

Peer Community Journal

Section: Evolutionary Biology

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Published
2021-11-24

Cite as

Amélie Vantaux, Franck Yao,
Domonbabele FdS Hien,
Edwige Guissou, Bienvenue K.
Yameogo, Louis-Clément
Gouagna, Didier Fontenille,
François Renaud, Frédéric
Simard, Carlo Constantini,
Frédéric Thomas, Karine
Mouline, Benjamin Roche,
Anna Cohuet, Kounbobj R
Dabiré and Thierry Lefèvre
(2021) Field evidence for
manipulation of mosquito host
selection by the human malaria
parasite, *Plasmodium*
falciparum, Peer Community
Journal, 1: e13.

Correspondence
amelie.vantaux@gmail.com

Peer-review

Peer reviewed and
recommended by

PCI Evolutionary Biology,
<https://doi.org/10.24072/pcievolbiol.100057>



This article is licensed
under the Creative Commons
Attribution 4.0 License.

Field evidence for manipulation of mosquito host selection by the human malaria parasite, *Plasmodium falciparum*

Amélie Vantaux^{1,2}, Franck Yao¹, Domonbabele FdS Hien¹, Edwige Guissou¹, Bienvenue K. Yameogo¹, Louis-Clément Gouagna², Didier Fontenille², François Renaud², Frédéric Simard², Carlo Constantini², Frédéric Thomas², Karine Mouline^{1,3,2}, Benjamin Roche^{2,4}, Anna Cohuet², Kounbobj R Dabiré^{1,3}, and Thierry Lefèvre^{1,3,2}

Volume 1 (2021), article e13

<https://doi.org/10.24072/pcjournal.13>

Abstract

Whether the malaria parasite *Plasmodium falciparum* can manipulate mosquito host choice in ways that enhance parasite transmission toward humans is unknown. We assessed the influence of *P. falciparum* on the blood-feeding behaviour of three of its major vectors (*Anopheles coluzzii*, *An. gambiae* and *An. arabiensis*) in Burkina Faso. Host preference assays using odour-baited traps revealed no effect of infection on mosquito long-range anthropophily. However, the identification of the blood meal origin of mosquitoes showed that females carrying sporozoites, the mature transmissible stage of the parasite, displayed a 24% increase in anthropophagy compared to both females harbouring oocysts, the parasite immature stage, and uninfected individuals. Using a mathematical model, we further showed that this increased anthropophagy in infectious females resulted in a 250% increase in parasite transmission potential, everything else being equal. This important epidemiological consequence highlights the importance of vector control tools targeting infectious females.

¹Institut de Recherche en Sciences de la Santé (IRSS), Bobo-Dioulasso, Burkina Faso., ²MIVEGEC, IRD, CNRS, University of Montpellier, Montpellier, France., ³Laboratoire mixte international sur les vecteurs (LAMIVECT), Bobo Dioulasso, Burkina Faso., ⁴Unité de Modélisation Mathématique et Informatique des Systèmes complexes (UMMISCO), UMI IRD/UPMC209, Bondy, France.

Introduction

There is mounting evidence that malaria parasites affect phenotypic traits of their vectors and hosts in ways that increase contacts between them, hence favouring parasite transmission (Hurd, 2003; Koella, 2005; Lefèvre & Thomas, 2008). In addition to increased vertebrate attractiveness to mosquito vectors (Batista et al., 2014; Busula et al., 2017; Cornet et al., 2013; De Moraes et al., 2014; Emami et al., 2017; Lacroix et al., 2005), another frequently reported parasite-induced change is the alteration of vector motivation and avidity to feed (L. J. Cator et al., 2012; Stanczyk et al., 2017). Mosquitoes infected with *Plasmodium* sporozoites (the mosquito to human transmission stage) can indeed display increased (i) responses to host odours (L. J. Cator et al., 2013; Rossignol et al., 1986), (ii) landing and biting activity (Anderson et al., 1999; Koella et al., 2002; Rossignol et al., 1984, 1986; Smallegange et al., 2013; Wekesa et al., 1992), (iii) number of feeds (Koella et al., 1998) and (iv) blood volume intake (Koella & Packer, 1996; Koella et al., 2002; Koella et al., 1998). In contrast, mosquitoes infected with oocysts (the immature non-transmissible stage of the parasite), are less likely to attempt to feed (Anderson et al., 1999; L. J. Cator et al., 2013; Koella et al., 2002). Since biting is risky (e.g., host defensive behaviours can kill the vector and its parasite), reduced feeding attempts would be beneficial to the parasite during the non-transmissible stage as this would reduce mortality before the parasite reaches maturity and is ready to be transmitted (Schwartz & Koella, 2001).

These “stage-dependent” behavioural alterations likely increase parasite transmission (L. Cator et al., 2014; Dobson, 1988), provided that mosquito feeds are taken on a suitable vertebrate host species for the parasite. While malaria vectors can usually feed on a range of different vertebrate species (Takken & Verhulst, 2013), the malaria parasites they transmit are often highly host-specific, infecting only one or a few vertebrate species (Perkins, 2014). For example *P. falciparum*, which causes the most severe form of human malaria, displays an extreme form of specificity and can develop and reproduce in hominids only (predominantly in humans and to a lesser extent in chimpanzees, bonobos, and gorillas) (Ngoubangoye et al., 2016; Prugnolle et al., 2011; Rayner et al., 2011), such that any mosquito bite on another vertebrate species would be a dead-end for the parasite. In contrast, the vectors of *P. falciparum* can feed on a wide range of vertebrate host species in the wild depending on the geographic area and the relative abundance of humans and other vertebrates (Costantini et al., 1999; Takken & Verhulst, 2013). Accordingly, *P. falciparum* could modify its vector choice in ways that enhance transmission toward humans and/or reduce mosquito attraction to other unsuitable host species (i.e. specific manipulation). A previous study testing this hypothesis found no effect of *P. falciparum* infection on host preference of three major vector species, *An. coluzzii*, *An. gambiae*, and *An. arabiensis* (Nguyen et al., 2017). However, this study examined the odour-mediated mosquito host preference in laboratory conditions using a dual-port olfactometer, not the final realised host choice which is of primary importance for parasite transmission.

Here, we assessed the influence of *P. falciparum* on *An. coluzzii*, *An. gambiae* and *An. arabiensis* blood-feeding behaviour in three villages in Burkina Faso. First, odour-baited traps, set side by side in a choice arrangement and releasing either human or calf odours were used to determine odour-mediated mosquito host preference (Experiment 1). Second, indoor-resting blood-fed mosquito females were collected and the origin of their blood meal was identified to determine mosquito host selection (Experiment 2). Third, we quantified the epidemiological consequences of variation in the patterns of host selection using a compartmental model for *Plasmodium* transmission between humans and mosquitoes.

Material and methods

Collection sites

The study was conducted in three villages in South-Western Burkina Faso: Soumousso (11°23'14"N, 4°24'42"W), Klesso (10°56'40.5"N, 3°59'09.9"W) and Samendeni (11°27'14.3"N, 4°27'37.6"W) (Figure supplement S1). The three villages are located in an area characterized by wooded savannah, where *Anopheles* females only have access to temporary, rain-filled puddles and quarries that permit larval development during the rainy season from June to November. The dry season extends from December to May. In these rural villages, domestic animals (including cattle, goats, sheep, pigs, chickens, donkeys, dogs)

are usually kept in compounds in open conditions but a few households use separate roofed shelters for sheep, goats, pigs and chickens. Most houses are mud-walled with roofs of iron sheets or thatch, but a few houses are made of bricks.

Experiment 1: Mosquito host preference

Two odour-baited entry traps (OBETs as in Costantini et al., 1996; Costantini et al., 1998; Lefèvre et al., 2009) and two odour-baited double net traps (BNTs as in Tangena et al., 2015) baited with calf and human odours were used to assess the host preference of field populations of mosquitoes in Samandeni and Klesso villages (Figure 1). The two OBETs were connected to a tent (Lxlxh: 250x150x150 cm) by air vent hoses (Scanpart®, DxL=10*300cm; Figure 1a). The odours of the two hosts were drawn by a 12-V fan from the tents and into the OBETs by the air vent hoses, coming out of the traps at a speed of 15cm/s ($\pm 2\text{cm/s}$), as measured with a Testo 425-Compact Thermal Anemometer (Testo, Forbach, France) equipped with a hot wire probe [range: 0 to + 20m/s, accuracy: $\pm (0.03 \text{ m/s} + 5\% \text{ of mv})$]. Host-seeking mosquitoes responding to the host cues flew up the odour-laden streams and entered one of the two traps. The two odour-baited double net traps (BNTs) consisted of an untreated bed net (Lxlxh: 300x250x185 cm) from which each corner was raised 20 cm above ground and a smaller untreated bed net (Lxlxh: 190x120x150 cm) protecting the human volunteer in the human baited trap (Figure 1b).

In both OBETs and BNTs, the human volunteers rested on a metal-framed bed (Lxl: 190x80 cm) and were protected from mosquito bites. OBETs and BNTs were operated from 19:00 to 05:30 hours, for 3 nights in June 2013, and 13 nights in September 2013 in Samendeni. The BNTs only were set-up for 6 nights in September in Klesso. Different combinations of live calves and humans were used as odour sources on each testing day to obviate any individual effect. Calves of about similar size and weight as human volunteers were used to equalize the quantity of emitted odours. Trapped mosquitoes were retrieved in the morning using mouth aspirators. They were kept in a 20x20x20 cm cage with a humid towel on top and brought back to the laboratory for further processing (see below).

Experiment 2: Mosquito blood-feeding pattern

Indoor resting blood-fed mosquitoes were collected between 7 am and 9 am by insecticide spray catches as in Lefèvre et al. (2009) to determine the origin of their blood-meal. Briefly, white sheets were spread over the floor surface and the furniture inside houses. The houses were then sprayed with an insecticide (Kaltox®: allethrin 0.27%, tetramethrin 0.20 %, permethrin 0.17%, propoxur 0.68%) to knock down the mosquitoes. Fifteen minutes after spraying, blood-fed *An. gambiae s.l.* mosquitoes were collected from the white sheet using forceps and placed on moist filter paper inside labeled petri dishes.

In Samandeni and Klesso, mosquito collections were carried out in the rainy season only (4 days in June 2013, and 13 days in September 2013 in Samendeni, and 6 days in September 2015 in Klesso), whereas in Soumousso they were conducted in both the rainy and the dry season (26 days between January and November 2009). In Soumousso, human dwellings (from 10 neighbourhoods) only were sampled whereas animal sheds and unoccupied houses were also sampled in Samandeni and Klesso. A total of 27 human dwellings, 7 unoccupied houses and 20 animal sheds were sampled in Samendeni. A total of 7 human dwellings, 7 unoccupied houses and 9 animal sheds were sampled in Klesso. All mosquitoes were kept in a Petri dish with a humid paper towel to facilitate later dissection and brought back to the laboratory for further processing (see below).



Figure 1. Traps baited with calf and human odours used to assess the host preference of field populations of mosquitoes in Samandeni and Klesso villages. **a)** Two odour-baited entry traps (OBETs) were connected to a tent by air vent hoses. **b)** Two odour-baited double net traps (BNTs).

Laboratory processing of samples

A total of 3447 blood-fed *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. collected indoors (Experiment 2) and 674 females collected in the choice traps (Experiment 1) were processed. In addition, a subset of 276 females collected indoors was used to determine parity (parous versus nulliparous) based on the condition of ovarian tracheoles in order to control for age. Similarly, a subset of 418 individuals was used to determine different species within the *Anopheles gambiae* sensu stricto complex (i.e. distinguishing *Anopheles arabiensis*, *Anopheles coluzzii* and *Anopheles gambiae*) using routine PCR-RFLP based on segregating SNP polymorphisms in the X-linked ribosomal DNA InterGenic Spacer region as described in Santolamazza *et al.* (2008).

Anopheles gambiae s.l. females were dissected in a drop of phosphate buffered saline (PBS) (pH 7.2). Blood-fed midguts were gently squeezed under a stereomicroscope (magnification 35x, Leica EZ4D, Wetzlar, Deutschland) to get the blood out, which was mixed with PBS, absorbed on a filter paper, and then kept at -20°C until identification by an enzyme-linked-immunosorbent assay (ELISA) for Soumousso and Samendeni samples (Beier *et al.*, 1988) and by multiplex PCR for Klesso samples (Kent & Norris, 2005). Each blood meal was discriminated between human, cattle, goat/sheep, chicken, dog, pig, and horse/donkey origins. ELISA-based determination of mosquito blood meal origin was performed using anti-human IgG-, anti-bovine IgG-, anti-pig IgG, anti-chicken IgG-, anti-goat IgG-, anti-sheep IgG-, anti-dog IgG-, and anti-horse IgG-peroxidase conjugates (A8794, A5295, A5670, A9046, A5420, A3415, A6792, A6917, Sigma-Aldrich). PCR-based determination of the mosquito blood meal origin targeting the vertebrate host cytochrome B was performed as described by Kent and Norris (2005), with the following modifications: (i) Three additional primers were designed from available Genbank sequences to target the following potential hosts: chicken470F (Genbank accession number: AB044986.1), sheep695F (KY662385.1), donkey574F (FJ428520.1); (ii) for each individual, two multiplex reactions were performed to avoid cross-reactions between primers and to optimize the determination. In the multiplex reaction #1, UNREV1025, Chicken470F, Sheep695F, Goat894F and Donkey574F primers were used at an amplification temperature of 49.2 °C. In the multiplex reaction #2, UNREV1025, Dog368F, Human741F, Cow121F and Pig573F primers were used at an amplification temperature of 58°C. Blood meal origin diagnostic was based on the PCR products expected sizes as follow: donkey (460bp), sheep (340bp), chicken (290bp), goat (150bp), dog (680bp), cow (561bp), pig (453bp), human (334bp).

