

1 **Assessing the blood-host plasticity and dispersal rate of the malaria vector *Anopheles coluzzii***

2 James Orsborne¹, Luis Furuya-Kanamori², Claire L. Jeffries¹, Mojca Kristan¹, Abdul Rahim Mohammed³,

3 Yaw A. Afrane³, Kathleen O'Reilly¹, Eduardo Massad⁴, Chris Drakeley⁵, Thomas Walker¹, Laith Yakob¹

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5 ¹ Department of Disease Control, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, London, UK

6 ² Department of Population Medicine, College of Medicine, Qatar University, Doha, Qatar.

7 ³ Department of Medical Microbiology, College of Health Sciences, University of Ghana, Korle Bu,

8 Accra, Ghana

9 ⁴ School of Applied Mathematics, Fundacao Getulio Vargas, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

10 ⁵ Department of Immunology & Infection, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, London, UK

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12 LY contact: Department of Disease Control, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, Keppel
13 Street, London, WC1E 7HT. +44(0)207 927 2684. Laith.yakob@lshtm.ac.uk

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25 **Abstract**

26 Difficulties with observing the dispersal of insect vectors in the field have hampered understanding of
27 several aspects of their behaviour linked to disease transmission. Here, a novel method based on
28 detection of blood-meal sources is introduced to inform two critical and understudied mosquito
29 behaviours: plasticity in the malaria vector's blood-host choice and vector dispersal. Strategically
30 located collections of *Anopheles coluzzii* from a malaria-endemic village of southern Ghana showed
31 statistically significant variation in host species composition of mosquito blood-meals. Trialling a new
32 sampling approach gave the first estimates for the remarkably local spatial scale across which host
33 choice is plastic. Using quantitative PCR, the blood-meal digestion was then quantified for field-caught
34 mosquitoes and calibrated according to timed blood digestion in colony mosquitoes. We demonstrate
35 how this new 'molecular Sella score' approach can be used to estimate the dispersal rate of blood-
36 feeding vectors caught in the field.

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38 Keywords: blood meal analysis, host preference, mosquito, biting preference, blood index

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47 **Introduction**

48 Although many disease vectors have demonstrable preference for a particular type of
49 mammalian host to obtain a blood-meal, no insect vector of any of the major infectious diseases of
50 humans or animals is exclusive to a single host species. Fifty years of host-choice studies have been
51 conducted since the experiment in which Gillies released *Anopheles* mosquitoes into an enclosed
52 space and compared the numbers flying into a room holding a human volunteer with those entering
53 a room with a calf [1]. While useful, this type of experiment can only inform the intrinsic host
54 preference of the vector which may or may not be indicative of what host species is bitten in natural
55 field settings [2]. Many extrinsic as well as intrinsic factors play a part in who or what is ultimately
56 bitten by a disease vector in a field setting and these have been summarised comprehensively [3].
57 Although it has been recognised for a long time that the same mosquito population will often adjust
58 its biting towards a more locally available host species [4, 5], the extent to which this behaviour is
59 plastic remains understudied even for the most important disease vectors [6].

60 Implicit to the spatial scale across which feeding choice changes is the vector's dispersal
61 ability. For example, if a vector tends not to disperse very far, a reasonable assumption may be that it
62 will be less discerning in its choice of host and therefore be more likely to bite whatever is nearby. Of
63 considerable hindrance to this field's development is the absence of reliable methods for assessing
64 disease vector dispersal ability. Conducting experimental studies on mosquito dispersal has been
65 particularly challenging. The majority of such experiments has involved the mark-release-recapture of
66 mosquitoes. However, the impact of handling mosquitoes combined with the typically low recapture
67 rates – in the order of <2% for *An. gambiae* [7-11] – has limited what can be learned.

68 We investigate the blood-meal sources of *An. coluzzii* caught in traps situated within a range
69 of alternative blood-host species availabilities in a malaria endemic village of southern Ghana.
70 Uniquely, these data inform the spatial range across which this principle malaria vector adjusts its
71 targeted blood-host species. Moreover, by matching these data with timed laboratory mosquito

72 feeding experiments, we demonstrate how blood-meal digestion can be used to inform dispersal rates
73 in a way that is broadly applicable to other haematophagous disease vectors. We discuss the potential
74 that this experimental design has for studying the spread and control of vector-borne diseases.

