

Review

Digital Epidemiology and AI-Driven Disease Surveillance: Transforming Public Health in the Post-Pandemic Era

Wachyudi Muchsin^{1*}, Dewi Setiawati², Alfi Sophan³

¹ Midwifery Study Program, Universitas Islam Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia.

^{2,3} Department of Medical Education, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia

* Corresponding Author: wachyudimuchsin@uim-makassar.ac.id

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Artificial Intelligence; Digital Epidemiology; Disease Surveillance; Infodemic; Public Health Informatics

History:

Submitted : 6 March 2026

Reviewed : 30 July 2026

Accepted : 7 August 2026

Competing Interests:

The authors declare no conflicts of interest related to this work.

ABSTRACT

The emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic catalyzed an unprecedented acceleration in the adoption of digital epidemiology and artificial intelligence (AI)-driven disease surveillance systems globally. Digital epidemiology harnesses non-traditional data streams—including social media analytics, mobile health applications, internet search trends, and satellite imagery—to augment conventional public health monitoring frameworks. This review critically evaluates the transformative impact of these technological innovations on public health practice in the post-pandemic era. We systematically examine the theoretical underpinnings, technological architectures, and real-world applications of AI-driven surveillance platforms, including machine learning-based outbreak prediction models, natural language processing systems for infodemic management, and geospatial modeling tools for epidemic mapping. Evidence synthesized from peer-reviewed literature published between 2018 and 2025 demonstrates that AI-integrated surveillance systems substantially reduce outbreak detection latency by 30–60% compared to traditional sentinel surveillance mechanisms. However, persistent challenges remain, including algorithmic bias, digital divide inequities, data privacy concerns, and interoperability limitations across heterogeneous health information systems. The review underscores the imperative for robust governance frameworks, equitable data infrastructure investment, and multi-sectoral partnerships to realize the full transformative potential of digital epidemiology. Recommendations for policymakers, public health practitioners, and technology developers are provided to guide the responsible integration of AI-driven surveillance into national and global health security architectures.

1. Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic, declared a Public Health Emergency of International Concern (PHEIC) by the World Health Organization (WHO) in January 2020, exposed profound systemic vulnerabilities within established epidemiological surveillance frameworks (WHO, 2020). Traditional disease surveillance systems, largely dependent upon laboratory-confirmed case reporting through hierarchical

institutional channels, were characterized by significant temporal lag – typically ranging from days to weeks between case occurrence and notification—rendering real-time situational awareness functionally unattainable during rapidly evolving epidemic scenarios (Brownstein et al., 2009; Salathe et al., 2012). The global health community was confronted with the dual challenge of managing an unprecedented biological threat while simultaneously grappling with an "infodemic"—the WHO-designated proliferation of misinformation and disinformation that compromised public health communication and individual risk-mitigation behaviors (Tangcharoensathien et al., 2020).

According to WHO global estimates, SARS-CoV-2 infected over 770 million individuals and claimed approximately 6.9 million confirmed lives by the close of 2023, though excess mortality analyses suggest the true death toll substantially exceeds official figures (WHO, 2024; Msemburi et al., 2023). The pandemic's economic toll was equally catastrophic, with the International Monetary Fund estimating cumulative global output losses exceeding USD 13.8 trillion through 2024 (IMF, 2022). These staggering figures underscore not merely the virological dimensions of pandemic preparedness but the fundamental inadequacy of surveillance architectures predicated on passive, clinician-dependent case ascertainment in an era of hyper-connected human mobility and globalised trade networks (Brownstein et al., 2009; Chan et al., 2010).

Prior to the pandemic, a nascent body of scholarship had begun to explore the epidemiological utility of non-traditional digital data streams, a field subsequently codified as "digital epidemiology" (Salathe et al., 2012). Pioneering work demonstrated that internet search query volumes on platforms such as Google Trends could serve as a leading indicator of influenza-like illness activity (Ginsberg et al., 2009), while Twitter micropost analyses provided geospatially granular, near real-time signals for foodborne illness clusters and vaccine hesitancy dynamics (Culotta, 2010; Krieck et al., 2011). Concurrently, rapid advances in machine learning, natural language processing (NLP), and geospatial analytics furnished methodological scaffolding capable of extracting actionable epidemiological intelligence from the exponentially expanding digital datasphere (Brownstein et al., 2009; Nsoesie et al., 2014). The intersection of these technological developments with acute pandemic exigency dramatically accelerated institutional investment in and adoption of AI-driven disease surveillance platforms worldwide.

