

DengueNet: Dengue Prediction using Spatiotemporal Satellite Imagery for Resource-Limited Countries

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Abstract

Dengue fever presents a substantial challenge in developing countries where sanitation infrastructure is inadequate. The absence of comprehensive healthcare systems exacerbates the severity of dengue infections, potentially leading to life-threatening circumstances. Rapid response to dengue outbreaks is also challenging due to limited information exchange and integration. While timely dengue outbreak forecasts have the potential to prevent such outbreaks, the majority of dengue prediction studies have predominantly relied on data that impose significant burdens on individual countries for collection. In this study, our aim is to improve health equity in resource-constrained countries by exploring the effectiveness of high-resolution satellite imagery as a non-traditional and readily accessible data source. By leveraging the wealth of publicly available and easily obtainable satellite imagery, we present a scalable satellite extraction framework based on Sentinel Hub, a cloud-based computing platform. Furthermore, we introduce DengueNet¹, an innovative architecture that combines Vision Transformer, Radiomics, and Long Short-term Memory to extract and integrate spatiotemporal features from satellite images. This enables dengue predictions on an epidemiological-week basis. To evaluate the effectiveness of our proposed method, we conducted experiments on five municipalities in Colombia. We utilized a dataset comprising 780 high-resolution Sentinel-2 satellite images for training and eval-

uation. The performance of DengueNet was assessed using the mean absolute error (MAE) metric. Across the five municipalities, DengueNet achieved an average MAE of 43.92±42.19. Notably, the highest MAE was recorded in Cali at 113.65±0.08, whereas the lowest MAE was observed in Ibagué, amounting to 5.67±0.18. Our findings strongly support the efficacy of satellite imagery as a valuable resource for dengue prediction, particularly in informing public health policies within low- and middle-income countries. In these countries, where manually collected data of high quality is scarce and dengue virus prevalence is severe, satellite imagery can play a crucial role in improving dengue prevention and control strategies.

1 Introduction

Dengue, one of the most ubiquitous mosquito-borne viral infections, is the leading cause of hospitalization and death in many parts of the world, especially in tropical and subtropical countries [Cattarino *et al.*, 2020]. It is estimated that 129 countries [WHO, 2022] and 4 billion people [CDC, 2022] are at risk of dengue infection. In low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) where dengue fever is endemic, the prevalence of dengue outbreaks is exacerbated by multifarious factors such as barriers in the continuum of care, inequities in resource allocation, education levels, literacy, and income [Chaparro *et al.*, 2016]. Because there are no specific treatments available for the virus, dengue prevention is critical to reducing its infectious and fatality rate, particularly in hyperendemic regions in LMICs where dengue poses a significant public health predicament [Gutierrez-Barbosa *et al.*, 2020]. Therefore, the strategic utilization of viable early

¹<https://github.com/mimikuo365/DengueNet-IJCAI>

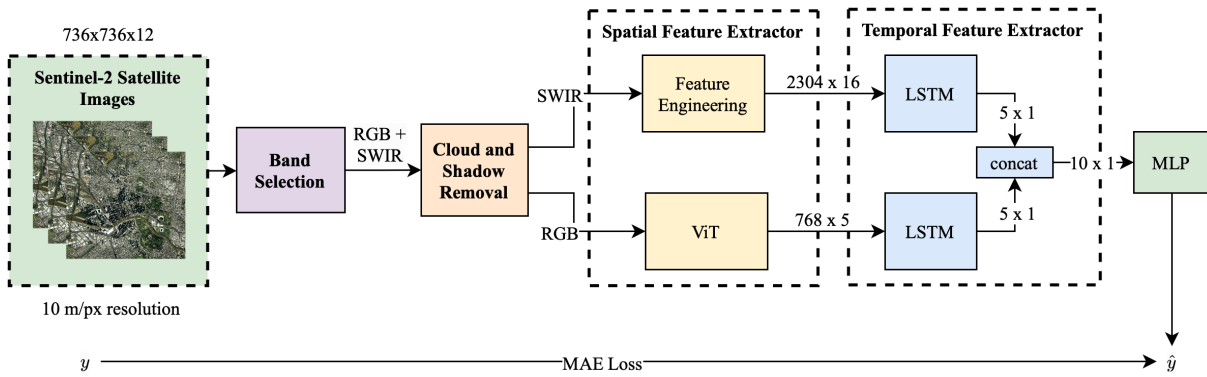


Figure 1: DengueNet model architecture takes in weekly satellite imagery and dengue cases y as input for predicting \hat{y} (m/px: meters per pixel; RGB: red, green and blue bands; SWIR: short wave infrared spectrum band; ViT: Vision Transformer; LSTM: Long Short-Term memory; MLP: Multilayer Perceptron). The LSTM module consists of three stacked standard LSTM layers.

