Contents lists available at ScienceDirect





journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/cnsns

Communications in Nonlineaer Science and Numerical Simulation

An impulsive predator-prey model with disease in the prey for integrated pest management

Ruiqing Shi^{a,b,*}, Lansun Chen^b

^a School of Mathematics and Computer Science, Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, Shanxi 041004, People's Republic of China
^b Department of Applied Mathematics, Dalian University of Technology, Dalian, Liaoning 116024, People's Republic of China

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 6 March 2008 Received in revised form 27 June 2008 Accepted 2 April 2009 Available online 9 April 2009

PACS: 02.30.Hq

Keywords: Predator-prey model Impulsive Permanent Susceptible pest-eradication periodic solution

ABSTRACT

In this paper, an impulsive predator–prey model with disease in the prey is investigated for the purpose of integrated pest management. In the first part of the main results, we get the sufficient condition for the global stability of the susceptible pest-eradication periodic solution. This means if the release amount of infective prey and predator satisfy the condition, then the pest will be doomed. In the second part of the main results, we also get the sufficient condition for the permanence of the system. This means if the release amount of infective prey and predator satisfy the condition, then the prey and the predator will coexist. In the last section, we interpret our mathematical results. We also point out some possible future work.

© 2009 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Pests outbreak often cause serious ecological and economic problems, and the warfare between human and pests has sustained for thousands of years. With the development of society and the progress of science and technology, man has adopted some advanced and modern weapons such as chemical pesticides, biological pesticides, remote sensing and measuring, and so on. Some brilliant achievements have been obtained. However, the warfare is not over, and will continue. A great deal of and a large variety of pesticides were used to control pests, because they can quickly kill a significant portion of a pest population and sometimes provide the only feasible method for preventing economic loss. However, pesticide pollution is also recognized as a major health hazard to human beings and beneficial insects. At present, more and more people are concerned about the effects of pesticide residues on human health and on the environment. In this regard, it has been observed that beneficial insects are often more susceptible to chemical pesticides than the target pests are. In the same time, the concentration of the pesticides in use tends to increase with time and usage, since many pests develop resistance to these chemicals (see [16,17] and the references therein).

An alternative to chemical control is biological control, including microbial control with pathogens, as diseases can be important natural controls of some pests. Insects, like humans and other animals, can be infected by disease-causing organisms such as bacteria, viruses and fungi. Under appropriate conditions, such as high humidity or high pest abundance, these

E-mail address: shirq1979@163.com (R. Shi).

1007-5704/\$ - see front matter @ 2009 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.cnsns.2009.04.001

^{*} Corresponding author. Address: Department of Applied Mathematics, Dalian University of Technology, Dalian, Liaoning 116024, People's Republic of China.

naturally occurring organisms may multiply to cause disease outbreaks or epizootics that can decimate an insect population. Insect pathogens are used in two ways. In the first method, a small amount of pathogen is introduced in a pest population with the expectation that it will generate an epidemic which will persist at an endemic level. In the second method, an insect pathogen is used like biopesticides. In this case, the pathogen is applied whenever a pest population is at an economically significant level and there is no expectation that the pathogen will persist in the environment for a long time. There is a vast amount of literatures on the applications of entomopathogens to suppress pests [2,4,6,20]. One of the first successful cases of biological control in greenhouses was the use of the parasitoid *Encarsia formosa* against the greenhouse whitefly *Trialeurodes vaporariorum* on tomatoes and cucumbers [22,23]. There are also papers and books on mathematical models of the dynamics of microbial diseases in pest control [9,10,17,24,25].

People also use natural enemy to control pest or regulate it to densities below the threshold for economical damage. Often with augmentation or release, the natural enemy is applied like a pesticide after the pest has reached or exceed the economic threshold. There are many literatures concerning natural enemy for pest control [5,7,18,22].

Integrated pest management or IPM is a long term management strategy that uses a combination of biological, cultural, and chemical tactics to reduce pests to tolerable levels, with little cost to the grower and minimal effect on the environment (for more details, we can see [3,19]). IPM which has been proved by experiment [21] is more effective than classical one (such as biological control or chemical control).

Systems with impulsive effects describing evolution processes are characterized by the fact that at certain moments of time they abruptly experience a change of state. Processes of such type are studied in almost every domain of applied science. Impulsive equations [1,13] have been recently used in population dynamics in relation to impulsive vaccination [11], population ecology [14,15], the chemotherapeutic treatment of disease [12], the theory of the chemostat [8].

In this paper, we will consider the integrated pest management by using microbial control with pathogens and releasing natural enemy together. That is, we release infective pests and natural enemy to suppress the pest. The infective pests can be cultivated in the laboratory and the natural enemy can migrated from other regions. Once the susceptible pest meets with the infective pest, there is a chance to be infected. The infective pests have more possibility to death. We suppose the natural enemy eat the susceptible pest, but do not eat the infective pest. In our model, we call the pest and the natural enemy as prey and predator, respectively. For mathematically simple, we set several assumptions in the models. Details are shown in next section.

