

1 **A CROSS-SECTIONAL EPIDEMIOLOGICAL SURVEY OF BOVINE**
2 **TRYPANOSOMOSIS AND ITS VECTORS IN THE SAVELUGU AND WEST**
3 **MAMPRUSI DISTRICTS OF NORTHERN GHANA**

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27 **Abstract**

28 The epidemiology of bovine trypanosomosis was investigated in two districts (Savelugu
29 and West Mamprusi) of Northern Ghana with different land use and environmental
30 characteristics. The land use intensity and environmental change was suspected to be
31 higher in the Savelugu District. A cross-sectional entomological survey conducted along
32 the White Volta river and its tributaries confirmed the presence of only *Glossina palpalis*
33 *gambiensis* and *G. tachinoides*. The challenge index as measured by the product of tsetse
34 density and tsetse infection rate was much higher in the West Mamprusi (19.6) than in the
35 Savelugu district (4.7). A total of 1,013 cattle (508 in Savelugu and 505 in West
36 Mamprusi) were bled from a random selection of 16 villages in the Savelugu District and
37 13 villages in the West Mamprusi District. Blood samples were examined for
38 trypanosomes by the buffy coat technique (BCT). Blood samples that were positive in the
39 BCT or negative in the BCT but with Packed Cell Volume (PCV) values below 21 were
40 further tested with a polymerase chain reaction for trypanosomal DNA. Plasma samples of
41 all cattle were serologically tested with an indirect ELISA for trypanosomal antibodies.
42 The parasitological and serological prevalence of bovine trypanosomoses was
43 significantly higher in West Mamprusi (16 and 53%, respectively) than in Savelugu
44 District (8 and 24%, respectively). An evaluation of animal health at the village herd
45 level, using PCV as an index of anaemia, provided various epidemiological scenarios
46 prevalent in the entire study area.

47

48 **Keywords :** cattle-Protozoa, tsetse fly, trypanosomosis, survey, epidemiology, Ghana

49

50 **1. Introduction**

51 The direct and indirect impacts of African Animal Trypanosomosis on agriculture constitute
52 a major constraint to the socio-economic development of tsetse fly (*Glossina*) infested areas
53 of Africa (Swallow, 1998). Various options are available for the control of animal
54 trypanosomosis; they include the suppression and/or eradication of tsetse populations
55 (Jordan, 1986), the use of trypanotolerant breeds of livestock (D'Ieteren et al., 1998),
56 chemotherapy (Peregrine, 1994) or combinations of these (Holmes, 1997).

57 Studies conducted in West Africa amply demonstrate that decision making on the
58 control of tsetse-transmitted trypanosomosis, at the regional level, should be founded on an
59 objective assessment of the impact of the disease on production systems (Hendrickx et al.,
60 1999). At the local level, it is important that due cognisance is given to the dynamic nature of

61 trypanosomosis, and in particular to the evolution of the disease with human population
62 growth and agricultural expansion (Bourn et al., 2001). Although the *morsitans* group of
63 tsetse flies (Subgenus *Glossina* s. str.) is expected to decline appreciably with demographic
64 pressure, the more tenacious *palpalis* (Nemorhina) group of tsetse flies could continue to
65 persist in isolated habitats (Reid et al., 2000). A study conducted on an agro-pastoral zone
66 of Burkina Faso, showed that changes in the distribution of *Glossina palpalis gambiensis*
67 Vanderplank and *Glossina tachinoides* Westwood, over a 15 year period, were partially due to
68 the proximity of cropping to river banks (de La Rocque et al., 2001); the said study did not,
69 however, state the impact of such changes in fly distribution on the epidemiology of
70 trypanosomosis.

71 This present survey sought to obtain and compare prevalence estimates of bovine
72 trypanosomosis, transmitted by tsetse flies of the *palpalis* group, in two geographically
73 contiguous areas (Savelugu and West Mamprusi Districts of Northern Ghana) with different
74 land use patterns and to elucidate prevailing epidemiological scenarios in the two districts.

75

76 **2. Materials and methods**

77 *2.1. Study area*

78 The two districts are located in the northern part of Ghana at the limits of the Guinea
79 and Sudano-Guinean savanna zones. The riparian vegetation of the main river, which is
80 locally referred to in Ghana as the “White Volta” and its tributaries are infested with *G.*
81 *palpalis gambiensis* and *G. tachinoides* (Draeger, 1983). In the Savelugu District, which has a
82 relatively high human population (60 people /km²), some segments of riparian vegetation
83 have been obliterated by high human activity causing the disappearance of potential habitat
84 for tsetse flies. The West Mamprusi District on the other hand has a low human population
85 density of 22 people /km² (Nippah, 1997: personal communication). Encroachment on
86 riparian vegetation in this district is minimal and hence tsetse habitat is relatively undisturbed.
87 Contact between tsetse flies and cattle occurs when cattle are herded along the White Volta.

