

U.S. PRESIDENT'S MALARIA INITIATIVE

ANNUAL ENTOMOLOGY REPORT

OCTOBER 2021–SEPTEMBER 2022

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THE PMI VECTORLINK NIGERIA PROJECT ANNUAL ENTOMOLOGY REPORT

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Malaria vector surveillance and insecticide resistance monitoring activities provide stakeholders with evidencebased data that can inform malaria vector control decisions. The U.S. President's Malaria Initiative (PMI) VectorLink Project is currently supporting vector surveillance and insecticide resistance monitoring activities across five ecological zones in Nigeria. From October 2021 to September 2022, pyrethrum spray catches (PSCs) and human-baited U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) Light Traps (LTs) were used to collect mosquitoes both indoors and outdoors to determine species composition, behavior, seasonality, biting rates, infectivity rates, blood meal sources, and entomological inoculation rates (EIRs) of malaria vectors across sentinel sites. Additionally, VectorLink Nigeria collected information on household-level human behavior through direct human observations during routine entomological surveys in Kebbi and Sokoto. The human behavior data together with biting rates from CDC light trap collections was used to estimate exposure to mosquito bites in Kebbi and Sokoto. CDC bottle bioassays were used to determine the insecticide resistance status, intensity, and underlying resistance mechanisms.

A total of 86,799 *Anopheles* mosquitoes were collected from six sentinel sites using human-baited CDC LTs (indoors/outdoors) and PSCs. *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. was the most abundant species across most sites, ranging from 13.8% in Akwa Ibom to 100% in Kebbi. Other *Anopheles* species identified in varying abundance were *An. marshallii* complex (Akwa Ibom only)*, An. funestus,* and *An. rufipes.* Other localized species observed were *An. squamosus, An. coustani, An. pretoriensis*, and *An. moucheti*.

A total of 3,004 *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes collected by PSCs and CDC LTs between October 2021 and September 2022 were subjected to species-specific PCR assays. Results showed that 2,366 (78.8%) were identified as *An. coluzzii,* 603 (20.1%) were *An. gambiae* s.s.*,* and 35 (1.2%) were *An. arabiensis*. For the first time, *An. coluzzii* was the dominant vector species found both indoors and outdoors using CDC LTs across all sentinel sites. The highest proportion of *An. coluzzii* was collected indoors in Kebbi (96.0%) followed by Sokoto (83.8%). The highest proportion of *An. coluzzii* collected outdoors was also in Kebbi (94.0%) followed by Ebonyi (91.7%). The highest proportion of *An. gambiae* s.s. were recorded outdoors in Akwa Ibom (40.0%) with the next highest found indoors in Ebonyi (27.4%). The proportion of *An. arabiensis* found indoors and outdoors was generally quite low, with the highest percentages reported from Oyo (2.9% indoors and 2.6% outdoors). There were no hybrid species recorded in any of the sites. For mosquitoes caught using PSCs, *An. coluzzii* was the dominant vector species found in all sites with the highest proportion recorded in Kebbi (95.8%) followed by Sokoto (86.1%) and Ebonyi (82.8%).

Plasmodium falciparum sporozoite infection rates of *An. gambiae* were recorded indoors in Ebonyi and Plateau only (2.2% and 1.8% respectively) for mosquitoes collected using CDC LTs. Sporozoite infection rate of *An. coluzzii* were recorded indoors (0.3%) and outdoors (0.5%) in Kebbi. No sporozoite positive *An. arabiensis* samples were found indoors or outdoors across sites. For mosquitoes collected using PSCs, the highest sporozoite infection rate was recorded in *An. arabiensis* in Ebonyi (20.0%); this was the only site where *An. arabiensis* tested positive for sporozoites. For *An. coluzzii,* the sporozoite rate was highest in Akwa Ibom (5.4%), followed by Ebonyi (0.7%) and Kebbi (0.6%). The only infection rate recorded in *An. gambiae* was in Oyo (1.1%) .

A total of 772 *An. funestus* s.l. mosquitoes collected by CDC LTs and PSCs in Ebonyi, Oyo, Plateau, and Sokoto were subjected to species-specific PCR assays. *Anopheles funestus* s.s. was found to predominate across the sites both indoors and/or outdoors, ranging from 75% to 100%. Unamplified samples were found in Plateau (25.0%) and Oyo (1.1%), and all were collected outdoors. *Anopheles leesoni* was recorded only in Oyo indoors (0.6%). For members of *An. funestus* group collected using PSCs, *An. funestus* s.s. predominated in all three sites (Ebonyi, Oyo, and Plateau). *Anopheles funestus* s.s. collected using CDC LTs were positive for *P. falciparum* sporozoites in Oyo (outdoors, 3.4%) and Plateau (indoors, 1.6%). No other members of *An. funestus* group tested positive for *Plasmodium* sporozoites. For *An. funestus* s.s. collected by PSC methods, no sporozoite positivity rates were recorded across the various sites.

The indoor resting density of *An. marshallii* complex mosquitoes varied across the months, ranging from 0-0.5 mosquitoes/room/day between October 2021 to July 2022, before peaking in August 2022 (2.7 mosquitoes/room/day). The mean indoor biting rates of *An. marshallii* complex peaked in January (21.8 bites per person per night $(b/p/n)$ and again in August 2022 (18.3 $b/p/n$). Outdoors, biting rate peaked in December 2021 (5.3 b/p/n), February (3.8 b/p/n) as well as in August 2022 (3.3 b/p/n). One sample tested positive from the PSC collection resulting in a 0.7 positivity rate for *An. marshallii* from Akwa Ibom.

The indoor resting density of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes varied across the sites and months, ranging from 0.1 mosquitoes/room/day in Oyo during January 2022 to 29.4 mosquitoes/room/day in Sokoto in August 2022, with a second highest peak in Kebbi in September 2022 with 24.7 mosquitoes/room/day. The indoor resting density of *An. marshallii* complex mosquitoes remained under 0.5 mosquitoes/room/day except for a peak of 2.7 mosquitoes/room/day in August 2022 (Figure 8). The highest mean indoor biting rates of *An. gambiae* s.l. were found in September in Plateau (85.7 b/p/n). In Kebbi, indoor biting of *An. gambiae* s.l. peaked in April, July-September in Kebbi (31.3, 25.9 -29.5 b/p/n, respectively). Outdoor biting rates of *An. gambiae* s.l. remained under the peak of 11.8 b/p/n in Kebbi in April 2022. The mean indoor biting rates of *An. marshallii* complex peaked in January 2022 (21.8 b/p/n), and outdoor biting peaked in December 2021 (5.3 b/p/n). The mean indoor biting rates of *An. funestus* were recorded in Oyo, Plateau, and Sokoto. Rates in Plateau peaked in September 2022 (6.6 b/p/n), while in Oyo, an initial peak was observed in May 2022 (4.8 b/p/n). Mean outdoor biting rates of *An. funestus* peaked in June 2022 (2.9 b/p/n) in Oyo.

Estimates from the human behavior data and biting rates indicated variabilities on time and place of exposures in Kebbi and Sokoto. Most human exposure in Kebbi occurs indoors in the middle of night (11 p.m.-6 a.m.) primarily due to people being in bed but not using nets at the time when most biting activities occurring indoors. In Sokoto, most human exposure occurs indoors during the early evening hours before bedtime (before 10 p.m.) when most people are not protected under nets.

The highest indoor EIR was recorded with *An. gambiae* in Ebonyi (12.1 infective bites/person/year) and Plateau (10.9 infective bites/person/year), and for *An. coluzzii* in Kebbi (5.8 infective bites/person/year) Outdoor EIR was recorded for *An. coluzzii* in Kebbi at 6.6 infective bites/person/year. EIRs were recorded for *An. funestus* s.s. in Oyo and Plateau. The highest EIR was recorded outdoors in Oyo (9.5 infective bites/person/year), followed by indoors EIR in Plateau (5.2 infective bites/person/year). There were no infective bites recorded among *An. funestus* s.s. indoors in Oyo and outdoors in Plateau.

Across the sites, human blood index (HBI) analysis detected increased human blood meal preference in *An. gambiae* s.s.*, An. coluzzii*, *An. arabiensis*, and *An. marshallii* collected using PSCs compared with CDC LTs.

Insecticide susceptibility test results indicated that pyrethroid resistance was widespread in *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes at all sentinel sites. Full susceptibility of *An. gambiae* s.l. populations exposed to alpha-cypermethrin was recorded in all LGAs in Bayelsa, Benue, Cross River, Federal Capital Territory (FCT), Oyo, Sokoto, and Zamfara. Susceptibility to alpha-cypermethrin was only observed in 1/6 LGAs in Bauchi and Enugu, 2/6 LGAs in Kaduna, and 7/9 LGAs in Kebbi. No susceptibility to alpha-cypermethrin was observed in Akwa Ibom, Ebonyi, Nasarawa, or Plateau. *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. were found to be susceptible to deltamethrin in all LGAs in Benue, Cross River, Kebbi, Oyo, and Zamfara, and a subset of LGAs in Bauchi, Bayelsa, Enugu, FCT, Nasarawa, and Sokoto. No susceptibility to deltamethrin was observed in *An. gambiae* s.l. populations from Akwa Ibom, Ebonyi, Kaduna, and Plateau. Resistance to permethrin was recorded in *An. gambiae* s.l. populations across all states, except in select LGAs in Bayelsa, Kaduna, and Sokoto. No *An. gambiae* s.l. tested in any LGAs in Akwa Ibom, Ebonyi, and Plateau were found to be susceptible to the three pyrethroids.

Insecticide resistance intensity in the vector populations were determined by subjecting *Anopheles* mosquitoes across the different ecozones to insecticide resistance test assays with different concentrations of the three pyrethroids. *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. was susceptible to 1X alpha-cypermethrin across all LGAs in Bayelsa, Benue, Cross River, FCT, Oyo, Sokoto, and Zamfara. Pre-exposure of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes to piperonyl butoxide (PBO) synergist before exposure to pyrethroids increased mortality to varying degrees across sites. In cases where full susceptibility (mortality greater than or equal to 98%) was not restored with PBO exposure, it suggests the existence of mechanisms unrelated to the activity of mixed function oxidases. Where tested, susceptibility to alpha-cypermethrin was fully restored in *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes pre-exposed to PBO in all LGAs of Ebonyi, Enugu, Kebbi, and Nasarawa. Pre-exposure of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes to PBO restored susceptibility to alpha-cypermethrin in the three LGAs in Akwa Ibom, 1/6 LGAs in Bauchi and FCT, and 2/6 LGAs in Kaduna. Pre-exposure of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes to PBO did not restore susceptibility to alphacypermethrin in any LGAs in Plateau. Where tested, susceptibility of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes to deltamethrin were restored across all LGAs in Akwa Ibom, Bauchi, Ebonyi, FCT, Nasarawa, and Sokoto.