The main purpose of this paper is to construct an impulsive predator-prey model with biocontrol for pest management. The present paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, the model is constructed and the main biological assumptions are formulated. In Section 3, by using the Floquet's theory for impulsive differential equations, small-amplitude perturbation methods and comparison techniques, we investigate the global asymptotic stability of the susceptible pest-eradication periodic solution and the conditions for the permanence of the system. Finally, a brief discussion and some possible future work for pest management are provided in the last section.

2. Model formulation

In this paper, we study the following model for integrated pest management.

$$\begin{cases} S'(t) = rS(t)\left(1 - \frac{S(t) + I(t)}{K}\right) - \beta S(t)I(t) - \frac{aS(t)y(t)}{1 + \omega S(t)}, \\ I'(t) = \beta S(t)I(t) - d_1I(t), \\ y'(t) = \frac{\delta aS(t)y(t)}{1 + \omega S(t)} - d_2y(t), \\ \Delta S(t) = 0, \\ \Delta I(t) = p, \\ \Delta y(t) = q, \end{cases} t = n\tau, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}_+ = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}.$$
(1)

Here S(t), I(t) represent the densities of the susceptible prey (pest) population and the infective prey (pest) population, respectively. y(t) is the density of predator (natural enemy) population. The model is derived with the following assumptions.

- (H_1) The prey population grow with Logistic rate, r > 0 is the intrinsic growing rate, K > 0 is the carrying capacity.
- (H_2) There is a disease among the prey population, and the prey is divided into two classes, susceptible and infective. The incidence rate is the classic bilinear $\beta S(t)I(t)$, β is the contact number per unit time for every infective prey with susceptible prey.
- (H_3) The predator only catch susceptible prey, and the predation functional response is Holling type II. The parameters a, ω are positive constants, and δ is the conversing rate from the prey to the predator.
- (H_4) d_1, d_2 is the death rate for infective prey and predator, respectively.
- (*H*₅) At time $t = n\tau$, $n \in Z_+$, we release infective prey population and predator population periodically with releasing amount p (p > 0) and q (> 0), respectively.

3. Preliminary

We give some definitions, notations and lemmas which will be useful for stating and proving our main results. Let $R_+ = [0, \infty)$, $R_+^3 = \{x = (x_1, x_2, x_3) \in R^3 : x_1, x_2, x_3 > 0\}$.

Denote $f = (f_1, f_2, f_3)$ the mapping defined by the right-hand side of system (1). Let $V : R_+ \times R^3 \to R_+$. Then V is said to belong to class V_0 if

(i) *V* is continuous in $(n\tau, (n+1)\tau] \times R^3$ and for each $x \in R^3_+$, $n \in Z_+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ and the limit

$$\lim_{(t,y)\to(n\tau^+,x)}V(t,y)=V(n\tau^+,x)$$

exists and is finite.

(ii) V is locally Lipschitzian in x.

Definition 3.1. For $V \in V_0$ and $(t,x) \in (n\tau, (n+1)\tau] \times R^3$, the upper right Dini derivative of V(t,x) with respect to the impulsive differential system (1) is defined as

$$D^+V(t,x) = \lim_{h \to 0^+} \sup \frac{1}{h} [V(t+h,x+hf(t,x)) - V(t,x)].$$

Definition 3.2. System (1) is said to be permanent if there exists a compact region $D \in intR_+^3$ such that every solution of system (1) with positive initial values will eventually enter and remain in region *D*.

The solution of system (1), denoted by $X(t) = (S(t), I(t), y(t)) : R_+ \to R_+^3$, is continuously differentiable on $(n\tau, (n+1)\tau] \times R^3$, $n \in Z_+$ and the limit $X(n\tau^+) = \lim_{t \to n\tau^+} X(t)$ exists and is finite for $n \in Z_+$. Obviously, the global existence and the uniqueness of solution of system (1) are guaranteed by the smoothness properties of f (see [1,13] for details on fundamental properties of impulsive systems). The proofs of the following lemmas are obvious.

Lemma 3.3. Suppose that X(t) is a solution of (1) with $X(0^+) \ge 0$. Then $X(t) \ge 0$ for all t > 0. Further, if $X(0^+) > 0$ then X(t) > 0 for all t > 0.