88

89 *2.2. Tsetse survey*

90 A cross-sectional tsetse fly survey was conducted in the dry season (February-June
91 2001) along the White Volta and its tributaries in the Savelugu and West Mamprusi Districts.
92 Biconical traps (Challier and Laveissière, 1973) were deployed at an interval of about 100-
93 200 meters along riparian vegetation. The coordinates of each trap position were recorded
94 with a Global Positioning System (GPS). Trapping sites corresponded to those visited by

95 livestock and man for water. A total of 13 sites (5 sites in Savelugu and 8 sites in West
96 Mamprusi) were surveyed. Ten traps were deployed per site making it a total of 130 traps for
97 the entire study area. Tsetse flies were collected from each trap twice a day for a period of 48
98 hours and sorted according to species.

99

100 2.3. *Detection of trypanosome infection in tsetse flies*

101 Tsetse flies caught were dissected in normal saline and the hypopharynx, midgut and
102 salivary glands examined under a compound microscope for trypanosome infection. Infected
103 *Glossina* parts were preserved in 70% alcohol in Eppendorf tubes until they reached the
104 laboratory (CIRDES, Burkina Faso) and were treated with Chelex[®] as previously described
105 by Desquesnes and Dávila (2002). They were further tested for trypanosomal
106 deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) using the Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) as described by
107 Masiga et al. (1992), using primers specific for *Trypanosoma vivax*, *T. congolense* (savannah
108 type) and *T. brucei*. Tsetse flies that were dessicated were rejected.

109

110 2.4. *Survey of bovine trypanosomosis*

111 2.4.1 *Sampling*

112 A multistage sampling method was used. The two districts were considered as
113 geographical entities separated by administrative boundaries and were purposively selected
114 because of differences in environmental characteristics. About 30% of villages were
115 randomly selected in each zone (16 villages in Savelugu and 13 villages in West Mamprusi).
116 Assuming an estimated trypanosomosis prevalence of 50% and with a desired accuracy of
117 5% at the 95% confidence level, an estimated sample size of 384 cattle was obtained for
118 each zone (Cannon and Roe, 1982). To improve on the reliability of the sample size, more
119 than the required number of samples were taken (508 cattle and 505 cattle in Savelugu and
120 West Mamprusi Districts respectively). In each zone, the number of animals selected in each
121 village was based on proportional weighting. At the village level herds were selected by
122 simple random sampling. The number of cattle sampled from a particular herd in a given
123 village depended on proportional weighting; but a minimum of 20 cattle per herd was fixed.
124 Where a chosen herd did not have the required number of cattle (as calculated by proportional
125 weighting), a second herd was selected by random sampling, and the remaining number of
126 cattle made up by simple random sampling. Geographical co-ordinates of selected villages
127 were also recorded. The sex, age and breed of animals were noted. A questionnaire was

128 applied to determine the kind of herd management as well as treatment regimes of
129 trypanocidal drugs practiced.

130

131 2.4.2 Parasitological diagnosis

132 Blood was taken into heparinised haematocrit tubes from the ear vein and examined
133 for trypanosomes using the buffy coat technique (BCT) (Murray et al., 1977). The Packed
134 Cell Volume (PCV) was read for each sample. The buffy coat of samples that were positive
135 for pathogenic trypanosomes, and negative samples with PCV values below 21%, were
136 dotted onto filter paper (Whatman Number 1) as described by Omanwar et al. (1999).
137 Trypanosomal DNA was extracted in Chelex[®] 100 (Solano et al., 1999) and tested as
138 described for flies organs, with primers specific for *T. vivax*, *T. congolense* (savannah type)
139 and *T. brucei* . A sample was considered positive if it was positive in the BCT and/or the
140 PCR.

141

142 2.4.3 Antibody detection by an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)

143 The plasma component of each bovine blood sample, after centrifugation, was dotted
144 on filter paper, dried and preserved at ambient temperature (Hopkins et al., 1998). The
145 plasma-impregnated portions of the filter paper were cut out and the plasma eluted with 1.5
146 ml of phosphate buffered saline (PBS) containing 0.1% Tween 20 for 2 hours on a rotative
147 shaker. Using antigens of *T. vivax* (Zaria 81/Y486/699) (Guidot and Roelants, 1982), *T.*
148 *congolense* (IL1180)(Peregrine et al., 1991) and *T. brucei* (Cross, 1977) three indirect
149 antibody ELISAs were performed on the samples (Desquesnes et al., 2001); evaluated under
150 controlled conditions these 3 tests exhibited sensitivities >90% in experimentally infected
151 sheep and specificities >99% in non-infected animals (Desquesnes et al., 2001). Four negative
152 control plasma were obtained from 4 non-infected cattle born in the tsetse-free zone of Dori in
153 Burkina Faso. Positive control plasma were obtained from 3 cattle experimentally infected
154 with *T. vivax* (Zaria 81/Y486/699) (Guidot and Roelants, 1982), *T. congolense*
155 (IL1180)(Peregrine et al., 1991) or *T. brucei* (Farakoba/80/CRTA/1) (Roelants et al., 1985),
156 respectively. The plasma were dotted on filter paper and kept at 4°C to be used as controls
157 after similar elution as test samples. For each type of antibody ELISA (ELISA-*T. vivax*,
158 ELISA-*T. brucei* and ELISA-*T. congolense*), results were expressed in Percentage of
159 Positivity (PP) as previously described by Desquesnes (1997). Samples giving a PP which
160 exceeded the mean PP of negative samples plus 3 standard deviations were considered

161 positive (Desquesnes et al., 2001). A sample was considered positive if it was positive for
162 one or more of the 3 types of ELISA.