The extracted midguts were then stained with 1% Mercurochrome® solution to detect with a microscope (magnification 400x, Leica ICC50, Wetzlar, Deutschland) the presence and number of *Plasmodium* spp. oocysts. PCR on a subset of oocyst-infected individuals (20 midguts of a total of 118 oocyst-infected individuals) confirmed that these oocysts all belonged to *P. falciparum*. The head and thorax of individual mosquitoes were stored at -20°C in 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes. Sporozoite infection with *P. falciparum* was determined by ELISA using peroxidase-conjugated *Plasmodium falciparum* circumsporozoite protein monoclonal antibody for the Soumousso samples (Wirtz *et al.*, 1987) and by qPCR

for the samples from Samendeni and Klesso (Boissière et al., 2013). The quantification of *P. falciparum* sporozoites in salivary glands was determined by qPCR using 7500 Fast Real time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Foster City CA, USA). The mosquito heads and thoraxes were crushed individually and DNA extracted as previously described (Morlais et al., 2004). For sporozoite quantification, we targeted the fragment of subunit 1 of the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase gene (cox 1) using the forward and reverse primer sequences, qPCR-PfF 5'-TTACATCAGGAATGTTATTGC-3' and qPCR-PfR 5'-ATATTGGATCTCCTGCAAAT-3, respectively. The reaction was conducted in a 10 μ L final volume containing: 1 μ L of DNA template, 1x HOT Pol EvaGreen qPCR Mix Plus ROX, and 600nM of each primer. Amplification was started by an initial activation step at 95°C for 15min and 40 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 15s and annealing / extension at 58°C for 30s. Detection was conducted during the last step (Boissière et al., 2013). Quantification was based on a standard curve built from four serial dilutions (12%) of an asexual parasite culture. We made dilutions ranging from 60 to 60,000 genome/ μ L of DNAs from a standard culture. The first dilution (10⁻¹) was used as a positive control. The standard curve ($y = -3.384X + 35.874$) was obtained by linear regression analysis of Ct values (Cycle threshold) versus log10 genome copy number of parasite culture.

This protocol allowed us to gather the following information for each collected individual mosquito: immature *Plasmodium* infection status (presence of oocysts in the midgut); mature *P. falciparum* infection status (presence of sporozoites in salivary glands); source of blood meal or trap (calf/human) chosen; shelter type (human dwellings, unoccupied houses, animal sheds).

Statistical analyses

Experiment 1: Mosquito host preference -The anthropophily index (AI) was expressed as the number of *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. caught in the human-baited trap over the total number of mosquitoes caught in both human- and calf- baited traps. We tested the effect of infection status (uninfected, infected with the oocyst immature stages and infected with the sporozoite transmissible stages), collection method (OBET vs. BNT), and their interaction on AI using a General Linear Model (GLM) with a binomial error structure.

Experiment 2: Mosquito blood-feeding pattern -The human blood index (HBI) was expressed as the number of *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. fed on humans including mixed human-animal blood meals over the total number of blood-fed *Anopheles gambiae* s.l.. We tested the effect of *Plasmodium* infection status (uninfected, oocyst-infected, sporozoite-infected individuals - 25 individuals with both oocysts and sporozoites were included in the sporozoite infected group and excluding these individuals from the analysis yielded similar results), village (Soumousso, Samendeni, Klesso), shelter type (human dwelling, unoccupied house, animal shed) and relevant two-way interactions (infection status by shelter type and infection status by village) on HBI using a GLM with a binomial error structure. The effect of species (*Anopheles gambiae*, *An. coluzzii* and *An. arabiensis*), infection status, shelter type, and their interactions on HBI was assessed using the subset of females identified to the molecular level using a GLM with a binomial error structure. The effect of parity (nulliparous vs. parous) on HBI was assessed on a subset of females using a GLM with a binomial error structure.

We also verified for both AI and HBI whether choice significantly differed from a random distribution between humans and animals or whether mosquitoes displayed a statistically significant attraction to one type of blood meal or trap.

For model selection, we used the stepwise removal of terms, followed by likelihood ratio tests (LRT). Term removals that significantly reduced explanatory power ($P < 0.05$) were retained in the minimal adequate model (Crawley, 2007). All analyses were performed in R v.3.0.3.

Mathematical model

In order to explore the epidemiological consequences of variation in HBI, we built a compartmental model for *Plasmodium* transmission between humans and mosquitoes (Keeling & Rohani, 2008):

$$\frac{dS_m}{dt} = \mu N_m - ab \frac{S_m}{N_m} I_h \varepsilon_s - \mu S_m$$

$$\frac{dE_m}{dt} = ab \frac{S_m}{N_m} I_h \varepsilon_s - (\mu + \gamma) E_m$$

$$\frac{dI_m}{dt} = \gamma E_m - \mu I_m$$

$$\frac{dS_h}{dt} = -ac \frac{S_h}{N_h} I_m \varepsilon_i + \delta I_h$$

$$\frac{dI_h}{dt} = ac \frac{S_h}{N_h} I_m \varepsilon_i - \delta I_h$$

Susceptible mosquitoes (S_m) are born at rate μ and become exposed (E_m) according to their biting rate (a), their probability to get infected (b) and the HBI of susceptible mosquitoes (ε_s). Then, exposed mosquitoes become infectious (I_m) according to their extrinsic incubation period (γ). Mosquito population die at rate (μ). N_m is the number of mosquitoes. Susceptible humans (S_h) get infected according to mosquito biting rate, the probability to develop infection (c) and the HBI of infectious mosquitoes (ε_i). N_h is the number of humans. Then, infectious humans remain infectious (I_h) during a period equals to $1/\delta$ on average. See parameter values in table supplement S1 (Roux et al., 2015; Vantaux et al., 2016). In our simulation we based the HBI of exposed mosquitoes (ε_s) on the confidence intervals of oocyst-infected mosquitoes that were experimentally measured in this study. Then we explored the impact of the HBI of infectious mosquitoes (ε_i , during the sporozoite stage) on the Entomological Inoculation Rate (EIR), representing the number of infectious bites received by a human during one year (D. Smith & Ellis McKenzie, 2004), as defined by:

$$EIR = ma \frac{I_m}{N_m}$$

where m is the ratio between mosquitoes and humans, and other parameters are as above. We kept an identical human population size of 100 individuals and only varied mosquito densities to assume different ratio values (m) between mosquitoes and humans (low: $m=1$, medium: $m=10$ and high: $m=100$) in order to explore the impact of different HBIs on the EIR in relation to mosquito densities. Then, the mathematical model was simulated for one season in order to estimate the proportion of infectious mosquitoes.

Ethics

Ethical approval was obtained from the Centre Muraz Institutional Ethics Committee under agreement no. 0003-2009/CE-CM and A0003-2012/CE-CM.

Results

Experiment 1: Mosquito host preference

To assess the inherent mosquito host preference of field populations of mosquitoes, we used two odour-baited entry traps (OBETs) and two odour-baited double net traps (BNTs) releasing either calf or human odours. The anthropophily index (AI) was expressed as the number of *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. caught in the human-baited trap over the total number of mosquitoes caught in both human- and calf-baited traps. The infection status was successfully determined in 584 out of the 674 mosquitoes (86.6%)

collected in the OBETs (383 individuals) and BNTs (201 individuals). Uninfected, oocyst-infected and sporozoite-infected females displayed similar host preferences ($X^2_2 = 3.6$, $P = 0.17$, Figure supplement S2, AI uninfected females: $63.3 \pm 4\%$, $N=531$, $OR=0.58$, 95% CI = 0.53-0.63, $P <0.0001$; AI oocyst-infected females: $55.2 \pm 18\%$, $N=29$, $OR=0.81$, 95% CI = 0.56-1.18, $P=0.58$; AI sporozoite-infected females: $45.8 \pm 20\%$, $N=24$, $OR=1.18$, 95% CI = 0.78-1.78, $P=0.7$). There was no effect of collection method on AI (OBETs: $64 \pm 5\%$, BNTs: $59 \pm 7\%$; $X^2_1 = 1.5$, $P = 0.21$), indicating that both methods are comparable to assess mosquito host preference. There was no interaction between mosquito infection and collection method ($X^2_2 = 0.26$, $P = 0.9$; Figure supplement S2).

Experiment 2: Mosquito blood-feeding pattern

To assess the realized host selection of *Anopheles gambiae* s.l., the blood meal origins of indoor-resting females were identified. The human blood index (HBI) was expressed as the number of females fed on humans (including mixed human-animal blood meals) over the total number of blood-fed females. Of the 3447 blood-fed *Anopheles gambiae* s.l. collected indoors, the blood meal origin was successfully identified in 2627 samples (76%). Among these 2627 samples, infection status was successfully determined in 2328 mosquitoes (88.6%). The following analyses are restricted to these 2328 females. HBI was significantly affected by mosquito infection status ($X^2_2 = 13.007$, $P = 0.0015$; Figure 2) with a 24% increase in HBI in sporozoite-infected females compared to both their oocyst-infected and uninfected counterparts (sporozoite-infected: $77 \pm 5.7\%$; $N=209$, deviation from random feeding: $OR=0.3$, 95% CI = 0.25-0.35, $P <0.0001$; oocyst-infected females: $63.6 \pm 5.7\%$, $N=118$, $OR=0.57$, 95% CI = 0.47-0.69, $P =0.004$; uninfected females: $61.1 \pm 2.1\%$; $N=2001$, $OR=0.64$, 95% CI = 0.61-0.66, $P <0.0001$). However, because sample size in the uninfected group ($N=2001$) was higher than that of both sporozoite-infected ($N= 209$) and oocyst-infected groups ($N=118$), we ran a second set of analyses using a subset of 150 randomly selected uninfected individuals. This approach normalizes statistical power to test for statistically significant differences in HBI across heterogeneous sample sets. The randomisation was repeated 100 times and the analysis confirmed a significantly higher anthropophagy in sporozoite-infected individuals compared to both oocyst-infected individuals and uninfected individuals in 100% of these randomisations (mean (X^2_2) = 12.7, CI (X^2_2) = (7.54-21.59), mean (P) = 0.0043, CI(P) = (0.00002-0.023); Tukey post-hoc tests: sporozoite-infected vs. oocyst-infected individuals, this pair-wise comparison was significantly different in 100 % of the randomisations: mean(P) = 0.02577, CI(P) = (0.02559-0.02591); sporozoite-infected vs. uninfected individuals, this pair-wise comparison was significantly different in 90% of the randomisations: mean (P) = 0.023, CI(P) = (5e-07 - 3e-01); oocyst-infected vs. uninfected individuals, this pair-wise comparison was significantly different in 0 % of the randomisations: mean (P) = 0.78, CI(P) = (0.07-0.99)).

The HBI of sporozoite-infected mosquitoes was higher than that of oocyst-infected and uninfected females regardless of the village considered (infection status: village interaction: $X^2_4 = 2.3$, $P = 0.68$, Figure 2) or the shelter type in which mosquito females were collected (infection status: shelter type interaction: $X^2_4 = 0.7$, $P = 0.95$, Figure supplement S3).

HBI was also significantly influenced by shelter type ($X^2_2 = 145.92$, $P < 0.0001$). Females collected in animal sheds were significantly less likely to have fed on human hosts ($22.3 \pm 4\%$) than females collected in unoccupied houses ($40.9 \pm 6.8\%$; Chi-square post-hoc test: $X^2_1 = 21.6$, $P < 0.0001$) or in human dwellings ($74.5 \pm 2\%$; Chi-square post-hoc test: $X^2_1 = 385$, $P < 0.0001$). Females collected in human dwellings were also significantly more likely to have fed on human hosts than females collected in unoccupied houses (Chi-square post-hoc test: $X^2_1 = 96$, $P < 0.0001$). HBI was significantly affected by the village ($X^2_2 = 139.5$, $P < 0.0001$). However, in Soumousso only human dwellings were sampled confounding the effect of village and shelter type in this case. Therefore, we carried out an analysis on the human dwellings only to compare HBIs in the three villages. Mosquitoes were significantly less anthropophagic in Samendeni ($56.5 \pm 4\%$), compared to Soumousso ($83.5 \pm 2.2\%$; Chi-square test: $X^2_1 = 138.8$, $P < 0.0001$) and Klesso ($77.3 \pm 9\%$; Chi-square test: $X^2_1 = 12.7$, $P = 0.0004$). HBIs in Soumousso and Klesso were not significantly different ($83.5 \pm 2.2\%$ vs. $77.3 \pm 9\%$ respectively; Chi-square test: $X^2_1 = 1.8$, $P = 0.18$).

