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Geographic shifts in *Aedes aegypti* habitat suitability in Ecuador using larval surveillance data and ecological niche modeling: Implications of climate change for public health vector control

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27 **Abstract**

28 Arboviral disease transmission by *Aedes* mosquitoes poses a major challenge to public
29 health systems in Ecuador, where constraints on health services and resource allocation call for
30 spatially informed management decisions. Employing a unique dataset of larval occurrence
31 records provided by the Ecuadorian Ministry of Health, we used ecological niche models
32 (ENMs) to estimate the current geographic distribution of *Aedes aegypti* in Ecuador, using
33 mosquito presence as a proxy for risk of disease transmission. ENMs built with the Genetic
34 Algorithm for Rule-Set Production (GARP) algorithm and a suite of environmental variables
35 were assessed for agreement and accuracy. The top model of larval mosquito presence was
36 projected to the year 2050 under various combinations of greenhouse gas emissions scenarios
37 and models of climate change. Under current climatic conditions, larval mosquitoes were not
38 predicted in areas of high elevation in Ecuador, such as the Andes mountain range, as well as the
39 eastern portion of the Amazon basin. However, all models projected to scenarios of future
40 climate change demonstrated potential shifts in mosquito distribution, wherein range
41 contractions were seen throughout most of eastern Ecuador, and areas of transitional elevation
42 became suitable for mosquito presence. Encroachment of *Ae. aegypti* into mountainous terrain
43 was estimated to affect up to 4,215 km² under the most extreme scenario of climate change, an
44 area which would put over 12,000 people currently living in transitional areas at risk. This
45 distributional shift into communities at higher elevations indicates an area of concern for public
46 health agencies, as targeted interventions may be needed to protect vulnerable populations with
47 limited prior exposure to mosquito-borne diseases. Ultimately, the results of this study serve as a
48 tool for informing public health policy and mosquito abatement strategies in Ecuador.

49

50 **Author summary**

51 The yellow fever mosquito (*Aedes aegypti*) is a medically important vector of arboviral diseases
52 in Ecuador, such as dengue fever and chikungunya. Managing *Ae. aegypti* is a challenge to
53 public health agencies in Latin America, where the use of limited resources must be planned in
54 an efficient, targeted manner. The spatial distribution of *Ae. aegypti* can be used as a proxy for
55 risk of disease exposure, guiding policy formation and decision-making. We used ecological
56 niche models in this study to predict the range of *Ae. aegypti* in Ecuador, based on agency larval
57 mosquito surveillance records and layers of environmental predictors (e.g. climate, altitude, and
58 human population). The best models of current range were then projected to the year 2050 under
59 a variety of greenhouse gas emissions scenarios and models of climate change. All modeled
60 future scenarios predicted shifts in the range of *Ae. aegypti*, allowing us to assess human
61 populations that may be at risk of becoming exposed to *Aedes* vectored diseases. As climate
62 changes, we predict that communities living in areas of transitional elevation along the Andes
63 mountain range are vulnerable to the expansion of *Aedes aegypti*.

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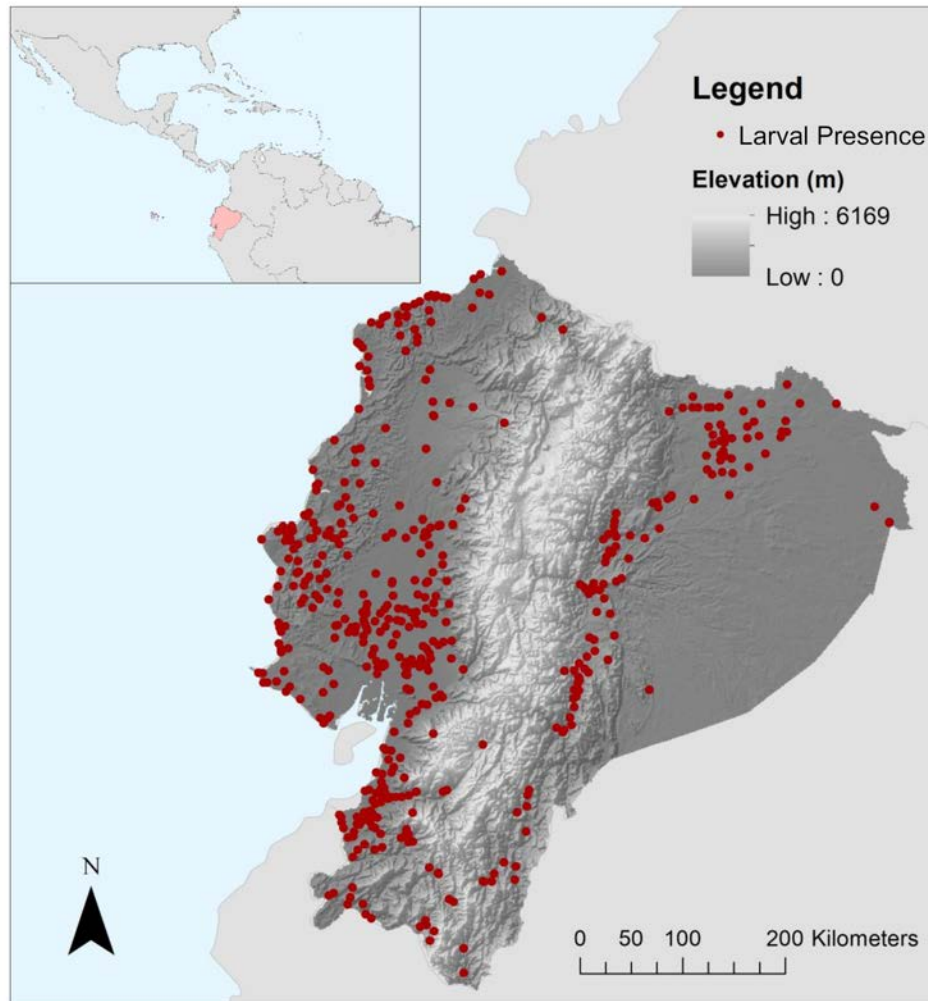
68 **Introduction**

69 Mosquito-borne disease transmission poses an ongoing challenge to global public health.
70 This is especially true in much of Latin America, where arboviral disease management is
71 complicated by the proliferation of mosquito vectors in tropical conditions, frequently coupled
72 with limited resources for medical care and comprehensive vector control services [1]. In
73 Ecuador, the *Aedes aegypti* mosquito is of particular medical importance as it is a competent
74 vector for several established and emerging viral diseases, including all four serotypes of dengue
75 virus (DENV), chikungunya (CHKV), Zika virus (ZKV), and yellow fever virus (YFV) [2–5].
76 The *Ae. albopictus* mosquito, also a competent vector of arboviruses, was recently reported for
77 the first time in the city of Guayaquil, Ecuador [6]. Many of the diseases transmitted by *Ae. spp.*
78 have no treatment beyond palliative care, and with the exception of yellow fever and dengue
79 fever, there are no clinically established vaccines [7–9]. As a result, mosquito surveillance and
80 control remain the best tools available for preventing and managing outbreaks of arboviral
81 disease.

