**Bio-Engineered Defenders: CRISPR-Cas9 Unleashing Disease-Resistant Insects to Curb** **Vector-Borne Diseases**

**Bimal Kumar Sahoo 1\*, Sushruta Boruah 2, Kasturi Sarmah 3**

1\*Ph.D. Scholar, Department of Agricultural Entomology, Centre for Plant Protection Studies, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu – 641003

\*Corresponding E-mail: [bimalsahoo.1996@gmail.com](mailto:bimalsahoo.1996@gmail.com)

**Abstract**

Vector-borne diseases, such as malaria, dengue fever, and Zika virus, continue to pose significant threats to global public health. Conventional vector control methods often face challenges due to insecticide resistance and unintended ecological consequences. The emergence of the CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing technology offers a groundbreaking opportunity to combat vector-borne diseases through the creation of disease-resistant insects. In this paper, the current state of research and prospects in utilizing CRISPR-Cas9 to engineer insect populations for disease resistance are reviewed. The successes and challenges observed in real-world deployments are discussed, with a focus on containment strategies, ethical considerations, and regulatory hurdles. Additionally, the potential benefits of gene drive systems, species-specific approaches, and combining CRISPR-Cas9 with other vector control methods are explored. Lastly, the importance of public engagement, international collaboration, and a One Health approach to ensure responsible and sustainable implementation is highlighted. By critically analysing the advancements and limitations of bio-engineered defenders, this paper seeks to shed light on the transformative potential of CRISPR-Cas9 in curbing vector-borne diseases and shaping a healthier and safer future.

**Keywords:** Vector-Borne Diseases, CRISPR-Cas9, Gene Editing, RNAi

**Introduction**

Insect-transmitted diseases present a significant worldwide threat, posing a substantial risk to public health and overall well-being. These diseases, known as vector-borne diseases (VBDs), result from infections carried by arthropods like mosquitoes, triatomine bugs, blackflies, tsetse flies, sand flies, lice, and ticks. Afflicting more than 80% of the global population, VBDs like Dengue, Chagas disease, Japanese encephalitis, leishmaniasis, lymphatic filariasis (LF), malaria, and yellow fever disproportionately impact impoverished communities residing in tropical and subtropical regions (Golding *et al*., 2015). VBDs contribute considerably to the global burden of infectious diseases, accounting for approximately 17% of the estimated global burden (WHO & UNICEF, 2017). Many of these diseases are classified as neglected tropical diseases (NTDs), including arboviral diseases like dengue and chikungunya, Chagas disease, human African trypanosomiasis (HAT), leishmaniasis, LF, and onchocerciasis (Hotez, 2013). Historically, NTDs have received insufficient attention and funding, resulting in a limited understanding of their biology, epidemiology, and prevention. Despite causing fewer fatalities compared to malaria, VBDs continue to cause significant morbidity and represent a substantial public health concern. For example, dengue cases increased by nearly 450% globally between 1990 and 2013 (Vos *et al*., 2015).

The need for innovative solutions in controlling insect vector-borne diseases is driven by various challenges and complexities associated with these diseases. Traditional methods of vector control, such as the use of insecticides and bed nets, have achieved some success in the past. However, factors like insecticide resistance, climate change, globalization, and urbanization have led to the resurgence and emergence of vector-borne diseases, making them a persistent public health threat (WHO, 2021). Additionally, the expansion of vector habitats due to environmental changes, coupled with increased travel and trade, has facilitated the spread of diseases to new regions, creating new challenges for control efforts (Vora, 2019). Furthermore, the reliance on chemical-based interventions has raised environmental and safety concerns, necessitating the development of eco-friendly and sustainable alternatives (Ranson *et al*., 2016). In this context, innovative approaches, such as the use of genetically modified mosquitoes through gene-editing technologies like CRISPR-Cas9, hold promise for disrupting disease transmission cycles (Burt, 2014). By precisely targeting and altering specific genes in the vector population, these methods aim to reduce vector competence and the transmission of pathogens (Kyrou *et al*., 2018). Embracing innovative and interdisciplinary solutions is crucial to effectively combatting insect vector-borne diseases and safeguarding global public health in the face of evolving challenges.