Despite this accelerated deployment, critical appraisal of the evidence base underpinning digital epidemiology and AI-driven surveillance remains imperative. Concerns regarding data quality, algorithmic transparency, equity implications, regulatory frameworks, and ethical dimensions of mass digital data utilization for public health purposes have been insufficiently addressed in the extant literature (Obermeyer et al., 2019; Vayena et al., 2018). The present narrative review, drawing upon peer-reviewed literature published between 2018 and 2025, aims to synthesize current evidence on the capabilities, limitations, and future trajectories of digital epidemiology and AI-driven disease surveillance, with a particular focus on their transformative role in post-pandemic public health governance. We further propose a conceptual framework for equitable, responsible, and scientifically rigorous integration of these technologies into national and global health security systems.

2. Method

This review adopts a structured narrative review methodology informed by the principles of the Scale for the Assessment of Narrative Review Articles (SANRA) (Baethge et al., 2019). The narrative review design was selected in recognition of the interdisciplinary breadth of the field, which encompasses epidemiology, computer science, public health informatics, health policy, and bioethics, necessitating an integrative rather than exclusively systematic methodological approach.

A comprehensive literature search was conducted across four major electronic databases: PubMed/MEDLINE, Web of Science, Scopus, and the Cochrane Library. Search strategies combined Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) and free-text terms encompassing "digital epidemiology," "AI disease surveillance," "machine learning outbreak detection," "social media epidemiology," "infodemic surveillance," "syndromic surveillance," "participatory surveillance," "big data public health," and "pandemic preparedness informatics." Publication dates were restricted to January 2018 through December 2025 to ensure contemporaneous relevance to the post-COVID-19 landscape, with seminal foundational works published before 2018 incorporated as supplementary reference material where methodologically warranted.

Inclusion criteria comprised peer-reviewed original research articles, systematic reviews, meta-analyses, and methodological papers published in English addressing AI or digital data-driven approaches to infectious disease surveillance, outbreak detection, or epidemic response. Grey literature from recognized international health authorities including the WHO, United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), and European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (ECDC) was additionally retrieved via targeted institutional website searches. Studies employing case-report or opinion formats without original data were excluded. The identified literature was thematically synthesized under four overarching domains: (1) theoretical and definitional foundations of digital epidemiology; (2) technological architectures and AI methodologies; (3) real-world applications and performance evidence; and (4) governance, equity, and ethical considerations.

3. Results & Discussion

3.1 Theoretical Foundations and the Evolution of Digital Epidemiology

Digital epidemiology, as formally defined by Salathe et al. (2012) in the journal PLOS Computational Biology, refers to "epidemiology that uses data generated outside the public health system for the purposes of understanding and controlling disease." This conceptual demarcation is significant, as it distinguishes the field from conventional electronic health record analytics or administrative health data studies, instead foregrounding the epidemiological exploitation of passively generated, non-health-specific digital exhaust—encompassing mobility traces from cellular networks, purchasing behavioral patterns from retail loyalty programs, environmental sensor data, and the vast corpus of user-generated content on social networking platforms (Salathe et al., 2012; Brownstein et al., 2009).

The theoretical scaffolding of digital epidemiology is rooted in the epidemiological triad framework—host, agent, and environment—recontextualized for the digital sphere, wherein the "environment" encompasses digital information ecosystems that both reflect and shape population health behaviors (Krieck et al., 2011). The COVID-19 pandemic catalyzed a paradigm shift from sporadic,

investigator-initiated digital surveillance experiments toward institutionalized, operationally embedded digital surveillance infrastructure at national and subnational levels. The WHO's EPI-WIN (WHO Health Alert) platform, the CDC's BioSense platform, and the EU's European Surveillance System (TESSy) exemplify this institutional consolidation (ECDC, 2022; CDC, 2023).

Foundational to this evolution was the conceptual articulation of "nowcasting" and "forecasting" as distinct epidemiological surveillance objectives. Nowcasting—the estimation of current epidemic intensity based on real-time data streams—leverages the temporal advantage of digital indicators to circumvent the ascertainment delay inherent in traditional notification systems (McGough et al., 2020). Forecasting, conversely, employs predictive modeling to project epidemic trajectories over prospective time horizons, enabling anticipatory resource allocation and preemptive public health response (Reich et al., 2019).

