Supplementary Information

Controlling Invasive Rodents via Synthetic Gene Drive and the Role of Polyandry

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Text S1 Polyandry and Sperm Competition with an Arbitrary Number of Mating Partners

Polyandry Let $f_{n,k}$ denote the frequency of a female mating with n males of which k are drive males. To calculate $f_{n,k}$, we need to know the probability that a female mates with n mating partners (where $n \in \{1 ... n_{max}\}$), which we determine with parameter ϕ_n (with $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \phi_n = 1$). We assume here that the mating process is random. Because we only have two types of (fertile) males, the probability that a female encounters k *t-Sry* males in her sample of n mating partners follows a binomial distribution. For a given mating combination n, k, we thus have

$$f_{n,k} = \phi_n {n \choose k} y^k (1-y)^{n-k}.$$
 (S1)

⁹ For example, the probability that a female encounters two drive males (k = 2) if she mates with ¹⁰ three males overall (n = 3) will be $f_{3,2} = \phi_n 3y^2(1 - y)$.

Sperm Competition and Gene Drive The genotypic outcome of a given mating combination n, k 11 will depend on the probability of fertilization by a t sperm, denoted by $p_{n,k}$. It depends on the 12level of gene drive s (where s = 0.5 denotes Mendelian inheritance and s = 1 represents complete 13 drive) and sperm competitiveness r (see below). w/t and w/w males contribute the fraction 14 $\frac{k}{n}$ and $\frac{n-k}{n}$, respectively, to the sperm pool (viable and non-viable). However, we assume that 15only r of a $D_w D_{Sry}$ male's sperm is viable, of which a fraction s carries the driver. Parameter r 16 hence defines $D_w D_{Sry}$ male sperm competitiveness relative to $D_w D_w$ wildtype males (whose sperm 17 competitiveness equals unity). It is thus a measure of sperm precedence at fertilisation, also referred 18 to as the loading of the sperm raffle. If all viable sperm have an equal fertilization probability, $p_{n,k}$ 19 will be the fraction of viable *t*-Sry sperm $\frac{k}{n}sr$ divided by the total number of sperm (1 - k) + kr. 20 We thus have 21

$$p_{n,k} = \frac{kdr}{n-k+kr}.$$
(S2)

If there are only drive males in a given male sample, $p_{n,k=n} = s$. Likewise, if all males are wildtype males, $p_{n,k=0} = 0$. Hence, a drive male's reduced sperm competitiveness (r) is only relevant if males of both genotypes are in the sample (0 < k < n for n > 1). We can now calculate p, defined as the probability that a given ova is fertilised by *t-Sry* sperm over all possible matings, which is simply sum of the probability of D_t fertilisation of a particular mating $p_{n,k}$ weighed by possible mating ²⁷ combinations $f_{n,k}$:

$$p_{n_{max}} = \sum_{n=1}^{n_{max}} \sum_{k=0}^{n} f_{n,k} p_{n,k}.$$
(S3)

For the polyandry model used in the main text, we consider a simple scenario where females either mate with one male (at frequency $1 - \psi$) or two males (at frequency ψ). We can recover p_1 and p_2 from the main text by solving equations S1–S3 for $n_{max} = 2$, $\phi_1 = 1 - \psi$, and $\phi_2 = \psi$. Figure S1 illustrates how the number of mating partners n_{max} , drive male frequency in the

Figure S1 illustrates how the number of mating partners n_{max} , drive male frequency in the population y, and drive male sperm competitiveness r affect the probability of drive fertilisation p.

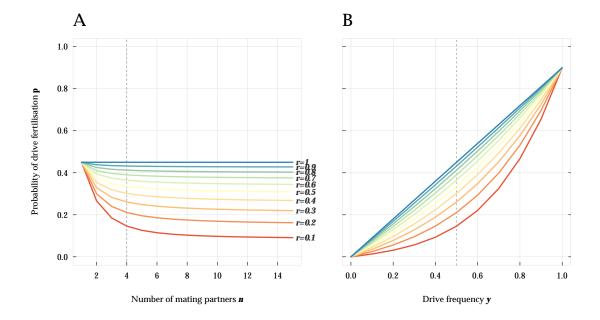


Figure S1. Polyandry and sperm competition reduce the probability that a female is fertilised by drive sperm. A. Polyandry is more effective if the number of mating partners n is high, although the marginal reduction in p gets smaller with every additional mating partner n. The different coloured lines represent varying levels of drive male sperm competitiveness r (colour gradient). The frequency of drive males in the population equals y = 0.5. B. Polyandry is less effective if the frequency of drive males is increased, as sperm competition is only relevant if drive males compete against wildtype males. The colour gradient again represents different levels of drive male sperm competitiveness r

³³ Text S2 Analytical Results — Single Release

In the case of a single release ($\mu = 0$), our system of differential equations **??** simplifies to

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = bW - (m_1 + m_2 N)N$$

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = bW \frac{1-p}{2} - (m_1 + m_2 N)W$$

$$\frac{dD}{dt} = bW \frac{p}{2} - (m_1 + m_2 N)D$$
(S4)

where $p = s \frac{D}{W+D}$ under monandry.