82 In Ecuador, the Ministry of Health (Ministerio de Salud Pública (MSP)) oversees public
83 health vector control services in the country, including mosquito surveillance, indoor residual
84 spraying, larvicide application, and ultra-low volume (ULV) fogging. The MSP conducts larval
85 index (LI) surveys at the household level, wherein containers of impounded water are sampled
86 for mosquito larvae. Larval indices are among the most common indicators used by public health
87 agencies to establish mosquito presence and quantify abundance, key considerations for
88 understanding localized transmission potential and planning larval source reduction [10].
89 Although cost effective relative to the delivery of clinical services, mosquito abatement and
90 surveillance activities are nevertheless limited by financial constraints, necessitating informed

91 strategies for focusing resources and personnel [11,12]. This becomes a critical factor when
92 developing surveillance and control programs on very large scales, such as an entire country,
93 where misdirection of program activities can rapidly deplete program funding. Advancing the
94 understanding of where vectors of interest can occur on the landscape would provide valuable
95 guidance in communicating risk of exposure and avoiding the pitfalls associated with
96 indiscriminately rolling out interventions.

97 Like many mosquito species, the presence of *Ae. spp.* on the landscape is closely tied to
98 environmental conditions [13,14]. Adult survival and larval development are largely driven and
99 restricted by temperature, while successful oviposition and larval emergence rely on the
100 persistence of impounded water in the environment [15–20]. In contrast with other medically
101 important mosquito species in the region, such as Anopheline vectors of malaria, *Ae. aegypti*
102 typically does very well in heavily urbanized environments, largely due to their reproductive
103 strategy of exploiting small volumes of water in containers around the home as larval habitat
104 [21]. In landscapes with heterogeneous topography, elevation also serves as a limiting factor for
105 mosquito distributions, as temperature and precipitation change with altitude [22]. Situated in
106 northwestern South America, Ecuador exemplifies high landscape diversity, with hot, humid
107 areas of low elevation along the Pacific coast in the west and interior Amazon basin in the east,
108 and the cool, arid Andes mountain range in the central portion of the country (Fig 1).
109 Historically, the western coastal and interior regions experience a much higher incidence in
110 mosquito-borne diseases than mountainous areas, where sharp increases in elevation and
111 decreases in temperature limit the geographic distribution and vectorial capacity of the mosquito
112 vector.



113

114 **Fig. 1.** Ecuador, situated on the northwestern coast of South America (inset), has historically
115 high prevalence of mosquito-borne diseases. The Ecuadorian Ministerio de Salud Pública (MSP)
116 conducted household entomological surveys of *Aedes aegypti* throughout the country from 2000
117 – 2012. Spatially unique larval index (LI) occurrence records (n=478) collected in the survey
118 were aggregated to cities and towns and used to model the ecological distribution of *Ae. aegypti*
119 in Ecuador.

120

121 The present-day distribution of *Ae. aegypti* is broadly defined by regional temperature
122 and precipitation trends, but global climate change has the potential to significantly alter the
123 future geographic range of mosquito vectors [3]. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
124 Change has established four representative concentration pathways (RCP), or different scenarios
125 for future greenhouse gas emissions, which are the basis for modeling future climates. Even

126 under the most conservative of these scenarios (RCP 2.6), mean global temperatures are
127 projected to increase [23]. As temperature trends increase globally, it has been estimated that
128 observed patterns in the distribution of mosquito vectors will shift accordingly; previous studies
129 have projected that *Aedes* mosquitoes will increase their global range as temperature and rainfall
130 patterns become more suitable under various climate change scenarios [17,24–26]. Modeling and
131 visualizing changes in mosquito distributions at the national level will provide a useful tool for
132 managing disease and planning the delivery of health services, as public health resources can be
133 better allocated in anticipation of disease emergence in naïve populations driven by mosquito
134 range expansions.

135 Ecological niche models (ENMs) have been used to estimate current potential
136 distributions in insect populations, including mosquitoes, as well as range expansions resulting
137 from environmental and climate changes [27–30]. ENM methodologies have been applied to
138 many systems, spanning regional to global scales, in an effort to estimate *Aedes aegypti*
139 distribution and the associated risk of exposure to humans, often indicating that water availability
140 and land cover factor heavily into overall mosquito habitat suitability [3,27,31,32]. In Ecuador
141 and other areas of Latin America, elevation also becomes a limiting factor for *Ae. aegypti*
142 presence, though it is suggested that climate change may allow for the encroachment of
143 mosquitoes into higher elevations [30,33]. While many prior studies have utilized records of
144 adult stages of mosquitoes for ENMs, this study leverages existing larval surveillance data
145 collected in Ecuador, providing a predictive tool about the source of mosquitoes in the
146 environment. This complements predictive models for adult stages, particularly in considering
147 potential for intervention, as it can target larvicidal approaches, rather than reactive adulticidal
148 spraying methods. The Genetic Algorithm for Rule-Set Production (GARP) is a machine-

149 learning algorithm that builds species ENMs using presence-only occurrence records and
150 continuous environmental variables [34]. The genetic algorithm (GA) employed by GARP to
151 build rule-sets for distribution models is stochastic in nature, resulting in a set of models from a
152 single dataset of species occurrence records and allowing for the assessment of agreement
153 between resulting models. This methodology offers a robust option for modeling the potential
154 distribution of species on a landscape from presence-only records, as absence of a species is
155 difficult to discern through historical records and field sampling (e.g. entomological surveys)
156 [34,35]. GARP also provides a platform for projecting future climate scenarios onto the landscape
157 with the natively generated rule-sets for species distribution prediction, allowing for the
158 estimation of future geographic distributions [36].

