

1 Spatio-temporal dynamics of dengue in Brazil: seasonal travelling waves and determinants of regional
2 synchrony

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22 Abstract

23 Dengue continues to be the most important vector-borne viral disease globally and in Brazil, where more
24 than 1.4 million cases and over 500 deaths were reported in 2016. Mosquito control programmes and
25 other interventions have not stopped the alarming trend of increasingly large epidemics in the past few
26 years.

27 Here, we analyzed monthly dengue cases reported in Brazil between 2001 and 2016 to better characterize
28 the key drivers of dengue epidemics. Spatio-temporal analysis revealed recurring travelling waves of
29 disease occurrence. Using wavelet methods, we characterised the average seasonal pattern of dengue in
30 Brazil, which starts in the western states of Acre and Rondônia, then travels eastward to the coast before
31 reaching the northeast of the country. Only two states in the north of Brazil (Roraima and Amapá) did not
32 follow the countrywide pattern and had inconsistent timing of dengue epidemics throughout the study
33 period.

34 We also explored epidemic synchrony and timing of annual dengue cycles in Brazilian regions. Using
35 gravity style models combined with climate factors, we showed that both human mobility and vector
36 ecology contribute to spatial patterns of dengue occurrence.

37 This study offers a characterization of the spatial dynamics of dengue in Brazil and its drivers, which could
38 inform intervention strategies against dengue and other arboviruses.

39 Author summary

40 In this paper we studied the synchronization of dengue epidemics in Brazilian regions. We found that a
41 typical dengue season in Brazil can be described as a wave travelling from the western part of the country
42 towards the east, with the exception of the two most northern equatorial states that experienced
43 inconsistent seasonality of dengue epidemics.

44 We found that the spatial structure of dengue cases is driven by both climate and human mobility
45 patterns. In particular, precipitation was the most important factor for the seasonality of dengue at finer
46 spatial resolutions.

47 Our findings increase our understanding of large scale dengue patterns and could be used to enhance
48 national control programs against dengue and other arboviruses.

49 Introduction

50 Dengue fever is a mosquito-borne viral disease that causes serious health and economic burden in tropical
51 and sub-tropical regions [1]. Population growth, urbanisation, international travel and changes in climate
52 patterns have led to significant geographic expansion and continued rise in dengue cases [2,3]. In Brazil,
53 dengue is an important public health concern with worsening societal and economic burden [4–7]. Large
54 territories, various climate types, as well as heterogeneities in demographics, land use and urban
55 development contribute to complex epidemic dynamics. In 2016, Brazilian public health authorities
56 reported more than a million probable cases and over 600 deaths to the World Health Organization
57 (WHO), while the number of apparent dengue infections was estimated at around 5 million per year [8].
58 With no effective dengue treatment, control of the disease is limited but mostly done through vector
59 control interventions [9]. To design appropriate response strategies, a detailed understanding of the
60 dynamics of dengue spread at the country level is necessary [10]. Applications of such knowledge might
61 well expand to other arboviruses transmitted by the same vector [11–13].

62 Dengue has previously been shown to exhibit ‘travelling wave’ type dynamics [14,15], i.e. when regional
63 epidemic timing has a distinct spatial structure. However, these studies have largely focused on Southeast
64 Asian settings. It remains unclear, to which extent pan-national waves are also observed in South America,
65 where dengue re-emergence occurred more recently [4]. On a more local scale, it has been shown that in

66 Brazil seasonal waves of dengue spread from metropolitan areas towards smaller cities in the same region
67 [16]. In addition, phylodynamic approaches showed that there are repeated introductions of dengue
68 viruses from northern to southern Brazilian states [17,18].

69 The reasons why communities may experience a lag in dengue epidemics compared to their neighbours
70 can be attributed to multiple factors. Synchrony of regional epidemics can be mediated by climate drivers
71 such as temperature and rainfall, as has previously been observed between different countries within
72 Southeast Asia [15,19,20]. The movement of infectious people between communities might also provide
73 wave-like dynamics across settings [21–23]. The contributions of climate and human mobility in describing
74 the synchrony in dengue epidemics between locations have rarely been considered alongside each other.

75 Here, we analysed 16 years of data on reported dengue cases in Brazil to examine seasonal travelling
76 waves across the country. We characterised the average seasonal pattern and, using gravity style models
77 for human mobility combined with climate variables, identified key factors associated with the observed
78 patterns of dengue occurrence.

79 Data and methods

80 Dengue cases data

81 Cases data were obtained from the Notifiable Diseases Information System (SINAN, Sistema de
82 Informação de Agravos de Notificação) via the Health Information Department (DATASUS, Departamento
83 de Informática do Sistema Único de Saúde) run by the Brazilian Ministry of Health. Monthly dengue data
84 were extracted from January 2001 to August 2016 for each municipality (n=5570). Cases were confirmed
85 by clinical and epidemiological evidence, and approximately 30% of them were also laboratory-confirmed
86 [24].

87 Population data

88 Municipality level human population data were retrieved from the Brazilian Institute of Geography and
89 Statistics (IBGE, Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística) for the year 2014
90 (http://www.ibge.gov.br/home/estatistica/populacao/estimativa2014/estimativa_dou.shtm).

91 Climate data

92 Precipitation data were obtained from the Climate Prediction Center's (CPC) rainfall data for the world
93 (1979 to present, 50 km resolution) via `raincpc` R package [25] and aggregated for each Brazilian
94 municipality over the study period. We also retrieved data on mean monthly surface temperature from
95 Reanalysis CFSR model [26] (reference: CREATE-IP.reanalysis.NOAA-NCEP.CFSR.atmos.mon, data node:
96 `esgf.nccs.nasa.gov`).

97 Vector suitability data

98 We obtained average monthly estimates of vector suitability for each Brazilian municipality using the
99 modelling outputs from [27,28]. Mosquito occurrence data were fitted to annual data and covariates (*i.e.*
100 time varying temperature-persistence suitability, relative humidity, precipitation and a static urban vs.
101 rural covariate) and then subsequently re-applied to the same covariates at a monthly level. Maps were
102 produced at a 5 x 5 kilometre resolution, aggregated to the municipality level and the mean value was
103 used for our model. For consistency, we rescaled the monthly suitability values, so that the sum of all
104 monthly maps equalled the annual mean map.

