

Status of pyrethroid resistance in *Anopheles gambiae sensu lato*

F. Chandre,¹ F. Darrier,² L. Manga,³ M. Akogbeto,⁴ O. Faye,⁵ J. Mouchet,⁶ & P. Guillet⁷

The present study confirms the presence of pyrethroid resistance among *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. mosquitos in Côte d'Ivoire and reports the observation of such resistance in two other countries in West Africa (Benin and Burkina Faso). Malaria vector populations from Cameroon (Central Africa), Senegal (West Africa) and Botswana (southern Africa) were found to be susceptible to pyrethroids. In the most resistant mosquito populations, resistance to permethrin was associated with reduced mortality, not only with respect to this compound but also towards deltamethrin. Moreover, a significant increase in knockdown time was observed in some mosquito populations before any decrease in mortality, suggesting that knockdown time could be a good indicator for the early detection of pyrethroid resistance. In view of the current extension of such resistance, there is an urgent need to set up a network in Africa to evaluate its development. It is also vital that the impact of this resistance on pyrethroid-impregnated bednets be assessed.

Voir page 233 le résumé en français. En la página 234 figura un resumen en español.

Introduction

Vector control is an important component of the WHO Global Strategy for Malaria Control, whose objective is to break the transmission of malaria parasites using indoor residual spraying or pyrethroid-impregnated materials (bednets and/or curtains). Pyrethroids are preferred for impregnation because they are highly effective and fast-acting insecticides with a strong excitorepellent effect on mosquitos.

During the Global Malaria Eradication Programme of the 1950s and 1960s, dieldrin resistance, involving a specific resistance mechanism (Υ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptors), was recorded among most *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. populations in Africa. In contrast, only a few cases of DDT resistance have so far been recorded in Africa. The first, involving *A. gambiae* s.s., was observed in 1967 in Bobo Dioulasso (Burkina Faso) and attributed to the use of DDT against cotton pests (1–3, J. Hamon et al., unpublished data, 1968). Soon after, it was also observed among *A. arabiensis* from Senegal (1). DDT

resistance can be due either to a specific detoxification mechanism (glutathione-S-transferase) or to a nerve insensitivity resulting from a modification of the target site (sodium channel). The latter, governed by the *kdr* gene, reduces both the knockdown and lethal effects of DDT. In West Africa, it induces a cross-resistance to pyrethroids, which also depends on *kdr* mutation (4). In Zanzibar, however, DDT resistance induced by glutathione-S-transferase did not cross with pyrethroids (5).

Since the 1970s, pyrethroids have been extensively used in urban areas (as domestic coils and aerosols) as well as for agricultural purposes in rural areas. In both cases, the selection pressure exerted on *A. gambiae* s.l. populations was not negligible: the first case of pyrethroid resistance in *A. gambiae* s.l. was recorded in Bouaké (Côte d'Ivoire) and was attributed to the domestic use of aerosols (6). Later, reduced susceptibility was observed in an area of Kenya where permethrin-impregnated bednets were used (7, 8). In the Gambia, however, no change in the pyrethroid susceptibility of *A. gambiae* s.s. occurred as a result of an impregnated bednet project (9).

In view of the pyrethroid resistance observed at Bouaké and the current prospects for extending the use of impregnated materials, surveys were carried out in Africa through an informal collaboration network. The objectives were first to confirm the resistance recorded in Bouaké and evaluate its spread outside that city, and to obtain more information on the susceptibility of *A. gambiae* s.l. to pyrethroids in other countries.

Materials and methods

Mosquitos were harvested in six countries (see Fig. 1): Benin (Cotonou), Botswana (Sebina), Burkina Faso (Kou valley near Bobo Dioulasso),

¹ Research Scientist, Laboratoire de Lutte contre les Insectes Nuisibles, Institut français de Recherche scientifique pour le Développement en Coopération (IRSTOM), BP5045, 34032 Montpellier cedex 1, France. Requests for reprints should be sent to Dr Chandre at this address.