The percentage knockdown of *An. gambiae* s.l. exposed to chlorfenapyr at 60 minutes varied across LGAs in the various sentinel sites. Mortality rates in *An. gambiae* s.l. were between 98-100% after the 48-hour holding period in all LGAs in Bauchi, Bayelsa, Benue, Cross River, Ebonyi, FCT, Kebbi, Nasarawa, Oyo, Plateau, and Zamfara. *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. populations from all LGAs across all ecozones were susceptible to chlorfenapyr with 100% mortality at 72 hours. The percentage knockdown of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes after 30 minutes of exposure to clothianidin also varied across the sites. At 30 minutes, the percentage knockdown of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes exposed to clothianidin varied across the sites: Akwa Ibom (44-63%), Bauchi (73-83%), Bayelsa (81-92%), Benue (76-94%), Cross River (28-87%), Ebonyi (33-75%), Enugu (0-71%), FCT (3-33%), Kebbi (41- 56%), Nasarawa (12-40%), Oyo (11-62%), Plateau (10-12%), Sokoto (5-41%), and Zamfara (51-77%). Mortality rates of *An. gambiae* s.l. 24 hours post-exposure were 99–100% in 11 out of 15 sites, 94-99% in Akwa Ibom, 94-100% in FCT, and 82-96% in Nasarawa. An assessment of *kdr* mutations in deltamethrin-resistant *An. gambiae* s.l. indicated the presence of both *kdr-w* and *kdr-e* point mutations. The *kdr*-*w* gene frequencies varied by ecozone, types of pyrethroids, and vector composition. *Kdr*-*w* gene frequencies in *An. coluzzii* ranged from 0.38 in Ebonyi to 0.56 in Bayelsa. For *An. gambiae* s.s., gene frequencies ranged from 0.33 in Ebonyi to 1.00 in Cross River. For *An. arabiensis,* gene frequencies ranged from 0.17 in Ebonyi to 0.50 in Bayelsa and Sokoto. The *kdr-e* gene frequencies also varied by ecological zones and ranged from 0.00 in Benue and Oyo to 0.17 in Bayelsa for *An. coluzzii*. In *An. gambiae* s.s.*,* the *kdr-e* gene frequency ranged from 0.00 in Benue, FCT, Nasarawa, Oyo, and Plateau to 0.50 in Bayelsa and Cross River. These varied in *An. arabiensis* from 0.00 in Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Ebonyi, and Sokoto to 0.08 in Kaduna. In general, *kdr-w* frequencies were higher in *An. gambiae* s.s. versus *An, coluzzii*. For permethrin, *kdr*-*w* gene frequencies in *An. coluzzii* ranged from 0.37 in Enugu and Nasarawa to 0.53 in FCT while *kdr-w* gene frequencies in *An. gambiae* s.s. ranged from 0.25 in Bayelsa to 0.55 in Cross River. *Kdr-w* gene frequencies in *An. arabiensis* ranged from 0.25 in Bauchi, Bayelsa, and Enugu to 1.00 in Sokoto.

1. INTRODUCTION

Malaria remains a major public health problem in Nigeria. According to the 2022 World Malaria Report, Nigeria accounts for 27% of malaria cases worldwide and 31% of malaria deaths—the most of any country and is one of 11 high burden to high impact (HBHI) countries. The detection of *An. stephensi—*an invasive malaria vector species which thrives in urban environments and has been found to be resistant to many insecticides*—*in Nigeria has further heightened concerns and warranted additional entomological monitoring.

Nigeria has five diverse geo-ecological zones, each supporting a variety of *Anopheles* species involved in malaria transmission. The major malaria vectors in the country are the members of the *An. gambiae* complex (*An. gambiae* s.s., *An. coluzzii,* and *An. arabiensis)* and *An. funestus* s.l. Secondary malaria vectors include *An. nili, An. moucheti, An. pharoensis, An. coustani,* and *An. longipalpis* (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report, 2021).

In 2012, the U.S. President's Malaria Initiative (PMI), through the Africa Indoor Residual Spraying (AIRS) Project, started entomological surveillance in Nasarawa State. In 2014, the National Malaria Elimination Program (NMEP), in collaboration with the AIRS Project, expanded to six entomological monitoring sites to support evidence-based decision-making for malaria vector control activities.

With the transition from AIRS Project to the PMI VectorLink Project in 2017, the number of entomological monitoring sites was increased to seven plus two insecticide resistance monitoring sites, bringing the total to nine states. Currently, VectorLink is supporting longitudinal vector surveillance and insecticide resistance monitoring in six states and insecticide resistance monitoring only in an additional nine states.

VectorLink strengthens the capacity of local universities to implement vector surveillance and insecticide resistance monitoring. Each sentinel site is coordinated by a well-trained Principal Investigator chosen from universities located in the PMI-focus states. Through VectorLink, each sentinel site recruits field staff comprising of technicians and mosquito collectors trained on entomological methods. VectorLink also provides basic equipment for entomological monitoring. Each VectorLink-supported sentinel site and insecticide resistance monitoring team works in conjunction with the Malaria Control Program division of the State Ministry of Health. VectorLink also partners with the Nigeria Institute for Medical Research (NIMR) to conduct laboratory analyses which are processed at the PMI-supported laboratory in Nasarawa State University Keffi.

Longitudinal vector surveillance is conducted monthly, while insecticide resistance monitoring occurs once per year. The data generated from both activities provide valuable information on vector distribution, behavior, and susceptibility to insecticides. Data generated have been used to inform insecticide-treated net (ITN) procurement decisions and can guide the choice of other vector control interventions in the future. The plan is for these sites to continue to be monitored on a regular basis to track vector susceptibility and dynamics over time.

From October 2021 to September 2022, VectorLink Nigeria conducted longitudinal vector surveillance in six sites and insecticide resistance monitoring in 15 states (11 PMI-focus states and four non-PMI focus states), assessing species composition, density, feeding time, location (indoors or outdoors), seasonality, and insecticide susceptibility status of the major malaria vectors. The intensity and mechanism of insecticide resistance across the different ecozones of Nigeria were also determined. This report summarizes entomological monitoring activities completed from October 2021 to September 2022.

1.1 VECTOR SURVEILLANCE AND INSECTICIDE RESISTANCE MONITORING SITES AND AFFILIATED INSTITUTIONS

During the period covered by this report, VectorLink Nigeria implemented both longitudinal vector surveillance and insecticide resistance monitoring in six sentinel sites and insecticide resistance monitoring only in nine additional sites (Tables 1 and 2). Annex 1 contains GPS coordinates of sampling site locations.

TABLE 2: ADDITIONAL INSECTICIDE RESISTANCE MONITORING SITES AND AFFILIATED INSTITUTIONS

FIGURE 1: MAP OF NIGERIA SHOWING THE SENTINEL SITES AND INSECTICIDE RESISTANCE MONITORING SITES

From October 2021 to September 2022, *Anopheles* mosquitoes were collected monthly from six sentinel sites located in five ecozones of Nigeria (Figure 1). Mosquitoes were caught using human-baited U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) light traps (LTs) indoors and outdoors, and pyrethrum spray catches (PSCs). Details for each method are shown in Table 3. Data collected from longitudinal surveillance sites were collated and used to calculate the indicators in Table 4, which are also described in the sections on the respective mosquito collection methods below. *Anopheles* larvae were collected using ladles and reared to adults for insecticide susceptibility tests.

Indicator	Definition
Indoor resting density	Number of adult female vectors collected indoors per room per day. This was estimated from PSC collections.
Human biting rate	Number of female <i>Anopheles</i> vectors attempting to feed or freshly fed, per person per unit time. This was estimated from CDC LT collections.
Parity rate	Proportion of adult female vectors that laid eggs. This was estimated through ovary dissection.
Sporozoite rate	Proportion of adult female vectors harboring sporozoites in their salivary glands. This was estimated using ELISA method.
Human blood index	Proportion of blood-fed adult female vectors that fed on humans. This was determined with PCR method.
Entomological inoculation rate	Number of infectious bites by adult female vectors per person per unit time. Calculated as the product of human biting rate and sporozoite rate.
Resistance status	Classification of adult female vectors as confirmed resistant, possibly resistant, or susceptible following bioassay tests.
Resistance intensity	Classification of adult female vector populations as having high, moderate, or low intensity of resistance following bioassay tests at different concentrations.

TABLE 4: ENTOMOLOGICAL SURVEILLANCE INDICATORS

1.2 CDC LIGHT TRAP COLLECTION

Field teams placed two human-baited CDC LTs—one indoors and one outdoors—at four houses per sentinel site for three nights each month to measure mosquito biting time and location. Collection cups were changed hourly throughout the night. The teams followed the methods outlined by Yohannes and Boelee (2012) and VectorLink Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) #1[1.](#page-15-1) The teams sent all samples collected from the field to the centrally located insectary at Nasarawa State University Keffi for further processing and later sent to NIMR for analyses to identify sibling species and determine sporozoite rate and bloodmeal source. The mean indoor and outdoor human biting rate (HBR) was calculated as the number of mosquitoes collected per human-baited CDC LT per night. The entomological inoculation rate (EIR), defined as the number of infective bites per person per night, was calculated as the HBR multiplied by the sporozoite infection rate, on a monthly basis and over one year.

1.2.1 HUMAN BEHAVIOR OBSERVATIONS

Human and vector behaviors have the potential to threaten vector control interventions such as ITNs. The efficacy of this control measure partly relies on appropriate use by humans. Human-baited CDC LTs provide the opportunity to assess vector biting throughout the night. To understand how human and vector behaviors may be impacting the efficacy of vector control in Nigeria, VectorLink Nigeria collected information on household-level human behavior through direct human observations during routine entomological surveys in Kebbi and Sokoto. Human behavior was assessed during three nights per month in four households each in six communities in Kebbi and Sokoto in July through September 2022. During mosquito collections using CDC LTs, two collectors per house (1 indoors and 1 outdoors) collected data on the number of people indoors and outdoors. Data was collected hourly by the team from 6 p.m. to 8 a.m. A paper-based data collection form was used to record the location of household members at the start of each hour of collection throughout the night. Data collected included: number of person(s) indoors (out of bed, in bed without a net, and in bed with a net) and outdoors (out of bed, in bed without a net, and in bed with a net). Also, the number of animals both indoors and outdoors were recorded. The mean hourly HBR of each site, representing the number of bites per

¹ Complete SOPs can be found here[: https://pmivectorlink.org/resources/tools-and-innovations/](https://pmivectorlink.org/resources/tools-and-innovations/)

person per hour, was estimated and multiplied by the proportion of people at a given time and location to estimate exposure for each location and time.

1.3 PYRETHRUM SPRAY CATCHES

The team randomly sampled 32 houses per sentinel site per month using the PSC method (World Health Organization (WHO), 1975) to collect indoor-resting mosquitoes (VectorLink SOP #3). The mean indoor resting density was determined by calculating the number of mosquitoes per house per day over the course of the month.

1.4 IDENTIFICATION OF MALARIA VECTORS

Anopheles mosquito samples collected by the field teams using the two mosquito collection methods were morphologically identified to the species level according to methods described by Coetzee (2020). All *Anopheles* specimens collected were labelled and stored individually over silica gel in Eppendorf tubes for further processing. All samples collected were sent to the centrally located insectary at Nasarawa State University Keffi where samples were verified for accuracy of morphological identification and sorted for shipment to NIMR for molecular analysis and to determine sporozoite rate and blood meal source.

1.5 DETERMINATION OF PARITY RATE

To determine parity rate, the team dissected ovaries from about 20% of randomly selected, unfed, female *An. gambiae* s.l. specimens captured with human-baited CDC LTs. The teams used methods as described by Gillies and Wilkes (1963) and the WHO (2003). Mean parity rate was determined by dividing the number of parous females by the total number dissected and confirmed by observing the degree of coiling by the ovarian tracheoles (WHO, 2013).

1.6 PCR IDENTIFICATION OF MEMBERS OF *AN. GAMBIAE* COMPLEX AND *AN. FUNESTUS* GROUP

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assays were carried out on mosquito samples collected to identify members of the *An. gambiae* complex and *An. funestus* group at NIMR, Yaba Lagos. PCR was conducted on approximately 10% of the total number of samples caught, including both those that had been caught indoors and outdoors by CDC LTs and by PSCs. The team amplified the extracted DNA using the *An. gambiae* species-specific multiplex PCR (Scott *et al.* 1993; Fanello *et al*. 2002). The multiplex PCR assay (Koekemoer, *et al*., 2002) was used to determine members of the *An. funestus* group.

1.7 *PLASMODIUM* SPOROZOITE AND BLOOD MEAL ASSAYS

The team also performed enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISAs) for sporozoite antigen on about 20% of randomly selected mosquitoes collected from the field using CDC LT and PSC methods to estimate the *Plasmodium* infection rate in the mosquito population. These were carried out according to methods described by Burkot *et al*. (1984). Positive samples were boiled and retested according to Durnez *et al* 2011. The blood meal index of the selected mosquitoes was also determined by ELISA testing of human, bovine, and goat blood sources of *Anopheles* mosquitoes (Beier *et al.,* 1988).

1.8 INSECTICIDE RESISTANCE MONITORING

Adult female *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes (3-5 days old) reared from wild-caught larvae were exposed to pyrethroid (alpha-cypermethrin, deltamethrin, and permethrin) and organophosphate (pirimiphos-methyl) insecticides using CDC bottle bioassay methods (Brogdon and Chan, 2010). Resistance intensity assays were carried out with different doses (1X, 2X, 5X, and 10X) of pyrethroids to determine insecticide resistance intensity across all locations where pyrethroid resistance was detected. The test results were interpreted according to WHO guidelines (WHO, 2016). Susceptibility tests on chlorfenapyr (100 µg per bottle) and clothianidin (4 µg per bottle) using the CDC bottle assay were carried out on *An. gambiae* Kisumu strain mosquitoes (control) and wild-caught *An. gambiae* s.l. from all insecticide resistance monitoring sites.