65 detection approaches for dengue outbreaks in LMICs is not
 66 only imperative for promoting comprehensive well-being but
 67 also plays a crucial role in the pursuit of reducing health inequities. By employing these effective approaches, we can
 68 actively contribute to the realization of equitable healthcare access and outcomes, thereby fostering a more inclusive and
 69 just society.

72 Prior research has demonstrated the potential for dengue
 73 forecasting utilizing pre-collected structural information like
 74 temperature and precipitation [Martheswaran *et al.*, 2022;
 75 Jain *et al.*, 2019]. However, conventional data collection techniques are both costly and difficult to scale. Therefore, seeking
 76 alternative resources, such as publicly available satellite
 77 imagery, is significant for LMICs where structured data is
 78 scarce and critical indicators remain lacking. Remote sensing
 79 satellite imagery can be a more cost-effective and efficient
 80 approach than alternative field survey methods and has
 81 shown potential correlation with weather variables [Ren *et al.*, 2021], which are one of the key factors behind dengue
 82 outbreaks. It also enables a higher revisit frequency and diverse
 83 resolutions of imagery over time than surveys where
 84 repeated measurements at a local level are limited [Lee *et al.*, 2017]. Furthermore, the development of surveillance
 85 systems that rely exclusively on satellite imagery to notify
 86 public health authorities of early dengue detection can cost-effectively
 87 enhance the response time to national crises in hyperendemic regions in LMICs.

92 This study employs recent advances in machine learning
 93 (ML) and proposes an ML-based approach for forecasting the
 94 incidence of dengue cases in five municipalities of Colombia using satellite imagery. This selection was made due to
 95 Colombia’s persistent incidence of high levels of reported
 96 dengue outbreaks from 1978 until 2022 [National Institute of
 97 Health of Colombia, 2010]. As one of the top five countries
 98 in the Americas with the highest number of reported dengue
 99 cases, Colombia’s dengue mortality rate is 4.84 times higher
 100 than that of other American countries [PAHO, 2022]. Below
 101 are the three principal contributions to this paper.

- 103 • We introduce a scalable data collection and processing
 104 framework to extract time-series data from the Sentinel-

2 satellite.

- 106 • We propose a novel preprocessing pipeline that can
 107 effectively eliminate noises and extract spatiotemporal
 108 features from the collected satellite imagery.
- 109 • Our model, DengueNet, shows positive results, indicating
 110 dengue forecasting with time-series satellite imagery
 111 alone is a feasible approach for LMICs with limited resources.
 112

2 Related Works

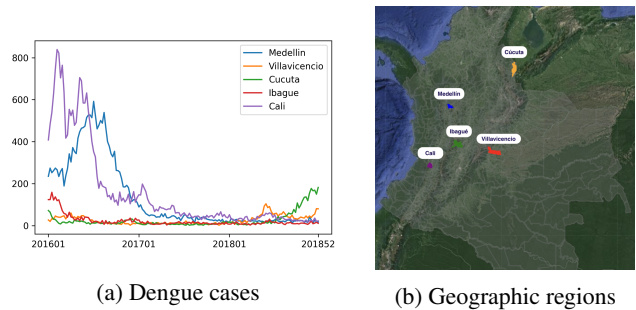


Figure 2: Municipality-level dengue case numbers and geographic locations. (a) Dengue cases from 2016 to 2018 were obtained from the SIVIGILA database for the top five affected municipalities in Colombia. (b) Geographic locations from satellite imagery for each municipality.

114 The epidemiology of dengue is influenced by multiple
 115 factors, including seasonal fluctuations in temperature and
 116 rainfall, socio-economic determinants such as education and
 117 household income [Morgan *et al.*, 2021; Watts *et al.*, 2020],
 118 and intra-strain genetic variability [Fontaine *et al.*, 2018].
 119 To comprehend the determinants of dengue infection, studies
 120 have been conducted to evaluate the economic, societal,
 121 and other facets of dengue outbreaks worldwide. In terms
 122 of structured data, notable work by researchers has paired a
 123 boosted regression tree framework with longitudinal information
 124 and population surfaces to develop a risk map to understand
 125 the global distribution of dengue and improve disease

