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2 **Ocean climate variability and travel surveillance data inform**
3 **understanding of global dengue dynamics**

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34 **Abstract**

35 Oceanic-atmospheric interactions significantly influence regional rainfall and vector-
36 borne disease dynamics. Travel-related dengue cases serve as effective sentinels
37 for dengue transmission, yet the impact of sea surface temperature (SST) variability
38 on their occurrence remains under explored. Here we analyzed 2000–2019
39 GeoSentinel traveler dengue data alongside ERA5 SST and precipitation anomalies
40 to assess correlations across global ocean basins. We identified that dominant SST
41 variability modes in the Indian, Pacific, and Atlantic Oceans are remotely associated
42 with dengue incidence in regions exhibiting strong seasonal precipitation patterns.
43 These SST-driven rainfall variations likely modulate vector ecology and dengue
44 transmission. Incorporating SST and precipitation anomalies into dengue forecasting
45 models could enhance outbreak prediction and public health preparedness,
46 providing a valuable adjunct to existing tools.

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65 **Introduction**

66 Anthropogenic climate change is triggering cascading effects that pose
67 unprecedented threats to human health (1). Among these, vector-borne infections
68 such as West Nile, Dengue, Chikungunya, and Zika viruses are particularly climate-
69 sensitive, with global warming altering their spatial and temporal distribution,
70 transmission pathways, and epidemiology (2-6). The increasing environmental
71 suitability for vector activity has been identified as a key indicator of the negative
72 impacts of climate change on human health (7), and without effective control efforts,
73 the burden of these diseases is projected to rise substantially by 2100 (4).

74 Dengue is a major global public health threat in more than 120 tropical and sub-
75 tropical countries (8), many of which are popular travel destinations. As a result of
76 vector habitat expansion, 22% more countries on all continents will have weather
77 conditions conducive to dengue transmission by the end of this century (9). While the
78 influence of many local climate variables such as temperature, precipitation, and
79 relative humidity on dengue transmission dynamics has been extensively studied in
80 many regions (10), the roles of remote climate drivers —large-scale climate
81 phenomena originating far from the affected regions— in the occurrence and
82 predictability of dengue outbreaks have received less attention (11). For example,
83 Lowe et al. (12) demonstrated the potential of climate forecasts and statistical
84 models to predict the 2016 dengue season in Machala, Ecuador, using climate
85 forecasts and statistical models, highlighting the value of climate services in outbreak
86 management. Petrova et al. (13) found that only strong El Niño events can lead to
87 earlier-than-expected occurrence of dengue outbreaks.

88 Components of the climate system with long-term memory, such as sea surface
89 temperatures (SSTs), can potentially predict regional hydroclimate (14). SST
90 anomalies (SSTA) influence atmospheric circulation and moisture, with warmer
91 SSTs increasing evaporation and atmospheric water vapor, which in turn leads to
92 higher rainfall (15, 16). SSTA are major precursors of tropical precipitation variability
93 (17, 18), playing a significant role in modulating dominant modes of variability such
94 as the El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and the Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD).
95 Numerous studies confirm that regional hydroclimatic conditions can drive vector-
96 borne disease outbreaks, as excessive precipitation, drought, and elevated

97 temperatures increase vulnerability to infectious diseases through complex
98 cascading risk pathways (19). SST thus offers a potential source of predictability with
99 longer lead times (20) and could be leveraged to provide early-warning signals for
100 disease transmission and dengue epidemiology (11).

101 Infected returning international travelers not only contribute to the importation and
102 spread of dengue in non-endemic subregions, but can also serve as sentinels (early
103 indicators) of dengue circulation at their travel destinations (21-23).

104 Accordingly, we evaluated the effectiveness of GeoSentinel data (24) in detecting
105 dengue outbreaks by validating its signal against large external datasets. We further
106 examined the relationship between travel-related dengue cases and oceanic SST
107 variability and total precipitation (TP), to identify potential large-scale circulation
108 drivers by subregion and season. Our aim is to incorporate these features into future
109 dengue forecasting models as an adjunct to existing outbreak prediction tools.

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111

112 **Materials and Methods**

113 **Dengue cases**

114 GeoSentinel is a global sentinel surveillance and research network of the US
115 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and the International Society of Travel
116 Medicine that monitors travel-associated health hazards (25, 26). Demographics,
117 travel history, and clinical data from international travelers are entered into the
118 GeoSentinel database (Appendix) by clinicians at 70 travel and tropical medicine
119 sites in 29 countries. We retrieved all confirmed and probable dengue cases of
120 returned travelers from 2000–2019 that had sufficient data available to ascertain the
121 timing and country of dengue exposure. The travel end date (TED) was used as a
122 proxy for the date of illness onset. We validated the GeoSentinel signaling strength
123 as sentinel for dengue transmission in the subregions defined by the
124 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, Appendix Fig S1A) against
125 dengue case counts by year and country from the Global Infectious Disease and
126 Epidemiology Online Network (GIDEON; 27), a dynamic database that records
127 trends in global infectious diseases. We assessed the strength of association
128 between the GeoSentinel and GIDEON datasets using parametric (Pearson product-

129 moment correlation) and non-parametric (Spearman test) tests, at a significance
130 level of alpha ≤ 0.05 for either test.

131

132 **Climate variables**

133 Hourly estimates of SST and TP from 2000–2019 were retrieved from the latest
134 generation of European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts global
135 atmospheric reanalysis, ERA5 (28), with a horizontal resolution of 0.25°. ERA5
136 provides an accurate representation of the SST spatiotemporal variability (29), it
137 captures the locations and patterns of precipitation totals (30) and exhibits lower
138 precipitation biases and errors than its predecessor ERA-interim (31).

139

140 **Spatial Pattern Analysis**

141 We investigated the lag structures and the associated spatial distribution patterns of
142 correlation coefficients between GeoSentinel's dengue cases and SSTA and TP over
143 the IPCC subregions that exhibit distinct monsoon characteristics and strong
144 seasonality in precipitation (Appendix Fig S1-S2), including Central America and
145 Mexico, South America, sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and Southeast Asia (Fig 1).
146 The daily mean SSTs were computed from hourly estimates. The hourly
147 accumulated precipitation fields were summed to form the 24-hour precipitation
148 totals. Then, for both variables, daily anomalies were calculated as the differences
149 from the climatological mean over the study period (2000–2019), which was
150 smoothed using a 5-day running mean. Weekly mean values were calculated from
151 the daily values for both ERA5 fields and aggregated at each subregion across the
152 study period.

153

154 **Fig 1.** Geographical subregions of dengue exposure along with the number of travel
155 related dengue cases (%), GeoSentinel, 2000-2019. Country codes are according to
156 the international standard ISO 3166.