Synergist assays using piperonyl butoxide (PBO) were also carried out using standard methods to determine mechanisms of resistance in the *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes. The knockdown resistance (*kdr)* genotype frequencies were determined among *An. gambiae* s.l. using allele-specific PCR assays. Surviving mosquitoes from intensity and synergist assays across all sites were analyzed for *kdr* alleles*.*

2. RESULTS

2.1 MOSQUITO ABUNDANCE AND SPECIES COMPOSITION

A total of 86,799 *Anopheles* mosquitoes were collected from six sentinel sites using human-baited CDC LTs (indoors/outdoors) and PSCs. *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. was the most abundant species across most sites, ranging from 13.8% in Akwa Ibom to 100% in Kebbi (Figure 2). Other *Anopheles* species identified in varying abundance were *An. marshallii* complex (Akwa Ibom only)*, An. funestus,* and *An. rufipes.* Other localized species observed were *An. squamosus, An. coustani, An. pretoriensis*, and *An. moucheti.* In Plateau, a small number of other species— *An. maculipalpis* (n=1), *An. pharoensis* (n=2), and unidentified samples (n=9)—were collected. Annex 3 provides the number of each species collected by site and collection method.

FIGURE 2: *ANOPHELES* **SPECIES COMPOSITION ACROSS SITES**

2.2 MOLECULAR IDENTIFICATION OF MEMBERS OF THE *AN. GAMBIAE* COMPLEX AND DETERMINATION OF SPOROZOITE RATES

A total of 3,004 *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes collected by PSCs and CDC LTs between October 2021 and September 2022 were subjected to species-specific PCR assays. All samples successfully amplified and the results indicated that 2,366 (78.8%) were *An. coluzzii,* 603 (20.1%) were identified as *An. gambiae* s.s.*,* and 35 (1.2%) were *An. arabiensis* (Annex 4).

For the first time, *An. coluzzii* was the dominant vector species found both indoors and outdoors using CDC LTs across all sentinel sites. The highest proportion of *An. coluzzii* was collected indoors in Kebbi (96.0%) followed by Sokoto (83.8%). The highest proportion of *An. coluzzii* collected outdoors was also in Kebbi (94.0%) followed by Ebonyi (91.7%). The highest proportion of *An. gambiae* s.s. identified relative to other sites was recorded outdoors in Akwa Ibom (40.0%) and followed by Ebonyi indoors (27.4%). The proportion of *An. arabiensis* found indoors and outdoors were generally quite low across all sites, with the highest proportions reported indoors (2.9%) and outdoors (2.6%) in Oyo. There were no hybrid species recorded in any of the sites (Figure 3).

For mosquitoes caught using PSCs, *An. coluzzii* was the dominant vector species found in all sites with the highest proportion recorded in Kebbi (95.8%) followed by Sokoto (86.1%) and Ebonyi (82.8%). The highest proportion of *An. gambiae* was recorded in Akwa Ibom (36.7%) followed by Plateau (27.6%). *Anopheles arabiensis* was found in all sites with the highest proportion relative to other species recorded in Akwa Ibom and Sokoto (1.7%) followed by Ebonyi (1.4%) and Plateau (1.2%). No hybrid forms (*An. gambiae* s.s./*An. coluzzii*) were collected using PSCs in any of the sites (Figure 4).

Plasmodium falciparum sporozoite infectivity rates of *An. gambiae* indicated that infection rates were recorded indoors in Ebonyi (2.2%) and Plateau (1.8%) only in mosquitoes collected using CDC LTs (Table 5). Sporozoite infectivity rate of *An. coluzzii* indicated that infection rates were recorded indoors (0.3%) and outdoors (0.5%) in Kebbi. No sporozoite positive *An. arabiensis* samples were found indoors or outdoors across sites.

For mosquitoes collected using PSCs, the highest sporozoite infection rate was recorded in *An. arabiensis* in Ebonyi (20.0%) which happens to be the only infection rate recorded among *An. arabiensis.* For *An. coluzzii,* the sporozoite rate was highest in Akwa Ibom (5.4%), followed by Ebonyi (0.7%), Kebbi (0.6%), Sokoto (0.5%), and Oyo (0.4%). The only infection rate recorded in *An. gambiae* was in Oyo (1.1%) (Figure 6).

FIGURE 3: PROPORTION OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.S.,** *AN. COLUZZII, AN. ARABIENSIS,* **AND HYBRID SPECIES COLLECTED BY INDOOR AND OUTDOOR CDC LIGHT TRAPS ACROSS SENTINEL SITES**

FIGURE 4: PROPORTION OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.S.,** *AN. COLUZZII, AN. ARABIENSIS,* **AND HYBRID SPECIES COLLECTED BY PSC ACROSS SENTINEL SITES**

TABLE 5: SPOROZOITE POSITIVITY RATES OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.S.,** *AN. COLUZZII***, AND** *AN. ARABIENSIS* **MOSQUITOES COLLECTED BY CDC LIGHT TRAPS ACROSS SITES**

Note: In=Indoor CDC LT, Out=Outdoor CDC LT, SPR=Sporozoite Positivity Rate

TABLE 6: SPOROZOITE POSITIVITY RATES OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.S.,** *AN. COLUZZII***, AND** *AN. ARABIENSIS* **MOSQUITOES COLLECTED BY PYRETHRUM SPRAY COLLECTIONS ACROSS SITES**

2.3 MOLECULAR IDENTIFICATION OF MEMBERS OF THE *AN. FUNESTUS* GROUP AND DETERMINATION OF SPOROZOITE RATES

A total of 772 *An. funestus* mosquitoes collected by CDC LTs and PSCs in Ebonyi, Oyo, Plateau, and Sokoto were subjected to species-specific PCR assays (Annex 5). Of these, 439 (56.9%) mosquitoes were collected using CDC LTs (Figure 5), while 333 (43.1%) were collected using PSCs (Figure 6). *Anopheles funestus* s.s. predominated across the sites both indoors and/or outdoors ranging from 75% to 100%. Unamplified samples were collected outdoors in Plateau (25.0%) and Oyo (1.1%) (Figure 5), while *An. leesoni* was recorded only in Oyo indoors (0.6%). For members of *An. funestus* group collected using PSCs, *An. funestus* s.s. was the predominant species in all three sites (Ebonyi, Oyo, and Plateau) (Figure 6).

INDOORS AND OUTDOORS ACROSS SENTINEL SITES \Box % An. funestus s.s. \Box % An. leesoni \Box % Unamplified 100 100 100 100 100 99.4 98.9 100 % Species composition 75.0 80 60 40 25.0 20 0.6 1.1 $\overline{0}$ Indoors Outdoors Indoors Outdoors Indoors Outdoors Indoors Outdoors Plateau $(n = 133)$ Ebonyi $(n = 2)$ O γο ($n = 258$) Sokoto ($n = 46$) Sentinel Site

FIGURE 5: PROPORTION OF MEMBERS OF *AN. FUNESTUS* **GROUP COLLECTED BY CDC LIGHT TRAPS**

FIGURE 6: PROPORTION OF MEMBERS OF *AN. FUNESTUS* **GROUP COLLECTED BY PSC ACROSS SENTINEL SITES**

The highest *Plasmodium falciparum* sporozoite rates for *An. funestus* s.s. collected using CDC LTs was recorded outdoors in Oyo (3.4%) followed by Plateau indoors (1.6%). No other members of *An. funestus* group tested positive for *Plasmodium* sporozoite (Table 7). For *An. funestus* s.s. collected by PSC methods, no sporozoite positivity rates were recorded in any site (Table 8).

TABLE 7: SPOROZOITE POSITIVITY RATES OF *AN. FUNESTUS* **MOSQUITOES COLLECTED BY CDC LIGHT TRAP INDOORS AND OUTDOORS ACROSS SITES**

TABLE 8: SPOROZOITE POSITIVITY RATES OF *AN. FUNESTUS* **MOSQUITOES COLLECTED BY PSC ACROSS SITES**

2.4 SPOROZOITE POSITIVITY RATES OF *AN. MARSHALLII* MOSQUITOES COLLECTED BY CDC LT AND PSC IN AKWA IBOM

An. marshallii complex mosquitoes caught using CDC LTs indoors and outdoors as well as PSC in Akwa Ibom were screened for *Plasmodium falciparum* circumsporozoite antigens. Whereas no sporozoite infection was recorded in any of the analyzed mosquitoes caught using CDC LT, a sporozoite infection rate of 0.7% was recorded among samples caught using PSC method (Table 9).

TABLE 9: SPOROZOITE POSITIVITY RATES OF *AN. MARSHALLII* **MOSQUITOES COLLECTED BY CDC LT AND PSC AT AKWA IBOM SENTINEL SITE**

2.5 MONTHLY INDOOR RESTING DENSITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* S.L.

The indoor resting density of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes varied across the sites and months, ranging from 0.1 mosquitoes/room/day in Oyo during January 2022 to 29.4 mosquitoes/room/day in Sokoto in August 2022 (Figure 7 and Annex 6). In Sokoto, higher indoor resting densities were also observed in July 2022 (27.8 mosquitoes/room/day) and September 2022 (29.2 mosquitoes/room/day), as well as a steady increase in Kebbi during that same time frame (July 2022: 16.5 mosquitoes/room/day – September 2022: 24.7 mosquitoes/room/day).

FIGURE 7: MONTHLY INDOOR RESTING DENSITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. ACROSS SITES**

2.6 MONTHLY INDOOR RESTING DENSITY OF *AN. MARSHALLII* COMPLEX IN AKWA IBOM SITE

The indoor resting density of *An. marshallii* complex mosquitoes varied across the months, ranging from 0-0.5 mosquitoes/room/day between October 2021 to July 2022, before peaking in August 2022 (2.7 mosquitoes/room/day) (Figure 8).

FIGURE 8: MONTHLY INDOOR RESTING DENSITY OF *AN. MARSHALLII* **COMPLEX IN AKWA IBOM**

2.7 HUMAN BITING RATES

2.7.1 HUMAN BITING RATE OF *AN. GAMBIAE* S.L. ACROSS SITES

The mean indoor biting rates of *An. gambiae* s.l. were highest in April (31.3 b/p/n), July and August (25.9) $b/p/n$, and September (29.5 $b/p/n$) in Kebbi, and peaked in June in Ebonyi (22.3 $b/p/n$), and in September in Plateau (85.7 b/p/n) and Sokoto (24.4 b/p/n) (Figure 9). Smaller peaks were observed in *An. gambiae* biting rates outdoors in Kebbi (11.8 b/p/n) and September (7.7 b/p/n) in Sokoto (Figure 10).

FIGURE 10: MONTHLY OUTDOOR HUMAN BITING RATES OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. ACROSS SITES**

2.7.2 HUMAN BITING RATES FOR *AN. MARSHALLII* COMPLEX IN AKWA IBOM

The mean indoor biting rates of *An. marshallii* complex peaked in January (21.8 b/p/n) and again in August 2022 (18.3 b/p/n). Outdoors, biting rate peaked in December 2021 (5.3 b/p/n), February (3.8 b/p/n) as well as in August 2022 (3.3 b/ p/n) (Figure 11).

FIGURE 11: MONTHLY INDOOR AND OUTDOOR HUMAN BITING RATES OF *AN. MARSHALLII* **COMPLEX IN AKWA IBOM**

2.7.3 HUMAN BITING RATES FOR *AN. FUNESTUS* IN OYO, PLATEAU, AND SOKOTO

The mean indoor biting rates of *An. funestus* were recorded in Oyo, Plateau and Sokoto. This peaked in September (6.6 b/p/n) in Plateau, May (4.8 b/p/n) and in Oyo (Figure 12). The highest outdoor biting peak was recorded in June (2.9 b/p/n) in Oyo (Figure 13).

