

1 **Distribution of Vectors of Dengue in India in view of Climate Change**
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10 **Key Points:**

- 11 • Bio-climatic factors affect the presence and abundance of the dengue vectors *Aedes*
12 *aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* in India
13 • Future climate change is projected to extend the range of *Aedes aegypti* into the Thar
14 desert in Rajasthan
15 • Range of *Aedes albopictus* is projected to extend into the upper and trans Himalayas as a
16 result of climate change

17 Abstract

18 India has witnessed a five-fold increase in dengue incidence in the past decade. However, the
19 nation-wide distribution of dengue vectors, and the impacts of climate change are not known. In
20 this study, species distribution modelling was used to predict the baseline and future distribution
21 of Aedine vectors in India on the basis of biologically relevant climatic indicators. Known
22 occurrences of *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* were obtained from the GBIF database and
23 previous literature. Bio-climatic variables were used as the potential predictors of vector
24 distribution. After eliminating collinear and low contributing predictors, the baseline and future
25 prevalence of *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* was determined, under three RCP scenarios (RCP
26 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5), using the MaxEnt species distribution model. *Ae. aegypti* was found
27 prevalent in most parts of the southern peninsula, the eastern coastline, north eastern states and
28 the northern plains. In contrast, *Ae. albopictus* has localized distribution along the eastern and
29 western coastlines, north eastern states and in the lower Himalayas. Under future scenarios of
30 climate change, *Ae. aegypti* is projected to expand into unsuitable regions of the Thar desert,
31 whereas *Ae. albopictus* is projected to expand to the upper and trans Himalaya regions of the
32 north. Overall, the results provide a reliable assessment of vectors prevalence in most parts of the
33 country that can be used to guide surveillance efforts, despite minor disagreements with dengue
34 incidence in Rajasthan and the north east, possibly due to behavioural practices and sampling
35 efforts.

36 Plain Language Summary

37 Climatic parameters derived from temperature and humidity affect the development and survival
38 of mosquitoes that spread diseases. In the past decade, India has witnessed an alarming rise in
39 dengue, a viral disease that spreads through the bite of the mosquitoes *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae.*
40 *albopictus*. We used machine learning based modelling algorithm to predict the present and
41 future abundance of these mosquitoes in India, based on biologically relevant climatic factors.
42 The results project expansion of *Ae. aegypti* in the hot arid regions of the Thar desert and *Ae.*
43 *albopictus* in cold upper Himalayas as a result of future climatic changes. The results provide a
44 useful guide for strengthening efforts for entomological and dengue surveillance.

45 1 Introduction

46 Dengue is the most widespread arthropod-borne disease, that has become endemic in
47 more than 100 countries (World Health Organization, 2020). It is usually found in tropical and
48 sub-tropical climates, with a vast majority of dengue cases occurring in the Americas and in
49 South-East Asia (World Health Organization, 2020). In India, dengue has witnessed an alarming
50 upsurge in the past decade, with more than fivefold increase from 28,066 cases in 2010
51 (NVBDCP, 2010) to 1,57,315 cases in 2019 (NVBDCP, 2020).

52 The two arthropod vectors of dengue are *Aedes (Stegomyia) aegypti (L.)* and *Aedes*
53 *(Stegomyia) albopictus (Skuse)*, which are also responsible for the transmission of several other
54 arboviruses such as the chikungunya virus (CHIKV), yellow fever virus and Zika virus (ZIKV).
55 *Ae. aegypti* exhibits an indoor resting behaviour and primarily feeds on humans during the day
56 (Scott & Takken, 2012). It is mostly found in urban areas and usually breeds in man-made water
57 receptacles such as plastic containers and rubber tyres (Vijayakumar et al., 2014). *Ae. albopictus*
58 prefers to rest outdoors and is an opportunistic feeder (Paupy et al., 2009), though strong
59 anthropophilic behaviour has also been observed in some studies (Delatte et al., 2010; Ponlawat

60 & Harrington, 2005). The presence and population size of these arthropod vectors is highly
61 dependent on climatic factors such as temperature, rainfall and relative humidity. The
62 poikilothermic physiology of mosquitoes renders them sensitive to temperature extremities,
63 which affects larval development as well as vector mortality (Farjana et al., 2012). Rainfall also
64 supports vector populations by providing suitable habitat for development of the aquatic larval
65 stages (Farjana et al., 2012).