159 Assessing current and future vector distributions in an ENM framework is useful for
160 defining the spatial distribution and possible changes in risk exposure, using mosquito presence
161 as a proxy for transmission risk. Previous work in Ecuador's southern coast has focused on
162 describing interannual variation in dengue transmission for a single region [37,38]. Here, we
163 advance climate services available to the public health sector in Ecuador by providing climate-
164 informed tools to assist decision-making, examining potential geographic shifts in risk at broader
165 spatial and temporal scales. In this study, we had three main objectives 1) use an ENM approach
166 to estimate the current geographic range of *Aedes aegypti* in Ecuador using a unique set of larval
167 survey data; 2) use projected climate data to model the future geographic range under a variety of
168 climate change scenarios; and 3) compare current and future climate models to describe changes
169 in *Ae. aegypti* range over time, where we hypothesized that larval *Ae. aegypti* distribution in
170 Ecuador would expand into areas of higher elevation with projected increases in global
171 temperature.

172 **Methods**

173 **Data sources**

174 From 2000 – 2012 the MSP sampled aquatic larval mosquitoes from impounded water in and
175 around households, in cities and towns throughout mainland Ecuador. These data were collected
176 year-round by vector control technicians from the National Service for the Control of Vector-
177 Borne Diseases (SNEM) of the MSP as part of routine vector surveillance activities. Positive LI
178 records for *Aedes aegypti* were de-identified and aggregated to the administrative level of
179 parroquia (township or parish) by the MSP for each year of the study. These de-identified,
180 spatially aggregated data were made available to this study by the MSP.

181 **Informed disaggregation**

182 Parroquias represented in this data set range in size from roughly 2 km² to over 8,000 km²
183 (n=991). It was therefore felt to be prudent to reduce this high spatial variation prior to analyses.
184 To correct for this extreme variation in the spatial resolution of aggregated presence data, in this
185 study, the number of positive LI locations in a given parroquia were reassigned from the centroid
186 of the administrative boundary to cities and villages, using a combination of OpenStreetMap and
187 Google Earth satellite imagery in ArcMap (ver. 10.4) to identify developed areas. This method of
188 informed disaggregation allowed for better spatial representation without compromising de-
189 identification.

190 **Socio-environmental data acquisition**

191 Environmental coverage datasets for current climatic conditions, comprised of rasterized altitude
192 and 19 derived biophysical variables (Bioclim), were compiled using publicly available
193 interpolated weather station data (WorldClim ver. 1.4., <http://worldclim.org>) (Table 1) [39].

194 WorldClim provides long-term climate averages based on weather station records from 1950–
 195 2000, a period coinciding with the start of the MSP’s larval survey. Because *Ae. aegypti* is
 196 primarily considered an urban vector in close association with human development, gridded
 197 human population density, adjusted to data from the United Nations World Population Prospects
 198 2015 Revision, was also included as an environmental predictor for initial model building as a
 199 proxy for built land covers (Socioeconomic Data and Applications Center (SEDAC) Gridded
 200 Population of the World (GPW)) [40,41]. A resolution of 2.5 arc-minutes (i.e. 5km grid cells)
 201 was chosen for all raster layers to reflect variability in the resolution of geolocated data.

202 **Table 1. Environmental variables used in building GARP models for *Aedes aegypti* in**
 203 **Ecuador.**

Environmental Variable (unit)	Coded Variable Name	Data Source
Altitude (m)	Alt	Worldclim
Annual Mean Temperature (°C)	Bio 1	Bioclim
Mean Diurnal Range (°C)	Bio 2	Bioclim
Isothermality	Bio 3	Bioclim
Temperature Seasonality	Bio 4	Bioclim
Max Temp of Warmest Month (°C)	Bio 5	Bioclim
Min Temp of Coldest Month (°C)	Bio 6	Bioclim
Temperature Annual Range (°C)	Bio 7	Bioclim
Mean Temperature of Wettest Quarter	Bio 8	Bioclim
Mean Temp of Driest Quarter (°C)	Bio 9	Bioclim
Mean Temp of Warmest Quarter (°C)	Bio 10	Bioclim
Mean Temp of Coldest Quarter (°C)	Bio 11	Bioclim
Annual Precipitation (mm)	Bio 12	Bioclim
Precip of Wettest Month (mm)	Bio 13	Bioclim
Precip of Driest Month	Bio 14	Bioclim
Precip Seasonality	Bio 15	Bioclim
Precip of Wettest Quarter (mm)	Bio 16	Bioclim
Precip of Driest Quarter (mm)	Bio 17	Bioclim
Precip of Warmest Quarter (mm)	Bio 18	Bioclim
Precip of Coldest Quarter (mm)	Bio 19	Bioclim
Human Population Density	GPW	SEDAC Gridded Population of the World (GPW)

204

205 Environmental coverages for estimated future climatic conditions in the year 2050 were
206 taken from forecasted Bioclim variables, allowing for direct comparison between current and
207 future predicted ranges. We chose three general circulation models (GCMs) of physical climate
208 processes commonly used in projecting shifts in species distributions, the Beijing Climate Center
209 Climate System Model (BCC-CSM-1), National Center for Atmospheric Research Community
210 Climate System Model (CCSM4), and the Hadley Centre Global Environment Model version 2,
211 Earth-System configuration (HADGEM2-ES) under the four standard emissions scenarios (RCP
212 2.6, RCP 4.5, RCP 6.0, RCP 8.5) [23,42–46]. Gridded human population data available through
213 SEDAC are only projected through the year 2020 [40]. To obtain human population for the year
214 2050, a simple linear extrapolation wherein we assume a stable rate of growth, was performed on
215 a pixel-by-pixel basis in ArcMap with available years of SEDAC data, a growth trend which
216 mirrors more sophisticated cohort-based population estimates for Ecuador projected for the same
217 time period [47,48].