Lemma 3.4 [13]. Let $V : R_+ \times R^3 \to R$ and $V \in V_0$. Assume that

 $\begin{cases} D^+V(t,X)\leqslant g(t,V(t,X)), & t\neq n\tau,\\ V(t,X(t^+))\leqslant \Psi_n(V(t,X(t))), & t=n\tau, \end{cases}$

where $g: R_+ \times R_+ \to R$ is continuous in $(n\tau, (n+1)\tau] \times R_+$ and for each $v \in R_+^3$, $n \in Z_+$

$$\lim_{(t,v)\to(n\tau^+,v)}g(t,y)=g(n\tau^+,v)$$

exists and is finite. $\Psi_n : R_+ \rightarrow R_+$ is nondecreasing. Let R(t) be the maximal solution of the scalar impulsive differential equation

$$\begin{cases} U'(t) = g(t, U), & t \neq n\tau, \\ U(t^+) = \Psi_n(U(t)), & t = n\tau, \\ U(0^+) = U_0, \end{cases}$$

defined on $[0,\infty)$. Then $V(0^+,X_0) \leq U_0$ implies that $V(t,X(t)) \leq R(t)$, $t \geq 0$, where X(t) is any solution of system (1).

Lemma 3.5. There exists a positive constant M such that $S(t) \leq M$, $I(t) \leq M$, $y(t) \leq M$, for each solution (S(t), I(t), y(t)) of system (1) with positive initial values, where t is large enough.

Proof. Define a function *V* such that

$$V(t) = S(t) + I(t) + y(t).$$

By simple computation, we see that when $t \neq n\tau$,

$$D^{+}V|_{(1)} + dV = (r+d)S(t) - rS(t)\frac{S(t) + I(t)}{K} - (d_{1} - d)I(t) - (d_{2} - d)y(t) - \frac{(1 - \delta)ay(t)}{1 + \omega S(t)} \leq (r+d)S(t) - \frac{rS^{2}(t)}{K},$$

where $d = \min\{d_1, d_2\}$. Obviously, the right-hand side of the above equality is bounded from above for all $(S(t), I(t), y(t)) \in R^3_+$. Hence there exists a positive constant λ such that

$$D^+V|_{(1)} + dV < \lambda$$
 for $t \neq n\tau$.

From the fourth, fifth, sixth equations of system (1) we see that,

 $V(n\tau^+) = V(n\tau) + \mu,$

where $\mu = p + q$. According to Lemma 2.2, [1], we derive

$$V(t) = V(0)e^{-dt} + \int_0^t \lambda e^{-d(t-s)} ds + \Sigma_{0 < k\tau < t} \mu e^{-d(t-k\tau)} \rightarrow \frac{\lambda}{d} + \frac{\mu e^{d\tau}}{e^{d\tau} - 1}, as \quad t \to \infty.$$

Consequently, by the definition of V(t) we obtain that each solution of (1) with positive initial values is uniformly ultimately bounded. This completes the proof. \Box

Lemma 3.6. System

$$\begin{cases} u'(t) = -wu(t), & t \neq n\tau, \\ \Delta u(t) = \mu, & t = n\tau, \end{cases}$$
(2)

has a positive periodic solution $u^*(t)$, and for every solution u(t) of this system with positive initial value $u(0^+)$, $|u(t) - u^*(t)| \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, where

$$u^*(t) = \frac{\mu e^{-w(t-n\tau)}}{1-e^{-w\tau}}$$

and

$$u^*(\mathbf{0}^+) = \frac{\mu}{1 - e^{-w\tau}}.$$

Proof. The proof is obvious, in fact, since the solution of (2) is

$$u(t) = \left(u(0^+) - \frac{\mu}{1 - e^{-w\tau}}\right)e^{-wt} + u^*(t), \quad n\tau < t \leq (n+1)\tau. \qquad \Box$$

4. Main results

When $S(t) \equiv 0$ for all $t \ge 0$, we get the subsystem of system (1)

$$\begin{cases} I'(t) = -d_1I(t), \\ y'(t) = -d_2y(t), \end{cases} \quad t \neq n\tau, \\ \Delta I(t) = p, \\ \Delta y(t) = q, \end{cases} \quad t = n\tau.$$

$$(3)$$

In this system, we can see there is no relation between I(t) and y(t). Thus, we can solve them independently. By Lemma 3.6, we get the following result.

Theorem 4.1. System (3) has a unique positive periodic solution

$$I^{*}(t) = \frac{pe^{-d_{1}(t-n\tau)}}{1-e^{-d_{1}\tau}}, \quad y^{*}(t) = \frac{qe^{-d_{2}(t-n\tau)}}{1-e^{-d_{2}\tau}}, \text{ for } t \in (n\tau, (n+1)\tau],$$

where

$$I^*(\mathbf{0}^+) = \frac{p}{1 - e^{-d_1 \tau}}, \quad y^*(\mathbf{0}^+) = \frac{q}{1 - e^{-d_2 \tau}}.$$

In addition, for every solution of system (3) with initial values $I(0^+) > 0$, $y(0^+) > 0$, it follows that $I(t) \rightarrow I^*(t)$, $y(t) \rightarrow y^*(t)$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

Thus, the complete expression for the susceptible pest-eradication periodic solution of system (1) is obtained as $(0, I^*(t), y^*(t)), t \in (n\tau, (n+1)\tau], n \in Z_+$. The following theorems are results about the stability and attraction of the susceptible pest-eradication periodic solution $(0, I^*(t), y^*(t))$.

