

# Population Genetic of Anopheles Arabiensis Patton(Diptera: Culicidae) the Malaria Vector in the Republic of Sudan.

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## Research

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1 **Population genetic of *Anopheles arabiensis* Patton(Diptera: Culicidae) the malaria vector**  
2 **in the Republic of Sudan.**

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16

17 **Background**

18 *Anopheles arabiensis* is a member of *An. gambiae* complex and a main malaria vector in Sudan.

19 There is no sufficient *An. arabiensis* population genetic data available an understanding of vector  
20 population structure and genetics are important to the malaria vector control programs. The  
21 objective of this investigation is to study the population structure, gene flow and isolation by  
22 distance among *An. arabiensis* for developing control strategies  
23

24 **Methods**

25 Mosquitoes were collected from six sites in Sudan using pyrethrum spray catch of indoor resting  
26 mosquitoes. Anopheline mosquitos were identified morphologically and based on species  
27 specific nucleotide sequences in the ribosomal DNA intergenic spacers (IGS). Seven  
28 microsatellite loci published *An. gambiae* primers were used to amplify the DNA of *An.*  
29 *arabiensis* samples.  
30

31 **Results**

32 PCR confirmed that *An. arabiensis* was the main malaria vector found in the six localities. Of the  
33 seven microsatellite loci utilized, six were found to be highly polymorphic across populations,  
34 with high allelic richness and heterozygosity with the remaining one being monomorphic.  
35 Deviation from Hardy-Weinberg expectations were found in 21 out of 42 tests in the six  
36 populations due to heterozygotes deficiency. Bayesian clustering analysis revealed two gene  
37 pools, grouping samples into two population clusters; one includes four and the other includes  
38 two populations. The genetic distances between pairs of populations ranged from 0.06 to 0.24.  
39 Significant  $F_{ST}$  was observed between all *An. arabiensis* populations. Kr population indicated  
40 high genetic differentiation ( $F_{ST}$  ranged from 0.17 to 0.24). High gene flow ( $Nm= 1.6-8.2$ ) was  
41 detected between clusters. There was evidence of a bottleneck event in the Hj population. No  
42 isolation by distance pattern was detected among populations.

43

#### 44 **Conclusions**

45 This study revealed low levels of population differentiation with high gene flow among six *An.*  
46 *arabiensis* populations in Sudan.

#### 47 **Keywords**

48 *Anopheles arabiensis*, microsatellite loci, population genetic, gene flow, bottleneck, Sudan.

#### 49 **Background**

50 In Sudan, malaria remains as one of the most important public health problems plaguing  
51 its population. Thirty one *Anopheles* species have been recognized globally but only a few of  
52 them are malaria vectors [1]. With the exception of Southern Sudan, the main malaria vector in  
53 Sudan is *An. arabiensis*[3-9]. However, in Southern Sudan *An. gambiae* and *An. funestus*, are the  
54 major vectors of malaria and their vectorial capacity maybe similar to that of *An. arabiensis*[2].

55 *Anopheles arabiensis* is a highly adaptable species with the capability to feed on multiple host  
56 species, both indoors and outdoors and acclimatize to a wide range of larval habitats [10-11]. At  
57 present, indoor residual spraying (IRS) and insecticide treated bednets (ITNs) are the main  
58 methods extensively used for vector control worldwide. These methods have proven valuable in  
59 reducing malaria burden [12-13], but their usefulness have been threatened by increasing  
60 prevalence of insecticide resistance in the most important malaria vectors as well as the  
61 phenotypic flexibility of *An. arabiensis*. Thus, there is an urgent need for effective and  
62 sustainable alternatives to these traditional vector control strategies.

63 Microsatellites are genetic markers of short tracts of tandemly repeated DNA sequences. These  
64 markers have become the genetic marker of choice for studying the population genetics of many  
65 eukaryotic species including mosquitoes. For instance, they have been widely utilised in such  
66 studies in the *An. gambiae* complex [14-20]. Furthermore, they could be developed into PCR-  
67 based molecular markers that are very useful for small organisms with limited extractable DNA  
68 [21].

69 To date, one hundred and fifty polymorphic microsatellite loci have been characterized in  
70 *An. gambiae* s.l. [14, 22] which have been widely used to explain the population structure and  
71 gene flow within and between members of the *An. gambiae* complex [23-25]. The majority of  
72 these studies have mostly been conducted on *An. gambiae* with some limited data on *An.*  
73 *arabiensis*. Present literature on *An. arabiensis* has revealed the lack of subpopulation  
74 differentiation in relation to larval habitat utilization [24]. Lack of annual bottlenecks in response  
75 to changes in the environment has also been documented [17, 26]. Large effective population  
76 size and/or recent range expansion as opposed to group migration [26, 27] have been attributed

77 to the widespread gene flow. This is based on several experimental studies which have reported a  
78 short flight range for this malaria vector species [28] among villages in Gambia. On the other  
79 hand, there is evidence in support of population structuring[29] from West Africa and eastern  
80 outer islands[27] of Eastern Africa. Furthermore, limited gene flow has been observed between  
81 the west and south east of the Rift Valley and in Southern Zambia,[17, 23] respectively.  
82 Geographic distance and habitat alterations have been suggested as the main contributors of  
83 genetic isolation.

84 *Anopheles arabiensis* has changeable deme sizes ranging from as low as 25 km [27] to a  
85 few 1000 kilometres [17]. It was observed that in the Mwea Rice Scheme of Central Kenya, *An.*  
86 *arabiensis* mosquito densities decrease with increasing distance from the Scheme [30-31]. On  
87 the contrary, the human blood index [10] in addition to malarial transmission [30] by this species  
88 was significantly lower inside than in the outer areas of the rice scheme. With respect to their  
89 study, agricultural practices can alter local environment [32] as well as affect the number and  
90 diversity of larval habitats. All these factors influence mosquito reproductive fitness,  
91 survivorship and fertility [33]. Such alteration may change malarial transmission indices [34] and  
92 can lead to subpopulation differentiation [35-36] as was observed in this agricultural scheme. But  
93 on the other hand the lack of evident geographical barriers that could have restricted gene flow  
94 between mosquito populations in the surrounding areas had led to the generation of a single  
95 panmictic population. A number of studies, for example one that was conducted by Dolo et  
96 al,[37]in the irrigated area of Sahel in Mali had suggested that the existence of mosquito colonies  
97 in an adjoining non-irrigated area during the dry season is maintained through migration of a few  
98 individuals from the irrigated areas.