218 **Ecological niche modeling**

219 Ecological niche models (ENMs) reflecting current and future climate conditions were built
220 using DesktopGARP ver. 1.1.3 (DG) [35]. LI point records and environmental coverage datasets
221 were prepared for modeling using the ‘GARPTools’ package (co-developed by C.G. Haase and
222 J.K. Blackburn) in the program R (ver. 3.3.1). Spatially unique LI records (n=478) were split into
223 75% training (n=358) and 25% testing datasets (n=119) for ten randomly selected iterations;
224 training datasets were used in model building and testing datasets were used to compute model
225 accuracy metrics [34,35,49]. Ten experiments were run in DG, each using one of the randomly
226 selected LI training datasets and the full set of current environmental coverage variables (Table
227 2). Each experiment was run for 200 models, allowing for a maximum of 1,000 iterations with a

228 convergence limit of 0.01. Occurrence data were internally partitioned into 75% training/25%
229 testing for model building, and top models were selected using the ‘Best Subsets’ option,
230 specifying a 10% hard omission threshold and 50% commission threshold [50]. The ten top best
231 subsets models from each GARP experiment were summated with the GARPTools package to
232 assess model agreement and accuracy. Model accuracy metrics for each GARP experiment were
233 calculated from the 25% testing dataset withheld from the model building process. Three
234 measures of accuracy, calculated in GARPTools, were used to compare best subsets from each
235 experiment: receiver operator characteristic (ROC) curve with area under the curve (AUC),
236 commission, and omission [51].

237 **Table 2. Accuracy metrics for best model subsets built using the full set of environmental**
238 **coverage variables. Each experiment was performed with a randomly chosen subset (75%)**
239 **of LI presence points.**

Experiment	AUC	Avg. Commission	Avg. Omission
1	0.72	63.98	3.70
2	0.73	64.19	3.19
3	0.68	59.49	8.40
4	0.73	62.01	5.96
5	0.67	67.02	5.55
6	0.73	60.86	4.03
7	0.70	67.18	2.69
8	0.76	64.88	5.63
9	0.74	58.78	4.45
10	0.72	60.92	5.63

240

241 The model building process was then repeated in DG with the best performing training
242 dataset (i.e. high AUC relative to low omission), comparing full model performance with more
243 parsimonious sets of environmental variables. In addition to variable combinations selected
244 based on previous literature, the GARPTools package was used to extract ruleset trends from the
245 full model (e.g. prevalence and importance of given variables in the resulting model) to assemble

246 additional candidate variable sets for model comparison. The subset of models with the highest
247 AUC and lowest omission (i.e. best model) was chosen as the most probable estimate of current
248 larval mosquito geographic distribution, and rulesets generated from the best model were then
249 projected to the year 2050 for all combinations of GCMs and RCPs. To compare the relative
250 changes in geographic predictions between current climate and future scenarios, the best subsets
251 of current and projected future models for each RCP scenario were recoded as binary geographic
252 distributions (i.e. presence and absence) in ArcMap, where cells with model agreement of ≥ 6
253 were considered present. Recoded distributions were combined using the 'Raster Calculator' tool
254 in the Spatial Analyst extension of the program ArcMap, allowing for the visualization of range
255 agreement across GCMs. The number of people at risk in areas of expanding mosquito
256 distribution, where range expansion was predicted under at least one GCM, was estimated in
257 ArcMap, using the Raster Calculator tool to extract information on GPW and extrapolated
258 population for the year 2050.

259

260 **Results**

261 The original dataset of LI occurrences in Ecuador, provided by the MSP, consisted of
262 3,655 collection events aggregated to 374 parroquia centroids, indicating the number of
263 parroquias that had positive surveillance results for *Ae. aegypti* larvae during the study period.
264 Dis-aggregation of these data yielded 478 spatially unique locations within these parroquias,
265 corresponding with areas of human habitation regularly surveyed by the MSP. Incorporating
266 prior knowledge regarding the agency's collection of data in developed areas allowed for the
267 adoption of a finer spatial scale for analysis without changing the overall distribution of larval

268 mosquito presence in Ecuador (e.g. mosquitoes remained conspicuously absent in most high-
 269 elevation parroquias located in the Andes mountains).

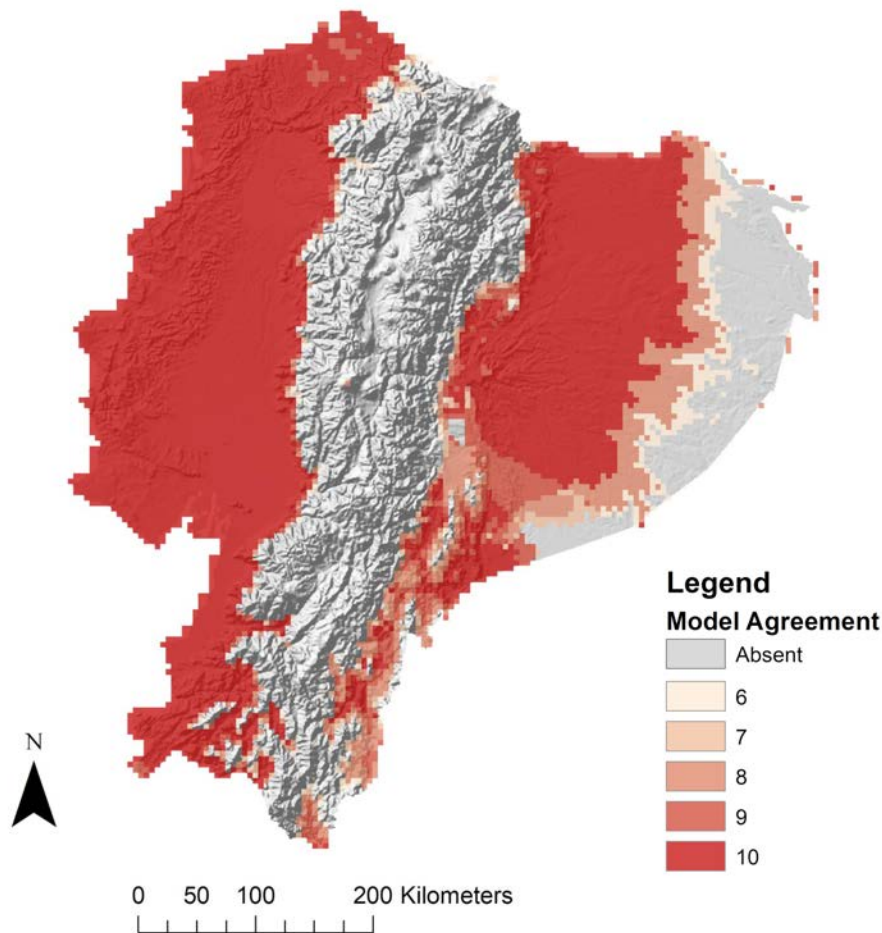
270 Much of Ecuador was predicted to be suitable for the presence of *Aedes aegypti* larvae
 271 under current climatic conditions, with the notable exception of the eastern portion of the country
 272 associated with the Amazon basin and high elevation areas associated with the Andes mountain
 273 range, running north to south through the center of the country (Fig 2). This iteration of model
 274 subsets generated by GARP had the highest AUC, relative to low omission (AUC=0.73, Avg.
 275 Commission=63.47, Avg. Omission=3.02), and was built with a reduced set of environmental
 276 variables including altitude, human population, maximum temperature of the warmest month,
 277 temperature annual range, mean temperature of the wettest month, mean temperature of the
 278 driest month, mean temperature of the warmest quarter, mean temperature of the coldest quarter,
 279 precipitation of the wettest month, precipitation seasonality, precipitation of the driest quarter,
 280 and precipitation of the coldest quarter (Table 3).

