

1 **Crowded and warmer: unequal dengue risk at high spatial resolution across a**
2 **megacity of India**

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29 **Abstract**

30

31 The role of climate factors on transmission of mosquito-borne infections within urban
32 landscapes must be considered in the context of the pronounced spatial heterogeneity of
33 such environments. Socio-demographic and environmental variation challenge control efforts
34 for emergent arboviruses, a major class of pathogens responsible for dengue, Zika and
35 chikungunya, transmitted via the urban mosquito *Aedes aegypti*. We address at high
36 resolution, the spatial heterogeneity of dengue transmission risk in the megacity of Delhi,
37 India, as a function of both temperature and the carrying-capacity of the human environment
38 for the mosquito. Based on previous results predicting maximum mosquitoes per human for
39 different socio-economic typologies, and on remote sensing temperature data, we produce a
40 map of the reproductive number of the disease at a resolution of 250m by 250m. We focus
41 on dengue risk hotspots during inter-epidemic periods, places where chains of transmission
42 can persist for longer. We assess the resulting high-resolution risk map of dengue with
43 reported cases for three consecutive winters. We find that both temperature and vector
44 carrying-capacity per human co-vary in space because of their respective dependence on
45 population density. The synergistic action of these two factors results in larger variation of
46 dengue's reproductive number than when considered separately, with poor and dense
47 locations experiencing the warmest conditions and becoming the most likely reservoirs off-
48 season. The location of observed winter cases is accurately predicted for different risk
49 threshold criteria. Results underscore the inequity of risk across a complex urban landscape,
50 whereby individuals in dense poor neighborhoods face the compounded effect of higher
51 temperatures and mosquito carrying capacity. Targeting chains of transmission in inter-
52 epidemic periods at these locations should be a priority of control efforts. A better mapping is
53 needed of the interplay between climate factors that are dominant determinants of the
54 seasonality of vector-borne infections and the socio-economic conditions behind unequal
55 exposure.

56

57 **Introduction**

58 Climate change, globalization, and rapid population growth are accelerating the spread of
59 established pathogens and facilitating the emergence of novel ones, modifying geographical
60 limits and environmental suitability for transmission (1,2). Spatial resolutions finer than those
61 of countries and cities are becoming critical to understand the epidemiology of vector-borne
62 infections, including those transmitted by the widespread urban mosquito *Ae. aegypti* and
63 caused by arboviruses such as dengue and Zika (3–5). Although traditional “well-mixed”
64 mathematical models provide a foundation for epidemiological theory (6,7), the increasing
65 availability of fine-scale data has underscored the importance of explicitly considering the
66 spatial dimension (e.g. 8,9). Consideration of highly-resolved spatial scales is essential to
67 the prediction of transmission risk and efficiency of control efforts in urban landscapes where
68 human density and mosquito abundance can vary widely.

69

70 The persistence of dengue virus transmission in urban settings is challenging to control
71 efforts given the pronounced heterogeneity in environmental, demographic and socio-
72 economic conditions. Because humans effectively generate breeding sites for *Ae. aegypti* in
73 the form of a variety of small water containers (10), vector abundance within cities depends
74 on population density and infrastructure (11). The generation of water containers can vary
75 spatially also as a function of socio-economic conditions, especially in developing countries
76 where unplanned urbanization and limited resources leave a part of the population without
77 regular or continuous access to pipe water and garbage collection.

78

79 Temperature, another important determinant of vector-borne transmission, can also vary
80 within cities because of the urban heat island effect (UHI). Temperature influences the
81 demographic parameters of mosquitoes, as well as transmission parameters, ultimately
82 determining vectorial capacity (12–14). Importantly, land surface modifications make urban
83 areas warmer than their surrounding peri-urban or rural landscapes (3). Although the local
84 cause of the UHI can vary, several high-resolution remote sensing studies have shown that

85 the intensity of UHI can correlate positively with human population density (15–17). Usually,
86 these temperature differences are larger at night than during the day and are more
87 noticeable during summer and winter (18,19). A better understanding of how UHI contributes
88 to dengue transmission hotspots would be invaluable to optimize deployment of mosquito
89 control resources across the scale of a metropolis. Thus, high-resolution datasets allowing
90 translation of temperature heterogeneity into transmission risk especially outside the
91 epidemic season could help us locate environmental niches where mosquitoes survive and
92 breed, enabling viral persistence. Hypothetically, targeting such localized reservoirs could
93 interrupt or minimize chains of transmission across seasons.

94

95 Here we examine dengue transmission risk at a high resolution (250m by 250m) in the
96 megacity of Delhi, India. By considering the basic reproduction number, we explore the
97 interplay of temperature in winter with the vector's carrying capacity in relation to human
98 population density. We show that these two environmental factors act synergistically,
99 producing a larger variation in local disease risk than when considered separately. Case
100 reports for three winters are used to evaluate our risk map. Results underscore the inequity
101 of risk across a complex urban landscape: individuals in dense poor neighborhoods face the
102 compounded effect of warmer temperatures. We then discuss this result in the greater
103 context of global climate change.

104

105 **Results**

106 We focus on the basic reproduction number, R_0 , one of the most fundamental quantities in
107 epidemiology measuring the average number of secondary infections produced by one
108 single infection in a totally susceptible population. Although the precise form of R_0 depends
109 on the model, its general expression for mosquito-borne diseases (with a single host and
110 vector) can be typically written in such a way to separate the respective effect of two key
111 factors, namely temperature and the maximum number of mosquitoes per human the
112 environment can support, hereafter referred to as the vector's carrying capacity. Specifically,

113 R_0 can be decomposed into the product of two terms: a function of temperature (that
114 impacts biological parameters of the mosquito and the pathogen within the mosquito), and
115 the ratio of the vector's carrying capacity (V) to the human population (N) (Methods). We can

116 thus write $R_0 = f(T) \sqrt{\frac{V}{N}}$, an expression decomposing the effects of climate and socio-
117 economic conditions.