Fixed points The system S4 will reach a longterm equilibrium $\{\hat{N}, \hat{W}, \hat{D}\}$ if $\frac{dN}{dt} = \frac{dW}{dt} = \frac{dD}{dt} = 0$. We have the following three solutions

$$\hat{N} = \frac{\frac{b}{2} - m_1}{m_2}, \quad \hat{W} = \frac{\frac{b}{2} - m_1}{2m_2}, \quad \hat{D} = 0$$

$$\hat{N} = 0, \quad \hat{W} = 0, \quad \hat{D} = 0$$

$$\hat{N} = -\frac{m_1}{m_2}, \quad \hat{W} = 0, \quad \hat{D} = D$$
(S5)

of which only the first two are biologically feasible, as the third equilibrium requires negative mortality rates to produce $\hat{N} > 0$. The first equilibrium point describes a population where the driver is absent and the population is at carrying capacity. The second equilibrium corresponds to the trivial case where the population is not sustainable in the first place.

⁴² Stability The first equilibrium has the following three stability eigenvalues: $r_1 = -\frac{b}{2}$, $r_2 = m_1 - \frac{b}{2}$, $r_2 = -\frac{b}{2}(1-s)$. As expected, the population is viable if birth rates outweigh baseline death ⁴⁴ rates $(m_1 < \frac{b}{2})$. Moreover, and as mentioned in the main text, we can have $r_3 = 0$ as the leading ⁴⁵ eigenvalue when drive is complete (s = 1), which will change the dynamics of the system altogether, ⁴⁶ as the driver can be maintained stably in the population.

47 Text S3 Analytical Results — Continued Release under Monandry

To simplify equilibrium calculations under continued release ($\mu > 0$), we rearrange the system slightly. Let *D*' denote the number of drive carrying 'females' *XYwt* in the population. We can now write the system as the following three differential equations

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = bW \frac{1-p}{2} - (m_1 + m_2 N)W$$

$$\frac{dD}{dt} = bW \frac{p}{2} - (m_1 + m_2 N)D + \mu$$

$$\frac{dD'}{dt} = bW \frac{p}{2} - (m_1 + m_2 N)D'$$
(S6)

where the total population is now given as N = 2W + D + D'. We again search for equilibria by setting $\frac{dW}{dt} = \frac{dD}{dt} = \frac{dD'}{dt} = 0$. In the case of monandry, we get two biologically feasible solutions:

$$\hat{D}_1 = \frac{-m_1 + \sqrt{m_1^2 + 4m_2\mu}}{2m_2}, \ \hat{W}_1 = 0, \ \hat{D}'_1 = 0$$

$$\hat{D}_2 = \frac{2\mu}{b(1-s)}, \ \hat{W}_2 = \text{complicated expression}^*, \ \Delta \hat{D}_2 = \text{complicated expression}^*$$
(S7)

⁵³ *available on supplementary Maple file.

The eradication equilibrium and its stability As in the case a single release, the first equilib-54rium $\{\hat{W}_1, \hat{D}_1, \hat{D}_1'\}$ describes the (desired) outcome where the population is successfully eradicated 55 $(\hat{W}_1 = 0)$. Of the three eigenvalues of the Jacobian matrix, $r_{1,2,3}$, at the equilibrium point (see sup-56 plementary Maple file), only one can take on positive values $(r_1 = \frac{(1-s)b-m_1-\sqrt{m_1^2+4m_2\mu}}{2})$. We can 57 thus calculate the critical release rate μ_1^{\star} at which the eradication equilibrium becomes attracting 58as the point where the leading eigenvalues r_1 becomes negative ($r_1 < 0$ if $\mu > \mu_1^*$). In other words, 59 if release rates exceed μ_1^{\star} , wildtype animals can no longer invade a population. Solving $r_1=0$ and 60 replacing m_2 with $\frac{\frac{b}{2}-m_1}{\kappa}$ (see Text S2), we have 61

$$\mu_1^{\star} = \frac{K_{\frac{b}{2}}(1-s) \left((1-s)\frac{b}{2} - m_1\right)}{4R},\tag{S8}$$

where *R* denotes the baseline reproductive rate $R = \frac{b}{2} - m_1$. Also note that μ_1^* is a linear function of carrying capacity *K*, the standardised release rate $\mu_{\text{std},1}^* = \frac{\mu_1}{K}$ will hence be independent of population size *K*.

