ISSN: 1816-3319

© Medwell Journals, 2012

# Malaria Transmission Risk Indices of Three *Anopheles* Species in Selected Rural Communities in Oyo State South-Western Nigeria

<sup>1,2</sup>A.O. Oduola, <sup>2</sup>O.A. Otubanjo, <sup>1</sup>J.B. Olojede, <sup>3</sup>I.O. Oyewole and <sup>1</sup>T.S. Awolola
 <sup>1</sup>Molecular Entomology and Vector Control Laboratory, Public Health Division,
 Nigerian Institute of Medical Research, Lagos, Nigeria
 <sup>2</sup>Department of Zoology, University of Lagos, Akoka, Lagos, Nigeria
 <sup>3</sup>Department of Basic and Applied Sciences, Babcock University, Ogun State, Nigeria

Abstract: An entomological survey was carried out in selected rural communities in Oyo State Nigeria where entomological baseline data required for implementation and evaluation of vector control interventions is lacking. A total of 6806 Anopheles mosquitoes were collected in six rural communities out of which 10 Anopheles species were identified. An. gambiae, An. funestus and An. coustani were the only vector species that occurred in all the communities. Only two species: An. gambiae 2596 (38.1%) and An. funestus 3785 (55.6%) were found to be predominant. Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) analysis showed that An. gambiae s.s and An. arabiensis occurred in sympatry in all the communities while An. funestus s.s. and An. leesoni occurred together in Oko Agric and Idi Ose. Cicumsporozoite (CSP) infection status of each Anopheles mosquitoes determined by Enzyme Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA) showed that the Plasmodium falciparum sporozoite infection rates of An. gambiae s.s varied between 1.9 and 3.1% in the study communities as compared to 1.5 and 4.5% in An. funestus. Only one sample of An. arabiensis from Akufo community tested positive to the P. falciparun CSP antigen, all the other samples including An. leesoni tested negative to either P. falciparum or P. malariae. The annual EIR in Akufo, Ikere and Idi Ose were 139, 153 and 110 infective bites/ person/year, respectively with An. gambiae s.s contributing a higher overall transmission potentials when compared with An. funestus and An. arabiensis. This result shows the abundance of malaria vector species and their potential role in malaria transmission in rural communities.

Key words: Anopheles species, malaria, vectors, transmission risk indices, rural communities, Nigeria

### INTRODUCTION

The reported case of malaria around the world is put at 243 million with an estimated death of 863,000. About 89% of these deaths occurred in Africa (WHO, 2009). Out of the 109 countries where malaria is reported to be endemic, 45 are within the WHO Africa region. Nigeria accounted for one fourth of all estimated malaria cases in the WHO African region in 2006 (WHO, 2009). A large percentage of the population affected with this disease live in extreme poverty in rural communities with few having access to good healthcare facilities (Otubanjo and Mafe, 2002; Amexo *et al.*, 2004, Obrist *et al.*, 2007).

The human malaria parasite in Nigeria includes: *Plasmodium falciparum*, *P. ovale* and *P. malariae*. However, *Plasmodium falciparum* is responsible for >95% of all malaria cases transmitted. Malaria parasites are usually transmitted through the bites of infected

female mosquitoes of the genus Anopheles. These Anopheles species are widely distributed across the different ecological zones in Nigeria where suitable sub-Saharan climatic conditions exist (Molineaux and Gramiccia, 1980; Kiszewski et al., 2004). Despite several efforts being made in the implementation of vector control interventions, baseline data on malaria vector profile and malaria transmission risk indices in most Nigerian communities are lacking.

Hence, evaluations of these malaria control programmes remain a challenge (Smith *et al.*, 2004; Mabaso *et al.*, 2007).

