# Extremes and data assimilation in epidemiology:

two influenza case studies

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## Influenza epidemics

- 1) Short term (morbidity data):
  - data assimilation by particle filtering
- 2) Long term (mortality data):
  - extreme value analysis of epidemics

## Outline: Particle filtering

- Particle filter
- 2 Influenza-like-illness data
- 3 Susceptible-Infected-Removed model
- Application to French ILI data
- Conclusion

## Particle Filters

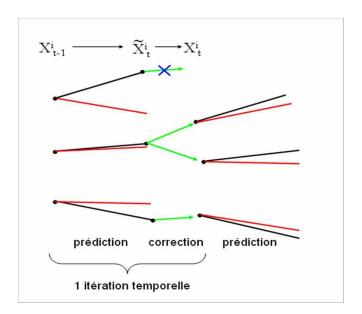
The different Kalman filters involve a Gaussian distribution. assumption — at least for the update. This not the case for particle filters.

 In particle filters the update step is based on sequential importance resampling.

Particle filter



## Sequential importance resampling



# Influenza epidemics

- Influenza infects from 5% to 20% of the population during an epidemic.
- Inserm Sentinelles network: 1200 general practitioners reporting once a week.
- The conditions leading to an outbreak are not well understood.
- Early detection of an epidemic could limit its impact.

## Data: reported cases by general practitioners

- No virological analysis: diagnostic of influenza-like illness (ILI).
- Many infected people do not consult (~ 50%).
- Irregular logging in by doctors: absence of cases is not reported, accumulation of cases, etc.
  - ⇒ need for data pre-processing.

## Stochastic epidemiological model

Susceptible: the people free from the disease and without specific immunity,

Infected: the people infected by the virus and who are still infectious.

Removed: the people who have recovered from their illness, are no longer infectious and are immunized.

 SIR model: a partition (varying with time) of the total population (which is assumed constant),

$$N(\mathbf{x}) = S_t(\mathbf{x}) + I_t(\mathbf{x}) + R_t(\mathbf{x})$$

where  $\mathbf{x}$  is location in geographical space.

## Epidemic state: a hidden Markov chain

- Two epidemic states:  $Y_t \in \{1, 2\}$
- Transition probabilities:  $P(Y_t = j \mid Y_{t-1} = i) = P_{ii}$
- Contamination probabilities for S-I contact:  $\tau_t \in \tau_1, \tau_2$  (change of dynamics during epidemics)

## Regionalized SIR model

- The new cases in a region x result from contacts between susceptibles at x and infectives from all regions x'.
- Each susceptible avoids contamination during a time interval with probability:

$$q(\mathbf{x},t) = \prod_{\mathbf{x}'} \left(1 - \tau_t \frac{I_t(\mathbf{x}')}{N(\mathbf{x}')}\right)^{a_t(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')}$$

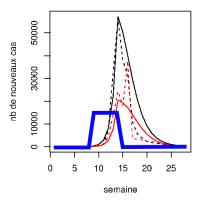
where  $a_t(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$  is the contact rate, known from the population fluxes.

• Number of new **infectives** at  $\mathbf{x}$ : binomial with parameters  $S(\mathbf{x})$  and  $1 - q(\mathbf{x}, t)$ .

## Regionalized SIR model

- Sharp increase of the probability of contamination during epidemic episodes, modeled **for each region**:  $\tau_t(\mathbf{x})$
- Infected  $I_t(\mathbf{x})$  split according to time since infection:  $I_t^0(\mathbf{x}), ..., I_t^6(\mathbf{x})$
- **Recovery** probability for each category at a time step is:  $p_{rec}^k$ ;  $k = 1, \dots, 7$  with  $p_{rec}^7 = 1$  (since infection cannot last more than 7 days).
- Relation between **declarations** and the **epidemic state**: the number of declarations in  $\mathbf{x}$  is conditionally binomial, with parameters  $S_{t-1}(\mathbf{x}) S_t(\mathbf{x})$  and  $p_{decl}(\mathbf{x})$
- Population fluxes: described using an origin-destination matrix based on a gravitational model (in analogy with Newton's laws).

