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## Assessment of climate change impact on malaria vectors, West Nile disease, and incidence of melanoma in the Vojvodina Province (Serbia) using data from a regional climate model --Manuscript Draft--

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<b>Abstract:</b>	Motivated by the One Health paradigm, we found the expected changes in temperature and UV radiation (UVR) to be a common trigger for enhancing the risk that viruses, vectors and diseases pose to human and animal health. We compare data from the mosquito field collections and medical studies with regional climate model projections to examine the impact of climate change on the circulation of West Nile virus (WNV), the spreading of the malaria vector and the incidence of melanoma. We analysed data obtained from ten selected years of standardized mosquito vector sampling with 219 unique location-year combinations, and 10-years of melanoma incidence. Trends in the observed data were compared to the climatic variables obtained by the coupled regional Eta Belgrade University and Princeton Ocean Model for the period 1961-2015 using the A1B scenario, and the expected changes up to 2030 were presented. The frequency of WNV detections in Culex pipiens was significantly correlated to overwintering temperature averages and seasonal relative humidity at the sampling sites. Regression model projects a twofold increase in the incidence of WNV positive Culex. pipiens for a rise of 0.5°C in overwintering TOctober-April temperatures. Spreading and relative abundance of Anopheles hyrcanus was positively correlated with the trend of the mean annual temperature. We anticipated a nearly twofold increase in the number of invaded sites up to 2030. The projected increase of 56% in the number of days with Tmax ≥ 30°C (HD) and UVR doses (up to 1.2%) corresponds to an increasing trend in melanoma incidence. Simulations of the Pannonian countries climate anticipate warmer and drier conditions with possible dominance of temperature and number of HD over other ecological factors. These signal the importance of monitoring the changes to the preparedness of mitigating the risk.
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1 Assessment of climate change impact on malaria vectors, West Nile disease, and incidence of melanoma  
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## 25 **Abstract**

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27 (UVR) to be a common trigger for enhancing the risk that viruses, vectors and diseases pose to human and  
28 animal health. We compare data from the mosquito field collections and medical studies with regional  
29 climate model projections to examine the impact of climate change on the circulation of West Nile virus  
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31 from ten selected years of standardized mosquito vector sampling with 219 unique location-year  
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33 climatic variables obtained by the coupled regional Eta Belgrade University and Princeton Ocean Model  
34 for the period 1961-2015 using the A1B scenario, and the expected changes up to 2030 were presented.  
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36 temperature averages and seasonal relative humidity at the sampling sites. Regression model projects a  
37 twofold increase in the incidence of WNV positive *Culex. pipiens* for a rise of 0.5°C in overwintering  
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39 with the trend of the mean annual temperature. We anticipated a nearly twofold increase in the number of  
40 invaded sites up to 2030. The projected increase of 56% in the number of days with  $T_{\text{max}} \geq 30^{\circ} \text{C}$  (HD) and  
41 UVR doses (up to 1.2%) corresponds to an increasing trend in melanoma incidence. Simulations of the  
42 Pannonian countries climate anticipate warmer and drier conditions with possible dominance of  
43 temperature and number of HD over other ecological factors. These signal the importance of monitoring  
44 the changes to the preparedness of mitigating the risk.

## 45 **Introduction**

46 Climate change is referred to as “the biggest global health threat of the 21<sup>st</sup> century” [1]. The analysis of  
47 outputs from all general circulation models (GCM) suggest that the countries of the Pannonian Plain,  
48 including Serbia, are facing significant impacts of climate change, affecting all aspects of human life [2].



49 The authors (meteorology, entomology, veterinary medicine and public health experts), have been working  
50 together since 2003, promoting the idea of multisectoral collaboration before the One Health Concept was  
51 officially inaugurated in the USA in 2007 [3], and endorsed by the EU [4] as well as prominent  
52 organizations such as the World Health Organization, Food and Agriculture Organization and the World  
53 Organization for Animal Health (OIE) in 2018 [5].

54 In this paper, the authors collected and analysed observed data collected over a period of 31 years and  
55 related a subset to outputs from a Regional Climate Model (RCM). Vector-borne diseases and melanoma  
56 significant climate-driven threats for which risk sources can be clearly defined [6]. Moreover, both present  
57 progressively growing environmental threats to animal as well as human health in the countries of the  
58 Pannonian Plane.

59 The biology and distribution of mosquito vectors and their capacity to transmit mosquito-borne diseases  
60 are dependent on many factors such as global trade and travel, urbanization, habitat destruction, pesticide  
61 application, host density and climate. *Culex pipiens* and *Anopheles hyrcanus* are mosquito species that are  
62 vectors of West Nile virus (WNV) disease and malaria, respectively, the two most detrimental vector-borne  
63 diseases worldwide [7]. In 2018, Serbia was the second European country (after Italy) most affected by  
64 WNV disease (415 reported cases with 35 fatal outcomes [8]). Malaria was eradicated from Serbia and  
65 other Balkan states during the last century. However, the spreading of its vectors (*Anopheles* mosquitoes)  
66 and the re-emergence of the disease in Greece [9] pose a threat to South East and Central Europe once  
67 again. Current evidence suggests that inter-annual and inter-decadal climate variability have a direct  
68 influence on the epidemiology of vector-borne diseases, with temperature and relative humidity as the  
69 principal abiotic factors influencing the life-cycles of the mosquito vector, the pathogen, the host and the  
70 interactions between them [10,11].

71 Melanoma is a malignant disease that has experienced a significant increase in incidence during the last  
72 few decades all over the world [12]. The climate change impact on melanoma should be considered as a  
73 synergy of changes in UV radiation (UVR) due to stratospheric ozone depletion and the long-term increase  
74 of air temperature leading to more prolonged exposure of individuals to UVR doses and consequently to a

75 higher risk of melanoma [13]. The melanoma mortality in the Vojvodina Province (northern Serbia) (VPS)  
76 in the period 1985-2004 shows an evident increase, placing it amongst the most vulnerable regions in the  
77 world. Thus, Jovanović et al. [14] estimated and made the list of mortality rates from malignant melanoma  
78 for males (age-standardized rate/100,000) in Europe (39 countries) for the year 2000, using ENCR data.  
79 This list shows that the VPS is among the top eleven states (six of them having parts in the Pannonian  
80 Plane) listed as the most endangered.

