

Control methods against invasive *Aedes* mosquitoes in Europe: a review

Frédéric Baldacchino,^{a*} Beniamino Caputo,^b Fabrice Chandre,^c Andrea Drago,^d Alessandra della Torre,^b Fabrizio Montarsi,^e Annapaola Rizzoli^a

^aDepartment of Biodiversity and Molecular Ecology, Research and Innovation Centre, Fondazione Edmund Mach (FEM), San Michele all'Adige, Italy

^bDipartimento di Sanità Pubblica e Malattie Infettive, Università di Roma "Sapienza", Rome, Italy

^cInstitut de Recherche pour le Développement (IRD), Unité Mixte de Recherche Maladies Infectieuses et Vecteurs, Ecologie, Génétique, Evolution et Contrôle (UMR MIVEGEC), Laboratoire de Lutte contre les Insectes Nuisibles (LIN), Montpellier, France

^dEntostudio snc, Padua, Italy

^eIstituto Zooprofilattico Sperimentale delle Venezie, Padua, Italy, Padova, Italy

*Correspondence to: Frederic Baldacchino, Department of Biodiversity and Molecular Ecology, Research and Innovation Centre, Fondazione Edmund Mach (FEM), San Michele all'Adige, Italy. E-mail: frederic.baldacchino@fmach.it

This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as doi: 10.1002/ps.04044

Abstract

Five species of invasive *Aedes* mosquitoes have recently become established in Europe: *Aedes albopictus*, *Aedes aegypti*, *Aedes japonicus japonicus*, *Aedes koreicus* and *Aedes atropalpus*. These mosquitoes are a serious nuisance for people and are also competent vectors for several exotic pathogens such as dengue and chikungunya viruses. As they are a growing public health concern, methods to control these mosquitoes need to be implemented to reduce their biting and their potential for disease transmission. There is a crucial need to evaluate methods as part of an integrated invasive mosquito species control strategy in different European countries, taking into account local *Aedes* infestations and European regulations. This review presents the control methods available or in development against invasive *Aedes* mosquitoes with a particular focus on those which can be implemented in Europe. These control methods are divided into five categories: environmental (source reduction), mechanical (trapping), biological (e.g. copepods, *Bti*, *Wolbachia*), chemical (insect growth regulators, pyrethroids) and genetic (sterile insect technique and genetically modified mosquitoes). We discuss the effectiveness, ecological impact, sustainability and stage of development of each control method.

Keywords

Vector control; *Aedes*; integrated vector management; field trial; insecticide; Europe

1. INTRODUCTION

The increasing globalization of trade and human movement along with environmental change facilitate the introduction and establishment of invasive mosquito species (IMS) outside their native geographical areas.¹⁻³ *Aedes* (Diptera: Culicidae) mosquitoes have a high invasive potential as their eggs can withstand desiccation for many months and survive long transportation times. Five species have already been established in Europe so far: *Aedes albopictus*, *Aedes aegypti*, *Aedes japonicus japonicus*, *Aedes koreicus* and *Aedes atropalpus*.² Introduced to Albania in the 1990s, the Asian tiger mosquito *Ae. albopictus* is the most widely spread IMS in Europe and has now colonized almost all Mediterranean countries.⁴ In comparison, other IMS have been introduced to Europe more recently: *Ae. aegypti* in Madeira Island (Portugal) and around the Black Sea,⁴ *Ae. j. japonicus* to

Central Europe (Germany, Switzerland, Austria, Slovenia, Croatia),⁵ *Ae. koreicus* to Belgium and Italy,^{6,7} and *Ae. atropalpus* to France, Italy and the Netherlands.^{2,8} However, *Ae. albopictus* and *Ae. aegypti* have been reported in some European overseas territories since the beginning of the century.⁹⁻¹¹

IMS are defined by their ability to colonize new territories and impact human health with negative consequences on the environment and the local economy.⁴ Due to their aggressive biting behavior, *Aedes* mosquitoes, especially *Ae. albopictus*, are a major nuisance for people, who consider that they affect their social life and outdoor activities (up to 81 landing female *Ae. albopictus*/human/15min counted in Rome; Caputo, personal communication).^{12,13} They are also competent vectors of several exotic pathogens such as the dengue and chikungunya viruses, and increase the risk of epidemics in Europe through their establishment and the introduction of these pathogens by infected travellers.¹⁴ An outbreak of chikungunya occurred already in Italy in 2007 with more than 200 cases confirmed, and even a large number of autochthonous cases of dengue and chikungunya were reported in Europe between 2007 and 2012.^{15,16} In the different locations, *Ae. albopictus* (Italy, France, Croatia) and *Aedes aegypti* (Madeira Island) were implicated as vectors. Therefore, some European countries are now highly vulnerable to mosquito-borne diseases (MBD) due to the continuous reintroduction and spread of *Aedes* mosquitoes.⁴

To face the growing risk of MBD epidemics, the European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (ECDC) has established a network of medical entomologists and public health experts (VBORNET) and produced guidelines to support the implementation of IMS surveillance in Europe.^{1,2} Currently, national surveillance systems are in place in France, the UK, the Netherlands and Germany, and a pilot IMS surveillance program following ECDC guidelines has been conducted in Belgium.¹ In Italy, regional entomological surveillance has been initiated, for example, in the Emilia-Romagna region and surroundings following the chikungunya outbreak.¹⁷ Yet no specific guidelines have been established for implementing IMS-control measures in Europe. The World Health Organization (WHO) has published a handbook for integrated vector management (IVM), which provides an operational framework for planning and implementing vector-borne disease (VBD) control according to IVM.¹⁸ But there is a crucial need in Europe to assess IMS-control measures taking into account

local *Aedes* infestations and European regulations with the purpose of decreasing biting rates and reducing mosquito populations to an infestation level below the epidemic-risk threshold in case of the introduction of an exotic pathogen.^{2,19} To date, only few studies have evaluated the effectiveness of integrated IMS-control strategies in Europe. In Spain, Chebabi Abramides *et al.*²⁰ demonstrated a reduction in *Ae. albopictus* abundance by source reduction and insecticide application. In Italy, Caputo *et al.*²¹ showed a reduction in *Ae. albopictus* abundance during the major phase of the population expansion after insecticide application (della Torre and Caputo, personal communication).

This review presents the IMS-control tools available or in development with a particular focus on those which can be implemented in Europe. Following the WHO handbook we divided available control methods into four categories: environmental, mechanical, biological and chemical.¹⁸ A fifth category including genetic control methods was also considered. We describe the effectiveness, ecological impact, sustainability and stage of development of each control method (Table 1), focusing on those targeting *Aedes* mosquitoes with the purpose of reducing their abundance (Figure 1). Personal protection methods such as repellents, treated clothes or mosquito screens are not discussed in this review although they are effective in bite prevention, and their large adoption by the public might protect against pathogen transmission. To conclude, we discuss considerations regarding the implementation and evaluation of an integrated IMS-control strategy.

2. ENVIRONMENTAL METHODS

Source reduction consists of preventing *Aedes* mosquitoes from using potential breeding sites, which include a wide range of containers from bottle caps to water tanks. This strategy is based on removing or turning over temporary water containers and covering permanent water containers. It is often the first control method for mosquitoes such as *Ae. albopictus*²⁵ that breed in artificial containers, and source reduction campaigns generally achieve temporary suppression of immature *Ae. albopictus*.^{20,25} This method may also affect the distribution of native mosquitoes such as *Culex* sp. in a locality, by limiting the available sites for oviposition.²⁵ In a suburb of Washington DC (USA), source reduction practices by residents to decrease the number of containers used by *Culex pipiens* also affected the number of *Ae. albopictus*.²⁷

IMS can find a wide variety of breeding sites in urban, suburban and rural areas. *Aedes albopictus* mostly prefers small- or medium-sized artificial containers.²⁸ In urban and suburban areas, this includes catch basins and plant saucers in homes or cemeteries; in rural areas, this includes buckets and drums in vegetable gardens. *Aedes koreicus* and *Ae. j. japonicus* prefer natural and artificial aquatic containers, the latter species being highly tolerant to organic concentrations.^{7,29} *Aedes atropalpus*, a rock hole mosquito, frequently occurs in tires.^{8,30} *Aedes aegypti* proliferates in artificial containers placed in or near homes.³¹ As invasive *Aedes* sp. and native *Culex* sp. mainly select medium-sized containers, it has been suggested that *Ae. albopictus* is displacing *Cx. pipiens* from some of its habitats.^{13, 32-34}

The type of container available in a specific area is closely related to mosquito production because certain breeding sites can be highly productive for some species. For instance, the most productive breeding sites for *Ae. albopictus* are corrugated extension spouts in New Jersey (USA)³⁵, catch basins in northern Italy²⁸, and basins, tanks and tires on La Réunion Island (Indian Ocean).³⁶ Moreover, aggregations of containers create ‘hot spots’ of mosquito production and serve as sources for the infestation of neighborhoods.²⁶ As a result, the most time-saving and cost-effective approach may be to focus on the most productive breeding sites. In Brazil, a source reduction campaign against *Ae. aegypti* was conducted using nylon net to cover water tanks and metal drums, both previously identified as the most productive breeding sites in the study area.³⁷ After two interventions, a long-term reduction in female mosquito density was observed supporting the effectiveness of targeting key containers. Mapping can also be done at very high spatial resolution using satellite data to facilitate locating these key containers.³⁸ Unfortunately, this does not help in locating cryptic breeding sites, which are hidden and/or more unreachable sites used by *Aedes* mosquitoes, such as natural reservoirs (e.g. leaf litter) and artificial receptacles (e.g. rubbish).³⁹

Effective source reduction, especially for *Ae. albopictus*, requires scrupulous and repeated cleaning or treatment of containers for everyday use, so relies on extensive homeowner collaboration.³² As private residences are important sources of *Ae. albopictus*, public education campaigns to help people identify and eliminate small water containers from their property have become a basic

element in mosquito control programs even if this is not always sufficient in motivating residents to reduce backyard mosquito larval habitats.^{40,41} Nonetheless, a community-based approach to improve source reduction by targeting containers around the home is an effective long-term strategy that could significantly reduce the cost of control measures.⁴¹ In Spain, a community-based approach associated with insecticide application in the framework of a program to control *Ae. albopictus* has had promising success.²⁰ In New Jersey, volunteer-based peer education in source reduction led to a significant reduction in container habitats for *Ae. albopictus* larvae.⁴² In Thailand, health-education volunteers were trained to conduct biological vector control using copepods (see 4.2) and *Bacillus thuringiensis* var. *israelensis* (*Bti*) (see 4.3).⁴³ This community-based vector control program resulted in a significant reduction in *Ae. aegypti* density. However, voluntary approaches may be limited by the regional culture, resulting in ineffective efforts and loss of public money. Another approach is to support community programs using paid specialists: for example, in California (USA), mosquito control is efficiently managed through local abatement districts that employ technicians directly involved in surveillance, education and vector control strategy and who interact with and educate the public.⁴⁴

3. MECHANICAL METHODS

Traps are widely used for the survey and monitoring of mosquito populations. Mass trapping using odor baits has been suggested as a means to reduce adult populations of mosquitoes.⁴⁵ Available trapping methods for *Aedes* mosquitoes target gravid females (e.g. ovitraps or sticky/gravid traps) or host-seeking females (e.g. BG-Sentinel (BGS) traps) (Biogents AG, Regensburg, Germany).

Ovitraps exploit the propensity of *Aedes* mosquitoes to lay their eggs in small containers. They are used as a sensitive, inexpensive, passive surveillance tool for detecting the presence of container-breeding mosquitoes and for assessing the adult population dynamics.²⁷ The addition of a larvicide or an autocidal mechanism allows the long-term use of an ovitrap with minimal risk of its becoming a productive source of adult mosquitoes.⁴⁶ Lethal ovitraps have been tested using egg-laying strips treated with insecticide (e.g. permethrin, deltamethrin).⁴⁷ Field trials using lethal ovitraps conducted in Brazil, Peru and Thailand have shown an efficient reduction of *Ae. aegypti* population density, although lower effectiveness was observed in Thailand, probably due to the presence of

numerous water containers around homes.^{47,48} In Australia, field studies have also shown that lethal ovitrap control programs have a significant impact on *Ae. aegypti* populations, coupled with high public acceptability.⁴⁹ Organic infusions such as grass, hay or oak, as well as NPK (Nitrogen-Phosphorous-Potassium) fertilizers, can be added to ovitraps to improve their attractivity.^{50,51} The development of oviposition stimulants could lead to even better control of mosquito populations using these traps.⁵²

Sticky ovitraps and gravid traps fitted with adhesive surfaces have also been developed in order to survey gravid females, and various designs have been evaluated in the field to monitor the abundance of *Aedes* sp.⁵³⁻⁵⁵ In order to improve collections, MacKay *et al.*⁴⁶ designed a large autocidal gravid trap that provides a more conspicuous visual target and a greater release rate of water vapor and other volatile attractants. In Puerto Rico, a control program combining gravid ovicidal traps, source reduction and larvicide applications have shown a higher reduction in *Ae. aegypti* females in areas with traps than in areas without traps.⁵⁶ In Singapore, gravid traps have also been deployed to complement source reduction efforts in controlling dengue transmission and have been effective in collecting *Ae. aegypti*.⁵⁷ Nevertheless, early deployment and a large number of these traps are needed to have an impact on *Aedes* populations.⁵⁷

Studies have shown that BGS traps, especially with a CO₂ source, are effective for collecting *Aedes* sp.^{58,59} In Northern Italy, BGS traps baited with BG lure were evaluated as a control tool against *Aedes albopictus*; intervention sites with a trap density ranging from 150 to 350m² showed a decrease of human biting rates in comparison to control sites.⁶⁰ In Brazil, Degener *et al.*⁶¹ found that mass trapping using BGS traps without any lure significantly reduced the abundance of adult *Ae. aegypti*. Although the possibility of using BGS traps is limited by their requirement for electrical power, the authors consider these traps a promising tool that can be used in IMS-control programs or as a push component in a push-pull strategy. As push-pull strategies, combining a repellent with an attractive stimuli in tandem, have proved to be effective against various agricultural pests, they have been proposed as a control method against mosquitoes.⁶² In Thailand, push-pull control of *Ae. aegypti* is currently being evaluated for effectiveness and acceptability.⁶³ It exploits the spatial repellent and contact irritant actions of minimal doses of insecticides used conventionally in public

health interventions through indoor residual sprayings (IRS) or insecticide-treated materials (ITMs) (see 5.2). These indoor treatments are combined with BGS traps positioned in the outdoor environment. Semi-field experiments showed that exposure of *Ae. aegypti* females to pyrethroids did not significantly reduce the attraction of BGS traps.⁶⁴ This finding supports the potential effectiveness of a push-pull strategy to reduce *Ae. aegypti* adults inside and outside homes. However, it is important to highlight that IRS and ITMs do not target exophylic species, such as *Ae. albopictus*.