## Early detection problem

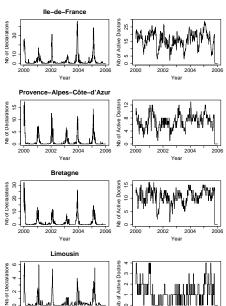


Reported cases: ■ Paris (75) ■ Hauts de Seine (92)

Epidemic state: common to both departements



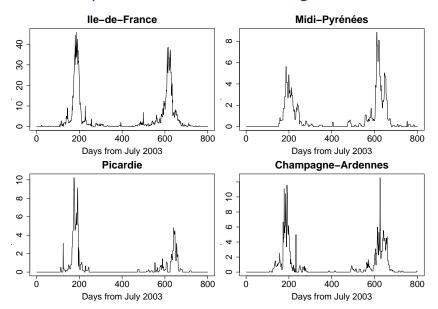
## Sentinelles data (example)



Reported cases / week (left column)

Active doctors / week (right column)

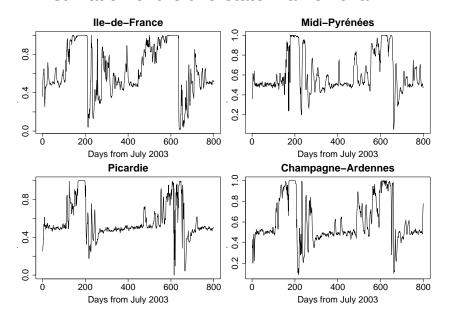
## Reported cases of ILI: 4 regions



Assimilation of 2003-2005 data



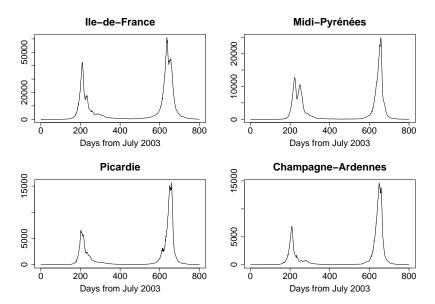
### Estimation of the two-state Markov chain



Assimilation of 2003-2005 data



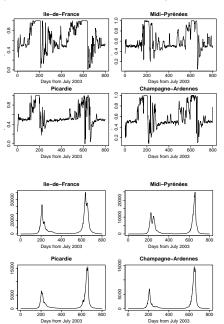
## Estimation of the number of infected individuals



Assimilation of 2003-2005 data



## Early detection of the epidemics...



### Conclusion

- The particle filter is an efficient tool for the early detection of a change in epidemic state.
- Improvements are needed in the underlying SIR model and its parameterization.
- An important side-product of the system is that it provides an estimate of the total number of infected people at a given time for a given region.
- As a scenario simulator it can also provide an error estimate in the assessment of the severeness of an epidemy.

## Perspectives I

#### Inclusion of climate parameters. Alternative filters

Knowing that a virus is likely to be already present at the beginning of a winter period:

- there is a need to characterize the meteorological configurations leading to an outbreak on the basis of the 23 years of available weekly Sentinelles data,
- relevant climatic parameters could be included into the epidemics' early detection system.

As the dimensionality of the system grows, the particle filter is in danger of becoming impracticable. Alternatives can be:

- the Ensemble Kalman Filter,
- the Marginalized Particle Filter (for mixed linear/non-linear state space models).



## Perspectives II

Other diseases

The system can easily be adapted to handle other diseases than influenza:

- gastro-enteritis, chickenpox (also monitored by Sentinelles)
- bacterial meningitis
   (sub-sahelian zone: meningitis belt; China)
- . . .

## Influenza epidemics

1) Short term: data assimilation by particle filtering

- 2) Long term (mortality data):
  - extreme value analysis of epidemics

# Extreme value analysis of US P&I mortality data

## under consideration of demographic effects

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Equipe de Géostatistique — MINES ParisTech
(with input from: Fabrice CARRAT, Magali LEMAITRE, Mark WILSON)





#### Motivation

- Epidemiology is intimately linked to demography.
- Studying epidemics at the scale of several decades requires a detailed analysis of the evolution of the age distribution in the same period.
- E.g. above 20 years old the P&I mortality increases exponentially with age.

### **Outline**

6 Demography

P&I mortality data

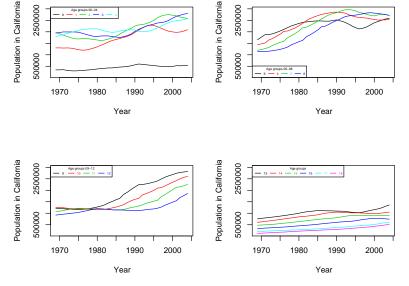
8 Conclusion and perspectives

- We consider the four most populated states of the United States.
- Population is subdivided into 19 age-groups.
- We consider the evolution between the 10-year censuses since 1970.
- We finally compute the average age for people 65 and older in each year.

