

1 **Chilling, irradiation and transport of male *Glossina palpalis gambiensis***  
2 **pupae: effect on the emergence, flight ability and survival.**

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## 36 **Abstract**

## 37 **Background**

38 The sterile insect technique (SIT) requires mass-rearing of the target species, irradiation to  
39 induce sexual sterility and transportation from the mass-rearing facility to the target site. Those  
40 treatments require several steps that may affect the biological quality of sterile males. This study  
41 has been carried out to evaluate the relative impact of the chilling, irradiation and transport on  
42 emergence rate, flight ability and survival of sterile male tsetse flies *Glossina palpalis*  
43 *gambiensis*.

## 44 **Results**

45 Chilling, irradiation and transport all affected the quality control parameters studied. The  
46 emergence rate was significantly reduced by long chilling periods and transport, i.e. from 92%  
47 at the source insectary to 78% upon arrival in Dakar. Flight ability was affected by all three  
48 parameters with 31% operational flies lost between the source and arrival insectaries. Only  
49 survival under stress was not affected by any of the treatments.

## 50 **Conclusion**

51 The chilling period and transport were the main treatments which impacted significantly the  
52 quality of sterile male pupae. Therefore, the delivery of sterile males was divided over two  
53 shipments per week in order to reduce the chilling time and improve the quality of the sterile  
54 males. Quality of the male pupae may further be improved by reducing the transport time and  
55 vibration during transport.

56 **Key words:** Tsetse flies, mass-rearing conditions, sterile insect technique, quality

## 57 **Author summary**

58 Tsetse fly and the disease it transmits, trypanosomiasis, remain an enormous challenge in several  
59 countries in sub-Saharan Africa. The use of the Sterile Insect Technique (SIT) has become one

60 of the components of the eradication of tsetse fly in Africa. The sterile insect technique (SIT)  
61 requires mass-rearing of the target species, irradiation to induce sexual sterility and  
62 transportation from the mass-rearing facility to the target site. In this study, we demonstrate the  
63 relative impact of the chilling, irradiation and transport on the emergence rate, the flight ability  
64 and the survival of sterile male tsetse flies *Glossina palpalis gambiensis*. We found that the  
65 chilling, irradiation and transport affected the emergence rate and flight ability. But the survival  
66 of the sterile male under stress was not affected by any of the treatments. Hence, the quality of  
67 the male pupae may further be improved by reducing the transport time and vibration during  
68 transport.

## 69 **Introduction**

70 Tsetse flies (Diptera: Glossinidae) are the cyclical vectors of trypanosomes in sub-Saharan  
71 Africa, the causative agents of African animal trypanosomosis (AAT) or nagana for animals  
72 and human African trypanosomosis (HAT) or sleeping sickness in humans [1]. In the  
73 agricultural sector, the presence of tsetse flies limits the exploitation of fertile land in the more  
74 than 10 million km<sup>2</sup> infested area and about 50 million cattle and tens of millions of small  
75 ruminants are permanently at risk of becoming infected by AAT [2]. This situation leads to high  
76 economic losses in the livestock sector estimated at USD 600–1200 million [3] and the overall  
77 annual losses in livestock and crop production are estimated at USD 4750 million [4].  
78 Therefore, tsetse and trypanosomosis constitute a major constraint to livestock production and  
79 the main factor preventing the establishment of sustainable agricultural systems in much of sub-  
80 Saharan Africa. The lack of vaccines and high costs of disease treatment associated with the  
81 development of resistance by the parasites [5] make vector management a more reliable option  
82 for the control of the disease [6].

83 Currently, vector control can be achieved through several techniques, such as the sequential  
84 aerosol technique (SAT) and the ground spraying of insecticides, insecticide-treated targets or  
85 insecticide-treated animals as live baits, the use of traps and the sterile insect technique (SIT)  
86 [7]. The principle of the SIT is to reduce the reproduction rate in a wild population by area-  
87 wide inundative releases of sterile male insects of the same species. The SIT has been used with  
88 success to suppress or eradicate several insect species of economic and sanitary importance [8].  
89 For tsetse flies, the SIT has been used to eliminate populations of *Glossina palpalis gambiensis*  
90 Vanderplank *Glossina morsitans submorsitans* Newstead and *Glossina tachinoides* Westwood  
91 from 3000 km<sup>2</sup> in Burkina Faso [9], and *Glossina palpalis palpalis* (Robineau-Desvoidy) from  
92 1500 km<sup>2</sup> in Nigeria [10]. Although these projects succeeded in eradicating the target  
93 populations, they were not conducted in the context of an area-wide integrated pest management

94 (AW-IPM) approach and the cleared areas were thus re-invaded after the programs ended. The  
95 technology was, however, successfully applied within an AW-IPM approach to create a  
96 sustainable zone free of *Glossina austeni* Newstead (Diptera: Glossinidae) on Unguja Island of  
97 Zanzibar, United Republic of Tanzania in 1994-1997 [11]. This project confirmed the feasibility  
98 of integrating releases of sterile males with other suppression methods to create sustainable  
99 tsetse-free areas.