4. BIOLOGICAL METHODS

4.1. Entomopathogenic fungi

Entomopathogenic fungi such as *Beauveria bassiana* and *Metarhizium anisopliae* show considerable promise as an alternative mosquito control method.⁶⁵ In laboratory conditions, *Beauveria bassiana* reduced *Ae. aegypti* longevity, and semi-field experiments demonstrated a reduction in fecundity, adult survival and blood-feeding in infected *Ae. aegypti*. Larvicidal and adulticidal activity of *M. anisopliae* against *Aedes* mosquitoes is well established.⁶⁶ Moreover, the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has found no risk on humans using *M. anisopliae* products and no adverse effects on non-target species.⁶⁷ Various delivery methods for infecting adult mosquitoes have been tested, such as fungus-impregnated cloth or applying fungi on screens around the home.⁶⁸ Paula *et al.*⁶⁸ found that black cotton cloth impregnated with *M. anisopliae* reduced the survival of *Ae. aegypti* under simulated intra-domicile conditions. Survival rates were even lower when *M. anisopliae* was combined with imidacloprid at 10 ppm. The ovicidal activity of *M. anisopliae* was also demonstrated on *Ae. aegypti* eggs, particularly with oil-and-water-formulated conidia.⁶⁹ The application of oil-based fungal formulations onto oviposition substrates appeared to be more effective at infecting eggs than direct fungal application, and required less fungal material. This novel approach could be a promising basis for practical and economical strategies to reduce populations of viable eggs of *Aedes* mosquitoes.

4.2. Copepods as a natural enemy

Cyclopoid copepods have proved to be the most effective invertebrate predators of mosquito larvae. The mass production of copepods is relatively easy and inexpensive.⁷⁰ Large copepod

species are more effective on *Aedes* larvae than on *Culex* larvae. The most effective species can kill more than 40 *Aedes* larvae per copepod per day. Most field experiments have focused on container-inhabiting mosquitoes in the Americas, Asia and Oceania. In New Orleans (USA), *Ae. albopictus* populations in tire piles were eliminated for three years after the introduction of *Macrocyclus albidus*.⁷¹ In Vietnam, *Mesocyclops* spp. used in large-scale control campaigns have locally eradicated *Ae. aegypti* in many villages and have been included in community-based strategies.⁷²⁻⁷⁴ In Florida (USA), *Mesocyclops longisetus* was evaluated for its potential in reducing container-inhabiting mosquitoes in residential environments.⁷⁵ Populations of *M. longisetus* peaked 2-3 months after introduction, depending on the size of the container, and numbers of *Ae. albopictus* significantly decreased when numbers of copepods were high. During the first two months after copepod introduction, mosquito-larvae control is incomplete because copepods generally attack first instar larvae. Therefore, *Bti* (see 4.3), which is harmless to copepods, can be applied during the initial period to reduce mosquito production. As part of an integrated IMS-control program, copepods are a promising tool for biological control of container-inhabiting mosquitoes, but it should be noted that they can only survive in containers with water and food in addition to mosquito larvae. If the containers dry out, copepods cannot survive.⁷⁰ The presence of copepods also seems to attract female mosquitoes for oviposition.⁷⁰ Thus it could be helpful in the framework of an integrated IMS-control program to inoculate large, permanent, water-filled containers with copepods to create egg traps. In Europe, further evaluation of European copepod species is merited. In semi-field experiments conducted in Italy, *Macrocyclus albidus* showed promising results to control *Ae. albopictus*.⁷⁶

4.3. *Bti* and *Lsph* as microbial larvicides

The microbial larvicide *Bacillus thuringiensis* var. *israelensis* (*Bti*) is extensively used for the control of mosquito species.⁷⁷ *Bti* can be associated with another microbial larvicide, *Lysinibacillus sphaericus* (*Lsph*), formerly known as *Bacillus sphaericus*. Various formulations of *Bti* or *Bti+Lsph* are available in commercial products.⁷⁷ In Europe, *Bti* is increasingly used for selective control of larval mosquitoes, particularly in habitats such as floodplains and coastal wetlands where aerial spraying (only authorized for *Bti*) is commonly carried out.⁷⁸ The larvicidal activities of *Bti* and *Lsph* are due to toxins acting synergistically. These toxins are activated in the gut of the larva and

disrupt the cell membranes.⁷⁹ This complex mechanism involves many proteins, preventing the selection of resistance in mosquitoes.⁷⁹ *Bti* has short-term residual activity, especially in polluted or organically enriched water, while *Lsph* persists for longer, recycling through infected larvae. *Lsph* is mainly active on *Culex* sp. and less active on other mosquito species. Since *Lsph* produces only one toxin, resistant populations of *Culex quinquefasciatus* have been recorded and rapidly selected.⁸⁰ As a result, commercially available combinations of *Lsph* with *Bti* are more effective because of the synergistic action between their toxins on a wider range of mosquito hosts.

Bti alone or in combination with *Lsph* has proved to be effective against IMS.⁸¹⁻⁸⁵ Field experiments, mainly conducted in Asia and South America, involving *Bti* as a control method for dengue vectors have been reviewed by Boyce *et al.*⁷⁹ These studies show that in targeted containers that received treatment, *Bti* eliminated all immature forms within 24 hours. The efficacy of *Bti* in comparison with other larvicides (spinosad, diflubenzuron and pyriproxyfen; see 4.4 and 5.1) has been evaluated in only one large-scale European field trial (conducted in Martinique) for the control of *Ae. aegypti*.⁸³ *Bti* showed residual efficacy for 4 weeks, while spinosad and diflubenzuron were active for 16 weeks. To extend the duration of *Bti*'s residual control, dry formulations have been tested at high doses against *Ae. aegypti* in small containers without water. The product remains active for at least 2 months before the container is flooded.⁸⁶

However, in some field studies, *Bti* intervention alone did not significantly decrease vector abundance compared to educational and/or environmental interventions.⁸⁷ The presence of untreated cryptic containers may explain this failure. *Bti* application by a backpack mist blower has been shown to be effective against discrete *Aedes* breeding sites up to 16m in dense bushland, and larval mortality was sustained for up to 9 weeks post-misting.³⁹ In Singapore, applying *Bti* on vegetation by motorized backpack and vehicle-mounted sprayers significantly reduced *Ae. albopictus* populations.⁸⁸ Further investigations to test the effectiveness of *Bti* and *Lsph*, applied by various techniques and associated with other control methods, still need to be made using cluster randomized controlled trials.⁷⁹

4.4. Spinosad as a biorational larvicide

Spinosad is a product derived from the fermentation of a naturally occurring soil actinomycete, *Saccharopolyspora spinosa*. It contains two insecticidal factors, A and D, which are active against all mosquito species tested thus far.⁸⁹ Some formulations have been approved for use in organic farming and as a mosquito larvicide in human drinking water.^{89,90} Currently, no larvicidal formulations are commercially available in Europe. Spinosad acts primarily on the postsynaptic nicotinic acetylcholine receptors and secondly on GABA receptors. It possesses a unique mode of action, and no neurotoxic insecticide cross-resistance to spinosad has been described in insecticide-resistant populations of *Ae. albopictus*⁹¹ and *Ae. aegypti*⁹². The larvicidal efficacy of spinosad can be negatively affected by adsorption onto particulate matter and/or by exposure to sunlight (due to photolysis). Therefore, the level of pollution and organic matter in target habitats should be considered to determine use rates and retreatment intervals, and several controlled-release formulations have been developed to mitigate the impact of ultraviolet light degradation.⁸⁹

The efficacy of spinosad has been evaluated in several field trials. In Mexico, spinosad treatment of car tires provided 6–8 weeks of effective control of *Ae. aegypti*, *Ae. albopictus* and *Culex* sp. larvae.⁹³ In Martinique, spinosad had a residual efficacy of 16 weeks on *Ae. aegypti* populations that exhibited a high level of resistance to temephos and a tolerance to insect growth regulators (IGRs) (see 5.1).⁸³ In Connecticut (USA), the application of spinosad to individual catch basins significantly reduced the total numbers of larvae of *Ae. j. japonicus* and *Cx. pipiens* for 5 weeks.⁸²

In comparison with *Bti*, spinosad treatment has a longer residual effect, but it also affects non-target aquatic insect species such as *Toxorhynchites theobaldi*, a predatory mosquito species.^{93,94} Given the growing use of spinosad as a larvicide, the issue of non-targeted effects merits further investigation.⁹⁴ Until then, its usage should be limited to artificial breeding sites with no other insect fauna.

4.5. Essential oils as botanical larvicides

Essential oils (EO) comprise a complex mixture of constituents such as monoterpenes, phenols and sesquiterpenes, which could act synergistically and are more active than individual compounds.⁹⁵ EOs might interfere with insect feeding behavior, act as insect growth regulators or have a

neurotoxic mode of action. Several larvicidal mechanisms of toxicity could be involved, such as protein denaturation, enzymatic inhibition or membrane disintegration, and it is likely to be very difficult for the insect to develop an adaptation that leads to resistance.⁹⁵ Therefore, EOs commonly used as mosquito repellents have great potential as larvicides.⁹⁵ Dias and Moraes⁹⁵ reviewed 361 EOs from 269 plant species tested for their larvicidal activity against *Ae. aegypti*. One of these, neem oil from *Azadirachta indica*, was also found to be successful against *Ae. albopictus* and *Ae. j. japonicus*.^{97,98} Moreover, binary mixtures of some EO constituents with *Bti* were observed to be more active against *Ae. albopictus* larvae than *Bti* alone.⁹⁹

The production of EOs is generally cheaper than that of individual compounds that must be isolated or synthesized. Apart from being economically viable, plant-based larvicides are obtained from a renewable resource and are widely accepted by the population.⁹⁵ However, the toxicity of EOs against mosquito larvae may vary significantly depending on the plant species, the vegetative parts used, the age of the plant, the chemotype and the environmental conditions of growth. This could lead to contrasting and non-repeatable results in larval bioassays. Thus, selection of chemical markers is essential for the quality control of botanical products.⁹⁵ Moreover, no standard criteria have been established for determining the larvicidal activity of EOs, despite WHO guidelines for laboratory and field testing of mosquito larvicides.^{95,100} EOs have mostly been investigated in laboratory conditions; a low number of patents have been applied for to regulate the production of larvicidal formulations, and no studies have assessed the efficacy of such formulations in the field. Moreover, the ecotoxicity of EOs on non-target species such as aquatic invertebrates is not fully understood, and this must be studied before the commercialization of plant-based larvicides.⁹⁶

4.6. *Wolbachia*-induced cytoplasmic incompatibility

Wolbachia pipientis is an endosymbiotic α -proteobacterium naturally present in many mosquito species, including *Ae. albopictus* and *Cx. pipiens*.¹⁰¹ It infects the gonads and is transmitted to the next generation from female adults to their eggs. The success of *Wolbachia* is due to its ability to manipulate diverse functional systems of its hosts, particularly their reproductive properties.¹⁰²

Cytoplasmic incompatibility (CI) is the most commonly detected type of *Wolbachia*-induced reproductive alteration.¹⁰³ In uni-directional CI, crosses between uninfected females and infected males are sterile because of embryogenic lethality; all other crosses are fertile.¹⁰² In bi-directional CI, all crosses between individuals infected with different *Wolbachia* strains are sterile. For instance, *Ae. albopictus* populations can be naturally single- or double-infected with *wAlbA* and *wAlbB*.¹⁰⁴ It has been demonstrated that single-infection is incompatible with an uninfected host, and that double-infection is incompatible with both single-infected and uninfected hosts.¹⁰⁵

In addition, *Wolbachia* can also reduce the ability of certain pathogens to replicate in insects.^{101,106} The presence of *Wolbachia* interferes with the development of a wide range of pathogens such as nematodes, bacteria, viruses, and protozoa. For example, *Wolbachia* infection limits the capacity of *Ae. aegypti* females to transmit dengue, chikungunya and yellow fever viruses.¹⁰⁶

As a result, *Wolbachia* symbiosis has led to the development of two applied strategies: population replacement, based on uni-directional CI, and population suppression, based on bi-directional CI or uni-directional CI if the population is uninfected.^{101,102} In population replacement, females infected with a *Wolbachia* strain are introduced to establish and spread the infection in the target population. The aim is to reduce pathogen transmission by shortening the adult mosquito's lifespan and/or preventing pathogen replication inside the mosquito. In population suppression, large numbers of infected males are repeatedly introduced into a population, and the sterility resulting from mating between released males and indigenous females causes the decline of the population, as in the sterile insect technique (SIT) (see 6.1). But in this case, the introduced *Wolbachia* strain is not established within the target population as males are dead-end hosts for *Wolbachia*, so this method is referred to as the incompatible insect technique (IIT).

