



# No evidence of lymphatic filariasis transmission in Bamako urban setting after three mass drug administration rounds

Yaya Ibrahim Coulibaly<sup>1,2</sup> · Moussa Sangare<sup>1,3</sup> · Housseini Dolo<sup>1</sup> · Lamine Soumaoro<sup>1</sup> · Siaka Yamoussa Coulibaly<sup>1</sup> · Ilo Dicko<sup>1</sup> · Abdoul Fatao Diabaté<sup>1</sup> · Lamine Diarra<sup>1</sup> · Michel Emmanuel Coulibaly<sup>1</sup> · Salif Seriba Doumbia<sup>1</sup> · Abdallah Amadou Diallo<sup>1</sup> · Massitan Dembele<sup>4</sup> · Benjamin G. Koudou<sup>5,6</sup> · Moses John Bockarie<sup>7</sup> · Louise A. Kelly-Hope<sup>8,9</sup> · Amy D. Klion<sup>10</sup> · Thomas B. Nutman<sup>10</sup>

Received: 22 March 2022 / Accepted: 30 August 2022 / Published online: 6 September 2022  
© The Author(s) 2022

## Abstract

Lymphatic filariasis (LF) elimination activities started in Mali in 2005 in the most endemic areas and reached countrywide coverage in 2009. In 2004, the district of Bamako was endemic for LF with a prevalence of 1.5%. The current study was designed to determine LF endemicity level in the urban area of Bamako after three rounds of ivermectin and albendazole mass drug administration (MDA). A cross-sectional study was conducted in 2011 in Bamako city, consisting of human prevalence and entomological surveys. Volunteers aged 14 years and above were invited to participate and tested for evidence of *Wuchereria bancrofti* using night time blood thick smear microfilarial count and blood spots for LF antibodies using the SD BIOLINE Oncho/LF IgG4 Biplax rapid test (Ov16/Wb123). Mosquitoes were collected using CDC light and gravid traps and tested using molecular methods. Poolscreen software v2.0 was used to estimate vector transmission potential. Of the 899 volunteers, one (0.11%) was found to be positive for LF using the Oncho/LF IgG4 Biplax rapid test, and none was found to have *Wuchereria bancrofti* microfilariae. No mosquitoes were found infected among 6174 *Culex* spp. (85.2%), 16 *Anopheles gambiae s.l.* (*An. gambiae s.l.*) (0.2%), 26 *Aedes* spp. (0.4%), 858 Ceratopogonidae (11.8%) and 170 other insects not identified (2.3%) tested. Our data indicate that there was no active LF transmission in the low prevalence urban district of Bamako after three MDA rounds. These data helped the National LF programme move forward towards the elimination goal.

**Keywords** Lymphatic filariasis · Mass drug administration · Vector collection methods · *Anopheles gambiae* complex · Sudan savannah area · Mali

## Introduction

Of the five genera of mosquitoes that transmit lymphatic filariasis (LF), *Culex* (*Cx.*) is the most common worldwide and represents, through the *Cx. pipiens* complex (especially *Cx. quinquefasciatus*), the principal vector of nocturnal periodic *Wuchereria bancrofti* (*W. bancrofti*) in urban areas of Asia, eastern Africa, the West Indies, South America and Micronesia (Bockarie et al. 2009). The high density of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* in urban areas is due to the high frequency of the specific types of breeding sites this species prefers,

such as different types of stagnant, often polluted, water (Castro et al. 2010). This also leads to their persistence even in the dry season. Based solely on the vector-parasite relationship, *Culex* species (*Culex* spp.) are potentially more competent for LF transmission than anopheline mosquitoes, especially when the microfilarial load is low, as would be the case following mass drug administration (MDA) (Curtis et al. 1983; Curtis et al. 1981). In West Africa, including Mali (Touré 1979), anopheline species are less abundant in urban areas than *Culex* spp. but are the main vectors of LF (de Souza et al. 2012). This may be due to decreased susceptibility of *Culex* spp. to West African strains of *W. bancrofti* (Cano et al. 2014), as compared to strains from India, Sri Lanka (Kuhlow and Zielke 1978) and Tanzania (Curtis et al. 1981).