This study seeks to bridge this gap by providing information on malaria vector profiles and malaria transmission indices such as: vector species identification, Biting Rates (BR) and Entomological Inoculation Rate (EIR) in selected rural communities in Oyo State, Nigeria.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study area: The study was carried out in rural communities in Ibadan (N07°29.059′ E003°49.050′), Iseyin (N08°09.785′ E003°40.323′) and Eruwa (N07°32.585′ E003°27.219′) between June 2005 and May 2007. Two communities were randomly chosen from each of the selected localities; Akufo and Ido in Ibadan, Ikere and Olobo in Iseyin, Oko Agric and Idi Ose in Eruwa. The chosen settlements were all rural communities located in the forest-savannah transition ecosystem. The houses chosen for mosquito collection had surrounding vegetation and either a river or streams within a walking distance. The people in the area are mostly farmers, growing cassava yam and maize while some of them are involved in lumbering and charcoal production as their main source of income earning.

**Entomological sampling:** Ten households were randomly selected for the collection of indoor resting anopheline mosquitoes in each of the rural communities (WHO, 2003). Altogether, 60 households were marked out for mosquito collection throughout the period. Night human landing catches were conducted by volunteers in one representative community (Akufo, Ikere and Idi Ose) from each of the localities in order to estimate the man biting rates (Service, 1977). Mosquito samples were collected with aspirators into labeled paper cups and knocked down with chloroform. Specimens were preserved in eppendorf tubes filled with desiccated silica gel overlaid with tissue paper. These specimens were transferred to the laboratory for further analysis. Preserved samples were identified using morphological keys of Gillies and De Meillon (1968) and Gillies and Coetzee (1987).

Laboratory analysis of mosquitoes: Mosquitoes identified as belonging to the major vector groups; An. gambiae s.l and An. funestus s.l were separated during the identification procedure for separate individual PCR. Members of the An. gambiae s.l and An. funestus s.l. were molecularly identified to species level following the procedures of Scott et al. (1993) and Koekemoer et al. (1999). In order to determine the infection rates, the head and thorax of each identified mosquito sample was separated from the body and homogenised in blocking buffer. The homogenates were aliquoted into microtiter plates coated with monoclonal antibodies of Plasmodium falciparum and P. malariae in a double antibody enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (Burkot et al., 1984; Wirtz et al., 1987). The positive controls (supplied by Kikergaard and Perry Laboratories, USA) and negative controls from uninfected laboratory reared colony were also assayed.

Entomological Inoculation Rates (EIR): The man biting rate was estimated from night human landing catches conducted in 4 houses from each of the 3 selected communities (Akufo, Idi Ose and Ikere). The Entomological Inoculation Rate (EIR) was determined by multiplying the man biting rate estimated for each community with the proportion of mosquito specimens that tested positive for the circumsporozoite protein (sporozoite rate).

Ethical consideration: Informed consent of volunteers willing to participate in mosquito collections were obtained through series of individual discussions and meetings organized with the family heads and community leaders before the project started. For volunteers that participated in the mosquito collection, malaria prophylaxis treatment was given during the course of the study.

**Data analyses:** Paired t-test was conducted to determine significant differences in species composition, infection rates, man biting rates of each vector species in the rural communities using SPSS Version 15.0 (SPSS Inc. Chicago Illinois).

## RESULTS

Composition of Anopheles mosquitoes in the rural communities: A total of 6,806 Anopheles mosquitoes were collected indoors in 6 rural communities between June 2005 and May 2007 (Table 1). Ten Anopheles species namely; An. gambiae, An. funestus, An. rhodesiensis, An. rhodesiensis rupicolus, An. maculipalpis, An. coustani, An. nili, An. longipalis, An. ziemani and An. moucheti were morphologically identified from these collections. An. moucheti and An. nili were not identified in all the communities when compared with An. gambiae, An. funestus and An. coustani identified in all the communities

Table 1: Numbers and species of *Anopheles* mosquitoes collected within six rural communities