FIGURE 12: MONTHLY INDOOR HUMAN BITING RATES OF *AN. FUNESTUS* **IN OYO, PLATEAU AND SOKOTO (OCTOBER 2021-SEPTEMBER 2022)**

FIGURE 13: MONTHLY OUTDOOR HUMAN BITING RATES OF *AN. FUNESTUS* **IN OYO, PLATEAU AND SOKOTO (OCTOBER 2021-SEPTEMBER 2022)**

2.8 BITING TIME OF *ANOPHELES* MOSQUITOES

2.8.1 BITING TIME OF *AN. GAMBIAE* S.L. ACROSS SITES

Across sites, the average number of mosquitoes caught biting per hour was generally higher indoors than outdoors, with peaks varying by site and typically found in the late evening to early morning hours. In Kebbi, indoor biting peaked between 11 p.m.-2 a.m., while Plateau and Sokoto peaked between 12-1 a.m. Biting in Ebonyi peaked between 3-4 a.m.; there was also an uptick in biting in Plateau during this time. Outdoors, the hourly biting rates were lower in all sites, and peaked between 9-10 p.m. in Kebbi and between 10-11 p.m. in Sokoto (Figure 14).

FIGURE 14: MEAN HOURLY BITING RATES OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. MOSQUITOES BY SITE**

2.8.2 BITING TIME OF *AN. MARSHALLII* COMPLEX S.L. IN AKWA IBOM

The average number of *An. marshallii* caught biting per hour in Akwa Ibom was generally higher indoors, with three peaks, one between 8-9 p.m., one between 10-11 p.m., and another between 2-3 a.m. (Figure 15). Outdoor biting began to increase first between 7-8 p.m. before peaking between 9-10 p.m.

2.8.3 BITING TIME OF *AN. FUNESTUS* S.L. IN OYO AND PLATEAU

The average number of *An. funestus* mosquitoes caught biting per hour was higher indoors compared to outdoors in Oyo and Plateau. The hourly number of mosquito bites in Oyo, peaked indoors at 1-2 a.m., while those of Plateau peaked between 12-1 a.m. (Figure 16).

FIGURE 16: MEAN BITING RATES OF *AN. FUNESTUS* **MOSQUITOES FOR OYO AND PLATEAU**

2.9 ENTOMOLOGICAL INOCULATION RATES ACROSS SITES

EIRs were recorded indoors in two of the five sites among *An. gambiae.* There were no infective bites recorded both indoors and outdoors among *An. coluzzii* and *An. arabiensis* in any of the sentinel sites. The highest indoor EIR was recorded with *An. gambiae* in Ebonyi (12.1 infective bites/person/year) and then in Plateau (10.9 infective bites/person/year). No outdoor EIR was recorded among the three species across the various sites (Figure 17 and Annex 7).

FIGURE 17: ANNUAL ENTOMOLOGICAL INOCULATION RATES ACROSS SITES

2.9.1 ENTOMOLOGICAL INOCULATION RATES IN *AN. FUNESTUS* S.S. ACROSS **SITES**

EIRs were recorded for *An. funestus* s.s. in Oyo and Plateau. The highest EIR was recorded outdoors in Oyo (9.5 infective bites/person/year), followed by indoors in Plateau (5.2 infective bites/person/year). There were no infective bites recorded among *An. funestus* s.s. indoors in Oyo and outdoors in Plateau (Figure 18 and Annex 9).

FIGURE 18: ANNUAL INDOOR AND OUTDOOR ENTOMOLOGICAL INOCULATION RATES OF *AN. FUNESTUS* **S.S.**

2.10 HUMAN BLOOD INDEX

Across the sites, human blood index (HBI) analysis detected human blood meals in varying proportions in *An. gambiae* s.s.*, An. coluzzii*, and *An. arabiensis* collected. Compared to CDC LTs, the PSC method of collection provided more blood fed mosquitoes required for the determination of blood meal sources (Figures 19-21). The percentage of mosquitoes collected by PSC that fed on humans (50-100%) was higher compared to those that fed on bovine (1-6%) and goat (5-50%) blood meals (Figure 21). The human blood meal patterns observed from the analysis of mosquitoes from all sites showed that all three blood meal sources were found in both *An. gambiae* s.s. and *An. coluzzii* in Ebonyi, Kebbi, Oyo, Plateau, and Sokoto. *Anopheles arabiensis* from Oyo and Sokoto fed only on human blood meal, while those analyzed in Akwa Ibom, Ebonyi, Kebbi and Plateau fed only on human and goat blood (Figure 19).

FIGURE 19: BLOOD MEAL SOURCES OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.S***.***,** *AN. COLUZZII***, AND** *AN. ARABIENSIS* **FROM PYRETHRUM SPRAY CATCH COLLECTIONS ACROSS SITES (OCTOBER 2021-SEPTEMBER**

2.11 BLOODMEAL SOURCES IN *AN. MARSHALLII* COMPLEX

Because of the preponderance of *An. marshallii* complex in Akwa Ibom, it became necessary to examine the blood meal preferences of the species and establish the level of human-vector interactions in the area. Of the 146 blood fed mosquitoes identified as *An. marshallii*, all that tested positive for blood meal were collected from PSC. No blood meal was detected among *An. marshallii* complex mosquitoes caught using CDC LTs. Blood meal analysis of *An. marshallii* samples collected from PSC indicated that 90.4% fed on humans, compared to 3.4% and 6.2% that fed on bovine and goat blood meal, respectively (Figure 20).

2.12 PARITY RATE

Unfed, female *An. gambiae* s.l. specimens captured with human-baited CDC LTs were dissected across the sentinel sites to determine the parity rates of the mosquitoes. Average parity rates of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes from 2017-2022 were calculated and compared (Figure 21). Across the six years, the highest parity rates were recorded in Sokoto in 2020 (79.2%) and Plateau in 2022 (79.4%). There was a significant difference in the average percentage of parous mosquitoes in Sokoto ($F_{4,46}=0.7.2795$, $p=0.0001$) and in Akwa Ibom ($F_{4,45}=2.787$, p=0.0376) where there was marked reduction in 2022. The average percentage of parous mosquitoes recorded within five years in Oyo (F_{4,46}=0.776650, p=0.5461), Plateau (F_{3,35}=1.9167, p=0.1449), and Ebonyi $(F_{4,46}=1.0604, p=0.3869)$ were not statistically significant (Figure 21).

FIGURE 21: PARITY RATES OF DISSECTED MOSQUITOES IN SENTINEL SITES (2017-2022)

2.13 HUMAN BEHAVIOR OBSERVATIONS

2.13.1 HUMAN EXPOSURE TO MALARIA VECTORS IN KEBBI STATE

In Kebbi, biting occurs predominantly indoors at bedtime with peak indoor biting rate of 3.11 bites per person per hour $(b/p/h)$ occurring between 1-2 a.m. The outdoor biting rate in Kebbi peaked at 0.89 b/p/h between 9-10 p.m. (Figure 22). The human behavior data indicated that most people were outdoors (not in bed) before 10 p.m., and most people were indoors without bed nets between 11 p.m. and 6 a.m. in the morning. At the peak indoor biting hour of 1-2 a.m., 57% of the people were in bed, but not protected under nets. When considered along with high biting rates indoors, this might have contributed to a high proportion of exposure (0.57) occurring indoors while people are in bed in Kebbi (Figure 23 & Table 10). The proportion of exposure indoors for individuals out of bed was 0.13. Overall, the proportion of vector bites occurring indoors for unprotected individuals is estimated as 0.70 (70%). The proportion of exposure prevented by using nets indoors in Kebbi was estimated as 0.16 (16%). The proportion of exposure occurring outdoors for unprotected individuals was generally low and estimated as 0.14 (14%). The proportion of exposure prevented for individuals using nets outdoors was 0.01 (1%). Overall, the proportion of exposure prevented both indoors and outdoors is estimated as 0.17 and this leaves a gap in protection of about 0.83 (83%) in Kebbi (Table 10).

In summary, most human exposure in Kebbi occurs indoors in the middle of night (11 p.m.-6 a.m.) and primarily is due to people being in bed not under nets at the time when most biting activities occurring indoors.

FIGURE 22: HUMAN BEHAVIOR PROPORTION FOR KEBBI SENTINEL SITE

FIGURE 23: BEHAVIOR ADJUSTED BITING RATES FOR KEBBI SENTINEL SITE

2.13.2 HUMAN EXPOSURE TO MALARIA VECTORS IN SOKOTO

In Sokoto, the peak indoor biting of 1.43 b/p/h was recorded between midnight and 1 a.m. There was also significant biting occurring indoors before bedtime between 8 to 10 p.m. $(1.18 - 1.20 \text{ b}/\text{p/h})$. The outdoor peak was between 10-11 p.m. with 0.50 b/p/h (Figure 24). Like Kebbi, most people were outdoors (not in bed) for the periods before 10 p.m. However, most people indoors were under net at the peak biting hours, though still large proportion of people indoors were sleeping without nets. At the peak indoor biting hour of midnight to 1 a.m., about 20% of the people slept under net, whereas about 13% were sleeping without nets indoor. This coupled with lower biting rate contributed to the reduced proportion of exposure indoors at bedtime as compared to Kebbi. The proportion of exposure indoors for individuals sleeping without net was 0.20, whereas the proportion of exposure occurring indoors for individuals out of bed was 0.26 (Figure 25 and Table 10). Overall, the proportion of vector bites occurring indoors for unprotected individuals is estimated as 0.46 (46%) in Sokoto. The proportion of exposure prevented by using nets indoors in Sokoto was estimated as 0.33 (33%). The proportion of exposure occurring outdoors for unprotected individuals was estimated as 0.16 (16%) and the proportion of exposure prevented for individuals using nets outdoors was about 0.05 (5%). Overall, the proportion of exposure prevented both indoors and outdoors is estimated as 0.38 and this leaves a gap in protection of about 0.62 (62%) in Sokoto (Table 10). In summary, most human exposure in Sokoto occurs indoors during early evening hours (before 10 p.m.) when most people are not protected under nets.

FIGURE 24: HUMAN BEHAVIOR PROPORTION FOR SOKOTO SENTINEL SITE

FIGURE 25: BEHAVIOR ADJUSTED BITING RATES FOR SOKOTO SENTINEL SITE

TABLE 10: SUMMARY OF THE PROPORTION OF EXPOSURE INDOORS AND OUTDOORS IN KEBBI AND SOKOTO, EXTRACTED FROM FIGURES 23 AND 25

2.13.3 PROPORTION OF DOMESTIC ANIMALS INDOORS AND OUTDOORS IN KEBBI AND SOKOTO

Keeping domestic animals such as goats and sheep both indoors and outdoors is a common practice in Kebbi and Sokoto. The mean number of domestic animals observed indoors and outdoors for the time of collections are summarized in Figures 26 and 27. A higher number of domestic animals were observed in Sokoto than Kebbi. The proportion of domestic animals was higher indoors than outdoors in Sokoto, while the opposite was observed in Kebbi. This has not resulted in a higher biting rate in Sokoto and may also be unlikely to have an impact on the proportions of human exposures reported in these locations.

FIGURE 26: AVERAGE NUMBER OF DOMESTIC ANIMALS INDOORS AND OUTDOORS IN KEBBI

2.14 INSECTICIDE SUSCEPTIBILITY AND MECHANISMS OF RESISTANCE

Insecticide susceptibility test results indicated that pyrethroid resistance was widespread in *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes at all sentinel sites (Table 11). Pyrethroid resistance patterns varied within and among the states.

Full susceptibility of *An. gambiae* s.l. populations exposed to alpha-cypermethrin was recorded in all LGAs in Bayelsa, Benue, Cross River, FCT, Oyo, Sokoto, and Zamfara. Susceptibility to alpha-cypermethrin was only observed in 1/6 LGAs in Bauchi and Enugu, 2/6 LGAs in Kaduna, and 7/9 LGAs in Kebbi. No susceptibility to alpha-cypermethrin was observed in *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes from Akwa Ibom, Ebonyi, Nasarawa, or Plateau (Table 11).

Anopheles gambiae s.l. were susceptible to deltamethrin in all LGAs in Benue, Cross River, Kebbi, Oyo, and Zamfara. Susceptibility to deltamethrin was observed in *An. gambiae* s.l. populations in 2/6 LGAs in Bauchi, 1/3 LGAs in Bayelsa, 1/6 LGAs in Enugu, 2/3 LGAs in FCT, 3/6 LGAs in Nasarawa, and 2/9 LGAs in Sokoto. No susceptibility to deltamethrin was observed in *An. gambiae* s.l. populations from Akwa Ibom, Ebonyi, Kaduna, and Plateau (Table 11).