In Mali, LF elimination activities started in 2005 in the most endemic areas and scaled up to reach 100%

Handling Editor: Una Ryan

✉ Moussa Sangare  
mbsangare@icermali.org

Extended author information available on the last page of the article

geographic coverage in 2009 (Dembélé et al. 2012). In the urban district of Bamako, low prevalence (1.5%) was found among the 599 people tested (about 100 persons per locality in six localities) using the immunochromatographic card test (ICT); only nine people were positive (0 positive in 2 localities, 1 positive in 2 localities, and 5 and 2 positives respectively in 2 localities) (National LF Elimination Program 2004 LF mapping report). Localities with positive subjects were in the peripheral peri-urban areas of the city posing the necessity to consider urban and peri-urban components of large cities such as Bamako as separate implementation units (Koudou et al. 2018). Three rounds of MDA were conducted in Bamako prior to the initiation of the current study with treatment coverage rates of 77%, 100% and 100% in 2008, 2009 and 2010 (Adams et al. 2018), respectively. The aim of this study was to assess the prevalence in a low endemicity urban setting after three rounds of MDA.

## Methods

### Study design and sites

The study was conducted in Bamako, the capital city of Mali in West Africa. It is the most populated of the 63 districts of the country with an estimated population of 1,810,000 inhabitants in 2009. The city is located in the Sudan savannah area, covers an area of 1420 km<sup>2</sup>. It has a tropical wet and dry climate with the Niger River running through its centre. Cross-sectional surveys of human prevalence were conducted across eight quartiers of the city, which included six programmatic sentinel sites in six quartiers plus two additional sites with similar geographical characteristics (Bakaribougou, Bozola, Dialakorodji, Faladiè, Niamakoro, Sabalibougou, Sirakoro dounfing and Taliko).

### Human prevalence

In March–April 2011, blood samples from volunteers in the eight quarters were collected. First, the head of each quartier as well as the local leaders were convened to explain the purpose of the study and obtain community consent for both the entomological and parasitological components of the study. The research team worked with the local health workers through the whole process. Volunteers aged 14 years and above who were permanent residents in the selected localities were invited to participate in the study. The volunteers, after signing an informed consent form if aged 18

and above, or an assent form if < 18 years in addition to the consent form signed by a tutor, underwent a brief health history interview focused on LF. Depending on the pathology detected by the physician, advice was provided as well as assistance or free medicines if needed and available with the research team.

Blood samples were collected using finger prick on site for three calibrated 20- $\mu$ L blood films on three different glass slides between 10 pm and 2 am as well as three blood spots of 20  $\mu$ L each on Whatman® filter papers. The following day, the slides were dried on site and sent to the laboratory for 5% Giemsa staining and reading by experienced stereomicroscopists. The dried blood spots (DBS) were stored in individual envelopes at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  with a desiccant (silica gel) for subsequent *W. bancrofti* Wb123 antibody detection using the SD BIOLINE Oncho/LF IgG4 Biplax rapid test (Ov16/Wb123) (Steel et al. 2015). At the time of testing, the DBS samples were thawed and a 6-mm disc punched out and placed in a 96-well elution plate. Elution buffer (100  $\mu$ L) was added to each well and pipetted up and down to mix. The plate was covered and incubated overnight (12–24 h) at  $2-8^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The following day, the sample was mixed again with a pipet prior to the addition of a 10  $\mu$ L sample of DBS eluate to the appropriate wells of the test strips. Test results were read after 30 min (Steel et al. 2015).

### Entomological data

Vector collections were conducted in October 2011. During the day of collection in each quartier, six CDC light traps (indoor) and six CDC gravid traps (outdoor) were used from 6 pm to 6 am. Each light trap was in a volunteer's room and operated after removing all the other sources of light. It was suspended at about 1.3 m above the floor of the room, close to the occupant who used a bednet. At each of the eight collection sites, one light trap and one gravid trap were operated 100 m apart.