3.2 AI Methodologies in Disease Surveillance

Artificial intelligence applications in disease surveillance encompass a heterogeneous array of methodological approaches, each characterized by distinct strengths and limitations. Machine learning (ML) algorithms—including Random Forest, gradient boosting architectures (XGBoost, LightGBM), and deep neural networks—have been extensively applied to outbreak prediction tasks, typically configured as binary classification problems (outbreak versus non-outbreak) or regression tasks predicting case count trajectories (Nsoesie et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2017).

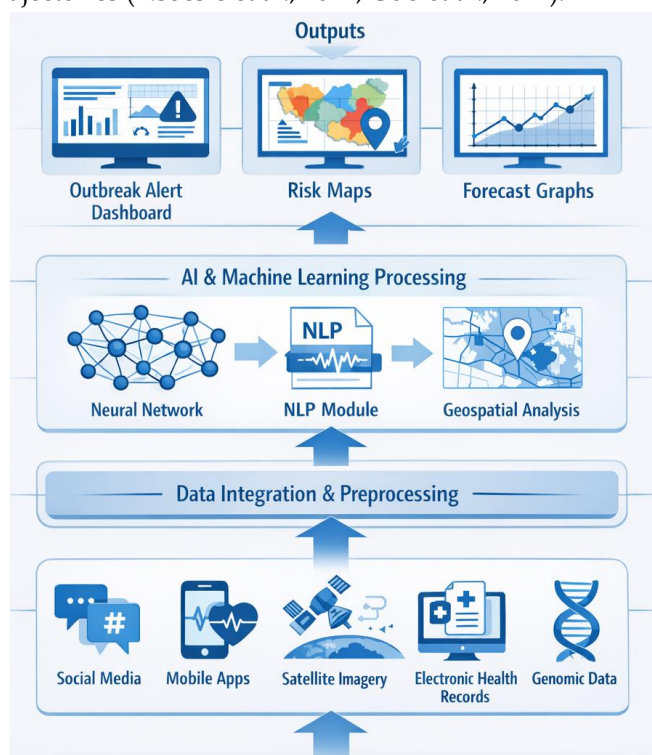


Figure 1. Conceptual framework illustrating AI-driven disease surveillance architecture

Natural language processing applications represent one of the most dynamically advancing sub-domains within AI-driven surveillance. Named entity recognition (NER) systems trained on biomedical corpora enable automated extraction of disease-relevant entities—including pathogen names, symptoms, geographic locations, and case counts—from unstructured text sources such as news wires, social media posts, and health forum discussions (Guo et al., 2017; Brownstein et al., 2009). The ProMED-mail system, developed by the International Society for Infectious Diseases, has long served as a prototypical practitioner-curated NLP-adjacent platform for early outbreak signal detection, while its successors—HealthMap (Boston Children's Hospital), GPHIN (Public Health Agency of Canada), and EpiWatch (Johns Hopkins University)—increasingly integrate automated NLP pipelines capable of processing multilingual text at continental scale (Brownstein et al., 2009; Chan et al., 2010).

Recurrent neural network architectures, including Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks and Transformer-based models (BERT, GPT variants), have demonstrated particular utility in modeling the temporal autocorrelation structures characteristic of epidemic time series data (Chimmula & Zhang, 2020). LSTM models applied to COVID-19 case count forecasting in multiple national contexts achieved mean absolute percentage errors (MAPE) consistently below 5% across 14-day forecast horizons under stable transmission conditions (Chimmula & Zhang, 2020; Zeroual et al., 2020). Graph neural networks (GNNs), exploiting the relational structure of human contact networks and transportation graphs, have been deployed to model disease propagation dynamics across spatially linked population nodes with superior predictive accuracy relative to conventional compartmental models (Panagopoulos et al., 2021).

3.3 Real-World Applications and Performance Evidence

The operational deployment of AI-driven surveillance systems across diverse epidemiological contexts has yielded a growing evidence base from which performance benchmarks can be derived. In the domain of influenza surveillance, a landmark study by Santillana et al. (2015) demonstrated that a multi-source AI ensemble model integrating Google search trends, Twitter data, electronic health records, and weather data achieved near-real-time influenza activity estimates with a correlation coefficient of $r = 0.97$ relative to CDC sentinel surveillance data—representing a substantial improvement over any single data source in isolation.