	· OIIIII							
	Communities sampled							
Anopheles					Oko	Idi		Anopheles
species	Akufo	Ido	Ikere	Olobo	Agic	Ose	Total	caught (%)
An. gambiae	474	394	548	610	324	246	2596	38.1
An. funestus	895	453	1157	551	456	273	3785	55.6
An. rodesiensis	21	43	25	20	20	7	136	2.0
An. rhodesiensi	s 12	12	20	12	0	5	61	0.9
rupicolus								
A. maculipalpis	8	36	6	2	0	2	54	0.8
An. coustani	17	7	5	1	3	4	37	0.5
An. nili	9	5	7	3	5	0	29	0.4
An. longipalis	16	15	16	8	16	7	78	1.1
An. ziemani	5	3	4	7	2	0	21	0.3
An. moucheti	2	3	0	4	0	0	9	0.1
Total	1459	971	1788	1218	826	544	6806	-

Table 2: Species composition of *Anopheles gambiae* s.l and *An. funestus* 

	Species composition (%)						
Location	An. gambiae	An. arabiensis	An. funestus	An. leesoni			
Akufo	449 (94.7)	25 (5.3)	325 (100.0)	0.0			
Ido	369 (93.6)	25 (6.4)	266 (100.0)	0.0			
Ikere	480 (87.6)	68 (13.4)	332 (100.0)	0.0			
Olobo	560 (91.8)	50 (8.2)	323 (100.0)	0.0			
Oko Agric	297 (92.8)	23 (7.2)	312 (68.6)	143 (31.4)			
Idi Ose	229 (95.0)	12 (5.0)	199 (72.8)	74 (27.1)			
Total	2384.0	203.0	1757.0	217.0			

(Table 1). Two major vector groups; *An. gambiae* 2596 (38.1%) and *An. funestus* 3785 (55.6%) were found to be predominant in the mosquito sample collection (Table 1).

Species composition of the major vector groups: The Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) assay identified the An. gambiae s.s and An. arabiensis as the only two members of the Anopheles gambiae complex. Species identified as members of the Anopheles funestus group were An. funestus s.s and An. leesoni (Table 2). The composition of these species occurred in varying proportion across the rural communities surveyed. Out of the 2,587 mosquitoes positively identified by the PCR, 2384 (92.2%) were characterized as An. gambiae s.s and 203 (7.8%) as An. arabiensis (Table 2). The difference in the proportion of An. gambiae s.s over An. arabiensis was found to be significant (p = 0.000). Similarly, out of a total of 1974 An. funestus s.l mosquito positively identified by the PCR Assay, 1757 (89%) were characterized as An. funestus s.s. while 217 (11%) were characterized as An. leesoni (Table 2).

An. funestus s.s was found widely distributed in all the rural communities surveyed compared to An. leesoni identified in two rural communities (Oko Agric and Idi Ose) (Table 2). The proportion of An. funestus s.s was not significantly different from An. leesoni in these two communities (p = 0.687).

Sporozoite infection rates in the vector species: A total of 4561 mosquitoes identified as An. gambiae and An. funestus were assayed for P. falciparum and P. malariae Circumsporozoite Protein (CSP) antigen. Out of the 2384 mosquitoes identified by the PCR as An. gambiae s.s, 54 (2.3%) samples tested positive for P. falciparum CSP. Only 48 (2.7%) An. funestus mosquitoes tested positive for P. falciparum out of a total of 1732 assayed. The P. falciparum sporozoite infection rates of An. gambiae s.s varied between 1.9 and 3.1% in the study communities as compared to 1.5 and 4.5% in An. funestus (Table 3). While only one sample of An. arabiensis from Akufo community tested positive to the P. falciparun CSP, all the other samples identified including An. leesoni tested negative to either P. falciparum or P. malariae. Though,

Table 3: Malaria transmission indices of major vectors identified in 6 rural communities