Both strategies require the manipulation and generation of new infection types by introducing an infection in mosquito populations.¹⁰² Several *Wolbachia* strains have been successfully established in mosquitoes, such as the *wPip* and *wMel* strains in *Ae. albopictus*, respectively originating from naturally infected *Culex* and *Drosophila* hosts.^{107,108} Current findings from laboratory or semi-field trials are encouraging for the development of experimental IIT population suppression trials in the

field. Calvitti *et al.*¹⁰³ have created a new stable symbiosis in *Ae. albopictus* with a strain named ArwP by microinjecting the wPip strain from *Culex pipiens molestus* into the eggs. The ArwP-infected males are fully incompatible when mating with uninfected or naturally double-infected wild females. While *Wolbachia*-based population suppression has not been tested in field trials yet, *Wolbachia*-based population replacement has been demonstrated successfully in field trials with *Ae. aegypti* populations. In Australia, *Ae. aegypti* were infected with wMel, making them less competent vectors for the dengue virus, and then released into natural populations in two locations; they were almost established a few months after the release.¹⁰⁹

Although *Wolbachia*-based methods have been intensively studied since the 2000s with promising results, some cautions should be applied when considering these methods in a vector control strategy. First, these methods are species-specific and they may work only in areas with a single vector species. Then, IIT requires high sexual competitiveness of artificially *Wolbachia*-infected males and a highly efficient sex separation technique to avoid the accidental release of females, which could result in population replacement instead of suppression. As an example, for *Ae. albopictus*, *Wolbachia* infection does not seem to reduce male competitiveness,¹⁰⁷ and males are currently separated out at the pupal stage by the use of a 1400µm sieve with 99% accuracy which is a very high but not sufficient.¹¹⁰ Thus, further semi-field experiments are warranted to evaluate the mating competitiveness of artificially *Wolbachia*-infected males and the risk of releasing artificially infected females in a wild population. Finally, the vector competence of mosquitoes may be affected differently by *Wolbachia* infection. Instead of decreasing the infection and transmission of pathogens, *Wolbachia* might enhance pathogen infection in mosquitoes as it has been shown in wAlbB-infected *Anopheles gambiae* with *Plasmodium berghei* and in wAlbB-infected *Culex tarsalis* with West Nile virus.^{111,112} Therefore, Hughes *et al.*¹¹² suggested that *Wolbachia*-infected mosquitoes intended for release into nature should be assessed for inhibition of all relevant pathogens.

5. CHEMICAL METHODS

Today, insect growth regulators (IGRs) and pyrethroids are the unique chemicals used in Europe in mosquito control strategies as larvicides and adulticides, respectively. In accordance with Directive

98/8/EC (Biocidal Products Directive) and EU Regulation 528/2012 (Biocidal Products Regulation), certain biocides are banned from use in Europe such as temephos widely used around the world for larval control, and all other organophosphates used for adult control. The updated list of approved insecticides is available on the European Chemical Agency (ECHA) website (<http://echa.europa.eu/web/guest/information-on-chemicals/biocidal-active-substances>).

5.1. Insect growth regulators as chemical larvicides: direct application and auto-dissemination

IGRs such as pyriproxyfen, methoprene and diflubenzuron are commonly used as larvicides, and various commercial products are available. They also possess ovicidal properties, and can inhibit egg-hatching depending on their mode of action, the dose applied and the mosquito species.¹¹³ IGRs are relatively safe for non-target organisms.¹¹⁴ They have been widely used as part of integrated IMS-control programs^{21,25} and are most effective when targeted at the most productive breeding sites.¹¹⁵ In Italy, larvicide treatments carried out by public agencies are focused on catch basins. It has been shown that the adult emergence of *Ae. albopictus* and *Cx. pipiens* was strongly inhibited in diflubenzuron-treated catch basins,²¹ and that diflubenzuron was more effective and persistent than pyriproxyfen formulations against *Ae. albopictus*.¹¹⁶ In Colombia, the monthly application of pyriproxyfen in all street catch basins resulted in a decrease of *Ae. aegypti* larvae in the basins and a reduction in the incidence of dengue.¹¹⁵

A new approach, known as auto-dissemination, consists of exploiting wild adult mosquitoes as carriers of insecticide compounds.¹¹⁷ Female mosquitoes can be contaminated by the insecticide using treated nets or dissemination stations made from modified ovitraps. This method (using pyriproxyfen as the active compound) has been shown to induce high *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* mortality at the pupal stage in small-scale field experiments carried out in Peru¹¹⁷ and in Italy¹¹⁸, respectively. Moreover, an effect on egg production and egg hatchability was also observed under semi-field conditions.¹¹⁹ Recently, an oil and pyriproxyfen powder dual-treatment auto-dissemination station has been developed to enhance the transfer of pyriproxyfen to oviposition sites by increasing its attachment and retention on females.¹²⁰ Snetselaar et al.¹²¹ also designed a novel contamination device with a combination of pyriproxyfen and the entomopathogenic fungus *B. bassiana*. Dissemination of pyriproxyfen led to over 90% larval mortality, and *B. bassiana*

increased adult mortality compared to the control under laboratory conditions. However, sprayed applications of conventional pyriproxyfen formulation to treat tires or vegetation were not effective in auto-dissemination and were affected by climatic conditions such as high rainfall.¹²² The auto-dissemination technique may be improved by the design of new contamination stations or by the development of specific pyriproxyfen formulations. Another possible approach, suggested by Bouyer and Lefrançois¹²³, is to combine auto-dissemination with the sterile insect technique (SIT) (see 6.1) by releasing sterile males coated with pyriproxyfen in order to contaminate females during mating. This might 'boost' the ability of SIT to control mosquitoes.

5.2. Pyrethroids as chemical adulticides: space spraying, IRS, ITMs and ATSB

Pyrethroids are sprayed to rapidly reduce the abundance of *Aedes* females, particularly during epidemics.¹²⁴ They are mainly used against adult mosquitoes because of their relative safety for humans, their high insecticidal potency at low dosages and their rapid knock-down effects.¹²⁵ However, pyrethroids are toxic for non-target insect species, aquatic invertebrates and fish.¹²⁴ In Europe, ground applications are mostly carried out to reduce mosquito nuisance while aerial application is prohibited except in the case of a public health emergency declared by authorities.^{126,127} Currently, only Hungary allows aerial application. Ground sprays are applied mainly as thermal fogs or cold fogs, at high volume (HV; >150 l/h), low volume (LV; 18-60 l/h) or ultra-low volume (ULV; 0.6-18 l/h), using hand-carried or vehicle-mounted foggers.^{127,128} While ULV technology is commonly used in the United States, it is rather restricted in Europe.

In Europe, the effectiveness of ground spraying for mosquito control remains poorly studied in field trials although it is used routinely in summer to limit mosquito populations. In Spain, Chebabi Abramides *et al.*²⁰ observed that fumigating α -cypermethrin on vegetation in public parks in the framework of an integrated IMS-control campaign was effective at controlling *Ae. albopictus* while Bengoa *et al.*¹²⁹ found that a deltamethrin formulation (applied at ULV) showed higher mortality rates against *Ae. albopictus* and had a more effective residual effect on vegetation than an α -cypermethrin formulation. In Italy, Caputo *et al.*²¹ observed a reduction in *Ae. albopictus* abundance during the major phase of the population expansion after low-volume application of permethrin and pyrethrum. In French overseas territories, ULV applications of deltamethrin have

also been tested against *Ae. albopictus* and *Ae. aegypti*, but pyrethroid resistance in mosquito populations reduced the efficacy of the treatment.¹³⁰⁻¹³²

The effectiveness of sprays is mostly affected by droplet size distribution (droplet size and flow rate), meteorological conditions (temperature, wind speed and direction), habitat type (vegetation cover, open or secluded locations) and the time of application (flight activity of target species).^{124,128,133} This latter parameter is especially crucial for *Aedes* mosquitoes, which are expected to be targeted more efficiently during their diurnal and/or crepuscular flight activity. However, the presence of people represent a constraint for the implementation of diurnal and/or crepuscular sprayings, particularly in urban areas. Interestingly, nighttime ULV applications of formulation combining either permethrin-tetramethrin-piperonyl butoxide or sumithrin-prallethrin-piperonyl butoxide significantly reduced *Ae. albopictus* abundance in Italy (della Torre and Caputo, personal communication) and in New Jersey.¹³⁴

Although spray applications, particularly at ULV, have been successfully used in some integrated IMS-control campaigns against *Aedes* mosquitoes^{20,25}, this method is debatable because of high costs, slow operational response, low community acceptance, ineffective time of application, rather low efficacy and/or residual effects, and potential impact on non-target species.^{124,135,136} Furthermore, the development of insecticide resistance in *Aedes* populations remains a challenge for vector control.^{121,131,137} In Brazil, pyrethroid resistance levels in *Ae. aegypti* populations increased rapidly after an integrated IMS-control campaign including ULV ground spraying of 2% deltamethrin.¹³⁸ In the French Caribbean, where *Ae. aegypti* is strongly resistant to pyrethroids, treatments using deltamethrin or pyrethrins did not have any impact on larval or adult densities.¹³⁰ Therefore, it is advisable to check pyrethroid resistance in local mosquito populations before using these chemicals, considering that such resistance could arise following the use of pyrethroids in agriculture.^{139,140}

The efficacy of indoor residual spraying (IRS) and insecticide-treated materials (ITMs) is restricted to the behavior of *Ae. aegypti*, which rests inside homes before and after blood-feeding, unlike other IMS.¹⁴¹ IRS and ITMs allow the resting sites of *Ae. aegypti* to be targeted as spraying outdoor

spaces fails to reach indoor areas when houses are closed. In India, indoor thermal fogging of a deltamethrin formulation had a strong adulticidal effect for at least 5 days.¹⁴⁴ In Venezuela, Vanlerberghe *et al.*¹⁴³ demonstrated that the deployment of ITMs consisting of curtains and water jar covers can significantly reduce *Ae. aegypti* levels depending on the coverage attained. In Guatemala, the vector population was reduced by combining ITMs, larvicide treatments and source reduction targeting the most productive breeding sites.¹⁴⁴ In both studies, the insecticide in the ITMs remained effective at least 1 year after use in field conditions. However, in Thailand, ITMs had a low impact on *Ae. aegypti* populations, perhaps due to the area's open housing structures.¹⁴⁵

Attractive toxic sugar baits (ATSB) are a control method that exploits the diet used to sustain a mosquito's daily activities.^{146,147} Females and males obtain the sugar essential in their diet from floral nectar or extrafloral nectaries. ATSBs consist of a solution containing sugar and fruit juice blended with an oral toxin (e.g. boric acid, eugenol) or an insecticide (e.g. dinotefuran, spinosad). ATSBs can also use pyriproxyfen to provide additional control of mosquitoes at the larval stage.¹⁴⁸ ATSBs have been tested in stations set near breeding sites and in sprayed applications on vegetation. Sprayed applications appeared to be more effective at controlling *Ae. albopictus* than bait stations.¹⁴⁹ In Florida, spraying applications of ATSB on vegetation resulted in a significant reduction of *Ae. albopictus* populations for 21 days after treatment.^{149,150} The negative impact on non-target insects was lower when ATSB was sprayed on non-flowering vegetation.¹⁴⁹

6. GENETIC METHODS

6.1. Sterile insect technique

The sterile insect technique (SIT) relies on the release of large numbers of sterile males.^{151,152} Males are exposed to γ -irradiation or sterilizing chemicals, causing large-scale random damage to the insect's chromosomes or dominant lethal mutations in the sperm. SIT requires the production of large numbers of insects and the ability to separate males from females before release. Several SIT programs have been conducted successfully around the world, such as the elimination of the screw-worm fly *Cochliomyia hominivorax* in southern USA, Mexico and Central America. In terms of mosquito control, the release of chemosterilized males successfully eliminated *Cx. quinquefasciatus* on an island off Florida, and *Anopheles albimanus* in El Salvador.¹⁵³

Preliminary studies have confirmed the feasibility of using SIT against *Ae. albopictus* to suppress natural populations in Europe.¹⁵⁴⁻¹⁵⁶ *Aedes albopictus* males sterilized by ionizing radiation exhibit reduced mating competitiveness. However, a dose of around 30 Gy minimizes the potential damaging effects of irradiation, and a 5:1 ratio between sterilized and wild males appeared to be sufficient to reduce, though not to eliminate, the fertility of the female population.¹⁵⁵⁻¹⁵⁷ As the SIT approach requires mass rearing without affecting the mating competitiveness of the males, the FAO/IAEA Insect Pest Control Laboratory in Vienna (Austria) has developed a larval rearing unit with a production capacity of 100,000 male pupae per week.¹¹⁰ In Italy, pilot field trials of SIT have been performed in three villages over four years with the release of around 900–1500 sterile males/ha/week.¹⁵⁵ The sterility level in the population reached 70-80%, followed by a reduction in the egg density recorded in the ovitraps.

Furthermore, a new approach has been developed to produce non-irradiated sterile males using RNAi (RNA interference). RNAi is a gene-silencing mechanism achieved by delivering double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) to cells or organisms.¹⁵⁸ By feeding mosquito larvae with dsRNA targeting the testis genes and a female sex determination gene, Whyard *et al.*¹⁵⁹ produced *Ae. aegypti* males with reduced fertility and a male-biased mosquito population. This technique avoids the debilitating effects of radiation and eliminates the need to sex-sort mosquitoes before release. In the field, vector control might be fulfilled via administration of dsRNA baited larval food. However, the production of dsRNA is currently too expensive to treat large numbers of mosquitoes.

