

## Culicidae (Diptera) community structure, spatial and temporal distribution in three environments of the province of Chaco, Argentina



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### ABSTRACT

The aim of this work was to study the composition of the Culicidae community in three environments with different degrees of anthropic disturbance in the province of Chaco. The nonparametric richness estimator ACE was calculated to measure the completeness of the sampling in each environment, and the diversity of each environment ( $\alpha$ -diversity) were estimated. The composition, abundance and uniformity of species from the different environments were compared by means of range-species curves.  $\beta$ -diversity was measured as species complementarity, which allowed us to know the degree of dissimilarity among the environments. The synanthropic index was estimated, identifying urban environment (synanthropic) species, eusynanthropic species, and wild species. The influence of climatic factors (mean temperature, relative humidity and rainfall) on the monthly and annual variations of the identified mosquito species was analysed using multilevel Poisson models with over-dispersion. The wild environment showed higher diversity and the semi-urban environment higher species richness. Despite having lower S and abundance, the urban environment showed greater diversity than semi-urban environment, although it also showed lower completeness, which means S could increase. Anthropogenic disturbance can lead to the elimination and/or modification or substitution of habitats, with the subsequent loss of richness in the more sensitive species of Culicidae fauna, although the conditions are also favourable for the settling of opportunistic and exotic species well-adjusted to disturbed environments. Most of the species abundances were positively influenced by the analysed climatic variables. The study area showed a rich Culicidae fauna of public health significance, with a risk of pathogen transmission, suggesting the need of further studies and the febrile and entomological surveillance.

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### 1. Introduction

The study of the composition and diversity of mosquitoes, both in natural and anthropically disturbed areas, is of considerable importance due to their role in pathogen transmission to humans and animals (Forattini, 2002), these may influence, either decreasing disease risk or facilitating the spread of it, for different mechanisms (Alencar et al., 2015). Furthermore, the study of natural environments allows us to know the habitat of those species

whose role in transmission cycles remains unknown (Hutchings et al., 2005).

In our country, the records of species from the subtropical climate provinces of the Northeast and Northwest of Argentina, which are characterised by having the greatest Culicidae species richness, are updated by few studies listing the species and, in some cases, the habitats where they are found (Rossi et al., 2006; Visintín et al., 2010; Hoyos et al., 2011; Campos et al., 2011; Dantur Juri et al., 2012; Stein et al., 2012; Rossi and Lestani, 2014; Rossi, 2015). Furthermore, studies analysing species diversity and richness using quantitative estimators are scarce (Ronderos et al., 1991, 1992; Dantur Juri et al., 2005; Ramirez et al., 2014), and no single study has performed a comparative analysis of Culicidae communities from environments with different degrees of anthropization in the

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same phytogeographic region. This type of studies would, in some way, allow the identification of changes in an ecologic timeline, data which can be of biologic and epidemiological interest. Also allow measuring the simplification and/or degradation of ecosystems (Badii et al., 2007). The results of this study will reveal the temporal and spatial distribution of the different mosquito species found in a region of epidemiological interest, that will need to be considered when it comes to implementing control measures, identifying periods of greater epidemiological relevance, given the known circulation of different arboviruses (Díaz et al., 2008; Pisano et al., 2013), as well as quantitative estimations of the Culicidae community in 3 types of environments with different degrees of anthropic intervention, in the province of Chaco, located in the subtropical region of Argentina.

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Study area

The climate is subtropical with a dry season. It is part of an extensive area, commonly called Parque Chaqueño, where vegetation has a polymorphic appearance and consists of xeric forests, shrubs and herbaceous steppes, savannas, palm groves and grasslands. Phytogeographically, it is divided into two regions: eastern (wet Chaco) and western (dry Chaco) woodland. Both regions are mainly differentiated by rainfall and frost-free period. The eastern woodland, where this study was conducted, is within a flood plain with imperfect or poor drainage. The soil permeability is moderately slow, which allows the formation of flooding areas (Bruniard 1978). The mean annual temperature is 23 °C and the mean rainfall is 1280 mm. In the summer, the mean temperature is 27 °C, with an absolute maximum that can exceed 43 °C. The mean temperature in winter is 15 °C. The rainy season is between November–April, with peaks of rainfall in spring (September–October) and autumn (March–April).

### 2.2. Study design

In order to determine the seasonal variations of the female adult populations, and to detect the Culicidae species in environments with different degrees of anthropic intervention, samples were collected in 3 types of environments: 1. urban environment—highly modified, located in the urban area of the Resistencia city—(27°30'S 59°W) capital of the province, with 350.000 inhabitants (>1200 inhabitants per hectare); 2. semi-urban environment with little anthropic disturbance—Monte Alto—(27°26'S 58°55'W), with low population density (<600 inhabitants per hectare), without sewage disposal system, public transport services, shops and health centers near; and 3. wild environment, represented by a patch of pristine forest—Kilometer 1031 (27°10'S 58°58'W), 31 km from the city of Resistencia, hereinafter environments 1, 2 and 3, respectively. The collections were made fortnightly, during the period June 2001–October 2003. They were made using a CDC light trap with CO<sub>2</sub> (Service, 1993), supplied through a cylinder with a pressure and a flow controller, which allowed for a continuous gas flow at 0.5 l/min. For each collection and in each site, 1CDC trap was placed 0.5–1.5 m above ground level, remaining active during 16 h for each collection (between 6 p.m. and 10 a.m.). In environment 1, the CDC light trap was located to 1.2 km from the geographical center of the city on the same site where the weather station is found (Fig. 1). In environment 2, the trap was located in a field whose main activity corresponds to animal husbandry, 500 m from the Negro River, nearest to riparian forest, 10 km from the city of Resistencia, which is accessed by the national route N° 16. In environment 3, the trap was located within the forest. Sites where a lot of specimens

were collected on previous sampling and were near to different types of larval habitats (lagoons, river, bromeliads, ditches, pools, artificial containers) within each environment, were selected. The adults captured were taken to the laboratory in the collecting net, killed with ethyl acetate, identified and counted. Identification of collected individuals was based on dichotomous keys (Faran, 1980; Darsie, 1985; Linthicum, 1988; Consoli and Lourenço De Oliveira, 1994). The specimens are deposited in the Instituto de Medicina Regional, Universidad Nacional del Nordeste, in the province of Chaco.

### 2.3. Data analysis

The nonparametric richness estimator ACE (Abundance-based coverage estimator, Chao and Lee, 1992) was calculated to measure completeness of the mosquito inventory (Colwell and Coddington, 1994). This analysis was performed using the free EstimateS v9.1.0 software (<http://purl.oclc.org/estimates>; Colwell, 2013).

