scientific reports

OPEN

Check for updates

Life expectancy of Anopheles funestus is double that of Anopheles arabiensis in southeast Tanzania based on mark-release-recapture method

Watson Ntabaliba^{1⊠}, Laura Vavassori^{2,3}, Caleb Stica⁴, Noel Makungwa¹, Olukayode G. Odufuwa^{1,2,3,5}, Johnson Kyeba Swai^{1,2,3}, Ruth Lekundayo¹ & Sarah Moore^{1,2,3,6}

Anopheles arabiensis and Anopheles funestus sensu stricto mosquitoes are major East African malaria vectors. Understanding their dispersal and population structure is critical for developing effective malaria control tools. Three mark-release-recapture (MRR) experiments were conducted for 51 nights to assess daily survival and flight range of *An. arabiensis* and *An. funestus* mosquitoes in south-eastern, Tanzania. Mosquitoes were marked with a fluorescent dye as they emerged from breeding sites via a self-marking device. Mosquitoes were collected indoors and outdoors using human landing catches (HLC) and Centers for Disease Control and Prevention light traps (CDC-LT). In total, 4210 *An. arabiensis* and *An. funestus* were collected with 316 (7.5%) marked and recaptured (MR). Daily mean MR was 6.8, standard deviation (SD \pm 7.6) for *An. arabiensis* and 8.9 (SD \pm 8.3) for *An. funestus*. Probability of daily survival was 0.76 for *An. arabiensis* and 0.86 for *An. funestus*. Dispersal distance was 654 m for *An. arabiensis* and 510 m for *An. funestus*. An. *funestus* life expectancy was substantially longer than that of *An. arabiensis*. The MRR method described here could be routinely utilized when evaluating the impact of new vector control tools on mosquito survival.

Mainland Tanzania has been classified by World Health Organization (WHO) as a country with high malaria burden that requires targeted application of malaria control tools¹. Both malaria cases and malaria deaths have increased in recent years due to population growth², insufficient coverage of vector control tools³ and to some extent the increase of malaria vector resistance to insecticides used in vector control⁴. Malaria transmission is highly heterogeneous⁵ due to geographical differences including altitude, urbanization and vegetation⁶. For these reasons, the country has stratified malaria control deploying tools based on the intensity of malaria transmission⁷ as a response to the WHO high burden to high impact (HBHI) strategy⁸. Much of the finer scale (district) differences in malaria transmission intensity is attributable to the vector species composition in that area. To maximize resources, the deployment of malaria vector control needs to be targeted against those vectors that transmit most of the disease.

In south-eastern Tanzania, malaria transmission is mediated by *Anopheles funestus* sensu stricto and *Anopheles arabiensis* that differ markedly in their vectoral capacity⁹. *An. funestus* feeds on humans primarily indoors and late at night¹⁰ while *An. arabiensis* feeds on humans and cattle indoors or outdoors¹¹. These differences in ecology result in different man-vector contact that to some extent explains their differing vectoral capacity¹².

Adult survival is a critical component of vectoral capacity because adult females must survive the extrinsic incubation period of *Plasmodium* before they can transmit pathogens^{13,14}. Vector control tools reduce mosquito

¹Vector Control Product Testing Unit (VCPTU), Ifakara Health Institute, Environmental Health, and Ecological Sciences, P.O. Box 74, Bagamoyo, Tanzania. ²Vector Biology Unit, Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, Swiss Tropical and Public Health Institute, Kreuzstrasse 2, 4123 Allschwil, Switzerland. ³University of Basel, Petersplatz 1, 4001 Basel, Switzerland. ⁴Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, Australia. ⁵MRC International Statistics and Epidemiology Group, Faculty of Epidemiology and Population Health London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London, UK. ⁶Nelson Mandela African Institute of Science and Technology, Tengeru, Arusha, Tanzania. SMemail: wntabaliba@ihi.or.tz

infectivity rate¹⁵, density and daily survival, with the later having the greatest impact on malaria transmission^{16,17}. In addition, the use of insecticides may also disproportionally increase mortality among older mosquitoes and can partially reduce the impact of insecticide resistance¹⁸. Other than old age, several other factors such as disease, predation or environmental factors contribute to mosquito mortality¹⁹. Therefore, it can be argued that vector population age structure is a more valid metric²⁰ than mosquito density as an outcome in entomological trials of vector control tools, as has been elegantly demonstrated in early trials of Insecticide Treated Nets (ITNs)²¹.

Dispersal of *Anopheles* mosquito range between few meters to several kilometres depending on resource availability i.e. larval habitats, sugar and blood hosts²² and species-specific environmental adaptability²³. The range has been demonstrated to be bigger in rural areas, with relatively higher mobility compared to urban areas²⁴. Laboratory-reared *Anopheles* have been found to disperse more than wild mosquitoes, possibly due to the presence of a memorised home range²⁵. *Anopheles* mosquitoes actively disperse only or primarily during part of their gonotrophic cycle²⁶. This is epidemiologically important as it influences the extent of malaria parasite acquisition and distribution that leads to transmission by female mosquitoes.

