### Public Health Reports

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### Studies of Human Body Lice, Pediculus humanus corporis

I. A Method for Feeding Lice Through a Membrane and Experimental Infection with *Rickettsia prowazeki*, *R. mooseri*, and *Borrelia novyi* 

By H. S. FULLER, M. D., E. S. MURRAY, M. D., and J. C. SNYDER, M. D.\*

In critical laboratory studies of pathogenic organisms which are transmitted by various arthropods, it is frequently desirable to provide the vector with a meal of known composition. Methods have been devised for the artificial feeding of several groups of insects, but they have not been applied with uniform success to the body louse. A few of the many attempts which have been made to solve this problem were reviewed in the report of the "rabbit bleb" technique (1). The latter is a successful but somewhat expensive and cumbersome procedure. The purpose of the present paper is to describe a simple technique using a membrane of baby chick skin for the artificial feeding of human body lice, *Pediculus humanus corporis*, and to record infection of this species with three pathogenic microorganisms, *Rickettsia prowazeki*, *R. mooseri*, and *Borrelia novyi*, by the new technique.

### Method

The method involves preparing a piece of skin from a baby chick, attaching this membrane to a small cylinder, placing the cylinder in a beaker containing the desired meal for the lice, and putting the lice onto the membrane. These steps are described below.

Preparing the Membrane. Most of our membranes have been prepared from chicks varying in age from 1 to 7 days. Although 1-month-old chicks are equally useful, the upper age limit which is satisfactory has not been determined; a single trial with the skin of

<sup>\*</sup>Department of Public Health Bacteriology, Harvard University School of Public Health, Boston, Mass. This work was supported by a grant from the Division of Research Grants and Fellowships of the National Institutes of Health, Public Health Service, and was conducted with the ald of the Commission on Virus and Rickettsial Diseases, Army Epidemiological Board, Office of the Surgeon General, United States Army, Washington, D. C.

an adult chicken was unsuccessful. The thickness of the skin may be the determining factor. Apparently the breed of chick is unimportant since we have used skin from several breeds including White Leghorn, and a mixed strain of undetermined origin. If it is inconvenient to use the skin soon after the chick is killed, the bird can be stored in the refrigerator for at least 7 days, possibly longer, and lice will feed quite satisfactorily through a membrane prepared from its skin. Uncontaminated, essentially sterile skin can be obtained by disinfecting the surface of an egg which is "approaching term" and allowing the chick to hatch under aseptic conditions. The chick is etherized and the down is removed from its side and breast. Plucking is inadvisable as the skin may be torn. Clipping is satisfactory. although if too much down remains it is difficult and time consuming to remove lice after they have fed. A depilatory containing barium sulfide has been used with success when the skin was washed after application; the residual odor apparently does not repel lice. When one is providing a meal containing pathogenic organisms, clipping is preferable since it avoids any possible deleterious effect of the depilatory upon the pathogen. Further preparation consists in swabbing the skin with 70 percent alcohol followed by acetone for partial cleansing and antisepsis.

Attaching Membrane to Cylinder. The prepared skin is then stretched over one end of a cylinder of glass, celluloid, or metal with the downy surface facing the inside of the cylinder. It may be attached before removal from the chick by use of Duco waterproof cement provided that sufficient time is allowed for the evaporation of volatile solvents which are toxic and/or repellent to lice. A metal ring is more satisfactory for attachment of skin to the cylinder because it can be sterilized and slipped under the skin through an incision, after which the cylinder is tightly clamped into the ring. A split ring with some degree of spring to it is quite useful for this purpose. Paraffin wax is applied to the junction of skin and cylinder to prevent leakage.

Placing Cylinder in Beaker Containing Desired Meal. The cylinder with membrane attached is then lowered onto the surface of a layer of blood or other liquid in a beaker. This must be done immediately, for the lice feed irregularly and unsatisfactorily through a membrane which has been allowed to dry beforehand. A light cylinder and membrane may float on the surface; a heavy cylinder may be supported on glass beads which are added to the blood in the bottom of the beaker. The beaker is placed in a water bath at 36° C. and lowered so that the surface of the blood is at least 1 inch below the level of the water. Suitable precautions are taken to prevent contamination of the material in the beaker.

Adding the Lice. Lice can be added immediately, either individually, or in numbers on a piece of felt. They are taken from a normal

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laboratory-reared colony of human body lice <sup>1</sup> maintained in the customary fashion (2). The lice leave the felt and many begin to feed within 5 to 15 minutes. The majority of lice of all stages of development complete their feeding in 30 to 45 minutes after being placed in the cylinder. They are then removed and stored at 32° C. between feedings.

Method for Feeding Minute Meal. Under certain circumstances it may be desirable to feed a minute quantity of blood or other material to a single louse or to several lice in succession. For this purpose the stem of a small glass funnel is shortened to 4 mm. in length and the membrane of chick skin is then stretched over the stem. The funnel is supported by a wire triangle and lowered onto the surface of the droplet contained in the depression of a cavity slide which is warmed by water in a Petri dish. A glass tube of small caliber would serve the purpose. The funnel, however, is more easily manipulated.

Temperature and Pressure. Although Buxton (3) has suggested that it is important to present the blood meal under slight pressure if human body lice are expected to feed, we have observed that lice complete the act of feeding through the membrane during the same interval which is required for engorgement on the intact skin of man or rabbit. For this reason, we have not attempted to supply the meal under pressure in our experiments. The temperature of the water bath appears to be an important element in successful artificial feeding, 36° C. being the optimum. In one series of observations when the temperature fell below 35° C., the lice fed irregularly. A few were observed to feed when the bath was at 33° C. Temperatures higher than 36° C. induce excessive activity on the part of the lice, and they do not feed well.

Mixtures Ingested by Lice Through Membrane. Various mixtures have been ingested through the membrane. In one experiment a colony of normal lice was maintained for 14 days by feeding on defibrinated human blood. Single meals have been given to various batches of lice in which the material was heparinized human plasma, defibrinated human blood mixed with defibrinated rat blood, or defibrinated human blood mixed with yolk sac suspensions prepared in buffered saline. After a single meal of these mixtures the lice fed in the usual manner through the membrane on defibrinated human or rabbit blood in vitro, or on the intact skin of man or rabbit. It is interesting that laked human blood is readily ingested. This makes it possible to feed samples which have been stored at subfreezing temperatures and subsequently thawed. However, a meal of laked blood apparently tends to cause rupture of the intestine in a few of of the lice which feed upon this material. To allow for this loss,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> We are indebted to the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Research Administration, Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine, Orlando, Fla., for specimens of their normal colony of human body lice from which we developed the colony used in these experiments.

several additional lice must be included in a particular batch in order to have an adequate number of survivors several days later.

### Infection of Lice by Membrane Technique

Preliminary studies in the application of this technique have been promising. Batches of lice have been infected by the oral route with three pathogenic micro-organisms.

