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The continental atlas of the distribution of tsetse flies in Africa

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The continental atlas of the distribution of tsetse flies in Africa

Giuliano Cecchi Massimo Paone Jill de Gier Weining Zhao

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Authors

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Abbreviations and acronyms

AAT	African animal trypanosomosis
COMBAT	controlling and progressively minimizing the burden of animal trypanosomosis
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GIS	geographic information system
HAT	human African trypanosomiasis
PAAT	Programme Against African Trypanosomosis
WHO	World Health Organization

Foreword

In sub-Saharan Africa, tsetse flies transmit trypanosomes, unicellular parasites that cause disease in human and non-human animals alike. The disease is widespread in livestock in Africa (where it is known as "nagana") and where it causes losses to the agriculture sector that are estimated in billions of dollars every year. In humans, the illness is known as "sleeping sickness" and it is more circumscribed than in livestock, occurring only in well-defined areas of endemicity known as "foci". After causing devastating epidemics in the last century, "sleeping sickness" has recently been "eliminated as a public health problem", with fewer than 2000 cases reported each year; more ambitious targets, including the elimination of transmission of the gambiense form of the disease, have been set for 2030 by the World Health Organization (WHO).

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) has long recognized the severe burden that animal trypanosomosis places on livestock keeping, as well as the risk it poses to public health. Indeed, in an effort to address this often-neglected tropical disease, in 1997 FAO established the Programme Against African Trypanosomosis (PAAT), an interagency collaboration that also includes WHO, the International Atomic Energy Agency and the African Union through its Interafrican Bureau for Animal Resources. For over 25 years, within the framework of PAAT, FAO has been assisting affected countries in their efforts to lift the constraints that tsetse-transmitted trypanosomosis poses to sustainable development and health in Africa.

As the sole cyclical vector of the disease, the tsetse fly is a major target of control efforts aimed at tackling African trypanosomosis. However, an evidence-based, cost-effective targeting of field interventions is often constrained by a dearth of information on the spatial distribution of tsetse flies. Indeed, the latest continental maps depicting the geographical distribution of the different tsetse species are many decades old, and in dire need of updating. National-level maps are also few and often long outdated. To address this gap, FAO developed a new atlas of the distribution of tsetse flies in Africa. The atlas of tsetse flies is part of a two-pronged initiative also aimed at mapping animal trypanosomosis, and, for the tsetse distribution component, it summarizes information from over 600 papers published in the scientific literature between 1990 and 2020. The continental atlas also represents a blueprint for affected countries to develop national-level information systems on tsetse flies and animal trypanosomosis. The approach has already been adopted by several countries (e.g. Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Mali, the Sudan and Zimbabwe), and it is believed to represent a significant in n o vation to support the progressive control of the disease at the local, national and transnational levels.

We are hopeful that these tools will help reinvigorate initiatives aimed at removing this major hurdle to sustainable development in Africa, and thus contribute to the vision of a healthy world, free of poverty and hunger.

Thanawat Tiensin Assistant Director-General/Director Animal Production and Health Division FAO

Executive summary

Tsetse flies (genus Glossina) and animal trypanosomosis are a constant drain on the resources of poor livestock keepers in Africa. They also impose a public health burden by transmitting and providing a reservoir for infections to humans. The progressive control and, where possible, the elimination of the disease ought to be based on evidence-based decision-making and cost-effective interventions. In this context, comprehensive data on the geographic distribution of animal trypanosomosis and its vectors are crucial. However, the latest maps of the distribution of tsetse species in Africa were developed many decades ago, and no continental map of animal trypanosomosis occurrence has even been generated. To fill these gaps, FAO developed the continental atlas of tsetse flies and animal trypanosomosis in Africa. The present publication presents the results for the component on tsetse distribution, while the components on trypanosomal infections in tsetse flies and in other non-human animal hosts will be the subject of future publications.

A total of 669 scientific papers spanning a period of 31 years (1990–2020) were used as sources, and they provided the input data to map the distribution of tsetse flies in Africa. The publications were first stored in a digital repository, and then a spatially explicit database was developed to record the data extracted from these papers. The database underpinning the overall atlas is structured into five tables: sources, geographical data, tsetse distribution, tsetse infection and animal trypanosomosis. As regards tsetse distribution, we used the geographic information from the source papers and additional geolocation data from other sources (e.g. Google Earth, online gazetteers, etc.) to map entomological data on tsetse occurrence as point entities, with each point representing a different site or location. Most of the data included in the atlas were collected in the field with stationary traps (98.5 percent of the surveys), with more limited data collected through mobile devices such as fly rounds (1.5 percent of the surveys). Overall, 7 386 sites were mapped in 34 countries in Africa. No data on tsetse flies could be found for five countries in sub-Saharan Africa that are known or considered to be affected: Burundi, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Sierra Leone and Somalia. Furthermore, relatively limited information was found for several countries, and especially Angola, the Congo, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and South Sudan.

Based on the publications we reviewed, tsetse flies were reported from a maximum latitude of approximately 15° north in Senegal (Niayes Region), to a minimum of 28.5° south in South Africa (KwaZulu-Natal Province). Overall, relatively abundant data were available for the species of major veterinary and public health importance, especially for the riverine (*palpalis*) and savannah (*morsitans*) groups, while more limited information was found for the forest (*fusca*) group. With the available data, we could develop maps for 26 out of the 31 recognized species and subspecies of Glossina. For the five remaining species and subspecies (i.e. *Glossina haningtoni*, *Glossina nigrofusca hopkinsi*, *Glossina schwetzi*, *Glossina severini* and *Glossina vanhoofi*), all belonging to the fusca group, we found no published records throughout the 1990–2020 study period. The species with the broadest geographic distribution appear to be *Glossina palpalis* and *Glossina tachinoides* in western Africa, *Glossina fuscipes* in central Africa, and *Glossina morsitans* and *Glossina pallidipes* in eastern and southern Africa.

This continental atlas establishes a new reference for the distribution of tsetse flies in Africa. It also provides a methodological blueprint for the development of national atlases in affected countries. Indeed, with FAO's support, veterinary authorities in several countries have already developed this kind of national-level information system, and many others are in the process of doing so. At the same time, many important limitations still affect this continental atlas of tsetse flies in Africa, including a total reliance on information published in scientific journals, wide geographical gaps in several countries and regions, and the exclusion of data published after 2020. Addressing these and other limitations should be the focus of future enhancements and updates of the atlas.

Chapter 1 Background

INTRODUCTION

African trypanosomoses are a group of vectorborne parasitic diseases affecting both humans and animals. In animals, the disease is normally distinguished into two forms: nagana or African animal trypanosomosis (AAT), whose main causative agents are Trypanosoma vivax, Trypanosoma congolense, Trypanosoma brucei and Trypanosoma simiae (Diall et al., 2017; World Organisation for Animal Health, 2021), and surra, caused by Trypanosoma evansi (Desquesnes et al., 2013). In sub-Saharan Africa, nagana is mainly transmitted cyclically by tsetse flies (genus Glossina), although the parasites can also be transmitted mechanically by other biting flies, such as Tabindae and Stomoxys. Within nagana, the mechanical mode of transmission is particularly relevant for T. vivax; because of this alternate mode of transmission and because of animal movement, T. vivax was able to spread and establish itself beyond the African tsetse belt, including in Latin America (Gonzatti et al., 2014) and, as recently reported, in Asia (Asghari and Rassouli, 2022). Mechanical vectors are also central to the transmission of surra, which has a broad distribution in Africa, Asia and Latin America (Aregawi et al., 2019).

In sub-Saharan Africa, tsetse flies also transmit human African trypanosomiasis (HAT), also known as sleeping sickness. The disease is caused by two subspecies of *T. brucei* (i.e. *Trypanosoma brucei* gambiense and *Trypanosoma brucei* rhodesiense) (Büscher et al., 2017), and while AAT is broadly distributed within and beyond the tsetse belt, HAT only occurs in relatively small areas of endemicity known as "foci" (Simarro et al., 2010).

Twenty-three species of tsetse flies are currently recognized. Based on morphological features and ecological preferences, these species are traditionally classified into three groups: *palpalis* (subgenus *Nemorhina*, including five species), *morsitans* (subgenus *Glossina* s.s., five species) and *fusca* (subgenus *Austenina*, 13 species). Because of their prevailing habitat requirements, the groups are often referred to, respectively, as riverine, savannah and forest. For six of these species, two or three subspecies are distinguished, which brings the total number of recognized tsetse species and subspecies to 31. That is, nine species and subspecies for the *palpalis* group, seven for the *morsitans* groups and 15 for the *fusca* group.

Outside Africa, tsetse flies have only been reported from the Arabian Peninsula, with first captures in 1903 (Carter, 1906) and then in 1984 (Elsen, Amoudi and Leclercq, 1990).

MAPPING TSETSE FLIES AT THE CONTINENTAL LEVEL

Past efforts and rationale for the continental atlas Evidence-based decision-making is crucial for effective disease control, and spatially explicit information is increasingly recognized as a central component of any data management system. In the field of vector-borne African trypanosomosis, the importance of mapping the geographic distribution of tsetse flies has long been recognized (Ford, 1963). However, despite this recognition and the vast amount of entomological data collected in the field, the latest maps of tsetse distribution for Africa were published many decades ago (Ford and Katondo, 1975; Ford and Katondo, 1977a; Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Katondo, 1984). More recently, progress was made in modelling the tsetse geographic distribution by means of geospatial techniques and remote sensing data (Rogers and Robinson, 2004; Wint and Rogers, 2000). However, this progress was not matched by advances in the systematic collation of field data. As a result, spatial modelling of tsetse distribution in Africa has so far relied on long outdated input data. As regards the trypanosomal infection in tsetse flies, a systematic review and meta-analysis of the scientific literature was published in 2017 (Abdi et al., 2017). However, while the authors mapped the related data at the country level, they fell short of mapping the specific locations of the reported occurrence of tsetse infections.

Against this backdrop, over the past 15 years, the atlas of HAT has demonstrated the feasibility and desirability of continental mapping initiatives for African trypanosomoses. The atlas of HAT is a World Health Organization (WHO) initiative, jointly implemented with the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) in the framework of the Programme Against African Trypanosomosis (PAAT) (Cecchi et al., 2009), and since 2010 the atlas has provided consistent and comprehensive information on the occurrence of sleeping sickness in endemic countries (Simarro et al., 2010; Simarro et al., 2015; Franco et al., 2017; Franco et al., 2018; Franco et al., 2020; Franco et al., 2022a; Franco et al., 2024). The atlas was also extended to include the global mapping of HAT cases exported to non-endemic countries (Simarro et al., 2012b; Franco et al., 2022b) and the mapping of health facilities in Africa with capacity for diagnosis and treatment of HAT (Simarro et al., 2014). Finally, the atlas of HAT underpins the methodology for mapping HAT risk, which is used to monitor progress towards the elimination of HAT (Simarro et al., 2011; Simarro et al., 2012a).

The continental atlas initiative

Spurred by the successful development of the atlas of sleeping sickness, in 2013 FAO started the development of the continental atlas of tsetse flies and AAT/nagana. The initiative had two main objectives: (1) to develop a spatially explicit database of tsetse and AAT occurrence for Africa, and (2) to provide a blueprint for AAT-enzootic countries to develop national atlases. The methodology for the continental atlas was published first for the animal trypanosomosis component (Cecchi et al., 2014), and then for the component on tsetse distribution and infection (Cecchi et al., 2015). Both publications also included preliminary results for Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda. Subsequently, preliminary results for Nigeria were published in 2020 as a monographic publication (de Gier et al., 2020). The launch of the "Controlling and progressively minimizing the burden of animal trypanosomosis" (COMBAT) project in 2021 (Boulangé et al., 2022) allowed the continental atlas to be finalized; within this project, the scope of the atlas was also extended to include the occurrence of surra in Africa.

Throughout the long period of development of the continental atlas, FAO also assisted enzootic countries in the development of national atlases. Support was provided through direct FAO funding, mobilization of external resources, training, technical guidance, quality assurance, communication and dissemination. The first national atlas was published by Sudan (Ahmed et al., 2016), followed by Mali (Diarra et al., 2019), Kenya (Ngari et al., 2020), Zimbabwe (Shereni et al., 2021), Burkina Faso (Percoma et al., 2022) and Ethiopia (Gebre et al., 2022). The atlas of Ghana is in the process of being finalized. Within COMBAT, activities are ongoing to update and enhance five existing national atlases (Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Kenya, Sudan and Zimbabwe) and to develop seven new ones (Cameroon, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Mozambique, Senegal, South Africa and Zambia). Beyond Africa and within COMBAT, an atlas for Spain was also developed, with a focus on T. evansi occurrence in the Canary Islands (Henríquez et al., 2024).

Two main features distinguish the FAO continental atlas from national ones. First, scientific publications are the only source for the continental atlas, while national atlases strive to include all data collected in the country, be they published or unpublished. Second, in the continental atlas, both tsetse and animal trypanosomosis are mapped at the site/location level, and for the tsetse component one site/location normally summarizes results from several traps; by contrast, tsetse data in national atlases are recorded and mapped at the level of the individual trap whenever possible. An additional methodological difference is that, when processing scientific publications, FAO limits itself to extracting the data that can be obtained directly from the papers; this means that the authors of the papers are seldom contacted by FAO and, if they are, it is only to seek clarification regarding possible inconsistencies or challenges in the interpretation of the papers. By contrast, for national authorities in charge of developing national atlases, "processing" scientific papers means obtaining from the authors the raw data behind the publications; the extraction of data directly from the papers is only a last resort for national authorities, if raw data cannot be obtained.

Chapter 2 Methodology

The general methodology for the continental atlas of tsetse and animal trypanosomosis was inspired by previous work on malaria and its vectors, anopheles mosquitoes (Guerra *et al.*, 2007; Hay *et al.*, 2010).

The overall approach and processes are summarized in Figure 1. In a nutshell, eligible scientific publications are identified, accessed, collated and stored in a repository. Data are subsequently extracted from the papers, harmonized, georeferenced and entered into a single, spatially explicit database. Maps are then generated using the harmonized data included in the database.

SEARCHING, SELECTING AND ACCESSING THE PUBLICATIONS

Search

We used <u>PubMed</u> as the primary source to identify scientific publications. Other sources were also used (e.g. the <u>PAAT Tsetse and Trypanosomosis</u> <u>Information Bulletin</u>, <u>Google Scholar</u>, etc.). The followingkeywords were used for searching the online archives: "trypanosomiasis", "trypanosomosis", "animal", "bovine", "ruminant", "nagana", "surra", "tsetse" and "*Glossina*". Furthermore, while processing the selected publications, the references therein contained were assessed for possible additional eligible papers.

Selection criteria

The abstracts and, where necessary, the full papers resulting from the searches in online archives were read to establish whether they contained spatially explicit information on the occurrence of animal trypanosomosis, tsetse flies or their trypanosomal infection in Africa. In this context, by "spatially explicit information", we mean information that is or can be mapped (i.e. georeferenced). Only natural infections were included, while experimental infections were not considered. Because of the lack of pathognomonic signs for animal trypanosomosis, clinical suspicion/ diagnosis was not considered, and only data based on diagnostic tests were included. Temporal criteria were also applied; in particular, this first edition of the continental atlas is based on papers published between 1990 and 2020. Furthermore, regardless of the year of publication, field data collected before 1 January 1990 were not included.

For the present publication, only the papers that provided spatially explicit information on the occurrence of the *Glossina* species are considered.

Access to the publications

In the case of open-access journals, we directly downloaded papers from the web. For subscriptionbased journals, downloading from the FAO Library systems was possible for the journals to which FAO has a subscription. For other journals, access was facilitated by the FAO Library through interlibrary loans. Author's copies or pre-print versions in personal or institutional repositories were also used to complement the other sources.

REPOSITORY

All publications identified, selected and accessed through the steps described above were centralized in a digital repository. Specifically, PDF versions of the articles were stored and files were organized by country. The naming of the files was standardized as "Author-surname_Year-of-publication.pdf" (or "Author-surname_et_al_Year-of-publication.pdf" in the case of multiple authors). When available, online-only supplementary files directly linked to the publication were also downloaded and stored in the repository.

Annex 1 provides the full list of scientific papers used as sources to develop the atlas of the distribution of tsetse flies in Africa, while Table 1 provides the summary by country. In total, 669 publications were used, with a few of them providing data for more than one country. As regards the language of the publications, 92 percent of the papers we used were written



in English and 8 percent were written in French. <u>Annex 2</u> provides a summary of the papers by journal and publisher.

Figure 2 provides the number of papers by year of publication. The red line shows the total number of potentially eligible papers that were published in that year, and the blue line indicates the number of papers that were actually used for the atlas because they included data collected in the field as of 1 January 1990. An almost twofold increase in the number of potentially eligible papers was observed in 15 years, with an average of 18 papers per year published in 1990–2005 against 30 papers per year in 2006–2020.

TABLE 1

Country summary of the scientific papers used as sources to develop the continental atlas of the distribution of tsetse flies in Africa (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country*	Papers (No.)	Papers (list**)						
Angola	5	1–5						
Benin	1	6						
Botswana	3	7–9						
Burkina Faso	56	10–65						
Burundi	0							
Cameroon	39	4, 66–103						
Central African Republic	15	104–118						
Chad	3	119–121						
Congo	6	105, 122–126						
Côte d'Ivoire	39	4, 25–27, 43, 51, 52, 101, 105, 127–156						
Democratic Republic of the Congo	21	1, 4, 32, 88, 101, 122, 145, 157–170						
Equatorial Guinea	6	171–176						
Eswatini	1	177						
Ethiopia	131	145, 158, 164, 178–305						
Gabon	16	145, 306–320						
Gambia	7	25, 242, 321–325						
Ghana	14	42, 326–338						
Guinea	14	25, 26, 38, 42, 43, 339–347						
Guinea-Bissau	0							
Kenya	91	32, 158, 164, 165, 236, 270, 271, 275, 348–430						
Liberia	0							
Malawi	6	122, 431–435						
Mali	16	25, 42, 342, 436–448						
Mozambique	8	177, 275, 449–454						
Namibia	1	9						
Niger	1	455						
Nigeria	45	93, 456–499						
Rwanda	1	500						
Senegal	13	14, 25, 26, 42, 43, 61, 342, 445, 501–505						
Sierra Leone	0							
Somalia	0							
South Africa	19	164, 177, 429, 506–521						
South Sudan	6	522–527						
Sudan	7	270, 358, 528–532						
Тодо	3	533-535						
Uganda	42	122, 164, 358, 369, 374, 405, 418, 427, 449, 522, 536–567						
United Republic of Tanzania	56	1, 9, 32, 122, 158, 164, 236, 271, 275, 387, 403, 405, 408, 419, 452, 568–608						
Zambia	29	9, 145, 164, 236, 271, 433, 452, 454, 521, 609–628						
Zimbabwe	48	164, 236, 271, 365, 452, 454, 612, 629–669						
Total	669	(See Annex 1)						

*Djibouti, Eritrea and Lesotho, as well as Mauritania and other countries of northern Africa, are not historically considered to be affected by tsetse flies.