163

164 **3. Results**

165 3.1 *Tsetse fly species distribution, population density and infection rate*

166 There was a downward gradient in the apparent density of tsetse per site from the
167 northern to the southern limits of the survey area (Fig. 1). Throughout the range of the tsetse
168 survey area, the species found were *G. palpalis gambiensis* and *G. tachinoides*. The apparent
169 density varied widely between sites. In the case of *G. palpalis gambiensis*, the number of
170 tsetse flies caught per trap per day at a given site varied between 0 and 18 with a mean of 2.
171 No *G. palpalis gambiensis* were found at the northern limits of the survey area. In the case of
172 *G. tachinoides* the catch per site varied between 2 and 257 with a mean of 40 flies per site per
173 day; this species of tsetse fly was found throughout the range of area surveyed. The challenge
174 index (apparent density x tsetse infection rate) was appreciably higher in the West Mamprusi
175 District (19.6) than in the Savelugu District (4.7) (Table 1). The trypanosome species
176 infecting flies were *T. vivax*, *T. congolense* (savannah type) and *T. brucei* (Table 1). In view
177 of the small number of flies that were infected, the relative occurrence of the trypanosome
178 species in tsetse flies can only be qualitatively appreciated.

179

180 3.2 *Prevalence of bovine trypanosomosis*

181 Using the buffy coat technique (BCT), the mean prevalence of positive samples in the
182 Savelugu District was 8%. The PCR did not detect any samples that were negative in the BCT
183 with PCV values of less than 21% but confirmed over 98% of positive samples detected by
184 the BCT. Among the various cattle breeds the prevalence was 6% (n=325) in the West
185 African shorthorn, 11% (n= 162) in the Sanga and 14% (n= 21) in the Zebu. Using the
186 results of the BCT and PCR in the West Mamprusi District, the prevalence was 16%. The
187 PCR besides agreeing over 95% with the BCT results had detected 4 positive cases out of 41,
188 which could not be detected by the BCT and had PCV values of less than 21%. In the various
189 breeds the prevalence was 19% (n=383) in the West African Shorthorn, 9% (n=82) in the
190 Sanga and 8% (n=40) in the Zebu. In both districts *T. vivax* was the most prevalent
191 trypanosome infection, followed by *T. congolense* (savannah type) and then *T. brucei*, as
192 shown in Table 2. There was a statistically significant difference between the medians of
193 parasitological prevalence of the two districts (U=57.5, P=0.05 Mann-Whitney U-test).

194 The mean seroprevalence in Savelugu District and West Mamprusi District were 24% and
195 53%, respectively. There was a statistically significant difference between the medians of
196 serological prevalence in the Savelugu and West Mamprusi Districts (U= 24, P=0.05 Mann-
197 Whitney U-test).

198 Generally, the serological prevalence of bovine trypanosomoses was higher than the
199 parasitological prevalence. This information is depicted in Fig. 2. Trypanosomal antibodies
200 were detected in cattle less than one year old. Across the age spectrum of cattle in the West
201 Mamprusi District, antibody prevalence was higher in the older age groups but this was less
202 evident in the Savelugu District (Fig. 3). The mean and median age of cattle examined were
203 both 4 years and the range was from 3 months to 20 years.

204

205 *3.3 Analysis of Packed Cell Volume (PCV)*

206 The mean (\pm SD) PCV for the West African Shorthorn (WASH), the Sanga and the
207 Zebu were $28.9\% \pm 0.2$ (n=707), $31.4\% \pm 0.35$ (n=244) and $33.3\% \pm 0.67$ (n=61),
208 respectively. There was a highly significant statistical difference between the mean PCV of
209 the West African Shorthorn breed and that of the Zebu (P=0.01, Z-test); there was also a
210 highly statistically significant difference between the mean PCV of the West African
211 Shorthorn and the mean PCV of the Sanga (P=0.01, Z-test). A comparison of the mean PCV
212 of the Sanga to the mean PCV of the Zebu showed no significant difference (P=0.01, Z-test).

213

214 *3.4 Prevalence of trypanosomosis and the occurrence of anaemia*

215 The mean PCV for all cattle in the study area was $29.7\% (\pm 5.7)$. A threshold of 21
216 was chosen below which animals were considered anaemic, because there was a statistically
217 significant difference between PCV values of less than 21% and the population mean. A
218 scatter plot of parasitological prevalence and the prevalence of anaemia at the village level is
219 shown in Figure 4. A threshold of 5% was set for both parasitological prevalence and the
220 prevalence of anaemia above or below which parasitaemia or anaemia were considered as
221 high or low, respectively (shown by vertical and horizontal dotted lines on the graph). Using
222 these thresholds four categories of village herds were identified: those with a low prevalence
223 of trypanosomosis and a low prevalence of anaemia (n=3), those with a high prevalence of
224 trypanosomosis and a low prevalence of anaemia (n=17); those with a high prevalence of
225 trypanosomosis and a high prevalence of anaemia (n=8) and finally, those with a low

226 prevalence of trypanosomosis and a high prevalence of anaemia (n=1). This information is
227 spatially represented in Fig. 5.