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93 Results

94 To determine the spatial scale across which blood-host choice varies, a transect of six Centers
95 for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) resting traps with 50m spacing was set up outdoors. The
96 transect extended from a cattle pen situated on the outskirts of Dogo village in southern Ghana to
97 within an area of human residence. A total of 318 blood-fed *Anopheles* mosquitoes were collected
98 over a five-night period. All but one of these were identified as *An. coluzzii* using a combination of
99 species-specific PCRs and Sanger sequencing of a fragment of the ITS2 gene. The remaining insect was
100 identified by ITS2 Sanger sequencing as *An. melas* and was excluded from the analysis.

101 The dominant mosquito blood-meal was of bovine origin with 73.8% of all meals being
102 sourced from these hosts. Four (1.3%) individual mosquitoes were found to have solely fed on humans
103 with an additional ten (3.2%) having a mixed feed of both bovine and human blood. Figure 1 shows
104 how the bovine blood index (BBI) varied significantly across the transect, showing a decreasing trend
105 with increasing distance from the cattle shed (OR=0.57 95%CI 0.47 – 0.71, $p<0.01$). The opposite trend
106 was observed for human blood-meals with the HBI increasing significantly towards the village
107 (OR=1.51 95% CI 1.05 – 2.17, $p=0.027$).

108 Measuring digestion of blood-meals in disease vectors has traditionally been accomplished
109 through visual estimation – a method called Sella scoring [12]. Using quantitative PCR, we could
110 eliminate the inherent subjectivity of this scoring while enhancing its resolution. Focusing on
111 mosquitoes that had fed on cattle, it was observed that the quantity of blood-host DNA extracted
112 from mosquitoes varied across the transect. Average PCR cycle threshold (Ct) values for bovine blood
113 detection was 20.72 (95%CI 18.98-22.45) for mosquitoes caught by the cattle shed and 30.15 (23.14-
114 37.16) for mosquitoes caught 250m away ($p<0.01$). To investigate this further, an experimental time
115 series was performed with a laboratory colony of *An. coluzzii*. This allowed the effect of blood-meal
116 digestion on Ct values to be investigated with the aim of producing mean Ct values for known time
117 points post blood-feed. The time series showed Ct values increased with time post feed ($p<0.01$, see

118 Figure 2). No bovine DNA was detected after the 60-hour time point. Serial dilutions of DNA extracted
119 from bovine blood demonstrated the assay to have high levels of sensitivity and efficiency ($E=-2.03$,
120 $r^2=0.97$, slope= -3.26) with a detection limit equal to a 1000-fold dilution of DNA extracted from a
121 freshly bovine blood-fed female *An. coluzzii* (Figure 2).

122 Regression analysis showed a positive correlation between bovine Ct value and time post feed
123 in the experimental time series ($r^2=0.92$, slope = 0.183; see Figure 2). Calibrating the blood-meals of
124 field-caught mosquitoes using the timed experiment with our mosquito colony, the dispersal rate of
125 *An. coluzzii* could then be extrapolated: within 7 hours of feeding, mosquitoes typically remained
126 within 50m of their blood-host but after 60 hours on average they had dispersed 250m (Figure 2).

127 As larger female mosquitoes typically obtain a larger blood-meal when feeding [13], we
128 normalised for mosquito body size to exclude the possibility that the different quantity of bovine DNA
129 across the transect was due to a corresponding trend in mosquito size. Ct values for bovine DNA were
130 normalised against the Ct values for the corresponding mosquito ribosomal DNA (rDNA) gene used for
131 species identification, producing a ratio of bovine (*Bos taurus* mtDNA)-to-vector DNA (*An. coluzzii*
132 rDNA). A mean ratio was produced for each transect point and a significant positive correlation
133 between the Ct ratio and distance from the cattle shed was retained ($t=-2.1102$, $p<0.05$).