6.2. RIDL, RNAi, HEGs

Concerning the genetic modification of mosquitoes, there are three main emerging methods: RIDL (release of insects carrying a dominant lethal gene), RNAi and HEGs (homing endonuclease genes).¹⁰¹ These genetic methods have been reviewed and well illustrated by Mc Graw and O'Neill.¹⁰¹

The RIDL method operates similarly to SIT with a focus on female-killing effects. In this method, female-acting transgenes are carried and delivered into the wild population by genetically modified males. These transgenes may induce mortality in pupae or adults, or they may reduce the

expression of a gene active in the flight muscle resulting in flightless females unable to feed and mate.¹⁰¹ The fitness of males carrying female-acting transgenes is less compromised than the fitness of sterilized males because transgene transcription is driven by female specific promoters.¹⁰¹ This method has been tested successfully in the field in the Cayman Islands.¹⁶⁰ Although genetically modified males showed mating disadvantages, this could be compensated for by releasing them in greater numbers. Moreover, combined releases of adults and pupae seemed to have a good ability to maintain long-term suppression of a simulated wild population of *Ae. aegypti*.¹⁶¹ Field trials have been conducted or are in progress in dengue-endemic regions.¹⁶² In Brazil, the release of RIDL OX513A males led to the suppression of two target wild populations of *Ae. aegypti*.¹⁶³

The RNAi method is aimed at improving the RNAi insect immune response that recognizes and degrades invading viral RNA.¹⁰¹ For instance, *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes have been genetically modified by constructing an effector gene that targets the dengue virus type 2 (DENV2).^{164,165} It resulted in the expression of dsRNA corresponding to an inverted repeat sequence derived from the DENV2 RNA genome. The DENV2-specific dsRNA triggers the RNAi response and blocks the multiplication of the virus in the tissues of the mosquito.¹⁶⁵ In this way, transgenic *Ae. aegypti* females were resistant to dengue virus type 2.

The third genetic method makes use of HEGs which are selfish genes that can spread rapidly through populations by exploiting cellular repair mechanisms to copy themselves.¹⁶⁶ Discovered in bacteria, HEGs have been experimentally engineered and introduced in mosquitoes for vector control.¹⁰¹ HEGs encode endonuclease enzymes that recognize and cut specific DNA sequences. In a heterozygote individual, an HEG cuts and inserts itself into the intact copy, converting a HEG heterozygote to a HEG homozygote. This results in the increase of HEG copies in the mosquito population.¹⁰¹ HEGs are inserted into specific recognition sequences and trigger targeted gene disruptions. HEGs can be designed to target vector competence genes, fertility genes, or sex-determining genes, leading to pathogen-resistant females or to population suppression. To date, HEGs have been successfully introduced in *Ae. aegypti*¹⁶⁷ and *Anopheles gambiae*.¹⁶⁸

Most of these genetic technologies are at an early stage of development, except the RIDL method, which has already been tested in the field. The control potential of these technologies needs to be tested in natural conditions. Brown *et al.*¹⁶⁹ developed criteria for identifying and evaluating candidates sites for open-field trials of genetically modified mosquitoes (see also 7.1). These tests must be prepared and conducted carefully and transparently, following frameworks for environmental risk assessment. The WHO guidelines provide a framework to ensure the quality and consistency of procedures for testing genetically modified mosquitoes.¹⁷⁰

7. EVALUATION OF CONTROL METHODS IN LARGE-SCALE FIELD TRIALS

7.1. Site selection

Iyaloo *et al.*¹⁷¹ have provided guidelines for selecting sites for mosquito control trials. Before implementing an area-wide integrated IMS-control strategy, similar paired sites should be selected according to the vector population (in terms of isolation, density, presence of competing species, etc.) and ecological factors (climate, landscape, etc.). It is recommended to target a vector population that is naturally isolated from immigration, and if possible, with a sole IMS species. Indeed, the presence of other IMS increases the workload of monitoring based on larval/pupal indices or on egg counts in ovitraps as it implies the identification of *Aedes* species at immature stages (see 7.2). The selected sites should also be ecologically representative of the region to potentially expand the integrated IMS-control strategy, as well as stable, so that the variability of environmental conditions will not affect the results.¹⁷¹ In urban or suburban areas, socio-economic parameters should also be considered. In New Jersey, high poverty and a low education level were positively associated with a high abundance of *Ae. albopictus*.¹⁷⁴ Practical considerations should also be taken into account, such as existing facilities, a manageable site size and access to the whole site. Finally, the social, ethical and legal aspects of the integrated IMS-control strategy need to be considered before implementation.¹⁷¹

7.2. Monitoring of *Aedes* mosquitoes

The monitoring of *Aedes* mosquitoes is crucial in order to compare infestation levels between different sites and to evaluate the effectiveness of an integrated IMS-control strategy. Several indices are traditionally used in developing countries to evaluate *Aedes* populations: house index

(percentage of houses with at least one active breeding sites), container index (percentage of containers with larvae), Breteau index (number of active breeding sites per 100 premises) and ovitraps index (average proportion of ovitraps with eggs).³⁸ However, larval indices are of limited value in European countries because of differences in socio-economic and structural conditions characterizing human dwellings and the availability of breeding sites in public areas.³⁸ The PPI (number of pupae per premise) and PHI (number of pupae per hectare) seem to be more appropriate for European urban areas, particularly the latter one applicable to public and private areas.³⁸ Moreover, pupal indices exploit the strong correlation between the number of pupae and the number of adults in a defined area based on the low natural mortality of the pupae.

Ovitraps are the most widely used methods to monitor *Aedes* mosquito populations as they are inexpensive, sensitive and practical for area-wide surveys.²⁰ Indeed, the mean number of *Ae. albopictus* eggs in ovitraps was found to be positively correlated with counts from PPI, PHI and human landing catches in Italy during the chikungunya outbreak in 2007.¹⁹ In areas where several IMS occur, species must be identified from eggs, involving time-consuming labor in the laboratory (egg storage, egg hatching, larval rearing). Alternatively, MALDI-TOF MS (matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time of flight mass spectrometry) has been developed for easy and rapid identification of IMS.¹⁷²

Sticky traps collect ovipositing and resting females, and allow direct identification of *Aedes* sp. Estimates of adult populations from sticky traps were demonstrated to be highly positively correlated with estimates from ovitraps.⁵³ Sticky traps have been used successfully worldwide for the monitoring of *Ae. albopictus* and *Ae. aegypti*.^{53,54,173} In Italy, the efficacy of insecticide applications has been evaluated using sticky traps and mosquito emerging traps which consist in adhesive traps designed for the collection of adults visiting and emerging from catch basins.²¹

BGS traps which attract mostly host-seeking adult females can also be set to monitor *Aedes* mosquito populations during integrated IMS-control programs.¹⁷⁴ In New-Jersey, *Ae. albopictus* populations were surveyed weekly with BGS traps and ovitraps to examine the efficacy of active source reduction, insecticide applications and public education.²⁵ BGS traps were more sensitive than ovitraps to detect *Ae. albopictus* early in the season and to compare treated and untreated sites. However, the deployment of BGS traps over a wide area is costly and unpractical due to need of a power-supply.

To overcome some of the limitations of entomological indicators, recent studies have been done to develop simple, rapid, and highly sensitive complementary indicators to evaluate the level of human exposure to *Aedes* bites and the efficacy of control strategies.¹⁷⁵ When a female mosquito bites, it injects saliva containing highly immunogenic molecules. Human antibody responses, such as IgG, to one *Aedes* species saliva can be measured to assess the specific exposure of individuals to this *Aedes* species. Specific biomarkers for *Ae. albopictus* and *Ae. aegypti* saliva proteins are being developed and have been validated in La Réunion Island and in Bolivia, respectively.^{175,176} Even if these biomarkers are species-specific, a cross-reactivity has been observed between *Ae. albopictus* and *Ae. aegypti*, especially in high immune responders.¹⁷⁵

7.3. Implementing an integrated IMS-control strategy

The implementation of an integrated IMS-control strategy in Europe should take into account the target species, its ecology and the public health concern, i.e. nuisance or disease transmission.¹⁷⁷ In the latter case, insecticide treatments and fine-scale removal of breeding sites are recommended in the areas around the reported foci as it has been already implemented in Europe to limit the transmission of chikungunya or dengue by *Ae. albopictus*.^{178,179} On the other hand, when the aim of an integrated IMS-control strategy is to achieve a medium/long-term population reduction in order to decrease the biting nuisance and the risk of an arbovirus outbreak, the timing and choice of the treatment should be determined by the population dynamics of the target species.¹⁷⁷ For instance, methods such as insecticide spraying are more effective for rapidly reducing high-density mosquito populations or in the phase of major expansion,²¹ while genetic methods such as SIT are more effective at controlling low-density populations.¹⁷¹ The choice of the control method should consider its effectiveness, specificity, residual effect, selection for resistance and ecological impact. For example, the use of larvicides is one of the most effective methods if treatment is focused on the most productive breeding sites in an area; this may differ in urban, suburban and rural areas. Source reduction methods, which are costly and time-consuming, should involve the public in a community-based approach. More generally, the success of an integrated IMS-control strategy relies on cooperation between political decision-makers, public authorities, scientists and the general public.^{177,180} Finally, the implementation of an integrated IMS-control strategy has to be in line with financial and human resources.

7.4. Modeling approaches and cost-effectiveness analyses

Recently, modeling approaches have proved very helpful in optimizing integrated IMS-control strategies by testing several control methods at a theoretical level.¹⁶¹ Modeling studies have investigated the effectiveness of different control methods such as genetic techniques (e.g. RIDL, SIT), source reduction and/or insecticides, applied alone or in combination.^{161,181-183} Models have also been used to assess the effectiveness of insecticides in reducing *Ae. aegypti* adult abundance and to predict the evolution of insecticide resistance in mosquito populations.¹⁸⁴ In this way, Luz *et al.*¹⁸⁴ demonstrated that larval and adult controls were optimal at the beginning of the dengue season. In addition, spatial and space-time modeling approaches are very helpful in planning the implementation of an integrated IMS-control strategy (e.g. in terms of site selection and timing of treatment) by mapping the spatio-temporal distribution of IMS and exploring the influence of environmental factors.¹⁸⁵ The effects of spatial clustering of integrated IMS-control strategies can also be assessed according to different levels of spatial coverage and control method combinations.¹⁸⁶ Finally, cost-effectiveness analyses facilitate comparisons between integrated IMS-control strategies and can inform policy decisions.¹⁸⁷ Several studies have underlined the benefits of a real-time vector monitoring system to orientate the vector control campaign alongside a community-based approach using with routine vertical *Aedes* control, including source reduction and larvicide and adulticide applications.^{188,189}

8. CONCLUSIONS

The implementation and evaluation of integrated IMS-control strategies against *Aedes* mosquitoes, especially *Ae. albopictus*, are warranted in Europe, particularly through large-scale field trials. Of the IMS-control methods discussed in this review, several have been successfully used against *Ae. albopictus* mainly outside of Europe. These include source reduction (2), predation by copepods (4.2), larvicide application (4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 5.1), adulticide spraying (5.2) and SIT (6.1). Mechanical methods (3) have been evaluated in large areas, but only against *Ae. aegypti*; lethal ovitraps or gravid traps should also be effective against *Ae. albopictus*. New approaches such as pyriproxyfen auto-dissemination (5.1), ATSB (5.2) or IIT (4.6) based on *Wolbachia* infection have shown promising results in laboratory conditions or semi-field experiments, supporting their potential for future

implementation at a larger scale. Lastly, emerging genetic methods need to be developed for *Ae. albopictus*; so far only *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes have been genetically modified.

As underlined in previous studies, before implementing an integrated IMS-control strategy, entomological surveys are necessary to monitor the IMS and to select similar paired sites for large-scale trials. This allows the efficacy of control methods to be evaluated by determining if there has been a decrease in the adult population and/or egg oviposition in the treated site compared to the control site. Finally, tools such as mapping and modeling should be developed in order to optimize integrated IMS-control strategy, and cost-effectiveness analyses should be carried out to guide policy decisions.

In conclusion, there is a large range of vector control methods against *Aedes* mosquitoes. Traditional methods such as source reduction, public education and insecticide application are routinely implemented by municipalities to reduce *Aedes* populations, but with limited success, probably because of a poor participation of communities, and a lack of coordination and synchronised implementation. Innovative approaches such as pyriproxyfen auto-dissemination, genetic or *Wolbachia* based methods have to be sufficiently developed to demonstrate their efficacy and sustainability, and could be considered in programs of combined implementation afterwards.

As a general rule, an integrated IMS-control strategy requires the coordinated involvement of local authorities, private partners, organized society and communities. A high level of public cooperation is necessary from the beginning of integrated IMS-control programs, and only a continued support from both communities and local authorities can achieve a long-term effect. A key to success might be to customize integrated IMS-control strategy to each community according to the local *Aedes* infestations (key containers, infestation level, seasonal activity) and the specific socioeconomics characteristics of the locality.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was funded by the Autonomous Province of Trento (Italy), Research funds for Grandi Progetti, Project LExEM (Laboratory of Excellence for Epidemiology and Modelling, <http://www.lexem.eu>). It was also partially funded by EU Grant FP7-261504 EDENext and is catalogued by the EDENext Steering Committee as EDENext337 (<http://www.edenext.eu>). The

contents of this publication are the sole responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the European Commission.

