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# Dengue and aging: challenges and opportunities in prevention and care.

## A narrative review

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### ABSTRACT

Dengue infection is a global health issue with significantly increased incidence and overall burden, especially since 2024. Specifically, epidemiological trends show a rising median age of affected individuals over 65 years/old. Older individuals face increased risks of severe disease, extended hospital stays, healthcare-associated infections, and higher mortality rates, mainly due to a decline in immune function, and multimorbidity. Antibody-dependent enhancement, cytokine dysregulation, and endothelial dysfunction exacerbate disease severity. Moreover, in older patients, dengue diagnosis can be difficult, due to atypical symptoms. To date, there are no specific prognostic markers and no specific antiviral drugs. Management requires age-specific considerations. Evidence on immunomodulatory and antiviral therapies is emerging, and vaccine efficacy and safety data in older adults remain limited, despite growing interest. With an aging global population, dengue represents an urgent clinical challenge: there is an unmet and increasing need for comprehensive, practical guidelines to help clinicians in the diagnosis, treatment, prevention, and control of dengue infection in older patients.

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## 1. Introduction



Dengue infection is considered the most rapid spreading mosquito-borne viral disease globally, exceeding 390 million Dengue virus (DENV) infections yearly [1]. DENV is a single-stranded RNA virus belonging to the family *Flaviviridae*, genus *Orthoflavivirus*, species *O. denguei*, with four antigenically distinct serotypes (DENV-1, DENV-2, DENV-3, DENV-4), transmitted by *Aedes spp.* mosquitoes, mainly *Aedes aegypti* [2].

Dengue infection epidemiology has rapidly evolved over the last decades, with a significant increase in both incidence and geographical spread [3,4]. Recent studies have reported lack of real-life data about the burden of the disease in older people probably because dengue infection has been historically considered a pediatric illness [5,6]. A rising median age of patients with dengue infections linked to demographic shifts

in low-to-middle-income regions was observed [7]. Moreover, the age-related immune system declines as well as multimorbidity are causes of major frailty in older people, thus favouring a higher risk of severe diseases and unfavorable outcome. To date, no antiviral therapies are available, and vaccination effectiveness in older people is still under evaluation. This narrative review aims to identify the major features of dengue infection in older individuals, highlighting how age-related immunological dysfunctions may influence the clinical outcome. Furthermore, we will discuss the challenges in dengue management in older population.

## 2. Search strategy and selection criteria

A literature search was carried out to identify publications relevant to the review topic and published up

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to May 31, 2025. The databases PubMed, Scopus, and Embase were queried to identify potential publications for review, with the following search string:

(dengue[Title/Abstract]) AND (old people OR old person\* OR old population\* OR old patient\* OR aged population\* OR aged people OR aged person\* OR aged patient\* OR elderly OR older adult\* OR geriatric\* OR senior\* OR senescence OR immunosenescence OR aging OR ageing).

Observational and interventional studies were included if they examined immunological, epidemiological, or clinical aspects of severe dengue in individuals aged 65 and older. Exclusion criteria included case reports, publications without full-text availability, those predating 2000, or studies not reporting severe dengue outcomes (mortality, hospitalization, Intensive Care Unit admission, healthcare-associated infections, Dengue Hemorrhagic Fever, and Dengue Shock Syndrome) in the older population.

### 3. Dengue infection and older people: clinical evidence

In 2009, World Health Organization (WHO) revised dengue classification into dengue fever with or without warning signs (abdominal pain, vomiting, fluid accumulation, mucosal bleeding, lethargy, hepatomegaly, hemoconcentration, thrombocytopenia) and severe dengue (shock, respiratory distress, bleeding, or severe organ involvement) [8]. Older adults could have atypical features: fever, rash, and bone pain may be less common, while concurrent bacteremia, gastrointestinal bleeding, renal failure, and pleural effusion are more prevalent [9]. Consequently, WHO diagnostic criteria could be less sensitive in older people, thus leading to a delayed diagnosis [10]. Although a single study from Singapore did not find significant difference in disease outcomes including mortality between old and young patients [11], the scientific literature globally suggest that older people with dengue infection have higher risk of severe infection with a prolonged hospital stay, nosocomial infections, and increased fatality-rate [9,12,13]. Old age, diabetes, and hypertension have been identified as significant risk factors for severe dengue; moreover, a high risk of Intensive Care Unit admission with an in-hospital fatality-rate due to multi-organ failure and coagulopathy was observed in aged population [12–19]. Table 1 reports the epidemiological and clinical data of dengue in the older adults.