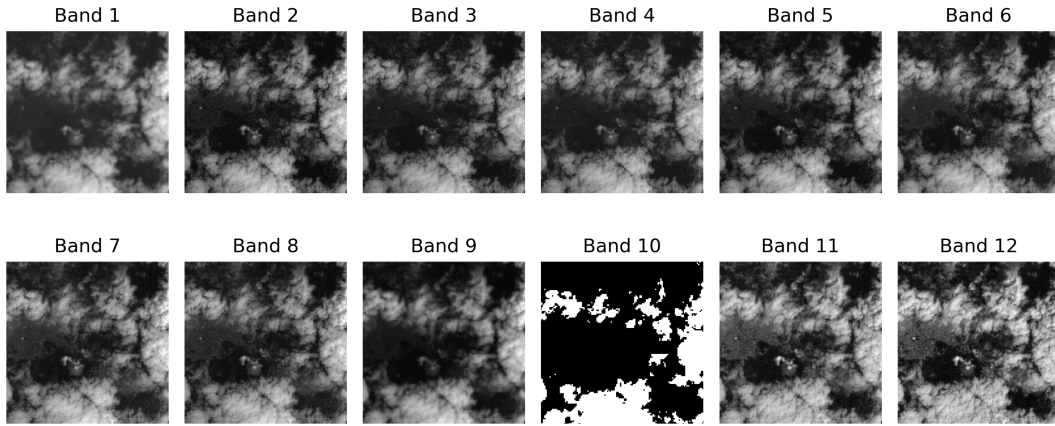


Figure 3: Gray-scale satellite band images captured by Sentinel-2 using different wavelengths.

126 management programs globally [Bhatt *et al.*, 2013]. Similar
 127 work has been established, which investigates the temporal
 128 and spatial distribution of dengue fever in India using Kull-
 129 dorff’s space-time permutation method [Mala and Jat, 2019].
 130 Other work [Muñoz *et al.*, 2021] has also looked at the as-
 131 sociation of the local climate with dengue in Colombia using
 132 linear analysis tools and lagged crossed-correlations such
 133 as Pearson’s test. Features highly associated with dengue,
 134 such as environmental, entomological, epidemiological, and
 135 human-related data, have been explored for dengue pre-
 136 diction [Roster and Rodrigues, 2021; Karim *et al.*, 2012;
 137 Guo *et al.*, 2017; Salim *et al.*, 2021]. Other studies have
 138 used human-related data like mobility [Datoc *et al.*, 2016],
 139 social media data [Livelo and Cheng, 2018], and distance
 140 to public transit [Shragai *et al.*, 2022] to build dengue early
 141 warning systems. In terms of unstructured data, studies com-
 142 pared street view and aerial images with different convolu-
 143 tional neural network architectures to estimate dengue rates
 144 [Andersson *et al.*, 2019].

145 Satellite imagery is often adopted with other statistical
 146 data to perform spatiotemporal tasks, such as weather fore-
 147 casting, precipitation nowcasting [Moskolai *et al.*, 2021;
 148 Son and Thong, 2017; de Witt *et al.*, 2020] and vector-borne
 149 disease case predictions [Rogers *et al.*, 2002; Li *et al.*, 2022a;
 150 Abdur Rehman *et al.*, 2019]. While LMICs lack access to
 151 reliable information systems for data collection and analy-
 152 sis [Ndabarora *et al.*, 2014; Kruk *et al.*, 2018; Fenech *et al.*,
 153 2018], free sources of satellite imagery from cloud-based
 154 computing platforms, such as Google Earth Engine and Sen-
 155 tinel Hub, provide an alternative data asset for LMICs for
 156 early detection of dengue. In our work, we build a repro-
 157 ducible Sentinel-2 satellite data extraction framework lever-
 158 aging Sentinel Hub and provide municipality-level predic-
 159 tions of dengue cases in Colombia per epi week. By solely
 160 adopting satellite imagery for dengue outbreak prediction,
 161 our model can focus on learning potential environmental in-
 162 formation through difference in vegetation over time using
 163 time-series images to predict dengue cases [Moskolai *et al.*,
 164 2021].

