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1 **Title:** Mapping the current distribution and predicted spread of the leishmaniosis sand fly vector in
2 the Madrid region (Spain) based on environmental variables and expected climate change

3 **Running Title:** Mapping leishmaniosis sand fly vectors in Madrid

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20 **Keywords:** *Phlebotomus perniciosus*, *Phlebotomus ariasi*, *Leishmania infantum*, climate change,

21 GIS, spatial analysis.

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4 22 **Abstract**
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8 23 Leishmaniosis caused by *Leishmania infantum* is a widespread zoonotic disease that is endemic in
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10 24 the Mediterranean basin. Based on prior point abundance data for the two sand fly vectors of
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12 25 leishmaniosis in the Madrid region (*Phlebotomus perniciosus* and *Phlebotomus ariasi*), models
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14 26 were constructed to predict the spatial distribution patterns of these vectors. The models were
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16 27 obtained by negative binomial regression of several environmental variables and then used to map
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18 28 vector distributions. To validate the maps, we used serological prevalence data of *Leishmania*
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20 29 infection in dogs and incidence data obtained through questionnaires completed by veterinarians in
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22 30 the region. Seropositive dogs and veterinary clinics registering a higher incidence of canine
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24 31 leishmaniosis (CanL) appeared closer to our modelled vector foci. In the face of climate change, we
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26 32 simulated the future distributions of the sand flies for each third of the twenty first century and
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28 33 predicted their spread in the region.
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44 Introduction

45 Leishmaniosis is a widespread endemic disease in the Mediterranean basin transmitted to humans
46 and animals by blood-sucking phlebotomine sand flies (Killick-Kendrick, 1990). In the Madrid
47 region, it is the most common zoonotic disease that afflicts infants (aged 0–4 years) and also
48 frequently affects patients with HIV infection (BECM, 2005). *Phlebotomus perniciosus* and
49 *Phlebotomus ariasi* are the proven vectors of *Leishmania infantum* in Spain (Rioux, 1986;
50 Lucientes Curdi, 1988; Martín-Sánchez et al., 1994), *P. perniciosus* being its main vector in the
51 Madrid region (Conesa Gallego, 1997; Gálvez et al., 2010a).

52 Interest in this disease has been rekindled by a proposed, yet disputed, risk of reintroduction of
53 leishmaniosis in Europe (Dujardin et al., 2008; Ready, 2010) fuelled by the idea that climate and
54 environmental factors determine the current geographical distribution range of its vectors. However,
55 this zoonosis (Chargui et al., 2007; Antoniou et al., 2009; Martín-Sánchez et al., 2009; Gálvez et al.,
56 2010b; Mazeris et al., 2010) and its vectors (Maroli et al., 2008; Gálvez et al., 2010a) have proved
57 particularly challenging in terms of predicting their trends, and it is thought that new tools such
58 remote sensing and geographic information systems (GIS) could help predict the spread of
59 leishmaniosis according to changing human activities and environmental conditions (Ready, 2008).
60 Mapping disease occurrence based on explanatory variables, or predicting its future distribution
61 based on expected climate changes, could serve to identify potential risk areas for human infection
62 both in space and time (Kitron, 1998; Kitron, 2000).

63 The first studies to apply these tools in leishmaniosis vector epidemiology emerged in the late
64 1990s. A model of *Phlebotomus papatasi* distribution was developed in Southwest Asia based on
65 weather and a so-called normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) (Cross et al., 1996). Thus, a
66 1–5°C rise in ambient temperature was linked to the expansion *P. papatasi* in this region (Cross and
67 Hyams, 1996). Also, through a logistic regression approach, a risk map was created for the presence

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5 68 of *Phlebotomus orientalis* in Sudan based on soil type, mean annual daily maximum temperature
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7 69 and rainfall (Thomson et al., 1999).

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9 70 More recently, several leishmaniosis risk maps based on environmental factors have been
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11 71 developed (Elnaiem et al., 2003; Gebre-Michael et al., 2004; King et al., 2004; Chamaille et al.,
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13 72 2010) and vector-reservoir distribution forecasts have been made under the premise of pending
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15 73 climate change (Peterson and Shaw, 2003; González et al., 2010).