- 11.		Transmission	-	-	Anopheles
Locality	EIR	indices	gambiae	funestus	
Akufo		Number tested	449	325	25
		Mbr	5.65	7.15	1.23
		Tested +ve for CSP	12	8	1
		SPR	2.7	2.5	4
		ib/p/night	0.153	0.179	0.049
	139	Annual EIR	56	65	18
Ido		Number tested	369	266	25
		Mbr	ND	ND	ND
		Tested +ve for CSP	7	4	0
		SPR	1.9	1.5	0
		ib/p/night	-	-	-
		Annual EIR	-	-	-
Ikere		Number tested	480	332	68
		Mbr	10.05	3.575	2.7
		Tested +ve for CSP	15	10	0
		SPR	3.1	3	0
		ib/p/night	0.312	0.107	0
	153	Annual EIR	114	39	0
Olobo		Number tested	560	323	50
		Mbr	ND	ND	ND
		Tested +ve for CSP	8	7	0
		SPR	1.4	2	0
		ib/p/night	-	-	-
		Annual EIR	_	-	-
Idi Ose		Number tested	229	199	12
		Mbr	6.5	3. 975	0.875
		Tested +ve for CSP	7	5	0
		SPR	3.1	2.5	0
		ib/p/night	0.202	0.099	0
	110	Annual EIR	74	36	0
Oko Agric	:	Number tested	297	312	23
		Mbr	ND	ND	ND
		Tested +ve for CSP	5	14	0
		SPR	1.7	4.5	0
		ib/p/night	-	-	-
		Annual EIR	-	-	-

the average sporozoites rate of An. funestus in the study communities 2.67 was higher when compared with sporozoite infection rates of 2.32 in An. gambiae. There was however no significant difference in the sporozoites rate of both An. gambiae s.s and An. funestus s.s in all the rural communities (p = 0.861).

The human Biting Rates (BR), Entomological Inoculation Rates (EIR) of the major malaria vector species: The human biting rate per night recorded in An. gambiae in Ikere (10.05) was the highest when compared to HBR contributions by the 3 major vectors from the 3 study communities (Table 3). The total HBR from all the species in each of the communities; Akufo, Ikere and Idi Ose were 14.03, 16.35 and 11.35, respectively. Though the total biting rates in Ikere was higher when compared to the 2 other study communities the difference was however not significant (p = 0.06). The numbers of infective bites per person per year by vector species were estimated for the localities using the 3 representative study sites (Table 3).

The EIR for *An. gambiae* s.s in Akufo, Idi Ose and Ikere were 56, 74 and 114 infective bites/person/year while the EIR for *An. funestus* was 65, 36 and 39 infective bites/person/year.

An. arabiensis was another major vector found to be involved in malaria transmission in Akufo contributing a total of 18 infective bites/person/year (Table 3). The annual EIR in Akufo, Ikere and Idi Ose were 139, 153 and 110 infective bites/person/year (Table 3).

### DISCUSSION

The main species of Anopheles identified in the transition forest of Oyo state are An. gambiae, An. funestus, An. rodesiensis, An. rhodesiensis rupicolus, An. maculipalpis, An. coustani, An. nili, An. longipalis, An. ziemani and An. moucheti. Out of 10 Anopheles species morphologically identified only five; An. gambiae, An. funestus, An. nili, An. moucheti and An. coustani have been reported to be malaria vector species. However, only An. gambiae s.l and An. funestus s.l were found to be the major vector group involved in malaria transmission as they were found to be infected in this study area. The non-infection status of An. nili, An. moucheti and An. coustani could be attributed to the fact that only a small proportion (about 1%) of these population were present in the total mosquitoes collected. In addition, these samples were mainly from human landing catches suggesting their low indoor resting bahavioural tendencies when compared to the other 2 predominant species. Similar results of only 2 major vector species (An. gambiae and An. funestus) confirmed to be infected with P. falciparum out of ten Anopheles species identified have also been reported in Western Cameroon (Tchuinkam et al., 2010).