3 Dataset

165 In this study, we collect satellite imagery and dengue inci-
 166 dences from 2016 to 2018 in five Colombian municipalities
 167 including Medellín, Ibagué, Cali, Villavicencio, and Cúcuta
 168 (Figure 2). These municipalities are chosen as they have re-
 169 ported relatively high dengue cases in Colombia. Sentinel
 170 Hub [Ltd, 2022] is used to collect and process Sentinel-2
 171 satellite data. The regions of interest are pre-determined
 172 using the different municipalities’ latitude and longitude
 173 square coordinates. Each area is sampled per epi week from
 174 Sentinel-2’s launch date to the time frame before COVID-19,
 175 to create a time-series satellite imagery dataset. We focus on
 176 data before COVID-19, as studies show that COVID-19 has
 177 impacted dengue transmission [Lim *et al.*, 2020]. Our data is
 178 stored in a TIFF format and contains 12 bands from Sentinel-
 179 2 as shown in Figure 3. To account for differences in band
 180 resolution, we use nearest-neighbor interpolation to increase
 181 the resolution of all bands to a uniform 10 meters per pixel.
 182 Cloud interferences are avoided using the LeastCC algorithm,
 183 which is configured using Sentinel Hub API to request the
 184 images with the least amount of clouds per epi week. We
 185 obtain weekly dengue incidences from the Colombian Pub-
 186 lic Health System (SIVIGILA). Satellite imagery is matched
 187 with dengue cases on an epi-week basis.
 188

4 Methodology

4.1 Overview

189 To fully examine whether satellite imagery could be used
 190 to predict dengue cases, we introduce multiple modules in
 191 DengueNet (see Figure 1). The model components are de-
 192 signed to capture both the temporal and spatial information
 193 from satellite images for dengue outbreak forecasting. First,
 194 we conduct band correlation analysis to determine which
 195 satellite bands to select and use in our study. We then apply
 196 cloud and cloud shadow (CCS) removal on the selected bands
 197 to reduce noises in the satellite images. The preprocessed
 198 bands are then fed into two spatial feature extraction mod-
 199 ules, the Feature-Engineering and the Vision-Transformer (ViT)
 200 feature extractors, respectively. The features extracted from
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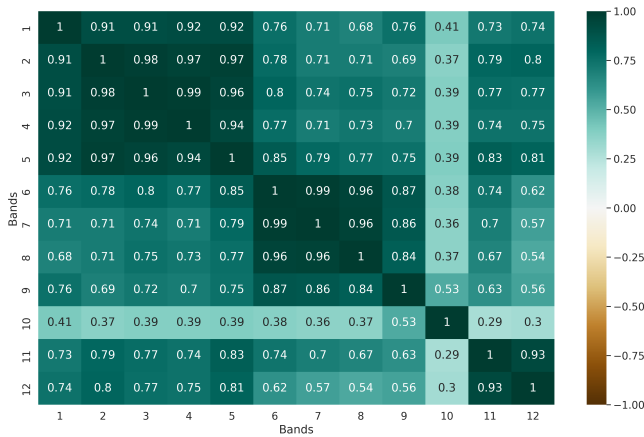


Figure 4: Average Pearson’s correlation of the 12 bands for the Sentinel-2 satellite images across five Colombian municipalities in the training set from 2016 to 2018. The majority of correlations are statistically significant ($p < 0.001$).

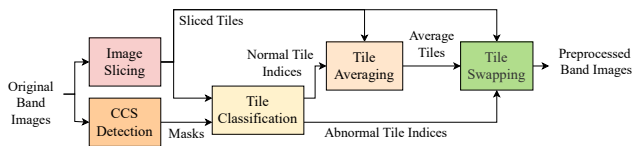


Figure 5: Stages involved in the cloud and cloud shadow removal module. The average tiles are generated using the normal tiles in the samples (CCS: cloud and cloud shadow).

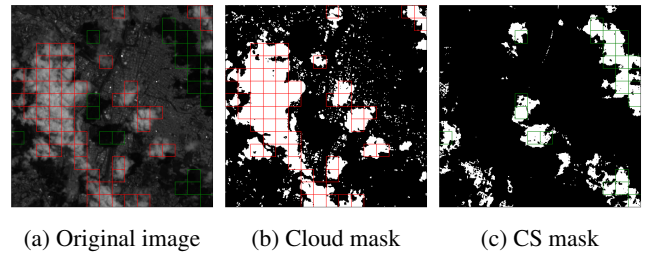


Figure 6: Cloud and cloud shadow masks generated in the CCS detection stage in Figure 5. (a) Original image where abnormal tiles will be swapped with the average of normal tiles. (b) Cloud mask with detected abnormal cloudy pixels in white and normal pixels in black. Abnormal tiles detected by the cloud mask are highlighted in red. (c) Cloud shadow (CS) mask with detected abnormal shadowy pixels in white and normal pixels in black. Abnormal tiles detected by the shadow mask are highlighted in green.