Mosquito population parameters can be estimated through a number of morphological, biochemical, genetic and spectroscopic methods, each of which has limitations in reliability, specificity, validation, and requires high cost or the need for an expert's technical ability²⁷. MRR is a technique where mosquitoes collected in the wild or reared in the laboratory, are marked, released then recaptured at a given distance and time interval from the releasing point^{28–30}. MRR is an effective and low cost means of investigating adult mosquito dispersal and survivorship that can be utilized in most settings and has been evaluated against multiple species³¹. MRR experiments include a single mark and release of mosquitoes, followed by one or repeated recaptures³².

This study investigated the survival and dispersal capabilities of *An. arabiensis* and *An. funestus* in Ikungua village by marking mosquitoes as they emerged from their breeding sites³³. Using mosquitoes as they emerge means that the technique is more reflective of natural dispersal and ethically less challenging as additional mosquitoes are not introduced and wild mosquitoes from the environment are recaptured. This data is needed to inform mathematical models used to optimize the selection of malaria control tools⁷. Furthermore, knowledge of survival and dispersal of malaria vectors is critical for planning, evaluating and implementing new tools which are intended to interrupt the pathogen's transmission³⁴.

Results

Mosquito release

A total of 4210 mosquitoes (both *An. arabiensis* and An. *funestus*) were marked and released into the wild mosquito population (with correction factor of 86% marking efficiency³³), over three separate releases and 17 days follow up for each release.

Mosquito recapture

A total of 13,359 (*An. arabiensis* and *An. funestus*) marked and unmarked mosquitoes were collected and morphologically identified as *An. gambiae s.l.* (7260) and *An. funestus* s.l. (6099). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) showed all the *An. gambiae* s.l. tested to be *An. arabiensis* (50/50 succesful amplifications). Furthermore, for *An. funestus* group, 92% (46/50 successful amplifications) showed to be *An. funestus* s.s whilst 8% (4/50) of the samples did not amplify. Recapture rate was 3% (n = 138) and 4% (n = 178) with a daily average of 6.8 (SD \pm 7.6) for *An. arabiensis* and 9 (SD \pm 8) for *An. Funestus*, respectively. Daily recapture declined over time from 16 (5.3%) on the first day to 1 (0.3%) on the 15th day after each release. There were few recaptured male mosquitoes, 12 *An. gambiae* s.l. and 4 *An. funestus* s.l. because we used recapture methods that targeted host seeking female mosquitoes. Males were excluded from the analysis.

Daily survival probability

The daily survival probability was 0.76 for *An. arabiensis* and 0.86 for *An. funestus* which equates to a life expectancy of 3.64 and 6.51 days, respectively (Fig. 1).

Average dispersal distance

The average dispersal distance of marked mosquitoes was 654 m (95% CI 543–763) for *An. arabiensis* and 510 m (95% CI 450–570) metres for *An. funestus*. The probability of capturing a marked mosquito declined over distance (Table 1). The majority (95.6%) of *An. arabiensis* and a lower proportion (75.8%) of *An. funestus* were recaptured within 500 m of the releasing point. Fewer mosquitoes were recaptured in the third annulus compared to the fourth annulus; 0.7% versus 3.6% for *An. arabiensis* and 2.2% versus 21.9% for *An. funestus*. There was a similarity between maximum recapture for *An. arabiensis* (20.5%) and *An. funestus* (20.0%) at 6 days after mosquito release, while the rate dropped dramatically from day 7 to 15 with 1.6% *An. arabiensis* and 6.4% *An. funestus* recaptured (Fig. 2).

Estimates of population size

Population size for *An. arabiensis* was estimated as 101,886 mosquitoes while that of *An. funestus* was estimated as 78,991 mosquitoes. There were approximately 443 *An. arabiensis* and 343 *An. funestus* per hectare of the study area.



Figure 1. Probability of survival trends for An. arabiensis (a) and An. funestus (b) over a period of 2 weeks. Overall, for both species' survival reduced over time but, An. funestus seemed to live longer than An. arabiensis since recapture of marked and released mosquitoes extended beyond the 15th day.

Annulus	Distance from release (m)	An. Arabiensis n (%)	An. Funestus n (%)
1st	215	78 (56.5)	71 (39.9)
2nd	430	54 (39.1)	64 (35.9)

1 (0.7)

5 (3.6)

138 (100)

Table 1.	Number of An.	arabiensis and A	n. funestus	recaptured b	y distance	from the	e release poi	nt in Ikun	gua
village.			-	-			-		

4 (0.02)

39 (21.9)

178 (100)

Discussion

3rd

4th

Total

645

860

This study was designed to investigate the mobility and life expectancy of two major malaria vector populations in south-eastern, Tanzania. Mosquito longevity is a critical aspect in transmission of Plasmodium falciparum that requires > 12 days to be infective¹⁷. The longer lifespan of An. funestus may have therefore contributed to its relative efficiency as a vector compared to An. arabiensis despite its comparatively low abundance. More focused attention is needed on the control of An. funestus due to its efficiency in transmitting malaria³⁵.