228

229 **4 Discussion**

230 The trypanosome infection rate in tsetse flies was approximately the same for both
231 districts but the tsetse density per site in the West Mamprusi District was almost 4 fold higher
232 than that of the Savelugu District, hence the trypanosome challenge in the former was much
233 higher. Tsetse blood meal analysis would have provided the true trypanosome challenge that
234 cattle in the areas were exposed to. However, blood meal analysis was considered impractical
235 because of the low tsetse fly counts at several sites and the fact that more than 90% of tsetse
236 flies caught were hungry flies. Rogers (1985) observed that while tsetse infection rate tends
237 to be the same in a given area, there can be great variability in tsetse apparent density. The
238 main reason for the differences in tsetse density observed in the two districts is the
239 fragmentation of tsetse habitat along riparian vegetation as described by de La Rocque et al.
240 (2001).

241 Although variations in humidity and temperature between February and June could
242 have influenced tsetse fly population density from north to south, this was not a major
243 consideration because only 10 traps were set in the month of June at one site at the northern
244 limit of the survey area. The said site has from previous surveys been known to have a high
245 tsetse population density (Draeger, 1983) as was confirmed by the present survey. The other
246 120 traps were set between the months of February and April during which time temperature
247 and humidity differences between the months were minimal (Amingo, 2001: personal
248 communication). No traps were deployed in the month of May due to accessibility problems.

249 In both districts, most cattle are herded along the river banks of the White Volta
250 during the dry season, where they come into contact with tsetse flies. In the rainy season,
251 cattle graze and water close to the village and hence the risk of trypanosomosis is minimised.
252 Since cattle management is the same in both districts, the higher serological and
253 parasitological prevalence of bovine trypanosomosis observed in the West Mamprusi district
254 as compared to the Savelugu District was attributed to the higher trypanosome challenge in
255 the former. The parasitological prevalence was probably underestimated because the PCR was
256 used only on samples that were positive with the BCT or samples that were negative with the
257 BCT and had PCV values of less than 21%. Where the two tests are used in parallel the PCR
258 increases the number of cases detected (Solano et al., 1999).

259 The pattern of serological prevalence in the different age groups, observed in the West
260 Mamprusi District is consistent with the findings of Desquesnes et al. (1999). Older animals
261 had more chances to be exposed to tsetse bites than younger ones. The higher serological
262 prevalence as compared to parasitological prevalence observed in both districts at the village
263 level, suggests that more animals were exposed to trypanosome infection but had undergone
264 self-cure or had parasitaemias that were too low to be detected by both the PCR and the buffy
265 coat technique. The occurrence of *T. congolense* (savannah type) as revealed by the PCR is
266 significant from the veterinary point of view as this type is known to be more virulent than
267 other *T. congolense* types (Bengaly et al., 2002).

268 The significant difference in the PCV values observed for the West African Shorthorn,
269 the Sanga and the Zebu makes it imperative to consider these breeds separately when
270 evaluating animal health, especially in small herds. The use of trypanocidal drugs and the
271 susceptibility of trypanosome populations to these drugs could have confounded not only the
272 conclusions drawn about the PCV values observed in the different cattle breeds but also about
273 the prevalence of trypanosomosis in the two districts. However, treatment history provided by
274 the owners of all cattle examined indicated that they were last treated with trypanocides
275 (diminazene derivatives) on average 6 months before the survey. Although resistance to
276 trypanocidal drugs has not yet been reported in Ghana, reports of drug resistance in other
277 parts of West Africa (Clausen et al., 1992; Peregrine, 1994) suggest that this phenomenon
278 should be taken into account when interpreting parasitological prevalence figures. Anaemia
279 is an index of animal health in bovine trypanosomosis. In epidemiological surveys, the focus
280 should be on anaemia rather than parasitaemia alone because parasitaemia may just be an
281 indicator of carrier status, especially in trypanotolerant cattle (Hendrickx et al., 2001). In this
282 study it was observed that cattle in 17 out of 29 villages had a high parasitological prevalence
283 but generally had normal haematocrit values. This may be explained by the high proportion
284 of trypanotolerant cattle in the study area. There were also 8 villages in which there was a
285 high prevalence of trypanosomosis and a high prevalence of anaemia ; in this situation,
286 trypanosomosis was considered a major problem. Out of the said 8 villages, 6 villages were
287 found in the West Mamprusi District, which is not surprising given the high challenge index
288 in this region. Despite the low prevalence of trypanosomosis in the Savelugu District, cattle in
289 some villages were adversely affected by the disease. Overall, there was only one village in
290 which cattle had a high prevalence of anaemia, despite the low prevalence of trypanosomosis;
291 anaemia in this situation could be attributed to some other causes such as fasciolosis or
292 haemonchosis as reported elsewhere in the West-African sub-region (Ndao et al., 1995;

293 Zinsstag et al., 1998). Finally, there were 3 villages where the prevalence of trypanosomosis
294 and the prevalence of anaemia were both low; it is assumed that in this category,
295 trypanosomosis was not a major problem. All villages in this category were in the Savelugu
296 District.