ViT feature extraction module, to preserve band diversity and match channels with the pre-training image set, we use bands 2, 3, and 4, which correspond to the Red, Green, and Blue channels.

4.3 Cloud and Cloud Shadow Removal

The cloud and cloud shadow removal (CSR) module is used to remove the cloud and cloud shadow from the selected satellite bands by performing CCS detection, image slicing, tile classification, tile averaging, and tile swapping (see Figure 5).

As satellite imagery often contains many cloud and cloud shadow noises, CCS detection [Li *et al.*, 2022b] is an essential stage for reducing noises. To identify noisy pixels caused by cloud or cloud shadow coverage, two thresholds are utilized to determine whether a pixel is considered noisy due to the often extreme pixel values in the affected areas. To establish thresholds for detecting cloud and cloud shadow, we evaluate the effectiveness of using pixel value percentiles from the training set and compare their performance. Through testing percentiles ranging from the 5th to 95th percentile at 5 percentile intervals, we choose two percentiles as the detection thresholds for cloud and cloud shadow, respectively. These thresholds are then used to generate the corresponding masks for cloud and cloud shadow (see Figure 6).

After obtaining the two masks, we slice each satellite band image into 16×16 tiles. With the sliced tiles and the cloud and cloud shadow masks, tiles are classified into abnormal and normal tiles, where an abnormal tile indicates more than 50 percent of pixels in the tile are marked as noise in either mask. For each tile in a different position in the images, we calculate the average tile of that position using the normal tiles. By replacing the abnormal tiles in each sample with the corresponding average tiles, we generate noise-eliminated images. These average tiles are obtained by computing the average of normal tiles for a specific position in the images.

4.4 Spatial Feature Extractors

We adopt two feature extractors to extract different types of spatial features from the satellite images. In the Feature-Engineering feature extractor, we extract statistical pixel-based features from the SWIR band to obtain the texture in-

the two modules are then fed into two multi-layer Long Short-term Memory (LSTM) networks that can extract temporal features, and eventually concatenated to a fully connected neural network for dengue case prediction.

4.2 Band Selection

Satellite imagery often contains multiple bands with different resolutions, central wavelengths, and channels. An example is shown in Figure 3. We aim to reduce the dimensionality of the input satellite images while preserving band variance. Thus, the band selection module contains two steps. We first compute the inter-band correlation matrix from the samples in the training set using Pearson’s correlation coefficient (Figure 4). We then categorize the bands into different clusters and select the ones in different clusters.

Figure 4 highlights three clusters in our data, each indicating the high correlation between the bands (bands 1-5, 6-9, and 11-12). We aim to select bands from different clusters for the two feature extraction modules to preserve band variance. Since bands 11 and 12 correspond to the Short Wave Infrared (SWIR) spectrum, which is mainly used for measuring soil and vegetation moisture content as it provides good contrast between different vegetation types, we intend to select bands from this cluster for the Feature-Engineering pipeline. Given that both bands show a high correlation, we select band 12 for its relatively lower correlation coefficient against the other satellite bands (bands 1-10) to avoid multicollinearity. For the

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268 formation. Nine features from both first-order and higher-
 269 order features, such as Skewness and Joint Average, are col-
 270 lected using the PyRadiomics library [Van Griethuysen *et*
 271 *al.*, 2017]. The details can be found in the GitHub reposi-
 272 tory. For the ViT module, we adopt transfer learning to over-
 273 come the limited number of real-world satellite imagery in
 274 our dataset. We utilize a ViT [Wu *et al.*, 2020] pre-trained on
 275 ImageNet [Deng *et al.*, 2009] to collect deep learning-based
 276 features from the RGB bands. The RGB bands are down-
 277 scaled from 736×736 to 224×224 to fit the model.

278 4.5 Model

279 The spatial feature extractors are both concatenated to a
 280 multi-layer LSTM module for extracting the temporal char-
 281 acteristics. To mitigate overfitting, a dropout layer is added
 282 after each LSTM layer in the module. The last LSTM lay-
 283 ers are then concatenated to a multilayer perceptron (MLP)
 284 with one dense layer and one neuron as the final layer. We
 285 chose Leaky ReLu [Maas *et al.*, 2013] as the activation func-
 286 tion to add non-linearity to the regression task. All models are
 287 trained for 100 epochs with an adaptive learning rate starting
 288 from 0.0001.