**The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.



DATA PROCESSING

Each paper included in the atlas was analysed by at least two authors. The text and data extracted from the papers were reproduced word for word for most of the information items in the database. Subsequently, for several items/columns the information was also categorized to facilitate data extraction and analysis.

DATABASE

In this paper we describe three tables of the atlas database, i.e. data sources, geographical data and tsetse distribution. The tables on tsetse infection and animal trypanosomosis will be addressed in future publications. The structure of the database (i.e. the columnby-column description of the tables) is in <u>Annex 3</u>, while a summary is provided here below. Like in all relational databases, data from different tables are linked by means of primary and foreign keys. The former are unique numeric codes identifying each record in a table, while the latter are numeric codes that allow records in a table to be linked to records in other tables.

Sources

In the "Sources" table, each record refers to one publication included in the repository. In addition to the unique numeric identifier of the publication (i.e. the primary key), the table also includes the initials and surname of the first author, full list of authors, title, year of publication, study country (or countries), file name as in the repository, external link (i.e. URL/internet address of the paper), journal and publisher.

The table also indicates the type of data the paper provided to the atlas (i.e. tsetse distribution, tsetse infection, animal trypanosomosis, or a combination thereof), and how and when the publication was accessed, downloaded or received.

Geographical data

In the table for geographical data, each record refers to one location in Africa for which entomological or epizootic data are recorded in the atlas. The table includes the unique numeric identifier of the location (i.e. the primary key), location name, name of the country and names of the corresponding subnational administrative units. All locations in the atlas are represented by point entities, and their geographic coordinates are recorded as latitude and longitude in decimal degrees. Geographic coordinates were extracted from the source papers, if available; alternatively, they were obtained from online gazetteers or other sources of geographical information, or estimated in a geographic information system (GIS) using maps and information from the papers.

Even though represented as point entities, locations in the atlas represent areas in which tsetse and/or animal trypanosomosis data were collected. In other words, a location represents an area in which a survey was carried out or from which data were reported. If available in the paper, or if possible to estimate with precision, we recorded the exact surface of the surveyed area in km². Alternatively, or in addition to the exact surface, the area was categorized into the following classes: \leq 10 km², > 10 km² and \leq 25 km², > 25 km² and $\leq 100 \text{ km}^2$, $> 100 \text{ km}^2$ and $\leq 500 \text{ km}^2$, $> 500 \text{ km}^2$ and $\leq 1\,000\,km^2$, $> 1\,000\,km^2$ and $\leq 5\,000\,km^2$, $> 5\,000\,km^2$ and $\leq 10\ 000\ \text{km}^2$, > 10 000 km² and $\leq 50\ 000\ \text{km}^2$, $> 50\ 000\ \text{km}^2$ and $\le 100\ 000\ \text{km}^2$ and $> 100\ 000\ \text{km}^2$. Locations with estimated surveyed areas of $> 100 \ 000 \ \mathrm{km^2}$ were included in the database, but not used in the maps for this publication.

It is worth stressing that we mapped both animal trypanosomosis and tsetse data at the location/site level. In those rare instances in which the papers, or the supplementary information thereof, included trap-level data for tsetse, these data were aggregated at the location/site level.

Tsetse distribution

In the table on tsetse distribution, we recorded the data on the occurrence and abundance of the different species of tsetse flies. Considering that most of the field data on tsetse occurrence were collected with traps, the table on tsetse distribution was tailored to this type of tool. Specifically, records include the survey period, type of trap, odour attractant (if any), number of traps and duration of trapping (in days). The strategy of trap deployment was recorded (e.g. random or, more often, targeted to most favourable environments for tsetse), as well as information on recent or ongoing interventions against tsetse flies. The occurrence of tsetse flies was recorded on three different levels, i.e. presence or absence of detection, number of flies captured and apparent density (i.e. the number of flies/trap/day).

Although less common than stationary traps, fly rounds are also used in tsetse surveys (Ford *et al.*, 1959). This method of data collection is mostly used in countries of southern Africa such as Zambia (Muyobela *et al.*, 2023) and Zimbabwe (Shereni *et al.*, 2016), and it is particularly suited to certain species of the *morsitans* group (e.g. *Glossina morsitans*). For mobile fly rounds, in our database we recorded the number of transects, their total length and the duration.

Whenever the source papers reported tsetse data disaggregated by species, we recorded separately (i.e. in separate rows) the results for the different fly species and subspecies. Otherwise, results were captured at the genus level (i.e. "genus *Glossina*"). Two codes were used in the tsetse distribution table: one for the survey (i.e. a trapping event in a given place and time) and one for the separate species detected in that survey/trapping event. As more than one species can be detected in the same survey, the survey code can be repeated in different rows (i.e. it is not unique), while the unique identifier of the row is the one referring to the specific tsetse species detected in the survey.

Chapter 3 Results

GENUS GLOSSINA

Based on the papers listed in <u>Annex 1</u> and summarized in Table 1, the occurrence of *Glossina* species was confirmed in 34 countries: Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Eswatini, Ethiopia, Gabon, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Namibia, the Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, South Africa, South Sudan, the Sudan, Togo, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

No scientific publications were identified for five additional countries of sub-Saharan Africa that were historically, and can still be considered, affected by tsetse flies. These countries are Burundi (Perich, 1982), Guinea-Bissau (Jaenson, Dos Santos and Hall, 1991; de Carvalho, 2011), Liberia (Garms, Mehlitz and Zillmann, 1987), Sierra Leone (Nash, 1948) and Somalia (ICRC, 2017; Hassan-Kadle *et al.*, 2020). Countries in northern Africa that have been historically free of tsetse flies were not considered in the atlas, even though, for a few of them, entomological surveys corroborating the absence of *Glossina* species could be identified (e.g. in Mauritania [Dia *et al.*, 1997)].

A total of 7 386 sites were included in the atlas in relation to the mapping of tsetse distribution. Figure 3 summarizes these results, with black dots indicating locations where tsetse flies were detected (i.e. "presence" points), and white dots representing the lack of detection ("absence" points). Evidently, the "absence" of detection in a location does not necessarily imply the absence of tsetse flies. Countrylevel maps, both at the genus and species levels, are in <u>Annex 4</u>.

In all maps of this publication where a coloured background is used for landmasses, colours were based on elevation data provided by the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (van Zyl, 2001), and the legend for the different ranges of elevation is in Figure 4. Figure 3 shows that, over our 31-year study period, tsetse flies were detected from a maximum latitude of 15° north in Senegal (Niayes Region) to a minimum of 28.5° south in South Africa (KwaZulu-Natal Province). Data coverage is uneven, with large gaps in central Africa in general, and in the Democratic Republic of the Congo in particular.

For correct interpretation of Figure 3, it is important to note that presence points are overlaid onto absence points, even when absence points may be more recent. As a result, the tsetse distribution in Figure 3 should be considered the cumulative or overall distribution for 1990-2020, rather than the most recent one. This means that a few of the points showing tsetse presence in Figure 3 are, to the best of our knowledge, presently free of tsetse; this may be the result of natural or human-made changes in habitat and climate, deliberate elimination efforts or a combination thereof. As regards deliberate elimination efforts, examples of the creation of tsetse-free areas come from the Unguja island, Zanzibar Archipelago, the United Republic of Tanzania (Vreysen et al., 2000), the Okavango Delta in Botswana (Kgori, Modo and Torr, 2006), and the Kwando-Linyanti river system at the border between Botswana and Namibia (Kgori and Modo, 2009), as well as areas of Kenya (Ngari et al., 2020) and Zimbabwe (Shereni et al., 2021).

As regards the different tsetse species, our review found data for a total of 19 out of the 23 recognized species (31 species, if subspecies are also considered). Relatively abundant data were identified for the species of major veterinary and public health importance, especially of the riverine (*palpalis*) and savannah (*morsitans*) groups. Conversely, limited information was found for several species of the forest (*fusca*) group. A summary of the number of species reported at the country level, both within our study period and historically, is shown in Table 2. More details at the group, species and subspecies levels are provided in the following sections.





Country summary of (a) tsetse species reported (publication period: 1990–2020) and (b) tsetse species historically reported or suggested and likely to still be present

Country	Species	reported (pu 1990–20 (No.)	period:	l: Species historically reported or suggested (No.)					
	Palpalis	Morsitans	Fusca	Total	Palpalis	Morsitans	Fusca	Total	
Angola	1	1	0	2	3	1	4	8	
Benin	1	0	0	1	2	2	2	6	
Botswana	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	
Burkina Faso	2	1	1	4	2	2	1	5	
Burundi	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	3	
Cameroon	5	1	3	9	5	2	7	14	
Central African Republic	3	1	2	6	5	1	8	14	
Chad	2	1	0	3	2	1	0	3	
Congo	2	0	0	2	4	0	7	11	
Côte d'Ivoire	3	1	2	6	3	2	4	9	
Democratic Republic of the Congo	2	1	1	4	3	3	12	18	
Equatorial Guinea	2	0	1	3	2	0	3	5	
Eswatini	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	2	
Ethiopia	2	2	0	4	2	2	2	6	
Gabon	5	0	4	9	5	0	7	12	
Gambia	1	1	0	2	1	2	0	3	
Ghana	2	1	0	3	4	2	4	10	
Guinea	1	1	0	2	3	2	4	9	
Guinea-Bissau	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	4	
Kenya	1	3	3	7	1	4	3	8	
Liberia	0	0	0	0	2	0	3	5	
Malawi	0	2	0	2	0	2	1	3	
Mali	2	1	0	3	2	2	0	4	
Mozambique	0	3	1	4	0	3	1	4	
Namibia	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	
Niger	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	2	
Nigeria	4	1	2	7	4	2	5	11	
Rwanda	0	2	1	3	0	2	1	3	
Senegal	1	1	0	2	1	2	0	3	
Sierra Leone	0	0	0	0	2	2	3	7	
Somalia	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	4	
South Africa	0	1	1	2	0	1	1	2	
South Sudan	1	0	0	1	2	2	3	7	
Sudan	1	1	0	2	2	1	0	3	
Тодо	2	2	2	6	2	2	2	6	
Uganda	1	2	0	3	1	2	6	9	
United Republic of Tanzania	1	4	2	7	1	4	3	8	
Zambia	0	2	1	3	1	2	1	4	
Zimbabwe	0	3	0	3	0	3	1	4	
Total	5	5	9	19	5	5	13	23	

We note that among the tsetse species historically reported or suggested in a given country, we only considered those that are expected to, or may, still be present today. We excluded the species that have been reliably reported to have disappeared or to have been eliminated (e.g. *Glossina morsitans*

RIVERINE (PALPALIS) GROUP (SUBGENUS NEMORHINA)

Tsetse flies of the riverine (palpalis) group are major vectors of both AAT and HAT, and in particular of gambiense HAT (WHO, 2013), and therefore they were the object of numerous publications in our study period. Table 3 provides the list of the species *morsitans* and *Glossina pallidipes* in South Africa [Du Toit, 1954]).

The maps at the species and subspecies levels are presented in the following sections. Their geographical extents were chosen to envelop the entire historical distribution of each species and subspecies.

and subspecies belonging to this group. Occurrence data could be identified for all of them.

The geographic distribution of the palpalis group is provided in Figure 5, while Figure 6 provides the distribution of the different species. A summary of the species reported in the different countries is shown in Table 4.

TABLE 3 Tsetse species and subspecies of the *palpalis* group

Riverine (<i>palpalis</i>) group (subgenus <i>Nemorhina</i>)						
G. caliginea	Austen, 1911					
G. fuscipes fuscipes	Newstead, 1910					
G. fuscipes martinii	Zumpt, 1935					
G. fuscipes quanzensis	Pires, 1948					
G. pallicera newsteadi	Austen, 1929					
G. pallicera pallicera	Bigot, 1891					
G. palpalis gambiensis	Vanderplank, 1949					
G. palpalis palpalis	Robineau-Desvoidy, 1830					
G. tachinoides	Westwood, 1850					

Ethiopia

Gabon

Gambia

Ghana

Guinea

Kenya

Liberia

Mali

Niger

Nigeria

Rwanda

Senegal

Sudan

Togo

Uganda

Zambia

Sierra Leone

South Sudan

United Republic of Tanzania

Guinea-Bissau

Country Tsetse species or subspecies (<i>palpalis</i> group)												
	G. caliginea	G. fuscipes	G. fuscipes fuscipes	G. fuscipes martinii	G. fuscipes quanzensis	G. pallicera	G. pallicera newsteadi	G. pallicera pallicera	G. palpalis	G. palpalis gambiensis	G. palpalis palpalis	G. tachinoides
Angola		0			0	0	0		•		•	
Benin									0		0	•
Burkina Faso									•	•		•
Burundi		0		0								
Cameroon	•	•	•			•	0	•	•		•	•
Central African Republic	0	•	•			0	0		•		•	•
Chad		•	•									•
Congo	0	•	•		•	0	0		•		•	
Côte d'Ivoire						•		•	•	•	•	•
Democratic Republic of the Congo		•	0	0	•	0	0		•		•	
Equatorial Guinea	•								•		•	

TABLE 4 Glossina species of the palpalis group reported in scientific papers (publication period: 1990–2020) by country

• Species or subspecies reported in scientific papers (publication period: 1990-2020)

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• Species or subspecies reported or suggested in previous periods (<1990) or reviews, and which could, or are likely to, still be present.

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x Subspecies reported outside its historical distribution.

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Glossina caliginea

Figure 7 shows the distribution of *Glossina caliginea* as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020, while Table 5 provides the corresponding list of papers we used as sources for the presence points.

The species was detected in the four contiguous countries in central and western Africa, stretching from Gabon to Nigeria. As compared to previous continental maps or reviews (Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Moloo, 1993), we note the addition of Equatorial Guinea to the list of countries where *G. caliginea* was reported. Specifically, in this country, the species was detected in sympatry with other species of the palpalis and *fusca* groups, and in particular with the more abundant and widely distributed *Glossina palpalis palpalis* (Cano *et al.*, 2007a; Cano *et al.*, 2007b; Dyer *et al.*, 2009). All the studies that reported the presence of *G. caliginea* in Equatorial Guinea were carried out in sleeping sickness foci, i.e. Campo, Mbini and Kogo (Simarro

et al., 2010). G. caliginea was also detected in more areas of Gabon than previously reported, including the provinces of Ogooué-Lolo and Nyanga in the central and southern part of the country. In Nigeria, the species was reported from a single study in the Niger Delta Region (Ogedegbe and Rotimi, 2006). By contrast, the lack of surveys in the western part of the coastal region of Nigeria, as well as along most of the coast of Cameroon, did not allow to confirm the presence of the species in these areas. Within the limits of our review, the highest apparent densities of G. caliginea were reported from the HAT focus of Campo in Cameroon (0.59 flies/ trap/day [Morlais et al., 1998]) and the Moukalaba-Doudou National Park in Gabon (0.56 flies/trap/ day [Essono et al., 2015]).

Previous reports or suggestions of *G. caliginea* occurrence in the Central African Republic (Ford and Katondo, 1977b), the Congo (Gouteux *et al.*, 1987) and Ghana (Offori, 1964) were not confirmed during our study period.



Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Cameroon	10	69, 70, 72, 73, 78, 89, 91, 97, 99, 103
Equatorial Guinea	5	171–175
Gabon	5	306, 308–311
Nigeria	1	483
Total	21	

TABLE 5 Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina caliginea* (publication period: 1990–2020)

* The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.

Glossina fuscipes

The species ranges across a vast region in central and eastern Africa, spanning from Cameroon and Gabon in the west to Kenya and Ethiopia in the east, and from Chad and Sudan in the north to Angola, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and the United Republic of Tanzania in the south. Figure 8 shows the distribution of *Glossina fuscipes* as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020 (sources for presence points are shown in Table 7). In total, 12 countries were reported to host the species (i.e. Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Congo, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Gabon, Kenya, South Sudan, the Sudan, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania).

Three subspecies of *G. fuscipes* are recognized: *Glossina fuscipes fuscipes, Glossina fuscipes martinii* and *Glossina fuscipes quanzensis* (Machado, 1954). In addition to transmitting animal trypanosomosis, *G. fuscipes fuscipes* and *G. fuscipes quanzensis* are also considered as major vectors of sleeping sickness (WHO, 2013). The subspecies can be distinguished by small differences in morphological features, especially genitalia (FAO, 1982a; Jordan, 1993), although morphological traits are subject to variation and require experience for correct identification. The three subspecies are believed to have limited or no overlap (Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Dyer et al., 2011) and therefore distribution maps are frequently used instead of morphology to determine the subspecies. However, this approach to subspecies determination has limitations in those areas where the boundaries between the subspecies are not well known, or where small overlaps may occur. In recent years, molecular tools have started being used to support subspecies determination and to characterize the relationships between the taxa (Dyer et al., 2011; Mayoke et al., 2020b).

The reported distribution of the three subspecies of *G. fuscipes* is provided separately in the following sections. These distributions are presented as reported by the authors of the source publications, and they include geographical, morphological, and molecular approaches to subspecies identification, and combinations thereof.



