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SUMMARY The countries included in this review are: Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Burma, Thailand, Laos, Khmer, Vietnam, Malaysia, Singapore, Brunci and Indonesia. The first section includes countrywise information on the species and strains of filarial parasites and their vectors. In the second section, information is given on the distribution, relation to filariasis, biology and control of each of the important vector species in the area. A map of the area shows the distribution of human filariasis and four tables provide information on the vectors.

INTRODUCTION

Filariasis is very widespread throughout South and Southeast Asia and is one of the more important communicable diseases in the area. It has been estimated that in India alone, a population of 122 million live in endemic areas and are exposed to active transmission. The terms 'South' and 'Southeast' Asia are ambiguous as they have been variously defined by different authors and organizations. As a matter of convenience, South and Southeast Asia in this paper include: Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Burma, Thailand, Laos, Khmer, Vietnam, Malaysia, Singapore, Brunei and Indonesia. The Philippines, Taiwan, Korea and Japan are excluded from this review.

In this area, two species of human filarial parasites are present, Wuchereria bancrofti and Brugia malayi. The distribution of these species is illustrated in Fig. 1. A new microfilaria, somewhat resembling Brugia, has been reported from man, in Timor Island. Until the adults are obtained, its exact taxonomic status will be doubtful and it will continue to be referred to as the 'Timor microfilaria'. Wuchereria bancrofti has a wide though spotty distribution throughout Southeast Asia. It is 'nocturnally periodic' throughout Southeast Asia, except for a focus of infection in Southern Thailand, where the periodicity turned out to be 'nocturnally subperiodic'. In West Malaysia, two distinct strains of W. bancrofti are recognised. One occurs in the immigrant races living in cities and mainly transmitted by Culex pipiens fatigans, whereas the other occurs in the indigenous people living in the rural areas and transmitted by species of anophelines. The former is referred to as the 'Urban Strain' and the latter as the 'Rural Strain'. Brugia malayi occurs only in the Oriental Region

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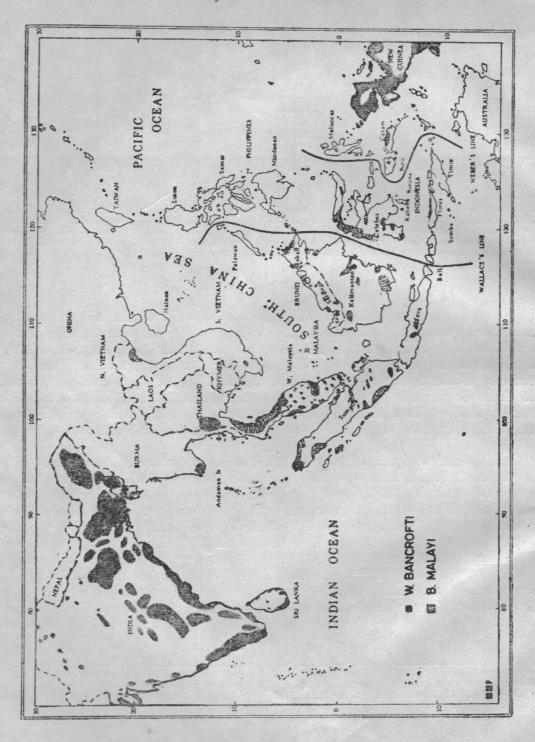


Fig. 1

and is represented by two forms, the 'nocturnal periodic' and the 'unnocturnal subperiodic'. The nocturnal periodic form has a wide distribution and occurs in India, Thailand, Malaya, Indonesia, Japan and Korea. The subperiodic form was first reported from the east coast of W. Malaysia and is now known to occur in Thailand, Philippines and Indonesia. The periodic form is typically found in open swamp terrain and has no animal reservoirs. The vectors are Anopheles and Mansonia mosquitoes. The subperiodic form is found in swamp forests and is a zoonosis. The vectors are species of forest Mansonia. The vectors of the 'Timor microfilaria' are as yet unknown. Brugia pahangi is a parasite of animals that can be experimentally transmitted to man. The microfilaria and developing stages in the mosquito of B. pahangi cannot easily be separated from those of B. malayi.

Only mosquitoes are capable of transmitting filariasis caused by Wuchereria bancrofti and Brugia malayi. Burton (1962) reported developing and infective larvae of W. bancrofti and B. malayi in bedbugs (Cimex hemipterus and Cimex lectularius) in Kerala State, India. Workers in India (Singh, Pattanayak, Mammen, Vijayan, Bhatnagar, Sharina and Mondal, 1962), Malaya (Wharton and Omar, 1962) and Africa (Nelson, 1963) were unable to confirm his findings. The criteria for incriminating a filarial vector is to find the infective larvae in field-caught mosquitoes, dissected soon after capture. Care should be taken to correctly identify the infective stages of filarial larvae in the mosquito. A key for their identification is provided by Nelson (1959). Experimental infection in the laboratory with the same species of mosquito should collaborate the field findings, with a large percentage of mosquitoes becoming infective. For a mosquito to be an efficient vector it should be anthropophylic, endophylic or be in close association with man and it should occur in fairly large numbers.* 'The term' infected' is used for mosquitoes with the developing larvae in them, whereas 'infective' is used for mosquitoes containing third instar or infective larvae.

During the last few years, there have been a number of changes in the names of countries and islands in the Southeast Asian region. For the convenience of readers, some of these changes are mentioned here: Ceylon is now known as Sri Lanka; East Pakistan as Bangladesh; Cambodia as Khmer; Malaya is now referred to as West Malaysia or more recently as Peninsular Malaysia. East Malaysia consists of the two states of Sabah and Sarawak, situated in the north-western part of Borneo. The eastern portion of Borneo, called Kalimantan, is part of Indonesia; Celebes in now Sulawesi and Indonesian New Guinea is West Irian.

Previous review papers on the vectors of Wuchereria and Brugia, their biology and control, pertaining to this region and the South Pacific have been compiled by Iyengar (1960); Raghavan (1961); Wharton (1965); Chow (1965); Mouchet (1967) and Ramalingam, Guptavanij and Harinasuta (1968).

This paper is divided into two sections, the first dealing with the vectors on a countrywise basis and the second section with individual vectors.

^{*}The longevity of the vector is also important for successful transmission (Lawrance, B. R., 1963). This is particulary true for Wuchereria and Brugia, where the period of development in the vector may take nine days to two weeks or more.

I. COUNTRY-WISE SURVEY

India:

Elephantiasis has been known to occur in India from ancient times. Filariasis is still a disease of major public health importance in India. It is extensive along the East and West Coasts, in South India, Bengal and Assam. It was long supposed that filariasis did not extend to the northern states of India, including Rajastan, Punjab and Delhi. Recent surveys by teams from the National Institute for Communicable Diseases, Delhi, indicate that filariasis does exist in many of the larger towns and cities in the north and that, in fact, a low level of transmission is occurring. Filariasis appears to be spreading with urbanization (Krishnaswami, Nair, Singh, Bhatnagar, Mammen and Sharma, 1963). Both species of human filariasis occur in India.

Nocturnal periodic W. bancrofti is widespread in India, and occurs in almost every state. The most important vector throughout India is Culex p. fatigans. Species of Anopheles and Culex have been found with developing larvae (Iyengar 1938, Rao and Iyengar, 1932), but these may only have a minor role in transmission.

Only one form of B. malayi, the nocturnal periodic form, is present in India. It is very common in the state of Kerala, but also occurs in Andhra, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh and Assam states. Mansonia annulifera and Mansonia uniformis are the two most important vectors. Occasionally, Mansonia indiana is also involved in transmission.