Resistance to permethrin was recorded in *An. gambiae* s.l. populations across all states except in 2/3 LGAs in Bayelsa, 1/6 LGAs in Kaduna, and 4/9 LGAs in Sokoto. Among the states where resistance was recorded in all LGAs, possible resistance was recorded in 1/6 LGAs in Bauchi and 2/6 LGAs in Zamfara (Table 11).

The vector was not susceptible to any pyrethroids in any LGAs of Akwa Ibom, Ebonyi, and Plateau (Table 11).

Anopheles gambiae s.l. mosquitoes showed susceptibility to pirimiphos-methyl in all LGAs in Akwa Ibom, Bauchi, Bayelsa, FCT, Cross River, Ebonyi, Enugu, Kaduna, Nasarawa, Kebbi, Sokoto, and Zamfara. Resistance to pirimiphos-methyl was observed in *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes from one LGA in Oyo (Ibarapa North) and possible resistance in one LGA in Benue (Tarka) (Table 11).

Class of Insecticides		Pyrethroids						Organophosphate	
Insecticides		Alpha-cypermethrin		Deltamethrin		Permethrin		Pirimiphos-methyl	
Sentinel Site	LGA	Percentage Mortality	Status	Percentage Mortality	Status	Percentage Mortality	Status	Percentage Mortality	Status
Akwa Ibom	Abak	79%	$\mathbf R$	90%	PR	31%	$\mathbf R$	100%	S
	Itu	75%	$\mathbf R$	88%	$\overline{\mathbf{R}}$	18%	$\overline{\mathbf{R}}$	98%	S
	Mkpat Enin	78%	$\mathbf R$	86%	$\overline{\mathbf{R}}$	22%	$\mathbf R$	100%	S
	Nsit Ubium	82%	$\mathbf R$	91%	PR	32%	$\mathbf R$	99%	S
	Onna	81%	$\bf R$	89%	$\bf R$	29%	\bf{R}	99%	S
	Ukanafun	76%	$\mathbf R$	89%	$\overline{\mathbf{R}}$	31%	$\mathbf R$	100%	S
Bauchi	Darazo	87%	$\bf R$	82%	$\bf R$	89%	\bf{R}	99%	S
	Dass	78%	\bf{R}	80%	$\bf R$	86%	$\mathbf R$	100%	S
	Itas/Gadau	91%	PR	98%	$\mathbf S$	91%	PR	98%	S
	Katagun	98%	S	98%	$\mathbf S$	88%	$\mathbf R$	98%	$\bf S$
	Ningi	82%	$\mathbf R$	85%	$\overline{\mathbf{R}}$	89%	$\mathbf R$	100%	S
	Toro	79%	$\mathbf R$	82%	$\overline{\mathbf{R}}$	86%	$\bf R$	100%	S
Bayelsa	Ogbia	99%	S	97%	PR	98%	S	100%	S
	Sagbama	98%	S	98%	S	99%	$\bf S$	100%	S
	Yenagoa	100%	S	92%	PR	93%	PR	100%	S
Benue	Apa	100%	S	99%	S	85%	$\mathbf R$	100%	S
	Gwer	100%	S	98%	S	87%	$\mathbf R$	99%	S
	Obi	100%	S	99%	S	88%	$\mathbf R$	98%	S
	Tarka	99%	S	99%	S	86%	$\mathbf R$	97%	PR
	Ukum	100%	S	99%	S	82%	$\mathbf R$	99%	S
	Vandeikya	100%	S	99%	S	83%	\bf{R}	99%	S

TABLE 11: CDC BOTTLE BIOASSAY TEST RESULTS FOR *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. IN 2022**

S = Susceptible, R = Resistant, PR = Possibly Resistant. Note: Diagnostic time is 30 minutes. A minimum of 100 mosquitoes were exposed each insecticide. *Not tested due to insecurity.

2.15 INSECTICIDE RESISTANCE INTENSITY

Insecticide resistance intensity in the vector populations were determined by subjecting *Anopheles* mosquitoes across the different ecozones to insecticide resistance test assays with different concentrations of three pyrethroids. *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. was susceptible to 1X alpha-cypermethrin across all LGAs in Bayelsa, Benue, Cross River, FCT, Oyo, Sokoto, and Zamfara (Figures 30, 31, 32, 35, 39, 41, and 42). Susceptibility was also recorded in 1/5 LGAs in Enugu, 2/6 LGAs in Kaduna, and 7/9 LGAs in Kebbi (Figures 34, 36, and 37). *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes that were resistant to alpha-cypermethrin at 1X concentration in Bauchi and Enugu (5/6 LGAs) and Ebonyi (all six LGAs) became susceptible at 2X concentration (Figures 29, 34, and 33) indicating resistance was only at the diagnostic dose. *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. showed low resistance intensity (mortality between 98-100% at 5X dose) to alpha-cypermethrin in all six LGAs in Akwa Ibom and Plateau (Figures 28 and 40).

Complete susceptibility of *An. gambiae* s.l. to 1X deltamethrin was recorded in all LGAs in Benue, Cross River, Kebbi, Oyo, and Zamfara (Figures 31, 32, 37, 39, and 42). Susceptibility was also recorded in 2/6 LGAs in Bauchi, 1/3 LGAs in Bayelsa, 2/3 LGAs in FCT, 3/6 LGAs in Nasarawa, and 1/9 LGAs in Sokoto (Figures 29, 31, 38, and 41). Susceptibility to deltamethrin at 2X concentration was observed in *An. gambiae* s.l. populations from all LGAs in Akwa Ibom, Bauchi, Ebonyi, Enugu, Kaduna, Nasarawa, and Sokoto (Figures 28, 29, 33, 34, 36, 38, and 41). Low intensity of resistance to deltamethrin (mortality between 98-100% at 5X dose) was recorded in 1/3 LGAs in Bayelsa and FCT, 2/6 LGAs in Kaduna, and all six LGAs of Plateau (Figures 30, 35, 36, and 40).

Complete susceptibility to permethrin at 1X was recorded in 2/3 LGAs of Bayelsa, 1/6 LGAs in Kaduna, and 4/6 LGAs of Sokoto (Figures 30, 36, and 41). Complete susceptibility of *An. gambiae* s.l. was observed at 2X permethrin concentration test across all six LGAs in Bauchi, Benue, and Zamfara, and in 1/6 LGAs in Enugu and Kaduna where resistance to 1X concentration were recorded (Figures 29, 31, 34, 36, and 42).

Low permethrin resistance intensity (mortality between 98–100% at 5X dose) was recorded in *An. gambiae* s.l. from 1/3 LGAs in Bayelsa, 5/6 LGAs in Cross River, 2/6 LGAs in Enugu, 1/3 LGAs in FCT, 4/6 LGAs in Kaduna, 4/9 LGAs in Kebbi, all LGAs in Oyo, and 2/6 LGAs in Plateau (Figures 30, 32, 34-37, and 39-40).

Moderate permethrin resistance intensity (mortality greater or equal to 98% at 10X dose) was observed in *An. gambiae* s.l. populations from all six LGAs in Akwa Ibom and Nasarawa (Figures 28 and 38) and 1/6 LGAs in Cross River, 3/6 LGAs in Ebonyi, 2/3 LGAs in FCT, 5/9 LGAs in Kebbi, and 3/6 LGAs in Plateau (Figures 32, 33, 35, 37, and 40).

High permethrin resistance intensity (mortality less than 98% at 10X dose) was recorded in 3/6 LGAs in Ebonyi and 1/6 LGA in Plateau (Figures 33 and 40).

FIGURE 28: PYRETHROID RESISTANCE INTENSITY IN *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. AT AKWA IBOM**

LGA/Insecticide

FIGURE 33: PYRETHROID RESISTANCE INTENSITY IN *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. AT EBONYI**

FIGURE 36: PYRETHROID RESISTANCE INTENSITY IN *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. AT KADUNA**

FIGURE 37: PYRETHROID RESISTANCE INTENSITY IN *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. AT KEBBI**

FIGURE 38: PYRETHROID RESISTANCE INTENSITY IN *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. AT NASARAWA**

FIGURE 40: PYRETHROID RESISTANCE INTENSITY IN *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. AT PLATEAU**

FIGURE 41: PYRETHROID RESISTANCE INTENSITY IN *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. AT SOKOTO**

FIGURE 42: PYRETHROID RESISTANCE INTENSITY IN *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. AT ZAMFARA**

2.16 SYNERGIST ASSAYS

Pre-exposure of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes to PBO synergist before exposure to pyrethroids (alphacypermethrin, deltamethrin, and permethrin) increased mortality at varying degrees across sites (Figures 41– 55). In cases where full susceptibility (mortality greater than or equal to 98%) was not restored with PBO exposure, it suggests the existence of mechanisms unrelated to the activity of mixed function oxidases.

Where tested, susceptibility to alpha-cypermethrin was fully restored in *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes pre-exposed to PBO in all LGAs of Ebonyi, Enugu, Kebbi, and Nasarawa (Figures 48, 49, 52, and 53). Pre-exposure of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes to PBO did not affect susceptibility to alpha-cypermethrin in 3/6 LGAs in Akwa Ibom, 1/6 LGAs in Bauchi, and 2/4 LGAs Kaduna (Figures 43, 44, 51). Pre-exposure of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes to PBO did not restore susceptibility to alpha-cypermethrin across any LGAs in Plateau (Figure 55).

Where tested, PBO restored susceptibility of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes to deltamethrin across all sites in Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Ebonyi, FCT, Nasarawa, and Sokoto (Figures 43, 45, 46, 50, 53, and 57). Pre-exposure of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes to PBO restored susceptibility to deltamethrin in 1/5 LGAs of Bauchi, 4/5 LGAs in Enugu, and 2/6 LGAs in Kaduna (Figures 44, 49, and 52). Across all six LGAs of Plateau, pre-exposure of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes to PBO did not restore susceptibility to deltamethrin (Figure 55).

It was also observed that susceptibility to permethrin was fully restored in *An. gambiae* s.l. populations tested in one LGA from Bayelsa, and all LGAs in Ebonyi and Sokoto (Figures 44, 48, and 56). Susceptibility to permethrin after pre-exposure to PBO was observed in 3/6 LGAs in both Bauchi and Zamfara, 4/5 LGAs in Enugu, and 1/3 LGAs in FCT (Figures 44, 49-50, and 57). PBO did not fully restore susceptibility in *An. gambiae* s.l. populations in any LGAs in Akwa Ibom, Benue, Cross River, Kaduna, Kebbi, Nasarawa, Oyo, and Plateau (Figures 43, 46, 47, and 51-55).

FIGURE 43: SYNERGIST BOTTLE ASSAY RESULTS FOR *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. FROM AKWA IBOM**

FIGURE 44: SYNERGIST BOTTLE ASSAY RESULTS FOR *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. FROM BAUCHI**

FIGURE 47: SYNERGIST BOTTLE ASSAY RESULTS FOR *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. FROM CROSS RIVER**

FIGURE 49: SYNERGIST BOTTLE ASSAY RESULTS FOR *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. FROM ENUGU**

FIGURE 52: SYNERGIST BOTTLE ASSAY RESULTS FOR *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. FROM KEBBI**

FIGURE 53: SYNERGIST BOTTLE ASSAY RESULTS FOR *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. FROM NASARAWA**

FIGURE 55: SYNERGIST BOTTLE ASSAY RESULTS FOR *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. FROM PLATEAU**

FIGURE 56: SYNERGIST BOTTLE ASSAY RESULTS FOR *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. FROM SOKOTO**

S.L. TO CHLORFENAPYR

2.17 DETERMINATION OF SUSCEPTIBILITY STATUS OF *AN. GAMBIAE*

The percentage knockdown of *An. gambiae* s.l. exposed to chlorfenapyr at 60 minutes varied across LGAs in Akwa Ibom (71–89%), Bauchi (83–98%), Bayelsa (82-96%), Benue (71–88%), Cross River (60–81%), Ebonyi (47-76%), Enugu (13-38%), FCT (8-22%), Kaduna (64-96%) Kebbi (76–84%), Nasarawa (50–66%), Oyo (45- 64%), Plateau (18-74%), Sokoto (54–88%), and Zamfara (83–95%) (Figures 58-72).

