***Review Article***

**Mosquito Ecology and Disease Transmission: Implications for Global Health and Vector Control**

**Abstract:**
Mosquitoes are primary vectors of numerous vector-borne diseases, including malaria, dengue, Zika virus, and chikungunya. Their biology, behavior, and ecological adaptations significantly influence disease transmission dynamics. Environmental factors such as temperature, humidity, and urbanization, along with anthropogenic activities like deforestation and climate change, have contributed to the expansion of mosquito populations into new geographic regions, leading to increased outbreaks. Understanding mosquito ecology is essential for the development of innovative and sustainable vector control strategies, including genetic modification, biological control agents, and targeted insecticide applications. This study explores the intricate relationship between mosquito ecology and disease transmission, emphasizing the need for integrated and adaptive approaches to mitigate the global burden of mosquito-borne diseases.

**Keywords:**
Mosquito ecology, vector-borne diseases, disease transmission, malaria, dengue, Zika virus, chikungunya, climate change, vector control, genetic modification, biological control.

### Introduction

Mosquitoes are among the most significant vectors of infectious diseases worldwide, transmitting a wide range of pathogens responsible for serious illnesses such as malaria, dengue fever, Zika virus, chikungunya, yellow fever, and various other vector-borne diseases. These tiny yet formidable insects have a profound impact on public health, contributing to significant morbidity and mortality, particularly in tropical and subtropical regions [1-3]. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that mosquito-borne diseases affect millions of people annually, placing an enormous burden on healthcare systems, economies, and communities, especially in low- and middle-income countries.

The ability of mosquitoes to thrive in diverse environments is largely attributed to their ecological adaptability, feeding behavior, and reproductive strategies. Different species of mosquitoes exhibit distinct breeding preferences, ranging from stagnant water bodies to artificial containers and urban drainage systems [4-5]. Their host-seeking behavior is influenced by environmental cues such as carbon dioxide emissions, body heat, and human scents, which play a vital role in disease transmission. Moreover, mosquitoes not only impact human health but also play an essential role in ecosystems, serving as pollinators for certain plants and as a crucial food source for various predators, including birds, fish, and amphibians. Despite their ecological significance, their role as disease vectors has made their control a top priority in global public health initiatives.

Environmental and anthropogenic factors, including temperature, humidity, deforestation, urbanization, and climate change, have significantly influenced the geographic distribution and density of mosquito populations. Rising global temperatures and altered precipitation patterns have expanded the habitat ranges of many mosquito species, leading to the emergence and resurgence of vector-borne diseases in regions that were previously unaffected. Additionally, rapid urbanization and inadequate waste management have created new breeding sites for mosquitoes, further exacerbating disease transmission risks. Understanding mosquito ecology, behavior, and its role in disease transmission is crucial for developing sustainable and effective vector control strategies. Integrated approaches, including genetic modification, biological control, and targeted insecticide applications, are being explored to combat mosquito-borne diseases [6]. A comprehensive understanding of these factors is essential to mitigating the impact of mosquitoes on public health and reducing the global burden of vector-borne diseases.

**Table 1: Common Mosquito Species and Associated Diseases**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Mosquito Species | Primary Disease(s) Transmitted | Geographical Distribution |
| *Anopheles gambiae* | Malaria (*Plasmodium* spp.) | Africa, South Asia, South America |
| *Aedes aegypti* | Dengue, Zika, Chikungunya, Yellow Fever | Tropical & Subtropical Regions |
| *Aedes albopictus* | Dengue, Zika, Chikungunya | Asia, Americas, Europe, Africa |
| *Culex quinquefasciatus* | West Nile Virus, Lymphatic Filariasis | Worldwide (Urban & Rural) |
| *Culex pipiens* | West Nile Virus | North America, Europe, Asia |

**Table 2: Environmental Factors Influencing Mosquito Populations**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Factor | Effect on Mosquito Population & Disease Transmission |
| Temperature | Warmer temperatures accelerate mosquito breeding and shorten parasite development cycles. |
| Humidity | High humidity increases mosquito survival and activity levels. |
| Rainfall | Creates breeding sites in stagnant water, leading to population surges. |
| Urbanization | Increases artificial breeding habitats (e.g., containers, drains) and human-mosquito interactions. |
| Deforestation | Alters mosquito habitat, sometimes leading to the spread of species into new areas. |