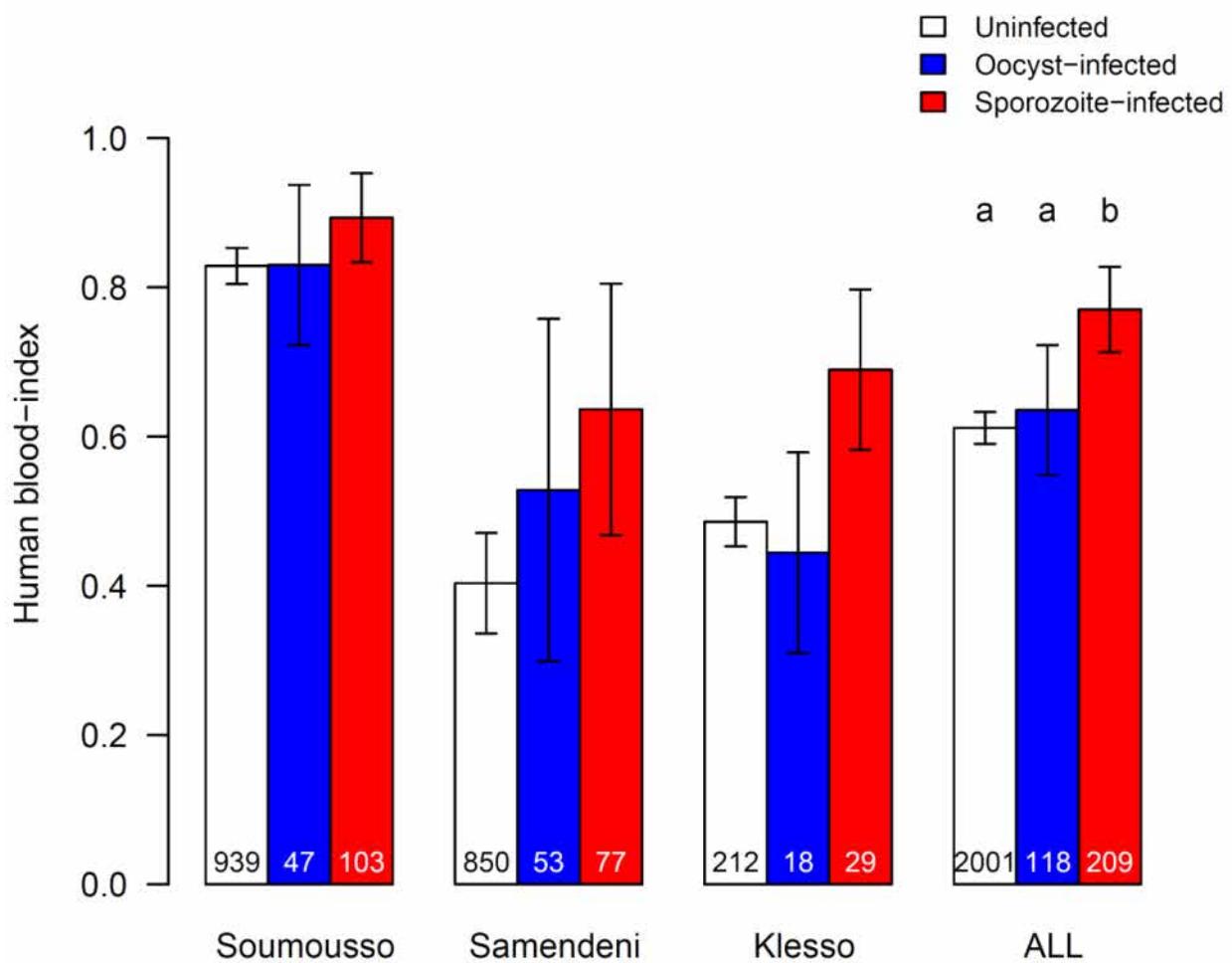


Figure 2. Effect of infection status on the human-blood index of *Anopheles gambiae* s. l. females expressed as the number of females fed on humans out of the total number of blood-fed females for the three sampled villages. Data show proportion \pm 95% confidence intervals. Numbers in bars indicate the total numbers of mosquitoes. Different letters indicate differences between infection status (Chi-square post-hoc tests: sporozoite-infected vs. oocyst-infected females $\chi^2_1=6.1$, $P=0.013$; sporozoite-infected vs. uninfected females $\chi^2_1=19.4$, $P<0.0001$; oocyst-infected vs. uninfected females $\chi^2_1=0.18$, $P=0.67$).

A significant species variation in HBI was observed ($\chi^2_2 = 10.2$, $P = 0.006$; Figure 3) with *Anopheles arabiensis* being significantly less anthropophagic ($22.2 \pm 15\%$, $N=27$, $OR=3.5$, 95% CI = 2.2-5.56, $P = 0.007$) than *An. gambiae* ($54.8 \pm 7.1\%$; $N=186$, $OR=0.82$, 95% CI = 0.71-0.95, $P = 0.19$) and *An. coluzzii* ($55.1 \pm 6.8\%$; $N=205$, $OR=0.81$, 95% CI = 0.71-0.94, $P=0.14$). Although HBI varied among mosquito species, sporozoite-infected individuals displayed the highest anthropophagy regardless of the species considered (infection status: species interaction: $\chi^2_4 = 4$, $P = 0.42$; Figure 3 and supplementary material).

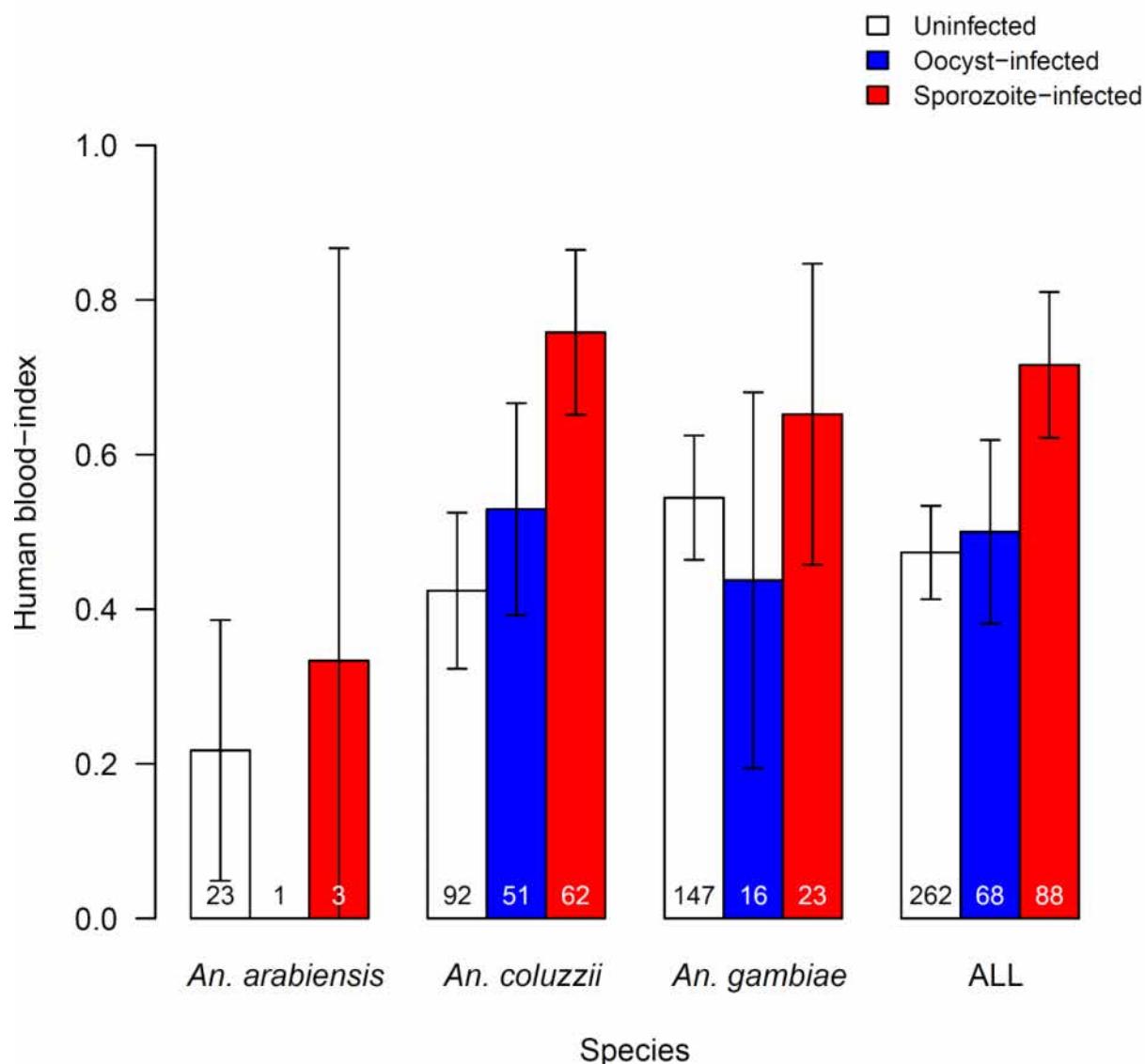


Figure 3. Effect of infection status and mosquito species on the human-blood index expressed as the proportion of females fed on humans or humans and animals out of the total of blood-fed females. Data show proportion \pm 95% confidence intervals. Numbers in bars indicate the total numbers of mosquitoes.

Finally, HBI was not significantly affected by parity, a proxy used to estimate mosquito age (nulliparous females: $49.53 \pm 9\%$, parous females: $45.6 \pm 7.5\%$; $\chi^2_1 = 0.4$, $P = 0.52$).

Epidemiological consequences

To investigate the epidemiological impact of a higher HBI in infectious females compared to oocyst-infected and uninfected females, we built a mathematical model based on the experimental values observed in this study. This model assessed the impact of different HBIs on the Entomological Inoculation Rate (EIR, number of infectious bites received by a person during one year) at different mosquito lifespans and densities. In order to consider the heterogeneity of HBI values on epidemiological consequences, the HBI of susceptible mosquitoes was based on the average value whereas the HBI of exposed mosquitoes were assumed to be uniformly distributed within the confidence intervals of the HBI of oocyst-infected mosquitoes that were experimentally measured in this study. Then, the impact of HBI variation in infectious (sporozoite-infected) mosquitoes on parasite transmission potential was explored fully (Figure 4). For an

average mosquito lifespan of 15 days (Figure 4a), an HBI of 0.62 in infectious mosquitoes (similar to that of susceptible mosquitoes) resulted in an EIR of 4 at a low ratio of 1 (1 mosquito per human), while an HBI of 0.77 (as observed here in infectious mosquitoes) resulted in an EIR of 14. In other words, a 24% increase in HBI resulted in a 250% increase in EIR, everything else being equal. Transmission consequences were even larger when the human-to-mosquito ratios were higher (EIR = 5 vs. EIR = 19 with a ratio of 10 or 100, i.e. a 280% increase in EIR) but the size of the increase in EIR for sporozoite-infected mosquitoes declined with increasing mosquito longevity (Figure 4c, 4d, and supplementary material).

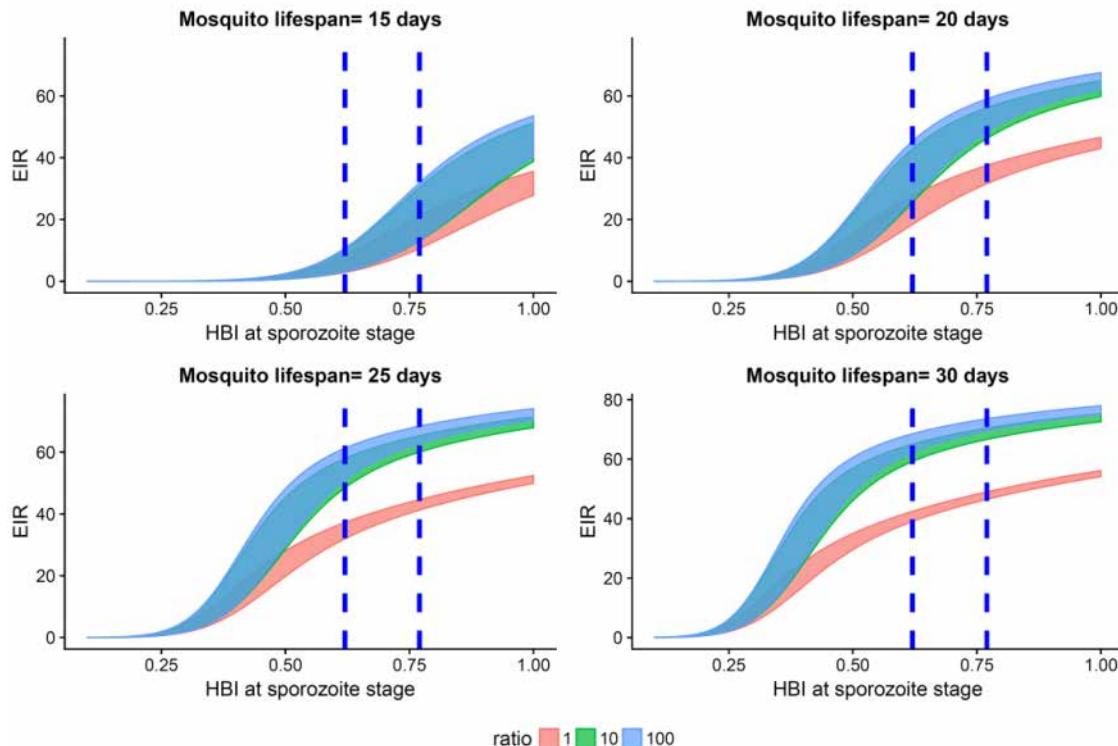


Figure 4. Expected epidemiological consequences of HBI variation for different values of mosquito lifespan and mosquito/human ratio. The X axis represents the range of values considered for the HBI of infectious (sporozoite-infected) mosquitoes and the Y axis is the Entomological Inoculation Rate (EIR, number of infectious bites received by a person over one year) when the HBI of exposed mosquitoes corresponds to the confidence intervals of the HBI of oocyst-infected mosquitoes that were experimentally measured in this study. The ribbons represent the possible EIR values for different HBI of sporozoite-infected mosquitoes according to the confidence interval of HBI in oocyst-infected mosquitoes ($63.6\% \pm 5.7\%$) and for different values of the mosquito to human ratio. The dashed lines represent the average value measured for susceptible mosquitoes (0.62) and for sporozoite-infected mosquitoes (0.77). Ratio=adult mosquito/human densities.

