



UCL

Our journey in digital epidemiology: modelling infectious diseases using online search activity

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Presentation structure

A. Estimating flu prevalence using web search activity

- ▶ Lamos, Miller, Crossan, Stefansen (2015). *Advances in nowcasting influenza-like illness rates using search query logs*. Scientific Reports 5 (12760). [doi:10.1038/srep12760](https://doi.org/10.1038/srep12760)
- ▶ Lamos, Zou, Cox (2017). *Enhancing feature selection using word embeddings: The case of flu surveillance*. Web Conference (WWW). [doi:10.1145/3038912.3052622](https://doi.org/10.1145/3038912.3052622)

B. Transferring a disease model from one country to another using web search activity

- ▶ Zou, Lamos, Cox (2019). *Transfer learning for unsupervised influenza-like illness models from online search data*. Web Conference (WWW). [doi:10.1145/3308558.3313477](https://doi.org/10.1145/3308558.3313477)

C. Modelling COVID-19 prevalence using web search activity

- ▶ Lamos et al. (2021). *Tracking COVID-19 using online search*. npj Digital Medicine 4 (17). [doi:10.1038/s41746-021-00384-w](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41746-021-00384-w)

D. Advanced models (*neural network architectures*) for disease prevalence forecasting

- ▶ Morris, Hayes, Cox, Lamos (2023). *Neural network models for influenza forecasting with associated uncertainty using Web search activity trends*. PLOS Computational Biology 19 (8). doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1011392
- ▶ Shu, Lamos (2024). *DEFORMTIME: Capturing variable dependencies with deformable attention for time series forecasting*. arXiv Preprint. doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.2406.07438

Part A

Estimating flu prevalence using web search activity

Lamos et al. (2015), *Sci. Rep.*

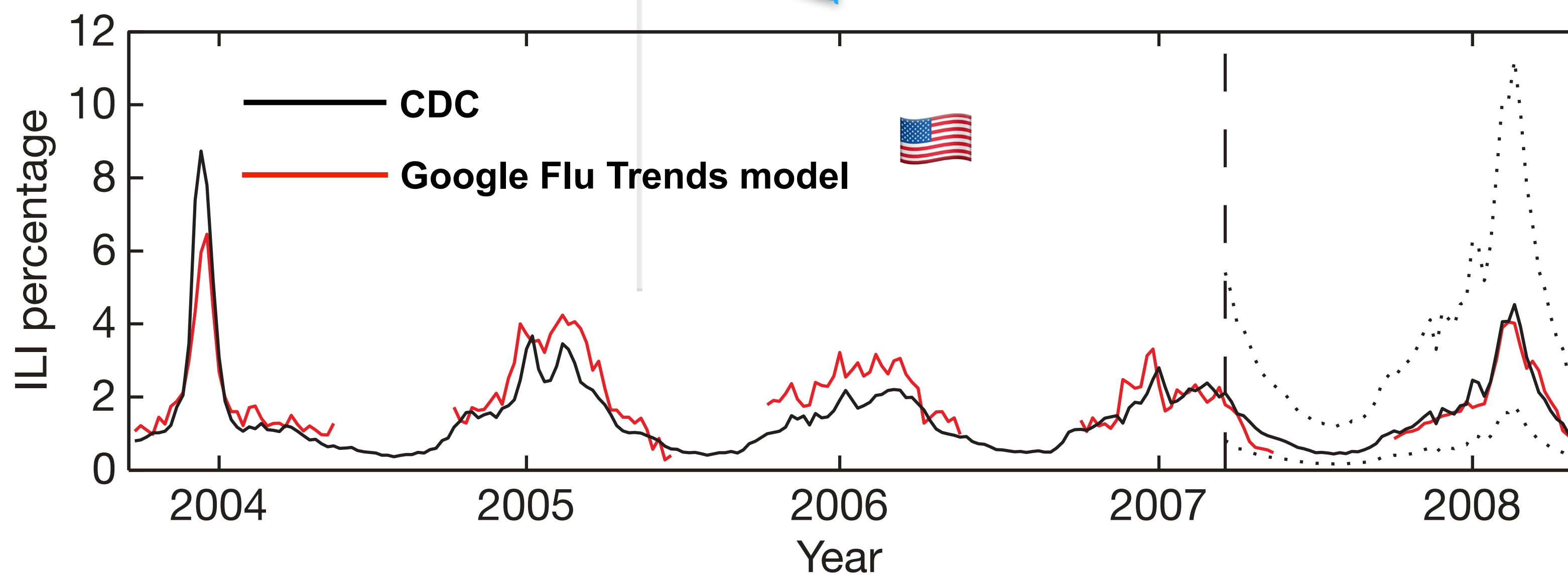
Lamos, Zou, Cox (2017), *WWW '17*

From web searches to influenza (*flu*) rates



flu treatment

- flu treatment
- flu treatment **kids**
- flu treatment **otc**
- flu treatment **natural**
- flu treatment **medication**
- flu treatment **toddler**



Eysenbach (2006), *AMIA*; Polgreen *et al.* (2008), *Clin. Infect. Dis.*; Ginsberg *et al.* (2009), *Nature*

Why estimate disease rates from web search?

