- 1 Challenges and Strategies for the Development and
- 2 Implementation of Climate-informed Early Warning Systems
- 3 for Vector-Borne Diseases: A Systematic Review

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18 **Abstract**

19 **Background**:

- 20 Vector-borne diseases, exacerbated by climate change, present an escalating global health
- 21 threat, necessitating robust surveillance and climate-informed early warning systems
- 22 (EWSs) to predict outbreaks and enable timely interventions. This systematic review aims to
- 23 synthesize the challenges and strategies involved in developing and operationalizing EWSs
- 24 for vector-borne diseases.

25 Methods:

- 26 Following PRISMA guidelines, we conducted a systematic search across multiple databases
- 27 (PubMed, Web of Science, Scopus, and Embase) and performed a manual search using
- 28 predefined keywords up to 05 November 2024. Eleven papers were selected into the
- 29 reviewing process.

Results:

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- 31 While EWSs show significant promise in enhancing outbreak prediction and guiding timely
- 32 public health interventions, several key challenges persist. Inadequate data quality and
- 33 integration—characterized by fragmented epidemiological, entomological, and
- 34 meteorological datasets—compromise predictive accuracy. The review also highlights gaps
- 35 in stakeholder engagement and capacity building. Without comprehensive training and
- 36 active collaboration among public health officials, climate scientists, and data analysts, the
- 37 practical application and sustainability of these systems are undermined.
- 38 Enhancing data harmonization through standardized collection processes and integration
- 39 protocols is crucial for improving model reliability. The adoption of scalable, cloud-based
- 40 platforms can mitigate technical and infrastructural limitations by enabling real-time data
- 41 processing and robust computational capabilities. Strengthening interdisciplinary
- 42 collaborations—bringing together experts from diverse fields—can refine predictive models
- 43 and ensure that system outputs are both accurate and actionable. Furthermore, tailored
- 44 capacity-building initiatives are vital for empowering local authorities to effectively interpret
- 45 and implement EWSs warning signals. Finally, optimizing communication strategies by
- 46 simplifying technical outputs and developing user-friendly interfaces can bridge the gap
- 47 between complex predictive analytics and practical decision-making processes.

Conclusion:

- 49 Addressing these challenges through integrated solutions will enhance the effectiveness and
- 50 sustainability of EWSs, ultimately improving outbreak preparedness and response for vector-
- 51 borne diseases in a changing climate.
- 52 **Keywords:** Climate-informed Early Warning Systems; Vector-Borne Diseases; Challenges
- 53 and Strategies

1 Introduction

- Vector-borne diseases (VBDs) cause over 700,000 deaths annually, with malaria and dengue being the most severe [1]. These diseases disproportionately affect tropical and low-
- 57 income regions [2, 3]. Climate change exacerbates VBDs by altering vector habitats,
- 58 extending transmission seasons, and expanding geographic ranges, with warming
- 59 temperatures and extreme weather events creating favourable conditions for disease spread
- 60 [4, 5]. By 2070, climate change could put 4.7 billion people at risk [4, 5][6]. Community
- 61 mobilization, vector control strategies, and public health interventions are essential in
- reducing transmission rates of VBDs [4, 5]. Climate-informed EWSs, integrating climate data
- 63 to predict VBDs outbreaks, have shown promise in providing advanced warnings, enhancing
- health system readiness, trigger timely interventions, and informing policy decisions [4, 7-
- 65 13].

- 66 Effective EWSs, including climate-informed EWSs for infectious diseases, consist of four key
- 67 components: risk knowledge, monitoring and warning service, dissemination and
- 68 communication, and response capacity [14-17]. Effective EWSs begin with a thorough
- 69 understanding of risks, which result from the interaction of hazards and vulnerabilities in a
- 70 given location [18]. These assessments, often visualized through risk maps, help prioritize
- 71 early warning needs and inform prevention and response strategies [11]. A reliable
- 72 monitoring and warning service is at the core of an early warning system which requires a
- 73 strong scientific foundation for hazard forecasting, supported by continuous monitoring of
- 74 relevant parameters [14-17]. Timely and clear communication of warnings is crucial to
- ensuring that those at risk receive and understand the information [14]. Messages should be
- simple, useful, and delivered through multiple communication channels to maximize reach
- and redundancy [19]. Pre-established authoritative voices at regional, national, and
- 78 community levels enhance the credibility and effectiveness of warnings [19]. A well-
- 79 functioning early warning system requires that communities not only receive warnings but
- also understand how to respond effectively [19]. Education, preparedness programs, and
- regularly tested response plans are essential for building response capacity [14-17].
- 82 Thanks to a robust understanding of risks and investments in data collection, monitoring,
- 83 training, and the promotion of new modelling technologies, various climate-informed EWSs
- have been developed for VBDs, providing timely and accurate VBDs forecasts [12, 20].
- 85 Despite their potential, challenges remain in developing and applying these systems for
- VBDs prevention and control [12, 20]. In particular, the communication and dissemination of
- 87 warnings, as well as community response capabilities, have not received similar attention
- 88 [12, 19, 20]. A comprehensive analysis is needed to guide the development of effective
- 89 EWSs and ensure their sustainable integration into routine prevention and control efforts. A
- 90 comprehensive synthesis of the challenges and strategies in developing and implementing

- 91 these systems is notably absent from the literature. Furthermore, there is a pressing need for
- 92 a comprehensive analysis that consolidates the diverse experiences and insights from
- 93 various implementations of EWSs for VBDs prevention and control.
- This review aims to summarize the recent literature, evidence, and strategies for effectively
- 95 implementing climate-informed EWSs to support sustainable VBDs prevention and control.
- This paper identifies key gaps in EWS components including risks knowledge, dissemination
- 97 and communication, preparedness, and response capabilities, and are discussed in detail
- hereafter. Additionally, issues related to implementation and operationalization of the EWSs.
- 99 and stakeholder engagement are also investigated.