281 **Table 3. Accuracy metrics for best model subsets built using the best-ranked training**
 282 **dataset and selected subsets of environmental coverages.**

Experiment	Variable Subset	AUC	Avg. Commission	Avg. Omission
1	Full Model	0.77	64.88	5.63
2	Alt, GPW, Bio 5,7,8,9,10-11,13,15	0.71	67.38	2.60
3	Alt, GPW, Bio 2,5,7-11,13,15-17	0.71	67.32	3.28
4	Alt, GPW, Bio 1,5,6,8,10-11,14,17,19	0.63	65.68	8.32
5	Alt, Bio 5,8,10,16,17	0.62	64.30	12.01
6	Alt, GPW, Bio 5,8,10,16,17	0.66	67.95	2.60
7	Alt, Bio 3,5,8,10,12-13,16-17,19	0.65	68.37	3.19
8	Alt, GPW, Bio 3,5,8,10,12-13,16-17,19	0.66	69.88	2.18
9	Alt, Bio 1,3,5,7,8,9,11-13,15-17,19	0.71	64.62	6.13
10	Alt, GPW, Bio 1,3,5,7-9,11-13,15-17,19	0.72	63.39	3.28
11	Alt, Bio 1-3,5,7-13,15-17,19	0.71	61.85	4.54
12	Alt, GPW, Bio 1-3,5,7-12,13,15-17,19	0.72	64.09	2.94
13	Alt, Bio 5,7-11,13,15	0.70	65.29	4.12
14	Alt, GPW, Bio 5,7-11,13,15,17,19	0.73	63.47	3.02
15	Alt, GPW, Bio 1,3,5,7-11,13,15-17,19	0.71	66.20	2.06

16	Alt, GPW, Bio5,7-11,13,15-17,19	0.69	67.60	3.19
17	Alt, GPW, Bio 5,7,8,9,11,13,15,17,19	0.71	66.22	2.44
18	Alt, GPW, Bio 1,5,7-11,13,15,17,19	0.71	66.90	2.18
19	Alt, GPW, Bio 1,3,5,7-13,15-17,19	0.71	63.54	3.11
20	Alt, Bio 5,7-11,13,15,17,19	0.71	63.24	4.62

283



284

285 **Fig. 2.** Agreement of best model subsets built with best-ranked suite of environmental variables
286 for larval *Aedes aegypti* presence in Ecuador under current climate conditions. Models had high
287 levels of agreement in the western coastal lowlands, and lower levels of agreement in the eastern
288 Amazon basin.

289

290 The projected geographic distribution of larval *Ae. aegypti* for the year 2050 (Fig 3B1
291 and 3B2, 3C1 and 3C2, 3D1 and 3D2, S1 and S2 Figs), built with the best-performing selection

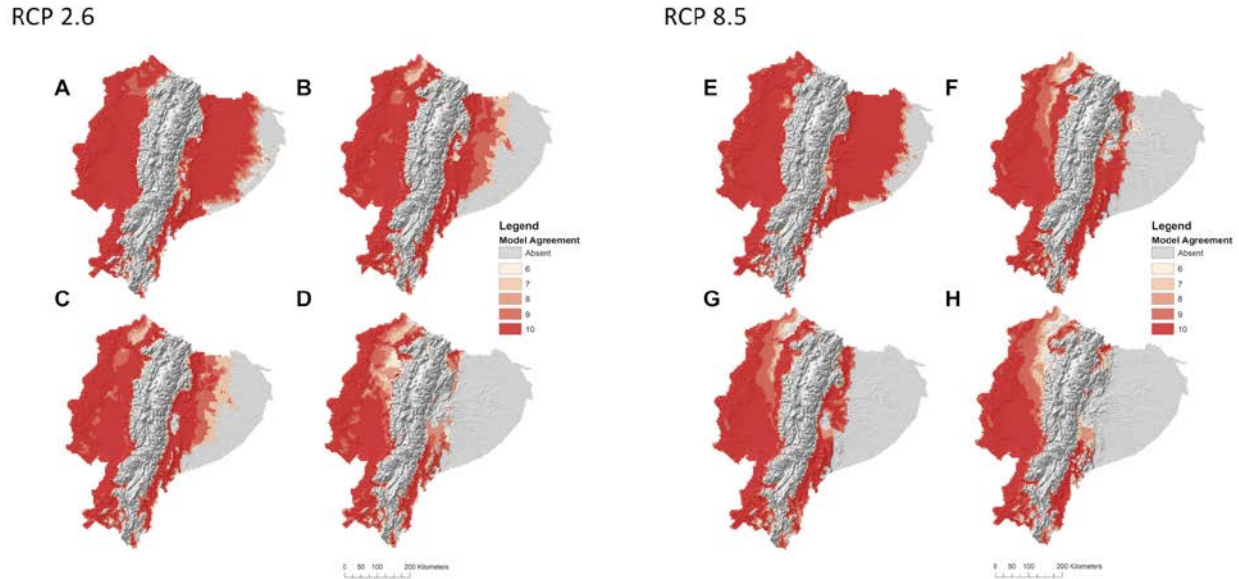
292 of environmental coverages under four climate change scenarios, showed marked changes in
293 pattern when compared with estimated mosquito presence under current conditions (Fig 3A1 and
294 3A2, S1 and S2 Figs). Potential distributional shifts were generally consistent across GCMs, with
295 slight range expansions into areas of higher elevation and large portions of the eastern
296 Amazonian basin predicting mosquito absence (Fig 3, S1 and S2 Figs). Combining the current
297 and future model agreement rasters for best subset models by RCP revealed predicted areas of
298 geographic stability in western Ecuador and the eastern foothills of the Andes, range contraction
299 throughout much of Amazon basin in the east, and range expansions along transitional elevation
300 boundaries over time (Fig 4). Range expansions and contractions were generally consistent
301 across climate models, with the magnitude of distribution change increasing with more extreme
302 climate change scenarios (Fig 4). Similarly, the human population with the potential to
303 experience increased exposure to mosquito presence generally increases with RCP, with an
304 additional 9,473 (RCP2.6), 11,155 (RCP4.5), 10,492 (RCP6.0), and 12,939 (RCP8.5) people
305 currently living in areas of transitional elevation estimated at risk of becoming exposed under
306 different climate change scenarios (Table 4).