Discussion

The mosquito host preference assays (experiment 1 using OBETs and BNTs,) showed that infected mosquitoes displayed similar long-range attraction toward human odour as uninfected individuals regardless of parasite developmental stages (oocyst vs. sporozoite), confirming previous laboratory results (Nguyen et al., 2017). However, consistent with the hypothesis of specific manipulation, the patterns of mosquito host selection (experiment 2 based on identification of mosquito blood-meal sources) showed that sporozoite-infected *An. coluzzi*, *An. gambiae* and *An. arabiensis* females were more likely to have fed

on human than oocyst-infected and uninfected individuals. By distinguishing sporozoite and oocyst infection, we ruled out the potential confounding effect of a mere intrinsic mosquito characteristic. Infected mosquitoes may indeed exhibit increased anthropophagy not because of being infected but just because of an innate preference for humans, thus making these mosquito individuals infected. Here, individuals infected with sporozoites displayed different HBI than individuals infected with oocysts, thus ruling out this possibility. Because *Plasmodium falciparum* takes about 10 to 18 days to complete its development (depending on temperature, (Nikolaev, 1935; Ohm et al., 2018; Shapiro et al., 2017) there is an increased likelihood of sporozoite infection as mosquitoes become older. This means that mosquito age could be a confounding factor of infection, with infected mosquitoes displaying increased HBI not because they harbour sporozoites but because they are older. Such an age effect could be mediated by specific physiological requirements in old mosquitoes or by a positive reinforcement (learning / memory) of feeding on humans. Our data does not support an age effect as we did not find a significant effect of parity (a proxy for age) on HBI (i.e. parous and nulliparous mosquito females displayed similar anthropophagy).

The precise mechanisms responsible for increased anthropophagy in sporozoite-infected mosquitoes is not yet clear, but at least three hypotheses can be proposed. First, malaria parasites might manipulate mosquito short-range behaviours only, whereas at longer range when mosquitoes rely mainly on CO₂ and other volatile odours (Cardé & Gibson, 2010; Gibson & Torr, 1999; Gillies, 1980; Mboera & Takken, 1997), sporozoite-infected mosquitoes display similar preferences to uninfected and oocyst-infected individuals. At short range, mosquitoes rely on other cues including visual stimuli, moisture, heat and skin emanations (Cardé & Gibson, 2010; Gibson & Torr, 1999; Takken & Verhulst, 2013). These stimuli can be host specific, and inform of host suitability for parasite development before the mosquito engages in selection and eventually in feeding. In addition to a possible preferential short-range attraction of sporozoite-infected mosquitoes toward host species suitable for parasite development, there could also be short-range repellence by unsuitable host species.

Second, the parasite may induce changes in the vector such as an alteration of microhabitat choice to spatially match the habitat of the suitable host. This could be achieved through parasite manipulation of mosquito endophagic/philic behaviours resulting in a higher degree of indoor -feeding and -resting of sporozoite-infected females. For example, infectious mosquitoes may exhibit an enhanced tendency to enter (or a decreased tendency to exit) house interstices regardless of emitted odours.

Third, the parasite may induce changes in the vector such as an alteration of time activity in order to temporally match the time of rest or activity of the suitable host. Mosquitoes exhibit circadian rhythms in many activities such as flight, host-seeking, swarming, egg-laying, etc. (Rund et al., 2016). There is mounting evidence that, following bed-net introduction, malaria vectors can display an increased tendency to feed outdoors (Russell et al., 2011) or bite earlier in the evening or later in the morning (Moiroux et al., 2012). Accordingly, *P. falciparum* could manipulate mosquito host-seeking rhythms in a way that increases bites on unprotected people. Testing this hypothesis would require sampling mosquitoes at distinct periods and comparing the proportion of uninfected, oocyst-infected and sporozoite-infected vectors among samples.

Sporozoite-induced change in mosquito host selection occurred in three major and related mosquito vectors, namely *An. coluzzii*, *An. gambiae* and *An. arabiensis*. This suggests that manipulation likely already occurred in the common ancestor of these three species and that the parasites might exploit a physiological pathway common to all three mosquito species to modify its vector host choice.

Transmission models generally assume that uninfected and infected vectors have similar preferences for human (D. Smith & Ellis McKenzie, 2004; D. L. Smith et al., 2012). This study suggests that this assumption may not be valid and that these models possibly underestimate transmission intensity. Our modelling approach confirms that HBI increases in infectious mosquitoes can have a dramatic impact on disease transmission. In particular, if we consider mosquito lifespans relevant to natural settings (i.e. 15 to 20 days; Charlwood et al., 1997; Gillies, 1961; Gillies & Wilkes, 1965; Killeen et al., 2000; Saul et al., 1990), the transmission potential was almost multiplied by 3 when the HBI increased from 0.62 to 0.77 i.e. the value observed for the infectious mosquitoes in this study. For many mosquito-*Plasmodium* associations including *An. gambiae* s.l.-*P. falciparum*, the duration of the parasite's development within the mosquito is as long as the insect vector's average lifespan (Charlwood et al., 1997; Gillies, 1961; Gillies & Wilkes, 1965; Killeen et al., 2000; Saul et al., 1990; World, 2014). This means that most mosquitoes do not live long enough to transmit the disease, and hence that feeds taken by infectious mosquitoes on unsuitable host

species would have disastrous consequences for parasite fitness. The model suggests that the benefits of specific manipulation should be particularly high in vectorial systems in which transmission opportunities are rare (short vector lifespan, relatively long parasite development period, and diverse blood sources).

In conclusion, our results suggest that the human malaria parasite *P. falciparum* evolved the ability to enhance transmission toward humans, the appropriate host species, by increasing mosquito anthropophagy (or decreasing zoophagy) with potentially profound public health consequences. Future laboratory and field studies will be essential to confirm these results and to better understand the epidemiological, ecological and evolutionary consequences of parasite manipulation of vector behaviours.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank all volunteers for participating in this study as well as the local authorities for their support. We are very grateful to the IRSS staff in Burkina Faso for technical assistance. We thank Priscille Barreaux for discussion and comments. We are grateful to Alison Duncan, Ricardo S. Ramiro, Olivier Restif and an anonymous reviewer for comments and corrections which greatly improved the manuscript.

A previous version of this article has been reviewed and recommended by Peer Community In Evolutionary Biology (<https://doi.org/10.24072/pcj.evolbiol.100057>).

Data availability

Raw data are available on zenodo: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1296744>. Statistical analyses are available as supplementary information.

Competing interests

We have no competing interests.

Funding

This study was supported by the ANR grant no. 11-PDOC-006-01 and the European Community's Seventh Framework Program (FP7/2007–2013) under grant agreements no. 242095 and no.223736. BR is supported by the ANR project PANIC.

References

Anderson, R. A., Koella, J. C., & Hurd, H. (1999). The effect of *Plasmodium yoelii nigeriensis* infection on the feeding persistence of *Anopheles stephensi* Liston throughout the sporogonic cycle. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London Series B-Biological Sciences*, **266**, 1729-1733. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.1999.0839>.

Batista, E., Costa, E., & Silva, A. (2014). *Anopheles darlingi* (Diptera: Culicidae) displays increased attractiveness to infected individuals with *Plasmodium vivax* gametocytes. *Parasites & Vectors*, **7**, 251. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1756-3305-7-251>.

Beier, J. C., Perkins, P. V., Wirtz, R. A., Koros, J., Diggs, D., Gargan, T. P., & Koech, D. K. (1988). Bloodmeal identification by direct enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA), tested on *Anopheles* (Diptera, Culcidae) in Kenya. *Journal of Medical Entomology*, **25**, 9-16. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jmedent/25.1.9>.

Boissière, A., Gimonneau, G., Tchioffo, M. T., Abate, L., Bayibeki, A., Awono-Ambéné, P. H., . . . Morlais, I. (2013). Application of a qPCR assay in the investigation of susceptibility to malaria infection of the M and S molecular forms of *An. gambiae* s.s. in Cameroon. *PLoS ONE*, **8**, e54820. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0054820>.

Busula, A., Bousema, T., Mweresa, C., Masiga, D., Logan, J., Sauerwein, R., . . . de Boer, J. (2017). Gametocytemia and Attractiveness of *Plasmodium falciparum*-Infected Kenyan Children to *Anopheles*

gambiae Mosquitoes. *The Journal of Infectious Diseases*, **216**, 291-295. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jix214>.

Cardé, R. T., & Gibson, G. (2010). Host finding by female mosquitoes: mechanisms of orientation to host odours and other cues. In W. Takken & B. Knols (Eds.), *Olfaction in vector-host interactions*: Wageningen Academic Publishers.

Cator, L., Lynch, P., Thomas, M., & Read, A. (2014). Alterations in mosquito behaviour by malaria parasites: potential impact on force of infection. *Malaria Journal*, **13**, 164. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2875-13-164>.

Cator, L. J., George, J., Blanford, S., Murdock, C. C., Baker, T. C., Read, A. F., & Thomas, M. B. (2013). 'Manipulation' without the parasite: altered feeding behaviour of mosquitoes is not dependent on infection with malaria parasites. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London Series B-Biological Sciences*, **280**, 20130711. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2013.0711>.

Cator, L. J., Lynch, P. A., Read, A. F., & Thomas, M. B. (2012). Do malaria parasites manipulate mosquitoes? *Trends in Parasitology*, **28**, 466-470. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2012.08.004>.

Charlwood, J. D., Smith, T., Billingsley, P. F., Takken, W., Lyimo, E. O. K., & Meuwissen, J. H. E. T. (1997). Survival and infection probabilities of anthropophagous anophelines from an area of high prevalence of *Plasmodium falciparum* in humans. *Bulletin of Entomological Research*, **87**, 445-453. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007485300041304>.

Cornet, S., Nicot, A., Rivero, A., & Gandon, S. (2013). Malaria infection increases bird attractiveness to uninfected mosquitoes. *Ecology Letters*, **16**, 323-329. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.12041>.

Costantini, C., Gibson, G., Sagnon, N., Della Torre, A., Brady, J., & Coluzzi, M. (1996). Mosquito responses to carbon dioxide in a west African Sudan savanna village. *Medical and Veterinary Entomology*, **10**, 220-227. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2915.1996.tb00734.x>.

Costantini, C., Sagnon, N., Della Torre, A., Diallo, M., Brady, J., Gibson, G., & Coluzzi, M. (1998). Odor-mediated host preferences of West African mosquitoes, with particular reference to malaria vectors. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, **58**, 56-63. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.1998.58.56>.

Costantini, C., Sagnon, N., della Torre, A., & Coluzzi, M. (1999). Mosquito behavioural aspects of vector-human interactions in the *Anopheles gambiae* complex. *Parassitologia*, **41**, 209-217.

Crawley, M. J. (2007). *The R book*. The Atrium, Southern Gate, Chichester, West Sussex PO19 8SQ, England: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

De Moraes, C. M., Stanczyk, N. M., Betz, H. S., Pulido, H., Sim, D. G., Read, A. F., & Mescher, M. C. (2014). Malaria-induced changes in host odors enhance mosquito attraction. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, **111**, 11079-11084. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1405617111>.

Dobson, A. P. (1988). The population biology of parasite-induced changes in host behavior. *The Quarterly Review of Biology*, **63**, 139-165. <https://doi.org/10.1086/415837>.

Emami, S. N., Lindberg, B. G., Hua, S., Hill, S., Mozuraitis, R., Lehmann, P., . . . Faye, I. (2017). A key malaria metabolite modulates vector blood seeking, feeding, and susceptibility to infection. *Science*, **355**, 1076-1080. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aah4563>.

Gibson, G., & Torr, S. J. (1999). Visual and olfactory responses of haematophagous Diptera to host stimuli. *Medical and Veterinary Entomology*, **13**, 2-23. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2915.1999.00163.x>.

Gillies, M. T. (1961). Studies on the dispersion and survival of *Anopheles gambiae* Giles in East Africa, by means of marking and release experiments. *Bulletin of Entomological Research*, **52**, 99-127. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007485300055309>.

Gillies, M. T. (1980). The role of carbon dioxide in host finding by mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae): a review. *Bulletin of Entomological Research*, **70**, 525-532. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007485300007811>.

Gillies, M. T., & Wilkes, T. J. (1965). A study of the age-composition of populations of *Anopheles gambiae* Giles and *A. funestus* Giles in North-Eastern Tanzania. *Bulletin of Entomological Research*, **56**, 237-262. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007485300056339>.

Hurd, H. (2003). Manipulation of medically important insect vectors by their parasites. *Annual Review of Entomology*, **48**, 141-161. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ento.48.091801.112722>.

Keeling, M. J., & Rohani, P. (2008). *Modeling Infectious Diseases*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Kent, R. J., & Norris, D. E. (2005). Identification of mammalian blood meals in mosquitoes by a multiplexed polymerase chain reaction targeting cytochrome B. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, **73**, 336-342.

Killeen, G. F., McKenzie, F. E., Foy, B. D., Schieffelin, C., Billingsley, P. F., & Beier, J. C. (2000). A simplified model for predicting malaria entomologic inoculation rates based on entomologic and parasitologic parameters relevant to control. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, **62**, 535-544. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.2000.62.535>.

Koella, J. C. (2005). Malaria as a manipulator. *Behavioural Processes*, **68**, 271-273. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.beproc.2004.10.004>.

