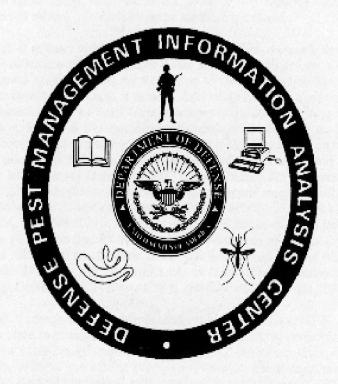
DISEASE VECTOR ECOLOGY PROFILE



YUGOSLAV REPUBLICS

Second Edition - 27 OCTOBER 93

Armed Forces Pest Management Board

DEFENSE PEST MANAGEMENT INFORMATION ANALYSIS CENTER

Forest Glen Section, WRAMC Washington, D.C. 20307-5001

maintaining the data needed, and coincluding suggestions for reducing	ection of information is estimated to impleting and reviewing the collect this burden, to Washington Headqu and be aware that notwithstanding and the control number.	ion of information. Send comment arters Services, Directorate for Info	s regarding this burden estimate ormation Operations and Reports	or any other aspect of the s, 1215 Jefferson Davis	his collection of information, Highway, Suite 1204, Arlington		
1. REPORT DATE 27 OCT 1993		3. DATES COVERED 00-00-1993 to 00-00-1993					
4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE				5a. CONTRACT	NUMBER		
Disease Vector Eco	logy Profile: Yugos	lav Republics		5b. GRANT NUMBER			
				5c. PROGRAM ELEMENT NUMBER			
6. AUTHOR(S)				5d. PROJECT NUMBER			
				5e. TASK NUMBER			
				5f. WORK UNIT NUMBER			
Defense Pest Mana Pest Management	_	n Analysis Center,A Section - Walter Re		8. PERFORMING REPORT NUMB	G ORGANIZATION BER		
9. SPONSORING/MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES)				10. SPONSOR/MONITOR'S ACRONYM(S)			
					11. SPONSOR/MONITOR'S REPORT NUMBER(S)		
12. DISTRIBUTION/AVAIL Approved for publ	ABILITY STATEMENT	ion unlimited					
13. SUPPLEMENTARY NO	TES						
14. ABSTRACT							
15. SUBJECT TERMS							
16. SECURITY CLASSIFIC	17. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT	18. NUMBER OF PAGES	19a. NAME OF RESPONSIBLE PERSON				
a. REPORT unclassified	b. ABSTRACT unclassified	40					

Report Documentation Page

Form Approved OMB No. 0704-0188

PREFACE

Disease Vector Ecology Profiles (DVEPs) are concise summaries of vector-borne and other militarily significant diseases that occur in specific countries. DVEPs focus on vector-borne diseases and emphasize essential epidemiology, vector bionomics, behavior, and pesticide resistance. A selected bibliography of pertinent disease and disease vector literature is included.

DVEPs are synopses of relevant entomological and arthropod-borne disease information. They are compiled from unclassified scientific literature, and they are intended to provide a historical profile of arthropod-borne disease epidemiology in the recent past for selected geographical areas. The epidemiology of arthropod-borne disease is dynamic, and incidence and prevalence are constantly changing. This is especially true for Third World countries, which are undergoing rapid development and ecological change, and those areas experiencing migrations of large refugee populations as a result of civil strife. This document should be supplemented with recent information on foreign public health status and medical developments. Component medical department activities may have updated regional information for their areas of responsibility. Current disease risk assessments, information on parasitic and communicable diseases, and other aspects of general medical intelligence can be obtained from the Armed Forces Medical Intelligence Center (AFMIC), Fort Detrick, Frederick, MD 21701 (301-619-7574, DSN 343-7574). Additional information can be obtained from the Navy Preventive Medicine Information System (NAPMIS), which maintains up-to-date Disease Risk Assessment Profiles (DISRAPs) and Disease Vector Risk Assessment Profiles (VECTRAPs) on most countries of the world. DISRAPs and VECTRAPs can be obtained by contacting the Navy Environmental Health Center (NEHC) (804-444-7575 extension 456, DSN 564-7575 ext 456).

DVEPs are designed to complement documents obtained from AFMIC and NEHC. Every effort is made to keep them as accurate as possible. Individuals possessing additions, corrections, or suggestions are encouraged to communicate this information to Chief, DPMIAC, for incorporation into future revisions. In addition to DVEPs, DPMIAC can provide bibliographic literature searches of its extensive database on pest management, medical entomology, pest identification and pesticides. DPMIAC (301 427-5365, DSN 291-5365).

Acknowledgements: Individuals who have made significant contributions to this DVEP include Dr. John F. Reinert (contractor), Dr. Milan Trpis (technical review), Dr. Richard G. Robbins (editorial and technical reviews), Mrs. Ola J. Tilghman (typing), Ms. Charlene A. Young (production), LTC John B. Gingrich (formatting and rewriting) and Capt Armando Rosales (final formating and rewriting).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Map of Yugoslav R	epublics	1
Introduction		2
Disease Risk Sumr	mary	3
Militarily Important I	Diseases	4
	,	
	ephalitis	
	Hemorrhagic Fever (CCHF)	
_		
	·ever	
Leishmaniasis		9
Other Vector-borne	Diseases of Potential Military Importance	11
Louse-Borne R	elapsing Fever	hus11
	Fever	
Tahyna Virus Ir	nfection	irus12
Scabies		12
Malaria		12
	ne	
Snake Bite		13
Appendices		
Appendix A.	Mosquitoes Reported from the Yugoslav Republics	
Appendix B.	Biting Midges Reported from the Yugoslav Republics	
Appendix C.	Phlebotomines Reported from the Yugoslav Republics	
Appendix D.	Simuliids Reported from the Yugoslav Republics	
Appendix E.	Tabanids Reported from the Yugoslav Republics	
Appendix F.	Fleas Reported from the Yugoslav Republics	
Appendix G.	Ticks Known from the Yugoslav Republics	
Appendix H.	Other Selected Arthropods from the Yugoslav Republics	
Appendix I.	Poisonous Snakes Reported from the Yugoslav Republics	
Appendix J.	Personal Protective Measures	
Appendix K.	Chemical Control of Vectors and Pests	
Appendix L.	Insecticide Resistance	
References		25

Former Yugoslavia



INTRODUCTION

In this document, Yugoslavia is treated with its early 1992 political configuration. It's a southeastern European country about the size of Wyoming and comprises 6 republics (Serbia, including the 2 autonomous provinces of Vojvodina and Kosovo; Croatia; Bosnia and Hercegovina; Slovenia; Macedonia; and Montenegro). A number of republics have declared independence and their ultimate configuration is uncertain. The west coast region includes the Dinaric Alps and the Velebit Range with a number of islands in the Adriatic Sea. The Karawanken and the Julian Alps are in the northwest and the North Albanian Alps are in the south. The Danube River meanders through the fertile farmlands and industrialized cities of the northeast. Italy is to the northwest, Austria and Hungary to the north, Romania and Bulgaria to the east, Greece and Albania to the south, and the Adriatic Sea is to the west.

The climate is extremely varied because of differences in elevation. In Slovenia and the mountains of the Dinaric system, the climate is alpine; in the central part of the country, the climate is similar to that of central Europe; in the southern part, in the Vardar Valley and along the southern portion of the Adriatic coast, it's Mediterranean. The continental region has cold winters (avg. temp. 30°F) and hot summers (75-80°F), with seasonal extremes of -13 to 91°F. The coast has warm winters (January avg. 45°F) and hot summers (July avg. 75°F). Temperatures become lower in the mountains, and the alpine regions have cold winters and short, cool summers. Coastal rainfall averages 25-35 in. annually; totals increase inland to more than 100 in., with heavy mountain snowfall, and decline to 25-40 in the northeastern plains.

The Republics' economic and social situation has deteriorated dramatically during the last few years due to deepening and renewed conflict among ethnic and religious groups of the 6 republics and 2 autonomous provinces. These differences have led to armed conflict in many areas. The population of 23,591,000 (1988) has an ethnic composition (1981) of: Serb 36.3%, Croat 19.7%, Bosnian Muslim 8.9%, Slovenian 7.8%, Albanian 7.7%, Macedonian 6.0%, Montenegrin 2.6%, and other 11.0%. Religious affiliation in 1980 was: Serbian Orthodox 34.6%, Roman Catholic 26.0%, Crypto-Christian 11.3%, Muslim 10.4%, and other 17.7%. The government is a single-party federal socialist republic with two legislative houses, i.e. Chamber of Republics and Provinces (88) and Federal Chamber (220). Official languages are Slovenian, Serbo-Croatian, and Macedonian.

Health resources for the country (1986) include 40,329 physicians (1/577 persons) and 141,039 hospital beds (1/165 persons). The major causes of death per 100,000 people (1984) include: circulatory disease 470.6, neoplasia 138.0, respiratory disease 55.7, digestive system disease 40.5.

The economy is 50% agricultural (corn, beets, wheat, potatoes, grapes, barley, hogs, sheep, cattle, poultry). Mineral resources include: copper, iron, lead, zinc, bauxite, antimony, and manganese. Primary manufacturing includes: cement, steel, pulp and paper, sulfuric acid, tires, leather, and cotton fabrics. The land (1986) is 36.6% forested, 25.0% meadows and pastures, 30.6% agricultural cultivation, and 7.8% other. Transportation for the country (1987) includes: 9,246 km of railroads, 119,401 km of roads (59% paved), 17 airports, and 498 merchant marine vessels (>100 gross tons).

There are more than 5,000 plant species in the country. Evergreen species dominate the Mediterranean coast, subtropical plants (cotton, rice, poppies) are found in Macedonia, and deciduous trees (beech, oak, and hornbeam) cover the rest of the country. Animal life in the interior plains is characterized by central and eastern European influences. In the Karst region, many rare species are found and also venomous snakes. Mediterranean species influence the fauna along the coastal belt.

The scarcity of published data on certain diseases of military importance leaves gaps in our understanding of their true incidence, vectors, reservoirs, and dynamics. Many of the diseases are vectored by ticks.

DISEASE RISK SUMMARY

Section omitted from documents placed on the World Web Server.

MILITARILY IMPORTANT DISEASES

SAND FLY FEVER

SYNONYMS: Phlebotomus Fever, Pappataci Fever, Three-Day Fever.

INFECTIOUS AGENTS: Arbovirus, Phlebovirus, family Bunyaviridae, serotypes Naples and Sicilian.

RESERVOIRS: Principal reservoirs are humans and the sand fly vectors. Transovarial transmission has been demonstrated. Phleboviruses have been isolated from wild and domestic animals, but natural infection of these animals has not been associated with any disease; therefore, their importance in the maintenance cycle of these agents is uncertain.

MODE OF TRANSMISSION: Through the bite of an infective sand fly, *Phlebotomus* spp.