2 Method

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101 2.1 Literature search

- 102 A literature search was conducted using both electronic searching and manual hand
- searching methods to find peer-reviewed articles which reported regarding Climate-informed
- 104 EWSs for vector- born disease prevention and control. Published articles were searched
- using databases including PubMed, Web of Science, Scopus and Embase up to 05
- November 2024. The search included relevant keywords and word variants for Climate,
- 107 Early Warning Systems, Vector-born diseases. The detail keywords and searching Boolean
- is presented in the Supplementary file, Table 1.
- Additionally, we conducted a manual search through the reference lists of relevant papers
- and employed a snowballing approach by reviewing all articles that cited the included papers
- and examining their references to identify other pertinent materials.
- 112 2.2 Data sources, search strategy, and eligibility criteria
- 113 2.2.1 Study selection criteria and procedure
- 114 Screening
- 115 Two authors screened the title, abstract and full text based on the developed review question
- and specific inclusion and exclusion criteria using Covidence [21]. Unsure papers were
- 117 reviewed by another reviewer for the final decision.
- 118 Inclusion Criteria
- 119 The study selection process aimed to identify and include articles that evaluated Climate-
- 120 Informed EWSs implemented for VBDs prevention and control. First, articles must assess
- 121 Climate-Informed EWSs designed for the prevention and control of VBDs. Articles were
- included if they described systems that were already operational or currently being
- implemented. Additionally, the reported EWS must generate prospective early warning

- signals based on real-world data and effectively communicate these signals to relevant
- stakeholders for intervention. Additionally, the studies had to focus on human outcomes
- related to VBDs. Lastly, only articles published in English were reviewed.

127 Exclusion Criteria

- 128 Articles were excluded if they failed to meet the inclusion criteria or fell into specific excluded
- 129 categories. Studies describing theoretical models, computational optimization exercises, or
- projections for EWS that had not undergone evaluation were omitted. Research focusing on
- 131 non-human outcomes or diseases not classified as vector-borne was also excluded.
- Additionally, certain types of publications, such as reviews, meta-analyses, commentaries,
- editorials, case reports, letters to the editor, and book chapters, were excluded due to their
- secondary or anecdotal nature. Articles with no accessible full text were also omitted from
- 135 consideration.

136 2.2.2 Quality Assessment

- We accessed the methodological quality appraisal of the included studies. The quality of the
- included study assessed using The Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT) version 2018
- 139 [22]. The quality of studies also accessed based on the relevant items from the Critical
- 140 Appraisal and Data Extraction for Systematic Reviews of Prediction Modelling Studies
- 141 (CHARMS) checklist [23]. Studies with very low rigour, which indicated very serious flaws in
- the study design, were excluded.
- 143 The review was registered with PROSPERO (CRD42024562065) on 05/07/2024 and is
- 144 reported according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-
- 145 Analyses (PRISMA) 2020 statement [24].

146 2.3 Data extraction and analysis

147 2.3.1 Data extraction

- 148 Data extraction was conducted using Covidence' extraction form. Pilot extraction was carried
- out on 5–10% of the studies to refine the extraction form and establish consensus among
- 150 extractors. To ensure rigor, two independent reviewers assessed full-text articles based on
- predefined criteria, conducting data extraction and analysis. Disagreements were resolved
- through discussion, with a third reviewer mediating if necessary.
- 153 The extracted information included comprehensive study characteristics such as study title,
- publication year, country of intervention, disease focus, objectives, and study timelines. For
- 155 EWSs, detailed data were collected on risk knowledge, technical monitoring, warning
- dissemination, response capability, and methods for validating and evaluating the systems.
- 157 Evidence of the effectiveness of EWSs was assessed in outbreak detection, case reduction,
- and policy or decision-making. Challenges in developing and implementing EWSs, including

stakeholder engagement, technical limitations, risk communication, preparedness, and 159 response capacity, were documented alongside strategies to overcome these challenges. 160 161 2.3.2 Data analysis 162 Studies were grouped by topic, and patterns across studies were explored, considering the four elements of EWSs, the operationalisation and implementation and stakeholder 163 164 engagement of EWS. The quality of evidence was assessed to identify limitations, gaps, and 165 implications for policy and practice. Thematic analysis was used to identify patterns and codes across the included studies. A narrative synthesis, adapted from established 166 167 guidance, provided a structured interpretation of findings.