- Complements conventional syndromic surveillance systems
 - ▶ larger *cohort*
 - ▶ broader *demographic coverage*
 - ▶ more granular *geographic coverage*
 - ▶ not affected by *closure days* (weekends, holidays)
 - ▶ *timeliness*
 - ▶ *lower cost*
- Applicable to locations that lack an established health surveillance infrastructure
- Track novel infectious diseases

Conventional (*traditional*) syndromic surveillance methods: disease prevalence, i.e. the % of infected people in a population, is determined via doctor (GP) visits and other related indicators, such as laboratory-confirmed infections, associated hospitalisations or deaths.

Wagner et al. (2018), Sci. Rep.; Budd et al. (2020), Nat. Med.

Google Flu Trends (GFT) — *discontinued*

google.org Flu Trends

Language: English (United States) ▾

[Google.org home](#)

[Dengue Trends](#)

Flu Trends

Home

Select country/region ▾

[How does this work?](#)

[FAQ](#)

Flu activity

Intense

High

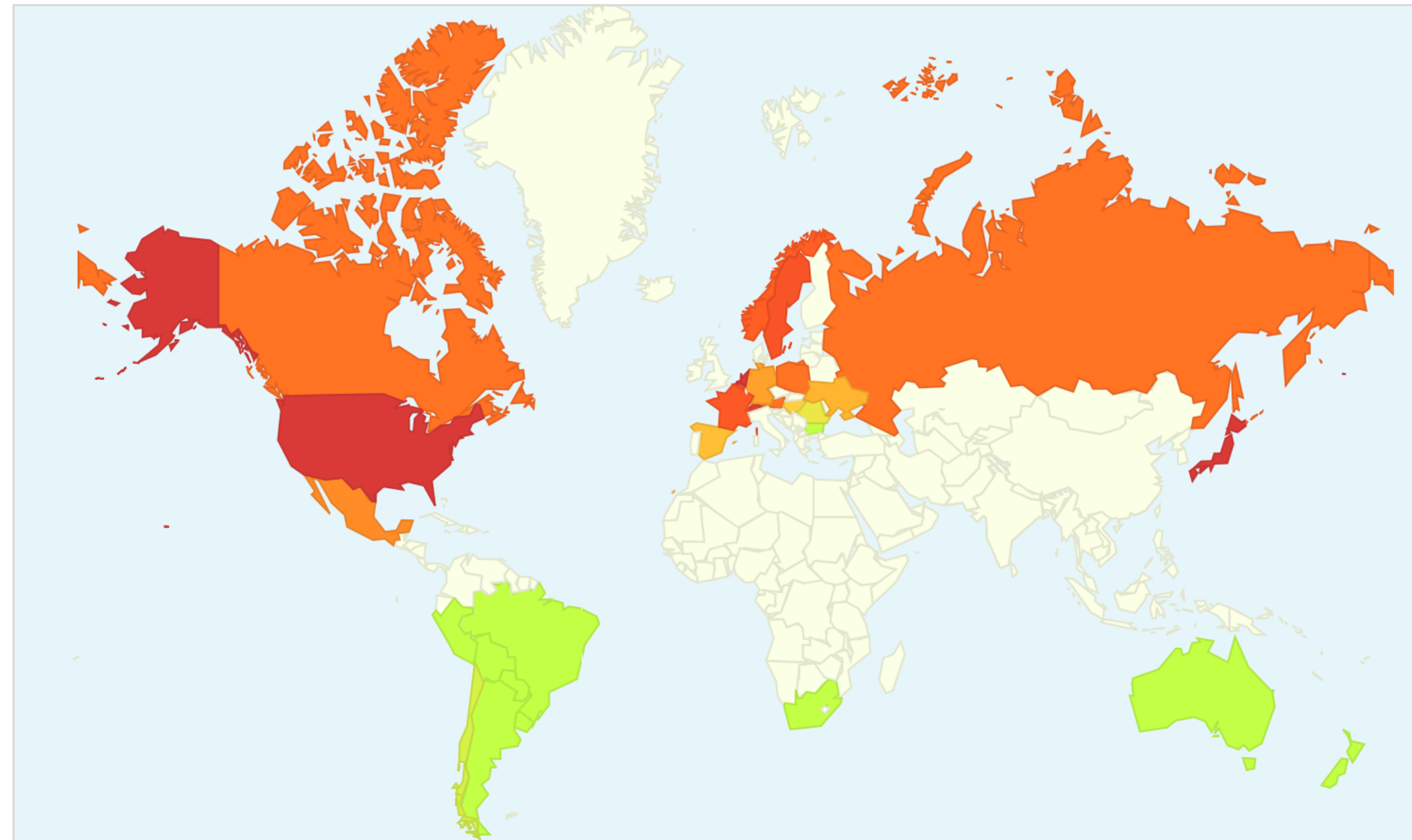
Moderate

Low

Minimal

Explore flu trends around the world

We've found that certain search terms are good indicators of flu activity. Google Flu Trends uses aggregated Google search data to estimate flu activity. [Learn more »](#)



Ginsberg *et al.* (2009), *Nature*

$$\text{logit}(P) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{logit}(Q) + \epsilon$$

$$\text{logit}(x) = \ln\left(\frac{x}{1-x}\right)$$

where $x \in (0,1)$

P : percentage of doctor visits due to influenza-like illness (ILI)