CLINICAL FEATURES:

- (1) Incubation Period Up to 6 days, usually 3 to 4 days, rarely less.
- (2) Symptoms The disease usually lasts 2 to 5 days and begins suddenly with fever, severe frontal headache, lower back pain, generalized myalgia, retro-orbital pain, photophobia, conjunctival injection, and malaise. Other symptoms may include nausea, dizziness, vomiting, and a stiff neck. Rash is uncommon. No deaths have been associated with this disease, and recovery is complete; however, weakness and depression may persist for a week or more.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION: There is considerable overlap between the Naples and Sicilian serotypes found in the Yugoslav Republics (Naples predominates). Sand fly fever reportedly occurs along the Adriatic coast from Istria to Dubrovnik and throughout the coastal islands from Mali Losinj to Korcula.

SEASONAL DISTRIBUTION: The sand fly fever season occurs from about May to September, which coincides with sand fly activity and abundance.

INCIDENCE/PREVALENCE: Data from 1975 indicate that both viral serotypes have occurred in the Kosovo area. However, recent seroprevalence rates vary from 23 percent along the Croatian Littoral and in the northern Dalmatian Islands to 51 percent on Mijet. Naples serotype continues to predominate.

VECTORS AND VECTOR BIOLOGY: Antibodies to the 2 sand fly fever serotypes have been detected only in areas where *Phlebotomus papatasi* occurs. A suspected secondary vector is *P. perfiliewi*.

Phlebotomus papatasi - Breeding places are in moist, loose soil in dark, humid, sheltered places such as beneath stones, in masonry crevices, in deep soil cracks, or in animal burrows. Several days after a blood meal the female lays one or more batches of eggs. Eggs hatch in about 10 days and the larvae feed on insect or animal feces, decaying vegetation, or other organic debris. Larval development is completed in 2 to 4 weeks and that of the pupa in about 7 to 10 days. Fourth instar larvae overwinter. The life cycle is completed within 6 to 8 weeks. Adults begin to emerge around May and disappear by the end of September. They become active at dusk and feed throughout the night. Flight range is usually within 100 meters of the breeding site. This feature often leads to a highly circumscribed distribution, so that only certain sections of a town, groups of houses, or even rooms within a house are heavily infested, while few sand flies are found in the immediate surroundings. Peculiarities of local sand fly distribution depend on the availability of breeding sites and daytime shelters, and to some extent on the prevailing winds.

PREVENTION/CONTROL: Human-vector contact can be reduced by use of DEET repellent on exposed skin, permethrin impregnation of uniforms, and sleeping in permethrin treated bednets. Insecticide treatment of window screens provides some protection. Residual insecticides applied to building interiors and adult resting sites can be effective in controlling sand flies.

TICK-BORNE ENCEPHALITIS

SYNONYMS: Central European Tick-Borne Encephalitis, Viral Meningo-Encephalitis, Czechoslovak Tick-Borne Encephalitis, Biphasic Meningoencephalitis, Diphasic Milk Fever, (abbreviation TBE).

INFECTIOUS AGENT: Arbovirus, *Flavivirus*, family *Flaviviridae*, Russian Spring-Summer Encephalitis Complex.

RESERVOIRS: Small mammals (rodents and insectivores) and ticks through transstadial and transovarial transmission.

MODE OF TRANSMISSION: Occurs through the bite of an infective tick or through the consumption of raw and unpasteurized milk and milk products (e.g. goat, sheep, cow).

CLINICAL FEATURES:

- (1) Incubation Period Averages 7 to 14 days.
- (2) Symptoms The course of disease is mono- or biphasic with initial symptoms of headache, nausea, vomiting, weakness, loss of appetite, photophobia, hyperesthesia, and fever averaging 101°F. Acute phase sometimes includes signs of neurological disorders (e.g. blurred vision, diplopia). The first phase of illness lasts 4 to 6 days and is accompanied by viremia. In biphasic cases, a brief remission occurs, followed by return of fever and then signs of meningeal irritation. Abortive, meningeal, encephalitic, and encephalomyelitic types of TBE have been distinguished. In Europe, TBE is a relatively mild clinical disease with a low case-fatality rate.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION: The TBE virus was initially isolated in 1953 during an epidemic in Slovenia. Isolates were first reported in other areas as follows: Croatia (1953), Bosnia and Hercegovina (1962), Serbia (1969), Kosovo (1972), and Montenegro (1973). Most recent analyses indicate that the disease occurs in widely distributed foci of northern Slovenia and Croatia, although some risk occurs countrywide.

SEASONAL DISTRIBUTION: Cases may occur from spring until autumn, but approximately 95% occur during May to September. The seasonal peak is in July, when about 33% of the cases occur.

INCIDENCE/PREVALENCE: Of 304 cases (age 11-30 years) admitted to hospitals in Slovenia in a 1953 epidemic, 208 were analyzed by profession as follows: peasants, woodworkers, and their families (111); industrial workers (54); state employees (21); craftsmen (16); and others (6). Residents of small villages made up 90.9% of the cases, with the remainder from larger towns. Patients 11-30 years old constituted 56.2% of the total cases. Recent data from Bosnia-Hercegovina and the Adriatic Littoral areas indicated seroprevalences of 1.5 and 2.6 percent, respectively.

VECTORS AND VECTOR BIOLOGY: The generally incriminated vectors in Yugoslavia are the ticks *Ixodes ricinus* and *Ix. trianguliceps* (family Ixodidae). Human cases of TBE are closely associated with woodlands and these tick species. One isolate of TBE virus was made from *Dermacentor reticulatus* (= *pictus*) in Croatia.

Ixodes ricinus - In Croatia, this tick has been observed between March and July, with a population peak in April-May; no ticks were found in November and December. Ticks can be collected when temperatures reach 43°F, and numbers increase proportionately with increased air temperature. This species occurs in high densities along deciduous forest edges and in supplementary shrub communities. The tick's developmental cycle requires 3 to 4 years. Intervals between successive feedings of individual ticks vary from 4 to 22 months, often depending on the availability of hosts. Ticks parasitize wandering and migrating birds, usually during the summer and autumn when the activity of the birds increases, resulting in the spread of ticks to both neighboring and distant biotopes. Flocks of sheep infected with TBE migrating from one area to another may also facilitate the spread of the disease and infected ticks.

Ixodes trianguliceps - The burrow tick primarily parasitizes shrews, voles and field mice, in that order. Although it may be found in surface leaf litter and in the underground nests of its hosts, most often it is found in burrows. The preferred habitats are deciduous or coniferous forests or wooded plantations below 900 meters in elevation. It exhibits two seasonal abundance peaks per year, usually in July and October. Developmental time is generally one to two years (sometimes longer). Since *Ix. trianguliceps* is a highly zoophilic species, its major role is probably in zoonosis maintenance.

PREVENTION/CONTROL: Proper wearing of clothing (tops of socks pulled over bottoms of trousers; trouser bottoms tucked into boot tops), impregnation of outer clothing with permethrin, and use of DEET repellent on exposed skin provide personal protection in infested areas. A TBE vaccine is available in Europe (this would be used only after U.S. military medical department recommendation). Personnel should be advised to avoid unpasteurized milk and milk products. Elimination of ticks can be accomplished by application of acaricides to ground and vegetation in highly infested areas and bivouac sites.

CRIMEAN-CONGO HEMORRHAGIC FEVER

SYNONYMS: Crimean Hemorrhagic Fever, Central Asian Hemorrhagic Fever, (abbreviation CCHF).

INFECTIOUS AGENT: Arbovirus, Nairovirus, family Bunyaviridae

RESERVOIRS: The virus survives in the vector tick for at least one year, transstadially during the tick's postembryonic developmental stages, and is transovarially transmitted to the F_2 generation. Hare, hedgehog and cow hosts may serve as virus amplifiers.

MODE OF TRANSMISSION: To humans through the bite of an infective adult tick, *Hyalomma* marginatum marginatum. Nosocomial transmission from patients to medical personnel can occur after exposure to blood and secretions, and infection has been associated with butchering infected animals. Immature ticks are presumed to acquire infection from animal hosts.

CLINICAL FEATURES:

- (1) Incubation Period 3 to 12 days.
- (2) Symptoms Illness begins abruptly with fever, chills, malaise, irritability, headache, weakness, and severe pains in the limbs and loins followed by anorexia, nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain, and occasionally diarrhea. Fever is continuous but may remit, usually resolving after 8 days. Patients are depressed and somnolent. In most cases a fine petechial rash begins on the trunk and then covers the entire body. The liver is enlarged in about 50% of cases. Bleeding occurs, in descending order of frequency, from the nose, gums, buccal mucosa, stomach, uterus, intestines, and lungs. Involvement of the central nervous system is seen in 10-25% of cases and usually indicates a poor prognosis; it includes

neck rigidity, excitation, and coma. The mortality rate may reach 30-50%, usually due to shock, secondary blood loss, or intercurrent infection. Convalescence is prolonged.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION: Cases of CCHF have been diagnosed clinically from rural inhabitants of Kosovo and Metokhiya. A serologically confirmed CCHF epidemic occurred near Tetovo, Macedonia. The disease also is reportedly enzootic in discrete foci in unspecified northern areas.

SEASONAL DISTRIBUTION: CCHF cases have occurred during the summer following the build-up of infected tick populations. Cases can occur from early spring to late autumn. As expected, the most important epidemics in neighboring Bulgaria have been associated with increased tick abundance.

INCIDENCE/PREVALENCE: Eight CCHF cases occurred in 21- to 54-year-old people in Kosovo and Metokhiya in the summers of 1954 to 1967. In 1970 near Tetovo, Macedonia, a family of 13 members became ill with CCHF and 2 died. In 1988, an outbreak near Dubrovnik affected 200 persons (10 fatal). The most recent data indicate that human seroprevalence rates up to 12 percent may be found in endemic areas, with higher rates in domestic livestock.

VECTORS AND VECTOR BIOLOGY: The tick *Hyalomma marginatum marginatum* is the primary reservoir/vector of CCHF virus in the Yugoslav Republics. Other species of *Hyalomma, Dermacentor*, and *Rhipicephalus* may be involved in zoonotic CCHF virus circulation during nonepidemic periods; these ticks also bite people. As well, the virus has been isolated from *Ixodes ricinus* in this country. A combination of mild winter and spring weather and ecological changes stemming from war, flood control, or land conversion may trigger an explosion of CCHF virus in rapidly increasing tick populations. *Hyalomma marginatum marginatum* - This 2-host tick characteristically occurs in steppe, savanna, and lightly wooded hill and valley biotopes with fairly low relative humidity, but not in deep forests or high mountains. The larval and nymphal stages chiefly parasitize ground-feeding birds, hares or hedgehogs. Burrowing rodents are seldom parasitized. Infested birds are important in dispersing immature ticks during postbreeding and migratory flights. Adults feed on all domestic mammals, are especially common on cattle and horses, and eagerly attack humans.

PREVENTION/CONTROL: See appropriate personal protective and control measures listed for tick-borne encephalitis. Persons caring for and treating CCHF patients need to take strict precautions against contamination by bloody discharges and possibly by aerosols. At the first sign of an outbreak, a vigorous awareness and education program should be initiated.