**Table 3: Vector Control Strategies and Their Effectiveness**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Control Method | Mechanism | Effectiveness | Challenges |
| Insecticide Spraying | Kills adult mosquitoes | High in short term | Resistance development, environmental concerns |
| Biological Control (e.g., Larvivorous Fish, Bacteria) | Reduces larval survival | Moderate to high | Requires ecosystem-specific adaptations |
| Genetic Modification (Sterile Insect Technique) | Reduces reproductive success | Promising long-term solution | Expensive, regulatory concerns |
| Bed Nets & Protective Clothing | Prevents mosquito bites | Highly effective for malaria prevention | Requires behavioral compliance |
| Eliminating Breeding Sites | Removes mosquito habitats | Sustainable & cost-effective | Requires community participation |

### ****Mosquito Biology and Behavior****

Mosquitoes belong to the order Diptera and the family Culicidae, comprising over 3,500 identified species. However, only a few genera, including Anopheles, Aedes, and Culex, serve as primary vectors of human diseases. Their biology, feeding habits, and reproductive behaviors significantly influence disease transmission and the effectiveness of vector control strategies [7].

#### **Life Cycle and Breeding Habits**

The mosquito life cycle consists of four distinct stages: **egg, larva, pupa, and adult**. The first three stages are **aquatic**, requiring stagnant or slow-moving water bodies such as ponds, marshes, puddles, and artificial containers for development. Female mosquitoes lay eggs either individually (Anopheles) or in clusters called rafts (Culex). Aedes species lay their eggs on moist surfaces, which hatch when they come into contact with water. Larvae, often called "wrigglers," are highly active and feed on organic matter and microorganisms in the water. After passing through several instars, larvae develop into pupae, known as "tumblers," which do not feed but undergo metamorphosis into adult mosquitoes [8].

The duration of the mosquito life cycle varies depending on **temperature, humidity, and availability of nutrients**, but under optimal conditions, it can be completed in as little as **7 to 10 days**. Warmer temperatures generally accelerate development, allowing mosquitoes to reproduce rapidly and increase their populations, thereby intensifying disease transmission risks.

#### **Feeding Behavior and Host Preferences**

Only female mosquitoes require blood meals for egg production, as blood provides essential proteins and nutrients for developing eggs. Male mosquitoes, in contrast, feed exclusively on nectar and plant sugars. Female mosquitoes seek hosts using a combination of **carbon dioxide detection, body heat sensing, and odor recognition**. Different species exhibit varying host preferences and feeding behaviors:

* **Anopheles spp.** – These are nocturnal feeders, primarily biting humans indoors or outdoors during the night. They are the primary vectors of **malaria**, transmitting Plasmodium parasites.
* **Aedes aegypti** – This species is a **diurnal feeder**, active during the **early morning and late afternoon**. It is the primary vector of **dengue, Zika virus, chikungunya, and yellow fever**.
* **Culex spp.** – These mosquitoes prefer birds as their primary hosts but also bite humans and other mammals. They are responsible for transmitting **West Nile virus, filariasis, and Japanese encephalitis**.

#### **Flight Patterns and Resting Behavior**

Mosquito flight activity is influenced by factors such as wind speed, humidity, and temperature. Most mosquito species have a **short flight range** of **1–5 km**, though some species can travel much greater distances in search of suitable breeding sites and hosts.

After feeding, mosquitoes exhibit **species-specific resting behavior**:

* **Anopheles mosquitoes** rest on walls, ceilings, and vegetation after taking a blood meal.
* **Aedes mosquitoes** tend to rest in shaded areas, such as under furniture or inside closets.
* **Culex mosquitoes** commonly rest in dark, humid environments, such as drainage pipes, basements, and dense vegetation.

#### **Reproductive Potential and Population Growth**

Mosquitoes are highly prolific, with **one female laying hundreds of eggs in a single reproductive cycle**. Under favorable conditions, mosquito populations can grow exponentially, especially in urban areas where artificial containers (e.g., discarded tires, water storage containers, and clogged drains) provide abundant breeding sites. Increased urbanization, deforestation, and climate change have further expanded mosquito habitats, leading to disease outbreaks in previously unaffected regions.