3 Results 169 170 Database searching recovered 719 records when duplicates were removed. After exclusion 171 criteria were applied, 11 papers were selected into the reviewing process. A PRISMA 172 flowchart documented the article selection process (Figure 1). Characteristics of included 173 studies are summarized in the Supplementary file, Table 2. 174 [insert "Figure 1: PRISMA flowchart of article selection" here] 175 The included studies were published between 2014 and 2023. Most of the articles (8 in 11 176 articles) included in the final selection reported the EWSs in low- and middle-income 177 countries in the tropical and subtropical regions including Mexico [25]; Brazil [26]; Sri Lanka 178 [27]; Vietnam [28]; Barbados [29]; Kenya [30]; and Ethiopia [31, 32]. One article reported a 179 dengue EWS in Singapore, a developed country in tropical region [33]. Two article report 180 EWSs that were implemented in multiple countries [34, 35]. 181 The research studies only focus on mosquito-borne diseases. Three article report malaria 182 EWSs [30-32] and seven articles focus on dengue EWSs [25-29, 33, 35]. One article 183 reported EWS for mosquito-borne diseases, with applications in forecasting West Nile virus 184 outbreaks and malaria epidemics [34]. Most of studies were case studies report of development and implementation of climate informed EWSs [25-28, 30, 32-34]. Two studies 185 186 share experiences of co-learning during the process of co-creating EWSs [29, 31]. Hussain-187 Alkhateeb et al. report on the development of EWSs, based on users' recommendations 188 [35]. 189 3.1 Risk knowledge 190 All the reported EWSs were based on advance understanding about VBDs' risks. 191 Understanding local vulnerabilities and transmission patterns is crucial for designing targeted 192 interventions and justifying investments in early warning systems [25, 27]. Furthermore, 193 studies also included the understanding of community-based interventions in controlling 194 disease transmission in the development and implementation of EWSs [25, 27]. 195 Risk is defined through the integration of multiple data sources, including climatic, ecological, 196 epidemiological, and socio-environmental factors. Historical patterns are analysed to 197 establish baseline trends, allowing for the detection of anomalies—such as deviations from 198 the "Endemic Channel"—that signal emerging outbreaks [35]. Climatic variability, particularly 199 extreme events like El Niño, is recognized as a major trigger for outbreaks by influencing 200 local weather conditions [30]. Spatial analysis is also crucial, with the use of risk maps, geo-201 referenced case data, and vector density indicators helping to pinpoint high-risk areas [26, 202 28]. Furthermore, predictive modelling and early warning systems are employed to forecast

203 potential outbreaks ahead of time, while local context, including population density. 204 community vulnerability, and immunity levels, is considered vital in refining these risk 205 assessments [32, 33]. 206 However, many studies highlight critical gaps in knowledge about hazards and 207 vulnerabilities, which are essential for the development of EWSs effective disease control 208 and prevention strategies. Studies reveal significant gaps in risk information and highlight the 209 uneven distribution of risk information, urging improved data collection to address 210 community-specific vulnerabilities [30, 34]. Stewart-lbarra et al. demonstrates the gaps in 211 community-specific risk reduction strategies, while Wimberly et al. emphasize the needs of 212 enhancing surveillance capacity and the development of rapid data integration tools [29, 32]. 213 Study also highlighted gaps in risks knowledge due to significant underreporting in places 214 like Vietnam due to passive surveillance and asymptomatic cases [28]. Additionally, Lowe et 215 al. and Shi et al. highlighted the need for region-specific analyses to better understand the 216 socio-economic, environmental, and climatic factors influencing disease risks [26, 33]. 217 The interaction between various environmental and ecological factors and disease 218 transmission remains complex and not fully understood. Climatic variables, including El Niño-induced weather anomalies, significantly impact conditions such as malaria epidemics 219 220 in East African Highlands, underlining the need for improved predictive models [30]. 221 Additionally, further research should focus on understanding disease vector ecology, 222 particularly mosquito behaviour, breeding patterns, and migration dynamics, as these are 223 crucial for improving vector control strategies and enhancing disease prevention efforts [34]. 3.2 Monitoring and Warning Service 224 225 3.2.1 Developing monitoring and predicting capabilities 226 The Monitoring and Warning Service component received the most attention and was 227 described in detail in the majority of studies included in this review. Effective EWSs for 228 dengue outbreaks integrate epidemiological indicators such as the mean age of patients and 229 circulating serotypes [30], entomological indicators including percentage positivity, Ovitrap 230 indices, and vector egg counts [35], and meteorological indicators such as temperature, 231 humidity, and rainfall [28, 31]. Various modelling approaches including process-based 232 models [30], statistical models [33, 35], and Bayesian regression [25], integrate these 233 indicators effectively to develop prediction models. Super-ensemble models, which 234 aggregate multiple individual models using weighted averages, improve forecasting reliability 235 [28]. Advancements in remote sensing [34], and spatial technologies [28] further enhance 236 outbreak prediction. EWARS Plus and EPIDEMIA are machine learning-based EWSs that 237 analyse climate and disease surveillance data to provide automated, interpretable outbreak

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predictions [25, 32].