Q : aggregate frequency of a set of automatically selected search queries related to ILI

β_0 : regression intercept (bias)

β_1 : regression weight (univariate regression)

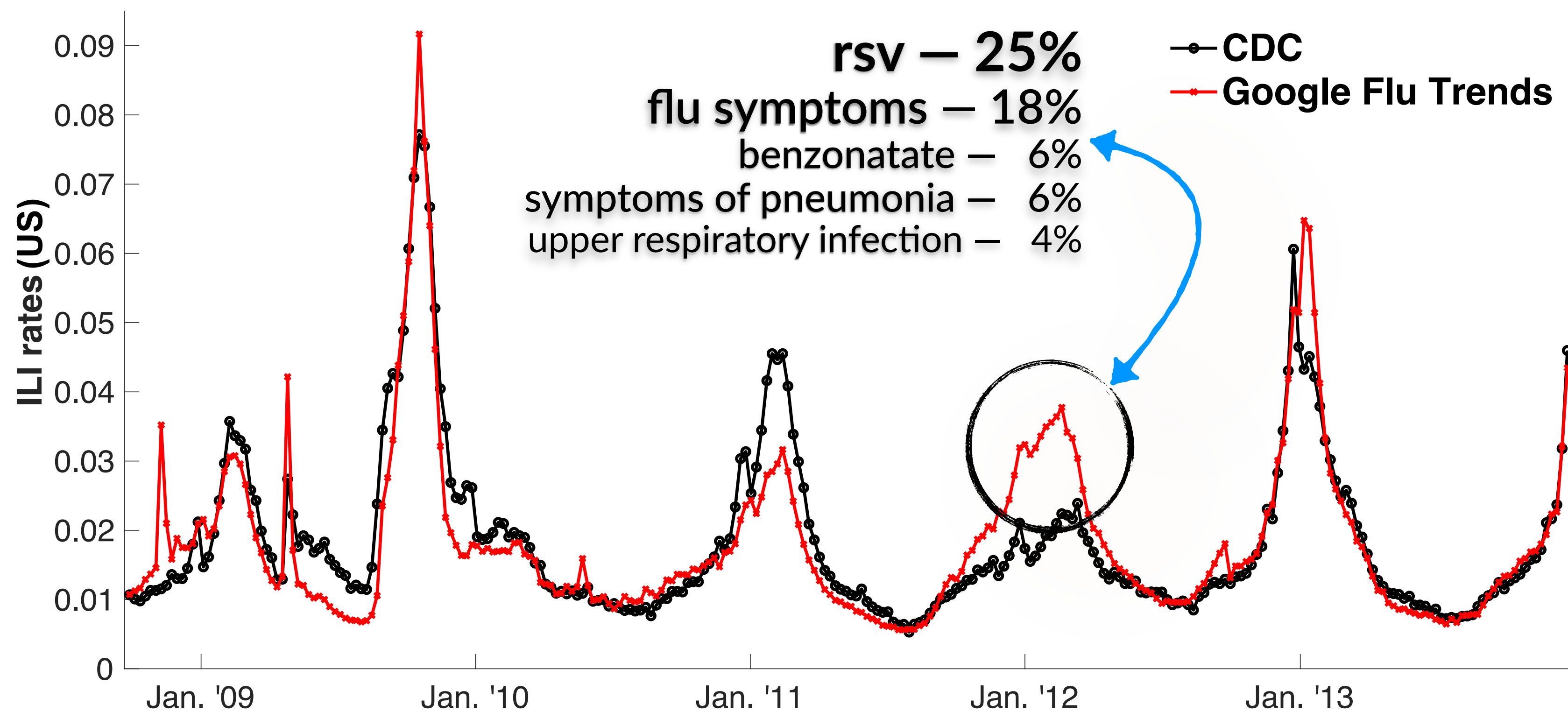
ϵ : independent, zero-centered noise

Ginsberg *et al.* (2009), *Nature*

Main issue

What if some of the selected queries are spurious or, in general, relate differently to flu rates compared to other selected search queries? This model makes a very naïve assumption.