² Research Engineer, OCCGE, Institut Pierre Richet, Bouaké, Côte d'Ivoire.

³ Research Scientist, Laboratoire de Paludisme, OCEAC, Yaoundé, Cameroon.

⁴ Professor, Centre de Recherches entomologiques, OCCGE, Cotonou, Benin.

⁵ Professor, Laboratoire de Paludologie, Université CAD, Dakar, Senegal.

⁶ Honorary Research Inspector, ORSTOM, Paris, France.

⁷ Research Director, Laboratoire de Lutte contre les Insectes Nuisibles, ORSTOM, Montpellier, France.

Cameroon (Yaoundé), Côte d'Ivoire (Abidjan, Bouaké, Daloa, Kafine, Katiola, Korhogo, Odienné, Tai, and Yao Koffikro) and Senegal (Dakar).

Most of the tests were carried out on nonblood-fed, 2–4-day-old females that emerged from field-collected larvae or with the F_1 progeny of females collected in the field. Only in Cotonou were engorged wild-caught females tested directly. All the specimens were *A. gambiae* s.s. except in Dakar and Sebina where they were *A. arabiensis* (determined where possible by polymerase chain reaction (PCR)). A susceptible reference strain of *A. gambiae* s.s. from Kisumu was used as the control.

Resistance tests

WHO test kits for adult mosquitoes were used (10). Impregnated papers were prepared using silicone oil (Dow Corning 556) with technical deltamethrin and 25/75 permethrin active ingredient samples. Papers were impregnated using 3.6 mg of 0.25% (w/v) permethrin/oil solution per cm^2 and 0.025% (w/v) deltamethrin/oil solution per cm^2 (WHO diagnostic concentration (11)). Some tests were carried out with 4% DDT (w/v). The exposure time was 60 min in the exposure tube in the normal vertical position. In addition to mortality after 24 h, the number of mosquitoes knocked down was recorded 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60 and 80 min after the start of exposure. Knockdown times (KDT_{50} and KDT_{95}) were calculated by means of a log time-probit model using software (12) based on that described by Finney (13).

Results

Mortality

Mortality with permethrin at the diagnostic concentration of 0.25% (w/v) (proposed by WHO (11)) was rarely 100%, even for the susceptible reference strain (Table 1). By contrast, 100% mortality of the susceptible strain was systematically obtained with 0.025% (w/v) deltamethrin and 4% (w/v) DDT. We therefore considered as resistant the samples with <70% mortality towards permethrin and <95% mortality towards deltamethrin.

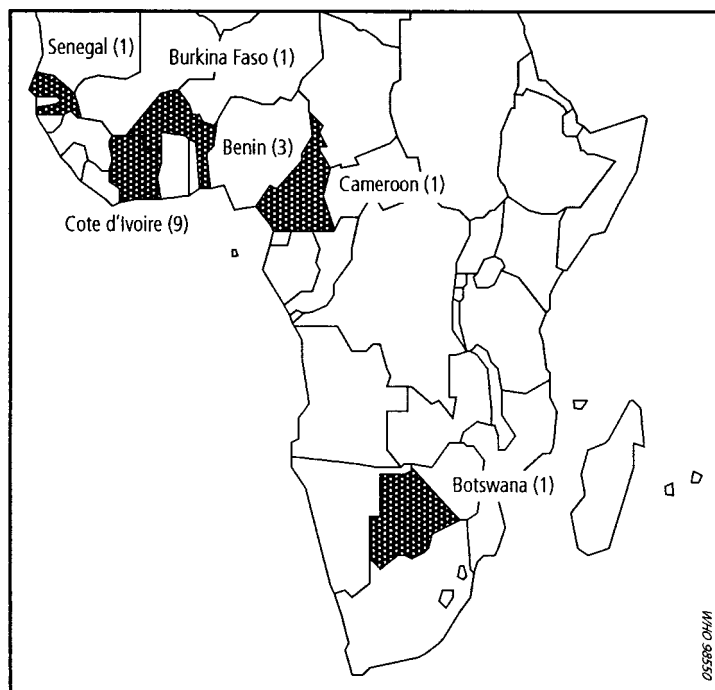
Permethrin resistance was detected in Cotonou (Benin), Kou valley (Burkina Faso) and several localities in Côte d'Ivoire (Table 1) including Bouaké, where it had been reported as early as 1993. Normal susceptibility was found in Yaoundé (Cameroon), Dakar (Senegal) and Sebina (Botswana), the latter two with *A. arabiensis*.