100 The Government of Senegal initiated a program in 2005 called “Projet d’éradication des  
101 mouches tsé-tsé dans les Niayes” [12] to eradicate *G. palpalis gambiensis* from a 1000 km<sup>2</sup>  
102 area of the Niayes region neighbouring the capital, Dakar. The data generated by the feasibility  
103 study indicated the potential to create a sustainable zone free of *G. p. gambiensis* in the Niayes  
104 [12,13] and, therefore, the Government of Senegal opted for an AW-IPM approach including  
105 an SIT component. Since 2013, the sterile flies for the eradication campaign in Senegal have  
106 been provided by the Centre International de Recherche-Développement sur l’Elevage en zone  
107 Subhumide (CIRDES) in Bobo-Dioulasso, Burkina Faso, the Slovak Academy of Sciences  
108 (SAS) in Bratislava, Slovakia, and supplemented by the FAO/IAEA Insect Pest Control  
109 Laboratory (IPCL), Seibersdorf, Austria . In addition, since 2017, the Insectary of Bobo  
110 Dioulasso (IBD) in Burkina Faso has also provided sterile male pupae to the programme.

111 The supply of sterile flies required several important activities in the source insectary such as  
112 chilling and handling of the insect and their transport thereafter, that may have affected the  
113 quality of sterile males upon delivery at the Institut Sénégalais de Recherches Agricoles (ISRA)  
114 insectary, in Dakar.

115 Preliminary observations already showed that the flight ability of sterile male *G. p. gambiensis*  
116 sent to the ISRA insectary was low compared to flies emerged at CIRDES and SAS insectaries  
117 [14], and this was related to the chilling and irradiation treatments and the transport of the sterile  
118 pupae before they reached the ISRA insectary. This is of prime importance as the quality of the

119 released sterile males remains one of the most crucial prerequisites for the success of AW-IPM  
120 programs that have an SIT component.

121 Based on the quality protocol described in Seck et al. [14], three biological parameters were  
122 measured to assess the impact of chilling, irradiation and transport on the quality of sterile males  
123 sent to Dakar for the eradication project in the Niayes area: i) adult emergence, ii) flight ability,  
124 and iii) survival of the flyers under starvation.

125

## 126 **Materials and Methods**

### 127 **Insectaries**

128 The study was carried out in three different insectaries between January 2015 and June 2016.  
129 Two were mass-rearing insectaries: the CIRDES insectary in Bobo-Dioulasso, Burkina Faso  
130 and the Slovak Academy of Sciences (SAS) insectary in Bratislava, Slovakia. The third one  
131 was the ISRA emergence insectary in Dakar, Senegal. The pupae and flies in these insectaries  
132 were kept under the same environmental conditions: 24–25°C, 75 ± 5% rH and 12:12 light/dark  
133 photoperiod.

134

### 135 **Biological material**

136 Male pupae of the *G. p. gambiensis* BKF strain from the CIRDES and SAS colonies were used  
137 in this study. This tsetse colony has been maintained at the CIRDES insectary for more than 40  
138 years and were offered blood meals using an *in vitro* silicon membrane feeding system using  
139 irradiated cow blood, collected from the local abattoir [15]. The colony was established in 1972  
140 at MaisonAlfort (France) with pupae collected from Guinguette (Bobo-Dioulasso) and in 1975,  
141 the colony was transferred to the Centre de Recherche sur la Trypanosomiase Animale (CRTA)  
142 (later renamed CIRDES).

143 In 2009, 8000 pupae of this colony were shipped to the IPCL of the Joint FAO/IAEA  
144 Programme of Nuclear Techniques in Food and Agriculture to establish a colony for research  
145 purposes to support the eradication programme in the Niayes [16,17]. The IPCL colony  
146 provided seed material to the SAS where a colony was likewise established to supply additional  
147 pupae to the Senegal project.

148

### 149 **Chilling and irradiation**

150 At the CIRDES and SAS insectaries, pupae were collected daily at the completion of female  
151 emergence and immediately chilled at 4°C to prevent male emergence and irradiated under  
152 chilled conditions (4–6°C) [18]. The CIRDES pupae were irradiated in a <sup>137</sup>Cs source for 24  
153 minutes and 30 seconds to yield a dose of 110 Gy. The SAS pupae were shipped chilled to the  
154 IPCL where they were irradiated in a <sup>60</sup>Co irradiator (Gammacell 220, Nordion Ltd, Ottawa,  
155 Canada; dose rate of 131.4 Gy.min<sup>-1</sup>), or in a 150 kV X-ray irradiator (Rad Source RS2400;  
156 dose rate of 14.3 Gy.min<sup>-1</sup>).