118

119 These two variables in the general expression for R_0 are spatially heterogeneous within the
120 city of Delhi in the winter season (Fig. 1A). Spatial temperature (T) varies about five degrees
121 Celsius (mean $T=18.6$ °C) and the ratio of the vector's carrying capacity to the human
122 population (V/N) shows values ranging from zero to 1.5 (mean $V/N=0.4$). Importantly, both
123 quantities, T and V/N , can vary as a function of human density and therefore share a
124 common source of spatial variation. To first address this dependence for V/N , we note that
125 mosquito recruitment in urban landscapes is intrinsically related to human activity. The map
126 for V/N specifically relies on the previously inferred dependence of the vector carrying
127 capacity on human density in (20) (Fig. 1B, see Methods). The shape of the function was
128 shown to vary for different socio-economic categories (low, medium and high) as defined in
129 (20,21). In particular, 87% of the spatial units correspond to socio-economic conditions for
130 which V/N increases with population density, with locations that exhibit the most deprived
131 conditions experiencing the fastest increment. Second, for winter temperature, we find here
132 that values, at the same high resolution of interest, are also affected by human density.
133 Although the least dense areas show the highest variability, those most populated tend to be
134 systematically warmer (Fig. 1C). Together, these two patterns suggest the potential synergy
135 of the two environmental variables on dengue risk across the city. In particular, population
136 density would drive the spatial co-localization of elevated winter temperature and vector's
137 carrying capacity.

138

139 **Fig. 1. Temperature (T) and vector carrying capacity per human (V/N) in Delhi. A Maps**

140 for a spatial resolution of 250m by 250m for temperature (November night-time) and V/N in
141 the city of Delhi. **B** Vector carrying capacity (maximum number of mosquitoes per human) as
142 a function of population density for deprived (triangles), medium (circles) and rich (dots)
143 typologies. **C** Boxplot of November night-time temperature as a function of population
144 density (boxes illustrate, as is standard, the median with the 25th and 75th percentiles, and
145 the dotted lines indicate the extremes of the distribution).

146

147 To address this hypothesis, we examine first the separate effect of each of the two variables
148 and then their joint influence on the spatial variability of R_0 . Frequency distributions in the
149 form of histograms show that both T and V/N generate broad ranges in R_0 's spatial
150 variability. Compared to the spatial average of R_0 (about 0.4), consideration of temperature
151 introduces a variation of up to 40% (Fig. 2A) and consideration of V/N of up to 75% (Fig. 2B).
152 The associated maps exhibit variation that would be absent not only under constant
153 temperatures as expected, but also under the common assumption of a linear increase of
154 vectors with humans in standard coupled vector-human mathematical models (Fig. 2A, B
155 and C). Importantly, when both factors are considered together, the range of R_0 is larger
156 than when they are considered separately, with many more units at the two extremes of high
157 and low risk conditions (Fig. 2C). In particular, units that do not exhibit a high dengue risk
158 under either factor alone, can do so when their joint effect is considered together (Fig. 2D).
159 Thus, comparison of the maps indicates that T and V/N act synergistically in a considerable
160 part of the city.

161

162 **Fig. 2. The effect on the basic reproductive number R_0 of temperature (T) and vector**
163 **carrying capacity per human (V/N).** Maps and histograms of local R_0 at 250 m by 250 m
164 spatial resolution for: **(A)** local temperature with spatially averaged V/N , **(B)** local V/N with
165 spatially averaged temperature and, **(C)** local temperature and V/N . Blue, aqua green and
166 red colors represent respectively a low ($R_0 < 0.3$), medium ($0.3 < R_0 < 0.55$) and high ($R_0 >$
167 0.55) risk of local dengue transmission. **(D)** Percentage of units at high risk for different risk
168 threshold values, computed for: local T with spatially averaged V/N (green dots), local V/N
169 with spatially averaged T (red dots), and both local T and V/N (black dots).

170

171 To examine whether the generated risk map has predictive value, we rely on surveillance
172 data over three winter seasons for reported dengue cases at high spatial resolution
173 (Methods). First, we establish a threshold R_0^* to classify spatial units at risk of dengue

174 transmission when $R0$ is above this value ($R0_u > R0^*$, $u=1,2,\dots, U$, where U is the total
175 number of units). Since small values of $R0^*$ imply a higher number of units at risk, we expect
176 the percent of “hits”, defined as units whose observed cases surpass the threshold, to
177 decrease with increasing $R0^*$. However, a high number of hits is not necessarily informative.
178 We can illustrate this by the trivial extreme of $R0^*=0$, for which we would obtain a 100%
179 trivial success rate because the whole city would be at risk. Thus, to evaluate the $R0$
180 criterion, we compute as a baseline the probability of the number of realized hits under the
181 assumption of a random spatial distribution of infected units (for a given threshold). We
182 specifically compute the p -value of a binomial process:

$$183 \quad p\text{-value} = \sum_{i=K}^{U_f} \binom{U_f}{i} p^i (1-p)^{U_f-i}$$

184 where the number of trials is the number of infected units U_f , the number of units with cases
185 classified at risk is the number of hits K , and the probability that a risk unit is randomly
186 infected is $p=UR/U$, for the number of risk units UR . We find that the p -value is consistently
187 below 0.05 as $R0^*$ increases, leading us to reject a random distribution of cases relative to
188 our risk map. (A p -value larger than 0.05 is only obtained when $R0^*$ equals the 97.5th
189 quantile, that is when 2.5% of the units are classified at high risk).