### 4. Immunological response and potential biomarkers for disease severity

Primary dengue infection induces serotype-specific immunity through the activation of naïve B cells, which differentiate into plasma cells producing

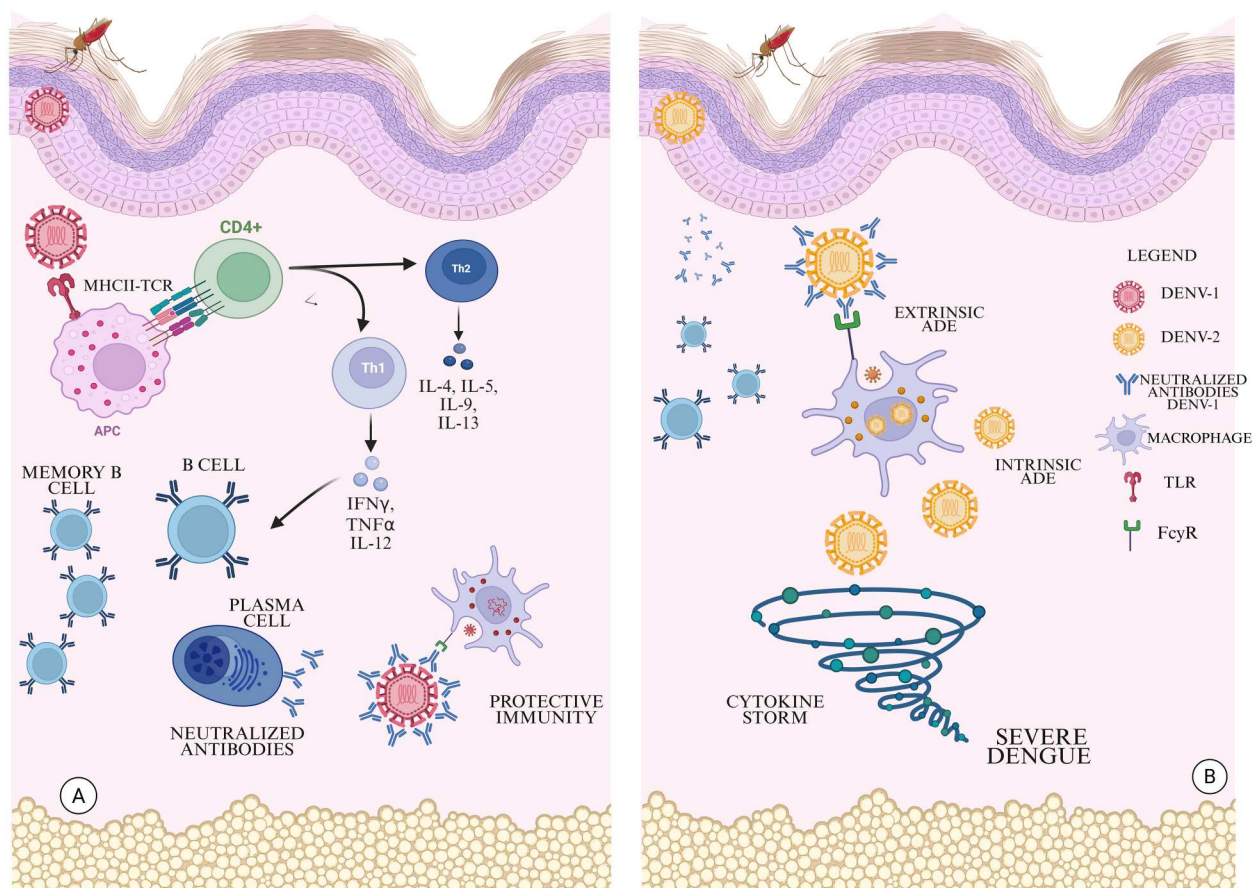
neutralizing antibodies and memory B cells [20]. Upon secondary infection with a different serotype, cross-reactive non-neutralizing antibodies are generated (original antigenic sin, or Hoskins effect), and bind the virus promoting its entry and replication, finally leading to an antibody-dependent enhancement (ADE) [21]. ADE occurs via an extrinsic mechanism, which promotes viral replication and release, and an intrinsic one, which amplifies pro-inflammatory responses and complement deposition [22]. Figure 1 summarizes the mechanism of ADE. During secondary infection, ADE facilitates immune evasion by suppressing Toll-like receptors 3 (TLR-3) and TLR-7 expression and activating negative regulators like TANK (TRAF family member-associated NF- $\kappa$ B activator) and SARM (selective androgen receptor modulator) [23]. This process upregulates interleukin-10 (IL-10), shifting the immune response toward a Th2 profile, finally impairing viral clearance [24]. At the same time, CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells antiviral activity, mediated via interferon- $\gamma$  (IFN- $\gamma$ ) and tumor-necrosis-factor- $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ), may be dysregulated as well. This favour the formation of a cytokine storm, characterized by elevated levels of pro-inflammatory markers (IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, IFN- $\gamma$ , and IL-17), contributing to severe disease: TNF- $\alpha$  is, in fact, implicated in dengue-induced thrombocytopenia, while IL-17 in kidney injury [25].