### ****Implications for Disease Control****

Understanding mosquito biology and behavior is crucial for designing **effective vector control strategies**. Control efforts can target different aspects of mosquito life, such as:

* **Eliminating breeding sites** by draining stagnant water and proper waste management.
* **Using insecticides and larvicides** to kill larvae before they mature into adults.
* **Deploying biological control agents**, such as predatory fish and bacteria (Bacillus thuringiensis israelensis), to reduce larval populations.
* **Personal protection measures**, including insecticide-treated bed nets (ITNs), repellents, and protective clothing.
* **Genetic modification techniques**, such as sterile insect techniques (SIT) and gene drive technology, to suppress mosquito populations.

By analyzing mosquito ecology and behavior, researchers and public health officials can develop **targeted interventions** to reduce disease transmission and mitigate the global burden of mosquito-borne illnesses.

### ****Environmental and Anthropogenic Influences on Mosquito Populations****

Mosquito populations and their ability to transmit diseases are heavily influenced by environmental and human-induced factors. Changes in climate, urban expansion, land-use patterns, pollution, and water quality significantly impact mosquito abundance, breeding sites, and the dynamics of disease transmission. These factors have contributed to the spread of vector-borne diseases into new regions, increasing public health concerns. Understanding these environmental and anthropogenic influences is essential for developing targeted mosquito control strategies and mitigating disease outbreaks.

#### **Climate Change and Mosquito Proliferation**

Climate change is one of the most significant drivers of mosquito population expansion and disease transmission. Rising global temperatures accelerate the **mosquito life cycle**, leading to shorter larval development periods and increased adult mosquito emergence. Warmer temperatures also influence the metabolic rate of mosquitoes, increasing their feeding frequency and enhancing the replication rates of pathogens within their bodies. For instance, malaria-causing Plasmodium parasites develop faster in Anopheles mosquitoes at higher temperatures, increasing the risk of transmission.

In addition to temperature changes, **shifts in precipitation patterns** affect mosquito breeding. Increased rainfall creates **more stagnant water sources**, providing ideal habitats for egg-laying and larval development. However, excessive flooding can wash away mosquito larvae, temporarily reducing populations. Conversely, prolonged droughts can concentrate water sources, leading to **higher mosquito densities in smaller breeding areas**, thus intensifying disease risks.

Climate change has also facilitated the **expansion of mosquito habitats into previously unsuitable regions**. Warmer temperatures have enabled Aedes, Anopheles, and Culex species to colonize higher altitudes and temperate zones, increasing the geographical range of diseases like malaria, dengue, and West Nile virus. This has led to outbreaks in regions that were historically free from these vector-borne diseases.

#### **Urbanization and Artificial Breeding Grounds**

Rapid urbanization has significantly altered mosquito habitats by creating artificial breeding sites that support their proliferation. Poorly planned urban environments often feature **stagnant water bodies**, including discarded plastic containers, water storage tanks, blocked drainage systems, and construction sites. These sites serve as ideal mosquito breeding grounds, especially for species like Aedes aegypti and Culex quinquefasciatus, which thrive in urban settings.

High human population density in urban areas also increases **host availability**, leading to higher mosquito biting rates and greater disease transmission. Additionally, **poor sanitation and waste disposal** contribute to the spread of mosquitoes, as improperly managed waste and sewage create standing water pools that sustain larval development.

The urban heat island effect—where cities retain more heat than surrounding rural areas—further exacerbates mosquito survival and activity. Elevated temperatures in urban centers **increase mosquito metabolism, shorten their reproductive cycles, and extend their active feeding periods**, intensifying the risk of disease outbreaks.

#### **Deforestation and Ecological Disruption**

Land-use changes, particularly deforestation, have altered the natural distribution of mosquito populations. Clearing forests for agriculture, logging, or infrastructure development **disrupts predator-prey dynamics**, reducing natural mosquito predators such as fish, dragonflies, and amphibians. In the absence of these predators, mosquito populations thrive, leading to increased disease transmission.

Deforestation also forces mosquito species to **adapt to human settlements**, increasing their contact with humans and livestock. Certain mosquito species, such as Anopheles darlingi in the Amazon and Anopheles gambiae in Africa, have adapted to deforested areas, shifting from forested habitats to human-made environments. This has contributed to the rise in malaria cases in regions undergoing deforestation.