289 In this work, we train and evaluate the proposed structure
 290 on each municipality individually. This is because, with lim-
 291 ited amount of training data, the model may prioritize learn-
 292 ing the geographic meaning of different tile positions, within
 293 the same municipality. Since historical dengue cases are com-
 294 monly used for dengue prediction, we evaluate the effective-
 295 ness of satellite imagery with dengue cases. To do so, we use
 296 the same multi-layer LSTM structure to create a LSTM model
 297 which takes cases as the model inputs. We also explore model
 298 performance with both satellite images and cases as inputs by
 299 concatenating the two LSTM modules from DengueNet with
 300 the LSTM module from the case model, resulting in a 10×1
 301 dimension input to the MLP.

302 4.6 Evaluation and Performance Metrics

303 For each municipality, we use the first 80 percent of the data
 304 for training, the next 10 percent of the data for validation,
 305 and the last 10 percent for testing. We evaluate the proposed
 306 model structure using Mean Absolute Error (MAE), Sym-
 307 metric Mean Absolute Percentage Error (sMAPE), and Root-
 308 Mean-Square Error (RMSE) metrics. sMAPE computes the
 309 percentage error between the actual value and the predicted
 310 value. We choose to use sMAPE over MAPE because the
 311 dengue cases in our dataset have relatively low actual values.
 312 RMSE penalizes the cases where the difference between the
 313 actual and the predicted value is the greatest.

$$314 \quad MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |\hat{y}_i - y_i|, \quad (1)$$

$$315 \quad sMAPE = \frac{100\%}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2 \times |\hat{y}_i - y_i|}{(|\hat{y}_i| + |y_i|)} \quad (2)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}, \quad (3)$$

Referring to Equations 1,2,3, n is the total number of samples
 to evaluate in the test set, and i represents the sample num-
 \hat{y}_i represents the predicted value from the model, and y_i
 represents the actual value from the test set for each sample
 starting from $(i = 1)$ to $(i = n)$.

5 Results

Table 1 presents the performance evaluation of DengueNet in
 forecasting dengue cases using a time-series of satellite im-
 agery with a window size of five weeks. Among the five mu-
 nicipalities assessed, Ibagué exhibits the most favorable per-
 formance across all metrics, while Cúcuta reports the least
 favorable performance. These results are anticipated. In
 Ibagué, apart from an initial peak, the dengue trend is com-
 paratively more stable than in other municipalities. While the
 number of dengue cases in Cali appears stable, the high base-
 line number of cases results in an increase in the MAE. In the
 case of Cúcuta, given that the training set has relatively low
 occurrences of dengue, it is reasonable that the model fails to
 accurately reflect the actual trend of dengue cases for Cúcuta
 during the testing period. A notable observation is that while
 the three metrics have different values within one municipal-
 ity, they report similar results across municipalities, indicating
 that DengueNet exhibits relatively stable performance across
 different metrics.

Figure 7 depicts the forecasted dengue cases for five mu-
 nicipalities utilizing a diverse set of input data, including fea-
 tures extracted from satellite imagery and historical dengue
 cases. Comparative analysis is conducted against actual
 dengue incidences, an LSTM model relying solely on histor-
 ical cases, and a combined model incorporating both satellite
 images and cases as input. Upon examination of the figures,
 it is evident that DengueNet demonstrates the capability to
 accurately predict most trends, even in the case of Villavicen-
 cio (refer to Figure 7c), which exhibits greater fluctuations in
 dengue cases over time. This observation substantiates the
 effectiveness of DengueNet in forecasting outbreak patterns
 within the majority of municipalities, relying solely on satel-
 lite images as input. Furthermore, our model exhibits robust
 predictive capabilities not only for short-term trends, while
 performing slightly less worse compared to the LSTM model
 that solely relies on historical case data, but also demonstrates
 adaptability by easily incorporating historical case data when
 available, thus enhancing prediction accuracy.

