

# Temperature thresholds and statistical modelling of larval *Wuchereria bancrofti* (Filariidea: Onchocercidae) developmental rates

F. LARDEUX<sup>1\*</sup> and J. CHEFFORT<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>ORSTOM (Institut Français pour le Développement en Coopération), B.P. 529

<sup>2</sup>Institut Malardé, B.P. 30, Papeete, Tahiti, French Polynesia

(Received 2 February 1996; revised 12 June and 10 August 1996; accepted 10 August 1996)

## SUMMARY

Developmental rates for *Wuchereria bancrofti* larvae maturing in the vector *Aedes polynesiensis* were estimated by analysing stage-frequency data consisting of counts of larval stages in mosquitoes reared at 20, 22.5, 25, 27.5, 30 and 32 °C. Base temperatures (i.e. low temperature thresholds) for *W. bancrofti* development were estimated by the x-intercept method and the model of Lactin *et al.* (1995). Resulting values were similar with both methods and were  $\approx 12.5$  °C for microfilariae (mf) in thorax,  $\approx 17$  °C for L1, 15.5 °C for L2 and 16.5 °C for L3. Upper thresholds estimated by the Lactin *et al.* model were 29.3 °C for mf, 29.1 °C for L1, 32.2 °C for L2 and 31.5 °C for L3. In addition, an original method was devised for computing the L3 upper threshold, by modelling L3 length shrinkage with temperature. It gave a value of 31.4 °C. At 32 °C, L2 and L3 stages exhibited altered morphology, larvae being shorter and wider than expected. The model of Lactin *et al.* described adequately the non-linear relationship between developmental rate and temperature, but a linear degree-day approach may be applied for temperatures below 27–28 °C.

Key words: *Wuchereria bancrofti*, *Aedes polynesiensis*, developmental rate, temperature thresholds, statistical modelling.

## INTRODUCTION

*Wuchereria bancrofti*, Cobbold, 1877 is the causative agent of Bancroftian filariasis which still affects millions of people in the inter-tropical area. In French Polynesia, the parasite is transmitted by the mosquito *Aedes polynesiensis* Marks, 1951 which has long been recognized as the major vector (Rosen, 1955). Since the 1940s, filariasis control programmes have been implemented in the French Polynesian islands, emphasizing the mass administration of diethylcarbamazine (DEC) (Perolat *et al.* 1986). However, lymphatic filariasis is still of public health importance in this country and, at present, other prophylactic strategies, mainly based on ivermectin and/or DEC-salt treatments, are being tested. In addition, research is carried out on ecological aspects of transmission in order to produce a comprehensive mathematical model which could be used in further attempts to control the disease. Much work has been done on the elaboration of mathematical models of the transmission dynamics of filarial worms (Anderson & May, 1991; Dietz, 1982). *Onchocerca volvulus*, the causative agent of onchocerciasis or river blindness, has received particular attention, leading to the development of ONCHOSIM, a

simulation model which is used in planning control strategies (Remme *et al.* 1986; Plaisier *et al.* 1990; Habbema *et al.* 1996). Some attempts have been made to develop models adapted to *W. bancrofti* transmission (Hairston & Jachowski, 1968; Rochet, 1990; Grenfell & Michael, 1992), and LYMPHASIM, a microsimulation model similar to ONCHOSIM is at present under development (Plaisier *et al.* 1995; Remme, Alley & Plaisier, 1995). All these models take into account the 'vector phase' with various degrees of complexity. The simplest assumption is likely to be the one included in the LYMPHASIM model, where a single relationship between the microfilariae (mf)-density in man and the number of resulting L3 larvae describes the 'vector phase'. Such a relationship is more likely to be a crude approximation to all the events involved in the transmission of parasites by the vector. Model predictions are likely to be improved by incorporating processes such as the uptake of mf (Pichon, 1974a; Bryan & Southgate, 1988; Basáñez *et al.* 1994), the limitation phenomenon in the vector and the resulting parasite's yield (Pichon, 1974b; Prod'hon, Pichon & Rivière, 1980; Southgate & Bryan, 1992; Basáñez *et al.* 1995), the distribution of parasites in their vectors (Pichon, Prod'hon & Rivière, 1980) and other epidemiologically relevant aspects (WHO, 1990). Among the latter, environmental factors, and in particular the role of temperature, are usually considered as important deter-

\* Corresponding author: Entomology Unit, Institut Malardé, B.P. 30, Papeete – Tahiti, French Polynesia. Fax: +689 43 15 90. E-mail: lardeux@tahiti.rio.org.

minants of local variations in transmission dynamics. Temperature may be a key factor as it influences many of the interactions between the parasite and its vector. For example, developmental rates, mean duration of the parasite's cycle in the vector and vector life-expectancy depend on temperature. If vectors die before the completion of the parasite's cycle, transmission will not occur. This may explain seasonal and regional differences in parasite transmission intensity which have often been noticed in French Polynesia (Rivière, 1988). Not only survival, but other biological phenomena may be affected by temperature (e.g. fecundity, behaviour, transmissibility of parasites etc.) and they should be taken into account within a comprehensive model of parasite transmission.

This paper presents a first approach toward understanding the role of temperature on transmission of *W. bancrofti* by *A. polynesiensis*. It describes the influence of temperature on developmental rates of the larval stages of the parasite. The essential assumption implicit in all such studies is that development is related to ambient temperature and time (age). At a basic level, development of organisms depends on the rates of various biochemical reactions which are temperature dependent. Generally speaking, the relationship between developmental rate and temperature in poikilotherm organisms is non-linear. Typically, it increases as a shallow sigmoid (S-shaped) curve from zero development at a low temperature threshold (i.e. the 'base' temperature) to a maximum rate at an optimal temperature (i.e. developmental maximum threshold or upper threshold) and then decreases rapidly to zero at a lethal temperature (Higley, Pedigo & Ostlie, 1986). The base temperature and the upper threshold are two important values in degree-days computations, and their estimation is also the baseline for deriving phenology models. In addition, quantification of the relationship between developmental rate and temperature may contribute towards the formulation of more complex and general models of population dynamics (McDonald *et al.* 1989). Usually, developmental maximum and base temperatures are calculated as single values, but they may vary with the age of the organism (Wang, 1960). *W. bancrofti*, which develops through 3 stages in the mosquito, may have different threshold

tively affect the progression of the parasite cohort. In some filaria–vector combinations, mortality of infected vectors can occur early during the extrinsic incubation period, in particular if mf are ingested in high quantity. In the pair *W. bancrofti*/*A. polynesiensis*, excess mortality of infected mosquitoes due to the ingestion of mf has never been reported in laboratory experiments, as long as the number of ingested mf was less than 100 (Hairston & Jachowski, 1968; Prod'hon *et al.* 1980; Failloux *et al.* 1995). However, vector mortality was always dependent on the parasitic load. As such, in our experiments the only significant phenomenon was parasite-induced vector mortality, which was taken into account as follows.