Survival

Data from this study demonstrates that An. funestus survives longer, and has a 10% higher daily survival probability than An. arabiensis. These findings corroborate with earlier studies done in the Kilombero valley^{36,37} as well as other studies from Tanzania³⁸ and West Africa³⁹ that reported An. funestus having higher survival rates and lower mortality than An. arabiensis. This higher survival may be as a result of its adaptation to readily available human hosts and reported resistance^{9,35,40} against pyrethroid insecticides used in ITNs implemented for malaria control in this area⁴¹. These adaptations (endophily and anthrophily), also make it extremely vulnerable to control with core tools using insecticides to which An. funestus is susceptible. It should be noted that An. arabiensis in the region are also highly pyrethroid-resistant⁴². However, An. funestus has been shown to be more efficient in malaria transmission than An. arabiensis which may be related to differences in resistance or behaviour³⁵ whereas laboratory studies have reported similar survivorship for An. arabiensis^{43,44} and An. funestus⁴³ under a standard culturing environment.

Although, the estimated survival probability of An. funestus in this study (0.84) is 2% lower than the study conducted in the same area in the 1990's $(0.86)^{36}$ given the higher coverage (> 50%) of ITNs⁴⁵ and other insecticide-based interventions than in the previous years, we hypothesize that pyrethroid resistance may be the reason for the maintained life expectancy of the species.





Changes in mosquito population survival may also be evaluated through dissecting the ovaries⁴⁶ to measure the number of gonotrophic cycles that mosquitoes have undergone⁴⁷ or the proportion of the proportion that have ever laid eggs⁴⁸. The Detinova dissection technique is straightforward but requires dedicated technical staff, but very few people are skilled enough to routinely carry out the Polovodova technique⁴⁹. Other age grading techniques include mid infra-red spectroscopy⁵⁰, near-infra red spectroscopy⁵¹ as well as molecular methods such as transcription methods⁵². However, these more recent methods are still in development and are not used routinely⁵³.

Dispersal

The dispersal distance of *An. arabiensis* and *An. funestus* was determined by measuring the distance travelled between the releasing point and the recapture house. *An. arabiensis* was found to have a similar dispersal distance to *An. funestus*. Similarly, Saddler et al.³³ using the same MRR method, found the mean dispersal distance of *An. arabiensis* in Bagamoyo to be 579 m (95% CI 521–636), which is similar to that obtained for *An. arabiensis* in the current study. However, other researchers have reported higher dispersal distances. Wada et al. recorded individual mosquitoes travelled 5100 m within a day of being released⁵⁴. Thompson et al.²⁴ recorded *An. gambiae* up to 1400 m from the releasing site. But, Midega et al. found no difference in the mean dispersal distance between *An. funestus* and *An. arabiensis* along the Kenyan coast⁵⁵.

Differences in dispersal distances may be due to varying geographical terrains⁵⁶, density and location of human hosts, availability of sugar sources, oviposition, breeding and resting sites²² as well as environmental factors like prevailing wind direction, humidity and temperature⁵⁵. During the course of the study, one of the

houses located in the 4th annulus registered an unlikely large number of recaptured *An. funestus* (17.4%). Further, investigations showed that the house was close to a seasonal breeding site and had twice (6 members) the average number of people compared to the other households (2.8 members). There is existing evidence supporting the occurrence of higher densities of malaria vectors in households located near breeding sites⁵⁷ and in those with higher number of individuals due to increased levels of carbon dioxide, a long range attractant of host-seeking mosquitoes from the presence of more residents^{58,59}.

In the current study, females of both species (*An. arabiensis* and *An. funestus*) dispersed and recaptured at the furthest house were found 860 m from releasing site in the fourth annulus, but only a small proportion of mosquitoes (12.3%) reached this distance. Additional studies are needed with sampling more evenly distributed mosquitoes and carried out throughout the year to better understand the drivers of dispersal including population biomass and location of breeding sites in the study sites.

Release

Most MRR studies, mark adult mosquitoes that have been collected from the local area and release them at a central point³¹. The abundance of mosquitoes in MRR experiments is likely to be higher in houses close to the releasing point as found in our study because of the short distance between the houses and the releasing point.

In earlier investigations in Kikulukutu village, south-eastern, Tanzania⁶⁰, adults of unknown age who have probably completed part of their gonotrophic cycle were released. When comparing aging mosquitoes captured and released in some studies⁶⁰, results suggest the use of younger mosquitoes (pupa and larvae) as they are more likely to survive longer which increases the chance of them being recaptured⁶¹. Use of young mosquitoes of a known age also allows determination of mosquito life span.

Recapture

Most marked mosquitoes were recaptured in neighbouring houses several hours later after being released. The house closest to the releasing site which was 130 m away, had more *An. funestus* recaptured compared to *An. arabiensis*. This could be due to anthropophilic and endophilic nature of *An. funestus*⁶². Although widely used, MRR experiments are often limited by recapture rates below 5% of those released^{60,63}. The overall recapture rate of 7.5% observed in the current study is double the average, 3% (1–9.5%) reported in the literature for *Anopheles*³¹. Fewer houses were located in the third annulus may explain why fewer mosquitoes were recaptured in the third annulus relative to the fourth annulus. Typically, more recaptures were made near the release point (first annuli) for both species and decreased as one moves further away from the releasing point. Therefore, greater sampling effort is required at greater distance from the releasing point.