The use of CRISPR-Cas9 in developing disease-resistant insects is a promising approach to curbing vector-borne diseases due to its precision and versatility in gene editing. By specifically targeting key genes involved in pathogen transmission within vector populations, CRISPR-Cas9 allows for the creation of disease-resistant insects that can effectively curb disease transmission. This revolutionary gene-editing tool has shown success in various studies, enabling researchers to modify insect genomes and disrupt the vector competence of disease-carrying mosquitoes, such as *Aedes aegypti* and *Anopheles gambiae* (Kyrou *et al*., 2018). CRISPR-Cas9 can introduce genetic modifications that interfere with pathogen replication or prevent its transmission from vector to host, ultimately reducing disease prevalence. Moreover, this technology has the potential to be environmentally friendly and species-specific, mitigating concerns related to non-target effects common with traditional insecticides (Olson *et al*., 2002). Although challenges remain, including ethical considerations and regulatory approval, the use of CRISPR-Cas9 offers a cutting-edge and promising avenue for developing disease-resistant insects to combat vector-borne diseases and protect global public health.

1. **CRISPR-Cas9 Technology: A Game-Changer in Gene Editing**

The CRISPR-Cas9 system is a revolutionary gene-editing tool that has opened up new possibilities for insect gene editing. CRISPR (Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats) is a natural defence mechanism found in bacteria that allows them to recognize and destroy viral DNA. CRISPR-Cas9, was first reported by Jinek *et al*., (2012). In gene editing, the Cas9 enzyme acts as molecular scissors guided by small RNA molecules to precisely cut and modify specific target genes. In the context of insect gene editing, scientists can use CRISPR-Cas9 to introduce targeted mutations in the insect genome, which can result in a variety of outcomes, such as gene knockout or modification. This technology enables researchers to study the function of specific genes in insects, potentially identifying targets for disease resistance or control. The simplicity, efficiency, and versatility of the CRISPR-Cas9 system make it a powerful tool in the field of insect genetics and vector-borne disease research (Jinek *et al*., 2012 and Esvelt *et al*., 2013).

**1.1 Mechanism of Gene Editing Using CRISPR-Cas9**

The mechanism of gene editing using CRISPR-Cas9 involves several key steps:

* + 1. **CRISPR RNA Biogenesis:** The process begins with the creation of CRISPR RNAs (crRNAs) and trans-activating CRISPR RNA (tracrRNA). These two RNA molecules combine to form a single-guide RNA (sgRNA) that contains a sequence complementary to the target DNA site. (Jinek *et al*., 2012)
    2. **Formation of the CRISPR-Cas9 Complex:** The sgRNA associates with the Cas9 enzyme, creating the CRISPR-Cas9 complex. Cas9 is an endonuclease that functions as molecular scissors, capable of cutting DNA.
    3. **Delivery of CRISPR-Cas9 into Insects:** The CRISPR-Cas9 complex needs to be delivered into the insect cells. This can be achieved through various methods, such as microinjection into embryos, electroporation, or using viral vectors.
    4. **DNA Cleavage:** Once the target DNA sequence is recognized, Cas9 makes a double-stranded break (DSB) at the target site. This break triggers the cell's natural DNA repair mechanisms.
    5. **DNA Repair:** The cell repairs the DSB through either non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) or homology-directed repair (HDR). NHEJ often results in insertions or deletions (indels) at the target site, leading to gene disruptions. HDR can be used to insert specific DNA sequences at the target site, allowing for precise gene modifications. (Symington and Gautier, 2011).
    6. **Gene Editing Outcomes:** Depending on the repair mechanism employed, the gene editing outcomes can include gene knockout (disruption of gene function), gene insertion (adding new genetic material), or gene correction (repairing a specific mutation).

1. **Identifying Target Genes for Disease Resistance**
   1. **Genetic Factors Involved in Disease Transmission**

Genetic factors play a crucial role in disease transmission in insects, influencing their ability to acquire, propagate, and transmit pathogens to susceptible hosts. Several genetic factors contribute to the complex interactions between insects and the pathogens they carry. Some of the key genetic determinants involved in disease transmission in insects include:

**2.1.1 Vector Competence:** Vector competence refers to the inherent ability of an insect to become infected with a pathogen, support its replication, and transmit it to a new host. This trait is influenced by specific genes that interact with the pathogen, affecting its ability to establish infection within the insect and subsequently be transmitted to a new host.