Using PCR analysis, both vector and non vector members of the An. gambiae complex and An. funestus group were revealed. While both An. gambiae s.s and An. arabiensis had a wide distribution in all the rural communities, An. funestus s.s was found to co-exist with An. leesoni in only 2 out of the 6 communities surveyed. Till date very few data exist on the distribution and role of members of the An. funestus group in malaria transmission in Nigeria. Earlier entomological research carried out in Garki area located in Sudan savannah Nigeria before the advent of PCR assays for sibling species identification had reported an uneven distribution in the density of An. funestus showing varying behaviour and karyotypes in villages that are just few kilometers apart (Molineaux and Gramiccia, 1980). Hence, the application of the Polymerase Chain Reaction technique in identifying Anopheles leesoni (a non vector species) occurring in sympatry with An. funestus (a major vector species) in two of the study localities is of great importance in malaria control programs (Hargreaves et al., 2000; Awolola et al., 2005; Temu et al., 2007). Despite the co-existence of An. gambiae s.s and An. arabiensis in all the communities, the proportion of An. gambiae s.s was significantly higher than An. arabiensis in the communities. The low occurrence of An. arabiensis in the communities may exclusively be due to the preference of these species for drier ecological conditions tending towards the arid zones as against the forest-savannah ecotype where this study was conducted (Taylor et al., 1993; Robert et al., 1998; Onyabe and Conn, 2001). Noutcha and Anumudu (2009) also reported that An. arabiensis constituted about 8% of the total An. gambiae s.l identified from neighboring community located in the same ecological zone as the study site. However, the findings in this study still conform to earlier reports of Coluzzi et al. (1979) on the abundance of An. gambiae s.s in indoor resting and rural populations of A. gambiae sensu lacto.

In this study, An. gambiae s.s remains a major vector well distributed and involved in malaria transmission in all the 6 communities surveyed. The total sporozoites rates in the rural communities ranged between 1.4-3.1%. The highest sporozoites rate (3.1%) was observed in Idi Ose and Ikere and this compared favourably with 3.6 and 4.3% reported in coastal Lagos and Aba Onilu in Nigeria (Awolola et al., 2002a). Another study conducted in the tropical rain forest also reported a sporozoites rate of 2.5% for An. gambiae s.s (Oyewole et al., 2005). Sporozoites rates in this study were lower when compared with sporozoites rates of 5.9% (Bruce-Chwatt, 1951) and 5.3% (Hanney, 1960) reported in Nigeria. Sporozoite rates of 7.6 and 1.4% were reported in An. gambiae s.s and An. arabiensis, respectively during Garki Malaria Control Programme (Molineaux and Gramiccia, 1980).

Despite the efficiency of An. arabiensis as a malaria its high association with arid habitats (Coetzee et al., 2000). it was found to be involved in transmission in Akufo community. This result therefore confirmed An. arabiensis as a major vector in Oyo State. Several studies have confirmed An. arabiensis to be the major vector involved in malaria transmission in the urban environment, forest and sahel ecological zones (Awolola et al., 2002a, b; Shililu et al., 2003). As with other studies, the lower infection rates in An. arabiensis was mainly an issue of low abundance when compared to An. gambiae s.s. Earlier reports have confirmed An. arabiensis as a major vector in Sahel Nigeria where its population density was significantly higher than that of An. gambiae s.s (Samdi et al., 2006). Anopheles funestus was another major vector that contributed mainly to malaria transmission in all the rural communities. The result of this study has shown the transmission potentials of *An. funestus*. This agrees with earlier reports indicating *An. funestus* as a major vector in different parts of sub Saharan Africa (Hargreaves *et al.*, 2000; Awolola *et al.*, 2002a; Temu *et al.*, 2007). The total sporozoite infection rates (4.5%) reported for *An. funestus* in this study was found to be comparable to 4.3% previously reported in Ibadan, Nigeria (Awolola *et al.*, 2002b) and 4.5% in Mbalayo, Cameroon (Antonio-Nkondjio *et al.*, 2005). Lower sporozoites rate of 2.3 and 1.0% had been reported in the forest and savannah ecological zones in Nigeria (Awolola *et al.*, 2005). In the tropical forest, infection rate in *An. funestus* was put at 2.9% (Oyewole *et al.*, 2005).