81 In this study, devoted to revealing the potential impact of climate change on animal and human health, we  
82 compare a considerable amount of previously unpublished ecological data obtained from the field and  
83 clinical surveys with climate change projections for the VPS, which is representative of the Central  
84 European low-altitude areas with a human-dominated landscape (Fig 1). We examined the “microclimate”  
85 differentiation between sites with a specific frequency of WNV occurrence in *Cx. pipiens* and effects of  
86 temperature on the spread and relative abundance of the malaria vector *An. hyrcanus*. We also evaluated  
87 the impact of climate change on melanoma incidence as a synergy of changes in UVR doses and the long-  
88 term increase in the number of hot days (HD), with daily maximum temperature > 30°C using the Eta  
89 Belgrade University and Princeton Ocean Model (EBU-POM) regional model data.

90

91 **Fig 1. (a) Location of the Vojvodina Province (Serbia) in Europe and (b) altitude map.**

92

## 93 **Materials and Methods**

94 For the assessment of the climate change and the impact of UVR doses, we used the climatic variables  
95 obtained by the coupled regional EBU-POM model for the historical period 1961-2000 and the period 2001-  
96 2030 using the SRES-A1B scenario.

## 97 **Study area and climate**

98 The VPS is situated in the northern part of Serbia and the southern part of the Pannonian lowland (18°51'–

99 21°33'E, 44°37'–46°11'N and 75–641 m.a.s.l. (with the Fruška Gora Mountain in the south) as it is seen in  
100 Fig 1a and Fig 1b). This region is the essential food production area in Serbia with a total surface area of  
101 21,500 km<sup>2</sup> and a population of about 2 million. This region has a continental climate, with elements of a  
102 sub-humid and warm climate (Cfbwx" according to Köppen classification).

## 103 **Models and formula used**

### 104 **The global and regional climate model**

105 For climate simulations in this study, we used results of the EBU-POM model runs for the SRES-A1B  
106 scenario integrated over the period 2001–2030 [15]. The EBU-POM is a two-way, coupled RCM. The  
107 atmospheric part is the Eta/National Centres for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) limited area model  
108 (resolution 0.25° × 0.25° on 32 vertical levels; centred at 41.5° N, 15° E, with boundaries at ±19.9° W–E  
109 and ±13.0° S–N), while the oceanic part is the POM (resolution 0.20° × 0.20° on 21 vertical levels). The  
110 driving global circulation model (GCM) was the ECHAM5 model [16] coupled with the Max Planck  
111 Institute Ocean Model (MPI-OM) [17]. More details about model integrations and performed bias  
112 correction for VPS can be found in the paper by Mihailović et al. [2]. The POM model was set over the  
113 Mediterranean Sea without the Black Sea; for other open seas, the sea surface temperature from the GCM  
114 was used as a bottom boundary condition.

### 115 **Empirical formulae**

116 For calculating the daily doses of UVR, i.e. UVRD in the study area sites we have used the following  
117 empirical formula  $UVRD = 0.002507 \times G_d - 5.985$  (kJ/m<sup>2</sup>) derived by Malinović-Milićević et al. [18],  
118 where  $G_d$  is the daily sum of the global solar radiation.

## 119 **Environmental sampling**

### 120 **Mosquito vectors**

121 We used standardized protocols to measure mosquito presence/absence, density and infestation by WNV.

122 Data are extracted from dry ice-baited trap samples, collected over 31 years at 166 different sites (745  
123 sampled locations, S1 Table) in the VPS, to infer on the trends of local vector status and virus circulation  
124 in mosquitoes. In all years mosquitoes were sampled from May to September, with different spatial intensity  
125 and time-frequency governed by the scale and scope of different research projects. For comparison with  
126 climate variables, we extracted data obtained in 10 years (1985 – 6, 2004 – 2005 and 2010 – 2015) for  
127 which a standardized surveillance protocol was in place. These periods have the highest number of  
128 particular location-year combinations (S1-S3 Tables).

129 Samples were collected by two different types of dry-ice baited suction traps. During 1985 and 1986 [19,20]  
130 by the miniature CDC light trap (CDC) and for 2004 and 2015 by the NS2 trap (our own design of dry ice-  
131 baited suction trap without light). Both traps were operating without a light source (incandescent light  
132 proved not to be attractive/repellent for most mosquito species inhabiting the VPS [20]). The CDC trap has  
133 a 3 - 5 times stronger suction power (operated by a 9 V battery) than NS2 (operated by 3 x 1.2 V batteries),  
134 meaning that the increase in density of species observed after 1986 could not be attributed to the change of  
135 the type of trap. Traps were operated from the afternoon until the morning of the next day (one trap night),  
136 with different periodicity. The specific location of the trap at each site was chosen by experienced  
137 entomologists to stabilize variation of the collected data.

138 We used three parameters to indicate *An. hyrcanus* spread and population growth in the period 1985-2015:  
139 i) the ratio of positive to total mosquito samplings per year; ii) the number of sites invaded (positive places  
140 where it was looked for, but was not found in the preceding sampling period, and the number of sites where  
141 was observed in both periods, i.e. established); and iii) the average number of specimens sampled in one  
142 trap during single sampling period from the afternoon of the starting day to the morning of the next day  
143 (Fig 2a and Fig 2c). Here, we used data from 1,073 mosquito samples (1985-6, 2004-5 and 2014-5),  
144 obtained at 54 location over 6 years (142 unique location-year combinations) (S2 Table).

145

146 **Fig 2. (a) The CRCM projection of the mean annual air temperature (Ta) for the period 1985 - 2030**  
147 **and: i) number of specimens sampled in one trap during single sampling period (light blue**

148 columns); ii) the number of sites invaded by *An. hyrcanus* (red columns); and iii) relative number of  
149 positive samplings per year (green columns), (b) projected increase in the number of sites invaded  
150 by *An. hyrcanus* (the period 2001-2030  $\pm$ S.E.), and (c) projected increase in the number of the  
151 specimens sampled in one trap during single sampling period (2001 - 2030  $\pm$ S.E.).