105 Characterising spatial patterns of dengue: wavelet transform and phase angles

106 We used `biwavelet` package [29] in R with Morlet function as a wavelet base for the analysis of
107 longitudinal dengue data. Original case series for each state were log-transformed and scaled to zero
108 mean and unit variance. The outputs of the wavelet transform of each of the time series consisted of: the
109 local wavelet power spectrum, which allows for inspection of time-frequency distribution and detection

110 of predominant signal components for particular time periods; and the corresponding phase angles, which
111 can be used to assess the speed of wave propagation for a particular period.

112 The annual signal dominated in state level case series (individual power spectra for each state can be
113 found in S3–S5 Figs), and to explore it further we extracted phase angles for the annual component. The
114 next step was to obtain pairwise phase angle differences between states that indicate for each point in
115 time whether a state is ahead or behind another one in terms of recurrent annual waves. Consequently,
116 for each state we obtained the average phase difference from the other 26 states. The mean value of this
117 phase difference over time was used to produce a map of annual phase lags between states. Phase
118 differences were interpreted as time units as for the regular annual signal phase angle changes from $-\pi$ to
119 $+\pi$ in 1 year, which makes the phase lag of 1 radian equivalent to approximately 2 months. Hence, the
120 map of annual phase lags represents the average ordering of states in terms of dengue wave arrival times.

121 Epidemic synchrony and annual phase coherence

122 We considered correlations between regional time series by computing the Pearson correlation
123 coefficient of raw case series (epidemic synchrony) and annual phase angles (annual phase coherence) for
124 each pair of regions. Then, these measures were summarised by the nonparametric spline covariance
125 function (implemented in `ncf` R package [30]) to assess how they depend on the distance. Normally, they
126 are higher between neighbouring regions that experience synchronized dengue epidemics and, therefore,
127 could serve as useful descriptors of travelling waves. Phase coherence measures the relative timing of
128 seasonal epidemics while epidemic synchrony indicates how their relative amplitudes covary [31]. In other
129 words, annual phase coherence describes lags between annual signals (i.e. seasonality only), while
130 epidemic synchrony also accounts for other frequency components as well as their amplitudes (other
131 synchronised events with various periodicity).

132 Identifying determinants of dengue synchrony

133 We developed a set of statistical models to characterize the determinants of epidemic synchrony and
134 annual phase coherence [22]. The models consider covariates such as demography, human mobility,
135 climate factors (surface temperature and precipitation) and disease vector suitability. They are defined by
136 the following equation:

$$137 \quad corr \propto \frac{pop_1^\beta pop_2^\beta}{dist^\alpha} corr_{cov}^\gamma,$$

138 where *corr* is the correlation measure (i.e. either epidemic synchrony or phase coherence), *pop1* and *pop2*
139 are the population sizes of the two regions, *dist* is the distance between the two regions, *corr_{cov}* is the
140 correlation of climate or environmental covariance time series (temperature, precipitation or vector
141 suitability) between the two regions. The first part of the equation $\frac{pop_1^\beta pop_2^\beta}{dist^\alpha}$ is a standard gravity model
142 that captures the contribution of human mobility and demography [32,33] while the second part *corr_{cov}*^γ
143 captures the fact that similar climate profiles may also partly explain synchrony in epidemic time series.

144 Different model variants were considered by fixing various combinations of parameters α , β and γ to zero.
145 Starting with the null model ($\alpha = 0$, $\beta = 0$, $\gamma = 0$), distance only ($\beta = 0$, $\gamma = 0$) and population only ($\alpha = 0$, $\gamma =$
146 0) models, original gravity model ($\gamma = 0$), and for each climate factor: model without human mobility ($\alpha =$
147 0 , $\beta = 0$) and the full model.

148 The exponents α , β and γ were estimated using a linear regression of the log-transformed form of the
149 original equation:

$$150 \quad \log (corr) \propto \beta \times (\log (pop_1) + \log (pop_2)) - \alpha \times \log (dist) + \gamma \times \log (corr_{cov}).$$

151 We excluded data on region pairs for which we had negative correlations to allow for log-transformation.
152 We used R^2 and Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) for model comparison, and also generated

153 bootstrapped confidence intervals for the parameters by resampling the location pairs with replacement
154 500 times.

155 Spatial resolution

156 We used different spatial data aggregation levels given that a large number of municipalities had very few
157 cases for certain seasons. We used three official administrative levels: state level (n = 27, 26 states and
158 the federal district Brasilia, hereinafter referred to as state), mesoregion level (n = 137) and microregion
159 level (n = 558). In addition, we performed our analysis using alternative Urban-Regional divisions
160 (https://ww2.ibge.gov.br/home/geociencias/geografia/default_divisao_urbano_regional.shtm): Urban-1
161 (n = 14), Urban-2 (n = 161) and Urban-3 (n = 482).

162 In this paper, we present results of the wavelet analysis on the state level, primarily for better visual
163 representation. Analyses of epidemic synchrony and annual phase coherence are presented on the Urban-
164 2 level (n = 161), to allow for sufficient variation in distance between pairs of regions. The results on all
165 the six available levels can be found in the Supplementary Material.

166 Results

167 Annual patterns of dengue outbreaks

168 Over the study period from January 2001 to August 2016, there were a total of over 8.5 million reported
169 dengue cases, with an average of 500,000 cases per year. During the study period, the highest risk of
170 dengue (i.e. the highest number of total reported cases per capita) was for Acre, Mato Grosso do Sul and
171 Goiás (Fig 1A). These states had an average of 101, 69 and 66 annual reported cases per 10,000
172 inhabitants, respectively. The southern states Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul had very few dengue
173 cases compared to other states, with an annual average below one case per 10,000 inhabitants. We
174 observed a strong seasonal pattern with the majority of cases occurring between December and June (Fig

175 1B, 1C) and that dengue typically peaks slightly earlier in the western states compared to the eastern ones
176 (Fig 1B, 1D).

177 **Fig 1. Summary of the spatio-temporal dynamics of dengue in Brazil.** (A) Average annual dengue risk per
178 10,000 inhabitants in 2001–2016 for each state. Administrative boundaries were obtained from GADM
179 (<https://gadm.org>). (B) Average number of cases for each month in the eastern and the western states,
180 relatively to Distrito Federal. (C) Log of monthly dengue cases per 10,000 inhabitants in Brazil. (D) Heat
181 map of log-normalised case series for Brazilian states sorted by longitude: west (top) to east (bottom).
182 Colours were scaled for each state independently so that yellow indicates the lowest number of dengue
183 cases and red indicates the maximum.