The higher circumsporozoite infection rate shown by *An. funestus* over *An. gambiae* s.s may be density related based on the dynamics of temporal and permanent breeding sites created by seasonal fluctuations which favour the abundance of *An. funestus* in dry season when temporary breeding sites of *An. gambiae* have been taken over by permanent water bodies favourable to *An. funestus*. However, similar findings by Wanji *et al.* (2003) have reported a higher sporozoite infection rate in *An. funestus* than *Anopheles gambiae* during the dry season. Similarly, a study carried out in coastal southwestern Cameroon, showed that *An. funestus* had higher circumsporozoite infection rates (17.8%) compared to *An. gambiae* (8.3%) when they both coexisted (Bigoga *et al.*, 2007).

The overall EIR over the period of the study for each of the study sites showed that annual infective bites/ person/year in Akufo, Idi Ose and Ikere were 139,110 and 153. It was observed that the total EIR was higher in Ikere community where 2 major vectors were identified in contrast to Akufo where 3 major vectors were actively involved in transmission. Similar findings by Wanji et al. (2003) reported that 2 major vectors to have constituted a higher infective biting rates/man/night (0.56) during the dry season when compared to the wet season whereby 3 major vectors contributed a total of 0.18 infective bites/ person/night. This assertion however did not hold in another study conducted in Cameroon by Bigoga et al. (2007) where 3 major vectors (An. gambiae, An. funestus and An. nili) identified in a locality constituted a higher EIR than 2 other locations where only 2 major vectors were found.

The role of each vector was established by estimating the transmission indices of each vector species across the localities. *Anopheles gambiae* s.s was the main vector species and was responsible for 243 infective bites/person/year. This suggests that the EIR of *An. gambiae* s.s, *An. funestus* s.s and *An. arabiensis* were one infective bite in every 2, 3 and 20 days, respectively. This

agrees with other findings from Nigeria and Cameroon with reported cases of *An. gambiae* constituting a higher infective biting rate than all other major vectors (Awolola *et al.*, 2002a, b; Wanji *et al.*, 2003; Bigoga *et al.*, 2007). An EIR value of 0.049, though low, still suggested that *An. arabiensis* was involved in transmission.

### CONCLUSION

This study shows that the total EIR at Akufo, Idi Ose and Ikere is one infective bite per person every 2.6, 3.3 and 2.4 days, respectively. Therefore, the chance of being infected from a mosquito bite is higher in Ikere community when compared with the other communities. This study has provided information on the occurrence of malaria vectors in rural communities in Oyo State. Data on the malaria transmission potentials of the major vectors and malaria transmission risk indices in the study localities are important indicators of monitoring the impact of future malaria control interventions in these localities.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The researchers wish to appreciate the support of volunteers who assisted and participated in mosquito collections in all the rural communities. This investigation also received support under the MIM project A30026awarded to TSA through the UNICEF/UNDP/World Bank/WHO Special programme for Research and Training in Tropical diseases.

### REFERENCES

Amexo, M., R. Tolhurst, G. Barnish and I. Bates, 2004. Malaria misdiagnosis: Effects on the poor and vulnerable. Lancet, 364: 1896-1898.

Antonio-Nkondjio, C., F. Simard, P. Awono-Ambene, P. Ngassam, J. Toto, T. Tchuikam and D. Fontenile, 2005. Malaria vectors and urbanization in the equatorial forest region of south Cameroon. Trans. R. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg., 99: 347-354.

