilibrium.

521 C $\sigma(F^*)$ expression

522 In this section, the calculations leading to the explicit expression of $\sigma(F^*)$ (13) are detailed. In equa-
523 tion (12), we substitute $X(S, M, \epsilon)$ by explicit expression (2) and obtain:

$$(12) \iff \frac{M(F^*) + \epsilon\eta S^*}{k + M(F^*) + \eta S^*} \cdot C(F^*) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}.$$

524 Substituting $S^* = \frac{(1-\delta)\sigma}{\mu_S}$ and $M(F^*) = \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^* + \frac{\delta\sigma}{\mu_M}$ from equation (11), we then obtain:

$$\begin{aligned}
&\iff \frac{\frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^* + \frac{\delta\sigma}{\mu_M} + \frac{\epsilon\eta(1-\delta)\sigma}{\mu_S}}{k + \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^* + \frac{\delta\sigma}{\mu_M} + \eta\frac{(1-\delta)\sigma}{\mu_S}} \cdot C(F^*) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}, \\
&\iff \frac{\mathcal{R}_F p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^* + \frac{\mathcal{R}_F\delta\sigma}{\mu_M} + \frac{\mathcal{R}_F\epsilon\eta(1-\delta)\sigma}{\mu_S} = \frac{1}{C(F^*)} \left(k + \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^* + \frac{\delta\sigma}{\mu_M} + \eta\frac{(1-\delta)\sigma}{\mu_S} \right), \\
&\iff \frac{\mathcal{R}_F\delta\sigma}{\mu_M} + \frac{\mathcal{R}_F\epsilon\eta(1-\delta)\sigma}{\mu_S} - \frac{1}{C(F^*)} \frac{\delta\sigma}{\mu_M} - \frac{1}{C(F^*)} \left(\eta\frac{(1-\delta)\sigma}{\mu_S} \right) = \frac{1}{C(F^*)} \left(k + \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^* \right) - \frac{\mathcal{R}_F p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^*, \\
&\iff \sigma \left(\frac{\mathcal{R}_F\delta}{\mu_M} + \frac{\mathcal{R}_F\epsilon\eta(1-\delta)}{\mu_S} - \frac{1}{C(F^*)} \frac{\delta}{\mu_M} - \frac{1}{C(F^*)} \left(\eta\frac{(1-\delta)}{\mu_S} \right) \right) = \frac{1}{C(F^*)} \left(k + \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^* \right) - \frac{\mathcal{R}_F p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^*, \\
&\iff \sigma(F^*) = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{C(F^*)} \right) \left(k + \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^* \right) - \frac{\mathcal{R}_F p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^*}{\frac{\mathcal{R}_F\delta}{\mu_M} + \frac{\mathcal{R}_F\epsilon\eta(1-\delta)}{\mu_S} - \frac{1}{C(F^*)} \frac{\delta}{\mu_M} - \frac{1}{C(F^*)} \left(\eta\frac{(1-\delta)}{\mu_S} \right)}.
\end{aligned}$$

525 By expliciting $C(F^*)$ using expression (3), we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
\sigma(F^*) &= \frac{(1+\beta F^*) \left(k + \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^* \right) - \frac{\mathcal{R}_F p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F^*}{\frac{\mathcal{R}_F\delta}{\mu_M} + \frac{\mathcal{R}_F\epsilon\eta(1-\delta)}{\mu_S} - (1+\beta F^*) \frac{\delta}{\mu_M} - (1+\beta F^*) \left(\eta\frac{(1-\delta)}{\mu_S} \right)}, \\
&= \frac{\frac{\beta p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}(F^*)^2 + \left(\frac{p\mu_F(1-\mathcal{R}_F)}{(1-p)\mu_M} + \beta k \right) F^* + k}{\frac{\mathcal{R}_F\delta}{\mu_M} + \frac{\mathcal{R}_F\epsilon\eta(1-\delta)}{\mu_S} - \frac{\delta(1+\beta F^*)}{\mu_M} - \frac{\eta(1-\delta)(1+\beta F^*)}{\mu_S}}.
\end{aligned}$$

526 This expression corresponds to the equation (13) in section 2.2.4. By replacing $C(F^*)$ in the same way
527 with the expressions proposed in Section 2.1.1 in $\sigma(F^*)$ (13), we obtain bifurcation diagrams of a shape
528 similar to those described in Section 2.2.4.