157

158 Spatial distribution patterns of correlation coefficients between the number of travel-
159 related dengue cases with averaged SSTA and TP over the period 2000–2019 were
160 derived at different timeframes. For each ERA5 grid point, time series of travel-

161 related dengue from the same subregion were correlated with time series of SSTA
162 and TP to assess statistical dependence (32) between SSTA and TP and travel-
163 related dengue. SSTA and TP fields were averaged over a 7-day window for the
164 country of dengue exposure, considering 1, 8, 12 and 24 weeks prior to the TED
165 (hereafter x-week lag). This approach allowed us to assess the consistency of the
166 spatial distribution patterns associated with dengue cases and to identify potential
167 large-scale climatic signals at various lead times. Considering up to 24-week lagged
168 climate patterns enabled exploration of the predictive potential of SST variability
169 modes at sub-seasonal to seasonal scales. Each week was assigned to a season
170 depending on the subregion (Table 1), accounting for pronounced differences of
171 climatic conditions. Although outbreaks have traditionally occurred during the wet
172 season when vector abundance increases, recent climate variability and change
173 have disrupted established patterns of disease seasonality (33), so all seasons were
174 considered where data were available. Statistical significance ($p \leq 0.05$) was
175 assessed via two-tailed t-test. To evaluate the link between SSTA, TPA and the
176 travel-related dengue, we computed composites of SSTA and TPA at time lags of
177 up to 24 weeks for each season (Appendix Fig S3-S7). Fig 2 provides a schematic
178 overview of the applied method. To assess the impact of the choice of reference
179 period (2000–2019), anomalies have also been computed using the 30-year
180 baseline, 1991–2020 (34). Similar patterns and signals were identified in both
181 reference periods, indicating that the reference interval does not affect the results
182 and or their interpretation.

183

184 **Table 1.** Seasons analyzed by subregion, including the regional monsoon system
185 that is typically affected.

Subregion	Seasons	Regional monsoon system
Central America and Mexico	wet: May–October dry: November–April	North American monsoon

South America	pre-monsoon: September-November monsoon: December-February post-monsoon: March-May dry: June-August	South American monsoon
Sub-Saharan Africa	EA monsoon: March-May WA monsoon: June-September	East and West African monsoons
South Asia	pre-monsoon: March-May monsoon: June-September post-monsoon: October-November dry: December-February	Indian summer monsoon
Southeast Asia	wet: May-October dry: November-April	Southeast Asia monsoon

186

187 **Fig 2.** Schematic overview of the analytical approach. Sea surface temperature
188 anomalies (SSTA) and total precipitation (TP) are correlated (r) with travel-related
189 dengue cases at multiple time lags preceding the travel end date (TED). Lag $-i$
190 represents the i -th week before TED (Lag -1 , -8 , -16 , and -24).

191

192 **Results**

193 **Dengue cases**

194 We included 5,275 records of travelers with dengue acquired in 95 countries and
195 who were evaluated at 66 GeoSentinel network sites. Dengue cases were clustered
196 by IPCC subregion, based on the country of acquisition (Fig 1). Approximately 52%
197 of cases ($N=2,765$) reported recent travel to Southeast Asia (Fig 1). The GeoSentinel
198 and GIDEON datasets were found to be significantly correlated ($p \leq 0.05$) in all
199 subregions except the Caribbean (Appendix Table 1), suggesting that the
200 GeoSentinel dengue cases are valid sentinels of dengue transmission in five out of
201 six subregions under study.

202

203 **Spatial Pattern Analysis**

204 We report the results of the spatial patterns of correlation coefficients between the
205 travel-related dengue and SSTA and TP per season (Table 1) and subregion (Fig 1),
206 for the 24-, 12-, 8- and 1-week lags before the TED (Fig 3-7). To assess the
207 relationship between SSTA and TPA and travel-related dengue, we investigate the
208 spatial structure and magnitude of the SST and TP anomaly fields using a composite
209 analysis (Appendix Fig S3-S7).

210

211 **Central America and Mexico**

212 In both seasons, positive correlations were found between travel-related dengue
213 acquired in Central America and Mexico, and SSTAs over the subtropical and
214 tropical North Pacific and Atlantic oceans in all lag weeks (Fig 3a-d). In the dry
215 season, a tripole pattern emerged, characterised by positive correlations off the east
216 coast of the United States and negative correlations north of 50°N and south of 20°N
217 (more pronounced in the dry season; Fig 3c,d). Additionally, during the dry season,
218 persistent positive correlations were observed over the eastern equatorial Pacific
219 (Fig 3c, d). The signal to the east is consistent with the SST pattern being closely
220 linked to North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) variability (35), and that to the west is
221 similar to the ENSO. Both signals were strongest at 16- and 24-week lags and
222 confirmed by the SSTA composite maps (Appendix Fig S3c,d).

223 Travel-related dengue was positively associated with TP in both seasons, especially
224 along the Pacific coasts of Mexico and Central America (Fig 3e-h). The signal is
225 more pronounced 1- and 8-week lags before the TED and diminishes afterwards (at
226 16- and 24-week lags). This is also evident in the composite TPA anomaly patterns
227 (Fig S3e-h) where wetter-than-average conditions have been identified in both
228 seasons (more pronounced in the wet season) across the central and eastern
229 equatorial Pacific, which are typically associated with El Niño. Positive precipitation
230 anomalies over land have only been identified up to two months before the TED (1-
231 and 8-week lags; Fig S3e-h).

232

233 **Fig 3.** Spatial pattern of correlation coefficients in Central America and Mexico. (a-d)
234 Spatial distribution maps of correlation coefficients between sea surface temperature
235 anomalies (SSTA) and (e-h) total precipitation (TP) with travel-related dengue cases

236 at (a,c,e,g) lag of 8 (Lag-8) and (b,d,f,h) 1 week (Lag-1) before the travel end date for
237 (a,b,e,f) wet (May–October) and (c,d,g,h) dry (November–April) seasons in Central
238 America and Mexico for 2000–2019. Red (blue) shades indicate positive (negative)
239 correlation between SSTA and travel-related dengue cases. The opposite applies for
240 TP. Stippling denotes statistically significant areas at the 95% level.