Koella, J. C., & Packer, M. J. (1996). Malaria parasites enhance blood-feeding of their naturally infected vector *Anopheles punctulatus*. *Parasitology*, **113**, 105-109. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0031182000066348>.

Koella, J. C., Rieu, L., & Paul, R. E. L. (2002). Stage-specific manipulation of a mosquito's host-seeking behavior by the malaria parasite *Plasmodium gallinaceum*. *Behavioral Ecology*, **13**, 816-820. <https://doi.org/10.1093/beheco/13.6.816>.

Koella, J. C., Sorenson, F. L., & Anderson, R. A. (1998). The malaria parasite, *Plasmodium falciparum*, increases the frequency of multiple feeding of its mosquito vector, *Anopheles gambiae*. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London Series B-Biological Sciences*, **265**, 763-768. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.1998.0358>.

Lacroix, R., Mukabana, W. R., Gouagna, L. C., & Koella, J. C. (2005). Malaria infection increases attractiveness of humans to mosquitoes. *PLoS Biology*, **3**, 1590-1593. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.0030298>.

Lefèvre, T., Gouagna, L. C., Dabire, R. K., Elguero, E., Fontenille, D., Renaud, F., . . . Thomas, F. (2009). Beyond nature and nurture: phenotypic plasticity in blood-feeding behavior of *Anopheles gambiae* s.s. when humans are not readily accessible. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, **81**, 1023-1029. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.2009.09-0124>.

Lefèvre, T., & Thomas, F. (2008). Behind the scene, something else is pulling the strings: Emphasizing parasitic manipulation in vector-borne diseases. *Infection Genetics and Evolution*, **8**, 504-519. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.meegid.2007.05.008>.

Mboera, L. E. G., & Takken, W. (1997). Carbon dioxide chemotropism in mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae) and its potential in vector surveillance and management programmes. *Medical and Veterinary Entomology*, **85**, 355-368.

Moiroux, N., Gomez, M. B., Pennetier, C., Elanga, E., Djenontin, A., Chandre, F., . . . Corbel, V. (2012). Changes in *Anopheles funestus* biting behavior following universal coverage of long-lasting insecticidal nets in Benin. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*, **206**, 1622-1629. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jis565>.

Morlais, I., Ponçon, N., Simard, F., Cohuet, A., & Fontenille, D. (2004). Intraspecific nucleotide variation in *Anopheles gambiae*: new insights into the biology of malaria vectors. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, **71**, 795-802. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.2004.71.795>.

Ngoubangoye, B., Boundenga, L., Arnathau, C., Mombo, I. M., Durand, P., Tsoumbou, T.-A., . . . Prugnolle, F. (2016). The host specificity of ape malaria parasites can be broken in confined environments. *International Journal for Parasitology*, **46**, 737-744. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpara.2016.06.004>.

Nguyen, P. L., Vantaux, A., Hien, D. F., Dabiré, K. R., Yameogo, B. K., Gouagna, L.-C., . . . Lefèvre, T. (2017). No evidence for manipulation of *Anopheles gambiae*, *An. coluzzii* and *An. arabiensis* host preference by *Plasmodium falciparum*. *Scientific Reports*, **7**, 9415. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-09821-x>.

Nikolaev, B. P. (1935). On the influence of temperature on the development of malaria plasmodia inside the mosquito. *Trans Pasteur Inst Epi Bact Leningrad*, **2**, 1-5.

Ohm, J. R., Baldini, F., Barreaux, P., Lefevre, T., Lynch, P. A., Suh, E., . . . Thomas, M. B. (2018). Rethinking the extrinsic incubation period of malaria parasites. *Parasites & Vectors*, **11**, 178. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-018-2761-4>.

Perkins, S. L. (2014). Malaria's many mates: past, present, and future of the systematics of the order Haemosporida. *Journal of Parasitology*, **100**, 11-25. <https://doi.org/10.1645/13-362.1>.

Prugnolle, F., Durand, P., Ollomo, B., Duval, L., Ariey, F., Arnathau, C., . . . Renaud, F. (2011). A fresh look at the origin of *Plasmodium falciparum*, the most malignant malaria agent. *PLOS Pathogens*, **7**, e1001283. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1001283>.

Rayner, J. C., Liu, W., Peeters, M., Sharp, P. M., & Hahn, B. H. (2011). A plethora of *Plasmodium* species in wild apes: a source of human infection? *Trends in Parasitology*, **27**, 222-229. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2011.01.006>.

Rossignol, P. A., Ribeiro, J. M. C., & Spielman, A. (1984). Increased intradermal probing time in sporozoite-infected mosquitoes. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, **33**, 17-20. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.1984.33.17>.

Rossignol, P. A., Ribeiro, J. M. C., & Spielman, A. (1986). Increased biting rate and reduced fertility in sporozoite-infected mosquitoes. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, **35**, 277-279. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.1986.35.277>

Roux, O., Vantaux, A., Roche, B., Yameogo, K. B., Dabiré, K. R., Diabaté, A., . . . Lefèvre, T. (2015). Evidences for carry-over effect of predator exposure on pathogen transmission potential. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London Series B-Biological Sciences*, **282**, 20152430. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2015.2430>.

Rund, S. S., O'Donnell, A. J., Gentile, J. E., & Reece, S. E. (2016). Daily Rhythms in Mosquitoes and Their Consequences for Malaria Transmission. *Insects*, **7**. <https://doi.org/10.3390/insects7020014>.

Russell, T. L., Govella, N. J., Azizi, S., Drakeley, C. J., Kachur, S. P., & Killeen, G. F. (2011). Increased proportions of outdoor feeding among residual malaria vector populations following increased use of insecticide-treated nets in rural Tanzania. *Malaria Journal*, **10**, 80. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2875-10-80>.

Santolamazza, F., Mancini, E., Simard, F., Qi, Y., Tu, Z., & della Torre, A. (2008). Insertion polymorphisms of SINE200 retrotransposons within speciation islands of *Anopheles gambiae* molecular forms. *Malaria Journal*, **7**, 163. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2875-7-163>.

Saul, A. J., Graves, P. M., & Kay, B. H. (1990). A Cyclical Feeding Model for Pathogen Transmission and Its Application to Determine Vectorial Capacity from Vector Infection Rates. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, **27**, 123-133. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2403572>.

Schwartz, A., & Koella, J. C. (2001). Trade-offs, conflicts of interest and manipulation in *Plasmodium*-mosquito interactions. *Trends in Parasitology*, **17**, 189-194. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1471-4922\(00\)01945-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1471-4922(00)01945-0).

Shapiro, L. L. M., Whitehead, S. A., & Thomas, M. B. (2017). Quantifying the effects of temperature on mosquito and parasite traits that determine the transmission potential of human malaria. *PLoS Biology*, **15**, e2003489. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2003489>.

Smallegange, R. C., van Gemert, G.-J., van de Vegte-Bolmer, M., Gezan, S., Takken, W., Sauerwein, R. W., & Logan, J. G. (2013). Malaria infected mosquitoes express enhanced attraction to human odor. *PLoS ONE*, **8**, e63602. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0063602>.

Smith, D., & Ellis McKenzie, F. (2004). Statics and dynamics of malaria infection in *Anopheles* mosquitoes. *Malaria Journal*, **3**, 13. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2875-3-13>.

Smith, D. L., Battle, K. E., Hay, S. I., Barker, C. M., Scott, T. W., & McKenzie, F. E. (2012). Ross, Macdonald, and a Theory for the Dynamics and Control of Mosquito-Transmitted Pathogens. *PLOS Pathogens*, **8**, e1002588. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1002588>.

Stanczyk, N. M., Mescher, M. C., & De Moraes, C. M. (2017). Effects of malaria infection on mosquito olfaction and behavior: extrapolating data to the field. *Current Opinion in Insect Science*, **20**, 7-12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cois.2017.02.002>.

Takken, W., & Verhulst, N. O. (2013). Host preferences of blood-feeding mosquitoes. *Annual Review of Entomology*, **58**, 433-453. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-ento-120811-153618>.

Tangena, J.-A. A., Thammavong, P., Hiscox, A., Lindsay, S. W., & Brey, P. T. (2015). The human-baited double net trap: an alternative to human landing catches for collecting outdoor biting mosquitoes in Lao PDR. *PLoS ONE*, **10**, e0138735. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0138735>.

Vantaux, A., Lefèvre, T., Cohuet, A., Dabiré, K. R., Roche, B., & Roux, O. (2016). Larval nutritional stress affects vector life history traits and human malaria transmission. *Scientific Reports*, **6**, 36778. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep36778>.

Wekesa, J. W., Copeland, R. S., & Mwangi, R. W. (1992). Effect of *Plasmodium falciparum* on blood feeding-behavior of naturally infected *Anopheles* mosquitoes in Western Kenya. *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, **47**, 484-488. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.1992.47.484>.

Wirtz, R. A., Zavala, F., Charoenvit, Y., Campbell, G. H., Burkot, T. R., Schneider, I., . . . Andre, R. G. (1987). Comparative testing of monoclonal antibodies against *Plasmodium falciparum* sporozoites for ELISA development. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, **65**, 39-45.

World Health Organization (2014). *World Health organisation Manual*. Geneva, Switzerland.

Supplementary Material

Supplementary Results

Species subset

HBI was significantly affected by mosquito infection status ($X^2_2 = 8.5$, $P = 0.014$) with sporozoite-infected females being significantly more anthropophagic ($71.6 \pm 9.4\%$) than oocyst-infected females ($50 \pm 11.9\%$; Chi-square post-hoc tests: $X^2_1 = 6.7$, $P = 0.0096$) and uninfected females ($47.3 \pm 6\%$; Chi-square post-hoc tests: $X^2_1 = 14.6$, $P = 0.0001$). There was no significant differences between oocyst-infected and uninfected females (Chi-square post-hoc test: $X^2_1 = 0.07$, $P = 0.8$). HBI was significantly affected by the shelter type ($X^2_2 = 50.8$, $P < 0.0001$). In particular, the HBI in human dwelling females ($73.7 \pm 6.3\%$) was significantly higher than the HBI in unoccupied houses ($34.7 \pm 9.4\%$; Chi-square post-hoc tests: $X^2_1 = 39$, $P < 0.0001$) and animal sheds ($37.3 \pm 8.2\%$; $X^2_1 = 40.9$, $P < 0.0001$). The HBIs of unoccupied houses and animal sheds were not significantly different (Chi-square post-hoc test: $X^2_1 = 0.07$, $P = 0.8$). There was no significant interactions (infection status*shelter type: $X^2_4 = 2.4$, $P = 0.66$; shelter types*species: $X^2_4 = 2.3$, $P = 0.67$; three-way interaction: $X^2_5 = 8$, $P = 0.15$).

Epidemiological consequences

The impact of a larger HBI in infectious mosquitoes decreased with longer mosquito lifespan (20 days): the EIR increased by 54% at low mosquito density (EIR = 22 vs. EIR = 34), which was similar at larger densities, 51% increase in both cases (EIR = 33 vs. EIR = 50 for a ratio mosquito/human at 10 and EIR = 35 vs EIR = 53 for a ratio at 100). The pattern is similar with a mosquito lifespan of 25 days: an increase of 23% at a ratio of 1 (EIR = 34 vs. EIR = 42) and increases of 16% at a ratio of 10 (EIR = 53 vs. EIR = 62) or a ratio of 100 (EIR = 56 vs. EIR = 65) . Pattern which is kept constant as well with a mosquito lifespan of 30 days: a 14% increase with a ratio of 1 (EIR = 41 vs. EIR = 47), a 7% increase with a ratio of 10 (EIR = 63 vs. EIR = 68), and a 5% increase with a ratio 100 (EIR = 67 vs. EIR = 71).

Supplementary Table

Table S1: Parameters used in the mathematical model.