99           Several comparative population studies between *An. arabiensis* and *An. gambiae* have  
100 shown a higher level of genetic differentiation in the latter species. Significant genetic  
101 differentiation,  $F_{ST} = 0.072- 0.100$  were observed for *An. gambiae* populations between western  
102 Kenya and coastal Kenya using microsatellite markers. Lehmann et al,[38-39] suggested the  
103 Great Rift Valley as a major gene flow barrier for this species. However, nonsignificant genetic  
104 differentiation was identified for *An. arabiensis* population from the two areas using the same  
105 loci [23]. Similarly, Donnelly and Townson [27] noted nonsignificant genetic differentiation of  
106 *An. arabiensis* populations in Malawi and Sudan. It thus appeared that different mechanisms of  
107 gene movement were in operation between the two species. Considering *An. gambiae*, these  
108 studies were discordant with another study on *An. gambiae* s.s. (mean  $F_{ST} = 0.006$ ) which was  
109 genetically undifferentiated across the 6,650 km<sup>2</sup> of the Kilombero valley landscape southern  
110 Tanzania. This suggested that the genetic differentiation in other populations was not due to  
111 physical barriers or distance. One plausible explanation is that there was environmental  
112 diversification even within the Kilombero valley [19]. Thus, the differentiated populations of *An.*  
113 *gambiae* could have been maintained by some degree of reproductive isolation.

114           With respect to *An. arabiensis*, several studies have reported varying levels of genetic  
115 differentiation. Nyanjom et al,[15] detected low  $F_{ST}$  but statistically significant genetic structure  
116 for *An. arabiensis* populations in Ethiopia and Eritrea. Similarly, [40] also documented low but  
117 significant difference between populations of *An. arabiensis* in Northern Sudan using  
118 microsatellite markers. On the other hand Simard et al, [29] reported high levels of genetic  
119 differentiation in two island populations of *An. arabiensis* populations that were 240 km apart in  
120 the Indian Ocean ( $F_{ST} 0.080-0.215$ ). High levels of genetic differentiation were also detected

121 among *An. arabiensis* populations (mean  $F_{ST} = 0.066$ ) in Kilombero valley southern Tanzania  
122 [19].

123 Therefore, the objective of this investigation was to study the population structure and  
124 gene flow among *An. arabiensis* populations in Sudan based on microsatellite markers which  
125 may assist in developing control strategies.

## 126 **Materials and Methods**

### 127 **Study Areas**

128 A total of 200 specimens of *An. arabiensis* were collected from June 2010 to May  
129 2011 from six different localities in Sudan representing different ecological zones separated by  
130 the River Nile and its tributaries. Three localities were located in Khartoum State, namely 1.  
131 Mygoma (My) 2. Al Haj Yousif (Hj) 3. El Gerif West (Gw). My and Hj are nearest to each other  
132 and located east of the Blue Nile. Al Haj Yousif (Hj) is North east of Helt Koko, where animals  
133 are bred for milk production in a rich green area on the west bank of the Blue Nile. The fourth  
134 and fifth sites are in Kassala State namely 4. Alhalang Shemal (H.sh), located on the east bank of  
135 the AlGash River area of non-agricultural land and 5. Alkrmota (Kr) located on the west bank of  
136 the Al Gash River in the centre of an agricultural area which is surrounded by groves of fruit and  
137 vegetables in all directions. The sixth population is in the Sennar state (Se), and was collected  
138 from 6. Abu Algoni (Se), a farming area which is located on the west bank of the Blue Nile  
139 River. The pairwise distances between the six localities ranged from 3.93- 569.25 Km.

### 140 **Microsatellite PCR Amplification**

141 Molecular classification of *An. gambiae* species complex in this study was conducted  
142 based on the ribosomal DNA intergenic spacers (IGS) [41]. DNA extraction from individual  
143 *Anopheles* was conducted using the DNeasy blood and Tissue E kit, (QIAGEN, Valencia, CA).  
144 Seven published *An. gambiae* microsatellite loci primers [14] were used to amplify the DNA  
145 samples. The PCR reactions were performed in a gradient thermal cycler (MJ Research PTC-200  
146 Peltier Thermal Cycler) for 30 cycles. The PCR mix contained 1 uL of genomic DNA, 5X PCR  
147 buffer (Promega, Madison, WI), 15 pmol of each fluorescent labelled (NED, HEX or FAM)  
148 forward primer, 200 mM of each dATP, dCTP, dGTP and dTTP, 1.2 uL of 25mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> and 0.5  
149 U *Taq* DNA polymerase (Promega, Madison, WI) in a 20 uL total reaction volume. Singleplex  
150 PCR amplification was conducted for loci AGXH678, AG2H290, AG2H603, AG2H143,  
151 AG3H29, AG3H45, AG3H158 (Table 1). The thermal cycling conditions were; an initial hold at  
152 95°C for 2min, followed by 30 cycles of 94°C for 30s, 55°C for 30s and 72°C for 30s and a final  
153 extension at 72°C for 5min. Satisfactory PCR products as detected in a 2% agarose gel were sent  
154 to the service provider (First BASE Laboratories Sdn. Bhd., Selangor, Malaysia) into two primer  
155 multiplex sets for fragment analysis. Set A contained a mixture of AGXH678, AG2H290 and  
156 AG3H45, while set B was a mixture of AG2H603, AG2H143, AG3H29 and AG3H158. Loci  
157 AGXH678, AG3H29, AG3H45 and AG3H158 are found outside the inversion regions of the  
158 chromosome, while AG2H603 and AG2H143 loci are found within fixed inversion of  
159 chromosome 2La, and AG2H 290 in the 2R polymorphic inversion.

## 160 **Data Analysis**

161 Allelic data scoring of alleles was carried out as described in Arif et al, [42]. Screening  
162 of all the genotypic data was executed using Micro-Checker v2.2.3 [43] to check for presence of

163 null alleles and stuttering or large allele dropouts. The Monte Carlo simulation (bootstrap)  
164 method was applied to generate expected homozygote and heterozygote frequencies of alleles.  
165 The HWE was used to calculate expected allele frequencies and the frequency of any null allele  
166 detected with significance level at  $P < 0.05$  obtained through 1000 permutations. To ensure  
167 compatibility with different software analyses the raw data was converted into several specific  
168 data formats using CONVERT [44]. Significant relationship between alleles at any two loci was  
169 tested using the likelihood ratio test of linkage disequilibrium based on Expectation-  
170 Maximization (EM) algorithm [45]. This was applied to all pairwise comparisons of loci using  
171 Arlequin version 3.11 [46] with 10000 permutations followed by false discovery rate (FDR)  
172 adjustment [47] at 95% significant level.