### Entomological processing

Mosquitoes were sorted by morphology into distinct species (*Culex* spp., *An. gambiae* s.l., *Anopheles funestus* s.l., other *Anopheles* species and *Aedes* spp.) and stored in pools of one to 30 according to the collection method and the quartier in 1-mL Nunc® Tubes containing absolute alcohol (Dahan-Moss et al. 2020). The next day, they were stored at room temperature in the laboratory before the PCR processing to detect *W. bancrofti* DNA. The PCR technique used was previously described by Rao et al. in 2006 (Rao et al. 2006).

## Data management and analysis

Vector infection likelihood and the related 95% confidence intervals were estimated using Poolscreen v2.0 software (Katholi and Unnasch 2006). Collected data were analysed using SPSS version 25 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL) and GraphPad Prism version 5 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA) softwares. For proportion comparisons, the  $\chi^2$  test or the Fisher's exact test was used as appropriate.

## Results

### Parasitological data

The number of subjects enrolled in the eight localities ranged from 81 (Faladie) to 207 (Dialakorodji). In total, 1002 volunteers were enrolled, and women (66.3%) and people aged 14–24 years (42%) made up the majority (Table 1). All 1002 night time blood thick smears were negative for *W. bancrofti*. Of the 1002 volunteers, 899 were tested using Oncho/LF IgG4 Biplax rapid test (Ov16/Wb123) with only one volunteer found positive for LF (Wb123) in Dialakorodji quartier (0.11% (1/899) Table 2).

### Entomological data

A total of 6174 *Culex* spp. (85.2%), 16 *An. gambiae s.l.* (0.2%), 26 *Aedes* spp. (0.4%), 858 Ceratopogonidae (11.8%) and 170 other insects not identified (2.3%) were collected. The 6174 *Culex* spp. were pooled into 1 to 30 specimens per pool to make the 252 pools that were tested. Two additional pools made with the 16 *An. gambiae s.l.* and the 26 *Aedes* spp. were also tested. No infected pool was identified using PCR (Table 3).

**Table 2** *Wuchereria bancrofti* infections prevalence variations in the eight study localities of Bamako using the Biplax on filter paper dried blood sample

Localities	Total enrolled	Number tested	Positive	
			Wb123	%
Bakaribougou	149	148	0	0
Bozola	141	65	0	0
Dialakorodji	207	207	1	0.48
Faladie	81	81	0	0
Niamakoro	88	88	0	0
Sabalibougou	100	74	0	0
Sirakoro dounfing	142	142	0	0
Taliko	94	94	0	0
Total	1002	899	1	0.11

## Discussion

Our data provide evidence for a lack of LF transmission in Bamako, which is in line with what has been found in other large West African cities (de Souza et al. 2014). Moreover, our results suggest that *Culex* mosquitoes are the most frequent mosquitoes in Bamako, which are not known as vectors of LF in Mali (Coulibaly et al. 2016; Coulibaly et al. 2006; Coulibaly et al. 2015). Low baseline transmission combined with the three MDA rounds completed before the initiation of the current study likely explains these results. Although early assessments suggested the presence of LF transmission in Bamako, this may have been due to false positive results obtained with certain batches of the ICT used in Mali at that time (Chu et al. 2013; Joseph et al. 2011).

Some studies have shown through laboratory experiments that both vector mosquitoes and non-competent vector species may contain parasite DNA (Cook et al. 2017; Erickson et al. 2009; Fischer et al. 2007; Mukabana et al. 2002). Nonetheless, positive parasitic DNA test results in mosquitoes

**Table 1** Characteristics of the study population

Localities	Total enrolled	Gender		Age groups (years)					
		Women (%)	Men (%)	14–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	≥ 65
Bakaribougou	149	63.1	36.9	56	22	9.4	6	2.7	4
Bozola	141	85.1	14.9	57	16	11	8.5	3.6	4.3
Dialakorodji	207	70.1	29.9	38	17	17	14	8.7	5.3
Faladie	81	43.2	56.8	41	19	17	11	9.9	2.5
Niamakoro	88	80.7	19.3	49	14	23	8	4.6	2.3
Sabalibougou	100	54	46	35	23	20	12	6	4
Sirakoro dounfing	142	68.3	31.7	25	17	11	21	13	13
Taliko	94	51.1	48.9	33	20	13	11	11	13
Total	1002	66.3	33.7	42	18	15	12	7.3	6.2