Theorem 4.2. If $r\tau < (\frac{r}{K} + \beta) \frac{p}{d_i} + \frac{aq}{d_i}$, then the periodic solution $(0, I^*(t), y^*(t))$ is locally asymptotically stable for system (1).

Proof. To prove the local stability of this periodic solution, we use small-amplitude perturbation methods. Let

$$S(t) = u(t), \quad I(t) = v(t) + I^*(t), \quad y(t) = w(t) + y^*(t),$$

where u(t), v(t), w(t) are small perturbations. Then system (1) can be linearized by using Taylor expansions and after neglecting higher-order terms, the linearized equations read as

$$\begin{cases} u'(t) = u(t)[r - (\frac{r}{K} + \beta)I^{*}(t) - ay^{*}(t)], \\ v'(t) = \beta I^{*}(t)u(t) - d_{1}v(t), \\ w'(t) = \delta ay^{*}(t)u(t) - d_{2}w(t) \end{cases} \qquad t \neq n\tau,$$

$$\begin{cases} u(n\tau^{+}) = u(n\tau), \\ v(n\tau^{+}) = v(n\tau), \\ w(n\tau^{+}) = w(n\tau), \end{cases} \qquad t = n\tau.$$

$$(4)$$

Let $\Phi(t)$ be the fundamental solution matrix of (4). Then $\Phi(t)$ must satisfy

$$\frac{d\Phi(t)}{dt} = \begin{pmatrix} r - (\frac{r}{K} + \beta)l^*(t) - ay^*(t) & 0 & 0\\ \beta l^*(t) & -d_1 & 0\\ \delta ay^*(t) & 0 & -d_2 \end{pmatrix} \Phi(t),$$

 $\Phi(0) = I_3$ is the identical matrix. Hence the fundamental solution matrix is

$$arPsi_{0}(t) = egin{pmatrix} e \int_{0}^{t} [r - (rac{t}{k} + eta) l^{*}(t) - a y^{*}(t)] dt & 0 & 0 \ * & e^{-d_{1}t} & 0 \ * & 0 & e^{-d_{2}t} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Also, the fourth, fifth and sixth equations in (4) read as

$$\begin{pmatrix} u(n\tau^+)\\ v(n\tau^+)\\ w(n\tau^+) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u(n\tau)\\ v(n\tau)\\ w(n\tau) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence, if all eigenvalues of

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \Phi(T)$$

have absolute values less than one, then the periodic solution $(0, I^*(t), y^*(t))$ is locally asymptotically stable. Since the eigenvalues of M are

$$\lambda_1 = e^{-d_2T} < 1, \quad \lambda_2 = e^{-d_1T} < 1, \quad \lambda_3 = e^{\int_0^s [r - (\frac{r}{k} + \beta)I^*(t) - ay^*(t)]dt}$$

it follows that $|\lambda_3| < 1$ if and only if $r\tau < (\frac{r}{K} + \beta)\frac{p}{d_1} + \frac{aq}{d_2}$ holds. According to the Floquet theory of impulsive differential equations, in this situation, the susceptible pest-eradication periodic solution $(0, I^*(t), y^*(t))$ is locally asymptotically stable. The proof is complete. \Box

Theorem 4.3. If $r\tau < (\frac{r}{K} + \beta)\frac{p}{d_1} + \frac{a}{1+\omega K}\frac{q}{d_2}$, then the periodic solution $(0, I^*(t), y^*(t))$ is globally asymptotically stable for system (1).

Proof. By the given condition and Theorem 4.2, it is easy to know that $(0, I^*(t), y^*(t))$ is locally asymptotically stable. Therefore, we only need to prove its global attraction. Since $r\tau < (\frac{r}{K} + \beta)\frac{p}{d_1} + \frac{a}{1+\omega K}\frac{q}{d_2}$, we can choose a ε_1 small enough such that

$$\int_0^\tau \left[r - \left(\frac{r}{K} + \beta\right) (I^*(t) - \varepsilon_1) - \frac{a}{1 + \omega K} (y^*(t) - \varepsilon_1) \right] dt \doteq \sigma < 0$$

Besides, we have

 $I'(t) = \beta S(t)I(t) - d_1I(t) \ge -d_1I(t).$

From Lemmas 3.4 and 3.6, there exists a n_1 such that

$$I(t) \ge I^*(t) - \varepsilon_1$$
, for $t \ge n_1 \tau$.