157

### 158 **Packaging and transport of sterile pupae**

159 After irradiation, pupae were packed and transported to Dakar as described in Pagabeleguem et  
160 al. and Seck et al. [14,18]. Briefly, irradiated pupae were placed in Petri dishes and packed in  
161 insulated boxes containing phase change material packs (S8, PCM Products Limited,  
162 Cambridgeshire, U. K.) to maintain the temperature between 10 ± 2°C. The box size and the  
163 number of S8 packs used were adjusted to the number of pupae shipped [18]. Pupae from  
164 CIRDES were then shipped with a courier service (DHL®) using public bus transport from  
165 Bobo-Dioulasso to Ouagadougou and commercial aircraft between Ouagadougou and Dakar.  
166 The average transport and chilling time for pupae from CIRDES was between 72 and 84 hours,



167 that could be divided into 24 to 48 hours chilled at  $8 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  in the source insectary and  $\pm 36$   
168 hours at  $10 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  during the transport to Dakar.

169

## 170 **Effect of chilling, irradiation and transport on male pupae performance** 171 **parameters**

172 The objective of the quality control is to evaluate the quality of sterile males, measured by the  
173 percentage of operational flies corresponding to the percentage of flies escaping the flight  
174 device [14]. Here, these quality control parameters were used to measure the impact of various  
175 treatments (chilling, irradiation, transport) on the emergence rate and rate of operational flies.  
176 According to the successive steps set up to prepare and ship pupae, five treatments were defined  
177 for the CIRDES pupae:

178 - A0 (CIRDES\_A0) = 1 sample of 50 pupae (the control group): no chilling and no irradiation  
179 (equivalent to the conditions of the colony);

180 - A1 (CIRDES\_A1) = 1 sample of 50 pupae: chilling ( $8 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ ) of the A0 pupae for 24 to 72  
181 hours (no irradiation);

182 - A2 (CIRDES\_A2) = 1 sample of 50 pupae: irradiation of A1 pupae;

183 - A3 (CIRDES\_A3) = 1 sample of 50 pupae: second chilling ( $8 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ ) of A2 pupae for 48  
184 hours.

185 A temperature and humidity Hobo® data logger (Hobo® model EL-USB-2) was placed in the  
186 chiller to record the temperature and relative humidity;

187 -A4 (CIRDES\_A4) = a final group of 50 pupae was tested at ISRA after transport. These pupae  
188 accumulated all the treatments of A3 and the transport (by road and air) in an insulated box to  
189 maintain the temperature between  $10 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ . A temperature and humidity Hobo® data logger  
190 (Hobo® model EL-USB-2) was added to the shipping box during the packing at CIRDES to  
191 record the temperature and relative humidity inside the insulated box every 5 minutes.

192 For the SAS pupae, the quality control tests were only performed for the A1 treatment  
193 (SAS\_A1).

194 For each treatment, a standard quality control protocol was applied. Briefly, the 50 pupae were  
195 put in Petri dishes under ~1cm of sand mixed with a fluorescent dye (DayGlo) (0.5g dye/200g  
196 of sand), to mimic the natural emergence conditions in the soil and to allow discrimination of  
197 the sterile male flies from wild flies during an entomological monitoring in AW-IPM  
198 programmes that have an SIT component. The Petri dish was then put in a flight cylinder, i.e.  
199 PVC tube 10 cm high and 8.4 cm in diameter [14]. The inner wall of the cylinder was coated  
200 with unscented talcum powder to prevent the flies from crawling out. Flies flying out of the  
201 tube were considered as “operational flies” (i.e. available for SIT).

202 The survival of the sterile males that escaped the flight cylinder was assessed under stress  
203 conditions (no blood meal). Every morning, the emerged flies were collected and transferred to  
204 standard fly holding cages. The flies emerged on a given day were pooled in one cage. Dead  
205 flies were counted daily and removed from the cages.

206 This quality control protocol was implemented between January 2015 and June 2016 with  
207 samples of pupae collected from each batch sent to Dakar for the eradication program (twice  
208 per week from CIRDES and once per week from SAS).

## 209 **Data analysis**

210 Data analysis was performed using the R software version 3.5.1 [19]. Data were analysed using  
211 binomial linear mixed effects models using the package lme4 [20], with the emergence rate or  
212 rate of flyers as the response variables, the batch origin (CIRDES or SAS) and treatment type  
213 (A0 to A4) as fixed effects and the date of arrival at ISRA as a random effect [21,22]. A  
214 Gaussian linear mixed effect model was used to analyse the mean survival under starvation,  
215 with the same fixed and random effects as in the previous models.

216

## 217 **Results**

### 218 **Emergence rate**

219 The mean emergence rate observed for the five treatments ranged between 92% for A0 and  
220 78% for A4 with an overall mean at 83% (Table 1, Figure 1). The model results showed that at  
221 the CIRDES, the first and second chilling rounds (A1 and A3) had a significant negative effect  
222 on the emergence rate ( $P < 0.001$ ) whereas irradiation (A2) did not significantly reduce it further  
223 ( $P > 0.05$ ; Table 2). The rate of emergence was also superior for A1 at CIRDES than SAS ( $P <$   
224  $0.001$ ), although the mean values were very close (Table 1). The transport also significantly  
225 reduced the rate of emergence ( $P < 0.001$ ; the reference level was set to CIRDES\_A3 to  
226 calculate this probability).