190

191 Because population density underlies both components of $R0$, we can further ask whether
192 considering a threshold defined directly on the basis of local human density would also be
193 informative. We repeat the calculation of a binomial probability now with a minimum
194 population density threshold as an indicator of dengue transmission during the winter
195 season. We find that this condition works as well as one defined on the basis of $R0$ as an
196 indicator of winter hotspots (see Fig. 3).

197

198 **Fig. 3. Performance of risk maps for the prediction of dengue cases in winter (at a**
199 **resolution of 250 m by 250 m).** The p -value is computed from a binomial process for
200 different risk thresholds. The threshold values are defined by the percent of units at risk
201 (quantiles), for the criterion based on either $R0$ (black dashes) or population density (N) (red

202 circles).
203

204 **Discussion**

205 The spatial distributions of the two dengue drivers taken together, for temperature and vector
206 carrying capacity to human ratio, are here shown to produce important variability in local
207 suitability for virus transmission at high resolution within the city. Although the influence of
208 these drivers could be expected, their joint action reflects a common underlying influence of
209 population density, which proves critical for the localization of winter hotspots. Identification
210 of such hotspots will be invaluable for interrupting the chain of transmission during the low
211 season when it should be most vulnerable to intervention.

212

213 The synergistic action of the two drivers especially affects the least developed areas of the
214 city, with 70% of the winter cases reported from within socio-economic units classified as
215 deprived, and only 22% and 8%, from medium and rich typologies respectively. Deprived
216 units are typically densely populated with only a few green areas, which can favor the UHI
217 effect. In addition, the number of vectors per human is higher in poor areas of the city, where
218 one can expect a higher production of breeding containers (10). This socio-economic
219 disparity in dengue suitability is also clear in our risk map, which yields a higher percentage
220 of risk units in the deprived typology as the threshold $R0^*$ increases (Fig. S1).

221

222 The location of reported cases over three winter periods validates the high-resolution risk
223 map obtained here when compared to the random distribution of infections across units.
224 Although the values of $R0$ obtained for our map remain below one, this does not necessarily
225 imply the absence of transmission (22,23). The commonly used threshold of $R0=1$ assesses
226 the risk of an outbreak from a purely deterministic perspective. Although such an outbreak is
227 not expected in Delhi during the off-season and transmission in small areas is inherently
228 stochastic, higher values of $R0$ even below one, should indicate higher transmission
229 suitability, and therefore a higher chance of persistence of transmission chains off-season.

230

231 Because human density influences local vector carrying capacity and temperature, this
232 quantity can also be used effectively as an indicator of dengue transmission risk in winter. As
233 a purely statistical indicator, the associated threshold can be less informative, however, than
234 a more mechanistic and direct understanding of how population density ultimately impacts
235 risk (24–26).

236

237 A limitation of our results is the reliance on a single detailed remote sensing image. The
238 pattern of increasing temperature with density should, however, hold more generally as it
239 has been reported by other studies (15,16).

240

241 Direct measures of mosquito abundance across the urban landscape would be valuable but
242 extremely challenging in practice, especially at fine scales (27). Mathematical models of
243 coupled vector-human transmission commonly assume a constant vector-to-human ratio
244 (28). This implicit assumption implies a constant risk landscape across the city in terms of
245 V/N and, therefore, precludes the variation in risk described here. We have relied, for our
246 risk map, on an indirect estimate of maximum mosquito numbers per human (20).
247 Interestingly, the predictive power of the R_0 threshold provides support for this indirect
248 estimation of V/N .

249

250 The challenges posed by climate change require a robust and holistic approach to
251 understanding infectious disease dynamics (23). Understanding climate change effects on
252 infectious disease transmission remains a crucial gap within urban landscapes at sufficiently
253 high spatial resolutions, including potential synergies with various demographic and socio-
254 economic drivers. We have shown that the fine-scale interaction of temperature and socio-
255 economic conditions (related to vector production) amplifies local dengue transmission
256 suitability. Both these factors are sensitive to climate change directly and indirectly. Warmer
257 winter temperatures where cold temperatures limit transmission can favor persistence of

258 mosquito populations outside the epidemic season. Climate change can also favor breeding
259 site production, as climate instability in the form of extreme events can contribute to poverty
260 and overcrowding as the result of enhanced and unplanned human migration (29). Although
261 our findings are for dengue in the megacity of Delhi, we expect the described synergistic
262 effect of temperature and mosquito carrying capacity to apply more broadly to other urban
263 landscapes and other climate-sensitive infections, especially in developing countries with
264 seasonal transmission.

265

266 **Methods and Materials**

267

268 **Expression of the basic reproductive number as a function of temperature and** 269 **vector carrying capacity per human.**

270

271 The basic reproductive number gives the average number of secondary infections
272 that would result from introducing a single infective individual into an entirely
273 susceptible population. Calculation of R_0 for dengue infection involves a two-step
274 process: host to vector, then vector back to host (or vice versa). To illustrate this
275 process, we rely on the following standard equations for the infectious classes in
276 coupled vector-human models:

277

$$278 \quad dI/dt = aP_{MH} ZS/N - (\mu_H + \gamma)I \quad (1a)$$

$$279 \quad dZ/dt = aP_{HM} WI/N - \mu_M Z \quad (1b)$$

280

281 where W , Z and M (for mosquitoes), and S , I and N (for humans), denote susceptible,
282 infectious and total populations, respectively. Parameter a denotes the biting rate,
283 P_{MH} (for a human) and P_{HM} (for a mosquito) are the respective probabilities that an
284 infectious bite results in an infection, γ is the recovery rate of infected humans,

285 and μ_H and μ_M the respective mortality rates for humans and mosquitoes.