173 Population genetic diversity was measured based on allelic richness ( $A_R$ ), adjusted for different  
174 sample size and number of alleles ( $N_A$ ). Inbreeding coefficient ( $F_{IS}$ ) for each locus and  
175 population [48] was estimated in FSTAT v.2.9.3 [49]. To test for global deviation from HWE in  
176 a population, the  $F_{IS}$  was estimated. Mean genetic heterozygosity, observed ( $H_O$ ) and expected  
177 ( $H_E$ ) heterozygosities per locus and population were estimated over all loci. Testing of deviation  
178 from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) was conducted using the exact tests with 10000 steps  
179 in Markov chain and 10000 dememorization steps in Arlequin version 3.11 [46]. Multiple testing  
180 of HWE was adjusted using False discovery rate (FDR) corrections with a global significance  
181 level of 0.05

182 Estimates of population differentiation, using Wrights  $F_{ST}$  and Slatkin  $R_{ST}$  [50] over all loci were  
183 conducted.  $F_{ST}$  is based on the infinite allele model (IAM) which hypothesizes that each new  
184 allele is generated at a given rate,  $\mu$  [51]. Slatkin  $R_{ST}$  is based on the stepwise mutational model

185 (SMM). The model assumes that new alleles are generated by adding or deleting a single repeat  
186 unit of the microsatellite, with an equal probability  $\mu/2$ . Consequently, alleles that vary most in  
187 sizes is expected to be more distantly related than alleles of similar sizes

188 The program BOTTLENECK V 1.2.02 [52] was used to detect whether the populations  
189 had experienced recent effective population size reduction. Two-phase (TPM) models, infinite  
190 allele (IAM) and stepwise mutation (SMM), and deviation from HWE was estimated using a  
191 two-tailed Wilcoxon sign-rank test followed by FDR adjustment. Qualitative descriptor of allele  
192 frequency (“mode-shift” indicator) was also performed in BOTTLENECK to discriminate  
193 “shifted mode” populations (bottleneck) from stable populations [53]. Mantel test was used to  
194 investigate the correlation between geographical and genetic distances among populations using  
195 Arlequin 3.11 [46].

196 Assignment of individuals to their respective source populations based on multilocus  
197 genotypic data was determined in STRUCTURE version 2.3 [54]. An assumption of correlated  
198 allele frequency among populations [55] and admix model was used with the burn in period and  
199 MCMC length, each at 10000 and 10 iterations, respectively. The probabilities of genotype  
200 assignment into each individual group were performed across replicates using CLUMPP version  
201 1.1.2 [57] and the graphical presentation was carried out using Structure Harvester [58]. Finally,  
202 based on genetic distance a Neighbour-joining tree was constructed to determine the  
203 phylogenetic tree among the six populations using MEGA 5.0.5 [59].

## 204 **Results**

205 All 200 individuals from six populations of *An. arabiensis* in Sudan were successfully genotyped  
206 and scored for all seven microsatellite loci. No evidence for scoring error due to null alleles,  
207 large allele dropout or stuttering was detected after assessing with Microchecker.

### 208 **Allelic Frequency Distribution and Linkage Disequilibrium**

209 All microsatellite markers of *An. arabiensis* populations were found to be polymorphic in  
210 at least one population. However, locus AG3H29 was monomorphic in most populations, may be  
211 due to presence of null alleles. Loci AG2H143 and AG3H45 were moderately polymorphic with  
212 number of allele per locus ranging from 6-12 and 4-10 respectively. The total number of alleles  
213 per locus ranged from 2 to 12 with an average of 7.6. The mean  $A_R$  ranged from a minimum of  
214 3.5 in Hj to a maximum of 6.8 in Se and the mean observed heterozygosity of alleles per locus  
215 ranged from 0.55 to 0.67, while means of expected heterozygosity ranged from 0.55 to 0.62  
216 (Table 1 and Figure 1). Tests for linkage disequilibrium revealed that 14 pairwise comparisons  
217 (11.11% out of 126 pairwise comparisons) after Bonferroni correction were significantly  
218 deviated from the random association of alleles at two or more loci with the highest linkage  
219 disequilibrium detected from pairwise loci comparisons in Kr (5 pairs in loci AGXH678,  
220 AG2H290, AG2H143 and AG3H158), followed by My (4 in loci AGXH678, AG2H290,  
221 AG2H603 and AG2H143), H.sh (2 pairs in loci AG2H290, AG2H603), Hj (1 pair in AG3H158)  
222 and Se (2 pairs in loci AGXH678 and AG2H143). No linkage disequilibrium of loci was  
223 observed in Gw.

224

225

## 226 **Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) and $F_{IS}$**

227 Each locus was tested separately for significant departure from HWE. Observed heterozygosity  
228 varied from 0.12 to 0.94 while expected heterozygosity ranged from 0.11 to 0.76 (Table 2).  
229 Deviations from HWE were found in 21 out of 42 tests in the six populations. These were  
230 observed in locus AGXH678 (Gw and H.sh), locus AG2H290 (H.sh, Hj, My and Kr), locus  
231 AG2H603 (Gw, H.sh, Hj, My and Kr) locus AG2H143 (Gw, Hj, My and Se), locus AG3H45  
232 (H.sh, Hj, My, Se and Kr), AG3H158 in Kr. There was no consistent pattern according to locus  
233 or population and fairly equal numbers of heterozygote deficiencies and heterozygote excess  
234 were observed. This could be due to population subdivision rather than the existence of null  
235 alleles based on the Microchecker results. Locus AG3H29 showed no deviations from Hardy-  
236 Weinberg equilibrium and this locus was monomorphic in all populations except in H.sh and Kr  
237 populations. Inbreeding coefficient ( $F_{IS}$ ) over all loci showed that most of the populations had  
238 high excess of heterozygosity.  $F_{IS}$  negative values indicate no inbreeding.

## 239 **Genetic Structure**

240 A hierarchical AMOVA performed after defining into three groups (Khartoum, Sennar  
241 and Kassala) revealed that 2.75% of the total genetic variance ( $F_{CT}$ ) was contributed by ‘among  
242 groups’ variation while 13.61% ( $F_{SC}$ ) was ‘among populations within group’ variation (Table 3).  
243 83.63% of the genetic variation was attributed between individuals within population i.e.  
244 intrapopulation variation. All hierarchical levels i.e.  $F_{SC}$  and  $F_{CT}$  and within population revealed  
245 significant variation.