The internal equilibrium and its stability The second, internal equilibrium corresponds to the case 65 where both drive and wildtype individuals stably coexist. Although solutions for \hat{W}_2 and \hat{D}'_2 exist, 66 they are unwieldy and offer little insight. However, note that the dynamics of drive males D and 67 'females' D' only differ by the fact that males are released into the population while drive 'females' 68 D' are not. More formally, at equilibrium, we have $\Delta \hat{D} = \hat{D} - \hat{D'} = \frac{\mu}{m_1 + m_2 N}$. Together with the 69 fact that D' cannot take on negative values, this implies that $0 \le \hat{D}' \le \hat{D}$ for biologically relevant 70 parameter values (μ , m_1 , $m_2 \ge 0$). As a plausible approximation, we can thus examine stability of 71the two boundaries where $\hat{D}' = 0$ or $\hat{D}' = D$. Note that this argument is mathematically not strictly 72correct, as $0 \leq \hat{D}' \leq \hat{D}$ does not guarantee that the stability eigenvalues or critical release thresholds 73 are also sandwiched between those two cases (because they may depend non-monotonically on D'). 74 They may nevertheless serve as a useful, plausible approximation. 75

• In the first boundary case where D' = 0, our differential equation system reduces to

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = bW \frac{1-p}{2} - (m_1 + m_2 N)W$$

$$\frac{dD}{dt} = bW \frac{p}{2} - (m_1 + m_2 N)D + \mu$$
(S9)

⁷⁷ where, importantly, N = 2W + D (since D' = 0). System S9 is much easier to handle, and ⁷⁸ allows us to calculate the two eigenvalues of the Jacobian matrix at the internal equilibrium ⁷⁹ (see Supplementary Maple file). Once again, we can calculate critical release rate μ_2^* where ⁸⁰ the equilibrium becomes unstable and the population collapses. We have

$$\mu_{2}^{\star} = \frac{K_{\frac{b}{2}}^{b}(1-s)\left(2bs - R - \sqrt{4bs(2bs - R)}\right)}{R},$$
(S10)

with $R = \frac{b}{2} - m_1$. Note that μ_2^* is again independent of carrying capacity K when standardised $\mu_{\text{std},2}^* = \frac{\mu_2}{K}$.

• In the second boundary case where D' = D we have system S9 with the important difference that N = 2W + 2D (since D' = D). We can again calculate the critical release rate μ_3^* using the approach used above (Supplementary Maple file). We have

$$\mu_3^{\star} = \frac{KR(1-s)}{8s}.$$
 (S11)

Testing approximate solutions To assess the accuracy of the two approximate solutions, we com-86 pared them against numerical solutions based on the full equation system (see Figure S2). For all 87 parameter combinations considered, the two analytical approximations μ_2^\star , μ_3^\star predict numerically 88 calculated release thresholds relatively accurately. Numerically calculated release thresholds were 89 indeed placed inside the interval of the two boundary cases $[\mu_2^*, \mu_2^*]$. Moreover, the critical release 90 rate for the eradication equilibrium μ_1^\star was smaller than μ^\star for the internal equilibrium for all param-91 eter values considered $(\mu_1^\star < \mu_3^\star < \mu_2^\star)$. Hence, at least for the parameter space examined, we can 92 distinguish three qualitatively different dynamics as release rates of drive animals μ into the target 93 population are increased. 94

- ⁹⁵ 1. If release rates μ are sufficiently low such that $\mu < \mu_1^*$, the internal equilibrium is stable and ⁹⁶ the eradication equilibrium unstable. The resident population is sustainable.
- ⁹⁷ 2. At intermediate release rates where $\mu_1^* < \mu < \mu_3^*$ we have a bistable system where both the ⁹⁸ internal and the eradication equilibrium are stable. Note that the existence of bistability also ⁹⁹ implies that examining the stability criteria of the eradication equilibrium (invasion criteria), ¹⁰⁰ which is mathematically straightforward, is *not* sufficient to predict population eradication.
- 3. If release rates are sufficiently large such that $\mu > \mu_2^*$ the internal equilibrium is repellent and eradication is stable. The population collapses. Note that, because we had $\mu_1^* < \mu_2^*$ for all combinations considered, the condition $\mu > \mu_2^*$ was both a sufficient and necessary for a successful eradication.