6 Ablation Studies

For the ablation studies, we evaluate the usage of the two fea-
 ture extraction modules as shown in Figure 1, and the CSR
 module as presented in Table 2. As we observe a high de-
 gree of similarity among the MAE, sMAPE, and RMSE met-
 rics in Table 1, our analysis focuses on examining the dif-
 ferences between the MAE with and without the inclusion of
 these three modules. For the Feature-Engineering module,
 four municipalities result in improved MAE, with Medellín
 having the most significant MAE improvement when paired
 with the CSR module. On the other hand, the CSR module
 has less impact on the ViT module, with only one municipal-
 ity showing improved MAE. However, after combining both

Metrics	Villavicencio	Medellín	Cúcuta	Ibagué	Cali	Average
MAE	25.54±0.06	50.96±0.34	113.65±0.08	5.67±0.18	23.77±0.95	43.92±42.19
sMAPE	72.90±0.27	92.02±0.33	162.91±0.25	40.06±0.83	56.16±1.15	84.81±47.74
RMSE	30.62±0.03	67.86±0.40	120.57±0.07	7.45±0.22	31.80±1.46	51.66±44.17

Table 1: DengueNet evaluation across five municipalities. All experiments are repeated three times, with the average value reported with the standard deviation. The scores for the municipalities with the best and worst scores are indicated.

ViT	FEng	CSR	Villavicencio	Medellín	Cúcuta	Ibagué	Cali
✓		✓	24.67±0.26	45.48±5.56	113.10±0.08	13.46±0.08	58.10±1.27
✓			26.25±0.00	44.77±0.79	109.31±0.00	6.21±0.13	33.42±0.42
	✓	✓	24.00±0.05	80.46±0.03	113.46±0.08	3.52±0.06	96.71±0.08
	✓		27.21±0.29	111.15±0.19	113.58±0.03	6.96±0.16	48.15±0.31
✓	✓	✓	25.54±0.06	50.96±0.34	113.65±0.08	5.67±0.18	23.77±0.95
✓	✓		24.40±0.06	42.48±0.96	114.19±0.09	7.25±0.09	42.35±0.81

Table 2: MAE scores with or without the cloud shadow removal (CSR) module combined with different feature extractors across five municipalities. ViT indicates only features extracted from the ViT module are used. FEng indicates only features extracted from the feature-engineering module are used. All experiments are repeated three times. Average values are reported ± the standard deviation. The best scores are highlighted.

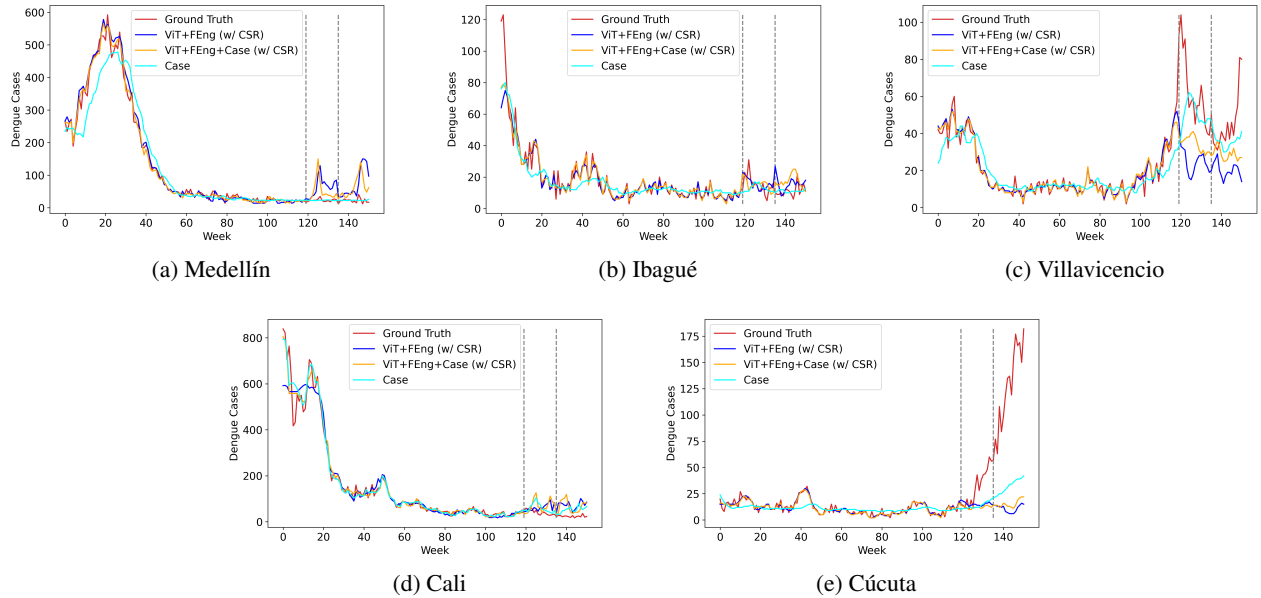


Figure 7: Dengue case prediction was performed for five municipalities per epidemiological week from 2016 to 2018. Three approaches were evaluated: using satellite imagery features (ViT+FEng), case data (Case), and a combination of both (ViT+FEng+Case). The Ground Truth label represents the actual number of dengue cases per week. The grey vertical dashed lines indicate the starting weeks of the validation and testing sets.