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141 **Discussion**

142 Evidence for the strong influence of extrinsic factors on host selection was demonstrated
143 through analysis of the blood-meals of *An. coluzzii* caught from the field using a novel sampling
144 strategy. Using a transect of traps spanning a range of availabilities of different host species, significant
145 differences were found for the host-choice of the same population of mosquitoes across a remarkably
146 small spatial scale. This has significant implications for vector control. For example, initial field studies
147 involving endectocidal applications on livestock have shown encouraging results in terms of long-
148 lasting mosquitocidal effects [14, 15]. However, previously this strategy has only been considered for
149 targeting zoophilic malaria vector species (e.g. *An. arabiensis*). Results presented here challenge this
150 dogma; regardless of the local vector species, inclusion of endectocide-treated livestock could be
151 justified and substantiated by replicating this relatively simple and inexpensive sampling method.
152 Coupled entomological-epidemiological modelling frameworks already exist for using these data to
153 inform projections of this novel vector control [16], including its use as part of an integrated vector
154 management programme [17].

155 Linking the quantity of host-blood DNA isolated from mosquitoes caught at different distances
156 from the host species with timed blood-meal digestion assays conducted on colonised mosquitoes
157 presents a novel method for informing dispersal rates. Dispersal is recognised to underlie mosquito
158 population structure [11] as well as human exposure to transmission [18] and our ability to control
159 transmission [19]. Yet, knowledge of this critical aspect of behaviour has been hampered by our
160 inability to produce reliable estimates of vector dispersal in the field. This study provides the first
161 estimates using a non-intrusive method for measuring malaria vector dispersal that informs the
162 mosquito's dispersal rate across its feeding cycle (approximately 2.5 days). However, there are some
163 limitations that require mentioning.

164 First, the numbers of mosquitoes captured nearby humans were lower than those caught
165 adjacent to cattle; and while the numbers caught in 5 nights were sufficient to inform statistically

166 significant trends across the transect, the variability between capture nights precluded our ability to
167 infer the likely shape of dispersal (e.g., leptokurtic versus Gaussian). Future collections over longer
168 periods should go some way to rectifying this and providing improved insight into the dispersal shape.
169 Second, in order to estimate distances from blood-hosts these hosts must remain spatially confined.
170 While this was possible in the current study because cattle were confined to their holding pen, the
171 experimental design for conducting an equivalent experiment on human-blood digestion would need
172 careful consideration. Third, blood-meal digestion levels of field-caught mosquitoes were calibrated
173 with colonised mosquitoes maintained at a constant temperature and humidity. Realistic
174 temperature/humidity regimens that better emulate natural diurnal patterns have sometimes been
175 shown to significantly impact various aspects of mosquito metabolism [20]. Therefore, future
176 experiments are required to ascertain the influence that fluctuating temperatures may have on blood-
177 meal digestion.

178 Results presented in this study provide new insight into fundamental aspects of malaria
179 vectors with important implications for malaria control strategy. Additionally, the novel experimental
180 design presented offers a new paradigm in measuring dispersal that should be broadly applicable to
181 other field-caught blood-feeding disease vectors.

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189 **Methods**

190 ***Study site and mosquito collection***

191 Mosquitoes were collected from the village of Dogo, in the Greater Accra region of Ghana
192 (05°52.418 N, 00°33.607 E). The village is in the south-eastern coast of Ghana, with the Gulf of Guinea
193 to the south and the Volta River to the east. The average rainfall is approximately 927 mm per year
194 with main rainy season from April to June and a shorter second season in October. Temperatures
195 range from 23 to 33 °C. The area is coastal savannah with sandy soil, short savannah grass with some
196 small/medium sized trees. The land is used extensively for grazing livestock as well as growing crops
197 for local trade. Housing mostly consisted of concrete structures with concrete/brick walls and flooring.
198 Some traditional mud style houses were also present, more so on the peripheral of the village.

199 Mosquitoes were collected across five consecutive nights in June 2017. The trapping set up
200 consisted of CDC resting traps placed outdoors at 50m intervals forming a 250m transect comprising
201 of six trapping points (denoted: T1 – T6). This transect was set beginning at an area of low human
202 population density (T1, a cattle resting and overnight holding pen) and extending towards a human
203 population (T6, the village of Dogo). Mosquitoes were collected overnight from 6pm to 6am.

204 Blood-fed mosquitoes were processed individually with transect location, night collected,
205 genus and blood feeding status (determined using the Sella score) being recorded. Abdomens of
206 blood-fed mosquitoes were pressed onto FTA®Classic cards (Whatman, GE Healthcare) to preserve
207 the blood-meal for molecular analysis and the head and thorax were placed individually into wells of
208 a 96 well plate. Excess blood fed mosquitoes were preserved in RNA later (Thermo Fisher Scientific
209 Life Technologies) in a 96 well plate where necessary.