Similarly, there exists a n_2 ($n_2 > n_1$) such that

$$y(t) \ge y^*(t) - \varepsilon_1, \text{ for } t \ge n_2 \tau.$$
 (6)

Thus, for $t \ge n_2 \tau$, we have

$$\begin{split} S'(t) &= rS(t) \left(1 - \frac{S(t) + I(t)}{K} \right) - \beta S(t)I(t) - \frac{aS(t)y(t)}{1 + \omega S(t)} \leqslant rS(t) - \left(\frac{r}{K} + \beta\right)S(t)I(t) - \frac{aS(t)y(t)}{1 + \omega K} \\ &\leqslant S(t) \left[r - \left(\frac{r}{K} + \beta\right)(I^*(t) - \varepsilon_1) - \frac{a(y^*(t) - \varepsilon_1)}{1 + \omega K} \right]. \end{split}$$

(5)

From the above inequality, we get

$$S(t) \leqslant S(n_2\tau) e^{\int_{n_2\tau}^t \left[r - \left(\frac{r}{k} + \beta\right)(t^*(t) - \varepsilon_1) - \frac{a(y^*(t) - \varepsilon_1)}{1 + \omega k}\right]dt} \leqslant S(n_2\tau) e^{k\sigma},$$

where $t \in ((n_2 + k)\tau, (n_2 + k + 1)\tau], k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Since $\sigma < 0$, we can easily see that $S(t) \to 0$ as $k \to +\infty$. Thus, for an arbitrary positive constant ε_2 small enough, there exists a n_3 $(n_3 > n_2)$ such that $S(t) < \varepsilon_2$ for all $t \ge n_3 \tau$. From which we get

$$I'(t) = \beta S(t)I(t) - d_1I(t) \leq (\beta \varepsilon_2 - d_1)I(t)$$

. -

From Lemmas 3.4 and 3.6, there exists a n_4 ($n_4 > n_3$) such that

$$I(t) \leq I_2^*(t) + \varepsilon_1, \quad \text{for } t \geq n_4 \tau,$$
(7)

(8)

where $I_2^*(t) = \frac{pe^{-(d_1 - \beta k_2)(t-k\tau)}}{1 - e^{-(d_1 - \beta k_2)\tau}}$, for $t \in (k\tau, (k+1)\tau]$, $k \in Z_+$. By similarly argument, there exists a n_5 $(n_5 > n_4)$ such that

$$y(t) \leq y_2^*(t) + \varepsilon_1$$
, for $t \geq n_5 \tau$,

where $y_2^*(t) = \frac{qe^{-(d_2-\delta ac_2)(t-k\tau)}}{1-e^{-(d_1-\delta ac_2)\tau}}$, for $t \in (k\tau, (k+1)\tau]$, $k \in Z_+$. Note that $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2$ are positive constants small enough, and $I_2^*(t) \to I^*(t)$, $y_2^*(t) \to y^*(t)$, as $\varepsilon_2 \to 0$, together with Eqs. (5)–(8), we get $I(t) \to I^*(t)$ and $y(t) \to y^*(t)$ as $t \to +\infty$. Therefore, the periodic solution $(0, I^*(t), y^*(t))$ is globally asymptotically stable. \Box

Corollary 4.4. (1) If p = 0, then the condition of Theorem 4.3 becomes

$$q > \frac{r\tau d_2(1+\omega K)}{a} \doteq q_0. \tag{9}$$

(2) If q = 0, then the condition of Theorem 4.3 becomes

$$p > \frac{r\tau d_1}{\beta + \frac{r}{\kappa}} \doteq p_0. \tag{10}$$

Theorem 4.5. If $r\tau > (\frac{r}{K} + \beta)\frac{p}{d_1} + \frac{aq}{d_2}$, then system (1) is permanent.

Proof. We will prove the theorem by several steps. By Lemma 3.5, without loss of generality, we can suppose $S(t), I(t), y(t) \leq M$ for all $t \geq 0$, for simplifying the next proof process.

Step 1. We will prove I(t) and y(t) are ultimately positively bounded below.

Firstly, from Eq. (5), we get $I(t) \ge I^*(t) - \varepsilon_1 \ge \frac{pe^{-d_1\tau}}{1 - e^{-d_1\tau}} - \varepsilon_1 = m_1 > 0$, for $t \ge n_1\tau$. Secondly, from Eq. (6), we get $y(t) \ge y^*(t) - \varepsilon_1 \ge \frac{qe^{-d_2\tau}}{1 - e^{-d_2\tau}} - \varepsilon_1 = m_2 > 0$, for $t \ge n_2\tau$.

Therefore, I(t) and y(t) are ultimately positively bounded below.

Step 2. We will prove S(t) is ultimately positively bounded below.