239	Evaluating prediction models is essential to ensure their reliability and applicability in			
240	outbreak forecasting. Various statistical and probabilistic techniques are employed to assess			
241	model performance [26, 28, 32]. In addition, outbreak detection and sensitivity analysis play			
242	a crucial role in ensuring that models can effectively capture epidemic signals. Sensitivity			
243	tests and Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) analysis optimize predictive thresholds			
244	by assessing model performance across varying outbreak scenarios [26]. Retrospective and			
245	prospective forecasting approaches further contribute to model validation. Retrospective			
246	validation involves testing models on historical data to refine predictive capabilities [26].			
247	Prospective validation, on the other hand, assesses model performance on future data,			
248	simulating real-time decision-making processes [28].			
249	3.2.2 Challenges Related to Technical Monitoring and Warning Services			
250	Data Quality and Availability			
251	The lack of reliable, timely, and high-quality data a limiting factor to the accuracy and			
252	effectiveness of EWSs [31]. While historical datasets are often well-archived, real-time data			
253	acquisition and integration remain a challenge, limiting the effectiveness of rapid response			
254	strategies and predictive modelling efforts [35]. Issues such as delayed reporting, data			
255	fragmentation, and variations in data collection methods further complicate the reliability of			
256	disease prediction models [30, 35]. Limitations in spatial and temporal data consistency			
257	(e.g., weekly temporal units or administrative changes) can hinder effective forecasting [28,			
258	35].			
259	Strategies to enhance data quality and accessibility include the adoption of high-quality,			
260	globally accessible datasets with low latency [28]. Addressing inconsistencies through			
261	improved data standardization tools and methodologies is crucial for ensuring the usability of			
262	data in predictive models [35]. Additionally, overcoming internet connectivity issues and data			
263	storage limitations is essential for ensuring seamless access to real-time data [32]. Effective			
264	EWSs rely on the integration of multiple data sources, including epidemiological,			
265	environmental, and meteorological information, to enhances predictive capabilities and			
266	ensures comprehensive risk assessments [25, 32]. Open-access tools, such as the			
267	statistical software R, facilitate accessibility and adaptability, enabling users to analyse and			
268	visualize data efficiently [35].			
269	Modelling and Forecasting Limitations			
270	One common issue is the accuracy and predictive capability of spatial predictions at local			
271	levels. While regional models often provide reliable forecasts, translating this information into			
272	precise district- or community-level predictions remains difficult due to environmental			

273 variability and data limitations [27, 28]. In addition, disease forecasting models often rely 274 heavily on climate variables such as temperature, humidity, and rainfall. While these factors 275 play a significant role, they do not account for all determinants of disease outbreaks, 276 including vector indices, serotype-specific data, population movement, interventions, and 277 socio-economic conditions, which affect predictions [25, 27, 28]. Continued refinement of model algorithms, combined with rigorous validation efforts, is 278 279 essential for reducing prediction errors and increasing the reliability of disease warning 280 systems. Integrating spatiotemporal modelling techniques and uncertainty quantification can 281 enhance forecasting accuracy [28]. Operational efficiency can also be improved by 282 optimizing data processing speed and user interface design to streamline model application 283 in real-world scenarios [35]. Additionally, leveraging environmental datasets, such as vegetation indices and satellite-based rainfall estimates, can improve the early detection of 284 285 disease risks [28]. Iterative improvements, guided by stakeholder feedback and real-world 286 testing, have allowed systems to evolve and remain relevant in changing climatic and 287 epidemiological conditions [28, 34]. 288 Forecasting horizons play a crucial role in ensuring timely interventions for disease 289 outbreaks. Although short-term forecasting provides early warning signals within a few 290 weeks, allowing rapid responses to emerging outbreaks, it may lack long-range predictive 291 capabilities [25, 31]. On another hand, long-term forecasting require rigorous validation to 292 ensure reliability, given the inherent uncertainties associated with extended forecasting 293 horizons [28]. Medium-term forecasting extends predictive insights over a one-to-three-

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for intervention strategies [26, 30, 33].

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Technological and infrastructure-related constraints significantly affect the efficiency of disease early warning systems. Equipment failures, unstable internet connectivity, and gaps in meteorological station networks disrupt data collection and analysis processes [30, 32]. Furthermore, traditional client-based systems, such as EASTWeb, EPIDEMIA and Google Earth Engine (GEE), often face challenges in processing and storing large datasets [32, 34]. In contrast, cloud-based solutions offer potential improvements in computational efficiency and data accessibility [34]. Transitioning to more scalable cloud environments may enhance performance and flexibility in handling extensive datasets [34]. Innovative solutions, such as low-bandwidth system designs, can help overcome these challenges [25, 32].

month period, facilitating strategic planning and preparedness, offering sufficient lead time

3.3 Dissemination and Communication

The success of EWSs depends on a well-integrated approach that ensures warnings reach their intended audiences, are easily understood, and contain actionable and locally relevant information. To ensure early warnings reach vulnerable populations, it is crucial to utilize effective communication channels that integrate existing institutions and media platforms [30]. Integrating operational partners in communication ensures timely updates for health departments [33]. However, many challenges remain in dissemination of understandable warnings to those at risk.

3.3.1 Community Awareness, Perception and Trust

A critical challenge in disseminating warnings is the lack of community awareness about risks and early warning systems. Communities and local health officials do not fully understand the potential threats they face, leading to low engagement and limited cooperation in response efforts [29]. Additionally, cultural beliefs and social norms shape how communities perceive risk information, sometimes creating resistance to adopting recommended protective measures [25]. Trust in EWSs is also critical for their effectiveness, yet it can be easily eroded by perceived inaccuracies or false alarms [29]. When preventive actions successfully mitigate risks, the absence of a visible outbreak event may lead to scepticism about the validity of warnings, discouraging future compliance [29].