241

242 **South America**

243 In the pre-monsoon season, positive correlations were identified between SSTA and
244 travel-related dengue off the western coast of Central America and the Caribbean
245 Sea, as well as in the central equatorial Atlantic, at 1- and 8-week lags (Fig 4a,b).
246 During the monsoon and post-monsoon seasons, statistically significant positive
247 correlations were observed in the equatorial Pacific, with the strongest signal at the
248 24-week lag (Fig 4c,d,f). The monsoon SSTA composites resembled the distinct El
249 Niño pattern (Appendix Fig S4c-f). In the post-monsoon season, positive correlations
250 were also observed in the southern Pacific Ocean (~20°S), accompanied by
251 negative correlations further south (~30–40°S), except for the 8-week lag (Fig 4e).
252 This pattern is spatially consistent with the South Pacific Meridional Mode (SPMM;
253 36), a dominant air-sea coupling mode in the subtropical southeastern Pacific
254 (Appendix Fig S4f). During the dry season, strong positive correlations between
255 travel-related dengue and SSTA were found in the subtropical and tropical North
256 Atlantic Ocean, most pronounced at 8-, 16-, and 24-week lags (Fig 4g,h), consistent
257 with the SSTA composite maps (Appendix Fig S4g,h).

258 We found positive correlations between TP and travel-related dengue in the pre-
259 monsoon, monsoon, and post-monsoon seasons over the entire South American
260 region except for northeastern Brazil, at 1-week lag (Fig 4j,l,n). The signal ceases in
261 the pre-monsoon period (Fig 4i) and diminishes during the monsoon and post-
262 monsoon periods, but is still evident up to 8- and 16-week lag (Fig 4k,m). In the dry
263 period, positive correlations between travel-related dengue and TP comprised a
264 broad area extending across northern South America and northeastern Brazil
265 evident up to 8-week lag (Fig 4o,p). TPA patterns have been observed to resemble
266 those typically associated with El Niño in the Pacific Ocean and Atlantic Niño in the
267 Atlantic Ocean (Fig 4i-p). These patterns are evident in all weeks during the

268 monsoon and post-monsoon seasons, and are most pronounced at 16- and 24-week
269 lags during the pre-monsoon and dry seasons.

270

271 **Fig 4.** Spatial pattern of correlation coefficients in South America. (a-h) Spatial
272 distribution maps of correlation coefficients between sea surface temperature
273 anomalies (SSTA) and (i-p) total precipitation (TP) with travel-related dengue cases
274 at (a,c,e,g and i,k,m,o) lag of 8 (Lag-8) and (b,d,f,h and j,l,n,p) 1 week (Lag-1)
275 before the travel end date in (a,b,i,j) pre-monsoon (September-November), (c,d,k,l)
276 monsoon (December-February), (e,f,m,n) post-monsoon (March-May), and (g,h,o,p)
277 dry season (June-August) in South America for 2000–2019. Red (blue) shades
278 indicate positive (negative) correlation between SSTA and travel-related dengue
279 cases. The opposite applies for TP. Stippling denotes statistically significant areas at
280 the 95% level.

281

282 **Sub-Saharan Africa**

283 During the East African (EA) monsoon season, we identified positive correlations
284 between travel-related dengue acquired in sub-Saharan Africa and SSTA in the
285 south-eastern tropical Atlantic Ocean (20–30°S) and the western tropical Indian
286 Ocean off Madagascar (30°S), accompanied by negative anomalies west of Australia
287 (most intense at an 8-week lag; Fig 5a). Similar and stronger patterns were identified
288 during the West African (WA) monsoon season, while the signal over the
289 southeastern tropical Atlantic shifted northwards (between 10°S and 20°S; Fig 5c,d).
290 These signals are also visible in the SSTA composites (see Appendix Fig S5a–d),
291 indicating the relative influence of the Mascarene high region and the southern
292 tropical Atlantic SSTs on dengue cases in Africa.

293 Spatial patterns of correlation coefficients for TP followed the seasonal rainfall
294 variability of the sub-Saharan African subregions, showing positive correlation
295 coefficients between travel-related dengue with rainfall south of the equator in EA
296 monsoon season (Fig 5e,f), and north of the equator in WA monsoon season (Fig
297 5g,h), consistent with the TPA composite patters (Appendix Fig S5e-h).

298

299 **Fig 5.** Spatial pattern of correlation coefficients in sub-Saharan Africa. (a-d) Spatial
300 distribution maps of correlation coefficients between sea surface temperature
301 anomalies (SSTA) and (e-h) total precipitation (TP) with travel-related dengue cases
302 at (a,c) lag of 8 (Lag-8) and (b,d,f,h) 1 week (Lag-1) before the travel end date for
303 (a,b,e,f) EA monsoon (March-May) and (c,d,g,h) WA monsoon (June-September)
304 seasons in sub-Saharan Africa for 2000–2019. Red (blue) shades indicate positive
305 (negative) correlation between SSTA and travel-related dengue cases. The opposite
306 applies for TP. Stippling denotes statistically significant areas at the 95% level.
307

308 **South Asia**

309 The number of travel-related dengue from South Asia was positively associated with
310 SSTA extending over the South Indian Ocean and negatively associated with SSTA
311 extending over the eastern Indian Ocean, west of Sumatra (Fig 6a-f). This was
312 evident in all seasons except the dry season (Fig 6g,h) and was most pronounced
313 during the monsoon and post-monsoon seasons (Fig 6c-f). This signal is spatially
314 consistent with the positive IOD pattern, a prominent mode of climate variability in
315 the tropical Indian Ocean (37), which is also apparent in the composite maps
316 (Appendix Fig 6a-f). Additionally, significant positive correlations were observed
317 between travel-related dengue and SSTA in the equatorial Pacific in all seasons
318 except the post-monsoon season (Fig 6a-h). This pattern is most evident in the pre-
319 monsoon and dry seasons, 8–16-weeks before TED, and in the monsoon season, 24
320 weeks before TED. This signal displays a distinctive SST signature of El Niño that is
321 also evident in the SSTA composite maps (Appendix Fig S6a-h). In addition, there
322 was a positive correlation between travel-related dengue and SSTA over the
323 subtropical South Indian Ocean (Fig 6a-h). This signal, which is most prevalent
324 during the monsoon and dry seasons (see Fig 6c,d,g,h), displays a distinctive SST
325 warming signature centred over the Mascarene High region (Appendix Fig S6a-h).
326 Finally, travel-related dengue was positively correlated with SSTA over large parts of
327 the Bay of Bengal and the Arabian Sea in the post-monsoon season (Fig 6e,f), and
328 over the South China Sea in the dry season (Fig 6g,h).
329 The pre-monsoon precipitation signal was positive and intense over the east coast of
330 India (evident up to the 16-week lag; Fig 6i,j), signifying the onset of convective

331 activity and the transitional stage of the Indian summer monsoon. During the
332 monsoon, a spatially coherent pattern was identified, characterized by significant
333 positive associations between the travel-related dengue and rainfall across the
334 domain evident up to the 16-week lag (Fig 6k,l). In post-monsoon, significant positive
335 correlations extend spatially over most of the subregion, except central India (Fig
336 6m,n) and this was evident at 1-week lag. In the dry season, there was a significant
337 positive correlation between travel-related dengue and TP in the northern parts of
338 the Indian Peninsula, over the great Himalayan range, the western Himalayan, in
339 north Pakistan and Nepal and in the southern part of India at the 1-week lag (Fig
340 6o,p). Total precipitation anomalies exhibit distinct patterns that are typically
341 associated with the IOD, with an increase in rainfall in the western Indian Ocean and
342 a decrease in the eastern region (Appendix Fig S6i-p). Positive equatorial
343 precipitation anomalies are also evident (Appendix Fig S6i-p), indicating the signal of
344 El Niño.