Note: The final boundary between the Republic of South Sudan and the Republic of the Sudan has not yet been determined.

https://doi.org/10.4060/cd2022en-fig08

TABLE 6			
Scientific papers used as sources to ma	p the occurrence of <i>Glossir</i>	na fuscipes (publication	period: 1990-2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Cameroon	3	77, 79, 86
Central African Republic	11	104, 106, 107, 109–113, 115, 116, 118
Chad	3	119–121
Congo	3	122, 125, 126
Democratic Republic of the Congo	13	32, 122, 145, 157–160, 163, 165, 166, 168–170
Ethiopia	42	145, 158, 178, 182, 190, 191, 195, 197, 203–205, 208, 210, 211, 213, 224, 228, 230, 232, 238, 239, 241, 243–245, 252, 254, 255, 260–262, 266, 268, 270, 276, 280, 282, 283, 286, 291, 295, 296
Gabon	8	306–308, 311, 315, 316, 319, 320
Kenya	30	32, 158, 164, 165, 270, 348, 358, 367–369, 374, 378–380, 387, 388, 391–393, 395, 400–402, 404, 409, 413, 423, 427, 428, 430
South Sudan	5	522, 524–527
Sudan	5	270, 358, 529–531
Uganda	37	122, 158, 164, 358, 374, 427, 522, 536–539, 541–562, 564–567
United Republic of Tanzania	6	32, 158, 572, 584, 585, 591
Total	148	

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in <u>Annex 1</u>.

Glossina fuscipes fuscipes

Glossina fuscipes fuscipes inhabits the most humid and more densely forested parts of the species range. Figure 9 shows its distribution as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020, and Table 7 lists the papers that provided the presence points.

The subspecies was reported in 11 countries, with the westernmost records in Gabon and the easternmost in Ethiopia. All these countries were previously known to be infested by *G. fuscipes fuscipes* (Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Moloo, 1993). A total of 139 papers were used to map the presence of this subspecies, of which 114 (i.e. 82 percent) explicitly indicated *G. fuscipes fuscipes*, while 25 (i.e. 18 percent) only reported the species, and we assumed the subspecies based on historical maps (Ford and Katondo, 1977b). According to the data in our database, *G. fuscipes fuscipes* is the main tsetse species in Chad, the Central African Republic, South Sudan and Uganda; for example, in Uganda the species accounts for 96 percent of the total tsetse catches. *G. fuscipes fuscipes* is also more broadly distributed in Gabon than indicated by previous continental maps, having also been detected along the Atlantic coast (Kohagne Tongué *et al.*, 2010; Dibakou *et al.*, 2015) and accounting for a quarter of all tsetse catches at the country level. Even in Ethiopia, where *G. fuscipes fuscipes* is only the fourth tsetse species in terms of abundance and where it accounts for only 6 percent of the catches in our database, the species has a fairly broad distribution centred in the Baro-Akobo and Omo-Gibe river basins (Gebre *et al.*, 2022).

By far the largest geographical gap in our record is in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, where *G. fuscipes fuscipes* is known to be widely distributed



in the northern part of the country. However, no published survey could be identified for our study

period in this part of the country. Another sizeable gap is also apparent in the northern part of the Congo.

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Cameroon	3	77, 79, 86
Central African Republic	11	104, 106, 107, 109–113, 115, 116, 118
Chad	3	119–121
Congo	2	125, 126
Ethiopia	42	145, 158, 178, 182, 190, 191, 195, 197, 203–205, 208, 210, 211, 213, 224, 228, 230, 232, 238, 239, 241, 243–245, 252, 254, 255, 260–262, 266, 268, 270, 276, 280, 282, 283, 286, 291, 295, 296
Gabon	8	306–308, 311, 315, 316, 319, 320
Kenya	30	32, 158, 164, 165, 270, 348, 358, 367–369, 374, 378–380, 387, 388, 391–393, 395, 400–402, 404, 409, 413, 423, 427, 428, 430
South Sudan	5	522, 524–527
Sudan	5	270, 358, 529–531
Uganda	37	122, 158, 164, 358, 374, 427, 522, 536–539, 541–562, 564–567
United Republic of Tanzania	3	572, 585, 591
Total	139	
*The mount and list of exist title multiplice		

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.

Glossina fuscipes martinii

Glossina fuscipes martinii inhabits the southeastern, driest part of the species range, and its main area of occurrence is in the southeastern part of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, broadly corresponding to today's provinces of Haut-Lomami, Haut-Katanga and Tanganyika.

Figure 10 shows the distribution of *G. fuscipes martinii* as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020. Only three studies reported explicitly its occurrence: two from the Gombe National Park on the shores of Lake Tanganyika in the United Republic of Tanzania (Dyer *et al.*, 2011; Esterhuizen *et al.*, 2011), and one from a less accurately described nearby location (i.e. "western part of the country, along the lake shores of Lake Tanganyika and along the rivers draining into Lake Tanganyika" [Malele *et al.*, 2016]). A fourth study reported *G. fuscipes* from the Gombe National Park (Daffa *et al.*, 2013), and based on historical maps and other reports from the same area, we assumed it to be *G. fuscipes martinii*.

In addition to the Democratic Republic of the Congo and the shores of Lake Tanganyika in the United Republic of Tanzania, the subspecies was also historically reported from small areas in Burundi, Rwanda and Zambia, all bordering the Democratic Republic of the Congo (Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Moloo, 1993). However, in none of these areas were studies on *G. fuscipes* or *G. fuscipes martinii* published during our study period.



Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina fuscipes martinii (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
United Republic of Tanzania	4	32, 158, 572, 584
Total	4	

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources of the atlas is in Annex 1.

Glossina fuscipes quanzensis

Glossina fuscipes quanzensis inhabits the southwestern part of the species range and, as compared to the other two subspecies of *G. fuscipes*, it is believed to have intermediate climatic and habitat requirements. Figure 11 shows its distribution as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020, with the sources for the presence points in Table 9. The subspecies was explicitly indicated in all 13 publications that reported the occurrence of *G. fuscipes quanzensis*. The presence of *G. fuscipes quanzensis* was confirmed in a few locations in the southwestern part of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, including the provinces of Kasaï-Oriental, Kinshasa, Kongo Central, Kwilu and Mai-Ndombe. It is noteworthy that the southwestern part of the country continues to report the majority of sleeping sickness cases, both at the national and continental levels (Franco *et al.*, 2022a). In the Congo, the distribution of *G. fuscipes quanzensis* was known to extend along the Congo River, and especially in the departments of Pool and Plateaux. Within our review, only one paper confirmed the occurrence of the subspecies in this area, specifically in Ngabé/ Mboka-Léfini (Alibu *et al.*, 2015). However, both *G. fuscipes quanzensis* and *G. fuscipes fuscipes* were historically reported in this area straddling the Congo River (Ford and Katondo, 1977b), and Alibu *et al.* (2015) do not clarify whether the subspecies was determined from morphological features or geographic location.

Historical records also indicate that *G. fuscipes quanzensis* occurs in northern Angola (Moloo, 1993) (Ford and Katondo, 1977b), but no survey from that area was published during our study period.



TABLE 9 Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina fuscipes quanzensis* (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Congo	1	122
Democratic Republic of the Congo	13	32, 122, 145, 157–160, 163, 165, 166, 168–170
Total	13	

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources of the atlas is in Annex 1.

Glossina pallicera

Figure 12 shows the distribution of *Glossina* pallicera as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020, while Table 10 provides the corresponding list of papers we used as sources for the presence points. Overall, the occurrence of *G. pallicera* was reported in only four countries of western and central Africa: Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Gabon and Nigeria. Historical records indicate that the species also occurs in several other countries in the region: Ghana, Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone in western Africa and Angola, the Central African Republic, the Congo and the Democratic Republic of the Congo in central Africa (Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Moloo, 1993). However, in none of these countries was

any record of *G. pallicera* published during our study period.

Two subspecies of *G. pallicera* are recognized: *Glossina pallicera newsteadi* and *Glossina pallicera pallicera*. The latter occupies the western part of the species distribution, from Sierra Leone to western Cameroon, while the former is found in the eastern part of the distribution, from eastern Cameroon and Gabon to Angola and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. In the following sections, we separately present the reported occurrence of the subspecies. Considering that the two are believed to be geographically separated, where the source study did not indicate explicitly the subspecies, we assumed it based on the study location and historical distribution maps. This was the case in ten out of 21 publications.



https://doi.org/10.4060/cd2022en-fig12

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Cameroon	13	69, 70, 72–74, 78, 85, 89, 91, 97, 99, 102, 103
Côte d'Ivoire	4	134, 139, 146, 147
Gabon	3	306, 308, 310
Nigeria	1	483
Total	21	

TABLE 10 Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina pallicera (publication period: 1990–2020)

Glossina pallicera newsteadi

Figure 13 shows the distribution of G. pallicera newsteadi as reported in scientific publications for 1990-2020 (sources for the presence points in Table 11). The subspecies was only reported in three locations in Gabon; these are two national parks (i.e. Ivindo in the east central part of the country and Moukalaba-Doudou in the south [Essono et al., 2015]) and on the Atlantic coast in the Canton Océan (Kohagne Tongué et al., 2011). From the three locations in Gabon where G. pallicera newsteadi was detected, an average apparent density of 0.3 flies/trap/days was reported for the subspecies.

Very limited studies were carried out in the other areas and countries where the subspecies was known to occur (i.e. Angola, Cameroon, the Central African Republic, the Congo and the Democratic Republic of the Congo), with no report of G. pallicera newsteadi or G. pallicera.



[Cited: 4 April 2024]. www.un.org/geospatial/content/map-world-1

country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Gabon	3	306, 308, 310
Total	3	

TABLE 11 Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina pallicera newsteadi (publication period: 1990–2020)

The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in <u>Annex 1</u>.

Glossina pallicera pallicera

Figure 14 shows the distribution of G. pallicera pallicera as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990-2020 (sources for the presence points in Table 12). In Côte d'Ivoire, G. pallicera pallicera was explicitly reported at the subspecies level by two studies from the area of Daloa (McNamara, Laveissière and Masiga, 1995; Fournet, Traoré and Hervouët, 1999), and at the species level by another study from the same area (Dagnogo, Lohuirignonm and Traore, 1997). A fourth study reported it at the species level from the HAT focus of Sinfra (Masiga et al., 1996). In Cameroon, G. pallicera pallicera was reported from several studies in the HAT foci of Campo and Bipindi (13 publications), with most papers reporting it at the species level (8 publications) and a few at the subspecies level (5 publications). The highest densities of G. pallicera pallicera were reported in the HAT focus of Campo in Cameroon, namely 0.46 flies/trap/day (Morlais et al., 1998). In Nigeria, only one study on the occurrence of G. pallicera pallicera was available, but it included reports from five different states in the Niger Delta Region, i.e. Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Delta, Edo and Rivers (Ogedegbe and Rotimi, 2006). No record of occurrence was available for our study period from Ghana, Guinea, Liberia or Sierra Leone.



Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Cameroon	13	69, 70, 72–74, 78, 85, 89, 91, 97, 99, 102, 103
Côte d'Ivoire	4	134, 139, 146, 147
Nigeria	1	483
Total	18	

Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina pallicera pallicera (publication period: 1990–2020)

Glossina palpalis

Figure 15 shows the distribution of *Glossina palpalis* as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020. The occurrence of the species was reported in 16 countries of western and central Africa, stretching from Senegal to Angola, for a total of 203 publications (see Table 13). In four additional countries where the species is known to occur (i.e. Benin, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia and Sierra Leone) (Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Moloo, 1993), no published record was identified for the period 1990–2020.

Two subspecies of *G. palpalis* are recognized, i.e. Glossina palpalis gambiensis and *G. palpalis palpalis*. In addition to transmitting animal trypanosomosis, they are both considered major vectors of sleeping sickness (WHO, 2013). The subspecies are believed to have been geographically separated during the last glacial period approximately 12 000 years ago (Challier, Gouteux and Coosemans, 1983; de Meeûs *et al.*, 2014). To date, with the exception of a narrow zone of contact where hybridization can occur, the two subspecies are still believed to be geographically separated (Challier, Gouteux and Coosemans, 1983). Hybridization between the subspecies has been shown to reduce fertility in females and to induce sterility in males (Gooding, 1988), thus contributing to maintaining the geographic separation.

Morphologically, *G. palpalis gambiensis* and *G. palpalis palpalis* are difficult to distinguish, although, in males, differences in genitalia can be useful (Machado, 1954). Because of the geographic differentiation and the difficult identification by morphology, the subspecies is normally determined from the location where the specimens were collected. In a few cases, molecular tools are also used to explore taxonomic relationships and help classification (Dyer *et al.*, 2008).

In the following sections, we present separately the distribution of the two subspecies as reported by the authors of the publications. When the study authors did not explicitly indicate the subspecies, we inferred it from the study location and historical distribution maps (Challier, Gouteux and Coosemans, 1983).



https://doi.org/10.4060/cd2022en-fig15

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Angola	4	2–5
Burkina Faso	45	13, 14, 16–28, 30–33, 35, 36, 38, 40–46, 48–54, 56–63, 65
Cameroon	29	4, 68–76, 78, 85, 87–103
Central African Republic	2	113, 117
Congo	3	105, 124, 126
Côte d'Ivoire	35	4, 25, 26, 51, 52, 101, 105, 127–153, 156
Democratic Republic of the Congo	5	4, 88, 101, 164, 167
Equatorial Guinea	6	171–176
Gabon	16	145, 306–320
Gambia	3	25, 321, 323
Ghana	9	327–331, 333–336
Guinea	12	25, 38, 42, 339–347
Mali	14	25, 42, 342, 436–442, 444–447
Nigeria	32	93, 457–460, 462, 464–467, 471–473, 477, 478, 480–492, 494–496, 499
Senegal	12	14, 25, 42, 43, 61, 342, 445, 501–505
Тодо	3	533–535
Total	203	

TABLE 13

Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina palpalis (publication period: 1990–2020)

Glossina palpalis gambiensis

Glossina palpalis gambiensis was reported from eight countries (see Figure 16 and Table 14). From West to East, these are Senegal, the Gambia, Guinea, Mali, Côte d'Ivoire, Burkina Faso, Ghana and Nigeria.

In Côte d'Ivoire, G. palpalis gambiensis occurs in the northern part of the country, and most of the studies from this area explicitly reported the subspecies. In a few studies, and especially near the transition zone with G. palpalis palpalis, the subspecies attribution is less clear (Acapovi-Yao, Lendzele and Cissé, 2017), and when reports were at the species level, we inferred the subspecies from historical distribution maps (Challier, Gouteux and Coosemans, 1983). In Ghana, findings of G. *palpalis* in the northern regions were often explicitly reported as G. palpalis gambiensis (e.g. [Adam et al., 2012] and [Mahama et al., 2004]), while those further south and closer to the transition zone with G. palpalis palpalis (e.g. the area of the Mole National Park [Dankwa, Oddoye and Mzambo, 2000; Ebhodaghe, Gomez and Isaac, 2016]) were generically reported as G. palpalis; in these cases we inferred the subspecies from historical distribution maps (Challier, Gouteux and Coosemans, 1983).

According to the data in our atlas, within its geographical distribution, G. palpalis gambiensis is the dominant tsetse species in Guinea, Mali (Diarra et al., 2019), and possibly Senegal. It is also the second main species in Burkina Faso (Percoma et al., 2022). In Senegal, an elimination campaign including a sterile insect technique component is reaching its final stages of implementation at the northernmost limit of the species distribution, in the Niayes Region (Vreysen et al., 2021).

As shown in Figure 16 and Table 14, the occurrence of G. palpalis gambiensis was also reported from southwestern Nigeria (Odeniran et al., 2020). However, no previous record of the subspecies is available for this country, and the study was conducted at over 500 km from the closest record of G. palpalis gambiensis; furthermore, subspecies determination solely relied on molecular techniques without morphological confirmation. Because of these limitations, this report of G. palpalis gambiensis occurrence in Nigeria would need corroboration and it is shown in Figure 16 as an "outlier".

In addition to the eight countries in Table 14, *G. palpalis gambiensis* was also previously reported from Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Sierra Leone and Togo. In particular, a detailed identification and mapping of the distribution of *G. palpalis gambiensis* and *G. palpalis palpalis* in Liberia based on morphological features was provided in 1987 (Garms, Mehlitz and Zillmann, 1987). However, because of the year of publication, we could not include this study in our review. In this study published in 1987, *G. palpalis palpalis palpalis* was found to be the dominant subspecies in

Liberia, with *G. palpalis gambiensis* only detected in the northernmost tip of the country in the immediate proximity of the border with Guinea and Sierra Leone. These findings are consistent with a later report of *G. palpalis gambiensis* from Guékédou in Guinea, at only 5 km from the border with Liberia (de Meeûs *et al.*, 2015). In Togo, *G. palpalis gambiensis* used to be reported in the northernmost part of the country (i.e. Savanes Region [Itard, 1969; Challier, Gouteux and Coosemans, 1983]). However, surveys in the same region in the past 30 years failed to detect the subspecies (Hendrickx *et al.*, 1999; Dao *et al.*, 2008).



	-	
Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Burkina Faso	45	13, 14, 16–28, 30–33, 35, 36, 38, 40–46, 48–54, 56–63, 65
Côte d'Ivoire	7	26, 127, 136, 137, 141, 145, 150
Gambia	3	25, 321, 323
Ghana	7	327, 328, 331, 333–336
Guinea	12	25, 38, 42, 339–347
Mali	14	25, 42, 342, 436–442, 444–447
Nigeria	1	478
Senegal	12	14, 25, 42, 43, 61, 342, 445, 501–505
Total	86	

TABLE 14 Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina palpalis gambiensis* (publication period: 1990–2020)

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.

Glossina palpalis palpalis

The reported distribution of *G. palpalis palpalis* from scientific publications for the period 1990–2020 is shown in Figure 17 (sources for the presence points in Table 15). The subspecies is believed to occur from Sierra Leone to Angola, but the westernmost published data at our disposal are from Côte d'Ivoire, and no record is available for Sierra Leone, Guinea and Liberia.