Awolola, T.S., B.D. Brooke, R.H. Hunt and M. Coetzee, 2002b. Resistance of the malaria vector *Anopheles gambiae s.s.* to pyrethroid insecticide in south western-Nigeria. Ann. Trop. Med. Parasitol., 96: 849-852.

Awolola, T.S., I.O. Oyewole, L.L. Koekemoer and M. Coetzee, 2005. Identification of three members of the *Anopheles funestus* (Diptera: Culicidae) group and their role in malaria transmission in two ecological zones in Nigeria. Trans. R. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg., 99: 525-531.

- Awolola, T.S., O. Okwa, R.H. Hunt, A.F. Ogunrinade and M. Coetzee, 2002a. Dynamics of the malarial-vector populations in coastal Lagos, south-western Nigeria. Ann. Trop. Med. Parasitol., 96: 75-82.
- Bigoga, J.D., L. Manga, V.P.K. Titanji, M. Coetzee and R.G.F. Leke, 2007. Malaria vectors and transmission dynamics in coastal south-western Cameroon. Malar. J., 6: 5-5.
- Bruce-Chwatt, L.J., 1951. Malaria in Nigeria. Bull. World Health Org., 4: 301-327.
- Burkot, T.R., J.L. Williams and I. Schneider, 1984. Identification of *Plasmodium falciparum*-infected mosquitoes by a double antibody enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg., 33: 783-788.
- Coetzee, M., M. Craig and D. Sueur, 2000. Distribution of African malaria mosquitoes belonging to the Anopheles gambiae Complex. Parasitol. Today, 16: 74-77.
- Coluzzi, M., A. Sabatini, V. Petrarca and M.A. Di Deco, 1979. Chromosomal differentiation and adaptation to human environments in the *Anopheles gambiae* complex. Trans. R. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg., 73: 483-497.
- Gillies, M.T. and B. De Meillon, 1968. The anophelinae of Africa south of the sahara (Ethiopian Zoogeographical Region). Publ. South Afr. Inst. Med. Res., 54: 1-343.
- Gillies, M.T. and M. Coetzee, 1987. A Supplement to the anophelinae of Africa south of the sahara. Publ. South Afr. Inst. Med. Res., 55: 1-143.
- Hanney, P.W., 1960. The mosquitoes of Zaria Province, Northern Nigeria. Bull. Entomol. Res., 51: 145-171.
- Hargreaves, K., L.L. Koekemoer, B.D. Brooke, R.H. Hunt, J. Mthembu and M. Coetzee, 2000. Anopheles funestus is resistant to pyrethroid insecticides in South African. Med. Vet. Entomol., 14: 181-189.
- Kiszewski, A., A. Mellinger, A. Spielman, P. Malaney, S.E. Sachs and J. Sachs, 2004. A global index representing the stability of malaria transmission. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg., 70: 486-498.
- Koekemoer, L.L., L. Lochouarn, R.H. Hunt and M. Coetzee, 1999. Single-strand conformation polymorphism analysis for identification of four members of the *Anopheles funestus* (Diptera: Culicidae) group. J. Med. Entomol., 36: 125-130.
- Mabaso, M.L., M. Craig, A. Ross and T. Smith, 2007. Environmental predictors of the seasonality of malaria transmission in Africa: The challenge. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg., 76: 33-38.