529 D $\sigma(F^*)$ numerator study

530 The numerator of $\sigma(F^*)$ is expressed as follows:

$$\frac{\beta p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}(F^*)^2 + \left(\frac{p\mu_F(1-\mathcal{R}_F)}{(1-p)\mu_M} + \beta k \right) F^* + k,$$

531 which can be rewritten as:

$$\frac{k}{\mathcal{R}_F} \left(\mathcal{R}_M (\beta F^*)^2 + (\mathcal{R}_M + \mathcal{R}_F - \mathcal{R}_M \mathcal{R}_F) (\beta F^*) + \mathcal{R}_F \right).$$

532 It does not depend on residual fertility rates, unlike the denominator. The discriminant of the βF^* second
533 order polynomial is:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta &= (\mathcal{R}_M + \mathcal{R}_F - \mathcal{R}_M \mathcal{R}_F)^2 - 4\mathcal{R}_F \mathcal{R}_M, \\
&= \mathcal{R}_M^2 + \mathcal{R}_F^2 + \mathcal{R}_F^2 \mathcal{R}_M^2 + 2\mathcal{R}_F \mathcal{R}_M - 2(\mathcal{R}_M + \mathcal{R}_F) \mathcal{R}_M \mathcal{R}_F - 4\mathcal{R}_F \mathcal{R}_M.
\end{aligned}$$

534 Thus the discriminant is positive if and only if:

$$(\mathcal{R}_M - \mathcal{R}_F)^2 + \mathcal{R}_M^2 \mathcal{R}_F^2 > 2\mathcal{R}_M \mathcal{R}_F (\mathcal{R}_M + \mathcal{R}_F). \quad (\text{D.19})$$

535 Dividing by $\mathcal{R}_M^2 \mathcal{R}_F^2$ yields:

$$\left(\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F} - \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_M} \right)^2 + 1 > 2 \left(\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F} + \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_M} \right).$$

536 Taking the inverse and multiplying by 4 yields:

$$\frac{2}{\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F} + \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_M}} > \frac{4}{\left(\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F} - \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_M} \right)^2 + 1}, \quad (\text{D.20})$$

537 that is a lower-bound to the harmonic mean of \mathcal{R}_F and \mathcal{R}_M . Since $\mathcal{R}_F, \mathcal{R}_M > 1$, we have $0 < \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}, \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_M} < 1$,
538 so that $-1 < \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F} - \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_M} < 1$ and $1 \leq \left(\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F} - \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_M} \right)^2 + 1 < 2$. It follows that $2 < \frac{4}{\left(\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F} - \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_M} \right)^2 + 1} \leq 4$ so that
539 (D.20) imposes that the harmonic mean is larger than 2, and is necessarily satisfied when the harmonic
540 mean is larger than 4 (Fig. D.2).

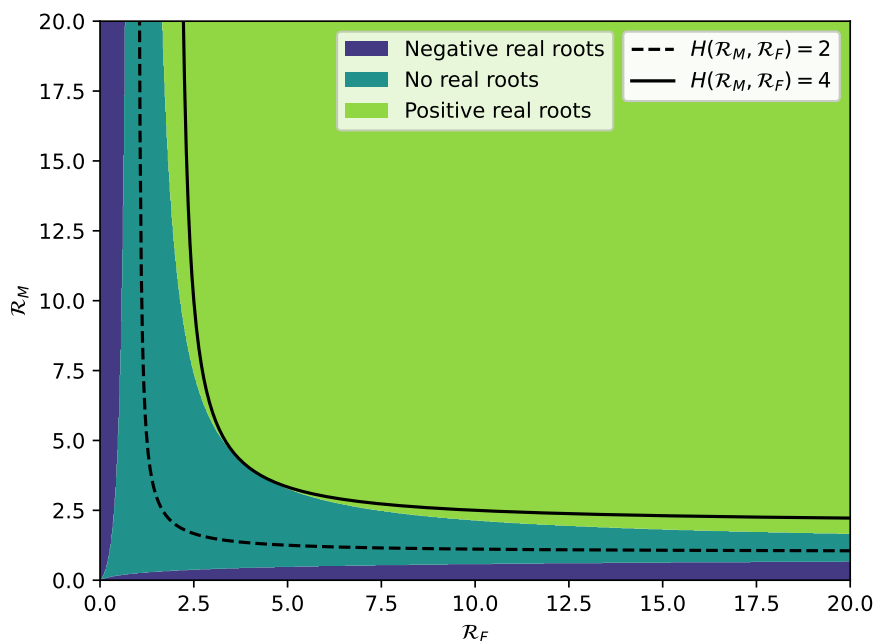


Figure D.2: Contour plot illustrating the existence of $\sigma(F^*)$ numerator roots as a function of the reproduction numbers \mathcal{R}_M and \mathcal{R}_F . Three zones are defined: negative real roots (dark blue zone), no real roots (blue-green zone) and positive real roots (light green zone). The two curves represent the harmonic mean of \mathcal{R}_M and \mathcal{R}_F equal to 2 (dotted black curve) and equal to 4 (black curve).