In Côte d'Ivoire *G. palpalis palpalis* occurs in the southern part of the country, with most papers being explicit in reporting the subspecies (i.e. 30 out of 32 papers). In Ghana, the subspecies is known to occur in the central and southern parts of the country, but relatively few data are available for our study period (i.e. only three papers). In Togo, *G. palpalis palpalis* has a broad distribution from the north (Savanes Region) to the south (Plateaux Region) (Hendrickx *et al.*, 1999). The same is thought to be the case in Benin, where *G. palpalis palpalis* is believed to be the only subspecies of *G. palpalis* present in the country (Challier, Gouteux and Coosemans, 1983); however, no published records were identified in Benin for our reporting period. In Nigeria, *G. palpalis palpalis* occurs in the central and southern parts of the country, with some studies explicitly reporting the subspecies and others referring generically to *G. palpalis*. The species is, together with *Glossina tachinoides*, the dominant tsetse species in Nigeria, respectively accounting for 49 and 45 percent of all tsetse catches recorded in our atlas.

From Cameroon to Angola, all studies are explicit in reporting *G. palpalis palpalis* at the subspecies level. The species is the dominant one in Cameroon and Equatorial Guinea, accounting for 80 percent of the catches recorded in these two countries. The species is also the dominant one in Gabon (39 percent of the catches), while data from other countries are too scanty to make comparisons with other species.



Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina palpalis palpalis* (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Angola	4	2–5
Cameroon	29	4, 68–76, 78, 85, 87–103
Central African Republic	2	113, 117
Congo	3	105, 124, 126
Côte d'Ivoire	32	4, 25, 26, 51, 52, 101, 105, 127–140, 142–144, 146–149, 151–153, 156
Democratic Republic of the Congo	5	4, 88, 101, 164, 167
Equatorial Guinea	6	171–176
Gabon	16	145, 306–320
Ghana	3	329, 330, 333
Nigeria	32	93, 457–460, 462, 464–467, 471–473, 477, 478, 480–492, 494–496, 499
Тодо	3	533–535
Total	127	

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.

Glossina tachinoides

Like many species of the *palpalis* group, *G. tachinoides* favours gallery forests. However, compared to other riverine species, it can withstand relatively drier climatic conditions. Because of this, in certain countries in western and central Africa, *G. tachinoides* can stretch further north than other species of the same group (e.g. in Ghana [Adam *et al.*, 2012], Niger [Rouamba *et al.*, 2019] and Nigeria [Kalu and Lawani, 1996]).

Figure 18 shows the distribution of *G. tachinoides* as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020, while Table 16 provides the corresponding sources for the presence points. The species was reported in a relatively contiguous belt from Mali to the West and Chad and the Central African Republic to the East, while no record was identified from eastern Guinea, the species' historical western limit (Ford and Katondo, 1977b). In the western region, *G. tachinoides* was reported to be the most

abundant and widely distributed species in Burkina Faso; in this country, G. tachinoides accounts for two thirds of the tsetse flies catches included in our database, which is in line with the estimates from the national atlas (Percoma et al., 2022). The species is also widely distributed in Togo and Nigeria, and therefore also conceivably in Benin, even though data from the latter country are very limited. At a distance of over 1 000 km from the western and central Africa belt lies the G. tachinoides belt of western Ethiopia; in this country the species is, after G. pallidipes, the second most widespread and abundant tsetse species, occurring in the regions of Amhara, Benishangul-Gumuz, Gambela and Oromia (Gebre et al., 2022)]. The G. tachinoides belt in Ethiopia was historically reported to extend to the Sudan (Ford and Katondo, 1977b); however, after the separation of South Sudan and the Sudan, there is no published report of G. tachinoides in present-day Sudan (Ahmed et al., 2016), and very little data are available from South Sudan.



As compared to historical distribution maps (Ford and Katondo, 1977b), we found a few papers reporting a southward shift of the distribution limit of *G. tachinoides* in western Africa, including in Togo (Hendrickx *et al.*, 1999), and possibly in Nigeria (Isaac, Igbinosa and Nmorsi, 2011; Odeniran *et al.*, 2020). Finally, at variance with historical records, our review also identified seven publications reporting *G. tachinoides* from Gabon. These reports originate from different sites, mostly located within or in proximity to national parks (i.e. Moukalaba-Doudou [Dibakou *et al.*, 2015; Mounioko *et al.*, 2015] and Ivindo [Mbang Nguema *et al.*, 2016; Zinga Koumba *et al.*, 2014]).

TABLE 16

Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina tachinoides* (publication period: 1990–2020)

Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
1	6
45	10–17, 19, 20, 22–24, 28, 30–42, 44–59, 62, 63
7	67, 77, 81–84, 90
1	112
1	121
6	127, 136, 145, 150, 154, 155
44	183, 189, 190, 198–200, 204, 205, 208, 209, 211, 213, 214, 216, 218, 219, 223, 226, 228–230, 232–234, 238–240, 250, 251, 256, 258–260, 262, 264, 267, 270, 272, 285, 287, 290, 293–295
7	307, 313, 314, 316–318, 320
9	42, 326–328, 331, 333–336
7	436, 437, 439, 440, 444, 446, 447
1	455
31	93, 456, 459–463, 465, 466, 469–473, 477, 478, 480–482, 484–493, 496, 499
3	533–535
162	
	Papers (No.) 1 45 7 1 1 6 44 44 7 9 7 9 7 7 1 31 31 3 3 162

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.

SAVANNAH (*MORSITANS*) GROUP (SUBGENUS *GLOSSINA* S.S.)

Like the *palpalis* group, the savannah (*morsitans*) group also includes major vectors of both AAT and HAT, and in particular of rhodesiense HAT (WHO, 2013). Table 17 provides the list of all the species and subspecies belonging to this group; for

all of them, data could be identified for the study period 1990–2020.

The geographic distribution of the *morsitans* group is provided in Figure 19, while Figure 20 provides the distribution of the different species. A summary of the species and subspecies reported in the different countries is shown in Table 18.

TABLE 17 Tsetse species and subspecies of the *morsitans* group

Savannah (morsitans) group (subgenus Glossina s.s.)	
G. austeni	Newstead, 1912
G. longipalpis	Wiedemann, 1830
G. morsitans centralis	Machado, 1970
G. morsitans morsitans	Westwood, 1850
G. morsitans submorsitans	Newstead, 1910
G. pallidipes	Austen, 1903
G. swynnertoni	Austen, 1923





Country		Tse	tse species	s and subs	pecies (<i>mo</i>	rsitans gro	oup)	
	G. austeni	G. longipalpis	G. morsitans	G. morsitans centralis	G. morsitans morsitans	G. morsitans submorsitans	G. pallidipes	G. swynnertoni
Angola			•	•				
Benin		0	0			0		
Botswana			•	•				
Burkina Faso		0	•			•		
Burundi			0	0				
Cameroon		0	•			•		
Central African Republic			•			•		
Chad			•			•		
Côte d'Ivoire		•	0			0		
Democratic Republic of the Congo		0	•	•		0	0	
Eswatini	•						0	
Ethiopia			•			•	•	
Gambia		0	•			•		
Ghana		0	•			•		
Guinea		0	•			•		
Guinea-Bissau		0	0			0		
Kenya	•		0			0	•	•
Malawi			•		•		•	
Mali		0	•			•		
Mozambique	•		•		•		•	
Namibia			•	•				
Niger			0			0		
Nigeria		0	•			•		
Rwanda			•	•			•	
Senegal		0	•			•		
Sierra Leone		0	0			0		
Somalia	0						0	
South Africa	•							
South Sudan			0			0	0	
Sudan			•			•		
Тодо		•	•			•		
Uganda			•	0		•	•	
United Republic of Tanzania	•		•	•	•		•	•
Zambia			•	•	•		•	
Zimbabwe	•		•		•		•	

Glossina species of the morsitans group reported in scientific papers (publication period: 1990–2020) by country

• Species or subspecies reported in scientific papers (publication period: 1990-2020).

• Subspecies inferred to be present based on the reported presence of the corresponding species and the known historical distribution of the subspecies (publication period: 1990–2020).

• Species or subspecies reported or suggested in previous periods (<1990) or reviews, and which could, or are likely to, still be present.

Glossina austeni

Figure 21 shows the distribution of *Glossina austeni* as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020, while Table 19 provides the list of papers we used as sources for the presence points. The species is shown to occur along the coast of eastern Africa from KwaZulu-Natal in northeastern South Africa (de Beer *et al.*, 2016) to Kenya (Ngari *et al.*, 2020). One scientific paper (de Beer *et al.*, 2019), using data from an earlier survey commissioned by WHO (Saini and Simarro, 2008), reported the presence of *G. austeni* in Eswatini. One paper from the early 1990s also reported the occurrence of *G. austeni* in Zimbabwe, along the border with

Mozambique (Thakersi, 1992), although more recent surveys in that area failed to detect tsetse flies (Shereni *et al.*, 2021). Finally, *G. austeni* was known to occur in southern Somalia (FAO, 1982a; Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Moloo, 1993), but published data from this country are lacking for our study period.

The main habitat of *G. austeni* is evergreen thicket, even though the species can also be found in dense secondary forests (FAO, 1982b). The species was believed to occur as far from the coast as 200 km and at altitudes of up to 900 m above sea level (FAO, 1982b). The current data broadly confirm this and, excepting the report from Zimbabwe, all records of *G. austeni* documented in our atlas



originate within 100 km of the coast of the Indian Ocean and at altitudes of less than 400 m.

The distribution of *G. austeni* is known to be patchy and its behaviour elusive. The difficulty of capturing *G. austeni* with conventional tsetse traps must be taken into consideration when interpreting the results of standard surveys (Vreysen, Khamis and van der Vloedt, 1996). Furthermore, the elimination campaign with a sterile insect technique component carried out at the end of the 1990s on the island of Unguja (Zanzibar Archipelago) has to be considered when interpreting Figure 21, as the map shows the pre-elimination captures of *G. austeni* on top of the later absence points. Figure 21 also shows the dearth of information in Mozambique, a country which has one of the longest coastlines along the Indian Ocean and is historically known to host numerous pockets of *G. austeni*.

TABLE 19

Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina austeni* (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)	
Eswatini	1	177	
Kenya	12	362, 364, 370, 375, 381, 382, 390, 395, 409, 414, 421, 429	
Mozambique	2	177, 453	
South Africa	18	164, 177, 429, 506–520	
United Republic of Tanzania	11	164, 572, 577, 579, 585, 586, 604–608	
Zimbabwe	1	650	
Total	41		
*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in <u>Annex 1</u> .			

Glossina longipalpis

Glossina longipalpis was known to occur in western and central Africa from Senegal to the Democratic Republic of the Congo, where it was generally found to the south of, but with some overlap with, *Glossina morsitans submorsitans*. The species' favoured habitat is the woodland savannah lying immediately north of the rainforest, but it also occurs more to the north, especially in riverine vegetation. Its distribution was reported to be relatively contiguous from Senegal to central Nigeria but was more markedly patchy and fragmented from eastern Nigeria to north-western Democratic Republic of the Congo.

Figure 22 shows the distribution of *G. longipalpis* as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020, with the sources of presence points in Table 20. Our review identified only three scientific papers, all dating back to the 1990s, reporting the occurrence of the spe-

cies in two countries, i.e. Côte d'Ivoire (Solano *et al.*, 1995; Späth, 1997), and Togo (Hendrickx *et al.*, 1999). A recent study published in 2022, and therefore outside our review, confirmed the persistence of *G. longipalpis* in central Togo (Soudah *et al.*, 2022). Furthermore, a paper published in the proceedings of a workshop, and therefore not eligible for inclusion in our atlas database, reported the capture of *G. longipalpis* in Nigeria (Ajayi *et al.*, 1997).

Other countries historically reporting *G. lon-gipalpis* included Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Senegal and Sierra Leone. Regarding Mali and Burkina Faso, it is worth noting that the species used to be reported from very small border areas, and that recently published national atlases of tsetse flies failed to confirm the persistence of this species in these two countries (Diarra *et al.*, 2019; Percoma *et al.*, 2022).



https://doi.org/10.4060/cd2022en-fig22

TABLE 20 Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina longipalpis (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)	
Côte d'Ivoire	2	153, 154	
Тодо	1	534	
Total	3		
*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Appen 1			

Glossina morsitans

Glossina morsitans is a major vector of animal trypanosomosis, and it is also involved in the transmission of HAT (WHO, 2013). Its typical habitats are open woodland and woodland savannah, and its geographic distribution is very broad, spanning up to Senegal in the north-west, Ethiopia in the northeast, Angola in the southwest and Mozambique in the southeast. However, as the species relies mainly on wildlife for blood meal and is sensitive to human-induced habitat disturbance, its areas of occurrence have been progressively shrinking, most notably in western Africa, and in many countries G. morsitans is now mostly confined to national parks or other protected areas (de Gier et al., 2020; Gashururu et al., 2021; Percoma et al., 2022).

Figure 23 shows the distribution of G. morsitans as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990-2020. Overall, 24 countries reported the occurrence of G. morsitans (see Table 21), which is the highest number of countries for any tsetse species in our review. No published record of G. morsitans was identified for our study period from Benin, Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Niger, Sierra Leone or South Sudan,

which historically hosted the species (Jaenson, Dos Santos and Hall, 1991; Späth, 2000).

Three subspecies of *G. morsitans* are recognized: *Glossina morsitans centralis*, *G. morsitans morsitans* and *G. morsitans submorsitans*. They are believed to be geographically distinct (allopatric) (Ford and Katondo, 1977b), with genetic evidence suggesting longstanding and complete reproductive isolation in nature (Krafsur and Endsley, 2006). The three subspecies are presented separately in the following sections.



https://doi.org/10.4060/cd2022en-fig23

TABLE 21

Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina morsitans* (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Angola	1	1
Botswana	3	7–9
Burkina Faso	17	10, 12, 14–16, 30, 34, 39, 42, 44, 48–50, 53, 54, 57, 59
Cameroon	10	66, 67, 77, 79–84, 90
Central African Republic	2	104, 112
Chad	1	121
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1	1
Ethiopia	59	145, 179, 180, 182, 184, 186, 189, 190, 193, 194, 198, 199, 201, 203, 204, 206, 208, 210, 211, 213, 214, 217, 219, 223, 227, 230, 232, 233, 235, 238–240, 242–246, 250, 252, 254–256, 261, 262, 267–269, 272, 273, 276–280, 291, 293, 295, 298, 299
Gambia	6	242, 321–325
Ghana	3	331, 333, 336
Guinea	1	339
Malawi	6	122, 431–435
Mali	2	439, 440
Mozambique	5	275, 449–452
Namibia	1	9
Nigeria	8	93, 456, 460, 463–465, 491, 493
Rwanda	1	500
Senegal	1	504
Sudan	2	529, 531
Тодо	2	533, 534
Uganda	1	537
United Republic of Tanzania	17	164, 452, 572, 573, 577, 582, 584–588, 593, 595–599
Zambia	22	9, 145, 164, 433, 452, 521, 609–613, 615–617, 620–626, 628
Zimbabwe	34	164, 452, 454, 630–634, 636, 637, 640, 641, 643, 644, 646–658, 660–666
Total	195	

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in <u>Annex 1</u>.

Glossina morsitans centralis

Figure 24 shows the reported distribution of *G. morsitans centralis*, with Table 22 providing the list of papers we used as sources for the presence points.

During our study period (1990–2020), the subspecies was explicitly reported from six countries: Angola, Botswana, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Namibia, Rwanda and Zambia. In the United Republic of Tanzania, no explicit report of *G. morsitans centralis* was identified. However, a national-level tsetse mapping exercise provided abundant information on *G. morsitans* (Daffa *et al.*, 2013), which we used in combination with the historical separation line between *G. morsitans centralis* and *G. morsitans morsitans* (Ford and Katondo, 1977b) tentatively to map the subspecies. Two further studies from the Maasai steppe in the north of the country, adjacent to the Tarangire National Park, also reported *G. morsitans* (Ngonyoka *et al.*, 2017a; Ngonyoka *et al.*, 2017b), which we also assumed to be *G. morsitans centralis* based on historical information. However, given the close proximity of this latter study area to the historical separation line, and considering that some authors reported *G. morsitans morsitans* from the same area (Malele *et al.*, 2003; Nnko *et al.*, 2017), our assumption would need confirmation. No published report

was available for two additional countries that were known to host the subspecies (i.e. Burundi and Uganda).

When looking at Figure 24, it must be stressed again that in these maps, presence points are always overlaid onto absence points, irrespective of the date of the survey. As a result, presence points are still visible in some areas that, to the best of our knowledge, have been sustainably cleared of *G. morsitans centralis* through aerial spraying (the sequential aerosol technique). These areas include the inland delta of the Okavango river in Botswana (Kgori, Modo and Torr, 2006), the border area between Botswana and Namibia (Linyanti River) (Kgori and Modo, 2009), and some areas in southwestern Zambia (in and around Sesheke District).



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Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina morsitans centralis (publication period: 1990–2020)

Glossina morsitans morsitans

Figure 25 shows the distribution of *G. morsitans morsitans* as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020, with Table 23 providing the sources for the presence points. In line with the historical record, during our study period the subspecies was reported in five countries: Malawi, Mozambique, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

Most of the studies (i.e. 63 out of 72 [88 percent]) explicitly reported the subspecies, while a few (9 [13 percent]) reported *G. morsitans* at the species level, and we assumed the subspecies based on the survey location and historical distribution maps (Ford and Katondo, 1977b). Also, seven studies from the United Republic of Tanzania reported *G. morsitans morsitans* from areas that were historically known to host *G. morsitans centralis*. Some of these studies were conducted relatively close to the *G. morsitans* centralis/*G. morsitans morsitans* separation line (Malele et al., 2003; Salekwa et al., 2014; Nnko et al., 2017), while others were in the western part of the country (Sasaki and Nishida, 1999; Ouma, Marquez and Krafsur, 2007) or in the Serengeti ecosystem (Malele et al., 2007), deep into what was known to be *G. morsitans centralis* area (Malele et al., 2016). These results are presented in Figure 25 as "outliers" that would need verification, also considering that these studies did not provide details on how the subspecies was determined.