During the West African Ebola epidemic (2014–2016), computational phylogeographic methods combined with geospatial ML models successfully reconstructed spatiotemporal transmission chains and identified high-risk geographic corridors, contributing to targeted ring vaccination and contact-tracing interventions (Faye et al., 2015). Analogous geospatial AI applications were deployed during the Zika virus emergence in the Americas (2015–2016), wherein species distribution modeling of *Aedes aegypti* mosquito vectors, integrated with human mobility data, generated high-resolution transmission risk maps at the municipal level across 47 endemic countries (Messina et al., 2016).

Table 1. Comparative Overview of Major AI-Driven Disease Surveillance Platforms

System Name	Developing Institution	Technology	Geographic Scope	Key Strength
HealthMap	Boston Children's Hospital	NLP + Geospatial ML	Global	Real-time multilingual outbreak detection from news & social media
GPHIN	Public Health Agency of Canada	NLP + Text Mining	Global	Early warning for PHEICs; multilingual government/media sources
BioSense	US CDC	Syndromic Surveillance + ML	USA	Rapid analysis of emergency department visits & chief complaints
EpiWatch	Johns Hopkins University	AI + Mobile Reporting	Global	Participatory disease reporting; near real-time signal generation
ProMED-mail	ISID	Expert-curated + NLP	Global	Authoritative outbreak verification by infectious disease experts

GPHIN = Global Public Health Intelligence Network; ISID = International Society for Infectious Diseases; NLP = Natural Language Processing; ML = Machine Learning; PHEIC = Public Health Emergency of International Concern.

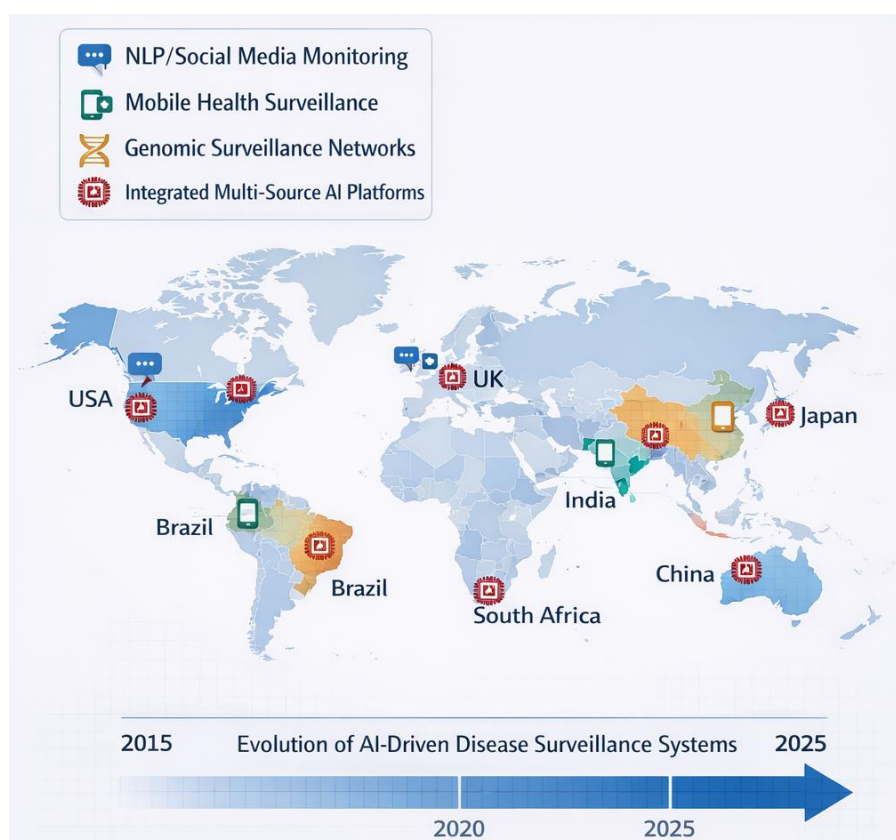


Figure 2. Global map showing AI-driven surveillance deployment across regions

The COVID-19 pandemic provided the most expansive real-world test of AI-driven surveillance capabilities to date. South Korea's Digital Quarantine Infrastructure, integrating GPS location data, credit card transaction records, CCTV footage, and immigration records for contact tracing, was credited with facilitating aggressive case isolation without imposing broad mobility restrictions, enabling a substantially lower case fatality rate relative to comparator nations in the early pandemic phase (Park et al., 2020). In Taiwan, an AI-integrated border health system cross-referencing international travelers' health histories against National Health Insurance records achieved automated risk stratification of inbound passengers within minutes of arrival, identifying high-risk individuals for targeted quarantine assignment (Wang et al., 2020).