The limitations to this study were refusal of some households to allow mosquito collections, resulting in unequal distribution of houses in each annulus. This was minimized by standardizing the study regions to accommodate all four annuli. Also, to simulate the natural environment, the release point was close to the natural breeding site located on the village periphery rather than centre in the study area. We did not collect data on the biomass in all houses or the location of all breeding sites in the village. A more comprehensive mapping effort at the beginning of the study would have allowed us to better understand mosquito dispersal. Another limitation was failure to get resistance profile of the two-mosquito species from the study area during the study however *An. Arabiensis* has been shown to be resistant to pyrethroid⁴².

In further studies of MRR the use of indoor resting collections and mosquito abdominal status is recommended to measure if the dyes affect the ability of mosquitoes to feed. The validity of the MRR method rests on the assumption that marked individuals behave in every respect as the unmarked ones (wild), and that both marked and unmarked mix together in a homogenous, random way. MRR includes marking mosquitoes with a fluorescent dye, a procedure that has been reported by many investigators to not affect the survival and dispersal behaviour of mosquitoes provided it is applied correctly⁶⁴. The marking method was investigated during the development of the MRR method used here and found not to affect survival³³ but it is not known if it can affect flight or predator response to marked insects.

Conclusion

MRR used as mosquitoes emerge from breeding sites is a simple and cost-effective method for measuring the dispersal and survival of mosquitoes. It can be deployed as part of routine entomological collections when evaluating vector control tools with active ingredients that that are designed to overcome resistance to existing classes of insecticides and consequently reduce mosquito population life expectancy when deployed at scale. This study has demonstrated that *An. funestus* has a substantially longer life expectancy than *An. arabiensis* in this setting, which may partially explain the greater efficiency of *An. funestus* in malaria transmission.

Methods

Study area

Three experimental phases of MRR survey were performed during the study, which was conducted at the end of the rainy season between September and October 2020 in Ikungua village in South-eastern, Tanzania⁶⁵. The village had 347 houses and 984 inhabitants over 36 hectares. The village is surrounded by forests, water bodies, and agricultural areas. The temperature ranged from 23 to 32 °C during the study and the annual rainfall ranges from 1200 to 1800 ml. Residents are subsistence farmers, growing bananas and millet in the hillsides whilst growing rice in the valleys through an irrigation system, which provides breeding sites for malaria vectors. *An. gambiae* s.s populations have significantly declined in the study area³⁵ leaving *An. arabiensis* and *An. funestus* as the main vectors with *An. funestus* mediating majority of the infections even though it is present in lower densities than *An. arabiensis*⁹. House structures in the village allow indoor entry through opened eaves, mud

walls, thatch roofs, and doors not covering the whole entrance as well as windows⁶⁶. National malaria control is implemented through Insecticide Treated Nets (ITNs) in the study area. Although, a field study of an indoor residual spray product was implemented in the villages shortly (about 1 year) before the study.

Mosquito preparation

Wild *An. arabiensis* and *An. funestus* pupae and larvae stage 2–4 were collected from multiple natural breeding ponds and puddles located within a one thousand meters radius from the releasing point using a larval dipper and one-millimetre bulb pipette. The colony was maintained in a field laboratory with 300 larvae per bowl reared at 25 ± 7 °C temperature and 40–99% relative humidity. These pupae and stage 4 larvae were maintained in a plastic bowl with some water and placed underneath the marking trap near a shelter in releasing area. After emergence, adult mosquitoes on their first flight out to seek for food and mate pass through pigment impregnated onto cloth strips where they would be marked with dye pigments.

Each release was conducted for 5 days consecutively with daily average of 281 pupae/larvae placed under the trap each day at 18:00 h. Recapture was conducted each night of the release and for 12 days after the last release, total 17 nights of recapture. There was then a wash out period of a further 3 days before the next round was conducted. In total, three rounds of MRR were conducted. The total mosquitoes released were: 794 in 1st, 2025 in 2nd, and 1435 in the 3rd release. A single releasing point, close to the mosquitoes' natural breeding site was used for all of the releases (Fig. 3).

Marking unit

A self-marking unit³³ was used to mark *An. arabiensis* and *An. funestus* in the field experiments (Fig. 2). There were five marking grids with a different colour used each day: pink, yellow, blue, orange, and green to distinguish each of the 5 days of release (Wtrcsv, Shenzhen Guang Chen Technology Co., China). The pigments have been shown to not affect mosquito survival³³.