As regards Zimbabwe, a more detailed delineation of the occurrence of *G. morsitans morsitans*, including its temporal dynamics in the period 2000–2019, is available from the national atlas (Shereni *et al.*, 2021). As the latter was published in 2021, it was not considered for the present edition of the continental atlas.



Scientific papers used as sources to map	the occurrence of	Glossina morsi	tans morsitans	(publication	period:	1990–2020)
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Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Malawi	6	122, 431–435
Mozambique	5	275, 449–452
United Republic of Tanzania	15	164, 452, 572, 573, 577, 582, 584–588, 593, 597–599
Zambia	18	145, 164, 433, 452, 521, 609–611, 615, 616, 620–626, 628
Zimbabwe	34	164, 452, 454, 630–634, 636, 637, 640, 641, 643, 644, 646–658, 660–666
Total	72	

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.

Figure 26 shows the distribution of *G. morsitans* submorsitans as reported in scientific publications during 1990–2020. The subspecies can be found in a relatively narrow and fragmented belt from Senegal to Ethiopia, and in our study period its occurrence was confirmed in 14 countries (see Table 24). A total of 114 papers reported *G. morsitans submorsitans*, of which 91 (i.e. 80 percent) explicitly reported the subspecies. In 22 papers (18 for Ethiopia and four for Nigeria), the species *G. morsitans* was reported, and we assumed the subspecies based on the survey location and historical distribution maps (Ford and Katondo, 1977b). One study from Uganda reported on *G. morsitans morsitans* from the Murchison Falls National Park (Aksoy *et al.*, 2014); however, following consultations with the authors, we assumed these captures to be *G. morsitans submorsitans*. This is because the samples were not characterized at the subspecies level, and the study area belongs to the historical distribution of *G. morsitans submorsitans*.

In addition to the 14 countries in Table 24, *G. morsitans submorsitans* was also historically reported from Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Niger, Sierra Leone and South Sudan.



Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Burkina Faso	17	10, 12, 14–16, 30, 34, 39, 42, 44, 48–50, 53, 54, 57, 59
Cameroon	10	66, 67, 77, 79–84, 90
Central African Republic	2	104, 112
Chad	1	121
Ethiopia	59	145, 179, 180, 182, 184, 186, 189, 190, 193, 194, 198, 199, 201, 203, 204, 206, 208, 210, 211, 213, 214, 217, 219, 223, 227, 230, 232, 233, 235, 238–240, 242–246, 250, 252, 254–256, 261, 262, 267–269, 272, 273, 276–280, 291, 293, 295, 298, 299
Gambia	6	242, 321–325
Ghana	3	331, 333, 336
Guinea	1	339
Mali	2	439, 440
Nigeria	8	93, 456, 460, 463–465, 491, 493
Senegal	1	504
Sudan	2	529, 531
Тодо	2	533, 534
Uganda	1	537
Total	114	

TABLE 24 Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina morsitans submorsitans* (publication period: 1990–2020)

Glossina pallidipes

Glossina pallidipes is a major vector of AAT and HAT (WHO, 2013), and it is patchily distributed across eastern Africa, from Ethiopia to Mozambique. Figure 27 shows its distribution as reported in 219 scientific publications for the period 1990–2020. The very high number of papers that looked at *G. pallidipes*, which is the highest for any single species in our atlas, attests to the veterinary and medical importance of the species.

Nine countries reported *G. pallidipes* in our study period: Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe (see Table 25). In Ethiopia, the species occurs in the southwestern regions and it is the most abundant and broadly distributed in the country, where it accounts for two thirds of all the tsetse catches in our database; these findings are in line with the recently published national atlas for Ethiopia (Gebre *et al.*, 2022). *Glossina pallidipes* is also by far the most abundant and widely distributed species in Kenya, where it accounts for 87 percent of the tsetse flies included in our atlas, and where it occurs in all the tsetse-infested regions (Western, Rift Valley, Central and Coast [Ngari et al., 2020]). By contrast, in Uganda the species has a relatively limited distribution, and it was reported only from the southeastern regions bordering Kenya and in the west near Lake Albert and Lake Edward. In Rwanda, only one paper reporting G. pallidipes was available for our review (Mihok, Otieno and Tarimo, 1992), but more recent surveys at the wildlife-human-livestock interface of the Akagera National Park confirmed the presence of the species in the eastern part of the country (Gashururu et al., 2021). In the United Republic of Tanzania, G. pallidipes is less widely distributed than G. morsitans, but it still occurs in several regions including the coast, Arusha, Manyara, Kigoma and the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem. In Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe, G. pallidipes often co-occurs with G. morsitans, especially within or close to protected areas.

In addition to the nine countries shown in Table 25, according to historical records, the species was also known to occur in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Eswatini, Somalia and South Sudan. However, relatively recent surveys failed to detect *G. pallidipes* in Eswatini (Saini and Simarro, 2008). The species also used to occur in South Africa in the KwaZulu-Natal Province, but it was eliminated from that area several decades ago by means of persistent chemicals (Du Toit, 1954).



https://doi.org/10.4060/cd2022en-fig27 上

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)	
Ethiopia	80	145, 178, 185, 187, 188, 190–192, 195–197, 202–205, 207, 208, 210– 213, 215, 217, 221–225, 228, 230–233, 236, 238–241, 243–245, 247, 248, 252, 254, 255, 257, 261–263, 266, 268, 271–274, 276–283, 286, 288, 289, 291, 293–297, 299–305	
Kenya	56	164, 236, 271, 348–351, 353–357, 359–366, 368–370, 372, 375, 377, 381–383, 389, 390, 394–397, 399, 405–407, 409–412, 414–420, 422, 424–426, 429, 430	
Malawi	1	432	
Mozambique	3	275, 450, 451	
Rwanda	1	500	
Uganda	11	122, 369, 405, 418, 449, 537, 551, 552, 555, 557, 567	
United Republic of Tanzania	33	1, 122, 236, 271, 349, 403, 419, 568–573, 576–588, 590, 593, 595–598, 601	
Zambia	11	145, 236, 271, 521, 610, 614, 616, 618, 627, 628, 668	
Zimbabwe	40	236, 271, 365, 629, 631–640, 642–644, 646–666, 668, 669	
Total	219		

Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina pallidipes (publication period: 1990–2020)

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.

Glossina swynnertoni

Glossina swynnertoni is a species closely resembling *G. morsitans* that occurs in a relatively small area straddling northern United Republic of Tanzania and southwestern Kenya. In these areas, the *G. swynnertoni* co-exists mainly with *G. pallidipes*, where it contributes to the transmission of both AAT and HAT (WHO, 2013).

Figure 28 shows the distribution of G. *swynnertoni* as reported in scientific publications (1990–2020); the source papers for presence points are shown in Table 26. Most of the areas where G.

swynnertoni occurs are found in or around national parks or other conservancies. The main clusters of reported occurrence are associated with the Serengeti and Tarangire national parks in the United Republic of Tanzania (Ngonyoka *et al.*, 2017b; Lord *et al.*, 2018) and the Masai Mara National Reserve in Kenya (Ngari *et al.*, 2020). In Kenya, the species was also reported from the Nguruman Escarpment, west of Lake Magadi, in a survey carried out in 1992 (Stiles *et al.*, 1994); however, no later study from the area reported *G. swynnertoni* (e.g. [Ouma *et al.*, 2000; Bett *et al.*, 2008; Channumsin *et al.*, 2018]).



https://doi.org/10.4060/cd2022en-fig28

TABLE 26

Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina swynnertoni* (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Kenya	7	360, 362, 403, 407–409, 426
United Republic of Tanzania	26	1, 122, 164, 403, 405, 408, 568–572, 574, 576, 580, 581, 584, 585, 587, 588, 592, 594–598, 601
Total	31	

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.

FOREST (FUSCA) GROUP (SUBGENUS AUSTENINA)

As compared to the *palpalis* and *morsitans* groups, the tsetse species of the *fusca* group is much less studied. This is because of its lesser medical and veterinary importance, more limited geographical distribution and habitat that is generally more difficult to access. In fact, most species of the *fusca* group are associated with rainforests, and in particular with closed, relatively undisturbed vegetation (Cecchi *et al.*, 2008). Overall, 15 species and subspecies are recognized in this group (see Table 27).

The characterization of the *fusca* group as rainforest-associated species having negligible economic importance needs some nuancing. In fact, such characterization fits better some of the species in the group (e.g. *Glossina tabaniformis*, *Glossina haningtoni*, *Glossina nashi*, *Glossina severini*, *Glossina vanhoofi*), and less so other species (e.g. *Glossina fusca*, *Glossina nigrofusca*, *Glossina fuscipleuris*, *Glossina medicorum* and *Glossina schwetzi*) which inhabit more transitional zones between true rainforest and savannah woodland (Ford, 1963; Jordan, 1961). *Glossina longipennis* is even more of an exception, as it inhabits very dry areas (FAO, 1982b).

In our review for the period 1990–2020, we were able to find data for ten species and subspecies of the *fusca* group. The five for which no data could be found are *G. haningtoni*, *Glossina nigrofusca hopkinsi*, *G. schwetzi*, *G. severini* and *G. vanhoofi*. Of these five, two species (i.e. *G. haningtoni* and *G. schwetzi*), were historically reported from relatively large areas along the Atlantic coast of central Africa, while *G. nigrofusca hopkinsi*, *G. severini* and *G. vanhoofi* were reported only from very small areas in the east of the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

The geographic distribution of the *fusca* group as derived from our 31-year review is provided in Figure 29, while Figure 30 and Figure 31 provide the distribution of the nine species for which spatially explicit field data could be found (subspecies are not shown in Figure 30 and Figure 31). A summary of the species and subspecies reported in the different countries is shown in <u>Table 28</u>.

TABLE 27

Isetse species and	subspecies of	the <i>fusca</i> group	(subgenus Austenina)
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Forest (<i>fusca</i>) group (subgenus <i>Austenina</i>)		
G. brevipalpis	Newstead, 1910	
G. frezili	Gouteux, 1987	
G. fusca congolensis	Newstead and Evans, 1921	
G. fusca fusca	Walker, 1849	
G. fuscipleuris	Austen, 1911	
G. haningtoni	Newstead and Evans, 1922	
G. longipennis	Corti, 1895	
G. medicorum	Austen, 1911	
G. nashi	Potts, 1955	
G. nigrofusca hopkinsi	van Emden, 1944	
G. nigrofusca nigrofusca	Newstead, 1910	
G. schwetzi	Newstead and Evans, 1921	
G. severini	Newstead, 1913	
G. tabaniformis	Westwood, 1850	
G. vanhoofi	Henrad, 1952	






Note: The final boundary between the Republic of South Sudan and the Republic of the Sudan has not yet been determined.

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TABLE 28

Glossina species of the fusca group reported in scientific papers (publication period: 1990–2020) by country

Country		Tsetse species and subspecies (<i>fusca</i> group)															
	G. brevipalpis	G. frezili	G. fusca	G. fusca congolensis	G. fusca fusca	G. fuscipleuris	G. haningtoni	G. longipennis	G. medicorum	G. nashi	G. nigrofusca	G. nigrofusca hopkinsi	G. nigrofusca nigrofusca	G. schwetzi	G. severini	G. tabaniformis	G. vanhoofi
Angola							0			0				0		0	
Benin			0	0					0								
Burkina Faso									•								
Burundi	0																
Cameroon			•	•	•	0	0			0	•		•	0		•	
Central African Republic		0	•	•		0	0		0	0	0	0	0			•	
Congo		0	0	0			0		0	0				0		0	
Côte d'Ivoire			0		0				•		•		•			0	
Democratic Republic of the Congo	0	0	0	0		0	0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	•	0
Equatorial Guinea			0	0			0									•	
Ethiopia	0							0									
Gabon		•	•	•			0		0	•				0		•	
Ghana			0	0	0				0		0		0			0	
Guinea			0		0				0		0		0			0	
Guinea-Bissau			0		0												
Kenya	•					•		•									
Liberia			0		0				0		0		0				
Malawi	0																
Mozambique	•																
Nigeria			•	•			0		0		•		•			0	
Rwanda	•																
Sierra Leone			0		0				0		0		0				
Somalia	0							0									
South Africa	•																
South Sudan			0	0		0		0									
Тодо			•		•				•								
Uganda	0		0	0		0		0	0		0	0					
United Republic of Tanzania	•					0		•									
Zambia	•																
Zimbabwe	0																

• Species or subspecies reported in scientific papers (publication period: 1990–2020).

• Species or subspecies reported or suggested in previous periods (<1990) or reviews, and which could, or are likely to, still be present.

Glossina brevipalpis

Glossina brevipalpis is distributed fairly widely in eastern and southern Africa, and its favoured habitat is waterside evergreen thicket and forest islands in savannah (FAO, 1982b). Figure 32 shows its geographic distribution as reported in scientific publications (1990–2020); the corresponding list of papers for the presence points is in Table 29.

We found reports of G. brevipalpis in four countries along the coast of the Indian Ocean, from South Africa (de Beer et al., 2016) to Kenya (Ngari et al., 2020), as well as in two landlocked countries, i.e. Rwanda (Mihok, Otieno and Tarimo, 1992) and Zambia (Dennis et al., 2014). In both Kenya and the United Republic of Tanzania, G. brevipalpis is mainly reported from within 200 km of the coast, but also further inland, such as from the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem (Lord et al., 2020) and central Kenya (Ngari et al., 2020). The species is also reported from within 100 km of the coast in South Africa (KwaZulu-Natal Province) and Mozambique (Matutuíne District at the border with South Africa [Sigauque et al., 2000], and Nicoadala District in the central province [Mulandane et al., 2020]). However, while the available data provide a good coverage of the small area of occurrence of G. brevipalpis in South Africa, large gaps affect our knowledge of G. brevipalpis distribution in Mozambique. In South Africa's KwaZulu-Natal Province, G. brevipalpis is the most collected of two tsetse species, the other being G. austeni; in our database, and in line with previous estimates (de Beer et al., 2016), G. brevipalpis accounts for 90 percent of the total catches from South Africa. In South Africa we also found the highest apparent densities of G. brevipalpis, with over 10 flies/trap/ day reported from the Hluhluwe-iMfolozi Park (de Beer et al., 2016). In Rwanda, G. brevipalpis was known to occur in the southeastern part of the country (Mihok, Otieno and Tarimo, 1992), although a recent survey focusing on part of its historical area of occurrence (i.e. the Akagera National Park) failed to detect it (Gashururu et al., 2021). In Zambia, the species was reported from one site only: Luambe National Park in Eastern Province (Dennis et al., 2014).

Historical reports also indicated fairly large areas of occurrence of *G. brevipalpis* in the eastern Democratic Republic of the Congo, and smaller ones in Burundi, Ethiopia, Malawi, Somalia, Uganda and Zimbabwe (Ford and Katondo, 1977b). However, very little data were collected in the eastern Democratic Republic of the Congo during our study period, and a similar dearth of information affects the small historical pockets of *G. brevipalpis* in Burundi, Ethiopia (Gebre *et al.*, 2022), Malawi, Somalia, Uganda and Zimbabwe (Shereni *et al.*, 2021).



https://doi.org/10.4060/cd2022en-fig32

TAB	LE	29
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Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina brevipalpis (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Kenya	17	362, 364, 369, 370, 375, 381, 382, 389, 390, 395–397, 399, 407, 409, 414, 429
Mozambique	3	177, 451, 453
Rwanda	1	500
South Africa	17	164, 177, 506–520
United Republic of Tanzania	16	569, 570, 572, 573, 575, 577, 579–582, 584–588, 593
Zambia	1	610
Total	54	

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.

Glossina frezili

Glossina frezili was the latest species of tsetse fly to be identified. Morphologically, it is close to *G. medicorum*, and it was first described in the Congo, where it was collected in the mangroves at the estuary of the Kouilou-Niari river (Gouteux *et al.*, 1987; Gouteux, Sinda and de Foresta, 1991). Earlier findings of the species from a similar habitat in Gabon had been identified as *G. medicorum* (Maillot, 1956). In addition to the Congo and Gabon, the possible presence of *G. frezili* was also suggested in the Central African Republic and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (Moloo, 1993).

Figure 33 shows the distribution of *G. frezili* as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020. The publications that provided the presence points are in Table 30. The species was only detected in four areas in Gabon. These areas include two national parks (i.e. Ivindo [Mbang Nguema *et al.*, 2016] and Moukalaba-Doudou [Dibakou *et al.*, 2015; Mounioko *et al.*, 2018]), and other forested or wetland areas (i.e. the Bas Ogooué wetland [Mbang Nguema *et al.*, 2019], the *bai* (swampy forest clearing) of Momba [Zinga Koumba *et al.*, 2013] and the Zadié Forest [Zinga Koumba *et al.*, 2016], the latter two respectively located to the east and the northeast of Ivindo National Park). In the studies we reviewed, apparent densities of up to 1.4 flies/trap/day were reported for *G. frezili* (Mounioko *et al.*, 2018); however, the species was normally detected at lower densities, with an average of 0.3 flies/trap/day in the 16 surveys where full information on the number of traps, days and flies was available. Also, when caught, *G. frezili* was always detected in association with several other tsetse species, and especially the much more abundant *G. fuscipes*.

No report on *G. frezili* from either Congo or the Democratic Republic of the Congo was found for our study period. However, it should be noted that, as shown in Figure 33, no survey was carried out in the coastal area of Congo where *G. frezili* was first described, an area that today falls within the wetland of international importance "Bas-Kouilou-Yombo".



https://doi.org/10.4060/cd2022en-fig33 😃

TABLE 30 Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina frezili* (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Gabon	8	307, 312, 314–317, 319, 320
Total	8	
*The numbered list of scientific publication	s used as sou	rces is in <u>Annex 1</u> .