Since $r\tau > (\frac{r}{K} + \beta) \frac{p}{d_1} + \frac{aq}{d_2}$, we can select positive constant ε and m_3 small enough such that

$$\left[r\left(1-\frac{m_3}{K}\right)-\left(\frac{r}{K}+\beta\right)\varepsilon-a\varepsilon\right]\tau-\left[\left(\frac{r}{K}+\beta\right)\frac{p}{d_1-\beta m_3}+a\frac{q}{d_2-\delta am_3}\right]\doteq\sigma_2>0.$$

We claim that for an arbitrary $N_1 \in Z_+$, $S(t) < m_3$ cannot hold for all $t \ge N_1 \tau$. Otherwise, there exists a $N_1 \in Z_+$, such that $S(t) < m_3$ for all $t \ge N_1 \tau$. Then, we have

$$I'(t) = \beta S(t)I(t) - d_1I(t) \leqslant (\beta m_3 - d_1)I(t)$$

$$y'(t) = \frac{\delta aS(t)y(t)}{1 + \omega S(t)} - d_2y(t) \leqslant (\delta am_3 - d_2)y(t)$$

for all $t \ge N_1 \tau$. By Lemmas 3.4 and 3.6, we know there exists a N_2 ($N_2 > N_1$) such that

$$I(t) \leqslant I_2^*(t) + \varepsilon, \quad y(t) \leqslant y_2^*(t) + \varepsilon,$$

for all $t \ge N_2 \tau$, where

$$I_{2}^{*}(t) = \frac{p e^{-(d_{1} - \beta m_{2})(t-k\tau)}}{1 - e^{-(d_{1} - \beta m_{2})\tau}}, \quad y_{2}^{*}(t) = \frac{q e^{-(d_{2} - \delta a m_{2})(t-k\tau)}}{1 - e^{-(d_{2} - \delta a m_{2})\tau}}$$

are the unique positive periodic solutions of systems (11) and (12)

$$\begin{cases} I'(t) = (\beta m_3 - d_1)I(t), & t \neq n\tau, \\ \Delta I(t) = p, & t = n\tau, \end{cases}$$

$$(11)$$

$$(y'(t) = (\delta a m_2 - d_2)y(t), & t \neq n\tau$$

$$\begin{cases} y(t) = q, & t = n\tau, \end{cases}$$
(12)

respectively. From which, we get

$$S'(t) = rS(t)\left(1 - \frac{S(t) + I(t)}{K}\right) - \beta S(t)I(t) - \frac{aS(t)y(t)}{1 + \omega S(t)} \ge S(t)\left[r - \frac{rm_3}{K} - \left(\frac{r}{K} + \beta\right)(I_2^*(t) + \varepsilon) - a(y_2^*(t) + \varepsilon)\right]$$

Thus,

$$S((N_2+k)\tau) \geq S(N_2\tau)e^{\int_{N_2\tau}^{(N_2+k)\tau} \left[r-\frac{rm_3}{\kappa}-\left(\frac{r}{\kappa}+\beta\right)(l_2^*(t)+\varepsilon)-a(y_2^*(t)+\varepsilon)\right]dt} \geq S(N_2\tau)e^{k\sigma_2}.$$

We easily get $S((N_2 + k)\tau) \rightarrow +\infty$ as $t \rightarrow +\infty$. This is a contradiction with the boundedness of S(t). Thus our claim is true, and for an arbitrary $N_1 \in Z_+$, there exists at least a $t_1 \ge N_1\tau$ such that $S(t_1) \ge m_3$. There are two cases:

Case 1. $S(t) \ge m_3$ for all $t \ge t_1$. Then our aim is obtained. Otherwise, we consider the next case.

Case 2. We consider those solutions which leave the region $\Gamma = \{(S(t), I(t), y(t)) \in R_+^3 : S(t) < m_3\}$ and reenter it again. Let $t^* = \inf_{t \ge t_1} \{S(t) < m_3\}$. Then $S(t) \ge m_3$ for $t \in [t_1, t^*)$ and $S(t^*) = m_3$ since S(t) is continuous. Suppose $t^* \in (N_3 \tau, (N_3 + 1)\tau]$, $N_3 \in Z_+$. Select $N_4, N_5 \in Z_+$ such that

$$\begin{split} N_4 \tau > \max & \left\{ \frac{-\ln \frac{\varepsilon}{2M}}{d_1 - \beta m_3}, \frac{-\ln \frac{\varepsilon}{2M}}{d_2 - \delta a m_3} \right\}, \\ N_5 \sigma_2 > & \left(\frac{r}{K} + \beta + a \right) M(N_4 + 1) \tau. \end{split}$$

Denote $T = (N_4 + N_5)\tau$. We claim that $S(t) < m_3$ cannot hold for all $t \in [(N_3 + 1)\tau, (N_3 + 1)\tau + T]$. Otherwise, $S(t) < m_3$ for all $t \in [(N_3 + 1)\tau, (N_3 + 1)\tau + T]$. Then

$$I'(t) = \beta S(t)I(t) - d_1I(t) \leq (\beta m_3 - d_1)I(t)$$

holds for all $t \in [(N_3 + 1)\tau, (N_3 + 1)\tau + T]$. Consider the following system

$$\begin{cases} u'(t) = (\beta m_3 - d_1)u(t), & t \neq n\tau, \quad n = N_3 + 1, N_3 + 2, \dots, \\ u(n\tau^+) = u(n\tau^-) + p, & t = n\tau, \quad n = N_3 + 1, N_3 + 2, \dots, \end{cases}$$
(13)

with initial value $u((N_3 + 1)\tau^+) = I((N_3 + 1)\tau^+)$. Obviously, the solution of system (13) is

$$u(t) = I_2^*(t) + (u((N_3 + 1)\tau^+) - I_2^*)e^{-(d_1 - \beta m_3)(t - (N_3 + 1)\tau)}$$