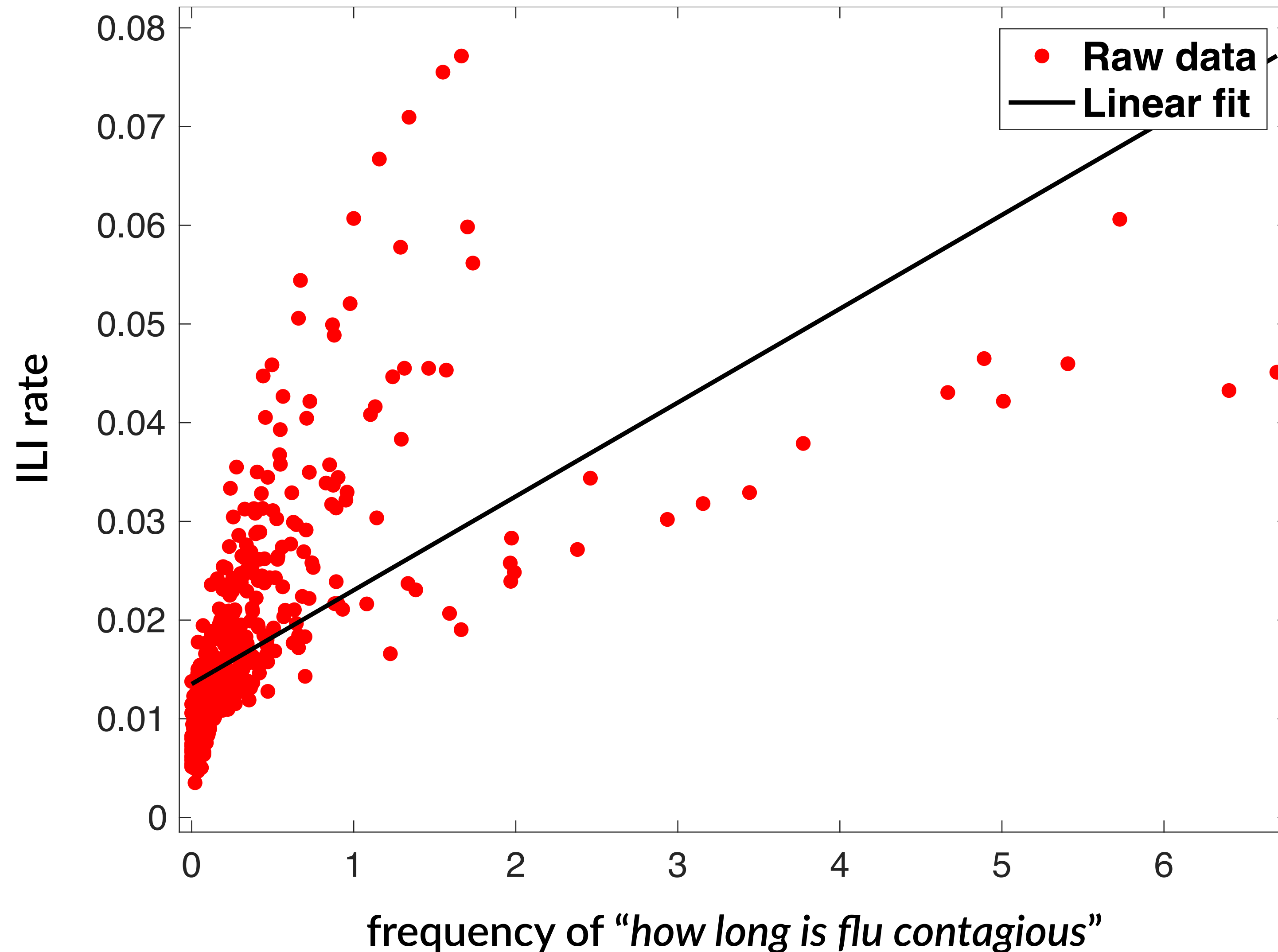
Google Flu Trends (GFT) – *shortcomings*



Lampos *et al.* (2015), *Sci. Rep.*

In the original paper (Ginsberg *et al.*, 2009), the GFT model was “evaluated” on just ~1 flu season! **More thorough evaluation is required!**

Web search frequencies & flu rates: a *nonlinear* relationship



- ▶ Not all search queries have a linear relationship with flu rates
- ▶ Not all queries relate to flu rates in the same way either
- ▶ The same query may also have a bi-modal relationship which may fluctuate in time
- ▶ Very hard to model this using a single weight!

Lamos et al. (2015), *Sci. Rep.*

Estimating disease rates with multivariable regression – Task definition

Search query frequency time series

$\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{n \times m}$ where n is the number of time steps / samples (days or weeks)
and m is the number of search queries / variables ($m > 1000$)

$$x_{ij} \in \mathbf{X} = \frac{\text{number of times query } j \text{ is issued during time step } i}{\text{total number of searches during time step } i}$$

Disease rates

$\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^n$ where n is the number of time steps (days or weeks)

Regression task

$f: \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{y}$ linear case: $f = \{ \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \beta \in \mathbb{R} \}$
 $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_t = \mathbf{X}_t \mathbf{w} + \beta$ assuming $\mathbf{X}_t \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times m}$ holds k unseen test samples

Multivariate Gaussian Process (GP) kernels on search query clusters

Composite Gaussian Process (GP) kernel

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \left(\sum_{i=1}^C k_{\text{SE}}(\mathbf{c}_i, \mathbf{c}'_i) \right) + \sigma_n^2 \cdot \delta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$$

NB: Queries are selected based on their **correlation** with ILI rates in the training data and an **elastic net** regression function

