

Aedes albopictus in Lebanon, a potential risk of arboviruses outbreak.

Nabil Haddad, Laurence Mousson, Marie Vazeille, Soulaima Chamat, Joelle Tayeh, Mike Abboud Osta, Anna-Bella Failloux

► To cite this version:

Nabil Haddad, Laurence Mousson, Marie Vazeille, Soulaima Chamat, Joelle Tayeh, et al.. Aedes albopictus in Lebanon, a potential risk of arboviruses outbreak.. BMC Infectious Diseases, 2012, 12 (1), pp.300. 10.1186/1471-2334-12-300. pasteur-00763709

HAL Id: pasteur-00763709 https://pasteur.hal.science/pasteur-00763709

Submitted on 11 Dec2012

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

RESEARCH ARTICLE



Open Access

Aedes albopictus in Lebanon, a potential risk of arboviruses outbreak

Nabil Haddad¹, Laurence Mousson², Marie Vazeille², Soulaima Chamat¹, Joelle Tayeh¹, Mike Abboud Osta³ and Anna-Bella Failloux^{2*}

Abstract

Background: The mosquito *Aedes albopictus* is undergoing a worldwide expansion with potential consequences on transmission of various arboviruses. This species has been first detected in Lebanon in 2003.

Methods: We performed a phylogenetic study of Lebanese specimens and assessed their host preference by detecting human, cat, dog and chicken immunoglobulins in mosquito blood-meals. Their capacity to transmit arboviruses was investigated by providing infectious blood-meals using an artificial feeding system followed by detection of viral particles in mosquito saliva.

Results: Our results suggest that Lebanese strains are part of the recent wave of *Ae. albopictus* expansion and are related to some European, African and North American strains. They exhibited a host preference towards humans and an important capacity to transmit arboviruses. Indeed, we showed that *Ae. albopictus* was able to transmit chikungunya (CHIKV), dengue (DENV) and West-Nile (WNV) viruses. At day 10 after an infectious blood-meal at a titer of 10^8 MID₅₀/ml, 30% of mosquitoes delivered an average of 515 ± 781 viral particles of CHIKV in saliva collected using a forced salivation technique and 55% with an average of 245 ± 304 viral particles when infected with WNV. Whereas DENV was not found in saliva at day 10 post-infection (pi), an average of 174 ± 455 viral particles was detected in 38.1% of mosquitoes tested at day 21 after an infectious blood-meal at a higher titer of 10^9 MID₅₀/ml.

Conclusion: These observations suggest that *Ae. albopictus* around Beirut is a potential vector of the three tested arboviruses.

Background

Arthropod-borne viruses (arboviruses) are an important cause of human illnesses. They are biologically transmitted to humans mainly by the bite of haematophagous insects, particularly mosquitoes. Arboviruses represent a wide variety of RNA viruses including the families of Flaviviridae and Togaviridae. Their emergence in new areas is correlated with the geographic expansion of vector species, facilitated by increasing trading and touristic activities. Indeed, the recent outbreaks of arboviruses in Southern Europe [1,2] were associated with the introduction of *Aedes albopictus* in this region. This mosquito species, native to Southeast Asia, has invaded Americas, Africa and Europe during the last 30 years [3]. In Europe, it was

* Correspondence: anna-bella.failloux@pasteur.fr

²Institut Pasteur, Department of Virology, Arboviruses and Insect Vectors, 25-28 rue du Dr Roux, 75724 Paris cedex 15, France

recorded for the first time in Albania in 1979 [4], then in Italy [5,6]. It is now present in all European countries around the Mediterranean Sea [7]. *Aedes albopictus* was also introduced to the Near East. It was first detected in Israel in 2002 [8], then in Lebanon in 2003 and in Syria in 2005 [9]. This area of the Mediterranean basin has experienced in the past several epidemics of arboviral diseases such as dengue [10] and West-Nile fever [11]. The introduction of *Ae. albopictus* should therefore be considered as a public health threat, especially because this mosquito is considered highly competent in transmitting various arboviruses [12], including chikungunya virus (CHIKV) [13,14], dengue virus (DENV) [15,16] and West-Nile virus (WNV) [17].

Lebanon is currently experiencing important demographic and economical changes with expanding urbanization, mainly around its capital Beirut, providing favourable environment for the proliferation of *Ae. albopictus*. The



© 2012 Haddad et al.; licensee BioMed Central Ltd. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/2.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article

establishment of this mosquito, in addition to the important flow of Lebanese expatriates returning to the country during the summer season and of workers coming from Asian and African countries that are endemic for arboviral diseases, increase the risk of local transmission of these arboviruses. Here, we report a study combining a phylogenetic approach, an estimation of host preferences, and an evaluation of vector competence of Lebanese strains of Ae. albopictus for CHIKV, DENV and WNV.