Recapture

Mosquitoes were recaptured from 20 houses located in four distance groups (annuli) from the releasing site; 215, 430, 645, and 860 m. Mosquito collection started on the day of the release and was conducted for 17 consecutive days between 18:00 h and 06:00 h using CDC-LT beside human-occupied bed net⁶⁷ in 14 houses and paired indoor and outdoor HLC conducted by adult male volunteers²⁹ in six houses. Collected mosquitoes were examined morphologically and identified following taxonomic keys⁶⁸ and examined for fluorescent pigment using an ultraviolet light torch (21 LED 395 nm) and 10× dissection microscope (ZEISS industrial metrology, Germany). A total number of 100 mosquitoes, 50 *An. gambiae* s.l. and 50 *An. funestus* s.l. were packed in Eppendorf tubed on silica and taken to the IHI Ifakara laboratory for PCR speciation^{69,70}.

Analysis

Mean distance travelled (MDT), was used to describe the distance travelled by the estimate the dispersal of the released mosquitoes. This method estimates movement of adult mosquitoes against the radius of the experimental area⁷², with the assumption of having different densities of traps in different annuli⁷³. As the area of the annuli increases with greater distance from the release site a correction factor (CF) for each annulus was estimated by dividing the area of the annulus by the sum of the area of all four annuli and multiplying the result by the total



Figure 3. Distribution of mosquito collection houses in four annuli with the dot size point indicating estimated mosquito collected in the house. (a) Presents *An. arabiensis* with red marker. (b) Presents *An. funestus* with blue marker. Base maps were provided by Open source QGIS⁷¹.

number of traps in the specific annuli⁷⁴. Area of each annulus was calculated using half of the distance from the releasing site as the radius. Then, the number of mosquitoes recaptured in each annulus was divided by the total number of traps in the annuli and multiplied by the correction factor of the annulus to get estimated recapture (ER). Using the ER, cumulative estimated recapture (CER) was calculated. The MDT was then calculated as the sum of the product of ER and radius of the annuli over the total CER.

Survival was estimated with linear regression approach defined by Buonaccorsi et al.⁷⁵ with recaptured mosquitoes adjusted in the model and for the average life expectancy was calculated according to Niebylski and Craig⁷⁶.

Population size was estimated using the Lincoln Index (Eq. 1). The Fisher–Ford and Lincoln Index, are simple methods of estimating population size²⁹ in mark-release experiments. The method assumes that: (1) marked and wild mosquitoes mix homogeneously immediately after release in a random way, (2) random dispersal of the marked and wild population without loss or gain in the population, and (3) there is a constant mortality rate among released mosquitoes. Using this method, estimates of total population size (P) are determined by the numbers of mark-released mosquitoes (*a*), the number captured on the subsequent occasion (*n*), and the number of those recaptured which had been marked (*r*), when *r* is greater than 20. In this study, it was assumed half of the marked-released mosquitoes were *An. arabiensis* and half were *An. funestus*. The analysis was done using R statistical software v4.1.1⁷⁷

$$P = \frac{an}{r} \tag{1}$$

P = Population size, a = Mark-released mosquitoes, n = Total captured mosquitoes, r = Mark-recaptured mosquitoes.

Equation (1) showing population size calculation.

Ethical approval

Ethical approval was granted by the Institutional Review Board of the Ifakara Health Institute (IHI) and Tanzanian National Institute of Medical Research (NIMR) (NIMR/HQ/R.8a/Vol. IX/2894). Written informed consent was obtained from household heads of the twenty houses selected for mosquito collection and from volunteers who performed HLC. The volunteers were provided doxycycline prophylaxis as per Tanzania Ministry of Health guidelines⁷⁸ and were medically supervised⁷⁹. I confirm that the recommended guidelines from the ministry of health were properly followed.

Data availability

Datasets shall be provided based on reasonable requests from the corresponding author.

Received: 23 May 2023; Accepted: 14 September 2023 Published online: 22 September 2023