246 Significant differentiation among populations, ( $F_{ST}$ ) was observed between all *An.*  
247 *arabiensis* pairwise comparisons for all loci (Table 4).  $F_{ST}$  ranged from 0.06 to 0.24. All showed  
248 that each of the population was highly differentiated from at least one other population. But if Kr  
249 is excluded and in most cases, Se as well, the comparisons will indicate moderate genetic  
250 differentiation for all. Moderate genetic differentiation was observed between *An. arabiensis*  
251 populations from My (Khartoum State) and Se (Sennar State) ( $F_{ST}=0.06$ ) and Gw (Khartoum  
252 State) and H.sh (Kassala state) ( $F_{ST}=0.08$ ). High genetic differentiation was observed between  
253 *An. arabiensis* populations from Kr and other populations  $F_{ST}= 0.17-0.24$ . Therefore, Kr  
254 population was most genetically isolated from the rest. However, pairwise estimates of  $R_{ST}$   
255 ranged between 0.00 to 0.84. High  $R_{ST}$  value was found between Hj and Gw (0.84) and lowest  
256 values between Kr and H.sh, My and H.sh and Se and H.sh. Gene flow ( $N_m$ ) calculated from  
257 mean  $F_{ST}$  statistics ranged from 1.5 – 9.05 suggesting high gene flow between populations (Table  
258 5). High migration rate and therefore high gene flow was detected among Se (Sennar State) with  
259 My and Gw (both Khartoum State); Hj and My (both Khartoum State). Very little gene flow was  
260 observed between Kr (Kassala State) and other populations. When considering the loci outside  
261 the inversion (AGXH678, AG3H29, AG3H45 and AG3H158),  $F_{ST}$  statistics ranged from 0.026  
262 to 0.32 with mean  $F_{ST}= 0.13$ . For loci inside inversion (AG2H603; AG2H290 and AG2H143),  
263  $F_{ST}$  ranged from 0.019 to 0.20 with mean  $F_{ST}= 0.16$ .

264 Gene flow ( $N_m$ ) for loci outside the chromosomal inversions ranged from 1.04 to 43.52.  
265 The highest gene flow was between My and H.sh with  $N_m= 43.52$ , while little gene flow was  
266 found between Kr and Hj with  $N_m= 1.04$ . For loci inside the fixed chromosomal inversion, 2La,

267 a range of  $N_m = 1.38$  to  $19.99$  was observed, with the highest gene flow between Se and My with  
268  $N_m = 19.99$ , while little gene flow was detected between Se and Kr with  $N_m = 1.38$ .

269 The genetic distance ranged from 6% between My and Se (although are geographically  
270 distant) to 32% between Kr and Hj. The genetic distance was high between Kr and H.sh. Thus,  
271 although the detailed magnitudes of population differentiation vary among population  
272 comparisons in the various analyses, in summary Kr is most distant or differentiated from other  
273 populations and followed by Se to a certain extent for several pairwise comparisons.

#### 274 **Population bottleneck**

275 The Wilcoxon test (Table 6) indicated that all populations excluding Se were significant for  
276 IAM mutation-drift equilibrium ( $\alpha < 0.05$ ), but with normal L-shaped distribution. This shows that  
277 these populations had not experienced population bottleneck. However, population Hj with  
278 shifted mode suggest recent population size reduction. TPM analysis showed insignificance for  
279 all populations except Hj while the SMM analysis showed insignificance for all populations.

280 Although there was significant differentiation,  $F_{ST}$ , between the different populations, Mantel  
281 tests showed no significant correlation ( $r^2 = 0.09$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) between genetic differentiation  
282 measured as linearized  $F_{ST}$  ( $F_{ST}/(1-F_{ST})$ ) and geographic distance (km) (Figure 2). Thus genetic and  
283 geographic distances are not correlated.

#### 284 **Population Structure**

285 Based on the programme STRUCTURE after calculations of the delta K and plotting its  
286 value against the assumed number of populations ( $K = 10$ ), a peak at  $K = 2$  revealed two main

287 clusters (Figure 3). The dataset was further analyzed by assigning individuals between the two  
288 suggested clusters. Figure 4 explains the analysis for assignment of the most likely K (K =  
289 2). This analysis is in general agreement with the  $F_{ST}$  analyses where Kr and to a lower degree, Se  
290 are distant from the other populations although My is closely related to the latter. In the  
291  $F_{ST}$  analysis, Kr and Se were also found to be genetically distant. However, the phylogenetic tree  
292 showed that only Kr is distant from the other populations. On the other hand, *An. arabiensis*  
293 populations from Hj, GW and H.sh; My and Se are highly related genetically (Figure 5).

## 294 **Discussion**

### 295 **Allele Frequency and Linkage Disequilibrium**

296 In this study, a set of seven microsatellite markers, specific for *An. gambiae* [14] was  
297 used to analyse the population genetics among six *An. arabiensis* populations in Sudan. Allele  
298 number per locus ranging from 2 to 12 with an average of 7.6 alleles per locus as well as  
299 heterozygosity levels are concordant with other studies in this species conducted in Central  
300 Kenya and Madagascar [18] and Eastern Africa [27]. But higher heterozygosity values were  
301 observed in the eastern Africa Islands of Reunion and Mauritius [26, 29]. Similar values have  
302 also been obtained for other species for example in *An. gambiae s.s.* [39], *An. funestus* in east and  
303 southern Africa [60] and *An. atroparvus* [61] in southern Europe. Muturi et al, [18] suggested that  
304 the level of allelic polymorphism could provide powerful measures to identify population  
305 subdivision.

306 Analyses of linkage disequilibrium showed that all six *An. arabiensis* populations in  
307 Sudan suggest the existence of population subdivision. Similarly, using a different suite of

308 microsatellite markers for *An. arabiensis* in Southern Tanzania Ng'habi et al, [19] observed high  
309 linkage disequilibrium which they attributed to the presence of population subdivision. The  
310 significant linkage disequilibrium observed in this study could be attributed to heterozygote  
311 deficits due to several factors-departure from random mating, as a result of inbreeding or  
312 selection for certain genotypes following ecological and environmental changes.

### 313 **Population differentiation and population structure**

314 The population pairwise  $F_{ST}$  values ranged from 0.06 to 0.24. These values divided the  
315 six populations into two groups as defined by  $F_{ST}$  values of; Group 1 comprising of Kr and Se  
316 with intra and inter group  $F_{ST}$  values of 0.16- 0.24 (high genetic differentiation)and Group 2  
317 comprising of H.sh, My, Hj and Gw with pairwise intra-group  $F_{ST}$  values of 0.08-0.13 (moderate  
318 genetic differentiation). This was in agreement with the Bayesian cluster analysis performed with  
319 STRUCTURE showing that the most likely  $K$  value identified was  $K=2$ .The  $K$  1 group includes  
320 Hj, Gw, My and H.sh populations and  $K$  2 include Se and Kr populations.

321 The  $F_{ST}$  from pooled loci reported in this study was inconcordance with the reported  $F_{ST}$   
322 values for *An. arabiensis* from Ethiopia and Eritrea [15] and Northern Sudan [40]. Both studies  
323 detected low  $F_{ST}$  but statistically significant genetic structure in *An. arabiensis* populations.  
324 However, Donnelly and Townson [27] did not detect significant genetic structure for *An.*  
325 *arabiensis* populations within Malawi and Sudan. Chen et al, [64] also detected a low, but  
326 significant, genetic structure of *An. gambiae* in Lake Victoria islands ( $F_{ST} = 0.019$ ) and among  
327 the six villages in the mainland ( $F_{ST}= 0.010$ ).