Pakistan:

Pakistan, like the northern states of India, was long considered to be free of filarial infections. Recent findings of W. bancrofti in north Indian towns and cities, led Wolfe and Aslamkhan (1969) to conduct a limited survey in Karachi. No indigenous person was found with microfilariae and the few Culex p. fatigans dissected were negative. In order to rule out the presence of filariasis in Karachi and other towns in Pakistan, more extensive surveys will have to be made.

Bangladesh:

Early reports indicated the presence of both W. bancrofti and B. malayi in former East Bangal and Sylhet. Very little was known of the actual distribution of the filarial parasites throughout the country. Wolfe and Aslamkhan (1971) made a fairly wide survey through what was then known as East Pakistan and reported that W. bancrofti occurred in all the districts. Brugia malayi was found in only two areas: Chittagong and Chittagong Hill tracts. The most important vector of W. bancrofti is Culex p. fatigans in Dinajpur District and probably throughout Bangladesh (Wolfe and Aslamkhan, 1972). The vectors of B. malayi are not known but may be species of Mansonia, as these are plentiful in Chittagong District.

Sri Lanka:

Extensive filariasis surveys carried out before the Second World War by Dassanayake (1938) and by other workers, showed the presence of both Brugia malayi and Wuchereria bancrofii. The former species was then widespread and predominant. The vectors of B. malayi were mainly Mansonia annulifera, M. uniformis and M. indiana (Carter, 1948), although other mosquitoes may also have been involved, to a slight extent, in the transmission An anti-filarial campaign against B. malayi was started in 1947, aimed against both the parasite and the vector. This campaign was very successful, so that B. malayi infection is practically non-existent in Ceylon today (Dissanaike, 1968).

Bancroftian filariasis has become a problem after the Second World War. One of the reasons ascribed to this increase is the construction of about 30,000 bucket latrines, each provided with a cement-lined catch-pit, which facilitates the breeding of Culex p. fatigans—the main vector of W. bancrofti in Ceylon.

Burma:

Wuchereria bancrosti is the only species of filaria known from Burma. It occurs in Rangoon and in some of the other coastal towns. (Hayashi, 1965). Urban filariasis has been on the increase in Rangoon, following the SecondWorldWar, due to the break-down of the sewage system and the subsequent increase of favourable breeding habitats for Culex p. fatigans. The principal vector of W. bancrosti in Rangoon is Culex p. fatigans (de Meillon, Grab and Sebastian, 1967a).

Thailand:

In Thailand, filariasis occurs only in the southern half and was little known until after the advent of the Second World War. Surveys conducted by Iyengar in 1951 (1953) indicated the presence of Brugia malayi in four provinces in the southern part. It was concluded at that time that B. malayi was the only species occurring in Thailand. Recent studies by the Faculty of Tropical Medicine, Bangkok, showed that both the periodic and subperiodic strains of B. malayi are present in the southern peninsula of Thailand. The vectors of the periodic strain are Mansonia uniformis, Mansonia indiana, Mansonia bonneae and Mansonia annulata. The main vector of the subperiodic form is Mansonia bonneae, with Mansonia uniformis also playing a part.

Two foci of infection with Wuchereria bancrofti have recently been discovered. One area is close to the Thailand-Malaysia border and is typically nocturnally periodic. The vectors are not yet known, but may be species of Anopheles. The second focus of infection is along the banks of the river Kwai Noi. Wuchereria bancrofti in this area has a nocturnal subperiodic periodicity. Vectors are members of the Aedes (F.) 'niveus' group.

Laos, Khmer & Vietnam:

Both B. malayi and W. bancrofti are known to occur in North Vietnam. The distribution of filariasis in South Vietnam is not known. Both species of filariasis undoubtedly occur in South Vietnam as large numbers of refugees have brought the infection with them from the north (Giaquinto, 1966). The vectors are unknown. Scott (1967) lists 12 species of Vietnamese mosquitoes as efficient transmitters of Malayan filariasis and 13 species as transmitting Wuchereria bancrofti. However, he fails to give details as to whether these mosquitoes have been incriminated by natural or experimental infections as vectors in Vietnam.

No information is available on the prevalence and distribution of filariasis in Laos and Khmer.

Malaysia:

West Malaysia: Both W. bancrofti and B. malayi occur in West Malaysia. Early studies in the beginning of this century in Malaya demonstrated the presence of W. bancrofti in Kuala Lumpur and Penang and it was thought that this species was introduced into the country by Indian and Chinese immigrants. It was about 40 years later that workers (Polunin 1951, Wharton, 1960) found that W. bancrofti was in fact endemic in the country and that it had a wider distribution than was first suspected, occurring fairly widespread in Malays and in the 'Orang Asli' (aborigines) living in the rural areas. The vector of the urban strain of W. bancrofti is Culex p. fatigans, but this species is refractory to the rural strain (Wharton, 1960). The vectors of the rural strain of W. bancrofti are in fact species of anophelines e.g. Anopheles (A.) whartoni, Anopheles (A.) letifer and Anopheles (C.) maculatus.

Brugia malayi is the predominant species in W. Malaysia and is widely distributed in scattered patches throughout the country. Brugia malayi occurs in two forms, the nocturnal periodic form and the nocturnal subperiodic form. The periodic form occurs mainly in the north-west coast, characterised by open swamps and paddy fields. There are no animal reservoirs. The vectors are Anopheles campestris, Anopheles (A.) donaldi, Mansonia uniformis, M. annulifera and M. dives. The subperiodic form occurs in swamp forests. It is common on the east coast of West Malaysia. The subperiodic form has many animals which act as reservoirs of infection. The vectors are mainly Mansonia dives and Mansonia bonneae and to a lesser extent Mansonia uniformis and M. annulata.

East Malaysia: East Malaysia consists of the two states of Sabah and Sarawak on the island of Borneo. In Sabah, Barclay (1969) reported the presence of the rural form of the nocturnally periodic W. bancrofti and the subperiodic form B. malayi. The vectors of B. malayi are Mansonia dives/bonneae, the vectors of bancroftian filariasis are as yet unknown (Barclay, 1969).

In Sarawak, Zulueta (1957) reported the presence of the rural form of W. bancrofti in just one focus of infection e.g. Leppu Leju in the Fourth Division of Sarawak. Anopheles leucosphyrus and Anopheles barbirostris were both found to be positive in Leppu Leju, and are probably the vectors of W. bancrofti. Brugia malayi has a much wider distribution, especially in the First, Second and Third Divisions of Sarawak. Zulueta (1957) is of the opinion that it is the subperiodic form, since microfilariae were present in thick films that had been collected during the day. Species of Mansonia may be vectors of B. malayi in Sarawak.

Brunei:

Brunei, an independent state, is situated between Sabah and Sarawak on the island of Borneo. Brugia malayi—probably subperiodic—has been reported by Zulueta (1957) to be present. The vectors are not known.

Singapore:

Wuchereria bancrofti is the only species of filarial parasite occurring in Singapore. The vector is Culex pipiens fatigans (Danaraj, Schacher and Colless, 1958). In a recent paper, Colbourne and Ng (1972) have shown that active transmission by Culex p. fatigans is still occurring in Singapore and poses a small but definite risk to public health.

Indonesia:

Both Wuchereria bancrofti and Brugia malayi are present and widespread throughout the islands of Indonesia. A third and as yet undescribed species, the 'Timor microfilaria' has been reported from Timor Island and from the islands immediately surrounding it. In a recent review, Lie (1970) summarised our present knowledge on the distribution and vectors of human filariasis in Indonesia. However, since no countrywide survey has been made, the data is necessarily patchy and incomplete.