LYME DISEASE

SYNONYMS: Erythema Chronicum Migrans, Tick-Borne Meningopolyneuritis, Lyme Borreliosis, Acrodermatitis Chronica Atrophicans.

INFECTIOUS AGENT: A spirochete, *Borrelia burgdorferi* (heterogeneity in isolates from Europe).

RESERVOIRS: Feral animals of forests (especially rodents, other small mammals and deer) and domestic animals (e.g. dogs, cattle, sheep) on which ticks feed are considered the major reservoirs.

MODE OF TRANSMISSION: To humans through the bite of an infective tick (*Ixodes ricinus*).

CLINICAL FEATURES:

(1) Incubation Period - 3 to 50 days (median of 22) for early and usually self-limiting ECM, and 1 to 100 days (median of 40) for neuroborreliosis.

(2) Symptoms - The disease symptom spectrum includes skin manifestations (erythema chronicum migrans [ECM], acrodermatitis chronica atrophicans [ACA], and lymphadenosis cutis benigna [LCB]), neurological manifestations (meningopolyneuritis [MPN], cranial neuritis, lymphocytic meningitis, encephalitis, and myelitis), joint manifestations (mono- or oligoarthritis), and cardiac involvement (various disorders of the conduction system to frank myocarditis). Elderly people frequently exhibit the ACA condition. Skin manifestations (ECM, ACA, LCB) and systemic symptoms are more frequently observed in females than in males, but neurological manifestations predominate in males. Of 250 cases in Yugoslavia, the clinical diagnosis provided was: ECM = 60.0%; ACA = 0.8%; LCB = 0.8%; MPN = 36.0%; and systemic symptoms = 2.4%.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION: Lyme disease is presumed to occur throughout most of the Yugoslav Republics with the possible exception of southern Macedonia; this corresponds closely with the distribution of the tick vector.

SEASONAL DISTRIBUTION: Transmission occurs from spring through early fall, with peaks in April and May, periods of high tick activity and abundance.

INCIDENCE/PREVALENCE: Lyme disease occurs in all age groups and in both sexes. Antibody prevalences of up to 11.3 percent have been found in inhabitants of rural forested areas.

VECTORS AND VECTOR BIOLOGY: The vector throughout Europe, including Yugoslavia, is the sheep tick, *Ixodes ricinus* (family Ixodidae). Larvae and nymphs can transmit the rickettsiae transstadially and the females transovarially.

Ixodes ricinus - For bionomics, see tick-borne encephalitis.

PREVENTION/CONTROL: See appropriate personal protective and control measures listed for tick-borne encephalitis.

BOUTONNEUSE FEVER

SYNONYMS: Mediterranean Tick Fever, Marseilles Fever, Tick-borne Typhus.

INFECTIOUS AGENT: Rickettsiae, Rickettsia conorii.

RESERVOIRS: Dogs and small wild animals maintain the rickettsiae in nature; vector ticks are also reservoirs.

MODE OF TRANSMISSION: To humans through the bite of an infective ixodid tick, especially *Rhipicephalus sanguineus*. Humans are also infected by contamination of the eyes, nasal mucosa or skin lesions by contents of crushed, infected ticks.

CLINICAL FEATURES:

- (1) Incubation Period Usually 5 to 7 days.
- (2) Symptoms This mild to moderately severe disease is characterized by a primary button-like lesion, a fever lasting a few days to 2 weeks, and a maculopapular rash (usually on palms and/or soles of feet) appearing 3 to 5 days after onset. Other symptoms include headache, malaise, myalgia, and conjunctival injection. Complications and sequelae are unusual and recovery is complete. Fatality rate is less than 3%, even in untreated cases.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION: This disease has been reported from most of the area around the Mediterranean Sea. Specific distribution data within Yugoslavia are lacking.

SEASONAL DISTRIBUTION: Highest incidence in the Mediterranean area is during the warmer months of the year. Presumably this is also true in the Yugoslav Republics.

INCIDENCE/PREVALENCE: In the Mediterranean area the highest incidence of disease occurs during the spring and summer months when ticks are numerous. However, specific incidence/prevalence data are lacking.

VECTORS AND VECTOR BIOLOGY: Vectors are ixodid ticks. People visiting the Mediterranean coast expose their dogs to attack by infective dog ticks (*Rhipicephalus sanguineus*). The dogs then carry the ticks home where they become a source of infection for humans and other small mammals in the area.

Rhipicephalus sanguineus - This tick's principal host is the dog. It also feeds on numerous other animals, but rarely on humans. Adult ticks are often found in the ears and between the toes of dogs, larvae and nymphs in the long hair at the back of the neck. Eggs are deposited in cracks/crevices of the kennel or other areas frequented by dogs. Eggs hatch in 20 to 30 days. Ticks tend to crawl upwards and are often found in cracks in the roofs of kennels. Larvae and nymphs can transmit the rickettsiae transstadially and the females transovarially.

PREVENTION/CONTROL: See appropriate personal protective and control measures listed for tick-borne encephalitis.

LEISHMANIASIS

SYNONYMS: Kala-Azar, Visceral Leishmaniasis (VL), Cutaneous Leishmaniasis (CL), Oriental Sore.

INFECTIOUS AGENTS: Protozoan, *Leishmania infantum* (previously reported as *L. donovani infantum*) for VL and *L. tropica* or *L. major* for CL.

RESERVOIRS: For VL, humans and dogs are the proven reservoirs; suspected reservoirs are rats (*Rattus rattus*, *R. norvegicus*), from which isolates have been made. Humans are reservoirs for CL. Wild reservoirs are uncertain in the Yugoslav Republics.

MODE OF TRANSMISSION: To humans through the bite of an infective phlebotomine sand fly.

CLINICAL FEATURES:

- (1) Incubation Period For VL generally 2 to 4 months (range 10 days to 2 years); for CL at least 7 days to many months.
- (2) Symptoms VL is a chronic systemic disease characterized by fever, hepatosplenomegaly, lymphadenopathy, anemia with leukopenia, and progressive emaciation and weakness. Fever can be either gradual or of sudden onset, continued and irregular, often with 2 daily peaks, and is followed by alternating periods of apyrexia and low grade fever. CL is a polymorphic disease of the skin and mucous membranes that begins with a nodular lesion, which may be painless or become painful and ulcerate. Lesions may be single, multiple or diffuse and may be chronic or self-limiting.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION: Historically, a few cases of VL have been reported each year from Croatia, Serbia, Macedonia, Montenegro, and Dalmatia. However, the most recent information indicates

that it is focally distributed in southeastern Serbia and among the Dalmatian coastal islands. CL occurs in some coastal areas and on islands of the Dalmatian Sea. Historically, it has been extremely rare in Serbia.

SEASONAL DISTRIBUTION: Transmission of the disease is centered around the population dynamics of the adult sand fly vectors and occurs from May through October, peaking from July through September.

INCIDENCE/PREVALENCE: During 1968 there were 8 cases from 7 localities in Nis. In Macedonia, there were 105 VL cases in 1942-1947 and 15 VL cases in 1960-1969. Five VL cases were reported from Montenegro in 1967 and 8 from Dalmatia in 1968. Sporadic cases of CL occurred in Serbia and the Dalmatian coastal islands during the 1960s. Currently, all active foci of VL have decreased and few cases are reported.

VECTORS AND VECTOR BIOLOGY: The primary vector of VL is the sand fly *Phlebotomus major*. Other reported secondary vectors of VL are *P. perfiliewi*, *P. simici*, and *P. tobbi*. The primary vector of CL is *P. papatasi* and the secondary vector is *P. perfiliewi* (and possibly *P. sergenti*).

Phlebotomus major and P. perfiliewi - Adults have been found resting in bee-eater burrow-nests and sleeping places, rodent holes, animal burrows, small recesses under tufted grass, soil cracks and crevices, and other suitable shelters; these areas are probable sand fly breeding places. Both species are well-known human-biters and are found in village houses; however, the latter species occurs in greater abundance. Flies also have been commonly collected in stables. Two generations a year are found in the Dobric area from the end of July to the third week of September. Flies feed on humans, dogs, rats and other animals. Adults are most active during hot, still nights; activity is diminished by strong wind or rain and much reduced at a temperature of 66°F (activity stops at 61°F). Phlebotomus perfiliewi adults are attracted to artificial light sources and immatures are found in cow manure.

Phlebotomus papatasi - For bionomics see sand fly fever.

Phlebotomus tobbi and *P. simici* - Biology is similar to the first 2 species except that they exhibit low abundance in natural habitats and are uncommon in village houses. Immatures of *P. tobbi* have been collected from cow manure in the region of Dobric.

PREVENTION/CONTROL: Currently, special protective and control measures for this disease are not warranted, although they would be similar to those listed for sand fly fever. In 1953, a marked reduction in sand fly abundance occurred following house spraying with DDT for malaria control and a similar specific VL control program.

OTHER VECTOR-BORNE DISEASES OF POTENTIAL IMPORTANCE

LOUSE-BORNE RELAPSING FEVER: Humans acquire this disease when an infective body louse (Pediculus humanus humanus) is crushed over the bite wound or an abrasion of the skin. The head louse (Pediculus humanus capitis) may be an occasional vector. Infection is caused by Borrelia recurrentis in a person-louse-person cycle. The disease currently is endemic in the southeastern 60% of the Yugoslav Republics, and during a major epidemic between 1946-1949 it predominated in rural areas. Seasonally increased incidence occurs during the winter, especially where poor hygienic conditions prevail. In the past, this disease occurred during wartime in Yugoslavia and usually accompanied outbreaks of louse-borne typhus. Currently, the disease has a low endemicity. The incubation period is usually about 8 days (5-15 day range), and onset of illness begins abruptly with chills, fever, headache and fatigue, which usually occur continuously throughout the day. Other symptoms include myalgias, arthralgias, anorexia, dry cough, and abdominal pains. Elevated temperatures of 101-104°F last 2 to 9 days and alternate with afebrile periods of 2 to 4 days; the number of relapses varies from 1 to 10 or more. Fatalities in untreated cases are 2-10% but have exceeded 50% in epidemics. Personal preventive measures include wearing permethrin impregnated uniforms, good hygiene, and avoidance of close contact with louse-infested people. Treatment with insecticidal powder is effective for individual or mass delousing.