66 The drastic rise in dengue cases in India warrants a more concerted effort for dengue
67 management and control and generation of suitable knowledge to support dengue management.
68 At present, no known vaccine or specific treatment for dengue exists (Gupta & Reddy, 2013).
69 Dengue control in India is based on vector control practices such as indoor space spraying,
70 fogging, environmental management and promotion of personal protection (NVBDCP, 2014).
71 However, the nation-wide distribution of dengue vectors in India is not known and the presence
72 of aedine species has been established only in some parts of the country based on local vector
73 surveillance. Moreover, climate change could significantly affect the known distribution of
74 vectors. In recent years, Species distribution modelling (SDM) has emerged as an important tool
75 for identifying the ecological niche and climate change induced range shifts in different species.
76 This is particularly important for species that are vectors for pathogens and pose a human health
77 risk. Maximum Entropy (MaxEnt v3.3.3) is a machine learning algorithm for modelling species
78 distributions using presence-only records. Its predictive performance is highly competitive as
79 compared to other SDMs and has been used extensively since becoming available in 2004 (Elith
80 et al., 2011). Therefore, in this study we used the MaxEnt model for predicting the present and
81 future distributions of Aedine vectors of dengue in India under different climate change
82 scenarios.

83 **2 Data and Methods**

84 **2.1 Species occurrence data**

85 Primary occurrence data for the two primary vectors of dengue in India – *Ae. aegypti* and
86 *Ae. albopictus* was obtained from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF -
87 <https://www.gbif.org/>). The records contain 562 points of occurrence of *Ae. aegypti* (GBIF,
88 2020a) and 207 points of occurrence of *Ae. albopictus* (GBIF, 2020b) in India, most of which
89 come from a recent large-scale study that compiled a global geographic database of *Ae. aegypti*
90 and *Ae. albopictus* locations, derived from peer reviewed literature, national entomological
91 surveys and expert networks (Kraemer et al., 2015). As the study included literature only up to
92 2014, there was a need to update the occurrence points based on new literature since 2015.

93 An extensive survey of all dengue entomological studies conducted in India after 2014
94 was carried out. The search terms ‘India’, ‘aegypti’ and ‘albopictus’ were used to find relevant
95 peer reviewed literature in NCBI - PubMed (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/>), Science
96 Direct (<https://www.sciencedirect.com/>) and grey literature in Google Scholar
97 <https://scholar.google.com/>). Only those studies were included where the exact coordinates of the
98 survey were clearly mentioned. After adding these to the initial database, in total 690 occurrence
99 points of *Ae. aegypti* and 330 occurrence points of *Ae. albopictus* were obtained. The species
100 occurrence points were plotted in GIS environment using ArcGIS software.

101 2.2 Climatic predictors

102 Nineteen bioclimatic variables that indicate the general trend, extremity and seasonality
103 of temperature and precipitation were used as the potential predictors of vector distribution and
104 its suitable habitat. Baseline (1970 – 2000) and future (2030s, 2050s and 2070s) climatic data for
105 bioclimatic variables under three RCP scenarios (RCP2.6, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5), was obtained
106 from WorldClim website (Fick & Hijmans, 2017) with a spatial resolution of 2.5 arc minutes (~5
107 km). Future projections of climate change thus obtained, were based on the CNRM-CM6-1
108 (Voltaire et al., 2019) general circulation model developed from the Coupled Model
109 Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP-6) (Eyring et al., 2016).

110 2.3 Data processing

111 All data processing and modelling steps were conducted using a combination of R-
112 statistics (R Core Team, 2013), within the RStudio interface (RStudio Team, 2020), and
113 ArcGIS® software by Esri.

114 Duplicate records in the species occurrence data were analyzed and removed accordingly.
115 To account for spatial autocorrelation, spatial thinning was applied to the species occurrence
116 records at 5 km intervals (equivalent to the resolution of environmental datasets) using the R-
117 package spThin (Aiello-Lammens et al., 2015). The final species occurrence data contained 383
118 and 205 spatially explicit records of *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* respectively. The species
119 occurrence records, were used to construct a sampling bias layer in order to account for
120 differences in sampling efforts across different locations.

121 In order to reduce model complexity, highly collinear variables that did not contribute
122 significantly to the model output were eliminated. Pearson's correlation factor was used to
123 identify variables that show strong collinearity (>0.8), and a cluster dendrogram of variables
124 grouped based on collinearity was constructed (Supplementary Figure 1). Initial models were run
125 using all bioclimatic variables, and the contribution of each variable to model output was
126 determined. Variables with low contribution to model outputs and strong collinearity (>0.8) with
127 other variables were eliminated one by one in subsequent models to obtain the final list of non-
128 collinear bioclimatic variables. At each stage, the effect of eliminating a variable on model
129 performance was assessed based on the area under the ROC (Receiver operating characteristic)
130 curve (AUC) value. The selected variables were finally reviewed and approved through expert
131 opinion (Table 1).