307 **Table 4. Estimated human population inhabiting areas of transitional elevation in Ecuador,**
308 **which may experience increased exposure to mosquito-borne disease transmission under**
309 **climate change.**

Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP)	GPW 2010 Population	Projected 2050 Population	Area (km²)
RCP 2.6	9,473	15,399	2,755
RCP 4.5	11,155	18,439	3,530
RCP 6.0	10,492	17,100	3,155
RCP 8.5	12,939	21,298	4,215

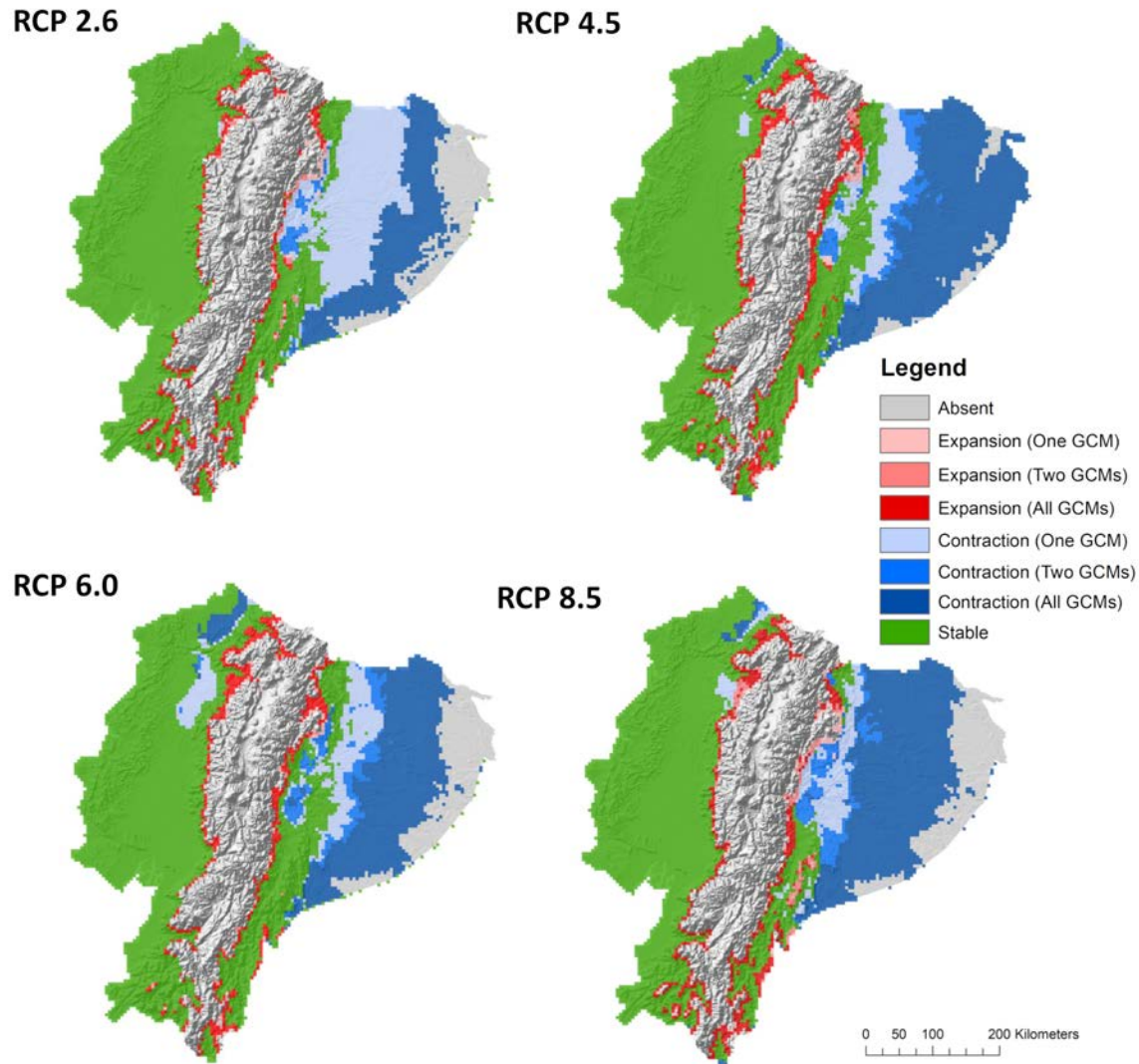
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312
313 **Fig. 3.** Agreement of best model subsets built with best ranked suite of environmental variables
314 for larval *Aedes aegypti* presence in Ecuador under A) current climate conditions and future
315 climate conditions projected to the year 2050 under Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP)
316 2.6 (B1,C1,D1) and 8.5 (B2,C2,D2) for the B) BCC-CSM-1, C) CCSM4, and D) HADGEM2-ES
317 General Circulation Models (GCM) climate models.

318



319

320 **Fig. 4.** Best model subsets for current and future climate (GCMs projected to the year 2050) were
321 combined by RCP emissions scenarios to illustrate the estimated contraction and expansion of
322 larval *Aedes aegypti* geographic range in Ecuador.

323

324 Discussion

325 The predicted current geographic distribution of larval *Aedes aegypti* suitability in Ecuador,
326 under current climate conditions, largely reflects present-day risk maps for many of the
327 mosquito-borne diseases currently circulating in the country, wherein populations living at high
328 altitudes are not considered at-risk for transmission [52]. Predicted larval distributions are

329 roughly continuous in the eastern and western portions of Ecuador, but are sharply restricted
330 along increasing elevation gradients in the central portion of the country, the area corresponding
331 with the location of the Andes mountain range (Fig 2) [9]. This conspicuous absence of
332 mosquitoes in the Andes reflects the generally protective nature of high mountain elevations
333 from mosquito presence, with all models predicting larval mosquito absence throughout central
334 Ecuador (Figs 2–6). The predicted absence of *Ae. aegypti* in the eastern portion of the Amazon
335 basin is notable, as this is a region currently perceived as high-risk for mosquito exposure by
336 public health officials despite having low human population density, mostly owing to its low
337 altitude (Fig 2). Although similar in elevation to regions of active disease transmission in the
338 West, the hydrology of the Amazon basin differs considerably from coastal areas. Previous work
339 in this region suggests a great deal of spatial variability in the basin with regards to precipitation
340 and drainage patterns [53,54]. Given that the mosquito life cycle depends heavily on the
341 availability of water in the environment, spatial discrepancies in precipitation could account for
342 the low model agreement of mosquito presence in the easternmost portion of the Amazon.