Alpha diversity was estimated by specific richness (S) and the method proposed by Jost (2006), who introduced the term true diversity:

$${}^qD = \left( \sum_{i=1}^S p_i^q \right)^{1/(1-q)}$$

where  ${}^qD$  is the true diversity,  $p_i$  is the relative abundance—proportional abundance—of  $i$  species, S is the number of species and q is the order of diversity and defines the sensitivity of the index to the species relative abundance (Moreno, 2001; Jost, 2006, 2007; Tuomisto, 2010a,b; García-Morales et al., 2011). The value of the q parameter determines how much the measure of diversity is influenced by common or rare species (Hill, 1973). The result is shown as the “effective number of species” or “real diversity” (Jost, 2006). This way of expressing the diversity of a community complies with the duplication property described by Hill (1973). This allows us to unify the analysis by making the diversity results comparable, as well as to get a direct and simpler interpretation about the difference in diversity between 2 or more communities (Jost, 2007, 2010; Moreno et al., 2011).

In order to compare the composition, abundance and uniformity of species among environments, range-abundance curves were used (Feinsinger, 2001). Relative abundance of species against their range was illustrated, from the most to the least abundant species (Urbina-Cardona et al., 2008).

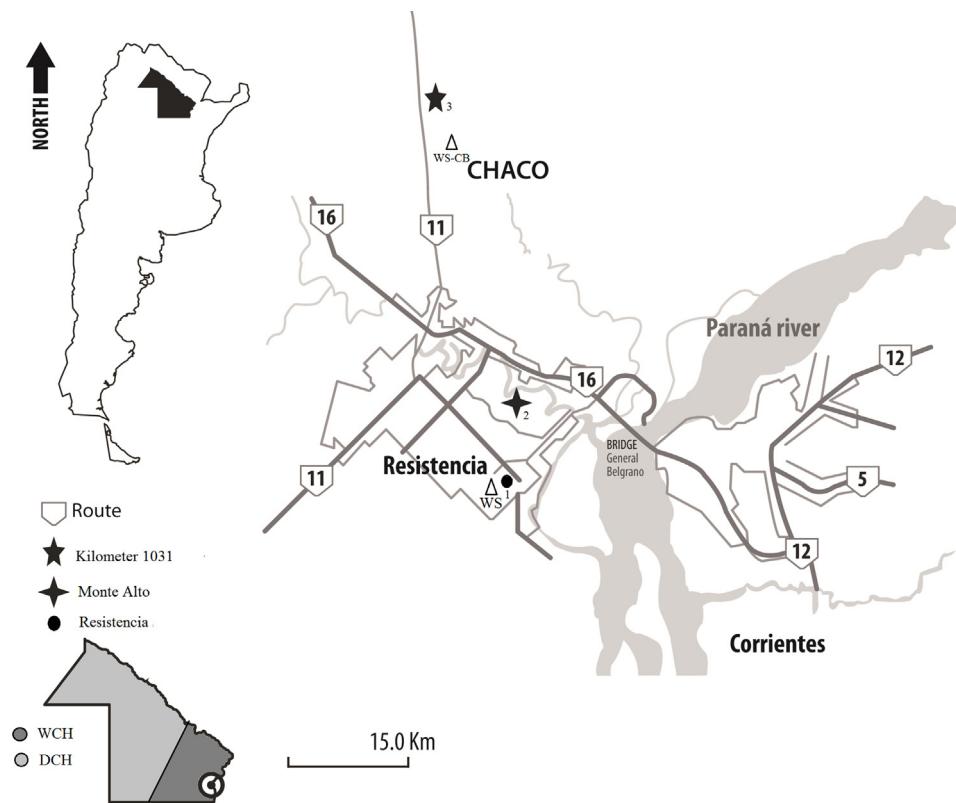
Also, the beta ( $\beta$ ) diversity among environments was estimated by means of the complementarity index or the dissimilarity percentage, as follows:

$$(C_{jk}) C = \left[ \frac{(S_j + S_k) - 2V_{jk}}{(S_j + S_k) - V_{jk}} \right] \times 100$$

where  $S_j$  and  $S_k$  is the number of species in sites j and k, and  $V_{jk}$  is the number of species in common in both sites. This index measures the degree of dissimilarity or similarity in species composition between pairs of biota, (Colwell and Coddington, 1994). When both communities are identical, the result is 0, and when species of both sites are completely different, the result is 1. It was shown as the percentage of species which are complementary among environments.

The synanthropy of the different species was estimated using the Nuorteva Index (Forattini et al., 1993). The relative abundance (%) of species common to the 3 sampling sites was analysed based on the following equation:

$$s = \frac{2a + b - 2c}{2}$$



**Fig. 1.** Location in Argentina. Province of Chaco. Sampling sites: Resistencia (1), Monte Alto (2) and Kilometer 1031 (3). WS: weather station in Resistencia; WS-CB: weather station in Colonia Benítez. Modified Stein et al. (2013).

where  $s$  is the synanthropic index,  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  represent the percentage of each species in the urban, semi-urban and wild environment, respectively. The resulting values range between –100 and 100, the latter being the maximum synanthropic value.

To determine if the relation between climatic variables (rainfall, mean temperature and relative humidity) and abundance of adults changed monthly or annually, a multilevel model was used. This was a multilevel regression model with Poisson distribution, monthly variable rate, random coefficient or intercept. The software used was HLM6, which uses penalised quasi-likelihood (PQL) estimators (Raudenbush and Bryk, 2002; Bolker et al., 2011).

Two levels were considered for the model, level 1 with units in months, and level 2 with units in years. The incidence rate ratio (IRR), standard error (SE) values and  $p$  values were obtained. The IRR enabled the direct observation of the influence percentage of each climatic variable on the mosquito species abundance. To handle the missing data originated during year 2002, the multiple imputation method was used to estimate the missing data with the R software and the mi program (which uses an algorithm known as chained equation approach) (van Buuren and Oudshoorn, 2000; Su et al., 2011).

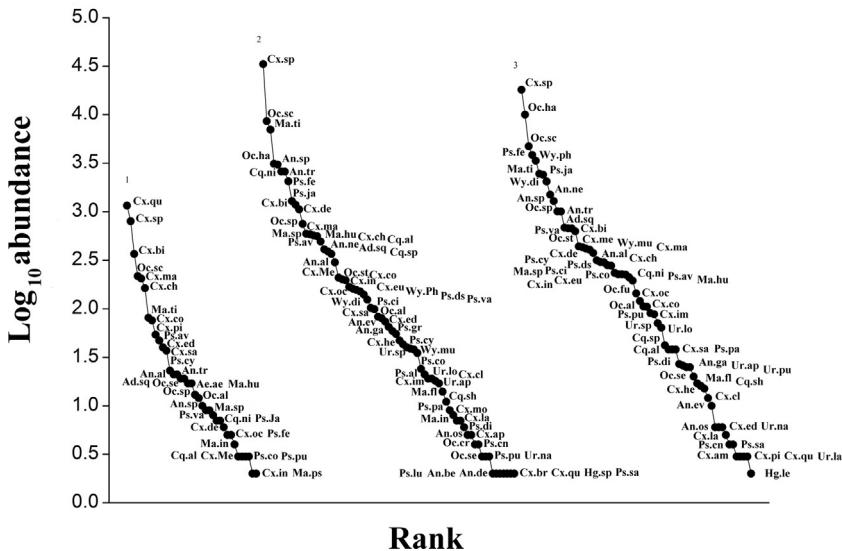
To assess the reliability of the imputed data, the regression model was applied both to missing and imputed data resulting in a very acceptable level of reliability in all cases, determined by the relative change in IRR values and considering as acceptable changes not exceeding 10%. The meteorological data for the sampling period were obtained from the weather station of the Departamento de Hidráulica, Facultad de Ingeniería, Universidad Nacional del Nordeste, located in the university campus, in the city of Resistencia. For species of the Aedini tribe, *Ochlerotatus* was considered with genus status, as proposed by Reinert (2000).