Methods

Collection of specimens

Aedes albopictus specimens were sampled during the months of September and October of 2009 and 2010. Eggs were collected using ovitraps from Sarba, a coastal agglomeration located at 20 km north of Beirut, and from Fanar, an agglomeration at 250 m of altitude on the hills of the Mount Lebanon chain east of Beirut (Figure 1). Wooden strips were removed weekly from ovitraps, then dried for at least 3 days. Eggs were carefully removed and stored in humid chambers before hatching. Resulting F0/F1 adults were used for vector competence studies. Adults were collected by manual aspiration or using BG-sentinel traps or CDC miniature light traps coupled with dry ice as attractant. Traps were left in outdoor microhabitats for 18-24 hours and collected adults were stored at -20°C for further processing (blood-meal identification and phylogenetic analysis).

Blood-meal identification

Mosquitoes were individually ground in wells of polystyrene plates previously saturated with a blocking buffer





(3% fat free milk in PBS). The grinding was performed in 150 μ l of PBS containing 3% fat free milk and 0.05% Tween 20, using an electric grinder (Micro Motor Escort[®]). Aliquots of each mosquito lysate were then stored at -20° C for later use.

To determine the animal species from which bloodmeals originated, serum immunoglobulins specific to the most common urban hosts (poultry, dog, cat or human), were detected using a standard sandwich ELISA [18]. Briefly, plates were coated overnight at +4°C with 50 µl of capture antibodies, then saturated with 200 µl PBS containing 3% fat free milk. Mosquito lysates, diluted at 1/100, were added in duplicates and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature, followed by conjugated antibodies. Mosquito lysates and secondary antibodies were diluted in PBS buffer containing 3% fat free milk and 0.05% Tween 20. The immune complex was revealed by adding TMB substrate. The reaction was stopped after 15 min by adding 3 N HCl and the optical density was measured at 450 nm. All incubation steps were separated by 4 washes with PBS containing 0.05% Tween 20. Lysates obtained from males and females artificially fed on blood of the four host species tested were used as negative and positive controls respectively.

Capture antibodies were used at the following optimal concentrations: 4 μ g/ml for rabbit anti-chicken IgY and goat anti-human IgG, and 2 μ g/ml for rabbit anti-dog IgG and goat anti-cat IgG. Secondary peroxidaseconjugated antibodies were used at the following optimal concentrations: 0.05 μ g/ml for goat anti-human IgG and rabbit anti-dog IgG and 0.2 μ g/ml for goat anti-cat IgG, and rabbit anti-chicken IgY. All captures and secondary antibodies were affinity-pure and Fc fragment specific (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, Inc).

DNA extraction and phylogenetic analysis

DNA was extracted from adults using the CTAB protocol [19]. Briefly, each specimen was ground in 200 µl CTAB lysis buffer (2% CTAB, 1.4 M NaCl, 10 mM EDTA, 100 mM Tris pH 8). The homogenate was incubated at 65°C for 5 min, then 200 µl chloroform were added and the mixture was centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 5 min. The upper phase containing the DNA suspension was transferred into another tube, mixed with 200 µl isopropanol and centrifuged again at 12,000 rpm for 15 min. The DNA pellet was mixed with 200 µl of ethanol 70% and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 5 min. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet was dried for 30 min, then resuspended in 20 µl double distilled (dd) H₂O. Extracted DNA was used as template for amplification of three mtDNA genes: a 360 bp fragment for cytochrome b (cytb), a 600 bp fragment for cytochrome oxidase I (COI) and a 450 bp fragment for NADH deshydrogenase 5 (ND5). Three sets of primers were used: for cytb, L14841 (5'-AAAAAGCTTCCATC CAACATCTCAGCATGATGAAA-3') and H15149 (5'-AAACTGCAGCCCCTCAGAATGATATTTGTCCTCA-3') [20]; for COI, CI-J-1632 (5'-TGATCAAATTTATAAT-3') and CI-N-2191 (5'-GGTAAAATTAAAATATAAACTTC-3') [21] and for ND5, ND5FOR (5'-TCCTTAGAATAA AATCCCGC-3') and ND5REV (5'-GTTTCTGCTTTAGTT CATTCTTC-3') [22]. Each reaction was performed in a DNA Engine Peltier thermal cycler (Bio-Rad[®]), in a final volume of 30 µl. The PCR mixture contained 5U Promega Taq polymerase, 3 µl Taq polymerase buffer (10X), 0.5 μ l of dNTPs (25 μ M), 1 μ l of each primer (10 μ M), 1 µl of DNA, and 22.5 µl of water-free nuclease. The amplification reaction was performed under the following conditions: denaturation at 95°C for 4 min followed by heating at 95°C for 40 seconds; annealing for 1 min, at 46°C for cytb, 40°C for COI and 44°C for ND5; elongation for 1 min, at 66°C for cytb and COI, and at 70°C for ND5. The mixture was submitted to 35 cycles and to a final extension step of 7 min, at 66°C for cytb and COI and at 70°C for ND5. PCR products were separated by electrophoresis in a 1% agarose gel and purified using the Illustra GFX PCR DNA and gel band purification kit (GE Healthcare[®]). Genes were sequenced in an automated DNA sequence (ABI PRISM® 3130). Sequences were read using ChromasPro software.