343 Range expansion of *Ae. aegypti* into higher elevations as a result of changing climate was
344 supported across GCM models and emissions scenarios (Figs 3–7). All best model subsets
345 suggest that areas of transitional elevation along the eastern and western peripheries of the Andes
346 mountains may experience some level of increased exposure to the presence of mosquitoes,
347 though much of the mountain range, including densely populated areas like the capital city,
348 Quito, will remain unsuitable habitat. The intrusion of *Ae. aegypti* into areas of transitioning
349 elevation represents a potential area of concern for public health managers, as communities in
350 these areas are largely protected from mosquito exposure and associated diseases under current
351 climatic conditions. Excluding travel-related cases, reporting of arboviral diseases in Ecuador's

352 mountain dwelling populations is quite low, although there are low-lying valleys near Quito that
353 may be suitable for arbovirus transmission. Accordingly, the MSP primarily directs mosquito-
354 borne disease outreach and intervention efforts to high-risk communities, particularly in large
355 coastal cities with consistently high disease incidence, such as Guayaquil and Machala. As a
356 result, communities situated in the foothills of the Andes will not necessarily have the same risk
357 perceptions and preventative behaviors as those communities burdened with historically high
358 incidence of mosquito-borne diseases. This sets the stage for potential disparities in preventative
359 knowledge and health services should *Aedes* mosquitoes expand into naïve populations [5,55].
360 Conversely, extirpation of *Ae. aegypti*, especially the large range contraction predicted in
361 Amazonian Ecuador, has the potential to conserve valuable resources by triggering allocation
362 shifts as unsuitable areas no longer support active disease transmission.

363 Our findings are broadly consistent with a previous coarser scale ENM analysis of adult
364 mosquitoes in Ecuador, which suggests that while *Aedes* mosquitoes may shift into highland
365 areas under changing climate conditions, the total area of suitable habitat will ultimately decrease
366 as localized climatic conditions favor extirpation [30]. However, models of *Aedes* distribution in
367 the previous study were made through the year 2100, representing an extended time horizon for
368 guiding agency decision making. While predicted ranges in 2100 are visually similar to results
369 presented here, notable discrepancies exist between the spatial distributions predicted in our
370 models and the previous study for 2050, where the previous model predicts widespread absence
371 of mosquitoes in central Ecuador and presence throughout much of the eastern Amazon basin. In
372 contrast to our methods, Escobar *et al.* [30] used a different niche modeling algorithm, a different
373 model of climate change (A2), a coarser spatial resolution (20 km), and combined global species
374 occurrence for two adult arbovirus vectors, *Ae. aegypti* and the Asian tiger mosquito (*Aedes*

375 *albopictus*), to predict pooled arbovirus risk throughout Ecuador. Though *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae.*
376 *albopictus* are competent vectors of diseases that occur in Ecuador (e.g. dengue, chikungunya,
377 Zika), these species differ significantly in their physiology, possibly driving observed
378 discrepancies between the models of pooled adult *Aedes spp.* risk and larval *Ae. aegypti* range
379 [56]. Reaching consensus across ENMs is a known area of conflict in ecology that requires more
380 research, where various methodologies can lead to vastly different forecasts of geographic
381 distributions and risk, making direct comparisons between models difficult [57]. Future studies
382 combining multiple approaches and comparing the impact of input on models could help resolve
383 this conundrum.

384 We chose a moderately low spatial resolution for this study (5km raster cells) to reflect
385 the highest level of precision that could be assigned to larval mosquito occurrence (i.e. points
386 could be matched to cities or clusters of villages, but not to individual households or
387 neighborhoods). This scale of analysis presents a limitation in applying resulting ENMs for local
388 management decisions. Arboviral disease transmission and larval mosquito presence, especially
389 for *Ae. aegypti*, are typically managed at the household or neighborhood level, and although we
390 can use these results to discuss regional changes in mosquito distribution throughout Ecuador,
391 we cannot overstate the findings as a means to assess risk at the level of disease transmission
392 [58]. Furthermore, the LI survey conducted by the MSP was limited in that focus was placed on
393 sampling areas with perceived arbovirus transmission risk throughout Ecuador, especially
394 households in densely populated urban centers and established communities where cases had
395 been reported in the past. Low accessibility and human population density in Ecuador's eastern
396 basin region may have contributed to under sampling of mosquito presence in these areas,
397 possibly accounting for low model agreement in this area. Ultimately, robust vector surveillance

398 for *Ae. aegypti* in eastern Ecuador would be required to validate absence in this region, though
399 such intensive ground-truthing would be wrought with logistical concerns, including diversion of
400 scarce surveillance resources from high-demand management districts and the inherent difficulty
401 of establishing “true” absence via surveys.

402 *Aedes aegypti* is a globally invasive species, owing much of its success to its close
403 connection with human activity and urban environments. As a result, microclimate can become a
404 critical factor in determining true habitat suitability, and there are many examples of
405 anthropogenic structures providing a buffering effect, or refuge, against climatic conditions that
406 would be otherwise physiologically limiting to insect vectors [5,59–62]. Similarly, dramatic
407 shifts in species compositions in Ecuador, mediated by elevation, also occur on very fine spatial
408 scales [63,64]. Moving forward, observed areas of range expansion on the edge of unsuitable
409 habitat may be better modeled at finer resolutions, which would aid in making community-
410 targeted management decisions based on estimated risk.

411 Based on the results of this study, we conclude that the geographic distribution of larval
412 *Aedes aegypti* in Ecuador will be impacted by projected shifts in climate. Extensive changes in
413 modeled vector distributions were observed even under the most conservative climate change
414 scenario, and these changes, although consistent in pattern, became more evident with
415 increasingly high greenhouse gas emissions scenarios. Although there is a continued need for
416 surveillance activities, these findings enable us to anticipate transitioning risk of arboviral
417 diseases in a spatial context throughout Ecuador, allowing for long-term planning of agency
418 vector control strategies.