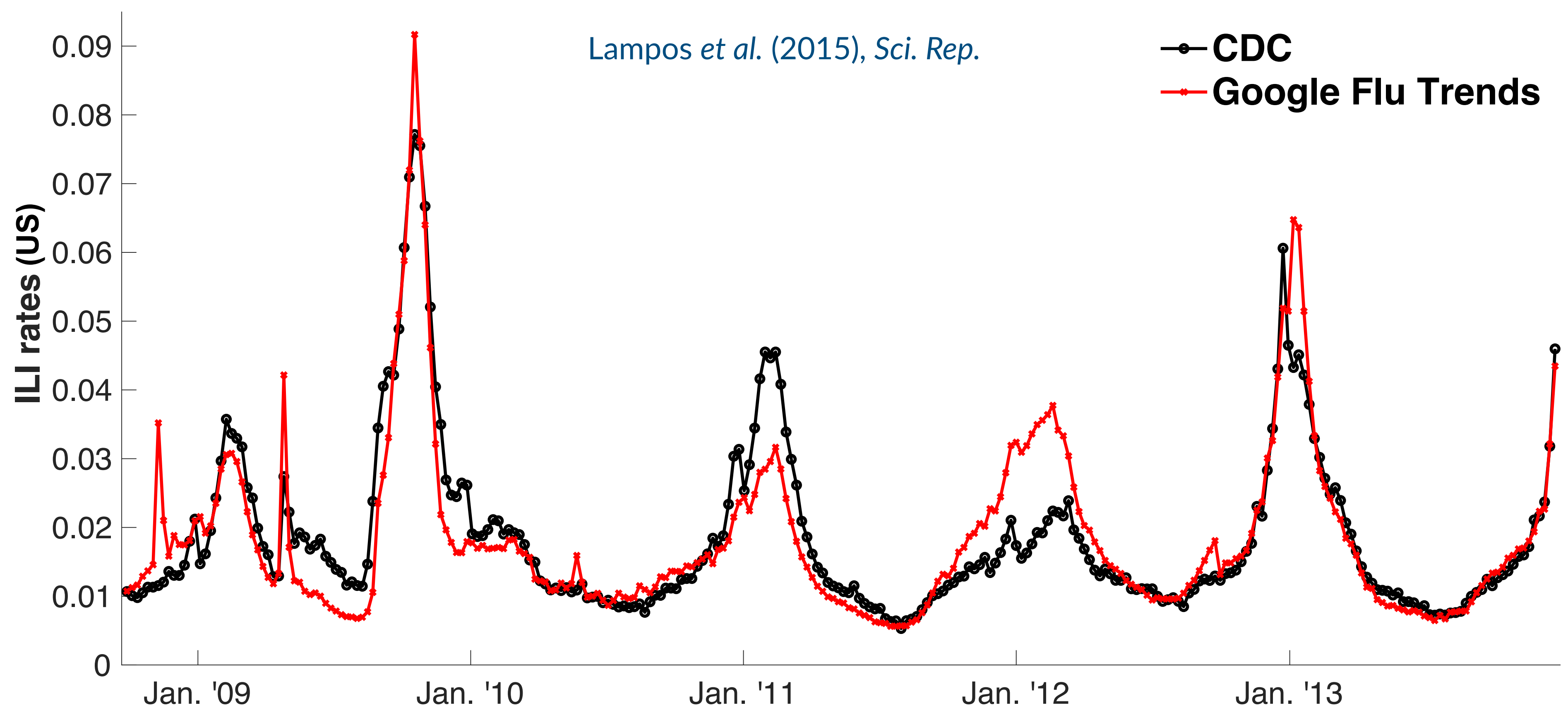
$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^m$, where m is the number of search queries we consider
 $\mathbf{c}_i, \mathbf{c}'_i \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^z$, $z < m$, C query clusters based on frequency time series

Squared Exponential (SE) kernel

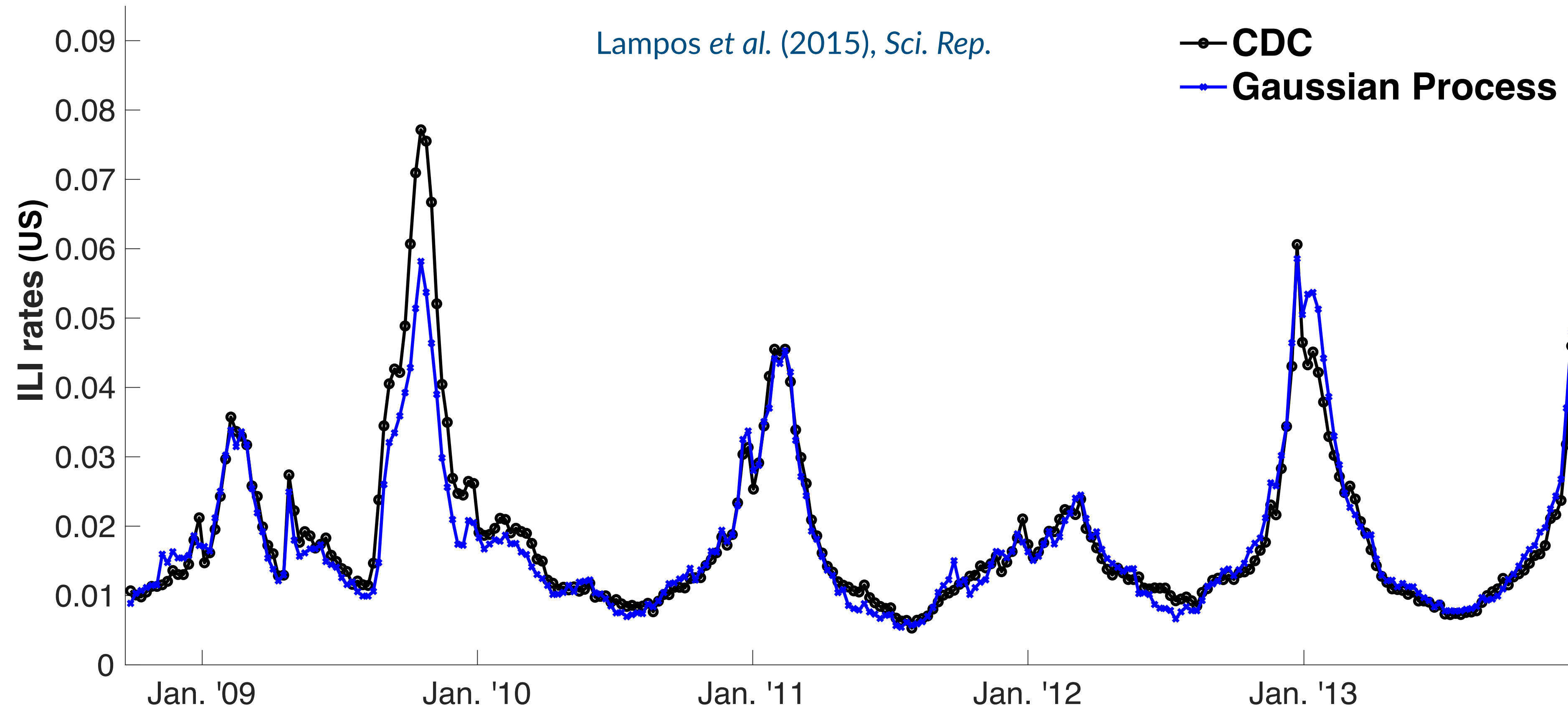
$$k_{\text{SE}}(\mathbf{c}_i, \mathbf{c}'_i) = \sigma^2 \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{c}_i - \mathbf{c}'_i\|_2^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