Effective communication strategies are essential for building public trust and promoting the adoption of Early Warning Systems (EWSs). Engaging media outlets to share information about system functionality and benefits increases public awareness and encourages community participation [30]. Government agencies like the Ministry of Health and the Kenya Meteorological Department play key roles in building trust in the warnings [30]. Public health messages via climate service platforms and bulletins effectively reach at-risk populations during dengue outbreaks [29]. Establishing feedback loops between stakeholders facilitates continuous communication, allowing for real-time updates and improvements based on user experiences [28].

3.3.2 Challenges in Risk communication

Warnings often contain complex technical information that can be difficult for non-expert audiences to understand. The use of scientific terminology, probabilistic forecasts, and statistical uncertainties can create confusion and reduce the effectiveness of warnings [33, 35]. Translating probabilistic data into actionable messages requires decision support tools, such as risk matrices, that communicate certainty levels and urgency more intuitively [26]. In the case of predictive models for outbreaks like dengue, the inclusion of multiple variables

and covariates can further complicate interpretation, making it necessary to simplify messaging while maintaining scientific accuracy [33]. In addition, customization of warnings to local needs enhances their effectiveness. Users could download data and reports tailored to specific epidemiological and environmental variables, ensuring the information was relevant to their context [31]. The value of combining probabilistic forecasts with urgency levels, helping stakeholders prioritize their responses based on the severity of potential outbreaks [29].

Moreover, generic alerts without specific instructions on how to respond can lead to

uncertainty and inaction among affected communities [35]. Developing risk communication frameworks that include localized impact assessments, such as identifying "hot spots" for targeted interventions, can enhance the relevance and applicability of warnings [33]. Warnings with actionable insights ensure that recipients can take appropriate measures to mitigate risks. Warnings included recommendations such as restocking medical supplies and deploying insecticide-treated nets in high-risk areas [30]. Risk maps further enhanced response efforts by identifying high-probability outbreak zones, enabling targeted interventions [28]. Similarly, EWARS Plus quantified outbreak rates and certainty intervals, providing valuable information for public health decision-makers [25].

Uncertainty in predictive models poses a significant challenge in risk communication. Forecasting systems often struggle to convey the limitations of long-term predictions, leading to either overconfidence or scepticism among decision-makers [26, 33]. Clearly articulating the uncertainties and confidence levels in forecasts is crucial to ensuring informed decision-making and efficient resource allocation. Decision-makers need to be equipped with tools that help interpret forecast reliability, reducing the risk of misinterpretation and suboptimal responses [26].

3.3.3 Technical and Technological Barriers

Ensuring that warnings reach all at-risk populations remains a persistent challenge, particularly in remote or underserved areas. Limited infrastructure, technological barriers, and socio-economic disparities can impede access to crucial information [30, 34]. The reliance on advanced technological tools for warning dissemination can create additional barriers, particularly for non-technical users or those with limited access to digital platforms [32]. Systems that require real-time data streaming may be vulnerable to disruptions during crises such as pandemics, undermining their reliability [29]. Additionally, technical failures, such as equipment breakdowns and data availability issues, can interrupt warning dissemination, necessitating the development of resilient systems capable of maintaining functionality under adverse conditions [30]. While automating EWSs can improve

375 sustainability, it also introduces complexities that may require ongoing technical support and 376 capacity-building efforts [29]. 377 User-friendly interfaces play a significant role in facilitating dissemination and communication 378 of warning signals. Transitioning from STATA to the R interface reduced complexity and 379 improved user engagement [35]. Similarly, simplified interfaces in Google Earth Engine and 380 REACH enhanced data access and visualization for users with varying technical expertise 381 [32]. In addition to interface design, clear visualizations contribute to better comprehension 382 of risk information. Studies reported using colour saturation techniques to visualize 383 probabilistic forecasts, effectively conveying uncertainty and risk levels [26], and 384 incorporating charts and maps in EPIDEMIA reports, providing clear summaries of outbreak 385 risks and trends for end-users [31]. 3.4 386 Response capability 387 Effective EWSs rely on their ability support proactive responses, enhance community 388 preparedness, and ensure effective implementation through continuous updates and 389 practice. Among the reviewed studies, only 6 out of 11 reported on the response capability 390 and preparedness of EWSs [26, 29, 30, 32, 33, 35]. 391 The identification of high-risk areas is crucial for targeted interventions and pre-positioning of 392 critical resources. Hotspot mapping tools facilitate the visualization of disease risk, enabling policymakers and health agencies to deploy resources efficiently and supporting early 393 394 preventive measures [29]. Githeko et al. demonstrate how proactive measures such as 395 restocking drugs, diagnostic supplies, and insecticide-treated nets can significantly improve 396 outbreak response [30]. Similarly, Shi et al. highlight the value of forecasting disease peaks 397 to support strategic resource planning and early risk communication [33]. 398 The implementation of structured response plans is fundamental to effective disease control. 399 Hussain-Alkhateeb et al. advocate for national guidelines and standardized protocols that 400 outline staged responses to dengue outbreaks, ensuring that communities and healthcare 401 providers have clear instructions on how to act during epidemics [35]. Additionally, Lowe et 402 al. highlight the benefits of shifting control strategies based on early warnings, underscoring 403 the importance of collaboration among public health specialists, climate scientists, and 404 disease modelers [26]. 405 However, significant challenges related to preparedness and response capabilities remain. 406 In many regions, early warning frameworks lack formalized partnerships and clear 407 mandates, making it difficult to integrate climate-health considerations into public health 408 decision-making [29]. Additionally, prioritization of high-risk areas ("hot spots") and efficient