132 2.4 Predictive Modelling

133 Present and future distribution of *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* was evaluated using
134 Maxent (v 3.4.1) (Phillips et al., n.d.) with the help of the R package ENMTML (Andrade et al.,
135 2020). Maxent is a presence-only species distribution model that employs a machine learning
136 algorithm to generate a probability distribution of the selected species, and has been shown to be
137 effective even with low number of sampling points (Townsend Peterson et al., 2007). Model
138 parameters were determined by hit and try method, wherein initial models were run with five
139 levels of complexity (linear, linear-quadratic, hinge, linear-quadratic-hinge and linear-quadratic-
140 hinge-polynomial) and 20 regularization multipliers from 1-10 with a half step interval in
141 between. The outputs were analyzed based on the omission rate with respect to the testing data,
142 Akaike Information Criterion score (AICC) and AUC values. Based on these, the best set of
143 parameters for the maxent model was selected. Pseudo absences were allocated randomly after

144 applying appropriate environmental and geographical constraints (50 km buffer). For validation
 145 of model outputs, k-fold cross validation was used to partition the presence data into five subsets.
 146 The outputs were obtained in the form of GeoTiff rasters containing the logistic suitability score
 147 as the values of the pixels for the baseline and each of the future projections.

148 The continuous logistic outputs were then converted to binary outputs using the
 149 ‘maximum test for sensitivity and specificity (MAXTSS)’ in MaxEnt, which has been identified
 150 as the best method for threshold selection in presence only models (Liu et al., 2005). The results
 151 were plotted in ArcGIS and was used to assess the risk of range expansion in the vectors.

152 2.5 Validation of Model Outputs

153 A number of different evaluation metrics were used for assessing the model performance.
 154 The traditional accuracy measures (AUC and Kappa/True Skill Statistic - TSS) have often been
 155 criticized due to their over-dependence on species prevalence and can give misleadingly high
 156 values by not penalizing over prediction (Allouche et al., 2006). Therefore, similarity indices –
 157 namely Jaccard and Sorensen, which are not biased by true negatives were also evaluated. Most
 158 evaluation metrics are constructed for presence-absence models and modified accordingly for
 159 presence-only models. Therefore, to ensure model reliability, the Boyce index which is
 160 specifically a presence-only metric, was also computed. The significance of selected bioclimatic
 161 variables in model outputs was assessed by permutation importance contribution.

162 3 Results

163 3.1 Variables’ Contribution and Selection

164 Pearson’s correlation test and cluster dendrogram revealed groups of variables which
 165 showed very high collinearity. Low contributing and collinear variables were eliminated one by
 166 one, after running multiple preliminary models. The final list of variables with low collinearity
 167 and significant contribution to outputs is presented in Table 1.

168 Table 1

169 *Selected bioclimatic variables*

Variable ID	Variable name
bio 2	Mean diurnal range
bio 3	Isothermality
bio 4	Temperature seasonality
bio 6	Min. temperature of coldest month
bio 15	Precipitation seasonality
bio 16	Precipitation of wettest quarter
bio 17	Precipitation of driest quarter
bio 18	Precipitation of warmest quarter
bio 19	Precipitation of coldest quarter

170

171 Based on selected variables, a pair-wise distribution plot was generated (Supplementary
 172 Figure 2) which revealed that the collinearity between the variables is not significant.

173 3.2 Evaluation of Model Performance

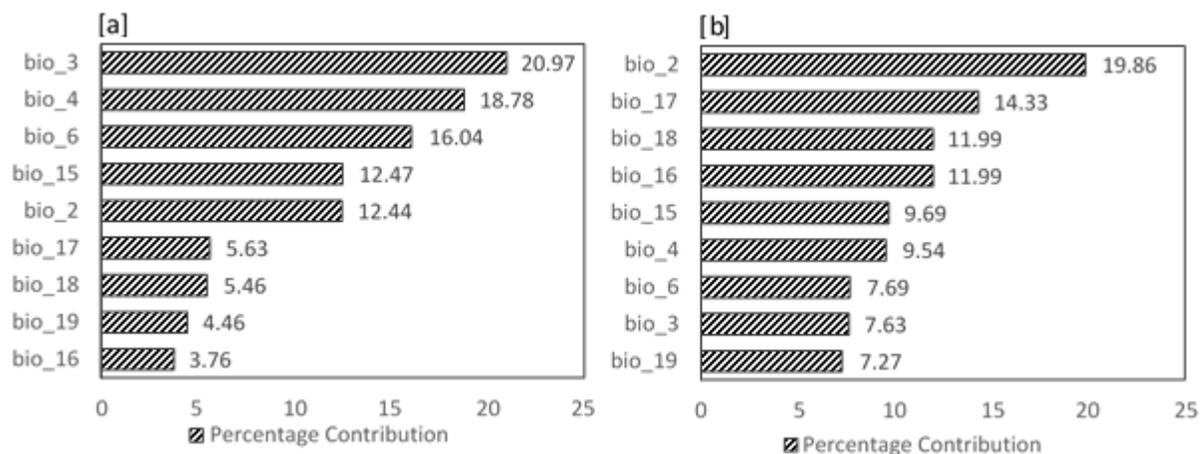
174 Three types of evaluation metrics were computed for *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus*
 175 model outputs (Table 2) – accuracy metrics (AUC and TSS), similarity indices (Jaccard and
 176 Sorensen) and reliability metrics (Continuous Boyce Index).