152

153 For *Cx. pipiens*, the period starting with the first detection of WNV in mosquitoes in Serbia, in 2010, (Petrić  
154 et al. [21]) to 2015 was considered. For detection of WNV, specimens were sampled, anaesthetized by dry  
155 ice, identified to species level [22] on dry ice cooled paper, pooled according to date, location, sex and  
156 species, transported on dry ice to the laboratory and stored at -70°C before virus detection. Pool size did  
157 not exceed 50 mosquito specimens per pool. Virus detection was performed according to procedures  
158 described in Petrovć et al. [23]. We analyzed the yearly occurrence of the WNV positive *Cx. pipiens*  
159 mosquitoes sampled by dry ice-baited traps in the years 2010-2015 across 77 unique location-year  
160 combinations (S3 Table). Only traps positioned exactly at the same spot over the entire six-year period are  
161 considered for analysis. Numbers allocated to different places (Fig 3) indicate the number of years in the  
162 period 2010-2015 in which WNV was detected in sampled *Cx. pipiens* mosquitoes; e.g. 5 indicates that  
163 WNV positive *Cx. pipiens* were detected in five out of the six years in the samples collected from the same  
164 spot.

165

166 **Fig 3. (a) Dependence of frequencies ( $\lambda$ ) of WNV positive *Culex pipiens* detections at the same site on**  
167 **overwintering temperatures ( $T_{oa}$ ); (b) Frequency of sampling of WNV infected mosquitoes (1 – 5**  
168 **times) during six years (bars and numbers) in NUTS3 (Nomenclature of Territorial Units for**  
169 **Statistics) units of the Vojvodina Province, Serbia.**

170

## 171 **Melanoma incidence and UVR**

172 Indicators for a ten-year period 1995 - 2004 of melanoma incidence in women and men based on the data

173 obtained from the Cancer Registry of Vojvodina following the methodology of Jovanović et al. [14] were  
174 used for the analysis.

## 175 **Statistics**

176 **We considered the papers** [2,24] in which Kolmogorov complexity measures and sample entropy [25] were  
177 used to quantify the regularity and complexity of air temperature and precipitation time series, obtained by  
178 the EBU-POM model, representing both deterministic chaos and stochastic processes. Then, the obtained  
179 results were compared with the same information measures using data taken from daily meteorological  
180 reports of the Republic Hydrometeorological Service of Serbia. For *An. hyrcanus*, the temperature trend  
181 was evaluated by the Mann-Kendall test using the R statistical package [26]. Field observed values on  
182 species distribution and density for the period 1985-2015 and forecasts of the numbers of sites invaded and  
183 specimens sampled for the period 2016 - 2030 based on linear trend were obtained by the Eviews 9.5  
184 software [27]. For *Cx. pipiens*, the relationship between yearly frequency of WNV detection in mosquitoes,  
185 air temperature and relative humidity (derived from the climate model) was estimated using Spearman's  
186 Rank-Order Correlation and a Poisson regression model (Statistica 13 [28]).

## 187 **Results**

188 *Mosquito vectors.* Figure 2a shows an evident linear trend of the mean annual temperature  $T_a$  for the period  
189 1985 - 2030 ( $r = 0.467$ ;  $p = 0.001$ ;  $\tau = 0.328$ ) calculated from the EBU-POM regional model outputs for 29  
190 representative sites in the VPS. All parameters that were chosen for the evaluation of the spread and  
191 population increase of *An. hyrcanus* were positively, but to a different extent, correlated to the time  
192 argument (periods in which sampling was performed since the beginning of monitoring in 1985) indicating  
193 a monotonic trend. The increase of parameters follows the trend of  $T_a$  (Fig 2a). The strongest correlation  
194 was found for the increase in the ratio of positive samplings ( $r = 0.986$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ;  $\tau = 0.828$ ), followed by  
195 the number of mosquitoes per trap night ( $r = 0.919$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ;  $\tau = 0.733$ ), and the number of sites invaded  
196 ( $r = 0.889$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ;  $\tau = 0.6$ ). By 2030 we anticipate a further increase in numbers of invaded sites and

197 adult females sampled, by 1.71 and 1.27 fold, respectively (Fig 2b and Fig 2c).  
198 To investigate the impact of microclimate on the complex interaction between *Cx. pipiens* and WNV, we  
199 used the following climatic parameters from the EBU-POM model outputs (covering the period 2006-2015)  
200 for 11 sites (GPS coordinates – S3 Table) in the VPS with different histories of WNV circulation: (i) mean  
201 annual temperature ( $T_a$ ); (ii) overwintering temperature ( $T_{oa}$ ) for the period October – April; and (iii)  
202 seasonal temperature ( $T_{ms}$ ) and relative humidity ( $R_{ms}$ ) for the period May – September. For these sites, we  
203 examined the correlation between the frequency of WNV detections in *Cx. pipiens* at each site (from 2010,  
204 when WNV was detected for the first time in the mosquito vector *Cx. pipiens* in Serbia, to 2015) and the  
205 corresponding period averages of climate time series for the same site. Spearman rank order correlation of  
206 the mean values was the highest for  $T_{oa}$  ( $r = 0.755$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ), then for  $T_a$  ( $r = 0.616$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ),  $R_{ms}$  ( $r =$   
207  $0.499$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ) and  $T_{ms}$  ( $r = 0.477$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). Figure 3a depicts the Poisson regression model for the  
208 dependence of a number of detections per site (frequency -  $\lambda$ ) on  $T_{oa}$ , which is highly significant ( $p < 0.05$ ).  
209 The output of the model ( $\ln\lambda = -7.923 + 1.533 \times T_{oA}$ ) indicates that for an increase of  $0.5^\circ\text{C}$  in  $T_{oa}$   
210 (presuming that all other factors needed for the circulation of WNV are kept constant), a twofold increase  
211 in the incidence of WNV positive *Cx. pipiens* could be projected. Figure 3b depicts that most of the sites  
212 with the high frequency of WNV occurrence ( $\geq 2$ ) were distributed along the northwest-southeast axis of  
213 the VPS.