297

298 **5 Conclusion**

299 The study underscores the usefulness of cross-sectional studies as a precursor to tsetse
300 and trypanosomosis control interventions. The results of the survey, besides identifying herds
301 and villages where trypanosomosis constitutes a major problem, as far as animal health is
302 concerned, also provided information on the prevalence of trypanosome species and strains as
303 well as their vectors in the Savelugu and West Mamprusi Districts. The combined use of
304 entomological, parasitological and serological methods in the survey provided more
305 information than could have been obtained by any one method alone. The usefulness of the
306 antibody indirect ELISA as a potential tool for the monitoring and evaluation of large-scale
307 tsetse and trypanosomosis control interventions (Machila et al., 2001) was highlighted by the
308 results of the survey.

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312 **6 Acknowledgements**

313 We are very grateful to the Management of CIRDES, Burkina Faso for having given
314 support to this work through the budget of PROCORDEL, funded by the EU. The judgement
315 of the Director of Veterinary Services (Dr M Agyen-Frempong) in the approval of this piece
316 of work as a national priority of Ghana is deeply appreciated. Special thanks also go to the
317 staff of the Tsetse and Trypanosomiasis Control Unit, who by hard work and commitment to
318 duty made this research achievable.

319

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418 Legends of tables and figures

419

420 Table 1. Apparent density and infection rate in tsetse flies, and trypanosome challenge, in the
421 Savelugu and West Mamprusi districts of Ghana

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423 Table 2 : Occurrence of trypanosome species in cattle in the Savelugu and West Mamprusi
424 districts of Ghana

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427 Figure 1. Mean tsetse apparent density (number of tsetse flies caught per trap per day) in the
428 Savelugu and West Mamprusi districts of Ghana

429 Figure 2. Comparison of parasitological and serological prevalence of bovine trypanosomosis
430 at the village level in the West Mamprusi district

431 Figure 3. Trypanosomal antibody prevalence in age categories of cattle in the Savelugu and
432 West Mamprusi districts

433 Figure 4. Prevalence of anaemia and of trypanosomosis in village cattle of the Savelugu and
434 West Mamprusi districts

435 Figure 5. Prevalence of trypanosomoses and the prevalence of anaemia in the Savelugu and
436 West Mamprusi Districts

437 Table 1. Apparent density and infection rate in tsetse flies, and trypanosome challenge, in the Savelugu and West Mamprusi districts of Ghana

| DISTRICT | Number of tsetse flies dissected | Mean A.D ¹ per site | Infection rate (%) | Challenge ² index | Species of trypanosomes detected ³ (%) | | |
|---------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|------------------|
| | | | | | <i>T. vivax</i> | <i>T. congolense</i> (savannah type) | <i>T. brucei</i> |
| Savelugu | 77 | 1.8 (n=5) | 2.6 | 4.7 | 0 | 50 | 50 |
| West Mamprusi | 168 | 8.6 (n=8) | 2.3 | 19.8 | 50 | 25 | 25 |

438

439 1 A.D : Apparent Density (Mean number of tsetse per trap per day)

440 2 Challenge index = A.D. x Infection rate

441 3 Trypanosome species were identified by the PCR technique

442 Table 2: Occurrence of trypanosome species in cattle in the Savelugu and West Mamprusi districts of Ghana

443

| District | Percentage of cattle infected | Occurrence of trypanosome species (%) | | | | | |
|---------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | | <i>T. vivax</i> | <i>T. congolense</i> (savannah) | <i>T. brucei</i> | TV and TC | TV and TB | TB and TC |
| Savelugu | 8 | 66 | 17 | 12 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| West Mamprusi | 16 | 80 | 9 | 3 | 6 | 1 | 1 |

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445 TV : *T. vivax* TC :*T. congolense* TB : *T. brucei* .