177 Table 1

178 *Accuracy and reliability metrics for the validation of model outputs*

Variable	<i>Ae. aegypti</i>		<i>Ae. albopictus</i>	
	Coefficient	sd	Coefficient	sd
AUC	0.94	0.01	0.95	0.04
TSS	0.77	0.04	0.84	0.11
Jaccard	0.80	0.03	0.85	0.09
Sorensen	0.89	0.02	0.92	0.05
OR	0.06	0.03	0.07	0.06
Boyce	0.86	0.03	0.84	0.08

179 The AUC values for both *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* were significantly high (0.94
 180 and 0.95 respectively) indicating strong agreement between the training and testing datasets. The
 181 threshold dependent TSS values were also significant high for the two species (0.77 and 0.84)
 182 indicating that model performance was very good. Similarity indices such as Jaccard and
 183 Sorensen were identified as an alternative to the traditional accuracy metrics that measure the
 184 similarity between the model outputs and validation datasets. Significantly high values of the
 185 Jaccard (0.80 and 0.85) and Sorensen indices (0.89 and 0.92) for both the vectors also indicate
 186 that the model was able to accurately predict vector prevalence. Similarly, high values of Boyce
 187 index (0.86 and 0.84) for the model outputs indicates that model performance was excellent.



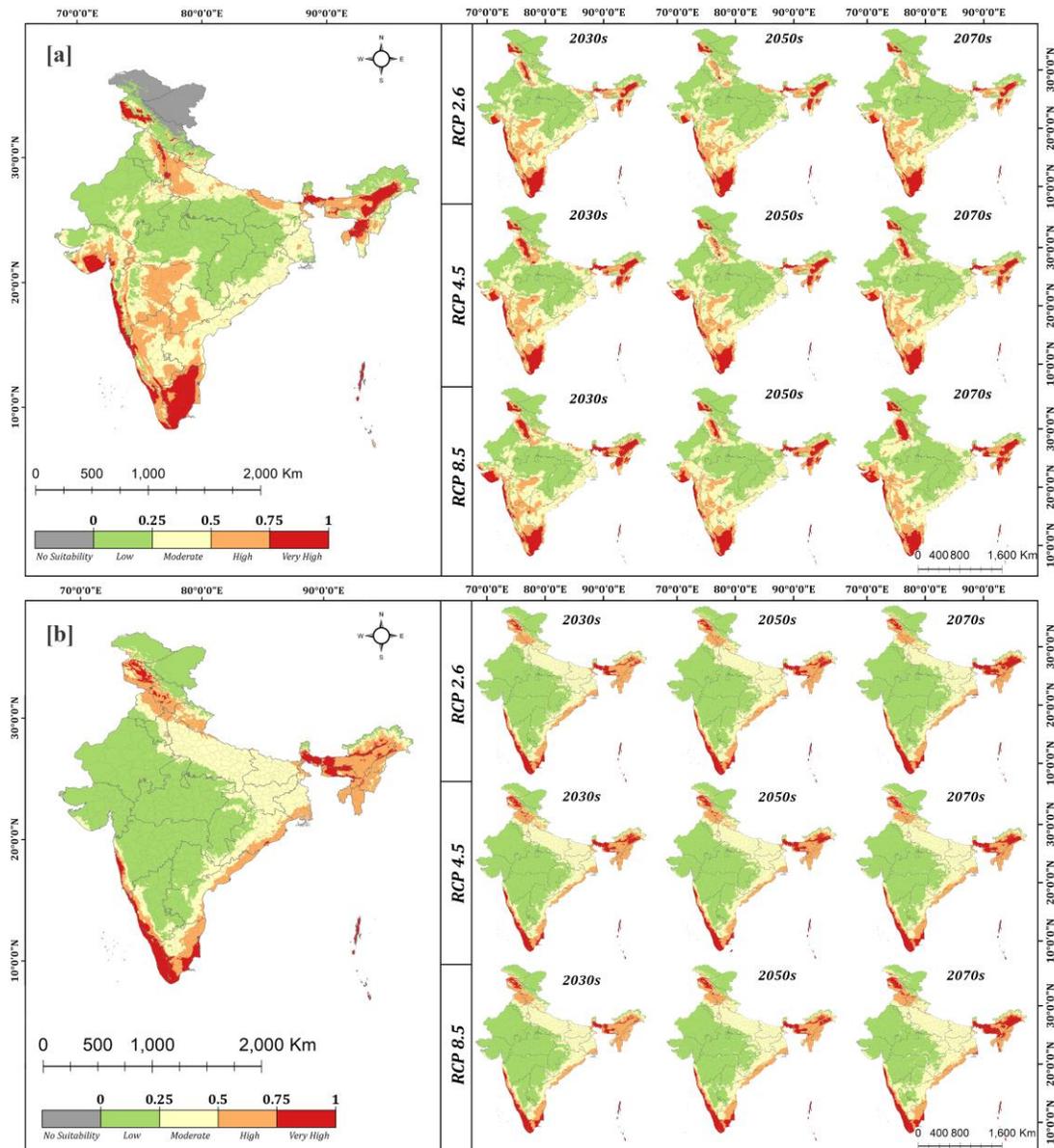
188
 189 Figure 1

190 *Variable Contributions to model outputs for (a) Ae. aegypti and (b) Ae. albopictus*