214

215 *Melanoma incidence and UVR doses.* We have used the model simulation to study the expected impact of  
216 climate change on UVR exposure of human skin for nine sites in VPS [PA (Palić), SO (Sombor), KI  
217 (Kikinda), NS (Novi Sad), BC (Bečej, ZR (Zrenjanin), SM (Sremska Mitrovica), BK (Bantaski Karlovac)  
218 and BG (Beograd)]. Firstly, we calculated daily UVR doses (UVRD) from global radiation model outputs  
219 using the empirical formula for the seven aforementioned counties for the period April-September, and then  
220 we found the relative change  $R(\text{UVRD})$  of those doses as  $R(\text{UVRD}) = (\text{UVRD} - \text{UVRD}_k) / \text{UVRD}_k$  where  
221  $\text{UVRD}_k$  is the dose for the 1961–1990 reference period, while the UVRD is calculated for the period 2001-  
222 2030. Figure 4b shows the positive relative change of UVRD, remarkably covering an eastern, southern,

223 western and partly central area of VPS. Specifically, the projected increase is twofold going from the west  
224 and northwest (0.60%) towards the east and southeast where it reaches values of about 1.20%. The EBU-  
225 POM model (for nine sites) shows a significant expected increase of 56% in the number of HD days in the  
226 VPS (Fig 4a), compared to the period 1961 – 1990. Additionally, we observed a decrease of 1.1% in the  
227 number of days with maximum air temperature higher than 25°C (warm days - WD ). This prolongs the  
228 exposure of outdoor working adults to UVR and thus leads to the increase in melanoma risk. This risk  
229 becomes even more significant because of the increase in cumulative values of UVR doses (Fig 4c). Figure  
230 4d depicts the cumulative incidence of melanoma for the period 1985 - 2004 with an increasing monotonic  
231 trend ( $r = 0.970, p < 0.001$ ).

232

233 **Fig 4. Relative change of hot days (HD) (a) and UVR radiation doses [R (UVRD)] (b) for the period**  
234 **2001-2030 compared to the period 1961-1990, (c) cumulative values of mean UVR doses for the period**  
235 **1985-2030 (averaged for seven sites: PA, SO, BC, KI, NS, ZR, SM and BK) under the SRES-A1B**  
236 **scenario [for WD and HD days] and (d) cumulative incidence of melanoma for the period 1995 – 2004**  
237 **(ja bih izabrao ovakav zapis) in the Vojvodina Province, Serbia.**

## 238 Discussion

239 Here we presented an intriguing comparison of the impact of climate change on complex systems including  
240 mosquito vectors, pathogens and humans, which are all indicators of the risk imposed on human health.

241 Our objectives were to use historical, previously unpublished sets of entomological and clinical data and  
242 examine the importance of temperature in contributing to the spreading of the malaria vector *An. hyrcanus*;  
243 to differentiate between sites with a specific frequency of WNV occurrence in *Cx. pipiens* and to assess the  
244 impact of increasing UVR and HD on melanoma incidence using the EBU-POM regional model data. A  
245 similar approach was recently used in observing the dramatic decline in total flying insect biomass in  
246 protected areas in Germany [29].

247 *Mosquito vectors*. Until the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, northern Serbia was considered the northern limit for



248 the distribution of *An. hyrcanus* in Europe. The first detection in Serbia dates from 1979 [30] from the north  
249 part of VPS. We found it in the central part of the Province in 1985 and since then have been noticing its  
250 continued spread. The several records north from Vojvodina, in Slovakia in 2004 [31], the Czech Republic  
251 in 2005 [32], and Austria in 2012 [33] confirm our observation. Due to its exophilic and exophagic  
252 behaviour, *An. hyrcanus* has never been considered as the primary vector of malaria in Europe. Its spread  
253 to higher latitudes, combined with the changes in human behaviour (increased outdoor leisure activities,  
254 the mobility of humans, number of seasonal workers in the field, number of migrants in Europe), might  
255 elevate its vector capacity. The similar northern spread of population distribution range that was registered  
256 for *Anopheles maculipennis s.s.* in Russia [34], and *Culiseta longiareolata* in southern (in 2012; [35]) and  
257 northern (in 2013 [36]) Austria might well represent the tendency described with our model.

258 The latest illustration of similar changes is the finding of *Uranotaenia unguiculata*, a thermophilic mosquito  
259 species frequently occurring in the Mediterranean basin, in northern Germany, some 300-km north of the  
260 previous northern limit [37].

261 During the period 2001-2030 in which the spread and population growth of *An. hyrcanus* is expected, the  
262 intensity of UVR is likely to increase in the VPS (Fig 4a). Let us note, that the positive trends which are  
263 already present in observations might indicate that the findings supporting the negative influence of UVR  
264 and blue-light radiation (this radiation has a wavelength between approximately 380 nm and 500 nm; it has  
265 a very short wavelength, and so produces a higher amount of energy) on adult mosquitoes under laboratory  
266 conditions [38,39]. This experimental evidence does not mean unavoidably that the blue light radiation has  
267 significant influence on adult mosquitoes in field conditions, since they are able to actively escape over-  
268 exposure to radiation.

269 A positive association between WNV disease and temperature was already reported in Europe [11,40]  
270 where climate and landscape were critical predictors of WNV disease outbreaks [41]. Our focus was not on  
271 the number of human WNV cases, but the suitability of sites/microhabitats with different air temperatures  
272 for WNV circulation in mosquitoes, which may well correspond to a higher risk of transmission. We found  
273 that sites with higher  $T_{oa}$  and  $T_a$  were characterized with higher WNV mosquito incidence rate. Clustering

274 of cases with an incidence higher than one in six years coincided with an area of a significant grouping of  
275 mosquito, bird, horse and human cases in 2014 and 2015 (Petrić et al. [42]– Fig 5). This is in concurrence  
276 with Tran et al. [43] and Marcantonio et al. [41], who found that average summer temperatures are  
277 positively correlated with WNV human incidence. It seems that temperature in semi-urban areas dominates  
278 **the** other environmental factors influencing WNV circulation in nature (e.g. landscape suitability for  
279 reservoir host and mosquito vector, host availability, precipitation), as it is the primary factor affecting both  
280 mosquito vector abundance and virus replication. Prediction of a two-fold increase in virus incidence for  
281 each 0.5°C increase in  $T_{\text{oa}}$  indicates but does not necessarily mean, that the number of human cases could  
282 increase too. Therefore, our findings support the statement that climate change is likely to intensify the re-  
283 emergence of WNV in Europe [44].