Parameter	Unit	Value
a (biting frequency)	days.ind-1	4
b (mosquito probability to get infected)	%	0.5
ϵ_s (human biting rate of susceptible mosquitoes)	%	0.62
γ (extrinsic incubation period)	days.ind-1	14
μ (mosquito population dying rate)	days.ind-1	variable
c (human probability to develop infection)	%	0.5
ϵ_i (human biting rate of infectious mosquitoes)	%	variable

1/δ (human infectious period)	day	30
-------------------------------	-----	----

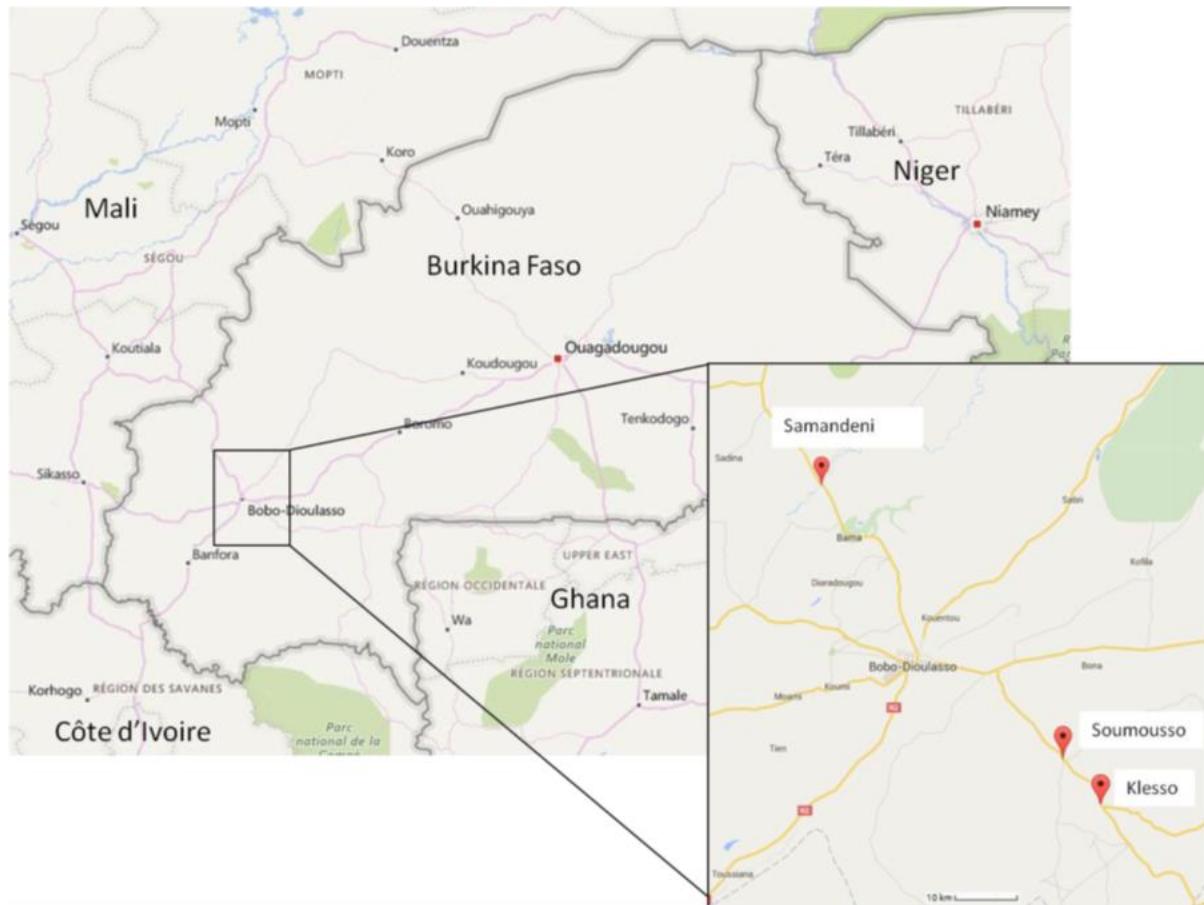
Supplementary figures

Figure S1. Study collection sites: Soumousso (11°23'14"N, 4°24'42"W), Klesso (10°56'40.5"N, 3°59'09.9"W), Samandeni (11°27'14.3"N, 4°27'37.6"W)

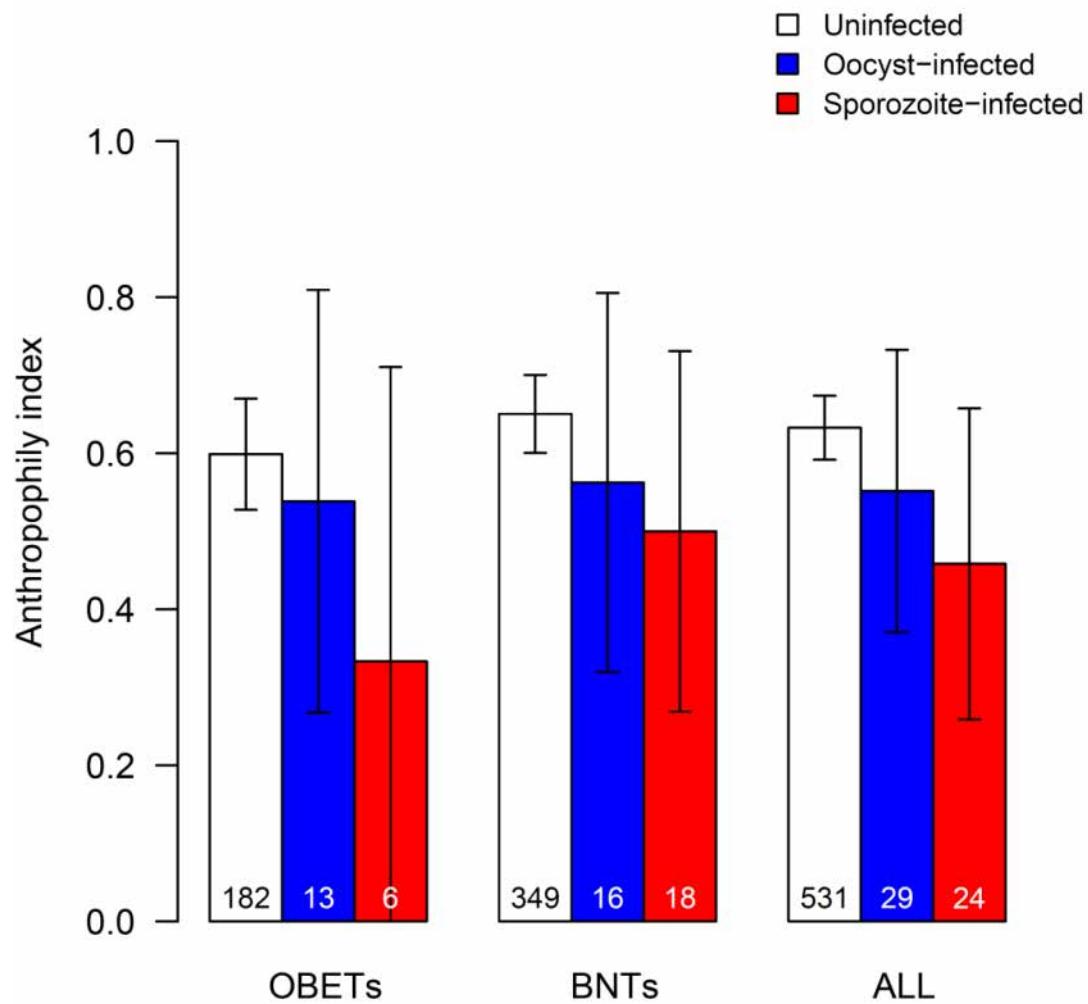


Figure S2. Effect of infection status on the anthropophily index of *Anopheles gambiae* s. l. females expressed as the proportion of females caught in the human-baited traps out of the total number retrieved from both human- and calf-baited traps. Data show proportion \pm 95% confidence interval. Numbers in bars indicate the total numbers of mosquitoes in both traps.

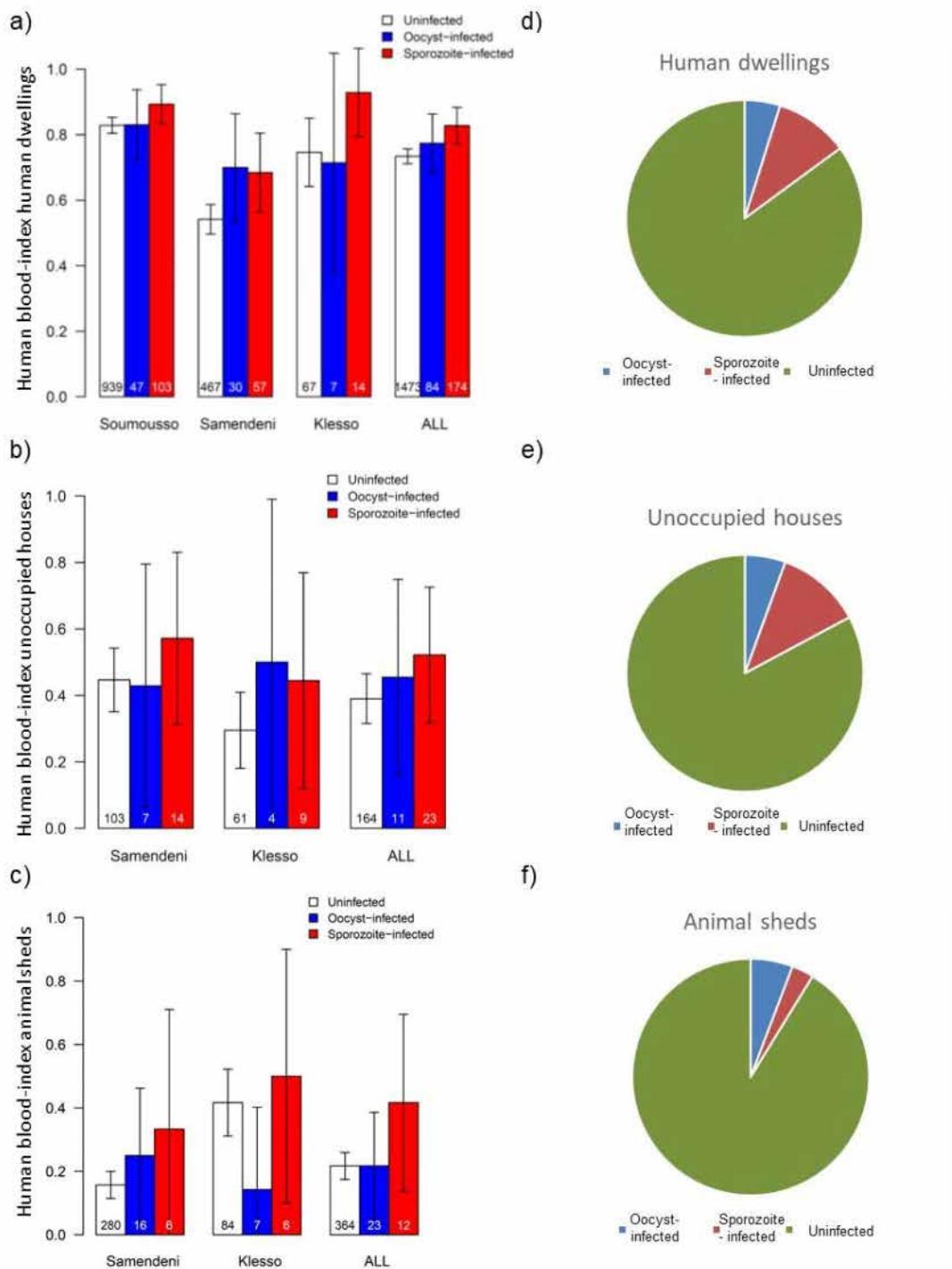


Figure S3. Effect of infection status on the human-blood index of *Anopheles gambiae* s. l. females expressed as the number of females fed on humans or human-animal mixed blood meals over the total number of blood-fed females in the different village samples in a) human dwellings, b) unoccupied houses and c) animal sheds. Data show proportion \pm 95% confidence intervals. Numbers in bars indicate the total numbers of mosquitoes in both traps. Relative proportions of females according to their infection status in d) human dwellings, e) unoccupied houses and f) animal sheds.

Supplementary material – Statistical analyses

```
##### Analyses Experiment 1: Mosquito host preference #####
##### GLM mosquito infection by collection method #####
```

```

> m1=glm(choice2~infection*collection,family=binomial)
> summary(m1)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ infection * collection, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-1.4823 -0.9275 -0.9275  1.3517  1.4499

Coefficients:
                                         Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)                         -0.25131  0.50395 -0.499  0.618
infectionspz                        0.25131  0.69007  0.364  0.716
infectionuninfected                 -0.36961  0.51630 -0.716  0.474
collectiontente                      0.09716  0.75066  0.129  0.897
infectionspz:collectiontente        0.59598  1.23924  0.481  0.631
infectionuninfected:collectiontente 0.12288  0.77393  0.159  0.874

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 774.72 on 583 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 769.34 on 578 degrees of freedom
AIC: 781.34

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> m2=glm(choice2~infection+collection,family=binomial)
> anova(m1,m2,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ infection * collection
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + collection
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1       578    769.34
2       580    769.60 -2 -0.26068  0.8778
> summary(m2)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ infection + collection, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-1.3246 -0.9263 -0.9263  1.3491  1.4513

Coefficients:
                                         Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)                         -0.3111    0.3828 -0.813  0.416
infectionspz                        0.4213    0.5563  0.757  0.449
infectionuninfected                 -0.3131    0.3851 -0.813  0.416
collectiontente                      0.2293    0.1794  1.278  0.201

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 774.72 on 583 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 769.60 on 580 degrees of freedom
AIC: 777.6

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> m3=glm(choice2~collection,family=binomial)
> anova(m3,m2,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ collection
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + collection
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1       582    773.18
2       580    769.60  2   3.5794   0.167
> m4=glm(choice2~1,family=binomial)
> anova(m3,m4,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ collection
Model 2: choice2 ~ 1
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)

```

```

1      582      773.18
2      583      774.72 -1  -1.5442     0.214
>

#####
# models with intercepts in each category of individuals #####
#####

> t=read.table("terrainangtraps.txt",header=T)
> attach(t)
> tooc=subset(t,infection=="oocyst")
> detach(t)
> attach(tooc)
> m=glm(choice2~1,family=binomial)
> summary(m)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ 1, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-1.091  -1.091  -1.091   1.267   1.267

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -0.2076     0.3734  -0.556   0.578

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

    Null deviance: 39.892 on 28 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 39.892 on 28 degrees of freedom
AIC: 41.892

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 3

> OR=exp(-0.2076)
> OR
[1] 0.812532
> CI1=exp(-0.2076-0.3734)
> CI1
[1] 0.5593387
> CI2=exp(-0.2076+0.3734)
> CI2
[1] 1.180337

> detach(tooc)
> attach(t)
> tspz=subset(t,infection=="spz")
> detach(t)
> attach(tspz)

> m=glm(choice2~1,family=binomial)
> summary(m)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ 1, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-1.249  -1.249   1.107   1.107   1.107

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)  0.1671     0.4097  0.408   0.683

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

    Null deviance: 33.104 on 23 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 33.104 on 23 degrees of freedom
AIC: 35.104

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 3

> OR=exp(0.1671)
> OR