Nocturnally periodic W. bancrofti has been reported to occur in localised areas in Sumatra, Java (around Jakarta), Kalimantan, Sulawesi, Flores, Sumba and in Buru. In West Irian, W. bancrofti has a widespread distribution and occurs on low-lying flat areas of the mainland and on the offshore islands. In Java, W. bancrofti occurs in Jakarta and the principal vector is Culex p. fatigans (Chow, Lie, Winoto, Rusad and Soegiarto, 1959) Prawirohardjo (1939) has experimentally shown that a number of anopheline species are capable of transmitting W. bancrofti, but these mosquitoes do not appear to be epidemiologically important in Jakarta. Culex p. fatigans is not important in the transmission of W. bancrofti in West Irian. In northern West Irian anopheline mosquitoes are the main vectors of W. bancrofti. Anopheles farauti is the chief vector along the coastal tracts while Anopheles koliensis and Anopheles punctulatus are responsible for the transmission in the interior. All three species belong to the 'punctulatus' group. In the upper reaches of the Digoel river Anopheles bancrofti is the main vector. On the island of Pam, Anopheles farauti and Aedes kochi are considered as the principal vectors. In southern West Irian, the culicines are important vectors in the transmission of filariasis, the main vectors being Mansonia uniformis, Mansonia papuensis, Culex

annulirostris and Culex bitaeniorhynchus. Toffaleti and King (1947) reported Armigeres obturbans (= milnensis) as being infected in nature. Out of 268 dissections of wild caught Armigeres milnensis, six were found to have developing stages in the thoracic muscles. These, however, could well be a species of animal filaria. No published data is available on the vectors of W. bancrofti in the rural areas of Sumatra, Kalimantan, Celebes, Flores, Sumba and Timor, but according to Oemijati and Partono (personal communications) species of Anopheles, including Anopheles barbirostris may be responsible for transmission.

Brugia malayi is widespread on the western portion of Indonesia and does not occur east of Seram. Both the nocturnal periodic and the nocturnal subperiodic forms of B. malayi occur in Indonesia, but the exact distribution of each form has yet to be determined. The subperiodic form is known to occur in Sumatra and Kalimantan, the periodic form in Sulawesi and Seram (Oemijati—personal communications). The vectors include species belonging to the genera Mansonia, Anopheles and Coquillettidia. The main vectors of B. malayi in Sumatra, Java and Kalimantan are species of Mansonia, whereas in Sulawesi the principal vector is Anopheles barbirostris. The various species incriminated as vectors are: Mansonia dives, M. annulata, M. annulifera, M. indiana, M. uniformis, Anopheles barbirostris A. nigerrimus and Coquillettidia ochracea.

Table I

Country-wise Distribution of the Vectors of Wuchereria bancrofti (Natural Infections)

Country	Mosquito Species	REFERENCE
India — Kerela Kerala Mangalore Laccadive Isls. Saurastra Delhi, U.P.,	Culex pipiens fatigans """ """ """ """ """ """ """ """	Iyengar, 1938 Pal et al., 1960 Krishnaswamy, 1955 Subramaniam, 1958 Raghavan, 1961
Punjab & Rajastan Bangladesh Sri Lanka Burma — Rangoon Thailand Malaysia —West	" " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "	Krishnaswamy et al. 1963 Wolfe ·& Aslamkhan, 1972 Abdulcader, 1965 · de Meillon et al., 1967a Wharton et al., 1963
, , ,, East	Anopheles (C.) maculatus Anopheles (A.) whatoni Culex pipiens fatigans Anopheles (C.) leucosphyrus	Cheong et al., 1965 Wharton, 1960 Zuluera, 1957
Singapore "	Anopheles (A,) barbirostris Culex pipiens fatigans	Daparaj et al., 1958
Indonesia—Jakarta	11 11 13 13 14 14 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15	Colbourne & Ng, 1972 Chow et al., 1959 Lie et al., 1958
West Irian	Anopheles (C.) farauti	Toffaleti & King, 1947 Rook, de, 1957b
,, ,,	" " " punctulatus	,, 1959 Toffaleti & King, 1947
11 11	,, koliensis ,, bancrofti Culex (C.) annulirestris	Elsbach, 1937 Rook, de, 1957 <i>b</i>
" "	Culex (C.) bitaeniorhynchus Mansonia (M.) uniformis	, 1959 , 1959
,	Aedes (F.) kochi	to be , sulf assistant to

TABLE II

Country-wise Distribution of the Vectors of Brugia malayi (Natural Infections)

COUNTRY	Mosquito Species	Reference	
Nocturnal Periodic India Kerala	Mansonia (M.) annulifera	Iyengar, 1938	
,,	,, ,, ,,	Pal et al., 1960	
centrale it is transfer a mass	" " uniformis	Iyengar, 1938	
,,	,, ,,	Pal et al., 1960	
,	" " indiana	Iyengar, 1938	
Thailand Surat-Thani	", ", uniformis	Harinasuta et al., 1970b	
Chumpern	" "	Harinasuta et al., 1970a	
and the state of t	,, ,, indiana	Harinasuta et al., 1970a	
	,, ,, bonneae	,, ,, ,,	
"	,, annulata		
Malaysia West	Anopheles (A.) donaldi	Wharton et al., 1963	
of tables and	,, campestris	Reid et al., 1962	
"	Mansonia (M.) annulifera	2 2 2 2	
	,, ,, uniformis	Hodgkin 1938-40	
"	" " "	Reid et al., 1962	
NOCTURNAL SUBPERIODIC	" dives	Wharton et al., 1963	
	Manuals (M) Lama	C	
Thailand Chumpern	Mansonia (M.) bonneae	Guptavanij et al., 1971	
Malaysia West	" " uniformis	W/h 1062	
	,, ,, bonneae	Wharton, 1962 Ramachandran et al., 1970	
"	" " dives	Wharton, 1962	
		Ramachandran et al., 1970	
	" " annulata	Wharton, 1962	
"	uniformit.	Whatton, 1702	
er romane bij romate greder.	,, ,, uniformis	Ramachandran et al., 1970	
East	", ", bonneas/dives	Barclay, 1969	
Periodicity—Unknown	" " vermonoj anves	25002001), 2505	
Indonesia Sumatra	Mansonia (M.) longipalpis*	Brug & Rock, de, 1930	
a de la companya de	,, ,, annulata	Brug & Rock, de, 1930	
and the second s	de ", " ", " ", " " " " " " "	Rees et al., 1958	
Java	, indiana	Lie & Winoto, 1960	
Kalimantan	" " longipalpis*	Klokke, 1961	
.,	,, ,, annulata	, , ,	
State of the state	,, annulifera	Kariadi, 1938	
**	,, uniformis	,, ,,	
	Coquillettidia ochracea	Klokke, 1961	
	Anopheles (A.) barbirostris	Kariadi, 1938	
,,	(=donaldi)		
	Anopheles (A.) venhuisi (-nigerrimus)	"	
Sulawesi	Mansonia (M.) longipalpis*	Jurgens, 1932	
.,	Anopheles (A.) barbirostris	,, ,,	
energy and the second	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Brug, 1937	
	" "	Partono et al., 1972	

*longipalpis - bonneae/dives



II. VECTOR INFORMATION

A. Wuchereria bancrofti:

It can be seen from Tables I and III that members of the Culex (C.) pipiens complex are very important vectors of W. bancrofti. This is particularly true in the urban areas. In rural areas, mosquitoes belonging to the genera Anopheles, Aedes and even Mansonia may act as vectors. There are eight species of Anopheles that transmit the rural form of W. bancrofti, three species of Aedes belonging to the subgenus Finlaya and only one species of Mansonia. The Mansonia are usually refractory to the development of W. bancrofti, the only exception in this region being M. uniformis which actively transmits W. bancrofti in the Berau District of New Guinea (de Rook, 1957b).