345

346 **Fig 6.** Spatial pattern of correlation coefficients in South Asia. (a-h) Spatial
347 distribution maps of correlation coefficients between sea surface temperature
348 anomalies (SSTA) and (i-p) total precipitation (TP) with travel-related dengue cases
349 at (a,c,e,g and i,k,m,o) lag of 8 (Lag-8) and (b,d,f,h and j,l,n,p) 1 week (Lag-1) before
350 the travel end date in (a,b,i,j) pre-monsoon (March-May), (c,d,k,l) monsoon (June-
351 September), (e,f,m,n) post monsoon (October-November), and (g,h,o,p) dry season
352 (December-February) in South Asia for 2000–2019. Red (blue) shades indicate
353 positive (negative) correlation between SSTA and travel-related dengue cases. The
354 opposite applies for TP. Stippling denotes statistically significant areas at the 95%
355 level.

356

357 **Southeast Asia**

358 In both seasons, significant positive correlations between travel-related dengue from
359 Southeast Asia and SSTA appeared over the South Indian Ocean between 10°N–
360 20°S and in the South China Sea in all lag weeks (Fig 7a-d, most pronounce in the
361 dry season). In the dry season, significant negative correlations have been identified
362 over the Philippine Sea, in all lag weeks (Fig 7c,d). In addition, strong positive

363 correlations have been identified over the equatorial Pacific (Fig 7a-d, most
364 pronounce in the dry season), evident in all lag weeks in the dry season and at 16-
365 and 24-week lags during the wet season. In the dry season, the western signal
366 resembles the Indian Ocean Basin Mode (IOBM), while in the wet season it
367 coincides with the Mascarene High region. Meanwhile, the eastern signal indicates
368 the emerge of El Niño during the dry season. These signals are evident in the SSTA
369 composites (Appendix Fig S7a-d).

370 The pattern of correlation coefficients between travel-related dengue and TP
371 revealed a clear dipole in Southeast Asia. In the wet season, significant positive
372 correlations peaked over the Philippines and the western portion of the Indochina
373 Peninsula (Fig 7e,f), while in the dry season, significant positive correlations were
374 observed over the eastern portion of the Indochina Peninsula and the Maritime
375 Continent (Fig 7g,h). TPA patterns were consistent, displaying both this distinct
376 dipole across seasons and lag weeks, as well as the El Niño signal, which was most
377 prominent in the dry season (Appendix Fig S7i-l).

378

379 **Fig 7.** Spatial pattern of correlation coefficients in Southeast Asia. (a-d) Spatial
380 distribution maps of correlation coefficients between sea surface temperature
381 anomalies (SSTA) and (e-h) total precipitation (TP) with travel-related dengue cases
382 at (a,c,e,g) lag of 8 (Lag-8) and (b,d,f,h) 1 week (Lag-1) before the travel end date for
383 (a,b,e,f) wet (May- October) and (c,d,g,h) dry (November-April) seasons in Southeast
384 Asia for 2000–2019. Red (blue) shades indicate positive (negative) correlation
385 between SSTA and travel-related dengue cases. The opposite applies for TP.
386 Stippling denotes statistically significant areas at the 95% level.

387

388 **Discussion**

389 This analysis provides new insights into how surges in travel-related dengue cases
390 respond to oceanic SST anomalies (SSTAs) and total precipitation (TP), revealing
391 that these surges are influenced by coherent spatial SST structures across the
392 global oceans. Large-scale SST features in the Indian, Pacific, and Atlantic Oceans
393 could be incorporated into future dengue forecasting models as an adjunct to
394 existing outbreak prediction tools.

395 Our analysis suggests that, when compared with the GIDEON database, the 2000–
396 2019 GeoSentinel dataset of returning international travelers with dengue was
397 significantly correlated with dengue transmission in all subregions, except the
398 Caribbean. Sentinel surveillance of health hazards in returning international such as
399 that routinely conducted by GeoSentinel, plays a pivotal role in the detection of
400 travel-associated infections, and it may identify outbreaks in countries or territories
401 with limited local public health surveillance capacity (25). Over the past decades,
402 GeoSentinel has identified and reported multiple outbreaks of vector-borne diseases,
403 including Zika in Costa Rica (38, 39), chikungunya in Myanmar (40-42), and yellow
404 fever in Brazil (Hamer et al. 2018). GeoSentinel data has the potential to
405 complement public health surveillance by local authorities, which is the prime source
406 for data collection by GIDEON. Failure to detect cases can contribute to the
407 unnoticed spread of the disease (43).
408 Our findings demonstrate the existence of co-varying relationships between the
409 numbers of travel-related dengue cases acquired in the geographic regions of
410 dengue exposure and SSTA in the Pacific, Atlantic, and Indian Oceans and TP. They
411 highlight the importance of understanding the coupling between oceanic SSTA and
412 precipitation. The findings also suggest that combining climatological data with
413 epidemiological observations may help inform the development of early-warning
414 systems for regional occurrence of dengue outbreaks.
415 The spatial distribution maps of the correlation coefficients between travel-related
416 dengue and SSTA show considerable seasonal variation. The strongest correlations
417 are observed at 16- and 24-week lags in subregions associated with dominant large-
418 scale modes of climate variability, as summarized in Fig 8. For TP, stronger
419 correlations are found at 1- and 8- week lags in subregions with higher monsoon
420 precipitation rates, reflecting the influence of seasonal rainfall regimes driven by
421 monsoon variability. Overall, coherent spatial SST structures in the oceans are
422 correlated with rainfall variability, which may be associated with mosquito population
423 dynamics and vector biology, and thus may affect the risk of dengue incidence in
424 each subregion.
425

426 **Fig 8.** Potential (non-exclusive) sea surface temperature-related climate drivers of
427 travel-related dengue by subregion and month. Subregions are shown along the x-
428 axis: Central America (CAM), South America (SAM), South Asia (SAS), Southeast
429 Asia (SEA), and Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). Climate drivers (secondary y-axis)
430 include El Niño, Subtropical North Pacific (SNP), Subtropical North Atlantic (SNA),
431 Caribbean Sea (CAR), North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), South Pacific Meridional
432 Mode (SPMM), Central Equatorial Atlantic (CEA), Mascarene High region (MH),
433 Subtropical Atlantic (STA), Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD), Indian Ocean Basin Mode
434 (IOBM), Arabian Sea (AS), Bay of Bengal (BOB), and South China Sea (SCS).