286

287 Let $R0_{MH}$ be the number of hosts directly infected by the introduction of a single
 288 infective vector into an entirely susceptible host population. Similarly, let $R0_{HM}$
 289 denote the number of vectors that become directly infected upon the introduction of a
 290 single infectious host into an entirely susceptible vector population. When the host
 291 population is entirely susceptible ($I=0$ and then $S=N$), the transmission rate from the
 292 vector population to the host population is given by $a \cdot P_{MH} \cdot Z$. Thus, the
 293 transmission rate per infective vector equals $a \cdot P_{MH}$ (eq. 1a). Since infective vectors
 294 live for an average of $1/\mu_M$ time units, a single infective vector will give rise to
 295 $R0_{MH} = a \cdot P_{MH} / \mu_M$ infective hosts. Employing a similar argument for an entirely
 296 susceptible vector population ($Z=0$ and thus $W=M$), we obtain (eq. 1b)
 297 $R0_{HM} = (a \cdot P_{HM} / (\mu_M + \gamma)) \cdot (M / N)$. Therefore, over the entire transmission cycle we
 298 obtain the following expression,

299

$$300 \quad R0 = \sqrt{R0_{HM} \cdot R0_{MH}} = \sqrt{\frac{a^2 P_{HM} P_{MH}}{\mu_M (\gamma + \mu_H)}} \sqrt{\frac{M}{N}} = h(T) \sqrt{\frac{M}{N}} \quad (2)$$

301

302 (e.g. (30)). We can decompose this expression into two main factors: one that
 303 depends on demographic and biological parameters which are constant or depend
 304 on temperature ($h(T)$, where T is temperature), and another that is the ratio between
 305 mosquito and human numbers.

306

307 Because the developmental life cycle of *Ae. aegypti* is complex, coupled mosquito-
 308 human models commonly assume that the total abundance of mosquitoes follows
 309 logistic growth, with for example an equation of the form

310

311
$$dM/dt = \lambda M (1 - M/K) \quad (3)$$

312

313 where λ represents the number of offspring per adult female per unit time, and, K , the
314 carrying capacity supported by the environment. By making a quasi-stationary
315 assumption whereby the population dynamics of the vector equilibrates quickly to
316 temporal variation, we can consider that $M \sim K$ (by equating eq. (3) to zero).
317 Variations of this expression for mosquito abundance are of course obtained
318 depending on model details. For example, (30,31) proposes that
319 $dM/dt = EFD \cdot pEA \cdot MDR \cdot \mu_M^{-1} \cdot M \cdot (1 - M/K) - \mu_M \cdot M$ (an expression obtained by
320 adding equations (1), (2) and (3) for susceptible, exposed and infectious mosquitoes
321 populations in the original article), and therefore

322
$$M \left(1 - \mu_M^2 / (EFD \cdot pEA \cdot MDR) \right) \cdot K$$

323 where EFD is the number of eggs laid per female per day, pEA is the probability of
324 mosquito egg-to-adult survival, and MDR is the mosquito egg-to-adult development
325 rate. Another example is found in (20) where

326
$$M \left(\lambda / \mu_M \right) \cdot K$$

327 In short, models in which the differential equation for mosquito abundance follows a
328 form in the family of logistic functions (eq. (3)), produce generically the form
329 $M g(T) \cdot K$, where the particular expression of the function $g(T)$ depends on the
330 model.

331

332 Here, we specifically used the following differential equation for adult mosquitos

333
$$\frac{dM}{dt} = EFD \cdot pEA \cdot M \cdot \left(1 - \frac{M}{K} \right) - \mu_M \cdot M \quad (4)$$

334 Then, by introducing the value of M obtained from equating the left-hand side of this
335 equation to zero into the expression in eq. (2), we specifically obtain

$$R_0 = \sqrt{\frac{a^2 P_{HM} P_{MH}}{\mu_M (\gamma + \mu_H)}} \sqrt{\frac{M}{N}} = \sqrt{\frac{a^2 P_{HM} P_{MH}}{\mu_M (\gamma + \mu_H)}} \sqrt{1 - \frac{\mu_M}{EFD pEA}} \sqrt{\frac{K}{N}} = h(T) g(T) \sqrt{\frac{K}{N}} = f(T) \sqrt{\frac{K}{N}}$$

(5)

338

339 The values of the parameters of $f(T)$ and their dependence with temperature are
 340 given in Table 1. We emphasize that although we illustrate the risk maps for this
 341 model and therefore this specific form of $f(T)$, the results should generalize to other
 342 models.

343

344 The carrying capacity as a function of the human population per spatial unit is
 345 computed with the curves inferred in (20). We summarize here the basic approach.
 346 For *Ae. aegypti*, it is reasonable to consider that K depends on N , or $K=K(N)$, since
 347 humans generate the breeding sites for the mosquito. We can expect that this
 348 production of breeding sites and therefore the shape of the $K(N)$ function, depend in
 349 turn on socio-economic conditions of the local human population. Because it remains
 350 extremely challenging to sample and quantify mosquito numbers, we rely on the
 351 results obtained in (20) where mosquito numbers were inferred from human
 352 population density. Importantly, $K(N)$ was shown to vary with socio-economic
 353 conditions on the basis of the typologies classified in (21), with $K \propto N^2$ and $K \propto N^{1.24}$
 354 for typologies denoted respectively as deprived and intermediate, and a non-
 355 monotonic, increasing and then decreasing, behavior for those denoted as rich (see
 356 Fig. 1B).