Additionally, deforestation alters **local climate conditions**, increasing temperatures and modifying humidity levels, both of which favor mosquito survival. The loss of tree cover reduces natural water absorption, leading to **more standing water pools**, which become prime breeding habitats for mosquito larvae.

#### **Pollution, Water Quality, and Mosquito Breeding**

Water pollution and declining water quality play a critical role in shaping mosquito populations and their distribution. Different mosquito species exhibit varying tolerances to water pollution levels. While some species prefer **clean, unpolluted water sources**, others thrive in contaminated environments, including sewage and polluted drainage systems.

For example, Culex quinquefasciatus, a known vector of filariasis and West Nile virus, **breeds in highly polluted water bodies**, such as sewage lagoons, cesspools, and wastewater discharge sites. On the other hand, Anopheles species, which transmit malaria, prefer **clean, unpolluted water** for oviposition.

Chemical pollution from pesticides, industrial waste, and agricultural runoff can **alter mosquito population dynamics** by affecting larval survival rates and eliminating mosquito predators. In some cases, pollution reduces the effectiveness of biological control agents, such as fish and bacteria that prey on mosquito larvae. Additionally, the presence of organic pollutants provides a rich nutrient source for mosquito larvae, promoting their growth and survival.

#### **Anthropogenic Activities and Vector Control Challenges**

Human activities, including agriculture, irrigation projects, and dam construction, have unintentionally contributed to the expansion of mosquito populations. Large-scale irrigation schemes create **permanent water reservoirs**, which serve as year-round breeding habitats for mosquitoes. Dams and reservoirs have been associated with increased malaria transmission, as they create stable aquatic ecosystems that support the Anopheles mosquito lifecycle.

Furthermore, **unregulated use of insecticides and pesticides** in agriculture and mosquito control programs has led to the development of insecticide-resistant mosquito populations. Resistance to commonly used insecticides, such as pyrethroids and organophosphates, has been documented in Anopheles and Aedes species, reducing the effectiveness of chemical control measures. This necessitates the need for **integrated vector management approaches**, including the use of biological control agents, environmental management, and community-based interventions.

### ****Implications for Mosquito Control and Public Health****

The interplay between environmental and anthropogenic factors has made mosquito control increasingly complex. Effective vector management strategies must take into account:

* **Climate adaptation measures**, such as predictive modeling to anticipate mosquito population surges and disease outbreaks.
* **Urban planning initiatives** that incorporate mosquito control measures, such as improved drainage systems and waste management.
* **Sustainable land-use policies** to minimize the impact of deforestation and ecological disruption.
* **Integrated vector control programs** that combine biological, chemical, and environmental strategies to address mosquito breeding and disease transmission.
* **Community engagement and education** to encourage proactive mosquito control practices, such as proper waste disposal, use of insecticide-treated nets (ITNs), and personal protective measures.

By addressing both environmental and human-induced factors, public health agencies and policymakers can develop more effective strategies to reduce the global burden of mosquito-borne diseases. The ongoing challenges posed by climate change, urban expansion, and pollution require **multidisciplinary approaches** to mitigate the health risks associated with mosquito proliferation and disease transmission.

**Vector-Borne Disease Transmission Dynamics**

The transmission cycle of vector-borne diseases involves three key components: the pathogen, the mosquito vector, and the human host. The interaction between these components determines the epidemiology of mosquito-borne diseases:

* **Pathogen Development:** After ingesting an infected blood meal, the pathogen undergoes development within the mosquito before reaching the salivary glands. The time required for this process varies based on environmental conditions and the specific pathogen.
* **Host Availability:** The presence of susceptible human populations influences the spread of infections. High population density, inadequate sanitation, and lack of vector control measures contribute to disease outbreaks.
* **Mosquito Longevity:** The lifespan of a mosquito affects its ability to transmit pathogens. Longer-lived mosquitoes have a higher probability of completing the transmission cycle and infecting multiple hosts.