227 **Table 1.** Average percentages of emergence and operational flies depending on the treatment  
228 (A0 to A4) and the site where the test was performed. Batches correspond to the number of  
229 subsamples of 50 pupae collected from each consignment sent to Dakar.

Site test	Treatment	Nb batches	Mean emergence rate ( $\pm$ SD)	Mean operational rate ( $\pm$ SD)
CIRDES	A0	116	92 $\pm$ 8	82 $\pm$ 13
CIRDES	A1	110	87 $\pm$ 13	64 $\pm$ 20
CIRDES	A2	113	85 $\pm$ 13	45 $\pm$ 21
CIRDES	A3	114	82 $\pm$ 17	52 $\pm$ 21
ISRA	A4	468	78 $\pm$ 15	51 $\pm$ 21
SAS	A1	146	86 $\pm$ 8	82 $\pm$ 9
TOTAL		1067	83 $\pm$ 14	60 $\pm$ 23

230 NB= number; SD= Standard Deviation

231 **Table 2.** Summary of the binomial linear mixed effects models for emergence rate. The

Fixed effects	Estimate	Std. Error	Z value	P value
Intercept	2.249	0.063	35.76	<0.001
CIRDES A0	0.585	0.065	9.06	<0.001
CIRDES A2	-0.104	0.056	-1.86	0.0635
CIRDES A3	-0.393	0.054	-7.24	<0.001
ISRA A4	-0.887	0.045	-19.51	<0.001
SAS A1	-0.43	0.059	-7.24	<0.001

232

233 **Figure 1.** Percentage of emergence according to the treatment and sites. Boxes extend between  
234 the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile. A thick line denotes the median. The whiskers extend up to the most  
235 extreme values and white circle represents outliers data.

### 236 **Operational flies**

237 The highest mean rate of operational flies was observed for treatments A0, and A1 SAS with a  
238 value of 82% and the lowest was observed for the treatment A4 (pupae upon arrival at the Dakar  
239 insectary) with 51% (Table 1 and Figure 2). Results of the binomial mixed effects model  
240 showed that the first chilling round (A1) and the irradiation (A2) both reduced the quality of  
241 the flies at CIRDES ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 3). For A1 pupae, the rate of operational flies was  
242 significantly better for the SAS flies than the CIRDES flies ( $P < 0.001$ ). Interestingly, the  
243 second chilling event (A3) induced a significant “recovery” of the rate of operational flies at  
244 the CIRDES ( $P < 0.001$ , the reference level was set to CIRDES\_A2 to calculate this  
245 probability). Finally, the transport from the CIRDES to Dakar also significantly reduced the  
246 quality of the sterile males ( $P < 0.001$ , the reference level was set to CIRDES\_A3 to calculate  
247 this probability) compared with sterile males emerged from the A3 treatment (Figure 2).

248 **Table 3.** Summary of the binomial linear mixed effects models for the operational rate. The  
249 reference level is CIRDES\_A1.

Fixed effects	Estimate	Std. Error	Z value	P value
Intercept	0.784	0.053	14.74	<0.001
CIRDES A0	1.001	0.046	21.77	<0.001
CIRDES A2	-0.813	0.04	-20.24	<0.001
CIRDES A3	-0.542	0.04	-13.55	<0.001
ISRA A4	-0.737	0.033	-21.95	<0.001
SAS A1	0.673	0.047	14.17	<0.001

250

251 **Figure 2.** Percentages of operational flies (%) according to treatment (A0 to A4) and site where  
252 the test was performed. Boxes extend between the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile. A thick line denotes  
253 the median. The whiskers extend up to the most extreme values, and white circles represents  
254 outliers data.

## 255 **Survival under stress**

256 Fly survival rates under starvation were very similar between treatments ranging from 4 to 5  
257 days, except for A1 SAS that showed a mean survival rate of 2.34 days (Figure 3). Model results  
258 showed that at the CIRDES none of the treatments had an impact on survival (Table 4;  $P >$   
259  $0.05$ ; the reference level is CIRDES\_A1). However, the mortality rate was much higher for the  
260 SAS flies as compared with the CIRDES flies for the A1 treatment group ( $P < 0.005$ ). Finally,  
261 the survival of the A4 batch at the ISRA (after transport) was significantly better than the A3  
262 batch at the CIRDES ( $P = 0.006$ , the reference level was set to CIRDES\_A3 in the previous  
263 model to calculate this probability).

264 **Table 4.** Summary of the linear models for mortality rate. The reference level is CIRDES\_A1

Fixed effects	Estimate	Std. Error	Z value	P value
Intercept	4.35	0.104	41.687	<0.001
CIRDES A0	0.244	0.14	1.742	0.082
CIRDES A2	0.023	0.149	0.154	0.8779
CIRDES A3	0.183	0.147	1.24	0.2151
ISRA A4	0.491	0.111	4.414	<0.001
SAS A1	-2.01	0.153	-13.132	<0.001

265

266 **Figure 3.** Boxplots of the survival of sterile males (in days) monitored under starvation  
267 conditions during the quality test for the four treatments (A0 to A4) and the three insectaries  
268 where the tests were carried out. Boxes extend between the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile. A thick line  
269 denotes the median. The whiskers extend up to the most extreme values, and the white circles  
270 represent outlier data.