**2.1.2 Immune Response:** The insect's immune system plays a critical role in determining its susceptibility to pathogens. Genes involved in the insect's immune response, such as antimicrobial peptides and recognition receptors, influence the outcome of pathogen encounters and the establishment of infections.

**2.1.3 Vector-Pathogen Interactions:** The interaction between the insect vector and the pathogen is influenced by various genetic factors on both sides. Pathogens can evolve to evade the insect's immune responses, while insects may develop resistance mechanisms to counteract pathogen infection.

**2.1.4 Life History Traits:** Specific life history traits of insects, such as feeding behavior, longevity, and reproductive strategies, can influence their capacity to transmit diseases. Genetic variations in these traits can impact the transmission dynamics of vector-borne diseases.

**2.1.5 Behavioural Factors:** Genetic factors also influence the behavioural traits of insects, including host preference, feeding frequency, and dispersal patterns. These behaviours can affect the likelihood of pathogen transmission to susceptible hosts.

**2.1.6 Evolutionary Selection:** The genetic makeup of insect populations can evolve over time in response to pathogen pressure. Natural selection may favor genetic variants that enhance vector competence or immune responses, leading to changes in disease transmission dynamics.

**2.2 Identification of Key Genes Using CRISPR-Cas9**

To identify key genes responsible for disease resistance in insects, a comprehensive approach combining genetic, genomic, and functional studies is employed. Genome sequencing and comparative genomics is generally conducted to identify candidate genes associated with resistance. Transcriptomics and proteomics analyses help reveal differentially expressed genes and proteins linked to resistance. Functional studies, such as RNA interference or CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing, validate the roles of candidate genes in disease resistance. Association studies and QTL mapping further associate specific genetic variations with resistance traits (Akbari *et al*., 2015). Validation in natural populations confirms the correlation between genetic variations and resistance levels. Ultimately, in-depth functional characterization provides insights into the molecular mechanisms of disease resistance.

1. **Disease-Resistant Insects: The CRISPR-Cas9 Approach**
   1. **Gene Editing Strategies to Create Disease Resistance**

Gene editing strategies to create disease resistance in insects primarily involve the use of CRISPR-Cas9 technology. Below are some of the key gene editing strategies used to create disease resistance in insects, along with relevant references:

* + 1. **Gene Knockout/Knockdown:** Researchers use CRISPR-Cas9 to target and disrupt specific genes involved in disease transmission within the insect vector. Gene knockout or knockdown can lead to loss of vector competence, making the insect resistant to the pathogen. For example, in a study on *Anopheles stephensi* mosquitoes, CRISPR-Cas9 was used to knock out genes associated with malaria parasite development in the mosquito, resulting in reduced malaria transmission (Isaacs *et al*., 2012).
    2. **Gene Replacement:** Another approach is to replace a disease-susceptible gene with a disease-resistant allele using CRISPR-Cas9. By introducing specific genetic changes at the target gene locus, researchers can create disease-resistant insects. In *Aedes aegypti* mosquitoes, CRISPR-Cas9 has been used to introduce genetic changes that confer resistance to the dengue virus (Franz *et al*., 2006).
    3. **Gene Insertion:** Researchers can also use CRISPR-Cas9 to insert disease resistance genes or other genetic elements into the insect genome. For instance, in a study on the tsetse fly, researchers successfully inserted an anti-trypanosome gene using CRISPR-Cas9, providing resistance against the parasite responsible for sleeping sickness (Weiss *et al*., 2022).
    4. **Gene Activation/Inhibition:** CRISPR-Cas9 can be used to activate or inhibit specific genes involved in disease resistance pathways. By manipulating gene expression levels, researchers can enhance the insect's immune response or other defence mechanisms against pathogens.
    5. **Gene Drive:** Gene drive is a powerful gene editing strategy that aims to spread specific genes rapidly through insect populations, including disease resistance genes. CRISPR-Cas9 can be used to create gene drives that increase the frequency of disease-resistant alleles, reducing the prevalence of disease in insect populations (Marshall and Akbari, 2018).
  1. **Insect Model Systems and Their Suitability for CRISPR-Cas9**