184 Average seasonal spatial pattern

185 We detected a significantly predominant annual component of dengue time series throughout the whole
186 study period for most of the states (S1 Fig) apart from Roraima and Amapá (two northern states that are
187 also the least populated in Brazil) that had additional strong components with a period of 1.5–2 years,
188 and the southern states of Rio Grande do Sul and Santa Catarina that had very few dengue cases for
189 several years.

190 Figure 2A shows, for each state, the median and 95% range of annual phase lags from other states, which
191 represent delays of individual state dengue waves from the nationwide annual waves. Average phase lags
192 enabled us to identify the average seasonal pattern of dengue in Brazil (Fig 2B), which starts in the western
193 states, travels to the highly densely populated southeastern states of São Paulo and Rio de Janeiro, and
194 then reaches the northeast of the country. We found that Roraima and Amapá, two states in the north,
195 had inconsistent annual phase lags over time (S2 Fig) suggesting that they had poor synchrony with the
196 rest of the country and did not follow the aforementioned wave pattern. We observed similar spatial
197 patterns when we aggregated data at different spatial resolutions (S3 Fig).

198 **Fig 2. Average phase lags of seasonal dengue between Brazilian states.** (A) For each state, median and
199 95% range of annual phase lags from other states over the study period. States were ordered by their
200 median phase lag. (B) Map of the relative timing of annual dengue waves, which was defined using the
201 average annual phase lag of each state from every other state. Administrative boundaries were obtained
202 from GADM (<https://gadm.org>).

203 Epidemic synchrony and annual phase coherence

204 We explored correlations between dengue time series in different regions. Both epidemic synchrony and
205 phase coherence were higher for closer regions and declined with distance (Fig 3). For the Urban-2 (n =
206 161) spatial level, epidemic synchrony reached the average countrywide correlation at approximately
207 1,260 kilometres (Fig 3A). This synchrony length represents a substantial part of Brazil's dimensions as the
208 country extends 4,395 kilometres north to south and 4,319 kilometres west to east. The coherence length
209 had a higher value of 1,590 kilometres (Fig 3B), suggesting that agreement in dengue seasonality spreads
210 further than correlations of epidemic curves.

211 **Fig 3. Epidemic synchrony and annual phase coherence between Brazilian Urban-2 regions.** Epidemic
212 synchrony (A) and annual phase coherence (B) summarised using nonparametric spline covariance
213 function. Solid blue line describes the mean pairwise correlation from the data and the dotted lines
214 represent the 95% envelope for bootstrapped correlations of case and annual phase angle time series,
215 respectively. Red line indicates global countrywide correlation.

216 We also looked at epidemic synchrony and annual phase coherence at other spatial levels (S4 and S5 Figs,
217 respectively) and found that both synchrony and coherence lengths tend to decrease for smaller spatial
218 resolutions and stabilise at 1,240 km and 1,500 km.

219 Determinants of dengue epidemic synchrony and annual phase coherence

220 We built a suite of models investigating potential determinants of dengue epidemic synchrony (Table 1).

221 The classical gravity model (model 4) that accounted only for distance and the product of population sizes

222 of regions captured a part of variation in epidemic synchrony (9.6%) which was higher than those of vector

223 suitability (1.5%, model 6), precipitation (no variance explained, model 8) and average temperature (3.8%,

224 model 10). The fit was further improved by combining the gravity model with correlations of vector

225 suitability (model 5), precipitation (model 7) and average temperature (model 9), raising the explained

226 variance up to 11%, 14% and 11%, respectively. We found that estimates of human mobility parameters

227 were consistent between different models, regardless of additional variables.

228 **Table 1. Gravity style model fitting for epidemic synchrony between Urban-2 regions.**

	Model	K mean (CI)	α	β	γ	R²	AIC
1	K	0.26 (0.26-0.27)	-	-	-	0	32458
2	$\frac{K}{dist^\alpha}$	2.9 (2.5-3.3)	0.71 (0.70-0.73)	-	-	0.079	31433
3	$K(pop_i pop_j)^\beta$	0.028 (0.021-0.037)	-	1.09 (1.08-1.10)	-	0.018	32229
4	$K \frac{(pop_i pop_j)^\beta}{dist^\alpha}$	0.34 (0.24-0.46)	0.72 (0.70-0.73)	1.08 (1.07-1.09)	-	0.096	31212
5	$K \frac{(pop_i pop_j)^\beta}{dist^\alpha} corr_{suit}^\gamma$	0.38 (0.27-0.52)	0.71 (0.69-0.72)	1.08 (1.07-1.09)	1.00 (0.97-1.03)	0.11	28906
6	$K corr_{suit}^\gamma$	0.28 (0.27-0.28)	-	-	1.13 (1.10-1.16)	0.015	30127
7	$K \frac{(pop_i pop_j)^\beta}{dist^\alpha} corr_{precip}^\gamma$	0.73 (0.51-1)	0.62 (0.61-0.64)	1.08 (1.07-1.10)	0.92 (0.90-0.93)	0.14	23615
8	$K corr_{precip}^\gamma$	0.28 (0.28-0.29)	-	-	1.07 (1.06-1.09)	-0.01	25150
9	$K \frac{(pop_i pop_j)^\beta}{dist^\alpha} corr_{temp}^\gamma$	0.21 (0.15-0.28)	0.76 (0.74-0.77)	1.09 (1.08-1.10)	1.11 (1.08-1.13)	0.11	29425

10	$Kcorr_{temp}^{\gamma}$	0.31 (0.3-0.32)	-	-	1.25 (1.22-1.28)	0.038	30276
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 230 The same analysis for annual phase coherence (see Table 2) revealed that while the gravity model
 231 performed even better (14% of variance explained), incorporation of other factors was still beneficial. The
 232 best fit (28% of variance explained) was for model 8 that accounted for human mobility and precipitation.