## 271 **Discussion**

272 The sterile insect technique depends on the mass-production of sterile male insects of good  
273 biological quality to be released into the target wild populations. The tsetse eradication  
274 programme in the Niayes of Senegal is implemented following an AW-IPM approach with a  
275 SIT component and aims at eradicating the native *G. p. gambiensis* populations in that region  
276 [23]. The sterile insects are provided to the project as irradiated pupae that are being transported  
277 from three production centres (two in Burkina Faso and one in Slovakia, Europe) under chilled  
278 conditions. Handling, irradiation, chilling and transport may affect the quality of the adult male  
279 flies and their performance upon arrival in Dakar. Previous studies have already shown that the

280 emergence rate and the quality of the sterile males are lower in the Dakar insectary than in the  
281 production centres [14,18].

## 282 **Emergence rate**

283 The emergence rate of pupae was negatively affected by all handling steps, decreasing from  
284 92% for A0 pupae at the CIRDES insectary to 78% for A4 pupae at the ISRA insectary. Both  
285 chilling steps (A1 and A3) significantly reduced the number of emerging flies whereas  
286 irradiation (A2) did not. This result contrast with previous studies on the chilling effect on tsetse  
287 fly pupae. Mutika et al. [16] worked with the same *G. p. gambiensis* BKF strain and observed  
288 that emergence of 28-day old male pupae after storage at low temperature (10°C) for 3, 5, or 7  
289 days was similar to those kept under standard colony conditions. Similar results were observed  
290 for pupae of *G. morsitans* maintained at 12°C for two weeks [24]. Our results of the current  
291 study indicate that chilling affected tsetse emergence rate significantly and the chilling period  
292 must be kept as short as possible. It must be noted that our results were obtained with a  
293 temperature that was on average 2 to 4°C lower than the previous studies, which might partially  
294 explain this discrepancy. On the other hand, irradiation had no significant negative effect on  
295 pupal emergence rate. Similar results were observed for *G. tachinoides* pupae irradiated with  
296 120 Gy on day 28 post larviposition [25] and for *G. p. gambiensis* pupae irradiated with 110  
297 Gy [16]. These results were expected since several studies in the past have aimed at optimising  
298 the irradiation process in order to induce near 100% sterility while minimising somatic damage  
299 [26,27].

300 The last step, transport to Dakar, also significantly reduced fly emergence rate. During  
301 shipment, pupae are exposed to uncontrolled factors such as vibrations or mechanical shocks  
302 that are absorbed by pupae and may affect the fly emergence rate. Therefore, solutions could  
303 be tested such as the use of cotton wool, sawdust or vermiculite to cushion the mechanical



304 shocks or vibrations during transport. Moreover, adult emergence may also be affected by  
305 excessive temperatures or inappropriate relative humidity during the rearing process [28].  
306 Although adult emergence was negatively affected by the various treatments, the emergence  
307 rate improved with time during project implementation. Indeed, Pagabeleguem et al. [18]  
308 observed an emergence rate of pupae received at the ISRA of  $74 \pm 13.9\%$  for shipments between  
309 January 2011 and 2014 against  $78 \pm 15\%$  in this study. Moreover, our result was not different  
310 from those of Mutika et al. [16], who observed emergence rates between 76 to 91% for  
311 irradiated pupae chilled for 5 days.

312

### 313 **Operational flies**

314 The rate of operational flies was also affected by all pupal treatments, decreasing from  $82 \pm$   
315  $13\%$  for A0 pupae to  $51 \pm 0.21\%$  for A4 pupae. For the two first steps A1 and A2, 18% and  
316 19% of operational flies are lost respectively, leading to a cumulative loss of 47% after these  
317 two steps.

318 These results contrast with several studies that showed that storage of mature pupae at low  
319 temperature (up to 5 days between 7-10°C) has no detrimental effects on male emergence, flight  
320 ability or survival [16,24,29,30]. The chilling period for A1 and A2 pupae were comparatively  
321 short (only 24 and 72 hours at 8°C) and such losses could not be explained by the cold exposure  
322 only. Reducing the chilling period could be one lever to improve these results.

323 Moreover, the rate of operational flies was significantly better for SAS pupae compared to  
324 CIRDES pupae of treatment A1. This difference could be explained by the different chilling  
325 durations between the SAS and the CIRDES pupae, given that CIRDES pupae were chilled for  
326 two to three days before their irradiation whereas it is only one to two days for the SAS pupae.  
327 Therefore, chilling duration and temperature seems to be the two most important parameters

328 that must be surveyed continuously in order to improve fly quality. Although irradiation (A2)  
329 also affected the rate of operational flies, it may be due to the irradiation handling process  
330 instead of the radiation dose itself. Earlier studies have examined the effect of radiation dose  
331 on quality of pupae and they found that there is no effect on biological quality of pupae when  
332 the irradiation is done close to emergence [16,26].