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18 74 The objectives of this study were to construct vector distribution maps for the Madrid Autonomous
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21 75 Region, Spain, based on environmental variables and then to project these distributions to future
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23 76 climate scenarios for each third of the 21st century. These maps will provide useful information on
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26 77 the ecology of the leishmaniosis sand fly vectors in the Madrid region on which to base the design
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28 78 of appropriate and focused control measures.

29 30 79 **Materials and methods**

31 32 33 80 **Study site**

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36 81 The study was conducted under the EDEN project (www.eden-fp6project.net), whose aim is to
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38 82 identify and catalogue European ecosystems and environmental conditions that determine the
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41 83 spatial and temporal distributions and dynamics of several pathogenic agents, including *L. infantum*.
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43 84 The study area was the Madrid province (Fig. 1), central Spain (40°22'N and 3°43'W). The altitude
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45 85 of this region varies from 491–883 m in the south and centre, to 767–2400 m in its northern area.
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48 86 Climate and vegetation are typically Mediterranean, with hot, dry summers and maximum rainfall
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50 87 recorded in autumn and spring.

51 52 53 88 **Entomological records**

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55 89 A cross-sectional survey was conducted in July 2006 and 2007 across a band spanning northeast to
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57 90 southwest of the Madrid region, where canine leishmaniosis (CanL) is endemic (Amela et al., 1995;
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60 91 Miró et al., 2007; Gálvez et al., 2010b). The area selected included a mountain range (Sistema

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4 92 Central), and its foothills and plateau region. The widely-varying altitude (440 to 2414 m) of the
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6 93 study area determines both broad climate and vegetation ranges, influencing sand fly distributions.
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9 94 A description of this survey has been published elsewhere (Gálvez et al., 2010a). In brief, 123
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11 95 sampling sites were set up evenly distributed across a 60-square grid (5 min each side) in the study
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13 96 area, and geocoded using a GPS (see Fig. 1). Moran's I test revealed no spatial autocorrelation of
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16 97 the entomological data ($p = 0.394$). Ten to twenty sticky traps (A5-size paper coated with castor oil)
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18 98 were set for four days at each sampling site. The traps were mainly placed inside the holes used to
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21 99 drain embankments or containment walls alongside roads. These sites provide the microclimate
22
23 100 required by sand flies for diurnal rest (Rioux et al., 1982). However, since only a low number of *P.*
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26 101 *ariasi* specimens were observed the data used for model constructions were the densities of *P.*
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28 102 *perniciosus* plus *P. ariasi* calculated as the number of sand flies per trap square metre recovered
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31 103 from the 123 sampling sites.

32 104 **Environmental and meteorological variables**

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35 105 Using GIS software ArcGis v.9.2 (ESRI, Redlands, CA, USA), each sampling site was assigned a
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37 106 set of meteorological and environmental variables including: mean rainfall recorded over the four
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40 107 seasons of a year; minimum, maximum and mean temperatures for the four seasons; altitude;
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42 108 aspect; land cover; distance to urban settlement; distance to nearest livestock farm (cows, goats,
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45 109 pigs, horses and sheep) and distance to nearest poultry farm (quails, pheasants, chickens, geese,
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47 110 pigeons, ducks, turkeys, partridges, guinea fowl or ratites).