1. Culex (C.) pipiens fatigans Wiedemann, 1828:

The nomenclature of Culex pipiens fatigans (= pipiens quinque-fasciatus Say, 1823) is still highly controversial. In this paper, I am using the name 'pipiens fatigans' for this mosquito simply because it is known only by this name throughout Southeast Asia and in the Indian sub-continent. Culex p. fatigans is a member of the pipiens complex, the other members of which are Culex pipiens pallens, a temperate form and an important vector of W. bancrofti in Japan; Culex pipiens pipiens a variable form found in temperate regions; Culex pipiens molestus an autogenous and temperate mosquito regarded by Barr (1967) as a mere variant of C. pipiens pipiens; and Culex pipiens australicus an endemic form in Australia. The subspecies can be differentiated from each other by the phallosome of the male genitalia. The complex is predominantly Ethiopian. Culex p. fatigans probably came originally from Africa, but it is now very widespread throughout the warm tropical regions of the world. It owes its distribution to the fact that it is a good traveller and has accompanied man on his travels from the early days of the sailing ships.

Culex p. fatigans is a predominantly urban mosquito. The rapid urbanization in developing countries accompanied by the lack of sanitary facilities has resulted in the high density and spread of this mosquito. This has often resulted in the transmission of filariasis, as seen in Rangoon (Meillon et al., 1967), Ceylon (Abdulcader, 1965), Hyderabad and Bangalore (Singh, 1967). Krishnaswami et al., (1963) have shown focal transmission of W. bancrofti by C. p. fatigans occurred in several cities in northern India which were previously thought to be free of filariasis. They ascribed this to rapid urbanization.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: Culex pipiens fatigans is the most important vector of nocturnally periodic W. bancrofti in many parts of the world. This is true in the urban areas in Southeast Asia, as seen in Table I. A high percentage of C. p. fatigans became positive for infective larvae when experimentally fed on a W. bancrofti carrier. This susceptibility to the parasite shown by C. p. fatigans, in combination with its high densities, its domestic habit and high anthropophylic index, makes C. p. fatigans an efficient vector in the transmission of urban (periodic) W. bancrofti.

Wharton (1960) showed by experimental infections that C. p. fatigans is a poor host for rural strains of W. bancrofti. The infection rate with the rural strain is very low, as is the average number of infective larvae per infected mosquito. Wharton concluded that C. p. fatigans was 20 times more efficient for the urban strain than for the rural strain of W. bancrofti.

Culex p. fatigans is a very poor vector of the subperiodic W. bancrofti in the South Pacific e.g. 0.91% in Fiji (Symes, 1960); none infected in Samoa and Tonga (Ramalingam, 1968). Culex p. fatigans is normally refractory to Brugia species but Desowitz and Chellappah (1962) found that in older females the parasites were able to complete their development. Infection rates of 8.5 to 25.4% were obtained.

BIOLOGY: This species is widespread, common, and a great pest mosquito, so that numerous studies have been made on it. Of special significance is the work carried on by the World Health Organization Filariasis Research Unit at Rangoon.

Immature Stages: Culex p. fatigans breeds primarily in stagnant waters with heavy organic contamination. Its favourite breeding sites are drains, catch-pits, septic tanks, cesspools, husk pits, etc., the optimum breeding condition being when there is a contamination at a rate of 1,000 ppm. of organic solids (Singh, 1967). This mosquito will breed secondarily in comparatively clean waters such as in drums, cement tanks and other artificial containers. Abdulcader (1967) has reported C. p. fatigans breeding in brackish water as well, where the concentration of chlorides was 620 ppm.

In Rangoon, Burma, it was found that the ovipositing females visit and oviposit at the breeding sites at two peaks, the first just after sunset which falls gradually and the second about sunrise with a dramatic rise and fall. Wind and rain will affect ovipositing (de Meillon, Sebastian and Khan, 1967b).

The time taken from the period of egg laying to hatching was about 27.11 hours. The mean duration of larval life for the male was 118.4 hours and for the female 135.3 hours (de Meillon et al., 1967c).

The Adult: Culex p. fatigans is a domestic mosquito and is very commonly found resting within houses. In urban areas, C. p. fatigans usually forms a high percentage of the mosquitoes resting indoors e.g. 84.6% of the total mosquito collections indoors in Ceylon (Abdulcader, 1967).

Chow and Thevasagayam (1957) in Ceylon found 23% of C. p. fatigans resting indoors on walls, 8% beneath the roof, 60% on clothing and other hanging objects and 9% on furniture. The indoor resting places are interesting in that it indicates the percentage resting on sprayable surfaces—which in Ceylon would form 31%. In Ernakulam, S. India, Pal, Nair, Ramalingam, Patil and Ram (1960) found 47.5% resting on walls and undersides of roof and 52.6% on hanging objects and furniture in houses that had never been sprayed. After spraying the houses, the percentages of mosquitoes resting on the walls and undersides of roof fell to 35.9% and those resting on hanging objects and furniture increased to 63.1%.

In Rangoon, C. p. fatigans was collected outdoors from underground drains, on vegetation, in tins, boxes, treeholes, etc. and in unoccupied shelters (de Meillon, Paing, Sebastian and Khan, 1967d).

The seasonal prevalence of C. p. fatigans is influenced by the climatic conditions in the country. In Ceylon, C. p. fatigans was reduced during the rainy season due to flooding (Singh, 1967). In Ernakulam, India, although C. p. fatigans was prevalent throughout the year, its density was high from January to March and comparatively low during the rainy season, e.g. April to October (Pal et al., 1960). This was also true in Rangoon where the highest density was during the dry season and the lowest density during the rainy season (de Meillon et al., 1967a).

Culex p. fatigans is a strong flier. In mark and release experiments in British Guiana, Burton (1964) collected females 900 yards or approximately one-half mile from the release point, three weeks later. Additional dispersal could be possible with strong wind. In a densely populated area in Rangoon, Culex pipiens fatigans tagged with ³²P were found to disperse more than half a mile from the point of release (Lindquist, Ikeshoji, Grab, de Meillon and Khan, 1967).

Females of *C. fatigans* feed readily either outdoors, or indoors. Biting begins after sunset and continues through the night with a peak between 1.00 a.m. and 3.00 a.m. Females will readily feed on sugar solutions even after taking a blood meal. This generally delays ovipositing. *C. p. fatigans* is a highly anthropophylic mosquito with an index of 75% to 85%. This mosquito will also feed on cattle and on birds. The number of eggs obtained after an avian blood feed is much more than after a human blood meal.

CONTROL: The control of this mosquito has presented public health workers with an ever increasing challenge. Some of the problems are:

- r. The numerous and variable breeding places ranging from the highly polluted cesspits to clean water in containers. Some of the breeding places are not easily accessible, e.g. underground drains, septic tanks.
- 2. The high organic pollution in the breeding places is not favourable for eitherl insecticide application or biological control.
- 3. Resistance to the chlorinated hydrocarbons is both widespread and high in density. Resistance to organophosphorus compounds (OP) is spreading e.g. Malathion and Diazinon in Douala, Southern Cameron and Freetown, S. Africa and to Fenthion in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia (Thomas, 1970). The resistance to OP compounds reverts when selection pressure is removed (Brown, 1967).

The construction of modern control sewage and drainage systems in urban areas offers long-term protection against the breeding of C. p. fatigans. Biological control agents ranging from fungi to fishes are being investigated and some of these show promise (Laird, 1965).