357

symbol	description	formula	parameters value
a	biting rate (days ⁻¹)	$c \cdot T \cdot (T - T_{min}) \cdot \sqrt{T_{max} - T}$	(32)
EFD	rate of eggs laid per female (days ⁻¹)	$c \cdot T \cdot (T - T_{min}) \cdot \sqrt{T_{max} - T}$	(32)

p_{EA}	probability of mosquito egg-to-adult survival	$c \cdot (T - T_{min}) \cdot (T_{max} - T)$	(32)
μ_M	mosquito mortality (days ⁻¹)	const.	0.09 (33)
P_{HM}	probability virus transmission from human to mosquito	const.	0.8
P_{MH}	probability virus transmission from mosquito to human	$c \cdot T \cdot (T - T_{min}) \cdot \sqrt{T_{max} - T}$	$c=0.00092$ $T_{min}=13$ $T_{max}=33$
γ	human recovery rate (days ⁻¹)	const.	1/7 (34)
μ_H	human mortality (days ⁻¹)	const.	1/(60.365) (35)

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TABLE 1. Model parameter specifications. Values without references indicate that have been determined for this article (see Fig S1).

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Temperature data from remote sensing

Satellite brightness temperature was retrieved from LANDSAT 8 TIRS (band 10). The thermal image was taken on November 15, 2013 at around 5:00 AM. Land surface temperature was computed by the methods of [Walawender 2014] (by incorporating the correction equations for land surface emissivity and atmospheric bias). Surface temperatures were obtained at a 38 m scale and then aggregated to the 250 m by 250 m spatial resolution (see details on (36)).

Dengue cases for the winter season

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The dengue cases were geo-localized for the winter seasons from 2013 to 2015. These are the seasons for which dengue cases were reported in winter for the first time. Dengue cases were confirmed for the presence of IgM antibodies against DENV by MAC ELISA using a kit prepared by the National Institute of Virology, Pune, India as an integral part of the National Vector Borne Disease Control Programme.

377 These confirmed cases were geo-coded with QGIS (36).

378

379 **Ethics Statement**

380 Written consent to participate in the study was obtained from all participants and
381 ethical approval was granted by the ethics committees of the Indian Council for
382 Medical Research, India (N° TDR/587/2012-ECD-11, 10 December 2012) and Institut
383 Pasteur, France (N° 2011–20, 29 April 2011). If human subjects were not adult, a
384 parent or guardian of the child provided written informed consent on their behalf.
385 Patient data were anonymized.

386

387

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590 **Fig. S1. Model parameters (eq. 5) as a function of temperature.** The black circles
591 represent experimental data (from (32) Supp Material), the red dots the mean value (with
592 respect to temperature) and the dashed red lines the curves used as a model to describe the
593 parameters variation. **A** biting rate (data values from (37,38)). **B** Number of eggs laid per

594 female per day (data from (39,40)), **C** probability of mosquito egg-to-adult survival (data from
595 (41–45)). **D** Probability of virus transmission from a bite of an infected mosquito to a
596 susceptible human . **E** Probability of a susceptible mosquito to get the virus following a bite
597 on an infectious human (D and E data are from (46–49)). The parameters of the curves
598 shown in panels A, B and C are taken from (32) and those of panels D and E were
599 determined in this article.

600

601 **Fig S2.** Percent of units at risk that belongs to the different socio-economics typologies as a
602 function of $R0^*$ (threshold to classify spatial units at risk of dengue transmission when $R0$ is
603 above this value). Pink triangles denote low socio-economic typologies, whereas black
604 circles and gray dots represent medium and rich socio-economic conditions, respectively.