328 A high level of genetic differentiation was found in *An. arabiensis* between certain  
329 populations in the current study in agreement with that observed between the Reunion and  
330 Mauritius Islands ( $F_{ST}$  ranged from 0.080 to 0.215), located 240 km apart in East Africa Simard  
331 *et al.*, [29] . Similarly, high levels of genetic differentiation was detected among *An. Arabiensis*  
332 populations (mean  $F_{ST}$  = 0.066) [19]. This was not in agreement with *An. gambiae s. s.*, (mean  
333  $F_{ST}$  = 0.006) which was genetically undifferentiated across the 6,650 km<sup>2</sup> of the Kilombero  
334 valley landscape in southern Tanzania. studied genetic structure of *An. gambiae* populations  
335 among islands in north-western Lake Victoria, Uganda with  $F_{ST}$  ranging from 0.014–0.105 and  
336 concluded that these populations were significantly genetically differentiated [65]. Similar to  $F_{ST}$   
337 values of 0.20 and 0.30 as described by Vicente et al, [61], Kamau et al, Kamau, [66] observed  $F_{ST}$   
338 values of 0.25 while [67], who studied genetic population structure and introgression in *An. dirus*  
339 mosquitoes in South-east Asia, reported  $F_{ST}$  value of 0.21-0.39.

340 The high differentiation of Kr from the other populations may be due to its ecology which  
341 was far from agriculture areas compared to the rest which were near or within agriculture areas.  
342 Kr population is presumably reproductively isolated due to nonrandom mating or ecologically  
343 isolated as an effect of the AlGash River which acts as a physical barrier separating Kr from  
344 other populations. Coluzzi, [68] hypothesised that inversions may play an important role in the  
345 isolation process among species in the *An. gambiae* complex and between the various forms of  
346 *An. gambiae s.s.* He postulated that inversions can group co-adapted gene complexes that confer  
347 adaptation in temporarily isolated peripheral populations with marginal ecological conditions.  
348 When secondary contact with the source population occur, these inversions protect the co-  
349 adapted gene complexes from recombination, resulting in stable inversion polymorphisms and/or

350 expansions of the population into new habitat, finally resulting in a more permanent isolation and  
351 differentiation.

352         There is evidence that  $R_{ST}$  may not be the best estimator of population substructure for  
353 microsatellites data. Forbes et al, [69] studied microsatellite evolution in congeneric mammals of  
354 the domestic and bighorn sheep and found that  $F_{ST}$  was more sensitive to differences between  
355 allopatric populations compared to  $R_{ST}$  Perez-Lezaun et al, [70] conducted studies on  
356 microsatellite variation and the differentiation of modern humans and observed that genetic  
357 distance methods such as  $F_{ST}$  which do not take into account mutational relationships among  
358 alleles and which are associated with occurrence of differentiation through drift, have been  
359 shown to be better estimators of patterns of human evolution than do  $R_{ST}$  which are calculated  
360 based on distance methods. Schuget al, [71] suggested that mutation rates at microsatellite loci  
361 are lower than had been previously assumed. By that reasoning, Donnelly et al, [72] concluded  
362 that if the East African *An. arabiensis* populations had experienced a lower mutation rate and  
363 only became isolated very recently,  $R_{ST}$  estimators may not be sufficiently sensitive to detect any  
364 differentiation. Constrains upon accumulation of mutations in each population and a lower rate  
365 of mutation at these loci would increase the influence of drift on allele frequencies. The present  
366 study suggests that  $F_{ST}$  is a more appropriate estimator than  $R_{ST}$  for recently diverged  
367 populations and therefore low mutations can be detected, using  $F_{ST}$ . Kr population was found to  
368 be differentiated from the other populations and reproductively isolated but this was not detected  
369 using  $R_{ST}$ .

370         High genetic similarity between My and Hj which are geographically close to each other  
371 was observed, suggesting that they may represent a single population or gene pool. According to

372 [51], neighbouring populations are expected to be genetically more related than distant  
373 populations and high gene flow generally prevent local adaptation. Consequently human  
374 transportation or wind dispersal may be the reason behind the continuous gene flow between  
375 these two localities and to a lower degree, two others namely GW and H.sh. The high gene flow  
376 found between these particular populations in this study is interesting with regards to the spread  
377 of insecticide resistance in Sudan. It is concordant with Kent et al, [17] who studied spatial and  
378 temporal genetic structure of *An. arabiensis* in Southern Zambia. They observed high gene flow  
379 between Macha and Namwala populations, in Southern Zambia. This was also in agreement with  
380 Muturi *et al.* [18] who found high gene flow among the three populations of *An. arabiensis* in  
381 Central Kenya. [73] detected a significant correlation between gene flow and commercial traffic  
382 by planes and/or boats between islands on *Aedes polynesiensis* populations from islands in  
383 French Polynesia.

384 The Mantel test showed no evidence of isolation by distance in this study, similar with  
385 that reported by Nyanjom et al, [15] in populations of *An. arabiensis* from Ethiopia and Eritrea.  
386 Isolation by distance could occur due to the limited flight range of *An. Arabiensis* Adams, [74]  
387 but this was not the case for this study. It is known that the the distributional range of any species  
388 is largely shaped by historical and geographical events. The species will extend its range until it  
389 reaches a physical (mountain ranges, deserts and major geographic feature) or other forms of  
390 barriers (example climatic changes). However, there are no variable ecological zones, or great  
391 physical barriers which could have led to population structuring. These results points to great  
392 impact of transportation in the genetic structure of *An. arabiensis* along the River Nile. Thus,  
393 presumably, any differentiation could largely be due to other factors than geographic distance. A

394 similar observation was seen within *An. atroparvus* Vicente et al, [61] where no correlation  
395 between geographic or genetic distances was detected in a study conducted in southern Europe.  
396 In agreement, Kamau et al, [76] using microsatellite loci revealed that there were no significant  
397 relation between geographic and genetic distance in *An.arabiensis* and *An. gambiae* suggesting  
398 that levels of genetic differentiation are not related to geographical distance and not associated to  
399 the side on which populations were sampled in relation to the Rift Valley. This finding is in  
400 contrast with Azrag, [40] who found that there was significant genetic differentiation related to  
401 geographic distance in their study on *An. arabiensis* in northern Sudan. Their samples showed  
402 increasing differentiation with increasing geographical separation. Chen et al, [64] who studied  
403 population genetic structure of *An. gambiae* mosquitoes on Lake Victoria islands, west Kenya  
404 revealed a significant correlation between geographic distance and pairwise distance. On the  
405 other hand, Failloux et al,[73] found no significant effect of geographic distance on the  
406 population genetic structure on *Aedes polynesiensis* populations from islands in French Polynesia  
407 in contrast to the genetic structuring pattern of *Culex pipiensquinques fasciatus* from the same  
408 islands. In the latter species, genetic differentiation increased considerably ( $P < 0.01$ ) with  
409 geographic distance [75]. These differences may be due to the variable biology of the two  
410 species as well as their histories of colonization. This study conclude high population  
411 differentiation and continuous gene flow among the studied populations, however without any  
412 signs of isolation. The high migration rate and lack of interpopulation genetic variation among  
413 the Sudanese population was attributed to the continuous human and domestic animals  
414 movement among the studied localities that might help in the distribution of *An. arabiensis*.