435

436 In Central America, a clear relationship was found between SSTAs and travel-related
437 dengue over the north-eastern and eastern equatorial Pacific oceans, as well as the
438 subtropical North Atlantic. Previous studies have examined the associations between
439 Central America's precipitation and Pacific/Atlantic SSTs (44-46). The NAO and the
440 El Niño are strongly correlated with dengue cases. The NAO has been found to be a
441 driver of Mesoamerican monsoon variability (47), while Central America's and
442 Mexico's winter precipitation tend to be strongly associated to ENSO (46). In South
443 America, travel-related dengue is correlated with the Atlantic and Pacific SSTs. The
444 strongest associations are with the El Niño, the SPMM and the SSTAs in the
445 subtropical and tropical north Atlantic. El Niño has been linked to precipitation
446 anomalies in South America (48), while the SPMM has been shown to trigger the
447 onset of ENSO (36, 49). Ciemer et al. (50) investigated the relationship between
448 SST and rainfall anomalies using a complex network approach and found that rainfall
449 sums in the Amazon Basin are mainly affected by SSTA in the southern Pacific
450 Ocean. In sub-Saharan Africa, travel-related dengue is correlated with SST patterns
451 in the Mascarene High region and the South tropical Atlantic Ocean. Previous
452 studies have demonstrated the importance of both regions for wet conditions and
453 rainfall variability in sub-Saharan Africa (51, 52). In South Asia, travel-related dengue
454 is correlated with the positive IOD and El Niño patterns as well as SSTA over the
455 subtropical southern Indian Ocean. Persistent subtropical warm SSTA over this
456 region induces positive IOD events through modulation of the Mascarene High (53).
457 The role of the southern Indian Ocean circulation in the Indian summer monsoon is

458 well established, while oscillations in the strength of the Mascarene High are linked
459 to variability in monsoon rainfall and SSTs over the Indian Ocean (54-56). The IOD
460 pattern has been found to be strongly correlated with the Indian summer monsoon
461 rainfall (57). In Southeast Asia, travel-related dengue is correlated with the IOBM
462 and El Niño patterns. The IOBM is associated with a uniform warming across the
463 basin, which may have led to enhanced convection, resulting in wetter conditions
464 over the maritime continent, promoting vectorial capacity. Finally, El Niño has been
465 linked to the amplification of endemic diseases, such as dengue, in South and
466 Southeast Asia (58, 59).

467 Our study has several limitations. Although GeoSentinel surveillance data include a
468 large number of cases, they represent a convenience sample and are subject to
469 biases related to patient referral patterns, data recording and reporting by designated
470 sites, and fluctuations in travel volumes. Therefore, even though dengue frequencies
471 recorded by GeoSentinel correlated with the GIDEON database for all subregions,
472 the data are not fully generalizable. While subregions were delineated based on
473 physical processes important to regional climatology, such as strong seasonality of
474 precipitation, the observed SSTA and TPA signals are sensitive to the spatial extent
475 of these subregions. Analyses of correlations between SSTA and TP fields and
476 dengue cases identify empirical linkages and statistical dependencies, but do not
477 establish causal relationships.

478 The interaction between climate and travel-related dengue is complex and dynamic.
479 Advanced statistical methods using longer timeseries and climate indices are
480 required to further elucidate the role of the ocean-atmospheric coupling on SST and
481 regional TP patterns, that may predict dengue outbreaks. Advanced understanding
482 of the driving mechanisms of monsoon precipitation is needed to better anticipate
483 weather extremes, such as droughts and floods and devise prevention measures
484 against dengue outbreaks.

485

486 **Ethics statement**

487 The GeoSentinel data collection protocol was reviewed by a human subjects advisor
488 at CDC's National Center for Emerging and Zoonotic Infectious Diseases (NCEZID)
489 and was determined to be public health surveillance and not human subjects

490 research. Additional ethical clearance was obtained as required by the participating
491 institutions. Informed consent was not required.

492

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499

500 **Disclaimer**

501 The findings and conclusions in this report are those of the authors and do not
502 necessarily represent the official position of the US Centers for Disease Control and
503 Prevention.

504

505 **Data statement**

506 The dengue case data supporting the results of this study are available from the
507 authors upon reasonable request and with permission from the GeoSentinel
508 Surveillance Network. The climate data analyzed in this study are available in the
509 Copernicus Climate Data Store repository at <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/>.

510

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518

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657

658 **Author contributions**

659 S.D., K.A., and R.H. wrote the manuscript. S.D., J.R., and R.H. designed the study.
660 S.D. and R.S. performed data acquisition and cleaning. S.D. analyzed and
661 interpreted the data. J.R. and R.H. supervised the study, and all authors discussed
662 the results and commented on the manuscript and contributed with review and
663 editing.