References

- 1. World Malaria Report 2021. https://www.who.int/teams/global-malaria-programme/reports/world-malaria-report-2021.
- World Population Prospects 2022: Summary of Results. https://www.un.org/development/desa/pd/content/World-Population-Prospects-2022.
- Stuck, L. *et al.* Evaluation of long-lasting insecticidal net distribution through schools in Southern Tanzania. *Health Policy Plan.* 37, 243–254 (2022).
- 4. Bisanzio, D. et al. Modelling insecticide resistance of malaria vector populations in Tanzania. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hygiene 20, tpmd210262 (2022).
- Alegana, V. A. *et al.* Plasmodium falciparum parasite prevalence in East Africa: Updating data for malaria stratification. *PLoS Glob. Public Health* 1, e0000014 (2021).
- 6. Chacky, F. *et al.* Nationwide school malaria parasitaemia survey in public primary schools, the United Republic of Tanzania. *Malar. J.* **17**, 1–16 (2018).
- Runge, M. et al. Sub-national tailoring of malaria interventions in Mainland Tanzania: Simulation of the impact of strata-specific intervention combinations using modelling. Malar. J. 21, 1–17 (2022).
- 8. Organization WH. High Burden to High Impact: A Targeted Malaria Response (World Health Organization, 2018).
- Kaindoa, E. W. et al. Interventions that effectively target Anopheles funestus mosquitoes could significantly improve control of persistent malaria transmission in south-eastern Tanzania. PLoS One 12, e0177807 (2017).
- 10. Kahamba, N. F. *et al.* Using ecological observations to improve malaria control in areas where *Anopheles funestus* is the dominant vector. *Malar. J.* **21**, 1–15 (2022).
- 11. Kreppel, K. *et al.* Emergence of behavioural avoidance strategies of malaria vectors in areas of high LLIN coverage in Tanzania. *Sci. Rep.* **10**, 1–11 (2020).
- Brady, O. J. et al. Modelling adult Aedes aegypti and Aedes albopictus survival at different temperatures in laboratory and field settings. Parasit. Vectors 6, 1–12 (2013).
- 13. Garrett-Jones, C. & Shidrawi, G. Malaria vectorial capacity of a population of *Anopheles gambiae*: An exercise in epidemiological entomology. *Bull. World Health Organ.* **40**, 531 (1969).
- 14. Milby, M. Estimation of vectorial capacity: Vector survivorship. Bull. Soc. Vector Ecol. 14, 47-54 (1989).
- 15. Musiime, A. K. *et al.* Impact of vector control interventions on malaria transmission intensity, outdoor vector biting rates and Anopheles mosquito species composition in Tororo, Uganda. *Malar. J.* **18**, 1–9 (2019).
- Smith, D. L., Musiime, A. K., Maxwell, K., Lindsay, S. W. & Kiware, S. A new test of a theory about old mosquitoes. *Trends Parasitol.* 37, 185–194 (2021).
- 17. Beier, J. C. Malaria parasite development in mosquitoes. Annu. Rev. Entomol. 43, 519-543 (1998).
- 18. Jones, C. M. et al. Aging partially restores the efficacy of malaria vector control in insecticide-resistant populations of Anopheles gambiae sl from Burkina Faso. Malar. J. 11, 1–11 (2012).
- 19. Macdonald, G. The analysis of the sporozoite rate. Trop. Dis. Bull. 20, 49 (1952).