```

```

[1] 1.181872
> CI1=exp(0.1671+0.4097)
> CI1
[1] 1.780332
> CI2=exp(0.1671-0.4097)
> CI2
[1] 0.7845853

> detach(tspz)
> attach(t)
> tun=subset(t,infection=="uninfected")
> detach(t)
> attach(tun)

> m=glm(choice2~1,family=binomial)
> summary(m)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ 1, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-0.9567 -0.9567 -0.9567  1.4155  1.4155

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -0.54411    0.09002 -6.044  1.5e-09 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 '****' 0.001 '***' 0.01 '**' 0.05 '*' 0.1 '.' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 698.23 on 530 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 698.23 on 530 degrees of freedom
AIC: 700.23

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> OR=exp(-0.54411)
> OR
[1] 0.5803581
> CI1=exp(-0.54411+0.09002)
> CI1
[1] 0.6350256
> CI2=exp(-0.54411-0.09002)
> CI2
[1] 0.5303967
>

#####
# Analyses Experiment 2: Mosquito blood-feeding pattern #####
> m1=glm(choice2~infection*origin+infection*village,family=binomial)
> summary(m1)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ infection * origin + infection * village,
     family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-1.8258 -0.6133 -0.6133  0.8630  2.1151

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)  1.34947   0.66654  2.025  0.042908 *
infectionspz -1.31907   0.92452 -1.427  0.153650
infectionuninfected -0.55363   0.68931 -0.803  0.421878
originMH     -2.13075   0.62341 -3.418  0.000631 ***
originMI     -1.10487   0.79012 -1.398  0.162006
villagesamandenai -0.09770   0.61400 -0.159  0.873574
villagesoumoussou -0.80284   0.72406 -1.109  0.267516

```

```

infectionspz:originMH          0.57376  0.92201  0.622  0.533749
infectionuninfected:originMH  0.48010  0.64327  0.746  0.455463
infectionspz:originMI          0.60162  1.07679  0.559  0.576354
infectionuninfected:originMI  0.34986  0.81689  0.428  0.668446
infectionspz:villagesamandeni 0.72644  0.80107  0.907  0.364497
infectionuninfected:villagesamandeni 0.75924  0.63728  1.191  0.233506
infectionspz:villagesoumouss0  0.20553  0.94357  0.218  0.827565
infectionuninfected:villagesoumouss0 0.08233  0.75010  0.110  0.912597
---
Signif. codes:  0 '****' 0.001 '***' 0.01 '**' 0.05 '*' 0.1 '.' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 3075.1  on 2327  degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 2502.3  on 2313  degrees of freedom
AIC: 2532.3

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> m2=glm(choice2~origin+infection*village,family=binomial)
> anova(m1,m2,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ infection * origin + infection * village
Model 2: choice2 ~ origin + infection * village
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1      2313     2502.3
2      2317     2503.0 -4   -0.72688    0.948
> summary(m2)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ origin + infection * village, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q      Median      3Q      Max
-1.8336 -0.6133 -0.6133  0.8600  2.1151

Coefficients:
                                         Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)                         1.0722    0.5150  2.082  0.0373 *
originMH                            -1.6781    0.1498 -11.204 < 2e-16 ***
originMI                            -0.7556    0.1921  -3.933 8.41e-05 ***
infectionspz                         -0.9040    0.6589 -1.372  0.1701
infectionuninfected                  -0.2680    0.5269 -0.509  0.6110
villagesamandeni                     -0.1348    0.5860 -0.230  0.8181
villagesoumouss0                     -0.9782    0.6424 -1.523  0.1278
infectionspz:villagesamandeni      0.7649    0.7624  1.003  0.3158
infectionuninfected:villagesamandeni 0.8056    0.6085  1.324  0.1855
infectionspz:villagesoumouss0       0.3642    0.8286  0.440  0.6602
infectionuninfected:villagesoumouss0 0.2768    0.6601  0.419  0.6750
---
Signif. codes:  0 '****' 0.001 '***' 0.01 '**' 0.05 '*' 0.1 '.' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 3075.1  on 2327  degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 2503.0  on 2317  degrees of freedom
AIC: 2525

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> m3=glm(choice2~origin+infection+village,family=binomial)
> anova(m3,m2,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ origin + infection + village
Model 2: choice2 ~ origin + infection * village
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1      2321     2505.3
2      2317     2503.0  4     2.29   0.6826
> summary(m3)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ origin + infection + village, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q      Median      3Q      Max

```

```

-1.8244 -0.6175 -0.6175 0.8471 2.1436

Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 0.5994    0.2629  2.280  0.0226 *
originMH   -1.6762    0.1494 -11.221 < 2e-16 ***
originMI   -0.7611    0.1916 -3.972 7.12e-05 ***
infectionspz -0.3902    0.2809 -1.389  0.1648
infectionuninfected 0.2408    0.2235  1.077  0.2814
villagesamandeni 0.6142    0.1562  3.933 8.40e-05 ***
villagesoumousso -0.7245    0.1801 -4.022 5.78e-05 ***
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 3075.1 on 2327 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 2505.3 on 2321 degrees of freedom
AIC: 2519.3

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> m4=glm(choice2~origin+village,family=binomial)
> anova(m3,m4,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ origin + infection + village
Model 2: choice2 ~ origin + village
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1      2321     2505.3
2      2323     2518.3 -2   -13.007 0.001498 **
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
> m5=glm(choice2~infection+village,family=binomial)
> anova(m3,m5,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ origin + infection + village
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + village
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1      2321     2505.3
2      2323     2651.2 -2   -145.92 < 2.2e-16 ***
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
> m6=glm(choice2~origin+infection,family=binomial)
> anova(m3,m6,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ origin + infection + village
Model 2: choice2 ~ origin + infection
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1      2321     2505.3
2      2323     2644.8 -2   -139.5 < 2.2e-16 ***
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

> table(choice2,village)
      village
choice2 klesso samandeni soumousso
  H      131      420      909
  other   128      560      180

> ##### klesso-samendeni
> x=matrix(c(131,128,420,560),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 4.639, df = 1, p-value = 0.03125

> ##### klesso-soumousso
> x=matrix(c(131,128,909,180),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

```

```
Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 126.5548, df = 1, p-value < 2.2e-16

> ##### samendeni-soumoussou
> x=matrix(c(420,560,909,180),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 368.5804, df = 1, p-value < 2.2e-16

> table(choice2,origin)
      origin
choice2   CA    MH    MI
  H       89 1290   81
  other   310  441  117

> ##### CA-MH
> x=matrix(c(89,310,1290,441),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 385.0446, df = 1, p-value < 2.2e-16

> ##### CA-MI
> x=matrix(c(89,310,81,117),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 21.5821, df = 1, p-value = 3.39e-06

> ##### MH-MI
> x=matrix(c(1290,441,81,117),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 96.0216, df = 1, p-value < 2.2e-16

>

> ##### HBI ooc vs uninfected#####
> x=matrix(c(75,43,1224,777),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 0.177, df = 1, p-value = 0.674

> ##### HBI spz vs uninfected#####
> x=matrix(c(161,48,1224,777),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 19.6844, df = 1, p-value = 9.134e-06

> ##### HBI spz vs ooc#####
> x=matrix(c(161,48,75,43),ncol=2)
```

```

> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 6.1632, df = 1, p-value = 0.01304

##### intercept model by infectious status

> t=read.table("terrainangmaisons.txt",header=T)
> attach(t)
> summary(t)
> tooc=subset(t,infection=="oocyst")
> detach(t)
> attach(tooc)
> summary(tooc)

> m=glm(choice2~1,family=binomial)
> summary(m)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ 1, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-0.952  -0.952  -0.952   1.421   1.421

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -0.5563     0.1913  -2.908  0.00364 **
---
Signif. codes:  0 '****' 0.001 '***' 0.01 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 154.8 on 117 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 154.8 on 117 degrees of freedom
AIC: 156.8

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> OR=exp(-0.5563)
> OR
[1] 0.5733265
> CI1=exp(-0.5563+0.1913)
> CI1
[1] 0.6941967
> CI2=exp(-0.5563-0.1913)
> CI2
[1] 0.4735016

> detach(tooc)
> attach(t)
> tspz=subset(t,infection=="spz")
> detach(t)
> attach(tspz)
> summary(tspz)

> m=glm(choice2~1,family=binomial)
> summary(m)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ 1, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-0.7224 -0.7224 -0.7224 -0.7224  1.7153

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -1.2102     0.1645 -7.359 1.85e-13 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 '****' 0.001 '***' 0.01 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

```

```

Null deviance: 225.25 on 208 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 225.25 on 208 degrees of freedom
AIC: 227.25

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> OR=exp(-1.2102)
> OR
[1] 0.2981376
> CI1=exp(-1.2102+0.1645)
> CI1
[1] 0.3514457
> CI2=exp(-1.2102-0.1645)
> CI2
[1] 0.2529155

> detach(tspz)
> attach(t)
> tun=subset(t,infection=="uninfected")
> detach(t)
> attach(tun)
> summary(tun)

> m=glm(choice2~1,family=binomial)
> summary(m)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ 1, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-0.9915 -0.9915 -0.9915  1.3755  1.3755

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -0.45444    0.04587 -9.907  <2e-16 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 2673.3 on 2000 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 2673.3 on 2000 degrees of freedom
AIC: 2675.3

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> OR=exp(-0.45444)
> OR
[1] 0.6348034
> CI1=exp(-0.45444+0.04587)
> CI1
[1] 0.6645999
> CI2=exp(-0.45444-0.04587)
> CI2
[1] 0.6063427
>

#### Analyses subset of 150 randomly selected uninfected individuals####

install.packages("dplyr")
library(dplyr)
b = rbind(hbiam[which(hbiam$infection=="oocyst"),],hbiam[which(hbiam$infection=="spz"),],sample_n(hbiam[which(hbiam$infection=="uninfected")],150))
summary(b)
attach(b)
mod1<-glm(choice2~infection,binomial)
anova(mod1,test="Chi")
library(multcomp)
glht.mod <- glht(mod1, mcp(infection = "Tukey"))
summary(glht.mod)

OUTPUT:

```

```

> anova(mod1,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model: binomial, link: logit

Response: choice2

Terms added sequentially (first to last)

          Df Deviance Resid. Df Resid. Dev Pr(>Chi)
NULL          476      590.83
infection    2     11.567    474      579.26 0.003077 **

---
> summary(glht.mod)

Simultaneous Tests for General Linear Hypotheses

Multiple Comparisons of Means: Tukey Contrasts

Fit: glm(formula = choice2 ~ infection, family = binomial)

Linear Hypotheses:
Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|) *
spz - oocyst == 0 -0.65392 0.25226 -2.592 0.02570 *
uninfected - oocyst == 0 0.06674 0.25473 0.262 0.96283
uninfected - spz == 0 0.72066 0.23525 3.063 0.00614 **

---
Signif. codes: 0 '****' 0.001 '***' 0.01 '**' 0.05 '*' 0.1 '.' 1
(Adjusted p values reported -- single-step method)

##### Analyses of HBI in human dwellings only #####
> m1=glm(choice2~infection*village,family=binomial)
> summary(m1)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ infection * village, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
Min      1Q      Median      3Q      Max
-1.1072 -0.6133 -0.6133  1.2493  2.2974

Coefficients:
Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|) 
(Intercept) -0.91629  0.83666 -1.095 0.273
infectionspz -1.64866  1.33204 -1.238 0.216
infectionuninfected -0.16252  0.88251 -0.184 0.854
villagesamandeni 0.06899  0.92668  0.074 0.941
villagesoumoussou -0.66783  0.92230 -0.724 0.469
infectionspz:villagesamandeni 1.72276  1.41925  1.214 0.225
infectionuninfected:villagesamandeni 0.84240  0.97272  0.866 0.386
infectionspz:villagesoumoussou 1.10888  1.42364  0.779 0.436
infectionuninfected:villagesoumoussou 0.17132  0.96797  0.177 0.860

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 1964.7 on 1730 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 1816.7 on 1722 degrees of freedom
AIC: 1834.7

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> m2=glm(choice2~infection*village,family=binomial)
> anova(m1,m2,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ infection * village
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + village
Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1      1722      1816.7
2      1726      1819.3 -4   -2.6054  0.6259
> summary(m2)