191

192 The variables which contributed most to model outputs (Figure 4) for *Ae. aegypti* were
 193 found to be the isothermality (bio3), temperature seasonality (bio4) and the minimum
 194 temperature of the coldest month (bio6). On the other hand, for the prevalence of *Ae. albopictus*
 195 mean diurnal range (bio2), precipitation of the driest quarter (bio17) and precipitation of the
 196 warmest quarter (bio18) were found as important variables. This indicates that temperature may
 197 be an important limiting factor for *Ae. aegypti*, whereas precipitation is the limiting factor for *Ae.*
 198 *albopictus*.

199 3.3 Baseline and projected future distribution of *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus*



200

201 Figure 2

202 *Baseline and projected future suitability of (a) Ae. aegypti (b) Ae. albopictus under different*
 203 *climate change scenarios*

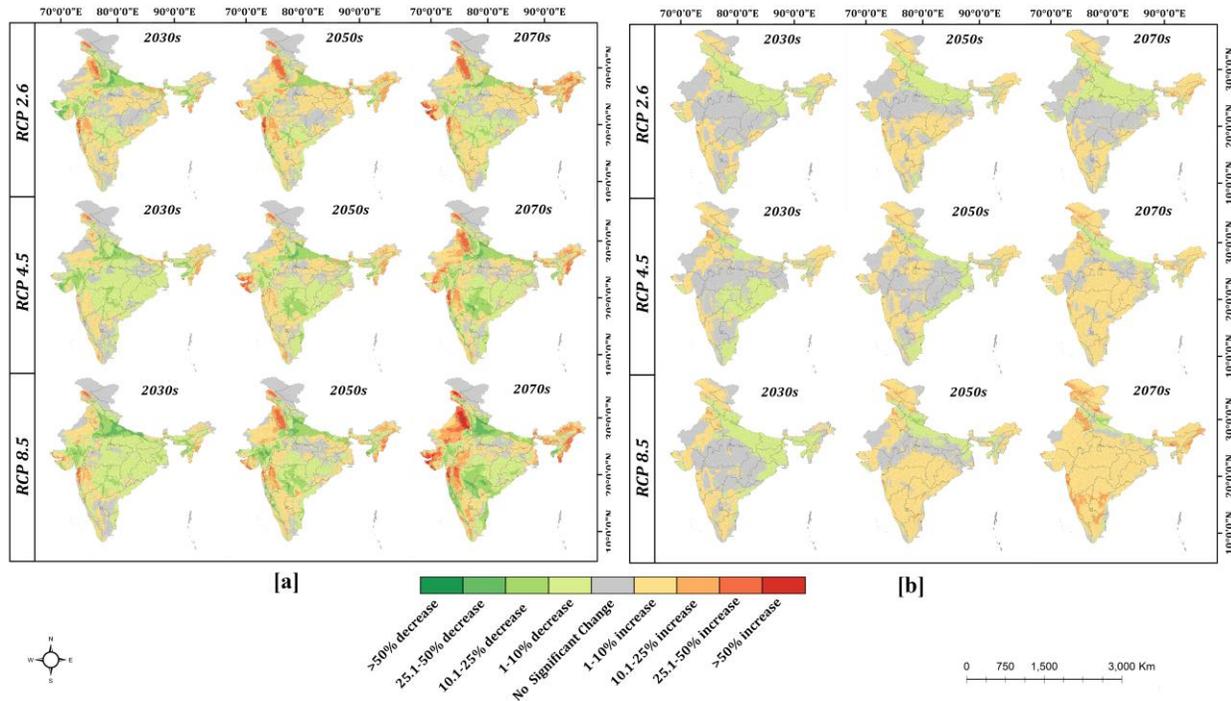
204 Based on the probability distribution maps generated from maxent logistic output (Figure
205 2), the baseline distribution of *Ae. aegypti* was found very high in the Kashmir valley (0.63 -
206 0.91), Malwa plains of Punjab (0.59 - 0.76) and Haryana (0.65 - 0.88), Saurashtra region of
207 Gujarat (0.4 - 0.79), upper Brahmaputra and Barak valley in Assam (0.69-0.88), the Konkan
208 coastline (0.75-0.95) and the southern peninsular plains (0.61-0.96). The vector had high focal
209 prevalence in the urbanized western regions of Uttar Pradesh (UP) (0.51 - 0.65), Delhi (0.76 -
210 0.88), some northern districts of Bihar (0.48 - 0.67) and the northern Jalpaiguri division of West
211 Bengal (0.56 - 0.93).