Glossina fusca

The main habitat of *G. fusca* is the edge of the rainforest, but it can also be found well within the rainforest, as well as in riverine vegetation and isolated forest patches within the savannah (FAO, 1982b). The species was historically known to occur in a relatively broad and contiguous belt from Guinea-Bissau to Uganda, including

a total of 17 countries (see Table 28). However, in the scientific literature from 1990–2020, we only found confirmation of *G. fusca* occurrence in five countries: Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Gabon, Nigeria and Togo (see Figure 34 and Table 31). In both Gabon and Togo, the species seems to be more widely distributed than suggested by historical records (Ford and Katondo, 1977b). Large data gaps can be observed in western Africa from Guinea-Bissau to Ghana and in the north and east of the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

Two subspecies of G. fusca are recognized: Glossina fusca congolensis and Glossina fusca fusca. The subspecies differ morphologically, and can be distinguished by identification keys (Leak et al., 2008). Regarding their geographical distribution, most authors concur in indicating that G. fusca fusca occurs in the western part of the species range, with G. fusca congolensis occupying the eastern part (Leak et al., 2008; Moloo, 1993; Rogers and Robinson, 2004). However, the area of transition between the two subspecies, being generally placed between Ghana, Togo and Benin, appears less clearly identified. Furthermore, the occurrence of G. fusca fusca alongside G. fusca congolensis in Cameroon, already reported in the 1950s (Rageau and Adam, 1953) and recently confirmed (Grébaut et al., 2004; Simo et al., 2020), seems to have been overlooked at times.

In our review for the period 1990-2000, most publications (i.e. 20 out of 22) reported their findings on the detection of *G. fusca* at the subspecies level (i.e. *G. fusca congolensis* or *G. fusca fusca*), with only two studies reporting it at the species level (one from Nigeria [Omonona *et al.*, 2020] and one from Cameroon [Morlais *et al.*, 1998]). Based on the papers reporting *G. fusca congolensis* and *G. fusca fusca* at the subspecies level, separate maps are presented below. Because of the possible co-occurrence of the two subspecies in the same location, the two studies reporting *G. fusca* at the species level were not apportioned to a subspecies based on geography. As a result, they were only included in the species-level map (see Figure 34), but not in the subspecies-level ones (see Figure 35 and Figure 36).

When looking at the maps at the subspecies level, it should be noted again that authors and papers very rarely describe the methodology used for the subspecies determination, and it is likely that in some instances the subspecies of *G. fusca* may have been inferred from the geographical location rather than from morphological characterization.



Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)	
Cameroon	4	74, 79, 89, 94	
Central African Republic	6	104, 106, 110, 112, 115, 116	
Gabon	10	306–308, 312–314, 317–320	
Nigeria	2	483, 491	
Тодо	1	534	
Total	23		
*The numbered list of scientific publication	*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in <u>Annex 1</u> .		

TABLE 31 Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina fusca (publication period: 1990–2020)

Glossina fusca congolensis

The reported detections of G. fusca congolensis in 1990-2020 are shown in Figure 35, with papers providing the presence points in Table 32. With the exception of the major gap in the northern and eastern regions of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Figure 35 is broadly in line with the known geographic distribution of the subspecies (Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Moloo, 1993). The main novelty in terms of reported occurrence seems to be the detection of G. fusca congolensis in northeastern Gabon; in particular, the subspecies was detected by several studies in and around the Ivindo National Park (Essono et al., 2015; Mbang Nguema et al., 2015; Mbang Nguema et al., 2016; Zinga

Koumba et al., 2014; Zinga Koumba et al., 2016). The subspecies was also detected in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria, in Cameroon and in several prefectures of the Central African Republic.

Apparent densities of up to 4 flies/trap/day were reported for G. fusca congolensis in certain locations in the Central African Republic (Acapovi-Yao et al., 2019) and Gabon (Mbang Nguema et al., 2019). However, when detected, the subspecies is normally reported at lower densities; specifically, we calculated an average apparent density of 0.31 flies/trap/day from the 23 locations and surveys in our database that reported full information on the number of traps, days and G. fusca congolensis detected.



TABLE 32 Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina fusca congolensis* (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Cameroon	2	79, 94
Central African Republic	6	104, 106, 110, 112, 115, 116
Gabon	10	306–308, 312–314, 317–320
Nigeria	1	483
Total	19	

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.

Glossina fusca fusca

Figure 36 shows the distribution of *G. fusca fusca* as reported in scientific publications for the period 1990–2020, and the list of papers that provided the presence points is in Table 33.

From all the western African countries that are believed to host *G. fusca fusca*, the species was only reported from one study from the early 1990s in Togo (Hendrickx *et al.*, 1999). In central Africa, and more specifically in Cameroon, the capture of one *G. fusca fusca* in the HAT focus of Bipindi was reported (Grébaut *et al.*, 2004), thus confirming earlier reports (Rageau and Adam, 1953). Indeed, in the 1950s the occurrence of *G. fusca fusca* had been reported from several regions in Cameroon, including Yoko in the Centre Region, where the sympatric occurrence of *G. fusca fusca* and *G. fusca congolensis* was recently confirmed (Simo *et al.*, 2020).



TABLE 33

Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina fusca fusca (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Cameroon	2	74, 94
Тодо	1	534
Total	3	
*The numbered list of scientific pub	plications used as sou	rces is in <u>Annex 1</u> .

Glossina fuscipleuris

Relatively little is known about *G. fuscipleuris*, but historical distribution records reported the species from fragmented belts in central Africa. Its preferred habitat is remnant forest patches surrounded by savannah, and particularly those located at the northern and eastern fringes of the Congo basin. Countries where *G. fuscipleuris* was historically recorded included Cameroon, the Central African Republic, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kenya, South Sudan, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania (see Table 28) (Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Moloo, 1993).

During our study period, only one scientific publication reported field captures of *G. fuscipleuris* (Griffith *et al.*, 2018) (see Table 34). The species was captured in 2013 in the Trans Mara Region of southwestern Kenya (see Figure 37), the only area where the species had been historically detected in the country (Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Lewis, 1939). No additional record of *G. fuscipleuris* emerged from recent and extensive surveys in other regions of Kenya (Ngari *et al.*, 2020).



TABLE 34 Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina fuscipleuris* (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Kenya	1	369
Total	1	

* The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in <u>Annex 1</u>.

Glossina longipennis

Glossina longipennis is peculiar among the species of the *fusca* group in that it inhabits very dry areas and even semi-deserts (FAO, 1982b). Its preferred habitat is dry thorn bush, but it can be found also in riverine thicket. Kenya is at the centre of its geographic distribution, although the species is also found in northern Tanzania and it was known to occur in relatively small pockets in Ethiopia, Somalia, South Sudan and Uganda (Ford and Katondo, 1977b).

In our review, we identified records of *G. longipennis* only from Kenya and the United Republic of Tanzania (see Figure 38 and Table 35). In particular, 19 different papers reported the

occurrence of the species from four areas in Kenya: (1) the Nguruman Escarpment in the south/southwestern part of the country near the border with the United Republic of Tanzania; (2) the national parks of Tsavo East and Tsavo West, and their neighbouring areas in the southern part of Kenya; (3) the area of the Meru National Park in central Kenya (Ngari *et al.*, 2020), and (4) the Ewaso Ng'iro river valley northwest of Mount Kenya (Mihok, 2002). Apparent densities of more than ten and up to 30 flies/trap/day were reported from two studies in the 1990s in the Nguruman Escarpment (Mihok *et al.*, 1996) and the Galana Ranch in costal Kenya (Makumi, Stevenson and Green, 2000); however, more recent and extensive

surveys across the country estimated the overall apparent density of *G. longipennis* in Kenya at 0.03 flies/trap/day (Ngari *et al.*, 2020).

In the United Republic of Tanzania, *G. longipennis* was reported from two regions: Tanga, in the northeastern part of the country (Daffa *et al.*, 2013), and Kigoma, in the Mahale Mountains National Park on the shores of Lake Tanganyika (Sasaki and

Nishida, 1999). However, the latter report is from an area that historically lay outside the distribution of *G. longipennis*, and it is therefore marked as an outlier in need of confirmation in Figure 38. Outside our study period, i.e. in 2022, the capture of one specimen of *G. longipennis* dating back to 2017 was published from Ethiopia, in the Gibe River basin (Gebre *et al.*, 2022).



https://doi.org/10.4060/cd2022en-fig38 😃

TABLE 35

Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina longipennis* (publication period: 1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Kenya	26	350, 351, 355, 360, 361, 363, 364, 370, 376, 382, 384–386, 389, 395–397, 399, 406, 409–412, 417, 420, 425
Tanzania	2	572, 599
Total	28	

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.

Glossina medicorum

Glossina medicorum is a species of the fusca group that inhabits relatively dry forest, mosaic forest/ savannah, forest islands and riverine vegetation (FAO, 1982b). Its main area of occurrence was known to be in western Africa, from Liberia to Nigeria (Ford and Katondo, 1977b), but the species was also reported or suggested from other countries, including the Central African Republic, the Congo, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Gabon, Sierra Leone and Uganda (FAO, 1982a; Jordan and Okoth, 1990; Moloo, 1993).

In our review, we identified published records of *G. medicorum* from only three countries: Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire and Togo (see Figure 39 and Table 36). In Burkina Faso, the species was found in several studies carried out in the southwestern part of the country near the border with Côte d'Ivoire, and more specifically in the classified forest and partial faunal reserve of Comoé-Léraba

(Rayaisse et al., 2009). In Côte d'Ivoire, the species was known to be broadly distributed (Ford and Katondo, 1977b), but we found records of its occurrence only in two areas, namely at the border with Burkina Faso, in connection with the already mentioned Comoé-Léraba reserve (Djohan et al., 2015), and in the centre of the country, near the capital city Yamoussoukro (Solano et al., 1995). In Togo, the only reports of G. medicorum in our review dated back to the early 1990s and they were from the southern part of the country (Tchiela Monata forest [Hendrickx et al., 1999]), which is in line with historical reports (Ford and Katondo, 1977b). In the sites where G. medicorum was captured, apparent densities of up to 1.4 flies/trap/ day were reported (Rayaisse et al., 2009), with an average of 0.41 flies/trap/day from the four studies that allowed this metric to be estimated (Djohan et al., 2015; Pagabeleguem et al., 2012; Rayaisse et al., 2009; Rayaisse et al., 2015).



Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Burkina Faso	8	14, 30, 42, 44, 48, 49, 53, 59
Côte d'Ivoire	2	136, 153
Тодо	1	534
Total	11	

TABLE 36

66

Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina medicorum (publication period: 1990-2020)

Glossina nashi

Glossina nashi is a rare and little-known species of the *fusca* group that is believed to occur especially in dense rainforest and hilly country (FAO, 1982b). Historically, *G. nashi* was reported from a few countries in central Africa, namely Angola, Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Congo, and Gabon (FAO, 1982a; Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Moloo, 1993). Some authors also report it from the Democratic Republic of the Congo (Rogers and Robinson, 2004), while others do not (FAO, 1982a; Leak *et al.*, 2008; Moloo, 1993). In our review, the species was confirmed only in one country, Gabon, where it was reported by several studies in different locations (see Figure 40 and Table 37). Most of these locations are linked to national parks or other protected areas, where *G. nashi* occurs in sympatry with several other tsetse species of the fusca and palpalis groups, in particular *G. fuscipes fuscipes* and *G. palpalis palpalis*. In the studies we reviewed, apparent densities of up to 2 flies/trap/day were reported for *G. nashi* from the *baü* of Momba (Zinga Koumba *et al.*, 2013), with an average of 0.56 flies/trap/day in the all sites of the country where it was detected.



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TABLE 37	
Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of <i>Glossina nashi</i> (publication period:	1990–2020)

Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)
Gabon	9	145, 307, 312, 314–317, 319, 320
Total	9	

*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in Annex 1.

Glossina nigrofusca

The main habitat of *G. nigrofusca* is believed to be the rainforest and its edges, including forest islands beyond the limits of the rainforest (FAO, 1982b). The species was historically reported in a narrow and fragmented belt from Sierra Leone to Uganda.

In our review, we found records of *G. nigrofusca* occurrence in three countries: Côte d'Ivoire, Cameroon and Nigeria (see Figure 41 and Table 38). Most of the studies reporting this species are from Cameroon (11), but they all originate from two locations that are well known as foci of sleeping sickness: Campo, at the border with Equatorial Guinea, and Bipindi, also located in the southwestern part of the country (Simarro *et al.*, 2010). In these areas, *G. nigrofusca* was detected together with several other tsetse species, and in particular with the much more abundant *G. palpalis palpalis*. In the studies we reviewed for Cameroon, the apparent density of *G. nigrofusca* never exceeded 0.03 flies/trap/day (Grébaut *et al.*,

2016), and in the locations where it was captured, *G. nigrofusca* represented only 3 percent of the total tsetse catches, with *G. palpalis palpalis* accounting for approximately 84 percent.

In both Côte d'Ivoire and Nigeria, reports of *G. nigrofusca* date back to the 1990s, and they only concern two areas, namely the Sassandra-Marahoué District in central Côte d'Ivoire (Fournet, Traoré and Hervouët, 1999; Masiga *et al.*, 1996), and the Niger Delta Region (Rivers State) in southern Nigeria (Ogedegbe and Rotimi, 2006).

Two subspecies of *G. nigrofusca* are recognized, *Glossina nigrofusca nigrofusca* and *G. nigrofusca hopkinsi*, and they are generally believed to be geographically separated. The former is reported in the western part of the species distribution, from Sierra Leone to the Central African Republic and western Democratic Republic of the Congo, while the latter is found in the eastern part of the species distribution, in eastern Democratic Republic of the Congo and Uganda (Leak *et al.*, 2008; Rogers



and Robinson, 2004). However, one author appears to have placed the separation between the subspecies further to the west, and he indicated that the subspecies occurring in the Central African Republic and the only subspecies in the Democratic Republic of the Congo would be *G. nigrofusca* hopkinsi (Moloo, 1993). This discrepancy did not pose a challenge to the present version of the continental atlas, as no *G. nigrofusca* was reported from that region.

TABLE 38

Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of Glossina nigrofusca (publication period: 1990–2020)
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Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)			
Cameroon	11	69, 70, 72–74, 85, 91, 97, 99, 102, 103			
Côte d'Ivoire	4	134, 139, 146, 147			
Nigeria	1	483			
Total	16				
*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in <u>Annex 1</u> .					

Glossina nigrofusca nigrofusca

Four studies explicitly reported *G. nigrofusca nigrofusca* as a subspecies, while 12 reported it as G. nigrofusca (Figure 42). In the latter cases, *G. nigrofusca nigrofusca* was assumed because of the geographical location of the reports (i.e. Côte d'Ivoire and Cameroon) and the historical reported occurrence of the subspecies in these countries (Leak *et al.*, 2008; Moloo, 1993; Rogers and Robinson, 2004). Figure 42 distinguishes reports at the subspecies level (in black) from those at the species level (in grey). The source papers for the presence points in Figure 42 are the same as for the species-level map in Figure 41 (see Table 38).



Glossina nigrofusca hopkinsi

Glossina nigrofusca hopkinsi was known to occur in two countries (i.e. the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Uganda) (Leak *et al.*, 2008; Rogers and Robinson, 2004), and possibly in the Central

Glossina tabaniformis

Glossina tabaniformis is considered mainly a rainforest species, but it is also found in drier forests. It is historically known to occur mainly in central Africa, but with pockets extending also to western Africa as far as Liberia (FAO, 1982b). As is the case for some other species of the *fusca* group, there is indication that the distribution of *G. tabaniformis* may be shrinking because of factors such as the reduction of wild hosts (Gouteux *et al.*, 1991) and forest habitat.

In our study, we found reports of G. tabaniformis

African Republic (Moloo, 1993). However, in our review, we did not find any report of this subspecies, nor any report of *G. nigrofusca* from the areas that were known or that may have been inhabited by this subspecies.

from five countries in central Africa: Cameroon, the Central African Republic, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Equatorial Guinea and Gabon (see Figure 43 and Table 39). In addition, historical records indicate that the species was also present in Angola, the Congo and Nigeria (Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Moloo, 1993), and that it was or could still be present also in Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana and Guinea (Moloo, 1993). When detected, *G. tabaniformis* is normally reported in low numbers, with a maximum apparent density of 0.2 flies/trap/day recorded in the Ivindo National Park in Gabon (Zinga Koumba *et al.*, 2016).



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Country	Papers (No.)	Papers (list*)				
Cameroon	3	73, 78, 97				
Central African Republic	1	118				
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1	145				
Equatorial Guinea	2	172, 173				
Gabon	7	145, 306, 308, 314, 317, 318, 320				
Total	13					
*The numbered list of scientific publications used as sources is in <u>Annex 1</u> .						

TABLE 39 Scientific papers used as sources to map the occurrence of *Glossina tabaniformis* (publication period: 1990– 2020)

Other species of the fusca group

In addition to the subspecies *G. nigrofusca hopkinsi* previously described, our review could find no report of four other species of the *fusca* group: *G. haningtoni*, *G. severini*, *G. schwetzi* and *G. vanhoofi*. For the sake of completeness, we provide here below a short description of their historical areas of reported occurrence.

Glossina haningtoni

Although little is known of this species, *G. haningtoni* is believed to be more restricted to rainforest than some other species of the *fusca* group. The species was historically reported from a relatively large and contiguous belt along the Atlantic coast of central Africa, centred in Gabon. Overall, eight countries were historically reported to host *G. haningtoni*: Angola, Cameroon, the Central African Republic, the Congo, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon and Nigeria (FAO, 1982a; Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Moloo, 1993).

The absence of any detection in Gabon over our study period is noteworthy, because the country was historically reported to be fully within the area of distribution of *G. haningtoni*. However, we reviewed 18 publications from Gabon for 1990–2020, which included an overall trapping effort of more than 10 000 trap days in 38 distinct locations and, while nine different tsetse species were detected, no *G. haningtoni* was reported.