And

$$|u(t) - I_2^*(t)| \leq 2Me^{-(d_1 - \beta m_3)(t - (N_3 + 1)\tau)} < \varepsilon$$

for all $t \in [(N_3 + N_4 + 1)\tau, (N_3 + 1)\tau + T]$. So, by Lemma 3.4, we get

$$I(t) \leqslant u(t) \leqslant I_2^*(t) + \varepsilon, \tag{14}$$

for all $t \in [(N_3 + N_4 + 1)\tau, (N_3 + 1)\tau + T]$. Similarly, we have

$$y(t) \leqslant y_2^*(t) + \varepsilon, \tag{15}$$

for all $t \in [(N_3 + N_4 + 1)\tau, (N_3 + 1)\tau + T]$. Thus, we have

$$S'(t) = rS(t)\left(1 - \frac{S(t) + I(t)}{K}\right) - \beta S(t)I(t) - \frac{aS(t)y(t)}{1 + \omega S(t)} \ge S(t)\left[r - \frac{rm_3}{K} - \left(\frac{r}{K} + \beta\right)(I_2^*(t) + \varepsilon) - a(y_2^*(t) + \varepsilon)\right].$$

for all $t \in [(N_3 + N_4 + 1)\tau, (N_3 + 1)\tau + T]$. And

$$S((N_{3}+1)\tau+T) \geq S((N_{3}+N_{4}+1)\tau)e^{\int_{(N_{3}+N_{4}+1)\tau}^{(N_{3}+1)\tau+T} \left[r-\frac{m_{3}}{K}-\left(\frac{r}{k}+\beta\right)(l_{2}^{*}(t)+\varepsilon)-a(y_{2}^{*}(t)+\varepsilon)\right]dt} \geq S((N_{3}+N_{4}+1)\tau)e^{N_{5}\sigma_{2}}.$$
(16)

In the interval $t \in [N_3\tau, (N_3 + N_4 + 1)\tau]$, we have

$$S'(t) = rS(t)\left(1 - \frac{S(t) + I(t)}{K}\right) - \beta S(t)I(t) - \frac{aS(t)y(t)}{1 + \omega S(t)} \ge -\left[\frac{r}{K} + \beta + a\right]MS(t) \doteq \rho S(t)$$

$$\tag{17}$$

and

$$S((N_3 + N_4 + 1)\tau) \ge S(N_3\tau)e^{\int_{N_3\tau}^{N_3 + N_4 + 1)\tau} \rho dt} \ge S(N_3\tau)e^{(N_4 + 1)\tau\rho}.$$
(18)

From Eqs. (16) and (18), we get

$$S((N_3+1)\tau+T) \ge S(N_3\tau)e^{(N_4+1)\tau\rho}e^{N_5\sigma_2}$$

By $N_5\sigma_2 > (\frac{r}{K} + \beta + a)M(N_4 + 1)\tau$, we get $S((N_3 + 1)\tau + T) \ge m_3$. This is a contradiction. Thus, there exists at least a $t_2 \in [(N_3 + 1)\tau, (N_3 + 1)\tau + T]$ such that $S(t_2) \ge m_3$. So, for $t \in [t_1, t_2]$, $S(t) \ge m_3e^{\rho(t_2 - N_3\tau)} \doteq m_4$. For $t > t_2$, the same arguments can be continued since $S(t_2) \ge m_3$. This proves that S(t) is ultimately positively bounded below.

Step 3. Denote $m = \min\{m_1, m_2, m_4\}$, $D = \{R_+^3 : m \le S(t), I(t), y(t) \le M\}$. Combining step 1, step 2 and Lemma 3.5, we know that every solution of system (1) with positive initial values will eventually enter and remain in region *D*. By Definition 3.2, we know system (1) is permanent. The proof is complete. \Box

Corollary 4.6.