LOUSE-BORNE TYPHUS: This disease (also known as epidemic typhus, classical typhus fever, Brill-Zinsser disease, and recrudescent typhus) is caused by Rickettsia prowazeki and is transmitted to humans when an infected body louse (Pediculus humanus humanus) or its contaminated feces are crushed/rubbed into the bite wound or another skin abrasion or when contaminated feces come in contact with conjunctivae and mucous membranes. Head lice (Pediculus humanus capitis) may be occasional vectors. Humans are the reservoir of the disease and are responsible for infection maintenance during inter-epidemic periods. Widespread epidemics of louse-borne typhus occurred in Yugoslavia during and after World War II. Currently, endemic foci exist primarily in the form of Brill-Zinsser disease cases and some secondary cases. Incidence is chiefly during the winter, especially where poor hygienic conditions prevail. Between 1964 and 1975 there were 803 reported cases of Brill-Zinsser disease (623 of these were from Bosnia and 107 were from Serbia). An interval of 30-39 years between the first attack and relapse occurred in 26% of these cases. The usual incubation period is 8 to 12 days, followed by an abrupt onset with unremitting headache, chills, fever (persisting at 102-104°F), and myalgia of the back and legs. A rash covers the upper trunk and spreads. Persistent subclinical infections result in Brill-Zinsser disease with potential recrudescence years later. See personal protective and control measures listed for louse-borne relapsing fever.

MURINE TYPHUS: This rickettsial disease, caused by *Rickettsia typhi* (= *R. mooseri*), is also known as flea-borne, endemic, or shop typhus. Transmission of rickettsiae to humans occurs when the infectious feces of rat fleas, especially *Xenopsylla cheopis*, contaminate the bite wound or fresh skin abrasions, or when dried airborne feces are inhaled. Rats of the genus *Rattus* (e.g. *R. rattus*, *R. norvegicus*) are the primary reservoirs and infection is maintained in nature by a rat-flea-rat cycle. Some authors believe the disease is often unrecognized (or under reported) because it occurs sporadically, frequently without distinguishing clinical manifestations. The incubation period in humans is 6 to 14 days. Illness is characterized by headache, myalgia, and fever; its onset is variable but not often sudden. A rash on the upper thorax and abdomen occurs in 60-80% of cases. In untreated adults, temperatures of 102-104°F usually last for 12 to 16 days, convalescence is rapid, and the fatality rate for all ages is about 2% but increases with age. Individual protective measures include avoidance of endemic foci and using repellents (permethrin impregnation of uniforms and DEET on skin). During rodent control operations, insecticide dusting of rodent harborages to kill their fleas should precede rodent poisoning/trapping.

TAHYNA VIRUS INFECTION: This arbovirus (*Bunyavirus*, family Bunyaviridae) is transmitted by mosquitoes (e.g. *Aedes vexans*) and produces an influenza-like febrile disease with headache, nausea, pharyngitis, hyperemia of the conjunctivae and, in some patients, myalgia, central nervous system involvement, or bronchopneumonia. Wild mammals (e.g. hares, rabbits, hedgehogs) are the principal reservoir hosts and under natural conditions show no clinical manifestations. One survey of sera in the Republics indicated that 8% of 50 people tested were positive for Tahyna virus antibodies. Humans readily enter the transmission cycle of Tahyna virus but are considered aberrant hosts because viremic levels sufficient to infect the mosquito vector have not been recorded. Personal protective measures are not warranted at present.

BHANJA VIRUS: In 1977, this Bunyavirus-like virus (family Bunyaviridae) was isolated from the tick *Haemaphysalis punctata*, collected from sheep on the island of Brac on the Adriatic coast of Yugoslavia. Antibody prevalence rates averaged from 35.8% (high of 61.3%) for humans to 100% for sheep. Evidence suggests a natural cycle involving ticks and sheep. Serological surveys in other areas of the country showed positive results in humans as follows: Hvar, 1.0% of 512; Zadar, 2.2% of 90; northern Croatia, 7.1% of 645; and Kosovo, 4.8% of 104 and 0.9% of 628. The virus generally produces mild or inapparent infections in humans. Personal protective measures are not warranted at present.

SCABIES: This infectious disease of the skin in caused by a mite, *Sarcoptes scabiei*, that lives in tiny linear burrows just beneath the skin surface. Eggs are laid in the burrows. Lesions are often pronounced around finger webs, ventral surfaces of elbows and wrists, the belt line, thighs, anterior axillary folds, and genitalia. Itching can be intense, especially at night. Transmission of mites is by direct skin-to-skin contact. Itching in persons without previous exposure begins in 2 to 6 weeks. In Skopje, Yugoslavia, a survey during 1969-1971 of 2,481 soldiers with scabies showed that 15% had been infected during the first month of military service, 42.4% during the first 2 months, and 72.5% during the first 6 months. Personnel should practice good hygiene and avoid close contact with mite-infested people.

MALARIA: Yugoslavia previously was endemic for this protozoan disease (*Plasmodium* species) that is vectored through the infective bite of *Anopheles* mosquitoes (e.g. the *maculipennis* complex or *An. superpictus*). The incubation period for the disease is about 12 to 14 days. In 1960, malaria was reported to have been eradicated from the country. Despite eradication, the combination of abundant vectors and regular occurrence of imported cases make reintroduction a real possibility, especially under unsettled economic, political or environmental conditions. If autochthonous transmission resumes, personal protective and control measures listed for sand fly vectors would be recommended, as well as drug prophylaxis.

POISONOUS SNAKES

FAMILY VIPERIDAE: Viper, Asp, Adder.

Genus *Vipera* - The viper, asp, and adder are the only poisonous snakes in Yugoslavia. Eight species and subspecies are known (see Appendix I). Characteristics common to all species are the following: head distinct from neck, covered with small scales with or without small frontal and parietal shields; eyes moderate or small, with vertical pupil, separated from labials by scales; nostrils lateral; nasal in contact with rostral or separated by a nasorostral shield; body cylindrical; scales keeled, with apical pits, in 19-31 rows; ventrals rounded, tail short, anal entire, subcaudals in 2 rows; typical solenoglyphic fangs in tissue sheath; and no sensory pit between nostril and eyes. These snakes generally are found in wilder areas, particularly in rocky places, such as mountains, where they may occur at elevations up to 5,000 feet. Mountain slopes, moors, grain fields and trash piles are favored habitats. Some species are aggressive and, at times, savage. They hibernate during the winter months and are active from March through

October. Venom is moderately potent. Over a 12 year study period (split area), most snake bites were inflicted by the horned viper and the common adder.

SNAKE BITE: Reported cases of snake bite in military personnel conducting operations are small; however, the fear of being bitten by a poisonous snake can be a degrading morale factor.

Laboratory experiments show that snake venoms contain a complex mixture of toxic factors, but the clinical signs of snakebite poisoning in humans are usually distinctive because viper venom is mainly vasculotoxic. Venomous snakes inflict two types of bite: (1) a bite inflicted when the snake is seeking prey, in which a victim dies rapidly following injection of a large quantity of venom, and (2) a defensive bite, with little or no venom injected, the snake's object being to escape. Studies of snakebite patients confirm that when venomous snakes bite humans, the bites nearly always are of the second type. More than half the victims have minimal or no poisoning. Only about a quarter will develop serious systemic poisoning.

The commonest reaction following snakebite, whether or not the snake is poisonous, is fright. Fear, to some degree, is present in all snakebite victims and often dominates the clinical picture. Emotional symptoms emerge rapidly, within minutes of the injury, while symptoms of systemic poisoning rarely appear until a half hour or more after the bite. The frightened victim may appear semiconscious, with cold, clammy skin, feeble pulse, and rapid, shallow breathing. These symptoms resolve quickly after a placebo injection.

FIRST AID: The following steps should be followed if snakebite occurs.

- (1) Get the victim away from the snake. Keep victim calm and quiet. Do not handle the snake or put yourself at risk of being bitten. Identify the snake if possible. If it has been killed, keep it.
- (2) Immobilize the site of the bite and, if possible, keep the site below the level of the victim's heart.
- (3) Do not give the victim anything to eat or drink.
- (4) If the bite is on one of the victim's upper limbs, remove any rings or jewelry from that limb.
- (5) Arrange immediate evacuation of the victim. If there is no evidence of venom, keep the victim quiet and under observation.
- (6) If there is evidence of venom (swelling, spreading pain, bruising, symptoms remote from the bite area) and LESS than 30 minutes have passed since the bite, place a band about 4 inches above the bite. Tighten it just to the point that you can only get one finger beneath the band. Do not remove the band, but if swelling develops, be prepared to adjust it so that it gets no tighter.
- (7) An ice pack can be used intermittently to reduce pain. DO NOT pack a limb in ice or immerse it in ice water.

For information on snakebite, including sources of antivenins worldwide, contact the Arizona Poison and Drug Information Center, phone number (602) 626-6016.

Appendix* A. Mosquitoes** Reported from the Yugoslav Republics

Aedes (Aedes)

Anopheles (Anopheles)

cinereus algeriensis

atroparvus

Aedes (Aedimorphus) bifurcatus vexans hyrcanus labranchiae

Aedes (Finlaya) maculipennis
echinus melanoon
geniculatus messeae

Aedes (Ochlerotatus) plumbeus sacharovi

annulipes cantans Anopheles (Cellia)

cantans Anopneies (Cellia)
caspius superpictus
communis

detritus Coquillettidia dorsalis richiardii excrucians

flavescens Culex (Culex)
pulchritarsis laticinctus
pullatus mimeticus
punctor pipiens

sticticus quinquefasciatus

Aedes (Rusticoidus) theileri

refiki Culex (Maillotia) rusticus hortensis

Aedes (Stegomyia) Culex (Neoculex) aegypti martinii

Culiseta (Allotheobaldia) territans

longiareolata Orthopodomyia

pulchripalpis

Culiseta (Culiseta)

annulata annulata Uranotaenia (Pseudoficalbia)

annulata annulata Uranotaenia (Pseudonicaibia, annulata subochrea unguiculata fumipennis

glaphyroptera morsitans

^{*} Appendices herein list species as "known" or "reported." Known species are those whose presence has been confirmed by an expert; reported species are reported in the literature but without confirmation.

** Family Culicidae, Order Diptera. References: Anonymous 1942 (key), Danilov 1987 (key), DuBose and Curtin 1965 (key), Macan 1942 (key), Mattingly 1971 (key), Russell, Rozeboom and Stone 1943 (key).

Appendix B. Biting Midges* Reported from the Yugoslav Republics

Culicoides

alazanicus cataneii chiopterus circumscriptus clastrieri dzhafarovi fascipennis festivipennis gejgelensis grisescens impunctatus kibunensis longipennis maritimus

obsoletus pallidicornis parroti pictipennis pulicaris puncticollis sejfadinei vidourlensis

newsteadi

Leptoconops

aviarum bezzii bidentatus camelorum caucasicus flaviventris irritans lisbonnei lucidus

mesopotamiensis

minutus nigripes nipponensis noei

Appendix C. Phlebotomines** Reported from the Yugoslav Republics

Phlebotomus

balcanicus major

mascittii mascittii

papatasi pedifer perfiliewi perniciosus

sergenti simici tobbi Sergentomyia dentata minuta *Family Ceratopogonidae, Order Diptera. Reference: Remm 1982.