Rickettsiae. Artificial infection was accomplished by offering a single infective meal composed of defibrinated human blood mixed with a suitable dilution of a yolk sac suspension of the Breinl strain of epidemic typhus in one series of experiments and the Wilmington strain of murine typhus in another. After the initial infective meal, the batches of lice were fed once daily upon separate rabbits unless otherwise stated. Control lice which had fed upon a mixture of equal parts of defibrinated human blood and the buffered saline diluent were followed in the same manner.

R. prowazeki. In a preliminary experiment, smears of the intestines of lice were made 96 hours after the infective meal and stained by Macchiavello's method. The presence of relatively large numbers of typical rickettsiae in these smears indicated that multiplication had occurred in the lice. No rickettsiae were observed in the control lice.

A second batch of lice, mainly third instars, was offered a meal composed of defibrinated human blood mixed with an equal quantity of a yolk sac suspension of epidemic typhus rickettsiae diluted to 10<sup>-3</sup> in buffered saline. After this infective meal, the lice were fed twice daily upon a rabbit. Smears of intestines of lice dying on the 4th, 5th, and 6th days following the infective meal showed massive infections with typical rickettsiae. On the 6th day, five lice were sacrificed separately and the intestines removed from the body. Smears of a portion of each intestine were positive. The remainders of the intestines were pooled and ground in buffered saline. The volume of the original suspension being 5 milliliters, the dilution was equivalent to 10<sup>-1</sup>, since 10 lice per milliliter would be arbitrarily regarded as equivalent to 10°. Serial ten-fold dilutions of this suspension were inoculated in dosages of 0.25 milliliters into cotton rats by the intraabdominal route. When challenged 3 weeks later with the homologous strain, as described elsewhere (4), the final end-point of the immunizing dose was found to be approximately 10<sup>-6.5</sup>. This result provided evidence of multiplication of the rickettsiae within the lice, as well as evidence of their probable identity with the organisms contained in the original meal.

R. mooseri. In a preliminary experiment countless rickettsiae were observed in smears of the intestines of infected adult lice killed 120 hours after ingestion of an infective meal. No rickettsiae were observed in the control lice.

A second batch of lice, mainly third instars, was offered a meal composed of a yolk sac suspension of murine typhus rickettsiae, diluted to  $10^{-2}$  in buffered saline, mixed with an equal quantity of defibrinated human blood. After this infective meal the lice were fed twice daily upon a rabbit. Smears of intestines of lice dying on the 6th, 7th, 8th, 11th, and 13th days showed massive infections with typical rickettsiae. On the 13th day, five lice were sacrificed separately and the intestines removed from the body. Smears of each intestine were positive. The remainders of the intestines were pooled and ground in buffered saline. Cotton rats were inoculated with serial ten-fold dilutions of this suspension as described above for lice infected with epidemic typhus. When challenged with the homologous strain the 50 percent end-point of the immunizing dose was found to be a dilution of  $10^{-6}$ , providing evidence of multiplication of the rickettsiae within the lice, as well as evidence of their probable identity.

Borrelia novyi.2 Another batch of lice was fed upon defibrinated human blood mixed with an equal volume of heparinized blood of a rat which had been inoculated intra-abdominally with Borrelia novyi 48 hours previously. The undiluted blood of this rat contained approximately one organism per erythrocyte in a Giemsa-stained smear. Control lice were fed upon defibrinated human blood mixed with an equal volume of normal rat blood. After the initial meal both the infected and control batches were maintained by single daily feedings through the membrane upon normal defibrinated human blood. mortality rates in the two groups were comparable. Spirochetes were first demonstrated in Giemsa-stained smears of a louse crushed 72 hours after the infective meal. They were subsequently observed by darkfield examination in lice sacrificed daily from the 4th to the 8th day, when the experiment was terminated. Increase in numbers of spirochetes was apparently taking place, since dense bundles of very active organisms were frequently observed in fresh preparations. Furthermore, the organisms had definitely changed in appearance, becoming longer and more delicate than those observed in the blood of the infected rat. This phenomenon has been described by other workers using strains known to be infective for lice.

### Discussion

The fact that most of the lice feed quickly after being placed on the membrane of chick skin is obviously advantageous. If it is desired to provide an infective meal containing estimated numbers of microorganisms, this can be readily accomplished since there probably is little loss in viability of most micro-organisms in the short period

 $<sup>^2</sup>$  We are indebted to Dr. Quentin M. Geiman, Assistant Professor of Tropical Diseases, Harvard School of Public Health, for supplying us with B. novyi and for technical advice and assistance in studying the infection in lice and in laboratory animals.

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during which lice take a meal through the membrane. Another advantage of the technique is that the infectivity of the meal can be determined before and after feeding if this is desired.

Several applications of the technique have been considered, such as its usefulness in studying the effects of serial passage in lice on strains of rickettsiae and Borrelia. Further study may show the survival and multiplication of B. novyi in the body louse to be of significance with regard to the ultimate origin of this strain, for it has never been clear how the patient from whom the strain was recovered acquired his infection in the first place. The value of the method is being explored in relation to the detection of small numbers of rickettsiae, since it is possible that a louse may be infected by smaller numbers of rickettsiae than are required to induce immunity in the usual experimental laboratory animal.

Other applications of the method suggest themselves. We have maintained a small colony of lice for 2 weeks by artificial feeding and it seems possible that, with modifications, a colony might be maintained indefinitely in this manner. The method seems admirably suited to a study of the nutritional requirements of the human body louse. One might perform controlled investigations of the conditions under which lice will or will not feed. The effects of ingestion of various kinds of blood could be determined. One could easily study the effect of ingestion of blood containing measured quantities of toxicant drugs.

The principal disadvantage of the membrane technique lies in the difficulty of sterilization of skin of any sort.

### Summary

A description is given of a simple technique for the artificial feeding and infection of the human body louse using a membrane prepared from the skin of a baby chick. Advantages and disadvantages of the technique have been described. Human body lice have been infected with R. prowazeki, R. mooseri, and Borrelia novyi by this method. Other applications of the technique are suggested, some of which are being investigated.

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### Health Is Everybody's Business

### By MAYHEW DERRYBERRY, Ph. D. \*

Not so long ago, one of the outstanding leaders of public health said, "You know I used to think that the main purpose for bringing the community into the program was to get support for the activities we wanted to carry out." This statement typifies the public health thinking of a quarter of a century ago. Professional workers carefully studied the situation, developed a program which they considered good for the people, and then tried to obtain their support. Public health leaders were afraid to give citizens too much, if any, voice in the development of the program for fear they might want to do something the experts didn't think right. Frequently, such statements as the following were made: "Laymen get too enthusiastic and move too fast." "They are uninformed and demand things we can't. do."

So long as the professional health workers could provide mass disease control through some activity of their own, like providing a clean and safe milk and water supply, or adequate sewage disposal, such an attitude did not detract from public health progress.