Control by genetic manipulation, especially using cytoplasmic incompatibility between populations has produced encouraging results (Laven, 1967). Chromosomal translocations have also attracted considerable attention in recent years. In 1969 the World Health Organization/Indian Council for Medical Research established a Research Unit on the Genetic

Control of Mosquitoes in Delhi. This Unit is establishing the feasibility of using genetic control techniques including sterilization by radiation or chemicals, release of males that are cytoplasmically incompatible or have adverse translocation, in order to control or eradicate Culex p. fatigans.

2. Anopheles (Cellia) maculatus Theobald, 1901:

This mosquito has a wide distribution in the Oriental Region, from W. Pakistan through the foothills of the Himalayas in India, to Burma, Thailand, S. China and the former Indo-China to Taiwan; also through Malaysia, Indonesia and the Philippines.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: Anopheles maculatus has been incriminated as a vector of rural bancroftian filariasis in Selangor State, W. Malaysia (Wharton, Laing and Cheong, 1963) and on Pulau Aur, an island off the east coast of W. Malaysia (Cheong and Omar, 1965). Experimental infections with this mosquito also prove that it is an efficient vector for the rural strain of W. bancrofti. (Wharton et al., 1963, Cheong, Omar and Chee, 1968). Anopheles maculatus is a poor vector of B. malayi. This was demonstrated by Cheong et al., (1968) who obtained 5.5% infective out of 430 A. maculatus that fed on a B. malayi carrier. It is a very important vector of malaria in W. Malaysia.

BIOLOGY: This species is common in hilly areas exposed to the sun. The larvae breed in seepage waters and in small streams that are exposed to sunlight and will not tolerate deep shade or stagnant and polluted waters. In W. Malaysia, A. maculatus prefers to feed outdoors but enters houses at night to feed on man. They bite man even with cattle in the vicinity (Wharton, 1951). In Borneo and elsewhere in its range, A. maculatus appears to be more zoophylic. It feeds throughout the night with a peak between 9.00 p.m. and midnight. They do not rest in houses during the day but are found in low vegetation in dense shade. Anopheles maculatus has a flight range of a mile and a half. It is prevalent in W. Malaysia throughout the year with a peak in density during April and May and a lesser one in September-October.

CONTROL: In densely populated areas, control of the immature stages by the construction of drains (open and sub-soil) are both effective and long-lasting. It is still susceptible to DDT, BHC and Dieldrin.

3. Anopheles (Anopheles) letifer Sandosham, 1944:

Anopheles (A.) letifer is a member of the Anopheles umbrosus group, which consists of a dozen species that are restricted in their distribution to Southeast Asia. Anopheles letifer is found in the coastal plains of Thailand, W. Malaysia, Sumatra and Borneo.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: Anopheles letifer is an important vector of the rural form of W. bancrofti in West Malaysia. Wharton et al., (1963) incriminated this mosquito as a vector in nature. Out of 2,867 females dissected from Bukit Mandul, Selangor State, Malaysia, eight were found positive for all stages and five for infective larvae. Experimentally also

this mosquito is a good vector for the rural strain of W. bancrofti. Wharton et al., (1963) obtained 50 mosquitoes with infective larvae out of 61 females that were fed (82%) and Cheong et al., (1968) obtained 44.7% with infective larvae out of 331 fed females. Anopheles letifer is a poor vector of B. malayi as only 5% of 242 females became infective (Cheong et al., 1968).

BIOLOGY: A species of the lowlands and coastal plains, A. letifer readily bites man and will enter houses at night to feed. It is also strongly attracted to chickens and ducks. They do not rest within houses during the day but will rest beneath houses and on upright shaded stems in vegetation. Breeds in stagnant pools and drains, mostly in the shade, in somewhat arid wastes. The seasonal density shows little variation.

CONTROL: It is still susceptible to the chlorinated hydrocarbon insecticides, although there was a tendency towards the development of vigour tolerance at the end of two cycles of spraying of DDT in W. Malaysia.

4. Anopheles (Anopheles) whartoni Reid, 1963 :

This mosquito belongs to the Anopheles umbrosus group and resembles A. letifer. It is known only from W. Malaysia, from the States of Pahang and Kelantan, where it occurs in the coastal plains.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: Wharton (1960) found this mosquito to be infected in nature with the rural form of W. bancrofti.

Wharton (1960) incriminated this species (then thought to be A. letifer) as the vector of the rural strain of W. bancrofti in nature and experimentally.

BIOLOGY: Resembles A. letifer in its habits.

CONTROL: Susceptibility to insecticides not known.

- 5. Anopheles (Cellia) farauti Lawran, 1902.
- 6. Anopheles (Cellia) punctulatus Donitz, 1901.
- 7. Anopheles (Cellia) koliensis Owen, 1945.

These three closely related species make up the 'punctulatus' group. The most widespread of these three species, A. farauti, occurs in the Moluccas, New Guinea, North Australia, Santa Cruz group and the New Hebrides. Anopheles punctulatus and A. koliensis occur in New Guinea, Solomons and the Bismarck Archipelago.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: Anopheles farauti is the main vector of W. bancrofti in the coastal tracts of northernWest Irian (New Guinea) and on the island of Pam. Toffaleti and King (1947) and de Rook (1957a; 1959); have shown it to be an extremely efficient vector in nature. It is also responsible for transmitting periodic bancroftian filariasis in Guadalcanal. It is the most important vector of malaria throughout its range. Anopheles koliensis and, to a lesser extent, A. punctulatus are responsible for transmission of periodic W. bancrofti in the interior of northern West Irian (Toffaleti and King, 1947; van Dijk 1959). Anopheles punctulatus and A. koliensis are also vectors of malaria in New Guinea and Guadalcanal.

BIOLOGY: All three species breed in water well-exposed to sunlight. Anopheles farauti breeds in brackish water to fresh water in ponds and swamps. Anopheles punctulatus breeds in drains and ditches beside the road; while A. koliensis breeds in temporary pools and grassland. The three species will readily enter houses to feed on man. Feeding takes place throughout the night with a peak before midnight for A. farauti and after midnight for A. punctulatus and A. koliensis. They generally do not rest indoors during the day and are found resting outdoors among vegetation, in caves and ground holes, among firewood and stone fences.

CONTROL: All three species are as yet susceptible to the chlorinated hydrocarbon insecticides. In the Solomons, A. koliensis and A. punctulatus almost disappeared after two cycles of DDT spraying (Chow, 1965).

8. Anopheles (Anopheles) bancrofti GILES, 1902:

This species occurs in northern Australia, New Guinea and the Bismarck Archipelago.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: Anopheles bancrofti is the main vector of periodic W. bancrofti in the upper reaches of the Digoel River in New Guinea (Elsbach 1937; Iyengar, 1959).

9. Aedes (Finlaya) 'niveus' :

Members of the Aedes niveus subgroup occur in the Oriental region from India to Japan. Most of the members occur in the Indo-Malayan area. It is difficult to differentiate the females of this complex, but the males may be readily distinguished by their genitalia.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: Members of the complex have been incriminated as the only vectors of subperiodic W. bancrofti in West Thailand, by Harinasuta et al., (1967). Dissections of over 2,700 females gave an infective rate of 0.22% with third-stage larvae.

BIOLOGY: Very little is known on the biology of these species. The immature stages of the *A. niveus* subgroup have been collected from tree holes and bamboo stumps. The females will bite during the day in shade, although they feed mostly at sunset and, to a lesser extent, at sunrise. In Malaya, these mosquitoes are mostly canopy feeders (Wharton, 1962).