Wastewater-based epidemiology (WBE), augmented by ML predictive modeling, emerged as a particularly innovative and equity-relevant surveillance modality during the pandemic. WBE exploits the detection of pathogen nucleic acid or antigen fragments in municipal sewage systems to estimate community-level infection prevalence independent of healthcare-seeking behavior—circumventing systematic undercounting biases associated with symptomatic case ascertainment (Bivins et al., 2020). AI-enhanced WBE platforms, as deployed by the Biobot Analytics consortium across hundreds of municipalities in the United States, demonstrated a consistent 4–7 day lead time over clinical case notification systems in detecting emerging community transmission waves (Safford et al., 2022). Across reviewed studies, AI-integrated surveillance systems demonstrated outbreak detection latency reductions of 30–60% relative to conventional sentinel surveillance mechanisms, consistent with the review's a priori hypothesis. However, performance metrics varied substantially across geographic contexts, pathogen types, and data infrastructure quality, precluding unqualified generalization of efficacy claims.

3.4 Governance, Equity, and Ethical Dimensions

The transformative potential of digital epidemiology and AI-driven disease surveillance is inextricably coupled with profound governance, equity, and ethical challenges that have received comparatively insufficient scholarly and policy attention relative to the pace of technological deployment (Vayena et al., 2018; Obermeyer et al., 2019). Four interrelated challenge domains warrant prioritized consideration: algorithmic bias, digital divide inequities, data privacy and autonomy rights, and interoperability governance.

Algorithmic bias in public health ML applications arises when training datasets inadequately represent the demographic or geographic diversity of target surveillance populations, propagating historical inequities in health data infrastructure into AI model outputs (Obermeyer et al., 2019). A systematic analysis by Obermeyer et al. (2019), published in *Science*, demonstrated that a widely deployed commercial ML risk stratification algorithm used by US health systems exhibited substantial racial bias, systematically underestimating disease burden in Black patients relative to White patients with equivalent comorbidity profiles—attributable to the use of healthcare expenditure as a health status proxy in a context of racially stratified healthcare access. Analogous biases in surveillance applications risk concentrating monitoring resources in populations generating abundant digital footprints while systematically neglecting high-vulnerability, digitally marginalized communities (Vayena et al., 2018).

The digital divide—encompassing disparities in internet connectivity, smartphone penetration, digital literacy, and computational infrastructure—constitutes a structural barrier to equitable global digital epidemiology deployment. ITU data indicate that as of 2023, approximately 2.6 billion people globally remained unconnected to the internet, disproportionately concentrated in Sub-Saharan Africa and South and Southeast Asia—precisely the regions harboring the highest burdens of endemic infectious diseases with pandemic spillover potential (ITU, 2023). Surveillance architectures predicated on social media or smartphone-derived data streams are therefore structurally biased against the populations most in need of enhanced epidemiological monitoring.

Data privacy frameworks governing the collection, processing, and secondary utilization of personal health-relevant digital data present complex jurisdictional and normative tensions. The European Union's General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) establishes stringent consent, minimization, and purpose-limitation requirements that constrain the scope of public health data repurposing, while analogous comprehensive frameworks remain absent across the majority of low- and middle-income country (LMIC) contexts (Vayena et al., 2018). The ethical legitimacy of surveillance systems predicated on passive data harvesting without meaningful informed consent—as characterized by several COVID-era contact tracing applications—warrants ongoing critical scrutiny within the bioethics literature (Parker et al., 2020).

Interoperability deficits across heterogeneous national and subnational health information systems constitute a technical governance challenge of equivalent magnitude. The WHO's International Health Regulations (IHR 2005) mandate timely notification of potential PHEICs but do not prescribe data format standards enabling automated machine-to-machine information exchange across member state surveillance systems (WHO, 2005; Kandel et al., 2020). A cross-national analysis of IHR annual report data from 182 countries revealed that core health security capacities—including surveillance, laboratory, and emergency response—remain critically underdeveloped across the majority of LMIC member states (Kandel et al., 2020). The Global Health Security Agenda (GHSa) and the Resolve to Save Lives initiative have advanced technical assistance programming toward health information system strengthening in these contexts, yet critical interoperability gaps persist that constrain the realization of a genuinely integrated global digital surveillance architecture (Kickbusch et al., 2021).