284

285 **Fig 5. Frequency of sampling of WNV infected mosquitoes (1 – 5 times, coloured numbers) during**  
286 **the period 2010-2016, superimposed over a cluster of mosquito, bird, horse and human WNV cases**  
287 **in (a) 2014 and (b) 2015 (modified after Petrić et al. [40]).**

288

289 *Melanoma incidence and UVR.* According to World Health Organization (WHO) (1992) and many other  
290 authors [45,46], exposure to UVR radiation is considered to be a major etiological factor for all three forms  
291 of melanoma (i) basal cell carcinoma (BCC), (ii) squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) and (iii) malignant  
292 melanoma (MM). We found the correlation between MM and climate changes impact on UVR and also the  
293 number of HD. We see the impact as a modification of ambient UVR through influences on other variables  
294 such as clouds and aerosols. However, that impact might be more pronounced through the impact of changes  
295 in outdoor ambient temperature which will influence people's behaviour and increase the time they spend  
296 outdoors, i.e. exposure to both higher UVR and higher temperatures [13]. Experiments with animals clearly  
297 show that increased temperatures enhance UVR-induced melanoma compared to the room temperature. **In**  
298 **an intriguing study, van der Leun [47] speculated that long-term elevation of temperature by 2°C, as a**  
299 **consequence of climate change, would increase the carcinogenic effects of UVR by 10%. Our results for**

300 the UVR in the VPS are generally similar to the ones obtained by Malinović-Milićević et al. [48] and  
301 Malinović-Milićević and Radovanović [49], who reported the following changes: (1) the reduction of yearly  
302 averages for the total ozone of 3.44% and 3.21% and (2) increase in erythemal UVR dose of 6.9% and 9.7%  
303 for the periods 1990-1999 and 2000-2009, respectively.

304 According to Jovanović et al. [14], the incidence rate of MM cancer in VPS for the period 1985-2004 is  
305 higher than in central Serbia and is comparable with the majority of the central European countries as the  
306 highest melanoma incidence rate in the world [50]. However, most studies do not deal more quantitatively  
307 with the relationship between UVR doses and exposure during HD days and as it has been stated above,  
308 the cumulative exposure to sunlight is probably the most critical risk factor for MM and SCC cancers, while  
309 BCC is more associated with intensive short-term exposure [51]. Thus, the increasing trend in the number  
310 of melanoma incidence in the VPS for the period 1985-2004 (Fig 4d) can be ascribed to (1) the increase in  
311 the number of HD days for about 55% and (2) the increase in cumulative values of UVR doses for the  
312 period 1985-2030.

313 From a statistical point of view, the linear regression model for modeling the cumulative incidence of  
314 melanoma versus the difference of the cumulative UVR doses for hot and warm days (Fig 4d) is apparently  
315 acceptable. Parameters are statistically highly significant ( $r = 0.971$  and  $p < 0.001$ ) while analysis of residual  
316 distribution shows a good agreement with the normal distribution ( $p - p$  plot) as it is seen in Figure 6.

317

318 **Fig 6. Residual distribution versus normal distribution (p-p plot) for regression in Fig 4d.**

319

320 We hope that our results will indicate the importance of long-term monitoring/surveillance programs for  
321 providing crucial data to evidence the ongoing biological alteration triggered by climate change.  
322 Nonetheless, it is difficult to say how broadly our data represent the trends elsewhere. We believe that the  
323 specificity of the observations offers a unique window into the state of some of the planet's pressing threats  
324 to human health. Also, in the case where the humans are exposed to UVR, due to the nature of their work  
325 (the VPS is an exclusively agricultural area), it is necessary to (i) establish a broader network for UVR

326 measurements and warning centres and (ii) increase the awareness of the melanoma as a result of increased  
327 amount of UVR.

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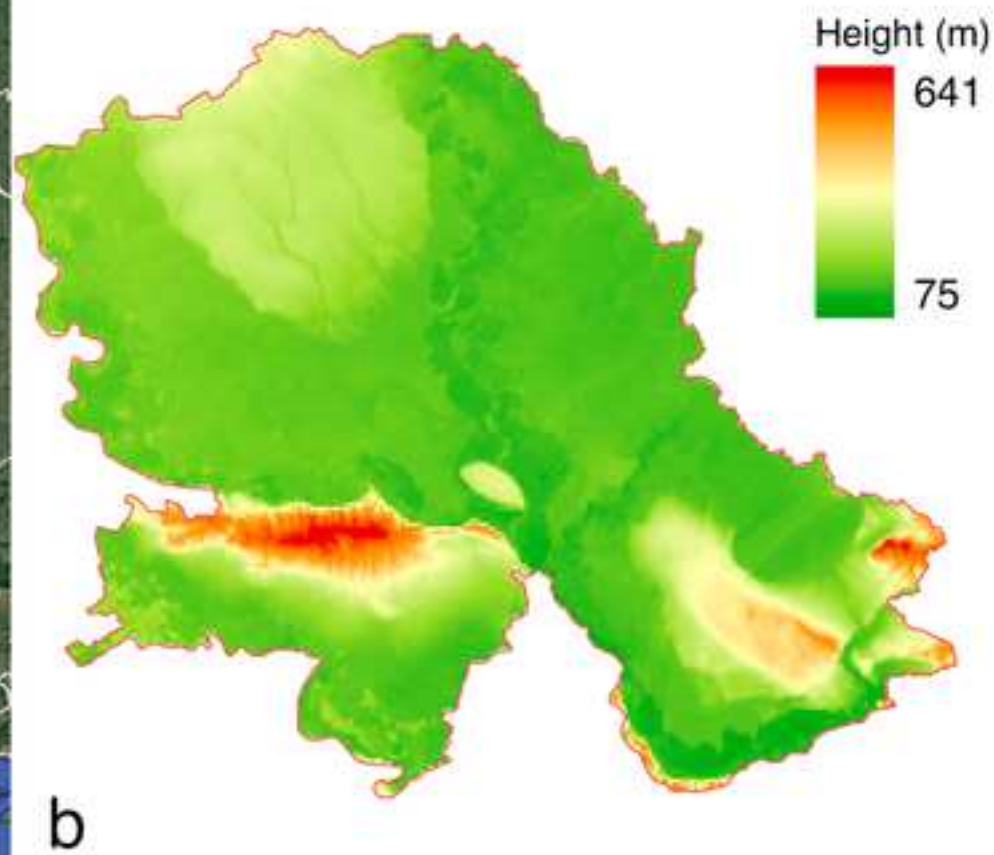
## 467 **Supporting information**