The mean number of each larval stage found in daily batches of mosquitoes was first computed. This value was corrected for parasite-induced mortality using information from Pichon *et al.* (1980). They found that vector mortality due to parasitism did not occur suddenly once some parasite density threshold had been reached, but that survival decreased exponentially with parasite burden. The mean number ( $X$ ) of parasites in a vector population was then:

$$X = k \times \theta \times Y / [Y \times (1 - \theta) + k], \quad (1a)$$

where  $k$  is the parameter of the negative binomial distribution of parasites among vectors,  $Y$  the mean number of parasites if no parasite-induced mortality occurs, and  $\theta$  a pathogenicity coefficient ( $0 < \theta < 1$ ) which tends to 1 if the parasite is not very pathogenic for its vector and to 0 if highly pathogenic. In the pair *W. bancrofti*/*A. polynesiensis*,  $k = 2$  (for a zero-truncated negative binomial) and  $\theta = 0.97$  (Pichon *et al.* 1980).

Thus following equation (1a) to take into account the parasite-induced vector mortality in obtaining stage-frequency data, the mean number of parasites was computed as

$$Y = -k \times X / [X \times (1 - \theta) - k \times \theta]. \quad (1b)$$

This value was then multiplied by 100 and rounded to the closest integer to enable computations in the stage-frequency analysis.

Various methods have been proposed for the analysis of stage-frequency data (Manly, 1989). Among them, the procedure of Pontius, Boyer & Deaton (1989) was chosen because of its non-parametric approach which, unlike other methods, has no particular assumption to be fulfilled for the estimation of mean times to stage appearance. The procedure supposes that animals under study can only be observed by sacrificing them or their habitat (i.e. in our experiments, the mosquito host). A cohort of these animals begins in stage 0 (i.e. ingestion of mf) at time  $t_0$  and subsets of the cohort are sampled, by killing, periodically in time until the cohort is in a particular stage (i.e. the L3 stage in the

present study). Moreover, this model provides reliable estimates under many survival distributions which is of interest because the survival function of *W. bancrofti* larvae is not known.

#### Estimation of base temperature

Various methods are available to estimate the minimum temperature threshold (Arnold, 1959; Kirk & Aliniaze, 1981; Yang, Logan & Coffey, 1995). The procedure most often used is the x-intercept method of Arnold (1959) which extrapolates to zero the quasi-linear portion of the relationship between developmental rate and temperature. A least-squares unweighted regression line was computed between rates  $r(T)$  and the corresponding temperatures ( $T$ ) in this linear range (i.e.  $r(T) = a + b \times T$ ). The base temperature is the value of  $T$  for which  $r(T) = 0$ , i.e.  $T_{base} = -a/b$ . This approach was used to calculate the base temperature of the 4 developmental stages of *W. bancrofti*. These values were compared with the direct estimate given by the model of Lactin *et al.* (1995), which was used to describe the relationship between developmental rate and temperature quantitatively (see equation (2) below). Here, the base temperature is obtained by equating the function to zero and solving for temperature once model parameters are estimated.

#### Effects of high temperatures and estimation of upper threshold

While counting *W. bancrofti* larvae in *A. polynesiensis*, observations were made on the morphology of stages and larval growth in width and length (unpublished data). It appeared that L3 larvae shortened as temperature increased, and at 32 °C all L3 larvae were abnormal, banana-shaped and much wider and shorter than L3 larvae reared at lower temperatures or than those found in nature and which were supposed to have undergone 'normal' developmental conditions. These observations served as a baseline to calculate the upper threshold for L3 larvae. First, the shrinkage in larval length with temperature was analysed using the growth model of Schnute (1981). This model is of general use and may describe many of the growth patterns observed in nature (see the general formulation of the model in the legend of Fig. 2). Larval length ( $L$ ) was entered in Schnute's function as  $1/L$  because the model only describes growth *per se* as opposed to shrinkage. Because the model is non-linear in its parameters, the simplex method of Nedler & Mead (1965) applied to the least squares minimization function was used to compute parameter estimates. Then, the estimated parameters were used to calculate L3 lengths at temperatures  $T$  in steps of 0.2 °C. At each temperature step, length shrinkage ( $LS_T$ ) was computed as  $LS_T = L_{T-0.2} - L_T$ , where  $L_T$

is length at temperature  $T$ . The fraction of shrinkage in relation to larval length may be expressed as  $(L_{T-0.2} - L_T)/(L_{T-0.2})$ . The graphical representation of the percentage shrinkage against  $T$  (see Fig. 2B) enabled identification of a limiting temperature above which shrinkage rapidly tends to 100% (i.e. length tends to 0). This temperature was interpreted as a maximum sustainable temperature (i.e. a thermal maximum for L3 larvae, slightly above their upper threshold). For the remaining larval stages of *W. bancrofti*, upper thresholds were estimated roughly at the point where the developmental rate levelled off or declined on Arrhenius plots (i.e. Log (rate) against  $1/T$ ). As described for the base temperature, upper thresholds were also estimated directly from the equation of Lactin *et al.* (1995) (see equation (4) below).

#### Statistical modelling of developmental rates

The relationship between developmental rate and temperature may be modelled according to thermodynamical principles (Sharpe & De Michele, 1977) or using empirical functions (Logan, 1988). Numerous existing models describe the developmental rate as a function of temperature (Wagner *et al.* 1984; Higley *et al.* 1986). Most of them are more or less descriptive and sometimes biologically unrealistic, leading to poor estimates when predicting developmental times. The equation of Logan *et al.* (1976), modified by Lactin *et al.* (1995), avoids these weaknesses. It has biologically realistic parameters and, unlike others, can account simultaneously for the non-linear developmental response to temperature and the developmental thresholds.

The model gives the developmental rate  $r(T)$  at temperature  $T$  as:

$$r(T) = \exp(\rho \times T) - \exp[\rho \times T_{max} - (T_{max} - T)/\Delta] + \lambda, \quad (2)$$

where  $T_{max}$  is a thermal maximum, i.e. the 'lethal' temperature at which life processes can no longer be maintained for prolonged periods of time,  $\Delta$  is the temperature range over which 'thermal breakdown' becomes the overriding influence,  $\rho$  can be interpreted as a composite value for critical enzyme-catalysed biochemical reactions. The parameter  $\lambda$  is the value of the rate  $r(T_{max})$  (i.e. when  $T = T_{max}$ ) and allows the curve to intersect the abscissa at sub-optimal temperatures, permitting estimation of the base temperature by allowing  $r(T) = 0$  to be solved for particular parameter values.

Non-linear regression methods (see previous section) were used to estimate model parameters for developmental stages of *W. bancrofti*.

The upper threshold  $T_{upper}$  is the value of  $T$  for which  $r(T)$  is maximum (i.e. the first derivative,  $r'(T)$ , is equated to zero and solved for  $T$ )

$$r'(T) = dr(T)/dT = \rho \times \exp(\rho T) - (1/\Delta) \times \exp$$

$$[\rho \times T_{max} - (T_{max} - T)/\Delta], \quad (3)$$

which evaluated at  $T = 0$  gives the initial rate, equivalent to parameter  $b$  of the x-intercept method. The value of  $T$  for which  $r'(T) = 0$  is then

$$T_{upper} = [\Delta \times \text{Log}_e(\Delta \times \rho)/(1 - \Delta \times \rho)] + T_{max}, \quad (4)$$

which is equivalent to the expression given by Logan *et al.* (1976).