TABLE III

Natural and Experimental infections of Wuchereria bancrofti in Mosquitoes in South and Southeast Asia

Mosquito Species	C	0		INFECTIONS RATE (%)	
	Country		NATURAL	EXPERIMENTAL	Reference
Culex pipiens fatigans	India: Kerala Mangalore Laccadive Isl. Punjab, Delhi U.P., Rajastan BANGLADESH: SRI LANKA: BURMA: Rangoon SINGAPORE: MALAYSIA: West INDONESIA: Java		13.9 A 5.1 (3, 309) A 1.3 I 12.5 A 0.13 (10, 221) I 1.1 (3, 548) I 2.9 (115, 529) A 0.36 (21, 921) I 0.9 (1, 152) I 0.1 (2, 895) I 0.3 (24, 271) I 1.0 (25, 394) I	3-7	Iyengar, 1938 Pal et al., 1960 Krishnaswami, 1955 Subramaniam et al., 19 Krishnaswami et al., 19 Wolfe& Aslamkhan, 19 Abdulcader, 1965 de Meillon et al., 1967a Danaraj et al., 1958 Colbourne & Ng, 1972 Wharton, 1960 Chow, 1959 Lie et al., 1958
		" " Kabaena	6 A	61 (102) 59 (22) 33 (175)	Flu, 1929 Prawirochardjo, 1939 Brug, 1920 Brug, 1938
		West Irian Papua-New Guinea	nivers, girn	15 (13) 25.5 (27)	Brug & de Rook, 1933 McMillan, 1960
Anopheles (A.) letifer	MALAYSIA:	West	0.19 (2, 867) I	82(61)	Wharton et al., 1963
Anopheles (C.) maculatus	**	"	0.06 (3,449) I	44.7 75 (8)	Cheong et al., 1968 Wharton et al., 1963
Anopheles (A.) whartoni Anopheles (C.) leucosphyrus Anopheles (A.) barbirostris	" " Indonesia:	Sarawak Java	2.2 I 0.2 0.8 (5,492) A 1.5 (263) A	62.6 38 (16) 66 (6)	Cheong & Omar, 1965 Wharton, 1960 Zulucta, de, 1957 Zulucta, de, 1957 Prawirohardjo, 1939
Anopheles (C.) farauti		Sulawesi West Irian	46.2 (13) 6.61	29 (144) 92 (50)	Brug, 1938 Toffaleti & King, 1947 Rook, de, 1957a
Anopheles (C.) punctulatus Anopheles (C.) koliensis		39 39 39 39	1.5 (199) I 8.3 (36) 7.1 (154)	53 (36)	"1959 Toff leti & King, 1947 "van Dijk, 1959
Anopheles (A.) bancrofti Anopheles (C.) annularis Anopheles (C.) sundiacus Anopheles (C.) subpictus Anopheles (C.) vagus		Java "	10.9 (655)	95 (22) 49 (284) 66 (6) 50 (18) 72 (54) 55 (9)	Elsbach, 1937 Prawirohardjo,1939
Anopheles (C.) tessellatus Anopheles (C.) aconitus Mansonia (M.) uniformis		Sulawesi Irian	1.3 (227) I	100 (3) 68 (31) 94.2 (97) 91 (56)	Brug, 1938 Rook, de, 1959 van Dijk, 1959
Mansonia (M.) papuensis Aedes (F.) kochi Culex (C.) bitaeniorhynchus Culex (C.) annulirostris		33 33 33 37	1.6 (190) I 2.6 (142) I 1.6 (184) I	83 (43) 70 (111) 87 (54)	Rook, de, 1957a " 1959
Culex (C.) 'vishnui' group Culex (C.) whitmorei Culex (C.) fuscocephalus Atmigeres (A.) obturbans		Sulawesi	2.2 (268)	89 (157) 66 (3) 45 (197) 100 (3) 75 (12)	" 1957b Brug, 1938 " " " " Toffaleti & King, 1947

Figures in brackets represent total mosquitoes dissected. A = all stages of larvae; I - infective larvae

Table IV

Natural and Experimental Infections of Brugia malayi in Mosquitoes in South and Southeast Asia

Mosouito Species	COUNTRY		INFECTIONS RATE (%)		
MOSQUITO SPECIES			NATURAL	EXPERIMENTAL	REFERENCE
NOCTURNAL PERIODIC Mansonia (M.) annulifera	INDIA:	Kerala ," Madras	19.2 A 27.8 (1, 158) A	59.2	Iyengar, 1938 Pal et al., 1960 Raghavan & Krishnan, 1949
Mansonia (M.) uniformis	SRI LANKA: THAILAND: MALAYSIA: INDIA: SRI LANKA: THAILAND:	E. Province South Peninsula Kerala N.W. Province South Chumporn	4.7 (577) A 17.3 (52) A 6.5 A 5.9 (856) A 1.4 (4, 361) A 11.4 (44) A 0.22 (10, 159) I	68 (76)	Carter 1948 Iyengar, 1953 Reid et al., 1962 Iyengar, 1938 Parl et al., 1960 Carter, 1948 Iyengar, 1953 Harinasuta et al., 1970a
Mansonia (M.) indiana	Malaysia: India: Sri Lanka: Thailand:	Surat Thani Peninsula "Kerala N.W. Province South Chumporn	0.3 (338) I 0.1 I 0.02 (4, 316) I 3.3 A 3.1 (65) A 8.8 (317) A 0.28 (8, 823) I	98 (400 100 (22)	Hodgkin, 1930-40 Reid et al., 1962 Iyengar, 1938 Carter, 1948 Iyengar, 1953 Harinasuta et al., 1970a
Mansonia (M.) annulata Mansonia (M.) bonneae	valsana a	"	0.04 (2, 790) I 0.16 (2, 790) I	remelo ni	,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,,
Mansonia (M.) dives Anopheles (A.) donaldi Anopheles (A.) campestris Anopheles (A.) barbirostris Anopheles (A.) nigerrimus NOCTURNAL SUBPERIODIC	MALAYSIA: THAILAND: SRI LANKA: SRI LANKA	Peninsula " South N.W. Province	1.4 (146) I 0.5 (3, 573) I 11.7 (358) A 1.9 (421) A	0.0 2 to 36 88 (24) 60 (25)	Wharton, 1962 ", ", 1963 Wharton et al., 1963 Reid et al., 1962 Iyengar, 1953 Carter, 1948 Niles, 1961
Mansonia (M.) bonneae	THAILAND: MALAYSIA:	Chumporn Peninsula	0.21 (5, 036) I 7.1 1.0 (893) I		Guptavanij et al., 1971 Wharton, 1962 Ramachandran et al., 1970
Mansonia (M.) dives	MALAYSIA:	"	0.6 0.3 (919) I		Wharton, 1962 Ramachandran et al., 197
Mansonia (M.) divesibonneae		", C.L.L	0.4		Wharton, 1962
Mansonia (M.) annulata		Sabah Peninsula	0.2 (1, 465) I · 0.3 I	94-100	Barclay, 1969 Wharton, 1962
Mansonia (M.) uniformis		" "	0.1 I 0.3 (14) I	95 (138) 58-100 98 (300)	Hodgkin, 1938-40 Wharton, 1962 Ramachandran <i>et al.</i> , 1970 Hodgkin, 1938-40
	THAILAND:	Chumporn	0.04 (7, 045) I		Guptavanij et al., 1971

B. Brugia malayi

Mosquitoes belonging to the subgenus Mansonia (Mansonioides) are the most important vectors of B. malayi. A few species of Anopheles will also transmit this filaria. The vectors of B. malayi are shown in Tables II and IV.