409	resource allocation remain key challenges in optimizing disease surveillance and response				
410	strategies [26, 35]. Strengthening collaboration between governmental agencies, research				
411	institutions, and local communities is crucial to ensuring that preparedness plans remain				
412	relevant and actionable in dynamic disease landscapes.				
413	Another significant issue is the complexity of standardizing response protocols across				
414	diverse local contexts while ensuring adequate resource allocation [25]. Addressing these				
415	barriers requires robust policy frameworks, sustained financial investments, and institutional				
416	commitment to integrating EWS into public health operations.				
417	3.5 Operationalizing Early Warning Systems and Stakeholders Engagement				
418	3.5.1 Operationalizing EWSs for Disease Prediction and Public Health Response				
419	Studies have demonstrated a wide range of successes and practical contributions to disease				
420	control and interventions through the implementation of EWSs. Successful adaptation of				
421	EWSs to diverse environments highlights their flexibility and relevance [29, 32]. EWSs have				
422	been incorporated into national and regional health strategies, enhancing disease				
423	surveillance and response [25, 33]. Implementation often began with pilot testing in multiple				
424	regions before full-scale deployment, as seen with EPIDEMIA in Ethiopia and EASTWeb in				
425	studies on West Nile Virus [34, 35]. Dengue EWSs had supported public health programs in				
426	Singapore by improving resource planning and facilitating early risk communication [33].				
427	Climate-informed health planning is becoming more prevalent, as seen in Barbados' regional				
428	Health Climatic Bulletin [29]. Simplified tools and automated systems help lower technical				
429	barriers, allowing non-specialists to adopt EWSs more readily in health operations [34].				
430	Public health interventions informed by EWSs outputs played a pivotal role in resource				
431	allocation, risk communication, and disease prevention efforts [29, 33]. Forecasts were used				
432	to guide interventions such as restocking essential medicines, deploying diagnostic tools,				
433	hospital bed management and distributing insecticide-treated nets [30]. Early warnings				
434	supported public awareness campaigns, facilitated hospital resource planning, and				
435	enhanced targeted control measures such as vector management [33]. Early warnings				
436	enable proactive interventions, leading to significant reductions in disease incidence as				
437 438	demonstrated in Singapore's dengue prevention program [33] and Kenya's malaria control measures [30].				
439	3.5.2 Stakeholder Engagement for Developing and Implementing EWSs				
440	The successful development and implementation of EWSs depend on collaborative design,				
441	continuous communication, customization, and local adaptation. The involvement of diverse				

442	groups of stakeholders in EWSs development and implementation enhances the system's			
443	relevance and adaptability, addressing both scientific and operational needs [28, 29].			
444	Furthermore, local ownership plays a pivotal role in ensuring the long-term sustainability of			
445	these systems. By tailoring EWSs to local needs and resource availability, developers can			
446	create solutions that are practical and resilient in the face of changing environmental and			
447	health challenges [25].			
448	High levels of stakeholder approval and acceptance are critical for the successful			
449	implementation of EWSs. Studies have emphasized that securing buy-in from key			
450	stakeholders, including government agencies, health departments, and local communities,			
451	facilitates system uptake and integration into existing public health frameworks [30]. Effective			
452	communication strategies and transparent decision-making processes have been identified			
453	as essential in gaining trust and ensuring long-term sustainability [30].			
454	Co-creation and collaborative design are essential strategies for ensuring that EWSs meet			
455	user needs while incorporating scientific rigor. Regular stakeholder workshops and			
456	consultations provide an avenue for co-developing system requirements and integrating user			
457	feedback into the design process [28, 29]. Workshops dedicated to co-design enable public			
458	health professionals, researchers, and software engineers to collaboratively develop user			
459	interfaces, data upload processes, and system security measures. An iterative development			
460	approach, wherein stakeholders contribute feedback at different stages, fosters a dynamic			
461	system that evolves based on practical needs and real-world applications [35]. These			
462	interactions help identify system requirements, including user access protocols, data			
463	integration strategies, and automated reporting mechanisms. By incorporating stakeholder			
464	input from the outset, EWSs developers can ensure that the final product is user-friendly,			
465	functional, and aligned with institutional workflows.			
466	Institutionalizing EWSs through formal agreements and governance structures strengthens			
467	long-term sustainability and operational efficiency. Establishing Memorandums of			
468	Understanding (MOUs) and joint work plans between key organizations formalizes			
469	partnerships and ensures clear roles and responsibilities [29]. Steering committees			
470	composed of representatives from government agencies, non-government organisations,			
471	and research institutions provide oversight and strategic direction, ensuring that EWSs			
472	implementation aligns with national preparedness priorities [28].			
473	3.5.3 Experience and Lessons Learned from Operationalizing EWSs			
474	Despite advancements, several challenges persist in operationalizing EWSs. One of the key			

challenges in operationalising lies in integration of the EWSs into national health strategies

and the development of local capacity for long-term management [30]. Embedding these systems into public health frameworks ensures institutional continuity and access to necessary resources [25, 29]. Ensuring that EWSs align with existing workflows and local conditions is essential for successful integration into public health decision-making processes [25, 32]. Ongoing evaluation and updates based on new data and user feedback further enhance the system's relevance and functionality [28].