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49 111 Daily temperature and precipitation data were provided by the Spanish Meteorological Agency
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52 112 (AEMet). Each sampling site was assigned data from the closest meteorological station in the study
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54 113 area ($n=38$) using the spatial join-and-relate tool of the GIS software. The maximum distance
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56 114 between a sampling site and the nearest meteorological station was less than 5 km. Temperature and
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59 115 precipitation values were those recorded from September to November, December to February, and
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4 116 March to May of the year before the sampling date, and during the summer (June to August) when
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7 117 the field work was conducted. Using the Spatial Analyst application (SAA) of the GIS software, we
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9 118 then extracted corresponding values for the topographical variables (altitude and aspect) from a
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11 119 Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) 90 m resolution digital elevation model (DEM) "
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14 120 Copyright DLR <2000>". A 300 m resolution land cover layer based on MERIS satellite imagery
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16 121 from January 2005 to June 2006 provided by the European space agency (ESA) was used to define
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19 122 the following land use categories: cultivated areas, forest and shrubland, sparse vegetation, urban
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21 123 areas and water bodies. Through SAA, land cover values for each sampling site were obtained by:
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23 124 (a) corresponding land cover extractions (model 1); or (b) percentages of land cover categories in a
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26 125 250 m and 500 m buffer zone around each sampling site (model 2), a distance equivalent to
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28 126 estimated reach of sand fly flight (Rioux et al., 1979; Killick-Kendrick et al., 1984). Using the SAA
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31 127 tool of the GIS software, a 250 m resolution raster was created by calculating the straight-line
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33 128 distance from each cell to the urban settlement feature layer of the Madrid region. From each
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35 129 record, a corresponding value was extracted from this raster layer. Data for the 11,238 livestock and
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38 130 1,142 poultry farms in the study area were supplied by the Spanish Ministry of the Environment and
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40 131 Rural and Marine Affairs. Each sampling site was also assigned a value corresponding to its
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42 132 distance from the closest livestock and poultry farm using the spatial join-and-relate tool of the GIS
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45 133 software.

47 134 **Modelling sand fly vector distributions**

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49 135 Two statistical approaches were used to predict the geographic distributions of the leishmaniosis
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52 136 vectors in the Madrid region. These models estimated vector densities as a count response
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54 137 regression, in which environmental and meteorological factors were used as explanatory variables.
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57 138 Both models assumed an over-dispersed Poisson distribution of the data, which means that a
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59 139 negative binomial distribution was used instead of a Poisson distribution (Hilbe, 2007). The first
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4 140 model included corresponding land cover extractions, while the second included percentages of
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7 141 land cover categories in a buffer zone. The remaining environmental and meteorological variables
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9 142 were the same in both models. The model building strategy was: first, all factors were analyzed by
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11 143 bivariate analysis and then, starting with all variables showing a p-value lower than 0.2 in the
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14 144 bivariate analysis, multivariate backward stepwise regression was conducted. The likelihood ratio
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16 145 test was used to compare nested models and the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) was used to
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19 146 select the best models. To assess the predictive performance of the model, bootstrapping was
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21 147 performed with a 1,000 replicates to predict point-values and class values (using Jenks' natural
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23 148 breaks classification scheme) (Jenks and Caspall, 1971) of apparent density (AD): number of sand
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26 149 flies per trap square metre. R-squared was used to compare observed versus expected point values
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28 150 and the kappa statistic was then used to assess agreement after classifying the data in 5 groups. All
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31 151 statistical analyses were performed using Stata v.10.1 software (StataCorp LP, College Station,
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33 152 Texas, USA). The level of significance was set at a p-value lower than 0.05.
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36 153 Predictive maps for the Madrid region were drawn using the Raster Calculator of the GIS software
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38 154 through modelling on chartable raster layers. Models were constructed based on distance (250 m
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40 155 resolution straight-line distances), DEM (90 m resolution), land use (500 m resolution forest and
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43 156 shrubland percentage) and climatic layers (200 m resolution rainfall and temperature). The latter
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45 157 were created and provided free by the Autonomous University of Barcelona at
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48 158 <http://opengis.uab.es/wms/iberia/index.htm>.

50 159 **Validating predictive maps**

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53 160 Over the years 2006 and 2007 in a survey of 1,076 dogs from 32 villages in the Madrid region, anti
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56 161 *Leishmania* specific antibodies were detected in 87 dogs using an indirect immunofluorescence
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58 162 antibody test (IFAT) and a cut-off of 1/80 (Gálvez et al., 2010b). Moreover, 760 questionnaires
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60 163 designed for the EDEN-LEI project were sent to veterinary practitioners in December 2006 and

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164 March 2007. The questionnaire was designed to obtain data regarding the number of dogs examined
165 in the past year at the veterinary clinic and the number of probable cases of CanL. 166 of these
166 questionnaires were completed and returned, and the proportion of infected or sick dogs was
167 calculated for each clinic. The locations of individual dogs and veterinary clinics were geocoded
168 using the Geocoding tool of the GIS software on a street map layer for the Madrid province updated
169 in 2004.