**Family Psychodidae, Order Diptera. Reference: Lewis 1982 (key). Appendix D. Simuliids* Reported from the Yugoslav Republics

Metacnephia blanci danubica

Prosimulium (Prosimulium)

fulvipes latimucro rufipes tomosvaryi

Simulium (Boophthora) erythrocephalum

Simulium (Byssodon)

maculatum echinatum

trifasciatum

Simulium (Eusimulium)

krymense silvaticum velutinum

Simulium (Nevermannia) angustitarse

angaomaro

bertrandi

brevidens carpathicum carthusiense codreanui costatum crenobium cryophilum lundstromi

Simulium (Obuchovia)

auricoma

Simulium (Psilozia) vittatum Simulium (Simulium)

argenteostriatum

baracorne

colombaschense

croaticum
degrangei
ibariense
maximum
monticola
noelleri
ornatum
paramorsitans
reptans
savici

variegatum

Simulium (Tetisimulium)

bezzii

Simulium (Wilhelmia)

balcanicum equinum

lineatum

pseudequinum

Twinnia

hydroides

*Family (key).	Simuliidae,	Order Di	ptera.	References:	Kim and Mer	rit 1987	(checklist),	Rubtsov	1959-1964

Appendix E. Tabanids* Reported from the Yugoslav Republics

Atylotus
fulvus
latistriatus
loewianus
sublunaticornis
usticus

Chrysops lundbecki caecutiens lurida flavipes micans italicus kaurii

melicharii muehlfeldi parallelogrammus pilosa rufipes tropica

sepulcralis viduatus Nemorius vitripennis

Dasyrhamphis
ater
Pangonius
umbrimus
fulvipes

Haematopota funebris
crassicornis micans
gallica pyritosus

grandis
pandazisi Philipomyia
pluvialis aprica

pluvialis aprica subcylindrica graeca

Heptatoma Silvius pellucens algirus

alpinus

Hybomitra

acuminata

aterrima

auripila bimaculata

ciureai

Appendix E. Tabanids* Reported from the Yugoslav Republics (Continued)

Tabanus

autumnalis bifarius bovinus briani bromius cordiger cuculus eggeri exclusus glancopia indrae lunatus maculicornis miki

Tabanus

nemoralis

paradoxus quatuornotatus rectus regularis rupium shannonellus spectabilis spodopterus sudeticus tergestinus tinctus unifasciatus

Therioplectes

gigas tunicatus

^{*}Family Tabanidae, Order Diptera. Reference: Leclercq 1960, 1966 (key).

Appendix F. Fleas* Reported from the Yugoslav Republics

Amphipsylla Chaetopsylla

rossica rossica globiceps homoea

Archaeopsylla

rothschildi

erinacei erinacei trichosa

Atyphloceras Citellophilus

nuperus nuperus martinoi

nuperus palinus

Ctenocephalides

Ceratophyllus canis farreni farreni felis felis

> fringillae rusticus sciurorum

Ctenophthalmus Nosopsyllus

agyrtes bosnicus fasciatus
agyrtes graecus londiniensis
agyrtes ohridanus mokrzeckyi

agyrtes serbicus
bisoctodentatus
Nycteridopsylla

capriciosus capriciosus dictena eusarca eusarca congener trigona balcanica

dolomydis
monticola
Palaeopsylla
nifetodes brelihi
nifetodes eugeniae
nifetodes martinorum
nifetodes nifetodes
similis peusi
nifetodes nifetodes
similis similis

nivalis cervinus soricis

nivalis helvetius
nivalis ianlinni Peromyscopsylla
nivalis nivalis fallax

nivalis rhaeticus

nivalis ubayensis Pulex orientalis irritans

orphilus dolomiticus orphilus orphilus Rhadinopsylla

ruris dolomydis uncinatus Rnadinopsylla

Doratopsylla isacantha continentalis pentacantha

integella

Hystrichopsylla talpae

Rhinolophopsylla unipectinata unipectinata

Appendix F. Fleas* Reported from the Yugoslav Republics (Continued)

Ischnopsyllus

elongatus

hexactenus hexactenus octactenus

variabilis

Leptopsylla

sciurobia segnis taschenbergi

Myoxopsylla

laverani

Neopsylla

setosa

Spilopsyllus cuniculi

Stenoponia tripectinata

Tarsopsylla

octodecimdentata

Typhloceras poppei

Xenopsylla cheopis nesiotes *Order Siphonaptera, Families Pulicidae, Ceratophyllidae, Ctenophthalmidae. Hystrichopsyllidae, Ischnopsyllidae, Vermipsyllidae. References: Hopkins and Rothschild 1953, 1956, 1962, 1966, 1971 (key), Mardon 1981 (key), Smit 1973 (key).

Appendix G. Ticks* Known from the Yugoslav Republics

Argas

persicus

Boophilus

annulatus

Dermacentor

impressum marginatus niveus reticulatus

silvarum

Haemaphysalis

concinna erinacei inermis leachi punctata sulcata Hyalomma

aegyptium

anatolicum anatolicum anatolicum excavatum

detritum dromedarii

marginatum marginatum

rufipes

Ixodes

caledonicus
canisuga
frontalis
gibbosus
hexagonus
ricinus
trianguliceps
vespertilionis

Ornithodoros lahorensis

Rhipicephalus bursa sanguineus

*Order Parasitiformes, Families Argasidae, Ixodidae. Reference: Sheals 1973 (key). Appendix H. Other Selected Arthropods from the Yugoslav Republics

SUCKING LICE

Pediculus Pthirus humanus humanus pubis

humanus capitis

MITES

Neotrombicula Pediculoides

autumnalis inopinatum ventricosus

moesica

Sarcoptes

scabiei

FLIES

Fannia Gasterophilus

canicularis flavipes

scalaris

Hypoderma Lucilia

bovis sericata

Musca Sarcophaga

domestica haemorrhoidalis

Wohlfahrtia

magnifica

SCORPIONS

Euscorpius species

SPIDERS

Aranea Latrodectus

sexpunctata erebus

tredecimguttatus

References: Oldroyd and Smith 1973 (fly larvae, key), Pont 1973 (Muscidae, key), Smith 1973 (Calliphoridae, Sarcophagidae, key).

Appendix I. Poisonous Snakes Reported from the Yugoslav Republics

Vipera*

ammodytes ammodytes ammodytes meridionalis aspis aspis berus berus berus bosniensis ursinii macrops ursinii rakosiensis ursinii ursinii

Appendix J. Personal Protective Measures

Personal protective measures are the first line of defense against arthropod-borne disease and may be the only protection for military personnel deployed in the field. Proper wearing of the uniform and appropriate use of repellents can provide high levels of protection against blood-sucking arthropods. The uniform fabric is a significant mechanical barrier to mosquitoes and other blood-sucking insects. The uniform should be worn to cover as much skin as possible if weather and physical activity permit.

When operating in tick-infested areas, pants should be bloused into boots to prevent access to the skin by crawling arthropods. Check yourself frequently when walking through tick-infested areas. Upon returning from tick-infested areas, remove all clothing and examine yourself for ticks. Infected ticks may require several hours of feeding before pathogens are transmitted. Therefore, personnel in tick-infested areas should check themselves frequently and remove ticks as soon as possible.

If ticks become attached, the simplest and best method of removal is a slow, steady pull with a pair of tweezers. Don't squeeze the body but grasp the tick where the mouthparts enter the skin and pull firmly until the tick is extracted. Be careful not to break off the mouthparts and leave them in the skin. Wipe the bite area with an antiseptic. If hands have touched the tick during removal, wash them thoroughly with soap and water or an antiseptic, since tick secretions may contain pathogens.

Newly developed repellents provide personnel with unprecedented levels of protection. An aerosol formulation of permethrin (NSN 6840-01-278-1336) can be applied to the uniform according to label directions but not to the skin. This will provide the uniform material with both repellent and insecticidal properties that will be retained through five washings. A new extended-duration repellent lotion of DEET (N, N-diethyl-3-methylbenzamide, formerly N, N-diethyl-m-toluamide) (NSN 6840-01-284-3982) has been developed to replace the 2 oz. bottles of 70% DEET in alcohol. The new formulation contains 34% active ingredient. It's less irritating to skin, has less odor, and is generally more acceptable to the user.

Properly wearing the uniform, use of extended duration DEET on exposed skin and permethrin on uniform items has been demonstrated in laboratory and field studies to provide nearly 100% protection against a variety of blood-sucking arthropods. In addition, permethrin should be used to treat bednets, tentage, and other field items as appropriate. Detailed instructions on the proper use of personal protective items, with training slides, are provided in Army Environmental Hygiene Agency Technical Guide No. 174: Personal Protective Techniques Against Insects and Other Arthropods of Military Significance. Order this publication from DPMIAC.

25

		_				
*Family Viperidae. 1980 (checklist).	References:	Anonymous	1962 (key), <i>i</i>	Anonymous 1	1986a, Harding	g and Welch
Variable Banklin O	1.E.1''' 0.0.T	- 00	00			

Appendix K. Chemical Control of Vectors and Pests

More detailed recommendations for the selection, application and use of pesticides in field situations worldwide, during contingency operations or military exercises, can be found in AFPMB Technical Information Memorandum (TIM) No. 24, "Contingency Pest Management Pocket Guide." This guide is a concise reference to National Stock Number (NSN)- listed pesticides and equipment available through military supply channels for contingency use. It covers intended uses, dosages, and application methods, pesticide dilution and dosage formulas, and pesticide dispersal equipment. TIM 24 also provides information on surveillance, trapping, and safety equipment, personal protective equipment against disease vectors, air-transport of pesticides that don't meet transportation requirements, and US military points of contact overseas who can provide information on vector-borne disease control in their respective areas of the world.

Copies of TIM-24, Contingency Pest Management Pocket Guide, can be obtained free of charge from:

Defense Pest Management Information Analysis Center Armed Forces Pest Management Board Forest Glen Section, WRAMC Washington, DC 20307-5001

Appendix L. Insecticide Resistance

SPECIES	AREA/LOCALITY	INSECTICIDE	DATE	STATUS
Musca domestica	Yugoslavia	DDT	1986	R*
Aedes aegypti	Yugoslavia	DDT	1986	R
Pediculus humanus	Yugoslavia	DDT	1986	R
Pediculus humanus	Yugoslavia	gamma HCH	1973	R
An. maculipennis	Croatia (Zagreb)	Propoxur	1973	S
An. maculipennis	Croatia (Zagreb)	DDT	1972	S
An. maculipennis	Croatia (Zagreb)	Malathion	1972	S
An. maculipennis	Croatia (Zagreb)	Fenitrothion	1974	R
An. maculipennis	Croatia (Zagreb)	Fenitrothion	1974	R
An. maculipennis	Croatia (Zagreb)	Fenitrothion	1974	R

^{*}R = Resistant; S = Susceptible.

References: Anonymous 1986b, 1987.