Glossina schwetzi

Another little-known species of the *fusca* group, G. schwetzi appears to be associated with relic forests and forest islands (FAO, 1982a). Its historical area of occurrence is along the coast of the Atlantic Ocean, including areas in Angola, the Congo, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Gabon (FAO, 1982a; Ford and Katondo, 1977b). In his 1993 review, Moloo also included it in the species present in Cameroon (Moloo, 1993). In some areas, e.g. Bouenza in the Congo, the species has been reported to be progressively disappearing, and the latest report of G. schwetzi in the Congo would date back to 1971 (Gouteux et al., 1991). During our study period, few entomological surveys were conducted in the historical areas of occurrence of G. schwetzi. However, the few that were conducted in such zones in Angola (Gomes et al., 2009; Truc et al., 2011), the Democratic Republic of the Congo (Simo et al., 2012) and the Congo (Laveissière et al., 1998) (Artzrouni and Gouteux, 2003) failed to detect G. schwetzi and

Glossina severini

they only captured G. palpalis palpalis.

Little is also known about this species, which is believed to favour forest-edge vegetation rather than rainforest (FAO, 1982a). *G. severini* was historically reported from small areas around the mountains of the eastern Democratic Republic of Congo, near the borders with Uganda and Rwanda (FAO, 1982a; Ford and Katondo, 1977b). From these areas *G. fusca*, *G. nigrofusca*, *G. fuscipleuris*, *G. vanhoofi* and *G. tabaniformis* were also reported (Ford, 1963). However, during the period covered by this atlas, no survey in the historical area of occurrence of *G. severini* was published (Figure 3).

Glossina vanhoofi

Glossina vanhoofi is believed to favour dense forest (FAO, 1982a), and it was reported only from the Democratic Republic of the Congo. More specifically, the species is believed to occur in the northern and eastern parts of the country, from

the boundary with the Central African Republic to the Kivu area (FAO, 1982a; Leak *et al.*, 2008). Other authors report a more limited distribution in the eastern part of the Democratic Republic of the Congo (Ford and Katondo, 1977b; Rogers and Robinson, 2004). As is the case for *G. severini*, no entomological survey was conducted in the areas of occurrence of *G. vanhoofi* during the period covered by this continental atlas (see Figure 3).

Chapter 4 Discussion

MAJOR STRENGTHS OF THE ATLAS Currency

After more than 40 years, that is, after the publication of the Ford and Katondo maps by the Organization of African Unity Scientific and Technical Research Commission (Ford and Katondo, 1977b), the FAO continental atlas of tsetse flies is the first systematic attempt to map the distribution of Glossina species in Africa. By covering the 31-year period 1990-2020, the atlas represents a major update as compared to previous continental mapping endeavours, especially when considering that the Ford and Katondo maps, although published in 1977 and dated 1973, were based in many areas on much older records (Ford and Katondo, 1977a). In the light of the major land cover and land-use changes that have occurred in Africa over the past decades, and considering the sensitivity of many tsetse species to habitat modifications, a new appraisal of the reported occurrence of Glossina species was long overdue.

Sources

The high number of scientific publications that were used as sources for this publication (i.e. 669) represents another important feature of the atlas. To maximize this number, an inclusive approach was adopted, which also took into consideration peripheral journals that may not be indexed in the leading online databases of scholarly articles. These articles were identified either via more inclusive indexes, and most notably Google Scholar, or via the references cited in the other articles we reviewed. Peripheral journals are increasingly used by many researchers, including African ones, who may find it difficult to publish the results of their studies in higher-profile outlets. Although articles published in these journals may have been subject to a less stringent peer review, we judged that they still added value to the atlas by enabling us to tap into a broader source base. Furthermore, the link that exists in the atlas between sources and mapped data enables future verifications and reappraisals, should they be needed. The broad source base allowed entomological data on tsetse occurrence to be mapped in more than 6 800 distinct locations across Africa. Although the geographical distribution of these locations is uneven, it still allows a broadbrush delineation of the areas of occurrence of the main tsetse species, and especially of those of veterinary and medical importance.

The atlas as a geospatial database

Another major improvement of the atlas as compared to previous tsetse maps for Africa is that it benefits from the recent and very wide adoption of technologies such as the Global Positioning System (GPS), GIS and database management systems. Thanks to these technologies, today it is possible to develop an atlas that, rather than being just a collection of maps, is a database of georeferenced information lending itself to a variety of applications and analyses. The maps presented in this publication are only examples of the outputs that can be generated from the atlas, and each dot on the maps is linked to a string of information items recorded in the database. Crucially, each mapped location is linked to its source publication, thus allowing better informed interpretations and, if needed, future verifications. This is unlike previous continental tsetse maps, for which sources were provided (Ford and Katondo, 1977a), but in which the link between sources and specific details on the maps could not be readily established.

"Absence" points

An important feature of the atlas is that negative results, that is the absence of detection of tsetse flies in a survey, are included alongside positive results. A shorthand for these negative results can be absence points, although it is always worth stressing that the absence of detection in one or more surveys does not necessarily imply the absence of flies. The inclusion of these negative results in the database and in the maps allows better to distinguish (a) the areas where, despite sampling, a given tsetse species was not found, from (b) the areas where no investigation was carried out (or, more accurately, where no survey was published in scientific journals). Such a distinction can be very relevant in planning future surveys, which may or may not wish to target areas where no previous data are available. Negative results can also be used to estimate through statistical and mathematical methods the probability of a given species being absent or eliminated from an area (Barclay and Hargrove, 2005); this kind of information and analysis can be very relevant both in the context of the progressive control of AAT (Diall et al., 2017) and the elimination of HAT (FAO and WHO, 2022).

Mapping accuracy

Assessing spatial accuracy is an important aspect of any mapping exercise, as it defines up to what scale the data can be meaningfully used, either for purely cartographic purposes or for epidemiological studies. In our atlas, the mapping accuracy of each point was estimated and recorded. Specifically, we recorded the surface area of the survey whenever it was reported by the authors or possible to estimate in an exact manner. However, in most cases, this piece of information was not available in the source articles, nor was it possible for us to estimate it exactly; in these cases, we resorted to an approximate quantification of the surveyed area based on the narrative information available in the paper. Furthermore, in addition to estimating the surface study area, we had to estimate the approximate geographic coordinates of the central point of the study area, which is the point where the results of the surveys are mapped. These two levels of approximation (i.e. surface area and central point) are combined into a single estimation of the accuracy for each mapped location, according to predefined categories of accuracy (see "Geographical data" in Chapter 2).

Table 40 summarizes the accuracy of the locations mapped in the atlas by category of accuracy. We note that almost 90 percent of the locations correspond to areas of less than 100 km², which in turn roughly corresponds to a linear error or uncertainty of approximately 5 km. Overall, we estimate that the mean linear error is approximately 10 km for the whole tsetse database. We also note that only four locations correspond to areas of more than 100 000 km², which correspond to a linear error of approximately 300 km; we considered the mapping accuracy of these four locations as too low to be included in the maps presented in this publication, but we included them in the atlas database to support possible future data analyses. Table 41 provides the number of locations included in the atlas by category of mapping accuracy and by country.

TABLE 40 Number of locations included in the atlas by category of mapping accuracy

	Category of mapping accuracy	Mapped locations
Code	Definition	(No.)
1	≤ 10 km²	2 294
2	> 10 km ² and \leq 25 km ²	2 900
3	> 25 km ² and \leq 100 km ²	1 348
4	> 100 km ² and \leq 500 km ²	539
5	> 500 km^2 and \leq 1 000 km^2	92
6	> 1 000 km ² and \leq 5 000 km ²	145
7	> 5 000 km ² and \leq 10 000 km ²	33
8	> 10 000 km ² and \leq 50 000 km ²	26
9	> 50 000 km ² and \leq 100 000 km ²	5
10	> 100 000 km ²	4

	Mapped locations (No.)										
Country	Category of mapping accuracy (Code*)										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	тот
Angola	3	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	7
Benin	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Botswana	44	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	47
Burkina Faso	108	830	31	4	4	10	0	0	0	0	987
Cameroon	83	19	19	16	7	3	1	0	0	0	148
Central African Republic	26	5	30	7	2	12	2	1	0	1	86
Chad	4	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	7
Congo	7	4	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	14
Côte d'Ivoire	22	17	18	14	6	11	0	0	0	0	88
Democratic Republic of the Congo	60	10	7	2	0	4	0	0	0	0	83
Equatorial Guinea	12	1	1	2	3	1	1	0	0	0	21
Eswatini	18	0	37	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	55
Ethiopia	59	58	124	84	28	27	1	2	2	0	385
Gabon	17	8	0	2	0	6	4	0	0	1	38
Gambia	10	1	3	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	18
Ghana	139	2	61	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	207
Guinea	130	4	1	2	0	1	8	1	0	0	147
Kenya	150	25	661	39	7	7	5	2	0	1	897
Malawi	54	0	1	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	60
Mali	97	612	12	2	3	1	0	0	0	0	727
Mozambique	3	1	9	7	0	2	0	2	0	0	24
Namibia	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Niger	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2
Nigeria	49	20	20	17	7	15	0	2	3	0	133
Rwanda	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
Senegal	162	0	10	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	174
South Africa	187	26	11	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	229
South Sudan	23	6	0	1	0	0	1	3	0	0	34
Sudan	13	0	48	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	61
Тодо	2	1	114	283	0	0	0	0	0	0	400
Uganda	436	865	63	7	4	15	2	1	0	0	1 393
United Republic of Tanzania	187	113	51	23	6	8	5	12	0	1	406
Zambia	17	5	3	14	5	4	2	0	0	0	50
Zimbabwe	168	262	3	4	4	8	0	0	0	0	449
Total	2 294	2 900	1 348	539	92	145	33	26	5	4	7 386

TABLE 41 Number of locations included in the atlas by category of mapping accuracy and by country

*The definitions for the categories of mapping accuracy are given in Table 40.

MAJOR WEAKNESSES OF THE ATLAS

Notwithstanding the strengths previously outlined, the atlas is also affected by many limitations. A thorough appreciation of these weaknesses is crucial to interpret the maps correctly, to use the atlas properly and to guide future improvements.

Sources

By focusing only on papers published in scientific journals, we did not consider other types of publications that otherwise, based on the other criteria for inclusion, would have been eligible. First among these publications are the proceedings of conferences or meetings, but also other possible soft publications such as theses, dissertations and reports. The choice to focus on scientific articles was driven mainly by the need to keep the workload for data extraction within the limits of the available human and financial resources. However, issues of quality, reliability and accessibility were also taken into consideration, as all these attributes are normally considered higher in scientific journals than in other types of publications.

Furthermore, beyond publications lays the often vast amount of unpublished data that exist in many countries. These data can be the product of regular or ad hoc surveillance activities, or they may derive from research activities that did not result in a publication. Unpublished data were not considered for the development of the continental atlas, both for reasons of data ownership (i.e. there is no obligation for enzootic countries to transmit these data to FAO) and for the aforementioned workload challenges inherent in directly managing very large datasets.

Some of the limitations of the FAO continental atlas in terms of data sources could be addressed in future editions or updates of the atlas. For example, in relation to the possible inclusion of conference proceedings or other soft publications, it is believed that the proceedings of the general conferences of the International Scientific Council for Trypanosomiasis Research and Control could be a valuable source of information.

Limitations in the sources used by FAO for the continental atlas are also being addressed in separate but related initiatives at the country level. National atlases are being developed that have the ambition to include all data on animal trypanosomosis and tsetse collected in the respective countries. Some countries such as Sudan (Ahmed *et al.*, 2016), Mali (Diarra *et al.*, 2019) and most notably Burkina Faso (Percoma *et al.*, 2022) have already developed atlases that include both published and unpublished data. Conversely, other countries such as Kenya (Ngari *et al.*, 2020), Zimbabwe (Shereni *et al.*, 2021) and Ethiopia (Gebre *et al.*, 2022) have initially focused on the unpublished data collected for surveillance purposes by national veterinary authorities, and they have postponed the inclusion of published data to a second stage or a second edition of their atlases (Boulangé *et al.*, 2022).

Spatial gaps

Because of our choice to focus only on scientific publications, but also for a genuine lack of field data in several areas and countries, the continental atlas is affected by many geographical gaps. We discuss here the main ones, but readers can better appreciate all the existing gaps by examining the various continental and national maps in this publication.

Figure 44 shows the reported occurrence of tsetse flies from the continental atlas overlaid onto the predicted historical distribution of tsetse flies (Wint and Rogers, 2000). We observe that the main geographical gaps in the atlas are arguably those in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, a country that, despite its vast territory at the heart of the African tsetse belt, has been the target of relatively few published entomological investigations (20 papers). The dearth of information on the Democratic Republic of the Congo greatly limited our ability to generate more complete maps for a few species of the palpalis group (e.g. G. fuscipes and G. pallicera), as well as for several species of the fusca group. For example, both G. severini and G. vanhoofi were historically reported only in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, and no study was carried out over our study period in what was believed to be their area of occurrence.

Large geographical gaps can also be observed in some neighbouring countries of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, such as the Congo, South Sudan and Angola, but also in other countries such as Mozambique and Benin. To fill these gaps,



we should add the complete lack of published information in countries such as Liberia, Sierra Leone and Guinea-Bissau, which are known to be well within the area of tsetse infestation, and Burundi and Somalia, whose current levels of infestation are presently difficult to assess.

Temporal gaps

When appraising the atlas's outputs, its shortcomings in terms of temporal coverage should also be considered. This is because the 31-year study period 1990–2020, while long, is nonetheless limiting, especially when it comes to mapping very rare and poorly studied tsetse species. This was well understood by the authors of previous continental maps, who relied on records that were often many decades old to shed light on the most elusive and less known species (Ford and Katondo, 1977a). Also, the synoptic presentation in our maps of 31-years' worth of data should not mislead into believing that these maps represent the current situation; in fact, not only did we not yet include publications from 2021 onwards, but in some areas the most recent data may date back ten or 20, and indeed up to 30 years ago. Considering the profound ecological changes that have been observed on the African continent over this period, it should come as no surprise that the current tsetse distribution may be, in places, significantly different from the one depicted in these maps. Naturally, the atlas database



does allow generation of maps focusing on shorter or more recent periods; however, the resulting gain in the currency or temporal resolution of the outputs is partly offset by the more limited number of studies available; this is the main reason why, for the present publication, we chose to focus on synoptic maps for the entire study period.

For the sake of illustration, Figure 45 provides three temporal snapshots from the atlas: 1990– 2000, 2001–2010 and 2011–2020. We note that the differences between these three maps are much more closely linked to differences in the coverage of the surveys than to real changes in tsetse distribution.

It is also worth reiterating here that, for the sake of clarity, all maps in this publication display presence points on top of absence points, regardless of the timing of data collection. This presentation allows a better visualization of tsetse detections throughout the study period, but it hides in some areas the impact of tsetse elimination campaigns or the disappearance of the flies because of habitat modifications, the so-called "autonomous tsetse control" (Bourn *et al.*, 2001).

Possible inaccuracies in the data sources

By relying solely on peer-reviewed scientific publications, the accuracy of the sources of the atlas can generally be considered high. However, errors or inaccuracies can also affect scholarly papers, and in the process of developing the atlas, we did occasionally identify errors or inaccuracies in the scientific publications we used as sources. Whenever mistakes could be detected and unequivocally rectified, we imported the corrected data in the database. However, in a few instances, internal inconsistencies within a given paper could not be reconciled just by a careful analysis of the publication; in those instances, we contacted the authors for clarifications; when case feedback was lacking, we either made reasonable assumptions (in the most straightforward cases) or we did not import the data at all (in the most uncertain cases).

The issue of tsetse identification at the species and subspecies levels deserves a brief discussion, because misidentification is not impossible. In this regard, it is important to stress that, unless there was a clearly detectable error in the paper (e.g. an evident typing error), we imported in the atlas the tsetse species and subspecies as reported by the authors. With over 600 papers analysed, we cannot exclude the possibility that a few of them may have contained misidentifications of tsetse species or subspecies. However, we encountered very few doubtful identifications at the species level. In this context, "doubtful" mainly refers to the reported occurrence of a tsetse species outside its known historical distribution (i.e. an "outlier"), especially if at a considerable distance from the historical distribution. Indeed, we only found one such case: the reported occurrence of G. longipennis from an area in the United Republic of Tanzania, the Mahale Mountains National Park, which is more than 500 km from the known distribution of the species (Sasaki and Nishida, 1999). The record was still included in the database and the corresponding species map in Figure 38, but it was flagged as an "outlier".

We found a few more doubtful reports at the subspecies level. This can probably be ascribed to several factors. First, subspecies determination is inherently more challenging, because morphological differences between subspecies are often small and are not routinely investigated; also, molecular techniques are not yet well established or widely adopted, and they may provide results that are inconclusive or difficult to interpret (Mayoke et al., 2020a). Second, historical knowledge of the distributional limits of tsetse subspecies is less accurate than the species level, which creates more uncertainties when using the geographical location of surveys to infer or to support the identification of subspecies. Third, authors reporting the detection of tsetse subspecies rarely provide details of how they determined the subspecies; in many cases, even though authors may not be explicit on the point, we can assume that no morphological or molecular investigation at the subspecies level was carried out, and that the subspecies was merely inferred by matching the geographical location of the samples with historical maps. As already mentioned, in this atlas, we recorded species and subspecies as reported by the authors; however, when a subspecies was reported outside its historical distribution, we flagged it as an "outlier" that may need to be verified or corroborated. Furthermore, to develop more complete maps at the subspecies level, when authors reported their findings at the species level and when the corresponding subspecies are known to be well demarcated geographically, we inferred the subspecies from the geographical location, while marking the corresponding circles on the maps with a different colour (grey) to flag this assumption. In future, it would be helpful if authors of scientific publications could be more explicit in describing how they determined the tsetse subspecies.

LINKAGES BETWEEN THE CONTINENTAL ATLAS AND NATIONAL ATLASES

The continental atlas and national atlases can be regarded as two prongs of a single, coordinated initiative aimed at improving the management of field data on tsetse and AAT for improved, evidence-based decision-making. Following up on the "Background" section, we summarize here the main linkages between the two components.