212 A few regions of the Deccan plateau and northern Indo-Gangetic plains also had
213 moderate to high (0.25 – 0.75) distribution of *Ae. aegypti*. Most of the central highlands, the Thar
214 desert region and the greater Himalayan regions of Jammu & Kashmir have very low prevalence
215 (> 0.25) of *Ae. aegypti*. The vector is found absent in the trans-Himalayan regions of Jammu &
216 Kashmir and Ladakh.

217 The prevalence of *Ae. albopictus* was found very high along the Coromandel (0.63 -
218 0.98), Malabar (0.88 - 0.97), and Konkan coastline (0.62 - 0.81), southern western ghats (0.79 –
219 0.99), Kashmir valley (0.68-0.85), lower Brahmaputra valley, Kamrup and Goalpara hills in
220 Assam (0.71-0.8) as well as the Himalayan and terai regions of West Bengal (0.74 - 0.89). In the
221 north eastern region, both vectors are prevalent but, *Ae. albopictus* appears to be the dominant
222 vector with more widespread distribution. For example, in Arunachal Pradesh, *Ae. albopictus*
223 was significantly more abundant than *Ae. aegypti*, which is restricted only to the lesser
224 Himalayas. In the Indo-Gangetic plains and eastern ghats (0.28 - 0.54), *Ae. albopictus* had
225 widespread moderate (0.29 - 0.49) prevalence in the baseline years, whereas a large part of India,
226 including the arid and semi-arid regions of Rajasthan and Gujarat and most of Deccan plateau
227 and the central highlands show low prevalence (0.04 - 0.18) of *Ae. albopictus*.

228 Future projections of climate change were based on three scenarios of climate change –
229 the low emissions scenario (RCP 2.6), moderate emissions scenario (RCP 4.6) and high
230 emissions scenario (RCP 8.5). The RCP 2.6 scenario of climate change projects a twofold
231 increase in geographic area with very high prevalence of *Ae. aegypti* in Punjab and Haryana, and
232 a further 18.3% increase in area by 2070s. However, an initial reduction in suitability of *Ae.*
233 *aegypti* is projected in the Saurashtra and Kachchh regions of Gujarat (12-32%), Jalpaiguri
234 division of West Bengal (5-9%) and north eastern states (10-16%) by 2030s. This is followed by
235 a substantial increase in suitability by 2050s and 2070s in Gujarat (9-34% and 10-40%) and in
236 the Barak valley region of the north east (10-21% and 10-24%). Some reduction in suitability is
237 also observed in the Rohilkhand and Awadh plains of Uttar Pradesh (10-28% in 2030s, 10-19%
238 in 2050s and 11-24% in 2070s). The RCP 4.5 scenario projects a significant reduction suitability
239 for *Ae. aegypti* by 2030s in Haryana (10-15%), Punjab (3-13%), Delhi (9-15%), Rohilkhand and
240 Awadh plains of Uttar Pradesh (10-26%), Saurashtra regions of Gujarat (11-21%), Tripura (14-
241 16%), Meghalaya (11-16%) and the upper Brahmaputra valley of Assam (7-13%). The suitability
242 for *Ae. aegypti* reduces further in western UP (11-26% in 2050s, 11-28% in 2070s), but increases
243 considerably in Gujarat by 2050s (15-34%) as well as in Punjab (13-31%) and Haryana (10-
244 31%) by 2070s. Similarly, under RCP 8.5, a significant reduction in suitability for *Ae. aegypti* is
245 projected in Punjab, Haryana, the Indo-Gangetic plains, most of Gujarat, north east and eastern
246 regions as well as in the southern peninsular plateau. The reduction in suitability continues in
247 2050s and 2070s in the southern peninsular plateau, with a 13.4% contraction in very high
248 suitability areas by 2070s. However, the suitability for *Ae. aegypti* increases considerably in

249 2050s and 2070s in Punjab (12-60%), Haryana (22-65%), Gujarat (10-40%), Meghalaya (10-
 250 24%) and Mizoram (17-36%). In Nagaland and the Konkan coast of Maharashtra, suitability for
 251 *Ae. aegypti* increases under all future years, with most significant rise in 2070s (13-31% and 15-
 252 32% respectively). Furthermore, *Ae. aegypti* is projected to invade several regions of Leh
 253 (Ladakh) and northern Himachal Pradesh which are unsuitable for *Ae. aegypti* in baseline years.