REFERENCES

- 1 Deblauwe I, Sohler C, Schaffner F, Rakotoarivony LM and Coosemans M, Implementation of surveillance of invasive mosquitoes in Belgium according to the ECDC guidelines. *Parasit Vectors* 7:201 (2014).
- 2 Medlock JM, Hansford KM, Schaffner F, Versteirt V, Hendrickx G, Zeller H and Van Bortel W, A Review of the Invasive Mosquitoes in Europe: Ecology, Public Health Risks, and Control Options. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis* 12:435-447 (2012).
- 3 Schaffner F, Medlock JM and Van Bortel W, Public health significance of invasive mosquitoes in Europe. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 19:685-692 (2013).
- 4 Schaffner F, Bellini R, Petric D, Scholte E-J, Zeller H and Rakotoarivony LM, Development of guidelines for the surveillance of invasive mosquitoes in Europe. *Parasit Vectors* 6:209 (2013).
- 5 Kampen H and Werner D, Out of the bush: the Asian bush mosquito *Aedes japonicus japonicus* (Theobald, 1901) (Diptera, Culicidae) becomes invasive. *Parasit Vectors* 7:59 (2014).
- 6 Versteirt V, Pecor JE, Fonseca DM, Coosemans M and Van Bortel W, Confirmation of *Aedes koreicus* (Diptera: Culicidae) in Belgium and description of morphological differences between Korean and Belgian specimens validated by molecular identification. *Zootaxa* 3191:21-32 (2012).
- 7 Montarsi F, Martini S, Dal Pont M, Delai N, Milone NF, Mazzucato M, Soppelsa F, Cazzola L, Cazzin S, Ravagnan S, Ciocchetta S, Russo F and Capelli G, Distribution and habitat characterization of the recently introduced invasive mosquito *Aedes koreicus* (*Hulecoeteomyia koreica*), a new potential vector and pest in north-eastern Italy. *Parasit Vectors* 6:292 (2013).
- 8 Scholte EJ, Dik M, Justicia AI, Den Hartog W, Schoelitsz B, Brooks M, Braks M and Steeghs M, Findings and control of two invasive exotic mosquito species, *Aedes albopictus* and *Ae. atropalpus* (Diptera: Culicidae) in the Netherlands, 2011. *Euro Mosq Bull* 30:1-14 (2012).
- 9 Wheeler AW and Petrie WD, An overview of *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* control in the British Overseas Territory of the Cayman Islands. *Euro Surveill* 12:E071122.3. (2007).
- 10 Boussep P, Dehecq JS, Brengues C and Fontenille D, Updated inventory of mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae) of the island of La Reunion, Indian Ocean. *Bull Soc Pathol Exot* 106:113-125 (2013).
- 11 Urdaneta-Marquez L and Failloux A-B, Population genetic structure of *Aedes aegypti*, the principal vector of dengue viruses. *Infect Genet Evol* 11:253-261 (2011).
- 12 Carrieri M, Bellini R, Maccaferri S, Gallo L, Maini S and Celli G, Tolerance thresholds for *Aedes albopictus* and *Aedes caspius* in Italian urban areas. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 24:377-386 (2008).
- 13 Chebabi Abramides G, Roiz D, Guitart R, Quintana S and Gimenez N, Control of the Asian tiger mosquito (*Aedes albopictus*) in a firmly established area in Spain: risk factors and people's involvement. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 107:706-714 (2013).
- 14 Randolph SE and Rogers DJ, The arrival, establishment and spread of exotic diseases: patterns and predictions. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 8:361-371 (2010).
- 15 Rezza G, Nicoletti L, Angelini R, Romi R, Finarelli AC, Panning M, Cordioli P, Fortuna C, Boros S, Magurano F, Silvi G, Angelini P, Dottori M, Ciufolini MG, Majori GC and Cassone A, CHIKV study group, Infection with chikungunya virus in Italy: an outbreak in a temperate region. *Lancet* 370:1840-1846 (2007).
- 16 Tomasello D and Schlagenhauf P, Chikungunya and dengue autochthonous cases in Europe, 2007-2012. *Travel Med Infect Dis* 11:274-284 (2013).
- 17 Calzolari M, Bonilauri P, Bellini R, Caimi M, Defilippo F, Maioli G, Albieri A, Medici A, Veronesi R, Pilani R, Gelati A, Angelini P, Parco V, Fabbri M, Barbieri I, Lelli D, Lavazza A, Cordioli P and Dottori M, Arboviral Survey of Mosquitoes in Two Northern Italian Regions in 2007 and 2008. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis* 10:875-884 (2010).
- 18 *Handbook for Integrated Vector Management*. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland (2012).
- 19 Carrieri M, Angelini P, Venturelli C, Maccagnani B and Bellini R, *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) Population Size Survey in the 2007 Chikungunya Outbreak Area in Italy. II: Estimating Epidemic Thresholds. *J Med Entomol* 49:388-399 (2012).

- 20 Chebabi Abramides G, Roiz D, Guitart R, Quintana S, Guerrero I and Gimenez N, Effectiveness of a multiple intervention strategy for the control of the tiger mosquito (*Aedes albopictus*) in Spain. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 105:281-288 (2011).
- 21 Caputo B, Ienco A, Manica M, Petrarca V, Rosà R and della Torre A, New adhesive traps to monitor urban mosquitoes with a case study to assess efficacy of insecticide control strategies in temperate areas. *Parasit Vectors* 8:134 (2015).22 Duvallet G and de Gentile L, *Protection personnelle antivectorielle*. IRD Editions, Marseille, France (2012).
- 23 Debboun M and Strickman D, Insect repellents and associated personal protection for a reduction in human disease. *Med Vet Entomol* 27:1-9 (2013).
- 24 Banks SD, Murray N, Wilder-Smith A and Logan JG, Insecticide-treated clothes for the control of vector-borne diseases: a review on effectiveness and safety. *Med Vet Entomol* 28:14-25 (2014).
- 25 Fonseca DM, Unlu I, Crepeau T, Farajollahi A, Healy SP, Bartlett-Healy K, Strickman D, Gaugler R., Hamilton G, Kline D and Clark GG, Area-wide management of *Aedes albopictus*. Part 2: Gauging the efficacy of traditional integrated pest control measures against urban container mosquitoes. *Pest Manag Sci* 69:1351-1361(2013).
- 26 Richards SL, Ghosh SK, Zeichner BC and Apperson CS, Impact of source reduction on the spatial distribution of larvae and pupae of *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera : Culicidae) in suburban neighborhoods of a Piedmont community in North Carolina. *J Med Entomol* 45:617-628 (2008).
- 27 Dowling Z, Armbruster P, LaDeau SL, DeCotiis M, Mottley J and Leisnham PT, Linking Mosquito Infestation to Resident Socioeconomic Status, Knowledge, and Source Reduction Practices in Suburban Washington, DC. *Ecohealth* 10:36-47 (2013).
- 28 Carrieri M, Angelini P, Venturelli C, Maccagnani B and Bellini R, *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) Population Size Survey in the 2007 Chikungunya Outbreak Area in Italy. I. Characterization of Breeding Sites and Evaluation of Sampling Methodologies. *J Med Entomol* 48:1214-1225 (2011).
- 29 Versteirt V, Schaffner F, Garros C, Dekoninck W, Coosemans M and Van Bortel W, Introduction and Establishment of the Exotic Mosquito Species *Aedes japonicus japonicus* (Diptera: Culicidae) in Belgium. *J Med Entomol* 46:1464-1467 (2009).
- 30 Yee DA, Kneitel JM and Juliano SA, Environmental Correlates of Abundances of Mosquito Species and Stages in Discarded Vehicle Tires. *J Med Entomol* 47:53-62 (2010).
- 31 Nazareth T, Teodosio R, Porto G, Goncalves L, Seixas G, Silva AC and Sousa CA, Strengthening the perception-assessment tools for dengue prevention: a cross-sectional survey in a temperate region (Madeira, Portugal). *BMC Public Health* 14 (2014).
- 32 Unlu I, Farajollahi A, Strickman D and Fonseca DM, Crouching Tiger, Hidden Trouble: Urban Sources of *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) Refractory to Source-Reduction. *Plos One* 8:e77999 (2013).
- 33 Carrieri M, Bacchi M, Bellini R and Maini S, On the competition occurring between *Aedes albopictus* and *Culex pipiens* (Diptera : Culicidae) in Italy. *Environ Entomol* 32:1313-1321 (2003).
- 34 Costanzo KS, Mormann K and Juliano SA, Asymmetrical competition and patterns of abundance of *Aedes albopictus* and *Culex pipiens* (Diptera : Culicidae). *J Med Entomol* 42:559-570 (2005).
- 35 Unlu I, Faraji A, Indelicato N and Fonseca DM, The hidden world of Asian tiger mosquitoes: immature *Aedes albopictus* (Skuse) dominate in rainwater corrugated extension spouts. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 108:699-705 (2014).
- 36 Boyer S, Foray C and Dehecq J-S, Spatial and temporal heterogeneities of *Aedes albopictus* density in La Reunion Island: rise and weakness of entomological indices. *Plos One* 9:e91170 (2014).
- 37 Marciel-de-Freitas R and Lourenço-de-Oliveira R, Does targeting key-containers effectively reduce *Aedes aegypti* population density? *Trop Med Int Health* 16:965-973 (2011).
- 38 Petric D, Bellini R, Scholte E-J, Rakotoarivony LM and Schaffner F, Monitoring population and environmental parameters of invasive mosquito species in Europe. *Parasit Vectors* 7:187 (2014).
- 39 Jacups SP, Rapley LP, Johnson PH, Benjamin S and Ritchie SA, *Bacillus thuringiensis* var. *israelensis* Misting for Control of *Aedes* in Cryptic Ground Containers in North Queensland, Australia. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 88:490-496 (2013).
- 40 Bartlett-Healy K, Hamilton G, Healy S, Crepeau T, Unlu I, Farajollahi A, Fonseca D, Gaugler R, Clark GG and Strickman D, Source Reduction Behavior as an Independent Measurement of the Impact of a Public Health Education Campaign in an Integrated Vector Management Program for the Asian Tiger Mosquito. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 8:1358-1367 (2011).

- 41 Grantham A, Anderson AL and Kelley T, Door to Door Survey and Community Participation to Implement a New County Mosquito Control Program in Wayne County, North Carolina, USA. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 6:2150-2159 (2009).
- 42 Healy K, Hamilton G, Crepeau T, Healy S, Unlu I, Farajollah A and Fonseca DM, Integrating the Public in Mosquito Management: Active Education by Community Peers Can Lead to Significant Reduction in Peridomestic Container Mosquito Habitats. *PLoS One* 9:e108504 (2014).
- 43 Kittayapong P, Thongyuan S, Olanratmanee P, Aumchareoun W, Koyadun S, Kittayapong R and Butraporn P, Application of eco-friendly tools and eco-biosocial strategies to control dengue vectors in urban and peri-urban settings in Thailand. *Pathog Glob Health* 106:446-454 (2012).
- 44 Brown D, Sustainable mosquito control in California: a template for the world, in *Vector biology, ecology and control*, ed. by Atkinson PW. Springer Science+Buisness Media, Dordrecht, the Netherlands, pp.203-207 (2010).
- 45 Kline DL, Semiochemicals, traps/targets and mass trapping technology for mosquito management. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 23:241-51 (2007).
- 46 Mackay AJ, Amador M and Barrera R, An improved autocidal gravid ovitrap for the control and surveillance of *Aedes aegypti*. *Parasit Vectors* 6:225 (2013).
- 46 Zeichner BC and Debboun M, The lethal ovitrap: a response to the resurgence of dengue and chikungunya. *U.S. Army Med Dep J* Jul-Sep:4-11 (2011).
- 48 Perich MJ, Kardec A, Braga IA, Portal IF, Burge R, Zeichner BC, Brogdon WA and Wirtz RA, Field evaluation of a lethal ovitrap against dengue vectors in Brazil. *Med Vet Entomol* 17:205-210 (2003).
- 49 Ritchie SA, Rapley LP, Williams C, Johnson PH, Larkman M, Silcock RM, Long SA and Russell RC, A lethal ovitrap-based mass trapping scheme for dengue control in Australia: I. Public acceptability and performance of lethal ovitraps. *Med Vet Entomol* 23:295-302 (2009).
- 50 Sant'ana AL, Roque RA and Eiras AE, Characteristics of grass infusions as oviposition attractants to *Aedes (Stegomyia)* (Diptera : culicidae). *J Med Entomol* 43:214-220 (2006).
- 51 Darriet F, Zumbo B, Corbel V and Chandre F, [Influence of plant matter and NPK fertilizer on the biology of *Aedes aegypti* (Diptera: Culicidae)]. *Parasite* 17:149-154 (2010).
- 52 Trexler JD, Apperson CS, Gemeno C, Perich MJ, Carlson D and Schal C, Field and laboratory evaluations of potential oviposition attractants for *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera : Culicidae). *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 19:228-234 (2003).
- 53 Facchinelli L, Valerio L, Pombi M, Reiter P, Costantini C and della Torre A, Development of a novel sticky trap for container-breeding mosquitoes and evaluation of its sampling properties to monitor urban populations of *Aedes albopictus*. *Med Vet Entomol* 21:183-195 (2007).
- 54 Mendonca de Santos EM, Varjal de Melo-Santos MA, Fontes de Oliveira CM, Correia JC and Ribeiro de Albuquerque CM, Evaluation of a sticky trap (AedesTraP), made from disposable plastic bottles, as a monitoring tool for *Aedes aegypti* populations. *Parasit Vectors* 5:195 (2012).
- 55 Eiras AE, Buhagiar TS and Ritchie SA, Development of the Gravid Aedes Trap for the Capture of Adult Female Container-Exploiting Mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae). *J Med Entomol* 51:200-209 (2014).
- 56 Barrera R, Mackay AJ, Amador MA, Caban BZ, Acevedo V and Felix G, Field trials of a new gravid-ovitrap for integrated area-wide control of *Aedes aegypti* in Puerto Rico. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 83:179 (2010).
- 57 Lee C, Vythilingam I, Chong C-S, Razak MAA, Tan C-H, Liew C, Pok K-Y and Ng L-C, Gravitraps for Management of Dengue Clusters in Singapore. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 88:888-892 (2013).
- 58 Farajollahi A, Kesavaraju B, Price DC, Williams GM, Healy SP, Gaugler R and Nelder MP, Field Efficacy of BG-Sentinel and Industry-Standard Traps for *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) and West Nile Virus Surveillance. *J Med Entomol* 46:919-925 (2009).
- 59 Ferreira de Azara TM, Degener CM, Roque RA, Ohly JJ, Geier M and Eiras AE, The impact of CO₂ on collection of *Aedes aegypti* (Linnaeus) and *Culex quinquefasciatus* Say by BG-Sentinel (R) traps in Manaus, Brazil. *Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz* 108:229-232 (2013).
- 60 Englbrecht C, Gordon S, Venturelli C, Rose A and Geier M, Evaluation of BG-Sentinel trap as a mangement tool to reduce *Aedes albopictus* nuisance in an urban environment in Italy. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 31:16-25 (2015).
- 61 Degener CM, Eiras AE, Azara TMF, Roque RA, Roesner S, Codeco CT, Nobre AA, Rocha ESO, Kroon EG, Ohly JJ and Geier M, Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Mass Trapping With BG-Sentinel Traps for Dengue Vector Control: A Cluster Randomized Controlled Trial in Manaus, Brazil. *J Med Entomol* 51:408-420 (2014).