Insect model systems are invaluable tools for scientific research, and their suitability for CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing has revolutionized entomology and related fields. Insect model systems, such as fruit flies (*Drosophila melanogaster*), mosquitoes (*Aedes aegypti*, *Anopheles gambiae*), and beetles (*Tribolium castaneum*), are highly valuable in scientific research due to their short life cycles, well-annotated genomes, and well-established genetic tools (Bassett and Liu, 2014). Furthermore, the ease of creating genetic modifications in these insects has enabled the generation of disease-resistant strains, offering potential solutions for insect-borne disease control (Taning *et al*., 2017). The combination of insect model systems and CRISPR-Cas9 has significantly accelerated our understanding of insect biology and its applications in addressing global challenges related to vector-borne diseases.

**3.3 Laboratory Techniques for Gene Editing in Insects**

Laboratory techniques for gene editing in insects have evolved significantly with the advent of CRISPR-Cas9 technology, providing powerful and precise tools for researchers to manipulate insect genomes. Some of the commonly used techniques for gene editing in insects include:

**3.3.1 CRISPR-Cas9:** CRISPR-Cas9 is the most widely used gene editing tool in insects. It allows researchers to create double strand breaks at specific target sites in the insect genome using a guide RNA (sgRNA) and the Cas9 enzyme. The break triggers the cell's DNA repair machinery, leading to gene modifications such as insertions, deletions, or replacements.

**3.3.2 Transgenesis:** Transgenesis involves introducing exogenous genes or genetic elements into the insect genome. It can be achieved using transposable elements or viral vectors, enabling researchers to study gene functions or confer novel traits in insects.

**3.3.3 RNA Interference (RNAi):** RNAi is a technique used to silence specific genes by introducing double-stranded RNA molecules that target and degrade the corresponding mRNA. It is valuable for studying gene functions and identifying potential targets for gene editing.

**3.3.4 Zinc Finger Nucleases (ZFNs) and Transcription Activator-Like Effector Nucleases (TALENs):** ZFNs and TALENs are older gene editing technologies that can create targeted double-strand breaks in the genome. While they have been used for insect gene editing, CRISPR-Cas9 has largely replaced them due to its simplicity and efficiency.

**3.3.5 Homologous Recombination:** Homologous recombination can be used for precise gene editing by introducing a DNA template with the desired genetic modification into the insect genome. The template guides the repair process, leading to the desired genetic change.

**3.3.6 Gene Drives:** Gene drives are genetic elements that promote the rapid spread of specific genes through populations. They have been explored as potential tools for controlling insect vectors and disease transmission.

**3.3.7 Optogenetics and Synthetic Biology:** These emerging techniques combine genetic engineering with light-sensitive proteins or synthetic gene circuits to enable precise control of gene expression and cellular processes in insects.

**4. Case Studies of CRISPR-Cas9 in Disease-Resistant Insects**

**4.1 Malaria: Engineering Mosquitoes to Resist Plasmodium**

CRISPR-Cas9 was implemented to create disease-resistant mosquitoes that could potentially limit malaria transmission. They targeted two genes, FREP1 and LRIM1, which are essential for malaria parasite development in *Anopheles stephensi* mosquitoes. By disrupting these genes using CRISPR-Cas9, they were able to significantly reduce the mosquito's vector competence, making it less capable of transmitting the malaria parasite (Isaacs *et al*., 2012). The modified mosquitoes were rendered sterile, reducing their ability to reproduce and transmit malaria-causing Plasmodium parasites.

**4.2 Dengue Fever: Targeting Aedes Mosquitoes for Disease Control**

CRISPR-Cas9 was used to engineer *Aedes aegypti* mosquitoes to make them resistant to Dengue virus (DENV) infection. The specific gene called miR-275 was targeted, which was responsible for enhancing DENV replication in the mosquito midgut. By disrupting this gene, a reduction in viral replication and transmission ability was noticed in the genetically modified mosquitoes. (Franz *et al*., 2006).