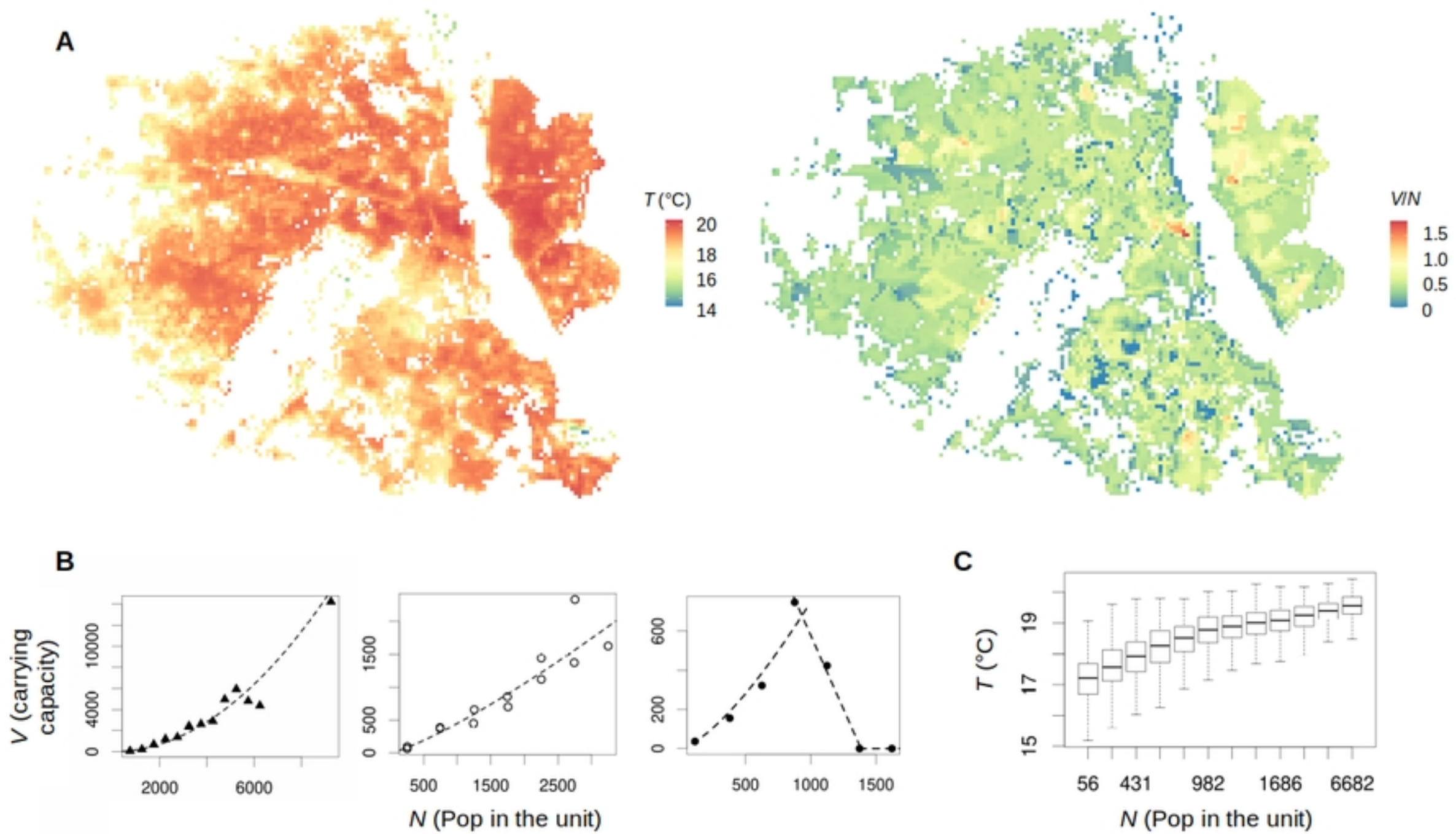
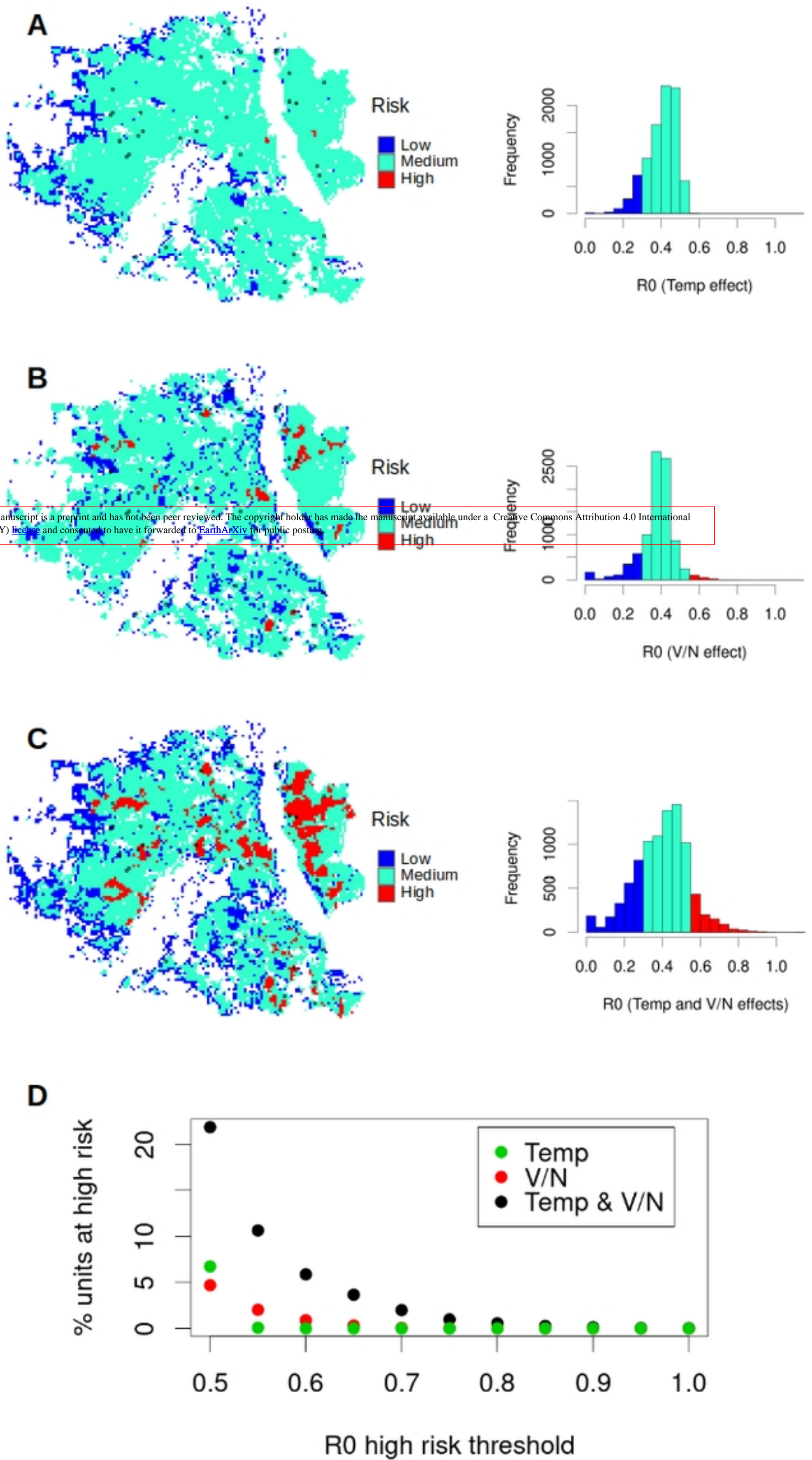