- 62 Cook SM, Khan ZR and Pickett JA, The use of push-pull strategies in integrated pest management. *Ann Rev Entomol* 52:375-400 (2007).
- 63 Paz-Soldan VA, Plasai V, Morrison AC, Rios-Lopez EJ, Guedez-Gonzales S, Grieco JP, Mundal K, Chareonviriyaphap T and Achee NL, Initial Assessment of the Acceptability of a Push-Pull *Aedes aegypti* Control Strategy in Iquitos, Peru and Kanchanaburi, Thailand. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 84:208-217 (2011).
- 64 Salazar FV, Achee NL, Grieco JP, Prabaripai A, Ojo TA, Eisen L, Dureza C, Polsomboon S and Chareonviriyaphap T, Effect of *Aedes aegypti* exposure to spatial repellent chemicals on BG-Sentinel (TM) trap catches. *Parasit Vectors* 6:145(2013).
- 65 Darbro JM, Johnson PH, Thomas MB, Ritchie SA, Kay BH and Ryan PA, Effects of *Beauveria bassiana* on Survival, Blood-Feeding Success, and Fecundity of *Aedes aegypti* in Laboratory and Semi-Field Conditions. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 86:656-664 (2012).
- 66 Scholte E-J, Takken W and Knols BGJ, Infection of adult *Aedes aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* mosquitoes with the entomopathogenic fungus *Metarhizium anisopliae*. *Acta Trop* 102:151-158 (2007).
- 67 EPA, *Metarhizium anisopliae* Strains F52 and EFS1 - Preliminary Work Plan and Summary Document. US Environmental Protection Agency (2009).
- 68 Paula AR, Carolino AT, Silva CP, Pereira CR and Samuels RI, Testing fungus impregnated cloths for the control of adult *Aedes aegypti* under natural conditions. *Parasit Vectors* 6:256 (2013).
- 69 Sousa NA, Lobo LS, Rodrigues J and Luz C, New insights on the effectiveness of *Metarhizium anisopliae* formulation and application against *Aedes aegypti* eggs. *Lett Appl Microbiol* 57:193-199 (2013).
- 70 Marten GG and Reid JW, Cyclopoid copepods. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 23:65-92 (2007).
- 71 Marten GG, Elimination of *Aedes albopictus* from tire piles by introducing *Macrocyclus albidus* (Copepoda, Cyclopidae). *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 6:689-693 (1990).
- 72 Kay B and Nam VS, New strategy against *Aedes aegypti* in Vietnam. *Lancet* 365:613-617 (2005).
- 73 Kittayapong P, Chansang U, Chansang C and Bhumiratana A, Community participation and appropriate technologies for dengue vector control at transmission foci in Thailand. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 22:538-546 (2006).
- 74 Vu Sinh N, Nguyen Thi Y, Hoang Minh D, Tran Cong T, Vu Trong T, Nguyen Hoang L, Le Hoang S, Luu Le L, Vu Thi Que H, Ly Huynh Kim K, Huynh Thi Thuy T, Lam LZY, Kutcher SC, Aaskov JG, Jeffery JAL, Ryan PA and Kay BH, Community-Based Control of *Aedes aegypti* By Using *Mesocyclops* in Southern Vietnam. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 86:850-859 (2012).
- 75 Soumare MKF and Cilek JE, The effectiveness of *Mesocyclops longisetus* (Copepoda) for the control of container-inhabiting mosquitoes in residential environments. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 27:376-383 (2011).
- 76 Veronesi R, Carrieri M, Maccagnani B, Maini S and Bellini R, *Macrocyclus albidus* (Copepoda: cyclopidae) for the biocontrol of *Aedes albopictus* and *Culex pipiens* in Italy. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 31:32-43 (2015).
- 77 Guidi V, Lehner A, Luethy P and Tonolla M, Dynamics of *Bacillus thuringiensis* var. *israelensis* and *Lysinibacillus sphaericus* Spores in Urban Catch Basins after Simultaneous Application against Mosquito Larvae. *Plos One* 8:e55658 (2013).
- 78 Lagadic L, Roucaute M and Caquet T, *Bti* sprays do not adversely affect non-target aquatic invertebrates in French Atlantic coastal wetlands. *J Appl Ecol* 51:102-113 (2014).
- 79 Boyce R, Lenhart A, Kroeger A, Velayudhan R, Roberts B and Horstick O, *Bacillus thuringiensis israelensis* (*Bti*) for the control of dengue vectors: systematic literature review. *Trop Med Int Health* 18:564-577 (2013).
- 80 Mulla MS, Thavara U, Tawatsin A, Chomposrf J and Su TY, Emergence of resistance and resistance management in field populations of tropical *Culex quinquefasciatus* to the microbial control agent *Bacillus sphaericus*. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 19:39-46 (2003).
- 81 Yu HS, Lee DK and Lee WJ, Mosquito control evaluation of *Bacillus sphaericus* (1953) against *Anopheles*, *Aedes* and *Culex* larvae in the laboratory, 0.5-m² aquarium and simulated rice paddies. *Korean J Entomol* 12:121 (1982).
- 82 Anderson JF, Ferrandino FJ, Dingman DW, Main AJ, Andreadis TG and Becnel JJ, Control of mosquitoes in catch basins in Connecticut with *Bacillus thuringiensis israelensis*, *Bacillus sphaericus*, and spinosad. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 27:45-55 (2011).
- 83 Marcombe S, Darriet F, Agnew P, Etienne M, Tcha MMY, Yebakima A and Corbel V, Field Efficacy of New Larvicide Products for Control of Multi-Resistant *Aedes aegypti* Populations in Martinique (French West Indies). *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 8:118-126 (2011).

- 84 Scholte EJ, Den Hartog W, Dik M, Schoelitz B, Brooks M, Schaffner F, Foussadier R, Braks M and Beeuwkes J, Introduction and control of three invasive mosquito species in the Netherlands, July-October 2010. *Euro Surveill* 15:10-13 (2010).
- 85 Tan AWA, Loke SR, Benjamin S, Lee HL, Chooi KH and Sofian-Azirun M, Spray application of *Bacillus thuringiensis israelensis* (Bti strain AM65-52) against *Aedes aegypti* (L.) and *Ae. albopictus* Skuse populations and impact on dengue transmission in a dengue endemic residential site in Malaysia. *Southeast Asian J Trop Med Public Health* 43:296-310 (2012).
- 86 Ritchie SA, Rapley LP and Benjamin S, *Bacillus thuringiensis* var. *israelensis* (Bti) Provides Residual Control of *Aedes aegypti* in Small Containers. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 82:1053-1059 (2010).
- 87 Ocampo CB, Gonzalez C, Morales CA, Perez M, Wesson D and Apperson CS, Evaluation of community-based strategies for *Aedes aegypti* control inside houses. *Biomedica* 29:282-297 (2009).
- 88 Lam PHY, Boon CS, Yng NY and Benjamin S, *Aedes albopictus* control with spray application of *Bacillus thuringiensis israelensis*, strain AM65-52. *Southeast Asian J Trop Med Public Health* 41:1071-1081 (2010).
- 89 Hertlein MB, Mavrotas C, Jousseume C, Lysandrou M, Thompson GD, Jany W and Ritchie SA, A review of spinosad as a natural product for larval mosquito control. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 26:67-87 (2010).
- 90 *Spinosad DT in drinking-water: use for vector control in drinking-water sources and containers*. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland (2010).
- 91 Liu H, Cupp EW, Guo AG and Liu NN, Insecticide resistance in Alabama and Florida mosquito strains of *Aedes albopictus*. *J Med Entomol* 41:946-952 (2004).
- 92 Darriet F, Duchon S and Hougard JM, Spinosad: A new larvicide against insecticide-resistant mosquito larvae. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 21:495-496 (2005).
- 93 Marina CF, Guillermo Bond J, Casas M, Munoz J, Orozco A, Valle J and Williams T, Spinosad as an effective larvicide for control of *Aedes albopictus* and *Aedes aegypti*, vectors of dengue in southern Mexico. *Pest Manag Sci* 67:114-121 (2011).
- 94 Marina CF, Bond JG, Munoz J, Valle J, Novelo-Gutierrez R and Williams T, Efficacy and non-target impact of spinosad, Bti and temephos larvicides for control of *Anopheles* spp. in an endemic malaria region of southern Mexico. *Parasit Vectors* 7:55 (2014).
- 95 Dias CN and Moraes DF, Essential oils and their compounds as *Aedes aegypti* L. (Diptera: Culicidae) larvicides: review. *Parasitol Res* 113:565-592 (2014).
- 96 Zhu J, Zeng X, O'Neal M, Schultz G, Tucker B, Coats J, Bartholomay L and Xue RD, Mosquito larvicidal activity of botanical-based mosquito repellents. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 24:161-168 (2008).
- 97 Maheswaran R and Ignacimuthu S, A novel herbal formulation against dengue vector mosquitoes *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus*. *Parasitol Res* 110:1801-1813 (2012).
- 98 Mikami A and Yamashita N, The inhibitory effects of a neem formulation on emergence of *Ochlerotatus japonicus* and *Culex pipiens pallens*. *Med Entomol Zool* 55:239-242 (2004).
- 99 Chang KS, Shin EH, Yoo DH and Ahn YJ, Enhanced Toxicity of Binary Mixtures of *Bacillus thuringiensis* subsp *israelensis* and Three Essential Oil Major Constituents to Wild *Anopheles sinensis* (Diptera: Culicidae) and *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae). *J Med Entomol* 51:804-810 (2014).
- 100 *Guidelines for laboratory and field testing of mosquito larvicides*. World Health Organisation, Geneva, Switzerland (2005).
- 101 McGraw, EA and O'Neill SL, Beyond insecticides: new thinking on an ancient problem. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 11:181-193 (2013).
- 102 Bourtzis K, Dobson SL, Xi Z, Rasgon JL, Calvitti M, Moreira LA, Bossin HC, Moretti R, Baton LA, Hughes, G L, Mavingui P and Gilles JRL, Harnessing mosquito-*Wolbachia* symbiosis for vector and disease control. *Acta Trop* 132:150-163 (2014).
- 103 Calvitti M, Moretti R, Skidmore AR and Dobson SL, *Wolbachia* strain wPip yields a pattern of cytoplasmic incompatibility enhancing a *Wolbachia*-based suppression strategy against the disease vector *Aedes albopictus*. *Parasit Vectors* 5:254 (2012).
- 104 Ahantarig A, Kittayapong P, Endosymbiotic *Wolbachia* bacteria as biological control tools of disease vectors and pests. *J Appl Entomol* 135:479-486 (2011).
- 105 Dobson SL, Marsland EJ and Rattanadechakul W, *Wolbachia*-induced cytoplasmic incompatibility in single-and superinfected *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera : Culicidae). *J Med Entomol* 38:382-387 (2001).

- 106 Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Walker T and Neill SLO, *Wolbachia* and the biological control of mosquito-borne disease. *Embo Rep* 12:508-518 (2011).
- 107 Moretti R and Calvitti M, Male mating performance and cytoplasmic incompatibility in a *wPip Wolbachia* trans-infected line of *Aedes albopictus* (*Stegomyia albopicta*). *Med Vet Entomol* 27:377-386 (2013).
- 108 Blagrove MSC, Arias-Goeta C, Failloux AB and Sinkins SP, *Wolbachia* strain *wMel* induces cytoplasmic incompatibility and blocks dengue transmission in *Aedes albopictus*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 109:255-260 (2012).
- 109 Hoffmann AA, Montgomery BL, Popovici J, Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Johnson PH, Muzzi F, Greenfield M, Durkan M, Leong YS, Dong Y, Cook H, Axford J, Callahan AG, Kenny N, Omodei C, McGraw EA, Ryan PA, Ritchie SA, Turelli M and O'Neill SL, Successful establishment of *Wolbachia* in *Aedes* populations to suppress dengue transmission. *Nature* 476:454-457 (2011).
- 110 Balestrino F, Puggioli A, Gilles JRL and Bellini R, Validation of a New Larval Rearing Unit for *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) Mass Rearing. *Plos One* 9:e91914 (2014).
- 111 Dodson BL, Hughes GL, Paul O, Maccachiero AC, Kramer LD and Ragson JL, *Wolbachia* enhances West Nile virus infection in the mosquito *Culex tarsalis*. *PloS Negl Trop Dis* 8:e2965 (2014).
- 112 Hughes GL, Rivero A and Ragson JL, *Wolbachia* can enhance *Plasmodium* infection in mosquitoes: implications for malaria control. *PloS pathog* 10:e1004182 (2014).
- 113 Suman DS, Wang Y, Bilgrami AL and Gaugler R, Ovicidal activity of three insect growth regulators against *Aedes* and *Culex* mosquitoes. *Acta Trop* 128:103-109 (2013).
- 114 Mulla MS, The future of insect growth-regulators in vector control. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 11:269-273 (1995).
- 115 Ocampo CB, Julieth Mina N, Carabali M, Alexander N and Osorio L, Reduction in dengue cases observed during mass control of *Aedes (Stegomyia)* in street catch basins in an endemic urban area in Colombia. *Acta Trop* 132:15-22(2014).
- 116 Bellini R, Albieri A, Carrieri M, Colonna R, Donati L, Magnani M, Pilani R, Veronesi R, Chiot G and Lanza N, Efficacy and lasting activity of four IGRs formulations against mosquitoes in catch basins of northern Italy. *Europ Mosq Bull* 27:33-46 (2009).
- 117 Devine GJ, Zamora Perea E, Killeen GF, Stancil JD, Clark SJ and Morrison AC, Using adult mosquitoes to transfer insecticides to *Aedes aegypti* larval habitats. *Proc Nat Acad Sci USA* 106:11530-11534 (2009).
- 118 Caputo B, Ienco A, Cianci D, Pombi M, Petrarca V, Baseggio A, Devine GJ and della Torre A, The "Auto-Dissemination" Approach: A Novel Concept to Fight *Aedes albopictus* in Urban Areas. *PloS Negl Trop Dis* 6:e1793 (2012).
- 119 Ohba S-Y, Ohashi K, Pujiyati E, Higa Y, Kawada H, Mito N and Takagi M, The Effect of Pyriproxyfen as a "Population Growth Regulator" against *Aedes albopictus* under Semi-Field Conditions. *PloS One* 8:e67045 (2013).
- 120 Wang Y, Suman DS, Bertrand J, Dong L and Gaugler R, Dual-treatment autodissemination station with enhanced transfer of an insect growth regulator to mosquito oviposition sites. *Pest Manag Sci* 70:1299-1304 (2014).
- 121 Snetselaar J, Andriessen R, Suer RA, Osinga AJ and Knols BGJ, Farenhorst M, Development and evaluation of a novel contamination device that targets multiple life-stages of *Aedes aegypti*. *Parasit Vectors* 7:200 (2014).
- 122 Suman DS, Farajollahi A, Healy S, Williams GM, Wang Y, Schoeler G and Gaugler R, Point-source and area-wide field studies of pyriproxyfen autodissemination against urban container-inhabiting mosquitoes. *Acta Trop* 135:96-103 (2014).
- 123 Bouyer J and Lefrançois T, Boosting the sterile insect technique to control mosquitoes. *Trends Parasitol* 30:271-273 (2014).
- 124 Bonds JAS, Ultra-low-volume space sprays in mosquito control: a critical review. *Med Vet Entomol* 26:121-130 (2012).
- 125 *Safety of pyrethroids for public health use*. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland (2005).
- 126 Chaskopoulou A, Latham MD, Pereira RM, Connelly R, Bonds JAS and Koehler PG, Efficacy of aerial ultra-low volume applications of two novel water-based formulations of unsynergized pyrethroids against riceland mosquitoes in Greece. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 27:414-422 (2011).
- 127 Bellini R, Zeller H and Van Bortel W, A review of the vector management methods to prevent and control outbreaks of West Nile virus infection and the challenge for Europe. *Parasit Vectors* 7:323 (2014).