### 3. Results

A total of 137,256 specimens, belonging to 82 species from 11 genera, were collected (Table 1). Although a great number of specimens from the *Culex* (*Culex*) were collected, the difficulties to identify females in these species, due to lack of clarity in key distinctive features, only enabled the identification of a great number of specimens to the genus level. Therefore, 6,263 specimens were identified to the species level for this genus and subgenus; 89.27% of the specimens were identified to the subgenus level (*Culex* spp.) (Table 1). On the other hand, a percentage of these (21.74%) could only be identified to the genus level due to damage to their morphological characteristics. The cause of damage, could be the large number of mosquitoes collected in one sampling, which sometimes exceeded 3,000 per CDC trap.

#### 3.1. Diversity and richness at each environment

According to the richness estimator calculated, representation of the sampling in environment 2 was 99% (ACE = 74.5), while in environment 3 it was 89% (ACE = 81.13) and finally, completeness in environment 1 was 86% (ACE = 53.6), showing only in 2 a number of species same to that found in the field. The greatest specific richness and abundance of individuals was registered in environment 2 ( $S = 74$ ; 73,361 individuals), followed by environment 3 ( $S = 72$ ; 60,401 individuals) and environment 1 ( $S = 46$ ; 3,494 individuals) (Table 1). As regards species diversity, the effective number of species was higher in environment 3 ( $D = 13.94$  effective species), followed by environment 1 ( $D = 9.34$  effective species), the first one being 1.5 times more diverse, while environment 2 ( $D = 9.1$  effective species) is 1.53 times less diverse than environment 3, with a 35% reduction in “mosquitoes” diversity in relation to the most diverse environment. Environments 2



**Fig. 2.** Range-abundance curves for the species captured in three environments with different degrees of anthropic disturbance in the province of Chaco, Argentina. 1: urban environment; 2: semi-urban environment; 3: wild environment. Species with 0 log (abundance = 1) were not included. (1 = *An.ev*; *Cx.eu*; *Cx.he*; *Cx.la*; *Oc.st*; *Ps.c*; *Ps.ds*; *Ps.Gr* and *Ur.l*; 2 = *Ma.ps*; *Ur.ge* y *Wy.me*; 3 = *An.ro*; *Ma.in*; *Ma.ps*; *Oc.cr*; *Ps.al*; *Wy.me* and *Wy.wy*).

Codes for species: *Ad. squamipennis*: Ad. sq; *Ae. aegypti*: Ae. ae; *An. albitaris*: An. al; *An. benarrochi*: An. be; *An. deaneorum*: An. de; *An. evansae*: An. ev; *An. galvaoi*: An. ga; *An. neomaculipalpus*: An. ne; *An. oswaldoi*: An. os; *An.rondoni*: An. ro; *An. triannulatus*: An. tr; *An. (Nys.) spp.*: An. sp; *Cq. albicosta*: Cq. al; *Cq. nigricans*: Cq. ni; *Cq. shannoni*: Cq. sh; *Cq. spp.*; *Cq. sp*; *Cx. ameliae*: Cx. am; *Cx. apicinus*: Cx. ap; *Cx. bidens*: Cx. bi; *Cx. brethesi*: Cx. br; *Cx. chidesteri*: Cx. ch; *Cx. clarki*: Cx. cl; *Cx. coronator*: Cx. co; *Cx. delpontei*: Cx. de; *Cx. eduardoi*: Cx. ed; *Cx. educator*: Cx. eu; *Cx. hepperi*: Cx. he; *Cx. imitator*: Cx. im; *Cx. intrincatus*: Cx. in; *Cx. lahilie*: Cx. la; *Cx. maxi*: Cx. ma; *Cx. mollis*: Cx. mo; *Cx. occossa*: Cx. oc; *Cx. pilosus*: Cx. pi; *Cx. quinquefasciatus*: Cx. qu; *Cx. saltanensis*: Cx. sa; *Cx. (Cux.) spp.*: Cx. sp; *Cx. (Mel.) spp.*: Cx. Me; *Hg. spegazzini*: Hg. sp; *Hg. leucocelaenus*: Hg. le; *Ma. flaveola*: Ma. fl; *Ma. humeralis*: Ma. hu; *Ma. indubitans*: Ma. in; *Ma. pseudotitillans*: Ma. ps; *Ma. titillans*: Ma. ti; *Ma. spp.*: Ma. sp; *Oc. albifasciatus*: Oc. al; *Oc. crinifer*: Oc. cr; *Oc. fulvus*: Oc. fu; *Oc. hastatus/oligopistus*: Oc. ha; *Oc. scapularis*: Oc. sc; *Oc. serratus*: Oc. se; *Oc. stigmaticus*: Oc. st; *Oc. spp.*: Oc. sp; *Ps. albigena/varipes*: Ps. av; *Ps. albipes*: Ps. al; *Ps. ciliata*: Ps. ci; *Ps. cingulata*: Ps. cn; *Ps. confinis*: Ps. co; *Ps. cyanescens*: Ps. cy; *Ps. dimidiata*: Ps. di; *Ps. discrucians*: Ps. ds; *Ps. ferox*: Ps. fe; *Ps. lutzae*: Ps. lu; *Ps. pallescens*: Ps. pa; *Ps. palli*: Ps. pu; *Ps. saeva*: Ps. sa; *Ps. varinervis*: Ps. va; *Ps. (Gra.) spp.*: Ps. Gr; *Ps. (Jan.) spp.*: Ps. Ja; *Ur. apicalis*: Ur. ap; *Ur. geometrica*: Ur. ge; *Ur. lanei*: Ur. la; *Ur. lowii*: Ur. lo; *Ur. nataliae*: Ur. na; *Ur. pulcherrima*: Ur. pu; *Ur. spp.*: Ur. sp; *Wy. diabolica*: Wy. di; *Wy. melanocephala*: Wy. me; *Wy. muelhensi*: Wy. mu; *Wy. (Pho.) spp.*: Wy. Ph; *Wy. (Wyo.) spp.*: Wy. Wy.

and 3 showed *Cx. (Cux.) spp.* (2: 33,379 individuals,  $\ln_{10} = 4.5$ ; 3: 18,051 individuals,  $\ln_{10} = 4.3$ ) was at the highest level of the curve (Fig. 2). Environment 3 showed a slightly less pronounced curve, with *An. neomaculipalpus* Curry, *Oc. hastatus/oligopistus* Dyar/Dyar, *Oc. scapularis* (Rondani), *Ps. ferox* (Von Humboldt), *Wy. diabolica* Lane and Forattini and *Ma. titillans* (Walker), at high levels of the curve and a greater number of species in common with environment 2 at intermediate areas of the curve (Fig. 2). With a similar curve *An. triannulatus* (Neiva and Pinto) and *Cq. nigricans* (Coquillet) were dominant in the environment 2 (Fig. 2). Within the rare species range, environments 2 and 3 also shared a great number of species: *An. oswaldoi* (Peryassu), *Cx. quinquefasciatus* Say, *Ma. pseudotitillans* (Theobald), *Ps. saeva* Dyar and Knab, *Ps. cingulata* (Fabricius).