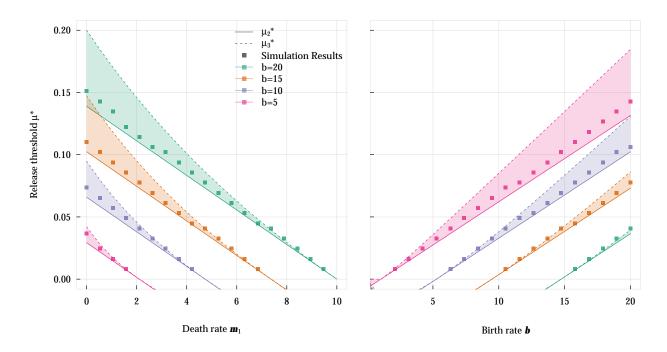


Figure S2. The critical release effort μ_{std}^{\star} required to push a population to eradication as a function of birthrate *b* and death rate m_1 based on analytical approximation (solid and dotted line for μ_2^{\star} and μ_3^{\star} , respectively) and numerical calculation (squared dots). Drive strength in both panels is s = 0.9.

¹⁰⁵ Text S4 Differential survival and mate choice

In this section, we analyse the effect of differential survival rates between genotypes and precopulatory mate choice on a) the success of *t-Sry* release campaign and b) on the strength of the polyandry effect explored in the main text. Because all four genotypes now have different fitness, we have to track them separately. We have the following equation system

$$\frac{dW_X}{dt} = bW_X \frac{1-p}{2} - (m_1 + m_2 N) W_X$$
$$\frac{dW_Y}{dt} = bW_X \frac{1-p}{2} - (1 + s_m) (m_1 + m_2 N) W_Y$$
$$\frac{dD_X}{dt} = bW_X \frac{p}{2} - (1 + s_m + s_t) (m_1 + m_2 N) D_X$$
(S12)
$$\frac{dD_Y}{dt} = bW_X \frac{p}{2} - (1 + s_m + s_t + s_{2Sry}) (m_1 + m_2 N) D_Y + \mu.$$

Population size N is again given as the sum of all four genotypes: $N = W_X + W_Y + D_X + D_Y$.

Differential survival Here, s_i represent survival differences between the different genotypes. They quantify the survival cost (or benefit if $s_i < 0$) of being (phenotypically) male (s_m), carrying the thaplotype (s_t), and the cost of carrying an extra copy of the *Sry* (s_{2Sry}).

The top panels in Figure S3 illustrate the effect of t related survival costs s_t on the required release effort to eradicate the population μ_{std}^* , and how that relationship is affected by polyandry levels ψ (the primary focus of this manuscript). As expected, required release efforts increase with increasing survival costs of the driver. Interestingly, the independent effects of survival (moving horizontally on upper panels in Fig. S3) and polyandry (moving vertically on upper panels in Fig. S3) are nearly identical, at least for the parameter combinations considered. Additionally, it appears that the two effects are close to additive.

In Figure S4, we investigate the impact of a survival cost on being phenotypically male (s_m) and of carrying an extra copy of the *Sry* gene s_{2Sry} on release dynamics. s_m has only very small effects on required release rates μ_{std}^* . This is because the success of the drive construct *mainly* depends on how competitive *t-Sry* males are *relative* to wildtype males, which is independent of overall male survival. In fact, lower male survival in some cases even decreases the required release effort because it creates decreased (density-dependent) competition on reproductive females. The fact that the dynamics are dominated by the fitness contrast between drive and wildtype males also explains why the cost of carrying an extra *Sry* s_{2Sry} is nearly identical to s_t (as the survival difference between drive and wildtype males is $s_t + s_{2Sry}$, as reflected in the symmetry in right panel in Figure S4 with respect to the diagonal).