Deltamethrin resistance was observed in four out of the six populations tested (Cotonou, Tai, Korhogo and Yao Koffikro).

Knockdown

In most samples, the relationship between knockdown rate and the logarithm of the exposure time was linear. In resistant samples, KDT_{50} and KDT_{95}

Fig. 1. Locations of countries surveyed. The numbers of samples taken are given in parentheses.



(Table 2) increased markedly, with nearly a complete loss of knockdown effect for the locations with the greatest resistance (Cotonou, Korhogo and Yao Koffikro). More interesting is the 2-fold increase in KDT_{50} and 2–4-fold increase in KDT_{95} in some field samples considered susceptible according to their mortality records.

Discussion

According to our results, the permethrin concentration of 0.25% (w/v) proposed by WHO is clearly too low for *A. gambiae* s.l. In the Gambia, for example, a mortality of only 91.5% was recorded in a population considered susceptible (9) and it would be better to use a higher concentration of the insecticide, either 0.5% (w/v) or 1% (w/v). For deltamethrin, however, the concentration of 0.025% (w/v) appears appropriate. The correct diagnostic concentration for all pyrethroids should be determined for each mosquito species of medical importance and the shelf-life during which impregnated papers retain their full efficacy should also be investigated.

In addition to mortality, knockdown time is a good indicator for the early detection of reduced susceptibility; it is very easy to measure and no equipment other than the WHO test kit is necessary. Knockdown time has long been accepted as an indicator of susceptibility (6, 14, 15). Thus the measurement of knockdown time could systematically be included in monitoring programmes for mosquito insecticide resistance, since this time provides initial information on the possible involvement of the *kdr* gene. The *kdr* gene can now be

Research

Table 1: Percentage mortality in field samples of *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. 24 hours after a 1-hour exposure to insecticide-impregnated papers in WHO test tubes

Country/locality	Permethrin ^a (0.25% w/v)	Deltamethrin ^a (0.25% w/v)	DDT ^a (4% w/v)	Resistance status ^b
Botswana				
Sebina	86.3 (121) ^c	–	99.6 (188)	S
Cameroon				
Yaoundé	85.2 (135)	100 (40)	90.0 (80)	S
Senegal				
Dakar	76.2 (52)	–	–	S
Burkina Faso				
Kou valley	29.2 (113)	95.2 (186)	67.3 (243)	R
Côte d'Ivoire				
Abidjan	75.4 (57)	–	75.8	S*
Bouaké	48.0 (102)	98.4 (60)	–	R
Odienné	61.9 (110)	–	–	R
Kafine	54.5 (99)	–	–	R
Daloa	50.0 (104)	–	–	R
Katiola	69.2 (104)	–	–	R
Tai	26.7 (60)	36.2 (58)	–	R
Korhogo	7.3 (55)	30.6 (62)	7.1 (84)	R
Yao Koffikro	10.0 (120)	28.4 (117)	17.6 (102)	R
Benin				
Cotonou 1	38.9 (54)	–	–	R
Cotonou 2	20.2 (376)	18.7 (124)	11.5 (128)	R
Susceptible reference strain				
Kisumu	86.8 (320)	100 (100)	100 (300)	S

^a WHO diagnostic concentration.

^b S = susceptible; R = resistant; S* = pyrethroid-susceptible with reduced susceptibility to DDT 4% (w/v).

^c Figures in parentheses are the numbers of mosquitos.

detected from a single specimen of *A. gambiae* s.s. using PCR (4).

The increase in knockdown time was more marked with permethrin than with deltamethrin. In mildly resistant populations, such as those in Kou valley, knockdown time increased 4–5-fold with permethrin but only 1.5–2-fold with deltamethrin. In highly resistant populations displaying a complete loss of knockdown effect for permethrin, the KDT₅₀ and KDT₉₅ for deltamethrin were increased by only 3.5-fold and 6–8-fold, respectively. Permethrin is thus a better indicator for the early detection of *kdr*-based pyrethroid resistance. The greatly reduced mortality with deltamethrin in populations displaying a very high permethrin resistance suggests that the *kdr* gene confers cross-resistance to various pyrethroids.

This large-scale survey indicated that pyrethroid resistance in *A. gambiae* s.s. is already developing in large parts of West Africa corresponding to those areas where DDT resistance was previously found. This is consistent with pyrethroid resistance being inherited from DDT resistance. The

level of resistance has possibly been increased by the agricultural and domestic use of pyrethroids. On the contrary, pyrethroid resistance never developed in some areas where impregnated bednets were used extensively, such as China (14) and the Gambia (9). The main use of pyrethroids is not for malaria control, however, but for agricultural purposes and, to a lesser extent, for domestic applications. These selection pressures against *Anopheles* populations are almost impossible to control. Since pyrethroid resistance mainly results from agricultural applications, it is likely that such resistance will evolve regardless of the organized use of pyrethroids in properly managed malaria control campaigns.

Even if pyrethroid resistance is a serious threat to vector control, it would be dangerous to extrapolate from these results alone before the geographical extent of the resistance and its impact on the protective effect of impregnated bednets have been determined. The risk that resistance will increase is very difficult to estimate because it is almost impossible to evaluate the overall selective pressure exerted by pyrethroids and the specific impact of malaria programmes on the build-up of pyrethroid resistance.

Insufficient attention has been paid to pyrethroid resistance in malaria vectors, either in Africa or indeed elsewhere in the world. It is therefore urgent to set up networks to monitor their levels of susceptibility or resistance. The main objectives of the networks would be to gather more information on the current situation and to follow the evolution of resistance, especially in areas where vector control operations are planned. It is also important to strengthen basic research on resistance mechanisms and operational research on the impact of resistance on the efficacy of bednets in the field.

As a result of cross-resistance due to the *kdr* gene (16, F. Chandre et al., unpublished data, 1999) there is an urgent need for alternatives to the currently available pyrethroids. In this regard, WHOPEs (WHO Pesticide Evaluation Scheme) has a major role to play. Collaborating centres need to be revived, priority being given to those working on malaria vectors in areas where *A. gambiae* s.l. has already developed resistance to pyrethroids. Collaboration with agrochemical companies should also be stimulated to ensure that any useful existing insecticide will not be withdrawn from the market and that the search for new insecticides will be actively encouraged. ■

Acknowledgements

This work was partly funded by the French Ministry of Health within the framework of a study on the control of airport malaria. We are grateful to Agrevo, Berkhamsted, England, for kindly providing insecticide active ingredients.

Table 2: Correspondence between mortality and knockdown time using WHO test tubes

Insecticide	Sample	% mortality	KDT ₅₀ (min)	KDT ₉₅ (min)	Resistance status ^a
Permethrin (0.25% w/v)	Kisumu ^b	86.8	23.5	44.5	S
	Sebina	86.3	40.2	86.7	S
	Yaoundé	85.2	46.1	158.3	S
	Dakar	76.9	40.3	140.7	S
	Kou valley	61.6	80.7	228.2	R
	Abidjan	75.4	99.3	786.3	S*
	Tai	26.7	110.2	378.0	R
	Yao Koffikro	10	No kd ^c	No kd	R
	Korhogo	7.3	No kd	No kd	R
	Cotonou 1	38.9	No kd	No kd	R
Cotonou 3	34.1	No kd	No kd	R	
Deltamethrin (0.025% w/v)	Kisumu ^b	100	21.4	39.5	S
	Yaoundé	100	21.3	56.4	S
	Kou valley	95.2	31.6	66.3	R
	Tai	36.2	84.0	252.5	R
	Yao Koffikro	28.4	78.7	339.7	R
	Korhogo	30.6	76.6	260.0	R
DDT (4% w/v)	Kisumu ^b	100	23.6	38.3	S
	Sebina	99.6	23.3	46.8	S
	Yaoundé	90.0	60.7	127.4	S
	Yao Koffikro	17.6	118.3	581.7	R
	Korhogo	7.1	No kd	No kd	R