Environment 1 showed a pronounced curve, with *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (1,154 individuals,  $\ln_{10} = 3.1$ ) at the highest level (Fig. 2).

As for beta ( $\beta$ ) diversity, environment 1 was the one showing higher complementarity, with 42% dissimilarity as compared to environment 2, and 41% as compared to environment 3. Environments 2 and 3, on the other hand, shared a great number of species, indicating low complementarity (20%) or greater similarity between them.

The highest degree of synanthropy was for *Ae. aegypti* (Linneaus) and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* species. Whereas other species such as *Oc. hastatus/oligopistus* or *Oc. stigmaticus* Edwards, showed very low values (Table 1).

### 3.2. Seasonality and influence of environmental variables on the abundance of mosquito species

Monthly mean temperature, mean rainfall and relative humidity data from the sampling period are shown in Fig. 3. Seasonal

patterns were not different between environments so they were analyzed as a whole. Species with abundances exceeding 1% in the different environments studied were analysed. The effects of environmental variables on species abundance were analysed as a single site, since rainfall, relative humidity and mean temperature records from the two weather stations consulted, i.e. Resistencia ( $27^{\circ}30'S\ 59^{\circ}W$ ) and Colonia Benitez ( $27^{\circ}19'25.95''S\ 58^{\circ}57'8.36''W$ ) (closer to environment 3) (Fig. 1), correlated positively and significantly ( $r = 0.89$ ;  $r = 0.84$ ;  $r = 0.86$ , respectively  $P < 0.05$ ). All three climatic variables showed a positive and significant effect of month and year on the abundance of most of the analysed species. Table 2 shows annual mean values for the effect of the different climatic variables on Culicidae abundances.

*Culex quinquefasciatus*, *Cx. bidens* Dyar, *Cx. chidesteri* Dyar, *Cx. coronator* Dyar and Knab and *Cx. maxi* Dyar, were captured every month of the year and, like most of the species from the same genus, with occasional very marked abundance fluctuations, sometimes reaching very low or zero levels in captures following the peaks of abundance (Fig. 4). In some cases, these reductions occurred the following month, and in other cases they occurred after two or three months. Species from the *Melanoconion* subgenus were more abundant in autumn (Fig. 4) and, unlike species from the *Culex* subgenus, they were scarce in winter. Overall, species from the *Culex* genus were positively influenced by temperature and relative humidity, with the exception of *Cx. chidesteri* and *Cx. maxi* ( $P < 0.001$ ). The IRR showed that a rise of 1 °C resulted in a reduction of abundance of 5% and 3% for these two species, respectively. *Ochlerotatus* and *Psorophora* species were captured mainly in spring–summer–autumn (October–April). As an exception, *Oc. albifasciatus* (Macquart) was mainly captured in winter. *Ochlerotatus hastatus/oligopistus* and *Oc. scapularis* were captured

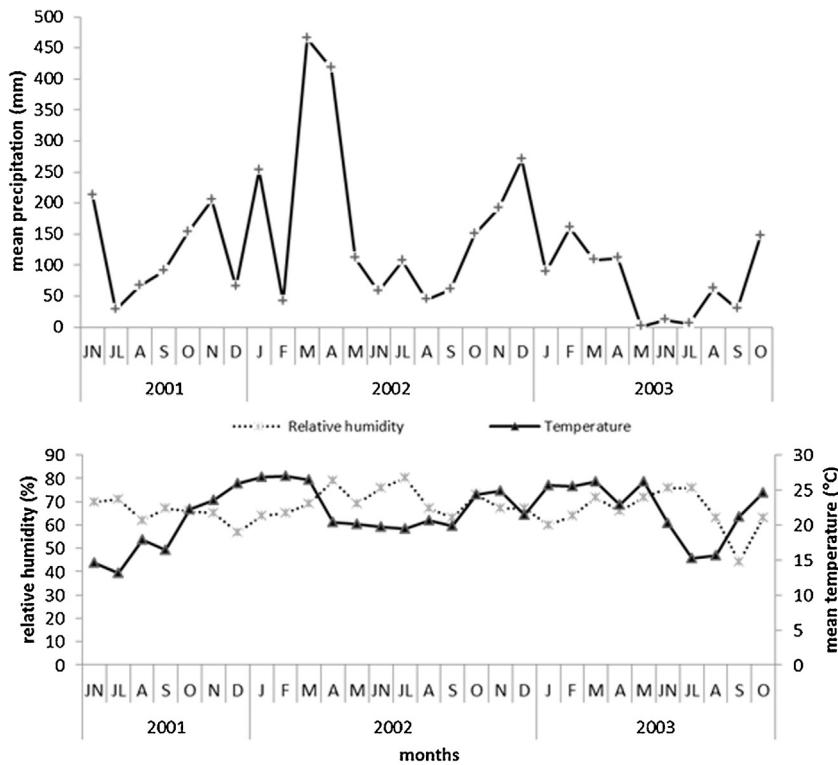


Fig. 3. Monthly variation of mean rainfall (mm), mean temperature and relative humidity from June 2001 to October 2003, in the study area.