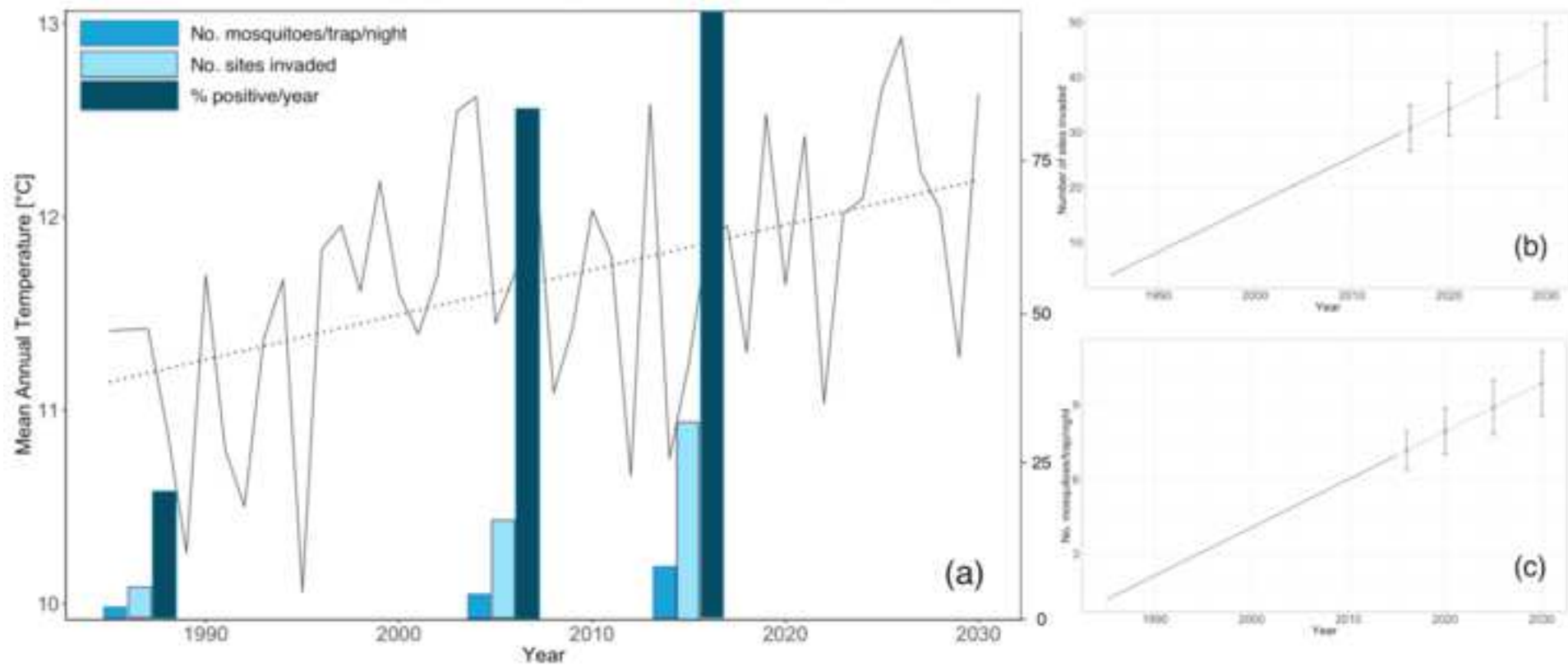
468 **S1 Table. Overview of dry-ice trap samples sizes. For each year, the number of locations sampled,**  
469 **the number of location re-sampled, and total number of samples are presented. Exposure time at**  
470 **the trap locations was similar ( $14 \pm 2$ h).**

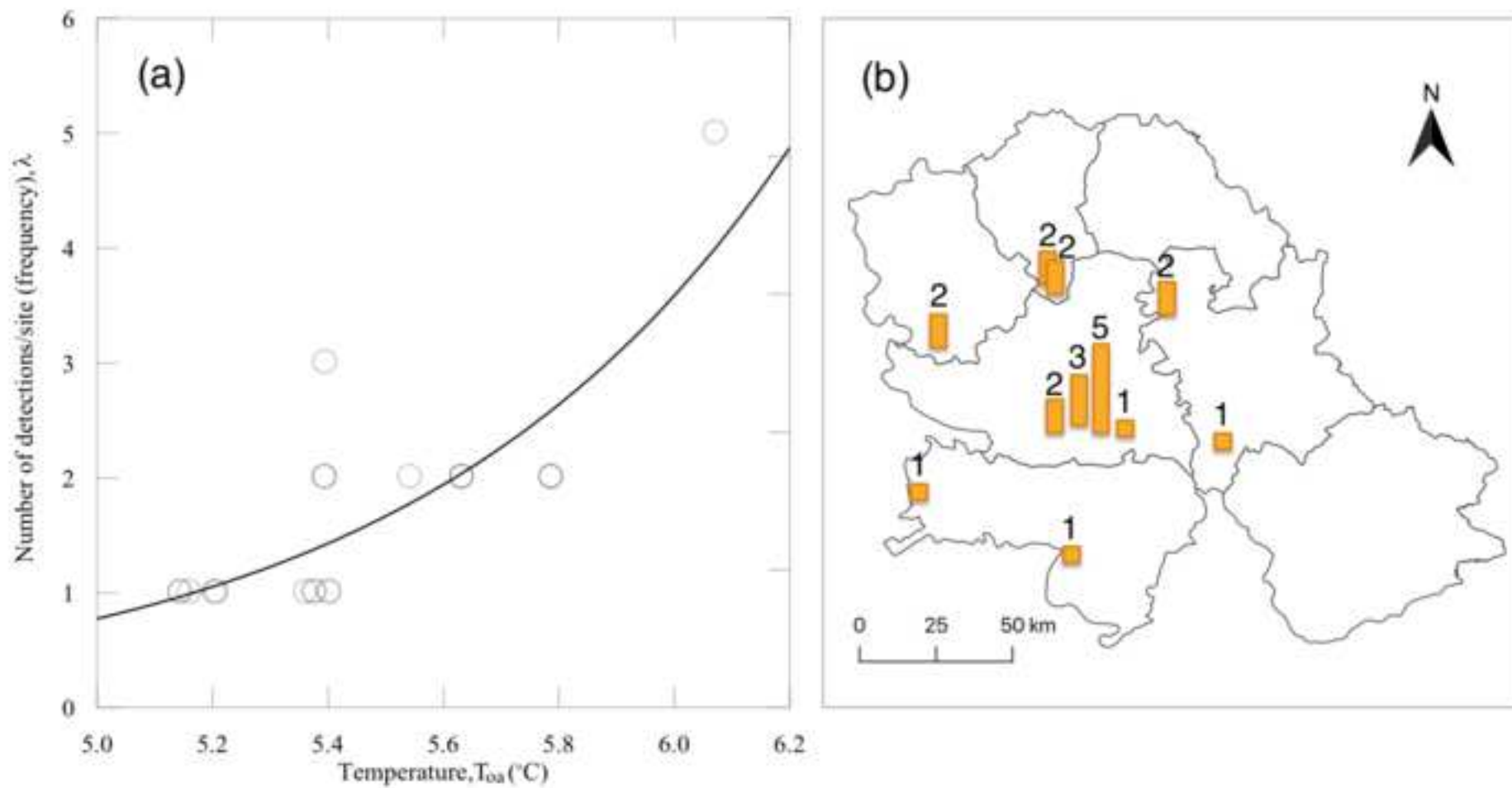
471 **S2 Table. Number of the total trap nights, positive trap nights and *Anopheles hyrcanus* specimens**  
472 **sampled at 54 selected sites in the Vojvodina Province, Serbia during the years 1985-86, 2004-5 and**  
473 **2014-15.**