446 Trypanosome species were identified by BCT and PCR

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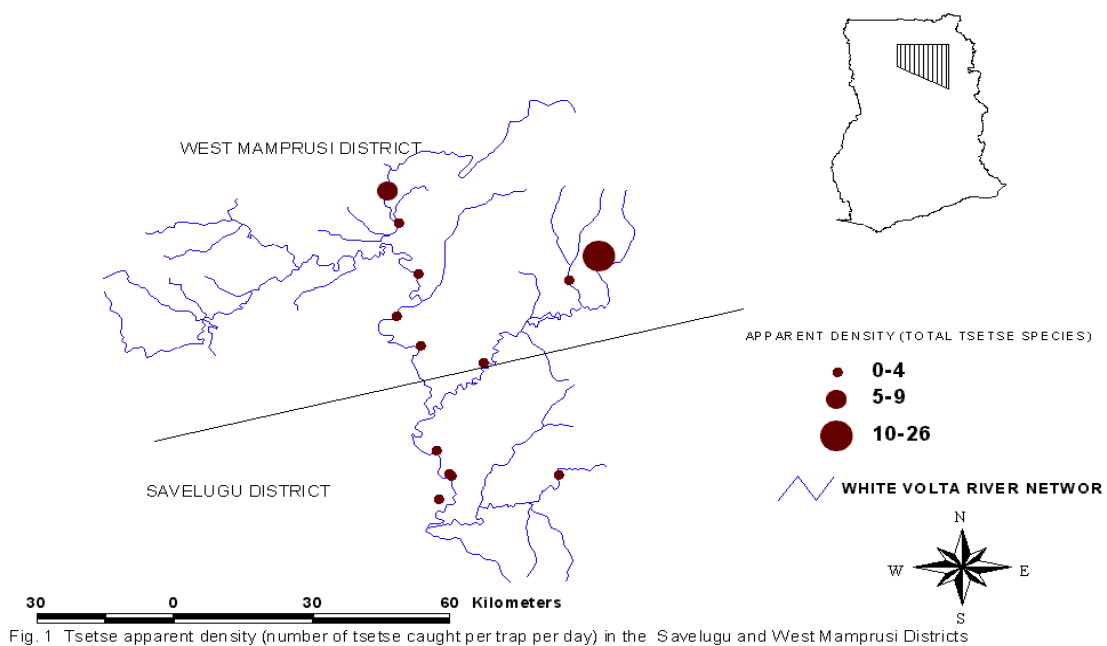
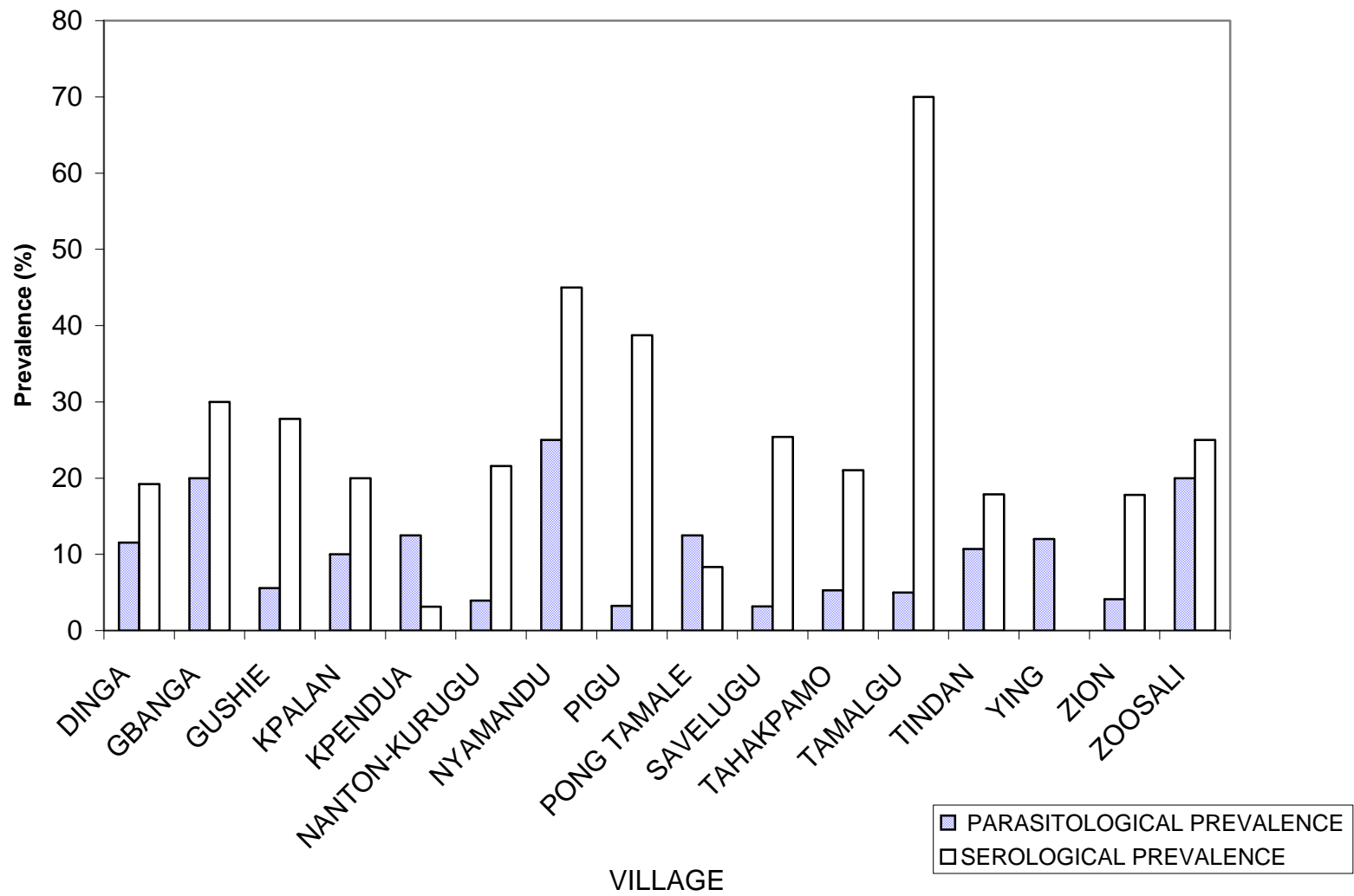
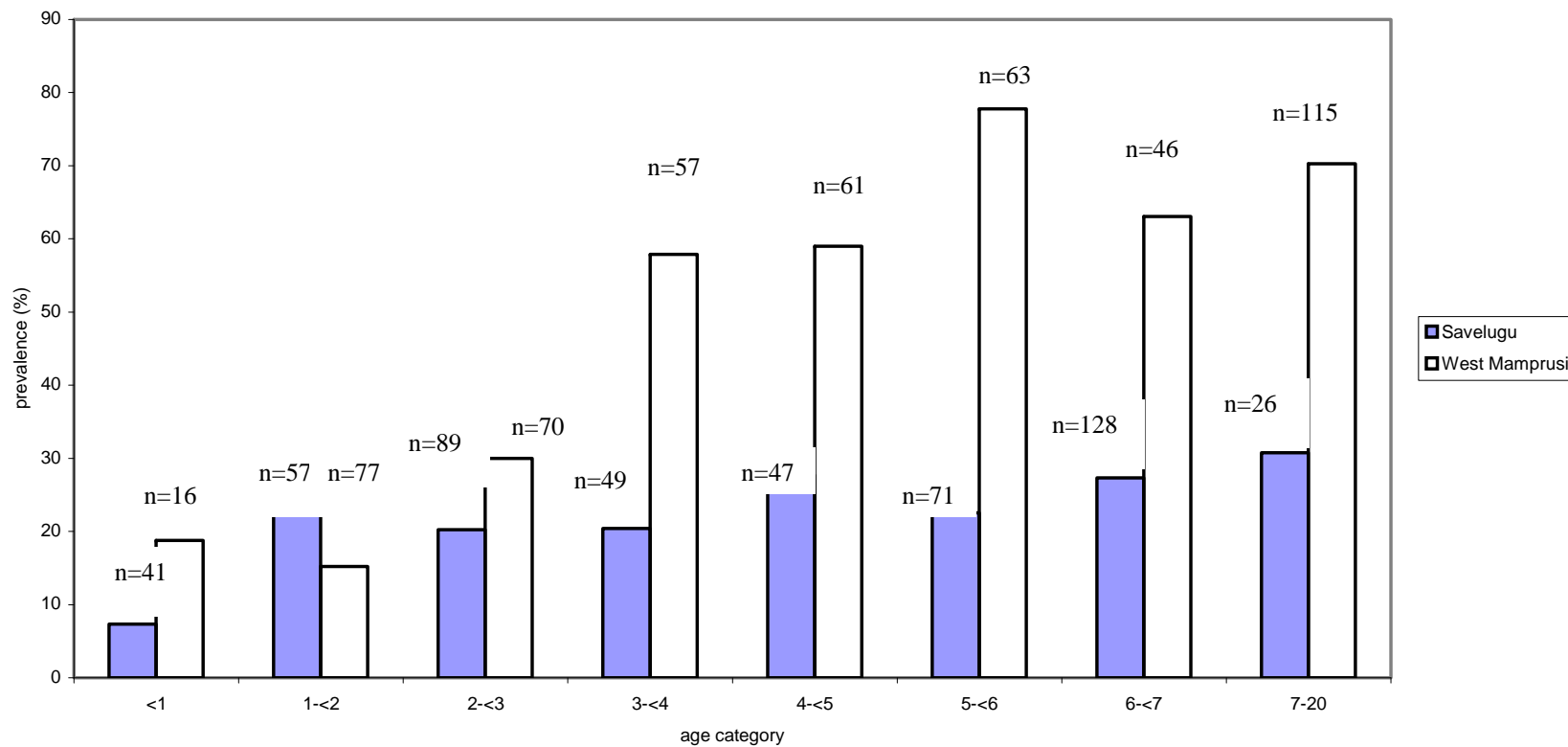