Another major challenge in implementing EWSs is the shortage of professionals skilled in software engineering, statistical modelling, and risk communication [29]. Specialized training programs can bridge these gaps and enhance system efficiency. Capacity-building initiatives, such as stakeholder training and knowledge-sharing workshops, improve preparedness by fostering collaboration among researchers, policymakers, and health officials [29]. Training in data management, statistical analysis, and risks communication empowers stakeholders to make informed decisions [35]. Furthermore, the lack of standardized training for public health officials leads to inconsistent responses, weakening disease prevention. Structured training programs enhance decision-making and promote ownership among local authorities, ensuring long-term sustainability [25, 35].

Sustained funding is a major challenge for scaling EWSs long-term. Many rely on short-term grants, causing disruptions when funding ends [28, 29]. Limited resources hinder the transition from pilots to sustainable systems, affecting data collection, model development, and response measures [28, 29]. To ensure EWS functionality and impact, long-term funding mechanisms and stronger policy commitments are essential.

4 Discussion

4.1 Key Challenges and Strategies for development and implementation of EWSs

This systematic review is the first to comprehensively examine the challenges and strategies involved in developing and applying climate-informed EWSs for vector-borne diseases. The review examines 11 journal articles according to the four components of EWSs, stakeholder engagement, and the operationalization of EWSs. The integration of EWS outputs into public health interventions has demonstrated significant benefits, including improved resource allocation, risk communication, and proactive disease prevention. The review findings also highlight several interrelated challenges to the development and implementation of EWSs.

First, many studies consistently reported that fragmented data—resulting from inconsistent collection methods and variable quality across epidemiological, entomological, and meteorological sources—substantially limits predictive accuracy.

509 In response to these challenges, the literature proposes several promising strategies. The 510 adoption of scalable, cloud-based platforms is one such strategy, enabling the processing of 511 large data volumes in real time and thereby enhancing forecast accuracy and timeliness. 512 The need for a sound scientific basis for predicting and forecasting hazards, as well as the 513 importance of appropriate equipment for data handling and prediction modelling, are critical 514 factors in establishing effective warning services [14]. Moreover, implementing standardized 515 data collection protocols along with advanced statistical techniques, such as probabilistic 516 forecasting and super-ensemble modelling, can help mitigate inherent uncertainties in 517 climate and disease data. The World Meteorological Organization call for integrating climate 518 and health data combining to enable more nuanced risk assessments [36]. 519 Moreover, technical limitations—such as outdated software, limited real-time processing, and 520 inadequate automation—undermine system reliability. Infrastructural constraints hinder the seamless integration of diverse datasets necessary for robust predictive modelling [37, 521 522 38]. This finding shared by other systematic review [39]. These challenges are particularly 523 pronounced in low-resource settings, where functional climate information services (CIS), 524 technological infrastructure and reliable internet connectivity are often lacking [40]. 525 Third, risk communication remains problematic. The importance of disseminating warnings in 526 an efficient and timely manner, in a format suited to user needs, has been emphasized in 527 recent literature [37, 41]. Warnings often rely on technical language that is inaccessible to 528 non-expert stakeholders, eroding community trust and delaying timely responses. Significant 529 challenges persist, particularly the erosion of trust EWSs due to perceived inaccuracies or 530 false alarms. Moreover, the inherent uncertainty in long-term forecasts can lead to either 531 overconfidence or scepticism among decision-makers. Establishing continuous feedback loops between stakeholders is essential to refining communication strategies and ensuring 532 533 that warnings include actionable insights, issue is further compounded by the prevalence of infodemics and health misinformation, which can undermine the credibility of EWS alerts. 534 535 [42]. This aligns with the need for clear, accessible language and culturally appropriate 536 messaging to ensure community trust and timely responses. 537 Fourth, the operationalization of EWSs is frequently challenged by a shortage of 538 professionals skilled in software engineering, statistical modelling, and risk communication, 539 as well as by the lack of standardized training for public health officials. A second key barrier 540 was insufficient training for practitioners who would use the tools. Capacity-building 541 initiatives—through targeted training programs and stakeholder workshops—ensure that 542 public health officials and community leaders are well-equipped to interpret and act on EWS outputs. For example, the World Health Organization (WHO) supports countries in 543 544 implementing the Early Warning and Response System (EWARS), which includes capacity-545 building components to ensure effective use of the system [44].

Fifth, insufficient stakeholder engagement—from data scientists and public health officials to community members—continues to limit the potential impact of EWSs. Recent research highlights the need to involve non-state actors, including businesses, in EWS development and implementation [45, 46]. A multi-sectoral approach can significantly enhance the reach and effectiveness of EWSs, particularly at the local level [38, 46]. Similarly, a landscape mapping study, which included interviews with researchers and policy stakeholders, identified insufficient stakeholder engagement as a key barrier to the adoption of climate-informed CSID models as forecasting tools by public health practitioners [43]. The limited collaboration among modelers, tool developers (e.g., software engineers), and decision-makers impedes the translation of models into practical tools for public health use.