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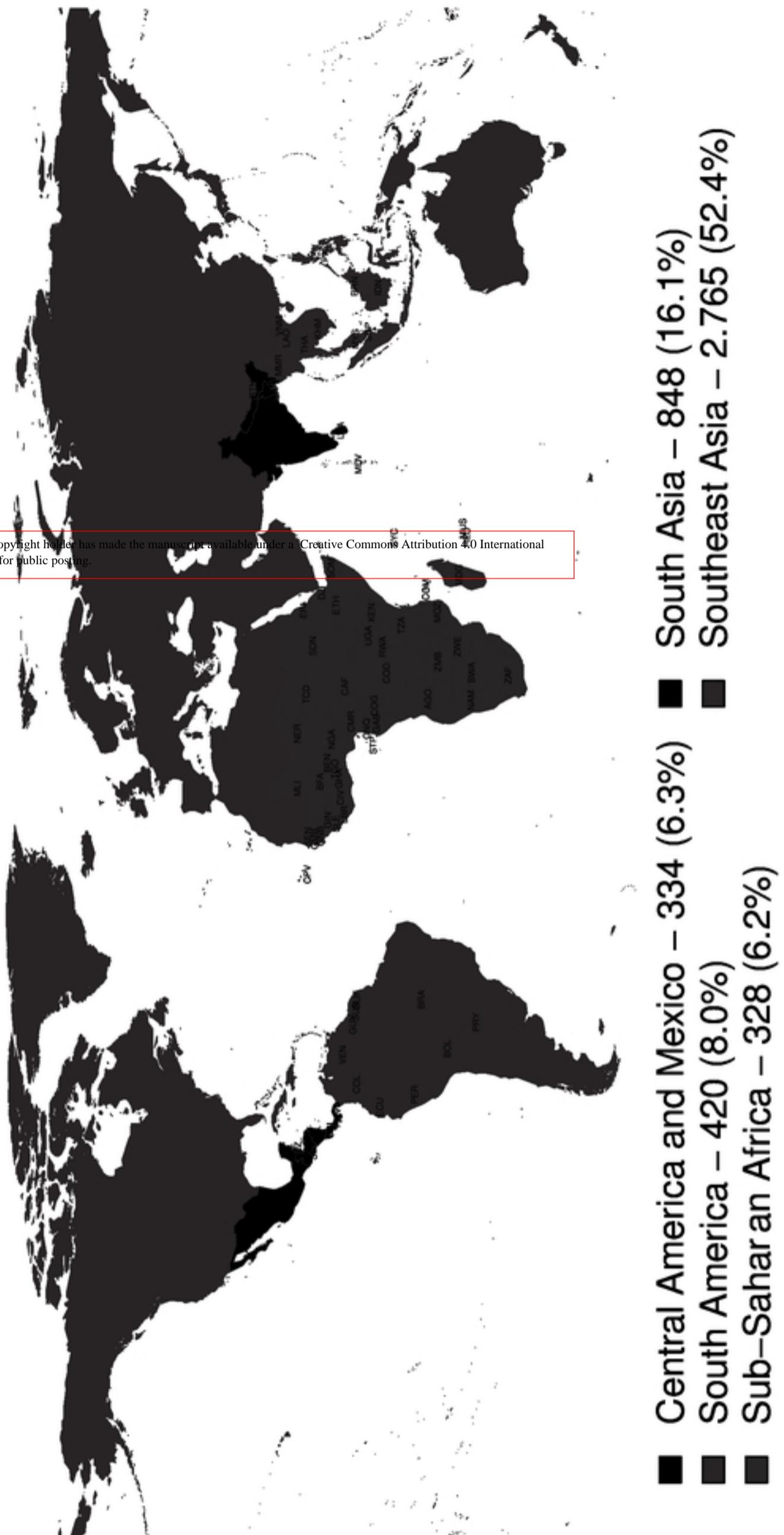