The first link between the continental atlas developed by FAO and the national atlases developed at the country level by the mandated veterinary authorities is methodological. Indeed, one of the main drivers for FAO to develop the continental atlas was to provide countries with a blueprint to develop their own national atlases or information systems. We believe that this objective was broadly achieved, as the general approach of building a data repository, processing the information and then centralizing the harmonized data in a single database has already been adopted by more than 15 countries, with more to follow.

Second, there is some overlap between continental and national atlases in terms of data sources, in that publications provide input for both. However, scientific papers are the only source for the FAO atlas, and data extraction is limited to information that is explicitly reported in the papers, and which is therefore in the public domain. By contrast, for national atlases, scientific papers are only one of many sources of data, alongside other types of publications and, crucially, unpublished data. Furthermore, when incorporating data from publications, countries can go beyond what FAO does, as they can collate and integrate the detailed, unpublished raw information that lies behind the papers.

Third, once a national atlas is published, the information and data made available in the corresponding paper can also be incorporated into the continental atlas. For the present publication on tsetse distribution in Africa, this was the case for the atlases of Sudan (Ahmed *et al.*, 2016), Mali (Diarra *et al.*, 2019) and Kenya (Ngari *et al.*, 2020), while the atlases of Zimbabwe (Shereni *et al.*, 2021), Burkina Faso (Percoma *et al.*, 2022) and Ethiopia (Gebre *et al.*, 2022) were left out because they were published after 2020. It bears



repeating that the inclusion of national atlases into the continental atlas is limited to the information that is released by countries in the public domain through the corresponding papers, and not the raw data behind these publications. In this sense, FAO treats publications on national atlases just like any other scientific publication providing eligible information for the continental atlas. Figure 46 provides an example of how data extracted from a published national atlas, specifically the one for Kenya (Ngari *et al.*, 2020), were incorporated in the continental atlas.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that in terms of data, the linkage between continental and national atlases also goes in the opposite direction (i.e. from continental to national). This is because when national authorities are in the process of developing a national atlas, FAO provides them with the component of the continental atlas for their respective country. This avoids duplication of effort in terms of identification of, and access to, relevant scientific publications. Furthermore, in case that the raw data from a given publication cannot be retrieved by the national authority, the data extracted by FAO from the paper can be used instead, thus further reducing duplication of effort. The sharing of the national component of the continental atlas has the added benefit of enhancing country understanding of the FAO database structure, which can be used as a template or starting point for designing the national database.

THE CONTINENTAL ATLAS OF TSETSE FLIES AND HUMAN AFRICAN TRYPANOSOMIASIS

Tsetse flies transmit both the animal and human form of African trypanosomosis, and therefore the continental tsetse atlas, while developed in connection with the animal disease, is also relevant for ongoing efforts aimed at HAT elimination. This is more directly the case for the zoonotic rhodesiense form of HAT, but also for the mainly anthroponotic gambiense form (FAO and WHO, 2022).



Figure 47 shows the reported occurrence of tsetse flies as per the continental atlas (1990–2020) overlaid onto the density of reported cases of HAT in 2016–2020 (Franco *et al.*, 2022a). Figure 47 illustrates how, unlike AAT, HAT is not ubiquitous across the tsetse belt, only occurring in rather well-defined areas of endemicity, often referred to as "foci" (Simarro *et al.*, 2010).

Having discussed in a previous section the main geographical gaps of the atlas in relation to the overall historical distribution of tsetse, we can appreciate here where these gaps affect HAT endemic areas. We note that very few HAT endemic areas in the Democratic Republic of the Congo are covered by published tsetse surveys; the other main gaps are arguably in Angola and South Sudan. These observations point to countries and areas where further tsetse surveys would be relevant in a broader One Health framework.

Chapter 5 Conclusions

The present publication is an important step towards filling the gaps in our knowledge of the geographic distribution of tsetse flies in Africa. However, because of its limitations, further efforts will be needed to update and enhance the atlas. As a matter of priority, a regular update of the atlas is needed. In particular, data published in the scientific literature from 2021 onwards need to be included. Furthermore, the possibility of expanding the sources of the atlas to other types of publications could be explored. By contrast, for technical reasons, as well as for issues of data ownership, the centralization at the continental level of all the raw data collected at the country level is difficult to envisage at this stage.

In addition to future updates and enhancements of the continental atlas, there is also a need to promote the utilization of its outputs to enhance trypanosomosis control in the enzootic countries. To this end, several applications of the continental atlas can be envisaged. For example, countries that have not yet developed a national atlas could temporarily fill the gap with the corresponding national component of the continental atlas, as it was already the case in Nigeria (de Gier et al., 2020). However, in the long run the continental atlas cannot be considered as a substitute for a functioning information system at the national level (i.e. a "national atlas"), whose development is considered as a top priority and key requirement to advance along the PCP for AAT.

Furthermore, given the geographical gaps in the tsetse maps presented in this paper, it would be useful to apply geospatial modelling techniques to extrapolate the results of the atlas to areas where no published survey is available. To do this, an increasing number of tools and approaches for modelling the ecological niche or the distribution of species are now available (e.g. maximum entropy [Phillips, Anderson and Schapire, 2006], random forests [Breiman, 2001] and others). Many of these techniques have already been tested on tsetse field data from the local (Dicko *et al.*, 2014; Gachoki *et al.*, 2021) to the transnational level (Bishop *et al.*, 2021; Bouyer *et al.*, 2015; de Beer *et al.*, 2021). However, these methods are yet to be applied to a large-scale and heterogeneous dataset like the one underpinning the continental atlas of tsetse flies.

Another envisaged application of the present distribution maps, ideally in combination with modelled maps, is the optimization of the spatial targeting of new entomological surveys to fill the main geographical gaps.

Finally, within the continental atlas initiative but beyond tsetse geographical distribution, there is a need to publish and disseminate the results of the other components of the atlas. These are the data on trypanosomal infection rates in tsetse, and the atlases of AAT and surra.

Inquiries related to this publication, and the FAO continental atlas of tsetse flies and animal trypanosomosis in Africa more generally, can be sent to <u>PAAT@fao.org</u>. High-resolution versions of all maps included in this publication can be accessed from the PAAT website (<u>www.fao.org/paat</u>), while the underlying georeferenced data can also be accessed from the FAO Agro-informatics Platform (https://data.apps.fao.org).

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Annexes

Annex 1

Scientific papers used as sources to develop the atlas

- 1 Byamungu, M. et al. Standardising visual control devices for Tsetse: East and Central African Savannah species Glossina swynnertoni, G. morsitans centralis and G. pallidipes. PLOS Neglected Tropical Diseases 12 (2018). https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0006831
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Journals and publishers of the scientific papers used as sources to develop the atlas

Table 42 shows the number of papers used for the atlas by journal, while Table 43 provides the summary by publisher.

TABLE 42

Scientific publications used as sources for the atlas of tsetse flies by journal (period 1990-2020)

Journal	Papers (No.)
PLOS Neglected Tropical Diseases	59
Parasites & Vectors	45
Medical and Veterinary Entomology	38
Bulletin of Entomological Research	36
Acta Tropica	32
Revue d'élevage et de médecine vétérinaire des pays tropicaux	24
Onderstepoort Journal of Veterinary Research	22
Infection, Genetics and Evolution	20
Veterinary Parasitology	18
Parasite	15
Tropical Animal Health and Production	13
Journal of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Health	11
Parasitology	11
Bulletin of Animal Health and Production in Africa	10
BMC Microbiology	9
Journal of Medical Entomology	8
International Journal of Tropical Insect Science	7
Ethiopian Veterinary Journal	7
Livestock Research for Rural Development	6
Others*	278
Total	669

*Journals with fewer than six papers.

TABLE 43

Scientific publications used as sources for the atlas of tsetse flies by publisher (period 1990-2020)

Publisher	Papers (No.)
Elsevier	94
BioMed Central	64
PLOS	60
Cambridge University Press	55
CIRAD	24
Blackwell Science Ltd	21
Royal Entomological Society	18
Academic Journals	18
Springer	17
IDOSI	14
Onderstepoort Veterinary Research Institute	13
PRINCEPS Editions	10
Interafrican Bureau for Animal Resources	10
AOSIS	9
Ethiopian Veterinary Association	8
Blackwell Publishing Ltd	7
Kluwer Academic Publishers	7
Springer Nature	7
CIPAV	6
Entomological Society of America	6
Others*	201
Total	669

*Publishers with fewer than six papers.

Annex 3 Structure of the atlas database

SOURCES

- 1. SOURCE_ID: unique numeric identifier of the source paper (primary key).
- 2. FIRST_AUTHOR: surname of the first author.
- 3. INITIALS: initials of the first author.
- 4. AUTHORS: full list of authors.
- 5. TITLE: title of the paper.
- 6. YEAR: year of publication of the paper.
- 7. JOURNAL: name of the journal that published the paper.
- 8. PUBLISHER: name of the journal's publisher.
- 9. LANGUAGE: language of the paper.
- 10. FILE_NAME: standardized name of the PDF file (e.g. Adam_et_al_2012.pdf).
- EXTERNAL_LINK: uniform resource locator (URL) for the paper, if available. If the Document Object Identifier (DOI) is available for the paper, it is used to generate a permanent URL (e.g. <u>http://dx.doi.</u> <u>org/10.1016/j.rvsc.2011.04.004</u>).
- 12. ACCESS_DATE: date when the paper was obtained/downloaded/provided.
- ACCESS_TYPE: way in which FAO accessed the paper (e.g. "Open", "FAO subscription", "Inter-library loan", "Provided by Author", etc.)
- 14. AT_DATA: "Yes" identifies papers that provided data on animal trypanosomosis distribution.
- TSETSE_DISTRIBUTION_DATA: "Yes" identifies papers that provided data on tsetse distribution.
- 16. TSETSE_INFECTION_DATA:"Yes" identifies papers that provided data on trypanosomal infection in tsetse flies.
- 17. COUNTRY: country (or countries) for which the paper provided data.
- NOTES: note or comments on the paper that are relevant for the atlas' development.

GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

- 1. LOCATION_ID: unique numeric identifier of the study site (primary key).
- SOURCE_ID: numeric identifier of the source paper that provided the site (foreign key for the table "Sources").
- 3. COUNTRY: country where the site is located.
- LOCATION_NAME: name of the site where the study was conducted. As a rule, the name as reported in the paper is recorded. Alternative spellings may be recorded in the field "LOCATION_ NOTES" (see number 11).
- 5. ADMIN1: name of the first subnational administrative unit where the site is located (as reported in the paper).
- 6. ADMIN2: name of the second subnational administrative unit where the site is located (as reported in the paper).
- 7. ADMIN3: name of the third subnational administrative unit where the site is located (as reported in the paper).
- 8. LAT: latitude of the study site in decimal degrees (datum: WGS84).
- 9. LONG: longitude of the study site in decimal degrees (datum: WGS84).
- GEO_SOURCE: source of geographical coordinates or methodology of geopositioning. The source can be the paper itself or one of the many available gazetteers. The methodology may be an estimation of the geographical coordinates in a GIS using information or maps provided in the paper.
- LOCATION_NOTES: includes additional information or details on any decision made in the process of georeferencing. This should help users understand the process.
- 12. AREA: surface of the surveyed area (km²).

- 13. AREA_TYPE_TSETSE: Categorized surface of the area that was surveyed for tsetse distribution (km²). This was based on the field "AREA", if available, or estimated in GIS using narrative information contained in the paper. Ten categories are contemplated:
 - $\leq 10 \text{ km}^2$
 - >10 km² and \leq 25 km²
 - >25 km² and \leq 100 km²
 - >100 km² and \leq 500 km²
 - >500 km² and ≤ 1 000 km²
 - > 1 000 km² and \leq 5 000 km²
 - > 5 000 km² and \leq 10 000 km²
 - > 10 000 km² and \leq 50 000 km²
 - > 50 000 km² and \leq 100 000 km²
 - > 100 000 km²

TSETSE DISTRIBUTION

- 1. TSETSE_ID: unique numeric identifier of each record in the table. If more than one tsetse species/subspecies is detected in a survey, each tsetse species/subspecies in that survey will be assigned a different TSETSE_ID.
- SURVEY_ID: numeric identifier of the survey.
- LOCATION_ID: numeric identifier of the site where the survey was carried out (extracted from the corresponding field in the table "Geo_data").
- SOURCE_ID: numeric identifier of the source containing the data recorded for the present survey (extracted from the corresponding field in the table "Sources").
- 5. MONTH_ST: starting month of the survey.
- 6. YEAR_ST: starting year of the survey.
- MONTH_EN: ending month of the survey.
- 8. YEAR_EN: ending year of the survey.
- 9. TRAP_TYPE: type of trap.
- 10. TRAP_ATTR: odour attractant used in the traps.
- 11. TRAP_NUMBER: number of traps deployed in the surveyed site.

- 12. TRAP_TIME: duration of trapping (in days).
- 13. TRAP_NOTES: details on the strategy of trap deployment (e.g. in which habitats were traps deployed? At what hours of the day were the traps operated?)
- 14. SPECIES: name of the species of tsetse.
- 15. SUBSPECIES: name of the subspecies of tsetse.
- 16. ASSUMED_SUBSPECIES: "Yes" identifies records for which the subspecies was not indicated in the paper and was inferred from the geographical location and historical distribution maps.
- 17. OUTLIER: "Yes" identifies records for which the species or subspecies was reported outside its historical distribution.
- FLIES_PRESENCE_ABSENCE: "Yes" identifies records for which the species or subspecies was detected. "No" identifies the records for which it was not.
- 19. FLIES_NUMBER: number of flies caught.
- 20. FLIES_APPARENT_DENSITY: number of flies/trap/day.
- 21. OTHER_SPECIES: presence of information on other species/subspecies in the same survey. "Yes" indicated that other species/subspecies were detected in the same survey. "No" indicated that no other species/subspecies was detected in the survey. "No data" means the source does not indicate whether other species were detected in the same survey. This field enables extraction of absence data at the species/subspecies level from the database.
- 22. TSETSE_INTERVENTIONS: reports what interventions against tsetse were ongoing in the study area at the time of the survey, or in the recent past prior to the survey.
- 23. LONGITUDINAL: describes whether data were extracted from a longitudinal study.
- 24. NOTES: includes all important additional information as reported in the source paper.

Annex 4 Tsetse distribution maps at the country level

ANGOLA	132–133	KENYA	166–167
BENIN	134–135	MALAWI	168–169
BOTSWANA	136–137	MALI	170–171
BURKINA FASO	138–139	MOZAMBIQUE	
CAMEROON	140–141	NAMIBIA	174–175
CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC	142–143	NIGER	176–177
CHAD	144–145	NIGERIA	178–179
CONGO	146–147	RWANDA	
CÔTE D'IVOIRE	148–149	SENEGAL	
DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO.	150–151	SOUTH AFRICA	
EQUATORIAL GUINEA	152–153	SOUTH SUDAN	
ESWATINI	154–155	SUDAN	
ethiopia	156–157	TOGO	
GABON	158–159	UGANDA	
GAMBIA	160–161	UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA	
GHANA	162–163	ZAMBIA	
GUINEA	164–165	ZIMBABWE	198-199

ANGOLA



ANGOLA



BENIN



BENIN



BOTSWANA



BOTSWANA



BURKINA FASO



BURKINA FASO



CAMEROON



CAMEROON



CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC



CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC



CHAD



Note: The final boundary between the Republic of South Sudan and the Republic of the Sudan has not yet been determined.

CHAD



CONGO



CONGO



CÔTE D'IVOIRE



CÔTE D'IVOIRE



DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO



DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO



EQUATORIAL GUINEA



EQUATORIAL GUINEA



ESWATINI



ESWATINI



ETHIOPIA



ETHIOPIA



GABON


GABON



GAMBIA



GAMBIA



GHANA



GHANA



GUINEA



GUINEA



KENYA



KENYA



MALAWI



MALAWI



MALI



MALI



MOZAMBIQUE



MOZAMBIQUE



NAMIBIA



NAMIBIA



NIGER



NIGER



NIGERIA



NIGERIA



RWANDA



RWANDA



SENEGAL



SENEGAL



SOUTH AFRICA



SOUTH AFRICA



SOUTH SUDAN



SOUTH SUDAN



SUDAN



Note: The final boundary between the Republic of South Sudan and the Republic of the Sudan has not yet been determined. The final status of the Abyei area is not yet determined.

SUDAN



TOGO



TOGO



UGANDA



UGANDA



UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA


UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA



ZAMBIA



ZAMBIA



ZIMBABWE



ZIMBABWE



Tsetse flies (genus *Glossina*) occur in sub-Saharan Africa, where they transmit trypanosomosis, a group of parasitic diseases that affect both animals and humans. Tsetse and trypanosomosis are a constant drain on the resources of poor African livestock keepers and they also impose a public health burden.

Comprehensive data on the geographic distribution of tsetse flies is crucial to design evidence-based and cost-effective strategies against animal trypanosomoses, and it is also important in eliminating the human form of the disease. Despite this, the latest maps of tsetse distribution in Africa were published several decades ago.

The present publication provides an update on the geographical distribution of tsetse flies in Africa. A total of 669 scientific publications spanning a period of 31 years (1990-2020) provided the input data, and almost 7 400 distinct geographical locations were mapped. Tsetse flies were recorded from a maximum latitude of 15° north in Senegal to a minimum of 28.5° south in South Africa. Data coverage is uneven, and no eligible publication was found for Burundi, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Sierra Leone or Somalia. A dearth of information also affects a few other countries, such as Angola, the Congo, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and South Sudan. At the level of tsetse species, relatively abundant data were identified for the species of major veterinary and public health importance, especially of the riverine (palpalis) and savannah (morsitans) groups. By contrast, limited information is available on many species of the forest (fusca) group.

The continental atlas of tsetse flies, in combination with the upcoming component on animal trypanosomosis, can be used by policymakers, practitioners and scientists engaged in the control and elimination of tsetse flies and trypanosomosis in Africa. It also provides a blueprint for national authorities to develop country-level information systems (i.e. "national atlases") to assist planning and monitoring of control activities at the national and local levels.