Lamos et al. (2015), *Sci. Rep.*;
Rasmussen, Williams (2006), *MIT Press*

Modelling ILI rates with Gaussian Process (GP) kernels

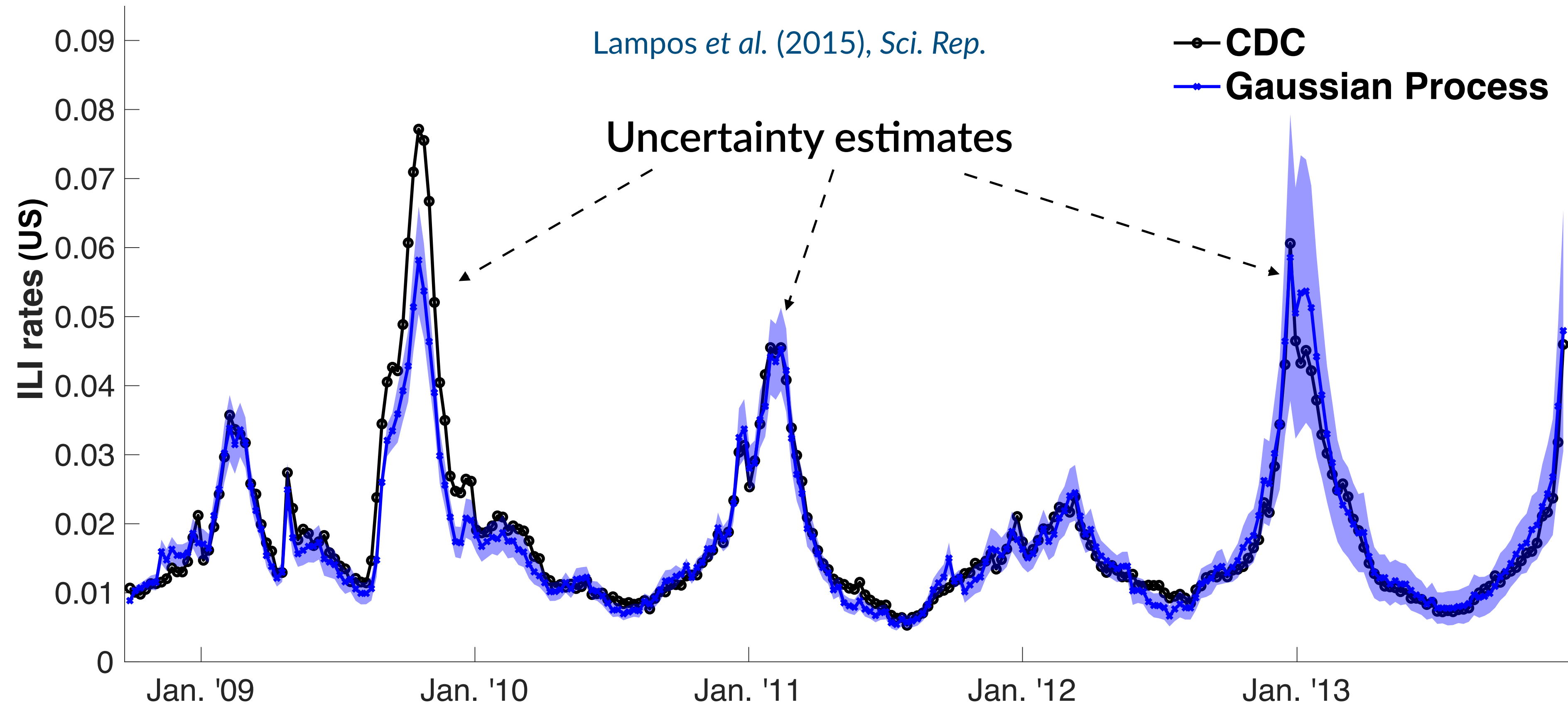


Modelling ILI rates with Gaussian Process (GP) kernels



- ▶ **42%** mean absolute error reduction compared to Google Flu Trends
- ▶ **.95** bivariate correlation (*previously .89*) with CDC rates