254

255 Figure 3

256 Change in suitability for (a) *Ae. aegypti* and (b) *Ae. albopictus* in future scenarios of climate
 257 change

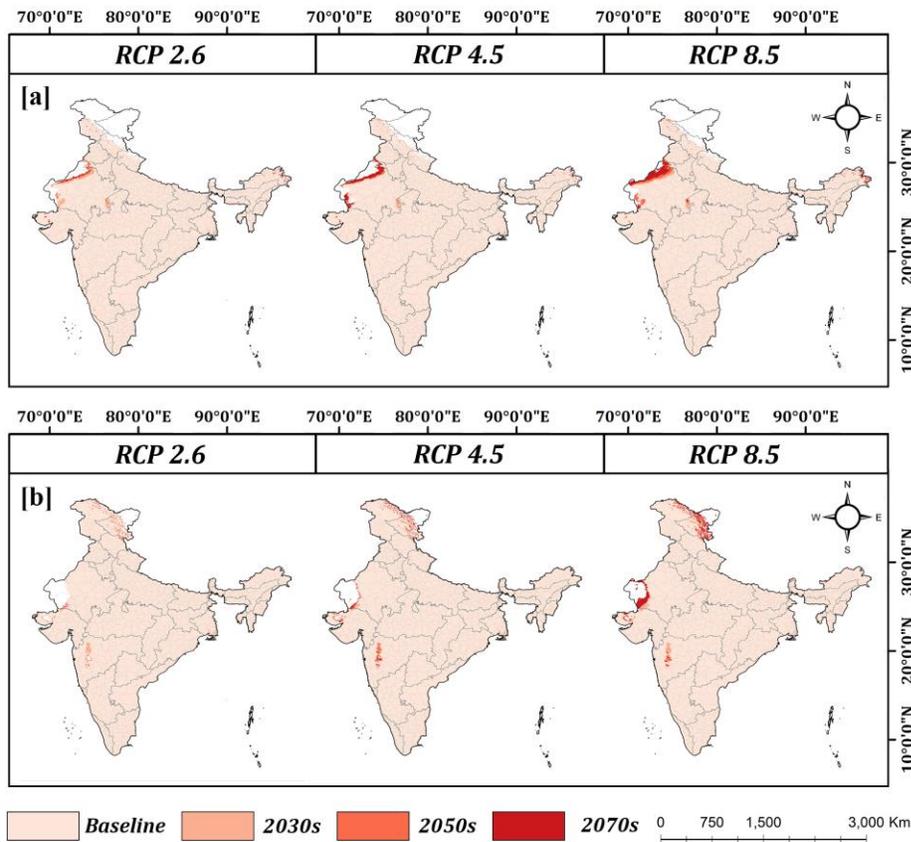
258 The suitability for *Ae. albopictus* is not expected to change substantially in the country,
 259 though some local changes in suitability are visible from the logistic distribution and change
 260 maps. Under RCP 2.6, the suitability for *Ae. albopictus* increases gradually in the upper
 261 Brahmaputra valley of Assam, with as much as 40% and 122% increase in geographic area of
 262 very high suitability in the 2050s and 2070s respectively. Minor reduction in suitability is also
 263 observed in the terai regions of Uttarakhand (5-12%). Similar changes are projected in RCP 4.5.
 264 However, under RCP 8.5 significant increase in suitability is projected Meghalaya and lower
 265 Brahmaputra valley (11-19%), in addition to the upper Brahmaputra valley. Suitability for *Ae.*
 266 *albopictus* does not change significantly in future years in the semi-arid and arid regions and the
 267 central highlands under all three scenarios of climate change.

268 3.4 Projected Range Expansion of Vectors

269 The binary outputs generated by using the maximum test for sensitivity and specificity
 270 (MaxTSS) as the presence threshold (Figure 3), project an expansion in the distribution of *Ae.*
 271 *aegypti* at the edges of the Thar desert in Rajasthan, by 2030s, 2050s and 2070s. This expansion
 272 is most prominent in the RCP 8.5 scenario, and by 2070s, almost all of Rajasthan is projected to

273 be suitable for *Ae. aegypti*. Minor increase in range of *Ae. aegypti* is also projected in the upper
 274 Himalayas of Arunachal Pradesh.

275 On the other hand, the results project a substantial expansion of *Ae. albopictus* in the Leh
 276 (Ladakh) regions comprising of the upper and trans-Himalayas (Figure 3). Significant increase in
 277 range of *Ae. albopictus* is also projected in the Jaisalmer district of Rajasthan.



278

279 Figure 4

280 Projected range expansion of (a) *Ae. aegypti* and (b) *Ae. albopictus* in future years under
 281 different climate change scenarios

282 4 Discussion and Conclusions

283 In India, several studies have been undertaken on the projected scenario of malaria and
 284 dengue with respect to climate change (Dhiman et al., 2011; Sarkar et al., 2019), while there are
 285 negligible studies on the altered distribution of vectors (Kraemer et al., 2019; Ogden et al.,
 286 2014). Furthermore, the alarming rise in dengue in the last decade has received relatively less
 287 attention (Gupta & Reddy, 2013). The present study has found widespread distribution of dengue
 288 vectors in India, with a significant risk of expansion in some parts of Thar desert and upper
 289 Himalayas, due to climate change. In north east India as well as the western coastline, both *Ae.*
 290 *aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* have high prevalence, which implies that the risk of dengue is high,
 291 though the reported cases of dengue do not reflect this. Such areas warrant constant monitoring
 292 and increased surveillance for dengue incidence. *Ae. aegypti* was found more prevalent in the