Gene sequences were aligned using ClustalW software. A phylogenetic tree based on combined analysis of the three genes was constructed using Lebanese specimens as well as 13 other *Ae. albopictus* specimens described in [23]. A Maximum Likelihood tree was built using PHYML [24]. The significance of internal branches was evaluated using 1000 bootstrap replicates. *Aedes aegypti* from Hawai was used as outgroup.

Vector competence studies Virus preparation

The three tested viruses were produced on C6/36 cells of *Ae. albopictus.* The CHIKV strain provided by the French National Reference Center for Arboviruses was isolated in 2005 from a human case in La Reunion; it presents an amino acid substitution (A226V) in the envelope glycoprotein E1 [25]. The DENV-2 strain provided by Prof. Leon Rosen was isolated from a human serum collected in Bangkok (Thailand) in 1974. The WNV strain was isolated from an infected horse in the Camargue (France) in 2000 [26]. Virus titers were calculated by the 50% endpoint method [27] and expressed as mosquito infectious doses (MID₅₀) per ml. The titer of blood-meals was $10^8 \text{ MID}_{50}/\text{ml}$, comparable to viremias estimated in patients [28-30].

Artificial feeding

Mosquitoes were exposed to an infectious blood-meal using an artificial feeding system. Three ml of infectious

blood-meal were prepared by mixing 2 ml washed rabbit red blood cells with 1 ml viral suspension and 5 mM ATP solution. One-week-old females were starved 24 hours before feeding, then allowed to feed on the infectious blood-meal through a chicken skin membrane covering the base of a glass feeder. Batches of 60 mosquitoes isolated in plastic boxes were placed under the glass feeders that were maintained at 37°C. Engorged females were selected, maintained in cardboard boxes and supplied with 10% sucrose at 28°C until use.

Indirect immunofluorescence assay (IFA) on head squashes

On day 14 post-infection (pi), virus presence in mosquito heads was investigated by indirect IFA. Heads were separated from the thorax, transferred on a microscope slide, and squashed under another slide. After 20 min fixation in cold acetone and air-drying at room temperature, anti-virus polyclonal antibody and fluorescein-conjugated secondary antibody were sequentially applied on head squashes [31]. Samples were examined under a fluorescence microscope.

qRT-PCR for assessing viral load

At different days pi, total nucleic acids were extracted from individual mosquitoes and from dissected organs (midguts, wings, and salivary glands) and analyzed as follows: material was ground in 350 µl of RA1 solution and RNA was extracted using NucleoSpin[®] RNA II kit. Total RNA was resuspended in 40 µl dd H₂O, then a volume of 1 to 5 µl was used in a one-step RT-PCR reaction performed with a Power SYBR® Green RNA-to- CT^{TM} one step kit (Applied Biosystem). The reaction in a volume of 25 µl contained: 1 to 5 RNA templates, 12.5 µl 2X Power SYBR® Green I RT-PCR Mix, 100-250 nM sense primer, 100-250 nM anti-sense primer, 0.2 µl RT enzyme mix and ddH₂O. Primers were selected in an encoding region (Table 1). The PCR program was: 48°C for 30 min, 95°C for 10 min; 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s, 60°C for 1 min, 72°C for 30 s and 90°C for 15 s. A standard curve was generated using duplicates, from 10^2 to 10⁸ copies of RNA synthetic transcripts per reaction. Quantification of viral RNA was achieved by comparing the threshold cycle (Ct) values of samples to those of standards, according to the ΔC_t analysis.

Transmission assay

After exposure to an infectious blood-meal, mosquitoes were tested for viral transmission potential at days 10 and 21 pi, by collecting saliva using the forced salivation technique [14]. Briefly, mosquitoes were anesthetized on ice and legs and wings were removed. The proboscis was then inserted into a pipette tip containing 5 μ l of fetal bovine serum (FBS). After 45 min, the tip content was transferred in 45 μ l of L15 medium.

Plaque assay on C6/36 cells

Saliva suspensions were titrated by focus fluorescent assay on C6/36 cells of *Aedes albopictus* [34]. Samples were serially diluted and inoculated into C6/36 cells in 96-well plates. After an incubation of 3 days for CHIKV or 5 days for WNV and DENV-2 at 28°C, cells were stained using hyper-immune ascetic fluid specific to each virus as the primary antibody and conjugated goat antimouse as the secondary antibody.

Statistical analysis

The Fisher's exact test was used for comparisons of rates (DIR and TR) and the Kruskall-Wallis test for comparisons of means from the STATA software (StataCorp LP, Texas, USA).

Results

Host preferences

A total of 333 *Ae. albopictus* specimens were collected, including 136 females. Among those, 32 were obviously engorged (Table 2). The origin of the blood-meal was detected in 71.9% of them and was as follows: 46.8% of *Ae. albopictus* fed on humans, 15.7% on poultry, 6.3% on cats and 3.1% on dogs, suggesting that *Ae. albopictus* is preferentially anthropophilic (Fisher's exact test: p < 0.05). All tested blood-meals came from a single host i.e., no mixed blood-meal was detected.