In older adults, immunosenescence and inflammaging, marked by elevated IL-6, TNF- $\alpha$ , and IL-10 and by a reduced phagocytic activity, apoptotic cell clearance, and pattern-recognition-receptor-signaling compromise both innate and adaptive immunity [26–29]. In this context, T-cell immunity is typically deranged: this in turn causes on one hand, the expression of both senescent phenotypes of naïve CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> subsets and shortened telomeres, and, on the other hand, increased pro-inflammatory cytokine production [30]. However, the age-related decline of immune system manifests in very different degree among older people. To this regard, the novel concept of ‘immunobiography’ linked to the global set of immune stimuli encountered during life aims to explain the different responses to infections and vaccines in old age [31]. Emerging evidence also challenges the idea that immunological memory is limited to adaptive immunity: innate immune cells seem to be able, in fact, of developing long-lasting, epigenetically programmed responses known as ‘trained immunity’. The dysregulation of trained immunity is also reported during aging [32]. Taken together, these phenomena may explain the typical age-related decline in immune responses, that nowadays falls under the umbrella concepts of immunosenescence and inflammaging [33]. More in detail, immunosenescence is associated to the lack of efficiency of immune response against infections typically observed during

**Table 1.** Dengue in old people: prevalence, severity and outcome.

Author, year	Country	Study design	Sample size (n)	Age	Symptoms	Disease severity in older adults	Outcomes
Lye [11]	Singapore	Retrospective	1,971	66 were aged $\geq 60$ years.	Fever, leukopenia, hemoconcentration	DHF: 6% vs 2% compared with younger patients	High risk of secondary dengue infections for patients aged $\geq 60$ years compared with younger patients (<60 years); no difference in LOS, ICU admission, mortality
Low [10]	Singapore	Prospective	250	38 were aged $\geq 56$ years.	Myalgia, arthralgia, retro-orbital pain and mucosal bleeding	SD: 20 patients	Reduced sensitivity of the WHO classification schemes in older adults even though they showed increased risks of hospitalization and SD
Rowe [9]	Singapore	Retrospective	6,989	295 (4.4%) were elderly	Elderly were more likely to have hepatomegaly and malaise/lethargy	DHF: 29.2%	The elderly were less likely to fulfil WHO 1997, but not WHO 2009 probable dengue classification.
Wang [14]	Taiwan	Retrospective	135	55 were aged $\geq 60$	Skin rash, arthralgia, headache, myalgia, retro-orbital pain, hemorrhagic manifestations, and leukopenia	SD: 20.3% DF: 22.2%	Longer LOS, more pneumonia and urinary infection High mortality
Kuo [15]	Taiwan	Retrospective	669	146 (21.8%) were aged $\geq 65$ years	Fever, myalgia, persistent vomiting, headache	DHF: 77.8% DHF: 2.7%	Older adults had lower frequency of classical dengue symptoms, yet were at higher risk of development of SD
Hsieh [17]	Taiwan	Retrospective	75	mean age 72.3 $\pm$ 9.3 years	Severe GI bleeding, ALL, shock	SD: 6.9% DWWS: 18.7%	CFR: 41.3%
Sangkaew [18]	Multicenters	Systematic review and meta-analysis	na	na	Vomiting, abdominal pain and tenderness, spontaneous or mucosal bleeding, and the presence of clinical fluid accumulation	SD: 81.3% na	Older age in adults, and female sex were demographical risk factors for progression to severe disease
Haider [19]	Worldwide (WHO's database)	Database analysis	14,127,435	na	na	na	Countries in the Southern hemisphere, aged population, and mean annual temperature were significantly associated with higher dengue-related mortality per million population

ALL: acute lung injury; CFR: case fatality-rate; CI: confidence interval; DHF: dengue hemorrhagic fever; DF: dengue fever; DWWS: dengue with warning signs; GI: gastrointestinal; ICU: Intensive Care Unit; IRR: incidence rate ratio; LOS: length of hospital stay; na: not available; SD: severe dengue; WHO: World Health Organization.