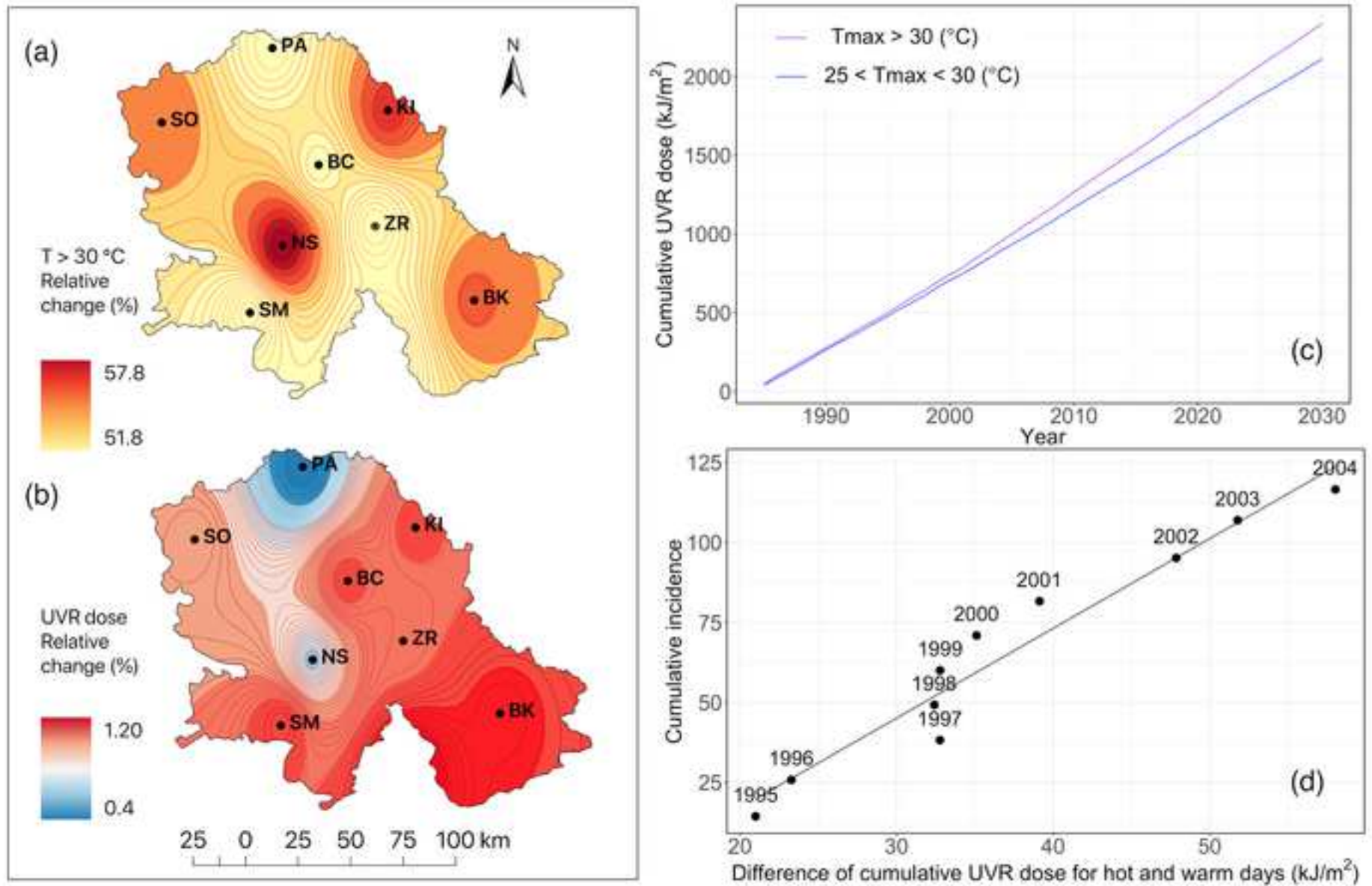
474 **S3 Table. Frequency of sampling of WNV infected mosquitoes (1 – 5 times) in the Vojvodina**  
475 **Province, Serbia, during the period 2010-2016.**