170 Predictive sand fly distributions were categorized into 5 classes using Jenks' natural breaks
171 classification scheme. Outlier values of sand fly distribution were classified as "not present" for the
172 extreme minimum (1% of cases) and "maximum density" for the extreme maximum (1% of cases).
173 Distances from dog reservoirs (1,076) and clinics (166) to each one of the classes were assigned
174 using the spatial join-and-relate tool of the GIS software. Associations between infected dogs or
175 proportions of infected dogs and distance to vector foci (or classes) were used to validate predictive
176 maps.

177 **Climate projections**

178 Future climate projections were estimated from the seasonal mean temperature and precipitation
179 data expected for the centre of the Iberian Peninsula in each third of the 21st century (de Castro et
180 al., 2005). We considered the results provided by an ensemble of six models (CCGM, CSIRO,
181 HadCM3, NIES2, ECHAM4 and GFDL) called Atmosphere-Ocean General Circulation Model
182 (AOGCM) using the two most used emission scenarios A2 and B2 (IPCC, 2007). In A2,
183 greenhouse gas emissions and sulphate aerosols are predicted to rise at a more rapid rate than in B2.
184 Maps of future sand fly distributions on the premise of the climate change scenarios were modelled,
185 incorporating future climate projections.

186 **Results**

187 **Model outputs under current climate**

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188 Using two different but similar models, sand fly distributions were estimated by negative binomial
189 regression using the data collected from the sampling sites.

190 Model 1 revealed that the variables distance to urban settlement (US), altitude and distance to
191 nearest livestock farm (NLF) had an effect on vector densities (Table 1). The apparent density (AD)
192 throughout the Madrid region was predicted by the equation:

$$AD = e^{(4.67183 + \text{Distance to US} \times 0.05198 + \text{Altitude} \times (-0.18247) + \text{Distance to NLF} \times (-0.4169))}$$

Equation 1

194 Model 2 indicated that the AD for the Madrid area could be predicted from a linear combination of
195 the variables (Table 1): mean spring rainfall, mean autumn temperature, distance to US, percentage
196 forest and shrubland in a 500 m buffer and distance to NLF, according to the equation:

$$AD = e^{(0.2654961 + \text{Spring rainfall} \times (-0.342962) + \text{Autumn temperature} \times 0.2591498 + \text{Distance to US} \times 0.00546671 + \\ \% \text{Forest \& shrubland} \times (-0.7546061) + \text{Distance to NLF} \times (-0.4010263))}$$

Equation 2

199 Percentage forest and shrubland in a 500 m buffer, distance to nearest livestock farm, mean spring
200 rainfall and altitude were negatively correlated with vector density, such that the higher the value of
201 the factor (for example, the greater the distance to the nearest farm), the lower the density of the
202 vectors. In contrast, mean autumn temperature and distance to urban settlement were positively
203 correlated with vector density.

204 The exponentiated coefficients of the models are interpreted as sand fly vector density ratios (DR),
205 which means that for every unit increase in the value of a factor (for example a one degree increase
206 in mean autumn temperature), the vector density will increase by 25.9%.

207 Bootstrap values indicated that model 2 [R-squared=0.45; 95%CI (0.23–0.73)] was better at
208 predicting point-values of AD than model 1 [R-squared = 0.37; 95% CI (0.19–0.71)]. Moreover, for
209 model 2, observed agreement (79.7%) was significant (p = 0.0068), though expected agreement was
210 also high (75.3%) when AD was classified into 5 classes using Jenks' natural breaks scheme.

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4 211 We then constructed two 500 m resolution maps to predict the distributions of the leishmaniosis
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7 212 vectors in the Madrid region, using the environmental and meteorological risk factors identified in
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9 213 the models mentioned above. As shown in Fig. 2, the maps are fairly similar, although class values
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12 214 are slightly lower for model 1. High vector density areas can be seen in the south-east, south-west
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14 215 and centre of the Madrid region.