REFERENCES

- Adamovic, Z. 1986. Anophelines (Diptera, Culicidae) in Gruza, Levac and Temnic, Serbia. Acta Vet., Beograd 36: 39-44.
- Adomovic, Z. and R. Paulus. 1988. Distribution and abundance of anophelines (Diptera, Culicidae) in Sava Valley from Ljubjana to Zagreb, Yugoslavia. Acta Vet., Beograd 38: 31-36.
- Alvarado, C. A. and L. J. Bruce-Chwatt. 1962. Malaria. Sci. Am. pp. 284-295.
- Anonymous. 1942. Keys to the anopheline mosquitoes of the Neotropical, Mediterranean, Ethiopian, Oriental and Australian Regions with notes on control. Appendix D of Notes on Med. Entomol., U.S. Naval Med. Sch., Nat. Naval Med. Center, Bethesda, MD, 126 pp.
- Anonymous. 1943. Geographical distribution of certain diseases. War Dept. Pam. No. 8-6, U.S. Govn. Print. Office, Washington, DC, 14 pp.
- Anonymous. 1957. Eradication of malaria in south-east Europe. WHO Chron. 11: 136-139.
- Anonymous. 1958. Tick-borne encephalitis. WHO Chron. 12: 293.
- Anonymous. 1962. Poisonous snakes of the world. Dept. Navy, Office Naval Intelligence, ONI Study 3-62, 168 pp. + 36 figs.
- Anonymous. 1967. Myxomatosis and boutonneuse fever. WHO Chron. 21: 164.
- Anonymous. 1970. Louse-borne typhus. WHO Chron. 24: 182-183.
- Anonymous. 1982. Rickettsioses: a continuing disease problem. Bull. WHO 60: 157-164.
- Anonymous. 1984. The leishmaniases. WHO Tech. Rpt. Series No. 701, 140 pp.
- Anonymous. 1985a. Viral hemorrhagic fevers. WHO Tech. Rpt. Series No. 721, 126 pp.
- Anonymous. 1985b. Europeans alarmed over tick-borne encephalitis epidemic and focus on central European tick-borne encephalitis. AFPMB TIB 9-85, pp. 11-12.
- Anonymous. 1986a. Poisonous snakes of Europe. Defense Intelligence Agency, DST-1810S-167-86, 17 pp.
- Anonymous. 1986b. Resistance of vectors and reservoirs of disease to pesticides. WHO Tech. Rep. Series No. 737, 87 pp.
- Anonymous. 1987. Lyme disease surveillance and prevention. HQDA Message No. 191800Z, 2 pp.
- Anonymous. 1988. Contingency pest management pocket guide. AFPMB Tech. Info. Memo. 24, 69 pp.
- Anonymous. 1989. Treatment of Lyme disease. The Med. Letter 31 (794): 57-59.
- Anonymous. 1990a. Lyme disease vector surveillance and control. AFPMB Tech. Info. Memo. No. 26, 24 pp. + app.
- Anonymous, 1990b. Control of the leishmaniases. WHO Tech. Rpt. Series No. 793, 158 pp.
- Anonymous. 1991. European tick-borne encephalitis. Can. Dis. Weekly Rpt. 17 (36): 195-196.
- Armour, V. M. 1989. Lyme disease its recent recognition and clinical manifestations. J. U.S. Army Med. Dept. PB8-89-11/12, pp. 15-21.
- Balashov, Y. S. 1972. Bloodsucking ticks (Ixodoidea)-vectors of diseases of man and animals. Misc. Publs. Entomol. Soc. Am. 8: 1-376 (translation).
- Bardos, V. 1981. Tahyna virus infection. pp. 208-213. <u>In</u> J. H. Steele and G. W. Beran (Eds.), CRC Handbook series in zoonoses. Sect. B: Viral zoonoses. Vol. I, CRC Press, Inc., Boca Raton.
- Bedjanic, M., S. Rus, J. Kmet and J. Vesenjak-Zmijanac. 1955. Virus meningo-encephalitis in Slovenia 2. Clinical observations. Bull. WHO 12: 503-512.
- Benenson, A. S. (Ed.). 1985. Control of communicable diseases in man. Am. Publ. Hlth. Assn., Washington, 485 pp.
- Bertovic, S. 1976. Ecological-vegetational characteristics of TBE foci in Croatia. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 79-98.
- Bisevac, L., Z. Miscevic and M. Milutinovic. 1990. A contribution to the investigation of sandfly fauna (Diptera, Phlebotomidae) of the Island of Mljet, SR Croatia, Yugoslavia. Acta Vet., Beograd 40: 49-54.
- Blaskovic, D. 1967. The public health importance of tick-borne encephalitis in Europe. Bull. WHO 36(Suppl. 1): 5-13.

- Brezina, R., E. S. Murray, M. L. Tarizzo and K. Bogel. 1973. Rickettsiae and rickettsial diseases. Bull. WHO 49: 433-442.
- Bruce-Chwatt, L. J. 1971. Malaria and its prevention in military campaigns. 20th Internat. Congr. Mil. Med. Pharm., Brussels, pp. 370-390.
- Brudnjak, Z. 1976. Some physico-chemical and biological properties of tick-borne encephalitis virus strains isolated in Croatia. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 49-53.
- Brudnjak, Z., J. Vesenjak-Hirjan and E. Soos. 1976. Isolation of tick-borne encephalitis virus from ticks and patients. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 41-48.
- Butler, T. 1991. Relapsing fever. pp. 312-317. <u>In</u> G. T. Strickland (Ed.), Hunter's tropical medicine. W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia.
- Casals, J., B. E. Henderson, H. Hoogstraal, K. M. Johnson and A. Shelokov. 1970. A review of Soviet viral hemorrhagic fevers, 1969. J. Infect. Dis. 122: 437-453.
- Chumakov, M. P. (Ed.). 1974. Crimean hemorrhagic fever. Papers from the third regional workshop at Rostov-on-Don in May 1970. Misc. Publ. Entomol. Soc. Am. 9: 123-200 (translation).
- Chvala, M. 1988. Family Tabanidae. pp. 97-171. <u>In</u> A. Soos and L. Papp (Eds.), Catalogue of Palearctic Diptera. Vol. 5, Elsevier, Amsterdam.
- Crosskey, R. W. 1973. Simuliidae (black-flies, German: Kriebelmucken). pp. 109-153. <u>In</u> G. V. Smith (Ed.), Insects and other arthropods of medical importance. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.), London.
- Danforth, K. C. and S. McCurry. 1990. Yugoslavia, a house much divided. Nat. Geog. 178(2): 92-123.
- Danilov, V. N. 1987. Mosquitoes of the *Aedes cantans* group (Diptera, Culicidae) in the Palearctic Region 1. Key to females: distribution. Entomol. Rev. 66: 61-68.
- Desjeux, P. 1988. Information on epidemiology and control of leishmaniasis by country. WHO/VBC/88.27, 45 pp.
- Divljanovic, D. 1971. Scabies in the Valjevo Region in the 1st half of the XIXth century. Srp. Arh.

 Celok.

 Lek., Belgrade 99: 103-105.
- Djulic, B. 1976. Ecologic characteristics of mammals on the island of Brac and in the area of Stara Ves.

 RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan.
- Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 117-120.
- Donnelly, J. 1978. The life cycle of *Ixodes ricinus* L. based on recent published findings. pp. 56-59. <u>In</u> J. K. H. Wilde (Ed.),
- Tick-borne diseases and their vectors. Univ. Press, Edinburgh.
- DuBose, W. P. and T. J. Curtin. 1965. Identification keys to the adult and larval mosquitoes of the Mediterranean area. J. Med. Entomol. 1: 349-355.
- Estrada-Pena, A. 1989. Index-catalog of the ticks (Acarina: Ixodoidea) in the world, Volume 1: Genus *Haemaphysalis*. Publ. Univ. Zaragoza, Zaragoza, Spain, 932 pp.
- Farhang-Azad, A. 1988. Relationship of vector biology and epidemiology of louse- and flea-borne rickettsioses. pp. 51-61. <u>In</u> D. H. Walker (Ed.), Biology of rickettsial diseases. Vol. I. CRC Press, Inc., Boca Raton.
- Farhang-Azad, A., R. Traub and S. Baqar. 1985. Transovarial transmission of murine typhus rickettsiae in *Xenopsylla cheopis* fleas. Science 227: 543-545.
- Filipovitj, J. and V. Ostojitj-Bakotin. 1981. Snake bites in the Split area. Lijec. Vjesn., Zagreb 103: 38-544.
- Galinovic-Weisglass, M. and J. Vesenjak-Hirjan. 1976. Serological study of clinical cases of tick-borne encephalitis in Croatia. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 67-78.
- Gaon, J. A. 1973. Louse eradication programs in Yugoslavia. pp. 32-40. <u>In Proceedings of the international symposium on the control of lice and louse-borne diseases</u>. PAHO Sci. Publ. No. 263.
- Gelman, A. C. 1961. The ecology of the relapsing fevers. pp. 109-136. <u>In</u> J. M. May (Ed.), Studies in disease ecology. Hafner Publ. Co., Inc., New York.
- Gligic, A., Z. Miscevic, R. B. Tech, A. Travassos da Rosa and V. Zivkovic. 1982. First isolation of Naples sandfly fever virus in
- Yugoslavia. Mikrobiologija, Belgrade 19: 167-174.

Grcevic, N. and V. Vince. strains. RAD Jugosl.	1976. Tick-borne encepha Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagr	alitis induced in white mid eb, No. 372, pp. 127-149	ce by some Yugoslav virus).
ugoclay Banublies Second Edition	. 007.03	20	