## RESULTS

### Temperature-controlled experiments

The high microfilaraemic level in blood meals ensured 100% mf infection of mosquitoes. About 100% still harboured mf in the thorax, and L3 larvae were recovered from 78–85% of mosquitoes in the last samples of each experiment. Experiments carried out at 34 °C were unsuccessful: all mosquitoes died within a few days and *W. bancrofti* larvae were not able to mature in such a short time. At all other lower temperatures the filarial extrinsic cycle was entirely completed. Stage-frequency data were consistent and L3 larvae were observed several days after the first day of appearance of this stage. Infective larvae were observed for 9 days at 20 °C (i.e. from day 26 to day 34), 14 days at 22.5 °C (from day 17 to day 30), 7 days at 25 °C (from day 12 to 18), 11 days at 27.5 °C (from day 12 to day 22), 4 days at 30 °C (from day 9 to day 12) and 3 days at 32 °C (from day 9 to day 11).

### Estimation of base temperature

Table 1 gives mean times to appearance of *W. bancrofti* larval stages at each temperature as estimated by the method of Pontius *et al.* (1989). Developmental rates were computed as  $1/[\text{mean time}]$  and plotted against temperature. This allowed selection of the number of points inside the quasi-linear range of the curve which were used in the regression analysis to estimate the base temperature by the x-intercept method. Linear regression results (i.e.  $a$  and  $b$  values in equations  $r(T) = a + b \times T$ ) are given in Table 2, as well as determination coefficients ( $R^2$ ) and base temperature estimations for each of the *W. bancrofti* larval stages. Estimations of base temperatures by the model of Lactin *et al.* (1995) are given in Table 3.

### Effects of high temperatures and estimation of upper threshold

As temperature increased, L3 lengths decreased significantly. Mean length was 1.714 mm (standard error = 0.183) at 20 °C; 1.793 mm (0.154) at 22.5 °C; 1.608 mm (0.130) at 25 °C; 1.616 mm (0.088) at 27.5 °C; 1.411 mm (0.153) at 30 °C, and 0.816 mm (0.093) at 32 °C. In addition, mean width at 32 °C

Table 1. Estimates of mean time (in days) and standard deviation (in parentheses) to appearance of *Wuchereria bancrofti* developmental stages in laboratory reared *Aedes polynesiensis* after experimental infection upon a local carrier of mf

Larval stage	Temperature (°C)					
	20.0	22.5	25.0	27.5	30.0	32.0
Thoracic mf	2.65 (1.60)	1.87 (0.56)	1.57 (0.38)	1.50 (0.29)	1.58 (0.40)	1.50 (0.28)
L1	6.00 (2.25)	3.65 (0.46)	2.28 (0.50)	2.50 (0.29)	1.99 (0.58)	2.50 (0.28)
L2	16.18 (0.58)	9.50 (0.29)	7.69 (0.49)	6.50 (0.29)	6.50 (0.29)	5.70 (0.54)
L3	28.27 (2.04)	17.79 (1.10)	12.11 (0.80)	11.68 (1.19)	9.53 (0.80)	9.89 (0.62)

Table 2. Parameters of regressions (standard error in parentheses) and low temperature thresholds (i.e. base temperature) in °C for *Wuchereria bancrofti* larval stages estimated by the x-intercept method of Arnold (1959)

Larval stage	x-intercept method				
	No. of points	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	Base temperature
Thoracic mf	3	-0.652 (0.127)	0.052 (0.005)	0.99	12.7 (1.1)
L1	3	-0.934 (0.158)	0.055 (0.007)	0.98	17.2 (0.7)
L2	4	-0.173 (0.050)	0.012 (0.002)	0.97	15.4 (1.2)
L3	3	-0.154 (0.015)	0.009 (0.0006)	0.99	16.4 (0.4)

Table 3. Estimates of parameters for the Lactin *et al.* (1995) model (standard errors within parentheses) and computation of base temperatures and upper thresholds (°C) for *Wuchereria bancrofti* developmental stages

Larval stage	Model parameters				Base temperature	Upper threshold
	rho	<i>T</i> <sub>max</sub>	Delta	Lambda		
Thoracic mf	0.0515 (0.0017)	43.38 (0.31)	10.53 (0.46)	-1.385 (0.127)	12.1	29.3
L1	0.0410 (0.0053)	41.96 (0.31)	7.63 (3.02)	-1.790 (0.305)	16.9	29.1
L2	0.0265 (0.0024)	57.13 (0.42)	17.34 (2.78)	-1.098 (0.234)	15.6	32.2
L3	0.0126 (0.0005)	56.72 (0.51)	10.98 (1.28)	-1.179 (0.189)	16.5	31.5

was significantly larger (0.035 mm (0.005), *n* = 21 measurements) than that of infective larvae found in mosquitoes captured in the field (0.023 mm (0.002), *n* = 181, unpublished data) (Student's *t* = 10.9, D.F. = 200, *P* < 0.0001). As a result, L3 larvae had a strange appearance at 32 °C (Fig. 1A) with unusual overall shape and proportions (a short length and a

large width), as compared to the usual shape of larvae developing in wild mosquitoes (Fig. 1B). These morphological alterations affected all L3 larvae only at 32 °C, but did not seem to influence their motility within the vector as some altered L3 larvae were recovered from mosquito heads, thoraces and abdomens. *W. bancrofti* L2 larvae appeared