**Figure 1.** Mechanism of infection of primary dengue (A) and secondary dengue (B). In the primary infection (A), the virus antigen is recognized by antigen-presenting cells (APCs), through Toll-like receptors (TLRs). Helper T lymphocytes, after recognition of peptide fragments of antigen bound to major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II molecules presented on the surface of APCs, differentiate into Th1 and Th2. The produced cytokines stimulate the activation and maturation of B cells, leading to the formation of plasma cells, secreting specific antibodies against DENV-1, and memory B cells, which persist in the bloodstream after infection. Anti-DENV-1 antibodies can be recognized and phagocytosed by macrophages to resolve the viral infection. During secondary infection with a different serotype (B), TLR expression is inhibited. Memory antibodies, directed against the first serotype, bind the DENV-2 via Fc $\gamma$ R receptors (extrinsic ADE), without neutralizing it, a phenomenon known as the Hokin effect. Inside the cell, the virus replicates (intrinsic ADE), and its release leads to cytokine storm, evasion of the immune response and more severe illness.

aging, while inflammaging indicates an age-related low-grade sterile chronic inflammation which is now considered to be implicated in many chronic diseases. Both inflammaging and immunosenescence are probably implicated in producing short and long-term unfavorable outcomes in aged people affected by dengue. To this regard, some biomarkers of inflammaging such as CXCL5, CXCL9, CCL17, soluble ST2, and soluble CD163 are elevated in severe dengue, again underscoring a potential link between inflammaging and adverse outcomes in severe dengue older patients [34–36]. However, the available studies focused on the putative connection between age-related immunological changes and dengue infection outcomes in older people are still limited (see Table 2).

While, during dengue infection, the mechanism of inflammaging could enhance a very harmful cytokine storm, immunosenescence could exacerbate the expression of the viral receptor DC-SIGN (CD209), which is promoted by elevated levels of IL-10 [37].

IL-10, despite its anti-inflammatory role, could indeed enhance the viral entry and impair B-cell activation. In this context, age-related endothelial senescence, exacerbated by dengue-induced cytokines, contributes to plasma leakage in severe cases. Overall, the interplay between immunosenescence, ADE, and cytokine dysregulation is probably a concurrent cause of the known increased vulnerability and severity of dengue in older populations.

## 5. Clinical management of dengue in older patients: knowledge gaps, clinical challenges and future directions

### 5.1. Clinical management in the general population

The clinical management of dengue in the general population relies on careful evaluation of the warning signs, vital parameters and key laboratory values (e.g.

**Table 2.** The putative association between biomarkers of inflammaging and severe dengue.

Author, year	Study design	Sample size	Age group	Biomarker	Findings	Role of biomarkers in inflammaging
Mustafa [34]	Cohort study	1500	All ages	CXCL9	In secondary dengue infections, the serum levels of CXCL5, CXCL9, and CCL17 were significantly higher than in primary infections	CXCL9 is a mediator of chronic inflammation and cellular senescence
Hsieh [35]	Retrospective study	43	75.0 ± 12.2 years	Serum soluble ST2	Serum soluble ST2 levels increased in the elderly with DENV infection.	Serum soluble ST2 is related to chronic inflammation and oxidative stress
Sarayu Gopal [36]	Case-control study	82	31 ± 10	sCD163	sCD163 was found to be significantly higher in secondary cases compared to primary at both admission and defervescence.	Elevated sCD163 levels are associated with chronic inflammatory diseases

DENV: Dengue virus.

complete blood count, particularly hematocrit and platelet levels). Empirical intravenous fluid supplementation in patients without warning signs should generally be avoided to prevent fluid overload [8], while a careful fluid therapy is the cornerstone of supportive treatment in people with dengue complicated by hypotension. Moreover, in case of thrombocytopenia caused by dengue infection, in absence of major bleeding, prophylaxis platelet transfusion is not recommended [38]. WHO further advises against non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and corticosteroids, due to their association with bleeding risk and immunosuppression, as well as with lack of mortality benefit. Similarly, use of invasive devices is not recommended unless clinically necessary [5].