233 **Table 2. Gravity style model fitting for annual phase angle correlation between Urban-2 regions.**

	Model	K mean (CI)	α	β	γ	R²	AIC
1	K	0.49 (0.49-0.5)	-	-	-	0	22726
2	$\frac{K}{dist^{\alpha}}$	3.9 (3.5-4.3)	0.75 (0.74-0.76)	-	-	0.13	20964
3	$K(pop_i pop_j)^{\beta}$	0.16 (0.13-0.19)	-	1.04 (1.04-1.05)	-	0.011	22589
4	$K \frac{(pop_i pop_j)^{\beta}}{dist^{\alpha}}$	1.3 (1.1-1.6)	0.75 (0.74-0.76)	1.04 (1.03-1.05)	-	0.14	20837
5	$K \frac{(pop_i pop_j)^{\beta}}{dist^{\alpha}} corr_{suit}^{\gamma}$	0.9 (0.72-1.1)	0.78 (0.77-0.79)	1.05 (1.04-1.05)	1.05 (1.04-1.07)	0.22	18375
6	$Kcorr_{suit}^{\gamma}$	0.54 (0.53-0.55)	-	-	1.16 (1.14-1.18)	0.11	19935
7	$K \frac{(pop_i pop_j)^{\beta}}{dist^{\alpha}} corr_{precip}^{\gamma}$	0.84 (0.69-1)	0.78 (0.77-0.80)	1.05 (1.04-1.05)	0.98 (0.97-0.99)	0.28	14510
8	$Kcorr_{precip}^{\gamma}$	0.57 (0.56-0.58)	-	-	1.06 (1.05-1.07)	0.18	15694
9	$K \frac{(pop_i pop_j)^{\beta}}{dist^{\alpha}} corr_{temp}^{\gamma}$	1.2 (1-1.5)	0.75 (0.74-0.76)	1.04 (1.04-1.05)	1.00 (0.98-1.01)	0.18	19050
10	$Kcorr_{temp}^{\gamma}$	0.54 (0.53-0.55)	-	-	1.13 (1.11-1.15)	0.065	20680

234

235 We explored performance of the statistical models for other spatial levels (see Fig 4) and found that
236 overall model 8 (gravity model combined with precipitation) was the best in terms of variance explained.
237 The classical gravity model (compared to climate factors) explained the majority of variance in epidemic
238 synchrony across most of spatial scales (Fig 4A). However, at smaller scales, precipitation contributed the
239 most for coherent timing of annual epidemics (Fig 4B).

240 **Fig 4. Variance explained for models of epidemic synchrony and annual phase coherence.** R^2 for
241 epidemic synchrony (A) and annual phase coherence (B) predicted by models 4–10 depending on the
242 spatial scale considered.

243 Discussion

244 Here, we analysed longitudinal time series of dengue cases reported in Brazil. We found a consistent
245 seasonal travelling wave type pattern of dengue occurrence and underscored human mobility in
246 combination with climate variables as the potential determinants of spread.

247 Our findings revealed the presence of seasonal travelling wave that starts in the western states, then
248 travels to the east and reaches the northeast at the end of a typical dengue season. Overall the timing of
249 epidemic peaks between states was largely consistent between seasons. This provides a level of
250 predictability for public health planning: particularly, in terms of preparedness of health care facilities to
251 allocate enough resources for timely treatment of severe dengue cases. In particular, the epidemics in the
252 more populous states along the coast appeared to peak relatively late compared to other states,
253 potentially providing an opportunity for control programs to optimise the timing and placement of
254 interventions.

255 The epidemiology of dengue in the two most northern states of the country (Roraima and Amapá)
256 appeared different from the rest of the country, as they did not follow the overall seasonal travelling wave

257 pattern. This could be explained by the equatorial climate with favourable conditions for dengue
258 transmission throughout the year, while epidemics in other regions are highly restricted by seasonal
259 variation in temperature and precipitation.

260 We characterized the spatial correlation between dengue cases series of each pair of regions depending
261 on distance and estimated the extent of synchronised epidemics in terms of timing (annual phase
262 coherence) and intensity (epidemic synchrony). Our results are in line with previously published ones that
263 reported the spatial correlation of dengue cases between pairs of municipalities to decay with distance
264 [34]. Our findings are also similar to a travelling wave of influenza identified in Brazil: from equatorial
265 regions with low population to highly populous temperate regions [35].

266 Gravity models that used distance and population size as markers of human mobility explained a major
267 part of the correlation in dengue epidemics. However, we found that incorporating information on the
268 correlation in climate markers of vector ecology substantially improved the fit. Future research on relative
269 contributions of vector ecology, human demographics, population mobility and host immunity could
270 further increase our understanding of spatial dynamics of dengue and similar arboviruses.

271 Our findings suggest that precipitation was more important than human mobility for the seasonality of
272 dengue at the mesoregion and finer spatial levels. Contrastingly, across scales human mobility better
273 explained season-specific and region-specific features attributed to non-annual components and
274 epidemic size effects. Contribution of human mobility approximated via gravity model for both epidemic
275 synchrony and phase coherence was declining with finer spatial resolution. This might be suggesting that
276 gravity models are failing to capture fine-scale human mobility and models that use empirical data are
277 likely to perform better.

278 This study has several limitations. Firstly, we described the averaged seasonal pattern but did not consider
279 season-specific features or anomalies (e.g. due to El Niño–Southern Oscillation). Incorporating these
280 elements may further improve model performance. Secondly, in wavelet analysis we ignored information
281 on amplitudes and considered only annual components of dengue case series. This was done considering
282 the timing of seasonal dengue rather than its epidemic size and severity. Lastly, dengue surveillance
283 system in Brazil is not entirely accurate for capturing all dengue cases, there might be regional biases,
284 underestimation and overestimation issues [36,37]. However, as we mainly focused on the timing of
285 dengue waves and on correlations of case series, these potential flaws in the cases data should not affect
286 the presented results.

287 Our findings have potential implications for other circulating arboviruses in Brazil. Since they share the
288 same vector, they could spread in similar ways, although differences between the viral characteristics (e.g.
289 transmissibility, virulence, etc.) should be taken into account, as well as the influence of population
290 immunity.