But today, the problems are changed, and the interests of citizens are becoming more intimately concerned with health. How to capitalize on this interest and bring about constructive group thinking and planning by the citizens is a major task for public health workers.

The problem has at least two important aspects:

- 1. How to involve large groups of people with varying backgrounds, interests and experience in working harmoniously together.
- 2. How to change the attitude of professional public health workers so that they will aid group thinking and planning by citizens for improvement of their own health.

Some suggestions for working out these two problems may be gleaned from the experimental programs conducted by social psychologists, adult educators, industrial relations officers, and workers in community organization and social group work.

1. The first and most important step in group planning by citizens is that the problem to be worked on should be selected by them, and be one that a majority of the members of the group feel is important

Too often in the past the problem has been one selected by professional workers. But are the people always interested in the prob-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> Chief, Division of Public Health Education, Public Health Service. This paper was read before the Annual Meeting of the Health Council of Greater New York, Inc., New York City, April 1949.

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lems proposed by the public health profession? It is difficult to interest an individual in having a careful periodic medical examination for the protection of his health in the future when he has a throbbing toothache. Groups frequently can't be interested in preschool health programs when the filth around them is the problem that is disturbing them most. The immediate problem selected must be the one which the people recognize as important.

Sometimes the problem has been determined by a superficial annoyance of one citizen who is determined to dominate and have his problem solved, regardless of group concerns. This is not an easy situation to handle, but as groups become more skilled in working together, they will be able to avoid the pitfall of satisfying only a domineering citizen.

The most usual method of problem selection begins with a survey, sometimes conducted by experts, but preferably conducted by the citizens themselves. All too often, however, the completion of the survey, making of recommendations, and printing of the report (to adorn library shelves) are accepted as the solution of the problem. A recommendation is made that somebody else do something and through that method those who should take action wash their hands of any further responsibility. If surveys are to be used, the people should make the survey, or at least frame the recommendations for the action they will take.

The social psychologists suggest a problem census as the method for selecting a problem on which to work, that is, listing all the problems with which the various group members are concerned. Professional workers are always afraid that the laymen are not aware of the important problems. Actually in any such compilation made by interested citizens, the entire gamut of health problems will always be covered. From the listed problems priorities can be established through group decision.

### 2. The goal to be achieved with reference to any problem must be realistic, and not visionary and entirely idealistic

In determining a realistic goal, it is necessary to appraise carefully the resources available to the group. Individuals and organizations must be given the opportunity to define their own level of participation. How may of us have seen Mr. or Mrs. Fix-it who alienated many potential workers on a project by saying, "I have it all worked out. Mrs. Jones, you do this; Mr. Smith, your organization can do this." The hostile reactions to such a person need not be described. The only resources consistently available on any project are those that are volunteered. It is the job of the professional health worker to secure maximum volunteer participation.

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Not only must the positive resources available be appraised, but there must also be a clear delineation of the factors in the situation that will interfere with achievement of the goal. For example, cultural and traditional food patterns need to be carefully considered in any program of improving nutrition. We learned this lesson in the war, and seldom now do we hear the comment in regard to immigrants' foodways, "I just can't get those people to eat an American diet." We learned then that the supplementation of the diets of various cultures was what was needed, rather than the standard (American) dietary pattern.

Another factor that must never be overlooked is organized opposition. Dr. Florence Sabin tells the story of her work in Colorado and how the people had worked for passage of a certain law. Because they had not foreseen that the law would be opposed by a particular group within the State, the law failed of passage. How to cope with pressure groups is a long story in itself, but as citizen groups gain more skill in democratic planning and action for the welfare of all the people, the influence of organized opposition will decline.

Still another consideration in the selection of a realistic goal is the need for some success early in the period of working together. It is far better to get a vacant lot cleaned up as a first step toward more vital citizen participation in health activities than to attempt to get every expectant mother under medical care when there are not sufficient doctors to give the care. The first success will give skill in working together so that more difficult problems can be attacked over longer periods of time.

Citizens can be aided in their selection of a realistic goal if they call in as technical advisers the professional experts in the field. The experts can give information, describe the limitations of various procedures, perhaps even suggest other goals, but they do not tell the citizens what to select.

### 3. The third step is the development of a workable plan

When all the people have been involved in both the selection of the problem and the definition of the goal, they naturally will be in on the planning. Too often the first time all the people are brought in is after the plan has been developed, either by a professional worker, a voluntary agency, or a dynamic community "do-gooder." One of the reasons for not including everyone during the development of plans is the desire for credit by those who take over the planning function. Recently a national organization, which shall be designated by "X," developed a plan suggesting that the local chapters should get the cooperation of all other interested agencies in communities in carrying out the plan, but also cautioning that the program must be kept an "X" organization project.

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Perhaps we should take a hint from the Japanese Diet. It is said that each member of the Diet expresses his opinion as to how a given problem should be solved. Once having given his opinion, he no longer claims it as his own; it becomes the property of the group. From all the ideas proposed a plan is eventually adopted which represents a universal group decision. If the plan should fail, the group and not any one individual is responsible for its failure. It is too dangerous for an individual to be responsible for the plan, because a failure of the plan would require that the individual commit harakiri. In addition, the proposal is more likely to succeed because it has the backing of the entire group.

Ivah Deering in her book, Let's Try Thinking, says, "To think (a problem) through within and with the assistance of the group is to build under subsequent action a foundation which will stand greater storms and stresses, for it is made up of understanding, cooperation, and common effort." Therefore, if we want all the people to contribute more effectively to the total community health, we must find ways to let them do the planning.

### 4. The fourth step is action

Nothing is harder for a group to do than to get into action. Of course, if members of the group have been involved in the three enumerated steps above, they are much more likely to take action. Suggested aids for getting into gear are: (a) The group should commit itself both collectively and as individuals to do some specific thing; (b) there should be a time limit set; (c) the action to be taken should not require too long a time before the group reassembles to consider progress and further steps; (d) if possible every member should get some feeling of success.

### 5. The results of the action must be objectively evaluated

Quite often, and rightly so, at the completion of some project or community action there is a "success banquet." Such occasions serve a very valuable purpose, but should there not also be a much more soul-searching session? Perhaps the celebration is for publicity purposes, but if citizens are to get more skill in solving health problems, should they not be willing to look back objectively on past performance and evaluate it, not so much in terms of the actual achievement as in terms of the process they followed? What were the steps they took that were most helpful in achieving the goal, and what did they do that could be improved? Did they have too many meetings or too few? Did they move into action without adequate plans? Did they have the best technical advice they could obtain? Did they use it in the best manner and at the right time? Were all the people

aware of the problem, and did they have opportunity to participate in the planning as well as in the action? Only through such careful study (introspection, if you will) of the methods they used to work together, and the reactions of all the people towards the procedure and toward one another can they learn to increase the quality and amount of improvement in health through participation.