415

## 416 **Population size bottleneck**

417 No severe bottleneck or reduction in population size was detected in the *An. arabiensis*  
418 populations of Sudan except in AlHajYousif (Hj). This was evident from the significance in  
419 Wilcoxon sign-rank test which was also supported by the “shifted mode” allele distribution. In  
420 comparison, the other populations had relatively higher rare alleles than common alleles, a sign  
421 that these populations are experiencing mutation-drift equilibrium. The situation at AlHajYousif  
422 (Hj) is likely due to the effective vector control programme in this area. This finding did not  
423 agree with the Muturi et al,[18] who studied the population genetic structure of *An. arabiensis* in  
424 central Kenya. They did not find any evidence of genetic bottlenecks in the area under different  
425 agricultural practices. Furthermore, there was no evidence of a genetic bottleneck in *An.*  
426 *arabiensis* despite a drastic reduction in mosquito numbers during the drought year in southern  
427 Zambia as reported by Kent et al,[17]. This is similar to the present study, where there is a  
428 reduction in *An. arabiensis* during the dry season but no occurrence of genetic bottlenecks apart  
429 from Hj which is under vector control programmes. Hj, My and Gw in Khartoum state have very  
430 strong programmes of malarial control ‘Khartoum Malaria Free Initiative’ started from 2001 to  
431 2009. The significant achievement in malarial control in Khartoum state is highly evident. For  
432 example, the percentage of malaria cases among the followers of health services decreased from  
433 20 percentage in 2001 to just 3.3 percentage in 2008 and the parasitological incidence has gone  
434 down from 91 to just 4 per 10,000 population. Another programme was initiated in 2011 and is  
435 due to end in 2015. The objective of this initiative is to decrease the number of morbidity and  
436 mortality of malaria cases by 90% by 2015 in northern Sudan compared to the number of  
437 reported cases in 2009. However, results of this study in My and Gw did not show any

438 reduction. This could be explained due to the resistance to insecticide. Therefore, no reduction in  
439 these populations means they are expanding or developing up quickly.

#### 440 **Declarations**

441 Ethics approval and consent to participate

442 Not applicable.

443 Consent for publication

444 Not applicable.

445 Availability of data and materials

446 All data generated or analysed during this study are included in the text.

447 Competing interests

448 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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452 Authors' contributions

453 MSM: did the field and practical labwork, data analyses and prepared the manuscript. ZJ and  
454 SMN supervised the study and edited the manuscript. SA supervised the field work.

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# Figures

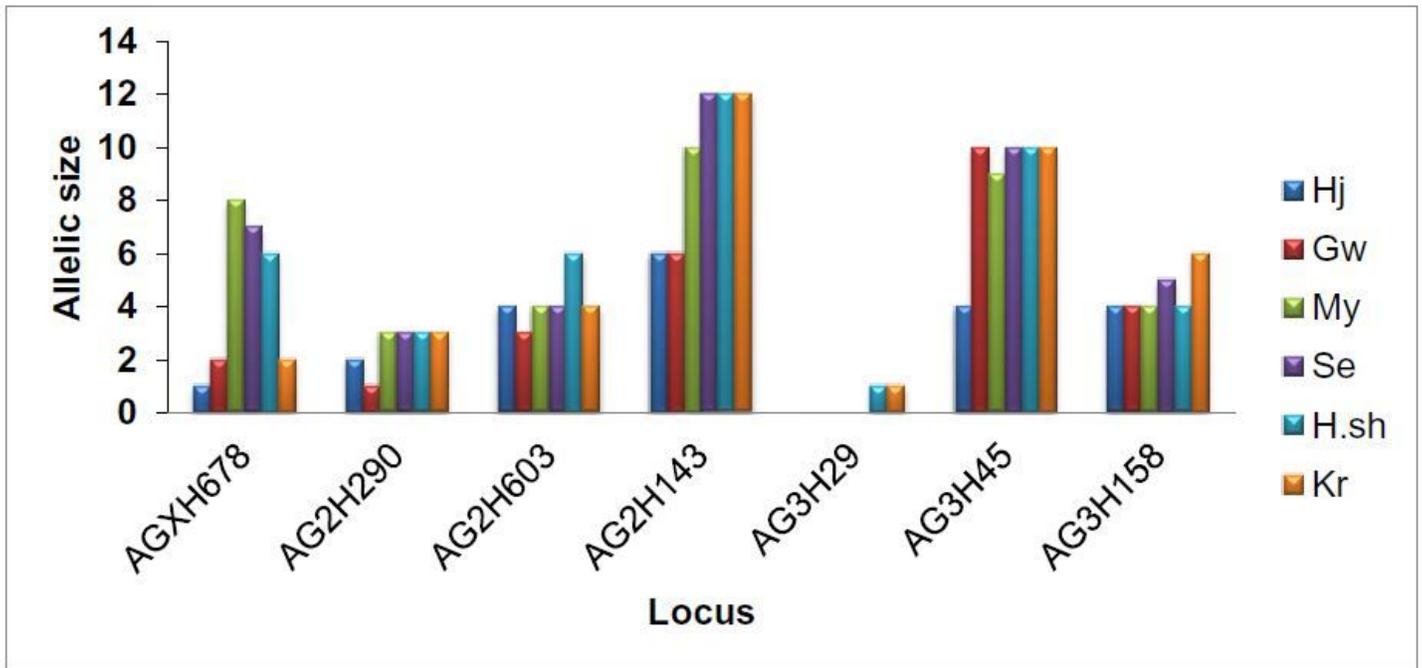
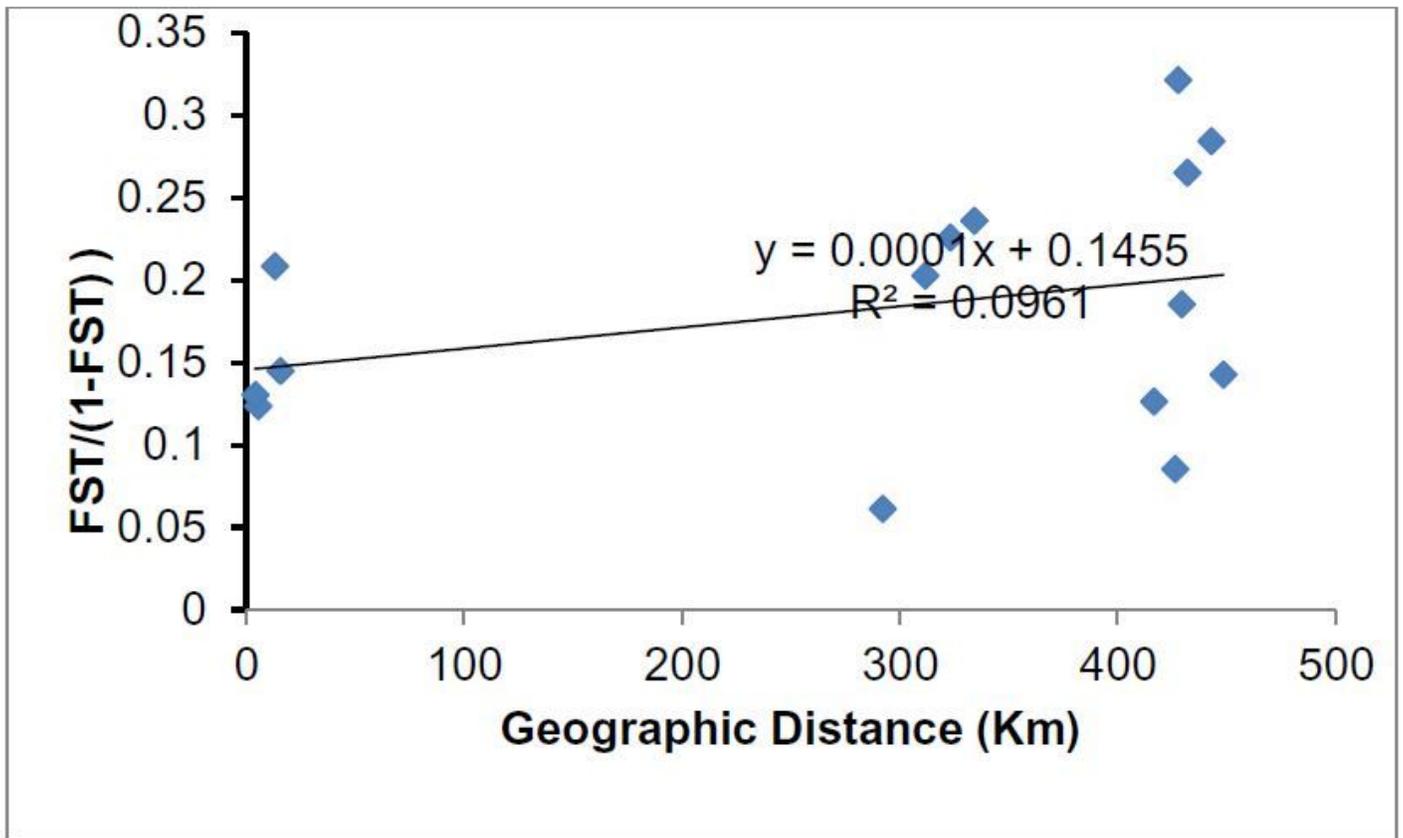