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17 216 The two maps were validated by considering means of distances from individual dogs and
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19 217 veterinary clinics to each of the 5 different classes used to classify vector density. Since the results
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22 218 for both maps were similar, only those for model 2 are shown. Thus, dogs seropositive for CanL
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24 219 appeared closer ($p = 0.048$) to the zones of higher ADs (>79.55). The clinics reporting a higher
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26 220 incidence of CanL were also correlated ($p = 0.0308$) with the areas showing higher ADs (>79.55).
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29 221 As no association was found below this point, it may be stated that, according to model 2, areas
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31 222 with an AD greater than 79.55 are considered vector foci.

32 33 34 223 **Predicted climate change effects**

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37 224 Through the six-model AOGCM ensemble, the predicted spread of AD was computed using the
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39 225 GIS software for each third of the 21st century under the two emission scenarios A2 and B2 (Table
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42 226 2). Distribution and abundance vector forecasts were based only on climate shifts. Although other
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44 227 risk factors such as land use will obviously intervene, these are hard to predict with much
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46 228 confidence and the complex methods needed are beyond the scope of this study. Thus, although
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49 229 both models behaved similarly, only model 2 was used for the simulations since it includes
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51 230 variables based on climate. Simulated climate change predicted increased vector densities and
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53 231 affected areas (Fig. 3). The risk of spread is greater for the A2 than the B2 scenario and is especially
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56 232 high for the last part of the century compared to the current situation.

57 58 233 **Discussion**

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4 234 To understand sand fly vectorial capacities, knowledge of their specific environmental requirements
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7 235 is essential. In this study, we explored the effects of chartable environmental and meteorological
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9 236 variables on vector densities to map their predicted current distribution in the Madrid region. The
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11 237 environmental and meteorological factors considered have been previously observed to affect
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14 238 vector distributions in this region (Gálvez et al., 2010a).
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17 239 Model 1 was based on altitude rather than the land cover (percentage forest and shrubland) and
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19 240 meteorological variables used in model 2, indicating that altitude encompasses the effects of both
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21 241 climate and vegetation factors. Thus, model 2 may be considered more appropriate from an
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24 242 ecological standpoint, stressing the importance of taking into account vector spread using buffers
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26 243 (model 2) instead of point extractions (model 1). Although our models could be improved,
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29 244 environmental and meteorological factors emerged as decisive for modelling sand fly distributions.
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31 245 Since we did not include animal reservoir, *Leishmania* parasite, and/or leishmaniosis disease data in
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33 246 the models, the maps do not reflect the distribution of the disease. Notwithstanding, in a recent
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36 247 study the average prevalence of CanL was estimated to have increased from 5.25% to 8.1% in the
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38 248 last 15 years among the non-stray dogs in the Madrid region (Gálvez et al., 2010b). Moreover, the
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40 249 spatial association detected between infected dogs and the proportion of infected dogs to modelled
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43 250 vector foci determines that vector density could be used as an indicator of infection risk in a given
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45 251 area.
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48 252 The percentage forest and shrubland around each site was the factor least correlated with vector
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50 253 densities, probably because these sand flies seem to show a preference for more anthropogenic
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52 254 environments. Conversely, higher vector densities were recorded at sites far from very urban
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55 255 settlements. Thus, it seems that a balance between anthropogenic (urban settlements) and wild
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57 256 (forest and shrubland) environments (e.g., residential areas) maintains these parasite vectors in peak
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59 257 condition. A nearby livestock farm usually leads to increased vector densities. In a study performed
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258 in Brazil, the proximity of livestock, pigpens or hen houses significantly increased the risk of CanL
259 (Moreira et al., 2003). In the present study, mean rainfall recorded in the preceding spring was
260 negatively correlated with vector densities probably because, as other authors have suggested, high
261 rainfall conditions could damage larval habitat and reduce phlebotomine abundances (Ghosh et al.,
262 1999; Rossi et al., 2008). Higher mean temperatures in the preceding autumn gave rise to higher
263 vector densities. Thus, mild weather in the autumn could delay the beginning of diapause,
264 increasing the larval population that reaches the fourth instar. Altitude was negatively correlated
265 with vector densities. As altitude increases, vegetation changes, temperature decreases (according to
266 the thermal gradient at a rate of -0.6°C per 100 m) and precipitation increases. Thus, an increased
267 altitude will provide a more hostile environment for sand fly survival. In Sudan, it has been
268 determined through map modelling that average rainfall and altitude are the best predictors of the
269 incidence of leishmaniosis (Elnaiem et al., 2003).