**Table 3** Number of flying insects collected per species in the seven visited localities of Bamako in October 2011

Localities	<i>Culex</i> spp.		<i>An. gam- biae s.l</i>		<i>An. funestus</i>		<i>Aedes</i> spp.		Ceratopogo- nidae		Other		Total N
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Faladie	1318	95.6	2	0.1	0	0	4	0.3	34	2.5	20	1.5	1378
Bakaribougou	1235	95.1	2	0.2	0	0	0	0	42	3.2	19	1.5	1298
Dialakorodji	572	91.1	4	0.7	0	0	7	1.1	16	2.5	29	4.6	628
Niamakoro	710	85.7	1	0.1	0	0	6	0.7	90	10.9	21	2.5	828
Sabalibougou	1309	75.9	0	0	0	0	2	0.1	400	23.2	14	0.8	1725
Sirakoro	274	47.2	6	1	0	0	4	0.7	254	43.7	43	7.4	581
Taliko	756	93.8	1	0.1	0	0	3	0.4	22	2.7	24	3	806
Total	6174	85.2	16	0.2	0	0	26	0.4	858	11.8	170	2.3	7244

*Sirakoro*, Sirakoro dounfing; *spp.*, species

does not provide definitive evidence that transmission is occurring in the study area. The human data strongly suggest that LF is not a public health problem in Bamako and that active transmission is not occurring. Although *An. gambiae s.l.* abundance was relatively low in the study site due to the fact that the study was conducted during the dry season (Sissoko et al. 2015), the total number of mosquitoes collected was substantial and would allow detection of infection rates as low as one infected female out of 1000 tested.

We processed 6174 *Culex* spp. with no infection identified. Such a low *W. bancrofti* microfilarial prevalence could be expected after three MDA in endemic areas if initial prevalence were low. Similar results have been reported by other studies around the world (Farid et al. 2007; Goodman et al. 2003; Mehta et al. 2018). In Bamako, given the limitation pattern that characterises the *Culex* spp. and increases its ability to take up microfilariae and bring them to the infective stage even if the microfilarial load is very low (Pichon 2002), results from such number of vectors is strongly suggestive of a lack of transmission. This is due to the lack or very rare mosquito-infected human host contact as demonstrated by the current xenomonitoring findings. It has been reported that even mosquitoes that feed on a microfilarial carrier can be detected as positive because of *W. bancrofti* DNA in the ingested blood (Rao et al. 2006). Moreover, the absence of microfilariae in the tested samples highlights the non-availability or rarity of an infection reservoir for the local mosquitoes to sustain transmission in Bamako. Surveillance should be continued as in any endemic or at risk of transmission area in order to detect early resurgence or appearance of LF (Chu et al. 2013).

After our study in 2011, additional MDA rounds were conducted in 2011, 2012, 2013, 2015 and 2016, followed by a series of transmission assessment surveys (TAS). TAS 1 was conducted in 2016 with 0 positive out of 3471 children tested; TAS 2 in 2018 with 0 positive out of 3430 children tested and finally TAS 3 in 2022 with 1 positive child out of 7905 children tested. Based

on these recent results from the various evaluations, we can say with confidence that LF transmission is interrupted in Bamako. All of the other evaluation units in Mali ( $n = 19$ ) also underwent the three required TAS. These results are available from the National Program for the Elimination of Lymphatic Filariasis in Mali upon request and have not been published yet. As a result of the TAS data, MDA was stopped in all evaluation units in Mali in 2016.

## Conclusion

Based on the collected data, three rounds of MDA were sufficient to interrupt transmission in Bamako, the urban centre of Mali.

**Abbreviations** CDC: United States Center for Disease Control and Prevention; DNA: Deoxyribonucleic acid; GPELF: The Global Programme to Eliminate Lymphatic Filariasis; ICT: Immunochromatographic test; LF: Lymphatic filariasis; MDA: Mass drug administration; PCR: Polymerase chain reaction

**Acknowledgements** The author would like to express warm gratitude to the many people who gave generously of their time and knowledge in the preparation and the implementation of this study. Especially, the health staff of Bamako district, the community health workers and all the participants.