**4.3 Zika Virus: CRISPR-Cas9 Strategies Against Zika Transmission**

The gene known as doublesex (dsx) in *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* mosquitoes was targeted using CRISPR-Cas9. The dsx gene plays a crucial role in determining the mosquito's sex. By disrupting this gene in male mosquitoes, genetically modified males were designed that carried a dominant lethal gene. When these genetically modified male mosquitoes mated with wild-type females, their offspring did not survive, leading to a reduction in the mosquito population over time. This approach, known as the "gene drive" strategy, showed potential for controlling Zika virus transmission by suppressing the mosquito population (Kyrou *et al*., 2018).

**5. Safety and Ethical Considerations**

Ethical and regulatory challenges in field trials of CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing in insects for combating vector-borne diseases arise due to the potential ecological and societal implications of releasing genetically modified organisms into the environment. Some of the key challenges include:

**5.1 Environmental Impact:** There is a risk of unintended ecological consequences when releasing genetically modified insects into the wild. These modifications may affect non-target species and disrupt natural ecosystems, leading to unpredictable long-term effects on biodiversity.

**5.2 Informed Consent:** Field trials often involve releasing genetically modified insects in specific areas, and obtaining informed consent from local communities and stakeholders becomes essential to address potential concerns and ensure transparency.

**5.3 Safety and Containment:** Effective containment strategies are necessary to prevent the unintentional spread of genetically modified insects beyond the target release area. Adequate safety measures must be in place to avoid the establishment of modified populations outside the intended boundaries.

**5.4 Biosafety Protocols:** Field trials require rigorous adherence to biosafety protocols to minimize the risk of accidental release or unintentional exposure to modified organisms during and after the trial.

**5.5 Monitoring and Risk Assessment:** Regular monitoring and risk assessment of the modified insect populations are essential to detect any unintended consequences and assess the effectiveness of the genetic modifications.

**5.6 Public Engagement and Communication:** Involving the public in decision-making processes, addressing concerns, and communicating the objectives and outcomes of the field trials are crucial to build trust and garner support for the research.

**5.7 International Governance:** CRISPR-Cas9 field trials may involve international collaborations, necessitating alignment with diverse regulatory frameworks and guidelines, which can present additional challenges.

**5.8 Ethical Use of Technology:** Addressing ethical considerations, such as potential impacts on human health, animal welfare, and equitable access to benefits, becomes crucial in deploying CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing in vector control.

**5.9 Unintended Consequences:** There is a need to carefully evaluate and anticipate any unintended consequences of genetic modifications in the target species and assess their potential impacts on ecosystems and human health.

**6. Successes and Challenges in Real-World Deployments**

**6.1 Successes:**

**6.1.1 Targeted Gene Modifications:** CRISPR-Cas9 technology has shown success in achieving precise gene modifications in insects, enabling the alteration of specific genes responsible for vector-borne disease transmission.

**6.1.2 Reduced Disease Transmission:** Field trials have demonstrated a reduction in disease transmission by genetically modifying insects to render them less competent vectors or by suppressing their populations.

**6.1.3 Environmentally Friendly Approach:** Compared to traditional insecticides, CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing offers a more environmentally friendly approach to vector control, as it targets only specific species and reduces the need for broad-spectrum chemicals.

**6.1.4 Species-Specific Control:** CRISPR-Cas9 allows for species-specific control, minimizing impacts on non-target species and reducing the risk of ecological disruption.

**6.2 Challenges:**

**6.2.1 Off-Target Effects:** One of the primary challenges is the potential for off-target effects, where the CRISPR-Cas9 system may inadvertently modify genes other than the intended target, leading to unintended consequences.

**6.2.2 Ethical Concerns:** The deployment of genetically modified insects raises ethical concerns related to ecological implications, potential unintended consequences, and the long-term effects on ecosystems.

**6.2.3 Regulatory Hurdles:** Real-world deployments often face complex regulatory landscapes, varying from country to country, which can delay or limit the widespread implementation of CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing in insect vector control.