293 Deccan plateau and the semi-arid regions of Gujarat and Rajasthan, while *Ae. albopictus* in
294 eastern coastline.

295 *Ae. aegypti* is projected to witness more widespread increase in distribution under RCP
296 2.6 in 2030s and 2050s, whereas marginal reduction is observed in most parts of the country
297 under RCP 4.5 and 8.5. By 2070s, RCP 8.5 demonstrates a significant increase in suitability for
298 *Ae. aegypti* in the eastern parts of the country. In contrast, the suitability for *Ae. albopictus*
299 remains largely similar in most parts of the country by 2030s. Increase in the abundance of *Ae.*
300 *albopictus* is projected in southern India, upper Himalayan regions of Leh (Ladakh) and
301 Arunachal Pradesh by 2050s under RCP 8.5, and by 2070s. *Ae. albopictus* has been identified as
302 a cold-adapted species in earlier studies (Tippelt et al., 2020).

303 The states which regularly report high incidence of dengue, namely Gujarat, Maharashtra,
304 Punjab and Karnataka (NVBDCP, 2020) are also predicted to have very high distribution of *Ae.*
305 *aegypti* and/or *Ae. albopictus*. On the other hand, the model outputs are in disagreement with
306 dengue incidence in the states of Rajasthan and north-eastern parts. In Rajasthan, the distribution
307 of both the vectors is low but the incidence of dengue is high i.e. Rajasthan ranked four in
308 dengue incidence in the country in 2019 (NVBDCP, 2020). A study undertaken in 1997 (Kaul &
309 Rastogi, 1997) found perennial prevalence of *Ae. aegypti* in Rajasthan (Kaul & Rastogi, 1997)
310 which could not be captured by our models. The water storage practices in dry parts of Rajasthan
311 were perhaps not captured by the climatic variables suitable for *Aedes*. In North eastern states, it
312 is just the opposite, which can be explained by oversampling efforts in the north eastern states
313 (NVBDCP, 2020). Further studies are warranted to ascertain the reasons for low incidence in
314 north eastern states as well as the future risk of dengue in view of climate change.

315 A striking observation in our study was that temperature related factors (bio3, bio4, bio6)
316 contributed more significantly to the suitability of *Ae. aegypti*, whereas precipitation related
317 factors (bio16, bio17, bio18) contributed more significantly to the suitability of *Ae. albopictus*.
318 This difference is most likely a result of the differences in habitat preference of the two species.
319 As discussed previously, breeding of *Ae. aegypti* in household containers enables it to breed in
320 low precipitation conditions due to water storage practices of the community. At the same time,
321 *Ae. albopictus* has a larger temperature tolerance (Tippelt et al., 2020), due to which precipitation
322 is a more significant limiting factor for *Ae. albopictus*.

323 Our study provides updated insights on the changes in vector distribution in India over
324 the last two decades as compared to earlier published work in 1997 (Kaul & Rastogi, 1997). The
325 models are based on the assumption that there are no other dispersal limitations for the two
326 vectors, and therefore represent an ideal scenario. The probability distribution maps thus
327 generated may guide the ground surveillance efforts in projected areas of distribution of both the
328 vectors. The areas with projected expansion in range warrant strengthened efforts for
329 entomological as well as dengue surveillance.

330 **Acknowledgements**

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332 India for financial support as well the Director, National Institute of Malaria Research, Delhi for
333 making available the necessary facilities.

334 **Competing Interests**

335 The authors declare that there are no competing interests.

336 **Availability of data and materials**

337 Primary occurrence locations of Aedine vectors in India was obtained from the GBIF database
 338 (<https://www.gbif.org/>). The GBIF occurrences dataset used for *Aedes aegypti* is available at
 339 (<https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.b63mgt>) and that for *Aedes albopictus* is available at
 340 (<https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.jub5cx>). The occurrence datasets include data from a large scale
 341 study that compiled occurrence coordinates from literature upto 2014 (Kraemer et al., 2015).

342 An extensive literature survey was conducted to find Aedes occurrences in literature published
 343 after 2014. The data of these occurrences is available as a supplementary file and is being
 344 prepared in the Darwin core format for publishing with appropriate repositories.

345 Data for baseline and projected (RCP2.6, RCP4.5 and RCP 8.5) bioclimatic variables was
 346 obtained from WorldClim (Fick & Hijmans, 2017) at 2.5 arc minutes resolution. Future
 347 projections of climate change thus obtained, were based on the CNRM-CM6-1 (Voldoire et al.,
 348 2019) general circulation model developed from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project
 349 Phase 6 (CMIP-6) (Eyring et al., 2016).

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