- Grdanoski, S., T. Wiladinovic and B. Sokolovski. 1972. Epidemiological characteristics of scabies in soldiers of the military district of Skoplje. Vojnosanit. Pregl., Belgrade 29: 340-342.
- Gresikova, M. and G. W. Beran. 1981. Arboviral zoonoses in central Europe, tick-borne encephalitis (TBE). pp. 201-208. <u>In</u> J. H. Steele and G. W. Beran (Eds.), CRC Handbook series in zoonoses. Sec. B: Viral zoonoses, Vol. I. CRC Press, Inc., Boca Raton. Gresikova, M. and C. H. Calisher. 1988. Tick-borne encephalitis. pp. 177-203. <u>In</u> T. P. Monath (Ed.), The arboviruses: epidemiology and ecology. Vol. IV, CRC Press, Inc., Boca Raton.
- Grulich, I., J. Nosek and L. Szabo. 1967. The autecology of small rodents and insectivores of the Tribec Mountain Range. Bull. WHO 36 (Suppl. 1): 25-30.
- Harding, K. A. and K. R. G. Welch. 1980. Venomous snakes of the world, a checklist. Pergamon Press, New York, 188 pp.
- Heneberg, N., D. Heneberg, J. Milosevic and V. Dimitrijevic. 1967. Distribution of ticks in the autonomous provinces of Kosovo and Metohija, with special regard to *Hyalomma plumbeum plumbeum* Panzer, reservoir and vector of Crimean hemorrhagic fever of man. Zborn. Vojnomed. Akad., Belograd, pp. 30-36. (NAMRU-3 Trans. No. T324).
- Hertig, M. and A. B. Sabin. 1964. Sandfly fever (Pappataci, Phlebotomus, three-day fever). pp. 109-174. In J. B. Coates, Jr., E. C. Hoff and P. M. Hoff (Eds.), Preventive medicine in World War II, Communicable diseases, arthropodborne diseases other than malaria. Vol. VII. OTSG, Dept. Army, Washington.
- Hoogstraal, H. 1967a. Tickborne hemorrhagic fevers, encephalitis, and typhus in U.S.S.R. and southern Asia. Exper. Parasitol. 21: 98-111.
- Hoogstraal, H. 1967b. Ticks in relation to human diseases caused by *Rickettsia* species. Ann. Rev. Entomol. 12: 377-420.
- Hoogstraal, H. 1978. Tickborne diseases of humans a history of environmental and epidemiological changes. R. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg. Symp. Proc. pp. 48-55.
- Hoogstraal, H. 1979. The epidemiology of tick-borne Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever in Asia, Europe, and Africa. J. Med. Entomol. 15: 307-417.
- Hoogstraal, H. 1981a. Changing patterns of tickborne diseases in modern society. Ann. Rev. Entomol. 26: 75-99
- Hoogstraal, H. 1981b. Tick-borne Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever. pp. 267-402. <u>In</u> J. H. Steele and G. W. Beran (Eds.), CRC handbook series in zoonoses, Sec. B: Viral zoonoses, Vol. I, CRC Press, Inc., Boca Raton.
- Hopkins, G. H. E. and M. Rothschild. 1953. An illustrated catalogue of the Rothschild collection of fleas (Siphonaptera) in the British Museum (Natural History). Vol. I. Tungidae and Pulicidae. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.), London, 361 pp. + 45 pl.
- Hopkins, G. H. E. and M. Rothschild. 1956. An illustrated catalogue of the Rothschild collection of fleas (Siphonaptera) in the British Museum (Natural History). Vol. II. Coptopsyllidae, Vermipsyllidae, Stephanocircidae, Ischnopsyllidae, Hypsophthalmidae and Xiphiopsyllidae. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.), London, 445 pp. + 32 pl.
- Hopkins, G. H. E. and M. Rothschild. 1962. An illustrated catalogue of the Rothschild collection of fleas (Siphonaptera) in the British Museum. Vol. III. Hystrichopsyllidae. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.), London, 560 pp. + 10 pl.
- Hopkins, G. H. E. and M. Rothschild. 1966. An illustrated catalogue of the Rothschild collection of fleas (Siphonaptera) in the British Museum. Vol. IV. Hystrichopsyllidae. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.), London, 549 pp. + 12 pl.
- Hopkins, G. H. E. and M. Rothschild. 1971. An illustrated catalogue of the Rothschild collection of fleas (Siphonaptera) in the British Museum. Vol. V. Leptopsyllidae and Ancistropsyllidae. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.), London, 530 pp. + 30 pl.
- Hubalek, Z. 1987. Geographic distribution of Bhanja virus. Folia Parasitol. 34: 77-86.
- Ismail, I. A. H. and J. Maunder. 1989. Flea-borne diseases. pp. 107-113. <u>In</u> Geographical distribution of arthropod-borne diseases and their principal vectors. WHO/VBC/89.967.

- Jordan, R. P. and J. P. Blair. 1970. Yugoslavia, six republics in one. Nat. Geog. 137(5): 589-633.
- Karabatsos, N. (Ed.). 1985. International catalogue of arboviruses including certain other viruses of vertebrates. 3rd Ed., Am. Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg., 1147 pp.
- Keirans, J. E. 1984. George Henry Falkiner Nuttall and the Nuttall tick collection. U.S. Dept. Agri., Misc. Publ. No. 1438, 1785 pp.
- Kemp, G. E. 1978. Tick-borne viruses. pp. 409-432. <u>In</u> J. K. H. Wilde (Ed.), Tick-borne diseases and their vectors. Univ. Press, Edinburgh.
- Kim, K.C. and R. W. Merritt (eds.). 1987. Blackflies. Ecology, population management, and annotated world list. Pennsylvania State Univ., University Park and London. xv + 528 pp.
- Kmet, J., J. Vesenjak-Zmijanac, M. Bedjanic and S. Rus. 1955. Virus meningo-encephalitis in Slovenia 1. Epidemiological observations. Bull. WHO 12: 491-501.
- Knight, K. L. 1978. Supplement to a catalog of the mosquitoes of the world (Diptera: Culicidae).

 Thomas

 Say Found., Vol. VI, Suppl.,
 107 pp.
- Knight, K. L. and A. Stone. 1977. A catalog of the mosquitoes of the world (Diptera: Culicidae).

 Thomas Say Found., Vol. VI, 611 pp.
- Labadan, R. M. and B. V. Travis. 1970. Arthropods of medical importance in Europe (exclusive of the European U.S.S.R.). Tech. Rpt. 70-49-ES, U.S. Army Natick Labs., Natick, MA, 353 pp.
- Leclercq, M. 1960. Revision systematique et biogeographique des Tabanidae (Diptera) Palearctiques, Vol. I. Pangoniinae et Chrysopinae. Inst. R. Sci. Nat. Belgique, Memoires, Fasc. 63, 77 pp. + 10 pl.
- Leclercq, M. 1966. Revision systematique et biogeographique des Tabanidae (Diptera) Palearctiques, Vol. II. Tabaninae. Inst. R. Sci. Nat. Belgique, Memoires, Fasc. 80, 237 pp. + 19 pl.
- Lewis, D. J. 1971. Phlebotomid sandflies. Bull. WHO 44: 535-551.
- Lewis, D. J. 1982. A taxonomic review of the genus *Phlebotomus* (Diptera: Psychodidae). Bull. Br. Mus. Nat. Hist. (Entomol.) 45: 121-209.
- Lewis, R. E. 1972. Notes on the geographical distribution and host preferences in the order Siphonaptera, Part 1. Pulicidae. J. Med. Entomol. 9: 511-520.
- Lewis, R. E. 1973. Notes on the geographical distribution and host preferences in the order Siphonaptera, Part 2. Rhopalopsyllidae, Malacopsyllidae and Vermipsyllidae. J. Med. Entomol. 10: 255-260.
- Lewis, R. E. 1974a. Notes on the geographical distribution and host preferences in the order Siphonaptera, Part 3. Hystrichopsyllidae. J. Med. Entomol. 11: 147-167.
- Lewis, R. E. 1974b. Notes on the geographical distribution and host preferences in the order Siphonaptera, Part 5. Ancistropsyllidae, Chimaeropsyllidae, Ischnopsyllidae, Leptopsyllidae and Macropsyllidae. J. Med. Entomol. 11: 525-540.
- Lewis, R. E. 1975. Notes on the geographical distribution and host preferences in the order Siphonaptera, Part 6. Ceratophyllidae. J. Med. Entomol. 11: 658-676.
- Likar, M. and J. Cosals. 1963. Isolation from man in Slovenia of a virus belonging to the California complex of arthropod-borne viruses. Nature 197: 1131.
- Lothrop, B. B. 1988. Comparative ecology of *Aedes dorsalis* complex in the Holarctic. Proc. & Papers Calif. Mosq. Vector Cont. Assn., Inc., pp. 139-145.
- Lysenko, A. J. 1971. Distribution of leishmaniasis in the Old World. Bull. WHO 44: 515-520.
- Macan, T. T. 1942. A key to the anopheline mosquitoes of the Mediterranean Region and the lands adjoining the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. J. Roy. Army Med. Corps 79: 1-11.
- Mardon, D. K. 1981. An illustrated catalogue of the Rothschild collection of fleas (Siphonaptera) in the British Museum. Vol. VI. Pygiopsyllidae. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.), London, 298 pp.
- Maretic, Z. and O. Milina. 1976. A bite by the spider *Aranea sexpunctata* Linne: case report. Toxicon 14: 292-293.
- Maretic, Z. and M. Stanic. 1954. The health problem of arachnidism. Bull. WHO 11: 1007-1022.
- Mattingly, P. F. 1971. Contributions to the mosquito fauna of Southeast Asia. XII. Illustrated keys to the genera of mosquitoes (Diptera, Culicidae). Contr. Am. Entomol. Inst. (Ann Arbor) 7(4): 1-84.
- Maunder, J. 1989. Louse-borne diseases. pp. 74-77. In Geographical distribution of arthropod-borne

- diseases and their principal vectors. WHO/VBC/89.967.
- May, J. M. 1961. The ecology of malaria. pp. 161-229. <u>In</u> J. M. May (Ed.), Studies in disease ecology. Hafner Publ. Co., Inc., New York.
- McCormick, J. B. 1991. Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever (CCHF). pp. 248-251, and Diseases caused by hantaviruses (hemorrhagic fever with renal syndrome). pp. 251-254. <u>In</u> G. T. Strickland (Ed.), Hunter's tropical medicine. W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia.
- McCormick, J. B. and S. Fisher-Hoch. 1990. Viral hemorrhagic fevers. pp. 700-728. <u>In</u> K. S. Warren and A. A. F. Mahmoud (Eds.), Tropical and geographical medicine, McGraw-Hill Info. Svc. Co., New York.
- Miles, J. A. R. 1960. Epidemiology of the arthropod-borne encephalitides. Bull. WHO 22: 339-371. Minar, J. 1991. Family Culicidae. pp. 74-113. <u>In</u> A. Soos and L. Papp (Eds.), Catalogue of Palearctic Diptera. Vol. 2, Elsevier, Amsterdam.
- Minter, D. M. 1989. The leishmaniases. pp. 93-106. <u>In</u> Geographical distribution of arthropod-borne diseases and their vectors. WHO/VBC/89.967.
- Minton, S. 1982. Snake bite. pp. 283-288. <u>In</u> G. V. Hillyer and C. E. Hopla (Eds.), CRC handbook seriesin zoonoses, Sec. C: Parasitic zoonoses. Vol. III, CRC Press, Inc., Boca Raton.
- Miscevic, Z. and M. Markovic. 1983. Investigation of sandflies (Diptera, Phlebotomidae) in a natural focus of Naples sandfly fever in south-east Serbia (Yugoslavia). Acta Vet. 33: 229-241.
- Molineaus, L. and J. Hempel. 1989. Paludisme et voyages internationaux. WHO Stat. Quat. 42: 100-106.
- Murray, E. S. and J. A. Gaon. 1973. Incidence of *Rickettsia prowazeki* infections in an endemic focus of louse-borne typhus: factors influencing the occurrence of epidemics. pp. 66-70. <u>In Proceedings of the international symposium on the control of lice and louse-borne diseases</u>. PAHO Sci. Publ. No. 263.
- Nosek, J., M. Lichard and M. Sztankay. 1967. The ecology of ticks in the Tribec and Hronsky Inovec Mountains. Bull. WHO 36 (Suppl. 1): 49-59.
- Oldroyd, H. and K. G. V. Smith. 1973. Eggs and larvae of flies. pp. 289-323. <u>In K. G. V. Smith (Ed.)</u>, Insects and other arthropods of medical importance. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.), London.
- Omran, A.-R. 1961. The ecology of leishmaniasis. pp. 328-388. <u>In</u> J. M. May (Ed.), Studies in disease ecology. Hafner Publ. Co., Inc., New York.
- Parkin, W. E., W. McD. Hammon and G. E. Sather. 1972. Review of current epidemiological literature on viruses of the California arbovirus group. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 21: 964-978.
- Phillips, A., A. Sabatini, P. J. M. Milligan, D. Boccolini, G. Broomfield and D. H. Molyneux. 1990. The *Anopheles maculipennis* complex (Diptera: Culicidae): comparison of the cuticular hydrocarbon profiles determined in adults of five Palearctic species. Bull. Entomol. Res. 80: 459-464.
- Pilaski, J. 1987. Contributions to the ecology of Tahyna virus in central Europe. Bull. Soc. Vector Ecol. 12: 544-553.
- Pont, A. C. 1973. Muscidae (house-flies, stable-flies, etc.). pp. 251-269. <u>In K. G. V. Smith (Ed.)</u>, Insects and other arthropods of medical importance. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.), London.
- Pratt, H. D. and K. S. Littig. 1961. Lice of public health importance and their control. USDHEW, Atlanta, 16 pp.
- Rehacek, J. 1979. Spotted fever group rickettsiae in Europe. pp. 245-255. <u>In</u> J. G. Rodriguez (Ed.), Recent advances in Acarology, Vol. II, Academic Press, New York.
- Rehacek, J. 1984. Rickettsiae and rickettsia-like organisms in ticks in central Europe. pp. 1054-1058.