All the suggestions above have been directed primarily towards the ways in which citizens can effectively make health their business. Occasionally, reference has been made to the expert, or professional health worker, but only incidentally. Now let's turn our attention to those in that category and see what suggestions there are for them.

First, it may be said that the role professional workers play cannot be as clearly delineated. But there are some attitudes we should possess:

- 1. We must have faith, yes, even a conviction, that every citizen has a potential contribution to make for the betterment of his community. The quality and amount of the contribution may be great or small, but regardless of its magnitude or quality every opportunity should be given for the contribution to be made. It is our job to help uncover any hidden resources that may reside in people and to help them make their maximum contribution.
- 2. We must have faith in the democratic principle that the decisions of an informed majority are right. We must have that faith even though the decisions made by a group do not conform with our own opinions. If it is in our field of expertness, then we can only attribute the decision, which we may consider incorrect, as being our failure to provide adequate information, or if we are truly objective and honest, perhaps we would face the possibility that we might be wrong. Sometimes professional persons overlook the fact that they are subject to human errors of judgment.
- 3. We must have faith that a group thinking together and utilizing the contributions that all can make, can produce more and better results than can any one individual in the group working alone.

Even though we repeat that we have profound faith in the group, we often act as if we did not believe our own words. A reason for this inconsistency may be that most groups have not developed skill in the mechanics of working together productively. Furthermore, most individuals with training in special fields know very little about how to guide a group toward the expression of its ideas. Because professional leaders become over-protective, they often fail to give the group a chance to practice independent thinking. Our job is not merely one of making special resources of information available to others. Our job is also to help the group to work effectively. This is a problem all its own.

- 4. We must be sufficiently patient to let a group take such time as is necessary to arrive at its conclusions. If information is given too quickly, the group may be pushed into indecision.
- 5. We must develop insight and an understanding of interpersonal and intergroup relations so that we can help individuals and groups get satisfaction from their participation, and increase their own feeling of worth among their fellow men. The studies of social psychologists are constantly enriching our knowledge of human motivation. Again and again psychological research underlines the power of the need to be approved by one's associates.
- 6. We must coordinate our services and activities in order that we will not duplicate services or compete with one another in the field. Too few professional workers are available for us to waste their time and effort by using several persons to do what can be done by one with adequate planning. Certainly we should not tolerate duplication. Sharing responsibilities and services is one of the skills we must improve.

All over the country, citizens are becoming more and more concerned in the health of the Nation. A few suggestions for making that concern more productive in terms of community action, using the skills and abilities of all people, lay and professional, have been discussed. It is hoped that putting the suggestions in organized form might stimulate wider and more intensive activity in the future.

### Summary

- 1. Wider group participation in planning for health is contingent upon (a) developing group experience in cooperative action, and (b) educating professional public health workers in methods of securing such action from groups.
  - 2. Members of the group should select their own problems.
- 3. The group's goal should be defined realistically and achieved by a program that is practical.
- 4. The methods employed in securing group action should be analyzed when the program is completed.
- 5. Professional health workers must have sincere faith, practiced as well as voiced, in the worth of methods of democratic action.
- 6. They must increasingly strive to learn to deal with groups as an integral aspect of their own professional skills.

### INCIDENCE OF DISEASE

No health department, State or local, can effectively prevent or control disease without knowledge of when, where, and under what conditions cases are occurring

### **UNITED STATES**

### REPORTS FROM STATES FOR WEEK ENDED SEPTEMBER 24, 1949

A decline was reported in the incidence of poliomyelitis from a total of 2,624 cases last week to 2,192 currently—a decrease of 432 cases, or approximately 16.5 percent. This is the largest percentage weekly decline recorded since the peak of incidence was reached with a total of 3,419 cases reported for the week ended August 20. A total of 1,606 cases, representing a decline of 12.7 percent, was reported for the corresponding week last year, and the 5-year median for the week is 1,158. Of the current total, 1,553 cases (70 percent) occurred in the New England, Middle Atlantic, and North Central areas. Decreases were recorded in all geographic divisions except the South Central. Increases, none more than 15 except in Texas and Wisconsin, and totaling 129 cases, were reported in 11 States.

The 26 States reporting 20 or more cases currently, are as follows (last week's figures in parentheses): Increases—Wisconsin 87 (64), Nebraska 51 (46), West Virginia 20 (18), Kentucky 47 (32), Arkansas 26 (25), Texas 90 (52), Utah 30 (18), Washington 44 (39); decreases—Maine 24 (50), Massachusetts 143 (165), Connecticut 32 (56), New York 288 (354), New Jersey 91 (127), Pennsylvania 59 (64), Ohio 125 (146), Indiana 35 (68), Illinois 135 (196), Michigan 170 (208), Minnesota 121 (150), Iowa 44 (64), Missouri 54 (60), Kansas 32 (51), Tennessee 22 (27), Oklahoma 43 (50), Colorado 33 (54), California 122 (127). The total for the year to date is 31,289, as compared with 17,646 for the corresponding period last year and a 5-year median of 13,570.

During the week, 1 case of smallpox was reported, in Montana, and 11 cases of Rocky Mountain spotted fever were reported, in 9 States. Of 23 cases of infectious encephalitis in 8 States, 13 were reported in North Dakota.

A total of 8,640 deaths was recorded during the week in 94 large cities in the United States, as compared with 8,508 last week, 8,079 and 8,201, respectively, for the corresponding weeks of 1948 and 1947, and a 3-year (1946-48) median of 8,201. The total for the year to date is 349,323, as compared with 351,463 for the corresponding period last year. Infant deaths totaled 709, last week 640, 3-year median 651. The cumulative figure is 24,857, same period last year 25,448.

1300

Telegraphic case reports from State health officers for week ended September 24, 1949

[Leaders indicate that no cases were reported].

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Division and State	Diph- theria	En- cepha- litis, in- fectious	Influenza Measles		Meningitis, meningococcal	Pneu- monia	Polio- myelitis	Rocky Mt. spotted fever	Scarlet fever	Small-	Tulare- g	Typhoid and paratyphoid fever •	Whoop- ing cough	Rabies in animals
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Cases reported as Salmonella

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	91-79	7125	5	0.3	104	2,811 3,114 (11th) Mar. 19 2,351 2,639
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_	29 31 12	9 112 111	1 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	6 10 19	870	59, 731
	84-	ıc		2	48	2, 564 4, 735 (37th) Sept. 17 69
	91 00 4 rc	1 9 31	117	25 9 42	464	589, 895 553, 666 (35th) Sept. 3 1, 377 1, 569
	26 12 4	31 531	1 20 1	82-4	812	80, 675 194, 853 (30th) July 30 4, 808 4, 656
		1	(m)	1	ន្តន	533 455
	** <del>*</del>	4 to 62 to		6	173	5, 070 8, 077 (27th) July 9 1, 302 2, 361
EAST SOUTH CENTRAL	Kentucky Tennessec Alabama Mississippi •	WEST SOUTH CENTRAL Arkansas Louisiana. Oklahoma. Texas. MOUNTAIN	Montana. Idaho. Vyoming. Colorado. New Mexico. Arizona. Utah ". Nevada.	Washington Oregon California	Total	Year to date 38 weeks Median, 1944-48 Seasonal low week ends Since seasonal low week Median, 1944-45 to 1948-49 b

854026-49-

Period ended earlier than Saturday.

b The median of this 5 preceding corresponding periods; for whooping cough, the corresponding periods are 1943-44 to 1947-48.