## 5.2. Clinical management in the older population

The application of these general rules is frequently challenging in older people affected by dengue due to immunosenescence, underlying comorbidities and long-term medications. Of course, the first strategy to mitigate the mortality of dengue infection in older people is limiting the spreading of the disease. To this regard, public health strategies and community-based settings, such as nursing homes, are crucial. Therefore, active surveillance protocols are needed to ensure early case identification and swift isolation and proper clinical management, mitigating the risk of clusters. In hospital setting, the management of older people with dengue forecasts the discontinuation of diuretics and antihypertensive drugs in cases of plasma leakage and/or hemodynamic instability to avoid hypotension and electrolyte disturbances; other drug-related complications can present as diuretic-induced hyponatremia and the risk of diabetic ketoacidosis and lactic acidosis in diabetic people on oral hypoglycemic agents [12,39].

### 5.2.1. Fluid management

Older patients are particularly susceptible to fluid overload, due to a reduced ability to maintain

homeostatic control, amplified by impaired renal and myocardial function. Inappropriately aggressive fluid resuscitation may precipitate pulmonary edema or decompensated heart failure. Cardiogenic shocks may account for nearly 50% of shock episodes in dengue infection, suggesting that volume expansion must be undertaken with caution. In patients with cardiac dysfunction, early use of inotrope agents (e.g. dobutamine) may be preferable to excessive fluid administration and revised fluid management protocols are needed [5]. Therefore, guided and goal-directed meticulous fluid administration is crucial, guided by non-invasive ultrasound dynamic monitoring such as echocardiography or inferior vena cava ultrasound. Similarly, beta-blocker have to be administered carefully, since they can mask compensatory tachycardia and other early shock signs [5].

### 5.2.2. Antithrombotic therapy management

Dengue causes thrombocytopenia through bone marrow suppression and platelet destruction and leads to coagulopathy due to alterations in coagulation and fibrinolysis pathways [12]. Therefore, careful evaluation of thrombotic and bleeding risks is of fundamental importance, also considering that the dangerous effects of dengue-induced thrombocytopenia may be exacerbated by chronic treatment with antithrombotic drugs (acetylsalicylic acid, clopidogrel, enoxaparin, warfarin and the direct oral anti-coagulant agents) which are often prescribed in older people [40].

Early discontinuation of antithrombotic drugs is crucial for patients with clinically significant bleeding events [41]. For dual antiplatelet therapy following coronary stenting, discontinuation is considered when thrombocytopenia decreases below  $30\text{--}50 \times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$  [42]. Real-world recommendations in case of recent percutaneous coronary intervention and acute dengue infection take into consideration: platelet count, bleeding and thrombotic risk, timing and type of coronary intervention together with severity of dengue infection. The platelet count cut-off for discontinuation of anti-coagulant therapy

was defined at  $\geq 100 \times 10^3/\text{mmc}$  in case of active bleeding, in contrast to  $50 \times 10^3/\text{mmc}$  and  $70 \times 10^3/\text{mmc}$  in patients at high and medium thrombotic risk without signs of active bleeding, respectively [42]. Similarly, four likely scenarios were identified [43]:

- (1) General population: avoid aspirin for one-week post-dengue diagnosis to reduce the risk of Reye's syndrome and the worsening of thrombocytopenia.
- (2) Patients with high thrombotic risk: continue anti-platelet therapy (aspirin and/or clopidogrel), monitoring the platelet counts, and switch temporarily from warfarin to heparin.
- (3) Patients with low thrombotic risk: stop aspirin when platelet counts fall below  $30\text{--}50 \times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$ , and pause clopidogrel or warfarin for one-week, depending on platelet decline and bleeding risk.
- (4) Severe dengue: immediately discontinue all antithrombotic medications.

However, current evidence is limited and conflicting. In a retrospective cohort study, discontinuation of antithrombotic drugs did not increase cardiac/cerebrovascular events or mortality, while their continuation in selected cases did not increase bleeding or transfusion risks, suggesting that therapeutic approaches should be guided by clinical judgment [44]. Figure 2 shows a suggested flow-chart for management of anti-coagulants in dengue.

## 6. New perspectives

### 6.1. Immunomodulators (with human trial data)

Immunomodulatory agents (e.g. dexamethasone/tocilizumab), successfully used during the COVID-19 pandemic or other viral outbreaks, represented an innovative therapeutic strategy in the clinical management of severe dengue [45]. The anti-inflammatory potential of targeting the interleukin-1 receptor (IL1R) with the IL-1-antagonist anakinra, as well as the inhibition of Janus-kinase (JAK) baricitinib has been considered [46], even though no evidence of use in dengue has been reported yet. To date, a single randomized double-blind placebo-controlled phase II clinical trial (AnaDen trial, NCT05611710) on the use of a 4-day course anakinra is currently ongoing in Vietnam [47].