# Population: 19 age groups

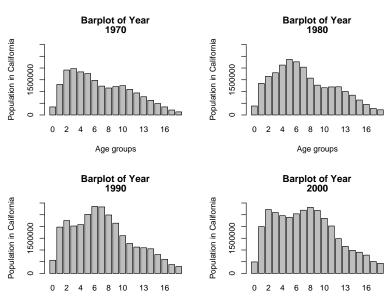
```
00 = 0 years
01 = 1-4 \text{ years}
02 = 5-9 \text{ years}
03 = 10-14 \text{ years}
04 = 15-19 \text{ years}
14 = 65-69 \text{ years}
15 = 70-74 years
16 = 75-79 \text{ years}
17 = 80-84 \text{ years}
18 = 85 years and older
```

## California population: age-group evolution



# California population by age-groups

Evolution over 4 decades

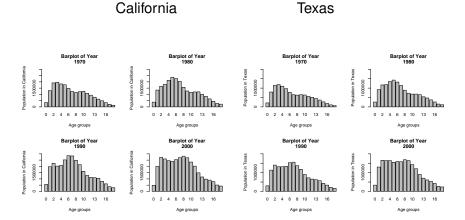


Age groups



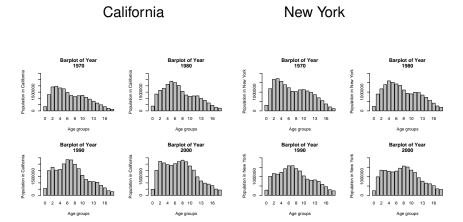
## Comparing California and Texas

Population evolution over 4 decades



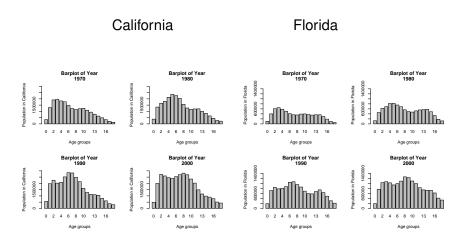
## Comparing California and New York

Population evolution over 4 decades

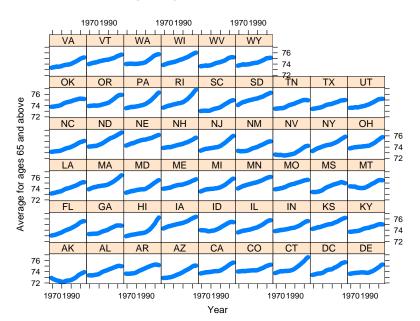


## Comparison between California and Florida

Population evolution over 4 decades



## Average age for 65 and above



## Mortality data

#### P&I proportion of total mortality

- Proportion of deaths due to Pneumonia & Influenza among the total mortality in the age group.
- The age-group analysed consists of people of age 65 and above.
- The block maxima of P&I mortality are taken in each July-June period.
- We need to take account of the effect of aging of the US
- In the non-stationary model we will thus use the

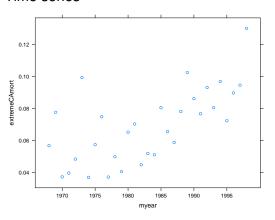
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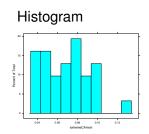
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- The block maxima of P&I mortality are taken in each July-June period.
- We need to take account of the effect of aging of the US population over the last decades.
- In the non-stationary model we will thus use the average-age above 65 as covariate.

## California: maxima of P&I mortality

#### Time series





## Motivation: extreme value analysis

## Frequency and intensity of extremes Return period:

- how likely is the advent of an unusual weather event of a given type within the next decade/century?
- what about a major epidemic?

#### Return level:

- what level could the event reach as compared to past events?
- Extreme value analysis
   A rationale to compute the probability and level of events within and beyond the range of past measurements.

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## Modeling extreme influenza epidemics

- As there is only one epidemic per year we use the block maxima approach.
- Non-stationarity in the location and scale parameters of the generalized extreme value distribution (GEV) will be considered.

### Generalized Extreme Value distribution

The **generalized extreme value distribution** (family):

$$G(x) = \exp\left(-\left[1 + \xi\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)\right]^{-1/\xi}\right)$$

defined on  $\{x : 1 + \xi(x - \mu)/\sigma > 0\}.$ 

 $\mu$ : location parameter

 $\sigma$ : scale parameter

 $\xi$ : shape parameter determines the rate of decay in the tail.