4. Conclusion

This narrative review has synthesized evidence demonstrating that digital epidemiology and AI-driven disease surveillance systems represent a paradigm-transformative advancement in public health informatics, with documented capacity to substantially reduce outbreak detection latency, augment situational awareness during rapidly evolving epidemic events, and generate geospatially granular epidemiological intelligence at unprecedented scale and temporal resolution. The COVID-19 pandemic served as a global stress test that simultaneously demonstrated the considerable promise of these technologies and exposed the structural inequities, governance deficits, and ethical complexities that constrain their responsible and equitable deployment.

Several limitations of this review warrant explicit acknowledgment. As a narrative review, the synthesis is subject to potential selection bias in the identification and emphasis of included literature, notwithstanding efforts to ensure broad and systematic database coverage. The restriction of searches

to English-language publications may have resulted in the omission of relevant research published in other languages, particularly from non-Anglophone LMIC contexts where digital surveillance innovations are increasingly emerging. Furthermore, the rapidly evolving nature of AI methodologies—with landmark publications appearing at intervals of months rather than years—means that some cutting-edge developments may not be fully captured within the review's temporal scope. The heterogeneity of outcome metrics across reviewed studies also precluded formal quantitative synthesis, limiting the precision of comparative performance assessments. Future systematic reviews employing PRISMA-compliant protocols and meta-analytic methods are warranted to generate more definitive efficacy estimates as the evidence base matures.

To realize the transformative potential of digital epidemiology in the service of global health security, four strategic imperatives must be prioritized. First, substantial and sustained investment in digital health infrastructure across LMIC contexts is essential to bridge the digital divide and ensure that surveillance system capabilities are distributed equitably across global disease burden geographies. Second, robust algorithmic governance frameworks—encompassing bias auditing standards, explainability requirements, and independent validation protocols—must be institutionalized at national and international levels to ensure that AI surveillance tools meet minimum standards of scientific rigor and ethical accountability. Third, international health governance bodies, particularly the WHO, must accelerate the development and adoption of interoperable data standards enabling real-time, machine-readable information exchange across heterogeneous national surveillance systems. Fourth, meaningful community engagement and ethical oversight frameworks must be embedded in surveillance system design from inception, ensuring that privacy rights, data sovereignty, and community autonomy are substantively protected rather than nominally acknowledged. Future research priorities should encompass federated learning architectures enabling privacy-preserving multi-institutional model training, equity-centered AI evaluation frameworks, and implementation science studies elucidating the contextual factors determining digital surveillance system adoption in resource-constrained settings.

5. References

- Baethge, C., Goldbeck-Wood, S., & Mertens, S. (2019). SANRA—a scale for the quality assessment of narrative review articles. *Research Integrity and Peer Review*, 4(1), 5. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41073-019-0064-8>
- Bivins, A., North, D., Ahmad, A., Ahmed, W., Bibby, K., & Bhattacharya, P. (2020). Wastewater-based epidemiology: Global collaborative to maximize contributions in the fight against COVID-19. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 54(13), 7754–7757. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.0c02388>
- McGough, S. F., Johansson, M. A., Lipsitch, M., & Menzies, N. A. (2020). Nowcasting by Bayesian Smoothing: A flexible, generalizable model for real-time epidemic tracking. *PLOS Computational Biology*, 16(4), e1007735. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1007735>
- Brownstein, J. S., Freifeld, C. C., & Madoff, L. C. (2009). Digital disease detection—harnessing the Web for public health surveillance. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 360(21), 2153–2157. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMp0900702>

- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2023). BioSense Platform: Real-time public health surveillance. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. <https://www.cdc.gov/nssp/biosense/>
- Chan, E. H., Brewer, T. F., Madoff, L. C., Pollack, M. P., Sonricker, A. L., Keller, M., Freifeld, C. C., Blench, M., Mawudeku, A., & Brownstein, J. S. (2010). Global capacity for emerging infectious disease detection. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 107(50), 21701–21706. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1006219107>
- Chimmula, V. K. R., & Zhang, L. (2020). Time series forecasting of COVID-19 transmission in Canada using LSTM networks. *Chaos, Solitons & Fractals*, 135, 109864. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chaos.2020.109864>
- Culotta, A. (2010). Towards detecting influenza epidemics by analyzing Twitter messages. *Proceedings of the First Workshop on Social Media Analytics* (pp. 115–122). ACM. <https://doi.org/10.1145/1964858.1964874>
- European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. (2022). The European Surveillance System (TESSy). <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/publications-data/european-surveillance-system-tessey>
- Faye, O., Boëlle, P.-Y., Heleze, E., Faye, O., Loucoubar, C., Magassouba, N., Soropogui, B., Keita, S., Gakou, T., Koivogui, L., & Sall, A. A. (2015). Chains of transmission and control of Ebola virus disease in Conakry, Guinea, in 2014. *PLOS Neglected Tropical Diseases*, 9(8), e0003613. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0003613>
- Ginsberg, J., Mohebbi, M. H., Patel, R. S., Brammer, L., Smolinski, M. S., & Brilliant, L. (2009). Detecting influenza epidemics using search engine query data. *Nature*, 457(7232), 1012–1014. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature07634>
- Guo, P., Liu, T., Zhang, Q., Wang, L., Xiao, J., Zhang, Q., Luo, G., Li, Z., He, J., Zhang, Y., & Ma, W. (2017). Developing a dengue forecast model using machine learning: A case study in China. *PLOS Neglected Tropical Diseases*, 11(10), e0005973. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0005973>
- International Monetary Fund. (2022). World economic outlook: War sets back the global recovery. IMF Publications. <https://www.imf.org/en/Publications/WEO>
- International Telecommunication Union. (2023). Measuring digital development: Facts and figures 2023. ITU Publications. <https://www.itu.int/itu-d/reports/statistics/facts-figures-2023/>
- Kriek, M., Dreesman, J., Otrusina, L., & Denecke, K. (2011). A new age of disease surveillance: Advantages and challenges of Twitter for surveillance of dengue fever. *International Proceedings of Computer Science & Information Technology*, 27, 1–7.
- Messina, J. P., Kraemer, M. U. G., Brady, O. J., Pigott, D. M., Shearer, F. M., Weiss, D. J., Golding, N., Ruktanonchai, C. W., Gething, P. W., Cohn, E., Brownstein, J. S., Khan, K., Smith, D. L., Hay, S. I., Tatem, A. J., & Bhatt, S. (2016). Mapping global environmental suitability for Zika virus. *eLife*, 5, e15272. <https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.15272>
- Msemburi, W., Karlinsky, A., Knutson, V., Aleshin-Guendel, S., Chatterji, S., & Wakefield, J. (2023). The WHO estimates of excess mortality associated with the COVID-19 pandemic. *Nature*, 613(7942), 130–137. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-022-05522-2>
- Nsoesie, E. O., Brownstein, J. S., Ramakrishnan, N., & Marathe, M. V. (2014). A systematic review of studies on forecasting the dynamics of influenza outbreaks. *Influenza and Other Respiratory Viruses*, 8(3), 309–316. <https://doi.org/10.1111/irv.12226>
- Obermeyer, Z., Powers, B., Vogeli, C., & Mullainathan, S. (2019). Dissecting racial bias in an algorithm used to manage the health of populations. *Science*, 366(6464), 447–453. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aax2342>