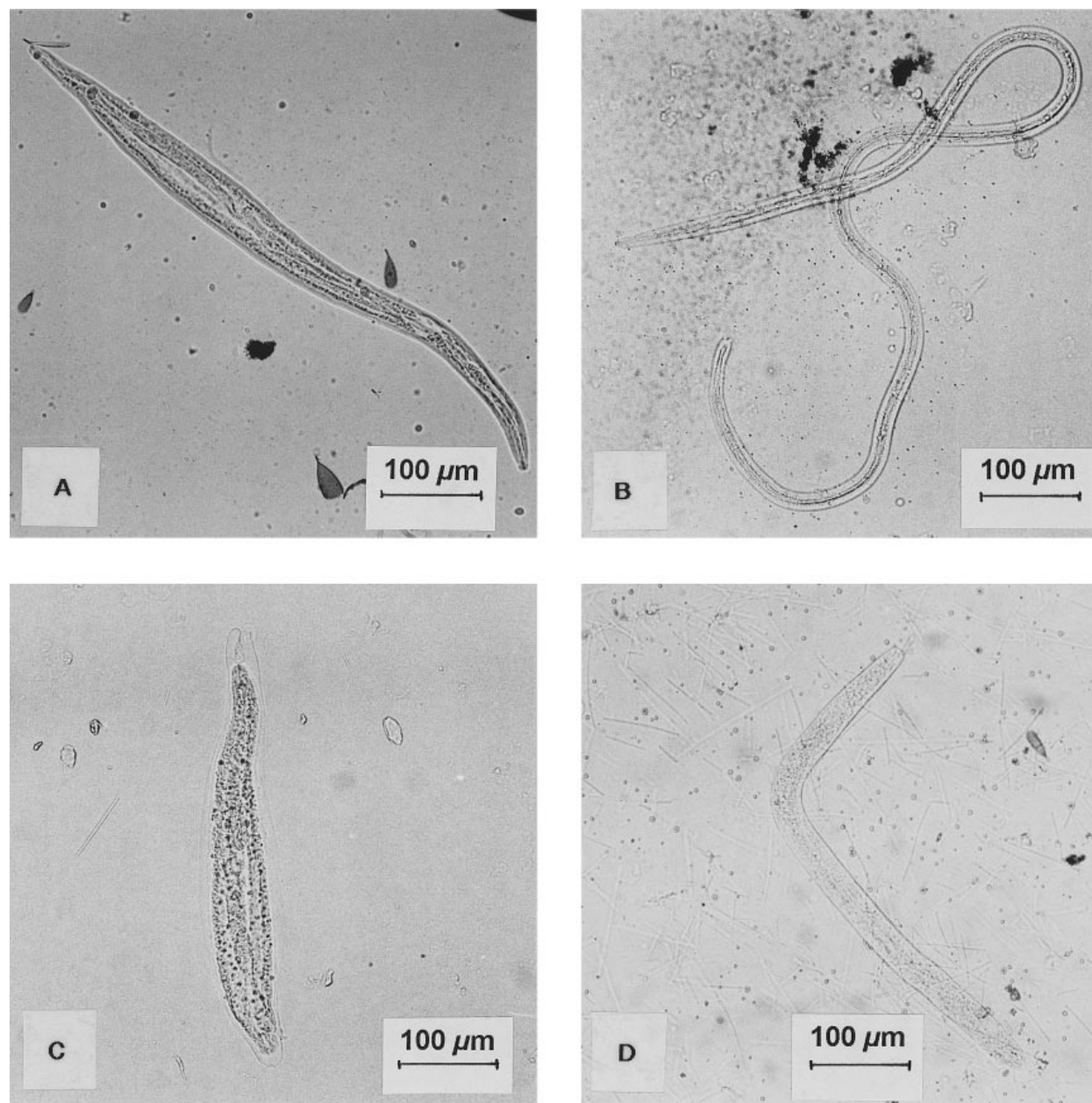


Fig. 1. Photomicrographs of altered L2 and L3 *Wuchereria bancrofti* larvae developing in *Aedes polynesiensis* reared at 32 °C compared to normal specimens developing in naturally infected mosquitoes. (A) Altered L3 larvae in head of vector. (B) Normal-shaped L3 larvae in head of vector. (C) Altered L2 larvae in thorax. (D) Normal L2 larvae in thorax of vector.

normally shaped at the beginning of their development at 32 °C, but at the end, more than 90% exhibited a length shrinkage and a width increase (Fig. 1 C, D), indicating that the pre-infective stage was also sensitive to this temperature. This was not the case for *W. bancrofti* L1 stage whose shapes at 32 °C were apparently similar to those at lower temperatures.

The relationship between L3 length and temperature is given in Fig. 2A, along with Schnute's (1981) fitted curve. Two asymptotes were computed. The first one corresponded to an hypothetical temperature  $T_{\infty} = 32.2$  °C at which L3 larvae would have null length. The second one indicated an

hypothetical mean length at low temperature of  $L_0 = 1.778$  mm. Using the equation of the fitted curve, percentiles of L3 length shrinkage were computed and plotted against temperature (Fig. 2B). For a 10% shrinkage, the plot indicated a limiting temperature of 31.6 °C while a 5 and 15% shrinkage gave  $T = 31.3$  and 31.7 °C respectively. The shape of the curve suggested that 10% shrinkage may be a limiting value and may correspond approximately to the upper threshold for L3 larvae.

Approximate values of upper thresholds estimated on Arrhenius plots were 29.0 °C for mf and 30.0 °C for L1, L2 and L3. Estimates given by the model of Lactin *et al.* (1995) are presented in Table 3.

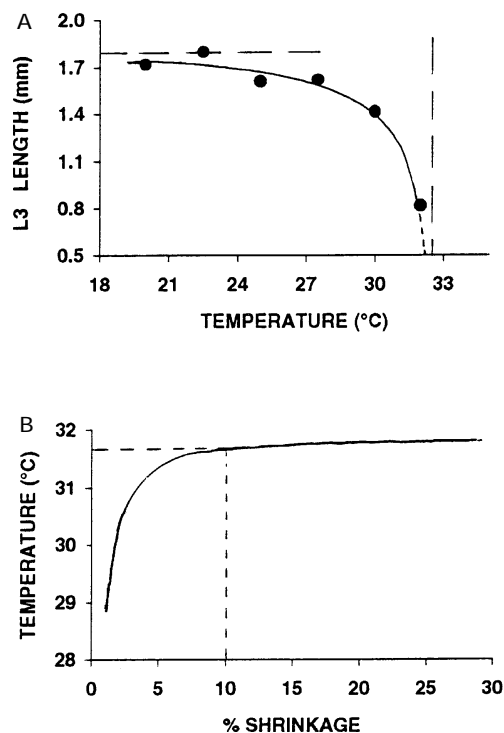


Fig. 2. Estimation of an upper threshold for L3 larvae using growth in length dynamics. (A) Relationship between length and temperature, and the fitted curve (Schnute's model) with the 2 asymptotes at  $T_{\infty} = 32.2$  °C and  $L_0 = 1.778$  mm. (B) Percentage length shrinkage with temperature and estimation of temperature threshold at 10%. In its general formulation (i.e.  $a \neq 0$  and  $b \neq 0$ ), Schnute's (1981) model is:

$$Y(t) = [y_1^b + (y_2^b - y_1^b)(1 - \exp(-a(t - t_1)))/(1 - \exp(-a(t_2 - t_1)))]^{1/b}$$

where  $Y(t)$  is the size at 'age'  $t$ ,  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  represent the sizes at ages  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  respectively ( $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are chosen by the biologist, typically as young and old 'ages'),  $a$  is the constant relative rate of relative growth rate and  $b$  is the incremental relative rate of relative growth rate.

#### Statistical modelling of developmental rates

Results of the non-linear estimation of parameters (and their standard errors) in the Lactin *et al.* (1995) model are given in Table 3. Plots of the data and fitted curves for each *W. bancrofti* larval stage are presented in Fig. 3. The percentage of variance explained by the model was 92.2% for mf in thorax, 90.3% for L1 larvae, 97.4% for L2 larvae and 97.5% for L3 larvae indicating, along with small standard error values, a good fit of the model to the data. Estimates of  $\lambda$  were  $< 0$  for each stage, indicating that base temperatures can be estimated. They appear in Fig. 3 at the intersection of the fitted curves with the x-axis and values are given in Table 3. These base temperatures are in agreement with those computed using the x-intercept method of Arnold (1959) (Table 2). Values for upper thresholds computed according to equation (4) are given in Table 3. The upper threshold of 31.5 °C for L3

larvae is similar to the value of 31.6 °C estimated by analysing alteration of growth in length with temperature (Fig. 2).