Phylogenetic analysis

The alignment of the sequences corresponding to the three mitochondrial genes cytb, COI and ND5 from two specimens originating from each of the 6 localities sampled revealed no sequence polymorphism. Consequently, only specimens from one locality, Sarba, were considered for the phylogenetic analysis. The Lebanese

Table 1 Primer pairs used to quantify CHIKV, DENV, and WNV by qRT-PCR

Virus	Viral gene	Sense primer (5'-3')	Anti-sense primer (5'-3')	Fragment size (bp)	Reference	
CHIKV	E2	9018 – CAC CGC CGC AAC TAC CG	9235 - GAT TGG TGA CCG CGG CA	217	[25]	
DENV-2	С	153 - GAG AAA CCG CGT GTC AAC TG	266- GGA AAC GAA GGA ATG CCA CC).	113	modified from [32]	
WNV	C/M	175 - GTG TTG GCT CTC TTG GCG TT	279 - AGG TGT TTC ATC GCT GTT TG	104	[33]	

Collection	Number of <i>Ae. albopictus</i>	Number of females	Number of engorged females	Blood-meal origin				
method				Human	Cat	Dog	Poultry	Unidentified
Manual Aspiration	100	40	18	12	1	1	1	3
CDC trap with CO_2	53	10	2	0	1	0	1	0
BG sentinel	180	86	12	3	0	0	3	6
Total	333	136	32	15 (46.8%)	2 (6.3%)	1 (3.1%)	5 (15.7%)	9 (28.1%)

Table 2 Origin of Aedes albopictus blood-meals identified by ELISA (sandwich) technique

Ae. albopictus sequences are identical to sequences obtained from specimens circulating in France, Madagascar and USA and La Providence (La Reunion). They were distantly related to the Asian and Brazilian specimens included in this study, which formed a distinct subgroup on the phylogenetic tree (Figure 2).

Vector competence studies

Susceptibility to infection

When mosquitoes from Sarba and Fanar were exposed to an infectious blood-meal at a titer of $10^8 \text{ MID}_{50}/\text{ml}$, disseminated infection rates estimated by IFA on head squashes reached 60% for CHIKV and 30-40% for WNV and DENV-2 (Figure 3). When comparing mosquito populations from both localities after their exposure to these viruses, no significant difference in dissemination was detected (Fisher's exact test: p > 0.05). Therefore, only the population from Sarba locality was considered for further analysis.

Viral replication

The number of viral RNA copies in mosquitoes was determined at days 0, 3, 6, 10 and 14 after exposure to a blood-meal at 10⁸ MID₅₀/ml using qRT-PCR. The results indicated that this number increased gradually from day 0 to day 14 (Figure 4). Indeed, mosquito specimens ingested 10^{5.3±0.05} CHIKV particles and the maximum of viral replication was reached at day 6 pi with $10^{8.5\pm0.9}$ followed by a plateau around 10^8 viral RNA per mosquito. With DENV-2, mosquitoes ingested $10^{5.0\pm0.5}$ particles, and viral replication reached its maximum at day 10 pi attaining $10^{6.7\pm1.7}$ copies per mosquito. By contrast, WNV presented a different profile: the ingestion of 10^{5.4±0.1} of viral RNA particles was followed by a drastic decrease to $10^{1.4}$ and then, an increase to reach a maximum of $10^{6.5\pm2.3}$ viral RNA at day 14 pi. Therefore, day 10 after ingestion of the infectious bloodmeal was chosen for further analysis, for all three viruses. When considering each virus, no significant difference was detected according to day pi (Kruskall-Wallis test: p > 0.05).

Viral dissemination

Ten days after administration of an infected blood-meal at a titer of 10^8 MID₅₀/ml, we analyzed the number of



Figure 2 Phylogenetic relationships among Ae. albopictus based on the combined analysis of the three mtDNA genes: cytb, COI and NADH5. The analysis was performed using PhyML (Guindon & Gascuel, 2003). The significance of internal branches was evaluated using 1000 bootstrap replications. The tree includes one Lebanese specimen (Sarba) and 13 others derived from Mousson et al. (2003) which have the following accession numbers for the cytb, COI and ND5 genes: Sarba JX912501, JX912500, JX912502; Represa do Cigano AJ970990, AJ971003, AJ971016; Hanoi AJ970991, AJ971004, AJ971017; Jacksonville AJ970992, AJ971005, AJ971018; Seam Reap AJ970993, AJ971006, AJ971019; Diego Suarez AJ970994, AJ971007, AJ971020; Montsecret AJ970995, AJ971008, AJ971021; Naintre AJ970996, AJ971009, AJ971022; Nha Trang AJ970997, AJ971010, AJ971023; La Possession AJ970999, AJ971012, AJ971025; La Providence AJ971000, AJ971013, AJ971026; Sao Luis AJ971001, AJ971014, AJ971027; Chiang Mai AJ971002, AJ971015, AJ971028 and Oahu AJ970998, AJ971011, AJ971024, used as outgroup.