In the absence of licensed direct-acting antiviral therapies for dengue, several repurposed and investigational compounds have attracted attention due to their mechanisms of action and encouraging preclinical 'in vitro' and 'in vivo' data [48]:

- Chloroquine, showed antiviral activity against DENV serotype-2.

- Lovastatin, showed an inhibitory activity on DENV. However, a randomized controlled trial in Vietnamese adults failed to demonstrate significant clinical benefits [49].
- Ivermectin, nitazoxanide, quinine, minocycline, trifluoperazine, N-acetyl cysteine, valproic acid, resveratrol, and paracetamol have shown variable degrees of antiviral or anti-inflammatory activity in laboratory studies, but clinical evidence remains limited.
- Further studies are needed to better explore the potential role of immunomodulatory drugs in dengue infection, especially in older population.

### 6.2. Antivirals (preclinical/clinical status)

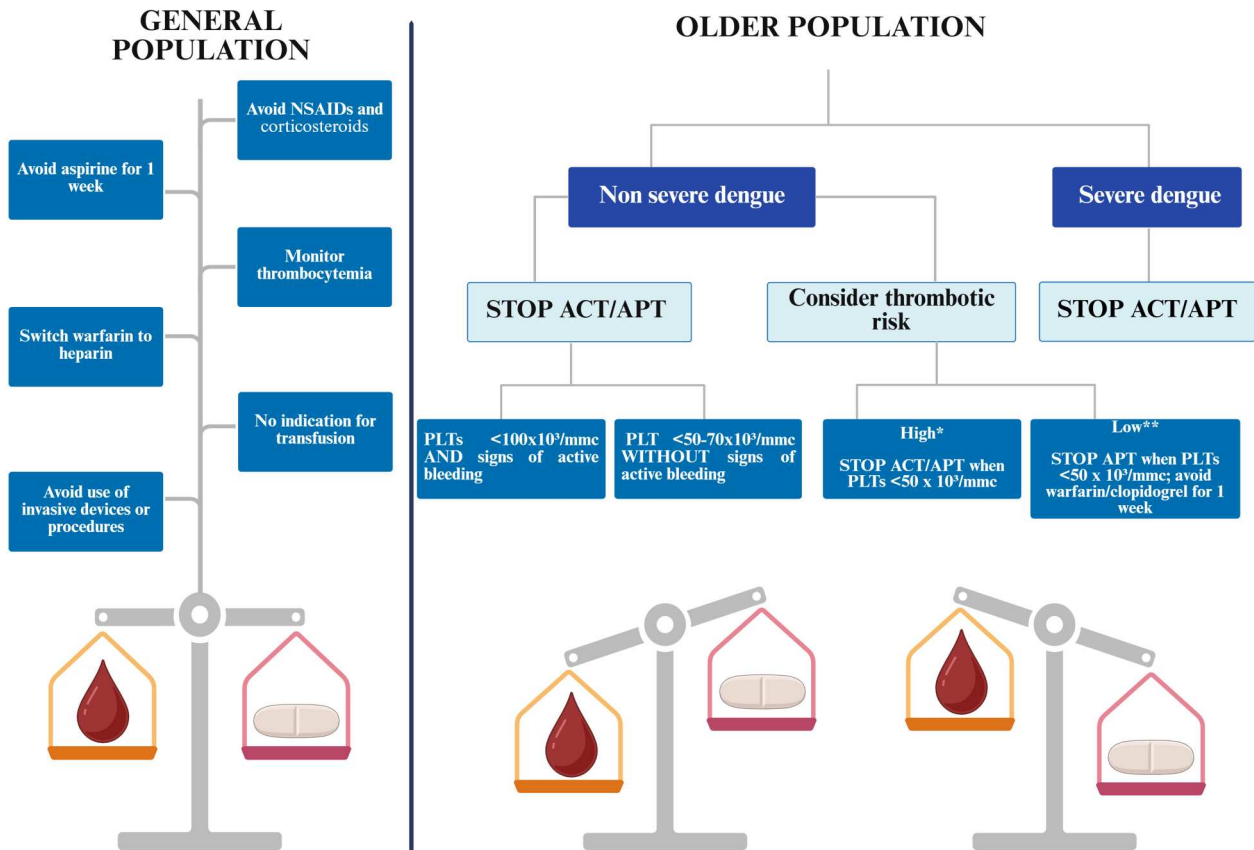
Two novel antivirals targeting specific DENV proteins have been evaluated, JNJ-A07 and its analogue JNJ-64281802: they interfere with the virus's replication, inhibiting the interaction between non-structural proteins NS4B and NS3, critical for the formation of viral replication complexes [50]. Both JNJ-A07 and JNJ-64281802 were initially being evaluated in a Phase 2 study for the prevention of dengue in adults. However, despite no safety concerns have been reported, in October 2024 the trials were interrupted [51]. Similarly, the Double Prodrug of a Guanosine Nucleotide Analog AT-752, an oral candidate drug against DENV serotypes 2 and 3, showed promising results in preclinical and early clinical studies. A phase II study was initiated but terminated prematurely [52].