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398 Supporting information

399 **S1 Fig. Wavelet spectra for each Brazilian state.** (PDF)

400 **S2 Fig. Monthly phase lags (from other states) of each Brazilian state.** Roraima and Amapá were the least
401 consistent while other states had similar phase lags throughout the study period. (PDF)

402 **S3 Fig. Spatial structure of average phase lags of seasonal dengue in Brazilian regions.** (A) state level,
403 (B,C) meso- and micro-regions, (D,E,F) urban subdivisions. Administrative boundaries for Brazilian
404 municipalities were obtained from IBGE ([https://www.ibge.gov.br/geociencias-novoportal/cartas-e-](https://www.ibge.gov.br/geociencias-novoportal/cartas-e-mapas.html)
405 [mapas.html](https://www.ibge.gov.br/geociencias-novoportal/cartas-e-mapas.html)), along with shapefiles for Urban-Regional divisions
406 (https://ww2.ibge.gov.br/home/geociencias/geografia/default_divisao_urbano_regional.shtm). (PNG)

407 **S4 Fig. Epidemic synchrony of seasonal dengue in Brazilian regions.** (A) state level, (B,C) meso- and micro-
408 regions, (D,E,F) urban subdivisions. (PNG)

409 **S5 Fig. Phase coherence of seasonal dengue in Brazilian regions.** (A) state level, (B,C) meso- and micro-
410 regions, (D,E,F) urban subdivisions. (PNG)