viral RNA copies in different mosquito organs, namely the midgut, wings and salivary glands. This allowed us to estimate the virus efficiency in disseminating from the midgut to secondary organs (Figure 5). With CHIKV, the number of viral RNA copies was $10^{7.6\pm2.2}$ in the midgut, it decreased in the wings $(10^{5.7\pm0.9})$ and in the salivary glands $(10^{5.0\pm3.0})$, indicating a slight limitation of viral dissemination. This was also observed with DENV-2: $10^{6.6\pm1.6}$ RNA copies in the midgut, $10^{4.6\pm1.3}$ in the wings and $10^{3.3\pm1.1}$ in the salivary glands. By contrast, WNV was not limited during its route of dissemination inside the mosquito as all three organs hosted comparable loads of viral RNA: 10^{5.7±3.0} copies in the midgut, $10^{5.9\pm1.2}$ in the wings and $10^{4.9\pm2.5}$ in the salivary glands. Except for WNV, a significant difference was found between the three organs analyzed (Kruskall-Wallis test: p < 0.05) with the highest viral load detected in midguts.

Viral transmission

Ten days after exposure to an infectious blood-meal at 10⁸ MID₅₀/ml, saliva was collected to estimate the potential of mosquitoes to transmit the virus. Results (Figure 6) show that 30% of mosquitoes delivered an average of 515 ± 781 viral particles of CHIKV in saliva, while 55% delivered an average of 245 ± 304 viral particles of WNV. However, no DENV-2 was detected in mosquito saliva at day 10 pi. Therefore, we estimated the number of viral particles in saliva after an infectious blood containing DENV-2 at 109 MID₅₀/ml. In agreement with the previous experiment, no virus was detected in saliva at day 10 pi. However, at day 21 pi, the saliva of 38.1% of the mosquitoes contained DENV-2 viral particles with an average of 174 ± 455 viral load, suggesting that a longer time of incubation at 28°C was needed to lead to an efficient transmission of DENV-2.





Discussion

Our results show that the tested Lebanese specimens of *Ae. albopictus* are mostly anthropophilic and can efficiently transmit the three arboviruses, CHIKV, DENV and WNV. Based on a phylogenetic analysis, we corroborate that this mosquito is likely to be part of the last worldwide wave of *Ae. albopictus* expansion.

Ae. albopictus is known to have an opportunistic feeding behaviour among birds, reptiles, amphibians and mammals [35,36]. In our study, this mosquito shows a marked preference for human blood was found by Delatte et al. (2010) [37] and Ponlawat & Harrington (2005) [38]. Such anthropophily was observed in areas where *Ae. albopictus* was involved as primary vector in the transmission of arboviruses [37,39].

Our findings show an absence of genetic diversity within the tested *Ae. albopictus* populations when examining the three mitochondrial genes, which suggests that *Ae. albopictus* has expanded to new geographic areas established from a few founder females [22,40]. Other genetic markers such as microsatellites should be tested [41,42]. This mosquito was observed for the first time in Lebanon in 2003. Our field observations confirm that this invasive species succeeded to establish in the coastal





and middle altitude areas of the Mount Lebanon chain (Figure 1) where it represents a source of nuisance because of its aggressive biting behavior. On the other hand, vector competence study shows that under laboratory conditions, the tested Lebanese strains of Ae. albopictus were able to disseminate efficiently the three viruses CHIKV, DENV and WNV. The role of Ae. albo*pictus* as a field vector of WNV seems to be less probable but should not be neglected. Indeed, Ae. albopictus has been found naturally infected with WNV [43], is able to feed on avian hosts [36] and to transmit the virus to horses [44]. Following infection with DENV-2, disseminated infection rates were roughly similar to values found in previous studies, lower than 50% [16,45-47]. However, disseminated infection rates following exposure to CHIKV were lower than those reported from Corsica [47] and North Italy [16], as those ranged from 75% to 100%. When examining the profile of replication (Figure 4), viral RNA loads were found to peak more rapidly for CHIKV (day 6) than for the other two viruses (day 10 for DENV-2 and day 14 for WNV). As in other studies [16,47], the salivary glands of Ae. albopictus can contain around 10⁴ CHIKV at day 10 pi.

To be transmitted, viruses must confront a series of "barriers" in the mosquito, that limit dissemination and/or transmission of the virus. The efficiency of these barriers determines the level of mosquito competence. Barriers include the midgut and the salivary glands (reviewed in [48]). In our study, we found that the salivary glands of most tested mosquitoes were infected with virus (84.6% with CHIKV, 96.4% with DENV-2 and 92.3% with WNV, data not shown) but less than 55% were capable of transmission at day 10 pi (30% with CHIKV, 55% with WNV and 0% with DENV-2). It is worth noting that at this time point, and for equal administered infectious doses, WNV was delivered at a lower number than CHIKV. However, this was compensated by a higher proportion of infected mosquitoes. DENV behaves differently; viral particles were detected in the secreted saliva only at day 21 after ingestion of a blood-meal at a titer 10 times higher (i.e., 10⁹ MID₅₀/mL). These restricted conditions argue for a low vector competence of Ae. albopictus for DENV-2. However, a poorly competent vector may drive intense transmission of arboviruses if other conditions are suitable, such as vector density, daily mosquito survival, biting rate... [49]. Also, the midgut barrier could be overwhelmed by increasing virus titers, whether in artificial blood-meals or when mosquitoes are exposed to humans with high viremia [50,51].