Collaborative design and co-creation processes involving diverse groups—ranging from local authorities to community representatives—ensure that the systems are tailored to meet both scientific standards and practical needs. Institutionalizing EWSs through formal agreements and governance structures enhances their long-term sustainability and operational efficiency. Systems that effectively integrated inputs from health agencies, academic institutions, meteorological services, and international organizations demonstrated improved functionality and precision. Strengthening interdisciplinary collaboration, fostering co-creation with local stakeholders, and synergies between both producers and users of EWSs are equally vital [16]. Engaging communities in both the design and dissemination of early warnings improves the clarity and relevance of risk communication, builds trust, and facilitates prompt public health action.

Finally, a significant challenge in implementing effective early warning systems is the complexity of standardizing response protocols across diverse local contexts while ensuring adequate resource allocation. Standardized response protocols that can be effectively implemented across different regions are often unavailable, which limits response capacity. Strengthening policy and regulatory frameworks is also essential to prioritize early warning and response mechanisms, alongside restructuring institutional architecture to foster greater inclusivity and stakeholder participation in decision-making processes [45]. While many studies emphasize the importance of early warning systems, fewer address the critical role of regular simulation exercises in validating response plans [17]. Conducting consistent drills and evaluations is essential for identifying weaknesses and refining strategies to enhance system effectiveness. Without sufficient practice and iterative improvement, even the most well-designed response plans risk being ineffective in real-world scenarios.

4.2 Limitations and gaps of the previous studies

Our systematic review reveals significant limitations in the current literature regarding the development and operationalisation of EWSs for VBDs. Despite the proliferation of climate-informed forecasting models, only a small subset of studies has progressed from model

583 584 studies have explored forecasting models, only 11 articles reported on the operationalisation 585 of VBD EWSs. A related review further underscores this gap by noting that among 30 tools 586 focused on VBDs, merely 20 were presented as accessible products, and only about one-587 quarter of these featured interfaces tailored for decision makers [43]. 588 A major shortcoming across the reviewed studies is the absence of rigorous evaluations of 589 EWS implementation and operational effectiveness. Most publications were case reports 590 focusing on the development and implementation phases without robust outcome 591 assessments. In several instances, although reductions in VBDs outbreaks or case numbers 592 were reported, the studies were unable to definitively attribute these improvements to the 593 use of EWSs. This lack of causal linkage calls into question the actual impact of these 594 systems and underscores the need for more comprehensive impact evaluations. 595 Economic evaluation is another area where the current literature falls short. There is a 596 dearth of compelling evidence on the cost-effectiveness of EWSs, which is critical for 597 persuading public health authorities to invest in these tools. Without clear data 598 demonstrating that EWSs can effectively reduce the incidence of vector-borne diseases at a 599 reasonable cost, the case for their broader adoption remains unconvincing [35]. This gap not 600 only hampers the refinement of existing systems but also limits strategic planning and 601 investment in scaling up these tools for broader application [35]. 602 In addition to evaluation challenges, the integration of EWSs with public health response 603 capacities remains problematic. The review identified that only 6 of the 11 studies 604 adequately addressed the development of response capacity. Given that the success of an 605 EWS is inherently tied to the ability of public health systems to act on the generated alerts, 606 insufficient emphasis on response capacity represents a critical barrier to the effective use of 607 these systems in VBD prevention and control. It is clear that developing robust response 608 frameworks and ensuring that alerts translate into timely and appropriate interventions is 609 essential for realising the potential benefits of EWSs. 610 Furthermore, the reviewed literature predominantly focuses on mosquito-borne diseases, 611 particularly dengue and malaria. This narrow scope limits the generalisability of the findings 612 and highlights the need for further research on EWSs for a broader range of vector-borne 613 diseases. Future research should be directed towards longitudinal studies that assess the 614 long-term operational success of EWSs, as well as comparative evaluations across diverse 615 epidemiological settings. Additionally, exploring the economic implications of scaling up these systems is essential to ensure sustainable funding and long-term viability. 616

development to practical implementation. This review highlighted that, while numerous

Conclusion 5

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- 618 This systematic review highlights both the potential and the challenges of developing and 619 implementing climate-informed EWSs for VBDs. While EWSs have demonstrated significant 620 benefits—such as improved risk communication, proactive disease prevention, and optimized resource allocation—persistent barriers hinder their full integration into public 622 health practice. Key challenges include fragmented data sources, technical limitations, 623 inadequate risk communication strategies, insufficient workforce capacity, and limited 624 stakeholder engagement. Addressing these issues requires robust interdisciplinary 625 collaboration, standardized protocols, and sustained investment in human resource and 626 infrastructure. Long-term success depends on stakeholder engagement and capacity 627 building. Collaborative design with communities, public health authorities, and experts, along 628 with structured training programs and integration into national health strategies, will secure 629 sustained funding and operational sustainability for EWSs.
 - Additionally, gaps in the current literature—particularly the lack of rigorous evaluations of EWS impact, cost-effectiveness, and integration with response mechanisms—underscore the need for further research. Future efforts should prioritize operational assessments, economic analyses, and comparative studies across different epidemiological contexts. Strengthening policy frameworks and fostering community participation will be essential in ensuring that EWSs become reliable, actionable tools for VBDs prevention and control. By addressing these challenges, EWSs can play a pivotal role in enhancing public health resilience in the face of climate-driven disease risks.

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762 Competing interests

763 The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.