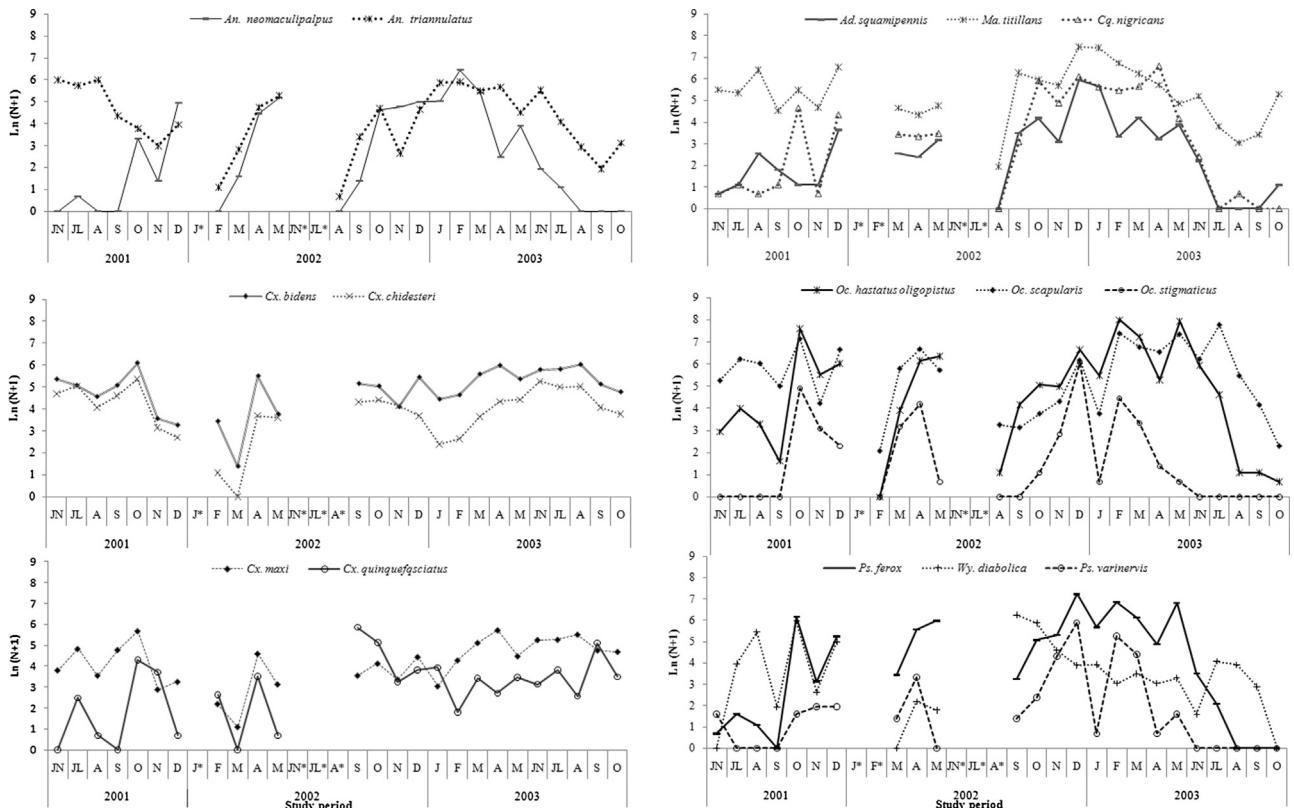


Fig. 4. Monthly mosquito abundance in the urban environment, recorded from June, 2001 to October 2003. \*: technical failures of the traps and difficulty accessing the mosquito collection sites did not allow the sampling.

in all four seasons, showing greater abundance in autumn (Fig. 4). Although *Ochlerotatus* species were positively and significantly affected mainly by temperature and relative humidity, *Oc. stigmati-*

*cus* was negatively affected by the last variable ( $P < 0.001$ ) (Table 2). *Psorophora ferox* showed picks of abundance in spring, summer and autumn, slightly decreasing the captures the next month after

**Table 1**

Adult mosquitoes captured in three different environments in the province of Chaco, Argentina.

Species	Environments			
	1	2	3	SI
<i>Ad. squamipennis</i>	19	366	685	-45.14
<i>Ae. aegypti</i>	17			100.00
<i>An. albitalis</i>	21	209	315	-34.77
<i>An. benarrochi</i>		2		1.00
<i>An. deaneorum</i>		2		50.00
<i>An. evansae</i>	1	59	10	29.29
<i>An. galvaoi</i>		47	26	-3.42
<i>An. neomaculipalpus</i>		389	1496	-69.05
<i>An. oswaldoi</i>		5	6	-31.82
<i>An. rondoni</i>			1	-1.00
<i>An. triannulatus</i>	21	2581	1002	8.59
<i>An. (Nys.) spp.</i>	10	3059	1287	5.80
<i>Cq. albicosta</i>	3	493	38	39.61
<i>Cq. nigricans</i>	7	2584	225	38.14
<i>Cq. shannoni</i>		11	16	-38.89
<i>Cq. spp.</i>		300	42	31.58
<i>Cx. ameliae</i>			3	-3.00
<i>Cx. apicinus</i>		5		2.50
<i>Cx. bidens</i>	366	1177	674	-4.68
<i>Cx. brethesi</i>		2		1.00
<i>Cx. chidesteri</i>	163	559	277	10.41
<i>Cx. clarki</i>		18	12	-10.00
<i>Cx. coronator</i>	76	168	105	6.84
<i>Cx. delpontei</i>	6	1053	415	7.76
<i>Cx. eduardoi</i>	40	55	6	-0.57
<i>Cx. educator</i>	1	151	227	-39.71
<i>Cx. hepperi</i>	1	40	15	12.10
<i>Cx. imitator</i>		19	88	-73.61
<i>Cx. intricatus</i>	2	161	227	-37.05
<i>Cx. lahillei</i>	1	7	5	-23.33
<i>Cx. maxi</i>	205	592	405	2.09
<i>Cx. mollis</i>		8		50.00
<i>Cx. ocossa</i>	5	156	120	-13.17
<i>Cx. pilosus</i>	54		3	89.47
<i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i>	1154	2	3	99.48
<i>Cx. saltanensis</i>	37	74	38	-10.10
<i>Cx. (Cux.) spp.</i>	797	33279	18051	-0.73
<i>Cx. (Mel.) spp.</i>	3	202	438	-56.94
<i>Hg. spegazzini</i>		2		-25.00
<i>Hg. leucocelaenus</i>			2	-2.00
<i>Ma. flaveola</i>		14	17	-32.26
<i>Ma. humeralis</i>	17	570	195	13.68
<i>Ma. indubitans</i>	4	7	1	54.17
<i>Ma. pseudotitillans</i>	2	1	1	37.50
<i>Ma. titillans</i>	81	7012	2461	11.79
<i>Ma. spp.</i>	9	585	281	2.34
<i>Oc. albifasciatus</i>	12	65	106	-33.61
<i>Oc. crinifer</i>		4	1	20.00
<i>Oc. fulvus</i>		80	144	-46.43
<i>Oc. hastatus/oligopistus</i>	9	3112	10025	-64.35
<i>Oc. scapularis</i>	217	8562	4720	-1.64
<i>Oc. serratus</i>	19	3	20	1.19
<i>Oc. stigmaticus</i>	1	197	628	-63.98
<i>Oc. spp.</i>	13	748	1005	-34.99
<i>Ps. albigena/varipes</i>	47	409	211	6.07
<i>Ps. albipes</i>		21	1	43.18
<i>Ps. ciliata</i>	1	83	300	-67.06
<i>Ps. cingulata</i>		4	4	-25.00
<i>Ps. confinis</i>	3	24	234	-83.91
<i>Ps. cyanescens</i>	23	39	375	-76.09
<i>Ps. dimidiata</i>		6	27	-72.73
<i>Ps. discrucians</i>	1	124	302	-55.97
<i>Ps. ferox</i>	5	2054	3848	-47.67
<i>Ps. lutzii</i>		2		1.00
<i>Ps. pallescens</i>		9	38	-71.28
<i>Ps. pauli</i>	3	3	90	-89.06
<i>Ps. saeva</i>		2	4	-50.00
<i>Ps. varinervis</i>	8	99	677	-79.02
<i>Ps. (Gra.) spp.</i>	1	43		51.14
<i>Ps. (Jan.) spp.</i>	7	1286	2400	-47.39
<i>Ur. apicalis</i>		17	25	-39.29
<i>Ur. geometrica</i>		1		0.50
<i>Ur. lanei</i>			3	-100.00
<i>Ur. lowii</i>	1	19	64	-63.69

**Table 1 (Continued)**

Species	Environments			
	1	2	3	SI
<i>Ur. nataliae</i>			3	6
<i>Ur. pulcherrima</i>				-50.00
<i>Ur. spp.</i>			25	-100.00
<i>Wy. diabolica</i>			38	-47.71
<i>Wy. melanocephala</i>			102	-92.87
<i>Wy. muehlensi</i>			1	-25.00
<i>Wy. (Pho.) spp.</i>			35	-88.71
<i>Wy. (Wyo.) spp.</i>			140	-93.98
<i>Individuals</i>			1	-100.00
		3494	73361	60401

Note: 1: Urban environment; 2: semi-urban environment; 3: wild environment; SI: synanthropic index.