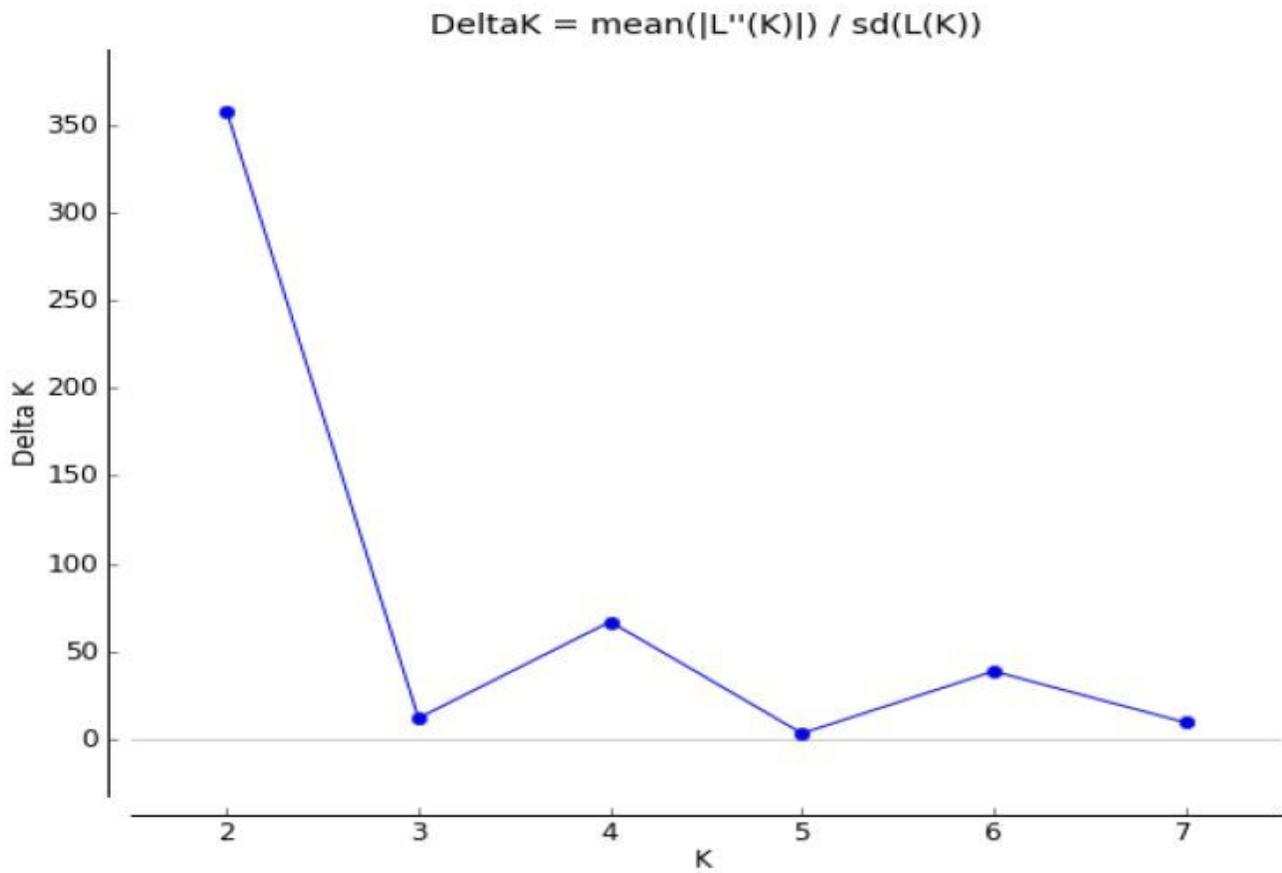
Figure 1

Number of alleles observed in each locus for each population.