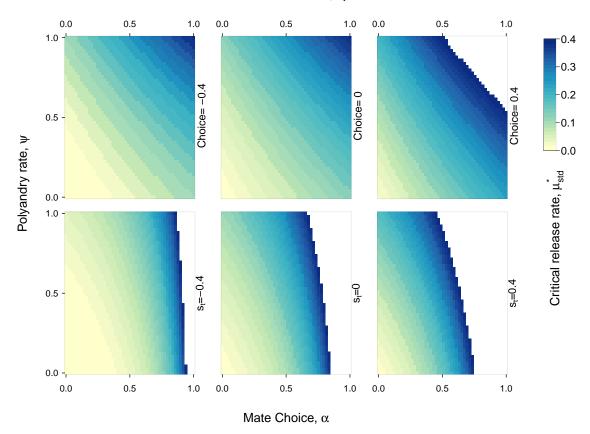
¹³¹ Mate choice We further explore the possibility that females have a precopulatory mating preference ¹³² (preexisting or evolved), most likely to avoid drive carrying males. Let α measure the fixed relative ¹³³ strength of females to avoid matings with drive males. The probability of mating with a drive male ¹³⁴ f_t is given as

$$f_t = y \frac{1 - \alpha}{1 - \alpha y}.$$
(S13)

where the denominator $y(1-\alpha) + (1-y) = 1 - \alpha y$ is a normalising constant that ensures that the probabilities of the two possible matings (W and D) add up to 1. Hence, females avoid drive males in the spectrum where $0 < \alpha < 1$, $\alpha = 0$ represents random mating, and $\alpha < 0$ would denote a preference for drive males. Substituting f_t for y in Equation 2, we then have

$$p_2 = f_t s \left(1 - \psi (1 - f_t) \frac{1 - r}{1 + r} \right).$$
(S14)

The lower three panels in Fig. S3 show the the effects of mate choice on required release efforts. Again, as expected, more animals need to be released if resident females avoid drive males. Note that mate avoidance becomes particularly problematic from a intervention perspective if drive male avoidance is strong ($\alpha > 0.6$). Again, there are no clear interactive effects with polyandry ψ .



Drive survival cost, st

Figure S3. The critical release effort μ_{std}^* required to eradicate a population as a function of the survival cost of the driver s_t , mate choice against the driver α , and polyandry rate ψ . The three upper panels focus on drive survival costs s_t for three different levels of mate choice ($\alpha = -0.4, 0, 0.4$). The three lower panels focus on mate choice for three levels of drive survival cost ($c_t = -0.4, 0, 0.4$). The white area represent parameter combination where the required release rate exceeded the range considered ($\mu_{std}^* > 0.4$). Remaining parameter values for all panels: s = 0.9, r = 0.2, $s_m = 0$, $s_{2Sry} = 0$, b = 4, $m_1 = 1$, K = 1000.

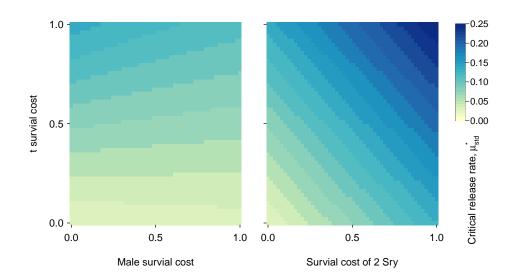


Figure S4. The critical release effort μ_{std}^* required to eradicate a population as a function of the survival cost of the driver s_t , the survival cost of being (phenotypically male) s_m , and the cost of carrying an extra copy of the *Sry* gene. Remaining parameter values for all panels: s = 0.9, r = 0.2, $\psi = 0$, $\alpha = 0$, b = 4, $m_1 = 1$, K = 1000.

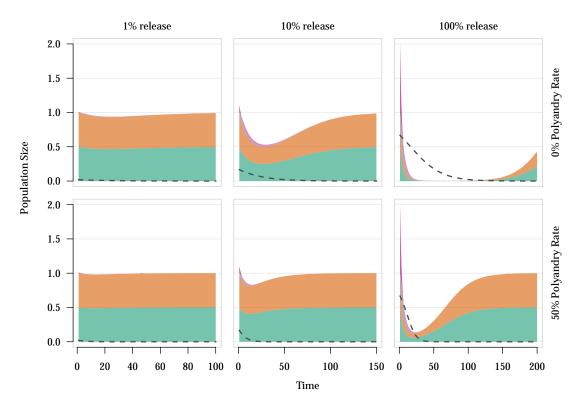


Figure S5. The number of wildtype males and females (*W* in green and orange), *t-Sry* males (*D* in violet) and *t-Sry* 'females' (pink) as a proportion of carrying capacity *K* after a single release of drive individuals into the population. The dotted line represents the drive frequency in the population. Columns represent different release efforts (number of males release as a proportion of carrying capacity *K*). The two rows depict a monandry ($\psi = 0$) and a polyandry ($\psi = 0.5, r = 0.2$) scenario, respectively. The driver cannot eradicate the population in any of the scenarios shown. Remaining parameter values: $s = 0.9, b = 0.9, m_1 = 0.4, K = 1000$