The percentage mortality after the 24-hour holding period also varied in Akwa Ibom (93-99%), Bauchi (94– 100%), Bayelsa (96-100%), Benue (100%), Cross River (95-100%), Ebonyi (97-100%), Enugu (62-97%), FCT (90-100%), Kaduna (53-99%) Kebbi (100%), Nasarawa (88-100%), Oyo (79-99%), Plateau (100%), Sokoto (77- 100%), and Zamfara (99-100%) (Figures 58-72).

Full susceptibility (98-100% mortality) of *An. gambiae* s.l. to chlorfenapyr occurred at 24 hrs post exposure in all LGAs in Benue, Kebbi, Plateau, and Zamfara (Figure 61, 67, and 72). Mortality rates of *An. gambiae* s.l. were between 98-100% after the 48-hour holding period in all LGAs in Bauchi, Bayelsa, Benue, Cross River, Ebonyi, FCT, Kebbi, Nasarawa, Oyo, Plateau, and Zamfara (Figures 59-63, 65, 67, 68-70, and 72). *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. populations from all LGAs across all ecozones were susceptible to chlorfenapyr with >99% mortality at 72 hours (Figures 58-72).

FIGURE 58: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT AKWA IBOM**

FIGURE 59: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT BAUCHI**

FIGURE 60: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT BAYELSA**

FIGURE 61: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT BENUE**

FIGURE 62: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT CROSS RIVER**

FIGURE 63: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT EBONYI**

FIGURE 64: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT ENUGU**

FIGURE 65: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT FCT**

FIGURE 66: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT KADUNA**

FIGURE 67: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT KEBBI**

FIGURE 68: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT NASARAWA**

FIGURE 69: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT OYO**

FIGURE 70: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) IN PLATEAU**

FIGURE 71: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT SOKOTO**

FIGURE 72: PERCENTAGE MORTALITY OF *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. 60 MINUTES, 24 HOURS, 48 HOURS, AND 72 HOURS AFTER EXPOSURE TO CHLORFENAPYR (100 µG/BOTTLE) AT ZAMFARA**

Note: Test conditions during bioassays: 25.8-28.7°C, 67-82% RH

2.18 DETERMINATION OF SUSCEPTIBILITY STATUS OF *AN. GAMBIAE* S.L. TO CLOTHIANIDIN USING CDC BOTTLE BIOASSAY

As shown in Table 12, the percentage knockdown of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes at 30-minutes exposure to clothianidin varied across the sites: Akwa Ibom (44-63%), Bauchi (73-83%), Bayelsa (81-92%), Benue (76-94%), Cross River (28-87%), Ebonyi (33-75%), Enugu (0-71%), FCT (3-33%), Kaduna (21-70%) Kebbi (41-56%), Nasarawa (12-40%), Oyo (11-62%), Plateau (10-12%), Sokoto (5-41%), and Zamfara (51-77%).

At 60 minutes, the percentage knockdown of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes exposed to clothianidin increased across all sites: Akwa Ibom (71-88%), Bauchi (87-97%), Bayelsa (92-98%), Benue (100%), Cross River (79- 99%), Ebonyi (56-89%), Enugu (24-100%), FCT (36-82%), Kaduna (74-91%), Kebbi (62-93%), Nasarawa (37- 64%), Oyo (52-97%), Plateau (50-61%), Sokoto (69-88%), and Zamfara (85-100%).

Mortality rates of *An. gambiae* s.l. at 24 hours post-exposure to clothianidin were between 98-100% in all LGAs in 12 out of 15 sites. Mortality rates were less than 98% after 24 hours in 4/6 LGAs in Akwa Ibom, 1/3 LGAs in FCT, and all six LGAs in Nasarawa (Table 12).

TABLE 12: CDC BOTTLE BIOASSAY RESULTS (PERCENT MORTALITY AFTER 24 HOURS) FOR *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.L. TO CLOTHIANIDIN**

2.19 *KDR* GENE FREQUENCY IN *AN. GAMBIAE* S.L. EXPOSED TO ALPHA-CYPERMETHRIN, DELTAMETHRIN, AND PERMETHRIN ACROSS SITES

Frequency of kdr **genes in Alpha-cypermethrin Resistant** An. coluzzii **and** An. gambiae **s.l.**

Assessment of *kdr* mutations in alpha-cypermethrin resistant *An. gambiae* s.l. indicated the presence of both *kdrw* and *kdr-e* point mutations across the sentinel sites. *Kdr-w* gene frequencies in *An. coluzzii* ranged from 0.00 in FCT to 1.00 in Benue. *Kdr-w* gene frequencies in *An. gambiae* s.s. ranged from 0.29 in Ebonyi to 0.75 in Kebbi. Additionally, *kdr*-*w* gene frequencies in *An. arabiensis* ranged from 0.17 in Ebonyi and Nasarawa to 0.57 in Kaduna. On the other hand, *kdr-e* gene frequencies in *An. coluzzii* ranged from 0.00 in FCT, Bayelsa, and Benue to 0.14 in Kebbi. *Kdr-e* gene frequencies in *An. gambiae* s.s. ranged from 0.00 in Bayelsa and Kebbi to 0.1 in Bauchi while those in *An. arabiensis* ranged from 0.00 in Bauchi, Enugu, Kebbi and Nasarawa to 0.33 in Ebonyi. Hybrid was detected in Kaduna and though the *kdr-w* and *kdr-e* gene frequencies were both 0.00 (Table 13). Higher *kdr-w* gene frequencies were detected in *An. gambiae* s.s. than in *An. coluzzii* in Kebbi (0.75 vs. 0.50) (p=1.0000) and in Kaduna, higher *kdr-w* frequencies were recorded in *An. arabiensis* than in *An. coluzzii* (0.57 vs (0.45) ($p=1.0000$), but these did not vary significantly (Table 13).

Frequency of kdr **Genes in Deltamethrin-Resistant** An. coluzzii **and** An. gambiae **s.s.**

An assessment of *kdr* mutations in deltamethrin-resistant *An. gambiae* s.l. indicated the presence of both *kdr-w* and *kdr-e* point mutations (Table 14). The *kdr*-*w* gene frequencies varied by ecozone, types of pyrethroids and vector composition. *Kdr*-*w* gene frequencies in *An. coluzzii* ranged from 0.38 in Ebonyi to 0.56 in Bayelsa. *Anopheles gambiae* s.s. gene frequencies ranged from 0.33 in Ebonyi to 1.00 in Cross River. For *An. arabiensis,* gene frequencies ranged from 0.17 in Ebonyi to 0.50 in Bayelsa and Sokoto. The *kdr-e* gene frequencies also varied by ecological zones and ranged from 0.00 in Benue and Oyo to 0.17 in Bayelsa in *An. coluzzii*. In *An. gambiae* s.s.*,* the *kdr-e* gene frequency ranged from 0.00 in Benue, FCT, Nasarawa, Oyo, and Plateau to 0.50 in Bayelsa and Cross River. These varied in *An. arabiensis* from 0.00 in Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Ebonyi and Sokoto to 0.08 in Kaduna. In general, *kdr-w* frequencies were higher in *An, gambiae* s.s. versus *An, coluzzii*. *Kdr-w* mutations did not vary significantly in *An. gambiae* s.s. and *An. coluzzii* in Bayelsa (0.67 vs 0.56) (p=1.0000) while *An. gambiae* was higher than *An. arabiensis* (0.54 vs 0.50) in Sokoto but did not also vary significantly (p=1.0000). *Kdr-e* gene frequencies was higher in *An. gambiae* than in *An. coluzzii* (0.50 vs 0.17) in Bayelsa while *kdr-e* gene frequencies were 0.08 in *An. arabiensis* and *An. gambiae* respectively in Kaduna though these did not vary significantly.

TABLE 14: FREQUENCY OF *KDR* **GENES IN DELTAMETHRIN-RESISTANT** *AN. COLUZZII* **AND** *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.S. ACROSS SITES**

Frequency of kdr **genes in Permethrin-Resistant** An. coluzzii **and** An. gambiae **s.s.**

Kdr-*w* gene frequencies in *An. coluzzii* ranged from 0.37 in Enugu and Nasarawa to 0.53 in FCT while *kdr-w* gene frequencies in *An. gambiae* s.s. ranged from 0.25 in Bayelsa to 0.55 in Cross River. *Kdr-w* gene frequencies in *An. arabiensis* ranged from 0.25 in Bauchi, Bayelsa, and Enugu to 1.00 in Sokoto. Higher *kdr-w* gene frequencies were observed in *An. gambiae* than *An. coluzzii* in Cross River (0.55 vs. 0.48) (p=1.000) while in Sokoto, higher *kdr- w* gene frequencies were recorded in *An. arabiensis* than *An. coluzzii* (1.00 vs 0.49) (p=1.000), but did not vary significantly. For *kdr-e* mutations, gene frequencies in *An. coluzzii* ranged from 0.04 in Nasarawa and Zamfara to 0.25 in Bayelsa. In *An. gambiae* s.s., *kdr-e* gene frequencies ranged from 0.00 in Bayelsa to 0.31 in FCT. For *An. arabiensis,* they ranged from 0.00 in Bauchi, Kebbi and Sokoto to 0.50 in Bayelsa and Plateau. Higher *An. arabiensis* gene frequencies were recorded in Bayelsa than *An. coluzzii* (0.50 vs 0.25). This was the same for *An. arabiensis* and *An. gambiae* in Nasarawa (0.36 vs 0.09). These did not vary significantly (p=0.1573).

TABLE 15: FREQUENCY OF *KDR* **GENES IN PERMETHRIN-RESISTANT** *AN. COLUZZII* **AND** *AN. GAMBIAE* **S.S. ACROSS SITES**

3.1 SPECIES COMPOSITION

Anopheles gambiae s.l., consisting of efficient vectors including *An. gambiae* s.s., *An. coluzzii*, and *An. arabiensis,* remained the primary and most abundant major malaria vector found, with varied composition and widespread distribution across surveyed sites in Nigeria. Its significant occurrence in all six states indicates its ability to adapt and utilize varying breeding sites. *Anopheles funestus* was another major malaria vector reported, but was more limited in its distribution when compared with *An. gambiae* s.l. Other secondary malaria vectors found but with limited distribution and abundance included *An. moucheti, An. pharoensis, An. coustani, An. squamosus, An. rufipes,* and *An. pretoriensis.* Other localized species found in select sites included *An. squamosus, An. rufipes*, *An. pretoriensis,* and *An. marshallii*.

The percentage composition of *An. funestus* mosquitoes in 2018 (0.1-4.0%, four sites) increased in 2019 (1.0- 16.9%, five sites) and 2020 (0.2-48.1%, four sites). There was a significant increase in 2021 (0.9-51.2%) from three sites (Ebonyi, Plateau, and Oyo) while in 2022, there was a slight decrease in *An. funestus* preponderance from four sites (0.01-45.6%). Increased abundance of *An. funestus* indicates its potential to significantly contribute to malaria transmission, particularly in areas where suitable breeding conditions for this species are available. *Anopheles funestus* prefer to breed in water bodies that are stable, either permanent or semi-permanent, and contain aquatic vegetation. This pattern of occurrence has been consistent in the last five years (AIRS Nigeria Final Entomology Report 2017, PMI VectorLink Nigeria Final Entomology Report 2018, 2019, 2020, and 2021). The breeding sites of *An. funestus* in the three surveillance sites are similar, reinforcing habitat specificity.

There was a predominance of *An. marshallii* complex (86.2%) among mosquitoes collected from the vector surveillance site in Akwa Ibom compared those of *An. gambiae* complex (13.8%), which was perceived to be the predominant malaria vector in the area. In previous year's collections, further laboratory analysis conducted following failed amplifications of the suspected *An. gambiae* species confirmed the identity as *An. marshallii.* This year's identification agrees with our previous findings (PMI VectorLink Nigeria Final Entomology Report 2021). All 1,752 *An. marshallii* complex mosquitoes caught during this period were from Akwa Ibom, a mangrove swamp area biting mainly indoors. This could contribute to malaria transmission in the area, hence the need to continue to screen these species for sporozoites.