Abbreviations: Ad: *Aedeomyia*; An: *Anopheles*; Cq: *Coquillettidia*; Cx: *Culex*; Cux: *Culex*; Gra: *Grahamia*; Hg: *Haemagogus*; Jan: *Janthinosa*; Ma: *Mansonia*; Mel: *Melanoconion*; Nys: *Nyssorhynchus*; Oc: *Ochlerotatus*; Ps: *Psorophora*; Ur: *Uranotaenia*; Wy: *Wyeomyia*; Wyo: *Wyeomyia*.

the peaks, while *Ps. albigena/varipes* (Peryassu)/(Coquillett), *Ps. cyanescens* (Coquillett) and *Ps. varinervis* Edwards reached zero or very low levels of abundance after picks of abundance (Fig. 4). *Psorophora* species were almost absent in winter. These were influenced by all three climatic variables. The IRR showed that *Ps. ferox* abundance increased 1.21 times with a temperature rise of 1° and 2.07 times with an increase of 10 units of rainfall ( $P < 0.001$ ); in the case of *Ps. albigena/varipes*, abundance increased 32% with a temperature rise of 1 °C (Table 2). *Coquillettidia albicosta* (Peryassu) and *Cq. nigricans* (Coquillett) showed a very similar temporal distribution pattern (Fig. 4). Both species were practically absent in winter months, they were more abundant from October to April. *Mansonia humeralis* Dyar and Knab and *Ma. titillans* Dyar & Shannon were captured every month of the year, the latter being more abundant in summer. *Aedeomyia squamipennis* (Arribalzaga) was more abundant in summer and autumn. The incidence rate ratio (IRR) showed that *Ad. squamipennis* and *Ma. titillans* abundances increased 16% for both species ( $P < 0.001$ ) with a mean temperature rise of 1 °C (Table 2). *Anopheles triannulatus* and *An. albitalis* (Arribalzaga) showed a similar distribution with peaks of abundance in each season (Fig. 4). Unlike the two previous species, *An. neomaculipalpus* Curry showed peaks of abundance in autumn and summer, and was hardly abundant or practically absent in winter. The abundances of the *Anopheles* species were mainly positively and significantly affected by relative humidity (Table 2).

#### 4. Discussion

The number of species found in this region ( $S=82$ ), was greater than the number found in the Guapiaçu Ecological Reserve (Brazil) ( $S=48$ ) (Alencar et al., 2015) which is considered a biodiversity hotspot within the Atlantic Forest, with tropical climate, but smaller than the number found by Ribeiro et al. (2012) ( $S=91$ ) in the super wet tropical marine climate of the district of Parelheiros, 60 km south of São Paulo, Brazil.

The semi-urban environment showed extremely high completeness, suggesting that the number of species is unlikely to grow, even if the sampling efforts were increased. The distribution of the abundances and hierarchical order of the species in the three environments shows that 2 and 3 are structured similarly, with certain unique characteristics, being different to environment 1. Environments 2 and 3 showed higher specific richness with species exclusive and/or specific to the habitat, such as those reared in the axils of Bromeliaceae (*Wyeomyia* spp., *Microculex* spp.), which are more sensitive to human induced changes. Terrestrial bromeliads are very abundant in the underwoodland of the environment 3 and 2, but are absent in urban environment.

**Table 2**

Relationship of environmental variables to the adult mosquito abundances captured in three different environments in the province of Chaco, Argentina.

Species	Statistical variables	Environmental variables		
		T° mean	RH	PP
<i>Ad. squamipennis</i>	Coef	0.148924	-0.005219	0.001226
	SE	0.01035	0.004165	0.000276
	IRR	1.16	0.99	1.001
	p	<0.001	NS	<0.001
<i>An. albitalis</i>	Coef	0.028991	0.031322	0.004207
	SE	0.017446	0.009639	0.000438
	IRR	1.03	1.03	1.004
	p	NS	<0.005	<0.001
<i>An. triannulatus</i>	Coef	0.063923	0.034097	0.000456
	SE	0.004339	0.002377	0.000169
	IRR	1.03	1.0005	1.56
	p	<0.001	<0.01	<0.001
<i>An. neomaculipalpus</i>	Coef	0.253246	0.061484	0.000533
	SE	0.007127	0.003502	0.000169
	IRR	1.29	1.06	1.001
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Cq. nigricans</i>	Coef	0.187494	0.030264	0.001784
	SE	0.006683	0.002935	0.000186
	IRR	1.21	1.03	1.002
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Cx. bidens</i>	Coef	0.009406	0.035319	-0.00072
	SE	0.003807	0.001929	0.000154
	IRR	1.01	1.04	0.999
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Cx. chidesteri</i>	Coef	-0.045253	0.051956	-0.00321
	SE	0.006388	0.003754	0.000295
	IRR	0.96	1.05	1.00
	p	<0.001	<0.001	NS
<i>Cx. coronator</i>	Coef	0.074888	0.112728	0.001266
	SE	0.029458	0.020310	0.001201
	IRR	1.07	1.10	1.003
	p	NS	<0.001	NS
<i>Cx. eduardoi</i>	Coef	0.14599	0.17834	0.007063
	SE	0.045025	0.029568	0.001252
	IRR	1.07	1.10	1.003
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Cx. delpontei</i>	Coef	0.382603	0.065915	0.001466
	SE	0.012519	0.005376	0.00028
	IRR	1.47	1.07	1.001
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Cx. maxi</i>	Coef	-0.020813	0.041260	0.002007
	SE	0.005261	0.002857	0.000249
	IRR	0.98	1.04	1.002
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i>	Coef	0.023201	-0.048849	-0.003371
	SE	0.010108	0.003602	0.000404
	IRR	1.02	0.95	0.997
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Ma. titillans</i>	Coef	0.153083	-0.009579	0.001034
	SE	0.003126	0.001359	0.000092
	IRR	1.17	0.99	1.001
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Oc. hastatus</i>	Coef	0.297623	0.09764	0.002756
	SE	0.003406	0.001796	0.000093
	IRR	1.35	1.10	1.003
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Oc. scapularis</i>	Coef	0.059525	0.087168	0.002131
	SE	0.002344	0.001529	0.000098
	IRR	1.06	1.09	1.002
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Oc. stigmaticus</i>	Coef	0.066402	-0.198451	0.019007
	SE	0.024663	0.014167	0.000972
	IRR	1.07	0.82	1.02
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Ps. ferox</i>	Coef	0.188194	0.057247	0.001706
	SE	0.004317	0.002176	0.000113
	IRR	1.21	1.06	1.002
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Ps. varinervis</i>	Coef	0.790199	-0.274894	0.033217
	SE	0.051898	0.022685	0.002116
	IRR	2.20	0.76	1.03
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001