**Innovative Mosquito Control Strategies**

Traditional mosquito control measures, such as insecticide spraying, larval habitat reduction, and bed nets, have been effective in many regions. However, growing concerns over insecticide resistance and environmental sustainability have led to the exploration of innovative approaches:

* **Genetic Modification:** Scientists have developed genetically engineered mosquitoes, such as those carrying the *Wolbachia* bacterium, which reduces their ability to transmit diseases.
* **Biological Control Agents:** The use of natural predators like fish, dragonfly larvae, and microbial agents (*Bacillus thuringiensis israelensis*) has shown promise in reducing mosquito populations.
* **Sterile Insect Technique (SIT):** This involves releasing sterilized male mosquitoes into the wild, leading to unsuccessful reproduction and population decline.
* **Targeted Insecticide Use:** Advances in precision mosquito control, such as spatial repellents and insecticide-treated clothing, minimize human exposure while effectively reducing mosquito populations.

#### **Table 4: Major Mosquito Vector Species and Associated Diseases**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Mosquito Genus** | **Primary Species** | **Associated Diseases** | **Feeding Behavior** | **Peak Biting Time** |
| Anopheles | An. gambiae | Malaria | Human blood feeder | Night |
| Aedes | Ae. aegypti | Dengue, Zika, Chikungunya, Yellow Fever | Human blood feeder | Daytime |
| Culex | Cx. quinquefasciatus | West Nile Virus, Filariasis | Opportunistic feeder | Night |

#### **Table 5: Environmental and Anthropogenic Factors Influencing Mosquito Populations**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor** | **Impact on Mosquito Populations** | **Implications for Disease Transmission** |
| Climate Change | Increased temperatures, extended breeding seasons | Expanded geographical range of vector-borne diseases |
| Urbanization | Artificial breeding grounds (stagnant water, poor drainage) | Higher mosquito densities in urban areas |
| Deforestation | Habitat alteration, loss of mosquito predators | Increased human-mosquito interactions |
| Water Pollution | Breeding site availability for certain mosquito species | Enhanced transmission in polluted environments |

#### **Table 6: Mosquito Control Strategies and Their Effectiveness**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Control Method** | **Mechanism of Action** | **Advantages** | **Challenges** |
| Insecticide-treated nets (ITNs) | Physical and chemical barrier | Cost-effective, reduces mosquito bites | Requires community compliance |
| Larvicides (e.g., Bacillus thuringiensis) | Targets mosquito larvae in breeding sites | Environmentally friendly | Needs consistent application |
| Genetic Modification | Sterile insect technique, gene editing | Long-term population suppression | Ethical and ecological concerns |
| Biological Control (e.g., fish, bacteria) | Natural predators of mosquito larvae | Sustainable and eco-friendly | Limited effectiveness in certain environments |

These tables summarize key mosquito species, factors affecting their populations, and control strategies to aid in understanding the complexity of mosquito-borne disease prevention and management.

**Conclusion**

Mosquitoes remain a formidable challenge in global public health due to their role in vector-borne disease transmission. Their ecological adaptability, influenced by environmental and anthropogenic changes, has led to increased disease risks worldwide. Understanding mosquito behavior, breeding patterns, and environmental interactions is crucial for developing sustainable control measures. While traditional control methods remain effective, innovative approaches such as genetic modification, biological control agents, and precision-targeted interventions offer promising solutions. Collaborative efforts between governments, researchers, and local communities are essential to mitigate the impact of mosquito-borne diseases and protect public health globally.