#### Fact

The case  $\xi = 0$  corresponds to the Gumbel distribution (which has no shape parameter).



#### Domains of attraction

Gumbel domain ( $\xi=0$ ): The distribution of maxima of exponential, normal, lognormal, logistic, gamma distributed variables tends asymptotically to a Gumbel distribution.

Fréchet domain ( $\xi > 0$ ): Asymptotic distribution for maxima of Pareto, Cauchy, t, F distributed variables. . .

Weibull domain ( $\xi$  < 0): Asymptotic distribution for maxima of uniform, beta, Burr distributed variables. . .

#### Extreme value paradigm

The extreme value paradigm consists in modeling the tails of a distribution F using asymptotically motivated distributions G of the maxima. It is actually not necessary to know F, the distribution of the complete data set.

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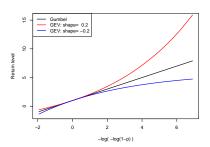
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### Return level plot

- Return period: mean waiting time between two extreme events.
- Return level: the level associated with a return period.

### Example

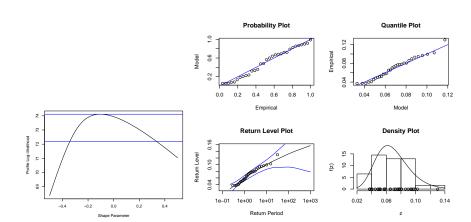
A centenary flood is a flood expected to occur only once in a century.



## GEV fit to California P&I mortality

Profile likelihood for  $\xi$ 

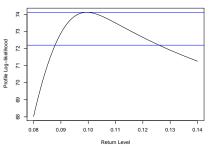
#### Diagnostic plots

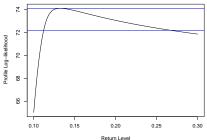


### Profile likelihood for return levels

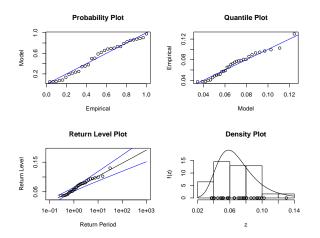
10-year return level

100-year return level





# Gumbel model for California P&I mortality



- Considering  $\xi = 0$  provides also a good fit.
- The confidence intervals for the return levels are much narrower! (Parsimonious model: one parameter less!)



# Non-stationary extreme value modeling

Introducing covariates: year as well as average-age above 65

Model 1: linear trend for location parameter.

Model 2: linear trend for **location parameter** and exponential trend for **scale parameter**.

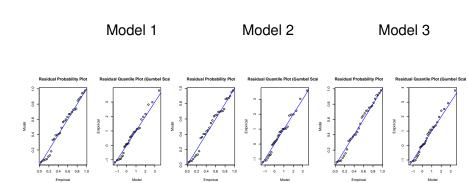
Model 3: linear trend and linear dependence on average-age for **location parameter**.

# Summary table: California non-stationary fit

	Model 1: μ depends	Model 2:σ depends exponentially on year	Model 3: Linear dependence of $\mu$ on year and average age
Calculated Maximum likelihood estimates	$\mu = 0.06 + 0.19 \cdot year$ $\sigma = 0.01$ $\xi = 0.1$	$\mu = 0.06 + 0.2 \cdot year$ $\sigma = \exp(-4.4 + 1.1 \cdot year)$ $\xi = 0.2$	$\mu = \\ -1.66 + 0.1 \cdot year - 0.02 \cdot age$ $\sigma = 0.01$ $\xi = 0.08$
Negative log-likelihood	-84.9	-84.2	-85.4
Deviance from GEV model	D <sub>1</sub> =2{84.9-74.1} =21.6	D <sub>2</sub> =2{84.2-74.1} =20.2	D <sub>3</sub> =2{85.4-74.1} =22.6

## Residual diagnostic plots for California

The 3 non-stationary models



## Conclusion: non-stationary model

- California P&I mortality is best fitted with the non-stationary GEV Model 2:
  - location parameter  $\mu$  depends linearly on time,
  - scale parameter  $\sigma$  depends exponentially on time.
- That model seems to provide better results than the inclusion of average-age > 65 as covariate.

# Perspectives

This *preliminary study* is now being improved for the following aspects:

- Use P&I mortality rate (instead of P&I proportion of total mortality).
- Consider several P&I mortality age-groups above 65.
- Duplicate study in France.
- Go back until 1945 to include the 1957 (asian flu) epidemic.
- Consider a spatially non-stationary model.

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