### 6.3. Monoclonal antibodies/nanobodies

Recently, the interest in the use of antibody-based immunotherapy as a treatment for dengue infection has increased: the human monoclonal antibodies 9C7 and VIS513 have demonstrated neutralizing activity against all DENV serotypes in preclinical models and early-phase human studies [53]. These antibodies are engineered to minimize the risk of ADE: early clinical data have shown acceptable safety profiles, and VIS513 has progressed to phase II clinical trials [54,55].

Furthermore, nanobodies (Nbs) could represent a promising tool in dengue: consisting on the variable fragment of heavy-chain-only antibodies, they are the smallest functional antigen-binding fragments, able to bind specifically and with high affinity to target antigens. Their small size, high stability, feasibility to be produced in bacteria and yeast, and easy adaptability are other advantages. Nbs have shown potential in targeting conserved quaternary epitopes on the DENV capsid or envelope proteins, thereby providing cross-serotype protection and reducing ADE risk. Their compact structure allows them to access cryptic

## ANTI-THROMBOTIC MANAGEMENT IN DENGUE



**Figure 2.** Suggested management of antiplatelet and anti-coagulant treatment in dengue infection. \*High thrombotic risk: percutaneous coronary intervention occurred within the past 6 months; mechanical valvular prostheses; persistent atrial fibrillation associated with other multiple thrombotic risk factors (e.g. ventricular dysfunction, old age, intraventricular thrombus, diabetes, hypertension). \*\*Low thrombotic risk: stable coronary artery disease; stent  $> 6$  months old; persistent atrial fibrillation without other thrombotic risk factors; bioprosthetic valves. NSAIDs = non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs. ACT = anti-coagulant therapy. APT = antiplatelets therapy. PLTs = platelets.

viral epitopes that are less accessible to conventional antibodies, which may enhance antiviral potency and provide an adaptable platform for future therapeutic development [56].

## 7. Dengue vaccines

To date, two recombinants, live attenuated, and tetravalent vaccines have been approved for dengue infection: Dengvaxia<sup>®</sup> (CYD-TDV) and Qdenga<sup>®</sup> (TAK003) [57,58].

Dengvaxia<sup>®</sup> has a modified yellow-fever 17D-vaccine backbone engineered to express DENV structural prM and E proteins of the four Dengue Virus serotypes. Recommendations are for individuals 6–45 years-old with laboratory-confirmed prior dengue infection [57].

Qdenga<sup>®</sup> employs an attenuated DENV-2 backbone into which protein M and E gene coding regions from DENV-1, DENV-3, and DENV-4 are inserted. Approval is for individuals  $\geq 6$  years-old, irrespectively of previous DENV exposure. Clinical trials have demonstrated broad protection though

serotype-specific and age-stratified efficacy varies [58].

Notably significant evidence gaps remain regarding vaccine safety, immunogenicity, and efficacy in older adults, who have been underrepresented in clinical trials. Preliminary safety data on Qdenga<sup>®</sup> in older people were provided by a multicentric study in Germany: population between 60 and up to 84 years-old (15% of the cohort) exhibited a reduced occurrence of adverse events at first dose compared to other groups (40% vs. 59% at first dose, and 15% vs. 37% at second dose) [59]. However, its efficacy in individuals over 60 years of age has not yet been evaluated. A phase 3, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled (older adults, aged  $> 60-79$  years) and open-label (adults, aged 45–60 years), multicenter trial to investigate the safety and immunogenicity of the vaccine in old people has been registered to clinical trials [60]. Finally, there are two other new tetravalent and live attenuated vaccines in the future pipeline: TV003/Butantan-DV<sup>®</sup>, and TV005, both have shown promising results from Phase III studies as potential single-dose vaccines [61,62].