333 Interestingly, the second chilling event (A3) led to a significant “recovery” of the rate of  
334 operational flies at the CIRDES compared to the A2 treatment and this effect was also  
335 confirmed upon arrival in Dakar (A4). This might be due to a positive impact of the reduced  
336 metabolic rate due to the chilling on cellular mechanisms to repair somatic damage.

337 The long shipment to Dakar also significantly affected the rate of operational flies, as already  
338 demonstrated [14,18]. Physical injuries during transport are probably responsible for this loss.  
339 Those physical injuries could be the vibrations during the transport. We suggest a new study on  
340 the effect of vibration on tsetse flies irradiated pupae during the transport. However, as for the  
341 emergence rate, the results observed here seem to improve during project implementation.  
342 Indeed, Seck et al. [18] observed a rate of operational flies at the ISRA of  $35.8 \pm 18.4\%$  for  
343 shipments between May 2012 to January 2015 against  $51 \pm 21\%$  in this study. This increase  
344 shows that the overall handling process of flies since its first implementation was continuously  
345 improved and could probably be improved even more.

### 346 **Survival under stress**

347 None of the treatments had an impact on fly survival ( $P > 0.05$ ). However, the mean survival  
348 was significantly lower for the SAS pupae as compared with the CIRDES pupae for the A1  
349 treatment group ( $P < 0.001$ ), which is probably due to different quality of the blood diet and  
350 female performance in the two insectaries. Indeed, during this experiment, newly emerged  
351 sterile males were not offered a blood meal, and their survival only depended on the fat reserves

352 acquired during larval development. This fat reserve is closely related to the quality and  
353 quantity of blood meals that are taken by the female parent and also to factors which affect the  
354 amount of fat consumed during pupal development and hence influence the lifespan of the  
355 newly emerged fly [31].

356 The survival of the A4 batch at the ISRA (after transport) was significantly better than the A3  
357 batch at the CIRDES ( $P = 0.006$ ) which here again suggest that the environmental conditions  
358 at the ISRA insectary were more suitable for *G. p. gambiensis* than at the CIRDES. In this case,  
359 blood could not be involved because sterile male flies originated from the same insectary.

## 360 **Conclusion**

361 This study highlights the effects of several steps necessary to prepare and ship sterile male tsetse  
362 pupae in AW-IPM programs that have an SIT component. Chilling, irradiation and transport all  
363 negatively impacted the quality of sterile male pupae with lower emergence and operational  
364 rate of flies, but no effect was observed on survival. Although all these processes negatively  
365 impact the sterile male yield, longitudinal comparison of data from the Niaye eradication  
366 project highlight that sterile male quality improved with time. In order to limit the chilling  
367 effect, the project decided to split the delivery of sterile males into two shipments per week in  
368 order to reduce the chilling time and improve the quality of sterile males. Further optimizing  
369 the quality of the sterile male tsetse could be obtained by reducing the effects of chilling and  
370 transport vibration. It would be of interest to determine the threshold of chilling duration at  
371 which the emergence rate and the rate of operationnal flies can be optimised.

## 372 **Acknowledgement**

373 We thank technicians of CIRDES, ISRA and SAS insectaries for their technical support.

374

375

## 376 **Figure legends**

377 **Figure 1.** Percentage of emergence according to the treatment and sites

378 **Figure 2.** Percentages of operational flies (%) according to treatment (A0 to A4) and site where  
379 the test was performed.

380 **Figure 3.** Boxplots of the survival of sterile males (in days) monitored under starvation  
381 conditions during the quality test for the four treatments (A0 to A4) and the three insectaries  
382 where the tests were carried out.