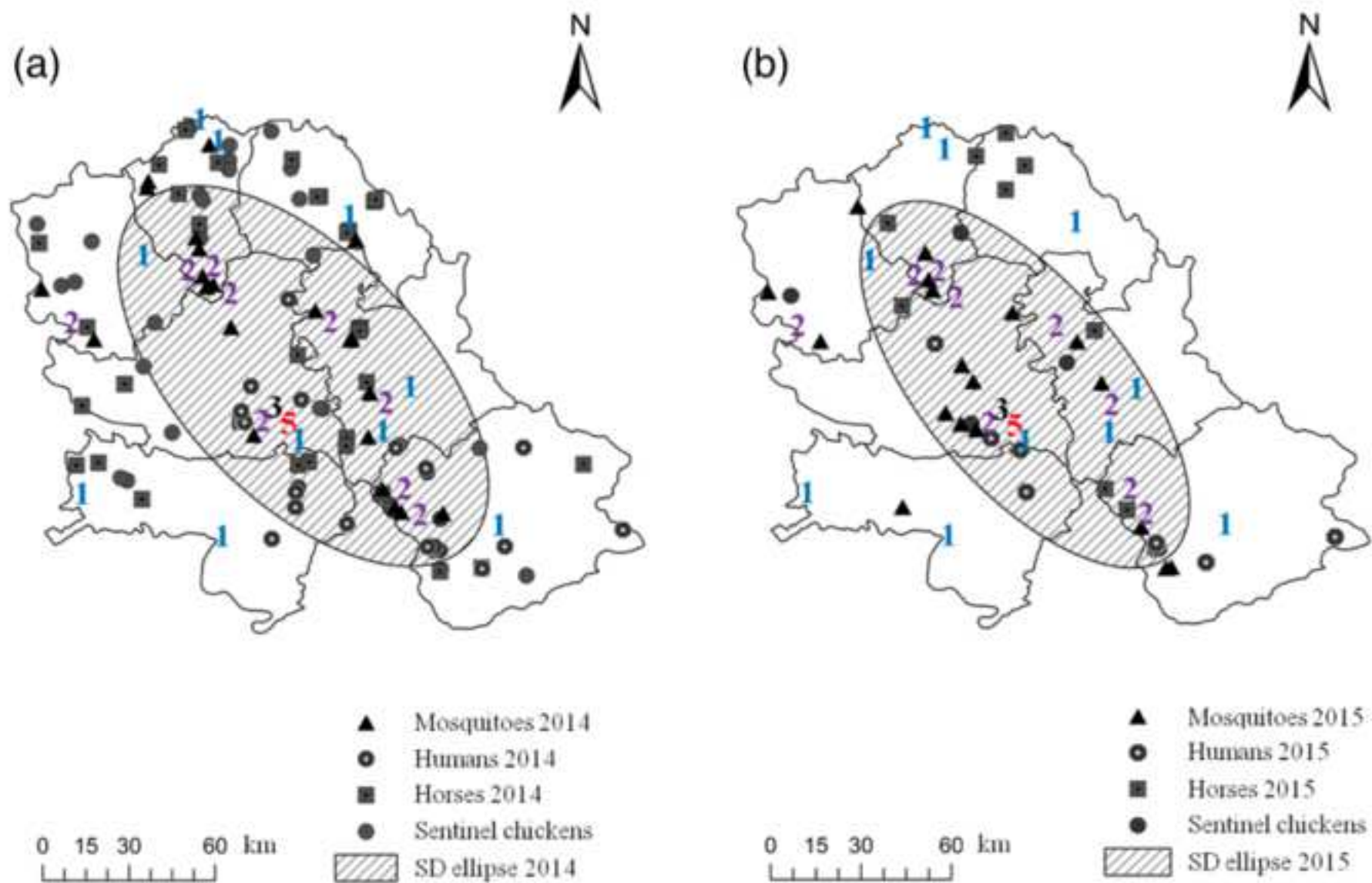


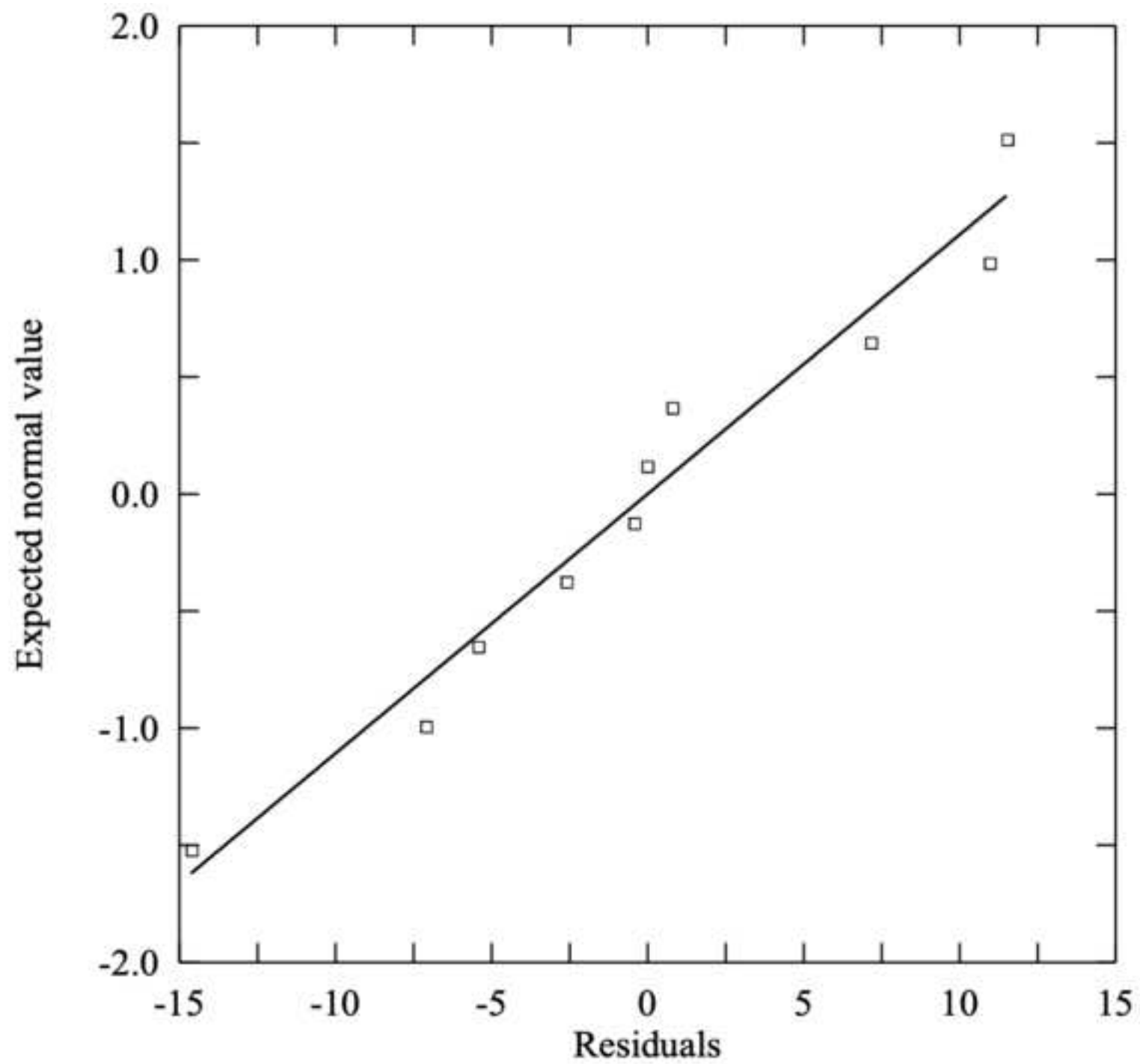














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