Figure 1

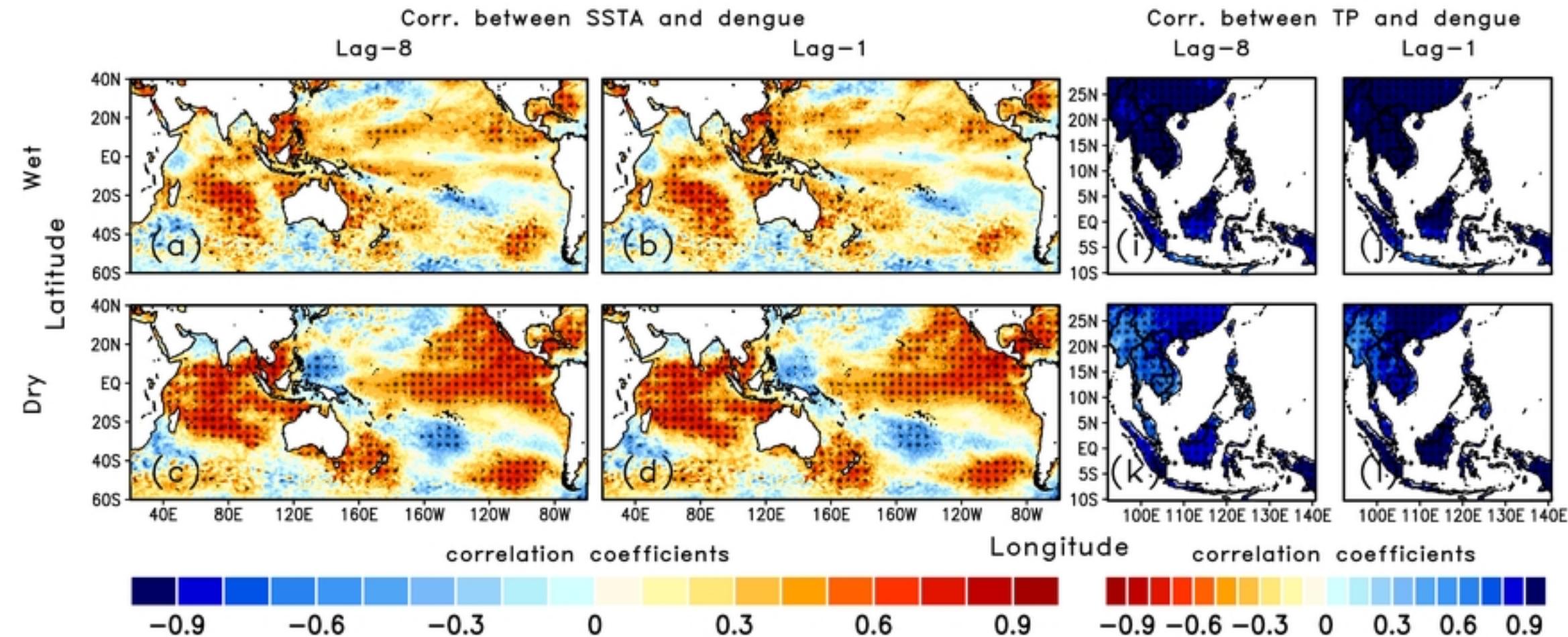


Figure 7

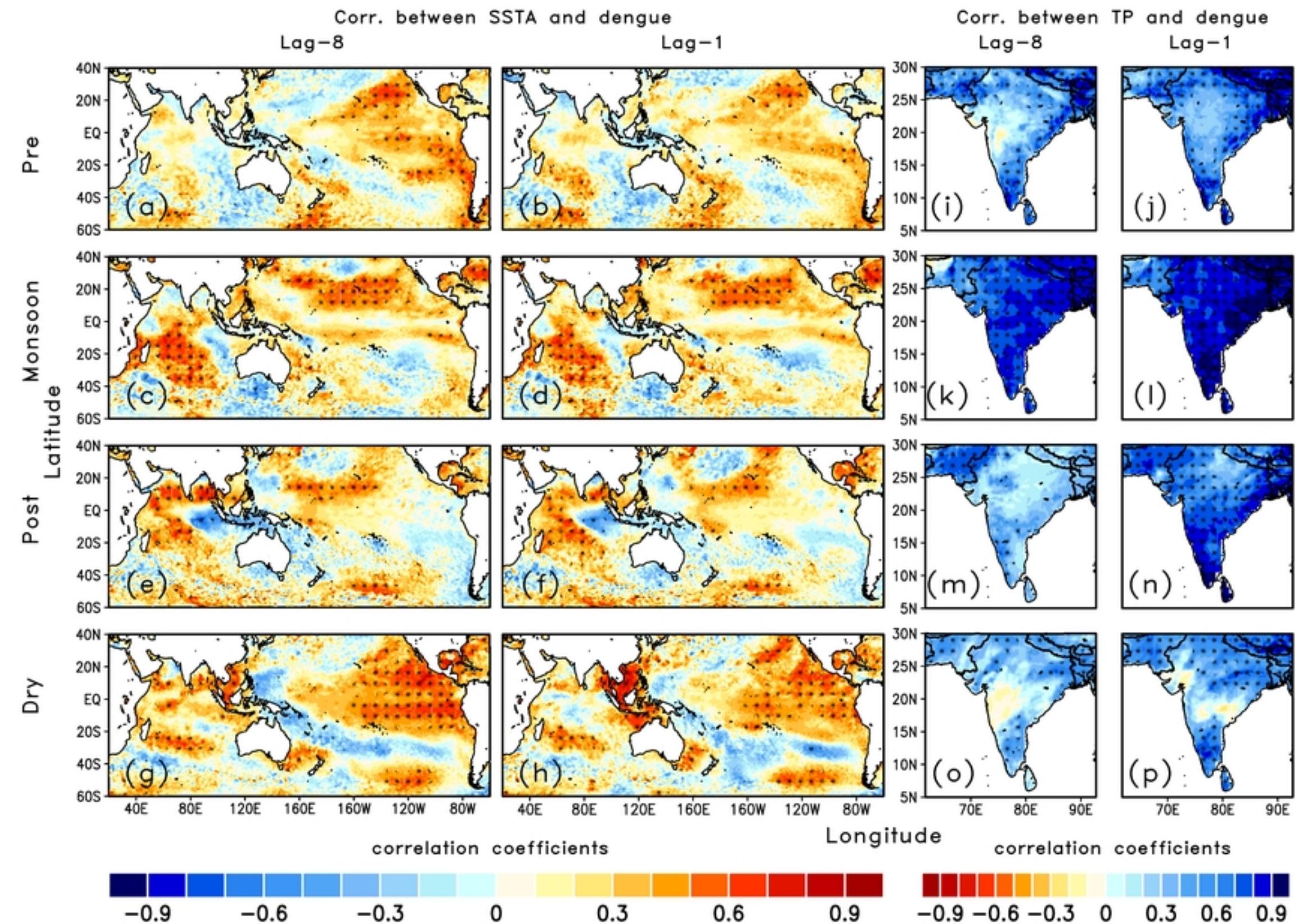


Figure 6

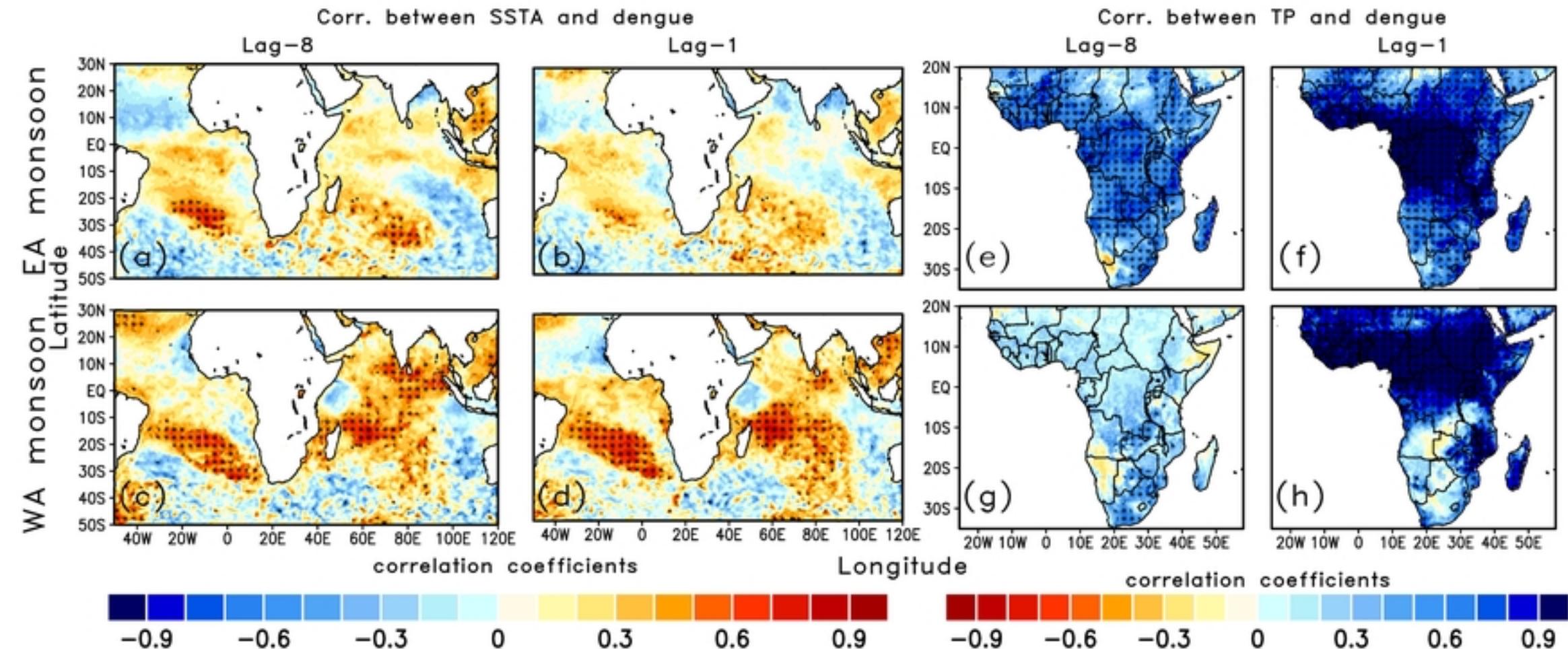