```

```

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ infection + village, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q     Max
-1.1005 -0.6182 -0.6182  1.2563  2.1416

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)    
(Intercept) -1.4252    0.3631 -3.925 8.69e-05 *** 
infectionspz -0.3177    0.3414 -0.931 0.352112    
infectionuninfected 0.3112    0.2785  1.117 0.263790    
villagesamandeni 0.9303    0.2696  3.451 0.000559 *** 
villagesoumoussou -0.4440    0.2686 -1.653 0.098280 .  
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 1964.7 on 1730 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 1819.3 on 1726 degrees of freedom
AIC: 1829.3

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> m3=glm(choice2~village,family=binomial)
> anova(m3,m2,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ village
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + village
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1      1728    1829.4
2      1726    1819.3  2    10.099 0.006411 ** 
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
> m4=glm(choice2~infection,family=binomial)
> anova(m4,m2,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ infection
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + village
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1      1728    1956.6
2      1726    1819.3  2    137.27 < 2.2e-16 *** 
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

> table(choice2,village)
      village
choice2 klesso samandeni soumoussou
  H        68      313      909
  other     20      241      180

> ##### klesso-samandeni
> x=matrix(c(68,20,313,241),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 12.7365, df = 1, p-value = 0.0003586

> ##### klesso-soumoussou
> x=matrix(c(68,20,909,180),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 1.8001, df = 1, p-value = 0.1797

> ##### samandeni-soumoussou
> x=matrix(c(313,241,909,180),ncol=2)
Error: unexpected ';' in "x=matrix(c(313,"
```

```

> x=matrix(c(313,241,909,180),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 138.7652, df = 1, p-value < 2.2e-16

> table(choice2,infection)
      infection
choice2 oocyst   spz uninfected
      H       65   144      1081
      other    19    30      392
> #####ooc-spz
> x=matrix(c(65,19,144,30),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 0.744, df = 1, p-value = 0.3884

> #####ooc-uninf
> x=matrix(c(65,19,1081,392),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 0.4629, df = 1, p-value = 0.4963

> #####spz-uninf
> x=matrix(c(144,30,1081,392),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 6.6875, df = 1, p-value = 0.009709

>

#####
##### Analyses by mosquito species #####
> m1=glm(choice2~infection*species.mol*origin,family=binomial)
> summary(m1)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ infection * species.mol * origin, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q      Median      3Q      Max
-2.0963 -0.9854 -0.4366  0.8733  2.1899

Coefficients: (3 not defined because of singularities)
                                         Estimate Std. Error z value
(Intercept)                         15.56607 1455.39751  0.011
infectionspz                      -31.13214 2058.24292 -0.015
infectionuninfected                 -13.48663 1455.39790 -0.009
species.molc                        -14.55447 1455.39763 -0.010
species.molg                         -13.95663 1455.39792 -0.010
originMH                            -2.29066  2.03149 -1.128
originMI                            -3.10159  2.03678 -1.523
infectionspz:species.molc          14.55447 2301.18562  0.006
infectionuninfected:species.molc   13.29601 1455.39806  0.009
infectionspz:species.molg          29.92816 2058.24342  0.015
infectionuninfected:species.molg   11.97897 1455.39833  0.008
infectionspz:originMH              -0.40547  1.97062 -0.206
infectionuninfected:originMH       0.61668  1.47262  0.419
infectionspz:originMI              34.23373 1782.49184  0.019
infectionuninfected:originMI       2.27491  1.54292  1.474
species.molc:originMH              0.43176  2.15095  0.201

```

```

species.molg:originMH      -0.01193   1.47545 -0.008
species.molc:originMI      2.78314   2.28897  1.216
species.molg:originMI      1.49215   1.39587  1.069
infectionspz:species.molc:originMH 16.52210 1029.12365 0.016
infectionuninfected:species.molc:originMH 0.01577  1.70392  0.009
infectionspz:species.molg:originMH      NA        NA        NA
infectionuninfected:species.molg:originMH      NA        NA        NA
infectionspz:species.molc:originMI      -18.81921 2058.24429 -0.009
infectionuninfected:species.molc:originMI      -1.67882   1.98388 -0.846
infectionspz:species.molg:originMI      -32.74207 1782.49162 -0.018
infectionuninfected:species.molg:originMI      NA        NA        NA
                                         Pr(>|z| )
(Intercept)                         0.991
infectionspz                         0.988
infectionuninfected                   0.993
species.molc                         0.992
species.molg                          0.992
originMH                            0.259
originMI                            0.128
infectionspz:species.molc            0.995
infectionuninfected:species.molc    0.993
infectionspz:species.molg            0.988
infectionuninfected:species.molg    0.993
infectionspz:originMH                0.837
infectionuninfected:originMH        0.675
infectionspz:originMI                0.985
infectionuninfected:originMI        0.140
species.molc:originMH                0.841
species.molg:originMH                0.994
species.molc:originMI                0.224
species.molg:originMI                0.285
infectionspz:species.molc:originMH  0.987
infectionuninfected:species.molc:originMH 0.993
infectionspz:species.molg:originMH    NA
infectionuninfected:species.molg:originMH    NA
infectionspz:species.molc:originMI    0.993
infectionuninfected:species.molc:originMI 0.397
infectionspz:species.molg:originMI    0.985
infectionuninfected:species.molg:originMI    NA

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 578.09 on 417 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 483.69 on 394 degrees of freedom
AIC: 531.69

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 14

> m2=update(m1,~-infection:origin:species.mol)
> anova(m1,m2,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ infection * species.mol * origin
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin + infection:species.mol +
  infection:origin + species.mol:origin
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1      394     483.69
2      399     491.73 -5   -8.0469   0.1537
> summary(m2)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin + infection:species.mol +
  infection:origin + species.mol:origin, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q      Median      3Q      Max
-1.9258 -1.0285 -0.5927  0.9058  1.9110

Coefficients:
                                         Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z| )
(Intercept)                         13.56607  535.41117  0.025   0.980
infectionspz                      -13.19790  535.41330 -0.025   0.980
infectionuninfected                 -12.02775  535.41182 -0.022   0.982
species.molc                        -12.50596  535.41145 -0.023   0.981
species.molg                          -12.11677  535.41173 -0.023   0.982
originMH                            -1.85973   1.43990 -1.292   0.197
originMI                            -1.11444   1.47179 -0.757   0.449

```

```

infectionspz:species.molc      11.02764  535.41375  0.021  0.984
infectionuninfected:species.molc 11.70660  535.41217  0.022  0.983
infectionspz:species.molg      11.27033  535.41388  0.021  0.983
infectionuninfected:species.molg 10.76388  535.41238  0.020  0.984
infectionspz:originMH          1.50382   1.13567  1.324  0.185
infectionuninfected:originMH    0.72687   0.73823  0.985  0.325
infectionspz:originMI          1.61505   1.25226  1.290  0.197
infectionuninfected:originMI    1.26021   0.94513  1.333  0.182
species.molc:originMH          0.03303   1.31626  0.025  0.980
species.molg:originMH          -0.70292   1.31078  -0.536  0.592
species.molc:originMI          0.28388   1.27592  0.222  0.824
species.molg:originMI          0.34763   1.20305  0.289  0.773

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 578.09  on 417  degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 491.73  on 399  degrees of freedom
AIC: 529.73

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 12

> m3=update(m2,~.-infection:species.mol)
> anova(m3,m2,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin + infection:origin +
  species.mol:origin
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin + infection:species.mol +
  infection:origin + species.mol:origin
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1        403     495.66
2        399     491.73  4     3.9301   0.4155
> summary(m3)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin + infection:origin +
  species.mol:origin, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-1.9344 -0.9708 -0.5987  0.9278  2.1687

Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)    
(Intercept)  2.26031  0.95659  2.363  0.0181 *  
infectionspz -1.71217  0.92071 -1.860  0.0629 .  
infectionuninfected -0.68194  0.56434 -1.208  0.2269
species.molc -0.95819  0.85517 -1.120  0.2625
species.molg -1.33102  0.83125 -1.601  0.1093
originMH     -2.03824  1.40025 -1.456  0.1455
originMI     -0.96302  1.42391 -0.676  0.4988
infectionspz:originMH  1.08865  1.04636  1.040  0.2981
infectionuninfected:originMH 0.86533  0.72854  1.188  0.2349
infectionspz:originMI  1.22837  1.20557  1.019  0.3082
infectionuninfected:originMI 1.08847  0.91567  1.189  0.2346
species.molc:originMH  0.04529  1.28774  0.035  0.9719
species.molg:originMH -0.51918  1.28081 -0.405  0.6852
species.molc:originMI  0.07551  1.22780  0.061  0.9510
species.molg:originMI  0.42551  1.18714  0.358  0.7200
---
Signif. codes:  0 '****' 0.001 '***' 0.01 '**' 0.05 '*' 0.1 '.' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 578.09  on 417  degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 495.66  on 403  degrees of freedom
AIC: 525.66

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> m4=update(m3,~.-origin:species.mol)
> anova(m3,m4,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin + infection:origin +
  species.mol:origin
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin + infection:origin

```

```

  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1        403      495.66
2        407      498.01 -4    -2.3455   0.6725
> summary(m4)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin + infection:origin,
     family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q   Median      3Q      Max
-2.0593 -0.8993 -0.6727  0.9159  2.0021

Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)      2.1941    0.7129  3.078 0.002086 ***
infectionspz   -1.6689    0.9124 -1.829 0.067389 .
infectionuninfected -0.6457    0.5567 -1.160 0.246073
species.molc    -0.8519    0.5244 -1.625 0.104254
species.molg    -1.3407    0.5139 -2.609 0.009086 ***
originMH        -2.0885    0.6299 -3.315 0.000915 ***
originMI        -0.7358    0.8279 -0.889 0.374120
infectionspz:originMH 1.0445    1.0376  1.007 0.314094
infectionuninfected:originMH 0.6956    0.7003  0.993 0.320581
infectionspz:originMI  1.1446    1.2011  0.953 0.340614
infectionuninfected:originMI 1.1801    0.8964  1.317 0.188006
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 578.09  on 417  degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 498.01  on 407  degrees of freedom
AIC: 520.01

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> m5=update(m4,~-origin:infection)
> anova(m5,m4,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin + infection:origin
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1        411      500.41
2        407      498.01  4    2.3997   0.6627
> summary(m5)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q   Median      3Q      Max
-2.0031 -0.9315 -0.6338  0.9649  2.0625

Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)      1.69014    0.58389  2.895 0.00380 ***
infectionspz   -0.89306    0.36979 -2.415 0.01573 *
infectionuninfected -0.07748    0.30825 -0.251 0.80154
species.molc    -0.84224    0.51873 -1.624 0.10445
species.molg    -1.33892    0.50965 -2.627 0.00861 ***
originMH        -1.45808    0.26040 -5.599 2.15e-08 ***
originMI         0.24905    0.28962  0.860 0.38982
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 578.09  on 417  degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 500.41  on 411  degrees of freedom
AIC: 514.41

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> m6=update(m5,~-species.mol)
> anova(m6,m5,test="Chi")

```

```

Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ infection + origin
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1        413      510.60
2        411      500.41  2     10.19 0.006128 **

---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
> m7=update(m5,~-origin)
> anova(m7,m5,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ infection + species.mol
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1        413      551.22
2        411      500.41  2     50.805 9.284e-12 ***

---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
> m8=update(m5,~-infection)
> anova(m8,m5,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ species.mol + origin
Model 2: choice2 ~ infection + species.mol + origin
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1        413      508.95
2        411      500.41  2     8.5437  0.01396 *

---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

> table(choice2,species.mol)
  species.mol
choice2   a   c   g
  H       6 113 102
  other   21  92  84

> table(choice2,origin)
  origin
choice2  CA  MH  MI
  H       50 137 34
  other   84  49  64
>

> ##### MH vs CA
> x=matrix(c(50,84,137,49),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 40.8718, df = 1, p-value = 1.625e-10

> ##### MI vs CA
> x=matrix(c(50,84,34,64),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 0.0739, df = 1, p-value = 0.7858

> ##### MI vs MH
> x=matrix(c(137,49,34,64),ncol=2)
> chisq.test(x)

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

data: x
X-squared = 39.0592, df = 1, p-value = 4.111e-10

#####modele intercept par especes

> m=glm(choice2~1,family=binomial)
> summary(m)

```

```

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ 1, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-1.734   0.709   0.709   0.709   0.709

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)    
(Intercept)  1.2528    0.4629   2.706   0.0068 **  
---
Signif. codes:  0 '****' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 28.604  on 26  degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 28.604  on 26  degrees of freedom
AIC: 30.604

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4

> OR=exp(1.2528)
> OR
[1] 3.50013
> C11=exp(1.2528+0.4629)
> C11
[1] 5.560567
> C12=exp(1.2528-0.4629)
> C12
[1] 2.203176


> detach(ta)
> attach(t)
> tc=subset(t,species.mol=="c")
> detach(t)
> attach(tc)
> summary(tc)

> m=glm(choice2~1,family=binomial)
> summary(m)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ 1, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-1.091  -1.091  -1.091   1.266   1.266

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)    
(Intercept) -0.2056    0.1404  -1.464   0.143    
---
Signif. codes:  0 '****' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 282.04  on 204  degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 282.04  on 204  degrees of freedom
AIC: 284.04

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 3

> OR=exp(-0.2056)
> OR
[1] 0.8141587
> C11=exp(-0.2056+0.1404)
> C11
[1] 0.9368801
> C12=exp(-0.2056-0.1404)
> C12
[1] 0.7075125

> detach(tc)
> attach(t)
> tg=subset(t,species.mol=="g")
> detach(t)

```

```

> attach(tg)
> summary(tg)

> m=glm(choice2~1,family=binomial)
> summary(m)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ 1, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-1.096  -1.096  -1.096   1.261   1.261

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -0.1942     0.1473  -1.318   0.188

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

    Null deviance: 256.11 on 185 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 256.11 on 185 degrees of freedom
AIC: 258.11

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 3

> OR=exp(-0.1942)
> OR
[1] 0.8234932
> CI1=exp(-0.1942+0.1473)
> CI1
[1] 0.9541828
> CI2=exp(-0.1942-0.1473)
> CI2
[1] 0.7107035
>

#####
# Analysis parity #####
#####

> m1=glm(choice2~parity,family=binomial)
> summary(m1)

Call:
glm(formula = choice2 ~ parity, family = binomial)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max
-1.254  -1.254   1.103   1.103   1.169

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)  0.01869   0.19336   0.097   0.923
parityP      0.15929   0.24747   0.644   0.520

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

    Null deviance: 381.69 on 275 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 381.27 on 274 degrees of freedom
AIC: 385.27

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 3

> m2=glm(choice2~1,family=binomial)
> anova(m1,m2,test="Chi")
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: choice2 ~ parity
Model 2: choice2 ~ 1
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1        274      381.27
2        275      381.69 -1   -0.4144   0.5197
> table(choice2,parity)
  parity
choice2

```

choice2	N	P
H	53	77
other	54	92