• New York City and Philadelphia only, respectively.

• New York City and Philadelphia only, respectively.

d Including paratyphoid dever; currently reported superiors and septic sore throat.

• Including paratyphoid dever; currently reported separately as follows: New York 1, Georgia 1, Flori la 1, Mississippi 1, Louisiana 2, California 4. Cases infection, not included in the table, were as follows: New York 1.

• Poliomyelitis, delayed reports: Maryland, July, 1 case, August, 5 cases.

Alaska: Measles 9.

Hawaii Territory: Diphtherla 1, measles 1, lobar pneumonia 1, poliomyelitis 1. Deduction, poliomyelitis, 1 case reported week ended September 10.

### 1302

### TERRITORIES AND POSSESSIONS

### - Panama Canal Zone

Notifiable diseases—July 1949.—During the month of July 1949, certain notifiable diseases were reported in the Panama Canal Zone and terminal cities as follows:

			•		Resid	dence 1				
Disease	Panar	na City	C	olon	Cana	al Zone	Zon	ide the le and minal ties	т	otal
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
Chickenpox Diphtheria Dysentery:	12 4		6		13		7		38 5	
Amebic Bacillary German measles	2 1		2		1 1		6 2		8 5 2	
Hepatitis, infectious Influenza Leprosy Malaria <sup>2</sup>	1 1	1		1	2 15	1 1	2 1 45	2	2 61	<u>2</u> 1
Measles Meningitis, meningo- coccal		1	3						3	1
Mumps		9			2 26	2	4 2	8	2 3 26 4 2	19
Relapsing fever Tetanus Tuberculosis Typhoid fever	1	18		4	3		2 2	7	2 1 3 2	29
Typhus fever (murine) Yaws	4						1		4 2	

<sup>1</sup> If place of infection is known, cases are so listed instead of by residence.

### Puerto Rico

Notifiable diseases-4 weeks ended August 27, 1949.—During the 4 weeks ended August 27, 1949, cases of certain notifiable diseases were reported in Puerto Rico as follows:

Disease	Cases	Disease	Cases
Chickenpox Diphtheria Dysentery Gonorrhea Influenza Malaria Measles Poliomyelitis	20 44 3 73 8, 190 16 4 2	Syphilis. Tetanus. Tetarus, infantile Tuberculosis (all forms). Typhoid fever. Typhus fever (murine) Whooping cough	55 15 1 344 7 5 98

<sup>2 2</sup> recurrent cases.

Reported in the Canal Zone only.
 The two pollomyelitis cases reported were contracted in Guatemala and flown to the Canal Zone for specific therapy.

### FOREIGN REPORTS

### CANADA

Provinces—Notifiable diseases—Week ended September 3, 1949.— During the week ended September 3, 1949, cases of certain notifiable diseases were reported by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics of Canada as follows:

Disease	New- found- land	Prince Edward Island	Nova Scotia	New Bruns- wick	Que- bec	On- tario	Mani- toba	Sas- katch- ewan	Al- berta	British Colum- bia	Total
Chickenpox Diphtheria Dysentery: Amebic			3	2	9	21 1	5 1	26	9	11	84 5
Bacillary Encephalitis, infectious.					3	2	6				5 8
German measles			4		2	6	ĭ		6	1	20
Influenza			1 2		18	3 21	1				5
Measles	1		2		18	21	10	48	42	60	202
coccal			1		1	1		1			4
Mumps Poliomyelitis			26		3	35		21	5	7	97
Poliomyelitis	1		6	1	28	79	8	12	11	20	166
Scarlet fever				2	10	5	1	6	10	6	40
Tuberculosis (all forms)			5	6	106	20	73	13	27	24	274
Typhoid and paraty-							1		_		
phoid fever					11	3		1	1	11	27
Undulant fever					1	1					2
Venereal diseases:	6			_	87	76		22	59	90	389
Gonorrhea			14	9 10	84	23	26 8	10	8	8	153
Syphilis Whooping cough			2	10	49	40	9	10	11	0	103
w nooping cough	1				49	40	1		11	1	100

### **JAMAICA**

Notifiable diseases—4 weeks ended August 27, 1949.—For the 4 weeks ended August 27, 1949, cases of certain notifiable diseases were reported in Kingston, Jamaica, and in the island outside of Kingston, as follows:

Disease	Kingston	Other localities	Disease	Kingston	Other localites
Cerebrospinal meningitis Chickenpox	2 4	13	Scarlet fever	38 5 1	1 50 51

### **KOREA**

Encephalitis.—According to information dated September 12, 1949, the Korean Health Ministry considered the recent outbreak of encephalitis in Korea (see Public Health Reports, September 30, 1949) to have passed the peak about September 9, although the inci-

dence is still regarded as dangerously high. The total number of cases and deaths reported from the beginning of the outbreak through September 11, was 2,042 cases, 517 deaths, of which 821 cases, 104 deaths occurred in Seoul. Later information states that during the period September 12–18, 1,484 cases with 538 deaths were reported, including 320 cases, 20 deaths in Seoul.

### NEW ZEALAND

Notifiable diseases—4 weeks ended August 27, 1949.—During the 4 weeks ended August 27, 1949, certain notifiable diseases were reported in New Zealand as follows:

Disease	Cases	Deaths	Disease	Cases	Deaths
Cerebrospinal meningitis Diphtheria Dysentery: Ambic Bacillary Encephalitis, lethargic Erysipelas Food poisoning	13 12 6 2 1 11 7	1 1	Influenza Malaria Poliomyelitis Puerperal fever Scarlet fever Tuberculosis (all forms) Typhoid fever Undulant fever	1 1 2 2 73 151 9	53

### REPORTS OF CHOLERA, PLAGUE, SMALLPOX, TYPHUS FEVER, AND YELLOW FEVER RECEIVED DURING THE CURRENT WEEK

Note.—The following reports include only items of unusual incidence or of special interest and the occurrence of these diseases, except yellow fever, in localities which had not recently reported cases. All reports of yellow fever are published currently.

A table showing the accumulated figures for these diseases for the year to date is published in the Public Health Reports for the last Friday in each month.