270 In recent years, several leishmaniosis risk maps have been produced, based on environmental
271 factors such as altitude and rainfall (Elnaiem et al., 2003), NDVI and land surface temperature
272 (LST) (Gebre-Michael et al., 2004) or altitude and land use (King et al., 2004). Recently, the first
273 risk map for CanL in France was created, based on environmental variables and human-dog
274 densities (Chamaille et al., 2010).

275 In central Spain (mainly in the Madrid region), vector densities a few years ago were significantly
276 higher than densities reported 17 years earlier (Gálvez et al., 2010a). In Spain, the past 30 years
277 have definitely seen a generalised temperature rise, whereas precipitation has shown no clearly
278 defined trend (de Castro et al., 2005; Bladé et al., 2010). This suggests that vector densities could
279 continue to rise, and by examining the effects of climate change we should be able to confirm this
280 trend.

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4 281 The climate change simulated returned enhanced vector densities and expansion of their distribution
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7 282 range. The risk of spread was greater for the A2 scenario than for the B2 scenario, because of the
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9 283 higher estimated anthropogenic emissions of the former. The expansion of suitable sand fly habitats
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11 284 was predicted. In addition, simulated climate change predicted a 3-fold increase in apparent vector
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14 285 densities over the period 2070–2100 under scenario A2, compared to the current situation. Since
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16 286 vector, host and pathogen populations intersect within a permissive environment to enable pathogen
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19 287 transmission (Reisen, 2010), if conditions for one of these, such as the vector, improve as predicted
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21 288 by our data, this could lead to improved disease transmission in the region. Predicted leishmaniosis
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23 289 vector-reservoir spread under the premise of climate change (IPCC, 2007) has been reported for
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25
26 290 three *Lutzomyia* species in south Brazil for 2040–2069 (Peterson and Shaw, 2003), and northwards
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28 291 for two *Lutzomyia* and four reservoir species in the US in 2020, 2050 and 2080 (González et al.,
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31 292 2010). Global change, including the development of new areas, changing agricultural practices,
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33 293 changing land uses and climate change, contributes to the spread of leishmaniosis (Ready, 2008).
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35 294 In the interest of public health, there is a need for research targeted at the prediction, prevention,
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38 295 diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of leishmaniosis. Information on the prevalence and
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40 296 geographical distribution of infection is required for the installation of control measures and their
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42 297 surveillance thereafter. GIS and remote sensing technology are useful tools for analysing spatial and
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45 298 temporal landscape features that will help identify target populations and also serve to address the
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47 299 behaviour of the disease and its vectors so that effective control measurements may be
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49 300 implemented.
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52 301 The vector distribution maps and predictive models established in this study provide information on
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55 302 the ecology of the leishmaniosis vectors in the Madrid region, on which to base appropriate and
56
57 303 focused control measures against human and canine leishmaniosis infection.
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30 316 **Disclosure statement**

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35 318 **References**

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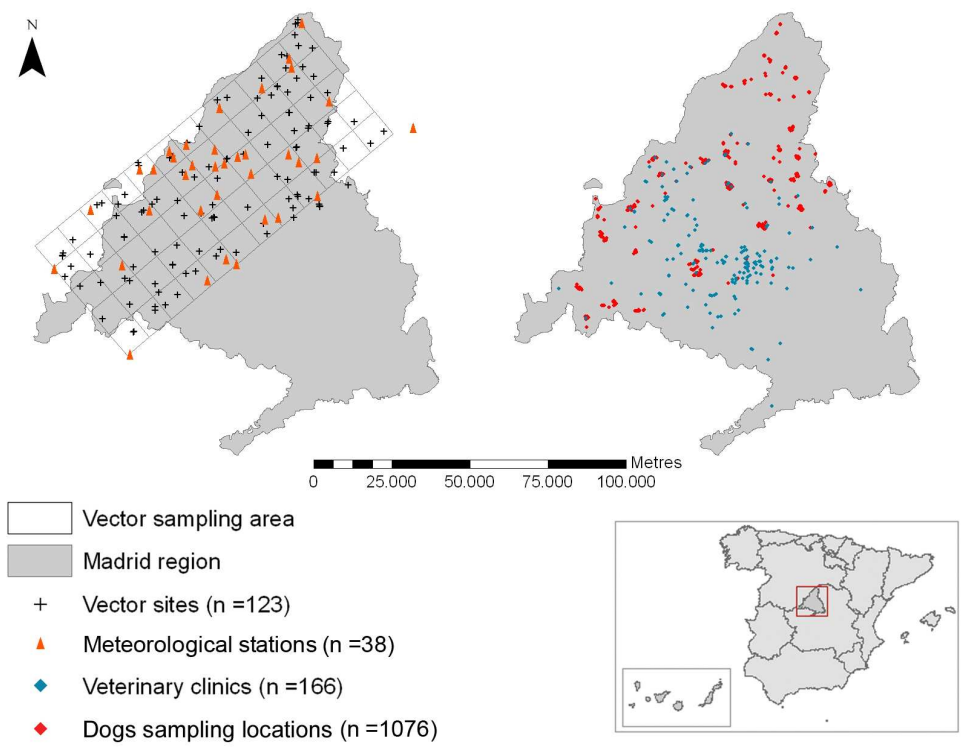
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48 437 **Legends to figures**