 In D. A. Griffiths and C. E.
- Bowman (Eds.), Acarology VI, Vol. 2, John Wiley & Sons, New York.
- Remm, H. 1988. Family Ceratopogonidae. pp. 11-73, and Family Leptoconopidae. pp. 110-114. <u>In A. Soos and L. Papp (Eds.)</u>, Catalogue of Palearctic Diptera. Vol. 3, Elsevier, Amsterdam.
- Rubtsov, I. A. 1959-1964. Simuliidae. In Lidner (Ed.), Fliegen Palaerkt. Reg. 14: 1-689.
- Rubtsov, I. A. and A. V. Yankovsky. 1988. Family Simuliidae. pp. 114-186. <u>In</u> A. Soos and L. Papp (Eds.), Catalogue of Palearctic Diptera. Vol. 3, Elsevier, Amsterdam.
- Rucner, D. 1976. Avifauna in Pannonian and Mediterranean tick-borne encephalitis foci. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 121-126.

- Rulnjevic, J., S. Zorinc, Z. Kosic, L. Majerus and J. Falisevac. 1976. Clinical characteristics of tick-borne encephalitis in Croatia. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 55-66.
- Russell, P. F., L. E. Rozeboom and A. Stone. 1943. Keys to the anopheline mosquitoes of the world with notes on their identification, distribution, biology, and relation to malaria. Am. Entomol. Soc. and Acad. Nat. Sci., Philadelphia, 152 pp.
- Saah, A. J. 1990. *Rickettsia prowazekii* (epidemic or louse-borne typhus). pp. 1476-1478, *Rickettsia typhi* (endemic or murine typhus). pp. 1478-1480. <u>In</u> G. L. Mandell, R. G. Douglas, Jr. and J. E. Bennett (Eds.), Principles and practice of infectious diseases. Churchill Livingstone, New York.
- Schmid, G. P. 1984. The global distribution of Lyme disease. Yale J. Biol. Med. 57: 617-618.
- Schoof, H. F. 1973. The occurrence and distribution of resistance in lice. pp. 223-226. <u>In Proceedings of the international symposium on the control of lice and louse-borne diseases</u>. PAHO Sci. Publ. No. 263.
- Sheals, J. G. 1973. Arachnida (scorpions, spiders, ticks, etc.). In K. G. V. Smith (Ed.), Insects and other arthropods of medical importance. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.), London.
- Simpson, D. I. H. 1978. Viral hemorrhagic fevers of man. Bull. WHO 56: 819-832.
- Sixl, W. 1971. Zur Parasitierung des Kleibers (*Sitta europaea* L.) in der Steiermark. Mitt. Naturwiss. Ver. Steiermark 100: 395-399.
- Smit, F. G. A. M. 1973. Siphonaptera (fleas). pp. 325-371. In K. G. V. Smith (Ed.), Insects and other arthropods of medical importance. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.), London.
- Smith, K. G. V. 1973. Calliphoridae & Sarcophagidae (blow-flies and flesh-flies). pp. 271-277. <u>In K. G. V. Smith (Ed.)</u>, Insects and other arthropods of medical importance. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.), London.
- Soos, E. and Z. Brudnjak. 1976. Prophylaxis of tick-borne encephalitis. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 175-184.
- Stanek, G., M. Pletschette, H. Flamm, A. M. Hirschl, E. Aberer, W. Kristoferitsch and E. Schmutzhard. 1988. European Lyme borreliosis. Ann. New York Acad. Sci. 539: 274-282.
- Steere, A. C. 1990. *Borrelia burgdorferi* (Lyme disease, Lyme borreliosis). pp. 1819-1827. <u>In G. L. Mandell, R. G. Douglas, Jr. and J. E. Bennett (Eds.), Principles and practice of infectious diseases. Churchill Livingstone, NY.</u>
- Tasovac, B., C. Simic and D. Djukic. 1961. *Hypoderma bovis* -- myiasis in a child. Srpski Arh. Celok. Lek. 89: 43-50.
- Tesh, R. B. 1988. Phlebotomus fevers. pp. 15-27. In T. P. Monath (Ed.), The arboviruses: epidemiology and ecology. Vol. IV. CRC
- Press, Inc., Boca Raton.
- Tesh, R. B., S. Saidi, S. J. Gajdamovic, F. Rodhain and J. Vesenjak-Hirjan. 1976. Serological studies on the epidemiology of sandfly fever in the Old World. Bull. WHO 54: 663-674.
- Tovornik, D. 1976a. Seasonal and diurnal periodicity of the tick *Ixodes ricinus* L. in the Pannonian tick-borne encephalitis focus (Stara Ves). RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 99-103.
- Tovornik, D. 1976b. Ecological notes on ticks (Ixodidae) on the island of Brac. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp.
- 105-113.
- Tovornik, D. and E. Soos. 1976. On the colour of the unfed female of *Ixodes gibbosus* Nuttall, 1916 found in the tick-borne encephalitis focus on the island of Brac. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb No. 372, pp. 115-116.
- Urlic, V., D. Heneberg and N. Heneberg. 1972. Murine typhus in Dalmatia. Investigations in an endemic focus. Lijec. Vjesn., Zagreb, 94: 224-231.
- Varma, G. R. 1989. Tick-borne diseases. WHO/VBC/89.967, pp. 55-70.
- Vesenjak, J. and M. Jung. 1968. Laboratory examination of tickborne meningoencephalitis cases in Yugoslavia. pp. 35-44. <u>In M. P Chumakov (Ed.)</u>, Endemic viral infections. Trudy Inst. Polio. Virus Entsef. Akad. Med. Nauk SSSR, No. 12 (NAMRU-3 Trans. T1285).
- Vesenjak-Hirjan, J. 1976. Tick-borne encephalitis in Croatia. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb,

- Vesenjak-Hirjan, J., C. H. Calisher, Z. Brudnjak, D. Tovornik, N. Skrtic and J. S. Lazuick. 1977.

 Isolation of Bhanja virus from ticks in
- Yugoslavia. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 26: 1003-1008.
- Vesenjak-Hirjan, J., E. Egri-Hecimovic and E. Soos. 1976. Infections with tick-borne encephalitis virus in Mediterranean focus Nadsela (Island of Brac). RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 37-40.
- Vesenjak-Hirjan, J., E. Egri-Hecimovic, V. Vince and E. Soos. 1976. Infections with tick-borne encephalitis virus in the Pannonian focus Stara Ves 1. Serological studies 1961-1964. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 11-20.
- Vesenjak-Hirjan, J., M. Galinovic-Weisglass and Z. Brudnjak. 1976. Infections with tick-borne encephalitis virus in Pannonian focus Stara Ves 2. Serological studies in 1972. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 21-28.
- Vesenjak-Hirjan, J., M. Galinovic-Weisglass and Z. Brudnjak. 1976. Infections with tick-borne encephalitis virus in Pannonian focus
- Stara Ves 3. Persistence of HI, CF and N antibodies to tick-borne encephalitis virus. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 29-36.
- Vesenjak-Hirjan, J., J. Rulnjevic, E. Soos, M. Galinovic-Weisglass and I. Beus. 1976. Appearance of tick-borne encephalitis in the Mountain Range Medvednica. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 161-173.
- Vesenjak-Hirjan, J. and E. Soos. 1976. The role of migrating flocks of sheep in the spreading of tick-borne encephalitis virus. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 167-173.
- Vesenjak-Zmijanac, J., M. Bedjanic, S. Rus and J. Kmet. 1955. Virus meningo-encephalitis in Slovenia 3. Isolation of the causative agent. Bull. WHO 12: 513-520.
- Vince, V. and Z. Brudnjak. 1976. Serological study of mice experimentally infected with tick-borne encephalitis virus. RAD Jugosl. Akad. Znan. Umjet., Zagreb, No. 372, pp. 151-159.
- Wagner, R. 1991. Family Psychodidae. pp. 11-65. <u>In</u> A. Soos and L. Papp (Eds.), Catalogue of Palearctic Diptera. Vol. 2, Elsevier, Amsterdam.
- Watts, D. M., T. G. Ksiazek, K. J. Linthicum and H. Hoogstraal. 1988. Crimean-Congo hemorrhagic fever. pp. 177-222. <u>In</u> T. P. Monath (Ed.), The arboviruses: epidemiology and ecology. Vol. II, CRC Press, Inc., Boca Raton.
- Weyer, F. 1978. Progresses in ecology and epidemiology of rickettsioses, a review. Acta Trop. 35: 5-21. Wisseman, C. L., Jr., 1991. Rickettsial infections. pp. 256-267, The typhus group. pp. 267-273, The spotted fever group. pp. 273-279. In G. T. Strickland (Ed.), Hunter's tropical medicine. W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia.
- Woodward, T. E. and J. V. Osterman. 1990. Rickettsial diseases. pp. 918-929. In K. S. Warren and A. A. F. Mahmoud (Eds.), Tropical and geographical medicine. McGraw-Hill Info. Ser. Co., New York.
- Zahar, A. R. 1979. Studies on leishmaniasis vectors/reservoirs and their control in the old world, general review and inventory, and
- Part I Europe. WHO/VBC/79.749, 88 pp.
- Zivkovic, V. 1980. Faunistic and ecological investigations of sandflies (Diptera, Phlebotomidae) in Serbia. Acta Vet. 30: 67-88.
- Zivkovic, V. 1983. Faunistic and ecological investigations of sandflies (Diptera, Phlebotomidae) in Serbia. Acta Vet. 33: 123-134.