### Cholera

Burma—Bassein.—On May 8, 1949, the town and port of Bassein, Burma, was declared infected with cholera, due to an outbreak of that disease in refugee camps there. Cases and deaths reported since May 1 are as follows: May 1–31, 122 cases, 78 deaths; June 1–30, 36 cases, 12 deaths; July 1–10, 11 cases, 5 deaths. According to information dated August 23, 1949, as no new cases were reported after July 7, the town and port was declared free from cholera as of August 7, 1949.

Pakistan—Lahore.—During the week ended September 10, 1949, 9 cases of cholera were reported in Lahore, Pakistan.

### Plague

Union of South Africa.—Plague has been reported in Union of South Africa as follows: In Cape Province—week ended August 27, 1949, 1 fatal case in Vanzylsrust Area, Kuruman District, week ended Septem-

ber, 3, 1 fatal case at Kop Farm, Gordonia District, week ended September 10, 3 cases, 2 deaths (pneumonic) at Goras Farm, Hay District; in Orange Free State—week ended September 3, 2 cases, 1 death, at LaRochelle Farm, Vredefort District.

### Smallpox

Argentina—Buenos Aires.—During the week ended September 10, 1949, 11 cases of smallpox (mild type) were reported in Buenos Aires, Argentina.

### Typhus Fever

Czechoslovakia.—Correction: The report of 24 cases of typhus fever in Czechoslovakia for the week ended August 13, 1949, (see Public Health Reports, September 23, 1949) was in error. No cases of typhus fever were reported in Czechoslovakia during that week.

Spain.—During the week ended August 13, 1949, 2 cases of typhus fever, 1 fatal, were reported in Spain. The fatal case was reported in the city of Madrid.

### Yellow Fever

Panama—Colon Province.—On September 10, 1949, 1 death from yellow fever was reported in Buena Vista, Province of Colon, Panama. This is the third case reported in the same area in a 6-week period.

### DEATHS DURING WEEK ENDED SEPT. 17, 1949

[From the Weekly Mortality Index, issued by the National Office of Vital Statistics]

	Week ended Sept. 17, 1949	Correspond- ing week, 1948
Data for 94 large cities of the United States: Total deaths	8, 508 8, 267 340, 683 640 701 24, 148 70, 143, 481 11, 757 8, 7 9, 2	8, 208 343, 384 609 24, 797 70, 883, 764 12, 812 9, 5

## Notifiable Diseases, Second Quarter, 19491

preliminary and are subject to correction by final reports. They may be assumed to represent the civilian population only, although in some instances a few cases in the military population may be included. The comparisons made are with similar preliminary reports; but owing to population shifts in many States since the 1940 census, the figures for some States may not be comparable with those for prior years, especially for certain diseases. Each State health officer has been requested to include in the monthly report for his State all diseases that are required by law or regulation to be reported in the State, although some do not do so. The list of diseases required to be reported manifestly incomplete. There are also variations among the States in the degree of, and checks on, the completeness of reporting of cases of the notifiable diseases; therefore comparisons as between States may not be justified for certain diseases. As compared with the deaths, incomplete case reports are obvious for such diseases as malaria, pellagra, pneumonia, and tuberculosis, while in many States other diseases, such as cancer, puerperal septicemia, rheumatic fever, and Vincent's infection, are not reportable. However, the figures are recorded as The figures in the following table are the totals of the monthly morbidity reports received from State health authorities for April, May, and June 1949, and show the numbers of cases reported by the required reporting sources in the respective States. They are is not the same for each State. Only a few of the common communicable diseases are notifiable in all the States. In some instances cases are reported, in some States, of diseases that are not required by law or regulation to be reported and the figures are included although reported.

In spite of these and other deficiencies inherent in morbidity reporting, these monthly reports, which are published quarterly and annually in consolidated form, have proved of value in presenting early information regarding the reported incidence of a large group of diseases and in indicating trends by providing a comparison with similar preliminary figures for prior years. The table gives a general picture of the geographic distribution of certain diseases, as the States are arranged by geographic areas.

Leaders are used in the table to indicate that no case of the disease was reported

# Consolidated Monthly State Morbidity Reports for April, May, and June 1949

Pneu- monia, all forms	28 88 82 EE 24	3,016 620 1,035	718 87 1,206 581 • 51
Pella- gra			
Oph- thal- mis neonato- rum	37	9116	114
Mumps	1, 327 417 653 3, 407 625 3, 063	4, 229 3, 683 6, 541	5, 480 8, 611 2, 664 5, 656
Menin- gitis, menin- gococ- cal*	3 12 14	74 18 80	
Mea-	3,966 1,366 1,678 7,581 1,710 13,022	27, 171 21, 498 26, 341	16, 917 2, 287 3, 479 23, 543
Ma- laria ³	4	စစ	6.2
Influ- enza	1, 151 15 3 3 2 13	4 12 31 22	81888
Hook worm disease	1	449	13
Ger- man mea- sles	228 298 393 2,918 1,900	9, 614 5, 847 2, 221	2, 498 2, 200 3, 585 3, 585
En- cepha- litis, infec- tious	1 7	2-29	e 51 % a
Dys- en- tery, unde- fined			
Dys- en- tery, bacil- lary	4 7 1	203 3.88	4 618
Dysen- en- tery, ame-	1 4	888	201 128 6
Diph- theria*	3 124 4 4	37	82484
Con- juncti- vitis 1	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	4	884
Chick- enpox	864 146 460 6,696 460 2,490	11,840 14,981 8,750	5, 676 4, 903 6, 252 8, 643
An- Chick-		11.2	
Division and State	Maine. Maine. New Hampshire. Vermont. Massachusetts. Rhode Island. Connections.	New York	Obio. Indiana. Illinois Michigan. Wisonsin

	28 28 180 185 12 172	11 315 163 669 669 56 1,384 181	328 708 861 303	429 457 309 3,377	19 85 202 202 158 158 19	200 241 402	20, 438 19, 601 22, 628	6.7 11.37
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		3 2 5	& <b>4</b>	1 52	4-	4	295 215 384	
	1, 135 651 223 845 764	36 289 672 523 1, 903 971 697	650 1,033 505	668 109 1,180 7 5,283	131 276 154 644 150 160 161 161 161	1, 471 7 1, 053 15, 636	80, 004 103, 782 73, 375	160 246 3
	16 6 16 17 10	21122	2488232	83 12 8 83 12 8	81494818	110 111 64	898 856 1, 407	311
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	8 II	10 44 35 10	4 10 37 10	138 5 33 943	4.01-4	9	1, 324 2, 788 14, 363	803
_	10 30 53 61 32	1,882 1,882 61 3,705 199 60	22 503 1,300	516 60 268	32 121 125 125 8 678 678	98	11, 388 17, 977 21, 338	30 15 1
	3	1, 116 2, 183	33	155 7			4, 547 4, 839 4, 121	
	911	681 421 252 22	360 217 11	222 2 338	948 179 64 64 88 88 416 239	1,367	55, 863 8, 909 13, 623	424
	8-4-6	0 110	<b>65</b> ⊢ 63	13.33		-1 8	175 115 115	
	63 69	8 627	2	45 2, 197	123	89	3,098 2,691 1,905	
	19	125 248 248 248	16 26	6,821	46.864	92 98	8, 202 5, 878 8, 148	16
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	1,137 939 944 63 78 78 456 962	1,000 1,000 1,000 1,520	335 662 626	411 185 490 7 7, 430	378 335 335 1,324 1,266 1,206	2,118 7,882 17,158	119, 531 113, 339 108, 042	1111
_	4						21 18 12	
WEST NORTH CENTRAL	Minnesota Missour North Dakota North Dakota Nebraska Kanasa SOUTH ATLANTIC	Delaware Maryland District of Columbia Virginia West Virginia North Carolina South Carolina Georgia Florida		1 1 1 1	Montana Idaho Glaho Colorado W W Matico Arizona Nevada	Washington Oregon.	Total Second quarter 1948 Median 1944-48	Alaska. Hawaii Territory. Panama Canal Zone 10