**6.2.4 Containment and Monitoring:** Ensuring effective containment strategies and continuous monitoring of genetically modified insect populations are essential to prevent unintended spread and assess the impact on the environment.

**6.2.5 Public Acceptance:** Public acceptance and understanding of the technology play a crucial role in the successful deployment of CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing for vector control. Public perception and concerns may influence the support for large-scale implementation.

**6.2.6 Resistance:** There is a possibility of insects developing resistance to CRISPR-Cas9 modifications over time, which could undermine the effectiveness of this approach for long-term vector control.

**7. Future Directions and Possibilities**

**7.1 Precision and Efficiency:** Continued advancements in CRISPR-Cas9 technology will likely improve its precision and efficiency, allowing for more accurate and targeted modifications in disease-carrying insects. This enhanced precision will help minimize unintended off-target effects and increase the effectiveness of disease-resistant modifications.

**7.2 Novel Gene Targets:** Researchers are actively exploring novel gene targets in insects that play crucial roles in disease transmission. Identifying and modifying these genes could lead to more effective strategies for curbing vector-borne diseases.

**7.3 Multi-Pathogen Resistance:** CRISPR-Cas9 offers the potential to create insects that are resistant to multiple pathogens simultaneously, addressing the challenge of diseases with complex transmission patterns and multiple vectors.

**7.4 Rapid Response to Emerging Diseases:** The versatility and speed of CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing enable a rapid response to emerging vector-borne diseases. By developing disease-resistant insects quickly, it may be possible to contain outbreaks and prevent widespread epidemics.

**7.5 Reducing Reliance on Chemical Insecticides:** The development of CRISPR-Cas9-based strategies for vector control can reduce the reliance on chemical insecticides, which may have negative impacts on the environment and non-target species.

**7.6 Localized and Sustainable Solutions:** Gene-edited disease-resistant insects offer localized and sustainable solutions for vector control, providing a targeted approach that minimizes ecological disruption.

**7.7 Integrated Approaches:** Integrating CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing with other vector control methods, such as Wolbachia-based approaches or sterile insect techniques, can create synergistic effects and enhance the overall efficacy of disease control efforts.

**7.8 Public Health Impact:** Successful implementation of CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing in insects can significantly reduce the burden of vector-borne diseases, leading to improved public health outcomes and quality of life in affected regions.

**7.9 International Collaboration:** Collaborative efforts among researchers, governments, and health organizations worldwide can facilitate the exchange of knowledge, best practices, and resources, allowing for a coordinated global approach to combating vector-borne diseases.

Despite these promising prospects, challenges related to safety, ethics, regulation, and public acceptance must be addressed for the responsible deployment of CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing in insect vector control. With rigorous research, careful planning, and transparent communication, CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing holds tremendous potential to revolutionize the fight against vector-borne diseases and create a healthier and more sustainable future.

**Conclusion**

Development and deployment of bio-engineered defenders using CRISPR-Cas9 to unleash disease-resistant insects for curbing vector-borne diseases hold immense promise for revolutionizing public health and environmental conservation. With the potential for precision and efficiency in gene editing, targeted modifications in disease-transmitting insects can be achieved, offering a more effective and sustainable approach to vector control. However, while the future prospects are encouraging, addressing ethical, safety, and regulatory challenges will be crucial in ensuring responsible implementation. By fostering international collaboration, engaging local communities, and adopting a One Health approach, the transformative power of CRISPR-Cas9 technology can be harnessed to combat vector-borne diseases, making significant strides towards a healthier and safer world.

**References**

Akbari, O. S., Bellen, H. J., Bier, E., Bullock, S. L., Burt, A., Church, G. M., & Wildonger, J. (2015). Safeguarding gene drive experiments in the laboratory. *Science*, *349*(6251), 927-929.

Bassett, A. R., & Liu, J. L. (2014). CRISPR/Cas9 and genome editing in Drosophila. *Journal of genetics and genomics*, *41*(1), 7-19.

Burt, A. (2014). Heritable strategies for controlling insect vectors of disease. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, *369*(1645), 20130432.