Table 2 (Continued)

Species	Statistical variables	Environmental variables		
		T° mean	RH	PP
<i>Ps. albigena/varipes</i>	Coef	0.276337	0.202679	0.003435
	SE	0.01734	0.010878	0.000377
	IRR	1.32	1.22	1.003
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Wy. diabolica</i>	Coef	0.060918	-0.032085	-0.00233
	SE	0.006622	0.003585	0.000253
	IRR	1.06	0.97	1.00
	p	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<i>Wy. muelhensi</i>	Coef	0.024383	-0.014607	-0.006727
	SE	0.014845	0.007326	0.000697
	IRR	1.02	0.99	0.99
	p	NS	NS	<0.001

Note: Abbreviations: Coef: coefficient; SE: standard error; IRR: incidence rate ratio; p: probability value; T° mean: mean temperature; RH: relative humidity; PP: mean monthly precipitation; NS: not significant.

Most of the species from the *Ochlerotatus* and *Psorophora* genera showed synanthropy rates that place them in environments with low or zero anthropic disturbance, as stated by other authors (Hack et al., 1978; Ronderos et al., 1992). These species breed in temporary pools (Stein et al., 2011), the eggs hatch when their habitats are flooded (Forattini, 2002), which can remain longer in less modified environments, due to higher cover plant, in relation to the environment 1, that was observed in this study. Like other authors, we observed that, *Psorophora* species and some *Ochlerotatus* species *Oc. stigmaticus* after reaching peaks of abundance, decreased significantly until they completely disappeared (Guimaraes and Arlé, 1984; Ronderos et al., 1992; Almirón and Brewer, 1995; Guimaraes et al., 2000b; Méndez et al., 2001). Mean temperatures and rainfall were the two environmental variables that had a more substantial influence on fluctuations in abundance of these species throughout the year, in coincidence with Alencar et al. (2015). The highest abundances of these species were observed during the rainy and warm season, and they disappear completely in winter.

*Ochlerotatus hastatus/oligopistus* showed the lowest synanthropy values in this study, so this species does not adjust to human-modified environments, although we consider its biology requires further study. Stein et al. (2011) found this species rearing only in temporary pools, in the study area. Forattini et al. (1995a) found it with frequencies below 1% in agricultural areas of Brazil. On the other hand *Oc. scapularis* showed synanthropy values that suggest a species which breeds well in slightly altered or pristine environments, and can also exist in very disturbed environments (Forattini et al., 1978, 1987, 1993, 1995b; 1997; Lourenço De Oliveira et al., 1985; Guimaraes et al., 1989; Natal et al., 1992; Da Silva and de Menezes, 1996; Tubaki et al., 2004; Alencar et al., 2015). This species was captured every month of the year with similar abundances, which were positively and significantly influenced by the three variables analysed. It is also reported in different investigations (Hack et al., 1978; Lourenço De Oliveira et al., 1985; Forattini et al., 1995b; Guimaraes et al., 2000b). *Ochlerotatus hastatus/oligopistus* showed this behaviour too in the study area. The low abundance of *Oc. albifasciatus* founded in this study, the main vector of west equine encephalitis in Argentina (Avilés et al., 1992), makes us believe that the climatic conditions of the study area is not suitable for reproduction of the species. The species showed greater abundance in winter, in contrast to findings in temperate climates, where shows higher abundance during summer (Ludueña Almeida and Gorla, 1995; Gleiser et al., 1997, 2002; Almirón et al., 2000; Fontanarrosa et al., 2000). Different studies pointed factors favourable for the breeding of the species, such as breeding sites remaining dry for long periods, and for the hatching of eggs (Ludueña Almeida and Gorla, 1995; García and Micieli, 2000;

Fontanarrosa et al., 2000). Almirón et al. (2000) found a significant correlation between the daily relative density of *Oc. albifasciatus* females and the permanence of water in breeding sites. In the study area, rainfall is scarce during early spring, thus developmental success is rather unpredictable for individuals hatched during this period because insufficient water supply and high insolation, in wet season, cause the rapid drying of larval habitats (Giménez et al., 2015).

Some authors suggest that human interference in the natural environment can lead to the elimination and/or modification or substitution of habitats, with the subsequent loss of richness in the existing Culicidae fauna, although the conditions are also favourable for the settling of exotic or opportunist species well-adjusted to disturbed environments (Consoli and Lourenço De Oliveira, 1994; Dorvillé, 1996; Forattini, 2002).

High abundance of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* in environment 1 is consistent with other findings (Castro Gomes et al., 1987; Castro Gomes and de Forattini, 1990; Ronderos et al., 1991; Campos et al., 1993; Almirón and Brewer, 1995; Lopes et al., 1995; Guimaraes et al., 2000a; Pires and Gleiser, 2010), showing the high adaptation of this species in this one. In coincidence with other studies Stein et al., (2011) collect *Cx. quinquefasciatus* mainly from artificial larval habitats, from ditches with turbid and sewage water with unpleasant odour and solid wastes, in Resistencia city (Oria et al., 2002; Oria and Oscherow 2002; Pires and Gleiser, 2010; Burke et al., 2010). *Aedes aegypti* was an exclusive species of this environment too and its adaptation is well documented in our country (Vezzani and Carbojao, 2008).

Otherwise, *Cx. bidens* and *Cx. chidesteri* are noted for being rarely found in wild environments and for showing a higher level of adjustment to more urban environments (Castro Gomes and de Forattini, 1990). In this study, however, they were very abundant in environments 2 and 3, with synanthropy rates that identify them as eusynanthropic species. These species were collected mainly in ditches and lagoons in the study area respectively (Stein et al., 2011), being more affected by the presence of solid wastes. As found in other studies, *Cx. maxi* and *Cx. bidens* show recurring peaks of abundance without disappearing completely (Almirón and Brewer, 1994, 1995; Maciá et al., 1995; Fisher and Schweigmann, 2004). For *Cx. quinquefasciatus* and *Cx. bidens*, rainfall had a negative and significant effect on abundance. This could be explained by a negative, or washing, effect of rainfall on the larval habitats, like ditches or pools, where these two species were mainly found in the study area (Stein et al., 2011). The same effect was observed for *Wyeomyia* species which abundance can be affected by the washing of their larval micro-habitats in periods of increased rainfall (autumn), being more abundant in months with higher temperatures (spring–summer) and less rainfall. This effect is also observed for some *Anopheles* species in the northwest of Argentina (Dantur Juri et al., 2014). *Culex quinquefasciatus* should be given special attention for its role as vector of the Saint Louis Encephalitis virus during the unprecedented outbreak for South America and Argentina occurring in Córdoba (Spinsanti et al., 2005), by isolating two genotype III strains from *Cx. quinquefasciatus* and *Cx. interfor* (*Cx. bidens* complex) mosquitoes (Díaz et al., 2006; Diaz, 2009).