- Molineaux, L. and G. Gramiccia, 1980. The Garki Project: Research on Epidemiology and Control of Malaria in the Sudan Savannah of West Africa. World Health Organization, USA, ISBN: 9789241560610.
- Noutcha, M.A.E. and C.I. Anumudu, 2009. Entomological indices of *Anopheles gambiae sensu lacto* at a rural community in south-west Nigeria. J. Vector Borne Dis., 46: 43-51.
- Obrist, B., N. Iteba, C, Lengeler, A. Makemba and C. Mshana et al., 2007. Access to health care in contexts of livelihood insecurity: A framework for analysis and action. PloS Med., 4: 1584-1588.
- Onyabe, D.Y. and J.E. Conn, 2001. Genetic differentiation of the malaria vector *Anopheles gambiae* across Nigeria suggests that selection limits gene flow. Heredity, 87: 647-658.
- Otubanjo, O.A and M.A. Mafe, 2002. Control of parasitic diseases of poverty: An overview of the Nigerian situation. Zoologist, 1: 1-24.
- Oyewole, I.O., C.A. Ibidapo, A.O. Oduola, J.B, Obansa and T.S. Awolola, 2005. Anthropophilic mosquitoes and malaria transmission in a tropical rainforest area of Nigeria. Acta Satech, 2: 6-10.
- Robert, V., H. Dieng, L. Lochoura, S.F. Traore, J.F. Trape, F. Simondon and D. Fontenille, 1998. Malaria transmission in the rural zone of Niakhar, Senegal. Trop. Med. Int. Health, 3: 667-677.
- Samdi L.M., G.I. Anyanwu N.B. Molta, T.S. Awolola and A.O. Oduola, 2006. Determination of malaria vectorial status of *Anopheles* mosquitoes of the sahel, northeastern Nigeria. J. Life Environ. Sci., 8: 1-2.
- Scott, J.A., W.G. Brogdon and F.H. Collins, 1993. Identification of single specimens of the *Anopheles gambiae* complex by the polymerase chain reaction. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hygiene, 49: 520-529.
- Service, M.W., 1977. A critical review of procedures for sampling populations of adult mosquitoes. Bull Entomol. Res., 67: 343-382.
- Shililu, J., T. Ghebremeskel, S. Mengistu, H. Fekadu and M. Zerom et al., 2003. High seasonal variation in entomologic inoculation rates in Eritrea, a semi-arid region of unstable malaria in Africa. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg., 69: 607-613.
- Smith, T., G. Killeen, C. Lengeler and M. Tanner, 2004.
  Relationships between the outcome of *Plasmodium falciparum* infection and the intensity of transmission in Africa. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg., 71: 80-86.
- Taylor, C.E., Y.T Toure, M. Coluzzi and V. Petrarca, 1993.
  Effective population size and persistence of *Anopheles arabiensis* during the dry season in West Africa. Med. Vet. Entomol., 7: 351-357.

- Tchuinkam, T., F. Simard, E. Lele-Defo, B. Tene-Fossog and A. Tateng-Ngouateu *et al.*, 2010. Bionomics of *Anopheline species* and malaria transmission dynamics along an altitudinal transect in Western Cameroon. BMC Infect. Dis., 10: 119-119.
- Temu, E.A., J.N. Minjas, N. Tuno, H. Kawada and M. Takagi, 2007. Identification of four members of the *Anopheles funestus* group and their role in *Plasmodium falciparum* transmission in Bagamoyo coastal Tanzania. Acta Tropisca, 102: 119-125.
- WHO, 2003. Malaria entomology and vector control: Learner's guide. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, pp: 1-109. http://whqlibdoc. who.int/hq/2003/WHO\_CDS\_CPE\_SMT\_2002.18\_ Rev.1\_PartI.pdf.
- WHO, 2009. World Malaria Report 2009. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, ISBN-13: 9789241563901, Pages: 190.
- Wanji, S., T. Tanke, S.N. Atanga, C. Ajonina and Nicholas et al., 2003. Anopheles species of the Mount Cameroon: Biting habits, feeding behaviour and entomological inoculation rates. Trop. Med. Int. Health, 8: 643-649.
- Wirtz, R.A., Y. Zavala, G.H. Charoenvit, T.R. Campbell and I. Burkot et al., 1987. Comparative testing of monoclonal antibodies against *Plasmodium* falciparum sporozoites for ELISA development. Bull. World Health Org., 65: 39-45.