- 20. Davis, E. L., Hollingsworth, T. D., & Keeling, M. J. A novel age-structured mosquito model for assessing the mechanisms behind vector control success (2020).
- 21. Magesa, S. *et al.* Trial of pyrethroid impregnated bednets in an area of Tanzania holoendemic for malaria. Part 2 Effects on the malaria vector population. *Acta Trop.* **49**, 97–108 (1991).
- 22. Wu, S. L. et al. Spatial dynamics of malaria transmission. PLoS Comput. Biol. 19, e1010684 (2023).
- 23. Holmes, C. J. & Benoit, J. B. Biological adaptations associated with dehydration in mosquitoes. Insects 10, 375 (2019).
- 24. Thomson, M. C. et al. Movement of Anopheles gambiae sl malaria vectors between villages in The Gambia. Med. Vet. Entomol. 9, 413-419 (1995).
- Rawlings, P., Curtis, C., Wickramasinghe, M. & Lines, J. The influence of age and season on dispersal and recapture of Anopheles culicifacies in Sri Lanka. Ecol. Entomol. 6, 307–319 (1981).
- 26. Gillies, M. T., & De Meillon, B. The Anophelinae of Africa south of the Sahara (Ethiopian zoogeographical region) (1968).
- Johnson, B. J., Hugo, L. E., Churcher, T. S., Ong, O. T. W. & Devine, G. J. Mosquito age grading and vector-control programmes. Trends Parasitol. 36, 39–51 (2020).
- Benedict, M. Q. et al. Guidance for evaluating the safety of experimental releases of mosquitoes, emphasizing mark-releaserecapture techniques. Vector-Borne Zoonot. Dis. 18, 39–48 (2018).
- 29. Service M, Service M. Sampling the adult resting population. Mosquito Ecol. Field Sampling Methods 20, 210-290 (1993).
- 30. Epopa, P. S. *et al.* The use of sequential mark-release-recapture experiments to estimate population size, survival and dispersal of male mosquitoes of the *Anopheles gambiae* complex in Bana, a west African humid savannah village. *Parasit. Vectors* **10**, 1–15 (2017).
- Guerra, C. A. et al. A global assembly of adult female mosquito mark-release-recapture data to inform the control of mosquitoborne pathogens. Parasit. Vectors 7, 1–15 (2014).
- 32. Jackson, C. The analysis of an animal population. J. Anim. Ecol. 25, 238-246 (1939).
- Saddler, A. *et al.* The development and evaluation of a self-marking unit to estimate malaria vector survival and dispersal distance. *Malar. J.* 18, 1–14 (2019).
- 34. WH Organization. Design of Epidemiological Trials for Vector Control Products: Report of a WHO Expert Advisory Group, Château de Penthes, Geneva, 24–25 April 2017 (World Health Organization, 2017).
- 35. Lwetoijera, D. W. *et al.* Increasing role of *Anopheles funestus* and *Anopheles arabiensis* in malaria transmission in the Kilombero Valley, Tanzania. *Malar. J.* **13**, 1–10 (2014).
- Charlwood, J. et al. Survival and infection probabilities of anthropophagic anophelines from an area of high prevalence of Plasmodium falciparum in humans. Bull. Entomol. Res. 87, 445–453 (1997).
- Charlwood, J., Vij, R. & Billingsley, P. Dry season refugia of malaria-transmitting mosquitoes in a dry savannah zone of east Africa. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 62, 726–732 (2000).
- Lines, J., Lyimo, E. & Curtis, C. Mixing of indoor-and outdoor-resting adults of Anopheles gambiae Giles sl and A. funestus Giles (Diptera: Culicidae) in coastal Tanzania. Bull. Entomol. Res. 76, 171–178 (1986).
- Touré, Y. T. et al. Mark-release-recapture experiments with Anopheles gambiae sl in Banambani Village, Mali, to determine population size and structure. Med. Vet. Entomol. 12, 74–83 (1998).
- 40. Matowo, N. S. *et al.* An increasing role of pyrethroid-resistant *Anopheles funestus* in malaria transmission in the Lake Zone, Tanzania. *Sci. Rep.* **11**, 1–13 (2021).
- 41. NMCP: National Malaria Strategic Plan 2014–2020. Dar es Salaam: Tanzania National Malaria Control Program 2014.
- 42. Matowo, N. S. et al. Fine-scale spatial and temporal heterogeneities in insecticide resistance profiles of the malaria vector, Anopheles arabiensis in rural south-eastern Tanzania. Wellcome Open Res. 2, 25 (2017).
- Zengenene, M. P., Munhenga, G., Chidumwa, G. & Koekemoer, L. L. Characterization of life-history parameters of an Anopheles funestus (Diptera: Culicidae) laboratory strain. J. Vector Ecol. 46, 24–29 (2021).
- 44. Oliver, S. V. & Brooke, B. D. The role of oxidative stress in the longevity and insecticide resistance phenotype of the major malaria vectors Anopheles arabiensis and Anopheles funestus. PLoS ONE 11, e0151049 (2016).
- 45. Yukich, J. et al. Sustaining LLIN coverage with continuous distribution: The school net programme in Tanzania. Malar. J. 19, 1–12 (2020).
- 46. Detinova, T. S., Bertram, D. S., WH Organization. Age-Grouping Methods in Diptera of Medical Importance, with Special Reference to Some Vectors of Malaria (World Health Organization, 1962).
- Polovodova, V. The determination of the physiological age of female Anopheles by the number of gonotrophic cycles completed. *Med. Parazit.* 18, 352–355 (1949).
- Detinova, T. Determination of the physiological age of the females of anopheles by the changes in the tracheal system of the ovaries. Med. Parasitol. 14, 25 (1945).
- 49. Beklemishev, W., Detinova, T. & Polovodova, V. Determination of physiological age in anophelines and of age distribution in anopheline populations in the USSR. *Bull. World Health Organ.* **21**, 223 (1959).
- 50. Siria, D. J. *et al.* Rapid age-grading and species identification of natural mosquitoes for malaria surveillance. *Nat. Commun.* **13**, 1501 (2022).
- 51. Lambert, B. et al. Monitoring the age of mosquito populations using near-infrared spectroscopy. Sci. Rep. 8, 5274 (2018).
- 52. Cook, P. E. *et al.* The use of transcriptional profiles to predict adult mosquito age under field conditions. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **103**, 18060–18065 (2006).
- Johnson, B. J., Hugo, L. E., Churcher, T. S., Ong, O. T. W. & Devine, G. J. Mosquito age grading and vector-control programmes. Trends Parasitol. 20, 25 (2019).
- 54. Wada, Y. et al. Dispersal experiment of Culex tritaeniorhynchus in Nagasaki area (Preliminary report). Trop. Med. 11, 37-44 (1969).
- Midega, J. T. et al. Estimating dispersal and survival of Anopheles gambiae and Anopheles funestus along the Kenyan coast by using mark-release-recapture methods. J. Med. Entomol. 44, 923–929 (2007).
- Manga, L., Fondjo, E., Carnevale, P. & Robert, V. Importance of low dispersion of *Anopheles gambiae* (Diptera: Culicidae) on malaria transmission in hilly towns in south Cameroon. J. Med. Entomol. 30, 936–938 (1993).
- Smith, T., Charlwood, J., Takken, W., Tanner, M. & Spiegelhalter, D. Mapping the densities of malaria vectors within a single village. Acta Trop. 59, 1–18 (1995).
- Gillies, M. The role of carbon dioxide in host-finding by mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae): A review. Bull. Entomol. Res. 70, 525–532 (1980).
- Kaindoa, E. W., Mkandawile, G., Ligamba, G., Kelly-Hope, L. A. & Okumu, F. O. Correlations between household occupancy and malaria vector biting risk in rural Tanzanian villages: Implications for high-resolution spatial targeting of control interventions. *Malar. J.* 15, 1–12 (2016).
- 60. Takken, W., Charlwood, J., Billingsley, P. & Gort, G. Dispersal and survival of *Anopheles funestus* and *A. gambiae* sl (Diptera: Culicidae) during the rainy season in southeast Tanzania. *Bull. Entomol. Res.* 88, 561–566 (1998).
- Harrington, L. C. et al. Analysis of survival of young and old Aedes aegypti (Diptera: Culicidae) from Puerto Rico and Thailand. J. Med. Entomol. 38, 537–547 (2001).
- Soma, D. D. et al. Malaria vectors diversity, insecticide resistance and transmission during the rainy season in peri-urban villages of south-western Burkina Faso. Malar. J. 20, 1–11 (2021).