#### DISCUSSION

##### Estimation of developmental rates

In Tahiti, the mean annual temperature is 25.5 °C. The mean maximum temperature of the hottest month (i.e. March) calculated over the period 1957–88 is 29.5 °C while the mean minimum temperature of the coldest month (i.e. August) is 21.5

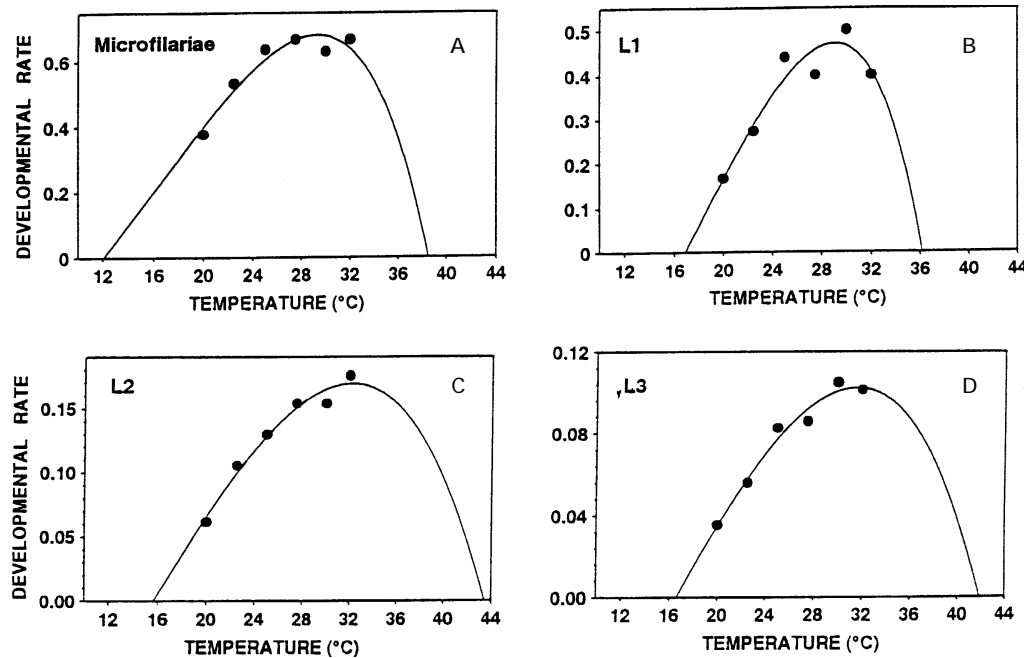


Fig. 3. Temperature-dependent developmental rates (1/days) of *Wuchereria bancrofti* stages in vector. (A) Thoracic microfilariae. (B) Stage 1. (C) Stage 2. (D) Stage 3. Fitted curves follow the Lactin *et al.* (1995) model (equation (2)).

the proportion of parasites developing from one stage to another will remain the same and time to appearance of stages will not be modified. Because no dramatic event occurred during our various experiments (in environment-controlled rearing chambers), it is likely that natural vector mortality may be assumed to be constant.

High microfilarial intakes can be detrimental to the survival of vectors (Ellrott, 1987; Bain & Petit, 1989). This may not always be true for the pair *W. bancrofti*/*A. polynesiensis* where such a phenomenon has been observed only for densities  $\gg 100$  ingested mf/mosquito (Prod'hon *et al.* 1980). Hairston & Jachowski (1968) also reported that unless high numbers of mf are ingested (i.e.  $> 100$ ), the proportion of *A. polynesiensis* surviving to development of L3 larvae will not be affected. In the present study, the mean number of ingested mf per mosquito was not different among the various experiments ( $F = 1.52$ ; D.F. = 4, 79;  $P = 0.20$ ), with an overaCh39[s nde TD (Ch9 0 4 1 T ur)3.2Q2(bmed06 essRhri-5044 1 T 50BT2 TD D.)-3317 ing



The number of mosquitoes killed and dissected daily resulted from a compromise between ethical and rearing constraints on the one hand (i.e. limited numbers of mosquitoes taking a blood-meal on the volunteer), and the aggregated distribution of parasites per mosquito on the other hand. This aggregated distribution suggested that a large number of mosquitoes should be dissected in order to obtain a small standard error of the mean number of parasites per mosquito. The number of parasites among vectors followed a negative binomial distribution, which, for the pair *W. bancrofti/A. polynesiensis*, had a  $k$  coefficient of 2, whatever the larval stage once mf have reached the thorax (Pichon *et al.* 1980). If  $D$  is the relative error in terms of percentage confidence limits of the mean ( $X$ ), then  $D^2 = (t^2/n) \times (1/X + 1/k)$ , where  $t$  is found in the Student's  $t$ -distribution and  $n$  is the sample size. In the present study, with a general mean of  $\approx 7$  parasites per mosquito, as estimated with samples of  $\approx 15$  mosquitoes, the precision of the mean was  $D \approx 0.44$  ( $D \approx 0.43$  with 20 mosquitoes) (i.e. the estimate of the population mean was within  $\pm 44\%$  [ $43\%$ ] of the true value), which is tolerable in ecological quantitative studies (Elliott, 1971).

#### Estimation of base temperature

The estimation of a base temperature (i.e. a developmental lower temperature threshold) is an important step for deriving a degree-days or a phenology model. In a degree-days approach, computations are not straightforward since the starting point for summation of degrees is often problematic. A common approach is to begin summations once temperatures exceed the base temperature, but development may not occur until later (Arnold, 1959). Other approaches, based on phenological events, may be used (Higley *et al.* 1986; Tauber, Tauber & Masaki, 1986). However, for *W. bancrofti* larvae, the use of the base temperature as a starting point may be employed because minimum temperatures recorded in French Polynesia ( $\approx 19^\circ\text{C}$ ), are close to the lowest temperature studied (i.e.  $20^\circ\text{C}$ ), when parasite development hardly occurred. Values estimated by the x-intercept method and by applying the Lactin *et al.* (1995) function were similar for each *W. bancrofti* stage. As such, the curvilinear relationship of Lactin *et al.* and the regression method may be equivalent descriptive tools in a range of temperatures below the upper threshold. If a linear approximation can be used to describe developmental rates of *W. bancrofti*, a degree-day approach may then be applied in the linear portion of the development curve. The lowest base temperature was computed for mf in thorax, the highest for L1 larvae, with a significant difference of  $\approx 5^\circ\text{C}$  as their 95% confidence intervals did not overlap. However, the estimated base temperature

for mf may be biased because the transition from mf in the abdomen to mf in the thorax is fast, even at low temperatures, and observations were made at 1-day intervals which are too large to compute an accurate mf base value. Base temperatures for L1, L2 and L3 were close to each other and ranged from  $\approx 15.5$  to  $\approx 17^\circ\text{C}$  when estimated by the x-intercept method or by the Lactin *et al.* equation.