Consolidated Monthly State Morbidity Reports for April, May, and June, 1949-Continued

	Whoop- ing Cough		1, 138 1, 138 125 125	1, 902 749 1, 138	232 210 806 419 88	818. 818. 818. 818. 818.	20 1154 117 117 117 128 128 128 128 128 128 128 128 128 128
	Vin- cent's infec- tion		30		31	2 1 11 11	10 21 21
	Undu- lant fever*		33. 8	38 13 197	54 15 162 59 59	85 24 24 8 11 18 35	-01 51-0 <b>2</b>
	Ty- phus fever, en-				က		1 4248
	Paraty. phoid fever		2 200	16 17 13 14	16 13	18 10 2 1	27 8 2 8 2 8 4 4 4 4
	Ty- phoid fever*		4	8,08	64 112 18 18 18	8111244	22 7 7 7 10 114 117 117
.	Tula- remia			က	9 16 1	16 2	9 00 m 20 00
	Tuber- culosis, respir- atory		123 740 128 428	3,664	389 1, 204 192	63 31 183	89 784 854 814 907 1,055
	Tuber- culosis, all forms*		138 48 793 138 448	3, 975 842 1, 306	1, 999 1, 295 1, 295 583	640 273 734 70 62 62 84 84	89 808 881 623 938 98 98 800 1,066
	Trich- inosis		8-18	52 10 1	1000		4
<b>'</b>	Tra- choma			1	9	180 180 2	121
,	Tets-		(n) (n)	44-	014-20-r3	401 2	12 3
`	Small- pox*					4 1 60	
	Septic sore throat		15 21 3 22 10 107	(13)	10 8 58 419 37	36 16 5 5 (13)	24 429 36 1,535 27
	Scarlet fover*		150 132 43 1, 686 110 319	13 2, 001 1, 015 2, 251	2, 346 500 972 2, 966 460	319 158 197 32 20 110 119	321.23 1161.1149 149 36
	Rocky Mt. spotted fever			82 <b>8</b>	441011	04 O	2 18 30 16 4 6
Ī	Rheu- matic fever		2 42	258	52 11 199 227	ස්සු ය	38 12 13 19
	Rabies in man				1		
	Polio- myeli- tis*		11 40 11 7	33 26 17	11 34 22 23	51 26 19 21 19 16 19	21 22 24 24 25 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26
	Division and State	NEW ENGLAND	Maine. New Hampshire. Vermout. Massenhusetts Rhode Island. Connecticut.	New York New Jersey Pennsylvania.	Ohio. Indiana Illinois Miohigan	WEST NORTH CENTRAL Minnesota. Iowa. Missouri North Dakota. South Dakota. Kansas. Kansas.	Delaware Maryland District of Columbia. Virginia West Virginia North Carolina Bouth Carolina Georgia

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	1 5 16 17		37 99		24 11 1 8 8 26		31.3	1,335 1,307 1,350	
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	21-3		25 55 17		01		2 & &	14 260 192 192	
	30 13 13 13		1288		22 22 10 10 17		148	568 725 794	
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	396		654 618 665		106 1 1 8 465 569 8 44		206 2, 355	18, 951 19, 638 19, 087	236
	1, 507 1, 507 778		660 645 674 1, 387		107 23 13 255 8 486 604 8 48		587 224 2, 519	31, 311 37, 531 34, 608	250 192 11 5
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	19		217 5 109 1, 272		35 100 100 28 358 358 33 25		22 48 159	5, 410 4, 348 2, 447	211
-	223 198 88 52		337233		22 22 23 23 23 23 23 24 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25		270 150 877	19, 748 22, 637 36, 428	4
	9118		юю-		11 12 12 18 18		2	207 178 170	
	12 25 17		122		2 11 55 64 64 18 35 18		33 141	1, 487 1, 338 11, 386	1
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	3322		145 49 137 571		- 45 0 4 5 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4		20,827	1,989 1,790 807	10 4
EAST SOUTH CENTRAL	Kentucky Tennessee Alabama Mississippi	WEST SOUTH CENTRAL	Arkansas. Louisiana Oklahoma Texas.	MOUNTAIN	Montana Idaho Idaho Cyoning Cyoning Cyonado New Mexico Arizona Arizona Utah	PACIFIC	Washington Oregon California	Total Second quarter, 1948 Median, 1944–48	Alaska Hawaii Territory Panama Canal Zone

See footnotes on p. 1310.

### Footnotes for table on pages 1306 to 1309

\*On the basis of information in the latest compilation of the reportable diseases in the wereal States (Pub. Health Rep., 59: 317-340, Mar. 10, 1944. Reprint No. 2544), diseases marked with an (\*) are reportable by law or regulation in all States and the District of Columbia. Typhoid fever is reportable in all States, and paratyphoid fever in all but 6 States. A few States have begun to report paratyphoid fever as "salmonellosis." Syphisis reportable in all States are more complete reports are issued later by the Division of Venereal Disease Control. Some States have increased and some have reduced the list of reportable diseases since the latest compilation cited

1 For report for first quarter of 1949 see p. 927 of the Public Health Reports for July

Includes cases of kerato- and suppurative conjunctivitis and of pink eye. In a few States practically all cases contracted outside continental United States.

New York City only.

Exclusive of 10 cases of artificially induced malaria.

Lobar pneumonia only.
 Figures taken from Weekly Mail Reports.

• Includes nonresidents.

4.year average, 1945-48.
in In the Canal Cone only.
in In the Canal Cone only.
in In the Canal Cone only.
in Included seeptic see throat.
in Included in seatlef fever.
in Reported as "salmonella infection".
in Reported as "salmonella infection".
in Reported as "salmonella infection.
in New York State reported as "salmonella infections, including paratyphoid fever".
in Includes cases reported as salmonella infection.