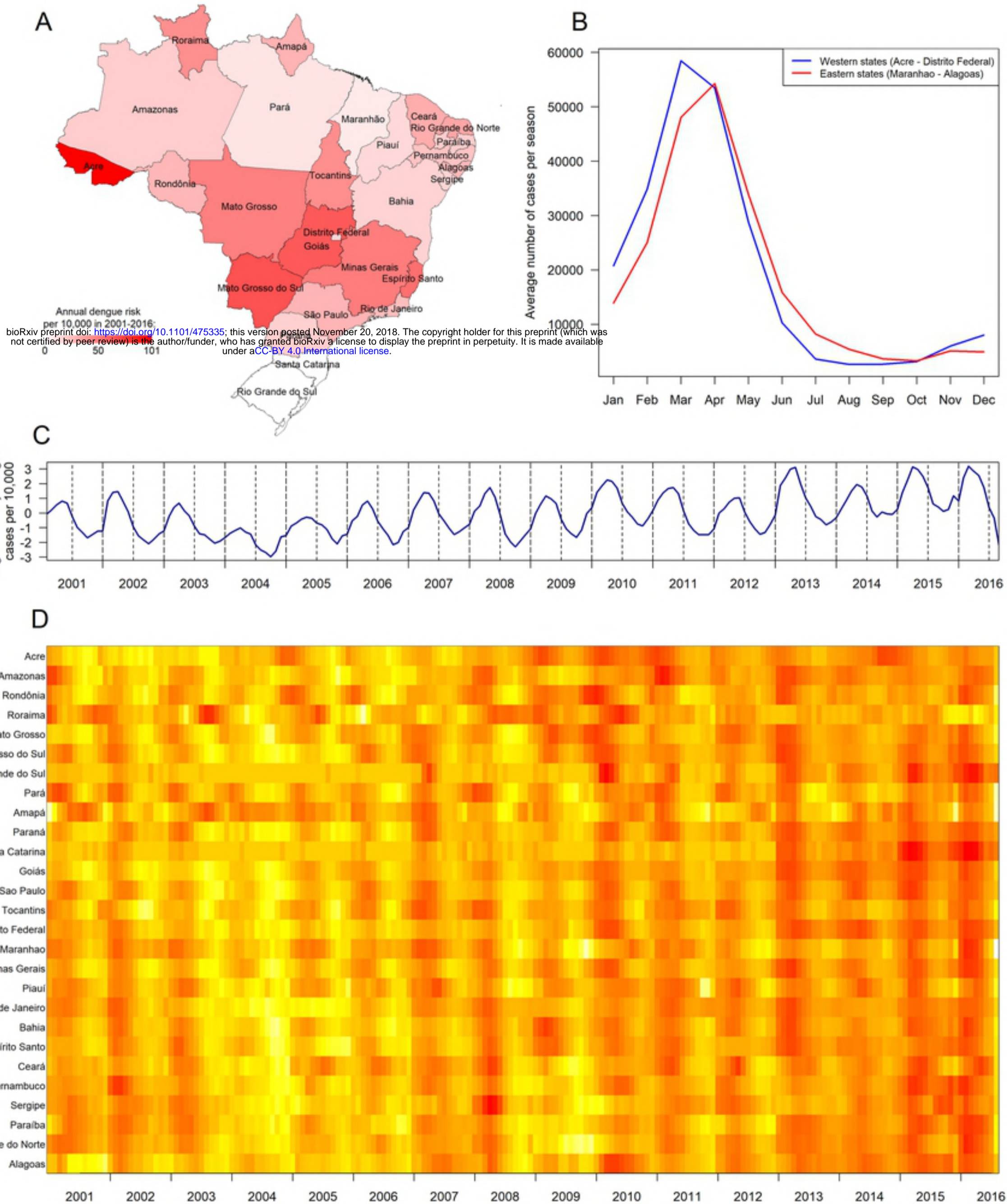


Fig 1

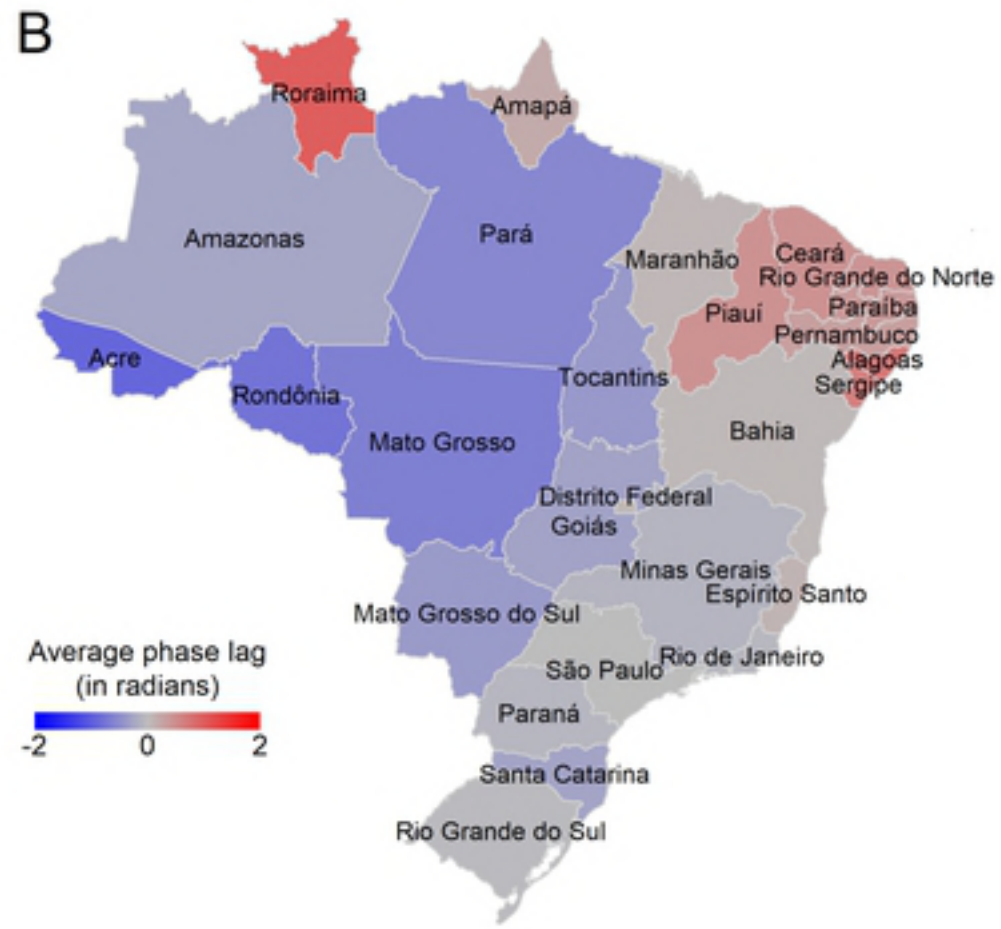
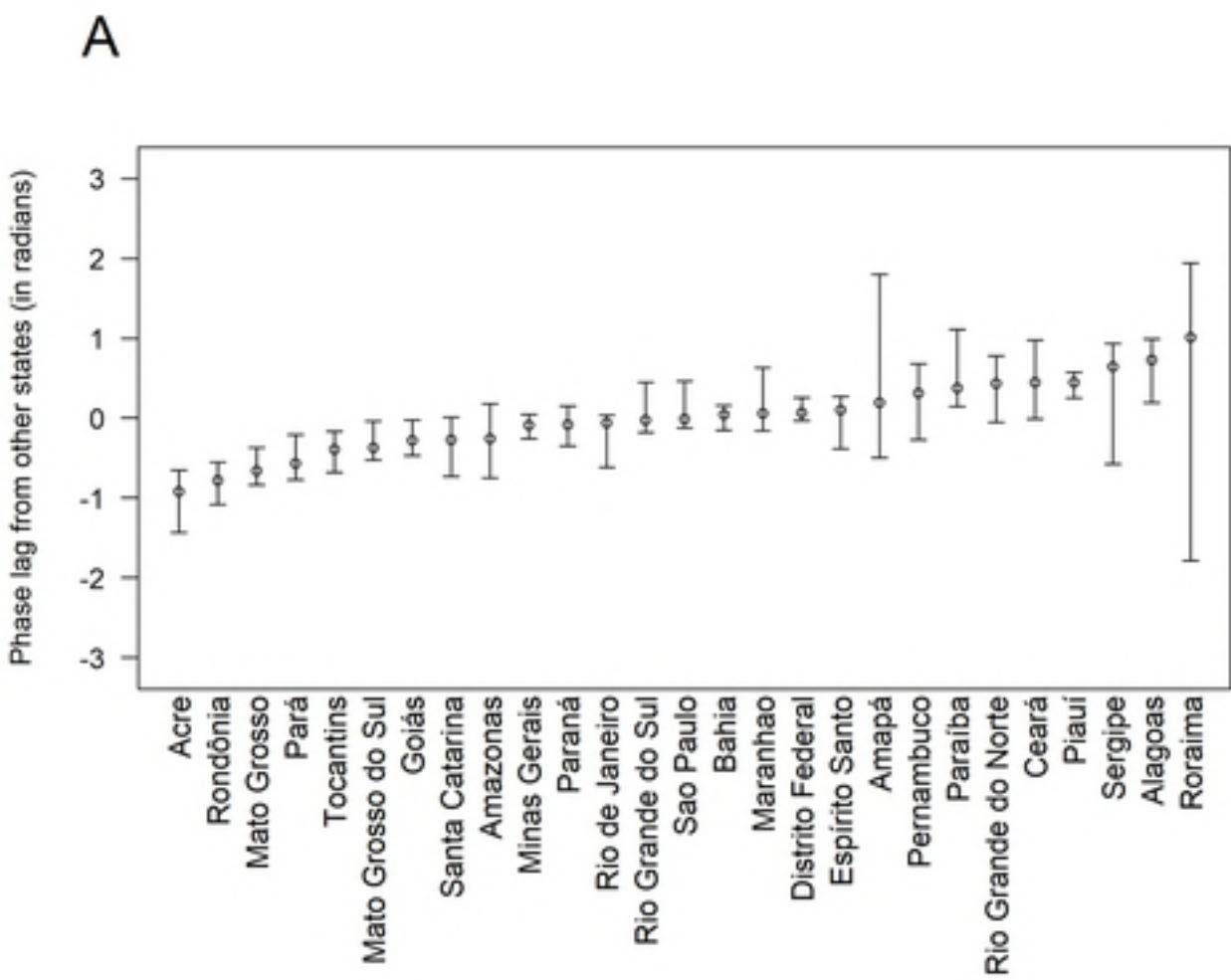