The niche diversification hypothesis holds that diversity depends on the range of habitats or the degree of specialization of resident species. According to this hypothesis, more stable or less disturbed environments would have higher diversity (Alencar et al., 2015). This would explain what was found in environment 3, with the higher effective number of species. Ronderos et al. (1992), on the other hand, state that even under similar weather conditions, existing vegetation and terrain conditions, the high degree of environmental heterogeneity resulting from anthropic disturbance offers different possibilities of larval habitats, which is eventually favourable for greater diversity (Ribeiro et al., 2012). We consider

that environmental heterogeneity was underestimated in environment 1, thus the lower completeness estimated, however showed,  $\alpha$  diversity slightly bigger than environment 2. New studies, with greater sampling effort, should therefore consider this characteristic, as this might allow the possibility to detect other existing species not found in this study. The environment 2 had lower diversity and greater abundance of Culicidae, could be explained in part by the less equity in the distribution of abundances of the dominant species, which are favored when disturbance is neither too rare nor too frequent (Connell, 1978).

In this study, the mean temperature variable was the most closely linked to *Cq. nigricans*, *Ma. titillans*, and *Ad. squamipennis* abundance fluctuations. Higher abundance of these species in summer is consistent with higher temperatures and increased blooming of *Pistia stratiotes* L. in lakes from environments 2 and 3 from where we collected the larvae of two last species (Stein et al., 2011). Contrary to our findings in this study, Alencar et al. (2015) found specimens from the Mansoniini tribe more associated with the environment with higher anthropic disturbance.

Temperature had an important effect on the abundance of *An. triannulatus*, and relative humidity on *An. neomaculipalpus*. *Anopheles triannulatus* is the dominant species of the genus. It is considered a species capable of adjusting to sudden human-induced environmental changes, and is given the role of auxiliary regional vector of malaria in Brazil (Consoli and Lourenço De Oliveira, 1994). This species showed high selection by human bait in the study area (Stein et al., 2013). This species is found mainly in lagoon in the study area which is a more stable habitat (Stein et al., 2011). Given this background, further studies need to be conducted in relation to their *Plasmodium* parasites transmission capabilities, and to have a deeper knowledge of their biology. *Anopheles neomaculipalpus* was mainly found in temporary pools in environment 2 and 3 (Stein et al., 2011), its higher abundance being therefore observed in summer and autumn (associated to rainy and warm season) and hardly represented in winter. The species was described from specimens collected in Panamá, where larvae were taken from cattle footprints exposed to the sunlight in low marshy pastures. Dantur Juri et al. (2011) found the species in bordering the forest, with typical marshy areas where cattle graze.

Hack et al. (1978) and Forattini et al. (1993) capture *An. albitalis* and *An. triannulatus* mainly in autumn and winter. In this study, they showed peaks of abundance in the four seasons. Unlike the ones registered in tropical forest areas of Brazil (Alencar et al., 2015), low abundances of *An. albitalis* found in this study suggest that the environments studied are not the most suitable habitats for a high reproduction of the species, which would require an environment with longer and more frequent periods of flooding (Lopes and Lozovei, 1995).

Consistent with other investigations, we found species from the *Melanoconion* subgenus mainly in less anthropic environments (Forattini et al., 1991; Ribeiro et al., 2012). All three climatic variables analysed had a positive and significant effect on abundance of *Cx. delpontei*, the most abundant species from this subgenus. Some *Melanoconion* species play an important role in the maintenance of arboviruses enzootic cycles (Natal, 1981; Mitchell et al., 1985; Forattini et al., 1991).

It should be noted that, in addition to the known vectors of arboviruses in our country (Mitchell et al., 1980; Avilés et al., 1992; Sabattini et al., 1998; Díaz et al., 2008; Vezzani and Carbojao, 2008; Diaz, 2009), a remarkable number of species of epidemiological significance were found in this study. *Ochlerotatus scapularis* is a potential vector of filarias and arboviruses in the Neotropics (Mitchell and Forattini, 1984; Mitchell et al., 1986; Forattini et al., 1995a; Forattini, 2002). *Mansonia titillans*, *Oc. scapularis* and *Ps. ferox* have been found naturally infected with the Venezuelan equine encephalitis virus (VEEV), Rocio virus and UNA (Forattini

et al., 1978, 1987, 1995b, 1997; Lopes et al., 1981; Travassos da Rosa et al., 1998; Méndez et al., 2001; Forattini, 2002). In the United States, the West Nile virus was isolated from *Cx. pipiens* and *Ps. ferox* after the first great outbreak registered in birds, horses and humans (CDC, 2000). Mosquitoes belonging *Wyeomyia* species collected in tropical rain forest have been found infected with several arboviruses (Motta et al., 2007). Dutary et al. (1989) isolated the Gamboa virus from *Ad. squamipennis* mosquitoes. The subtype Laguna Larga of the Cache-Valley virus was isolated from *Oc. albifasciatus* and a variety of the Maguari subtype from *Ps. varinervis*. Serological studies revealed that this virus is widely spread in our country (Sabattini et al., 1998). Both *Anopheles triannulatus* and *An. albitalis* play a secondary role in malaria transmission in South America when present in high densities, and *An. neomaculipalpus* is also considered to play a role in the transmission of malaria in some regions of the Americas (Curto et al., 2003; Moreno et al., 2005; Póvoa et al., 2006; Zimmerman et al., 2006). Pisano et al. (2010) found *Oc. hastatus/oligopistus*, *Cx. coronator*, *Cx. maxi* y *Ps. cingulata* capture in the study area, infected with Venezuelan Equine Encephalitis complex viruses. Species of *Anopheles*, *Aedes*, *Culex*, and *Uranotaenia* were found infected with uncharacterised viruses from the Bunyaviridae, Coronaviridae, Flaviviridae, and Rhabdoviridae families in the forests of Western Africa (Junglen et al., 2009).

In conclusion, the most conserved environments showed greater richness and abundance of species, share 80% of them. Some of them are absent or less abundant in the urban environment, suggesting a high susceptibility to anthropogenic changes, mainly associated with the availability of larval habitats. The presence of these species could be an indicator of slightly disturbed environments, which can play a role in maintaining arbovirus enzootic cycles. On the other hand the environmental changes caused by humans increase the abundance of opportunistic and exotic species such as *Cx. quinquefasciatus* and *Ae. aegypti* (Guimaraes et al., 2000b) and its consequences on the health of the population. Therefore, the data provided by this research could contribute to potential disease control programmes and they reinforce the need to conduct further studies on the biology of these species since continuous or bigger environmental changes caused by human activity could cause new epidemiological scenarios. It is necessary entomological and control monitoring by health authorities to detect new species possibly involved in pathogen transmission in our country, and whose role has not yet been revealed.

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