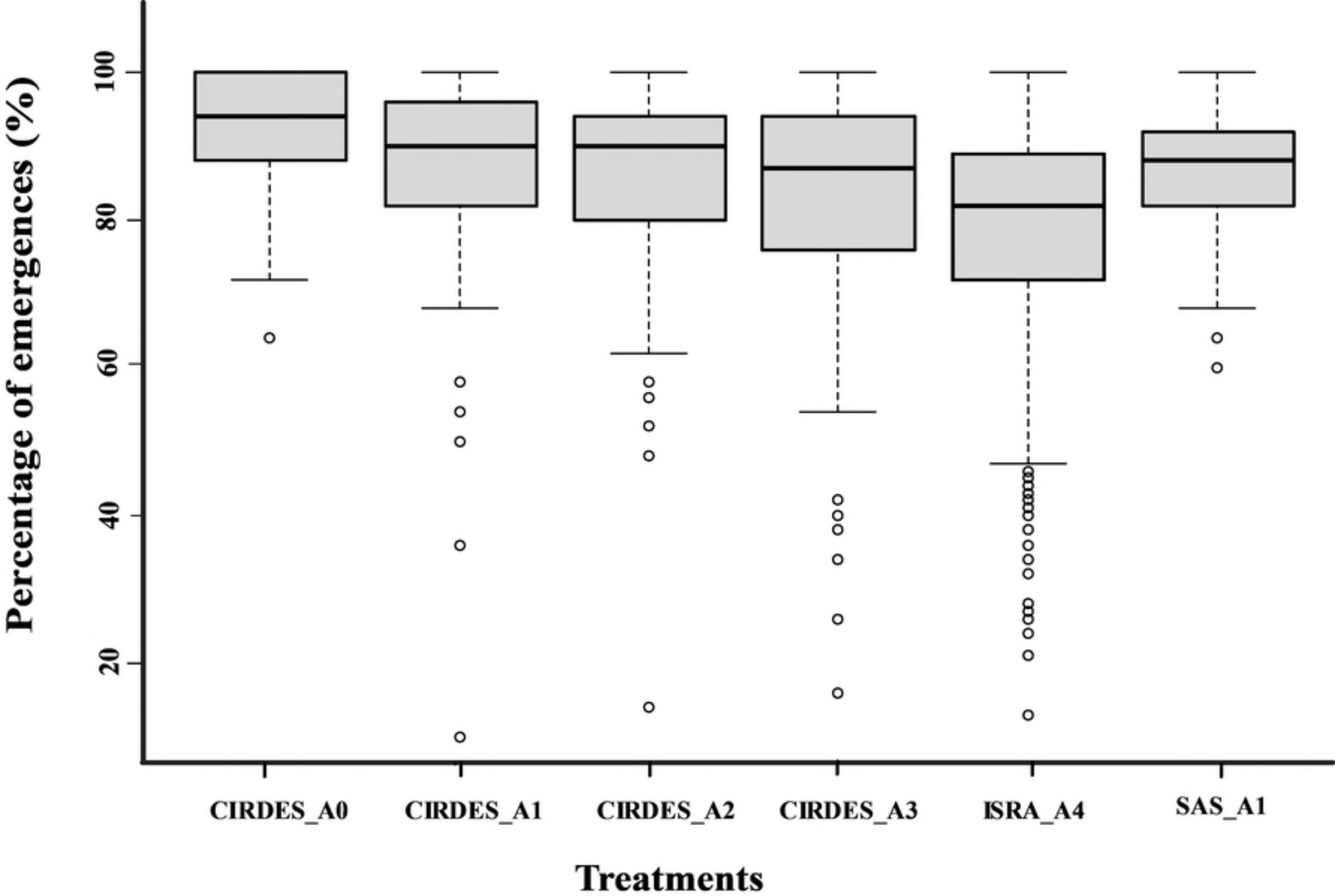
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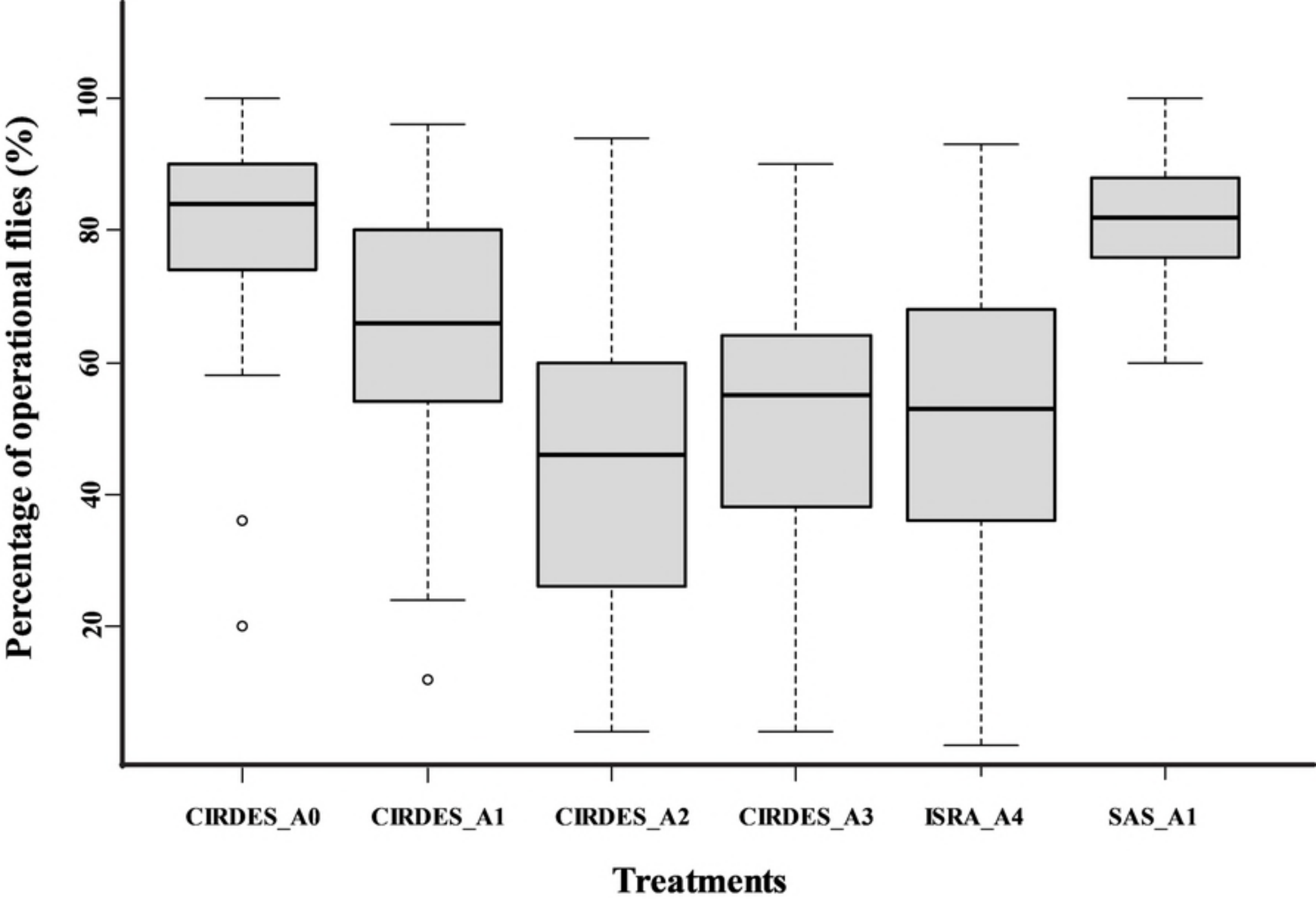
