infections

	for the	diagnosis	of filari	al
Onchocerca volvulus	Africa, Ye men, Central a nd South America	Black flies: Simulium	Subcutaneous and deeper tissues	Okin
Mansonella streptocerca	West and Central Africa	Biting midges: Culicoides	Dermis	Ckin
Mansonella perstans	Africa and South America	Biting midges: Culicoides	Mesenteries, connective tissues of abdominal organs	Plood
Mansonella ozzardi	Caribbean, Central and South America	Biting midges: Culicoides Black flies: Simulium	Subcutaneous tissues	Blood

West and Central

ndonesian

South-east Asia,

Tropics and subtropics worldwide

Geographical distribution

subcontinent

Indian

Loa loa

Brugia

Brugia

Wuchereria bancrofti

Species

Table 1. Characteristics of common human filarial parasites

Tabanid flies: Chrysops

Mosquitos: Anopheles

Mosquitos: Mansonia,

Mosquitos: Culex, Aedes,

Vectors

Anopheles, Mansonia

Anopheles, Aedes

Sunda Islands Timor, Lesser archipelago,

Subcutaneous tissues, conjunctivae

Lymphatic system

Lymphatic system

Lymphatic system

Adult habitat

	Skin			Absent			
0	Blood	Aperiodic —	Absent Absent	90–200 (195) — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —	4.0–5. 0 5.0–6.0	Bluntly rounded; Bluntly rounded nuclei to bent into hook; end of tail of tail	Small size; Stender shape; blunt tail filled hooked tail with nuclei; filled with nuclei; occurs in skin
	Blood	Aperiodic	Absent	163–203 (183) 203–254 (224)	3.0-5.0	Long, slender, E pointed; anucleate e	Small size; long slender tail; aperiodic
	Blood	Diurnal	Present	231–250 (238) 270–300 (281)	5.0-7.0	Tapered; nuclei irregularly spaced to end of tail	Single row of nuclei to end of tail; sheath unstained in Giemsa
	Blood	Nocturnal	Present	265–323 (287) 332–383 (358) —	4.4-6.8	Tapered; subterminal and terminal nuclei widely separated	Long head space; sheath unstained in Giemsa; terminal and subterminal nuclei
	Blood	Nocturnal	Present	177–230 (220) 240–298 (270)	5.0-6.0	Tapered; subterminal and terminal nuclei widely separated	Long head space; sheath stains pink in Giemsa; terminal and subterminal nuclei
	Blood	Nocturnal	Present	244–296 (260) 275–317 (298)	7.5–10.0	Tapered; anucleate	Short head space; dispersed nuclei; sheath unstained in Giemsa; body in smooth curves
	Habitat of microfilaria	Periodicity	Sheath	Length (µm) ⁶ smears 2% formalin skin snips	Width (µm)	Tail	Key features of microfilaria

Reported in Brazil, Guyana, and the Amazon region of Colombia.

Diurnally subperiodic in New Caledonian and Polynesian regions; nocturnally subperiodic in rural areas of Thailand.

Nocturnally subperiodic in parts of Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, and Thailand.

Mean values given in parentheses.

Bench Aids for the diagnosis of filarial infections

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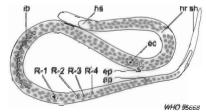
Introduction

Several species of filarial worms infect humans in the tropical and subtropical regions of the world (Table 1, overleaf). The adult worms inhabit various tissues and organs of the body and are inaccessible for identification. Consequently, diagnosis of filarial infections depends primarily on the identification of the larval stage of the parasite (microfilaria). Most species of microfilaria circulate in peripheral blood; however, some are found in the skin.

The microfilaria

At the light-microscopic level and with the aid of a variety of stains, a microfilaria appears as a primitive organism, serpentine in shape and filled with the nuclei of many cells. Figure 1 is a diagram of a typical microfilaria. In many, but not all, species, the body may be enveloped in a membrane called a sheath (sh). Where a sheath is present it may extend a short or long distance beyond either extremity of the microfilaria. In some species, depending on the stain used, the sheath displays a characteristic staining quality which aids in species identification. The nuclei of the cells that fill the body are usually darkly stained and may be crowded together or dispersed. The anterior extremity is typically devoid of nuclei and is called the cephalic or head space (hs); it may be short or long. Along the body of the microfilaria there are additional spaces and cells that serve as anatomical landmarks. These include the nerve ring (nr), excretory pore (ep), excretory cell (ec), and anal pore (ap). In some species, an amorphous mass called the innerbody (ib) and four small cells called the rectal cells (R-1, R-2, R-3, R-4) can be seen, usually with the aid of special stains. These structures and their positions are sometimes useful for species identification. The shape of the tail and the presence or absence and distribution of nuclei within it are also important in species identification.

Fig. 1 Typical microfilaria



Periodicity

Some species of microfilariae circulate in peripheral blood at all hours of the day and night, while others are present only during certain periods. The fluctuation in numbers of microfilariae present in peripheral blood during a 24-hour period is referred to as periodicity (Fig. 2). Species that are found in the blood during night-time hours but are absent at other times are designated nocturnally periodic (e.g. Wuchereria bancrofti, Brugia malayi); those that are present only during certain daytime hours are designated diurnally periodic (e.g. Loa loa). Microfilariae that are normally present in the blood at all hours but whose density increases significantly during either the night or the day are referred to as subperiodic. Microfilariae that circulate in the blood throughout a 24-hour period without significant changes in their numbers are referred to as nonperiodic or aperiodic (e.g. Mansonella spp.).

The periodicity of a given species or geographical variant is especially useful in determining the best time of day to collect blood samples for examination. To determine microfilarial periodicity in an individual, it is necessary to examine measured quantities of peripheral blood collected at consecutive intervals of 2 or 4 hours over a period of 24–30 hours.

Further reading

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