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51 438 Figure 1. Geocoded locations of dogs, vectors, meteorological stations and veterinary clinics.

52
53 439 Figure 2. Spatial distributions of the leishmaniasis vectors predicted by models 1 and 2.

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55 440 Figure 3. Predicted future distributions by the AOGCM ensemble of the leishmaniasis vectors for
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57 each third of the 21st century under the A2 emission scenario: **A**: 2010-2040; **B**: 2040-2070; **C**:
58 441 2070-2100; and B2 emission scenario: **D**: 2010-2040; **E**: 2040-2070; **F**: 2070-2100.
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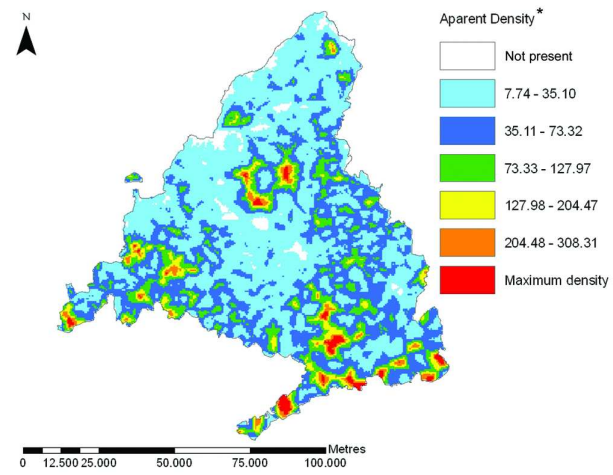
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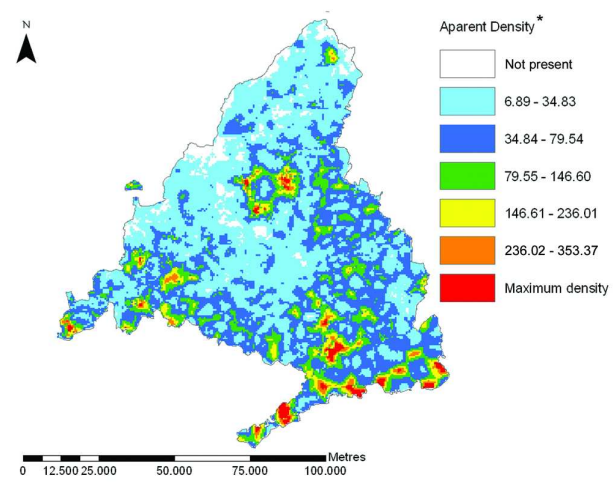
Geocoded locations of dogs, vectors, meteorological stations and veterinary clinics.
140x106mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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MODEL 1