Conclusion

Our study confirms the capacity of *Ae. albopictus* from Sarba (North of Beirut) to transmit, in laboratory

conditions, the three viruses, CHIKV, DENV, and WNV. Considering its high preference for human blood, this mosquito should be considered as a serious public health threat for Lebanon and the region where climatic conditions and demographic dynamics are suitable for an active transmission of arboviruses. These findings are particularly important for the Near-East region; the introduced *Ae. albopictus* appears to be competent candidate to take over the role of *Ae. aegypti* that used to be the main vector of DENV before its eradication in the 1950s [10]. Thus, surveillance should be reinforced to allow a rapid implementation of control measures.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Authors' contributions

NH carried out collections of mosquitoes, identification of blood-meals and sequencing. LM carried out experimental infections of mosquitoes. MV participated in titration assays. SC helped to draft the manuscript. JT helped to draft the manuscript. MAO participated in sequencing and helped to draft the manuscript. ABF conceived the study and drafted the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Catherine Dauga for her invaluable contribution in the phylogenetic analysis, Dany Azar for his critical advices, Marc Grandadam for providing reagents for viral detection, and Jean-François Charles for improving figures. LM was supported by the ACIP A-10-2009 (Institut Pasteur) and this work was funded by the CEDRE Program (Cooperation for Evaluation and Development of Research), the Lebanese National Center for Scientific Research (grant number 020409) and the Doctorate School of Science and Technology of the Lebanese University.

Author details

¹Lebanese University, Faculty of Public Health-II, Laboratory of Immunology, Fanar, Lebanon. ²Institut Pasteur, Department of Virology, Arboviruses and Insect Vectors, 25-28 rue du Dr Roux, 75724 Paris cedex 15, France. ³Department of Biology, American University of Beirut, Bliss Street, Beirut, Lebanon.

Received: 22 April 2012 Accepted: 6 November 2012 Published: 14 November 2012

References

- Rezza G, Nicoletti L, Angelini R, Romi R, Finarelli AC, Panning M, Cordioli P, Fortuna C, Boros S, Magurano F, Silvi G, Angelini P, Dottori M, Ciufolini MG, Majori GC, Cassone A, CHIKV study group: Infection with chikungunya virus in Italy: an outbreak in a temperate region. *Lancet* 2007, 370:1840–1846.
- Grandadam M, Caro V, Plumet S, Thiberge JM, Souarès Y, Failloux AB, Tolou HJ, Budelot M, Cosserat D, Leparc-Goffart I, Desprès P: Chikungunya virus, southeastern France. Emerg Infect Dis 2011, 17:910–913.
- Paupy C, Delatte H, Bagny L, Corbel V, Fontenille D: Aedes albopictus, an arbovirus vector: from the darkness to the light. *Microbes Infect* 2009, 11:1177–1185.
- Adhami J, Reiter P: Introduction and establishment of Aedes (Stegomyia) albopictus skuse (Diptera: Culicidae) in Albania. J Am Mosq Control Assoc 1998, 14:340–343.
- Sabatini A, Raineri V, Trovato G, Coluzzi M: Aedes albopictus in Italy and possible diffusion of the species into the Mediterranean area. Parassitologia 1990, 32:301–304.
- 6. Dalla Pozza G, Majori G: First record of *Aedes albopictus* establishment in Italy. J Am Mosq Control Assoc 1992, 8:18–20.
- Schaffner F, Van Bortel W: Current status of invasive mosquitoes in Europe. ECDC, VBORNET Newsl 2010, 2:6–8.
- Pener H, Wilamowski A, Schnur H, Orshan L, Shalom U, Bear A: Letter to the editors. Eur Mosq Bull 2003, 14:32.