#### Effects of high temperatures and estimation of upper threshold

Estimating a developmental maximum is difficult because variability in developmental rates is usually greater at higher temperatures (Higley *et al.* 1986), and also because mortality is high. The mortality of cage-kept *A. polynesiensis* increased with temperature and at  $34^\circ\text{C}$ , all mosquitoes died within a few days of the infected feed. *W. bancrofti* larvae may probably withstand such temperatures but gross morphological changes usually appear above  $32^\circ\text{C}$  (Basu & Rao, 1939; Nakamura, 1964; Rozeboom, Bhattacharya & Gilotra, 1968; Bruhnes, 1969*a, b*; El Dine & Habib, 1969). Such altered parasites may lose their ability to be transmitted by the vector (Bruhnes, 1975), an observation consistent with ours. Despite the reported motility of altered L3 larvae in *A. polynesiensis*, one would doubt their infectivity. High vector mortality rates at high temperatures limit the recording of points above the maximum threshold, and increase the variability of computed upper threshold values. As a result, maximum threshold values computed for *W. bancrofti* must be regarded as approximate estimates only. Because the usual techniques for calculating developmental maxima are not precise, these values are often not determined. However, upper temperature threshold estimates for *W. bancrofti* seem relevant and biologically sensible. Values for mf in thorax and L1 larvae are close to  $29^\circ\text{C}$  whilst those for L2 and L3 larvae are higher (i.e.  $\approx 31.5$ – $32^\circ\text{C}$ ). The latter are in agreement with the maximum 'morphological' value computed from L3 length shrinkage, which is more likely to represent a long-term unsustainable temperature. Without a developmental maximum, no upper bound is placed on daily temperatures used to calculate degree-days and a bias may be introduced in computations of development predictions (Higley *et al.* 1986). However, many poikilotherm organisms, and in particular insects, may indirectly regulate their internal temperature by using behavioural and physiological mechanisms (May, 1979). *A. polynesiensis* activity is known to be bimodal, with peaks early in the morning and late in the afternoon, avoiding the hottest hours of the day (Jachowski, 1954). When temperatures are lower, under tree canopy or during cloudy days for example, this mosquito may be active all day long, the peaks being less marked (Lardeux *et al.* 1992). *A. poly-*

*nesiensis* is able to seek thermally favoured microhabitats, usually cooler than the ambient air temperature, as suggested by higher mosquito capture rates in scrubland than in open fields (Lardeux, 1987). It is likely that *A. polynesiensis* will avoid long exposures to high temperatures such as those recorded in full sunlight. Because daily maximum air temperatures are sometimes above the upper thresholds, one must be aware of bias introduced when calculating degree-days for use in phenological models if thresholds are not taken into account. However, the error introduced may be not too great as the daily maximum temperatures are usually below the developmental threshold of *W. bancrofti* in *A. polynesiensis*, and the mean maximum temperature of the hottest month in Tahiti is below the upper thresholds estimated for *W. bancrofti* larvae. Moreover, air temperature oscillates during a 24 h cycle according to sine-wave functions (Allen, 1976; Parton & Logan, 1981), limiting the duration of high temperatures. In French Polynesia, temperatures above upper thresholds probably do not last long enough to produce abnormal *W. bancrofti* development. Even during the hottest days, it is likely that *A. polynesiensis* will behave so as to remain under the developmental maxima for *W. bancrofti* and permit the entire parasite cycle to be completed without alteration.

#### Modelling developmental rates

The major advantage of the Lactin *et al.* (1995) model over others is that it can account simultaneously for the developmental threshold and the non-linear response to temperature. The models of Harcourt & Yee (1982) and Hilbert & Logan (1983) may behave similarly but are biologically unrealistic since rates are unbounded as temperatures fall below the base temperature. Due to the lack of data at high temperatures, fitted curves were more skewed than expected in the descending phase. L2 and L3 developmental rates may be less sensitive to high temperature. This is suggested by higher  $T_{max}$  values, above the 42 °C limit which may correspond to irreversible protein denaturation, indicating that the decrease of the fitted curve was slower. The curvilinear model of Lactin *et al.* describes developmental rates of *W. bancrofti* larvae adequately. It is a good predictor in the temperature range where the curve is non-linear, but below the upper thresholds, in the quasi-linear portion of the curves, a simpler degree-day approach may be applied. Plots in Fig. 3 indicate that the portion in which a linear degree-day approach may be used ranges from base temperature to 27–28 °C approximately.

In conclusion, the developmental rates of *W. bancrofti* larvae are well described under laboratory conditions. The equation of Lactin *et al.* (1995) fits data gathered under controlled temperature en-

vironment adequately. In field conditions, the temperature is not constant but is a function of time  $f(t)$  (usually a sine-wave function), and sometimes, the degree-day concept with its linear temperature–rate relationship may not be apt under variable temperature conditions (Stinner, Gutierrez & Butler, 1974). For complete development of each larval stage, by definition,  $r(T) \times \Gamma_T = 1$ , where  $\Gamma_T$  = developmental time at temperature  $T$ . If  $T$  varies as  $f(t)$ ,  $d$  (the developmental time) may be computed by solving  $\sum_{t=0}^d r(f(t)) \times \Delta t = 1$ , where  $\Delta t$  is a time interval where  $r(f(t))$  is supposed to remain approximately constant. The function of Lactin *et al.* should then be validated for *W. bancrofti* in varying temperature conditions and the results compared to those obtained here ( $\approx 115$  degree-days for larval *W. bancrofti* to reach the infective stage). Estimates of *W. bancrofti* development thus obtained should then be compared with vector survival under field conditions to assess the probability of successful larval development of *W. bancrofti* conditional to the vector having survived to infectiousness. This will be examined in subsequent publications.

We thank the mf carrier for providing the infective blood-meals and M. Chebret for his technical assistance in producing the mosquitoes for experimentation. Thanks to Y. H. Le Mouchon for providing encouragement throughout this study. We also thank the anonymous reviewers whose comments greatly improved the earlier version of the manuscript, especially in its statistical aspect. This study received financial support from the Ministère des Départements et Territoires d’Outre Mer (CORDET no. 94TS14-16).

#### REFERENCES

- ALLEN, J. C. (1976). A modified sine wave method for calculating degree days. *Environmental Entomology* **5**, 388–396.
- ANDERSON, R. M. & MAY, R. M. (1991). *Infectious Diseases of Humans. Dynamics and Control*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- ARNOLD, C. Y. (1959). The determination and significance of the base temperature in a linear heat unit system. *American Society of Horticultural Sciences* **74**, 430–445.
- BAIN, O. & PETIT, G. (1989). Ecologie de la transmission des filaires. Analyse expérimentale des rapports parasites–vecteurs. *Bulletin d’Ecologie* **20**, 281–288.
- BASÁÑEZ, M. G., BOUSSINESQ, M., PROD’HON, J., FRONTADO, H., VILLAMIZAR, N. J., MEDLEY, G. F. & ANDERSON, R. M. (1994). Density dependent processes in the transmission of human onchocerciasis: intensity of microfilariae in the skin and their uptake by the simuliid host. *Parasitology* **108**, 115–127.
- BASÁÑEZ, M. G., REMME, J. H., ALLEY, E. S., BAIN, O., SHELLEY, A. J., MEDLEY, G. F. & ANDERSON, R. M. (1995). Density-dependent processes in the transmission of human onchocerciasis: relationship between the numbers of microfilariae ingested and successful larval development in the simuliid vector. *Parasitology* **110**, 409–427.