**Table 3.** Vaccines.

Vaccine name	CYD-TDV [57]	TAK-003 [58]	TV-003 [61]	TV-005 [62]
Type of Vaccine	Recombinant, live attenuated, tetravalent	Recombinant, live attenuated, tetravalent	Recombinant, live attenuated, tetravalent	Recombinant, live attenuated, tetravalent
Backbone	Yellow-fever Virus	DENV-2	DENV 1–4	DENV 1–4
Number of doses	3	2	1	1
Age of approval	6–45 years-old	WHO: from 6 years of age EMA: from 4 years of age ANVISA: 4–60 years of age	18–59 years-old	1–50 years-old
Serostatus of approval	Positive	Positive/negative	Positive/negative	Positive/negative
Commercial status	Discontinued	Currently available, WHO prequalified; manufacturer will start a phase 3 trial in adults >60 years-old	Awaiting for approval; phase 3 completed	Phase 2 trial
Year of 1st approval	2015	2018	–	–
Safety and efficacy data in older adults	Absent in regulatory trial	Absent in regulatory trial	Absent in regulatory trial	Absent in regulatory trial

ANVISA: Agência Nacional de Vigilância Sanitária; DENV: Dengue virus; EMA: European Medicines Agency; WHO: World Health Organization.

The main characteristics of the DENV vaccines are listed in [Table 3](#).

## 8. Conclusions

The rising incidence of dengue infections in the older population is a significant concern, as it has been reported to be associated with a higher rate of severe disease and increased mortality. Furthermore, inflammaging and immunosenescence mechanisms may both exacerbate disease severity and potentially reduce the effectiveness of vaccine responses in the elderly. Although the precise relationship between inflammaging biomarkers and dengue severity remains unclear, preliminary data suggest that certain age-related inflammatory markers may prove valuable for the diagnosis and prognosis of dengue in older patients.

Relevant gaps of knowledge are still present also regarding the epidemiology of dengue infections in older people at global level.

The current clinical evidence concerning dengue in older adults is indeed largely derived from cohort studies in Southeast Asia. While these data highlight the increased severity and hospitalization risks, significant data gaps exist for other highly endemic regions such as Central and South America, limiting a comprehensive understanding of how varying dengue serotype distribution, local healthcare infrastructure, and specific regional co-morbidity profiles may influence clinical outcomes and mortality rates in the older population globally.

In this scenario, population aging places additional pressure on dengue control systems. Older adults often present atypical or muted symptoms, leading to delayed diagnosis and under-reporting reducing the effectiveness of surveillance systems. Therefore, dengue control systems must adapt by integrating geriatric risk-assessment tools, tailored early-warning indicators, and targeted prevention strategies. In this framework, vaccination may play an important role within an integrated strategy to reduce disease severity

in frail individuals; however, robust clinical efficacy and safety data in older adults are still lacking.

As a narrative review, the present manuscript is inherently susceptible to selection bias, as the included studies were chosen primarily for their relevance to the topic rather than through a rigorous systematic methodology. A further major limitation is the scarcity of real-life data and clinical trials focusing on dengue infection in the older population. Specifically, evidence on the management of underlying conditions and medications use, particularly antithrombotic drugs, during acute dengue infection in the older people is limited and sometimes conflicting, requiring clinicians to rely heavily on individual clinical judgement. Likewise, evidence concerning the safety and immunogenicity of dengue vaccines in this age group remains insufficient. In conclusion, existing dengue guidelines do not provide age-specific recommendations for diagnosis, clinical monitoring, or treatment in older adults. Most frameworks focus on the general population and fail to address issues such as management of antithrombotic medications, handling of comorbidities, or geriatric-specific risk markers for severe disease. There is a clear need for evidence-based, geriatric-specific recommendations that integrate data on inflammation, immunosenescence, frailty, multimorbidity, and real-world care challenges. Additional research and future large multicentric clinical studies specifically focused on older people with dengue, also integrating the assessment of inflammaging, immunosenescence and endothelial dysfunction biomarkers, could fulfil the current gap of knowledge and address the specific challenges in this demographic setting.

## Author contributions

Conceptualization: AB, LB, EN. Writing – Original Draft Preparation: AB, LP, MP. Writing – Review & Editing: ADA, AB, LB, MEG, EN, LP, LS. Visualization: LP, MP. Supervision: FL, EG, FO. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

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