MODEL 2

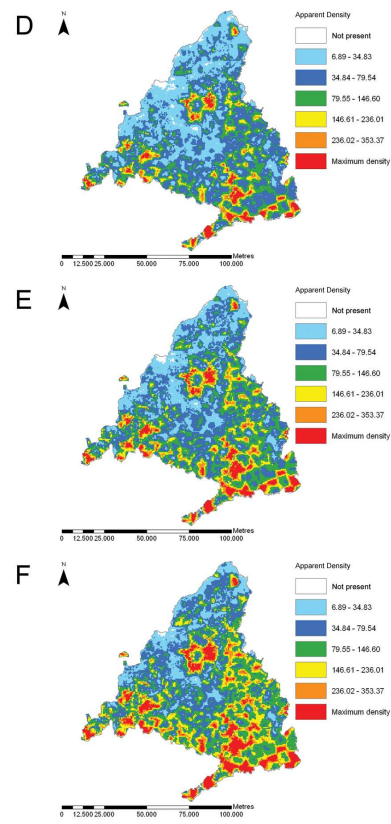
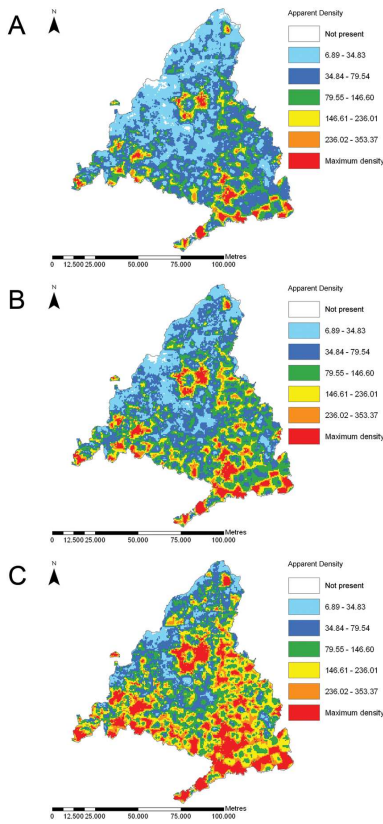


*Apparent Density= number of sand flies per trap square metre

Spatial distributions of the leishmaniosis vectors predicted by models 1 and 2
90x169mm (300 x 300 DPI)

SCENARIO A2

SCENARIO B2



Predicted future distributions by the AOGCM ensemble of the leishmaniasis vectors for each third of the 21st century under the A2 emission scenario: A: 2010-2040; B: 2040-2070; C: 2070-2100; and B2 emission scenario: D: 2010-2040; E: 2040-2070; F: 2070-2100
189x180mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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3 Table 1. Multivariate factors correlated with *P. perniciosus* and *P. ariasi* densities in models 1 and 2
4

Model	Predictor	Multivariate DR (95% CI)	p value	Coefficient	Constant
1	Distance to US (hm)	1.053 (1.020–1.088)	0.0010	0.05198	4.67183
	Altitude (hm)	0.833 (0.766–0.906)	0.0000	–0.18247	
	Distance to NLF (km)	0.659 (0.492–0.883)	0.0050	–0.41696	
2	Spring mean rainfall (mm)	0.710 (0.530–0.949)	0.0210	–0.342962	0.2654961
	Autumn mean temperature (°C)	1.296 (1.147–1.464)	0.0000	0.2591498	
	Distance to US (hm)	1.056 (1.023–1.090)	0.0010	0.0546671	
	% Forest & shrubland in a 500 m buffer	0.470 (0.228–0.969)	0.0410	–0.7546061	
	Distance to NLF (km)	0.670 (0.501–0.895)	0.0070	–0.4010263	

20 2 DR, Sand fly vector density ratio; CI, Confidence interval; US, Urban settlement; NLF, Nearest livestock farm;

21
22 3 hm, Hectometres; km, Kilometres; mm, Millimetres; °C, Degrees Celsius.

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3 1 Table 2. Changes in mean autumn temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) and mean spring rainfall (mm/day) projected by the
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5 2 AOGCM ensemble for the central Iberian Peninsula
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Period	Scenario	Designation in Fig. 3	Mean autumn temperature rise ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Mean spring rainfall reduction (mm/day)
2010-2040	A2	A	1.4	0.21
	B2	D	1.6	0.25
2040-2070	A2	B	2.9	0.28
	B2	E	2.6	0.33
2070-2100	A2	C	4.9	0.53
	B2	F	3.7	0.30

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