- BASU, P. C. & RAO, S. S. (1939). Studies on filariasis transmission. *Indian Journal of Medical Research* **27**, 233–249.
- BRENGUES, J. & BAIN, O. (1972). Passage des microfilaries de l'estomac vers l'hémocèle du vecteur, dans les couples *Wuchereria bancrofti* – *Anopheles gambiae* A, *W. bancrofti* – *Aedes aegypti* et *Setaria labiotopapillosa* – *A. aegypti*. *Cahiers ORSTOM, série Entomologie médicale et Parasitologie* **10**, 235–249.
- BRUHNES, J. (1969a). Nouvelles données sur les vecteurs de *Wuchereria bancrofti* à Madagascar. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* **40**, 763–769.
- BRUHNES, J. (1969b). Epidémiologie de la filariose de Bancroft à Madagascar. I. Influence des conditions climatiques sur la transmission de la maladie. *Annales de l'Université de Madagascar* **2**, 81–95.
- BRUHNES, J. (1975). La filariose de Bancroft dans la sous-région malgache (Comores, Madagascar, Réunion). *Mémoire ORSTOM no. 81, Paris*.
- BRYAN, J. H. & SOUTHGATE, B. A. (1988). Factors affecting transmission of *Wuchereria bancrofti* by Anopheline mosquitoes. 1. Uptake of microfilariae. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* **82**, 128–137.
- DIETZ, K. (1982). The population dynamics of onchocerciasis. In *Population Dynamics of Infectious Diseases: Theory and Applications*, (ed. Anderson, R. M.), pp. 209–241. Chapman and Hall, London.
- EL-DINE, K. Z. & HABIB, E. (1969). Preliminary studies on filariasis in U.A.R. I. The effect of temperature on the development of *Wuchereria bancrofti* in *Culex pipiens*. *Journal of the Egyptian Public Health Association* **44**, 481–485.
- ELLIOTT, J. M. (1971). Some methods for the statistical analysis of samples of benthic invertebrates. *Freshwater Biological Association Scientific Publication* **25**, 1–144.
- ELLROTT, D. (1987). The effect of different microfilarial densities of *Brugia malayi* in *Mastomys natalensis* on the mortality of the vector *Aedes aegypti*. *Tropical Medicine and Parasitology* **38**, 344.
- EYRAUD, M. & QUELENNEC, G. (1976). *Aedes polynesiensis*, technique d'élevage, observations sur son comportement sexuel et sa reproduction, essai de chimiostérilisation au Thiotepa. *Cahiers ORSTOM, série Entomologie médicale et Parasitologie* **14**, 3–11.
- FAILLOUX, A.-B., RAYMOND, M., UNG, A., GLAZIOU, P., MARTIN, P. M. V. & PASTEUR, N. (1995). Variation in the vector competence of *Aedes polynesiensis* for *Wuchereria bancrofti*. *Parasitology* **111**, 19–29.
- GRENFELL, B. T. & MICHAEL, E. (1992). Infection and disease in lymphatic filariasis: an epidemiological approach. *Parasitology* **104**, S81–S90.
- HABBEMA, J. D. F., VAN OORTMARSEN, G. J. & PLAISIER, A. (1996). The ONCHOSIM model and its use in decision support for river blindness control. In *Models for Human Infectious Diseases: Their Structure and Relation to Data* (ed. Isham, V. & Medley, G.), pp. 360–380. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- HAIRSTON, N. G. & JACHOWSKI, L. A. (1968). Analysis of the *Wuchereria bancrofti* population in the people of American Samoa. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* **38**, 29–59.
- HARCOURT, D. G. & YEE, J. M. (1982). Polynomial algorithm for predicting the duration of insect life stages. *Environmental Entomology* **11**, 581–584.
- HIGLEY, L. G., PEDIGO, L. P. & OSTLIE, K. R. (1986). DEGDAY: A program for calculating degree-days, and assumptions behind the degree-day approach. *Environmental Entomology* **15**, 999–1016.
- HILBERT, D. W. & LOGAN, J. A. (1983). Empirical model of nymphal development for the migratory grasshopper, *Melanoplus sanguinipes* (Orthoptera: Acrididae). *Environmental Entomology* **12**, 1–5.
- HUDSON, P. J. & DOBSON, A. P. (1995). Macroparasites: observed patterns in naturally fluctuating animal populations. In *Ecology of Infectious Diseases in Natural Populations* (ed. Grenfell, B. T. & Dobson, A. P.), pp. 144–176. Publications of the Newton Institute, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- JACHOWSKI, L. A. JR. (1954). Filariasis in American Samoa. V. Bionomics of the principal vector, *Aedes polynesiensis* Marks. *American Journal of Hygiene* **60**, 186–203.
- KIRK, J. R. VAN & ALINIAZEE, M. T. (1981). Determining low-temperature threshold for pupal development of the western cherry fruit fly for use in phenology models. *Environmental Entomology* **10**, 968–971.
- LACTIN, D. J., HOLLIDAY, N. J., JOHNSON, D. L. & CRAIGEN, R. (1995). Improved rate model of temperature-dependent development by arthropods. *Environmental Entomology* **24**, 68–75.
- LARDEUX, F. (1987). Lutte biologique contre *Aedes polynesiensis* avec le copépode *Mesocyclops aspericornis*. Expérimentation à Rangiroa. I. Evaluation avant-traitement et traitement. *Report de l'Institut Malardé, Papeete, French Polynesia, 13/87/ITRM/Doc-Ent*.
- LARDEUX, F. & CHEFFORT, J. (1996). Behavior of *Wuchereria bancrofti* (Filariidea: Onchocercidae) infective larvae in the vector *Aedes polynesiensis* (Diptera: Culicidae) in relation to parasite transmission. *Journal of Medical Entomology* **33**, 516–524.
- LARDEUX, F., RIVIÈRE, F., SECHAN, Y. & KAY, B. H. (1992). Release of *Mesocyclops aspericornis* (Copepoda) for control of larval *Aedes polynesiensis* (Diptera: Culicidae) in land crab burrows on an atoll of French Polynesia. *Journal of Medical Entomology* **29**, 571–576.
- LOGAN, J. A. (1988). Toward an expert system for development of pest simulation models. *Environmental Entomology* **17**, 359–376.
- LOGAN, J. A., WOLLKIND, D. J., HOYT, S. C. & TANIGOSHI, L. K. (1976). An analytic model for description of temperature dependent rate phenomena in arthropods. *Environmental Entomology* **5**, 1133–1140.
- MANLY, B. F. J. (1989). A review of methods for the analysis of stage-frequency data. In *Estimation and Analysis of Insect Populations. Lecture Notes in Statistics*, vol. 55. (ed. McDonald, L., Manly, B., Lockwood, J. & Logan, J.), pp. 3–69. Springer-Verlag, Berlin.
- MAY, M. L. (1979). Insect thermoregulation. *Annual Review of Entomology* **24**, 313–349.
- MCDONALD, L., MANLY, B., LOCKWOOD, J. & LOGAN, J. (1989). *Estimation and Analysis of Insect Populations. Lecture Notes in Statistics*, vol. 55. Springer-Verlag, Berlin.
- NAKAMURA, Y. (1964). Experimental studies on the role