**Author contribution** Yaya Ibrahim Coulibaly, Moussa Sangare, Housseini Dolo, Moses John Bockarie, Benjamin G. Koudou, Louise A. Kelly-Hope, Amy D. Klion and Thomas B. Nutman designed and conceived the study.

Amy D. Klion, Louise A. Kelly-Hope, Moses John Bockarie and Thomas B. Nutman approved final version of the manuscript and helped with the analysis.

Yaya Ibrahim Coulibaly, Moussa Sangare, Housseini Dolo, Siaka Yamoussa Coulibaly, Ilo Dicko, Lamine Diarra, Abdoul Fatao Diabaté, Lamine Soumaoro, Michel Emmanuel Coulibaly, Salif Seriba Doumbia and Abdallah Amadou Diallo collected, processed the samples and drafted the manuscript.

Yaya Ibrahim Coulibaly, Moussa Sangare, Housseini Dolo, Benjamin G. Koudou, Amy D. Klion, Louise A. Kelly-Hope, Thomas B. Nutman

and Moses John Bockarie managed the data, did the statistical analysis and helped to draft the manuscript. All the authors read and approved the final manuscript.

**Funding** This study was supported in part by the Division of Intramural Research, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID), National Institutes of Health (USA), and the University of Science, Techniques and Technologies of Bamako, Bamako, Mali.

**Data availability** The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author (Moussa Sangare, mbsangare@icer-mali.org), upon reasonable request.

## Declarations

**Ethics approval** A collective quartier-wide oral consent was obtained from village elders and head of quarters, and all mosquito collectors and participants enrolled in parasitological study signed an individual written consent. The study protocol and consent forms were approved by the Malian National Institute of Research in Public Health Ethical Committee, Bamako, Mali (Reference #9/11/CE-INRSP).