- 63. Costantini, C. et al. Density, survival and dispersal of Anopheles gambiae complex mosquitoes in a West African Sudan savanna village. Med. Vet. Entomol. 10, 203–219 (1996).
- Reisen, W. K. & Aslamkhan, M. A release—recapture experiment with the malaria vector, Anopheles stephensi Liston, with observations on dispersal, survivorship, population size, gonotrophic rhythm and mating behaviour. Ann. Trop. Med. Parasitol. 73, 251–269 (1979).
- 65. Nambunga, I. H. *et al.* Aquatic habitats of the malaria vector *Anopheles funestus* in rural south-eastern Tanzania. *Malar. J.* **19**, 1–11 (2020).
- Odufuwa, O. G. et al. Household factors associated with access to insecticide-treated nets and house modification in Bagamoyo and Ulanga districts, Tanzania. Malar. J. 19, 1–13 (2020).
- Mboera, L., Kihonda, J., Braks, M. & Knols, B. Influence of centers for disease control light trap position, relative to a human-baited bed net, on catches of *Anopheles gambiae* and *Culex quinquefasciatus* in Tanzania. *Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg.* **59**, 595–596 (1998).
- 68. Coetzee, M. Key to the females of Afrotropical Anopheles mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae). Malar. J. 19, 70 (2020).
- Koekemoer, L. L., Kamau, L., Hunt, R. H. & Coetzee, M. A cocktail polymerase chain reaction assay to identify members of the Anopheles funestus (Diptera: Culicidae) group. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 66, 804–811 (2002).
- Scott, J. A., Brogdon, W. G. & Collins, F. H. Identification of single specimens of the Anopheles gambiae complex by the polymerase chain reaction. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 49, 520–529 (1993).
- Meyer, D. & Riechert, M. Open source QGIS toolkit for the Advanced Research WRF modelling system. *Environ. Model. Softw.* 112, 166–178 (2019).
- 72. Morris, C., Larson, V. & Lounibos, L. Measuring mosquito dispersal for control programs. J. Am. Mosq. Control Assoc. 7, 608–615 (1991).
- Lillie, T., Kline, D. & Hall, D. The dispersal of *Culicoides mississippiensis* (Diptera: Ceratopogonidae) in a salt marsh near Yankeetown, Florida. J. Am. Mosq. Control Assoc. 1, 463–467 (1985).
- 74. Vaughan, J. A., Noden, B. H. & Beier, J. C. Population dynamics of *Plasmodium falciparum* sporogony in laboratory-infected *Anopheles gambiae*. J. Parasitol. **78**, 716–724 (1992).
- Buonaccorsi, J. P., Harrington, L. C. & Edman, J. D. Estimation and comparison of mosquito survival rates with release-recaptureremoval data. J. Med. Entomol. 40, 6–17 (2003).
- Niebylski, M. & Craig, G. Jr. Dispersal and survival of *Aedes albopictus* at a scrap tire yard in Missouri. J. Am. Mosq. Control Assoc. 10, 339–343 (1994).
- 77. Tollefson, M. Downloading R and RStudio and Setting Up a File System. In R 4 Quick Syntax Reference 3–14 (Springer, 2022).
- Programme TaNMC: National Guidelines for Malaria Diagnosis and Treatment 2006. National Malaria Control Programme 2006.
 Gimnig, J. E. et al. Incidence of malaria among mosquito collectors conducting human landing catches in western Kenya. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 88, 301–308 (2013).

Acknowledgements

This study was supported financially by Imerys Minerals, 100 Mansell Ct E, Roswell, GA, 30076, USA. We would like to express our deepest gratitude to all villagers from Ikungua, especially household heads for allowing us to sample mosquitoes from their houses and volunteers who participated in the study. We also could not have achieved the aim of the project without guidance and expertise from our field staff particularly Hassani Ngonyani. We appreciate the great support received from Jason Moore, Ritha Kidyalla, Rose Philipo and Ester Giteta during the implementation of the project. Permission to publish the results of this study was granted by Tanzanian National Institute of Medical Research (NIMR) Reference NIMR/HQ/P.12 VOL.XXXVI/24.

Author contributions

W.N. conducted the study, drafted the manuscript. W.N. conducted the analysis with support from L.V. and O.G.O. N.M. collected data. C.S. and S.J.M. conceived and designed the study. S.J.M. and L.V. contributed to manuscript drafting. All authors critically revised the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to W.N.

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

© The Author(s) 2023