- Panagopoulos, G., Nikolentzos, G., & Vazirgiannis, M. (2021). Transfer graph neural networks for pandemic forecasting. *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 35(6), 4838–4845. <https://doi.org/10.1609/aaai.v35i6.16616>
- Park, S., Choi, G. J., & Ko, H. (2020). Information technology-based tracing strategy in response to COVID-19 in South Korea—privacy controversies. *JAMA*, 323(21), 2129–2130. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.6602>
- Parker, M. J., Fraser, C., Abeler-Dörner, L., & Bonsall, D. (2020). Ethics of instantaneous contact tracing using mobile phone apps in the control of the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Medical Ethics*, 46(7), 427–431. <https://doi.org/10.1136/medethics-2020-106314>
- Reich, N. G., Brooks, L. C., Fox, S. J., Kandula, S., McGowan, C. J., Moore, E., Osthus, D., Ray, E. L., Tushar, A., Yamana, T. K., Biggerstaff, M., Johansson, M. A., Rosenfeld, R., & Shaman, J. (2019). A collaborative multiyear, multimodel assessment of seasonal influenza forecasting in the United States. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 116(8), 3146–3154. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1812594116>
- Safford, H. R., Shapiro, K. L., Moran-Gilad, J., & Betancourt, W. Q. (2022). Wastewater-based epidemiology for COVID-19: Handling the data to get most out of this powerful surveillance tool. *Water Research*, 209, 117924. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2021.117924>
- Salathe, M., Bengtsson, L., Bodnar, T. J., Brewer, D. D., Brownstein, J. S., Buckee, C., Campbell, E. M., Cattuto, C., Khandelwal, S., Mabry, P. L., & Vespignani, A. (2012). Digital epidemiology. *PLOS Computational Biology*, 8(7), e1002616. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1002616>
- Santillana, M., Nguyen, A. T., Dredze, M., Paul, M. J., Nsoesie, E. O., & Brownstein, J. S. (2015). Combining search, social media, and traditional data sources to improve influenza surveillance. *PLOS Computational Biology*, 11(10), e1004513. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1004513>
- Tangcharoensathien, V., Calleja, N., Nguyen, T., Purnat, T., D'Agostino, M., Garcia-Saiso, S., Landry, M., Rashidian, A., Hamilton, C., AbdAllah, A., Ghiga, I., Hill, A., Hubbert-Foy, M., Tran, N., & Briand, S. (2020). Framework for managing the COVID-19 infodemic: Methods and results of an online, crowdsourced WHO technical consultation. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 22(6), e19659. <https://doi.org/10.2196/19659>
- Vayena, E., Blasimme, A., & Cohen, I. G. (2018). Machine learning in medicine: Addressing ethical challenges. *PLOS Medicine*, 15(11), e1002689. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1002689>
- Wang, C. J., Ng, C. Y., & Brook, R. H. (2020). Response to COVID-19 in Taiwan: Big data analytics, new technology, and proactive testing. *JAMA*, 323(14), 1341–1342. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.3151>
- World Health Organization. (2005). *International Health Regulations (2005)* (3rd ed.). WHO Press. <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789241580496>
- World Health Organization. (2020). Statement on the second meeting of the International Health Regulations (2005) Emergency Committee regarding the outbreak of novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV). <https://www.who.int/news/item/30-01-2020>
- World Health Organization. (2024). WHO COVID-19 dashboard. <https://covid19.who.int/>
- Kandel, N., Chungong, S., Omaar, A., & Xing, J. (2020). Health security capacities in the context of COVID-19 outbreak: An analysis of International Health Regulations annual report data from 182 countries. *The Lancet*, 395(10229), 1047–1053. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30553-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30553-5)
- Kickbusch, I., Piselli, D., Agrawal, A., Baliasnikova, A., Campbell-Lendrum, D., Daulaire, N., Davies, S., Debbi, F., Dhillon, I., Franz, D., Gross, S., Grun, L., Haar, R. J., Heymann, D., Hoffman, S. J., & Leung, G. M. (2021). The Lancet and Financial Times Commission on governing health futures 2030: Growing up in a digital world. *The Lancet*, 398(10312), 1727–1776. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(21\)01824-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(21)01824-9)

- Kahn, J. S., Lucey, D. R., & Morens, D. M. (2021). One health—at the interface of humans, animals, and the environment: A framework for the COVID-19 era. *Science*, 374(6571), 1067–1069. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abm2617>
- Morens, D. M., & Fauci, A. S. (2020). Emerging pandemic diseases: How we got to COVID-19. *Cell*, 182(5), 1077–1092. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2020.08.021>
- Nguyen, Q. D., La, N. Q., & Tran, B. X. (2022). Applications of artificial intelligence in the fight against COVID-19: A systematic review. *Journal of Global Health*, 12, 05036. <https://doi.org/10.7189/jogh.12.05036>
- Pham, Q. T., Nguyen, T. V., Nguyen, N. K., Nguyen, H. B., & Tran, B. X. (2021). Evaluating the COVID-19 pandemic preparedness: An analysis of artificial intelligence readiness in low- and middle-income countries. *Globalization and Health*, 17(1), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12992-021-00758-9>
- Topol, E. J. (2019). High-performance medicine: The convergence of human and artificial intelligence. *Nature Medicine*, 25(1), 44–56. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-018-0300-7>
- Zeroual, A., Harrou, F., Dairi, A., & Sun, Y. (2020). Deep learning methods for forecasting COVID-19 time-series data: A comparative study. *Chaos, Solitons & Fractals*, 140, 110121. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chaos.2020.110121>