**Consent to participate** Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

**Competing interests** The authors declare no competing interests.

**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/>.

## References

- Adams AM et al (2018) Eliminating neglected tropical diseases in urban areas: a review of challenges, strategies and research directions for successful mass drug administration. *Trop Med Infect Dis* 3(4). <https://doi.org/10.3390/tropicalmed3040122>
- Bockarie MJ, Pedersen EM, White GB, Michael E (2009) Role of vector control in the global program to eliminate lymphatic filariasis. *Annu Rev Entomol* 54:469–487. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ento.54.110807.090626>
- Cano J et al (2014) The global distribution and transmission limits of lymphatic filariasis: past and present. *Parasit Vectors* 7:466. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-014-0466-x>
- Castro MC, Kanamori S, Kannady K, Mkude S, Killeen GF, Fillinger U (2010) The importance of drains for the larval development of lymphatic filariasis and malaria vectors in Dar es Salaam, United Republic of Tanzania. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 4(5):e693. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0000693>
- Chu BK et al (2013) Transmission assessment surveys (TAS) to define endpoints for lymphatic filariasis mass drug administration: a multicenter evaluation. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 7(12):e2584. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0002584>
- Cook DAN, Pilotte N, Minetti C, Williams SA, Reimer LJ (2017) A superhydrophobic cone to facilitate the xenomonitoring of filarial parasites, malaria, and trypanosomes using mosquito excreta/feces. *Gates Open Res* 1:7. <https://doi.org/10.12688/gatesopenres.12749.2>
- Coulibaly YI et al (2016) Dynamics of antigenemia and transmission intensity of *Wuchereria bancrofti* following cessation of mass drug administration in a formerly highly endemic region of Mali. *Parasit Vectors* 9(1):628. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-016-1911-9>
- Coulibaly YI, Dao S, Traore AK, Diallo A, Sacko M, Traoré SF (2006) Presence and risk of transmission of *Wuchereria bancrofti* is a reality in rural Mali: the case of the town of Bariambani in the Circle of Kati. *Mali Med* 21(1):12–17
- Coulibaly YI et al (2015) The impact of six annual rounds of mass drug administration on *Wuchereria bancrofti* Infections in humans and in mosquitoes in Mali. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 93(2):356–360. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.14-0516>
- Curtis CF et al (1983) Susceptibility of aposymbiotic *Culex quinquefasciatus* to *Wuchereria bancrofti*. *J Invertebr Pathol* 41(2):214–223. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-2011\(83\)90221-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-2011(83)90221-5)
- Curtis CF, Kihamia CM, Ramji BD (1981) Tests of susceptibility of Liberian *Culex quinquefasciatus* to Tanzanian *Wuchereria bancrofti*. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 75(5):736–739. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0035-9203\(81\)90166-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/0035-9203(81)90166-8)
- Dahan-Moss Y et al (2020) Member species of the *Anopheles gambiae* complex can be misidentified as *Anopheles lesoni*. *Malar J* 19(1):89. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12936-020-03168-x>
- de Souza DK, Koudou B, Kelly-Hope LA, Wilson MD, Bockarie MJ, Boakye DA (2012) Diversity and transmission competence in lymphatic filariasis vectors in West Africa, and the implications for accelerated elimination of *Anopheles*-transmitted filariasis. *Parasit Vectors* 5:259. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1756-3305-5-259>
- de Souza DK et al (2014) No evidence for lymphatic filariasis transmission in big cities affected by conflict related rural-urban migration in Sierra Leone and Liberia. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 8(2):e2700. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0002700>
- Dembélé M et al (2012) Implementing preventive chemotherapy through an integrated National Neglected Tropical Disease Control Program in Mali. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 6(3):e1574. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0001574>
- Erickson SM, Fischer K, Weil GJ, Christensen BM, Fischer PU (2009) Distribution of *Brugia malayi* larvae and DNA in vector and non-vector mosquitoes: implications for molecular diagnostics. *Parasit Vectors* 2(1):56. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1756-3305-2-56>
- Farid HA, Morsy ZS, Helmy H, Ramzy RM, El Setouhy M, Weil GJ (2007) A critical appraisal of molecular xenomonitoring as a tool for assessing progress toward elimination of lymphatic filariasis. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 77(4):593–600
- Fischer P et al (2007) Persistence of *Brugia malayi* DNA in vector and non-vector mosquitoes: implications for xenomonitoring and transmission monitoring of lymphatic filariasis. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 76(3):502–507
- Goodman DS, Orelus JN, Roberts JM, Lammie PJ, Streit TG (2003) PCR and mosquito dissection as tools to monitor filarial infection levels following mass treatment. *Filaria J* 2(1):11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2883-2-11>
- Joseph H et al (2011) Application of the filariasis CELISA antifilarial IgG(4) antibody assay in surveillance in lymphatic filariasis elimination programmes in the South Pacific. *J Trop Med* 2011:492023. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2011/492023>
- Katholi CR, Unnasch TR (2006) Important experimental parameters for determining infection rates in arthropod vectors using pool screening approaches. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 74(5):779–785
- Koudou BG et al (2018) Elimination of lymphatic filariasis in west African urban areas: is implementation of mass drug