Models	MAE	sMAPE	RMSE
ViT (w/ CSR)	50.96	97.66	60.20
FEng (w/ CSR)	63.63	99.24	74.02
ViT+FEng (w/ CSR)	43.92	84.81	51.66

Table 3: Performance comparison of different feature extractors with the cloud and shadow removal module (w/ CSR). All experiments are repeated three times and average values are reported. The best scores are highlighted.

spatial feature extraction modules as inputs, the CSR module improves the performance across three municipalities, and the average MAE across five municipalities also decreases from 54.14 to 51.66.

The effectiveness of having both spatial feature extractors is also analyzed in Table 3. With a single feature extractor, the ViT feature extractor performs slightly better than the Feature-Engineering extractor. However, the lowest average MAE, sMAPE, and RMSE are observed when both feature extractors are used. This finding is reasonable as the two feature extractors retrieve different types of information from the satellite imagery. This model architecture design enables DengueNet to maintain high performance even if one of the feature extraction modules fails to extract crucial features, as the other feature extractor can compensate for it.

7 Discussion

This study introduces a robust and efficient approach for extracting satellite data and presents DengueNet, a novel architecture for predicting dengue outbreaks using satellite imagery. The experimentation phase involves the analysis of satellite images and dengue cases spanning from 2016 to 2018, focusing specifically on five municipalities in Colombia, a country significantly affected by the prevalence of dengue fever. The proposed model combines ViTs with concatenated multi-layer LSTMs to effectively extract both spatial and temporal information from a series of satellite imagery, resulting in comparable dengue case predictions.

To address the challenges posed by the dimensionality of satellite images, the study incorporates band selection based on band-to-band Pearson’s correlation, enabling a comprehensive assessment of Sentinel-2 satellite images. The selected bands undergo feature extraction through the use of both the feature-engineering and ViT modules. The feature-engineering pipeline involves dividing satellite images into tiles and employing CCS detection to minimize the presence of environmental noise artifacts, allowing for the extraction of noise-free pixel features. On the other hand, the ViT module utilizes transfer learning from a pre-trained ViT model to extract features. These extracted features from both modules are subsequently integrated into a concatenated LSTM-based model for predicting dengue cases.

Incorporating freely accessible satellite imagery into our DengueNet model holds significant potential for making a substantial impact on public health legislation and fairness in health. Over the past two decades, dengue fever has emerged as a prevalent epidemic in tropical developing countries, necessitating the establishment of an effective early warning

system for preventing and monitoring outbreaks. The feasibility of DengueNet for predicting dengue outbreaks has been successfully demonstrated in five municipalities, showcasing its potential for transferability to other geographical regions. Moreover, the computational requirements of the model are relatively low, and its deployment only requires minimal resources, making it an accessible alternative for resource-constrained developing countries.

The proposed approach is further reinforced by the inclusion of a dockerized version of the satellite extraction framework, leveraging Sentinel Hub, which ensures data reproducibility and scalability [Alberto *et al.*, 2023]. This empowers LMICs to leverage higher quality and more frequently updated satellite data, overcoming the limitations of field data collection characterized by irregular revisit rates and varying data quality. The utilization of such information can significantly contribute to informed policy decisions and strategies at the municipality level, enabling early containment of the dengue virus. Ultimately, the proposed method holds immense potential to enhance the prevention and control of dengue fever outbreaks in developing countries, thereby advancing public health outcomes and promoting health equity.

8 Conclusion

The dockerized satellite extraction framework and lightweight DengueNet model presented in this work present a viable alternative for LMICs, where data collection and preprocessing pose substantial challenges. The performance of DengueNet, which leverages publicly accessible satellite imagery, exhibits comparable performance to that of a straightforward LSTM model that relies exclusively on dengue cases for dengue prediction. This approach takes us closer to the democratization of data access and the implementation of machine learning models globally, thereby aiding in the formulation of informed public health policies and strategies for early warning systems. To ensure safe and responsible integration of satellite imagery and DengueNet, future work should understand and mitigate the sources of bias inherent in machine learning models[Celi *et al.*, 2022; Nazer *et al.*, 2023] to promote fairness and reduce disparities in public health across diverse populations.

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