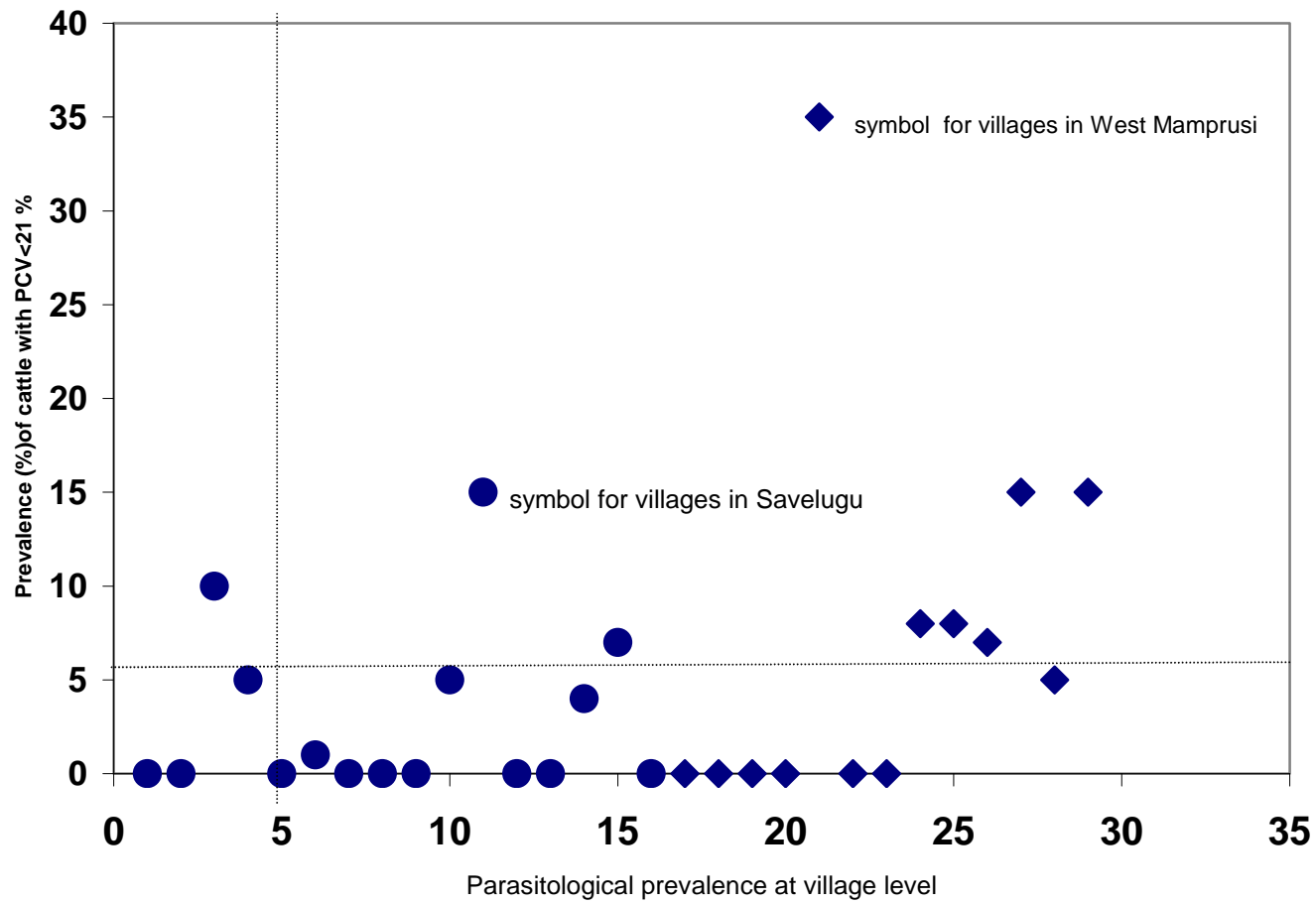
Fig. 1 Tsetse apparent density (number of tsetse caught per trap per day) in the Savelugu and West Mamprusi Districts