- Haddad N, Harbach RE, Chamat S, Bouharoun-Tayoun H: Presence of Aedes albopictus in Lebanon and Syria. J Am Mosq Control Assoc 2007, 23:226–228.
 Saad B: La dengue au Liban. Sem Hop Paris 1948, 78:2496–2498.
- Bin H, Grossman Z, Pokamunski S, Malkinson M, Weiss L, Duvdevani P, Banet C, Weisman Y, Annis E, Gandaku D, Yahalom V, Hindyieh M, Shulman L, Mendelson E: West Nile fever in Israel 1999–2000: from geese to humans. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2001, 951:127–142.
- Gratz NG: Critical review of the vector status of Aedes albopictus. Med Vet Entomol 2004, 18:215–227.
- Tesh RB, Gubler DJ, Rosen L: Variation among goegraphic strains of Aedes albopictus in susceptibility to infection with chikungunya virus. AmJTrop Med Hyg 1976, 25:326–335.
- Dubrulle M, Mousson L, Moutailler S, Vazeille M, Failloux AB: Chikungunya virus and Aedes mosquitoes: saliva is infectious as soon as two days after oral infection. PLoS One 2009, 4:e5895.
- Gubler DJ, Rosen L: A simple technique for demonstrating transmission of dengue virus by mosquitoes without the use of vertebrate hosts. *AmJTrop Med Hyg* 1976, 25:146–150.
- Talbalaghi A, Moutailler S, Vazeille M, Failloux AB: Is Aedes albopictus for Italy competent enough to sustain new arboviral outbreaks? Med Vet Entomol 2010, 24:83–87.
- Sardelis MR, Turell MJ, O'Guinn ML, Andre RG, Roberts DR: Vector competence of three North American strains of Aedes albopictus for West Nile virus. J Am Mosq Control Assoc 2002, 18:284–289.
- Chow E, Wirtz RA, Scott TW: Identification of blood meals in Aedes aegypti by antibody sandwich enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. J Am Mosq Control Assoc 1993, 9:196–205.
- 19. Rogers SO, Bendich AJ: *Extraction of DNA from plant tissues*, Plant Molecular Biology Manual. Boston, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers; 1988:1–10.
- Kocher TD, Thomas WK, Meyer A, Edwards SV, Pääbo S, Villablanca FX, Wilson AC: Dynamics of mitochondrial DNA evolution in animals: amplification and sequencing with conserved primers. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* USA 1989, 86:6196–6200.
- 21. Kambhampati S, Smith PT: PCR primers for the amplification of four insect mitochondrial gene fragments. *Insect Mol Biol* 1995, **4**:233–236.
- 22. Birungi J, Munstermann LE: Genetic structure of *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) populations based on mitochondrial ND5 sequences: evidence for an independent invasion into Brazil and United States. *Ann Entomol Soc Am* 2002, **95:**125–132.
- Mousson L, Vazeille M, Chawprom S, Prajakwong S, Rodhain F, Failloux AB: Genetic structure of *Aedes aegypti* populations in Chiang Mai (Thailand) in relation with dengue transmission. *Trop Med Int HIth* 2002, 7:865–872.
- 24. Guindon S, Gascuel O: A simple, fast, and accurate algorithm to estimate large phylogenies by maximum likelihood. *Syst Biol* 2003, **52**:696–704.
- 25. Schuffenecker I, Iteman I, Michault A, Murri S, Frangeul L, Vaney MC, Lavenir R, Pardigon N, Reynes JM, Pettinelli F, Biscornet L, Diancourt L, Michel S, Duquerroy S, Guigon G, Frenkiel MP, Bréhin AC, Cubito N, Desprès P, Kunst F, Rey FA, Zeller H, Brisse S: Genome microevolution of Chikungunya viruses causing the Indian Ocean outbreak. *PLoS Med* 2006, 3:e263.
- Murgue B, Murri S, Zientara S, Durand B, Durand JP, Zeller H: West Nile outbreak in horses in southern France, 2000: the return after 35 years. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2001, 7:692–696.
- 27. Reed LJ, Muench H: A simple method of estimating fifty per cent endpoints. *Am J Hyg* 1938, **27:**493–497.
- Lanciotti RS, Kerst AJ, Nasci RS, Godsey MS, Mitchell CJ, Savage HM, Komar N, Panella NA, Allen BC, Volpe KE, Davis BS, Roehrig JT: Rapid detection of west nile virus from human clinical specimens, field-collected mosquitoes, and avian samples by a TaqMan reverse transcriptase-PCR assay. J Clin Microbiol 2000, 38:4066–4071.
- Parola P, de Lamballerie X, Jourdan J, Rovery C, Vaillant V, Minodier P, Brouqui P, Flahault A, Raoult D, Charrel RN: Novel chikungunya virus variant in travelers returning from Indian Ocean islands. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2006, 12:1493–1499.
- Wang WK, Chen HL, Yang CF, Hsieh SC, Juan CC, Chang SM, Yu CC, Lin LH, Huang JH, King CC: Slower rates of clearance of viral load and viruscontaining immune complexes in patients with dengue hemorrhagic fever. *Clin Infect Dis* 2006, 43:1023–1030.
- 31. Kuberski TT, Rosen L: A simple technique for the detection of dengue antigen in mosquitoes by immunofluorescence. *AmJTrop Med Hyg* 1977, **26**:533–537.
- 32. Lanciotti RS, Calisher CH, Gubler DJ, Chang GJ, Vorndam AV: Rapid detection and typing of dengue viruses from clinical samples by using

reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction. J Clin Microbiol 1992, 30:545–551.