210

211 ***DNA extraction***

212 Mosquito abdomens were extracted individually. Samples were homogenised using a Qiagen
213 TissueLyser II (Qiagen, UK) with a 5mm stainless steel bead (Qiagen, UK) placed in each sample tube
214 in a 96 well plate format. Once homogenised, DNA was then extracted using the Qiagen DNeasy 96

215 kits (Qiagen, UK) following manufacturer's protocol. Blood-meals preserved on FTA cards were
216 punched out using a sterile steel 4mm radius punch (Bracket, UK). Resulting punches were incubated
217 in ATL buffer and Proteinase K for 6 hours before DNA extraction was performed following
218 manufacturer's protocol. Extracted DNA was stored at -20°C until analysed.

219

220 ***Mosquito species identification***

221 Mosquito species identification was initiated using a real-time multiplex PCR assay targeting
222 the rRNA gene [21]. Standard forward and reverse primers were used in conjunction with two species-
223 specific Taqman probes. The reaction conditions were as follows: a 12.5µl reaction containing 1µl of
224 genomic DNA. 6.25µl of Quantinova (Qiagen, UK) probe master mix. 800nM of forward and reverse
225 primers (Thermo Fischer Scientific, UK), 200nM of *Anopheles arabiensis* probe (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) and
226 80nM of *Anopheles gambiae* probe (Applied Biosystems, UK). Samples were run on a Stratagene
227 MX3005P (Agilent Technologies, USA) using cycling conditions of 10min at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles
228 of 95°C for 25s and 66°C for 60s. The increases in fluorescence were monitored in real time by
229 acquiring at the end of each cycle.

230 To differentiate between *Anopheles coluzzii* and *Anopheles gambiae* s.s. within the *An.*
231 *gambiae* species complex a single end-point PCR was performed. This PCR targets the SINE200
232 retrotransposon and utilising an insertion in this area allows the two species to be distinguished
233 following gel visualisation [22]. *An. coluzzii* produces a band at 479 bp with *An. gambiae* s.s. producing
234 a band at 249 base pairs. Reaction was as follows: a 25µl reaction containing 0.5mM of forward and
235 reverse primers (Forward:5'-TCGCCTTAGACCTTGCCTTA-3, Reverse:5'-CGCTTCAAGAATTCGAGATAC-
236 3'), 12.5µl of Hot start Taq polymerase (New England Biolabs NEB, UK), 9.5µl of nuclease free water
237 and 2µl of template DNA. Cycling conditions were as follows: 10min at 94°C followed by 35 cycles of
238 94°C for 30s, 54°C for 30s, 72°C for 60s, a final elongation step of 72°C for 10 minutes finished the
239 cycling program.

240 PCR products were visualised on a 2% agarose gel using an Egel E-Gel iBase Power System and
241 E-Gel Safe Imager Real-Time Transilluminator (Invitrogen, UK). The assay was performed on 10% of all
242 samples identified as *An. gambiae* from the first assay with corresponding controls. Samples
243 producing unknown or inconclusive results were sequenced (ITS2 Sanger sequencing) using primers
244 originally developed by Beebe & Saul [23] and sequences were used to perform nucleotide BLAST
245 (NCBI) database queries. PCR reactions were performed on a T100 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad
246 Laboratories, UK) and amplified gene fragments were visualized by electrophoresis on a 2% agarose
247 gel using an E-gel E-Gel iBase Power System and E-Gel Safe Imager Real-Time Transilluminator
248 (Invitrogen, UK).

249

250 ***Blood-meal identification***

251 Samples were initially screened using bovine and human specific primers developed by
252 Gunathilaka *et al* [24]. These primers were selected based on the abundance of available host species
253 in the area. The reaction conditions consisted of a 10 μ l reaction including 0.5 μ M of forward and
254 reverse primers (Integrated DNA Technologies), 5 μ l of SYBR green master mix (Roche, UK), 2 μ l of
255 nuclease-free water (Roche, UK) and 2 μ l of template DNA. PCR was run on a LightCycler 96 real-time
256 PCR machine (Roche, UK) under the following cycling conditions: pre-incubation of 95°C for 600s, 40
257 cycles of 95°C for 10s, 62°C for 10s and 72°C for 30s followed by a melting analysis.