419

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627 **Supporting information**

628 **S1 Table. Prevalence of environmental coverages in model building ruleset.**

Environmental Variable	Ruleset Prevalence
Alt	0.94
Bio 5	0.94
Bio 7	0.91
Bio 8	0.82
Bio 9	0.85
Bio 10	0.85
Bio 11	0.74
Bio 13	0.88
Bio 15	0.68
Bio 17	0.94
Bio 19	0.85
GPW	0.74

629

630

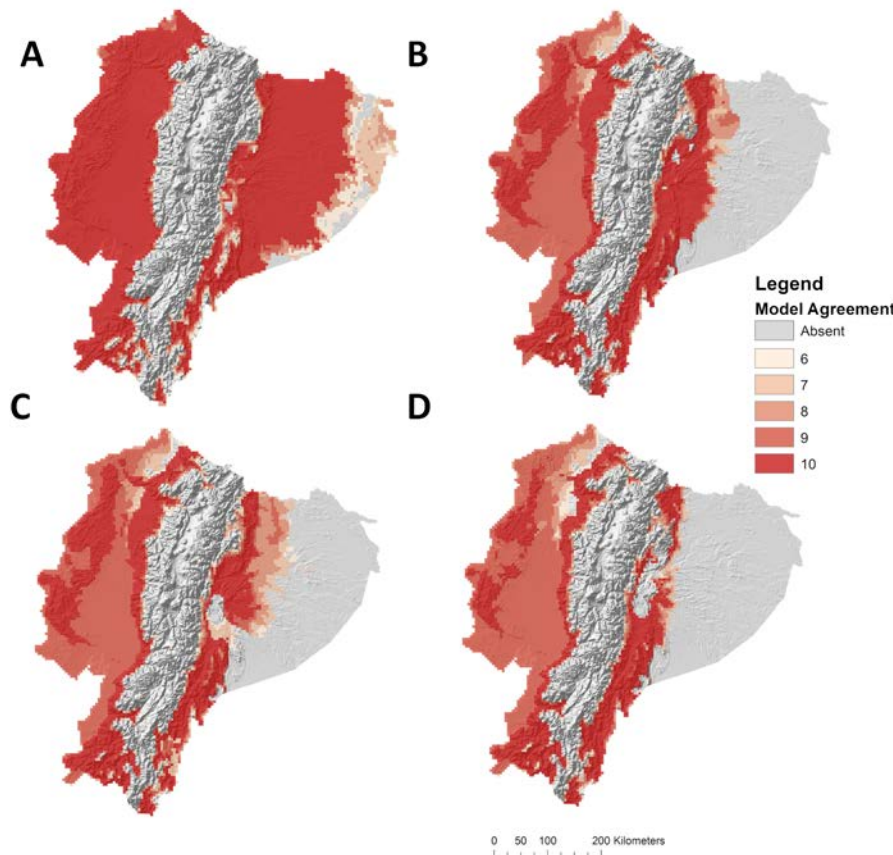
631

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634 **S1 Fig.** Agreement of best model subsets built with best ranked suite of environmental variables
635 for larval *Aedes aegypti* presence in Ecuador under A) current climate conditions and future
636 climate conditions projected to the year 2050 under Representative Concentration Pathway
637 (RCP) 4.5 for the B) BCC-CSM-1, C) CCSM4, and D) HADGEM2-ES General Circulation
638 Models (GCM) climate models.

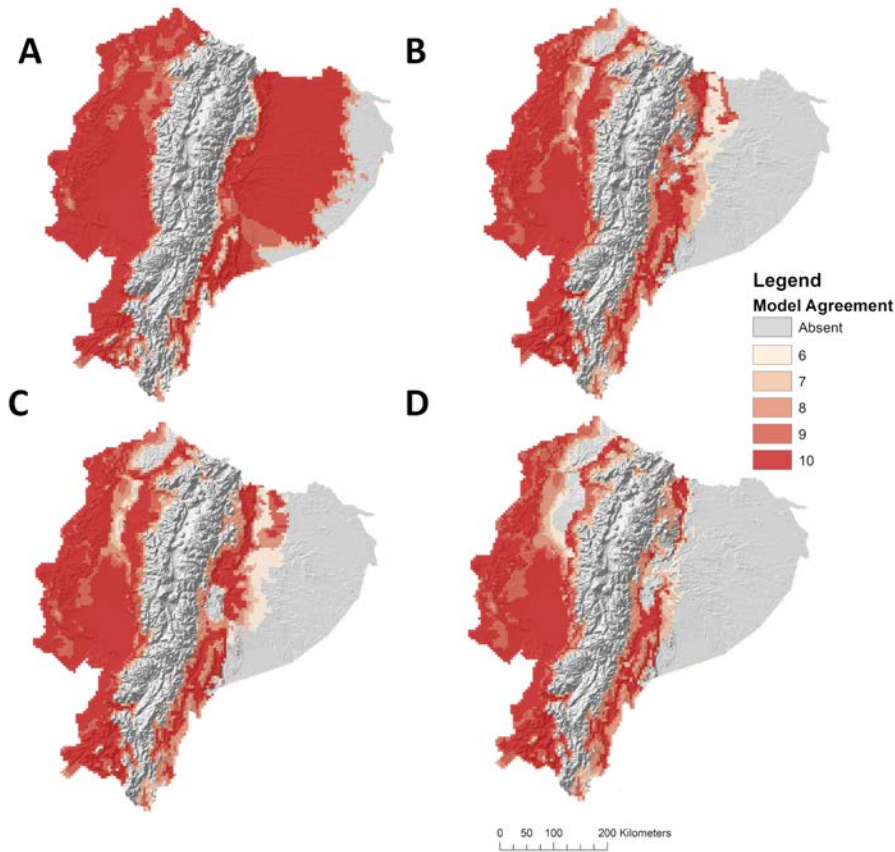
RCP 4.5



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RCP 6.0



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643 **S2 Fig.** Agreement of best model subsets built with best ranked suite of environmental variables
644 for larval *Aedes aegypti* presence in Ecuador under A) current climate conditions and future
645 climate conditions projected to the year 2050 under Representative Concentration Pathway
646 (RCP) 6.0 for the B) BCC-CSM-1, C) CCSM4, and D) HADGEM2-ES General Circulation
647 Models (GCM) climate models.