(1) If p = 0, then the condition of Theorem 4.5 becomes

$$q < \frac{r\tau d_2}{a} \doteq q_1. \tag{19}$$

(2) If q = 0, then the condition of Theorem 4.5 becomes

$$p < \frac{r\tau d_1}{\beta + \frac{r}{\kappa}} \doteq p_0.$$
⁽²⁰⁾

5. Discussion

In this paper, an impulsive predator-prey model with disease in the prey is investigated for the purpose of integrated pest control. In Theorem 4.3, we get the sufficient condition for the global stability of the susceptible pest-eradication periodic solution, which means that if the release amount of infective pest and natural enemy are large enough, then the susceptible pest will be doomed. By the result of Theorem 4.5, we get the sufficient condition for the permanence of system (1), which means that the pest and the natural enemy will coexist for all time. Corollary 4.4 shows that if we only take one measure, either release infective pest or release natural enemy, then the release amount must satisfy Eqs. (9) or (10). Obviously, our results shows that integrated pest management strategy is superior to those who only release infective prey (pest) or only release predator (natural enemy). Therefore, our mathematical results present a more prior strategy for pest management. However, in our model, we suppose releasing infective pest and natural enemy at the same time, which is not always true in real situation. How about the result, if we release infective pest and natural enemy at different time? We leave it as a future work.

Acknowledgement

This work is partly supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (10471117).

References

- [1] Bainov DD, Simeonov PS. Impulsive differential equations: periodic solutions and applications. London: Longman; 1993.
- [2] Burges HD, Hussey NW. Microbial control of insects and mites. New York: Academic Press; 1971.
- [3] Cherry AJ, Lomer CJ, Djegui D, Schulthess F. Pathogen incidence and their potential as microbial control agents in IPM of maize stemborers in West Africa. Biocontrol 1999;44(a):301–27.
- [4] Davis PE, Myers K, Hoy JB. Biological control among vertebrates. In: Huffaker CB, Messenger PS, editors. Theory and practice of biological control. New York: Plenum Press; 1976.
- [5] Debach P, Rosen D. Biological control by natural enemies. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 1991.
- [6] Falcon LA. Problem associated with the use of arthropod viruses in pest control. Annu Rev Entomol 1976;21:305–24.
- [7] Freedman HJ. Graphical stability, enrichment, and pest control by a natural enemy. Math Biosci 1976;31:207–25.
- [8] Funasaki E, Kot M. Invasion and chaos in a periodically pulsed mass-action chemostat. Theor Pop Biol 1993;44:203–24.
- [9] Goh BS. Management and analysis of biological populations. Amsterdam, Oxford, New York: Elsevier Scientific Publishing Company; 1980.
- [10] Grasman J, Van Herwarrden OA, Hemerik L, et al. A two-component model of host-parasitoid interactions: determination of the size of inundative releases of parasitoids in biological pest control. Math Biosci 2001;196:207–16.
- [11] Hui J, Chen LS. Impulsive vaccination of SIR epidemic models with nonlinear incidence rates. Discrete Continuous Dyn Syst B 2004;3:595-606.
- [12] Lakmeche A, Arino O. Bifurcation of non trivial periodic solutions of impulsive differential equations arising chemotherapeutic treatment. Dyn Continuous Discrete Impulsive Syst 2000;7:265–87.
- [13] Lakshmikantham V, Bainov DD, Simeonov PS. Theory of impulsive differential equations. Singapore: World Scientific; 1989.
- [14] Liu XN, Chen LS. Complex dynamics of Holling type II Lotka-Volterra predator-prey system with impulsive perturbations on the predator. Chaos Solitons Fract 2003;16:311-20.
- [15] Liu B, Chen LS, Zhang YJ. The dynamics of a prey-dependent consumption model concerning impulsive control strategy. Appl Math Comput 2005;169:305–20.
- [16] McEwen FL, Stephenson RG. The use and significance of pesticides in the environment. New York: Wiley; 1979.
- [17] Zhang H, Jiao JJ, Chen LS. Pest management through continuous and impulsive control strategies. Biosystems 2007;90:350-61.
- [18] Luff ML. The potential of predators for pest control. Agri Ecos Environ 1983;10:159-81.
- [19] Mary LF, Robert VB. Introduction to integrated pest management. New York and London: Plenum Press; 1981.
- [20] Tanada Y. Epizootiology of insect disease. In: DeBach P, editor. Biological control of insect pests and weeds. London: Chapman & Hall; 1964.
- [21] Van Lenteren JC. Integrated pest management in protected crops. In: Dent D, editor. Integrated pest management. London: Chapman & Hall; 1995.

- [22] Van Lenteren JC. Measures of success in biological control of anthropoids by augmentation of natural enemies. In: Wratten S, Gurr G, editors. Measures of success in biological control. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers; 2000. p. 77–89. [23] Van Lenteren JC, Woets J. Biological and integrated pest control in greenhouses. Annu Rev Entomol 1988:239–50.
- [24] Jiao JJ, Meng XZ, Chen LS. Global attractivity and permanence of a stage-structured pest management SI model with time delay and diseased pest impulsive transmission. Chaos Solitons Fract 2008;38(3):658-68.
- [25] Zhang H, Chen LS, Nieto JJ. A delayed epidemic model with stage-structure and pulses for pest management strategy. Nonlinear Anal Real World Appl 2008;9(4):1714-26.