- administration necessary? *Lancet Infect Dis* 18(6):e214–e220. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1473-3099\(18\)30069-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1473-3099(18)30069-0)
- Kuhlow F, Zielke E (1978) Dynamics and intensity of *Wuchereria bancrofti* transmission in the savannah and forest regions of Liberia. *Tropenmed Parasitol* 29(3):371–381
- Mehta PK, Rauniyar R, Gupta BP (2018) Microfilaria persistent foci during post MDA and the risk assessment of resurgence in India. *Trop Med Health* 46:25. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41182-018-0107-8>
- Mukabana WR, Takken W, Knols BG (2002) Analysis of arthropod bloodmeals using molecular genetic markers. *Trends Parasitol* 18(11):505–509. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1471-4922\(02\)02364-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1471-4922(02)02364-4)
- Pichon G (2002) Limitation and facilitation in the vectors and other aspects of the dynamics of filarial transmission: the need for vector control against Anopheles-transmitted filariasis. *Ann Trop Med Parasitol* 96(Suppl 2):S143–S152. <https://doi.org/10.1179/000349802125002509>
- Rao RU et al (2006) A real-time PCR-based assay for detection of *Wuchereria bancrofti* DNA in blood and mosquitoes. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 74(5):826–832
- Sissoko MS et al (2015) Spatial patterns of plasmodium falciparum clinical incidence, asymptomatic parasite carriage and Anopheles density in two villages in Mali. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 93(4):790–797. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.14-0765>
- Steel C et al (2015) Rapid point-of-contact tool for mapping and integrated surveillance of *Wuchereria bancrofti* and *Onchocerca volvulus* infection. *Clin Vaccine Immunol* 22(8):896–901. <https://doi.org/10.1128/cvi.00227-15>
- Touré YT (1979) Bio-ecologie des Anopheles (Diptera: Culicidae) dans une zone rurale de savane soudanienne au Mali village de Banambani – Arrondissement de Kati: Incidence sur la transmission du Paludisme et de la Filariose de Bancroft. PhD dissertation University of Mali/ISFRA, Bamako, Mali

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

## Authors and Affiliations

Yaya Ibrahim Coulibaly<sup>1,2</sup> · Moussa Sangare<sup>1,3</sup> · Housseini Dolo<sup>1</sup> · Lamine Soumaoro<sup>1</sup> · Siaka Yamoussa Coulibaly<sup>1</sup> · Ilo Dicko<sup>1</sup> · Abdoul Fatao Diabaté<sup>1</sup> · Lamine Diarra<sup>1</sup> · Michel Emmanuel Coulibaly<sup>1</sup> · Salif Seriba Doumbia<sup>1</sup> · Abdallah Amadou Diallo<sup>1</sup> · Massitan Dembele<sup>4</sup> · Benjamin G. Koudou<sup>5,6</sup> · Moses John Bockarie<sup>7</sup> · Louise A. Kelly-Hope<sup>8,9</sup> · Amy D. Klion<sup>10</sup> · Thomas B. Nutman<sup>10</sup>

Yaya Ibrahim Coulibaly  
yicoulibaly@icermali.org

Housseini Dolo  
hdolo@icermali.org

Lamine Soumaoro  
soumla@icermali.org

Siaka Yamoussa Coulibaly  
yamoussa@icermali.org

Ilo Dicko  
ilo@icermali.org

Abdoul Fatao Diabaté  
afatao@icermali.org

Lamine Diarra  
lamdiarra@icermali.org

Michel Emmanuel Coulibaly  
michou@icermali.org

Salif Seriba Doumbia  
salifdoumbia@icermali.org

Abdallah Amadou Diallo  
abdallahamadoudiallo@icermali.org

Massitan Dembele  
masdembele1@gmail.com

Benjamin G. Koudou  
guibehi.koudou@csrs.ci

Moses John Bockarie  
bockarie@edctp.org

Louise A. Kelly-Hope  
l.kelly-hope@liverpool.ac.uk

Amy D. Klion  
aklion@niaid.nih.gov

Thomas B. Nutman  
tnutman@niaid.nih.gov

- 1 Mali - International Center of Excellence in Research (ICER-Mali), University of Sciences, Techniques and Technologies of Bamako, Bamako, Mali
- 2 Dermatology Hospital of Bamako, Bamako, Mali
- 3 Interdisciplinary School of Health Sciences | Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, ON K1N 6N5, Canada
- 4 National Lymphatic Filariasis Elimination Program, Ministry of Health and Public Hygiene, Bamako, Mali
- 5 Centre Suisse de Recherche Scientifiques en Côte d'Ivoire, 01 BP 1303 Abidjan 01, Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire
- 6 UFR Science de la Nature, Université Nangui Abrogoua, 02 BP 801 Abidjan 01, Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire
- 7 School of Community Health Sciences, Njala University, Bo, Sierra Leone
- 8 Centre for Neglected Tropical Diseases, Department of Tropical Disease Biology, Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, Liverpool, UK
- 9 Institute of Infection, Veterinary and Ecological Sciences, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, UK
- 10 Laboratory of Parasitic Diseases, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA