

ORIGINAL ARTICLE



# Identification of potential vectors of *Dirofilaria immitis* and *Brugia pahangi* (Spirurida: Filariidae): First observation of infective third-stage larva of *B. pahangi* in *Culex quinquefasciatus* (Diptera: Culicidae)

Wei Yin Vinnie-Siow<sup>1</sup><sup>a</sup>, Van Lun Low<sup>2</sup>, Tiong Kai Tan<sup>3</sup>, Meng Li Wong<sup>2</sup>, Cherg Shii Leong<sup>3</sup>, Nazni Wasi Ahmad<sup>3</sup> and Yvonne Ai Lian Lim<sup>3</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Department of Parasitology, Faculty of Medicine, Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia; <sup>b</sup>Higher Institution Centre of Excellence (HiCoE), Tropical Infectious Diseases Research and Education Centre (TIDREC), Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia; <sup>c</sup>Medical Entomology Unit, Infectious Disease Research Centre, Institute for Medical Research, National Institute of Health, Ministry of Health, Selangor, Malaysia

## ABSTRACT

Information on the mosquito species that transmit canine filariosis is scanty. Hence, an experimental study was conducted to identify the potential vectors responsible for the transmission of *D. immitis* Leidy and *B. pahangi* Buckley & Edeson. A total of 367 mosquitoes belonging to six species containing both laboratory and field strains (i.e. *Aedes togoi* Theobald, *Aedes aegypti* Linnaeus, *Aedes albopictus* Skuse, *Culex quinquefasciatus* Say, *Culex vishnui* Theobald and *Anopheles dirus* Peyton & Harrison) were used in this study. All mosquitoes were artificially fed on either *D. immitis* or *B. pahangi* microfilariae (mfs) infected blood by using the Hemotek™ membrane feeding system. Out of 367 mosquitoes, 228 (64.9%) were fully engorged. After feeding on *D. immitis* (20%) and *B. pahangi* (33%) mfs positive blood, the mortality rates for *Cx. quinquefasciatus* were found to be slightly lower than that of other species of mosquitoes. On the other hand, majority of *An. dirus* were found to be incapable to withstand the infection of mfs as the mortality rates were relatively high (*D. immitis* = 71.4%; *B. pahangi* = 100.0%). *Brugia pahangi* was detected in *Ae. togoi* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* with infection rates of 50% and 25%, respectively. *Aedes togoi* was the only species infected with *D. immitis* with an infection rate of 69%. Our results showed that *Ae. togoi* was an excellent experimental vector for both *D. immitis* and *B. pahangi*. This study also documented the observation of *B. pahangi*, for the first time in the head region of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* under a laboratory setting.

## KEYWORDS

*Brugia pahangi*; *Dirofilaria immitis*; filaria; mosquitoes; vector

## 1.0 Introduction

Mosquito-borne filarioid nematodes such as *Dirofilaria immitis* and *Brugia pahangi* cause diseases to mammals, especially in domestic dogs and cats [1,2]. *Dirofilaria immitis* has a wide geographical distribution whereas *B. pahangi* is endemic in Southeast Asia (i.e. Malaysia, Thailand and Indonesia) [3,4]. Both parasites principally infect canine host, but the increasing reports of human filariosis highlight their potential as emerging zoonosis globally [2,5]. Transmission of filarioid parasites depends on the availability of microfilaraemic hosts, vectors, and favorable temperatures for the growth of the infectious stages in mosquitoes [6]. Mosquitoes of the genera *Aedes*, *Culex*, and *Anopheles* are the main vectors of filarioid parasites and they transmit L3 infective larvae of these parasites to potential hosts through their bites [7].

The climate and weather in Malaysia provide a conducive environment for all these species of mosquitoes and consequently, their proliferation can increase the risk of transmission [8]. In Malaysia,

*Mansonia indiana* Edwards was identified as the vector of *D. immitis* for the first time in 1937 [9]. Subsequently, *Mansonia dives* Schiner, *Mansonia bonnea* Edwards, *Mansonia annulata* Leicester, *Mansonia uniformis* Theobald, *Anopheles campestris* Reid, *Anopheles lesteri* Baisas, *Anopheles nigerrimus* Giles were also identified as the vectors in Malaysia [10–12]. On the other hand, infection of *B. pahangi* was observed in mosquitoes of five genera, *Mansonia*, *Aedes*, *Anopheles*, *Armigeres* and *Culex*. Notably, *Armigeres obturbans* Walker was reported as an efficient vector in transmitting *B. pahangi* in various studies [13–15].

Experimental studies on different mosquito species in Southeast Asia have been conducted to identify the potential vectors of *D. immitis* and *Brugia* spp [16–18]. However, most experimental studies were on *Brugia malayi* Brug and information regarding *in vitro* trial of potential vectors of *B. pahangi* is scarce. Indeed, an experimental study on different mosquito species or different populations is important for incriminating additional vectors responsible for transmission.

**CONTACT** Van Lun Low  [vanlun\\_low@um.edu.my](mailto:vanlun_low@um.edu.my)  Higher Institution Centre of Excellence (HiCoE), Tropical Infectious Diseases Research and Education Centre (TIDREC), Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur 50603, Malaysia; Tiong Kai Tan  [tantk@um.edu.my](mailto:tantk@um.edu.my)  Department of Parasitology, Faculty of Medicine

Accordingly, this study was conducted to identify the potential vectors of *D. immitis* and *B. pahangi* through an *in vitro* trial using field and laboratory strains of various mosquito species.

## 2.0 Methods

### 2.1 Ethics statement

This study was approved by the Medical Ethics Committee of Department Veterinary Services Malaysia [JPV: BPI/500-4/1/2 (18)] and the Institutional Biosafety and Biosecurity Committee, Universiti Malaya [UMIBBC/NOI/R/TNC/TIDREC-014/13,062,019]. Written informed consents were obtained from the owners of the animal shelters.

### 2.2 Microfilariae inoculums

Microfilaraemic blood samples (*D. immitis* and *B. pahangi*) were collected from infected dogs in an animal shelter located in Semenyih, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. Dog blood samples were collected randomly from the animal shelters and screened for filarial parasites and other pathogens by using serological test and microscopic Giemsa stain technique prior to selecting dogs for the present study [19–21]. After examination, a one-time blood collection was performed on two dogs; one was positive with single infection of *B. pahangi* and another one with single infection of *D. immitis*. Ten milliliters of blood samples were collected in Citrate Phosphate Dextrose Adenine (CDPA) anticoagulated blood tubes by a trained veterinarian and stored at 4°C until further processing. No medications were given to these animals prior to blood collections. The presence, viability, and number of mfs in all samples obtained were confirmed by microscopic technique. Approximately, 100 µl of blood was covered with a cover slide, and mfs were counted by microscopic examination under 40x and 100x magnifications. Steps were repeated thrice, and an average was taken to determine the intensity of the infection. Further species identification of filarioid parasites was performed using a molecular technique [21]. In addition, a dog blood sample that was negative with all the detection techniques was taken and used as a control (control blood). Subsequently, blood was immediately fed to the mosquitoes by using the Hemotek™ system.

### 2.3 Mosquitoes

#### 2.3.1 Field strains

Host-seeking mosquitoes were collected from urban and sub-urban areas in Klang Valley by using a human-landing catch technique. Briefly, human landing catch was conducted by sitting on the chairs with legs exposed. Collectors caught the landing mosquitoes

with a transparent glass tube. *Aedes aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* were collected from urban areas (GPS coordinate: 3.1162287831250723, 101.65313602754688), whereas *Cx. vishnui* was collected from a sub-urban area (GPS coordinate: 3.5623536415921504; 101.09889656993488). The age of the adult mosquitoes collected from field was unknown. Mosquitoes were transferred into plastic cups with moist cotton wool and transported to the laboratory for oral inoculation to the filarial infected blood.

#### 2.3.2 Laboratory strains

Laboratory strains of *Ae. aegypti*, *Ae. albopictus*, *Ae. togoi*, *Cx. quinquefasciatus* originated from Institute for Medical Research Malaysia, and *An. dirus* originated from Malaria Research and Reference Reagent Resource Center (MR4/BEI resources) were reared and maintained in an insectarium under standard conditions (i.e. 26 ± 2°C) and a relative humidity (RH) of 80 ± 10% under a L12:D12 h light: dark cycle. In addition, 10% of sugar solution was provided daily to the mosquitoes as food source. Female mosquitoes aged 5–7 days were chosen for the inoculation experiments.

### 2.4 Infection of mosquitoes with microfilariae

Mosquitoes were starved overnight before the inoculation experiments. Three study groups were included: *D. immitis*-inoculated group, *B. pahangi*-inoculated group and negative control. Number of mosquitoes were recorded and separated into several cups according to species and placed inside a glove box approximately 127 cm × 254 cm × 95 cm in dimensions. Laboratory and field strains of mosquitoes were allowed to feed through Hemotek™ system (Discovery Workshop, UK) which had a surface area of 9.62cm<sup>2</sup> with blood containing single infection of *D. immitis* or *B. pahangi* mfs and negative control blood (negative control: *Ae. togoi* laboratory strain only) in an Arthropod Containment Level 2 (ACL2) laboratory located at Department of Parasitology, Universiti Malaya. Firstly, rubber rings were used to keep five aluminum holders in place after coated with parafilm. Two milliliters of blood were injected into the ports, which were then sealed with plastic stoppers. The temperature of the blood meal was maintained at 37°C using an electric heating element in the Hemotek™ system throughout the blood feeding process. The blood was fed to the mosquitoes by placing the cups (each carrying different species of mosquitoes) underneath the feeder, with the cup's nylon netting in contact with the feeder's membrane. The microfilaraemic counts of *D. immitis* and *B. pahangi* in the blood samples were 1000mfs/ml and 9000mfs/ml, respectively. All mosquitoes were sorted after inoculation. The cups containing mosquitoes were placed in a – 20°C freezer for 30 seconds to induce

a cold anaesthesia. The cups which contained anaesthetised mosquitoes were then placed inside an ice box. Each mosquito that had been fed with either *D. immitis* or *B. pahangi* infected blood was inspected under the Olympus SZ51 stereomicroscope to examine if it had a full meal; and to determine the proportion of engorged females with blood bloated abdomens. Fully engorged female mosquitoes were transferred to a new cup according to species. Mosquitoes that did not take a full blood meal or did not take any meal were discarded.

### 2.5 Maintenance of the mosquitoes after inoculation

Mosquitoes were kept for 14 days [22] in a double containment (inner containment: sterile polystyrene cup, outer containment: small cage of 24 cm × 18.5 cm × 13 cm dimensions). The mosquitoes were maintained in ACL2 at 26°C with relative humidity of 85% and provided with 10% sugar solution. All mosquitoes were dissected individually after 14 days.

### 2.6 Assessment of mosquito mortality and detection of filarioid larvae in mosquitoes

Mortality of mosquitoes was recorded daily for 14 days, and dead mosquitoes were dissected to examine the presence of filarioid parasites. Mosquitoes were anaesthetized briefly by placing them in a freezer at -20°C for 30 sec. The mosquitoes were immobilized by removing their legs and wings on a chill table. Subsequently, they were kept at 4°C and dissected individually in a drop of buffered saline on a slide before microscopic examination. The head, thorax and abdomen of the mosquitoes were separated. Each body part was transferred to separate drops of buffered saline and macerated to liberate larvae of the filarioid parasites. Clean entomological forceps and needles were used for each dissection. All mosquitoes were dissected under a dissecting microscope. The number and location of larvae, and the stage of development were recorded.

### 2.7 Data analysis

Cumulative mortality rates were calculated based on the total number of mosquitoes that died naturally on 1-, 7- and 14-day post infection (dpi) divided with the total number of blood-fed mosquitoes. In addition, mortality rates were calculated by dividing the numbers of mosquitoes surviving for 14 days after the infective blood meal by the number of mosquitoes that took complete blood meals [4].

The accumulative numbers of dead mosquitoes were plotted against time, and the correlation coefficient were calculated and compared by using IBM SPSS V21 [23]. Infection rate (IR) was calculated based on the equation below [4].

$$\text{Infection rate (IR)} = \frac{\text{Number of blood fed mosquitoes with L3 in body}}{\text{Surviving mosquitoes at the end of incubation period}} \times 100\%$$

## 3.0 Results

### 3.1 Feeding rates

The feeding rates were calculated as shown in Table 1. Three groups of mosquitoes had 100% feeding rate [i.e.; *An. dirus* laboratory strain (14/14), *Ae. albopictus* field strain (13/13) feeding on *D. immitis* microfilaraemic blood and *Ae. aegypti* field strain (3/3) feeding on *B. pahangi* microfilaraemic blood]. On the other hand, there were lower feedings rates noted in *Cx. quinquefasciatus* laboratory strain [*D. immitis* = 5/15 (33.3%) and *B. pahangi* = 5/15 (31.6%)] and *Cx. vishnui* field strain [*D. immitis* = 10/24 (41.7%) and *B. pahangi* = 11/26 (42.3%)].

### 3.2 Survivability rates of mosquitoes

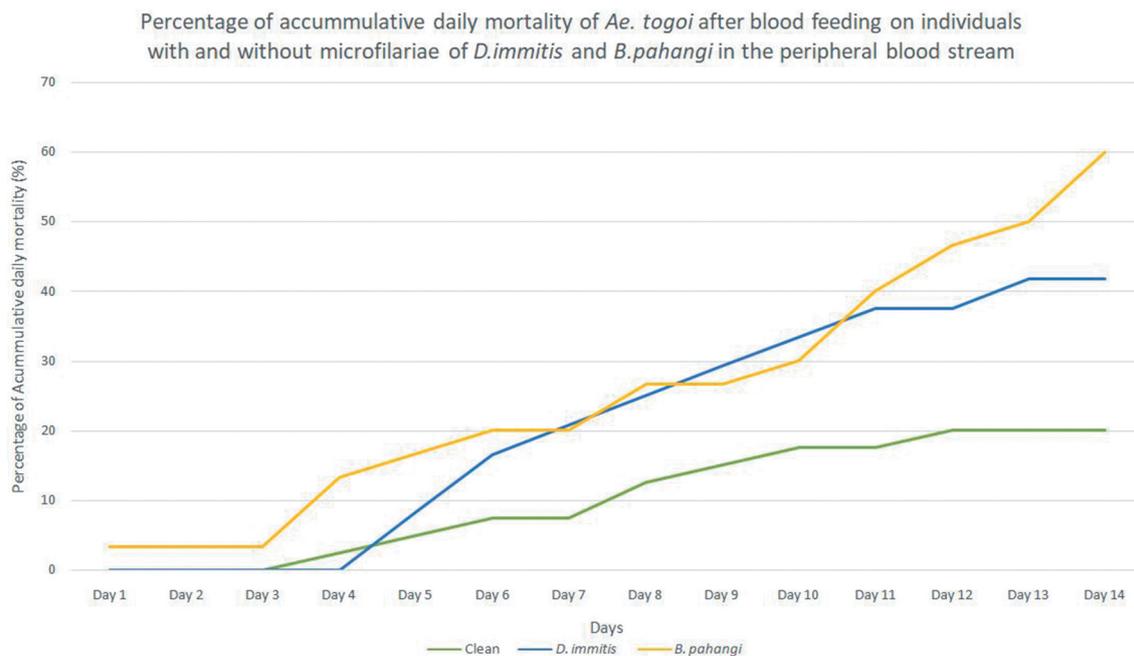
Mortality and survivability rates of mosquitoes are summarized in Table 1. At 1dpi, *B. pahangi*-inoculated group (0.8%) had a higher overall mortality rate (for both laboratory and field strains) compared to *D. immitis*-inoculated group (0.2%). No mortality was observed in all laboratory strains in *D. immitis*-inoculated group. However, mortality was observed in all field strains in *D. immitis*-inoculated group (*Ae. albopictus* = 7.69%; *Cx. vishnui* = 10%). On the other hand, mortality was observed in all laboratory strains (*Ae. albopictus* = 11.8%; *Ae. aegypti* = 8.3%; *Cx. quinquefasciatus* = 1.7%; *Ae. togoi* = 3.3%) in *B. pahangi*-inoculated group except *An. dirus*. Besides, except *Ae. albopictus* (19%) which had the highest mortality rate among all other groups, no mortality was observed in field strains of *Cx. vishnui* and *Ae. aegypti* in *B. pahangi*-inoculated group.

On 7 dpi, all mosquito species in both microfilaraemic-inoculated groups had mortality rates ranging from 10 to 46.2%. *Aedes albopictus* (6/13; 46.2%) laboratory strain in *D. immitis*-inoculated group and *Ae. aegypti* (5/12; 41.7%) laboratory strain in *B. pahangi*-inoculated group had the highest cumulative mortality rates.

Of all mosquito species, laboratory strain of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* which was blood-fed on *D. immitis* and *B. pahangi* mfs had the lowest mortality rates of 20% (1/5) and 33.3% (2/6), respectively. On the other hand, *An. dirus* was shown to be incapable to

**Table 1.** Feeding and mortality rates of mosquitoes during infection trials with *D. immitis* and *B. pahangi*.

Species of mosquito	Total mosquitoes	No. of engorged mosquitoes with blood meal N (%)	Average no. of mortality daily (range)	No. of mosquitoes					
				Mortality rates (%)					
				1 dpi N (%)	7 dpi N (%)	14 dpi N (%)	No. of surviving more than 14 days (N)		
<i>D. immitis</i>									
Laboratory strain									
<i>Ae. aegypti</i>	13	10 (76.7)	0.35 (0–1)	0	1 (10.0)	5 (50.0)	5		
<i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i>	15	5 (33.3)	0.07 (0–1)	0	1 (20.0)	1 (20.0)	4		
<i>Ae. togoi</i>	29	24(82.6)	0.71 (0–4)	0	5 (20.8)	10 (41.7)	14		
<i>An. dirus</i>	14	14(100)	1.00 (0–2)	0	3 (21.4)	10 (71.4)	4		
Field strain									
<i>Ae. albopictus</i>	13	13(100)	0.79 (0–3)	1 (0.08)	6 (46.2)	11 (84.6)	2		
<i>Cx. vishnui</i>	24	10(41.7)	0.36 (0–1)	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	5 (50.0)	5		
<i>B. pahangi</i>									
Laboratory strain									
<i>Ae. albopictus</i>	18	17(94.4)	0.43 (0–1)	2 (11.8)	4 (23.5)	6 (35.3)	11		
<i>Ae. aegypti</i>	14	12(81.0)	0.57 (0–1)	1 (8.3)	5 (41.7)	8 (66.7)	4		
<i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i>	19	6(31.6)	0.14 (0–1)	1 (1.7)	1 (1.7)	2 (33.3)	4		
<i>Ae. togoi</i>	36	30(83.3)	1.29 (0–4)	1 (3.3)	8 (26.6)	18 (60.0)	12		
<i>An. dirus</i>	19	12(63.2)	0.57 (0–5)	0	4 (33.3)	12 (100.0)	0		
Field strain									
<i>Ae. albopictus</i>	22	21(95.5)	1.0 (0–7)	4 (19.0)	6 (28.6)	14 (66.6)	7		
<i>Cx. vishnui</i>	26	11(42.3)	0.64 (0–3)	0	4 (36.4)	9 (81.8)	2		
<i>Ae. aegypti</i>	3	3(100)	0.07 (0–1)	0	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	2		
Negative control									
Laboratory strain									
<i>Ae. togoi</i>	50	40(80)	0.2 (0–2)	0	3(7.5)	8(20.0)	32		



**Figure 1.** Percentage of accumulative daily mortality of *Ae. togoi* after blood feeding on individuals with and without microfilariae of *D. immitis* and *B. pahangi* in the peripheral blood stream.

**Table 2.** Infective rates and parasite load of *Ae. togoi* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* after feeding on blood containing *D. immitis* (microfilarial density = 1000mf/100  $\mu$ l) and *B. pahangi* microfilariae (microfilarial density = 9000 mf/100  $\mu$ l), with all mosquitoes dissected 14 days after feeding.

Mosquito Species	Infection rate % (N)	Average No L3 per infected mosquito (range)	No. (%) of L3 found		
			% Head (No.)	% Thorax (No.)	% Abdomen (No.)
<i>D. immitis</i>					
<i>Ae. togoi</i>	69 (9/13)*	5 (1–12)	71.1 (32)	28.9 (13)	0 (0)
<i>B. pahangi</i>					
<i>Ae. togoi</i>	50 (8/16)*	4.75 (1–9)	39.5 (15)	55.3 (21)	5.3 (2)
<i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i>	25 (1/4) *	1 (1)	100 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)

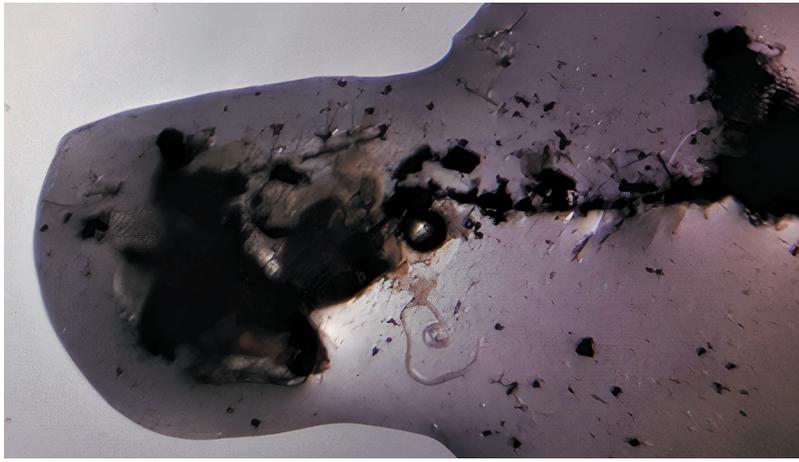
\* Number of mosquitoes infected/Total mosquitoes dissected after 14 days

withstand the infection of mfs as the mortality rates were relatively high (*D. immitis* = 71.4% (10/14); *B. pahangi* = 100% (12/12)).

Given the availability of high number of *Ae. togoi* to test against all inoculated groups, a graph was plotted to determine the vector competency of *Ae. togoi* toward the infection of both *B. pahangi* and *D. immitis*. The cumulative mortality of *Ae. togoi* infected with *D. immitis* and *B. pahangi*, and *Ae. togoi* fed with negative microfilaraemic blood was plotted against time with correlation coefficient of 0.979, 0.942 and 0.980, respectively for each curve (Figure 1). In addition, the mortality rates for both microfilaraemic-inoculated groups had significant differences (*D. immitis* and *B. pahangi*  $p = 0.02$ ) compared to control group. However, there was no significant difference ( $p = 0.901$ ) when compared between both microfilaraemic-inoculated groups.

### 3.3 Infection rate of mosquitoes

Out of six mosquito species, L3 larvae could only be found in two species of mosquitoes (Table 2). The infection rates for *Ae. togoi* in both microfilaraemic (*D. immitis* and *B. pahangi*) groups and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* in *B. pahangi* group were 69%, 50%, and 25%, respectively. For *D. immitis*-inoculated group, only *Ae. togoi* was found to be infected with L3 larvae at the head (71.1%) and thorax (28.9%) regions of mosquitoes with infection rate of 69%. Figure 2 shows the picture of L3 larva of *B. pahangi* in the head region of *Aedes togoi*. In addition, *Ae. togoi* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* were also found to be infected with L3 larvae of *B. pahangi* at the head (*Ae. togoi* = 39.5%; *Cx. quinquefasciatus* = 100%), thorax (*Ae. togoi* = 55.3%) and abdomen (*Ae. togoi* = 5.3%) regions of mosquitoes with infection rates of 50% and 25%, respectively. However, only one larva of *B. pahangi* was found in



**Figure 2.** L3 larva of *B. pahangi* at the head region of *Ae. togoi*.

a *Cx. quinquefasciatus*. There was no significance difference ( $p = 0.296$ ) between *Ae. togoi* infected with *D. immitis* and *B. pahangi*.

#### 4.0 Discussion

A broad range of mosquito species have been experimentally tested as the vectors for *D. immitis* and *B. pahangi*. For *D. immitis*, the vectors responsible for transmission include *Ae. aegypti* [24–26], *Ae. albopictus* [27], *Ae. koreicus* Edwards [28] and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* [25]. In addition, a recent study by 29, also found that *Anopheles maculipennis* Meigen, *Aedes caspius* Pallas, *Aedes vexans* Meigen, *Culex theileri* Theobald and *Culex pipiens* Linnaeus were the potential vectors of *D. immitis* with the detection of DNA in head-thorax pools. On the other hand, *Ae. togoi* [30], *Ma. annulata* and *Ma. dives* were found to be susceptible to *B. pahangi*.

Besides, a study was conducted to investigate the relationship between microfilarial load in human host and uptake and development of *Wuchereria bancrofti* Cobbold mfs by *Cx. quinquefasciatus* [31]. Out of 504 mosquitoes, 20% of the mosquitoes died before reaching 12 dpi and 64% of these dead mosquitoes harbored a parasite of any stage. The mean number of developing larvae per infected dead mosquitoes was significantly higher than the mosquitoes dissected after 12 days. This study is comparable with our study where lower mortality rate was observed in *Ae. togoi* (20%) which served as the negative control in the current study compared to mosquitoes infected with *B. pahangi* (60.0%) and *D. immitis* (41.7%). This could be an indication of higher mortality among mosquitoes with higher parasitic load [31].

*Aedes aegypti*, *Ae. albopictus* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* were reported to be the vectors for *D. immitis* in various countries [32–35]. However, our study could not identify these species as the potential vector because none

of the field-collected mosquitoes were found to be positive with *D. immitis* mfs. A previous study reported the development of *D. immitis* mfs in *Cx. vishnui* during the initial observation [36]. Unfortunately, there was no evidence that larvae of mfs could complete their development to the infective stage. This result is comparable with our study whereby none of the *Cx. vishnui* mosquitoes were tested positive for *D. immitis*. The variation of vector found across the world might be due to the differences of vector efficiency index based on rapid parasitic development, proper nursing and low parasitic damage or death across different populations [37]. In addition, a systemic review by 38, showed that different geographical properties, such as latitude, longitude, mean temperature, yearly rainfall, sea level, and humidity could influence the mosquito prevalence rates in field investigations. The parameter 'country' should be interpreted from various factors, including the respective national vector control strategies and the ecological setting [39]. In addition, biological variation of mosquitoes can be influenced by a variety of ecological and geographical factors. Climate change, in combination with altering weather patterns, could promote the growth of *D. immitis* and the development of larvae within the mosquitoes [40]. Collectively, climatic patterns could play important role in vector-borne disease transmission.

*Culex quinquefasciatus* and *Ae. aegypti* collected from Manila, the Philippines were found to be infected with *D. immitis* mfs. From the experiment, both species had equal capability to allow the development of *D. immitis* within the mosquitoes [41]. 42, collected *Cx. quinquefasciatus* from different habitats and infected them at different times during the year. The study revealed a variation in percentage of infection with *D. immitis* mfs. Furthermore, 15, discovered that *Armigeres subalbatus* Coquillet was positive with *D. immitis* after 14 days of inoculation and it was considered as the primary vector for *D. immitis* in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. In addition, *Ar. subalbatus*

was also incriminated as a potential vector for *B. pahangi* in Malaysia [14]. Regrettably, *Ar. subalbatus* was not included in our study as we were unable to obtain this mosquito species from the sampling sites.

However, an experimental study using laboratory strain of mosquitoes in Singapore reported that *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* were susceptible to *D. immitis* except *Ar. subalbatus*. In addition, *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* were found to harbor more than 90% of L3 larvae in the head region [43]. A study done in 2005 by Vythilingam et al. observed only one *Ae. aegypti* which harbored L3 larvae in the head, thorax and abdomen regions. In addition, only one L1 larva was found in the malpighian tubes of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* [15]. Although 43 observed more than 90% of L3 of *D. immitis* larvae located in the head region of *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, 15, suggested that *Cx. quinquefasciatus* was refractory to *D. immitis* infection based on its poor feeding on infected dog, which is comparable to the feeding rate in our study (33.3%). Furthermore, previous study also showed that *Cx. quinquefasciatus* preferred avian blood compared to mammalian blood [44]. Although these mosquitoes were found to be infected with *D. immitis* under experimental settings in other studies, yet, none of these mosquito species (*Cx. quinquefasciatus*, *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus*) were found to be susceptible to *D. immitis* in our study.

High infection rate of *B. pahangi* ranging from 95–100% in the laboratory strains of *Mansonia crassipes* Wulp, *Ma. annulata* and *Anopheles barbirostris* Wulp were observed in an earlier study [13]. However, *Ae. albopictus* showed no evidence of infection, whereas *Ae. aegypti* showed a small number of infective larvae. The results are comparable with our study in which none of the *Ae. albopictus* and *Ae. aegypti* were found positive. On the other hand, there were few experimental studies performed on other *Brugia* spp. against *Ae. togoi*. These studies found that *Ae. togoi* was a good experimental vector for both *B. malayi* and *Brugia patei* Buckley [16, 45; 17, 18, 46]. In addition, a study in Thailand [47] showed that *Ae. togoi* was a suitable laboratory vector for *B. pahangi*. Likewise, this finding parallels with our observation. Furthermore, *Cx. quinquefasciatus* was known to be resistant to *B. pahangi* in a study conducted in Kenya [48]. However, in our study, a L3 larva of *B. pahangi* was found in the head region of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* suggesting its potential as a vector for *B. pahangi*. It would be worthwhile to repeat these experiments by expanding the number of the mosquitoes in order to get a clearer picture on the infection rate and vector competency for *B. pahangi* in *Cx. quinquefasciatus*.

*Anopheles dirus*, a well-known vector of *Plasmodium* parasites in Thailand, Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam [49–52] was found to be responsible for filariasis in western Pacific and Southeast Asia [53]. Notably, *An. dirus* from

northern Peninsular Malaysia was found to have a certain level of susceptibility toward *B. pahangi* [54]. However, none of the *An. dirus* was susceptible to *D. immitis* and *B. pahangi* in our study and the mortality rate of *An. dirus* was found to be very high (*D. immitis* = 71.4%, *B. pahangi* = 100%). *Anopheles dirus* was previously known as a species complex comprising at least seven members [55]. Different members or species might have different susceptibility toward the infection; however, we could not confirm whether the true *A. dirus* was used in 54.

More than 360 individuals of mosquitoes were used in the present study. Unfortunately, the reduced numbers of blood-fed mosquitoes and mosquitoes that survived at 14 dpi have made the sample size smaller, which is the limitation of the present study. An increased sample size of mosquitoes in future study would be beneficial in understanding the infection rate and vector competency of the tested mosquito species for both *D. immitis* and *B. pahangi*.

## 5.0 Conclusion

Laboratory strain of *Ae. togoi* remains as a good experimental vector for *D. immitis* and *B. pahangi*. This study showed for the first time that the laboratory strain of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* has the potential to be a vector for *B. pahangi*. However, extensive studies by increasing the sample size of mosquitoes and dissecting them on different days to show the developmental stages of the parasites should be carried out. Natural infection of *B. pahangi* in the field populations of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* should also be investigated.

## Acknowledgments

We would like to express our gratitude to the owners of the animal shelters and veterinarians for their assistance in sample collection. We are also grateful to Dr Jonathan Liew Wee Kent for his technical assistance in this study.

## Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

## Funding

This study was financially supported by the Higher Institution Centre of Excellence (HiCoE) program (MO002-2019) and the Universiti Malaya research grant (PG098-2016A)

## ORCID

Wei Yin Vinnie-Siow  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2535-8821>

## Sample credit author statement

Wei Yin Vinnie-Siow: Methodology, Investigation, Writing-Original Draft, Formal analysis, Van Lun Low: Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing-Review & Editing, Supervision, Tiong Kai Tan: Investigation, Writing-Review & Editing, Supervision, Meng Li Wong: Investigation, Cherng Shii Leong: Investigation, Nazni Wasi Ahmad: Resources, Writing- Review& Editing, Yvonne Ai Lian Lim: Writing-Review & Editing, Supervision.

## References

- [1] Cringoli G, Rinaldi L, and Veneziano V, et al. A prevalence survey and risk analysis of filariasis in dogs from the Mt. Vesuvius area of southern Italy. *Vet. Parasitol.* **2001**;102(3):243–252.
- [2] Denham DA, and McGreevy PB. Brugian filariasis: epidemiological and experimental studies. *Adv. Parasitol.* **1977**;15:243–309.
- [3] Mak JW, Yen PKF, and Lim KC, et al. Zoonotic implications of cats and dogs in filarial transmission in Peninsular Malaysia. *Trop. Geogr. Med.* **1980**;32:259–264.
- [4] Silaghi C, Beck R, Capelli G, et al. Development of *Dirofilaria immitis* and *Dirofilaria repens* in *Aedes japonicus* and *Aedes geniculatus*. *Parasit Vectors.* **2017**;10(1). DOI:10.1186/s13071-017-2015-x
- [5] Kini RG, Leena JB, and Shetty P, et al. Human dirofilariasis: an emerging zoonosis in India. *J. Parasitic. Dis.* **2015**;39(2):349–354.
- [6] Sassnau R, Dauschies A, and Lendner M, et al. Climate suitability for the transmission of *Dirofilaria immitis* and *D. repens* in Germany. *Vet. Parasitol.* **2014**;205(1–2):239–245.
- [7] Irwin PJ, and Jefferies R. Arthropod-transmitted diseases of companion animals in Southeast Asia. *Trends Parasitol.* **2004**;20(1):27–34.
- [8] Short EE, Caminade C, and Thomas BN. Climate change contribution to the emergence or re-emergence of parasitic diseases. *Infect. Dis. (Auckl).* **2017**;10:1–7.
- [9] Hodgkin E. Trapping of mosquitoes in malarial states. *Federated Malay States. Ann. Rep. Inst. Med. Res.* **1937**;71–96.
- [10] Reid JA, Wilson T, and Ganapathipillai V. Studies on Filariasis in Malaya: the mosquito vectors of periodic *Brugia malayi* in North-West Malaya. *Ann. Trop. Med. Parasitol.* **1962**;56(3):323–336.
- [11] Wharton RH. Studies on filariasis in Malaya: field and laboratory investigations of the vectors of a rural strain of *Wuchereria bancrofti*. *Ann. Trop. Med. Parasitol.* **1960**;54(1):78–91.
- [12] Wharton RH. The biology of *Mansonia* mosquitoes in relation to the transmission of filariasis in Malaya. *Bull. No. 11 Inst. Med. Res.* **1962**;114.
- [13] Edeson JF, Wharton RH, and Laing AB. A preliminary account of the transmission, maintenance and laboratory vectors of *Brugia pahangi*. *Trans. R. Soc. Trop. Med.* **1960**;54(5):439–449.
- [14] Muslim A, Fong MY, and Mahmud R, et al. *Armigeres subalbatus* incriminated as a vector of zoonotic *Brugia pahangi* filariasis in suburban Kuala Lumpur, Peninsular Malaysia. *Parasit Vectors.* **2013**;6(219).
- [15] Vythilingam I, Mooto P, and Jeffery J, et al. (2005). Potential mosquito (Diptera: Culicidae) vectors of *Dirofilaria immitis* (Filariidae: onchocercidae) in two urban areas of Kuala Lumpur and its prevalence in stray dogs. *Proceedings of the Fifth International Conference on Urban Pests* Singapore: Lee CY, and Robinson WH, (eds.), 393–398.
- [16] Junkum A, Choochote W, and Jitpakdi A, et al. Comparative studies on the biology and filarial susceptibility of selected blood-feeding and autogenous *Aedes togoi* sub-colonies. *Mem. Inst. Oswaldo Cruz.* **2003**;98(4):481–485.
- [17] Kim HK, and Seo BS. Kisaengch'unghakchapchi. *Korean J. Parasitol.* **1968**;6(1):1–13.
- [18] Ramachandran CP, and Zaini MA. Studies on the transmission of sub-periodic *Brugia malayi* by *Aedes* (Finlaya) *togoi* in the laboratory. 3. The survival of infected mosquitoes under laboratory conditions. *Med. J. Malaya.* **1968**;23(4):323–329.
- [19] Vinnie-Siow WY, Low VL, and Tan TK, et al. Observations of scrotal mass, liver mass, haemolytic jaundice, and central vestibular disorder in *Brugia pahangi*-infected dogs. *Trop. Biomed.* **2019**;36(1):252–256.
- [20] Vinnie-Siow WY, Low VL, and Tan TK, et al. Serological survey of canine vector-borne diseases in two animal shelters in central Peninsular Malaysia. *Trop. Biomed.* **2021**;38(1):145–149.
- [21] Vinnie-Siow WY, Tan TK, Low VL, et al. Integration of microscopic, serologic and molecular techniques for detection of filarial parasites in dogs in Malaysia. *Acta Parasitol.* **2021**; Advance online publication. doi:10.1007/s11686-021-00490-5
- [22] Thanchomnang T, Intapan PM, and Lulitanond V, et al. Rapid detection of *Dirofilaria immitis* in mosquito vectors and dogs using a real-time fluorescence resonance energy transfer PCR and melting curve analysis. *Vet. Parasitol.* **2010**;168(3–4):255–260.
- [23] Calheiros CM, Fontes G, and Williams P, et al. Experimental infection of *Culex* (*Culex*) *quinquefasciatus* and *Aedes* (*Stegomyia*) *aegypti* with *Wuchereria bancrofti*. *Mem. Inst. Oswaldo Cruz.* **1998**;93(6):855–860.
- [24] Taylor AE. The development of *Dirofilaria immitis* in the mosquito *Aedes aegypti*. *J. Helminthol.* **1960**;34(1–2):27–38.
- [25] Tiawsirisup S, and Nithiuthai S. Vector competence of *Aedes aegypti* (L.) and *Culex quinquefasciatus* (Say) for *Dirofilaria immitis* (Leidy). *Southeast Asian J. Trop. Med. Public Health.* **2006**;37(3):110–114.
- [26] Webber WAF, and Hawking F. Experimental maintenance of *Dirofilaria repens* and *D. immitis* in dogs. *Exp. Parasitol.* **1955**;4(2):143–164.
- [27] Nayar JK, and Knight JW. *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: culicidae): an Experimental and Natural Host of *Dirofilaria immitis* (Filarioidea: onchocercidae) in Florida, U.S.A. *J. Med. Entomol.* **1999**;36(4):441–448.
- [28] Montarsi F, Ciocchetta S, and Devine G, et al. Development of *Dirofilaria immitis* within the mosquito *Aedes* (Finlaya) *koreicus*, a new invasive species for Europe. *Parasite Vectors.* **2015**;8(1). DOI:10.1186/s13071-015-0800-y
- [29] Demirci B, Bedir H, and Taskin Tasci G, et al. Potential mosquito vectors of *Dirofilaria immitis* and *Dirofilaira repens* (Spirurida: onchocercidae) in Aras Valley, Turkey. *J. Med. Entomol.* **2021**;58(2):906–912.

- [30] Lavoipierre M, and Ho B. Studies on Filariasis. I.—The Migration of the infective larvae of *Brugia pahangi* in *Aedes togoi* and their loss from the mosquito under experimental conditions. *J. Helminthol.* 1966;40(3–4):343–362.
- [31] Subramanian S, Krishnamoorthy K, and Ramaiah KD, et al. The relationship between microfilarial load in the human host and uptake and development of *Wuchereria bancrofti* microfilariae by *Culex quinquefasciatus*: a study under natural conditions. *Parasitol.* 1998;116(3):243–255.
- [32] Cancrini G, Frangipane Di Regalbono A, and Ricci I, et al. *Aedes albopictus* is a natural vector of *Dirofilaria immitis* in Italy. *Vet. Parasitol.* 2003;118(3–4):195–202.
- [33] Hendrix CM, Brunner CJ, and Bellamy LK. Natural transmission of *Dirofilaria immitis* by *Aedes aegypti*. *J. Am. Mosq. Control Assoc.* 1986;2(1):48–51.
- [34] Todorovic S, and McKay T. Potential mosquito (Diptera: culicidae) vectors of *Dirofilaria immitis* from residential entryways in Northeast Arkansas. *Vet. Parasitol.* 2020;282:109105.
- [35] Vezzani D, Mesplet M, and Eiras DF, et al. PCR detection of *Dirofilaria immitis* in *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex pipiens* from urban temperate Argentina. *Parasitol. Res.* 2010;108(4):985–989.
- [36] Intermill RW, and Frederick RM. A study of potential mosquito vectors of *Dirofilaria immitis* Leidy, On Okinawa, Ryukyu Islands. *J. Med. Entomol.* 1970;7(4):455–461.
- [37] Chandra G. Nature limits filarial transmission. *Parasit. Vectors.* 2008;1(1):13.
- [38] Riahi SM, Yusuf MA, and Azari-Hamidian S, et al. Prevalence of *Dirofilaria immitis* in mosquitoes (Diptera) - systematic review and meta-analysis. *J. Nematol.* 2021;53:e2021–12.
- [39] Genchi C, Rinaldi L, and Mortarino M, et al. Climate and *Dirofilaria* infection in Europe. *Vet. Parasitol.* 2009;163(4):286–292.
- [40] Morchón R, Carretón E, and González-Miguel J, et al. Heartworm disease (*Dirofilaria immitis*) and their vectors in Europe - new distribution trends. *Front. Physiol.* 2012;3:196.
- [41] Del Rosario A. Studies on the biology of Philippine mosquitoes. II. Observations on the life and behavior of *Aedes albopictus* (Skuse) in the laboratory. *Philipp. J. Sci.* 1963;92:89–103.
- [42] Hu SMK. Studies of host parasite relationships of *Dirofilaria immitis* Leidy and its Culicine intermediate hosts. *Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg.* 1931;14:614–629.
- [43] Chellapah WT, and Chellapah GR. Susceptibility of Four Common Singapore Mosquitoes to *Dirofilaria immitis* Leidy. *J. Med. Entomol.* 1968;5(3):358–361.
- [44] Vythilingam I, Mahadevan S, and Tan SK, et al. Host feeding and resting habits of Japanese encephalitis vectors found in Sepang, Selangor, Malaysia. *Trop. Biomed.* 1996;13:45–50.
- [45] Laurence B, and Pester F. Adaptation of a filarial worm, *Brugia patei*, to a new mosquito host, *Aedes togoi*. *J. Helminthol.* 1967;41(4):365–392.
- [46] Ramachandran CP, Wharton RH, and Dunn FL, et al. *Aedes (Finlaya) togoi* Theobald, a Useful Laboratory Vector in Studies of Filariasis. *Ann. Trop. Med. Parasitol.* 1963;57(4):443–445.
- [47] Choochote W, Abeyewickreme W, and Sucharit S, et al. *Aedes togoi* Koh Nom Soa, Chanthaburi, a laboratory vector for *Brugia malayi* and *Brugia pahangi* in Thailand. *J. Trop. Med. Parasitol.* 1983;6:25–31.
- [48] Irungu LW. Factors influencing the development of *Brugia pahangi* microfilariae in *Culex quinquefasciatus* and *Aedes aegypti* mosquitoes. *Insect Sci. Its App.* 1989;10(5):661–675.
- [49] Chareonviriyaphap T, Bangs MJ, and Ratanatham S. Status of malaria in Thailand. *Southeast Asian J. Trop. Med. Public Health.* 2000;31:225–237.
- [50] Manguin S, Garros C, and Dusfour I, et al. Bionomics, taxonomy, and distribution of the major malaria vector taxa of (*Anopheles* subgenus *Cellia* in Southeast Asia: an updated review. *Infect. Genet. Evol.* 2008;8(4):489–503.
- [51] Trung HD, Van Bortel W, and Sochantha T, et al. Malaria transmission and major malaria vectors in different geographical areas of Southeast Asia. *Trop. Med. Int. Health.* 2004;9(2):230–237.
- [52] Vythilingam I, Phetsouvanh R, and Keokenchanh K, et al. The prevalence of *Anopheles* (diptera: culicidae) mosquitoes in Sekong Province, Lao PDR in relation to malaria transmission. *Trop. Med. Int. Health.* 2003;8(6):525–535.
- [53] Khanum H, Hossain I, and Sarkar F, et al. Lymphatic filariasis in Nilphamari district: an endemic area in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh J. Zool.* 2018;46(1):11–20.
- [54] Zahedi M, and White GB. Filaria vector competence of some *Anopheles* species. *Trop. Med. Parasitol.* 1994;45(1):27–32.
- [55] Obsomer V, Defourny P, and Coosemans M. The *Anopheles dirus* complex: spatial distribution and environmental drivers. *Malar. J.* 2007;6(1):26.