258 Human positive blood-meals (including potential mixed feeds) from the above assay were
259 confirmed using the Promega Plexor[®] HY Human DNA forensic detection kit (Promega, UK). Assay was
260 performed following manufacturer's protocol using a Stratagene MX3005P (Agilent Technologies,
261 USA) real-time PCR machine.

262

263 ***Lab assessment of blood-meal DNA degradation rate***

264 Approximately 500 female *An. coluzzii* mosquitoes (N'gouso strain originally collected from
265 Yaounde, Cameroon) were placed into an insect cage (Bugdorm, Watkins and Doncaster, UK) and,

266 using a Hemotek, fed for 15 minutes on bovine blood collected from a UK based abattoir (First Line
267 UK (Ltd), UK). Mosquitoes were reared at the London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine under
268 standardized conditions in an incubator (27°C and 70% humidity with a 12:12 light/dark cycle) and
269 given access to 10% sugar solution. Female mosquitoes were individually collected and checked for
270 feeding status. Only overtly fully fed mosquitoes were selected for the experiment. Fully fed females
271 were separated into paper cups covered with netting; each cup contained a maximum of 30 female
272 mosquitoes. Every 6 hours a single cup was removed and placed in a - 80°C freezer to kill the
273 mosquitoes and stop blood-meal digestion. This was repeated until the mosquitoes had completely
274 digested the blood-meal or were visually gravid. DNA was extracted using the above protocol from
275 seven whole bodies for each time point. A 1:10 serial dilution of all time = 0 samples was used to
276 generate standard curve with dilutions being made down to 1×10^{-7} . The standard curve was used to
277 assess assay sensitivity (limit of detection) with the resulting Ct values from each time point being
278 used to estimate the time post blood-feed for the field-caught mosquitoes. Both species identification
279 and blood-meal source were confirmed molecularly using the protocols stated above. Trends in blood
280 indices across the transect were tested for the field-caught mosquitoes using logistic regression.

281

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286

287 **Competing interests**

288 The authors declare that there are no competing interests

289 Statement of authorship: LY designed the study. JO, CLJ, MK, ARM, YAA, TW conducted the
290 experiments. LFK, KOR, LY analysed the data. JO, LFK, CLJ, MK, ARM, YAA, KOR, EM, CD, TW, LY
291 interpreted results and contributed towards drafting the manuscript.

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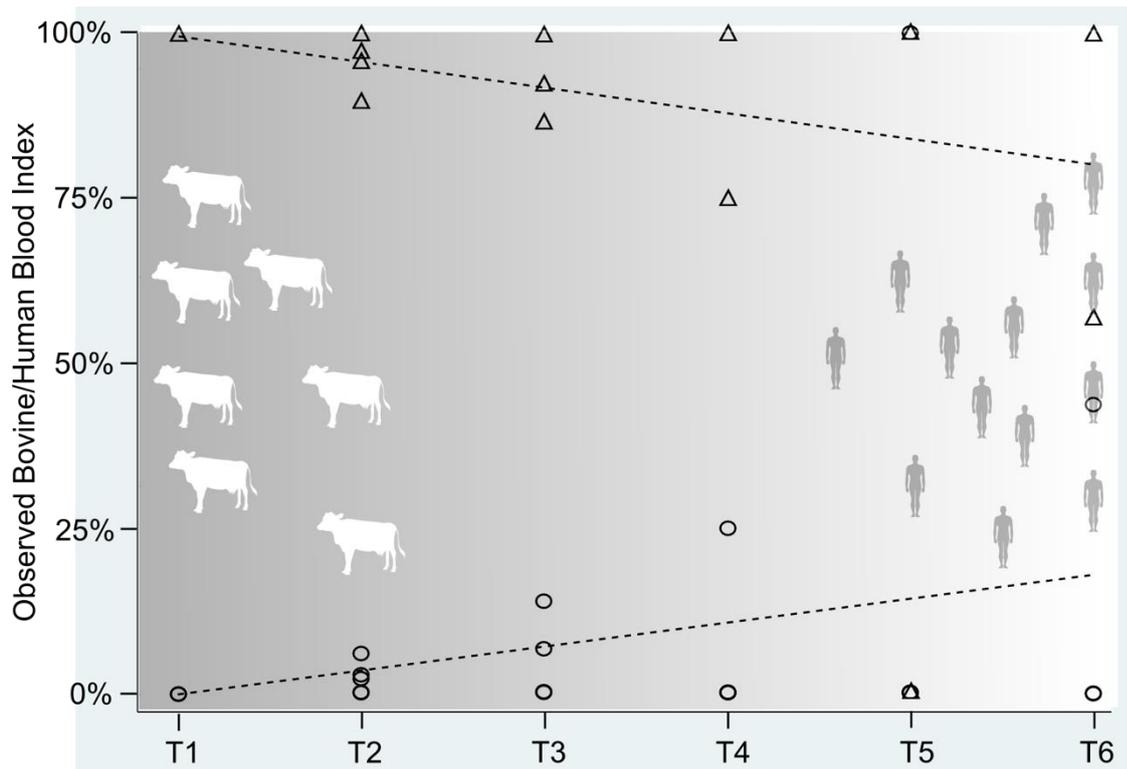


Figure 1. The human blood index (circles) and bovine blood index (triangles) for each nightly transect point (T1-T6) for all blood-fed *An. coluzzii* mosquitoes collected.

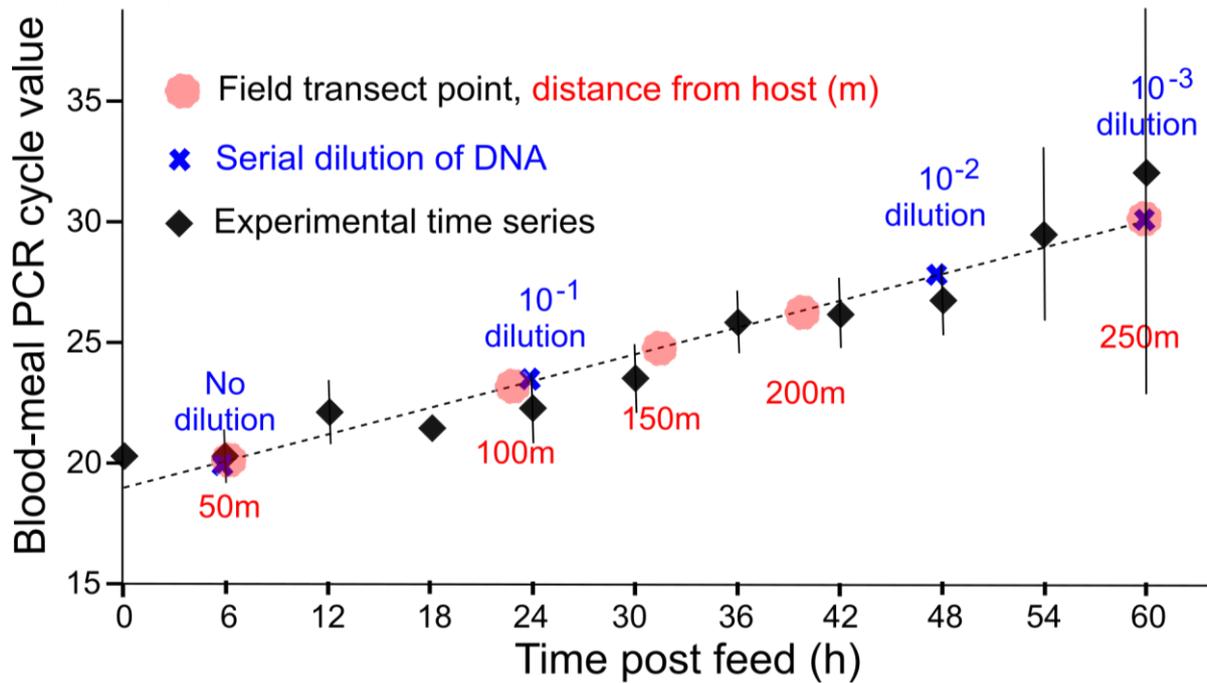


Figure 2. Effect of time post blood-meal on mean bovine Ct values produced from qPCR. Shown are the mean (bars indicate 95% CIs) of experimental time series (black), the serial dilution Ct values to assess assay sensitivity (blue), the mean Ct values of each transect point (red) and regression line used to predict time post feeding (dashed black line).