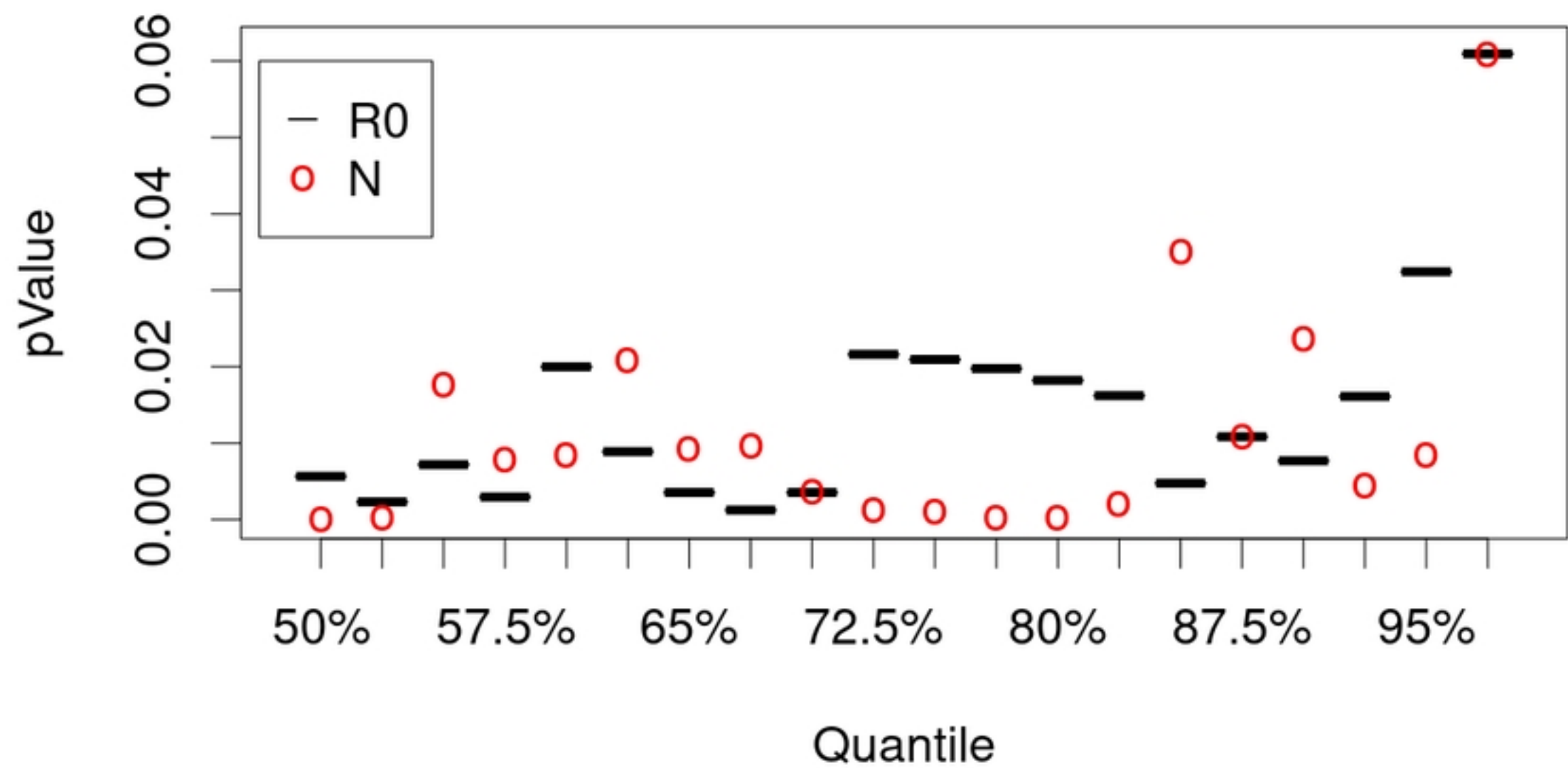