17 Nonresident. 18 Imported.

The following list includes certain rare conditions, diseases of restricted geographical distribution, and those reportable in or reported by ouly a few States; last year's figures in parentheses (where no figures are given, no cases were reported last year, or the disease was not included in last year's published tabulation):

Actinomycosis: New Hampshire 1, New York 1 (2), Minnesota 1 (1), South Dakota 1 (3) Botulism: Tennessee 1.

Cancer: Pennsylvania 1,979, North Dakota 172 (201), Kansas 1,035 (942), South Carolina 286 (432), Georgia 76 (49), Florida 552 (51), Kentucky 8 (2), Tennessee 924 (554), Alabana 1,059 (340), Arkansas 195 (193), Louisians 583 (349), Montana 374 (198), Idaho 136 (248), Wyoming 119, Colorado 877, New Mexico 178 (144), Utah 46 (65), Newada 1

Coccidioidomycosis: Arizona 18 (1), California 23 (16). Colorado tick fever: Colorado 84 (52). Chagas disease: Panama Canal Zone 2.

Dengue: South Carolina 2, Texas 18. Dermatitis: New Hampshire 3 (31), Missouri 5 (5), Kentucky 17 (80) mycotic, Arkansas

Diarrhoa: Maine 1, New York 96 (14), Pennsylvania 34 (55) includes enteritis, Ohio 139 (135) includes enteritis, Indiana 1 (9), Illinois 12 (5), Michigan 18 (14), Minnesota 2 includes enteritis, Iowa 6, Maryland 10 (7), West Virginia 4 (1), South Carolina 2,606 (2,548), Florida 43 (38), Kentucky 1 (3), Oklahoma 1 (2), Texas 863, Idaho 31 (85) includes enteritis, New Macrico 12 (12), Cabildonia 1 (12), Alaska 5 (25) includes enteritis.

Dog blie: Massachusetts 4,39, Pennsylvania 2,139, Illinois 4,977 (4,979) (and other animal bites), Michigan 3,386 (3,489), Arkansas 208 (248) (all animal bites).

Erysipelas: Connecticut 9 (6), Pennsylvania 21, Ohio 9 (8), Indiana 5 (4), Illinois 52 (48), Michigan 28 (27), Wisconsin 17 (17), Minnesota 2, Iowa 1, Missouri 1, North Dakota 2 (5), South Dakota 2 (3), Florida 5 (9), Tennessee 4 (5), Arkansas 5 (3), Montana 4 (4), Idaho 6 (3), Wyoming 1, Olorado 7 (13), Arizona 1, Utah 1 (1) Washington 6 (5) Oregon 18 (7), Alaska 2. Foolorado 7 (13), Arizona 1, Indiana 2, Illinois 271 (29), Minnesota 358 (34), Kansas 9, Florida 3, Louisiana 3 (2), Oklahoma 26 (50), Montana 2, Idaho 2, Colorado 1 (5), New Mexico 4 (6), Nevada 29, Washington 23 (20), Oregon 20,

California 131 (246).

Granuloma inguinale: Florida 212 (182), Kentucky I (5), Tennessee 21 (20), Mississippi 36 (66), Louislana 36 (43), California 4. Granuloma unspecified: Connecticut 4.

Histoplasmosis: Tennessee 2.

Impetigo contagiosa. Connecteut 3, New York 42, Ohio 71 (6), Indiana 4 (1), Illinois 12 Innectigo contagiosa. Connecteut 3, New York 42, Ohio 71 (6), Indiana 4 (1), Illinois 12 (347), Kansas 1 (2), Kentucky 11 (8), Montana 3, Idabo 3 (9), Wyom. (3), Meltiens 22 (347), Kansas 1 (2), Kentucky 11 (8), Mashington 101 (112), Hawaii Territory 15 (8). Jaundice (including hepatitis and Weil's disease): Maine 2 (1), New York 101 (64), Pennsylvanis 101 (14), Ohio Weil's disease): Maine 9 (2), Michigan 5 (3), Minne 9 (2), Maryland 4 (1), South Carolina 3, Florida 2 (69), Kentucky 13 (38), Tennessee 9 (11), Montana 6, Idabo 3 (2), Newada 1, Washington 1 (2), Oregon 3 (1), California 233 (11), Hawaii Territory 1 (2), Panana Canal Zone 8 (12), Lead poisoning: New Hampshire 1, Pasas 1 (3), California 1 (6), Hawaii Territory 1 (2), Panana Canal Zone 1 (2), California 1 (6), Panana Canal Zone 1 (2), Cannessee 2 (1), Montana 1. Lymphocytic choriomeningthis: Minnessee 2 (1), Montana 1. Lymphogramiona venereum: Connecticut 5, Florida 37, (38), Kentucky 2 (2), Tennessee 2 (1), Mississippi 42, Louisiana 25 (38), Utah 1 (nonresident), California 26, Alaska 1.

Monillasis: Minnesota 1.

Monouncleosis: Connecticut 26 (22) Michigan 44 (38), Minnesota 96 (49), Maryland 2 (4), South Genolina 29, Kentucky 9 (4), Tennessee 6 (11), Oklahoma 5 (1), Idaho I (13), Aritona 2, Washington 3.

Aritona 2, Washington 3.

Aritona 2, Washington 3.

Positracosis: Michigan 2 (3), California 2 (1).

Positracosis: Michigan 2 (3), California 2 (1).

Rabies in animals: Massachusetts I, Connecticut 3, New York 63 (118), New Jersey 9, Chio 185 (164), Indiana 251 (287), Illinois 25 (63), Michigan 64 (94), Wisconsin 2 (1), Iowa 185 (164), Indiana 251 (287), Illinois 25 (63), Michigan 64 (94), Wisconsin 2 (1), Iowa 18 (13), Kanasa 1 (2), Virgina 19 (37), South Carolina 48 (62), Georgia 129 (90), Florida 18 (75), Kentucky 164 (73), Alabama 117 (114), Arkansas 36 (21), Louisiana 12 (29), Oklahoma 41 (41), Tennessoe 3.

Rabiestisalpox: New York 26 (60).

Ringeworn of the scalp: Connecticut 31, Ohio 12, Indiana 13, Illinois 578, Minnesota 1, Iowa 1, Missouri 11, Kanasa 28, Maryland 1, Virginia 4, Georgia 36, Kantucky 221, Oklahoma 15, Montana 1, New Maryland 11, New Maryland 12, Newada 10, Oregon 14, Ringworm alsease, unspecified: Michigan 189 (215), North Dakota 3 (6), Kantucky 34 (47), Maryland 10, North Dakota 3 (6), Kantucky 21, Maryland 11, Kentucky 34 (47), Maryland 16, North Dakota 3 (6), Kantucky 21, Maryland 10, Maryland 11, Maryland 10, Mar

Silicosis: New Hampshire 1, Arkansas 4 (3), Idaho 1, Colorado 2 (1), New Mexico 1 (6),

Yaws: Panama Canal Zone 5 (1)