- of *Aedes togoi* in the transmission of bancroftian filariasis. 2. On the development of filaria in *Aedes togoi* and effects of their parasitism on the mosquito. *Endemic Disease Bulletin of Nagasaki University* **6**, 113–124.
- NEDLER, J. A. & MEAD, R. (1965). A simplex method for function minimization. *Computer Journal* **7**, 308–313.
- PARTON, W. J. & LOGAN, J. A. (1981). A model for diurnal variation in soil and air temperature. *Agriculture and Meteorology* **23**, 205–216.
- PASTUREL, J. (1993). La climatologie des îles. In *Atlas de la Polynésie Française* (ed. Dupon, J. F.), pp. 42–43. Editions ORSTOM, Paris.
- PEROLAT, P., GUIDI, C., RIVIÈRE, F. & ROUX, J. (1986). Filariose de Bancroft en Polynésie française. Situation épidémiologique et perspectives après 30 ans de lutte. *Bulletin de la Société de Pathologie Exotique* **79**, 78–88.
- PICHON, G. (1974a). Etude mathématique de la réduction parasitaire chez différents vecteurs naturels ou expérimentaux de filarioses. *Comptes Rendus de l'Académie des Sciences, Paris* **288**, 3095–3097.
- PICHON, G. (1974b). Relations numériques entre le nombre des microfilaries ingérées et le nombre des parasites chez différents vecteurs naturels ou expérimentaux de filarioses. *Cahiers ORSTOM, série d'Entomologie médicale et Parasitologie* **12**, 199–216.
- PICHON, G., PROD'HON, J. & RIVIÈRE, F. (1980). Filarioses: surdispersion parasitaire et surinfection de l'hôte invertébré. *Cahiers ORSTOM, série Entomologie médicale et Parasitologie* **18**, 27–47.
- PLAISIER, A. P., VAN OORTMARSSSEN, G. J., HABBEMA, J. D. F., REMME, J. & ALLEY, E. S. (1990). ONCHOSIM: a model and computer simulation program for the transmission and control of onchocerciasis. *Computer Methods and Programs in Biomedicine* **31**, 43–56.
- PLAISIER, A. P., VAN DER PLOEF, C. P. B., VAN OORTMARSSSEN, G. J. & HABBEMA, J. D. F. (1995). The LYMPHASIM simulation modelling package for lymphatic filariasis and its use in analysis of data from Recife (Brazil). *Final report. World Health Organization/Tropical Disease Research*, p. 43.
- PONTIUS, J. S., BOYER, J. E. JR. & DEATON, M. L. (1989). Nonparametric estimation of insect stage transition times. In *Estimation and Analysis of Insect Populations. Lecture Note in Statistics*, vol. 55. (ed. McDonald, L., Manly, B., Lockwood, J. & Logan, J.), pp. 145–155. Springer-Verlag, Berlin.
- PROD'HON, J., PICHON, G. & RIVIÈRE, F. (1980). Etude quantitative de la réduction parasitaire stomacale chez les vecteurs de filarioses. *Cahiers ORSTOM, série Entomologie médicale et Parasitologie* **18**, 13–25.
- REMME, H., BA, O., DADZIE, K. Y. & KARAM, M. (1986). A force-of-infection model for onchocerciasis and its applications in the epidemiological evaluation of the Onchocerciasis Control Programme in the Volta river basin area. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* **64**, 667–681.
- REMME, H., ALLEY, S. & PLAISIER, A. (1995). Estimation and prediction in tropical disease control: the example of onchocerciasis. In *Epidemic Models, their Structure and Relation to Data* (ed. Mollison, D.), pp. 372–393. Publication of the Newton Institute, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- RIVIÈRE, F. (1988). Ecologie de *Aedes (Stegomyia) polynesiensis*, Marks, 1951 (Diptera: Culicidae) et transmission de la filariose de Bancroft en Polynésie. Thèse de Doctorat, Université de Paris Sud, Orsay.
- ROCHET, M. J. (1990). A simple deterministic model for bancroftian filariasis transmission dynamics. *Tropical Medicine and Parasitology* **41**, 225–233.
- ROSEN, L. (1955). Observations on the epidemiology of human filariasis in French Oceania. *American Journal of Hygiene* **61**, 219–248.
- ROZEBOOM, L. E., BHATTACHARYA, N. C. & GILOTRA, S. K. (1968). Observations on the transmission of filariasis in urban Calcutta. *American Journal of Epidemiology* **87**, 616–632.
- SCHNUTE, J. (1981). A versatile growth model with statistically stable parameters. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences* **38**, 1128–1140.
- SHARPE, P. J. H. & DE MICHELE, D. W. (1977). Reaction kinetics of poikilotherm development. *Journal of Theoretical Biology* **64**, 649–670.
- SOUTHGATE, B. A. & BRYAN, J. H. (1992). Factors affecting transmission of *Wuchereria bancrofti* by anopheline mosquitoes. 4. Facilitation, limitation, proportionality and their epidemiological significance. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* **86**, 523–530.
- STINNER, R. E., GUTIERREZ, A. P. & BUTLER, G. D. (1974). An algorithm for temperature-dependent growth rate simulation. *Canadian Entomologist* **106**, 519–524.
- SUZUKI, T. (1977). Preliminary studies on blood meal interval of *Aedes polynesiensis* in the field. *WHO/FIL/77.149*.
- TAUBER, M. J., TAUBER, C. A. & MASAKI, S. (1986). *Seasonal Adaptations of Insects*. Oxford University Press, New York.
- WAGNER, T. L., WU, H. I., SHARPE, P. J. H., SCHOOLFIELD, R. M. & COULSON, R. N. (1984). Modeling insect development rates: a literature review and application of a biophysical model. *Annals of the Entomological Society of America* **77**, 208–225.
- WANG, J. Y. (1960). A critique of the heat unit approach to plant response studies. *Ecology* **41**, 785–790.
- WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (1990). Informal consultation on epidemiological modelling for research and control of lymphatic filariasis. *World Health Organization Report, TDR/FIL/EPI-MOD*, 90.3.
- YANG, S., LOGAN, J. & COFFEY, D. L. (1995). Mathematical formulae for calculating the base temperature for growing degree days. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* **74**, 61–74.