Fig1



Figure



Figure

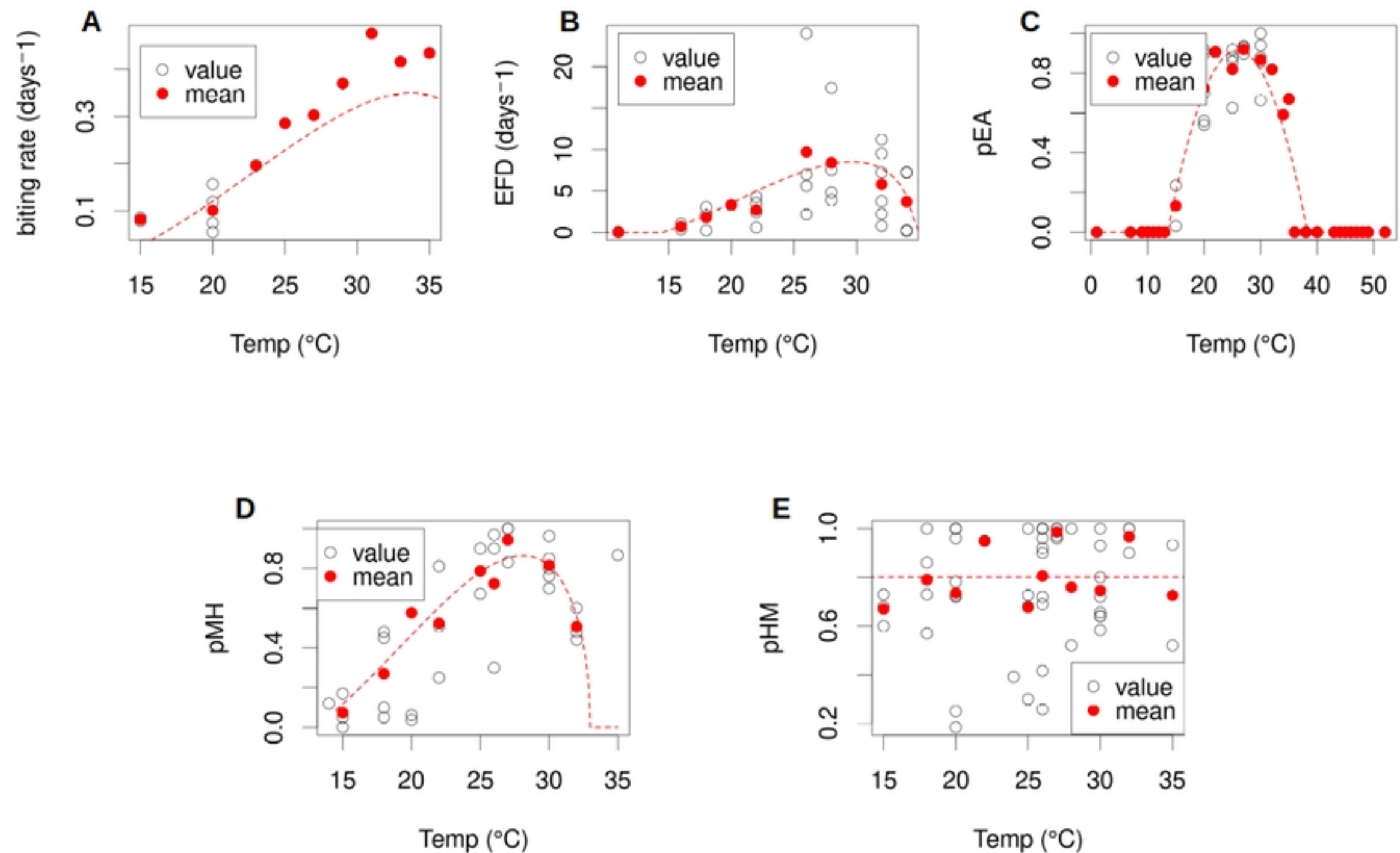


Figure supporting information

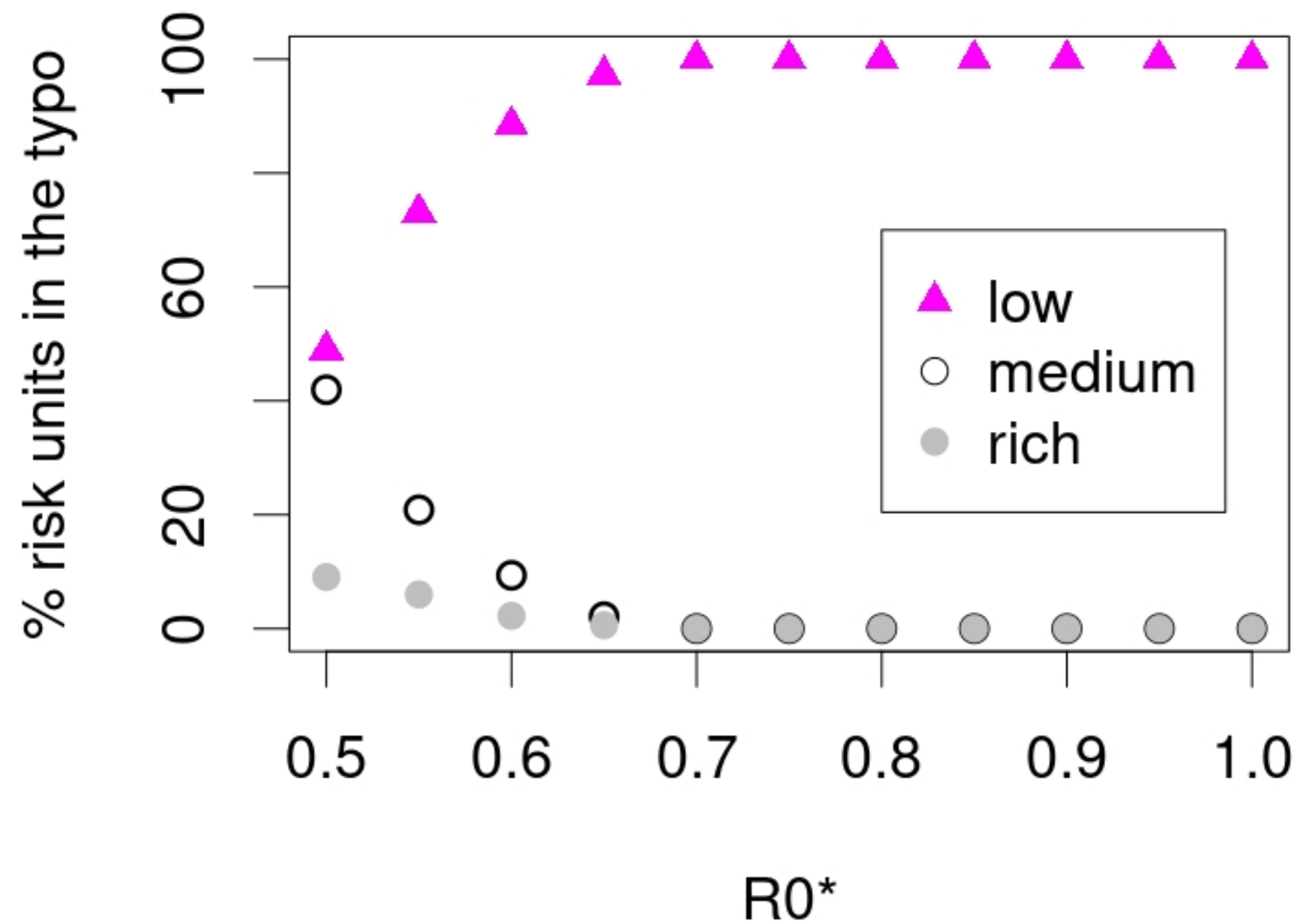


Figure supporting information