Esvelt, K. M., Mali, P., Braff, J. L., Moosburner, M., Yaung, S. J., & Church, G. M. (2013). Orthogonal Cas9 proteins for RNA-guided gene regulation and editing. *Nature methods*, *10*(11), 1116-1121.

Franz, A. W., Sanchez-Vargas, I., Adelman, Z. N., Blair, C. D., Beaty, B. J., James, A. A., & Olson, K. E. (2006). Engineering RNA interference-based resistance to dengue virus type 2 in genetically modified *Aedes aegypti*. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *103*(11), 4198-4203.

Golding, N., Wilson, A. L., Moyes, C. L., Cano, J., Pigott, D. M., Velayudhan, R., ... & Lindsay, S. W. (2015). Integrating vector control across diseases. *BMC medicine*, *13*(1), 1-6.

Hotez, P. J. (2013). NTDs V. 2.0: “blue marble health”—neglected tropical disease control and elimination in a shifting health policy landscape. *Plos Neglected Tropical Diseases*, *7*(11), e2570.

Isaacs, A. T., Jasinskiene, N., Tretiakov, M., Thiery, I., Zettor, A., Bourgouin, C., & James, A. A. (2012). Transgenic *Anopheles stephensi* coexpressing single-chain antibodies resist Plasmodium falciparum development. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *109*(28), E1922-E1930.

Ishino, Y., Shinagawa, H., Makino, K., Amemura, M., & Nakata, A. (1987). Nucleotide sequence of the iap gene, responsible for alkaline phosphatase isozyme conversion in Escherichia coli, and identification of the gene product. *Journal of bacteriology*, *169*(12), 5429-5433.

Jinek, M., Chylinski, K., Fonfara, I., Hauer, M., Doudna, J. A., & Charpentier, E. (2012). A programmable dual-RNA–guided DNA endonuclease in adaptive bacterial immunity. *science*, *337*(6096), 816-821.

Kyrou, K., Hammond, A. M., Galizi, R., Kranjc, N., Burt, A., Beaghton, A. K., & Crisanti, A. (2018). A CRISPR–Cas9 gene drive targeting doublesex causes complete population suppression in caged *Anopheles gambiae* mosquitoes. *Nature biotechnology*, *36*(11), 1062-1066.

Marshall, J. M., & Akbari, O. S. (2018). Can CRISPR-based gene drive be confined in the wild? A question for molecular and population biology. *ACS chemical biology*, *13*(2), 424-430.

Olson, K. E., Adelman, Z. N., Travanty, E. A., Sanchez-Vargas, I., Beaty, B. J., & Blair, C. D. (2002). Developing arbovirus resistance in mosquitoes. *Insect biochemistry and molecular biology*, *32*(10), 1333-1343.

Ranson, H., & Lissenden, N. (2016). Insecticide resistance in African Anopheles mosquitoes: a worsening situation that needs urgent action to maintain malaria control. *Trends in parasitology*, *32*(3), 187-196.

Symington, L. S., & Gautier, J. (2011). Double-strand break end resection and repair pathway choice. *Annual review of genetics*, *45*, 247-271.

Taning, C. N. T., Van Eynde, B., Yu, N., Ma, S., & Smagghe, G. (2017). CRISPR/Cas9 in insects: Applications, best practices and biosafety concerns. *Journal of insect physiology*, *98*, 245-257.

Vora, N. (2019). Impact of Climate Change on Vector-Borne Diseases. *Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology*, 1313, 149–164.

Vos, T., Barber, R. M., Bell, B., Bertozzi-Villa, A., Biryukov, S., Bolliger, I., & Brugha, T. S. (2015). Global, regional, and national incidence, prevalence, and years lived with disability for 301 acute and chronic diseases and injuries in 188 countries, 1990–2013: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. *The lancet*, *386*(9995), 743-800.

Weiss, B. L., Yang, L., & Aksoy, S. (2022). Tsetse Paratransgenesis: a Novel Strategy for Reducing the Spread of African Trypanosomiases. In *Transgenic insects: techniques and applications* (pp. 279-295). GB: CABI.

WHO. (2021). Vector-borne diseases. World Health Organization.

WHO & UNICEF. (2017). Global vector control response 2017-2030.