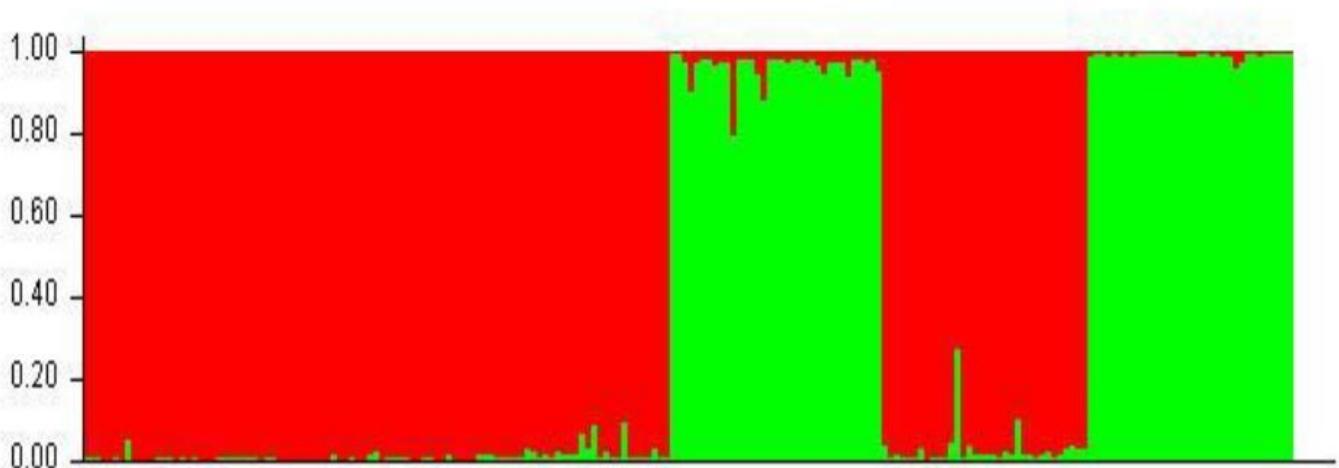
**Figure 2**

Scatter plot of the relationship between genetic and geographic distances. No significant correlation between genetic differentiation and geographic distance among *An. arabiensis* populations.



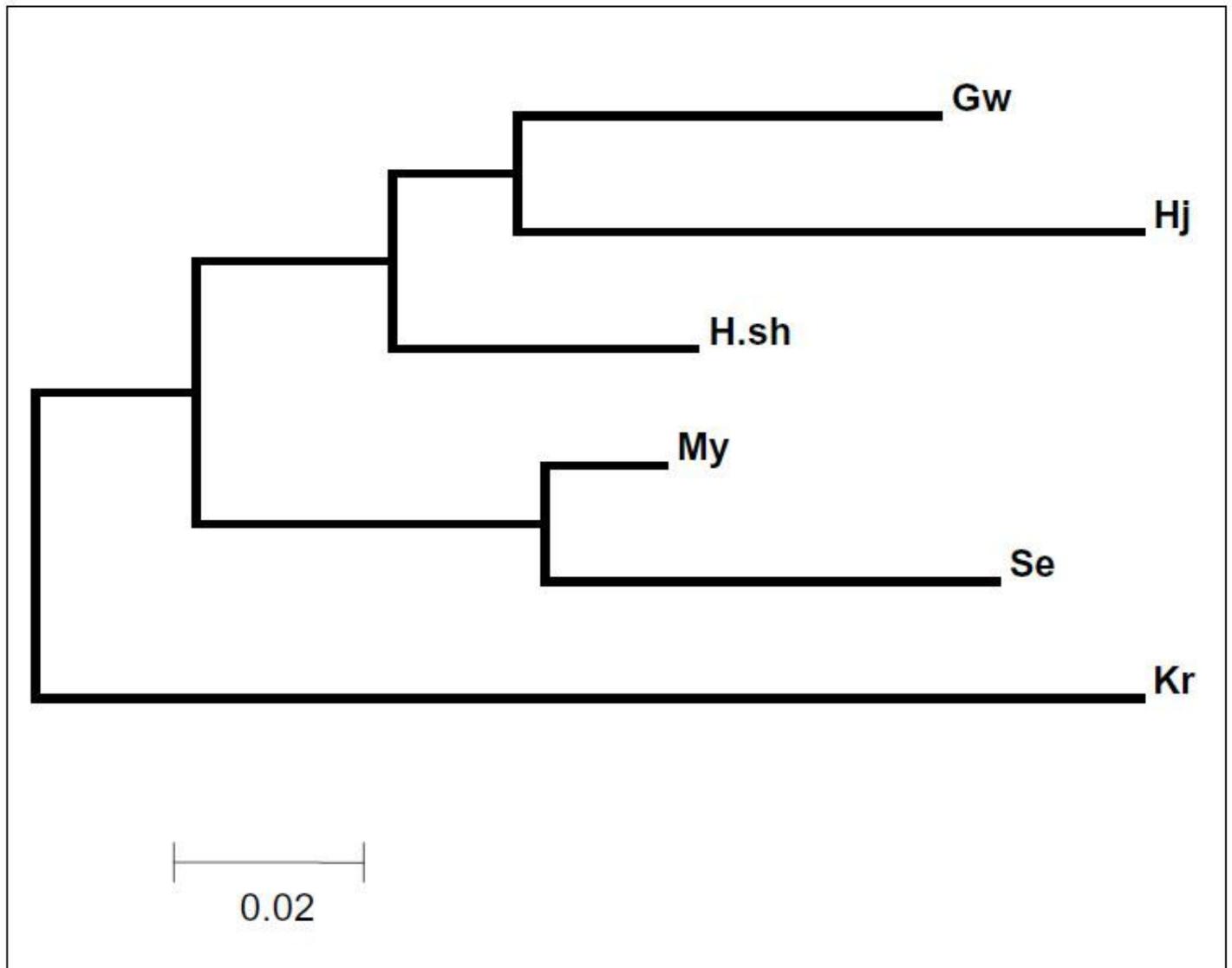
**Figure 3**

Graphical analysis using STRUCTURE.HARVESTER Representation of the data set for the populations most likely K (K = 2).



**Figure 4**

Graphical Bayesian cluster analysis using STRUCTURE. Representation of the data set for the most likely K (K = 2), where each color corresponds to a suggested cluster. Subpopulation A (red color) includes Hj, Gw, My and H.sh populations and subpopulation B (green color) includes Se and Kr populations.



**Figure 5**

Phylogenetic tree based on Neighbour Joining method The phylogenetic tree of *An. arabiensis* populations from Sudan. Hj, GW and H.sh, My and Se are highly genetically related, while Kr appeared to be highly differentiated from other populations.

## Supplementary Files

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