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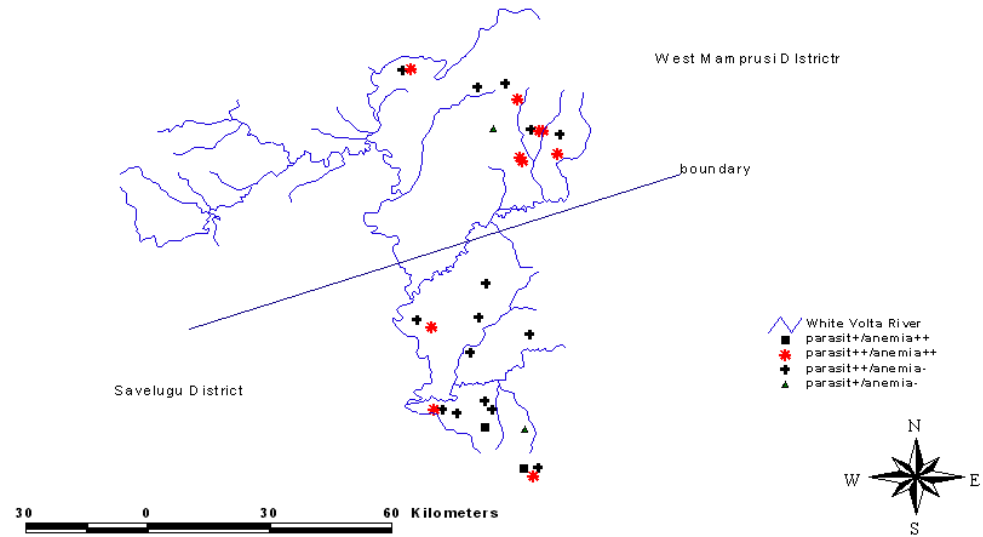


Fig 5. Prevalence of trichomonosmosis and the prevalence of anaemia in the Savalugu and West Mamprusi Districts

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