Mansonia (Mansonioides)

The only subgenus of Mansonia occurring in Southeast Asia is the Mansonioides. The Coquillettidia, until recently included as a subgenus of Mansonia, is now considered as a distinct genus. The Mansonioides is predominantly Oriental although its range extends from New Guinea and Japan in the east to Africa in the west. Six species of Mansonioides occur in Southeast Asia and all of them are vectors of Brugia malayi. Although species of Anopheles may transmit the periodic strain of B. malayi, the Mansonia are the main vectors of Malayan filariasis. They are generally refractory in infections of W. bancrofti except for M. uniformis which transmits the nocturnally periodic W. bancrofti in the Berau region of New Guinea (de Rook, 1957b).

The eggs are laid in clusters on the under-surface of floating leaves or on the stems of emergent aquatic plants. The larvae and pupae obtain their supply of oxygen by attaching their siphon to the roots of aquatic plants. It was earlier believed that the water cabbage *Pistia stratiotes* was the main plant for attachment and that it was in fact essential for development (Iyengar, 1938). It is now known that they will attach to a large number of other aquatic plants and trees (Burton, 1959-60; Wharton, 1962). The adults are fierce biters and feed on man indoors and out-of-doors. They are generally nocturnal in habit but may bite under dense shade during the day. The length of their life cycle, approximately a month, is relatively long.

CONTROL OF MANSONIA SPECIES: The use of oils is not effective against the immature stages of Mansonia. However, effective control of the immature stages of M. annulifera, M. indiana and M. uniformis may be obtained by physically or chemically destroying the host plant. Chow (1953) in Ceylon destroyed Pistia stratiotes by using the sodium salt of methyl-chlorophenoxyacetic acid and Salvinia with pentachlorophenol (Chow, Thevasagayam and Wambeek, 1955), and obtained good results. These chemicals are ineffective against the swamp-forest mosquitoes.

The adults of *Mansonia* are still susceptible to insecticides. The use of chlorinated hydrocarbons as residual insecticide sprays against adults have been effective in several countries against *M. uniformis* and *M. annulifera*: e.g. DDT in Ceylon (Antonipulle et al., 1958); Dieldrin in India; DDT in Thailand (Harinasuta, Charoenlarp, Guptavanij, Sucharit, Deesin, Surathin and Vutikes, 1970b). Wharton (1958) used dieldrin against *M. bonneae/dives* without reduction of the number of mosquito attacks or the infection rate.

10. Mansonia (Mansonioides) annulifera (Theobald, 1901):

Occurring widely throughout the Oriental region from India, Ceylon to Indo-China and south through Malaysia, Indonesia to New Guinea and the Philippines.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: This mosquito is the dominant vector of periodic B. malayi in India and Ceylon (Iyengar, 1938; Pal et al., 1960) and to some extent, of periodic B. malayi in Thailand (Iyengar, 1953) and in Kalimantan, Indonesia (Kariadi, 1938). It is a poor vector of the subperiodic strain of B. malayi.

BIOLOGY: Mansonia annulifera is a very domestic mosquito. It breeds profusely in small ponds covered over with the water cabbage Pistia stratiotes. These small ponds are present in the yard of almost every house in the South Indian state of Kerala. The larvae and pupae of M, annulifera will also attach to Eichhornia and other aquatic plants.

Mansonia annulifera will readily bite man indoors and outdoors and has an anthropophylic index of 43.7. They enter houses after sunset and will feed throughout the night with a peak after midnight. Many females will rest indoors during the day. In collections made indoors in Kerala State, over a period of 18 months, 95% were observed to rest on walls below height of five feet. Outdoors they were collected from vegetation, resting on stones, etc. (Pal et al., 1960). Iyengar (1938) considered that they have a fairly short flight range. They were prevalent throughout the year in Ernakulam, S. India, with a high peak during the post-monsoon months e.g. September to November.

11. Mansonioides (Mansonioides) uniformis (Theobald, 1901):

This mosquito occurs extensively over the Oriental region and also extends to the Ethiopian and Australasian regions.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: A very important vector of B. malayi. It plays an important part in the transmission of periodic B. malayi in India (Iyengar, 1938; Pal et al., 1968), in Thailand (Harinasuta et al., 1970a) and in W. Malaysia (Hodgkin 1938—40; Reid et al., 1962). It also transmits the subperiodic strain of B. malayi in S. Thailand (Guptavanij, Harinasuta, Sucharit and Vutikes, 1971) and in Malaysia (Wharton, 1962; Ramachandran et al., 1970). In Indonesia it transmits B. malayi (periodically uncertain) in Kalimantan, Borneo (Kariadi, 1938). It is the only Mansonia that transmits W. bancrofti in the Berau region of West Irian (de Rook, 1969).

BIOLOGY: Breeds in open swamps and in ponds and pools. The immature stages attach to Eichhornia, Pistia and a host of other aquatic plants (Burton, 1960). Mansonia uniformis prefers to feed on cattle and has a very low anthropophylic index, being 2.8% in India (Pal et al., 1960) and 2.0% in W. Malaysia (Wharton, 1962). It is an exophylic species but will enter houses to feed on man. Feeding starts at dusk and proceeds through the night with the peak after midnight. They do not rest in houses during the day. Out-of-doors, they are found resting on the underside of leaves. Wharton (1962) believes that this species had a dispersal of at least two miles.

12. Mansonia (Mansoniodes) indiana Edwards, 1930:

Occurs in Sri Lanka, India, through Burma, Thailand, Vietnam, W. Malaysia, Java and Sumatra in Indonesia and in New Guinea.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: Mansonia indiana is a minor vector of periodic B. malayi in India (Iyengar 1938), S. Thailand (Harinasuta et al., 1970a) and was involved in the transmission of B. malayi in Sri Lanka. In Java, Indonesia, it was incriminated as the vector of subperiodic B. malayi in a focus of infection, just west of Jakarta (Lie et al., 1960). Hoedojo and Oemijati (1972) have recently reported the reduction of filariasis in this area. They attribute this mainly to the environmental changes around the village, brought about by the drainage of the swamp and the provision of an irrigation canal, the marsh being replaced by paddy fields.

BIOLOGY: Mansonia indiana is known to attach to the roots of of the water hyacinth Eichhornia crassipes. They occur in open swamps. The adults can be collected in cattle sheds. Apparently they do not occur in high densities and are therefore only of minor importance as vectors.

- 13. Mansonia (Mansonioides) bonneae Edwards, 1930 :
- 14. Mansonia (Mansonioides) dives (Schiner, 1868);

These two species resemble each other closely. Mansonia dives has been known in the past as M. longipalpis. In the past, many records referring to M. longipalpis may in fact refer to either M. dives or M. bonneae or to both. Of the two species M. dives has a wider distribution and is found in India, Thailand, W. Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Philippines, New Guinea, Australia and the Bismarck Archipelago. Mansonia bonneae is found in Thailand, W. Malaysia, Borneo, Celebes and the Philippines. Both species occur in lowland ungle swamps.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: Both mosquitoes, M. bonneae and M. dives are important vectors of the subperiodic B. malayi in W. Malaysia (Wharton, 1962; Ramachandran, Cheong, Sivanandam, Hassan and Mahadevan, 1970) and in Sabah (Barclay 1969). Mansonia bonneae transmits the subperiodic B. malayi in Thailand (Guptavanij et at., 1971). Mansonia dives is also capable of transmitting the periodic strain of B. malayi in W. Malaysia (Wharton et al., 1963). Experimentally also M. dives is much more efficient than M. bonneae in transmitting the periodic strain of B. malayi and of B. pahangi. Mansonia bonneae is capable of transmitting Dirofilaria infection in dogs and monkeys in nature.

BIOLOGY: Both species breed in swamp forests and are abundant in the east coast of Peninsular Malaysia. The immature stages are able to attach to roots and pneumatophores of tree and other plants. It is extremely difficult to collect the immature stages in nature or to breed these species in the laboratory.

These two species feed readily on man and on many other animals and birds. Precipitin tests on adults caught near houses in Malaya showed that 16% had fed on man. They bite at ground level and at the canopy. They occur throughout the year.

15. Mansonia (Mansonioides) annulata Leicester, 1908:

Mansonia annulata is known to occur in Thailand, W. Malaysia, Sumatra and Borneo of Indonesia and in the Philippines. It occurs in swamps at the very verge of the forest.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: This mosquito transmits the subperiodic form of B. malayi in Sumatra (Brug and de Rook, 1930; Rees et al., 1958) in Kalimantan (Klokke, 1961) and in West Malaysia (Wharton 1962). Hodgkin (1938-40) and Wharton (1962) also showed that experimentally it is an efficient vector of the subperiodic B. malayi as 94% to 100% of the mosquitoes became infective. In an area in S. Thailand where the periodic B. malayi is present, Harinasuta et al., (1970a) obtained a single M. annulata with infective larvae out of 2,790 dissected (0.036%).

BIOLOGY: Mansonia annulata breeds in swamps only, at the fringe of jungles, and have not been collected in open swamps or in swamp forests. The immature stages have been found attached to the roots of two species of trees and two species of grasses. It will feed on man, cattle, goats, dogs and birds. They feed during the day in small numbers, the peak being after sunset. They do not rest indoors during the day. Mansonia annulata does not show any seasonal fluctuations in Malaysia.

16. Anopheles (Anopheles) barbirostris Van Der Wulp, 1884:

Anopheles barbirostris, the most common member of the 'barbirostris' group, is easily confused with two other members of this group, e.g. A. campestris and A. donaldi, and can only be identified with certainty by examination of the immature stages. It has a widespread distribution and occurs in India, Ceylon, Burma, Thailand, Khmer, Southern China, W. Malaysia and from Sumatra to the Celebes, but not in Borneo.

Although A. barbirostris has a wide distribution in Southeast Asia, it has only been established as a vector of B. malayi in the Celebes, in Indonesia, where Jurgens (1932) reported it as an important vector in nature. In experimental infection as well, it appears to be an extremely efficient vector of B. malayi (Jurgens, 1932; Brug, 1937).

BIOLOGY: Anopheles barbirostris breeds in swamps and deep ponds with vegetation and some shade. It will also breed in paddy fields (Reid, 1968). This mosquito is zoophylic throughout its range except in the Celebes, where it enters houses and bites man readily.

CONTROL: Still susceptible to DDT, BHC and dieldrin.

17. Anopheles (Anopheles) campestris Reid, 1962:

This mosquito, a member of the 'barbirostris' group, was formerly referred to as the 'dark-winged' form of A. barbirostris. It occurs on the alluvial plains and deltas of W. Malaysia and Thailand (Reid, 1968).

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: Reid et al., (1962) showed that it is an efficient vector of the periodic form of B. malayi in Malaysia, where it also transmits malaria.

BIOLOGY: Anopheles campestris breeds in deep pools, wells and swamps, with vegetation and at least some shade. It can tolerate low concentrations of sea water as well. The adults are anthropophylic and will readily enter houses to bite. Some of them will rest in houses during the day. The majority rest on grass and bushes under shade.

CONTROL: This mosquito is still susceptible to DDT, BHC and dieldrin. Due to its habit of resting indoors, A. campestris disappeared after just one cycle of spraying in Malaysia (Moorhouse and Chooi, 1964).

18. Anopheles (Anopheles) donaldi Reid, 1962:

This mosquito is also a member of the 'barbirostris' group. It occurs in W. Malaysia, Borneo, Thailand and may also be present in Sumatra and Java. In Borneo it appears to be the dominant member of the 'barbirostris' group.

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: Wharton found this species to transmit periodic Brugia malayi in Ulu Lui, Selangor State, and W. Malaysia. Out of 146 wild-caught A. donaldi dissected, two were positive for infective larvae. It is a minor vector of malaria in W. Malaysia and Borneo.

BIOLOGY: The breeding places of A. donaldi are similar to those of A. barbirostris i.e. deeper ponds, pools and marshes, with Vegetation and at least some shade. In Borneo they appear to prefer feeding on cattle, but despite this, may enter houses at night to feed on man. They do not rest in houses during the day.

C. Laboratory vectors:

From the foregoing account it is clear that the vectors of filariasis are numerous and that they differ with the species, strain and geographical distribution of the parasite. Wuchereria bancrofti affords a good example of this: The diurnal subperiodic form in the South Pacific is mostly transmitted by members of the 'scutellaris' group of Aedes (Stegomyia) and C. fatigans is refractory to this infection; the nocturnal subperiodic form in Southern Thailand is transmitted by members of the 'niveus' group of Aedes (Finlaya); the urban strain of nocturnally periodic W. bancrofti is widely transmitted by C. p. fatigans, while the rural strain is transmitted by species of Anopheles. A vector that is capable of transmitting more than one species and several strains of filarial parasites, and that can be easily maintained in the laboratory, would obviously be advantagous in the experimental study of filariasis. Aedes (Finlaya) togoi is such a vector.

1. Aedes (Finlaya) togoi (Theobald, 1907):

This mosquito is primarily found in temperate climates, from Siberia through Japan, Ryukyu-Retto, Korea, China, Taiwan and Marcus Island. Recently it has been reported to occur in Vietnam, Thailand and Malaysia (Ramalingam, 1969).

RELATION TO FILARIASIS: Aedes togoi is a vector of nocturnal periodic B. malayi in nature in Japan (Sasa, Hayashi, Kano and Stato, 1952; Seo, Rim, Lim, Kang and Park, 1968). In Japan it is experimentally capable of transmitting periodic W. bancrofti. Ramachandran, Wharton, Dunn and Kershaw (1963) showed that Ae. togoi was an extremely good experimental vector of the periodic and subperiodic strain of B. malayi; of the rural strain of W. bancrofti; of B. pahangi; of Dirofilaria immitis, of a species of Breinlia and finally of a species of Setaria. It is also capable of transmitting B. patei.

BIOLOGY: In nature, Ae. togoi breeds in brackish water, in rock and tidal pools by the sea, often exposed to direct sunlight. In Japan they also breed inland in artificial containers with rain water. They feed throughout the day, with peaks after sunset and sunrise. They enter houses to feed, but prefer cattle to man.

Aedes togoi adapts easily to laboratory conditions. They will lay their eggs on moist filter paper and the larvae will breed in de-chlorinated tap water. The females will feed readily on guinea-pigs or on cats, and will mate in cages.

2. Armigeres (Armigeres) subalbatus (Coquillett, 1898):

This species is present throughout the Oriental region, from Japan to India.

relation to filariasis: Wharton (1962) found Armigeres subalbatus to be an excellent vector of Brugia pahangi, and in a series of experiments he obtained 90% to 100% infective larvae when the carrier had a minimum of one microfilaria per c.mm. of blood. The infective larvae were formed relatively early, i.e. on the 7th or 8th day after the blood meal. With the periodic and subperiodic strain of B. malayi, Armigeres subalbatus is a poor vector with an infective rate of 0% to 20%. Since it is not possible to differentiate the microfilariae of B. malayi from that of B. pahangi, Armigeres subalbatus could be infected and used for differential diagnosis of these two species.

BIOLOGY: This species breeds in waters with very high organic pollution. In the field it breeds in rotting coconuts, bamboo stumps, tree holes and in septic tanks. It feeds at dusk and soon after sunset. It can easily be colonised in the laboratory. It is a big and hardy mosquito.

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