Modelling ILI rates with Gaussian Process (GP) kernels



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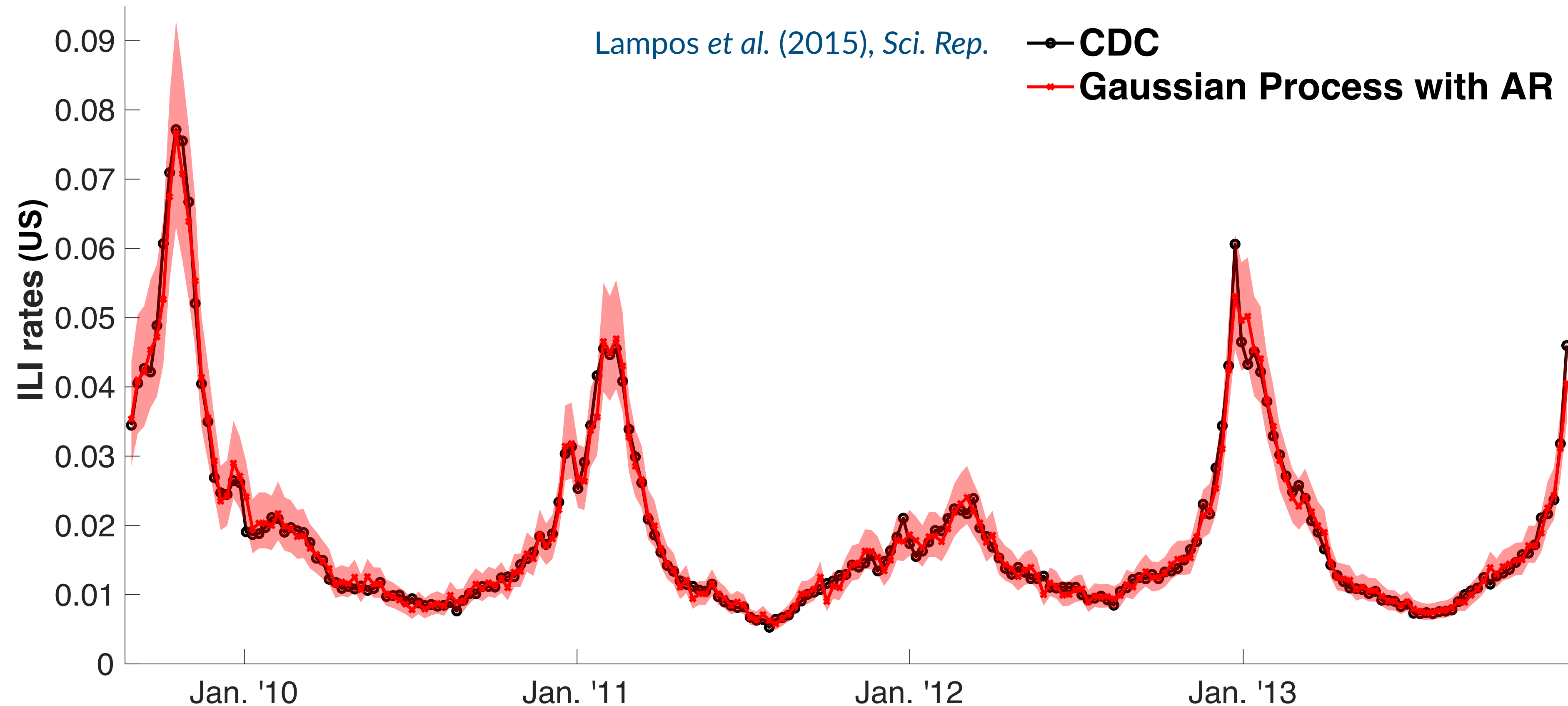
Autoregression (AR) with SARIMAX

$$y_t = \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i y_{t-d} + \sum_{i=1}^J \omega_i y_{t-52-i}}_{\text{AR and seasonal AR}} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^q \theta_i \epsilon_{t-d} + \sum_{i=1}^K \nu_i \epsilon_{t-52-i}}_{\text{MA and seasonal MA}} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^D w_i h_{t,i}}_{\text{GP estimates}} + \epsilon_t$$

- SARIMAX: Seasonal AutoRegressive Integrated Moving Average with eXogenous variables
- d weeks delay in including past ILI rates as reported by CDC
- Choose model parameters based on the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)
 - ▶ sometimes past seasonal trends are helpful, but not always
 - ▶ the most important piece of information is the GP estimate for the ILI rate ***based on web search query frequencies***

Lampos et al. (2015), Sci. Rep.