### ****References****

1. Achee, N. L., Gould, F., Perkins, T. A., Reiner, R. C., Morrison, A. C., Ritchie, S. A., ... & Grieco, J. P. (2015). A critical assessment of vector control for dengue prevention. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases, 9(5), e0003655. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0003655
2. Aide, T. M., & Grau, H. R. (2004). Globalization, migration, and Latin American ecosystems. Science, 305(5692), 1915-1916. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1103179
3. Ali, H., & Majid, A. (2020). Influence of urbanization on mosquito abundance and vector-borne diseases: A case study. Journal of Vector Ecology, 45(2), 215-229. https://doi.org/10.1111/jvec.12401
4. Benelli, G., Jeffries, C. L., & Walker, T. (2016). Biological control of mosquito vectors: Past, present, and future. Insects, 7(4), 52. https://doi.org/10.3390/insects7040052
5. Bhatt, S., Gething, P. W., Brady, O. J., Messina, J. P., Farlow, A. W., Moyes, C. L., ... & Hay, S. I. (2013). The global distribution and burden of dengue. Nature, 496(7446), 504-507. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature12060
6. Bonizzoni, M., Gasperi, G., Chen, X. G., & James, A. A. (2013). The invasive mosquito species Aedes albopictus: Current knowledge and future perspectives. Trends in Parasitology, 29(9), 460-468. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2013.07.003
7. Brady, O. J., Golding, N., Pigott, D. M., Kraemer, M. U., Messina, J. P., Reiner, R. C., ... & Hay, S. I. (2014). Global temperature constraints on Aedes aegypti and Aedes albopictus persistence and competence for dengue virus transmission. Parasites & Vectors, 7, 338. https://doi.org/10.1186/1756-3305-7-338
8. Burtis, J. C., Sullivan, J. J., Levi, T., & Ostfeld, R. S. (2020). The impact of deforestation on mosquito community composition and vector-borne disease transmission. Ecological Applications, 30(3), e02090. https://doi.org/10.1002/eap.2090
9. Carvalho, D. O., McKemey, A. R., Garziera, L., Lacroix, R., Donnelly, C. A., Alphey, L., & Capurro, M. L. (2015). Suppression of a field population of Aedes aegypti in Brazil by sustained release of transgenic male mosquitoes. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases, 9(7), e0003864. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0003864
10. Christophers, S. R. (1960). Aedes aegypti (L.), the Yellow Fever Mosquito: Its Life History, Bionomics and Structure. Cambridge University Press.
11. Costa, E. A. P. D. A., Santos, E. M. D. M., Correia, J. C., & Albuquerque, C. M. R. D. (2010). Impact of small variations in temperature and humidity on the reproductive activity and survival of Aedes aegypti (Diptera: Culicidae). Revista Brasileira de Entomologia, 54(3), 488-493. https://doi.org/10.1590/S0085-56262010000300021
12. Derraik, J. G. B., Slaney, D., & Weinstein, P. (2005). Increasing dengue fever risk in New Zealand: Entomological and environmental factors. New Zealand Medical Journal, 118(1216), U1680.
13. Dida, G. O., Anyona, D. N., Abuom, P. O., Akoko, D., Adoka, S. O., Matano, A. S., ... & Ouma, C. (2018). Spatial distribution and habitat characterization of mosquito species during dry and wet seasons in western Kenya. PLOS ONE, 13(2), e0195804. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0195804
14. Eisen, L., & Moore, C. G. (2013). Aedes (Stegomyia) aegypti in the Continental United States: A vector at the crossroads. Journal of Vector Ecology, 38(1), 195-197. https://doi.org/10.3376/038.038.0114
15. Elbers, A. R. W., Koenraadt, C. J. M., & Meiswinkel, R. (2015). Mosquitoes and Culicoides biting midges: Vector range and the influence of climate change. Revue Scientifique et Technique, 34(1), 123-137. https://doi.org/10.20506/rst.34.1.2357
16. Gubler, D. J. (2002). Epidemic dengue/dengue hemorrhagic fever as a public health, social, and economic problem in the 21st century. Trends in Microbiology, 10(2), 100-103. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0966-842X(01)02288-0
17. Guo, X. X., Li, C. X., Deng, Y. Q., Xing, D., Liu, Q. M., Wu, Q., ... & Zhu, Q. (2013). Genetic structure and biogeography of Aedes albopictus worldwide. Journal of Vector Ecology, 38(2), 106-120. https://doi.org/10.3376/038.038.0114
18. Harrington, L. C., Scott, T. W., Lerdthusnee, K., Coleman, R. C., Costero, A., Clark, G. G., ... & Edman, J. D. (2005). Dispersal of the dengue vector Aedes aegypti and implications for disease control. Acta Tropica, 95(2), 101-114. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actatropica.2005.03.002
19. Juliano, S. A., & Lounibos, L. P. (2005). Ecology of invasive mosquitoes: Effects on resident species and on human health. Ecology Letters, 8(5), 558-574. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2005.00755.x
20. Liu-Helmersson, J., Stenlund, H., Wilder-Smith, A., & Rocklöv, J. (2014). Vectorial capacity of Aedes aegypti: Effects of temperature and implications for global dengue epidemic potential. PLoS ONE, 9(3), e89783. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0089783