- 128 Space spray application of insecticides for vector and public health pest control. *A practitioner's guide*. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland (2003).
- 129 Bengoa M, Eritja R and Lucientes J, Ground ultra-low volume adulting field trials using pyrethroids against *Aedes albopictus* in the Baix Llobregat region, Spain. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 30:42-50 (2014).
- 130 Marcombe S, Darriet F, Tolosa M, Agnew P, Duchon S, Etienne M, Tcha MMY, Chandre F, Corbel V and Yebakima A, Pyrethroid Resistance Reduces the Efficacy of Space Sprays for Dengue Control on the Island of Martinique (Caribbean). *Plos Negl Trop Dis* 5:e1202 (2011).
- 131 Dusfour I, Thalmensy V, Gaborit P, Issaly J, Carinci R and Girod R, Multiple insecticide resistance in *Aedes aegypti* (Diptera: Culicidae) populations compromises the effectiveness of dengue vector control in French Guiana. *Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz* 106:346-352 (2011).
- 132 Delatte H, Paupy C, Dehecq JS, Thiria J, Failloux AB and Fontenille D, *Aedes albopictus*, vector of chikungunya and dengue viruses in Reunion Island: Biology and control. *Parasite* 15:3-13 (2008).
- 133 Harburguer L, Seccacini E, Licastro S, Zerba E and Masuh H, Droplet size and efficacy of an adulticide-larvicide ultralow-volume formulation on *Aedes aegypti* using different solvents and spray application methods. *Pest Manag Sci* 68:137-141 (2012).
- 134 Farajollahi A, Healy SP, Unlu I, Gaugler R and Fonseca DM, Effectiveness of Ultra-Low Volume Nighttime Applications of an Adulticide against Diurnal *Aedes albopictus*, a Critical Vector of Dengue and Chikungunya Viruses. *Plos One* 7:e49181(2012).
- 135 Corbel V, Nosten F, Thanispong K, Luxemburger C, Kongmee M and Chareonviriyaphap T, Challenges and prospects for dengue and malaria control in Thailand, Southeast Asia. *Trends Parasitol* 2013, 29 (12), 623-633;
- 136 Esu E, Lenhart A, Smith L and Horstick O, Effectiveness of peridomestic space spraying with insecticide on dengue transmission; systematic review. *Trop Med Int Health* 15:619-631 (2010).
- 137 Marcombe S, Farajollahi A, Healy SP, Clark GG and Fonseca DM, Insecticide Resistance Status of United States Populations of *Aedes albopictus* and Mechanisms Involved. *Plos One* 9:e101992 (2014).
- 138 Maciel-de-Freitas R, Avendanho FC, Santos R, Sylvestre G, Araujo SC, Pereira Lima JB, Martins AJ, Coelho GE and Valle D, Undesirable Consequences of Insecticide Resistance following *Aedes aegypti* Control Activities Due to a Dengue Outbreak. *Plos One* 9:e92424 (2014).
- 139 Marcombe S, Mathieu RB, Pocquet N, Riaz MA, Poupardin R, Selior S, Darriet F, Reynaud S, Yebakima A, Corbel V, David JP and Chandre F, Insecticide Resistance in the Dengue Vector *Aedes aegypti* from Martinique: Distribution, Mechanisms and Relations with Environmental Factors. *Plos One* 7:e30989 (2012).
- 140 Vontas J, Kioulos E, Pavlidi N, Morou E, della Torre A and Ranson H, Insecticide resistance in the major dengue vectors *Aedes albopictus* and *Aedes aegypti*. *Pestic Biochem Phys* 104: 126-131
- 141 Chadee DD, Resting behaviour of *Aedes aegypti* in Trinidad: with evidence for the re-introduction of indoor residual spraying (IRS) for dengue control. *Parasit Vectors* 6:255 (2013).
- 142 Mani TR, Arunachalam N, Rajendran R, Satyanarayana K and Dash AP, Efficacy of thermal fog application of deltamethrin, a synergized mixture of pyrethroids, against *Aedes aegypti*, the vector of dengue. *Trop Med Int Health* 10:1298-1304 (2005).
- 143 Vanlerberghe V, Villegas E, Oviedo M, Baly A, Lenhart A, McCall PJ and Van der Stuyft P, Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Insecticide Treated Materials for Household Level Dengue Vector Control. *Plos Negl Trop Dis* 5:e994 (2011).
- 144 Rizzo N, Gramajo R, Escobar MC, Arana B, Kroeger A, Manrique-Saide P and Petzold M, Dengue vector management using insecticide treated materials and targeted interventions on productive breeding-sites in Guatemala. *BMC Public Health* 12:931 (2012).
- 145 Lenhart A, Trongtokit Y, Alexander N, Apiwathnasorn C, Satimai W, Vanlerberghe V, Van der Stuyft P and McCall PJ, A Cluster-Randomized Trial of Insecticide-Treated Curtains for Dengue Vector Control in Thailand. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 88:254-259 (2013).
- 146 Müller GC, Junnila A, Qualls W, Revay EE, Kline DL, Allan S, Schlein Y and Xue RD, Control of *Culex quinquefasciatus* in a storm drain system in Florida using attractive toxic sugar baits. *Med Vet Entomol* 24:346-351 (2010).
- 147 Qualls WA, Xue R, Revay EE, Allan SA and Muller GC, Implications for operational control of adult mosquito production in cisterns and wells in St. Augustine, FL using attractive sugar baits. *Acta Trop* 124:158-161 (2012).

- 148 Fulcher A, Scott JM, Qualls WA, Mueller GC and Xue RD, Attractive Toxic Sugar Baits Mixed With Pyriproxyfen Sprayed on Plants Against Adult and Larval *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae). *J Med Entomol* 51:896-899 (2014).
- 149 Revay EE, Mueller GC, Qualls WA, Kline DL, Naranjo DP, Arheart KL, Kravchenko VD, Yefremova Z, Hausmann A, Beier JC, Schlein Y and Xue RD, Control of *Aedes albopictus* with attractive toxic sugar baits (ATSB) and potential impact on non-target organisms in St. Augustine, Florida. *Parasitol Res* 113:73-79 (2014).
- 150 Naranjo DP, Qualls WA, Mueller GC, Samson DM, Roque D, Alimi T, Arheart K, Beier JC and Xue R-D, Evaluation of boric acid sugar baits against *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) in tropical environments. *Parasitol Res* 112:1583-1587 (2013).
- 151 Alphey L, Benedict M, Bellini R, Clark GG, Dame DA, Service MW and Dobson SL, Sterile-Insect Methods for Control of Mosquito-Borne Diseases: An Analysis. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis* 10:295-311 (2010).
- 152 Lofgren CS, Dame DA, Breeland SG, Weidhaas DE, Jeffery G, Kaiser R, Ford HR, Boston MD and Baldwin KF, Release of chemosterilized males for the control of *Anopheles albimanus* in El Salvador. 3. Field methods and population control. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 23:288-297 (1974).
- 153 Patterson RS, Weidhaas DE, Ford HR and Lofgren CS, Suppression and elimination of an island population of *Culex pipiens quinquefasciatus* with sterile males. *Science* 168:1368-1370 (1970).
- 154 Bellini R, Calvitti M, Medici A, Carrieri M, Celli G and Maini S, Use of the sterile insect technique against *Aedes albopictus* in Italy: First results of a pilot trial, in *Area-Wide Control of Insect Pests*, ed. by Vreysen MJB, Robinson AS and Hendrichs J. Springer, Dordrecht, the Netherlands, pp. 505-515 (2007).
- 155 Bellini R, Medici A, Puggioli A, Balestrino F and Carrieri M, Pilot Field Trials With *Aedes albopictus* Irradiated Sterile Males in Italian Urban Areas. *J Med Entomol* 50:317-325 (2013).
- 156 Madakacherry O, Lees RS and Gilles JRL, *Aedes albopictus* (Skuse) males in laboratory and semi-field cages: Release ratios and mating competitiveness. *Acta Trop* 132:124-129 (2014).
- 157 Oliva CF, Jacquet M, Gilles J, Lemperiere G, Maquart P-O, Quilici S, Schooneman F, Vreysen MJB and Boyer S, The Sterile Insect Technique for Controlling Populations of *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) on Reunion Island: Mating Vigour of Sterilized Males. *Plos One* 7:e49414 (2012).
- 158 Hannon GJ, RNA interference. *Nature* 418:244-251 (2002).
- 159 Whyard S, Erdelyan CNG, Partridge AL, Singh AD, Beebe NW and Capina R, Silencing the buzz: a new approach to population suppression of mosquitoes by feeding larvae double-stranded RNAs. *Parasit Vectors* 8:96 (2015).
- 160 Harris AF, Nimmo D, McKemey AR, Kelly N, Scaife S, Donnelly CA, Beech C, Petrie WD and Alphey L, Field performance of engineered male mosquitoes. *Nat Biotechnol* 29:1034-1037 (2011).
- 161 Winskill P, Harris AF, Morgan SA, Stevenson J, Raduan N, Alphey L, McKemey AR and Donnelly CA, Genetic control of *Aedes aegypti*: data-driven modelling to assess the effect of releasing different life stages and the potential for long-term suppression. *Parasit Vectors* 7:68 (2014).
- 162 Morrison NI and Alphey L, Genetically modified insects for pest control: an update. *Outlooks on Pest Manag* 23:65-68 (2012).
- 163 Alphey L, Genetic Control of Mosquitoes. *Ann Rev Entomol* 59:205-224 (2014).
- 164 Blair CD and Olson KE, The role of RNA interference (RNAi) in arboviruses-vector interactions. *Viruses* 7:820-843 (2015).
- 165 Franz AWE, Sanchez-Vargas I, Adelman ZN, Blair CD, Beaty BJ, James AA and Olson KE, Engineering RNA interference-based resistance to dengue virus type 2 in genetically modified *Aedes aegypti*. *Proc Nat Acad Sci USA* 103:4198-4203 (2006).
- 166 Alphey N and Bonsall B, Interplay of population genetics and dynamics in the genetic control of mosquitoes, *J R Soc Interface* 11:20131071 (2014).
- 167 Traver BE, Anderson MAE and Adelman ZN, Homing endonucleases catalyze double-stranded DNA breaks and somatic transgene excision in *Aedes aegypti*. *Insect Mol Biol* 18:623-633 (2009).
- 168 Windbichler N, Menichelli M, Papathanos PA, Thyme SB, Li H, Ulge UY, Hovde BT, Baker D, Monnat RJ Jr, Burt A and Crisanti A, A synthetic homing endonuclease-based gene drive system in the human malaria mosquito. *Nature* 473:212-217 (2011).
- 169 Brown DM, Alphey LS, McKemey A, Beech C, James AA, Criteria for identifying and evaluating candidate sites for open-field trials of genetically engineered mosquitoes. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis* 14:291-299 (2014).