- Lanciotti RS, Roehrig JT, Deubel V, Smith J, Parker M, Steele K, Crise B, Volpe KE, Crabtree MB, Scherret JH, Hall RA, MacKenzie JS, Cropp CB, Panigrahy B, Ostlund E, Schmitt B, Malkinson M, Banet C, Weissman J, Komar N, Savage HM, Stone W, McNamara T, Gubler DJ: Origin of the West Nile virus responsible for an outbreak of encephalitis in the northeastern United States. *Science* 1999, 286:2333–2337.
- 34. Igarashi A: Isolation of a Singh's *Aedes albopictus* cell clone sensitive to dengue and Chikungunya viruses. *J Gen Virol* 1978, 40:531–544.
- 35. Savage HM, Niebylski ML, Smith GC, Mitchell CJ, Craig GB Jr: Host-feeding patterns of *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) at a temperate North American site. *J Med Entomol* 1993, **30**:27–34.
- Richards SL, Ponnusamy L, Unnasch TR, Hassan HK, Apperson CS: Hostfeeding patterns of *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) in relation to availability of human and domestic animals in suburban landscapes of Central North Carolina. J Med Entomol 2006, 43:543–551.
- Delatte H, Desvars A, Bouétard A, Bord S, Gimonneau G, Vourc'h G, Fontenille D: Blood-feeding behaviour of Aedes albopictus, a vector of chikungunya on La Réunion. Vector-Borne Zoonotic Dis 2010, 10:249–258.
- Ponlawat A, Harrington LC: Blood feeding patterns of Aedes aegypti and Aedes albopictus in Thailand. J Med Entomol 2005, 42:844–849.
- Valerio L, Marini F, Bongiorno G, Facchinelli L, Pombi M, Caputo B, Maroli M, Della Torre A: Host-Feeding Patterns of *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae) in Urban and Rural Contexts within Rome Province, Italy. *Vector-Borne Zoonotic Dis* 2010, 10:291–294.
- Delatte H, Bagny L, Brengue C, Bouetard A, Paupy C, Fontenille D: The invaders: phylogeography of dengue and chikungunya viruses Aedes vectors, on the South West islands of the Indian Ocean. Infect Genet Evol 2011, 11:1769–1781.
- Porreta D, Gargani M, Bellini R, Calviti M, Urbanelli S: Isolation of microsatellite markers in the tiger mosquito Aedes albopictus (Skuse). Mol Ecol Notes 2006, 6:880–881.
- Kamgang B, Brengues C, Fontenille D, Njiokou F, Simard F, Paupy C: Genetic structure of the tiger mosquito, *Aedes albopictus*, in Cameroon (Central Africa). *PLoS One* 2011, 6:e20257.
- Holick J, Kyle A, Ferraro W, Delaney RR, Iwaseczko M: Discovery of Aedes albopictus infected with west nile virus in southeastern Pennsylvania. J Am Mosq Control Assoc 2002, 18:131.
- Bunning ML, Bowen RA, Cropp CB, Sullivan KG, Davis BS, Komar N, Godsey MS, Baker D, Hettler DL, Holmes DA, Biggerstaff BJ, Mitchell CJ: Experimental infection of horses with West Nile virus. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2002, 8:380–386.
- Vazeille-Falcoz M, Mousson L, Rakatoarivony I, Villeret R, Rodhain F, Duchemin JB, Failloux AB: Population genetic structure and vector competence towards dengue 2 virus of Aedes aegypti and Aedes albopictus from Madagascar. AmJTrop Med Hyg 2001, 65:491–497.
- 46. Lourenço-de-Oliveira R, Vazeille M, de Bispo Filippis AM, Failloux AB: Large genetic differentiation and low variation in vector competence for dengue and yellow fever viruses of *Aedes albopictus* from Brazil, the United States, and the Cayman Islands. *AmJTrop Med Hyg* 2003, 69:105–114.
- 47. Moutailler M, Barré H, Vazeille M, Failloux AB: Recently introduced *Aedes albopictus* in Corsica is competent to Chikungunya virus and in a lesser extent to dengue virus. *Trop Med Int HIth* 2009, **14**:1105–1109.
- Kramer LD, Ebel GD: Dynamics of flavivirus infection in mosquitoes. Adv Virus Res 2003, 60:187–232.
- Turell MJ, O'Guinn ML, Dohm DJ, Jones JW: Vector competence of North American mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae) for West Nile virus. J Med Entomol 2001, 38:130–134.
- Focks DA, Daniels E, Haile DG, Keesling JE: A simulation model of the epidemiology of urban dengue fever: literature analysis, model development, preliminary validation, and samples of simulation results. *AmJTrop Med Hyg* 1995, 53:489–506.
- Woodring JL, Higgs S, Beaty BJ: Natural cycles of vector borne pathogens, Biology of disease vectors. CO, USA: Boulder, University Press of Colorado; 1996:51–72.

doi:10.1186/1471-2334-12-300

Cite this article as: Haddad *et al.: Aedes albopictus* in Lebanon, a potential risk of arboviruses outbreak. *BMC Infectious Diseases* 2012 12:300.