A total of 11 *Anopheles* mosquito species were morphologically identified across the six sentinel sites giving a total of 86,779 *Anopheles* mosquitoes (Annex 3). This is consistent with previously reported numbers in 2018, 2019, and 2020, though in 2021, 12 *Anopheles* species were identified (PMI VectorLink Nigeria Final Entomology Report 2018, 2019, 2020 and 2021). Similar numbers of *Anopheles* mosquitoes were identified from a study on *Anopheles* abundance and diversity from the Guinea and Savannah transitional forest zone of Nigeria (Oduola *et al.,* 2013). The ability of *An. gambiae* s.l. to utilize different breeding habitats, coupled with secondary and localized vectors that leverage specific habitats and seasonal conditions, accounts for variation in occurrence, predominance and abundance across the different ecological zones in Nigeria. The collective or individual roles of these vectors during both the rainy and dry seasons may be responsible for sustaining malaria transmission all year round. All three members of the *An*. *gambiae* complex (*An. gambiae* s.s.*, An. coluzzii,* and *An. arabiensis*) were found at varying proportions in each sentinel site. The only members of the *An. funestus* group molecularly identified were *An. funestus* s.s. and *An. leesoni* (Figures 5 and 6). However, the few unidentified from the PCR assay results suggest an improvement in molecular identification of *An. funestus* group.

For the first time, the composition of the vector species identified from *An. gambiae* species specific PCR analysis showed *An. coluzzii* as the dominant vector species found both indoors and outdoors across all sentinel sites using both CDC LT and PSC methods. This is in contrast with our previous findings in collections from 2018/2019 and 2019/2020, where *An. gambiae* was the dominant vector species found both indoors and outdoors across the five sentinel sites. This variation began in 2020/2021 collections where *An. gambiae* predominated indoors in 4/5 sites and outdoors in 2/5 sites. This further changed in the 2021/2022 collections indicating a trend in the manner in which *An. colu*z*zii* dominance has occurred (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021). The interplay of factors responsible for this shift requires further analysis to understand the dynamics, particularly given the change occurred across all ecological zones in Nigeria. In Benin, *An. coluzzii* predominated during the dry season and accounted for most malaria transmissions (Akogbeto, 2018). This data requires monitoring over time to be able to determine the precursors and implications.

3.2 HUMAN BITING RATE AND VECTOR BITING TIME

The mean indoor biting rates of *An. gambiae* s.l. peaked in September in Plateau (85.7 bites/person/night) and in April, July-September in Kebbi (31.3, 25.9, and 29.5 b/ p/n , respectively). Increased outdoor biting was recorded in Kebbi in March, April and September $(9.4 b/p/n, 11.8 b/p/n,$ and $8.8 b/p/n$, respectively). Biting rate has been found to be largely dependent on mosquito abundance which is influenced by rainfall patterns and strongly reflects the productivity period of mosquitoes when habitats are neither flooded nor dry but are stable enough to ensure rapid emergence of adult mosquitoes. The early rains are the best period to apply control measures to reduce mosquito abundance and limit the peak biting activities. In agreement with our previous observations (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2021), biting rates did not increase much until July through September. Similarly, a small peak in outdoor biting was recorded in April in Kebbi with a smaller peak in September recorded in Kebbi and Sokoto, which stresses the need for those who sleep outdoors to protect themselves by sleeping under nets. Both indoor and outdoor biting rates in the other sites were generally low. Biting rate activities for most of the surveillance sites occurred both outdoors and indoors, increasing during the late rainy season (August-September) compared to previous findings where peak biting rates were observed during the early rainy season (April-June) (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2020, 2021). Delayed rainfall may be responsible for the shift in the monthly mosquito peak biting.

The biting rate of *An. marshallii* peaks during the dry season and late rains, an indication of its non-dependence on the rainy season with permanent breeding sites that become stable during the dry season. If this species is found to be a malaria vector, the biting activity suggests it could perpetuate transmission during the dry season followed by transmission largely by *An. gambiae* at the onset of the rains.

The average number of mosquitoes caught biting per hour was generally higher indoors, with the highest collected between 11 p.m. and 2 a.m. in Kebbi and between 12-1 a.m. in Plateau. This agrees with previous findings which show the peak biting time as after midnight in most sentinel sites (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2019; 2020; and 2021). Incidental shifts in peak biting time (10-11 p.m.) were reported in Plateau in 2020 as was recorded in Kebbi (11 p.m.-12 a.m.) in 2022 and may require further investigation of human activity at night and other environmental factors such as temperature and precipitation, which have been reported to influence the mosquito biting time (Dambach *et al.,* 2018). There was increased indoor biting for *An. gambiae* s.l. in September in Plateau (85.7 bites/person/night). This is in contrast with our findings in the previous year where *An. gambiae* s.l. indoor biting peaked in the month of July in Plateau (103.8 bites/person/night (b/p/n) (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2021). The shift from July to September could be due to a delayed rainy season. This further agrees with the findings of Kabbale *et al.,* (2013) working in Budiope county of Uganda who found that although the abundance of *An. gambiae* s.l. was rainfalldependent in some areas, both *An. gambiae* s.l. and *An. funestus* mosquitoes thrived all year round regardless of the amount of rainfall.

The high indoor biting rate and late night is also in consonance with the report of Moiroux *et al.* (2012) working in Benin who reported significant changes in the host-seeking behavior of *An. funestus* after scaling up universal coverage of ITNs in southern Benin. The fact that most of the bites from *An. gambiae* s.l. and *An. funestus* occur during hours of the night when most people are in bed was the source of the enthusiasm for the use of insecticide-treated nets for malaria control in Africa (Maxwell *et al.,* 1998).

Due to the high rate of early morning biting by *An. funestus* in Oyo, extended morning collection by alternative non-LT method (such as HLC) may be considered.

The mean indoor biting rates of *An. marshallii* complex in Akwa Ibom peaked in January (21.8 b/p/n) with an earlier peak in December 2021 (19.8 b/p/n) and increased outdoor biting recorded in the same month of December 2021 (5.3 b/p/n), as well as in the month of August (3.3 b/p/n). This agrees with our previous findings in the same state where the mean indoor biting rates of *An. marshallii* complex peaked in September $(26.6 \text{ b}/p/n)$ with an earlier smaller peak in November 2020 (23.9 b/p/n) and December 2020 (10.1 b/p/n) indicating that *An. marshallii* complex preponderance occur more during the drier seasons (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2021).

Early evening bites by *Anopheles* mosquitoes were on the rise particularly outdoors in Akwa Ibom, where samples have been identified as *An. marshallii.* Teshome *et al (*2021) working in Ethiopia established that *An. pharoensis* contributed exclusively to outdoor transmission whereas malaria transmission by *An. arabiensis* occurred both indoors and outdoors. This has highlighted the need for screening secondary vectors like *An. marshallii* for sporozoites which were mainly found outdoors. Residual malaria transmission due to early evening and outdoor biting vectors could pose a challenge to malaria control and/or elimination efforts. Additional control tools targeting early evening and outdoor biting malaria vectors are required to complement the current control interventions to control residual transmission.

3.2.1 HUMAN EXPOSURE TO MOSQUITO BITES IN KEBBI AND SOKOTO

Estimates from the human behavior data and biting rates indicated variabilities in time and place of exposure to mosquito bites in Kebbi and Sokoto. Most human exposure in Kebbi occurs indoors in the middle of night (11 p.m.-6 a.m.) and primarily due to people being in bed not using nets at the time when most biting activities occur indoors. In Sokoto, most human exposure occurred indoors during the early evening hours (before 10 p.m.) when most people are not protected under nets. This can inform the remedial measures needed in the two settings. In Kebbi, the high proportion of exposure occurring indoors during bedtime in the middle of the night can primarily be prevented with effective social behavior and communications to inform the community on the importance of using nets throughout the night. In Kebbi, where the highest proportion of exposure occurs before bedtime, supplemental preventive measures such as repellents may be needed to protect the communities from mosquito bites in the early evening. The estimated gap in protection, 83% in Kebbi and 62% in Sokoto, can be considered as high and needs attention by control programs.

3.3 SPOROZOITE INFECTION RATE

Plasmodium falciparum sporozoite rates of *An. gambiae* were recorded indoors in Ebonyi and Plateau only (2.2% and 1.8% respectively) for mosquitoes collected using CDC LTs. This is lower than what was reported in the previous year in Oyo (11.1%) and Plateau (2.2%) (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2021).

Incidentally, there was no sporozoite positivity recorded in *An. coluzzii* and *An. arabiensis* both indoors and outdoors across the various ecozones. This does not reflect a low vectoral capacity but could be due to fewer numbers or no infected mosquitoes drawn during the sampling of mosquitoes for the test assays. Previous reports from the different sites have confirmed *An. gambiae*, *An. coluzzii,* and *An. arabiensis* as vectors of malaria in Nigeria (PMI VectorLink Nigeria Annual Entomology Report 2019, 2020, and 2021). *Anopheles gambiae* s.s. and *An. coluzzii* are both efficient transmitters of *P. falciparum*. Compared to 2021, where *An. gambiae* (from Oyo and Plateau) and *An. coluzzii* (from Ebonyi, Oyo, Plateau, and Sokoto) tested positive for sporozoites, only *An. gambiae* s.s*.* collected indoors in this reporting period in Ebonyi and Plateau were positive for *P. falciparum.* Similarly diverging from last year's results (where infection rates in *An. coluzzii* indoors ranged from 0.7% in Sokoto to 3.7% in Plateau and an infection rate of 6.7% was recorded outdoors only in Oyo), *An. coluzzii* analyzed this year were not found to be positive for sporozoites*.* Mosquitoes collected using PSCs had more positive samples compared to the other species and collection methods. In 2019, sporozoites in *An. arabiensis* outdoors were recorded in Nasarawa (2.9%), Plateau (2.2%), and Sokoto (0.9%), while in 2021 and 2022, no sporozoite infection was recorded among *An. arabiensis* in any other sites (PMI VectorLink Nigeria Annul Entomology Report 2019; 2020 and 2021). The lack of sporozoite infection rate among *An. arabiensis* could be due to the small sample size analyzed.

The highest *P. falciparum* sporozoite rates in *An. funestus* s.s. collected indoors using CDC LTs was recorded outdoors in Oyo (3.4%) followed by Plateau indoors (1.6%). No other members of *An. funestus* group tested positive for *Plasmodium* sporozoites. This agrees with our previous finding where *An. funestus* was recorded indoors (2.6%) and outdoors (6.0%) in Oyo as well as indoors (2.8%) in Plateau (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2021). Positivity for *P. falciparum* circumsporozoites among *An. funestus* s.s. collected indoors and outdoors further establishes its role as a major malaria vector. Though *An. funestus* is less studied in Nigeria compared to *An*. *gambiae* s.l., its role in malaria transmission has been reported (Awolola *et al*., 2003). *Anopheles marshallii* complex mosquitoes caught using CDC LT methods were screened for *P. falciparum* circumsporozoite antigens in Akwa Ibom and no sporozoite infection was recorded. This contrasts with our previous report from the same area which shows that 0.6% sporozoite infection was recorded in *An. marshallii* mosquitoes last year (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2021). Given their high densities and endophily equivalent to primary vectors and the previous incrimination with *Plasmodium* sporozoites, *An. marshallii* may contribute to malaria transmission in Akwa Ibom. Further morphological and molecular identification studies towards further characterization of this species is recommended. Continued monitoring is essential for understanding their temporal contributions to malaria transmission in the area.

3.4 ENTOMOLOGICAL INOCULATION RATE

EIRs were recorded indoors in two of the five sites among *An. gambiae* s.s., with the highest indoor EIR contribution recorded in *An. gambiae* from Ebonyi (12.1 infective bites/person/year) followed by Plateau (10.9 infective bites/person/year), and in *An. coluzzii* in Kebbi (5.8 infective bites/person/year). Outdoor EIR was recorded for *An. coluzzii* in Kebbi at 6.6 infective bites/person/year. There were no infective bites recorded among *An. arabiensis* (indoors or outdoors) across the sites, which is consistent with the previous year's report (PMI Vector Link Annual Entomology Report 2021).