541 In this case there are two roots. The product of the roots has the sign of $\frac{\mathcal{R}_F}{\mathcal{R}_M}$, which is positive. So
 542 the roots have the same sign.
 543 The sum of the roots is:

$$-\frac{\mathcal{R}_M + \mathcal{R}_F - \mathcal{R}_M \mathcal{R}_F}{\mathcal{R}_M}. \quad (\text{D.21})$$

544 Thus the sum of the roots is positive and therefore both roots are positive if and only if:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{R}_F + \mathcal{R}_M < \mathcal{R}_M \mathcal{R}_F &\iff \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_M} + \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F} < 1, \\ &\iff \frac{2}{\frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_M} + \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}} > 2. \end{aligned}$$

545 Hence, the harmonic mean of \mathcal{R}_F and \mathcal{R}_M must be larger than 2, which we have shown to be a consequence
 546 of equation (D.20). Hence, (D.19) or (D.20) suffice for the numerator to have two positive roots if
 547 $\mathcal{R}_F, \mathcal{R}_M > 1$ (Fig. D.2).

548 E Parameter values

549 E.1 Mortality rates

550 Different values for *Ceratitis capitata* lifespans were collected from the literature. The mortality rate was
 551 estimated as the inverse of the lifespan. Male and females lifespans and corresponding mortality rates
 552 are summarized in Table E.1.

553

Table E.1: *Ceratitidis capitata* male and female lifespans based on the literature, with corresponding mortality rates.

| References | Female lifespan (days) | Male lifespan (days) | μ_F (day ⁻¹) | μ_M (day ⁻¹) |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Shoukry and Hafez (1979) | [25.5-31] | [25-36.5] | [0.032-0.039] | [0.027-0.040] |
| Carey (1984) | [39-46.4] | [40.5-47.9] | [0.022-0.026] | [0.021-0.025] |
| Vargas <i>et al.</i> (2000) | 54.8 | 71.6 | 0.018 | 0.014 |
| Papadopoulos <i>et al.</i> (2002) | 21.1 | 29.5 | 0.047 | 0.034 |
| Pieterse <i>et al.</i> (2020) | [12-17.5] ¹ | [17.6-35.5] ² | [0.057-0.083] ¹ | [0.036-0.057] ² |

¹ Data extracted on nectarine and plum to collect extremum for females.

² Data extracted on apple and plum to collect extremum for males.

554 E.2 Emergence rate

555 The emergence rate r represents the mean number of eggs leading to the adult stage per female and per
 556 day. To estimate this parameter, data listed in Table E.2 were extracted from Pieterse *et al.* (2020). Only
 557 the values for nectarines were used, as they greatly vary between fruits and our aim was to make a rough
 558 estimate to calibrate the model. On average, females lay 25.75 eggs a day, 97% of which hatch in the
 559 fruits. Larvae then become pupae, 94.7% of which become adults. So, $r = 25.75 \times 0.97 \times 0.947 = 23.7$
 560 day⁻¹ with a range of values between 19.2 and 28.5 day⁻¹.

561

Table E.2: *C. capitata* development data extracted from Pieterse *et al.* (2020)

| Fruit type | Eggs per females (24h) | Egg hatch in fruit (24h) | Pupal eclosion (24h) |
|------------|------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|
| Nectarine | 25.75 [22.25-29.25] | 97% [96%-98%] | 94.7% [89.9%-99.5%] |

562 E.3 Competition coefficient between females

The competition coefficient between females β represents oviposition competition. This parameter was estimated from the model without control by SIT at equilibrium. From equation (12), which allows us to find infestation equilibria of the model, we isolated β :

$$\begin{aligned}
 X(M(F))C(F) &= \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}, \\
 \frac{\frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F}{k + \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F} \frac{1}{1 + \beta F} &= \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}_F}, \\
 1 + \beta F &= \frac{\mathcal{R}_F \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F}{k + \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F}, \\
 \beta &= \frac{1}{F} \left(\frac{\mathcal{R}_F \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F}{k + \frac{p\mu_F}{(1-p)\mu_M}F} - 1 \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

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We based our estimate of females density F on several mass trapping studies (Demirel and Akyol, 2017; Hafsı *et al.*, 2020b; Leza *et al.*, 2008; Martinez-Ferrer *et al.*, 2012), in which about 1,000 females per day and per hectare were captured, assuming a balanced sex-ratio. We assumed that these traps captured most individuals and gave an approximation of *C. capitata* equilibrium density without SIT. Thus, taking $F = 1000$ ind.ha⁻¹ and the parameter values listed in the Table 1, we obtain $\beta = 0.24$ (ind.ha⁻¹)⁻¹.

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