^a S = susceptible; R = resistant; S* = pyrethroid-susceptible with reduced susceptibility to DDT 4% (w/v).

^b Susceptible reference strain.

^c No kd = complete loss of knockdown effect (<15% of mosquitos knocked down after 1 h of exposure).

Résumé

Résistance d'*Anopheles gambiae* s.l. aux pyréthrinoïdes

La sensibilité d'*An. gambiae* s.l. à deux pyréthrinoïdes (perméthrine, deltaméthrine) et au DDT a été évaluée dans 4 pays d'Afrique de l'Ouest (Bénin, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire et Sénégal), au Cameroun (Afrique centrale) et au Botswana (Afrique australe). Les tests ont été réalisés sur des femelles sauvages selon le protocole OMS et en observant l'évolution du nombre de moustiques abattus au cours de l'exposition à l'insecticide (effet de choc ou de « knock down»). La résistance à la perméthrine a été confirmée à Bouaké ainsi que dans 7 des 8 autres localités testées en Côte d'Ivoire. Cette résistance a également été observée au Bénin et au Burkina Faso. Pour les populations les plus résistantes à la perméthrine, on observe une forte baisse de la mortalité avec la deltaméthrine. Les populations du Sénégal, du Cameroun et du Botswana se sont révélées sensibles. La résistance aux pyréthrinoïdes s'accompagne également d'une diminution de l'effet de choc,

plus marquée avec la perméthrine qu'avec la deltaméthrine. La baisse de l'effet de choc peut même être significative avant que l'on observe une baisse de la mortalité. Elle peut donc être considérée à ce titre comme un indicateur précoce de la résistance. Le gène *kdr* est hérité de la résistance au DDT qui était apparue dans les années 60 suite à l'utilisation massive de ce produit contre les ravageurs du coton. Il s'est maintenu dans les populations anophéliennes sous la pression de sélection exercée par les pyréthrinoïdes agricoles et peut-être domestiques. Il est urgent, à l'heure où de nombreux pays envisagent de lancer des programmes de lutte contre le paludisme par moustiquaires imprégnées de pyréthrinoïdes, de mettre en place un réseau de surveillance de la résistance afin d'évaluer son extension actuelle et de préciser son impact sur la protection conférée par les moustiquaires imprégnées.

Resumen

Situación de la resistencia de *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. a los piretroides

Se ha estudiado la sensibilidad de *A. gambiae* s.l. a dos piretroides (permetrina y deltametrina) y al DDT en cuatro países de África occidental (Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire y el Senegal), el Camerún (África central) y Botswana (África austral). Las pruebas se han realizado con hembras salvajes siguiendo el protocolo de la OMS y observando la evolución del número de mosquitos abatidos (kd, de «knockdown») durante la exposición al insecticida. Se confirmó la resistencia a la permetrina en Bouaké, así como en siete de las otras ocho localidades estudiadas en Côte d'Ivoire. Se observó también esa resistencia en Benin y en Burkina Faso. En las poblaciones más resistentes a la permetrina se observa una gran disminución de la mortalidad asociada al uso de deltametrina. Las poblaciones del Senegal, el Camerún y Botswana se revelaron sensibles. La resistencia a los piretroides se acompaña asimismo de una disminución del efecto kd, más pronunciada con la