- 170 *Guidance framework for testing of genetically modified mosquitoes*. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland (2014).
- 171 Iyaloo DP, Elahee KB, Bheecarry A and Lees RS, Guidelines to site selection for population surveillance and mosquito control trials: A case study from Mauritius. *Acta Trop* 132:140-149 (2014).
- 172 Schaffner F, Kaufmann C, Pfluger V and Mathis A, Rapid protein profiling facilitates surveillance of invasive mosquito species. *Parasit Vectors* 7:142 (2014).
- 173 Facchinelli L, Koenraadt CJM, Fanello C, Kijchalao U, Valerio L, Jones JW, Scott TW and della Torre A, Evaluation of a sticky trap for collecting *Aedes (Stegomyia)* adults in a dengue-endemic area in Thailand. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 78:904-909 (2008).
- 174 Unlu I, Farajollahi A, Healy SP, Crepeau T, Bartlett-Healy K, Williges E, Strickman D, Clark GG, Gaugler R and Fonseca DM, Area-wide management of *Aedes albopictus*: choice of study sites based on geospatial characteristics, socioeconomic factors and mosquito populations. *Pest Manag Sci* 67:965-974 (2011).
- 175 Doucoure S, Mouchet F, Cornélie S, DeHecq JS, Rutee AH, Roca Y, Walter A, Herve JP, Misse D, Favier F, Gasque P and Remoue F, Evaluation of the Human IgG Antibody Response to *Aedes albopictus* Saliva as a New Specific Biomarker of Exposure to Vector Bites. *Plos Negl Trop Dis* 6:e1487 (2012).
- 176 Doucoure S, Mouchet F, Cournil A, Le Goff G, Cornélie S, Roca Y, Giraldez MG, Barja Simon Z, Loayza R, Misse D, Vargas Flores J, Walter A, Rogier C, Herve JP and Remoue F, Human Antibody Response to *Aedes aegypti* Saliva in an Urban Population in Bolivia: A New Biomarker of Exposure to Dengue Vector Bites. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 87:504-510 (2012).
- 177 Becker N, Petric D, Zgomba D, Boase C, Madon M, Dahl C and Kaiser A, *Mosquitoes and their control*. Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg (2010).
- 178 La Ruche G, Souarès Y, Armengaud A, Peloux-Petiot F, Delaunay P, Desprès P, Lenglet A, Jourdain F, Leparç-Goffart I, Charlet F, Ollier L, Mantey K, Mollet T, Fournier JP, Torrents R, Leitmeyer K, Hilairet P, Zeller H, Van Bortel W, Dejour-Salamanca D, Grandadam M and Gastellu-Etchegorry M. First two autochthonous dengue virus infections in metropolitan France, September 2010. *Euro Surveill* 15:pii=19676 (2010).
- 179 Poletti P, Messeri G, Ajelli M, Vallorani R, Rizzo C and Merler S. Transmission Potential of Chikungunya Virus and Control Measures: The Case of Italy. *PloS One* 6:e18860 (2011).
- 180 Lavery JV, Tinadana PO, Scott TW, Harrington LC, Ramsey JM, Ytuarte-Nunez C and James AA, Towards a framework for community engagement in global health research. *Trends Parasitol* 26:279-283 (2010).
- 181 Sanchez L, Maringwa J, Shkedy Z, Castro M, Carbonell N and Van der Stuyft P, Testing the Effectiveness of Community-Based Dengue Vector Control Interventions Using Semiparametric Mixed Models. *Vector Borne Zoonotic Dis* 12:609-615 (2012).
- 182 Fister KR, McCarthy ML, Oppenheimer SF and Collins C, Optimal control of insects through sterile insect release and habitat modification. *Math Biosci* 244:201-212 (2012).
- 183 Burattini MN, Chen M, Chow A, Coutinho FAB, Goh KT, Lopez, LF, Ma S and Massad E, Modelling the control strategies against dengue in Singapore. *Epidemiol Infect* 136:309-319 (2008).
- 184 Luz PM, Codeco CT, Medlock J, Struchiner CJ, Valle D and Galvani AP, Impact of insecticide interventions on the abundance and resistance profile of *Aedes aegypti*. *Epidemiol Infect* 137:1203-1215 (2009).
- 185 Eisen L and Lozano-Fuentes S, Use of Mapping and Spatial and Space-Time Modeling Approaches in Operational Control of *Aedes aegypti* and Dengue. *Plos Negl Trop Dis* 3:e411 (2009).
- 186 Lutambi AM, Chitnis N, Briet OJT, Smith TA and Penny MA, Clustering of Vector Control Interventions Has Important Consequences for Their Effectiveness: A Modelling Study. *Plos One* 9:e97065 (2014).
- 187 Luz PM, Vanni T, Medlock J, Paltiel AD and Galvani AP, Dengue vector control strategies in an urban setting: an economic modelling assessment. *Lancet* 377:1673-1680 (2011).
- 188 Baly A, Toledo ME, Vanlerberghe V, Ceballos E, Reyes A, Sanchez I, Carvajal M, Maso R, La Rosa M, Denis O, Boelaert M and Van der Stuyft P, Cost-Effectiveness of a Community-Based Approach Intertwined with a Vertical *Aedes* Control Program. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 81:88-93 (2009).
- 189 Pepin KM, Marques-Toledo C, Scherer L, Morais MM, Ellis B and Eiras AE, Cost-effectiveness of Novel System of Mosquito Surveillance and Control, Brazil. *Emerg Infect Dis* 19:542-550 (2013).

- 190 Kittayapong P, Yoksan S, Chansang U, Chansang C and Bhumiratana A, Suppression of dengue transmission by application of integrated vector control strategies at sero-positive GIS-Based foci. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 78:70-76 (2008).
- 191 Johnson KA, Brogren SJ and Crane DM, Lamere CA, Status of *Aedes japonicus* in the metropolitan mosquito control district, Minnesota. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 26:328-331 (2010).
- 192 Giatropoulos A, Papachristos DP, Kimbaris A, Koliopoulos G, Polissiou MG, Emmanouel N and Michaelakis A, Evaluation of bioefficacy of three *Citrus* essential oils against the dengue vector *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) in correlation to their components enantiomeric distribution. *Parasitol Res* 111:2253-2263 (2012).
- 193 Qualls WA, Mueller GC, Revay EE, Allan SA, Arheart KL, Beier JC, Smith, ML, Scott JM, Kravchenko VD, Hausmann A, Yefremova ZA and Xue R-D, Evaluation of attractive toxic sugar bait (ATSB)-Barrier for control of vector and nuisance mosquitoes and its effect on non-target organisms in sub-tropical environments in Florida. *Acta Trop* 131:104-110 (2014).

Figure 1. Control methods available against *Aedes* sp. (*Bti*: *Bacillus thuringiensis* var. *Israelensis*; *Lsph*: *Lysinibacillus sphaericus*; dsRNA: double-stranded RNA)

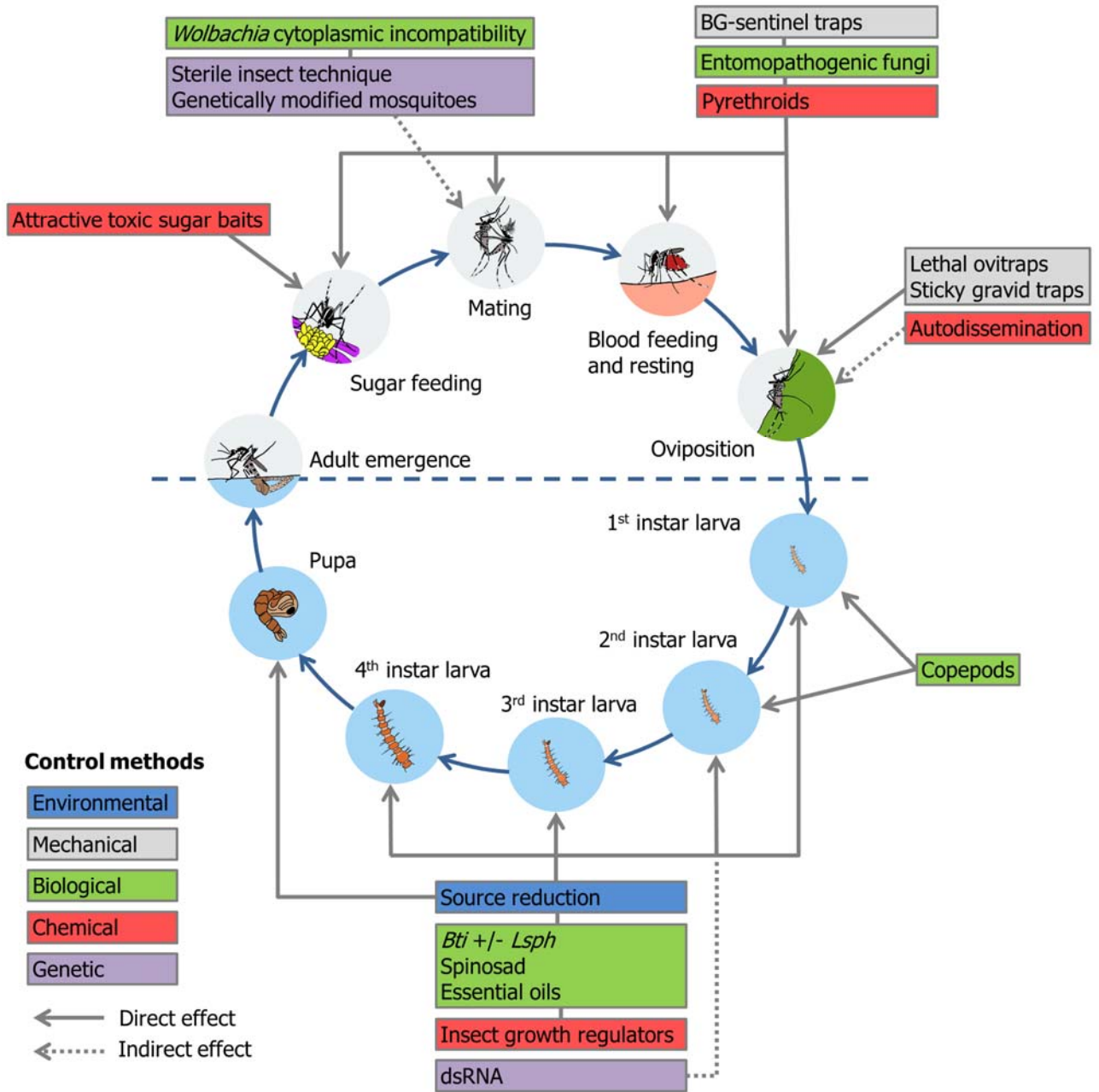


Table 1. Methods to control IMS mosquitoes

Control method	Effectiveness and specificity	Impact on non-target species	Sustainability	Stage of development	Target IMS species
1. Environmental methods					
Source reduction with or without public education	Container-inhabiting mosquitoes	No	No resistance selection	Operational	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ¹⁹⁰ , <i>Ae. albopictus</i> ^{20, 42} , <i>Ae. j. japonicus</i> ¹⁹¹ , <i>Ae. atropalpus</i> ⁸⁴
2. Mechanical methods					
Lethal ovitraps	<i>Aedes</i> mosquitoes	No	Resistance to insecticides	Large-scale field trials	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ⁴⁷
Sticky or gravid ovitraps	<i>Aedes</i> mosquitoes	No	No resistance selection	Large-scale field trials	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ^{56,57}
BG Sentinel traps	Non-specific	No	No resistance selection	Large-scale field trials	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ⁵⁹
3. Biological methods					
Entomopathogenic fungi	<i>Aedes</i> mosquitoes	No	Resistance to fungi infections	(Semi-)field experiments	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ^{65,66,68} , <i>Ae. albopictus</i> ⁶⁶
Copepods	Container-inhabiting mosquitoes	No	Escape from predators	Large-scale field trials	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ⁷⁰ , <i>Ae. albopictus</i> ^{70,71}
<i>Bti</i> with or without <i>Lsph</i>	Non-specific	No	No resistance to <i>Bti</i>	Operational	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ^{83,85,190} , <i>Ae. albopictus</i> ^{85,88} , <i>Ae. j. japonicus</i> ⁸² , <i>Ae. koreicus</i> ⁸¹ , <i>Ae. atropalpus</i> ⁸⁴
Spinosad	Non-specific	Yes	Resistance selection but no cross-resistance with other insecticides	Large-scale field trials	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ^{83,93} , <i>Ae. albopictus</i> ³³ , <i>Ae. j. japonicus</i> ⁸²
Essential oils	Non-specific	Unknown	Low risk of resistance	Laboratory experiments	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ⁹⁵ , <i>Ae. albopictus</i> ¹⁹² , <i>Ae. j. japonicus</i> ⁹⁸
<i>Wolbachia</i>	Species-specific	No	Potential resistance to <i>Wolbachia</i> infection	Large-scale field trials	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ¹⁰⁹ , <i>Ae. albopictus</i> ^{103,108}
4. Chemical methods					
Insect growth regulators					
Direct application	Non-specific	Yes	Resistance to insecticides	Operational	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ¹¹⁵ , <i>Ae. albopictus</i> ¹¹⁶
Auto-dissemination	<i>Aedes</i> mosquitoes	Yes	Resistance to insecticides	(Semi-)field experiments	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ^{117,121} , <i>Ae. albopictus</i> ^{118,119}
Pyrethroids					
Space spraying	Non-specific	Yes	Resistance to insecticides	Operational	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ¹³⁰ , <i>Ae. albopictus</i> ^{20,134} , <i>Ae. atropalpus</i> ⁸⁴
ATSB	Non-specific	Yes	Resistance to boric acid or eugenol unknown	(Semi-)field experiments	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ¹⁹³ , <i>Ae. albopictus</i> ¹⁴⁹
IRS and ITMs	<i>Aedes aegypti</i>	Yes	Resistance to insecticides	Operational	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ¹⁴²⁻¹⁴⁴
5. Genetic methods					
SIT	Species-specific	No	Low mating competitiveness of released males	Large-scale field trials	<i>Ae. albopictus</i> ^{154,155}
dsRNA	Species-specific	No	No resistance selection	Laboratory experiments	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ¹⁵⁹

RIDL	Species-specific	No	Potential resistance to the genetic modification	(Semi-)field experiments	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ¹⁶⁰
RNAi	Species-specific	No	Pathogen resistance to RNAi-based blocking	Laboratory experiments	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ¹⁶⁵
HEGs	Species-specific	No	Potential resistance to the genetic modification	Laboratory experiments	<i>Ae. aegypti</i> ¹⁶⁷

IMS: invasive mosquito species; Bti: *Bacillus thuringiensis* var. *israelensis*; Lsph: *Lysinibacillus sphaericus*; ATSB: Attractive Toxic Sugar Bait; IRS: Indoor Residual Spraying; ITMs: Insecticide Treated Materials; SIT: Sterile Insect Technique; dsRNA: double-stranded RNA; RIDL: Rearing of Insects carrying a Dominant Lethal allele; RNAi: RNA interference; HEGs: Homing Endonuclease Genes