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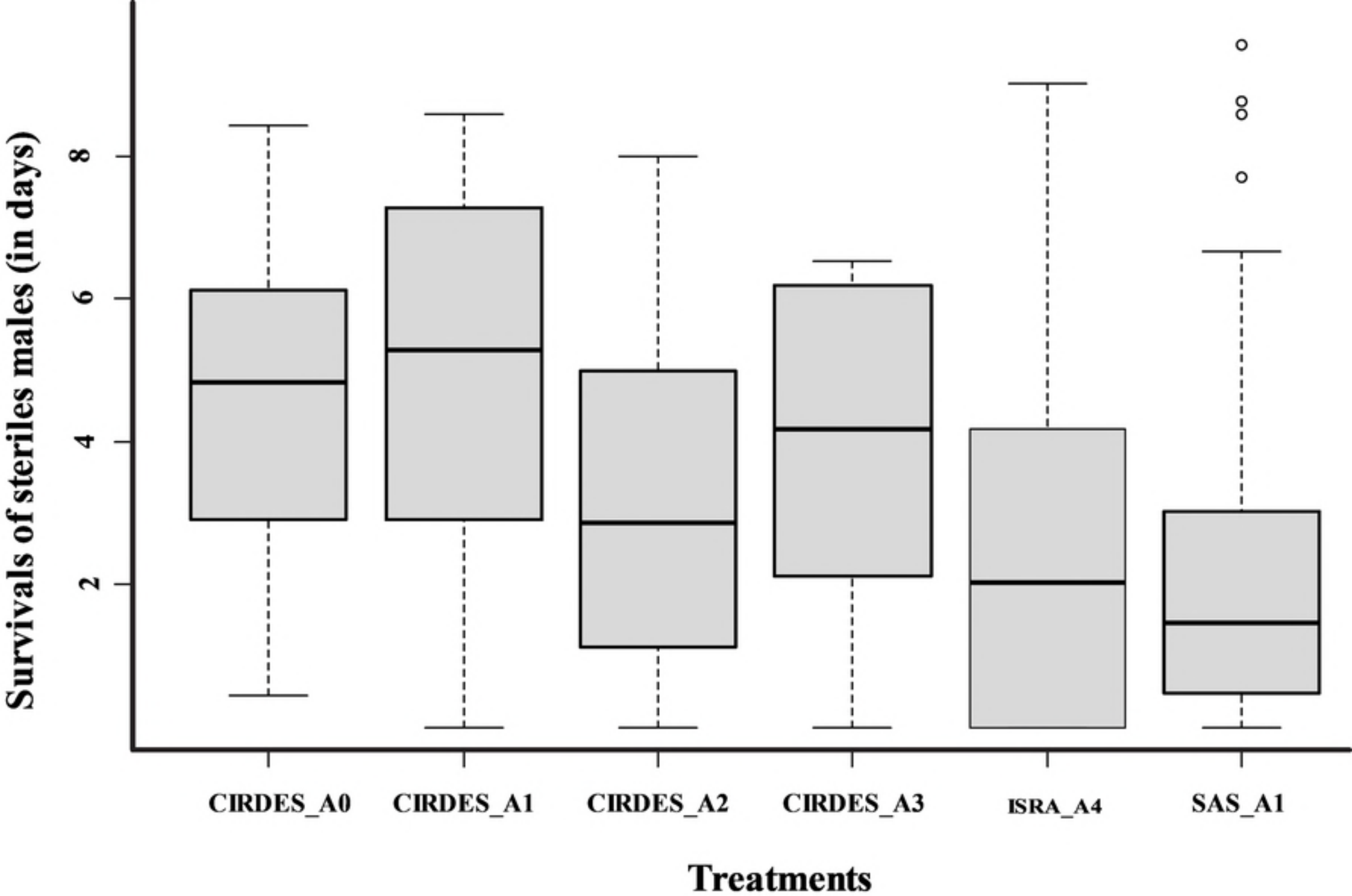


Figure



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