permetrina que con la deltametrina. La reducción del efecto kd puede ser significativa antes incluso de producirse el descenso de mortalidad, y puede considerarse por tanto en este caso como un indicador precoz de la resistencia. El gen kdr se ha propagado como consecuencia de la resistencia al DDT inducida en los años sesenta por la utilización masiva de ese producto contra los insectos que destruían el algodón, y se ha mantenido en las poblaciones de anofeles bajo la presión selectiva ejercida por los piretroides agrícolas y quizá domésticos. En un momento en que numerosos países prevén lanzar programas de lucha antipalúdica con mosquiteros impregnados de piretroides, urge poner en marcha una red de vigilancia de la resistencia para evaluar la magnitud del fenómeno y determinar con precisión su efecto en la protección conferida por los mosquiteros impregnados.

References

1. **Brown AWA, Pal R.** *Insecticide resistance in arthropods*. Geneva, World Health Organization, 1973 (Monograph Series, No. 38).
2. **Mouchet J.** Mini-review: agriculture and vector resistance. *Insect science and its applications*, 1988, **9**: 297–302.
3. **Lines JD.** Do agricultural insecticides select for insecticide resistance in mosquitoes? A look at the evidence. *Parasitology today*, 1988, **4**: 17–20.
4. **Martínez-Torres D et al.** A molecular diagnostic of pyrethroid resistance in the malaria vector *Anopheles gambiae* s.s. *Insect molecular biology*, 1997, **7**: 179–184.
5. **Prapanthadara L, Hemingway J, Ketterman AJ.** DDT-resistance in *Anopheles gambiae* (Diptera: Culicidae) from Zanzibar, Tanzania, based on increased DDT-dehydrochlorinase activity of glutathione-S-transferases. *Bulletin of entomological research*, 1995, **85**: 267–274.
6. **Elissa N et al.** Resistance of *Anopheles gambiae* s.s. to pyrethroids in Côte d'Ivoire. *Annales de la Société belge de Médecine tropicale*, 1993, **73**: 291–294.
7. **Vulule JM et al.** Reduced susceptibility of *Anopheles gambiae* to permethrin associated with the use of permethrin-impregnated bednets and curtains in Kenya. *Medical and veterinary entomology*, 1994, **48**: 71–75.
8. **Beach R.** International vector resistance testing: highlights. In: *Proceedings of the Sixty-third Annual Meeting of the American Mosquito Control Association, 23–27 March 1997, Utah, USA*.
9. **Hemingway H et al.** Insecticide susceptibility status in individual species of *Anopheles gambiae* complex (Diptera: Culicidae) in an area of The Gambia where pyrethroid impregnated bednets are used extensively for malaria control. *Bulletin of entomological research*, 1995, **85**: 229–234.
10. *Insecticide resistance and vector control. Seventeenth report of the WHO Expert Committee on Insecticides*. Geneva, World Health Organization, 1970 (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 443).
11. *Vector resistance to pesticides. Fifteenth report of the WHO Expert Committee on Vector Biology and Control*. Geneva, World Health Organization, 1992 (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 818).
12. **Raymond M, Prato G, Ratsira D.** *Probit analysis of mortality assays displaying quantal response, version 3.3*. Licence L93019. Praxème, 34680 St. Georges d'Orques, France, 1993.
13. **Finney DJ.** *Probit analysis*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1971.
14. **Kang W et al.** Tests for possible effects of selection by domestic pyrethroids for resistance in culicine and anopheline mosquitoes in Sichuan and Hubei, China. *Annals of tropical medicine and parasitology*, 1995, **89**: 677–684.
15. **Privora M.** Use of KT 50 for orientative evaluation (screening) of sensitivity of flies to insecticides. *Journal of hygiene epidemiology microbiology immunology*, 1975, **19**: 184–194.
16. **Hemingway J.** Efficacy of etofenprox against insecticide susceptible and resistant mosquito strains containing characterized resistance mechanisms. *Medical and veterinary entomology*, 1995, **9**: 423–426.