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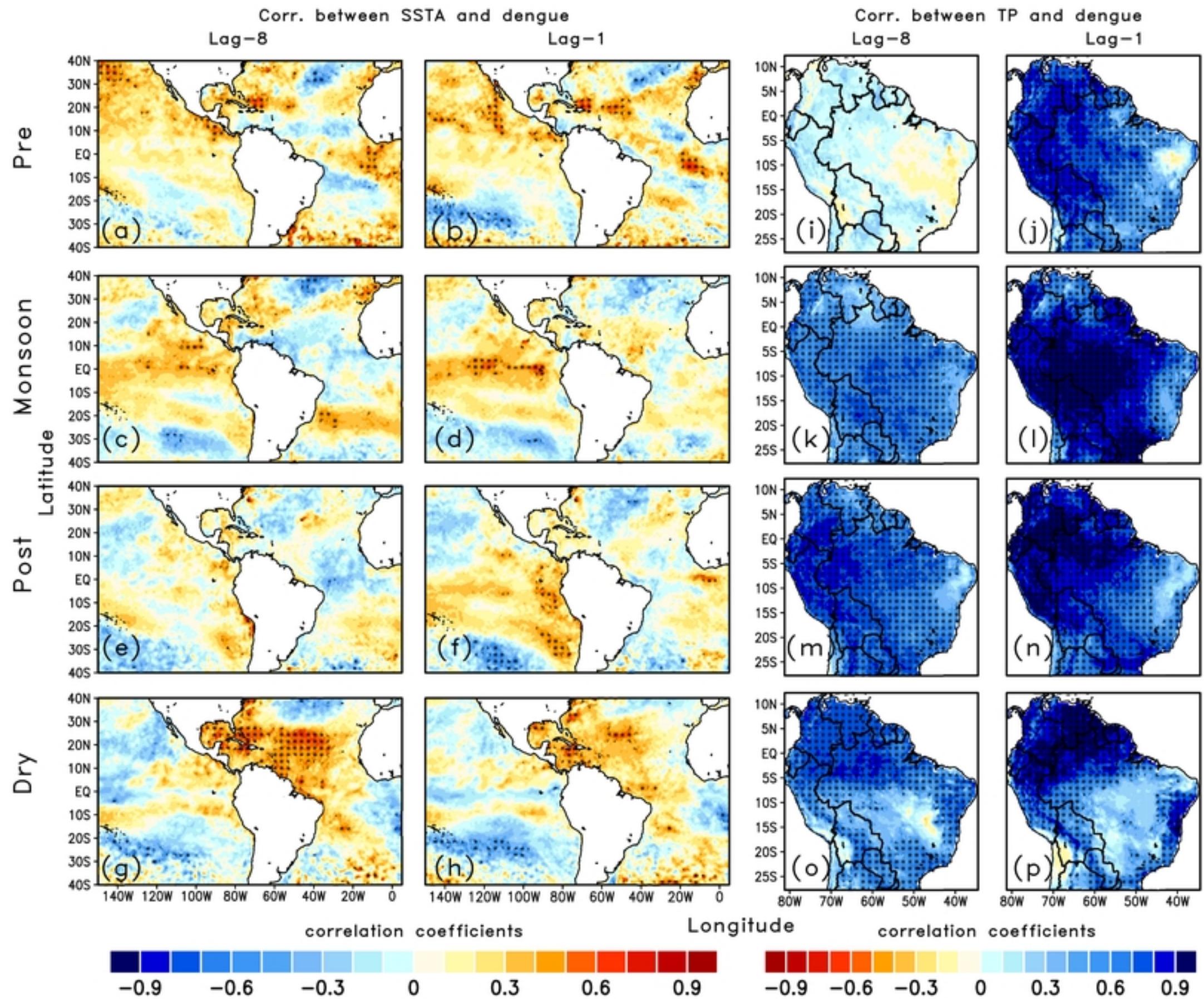


Figure 4

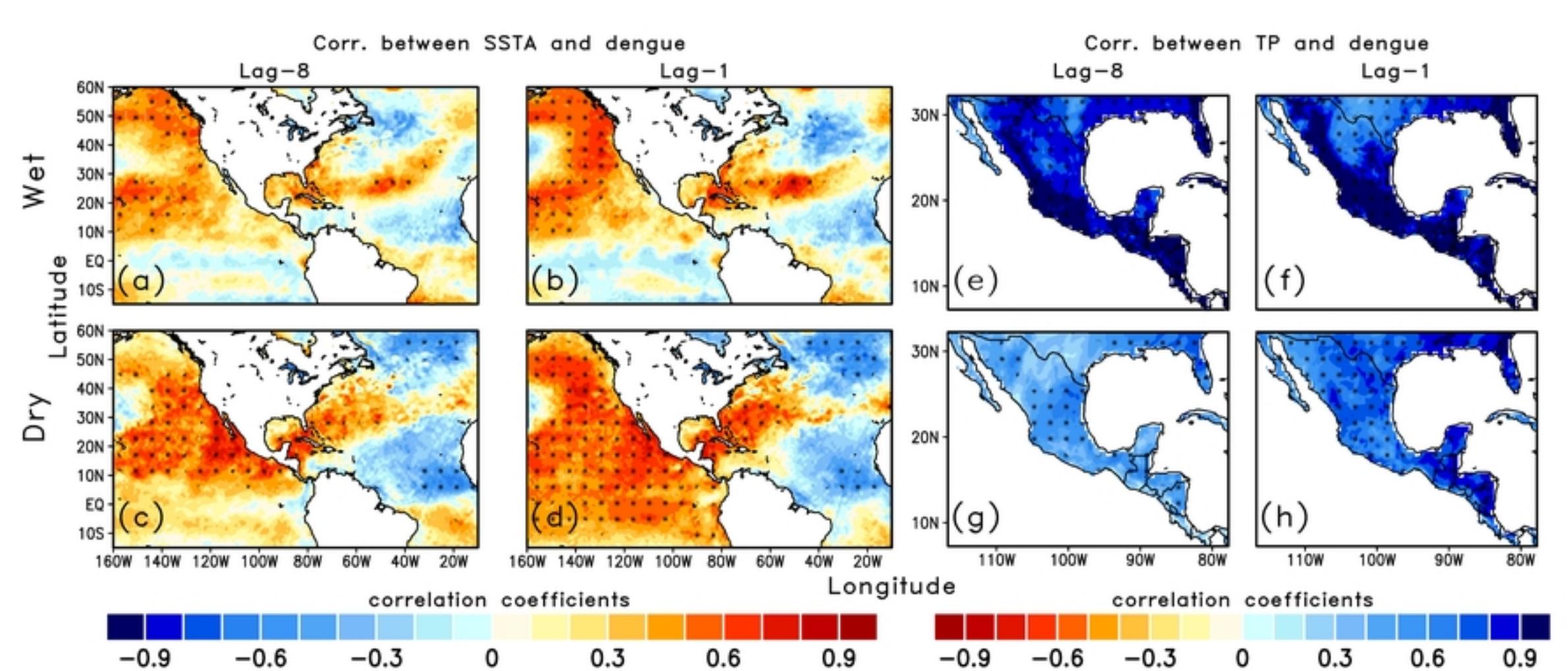


Figure 3



Figure 2

Figure 8