EIRs were recorded for *An. funestus* s.s. in Oyo and Plateau with the highest EIR recorded outdoors in Oyo (9.5 infective bites/person/year), followed by indoors EIR in Plateau (5.2 infective bites/person/year). This agrees with our earlier findings that the highest EIR among *An. funestus* was recorded outdoors in Oyo (31.7 infective bites/person/year), followed by the indoor EIR also in Oyo (14.1 infective bites/person/year) (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2021). The EIR in this current report and the previous year confirms the role of major vectors *An. gambiae* s.s., *An. coluzzii*, *An. arabiensis,* and *An. funestus* in malaria transmission in Nigeria. However, interpretation of the trends must be done with caution given the limited samples analyzed. The lack of EIR in a particular year or a particular species does not necessarily mean the vector species is inactive; the samples randomly selected for analysis simply may not have been infected.

3.5 BLOOD MEAL SOURCES

The blood meal analysis indicates that *An. gambiae* s.s.*, An. coluzzii,* and *An. arabiensis* collected using CDC LTs and PSCs varied in their preference for human blood meal. However, samples collected from PSC provided a adequate sampling of blood fed mosquitoes to be analyzed when compared to mosquitoes from CDC LT. The outcome of this analysis clearly demonstrated that a significant proportion of the major vectors had ready access to human blood meal and is consistent with previous reports (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2019; 2020; and 2021). The co-occurrence of *An. gambiae* s.s., *An. coluzzii,* and *An. arabiens*is with preference for human blood meal further attest to behavior which makes them important malaria transmitters. An understanding of the feeding behavior of these vectors will ensure proper planning and consideration of all factors that may potentiate malaria risks. Caution should be exercised in interpreting the blood meal preferences of mosquitoes collected from CDC LTs, as only few blood-fed mosquitoes collected in CDC LTs were analyzed. Overall, despite the zoophilic nature of *An. arabiensis,* a significantly higher number of human blood meals (p<0.0001) followed by goat blood meal sources were detected. This agrees with the findings of Ogola *et al.,* (2017) from Kenya, which found a higher proportion of human blood meals among both *An. arabiensis* and *An. funestus* collected indoors. Generally, the prevalence of animal blood meal in human dwellings indicates that livestock live near humans. This can support higher malaria transmission by attracting infected mosquitoes to human habitations (Iwashita *et al.,* 2014). Among the blood fed mosquitoes identified as *An. marshallii,* the majority (90.4% by PSC) were positive for human blood, indicating a possible preference for human blood over animal blood, though bovine (3.4%) and goat (6.2%) blood meals were also present amongst the samples. None of the *An. marshallii* complex mosquitoes caught using ;CDC LT tested positive for any blood meal.

3.6 INSECTICIDE SUSCEPTIBILITY

Resistance to the three pyrethroids tested varied according to type of pyrethroid. Pyrethroid resistance patterns also varied within and among the states and across different ecozones. This is consistent with a known trend across most African countries (Soumaila *et al.,* 2022). Recent global reports of countries that reported insecticide resistance monitoring data to the WHO further indicated that pyrethroid resistance was detected in at least one malaria vector in 87% of countries and to organophosphates in 60% (World Malaria Report 2022).

Compared with deltamethrin, full susceptibility to alpha-cypermethrin was recorded across *An. gambiae* s.l. populations from all LGAs in seven states (Bayelsa, Benue, Cross River, FCT, Oyo, Sokoto, and Zamfara). Four states (Benue, Cross River, Oyo, and Zamfara) recorded full susceptibility to deltamethrin across all LGAs tested.

Limited areas have recorded susceptibility to permethrin in Bayelsa (2/3 LGAs), Kaduna (1/6 LGAs), and Sokoto (4/6 LGAs). This is consistent with results previously reported in the last three years. Similar findings have recently been recorded in neighboring countries such as Niger (Soumaila *et al.,* 2022). The factors responsible for continued susceptibility to permethrin amidst widespread resistance require further investigation. Permethrin-only ITNs are not recommended due to the widespread and intense resistance in Nigeria.

The insecticide resistance data here show that *An. gambiae* mosquitoes react differently to different classes of insecticides and emphasize the importance of consistently monitoring the susceptibility status of these mosquitoes across ecozones. These results suggest possible use of alpha-cypermethrin and deltamethrin, especially for treating ITNs, under an insecticide resistance management plan in areas where the vector is susceptible to these insecticides. In areas where full susceptibility to deltamethrin or alpha-cypermethrin plus PBO is found, nets treated with the dual active ingredients should be considered.

Complete susceptibility to pirimiphos-methyl was recorded across all LGAs recorded in 13 states. This agrees with findings from WHO (2022) which reported low resistance of local *Anopheles* mosquitoes to pirimiphosmethyl compared to pyrethroids in most countries.

3.7 RESISTANCE INTENSITY

Although the WHO (2022) reported that high intensity to pyrethroids has been detected in western Africa more frequently than other regions of the world, during the period of this report, moderate resistance was not recorded in both alpha-cypermethrin and deltamethrin. The intensity assays should also be considered in determining the degree of pyrethroid resistance present in the *Anopheles* population. Resistance at operationally significant doses of 5X and 10X discriminating concentrations were recorded from the intensity bioassays with permethrin only. These results indicate that the increasing resistance intensity being selected in field populations of mosquitoes will reduce the efficacy of pyrethroid-based interventions. Insecticide resistance intensity recorded in *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes across the different ecozones reveals that different resistance management options are needed.

3.8 SYNERGIST ASSAYS

Pre-exposure to PBO substantially increased susceptibility with increases in mortality for alpha-cypermethrin, deltamethrin, and permethrin tested. This indicated the impact of PBO in significantly increasing *An. gambiae* s.l. mortality for the three pyrethroids tested across all sites. The exception was in Plateau, where PBO did not restore susceptibility to any of the pyrethroids in any LGA. This finding showed the presence of P450 enzymes as the predominant resistance mechanism across most of the sites. Similar results have been recorded across 35 countries and 364 sites according to the WHO (2022). Overall findings indicated significantly higher mosquito mortality against alpha-cypermethrin and deltamethrin after pre-exposure to PBO across most ecozones. Mortality to permethrin was however recorded in the rainforest area of Ebonyi and Enugu and Sokoto in the Sahel. This trend could support the choice of alpha-cypermethrin or deltamethrin-based PBO ITNs to be prioritized in many of the sites. The use of PBO ITNs with deltamethrin or alpha-cypermethrinbased combination have shown high performance particularly in western African countries where vector populations are highly resistant to pyrethroids (Kouassi *et al*., 2020; Soumaila *et al.,* 2022).

3.9 DETERMINATION OF SUSCEPTIBILITY STATUS OF *AN. GAMBIAE* S.L. TO CHLORFENAPYR

Anopheles gambiae s.l. mosquitoes were susceptible (98-100% mortality) to chlorfenapyr at 72 hours across all LGAs at the dose of 100 μ g/bottles. This confirms the suitability of chlorfenapyr as an option for controlling highly pyrethroid-resistant vectors (Oxborough *et al.,* 2021). Higher mortality of mosquitoes could be observed using chlorfenapyr, particularly in areas where insecticide detoxification was the main resistance mechanism, suggesting that ITNs with chlorfenapyr may be appropriate in Plateau, which is located in the Guinea savannah ecozone (Kouassi *et al*., 2020).

3.10 DETERMINATION OF SUSCEPTIBILITY STATUS OF *AN. GAMBIAE* S.L. TO CLOTHIANIDIN

The percentage knockdown of *An. gambiae* s.l. mosquitoes after 30 and 60 minutes of exposure to clothianidin varied across the sites using the CDC bottle bioassay method. Complete susceptibility after the 24-hour holding period was recorded across all sites except three, where possible resistance of 94-96% was recorded. In Nasarawa, suspected resistance of 91-97% was recorded in 5/6 LGAs and 82% in one of the LGAs. Four of six LGAs in Akwa Ibom (Abak, Itu, Mkpat Enin, and Onna) recorded mortality rates ranging from 94-97% while one LGA in the FCT recorded a mortality rate of 94%. Further investigation is required in the LGAs of concern.

3.11 *KDR* GENE FREQUENCIES

Assessing the *kdr* mutations, an important mechanism associated with pyrethroid resistant *An. gambiae* s.l., indicated the presence of both *kdr-w* (1014F) and *kdr-e* (1014S) point mutations in alpha-cypermethrin, deltamethrin, and permethrin tested mosquitoes across the sites. This is in contrast with our findings in the ecological zones in previous years (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2020; 2021). This, however, is in consonance with previous findings in the same locations three years earlier where both *kdr-w* and *kdr-e* point mutations were present (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2019). Where metabolic resistance is ruled out, mutations in the target sites of insecticides are often involved. Though it is not evident that the presence of this resistance allele alone is sufficient to result in control failure, the *kdr-w* allelic frequencies in mosquitoes resistant to alpha-cypermethrin, deltamethrin, and permethrin increased this year compared to last year (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report 2021). There is need for continued monitoring of the spread and gene frequencies of these mutations in *An. gambiae* s.l. populations. Analysis of the dynamics and trends over time may indicate the presence of selection pressure among the mosquito population.

In addition to the phenotypic resistance found in this study, more information is provided on the frequency and distribution of physiological resistance mechanisms such as the *kdr-w* mutation, which is one of the most important mechanisms for pyrethroid resistance. The significance of this finding this year is the identification of the *kdr-w* and *kdr-e* alleles in *An. arabiensis* in Nigeria, in addition to *An. coluzzii* and *An. gambiae* s.s., previously reported. This is in contrast with our earlier findings in the past three years across the various ecological zones where *kdr-w* and *kdr-e* were not detected in *An. arabiensis* (PMI VectorLink Annual Entomology Report, 2019; 2020; and 2021). This finding is in agreement with previous reports from several other African countries that indicated the widespread of *kdr-w* mutations in the three major vector species of the *An. gambiae* complex. Increased selection pressure due to the increased pyrethroid ITN coverage over time as well as the culture of using pyrethroid insecticides for crop protection in agriculture, in combination, or alone might have been sufficient to drive *kdr-w* mutations to the high frequencies in *An. gambiae* s.l. Previous findings elsewhere indicated that large-scale countrywide distribution of ITNs led to an increased frequency of *kdr-w* mutations in Niger (Czeher *et al.,* 2008). Use of pyrethroids at the household level and in small vegetable cultivation has also been reported to drive the *kdr* mutation to a higher frequency in Mali (Fanello *et al.,* 2003).

This study also demonstrated that multiple insecticide-resistance mechanisms have evolved in *An. gambiae* s.l. in Nigeria. The extent and variety of phenotypic resistance and the physiological mechanisms associated with it, serve as a 'wake-up call' for ongoing support of evidenced-based decision making in programming involving insecticide-based malaria control efforts. Findings in this study highlight the need for routine resistance monitoring to update the information base for rational deployment of the existing tools for effective vector control in Nigeria. It is noteworthy that the implications and operational impact of resistance to malaria control efforts needs to be evaluated urgently. There is need for appropriate and correct vector control strategies to be put in place in a context of insecticide resistance management. Additionally, innovative vector control tools that include new active ingredients for ITNs might be needed to complement or replace the existing strategies in areas of pyrethroid resistance.

ANNEX 1: GPS COORDINATES OF LONGITUDINAL SAMPLING SITE **LOCATIONS**

ANNEX 2: *ANOPHELES* MOSQUITOES COLLECTED BY DIFFERENT METHODS AND SUBJECTED TO PCR ACROSS SITES (OCTOBER 2021- SEPTEMBER 2022)

ANNEX 3: *ANOPHELES* CAUGHT BY SPECIES, METHOD, AND SITE (OCTOBER 2021-SEPTEMBER 2022)

In=Indoor CDC Light Trap, Out=Outdoor CDC Light Trap, PSC=Pyrethrum Spray Catch

ANNEX 4: PCR IDENTIFICATION OF MEMBERS OF THE *AN. GAMBIAE* COMPLEX

ANNEX 5: PCR IDENTIFICATION OF MEMBERS OF THE *AN. FUNESTUS* COMPLEX

ANNEX 6: INDOOR RESTING DENSITY OF *ANOPHELES* BY SITE

ANNEX 7: INDOOR AND OUTDOOR ENTOMOLOGICAL INOCULATION RATES BY SITE

ANNEX 8: ANNUAL EIR FOR ALL SENTINEL SITES

ANNEX 9: INDOOR AND OUTDOOR ENTOMOLOGICAL INOCULATION RATES BY SITE FOR *AN. FUNESTUS* S.S.

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