Fig 2

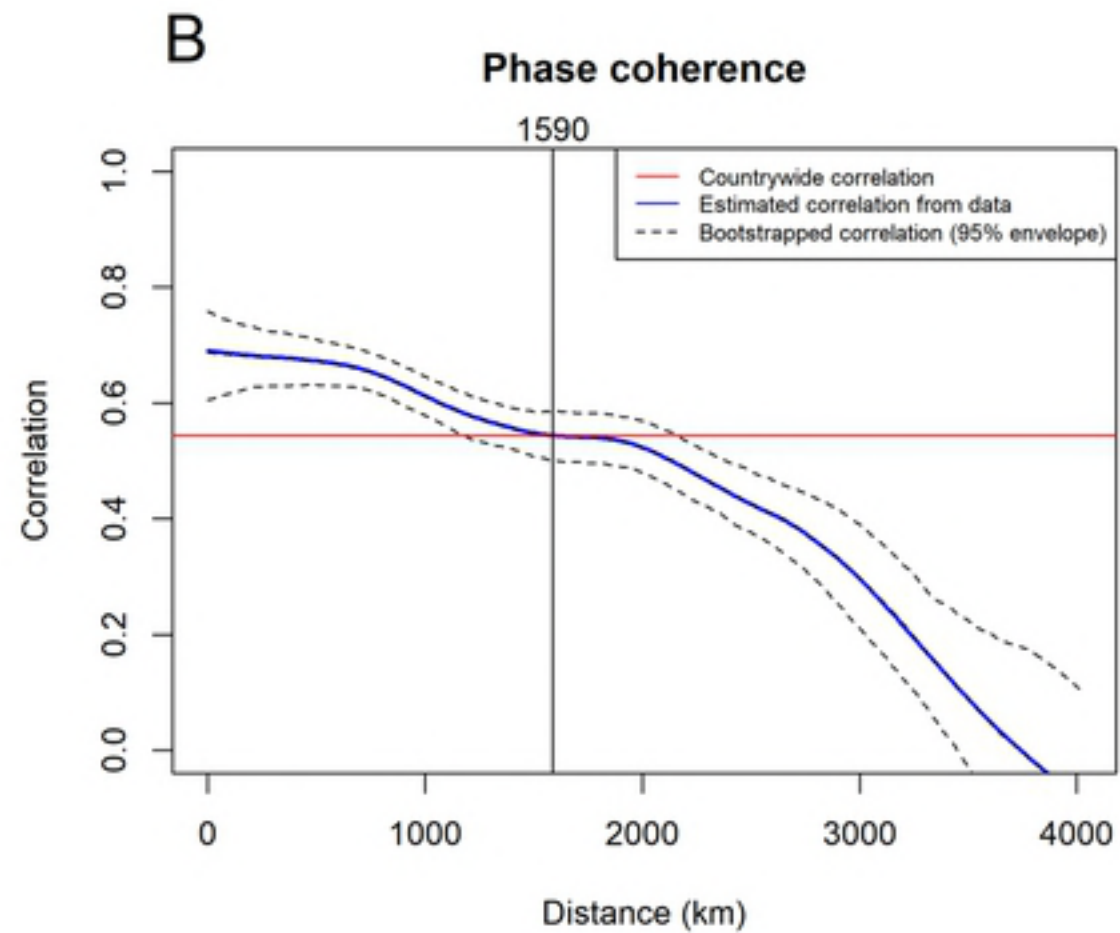
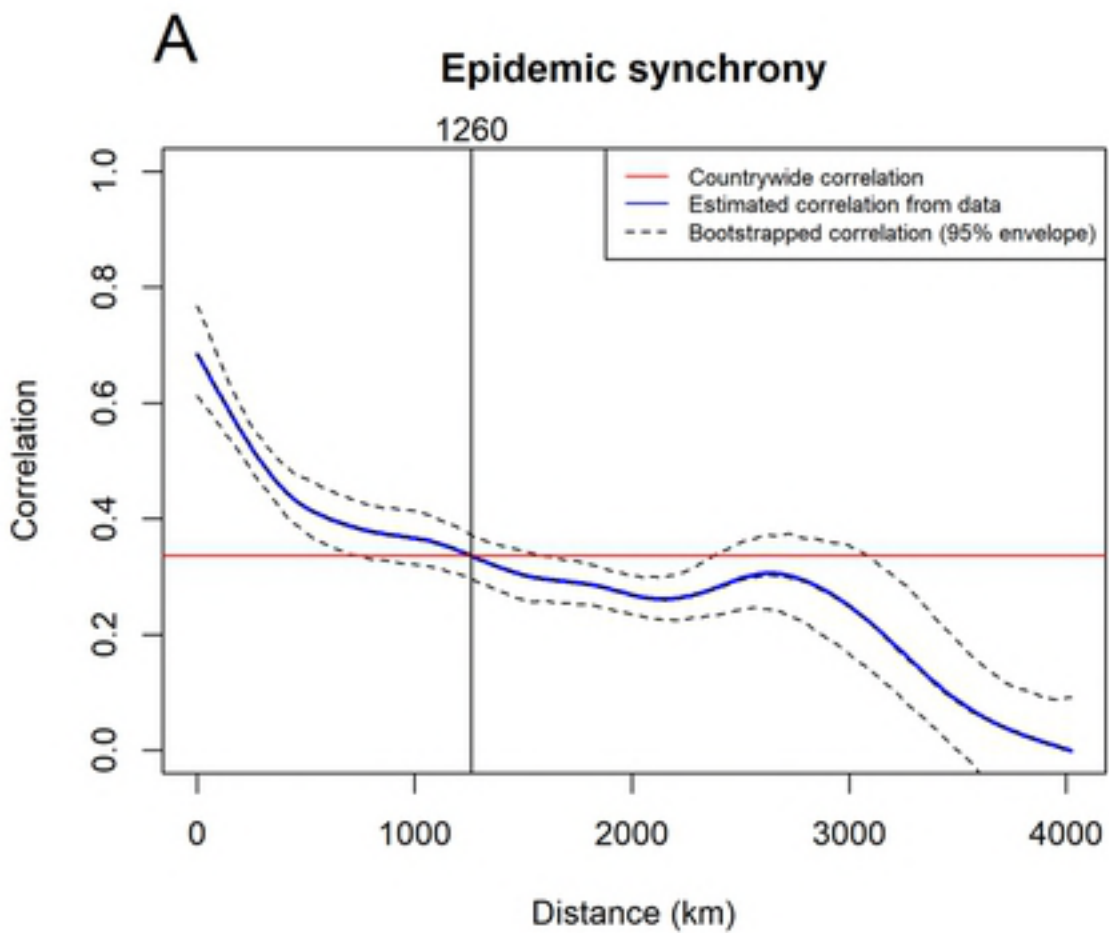


Fig 3

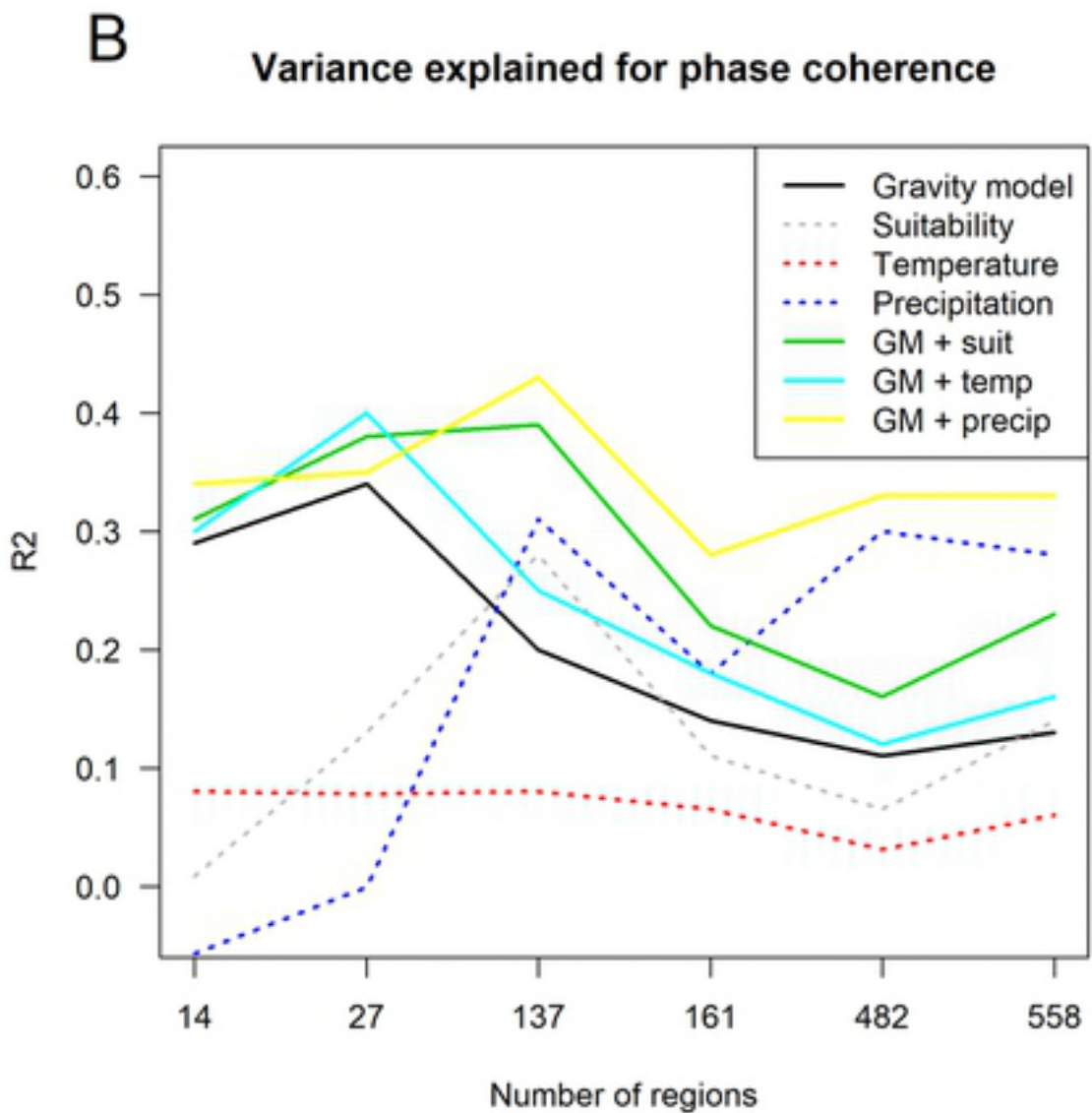
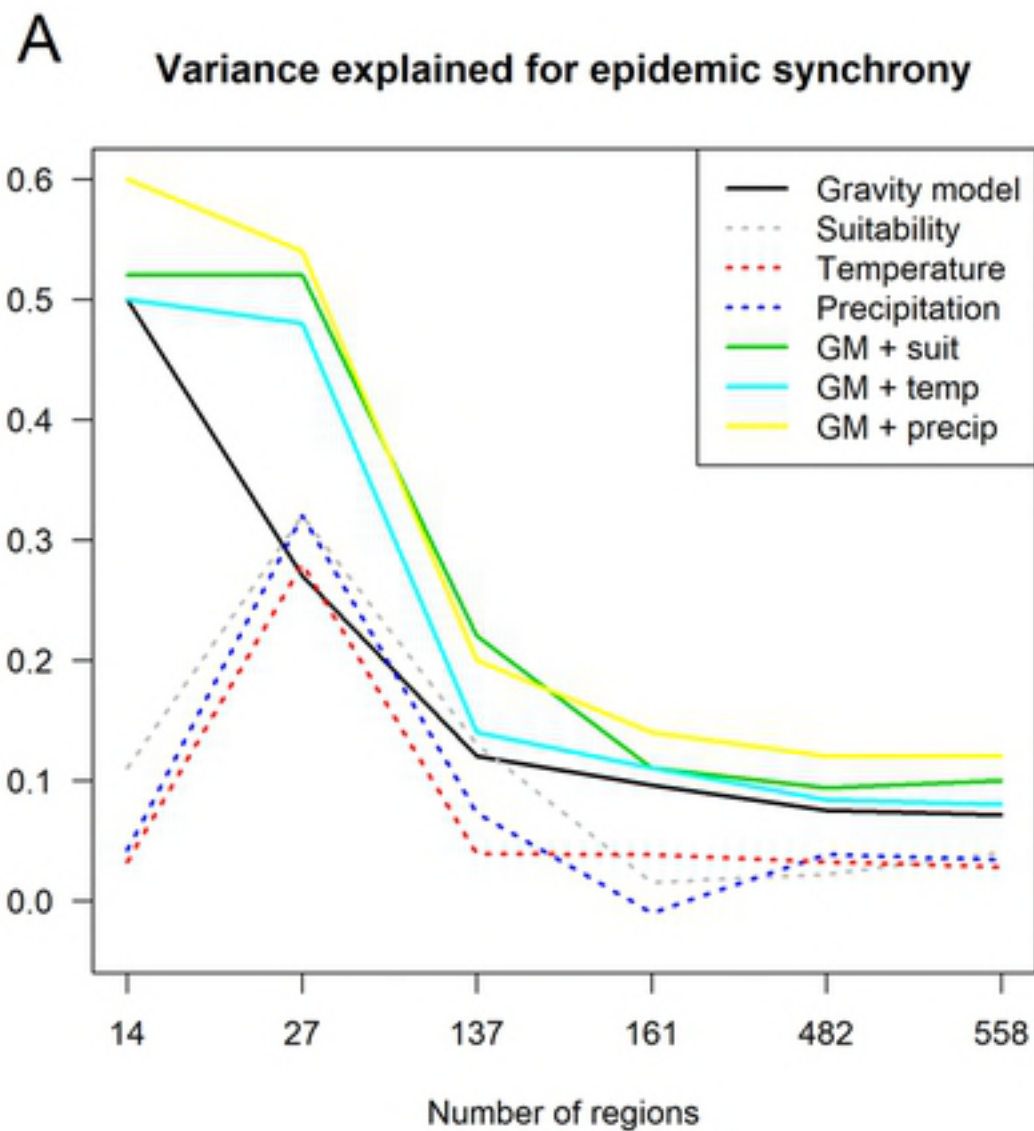


Fig 4