Modelling ILI rates with Gaussian Process (GP) kernels & SARIMAX



- ▶ Incorporating historical CDC estimates into an autoregression (AR) using SARIMAX
- ▶ 27% MAE reduction compared to GFT with AR, 52% over the GP model without AR
- ▶ .99 bivariate correlation with CDC

Feature selection – *which search queries to use?*

- Feature selection was based on a temporal relationship
 - ▶ Is this sufficient? No / not always
- Spurious search queries such as “*NBA injury report*” or “*muscle building supplements*” were still included in the selection
 - ▶ query clustering: some guarantees for different treatment, but needs a more complex regression model
- Introduce a query *filter* based on distributional semantics using word embeddings
- Hybrid combination of this with previous feature selection regimes

Lamos et al. (2015), *Sci. Rep.*; Lamos, Zou, Cox (2017), *WWW '17*

$$\text{sim}(q, \mathbb{C}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^P \cos(\mathbf{e}_q, \mathbf{e}_{p_i})}{\sum_{j=1}^N \cos(\mathbf{e}_q, \mathbf{e}_{n_j}) + \gamma}$$

$\mathbf{e}_{(\cdot)}$: embedding vector *trained on Twitter data*

$\mathbb{C} = \{\mathbb{C}_P, \mathbb{C}_N\}$ – a concept about influenza

Lamos, Zou, Cox (2017), WWW '17;
Levy, Goldberg (2014), CoNLL '14

\mathbb{C}_P : phrases of a positive context for concept \mathbb{C}

\mathbb{C}_N : phrases of a negative context for concept \mathbb{C}

$\theta = \cos(\cdot) \rightarrow \in [0,1]$ via $(\theta + 1)/2$ to avoid negative components

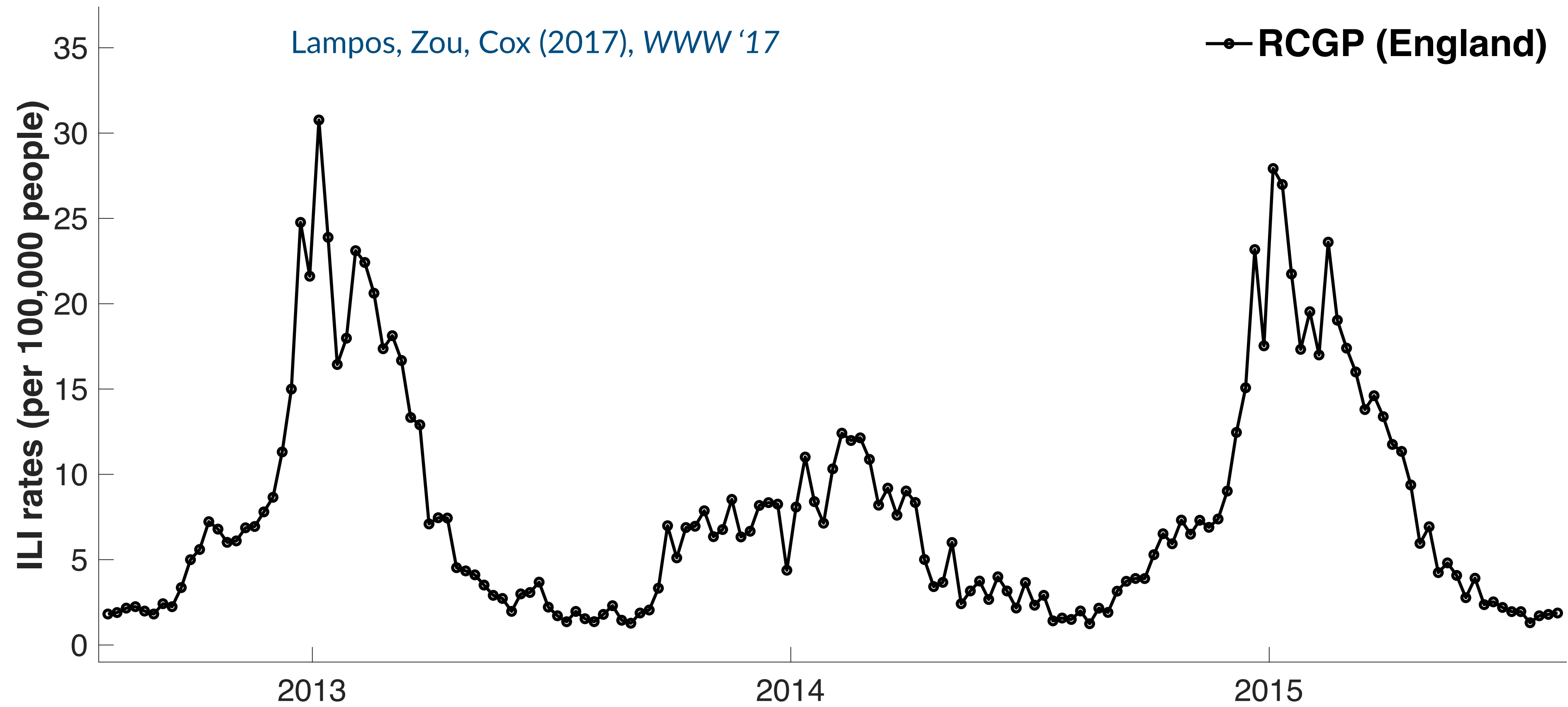
$\gamma \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ to avoid, in theory, division by 0

Query selection based on distributional semantics

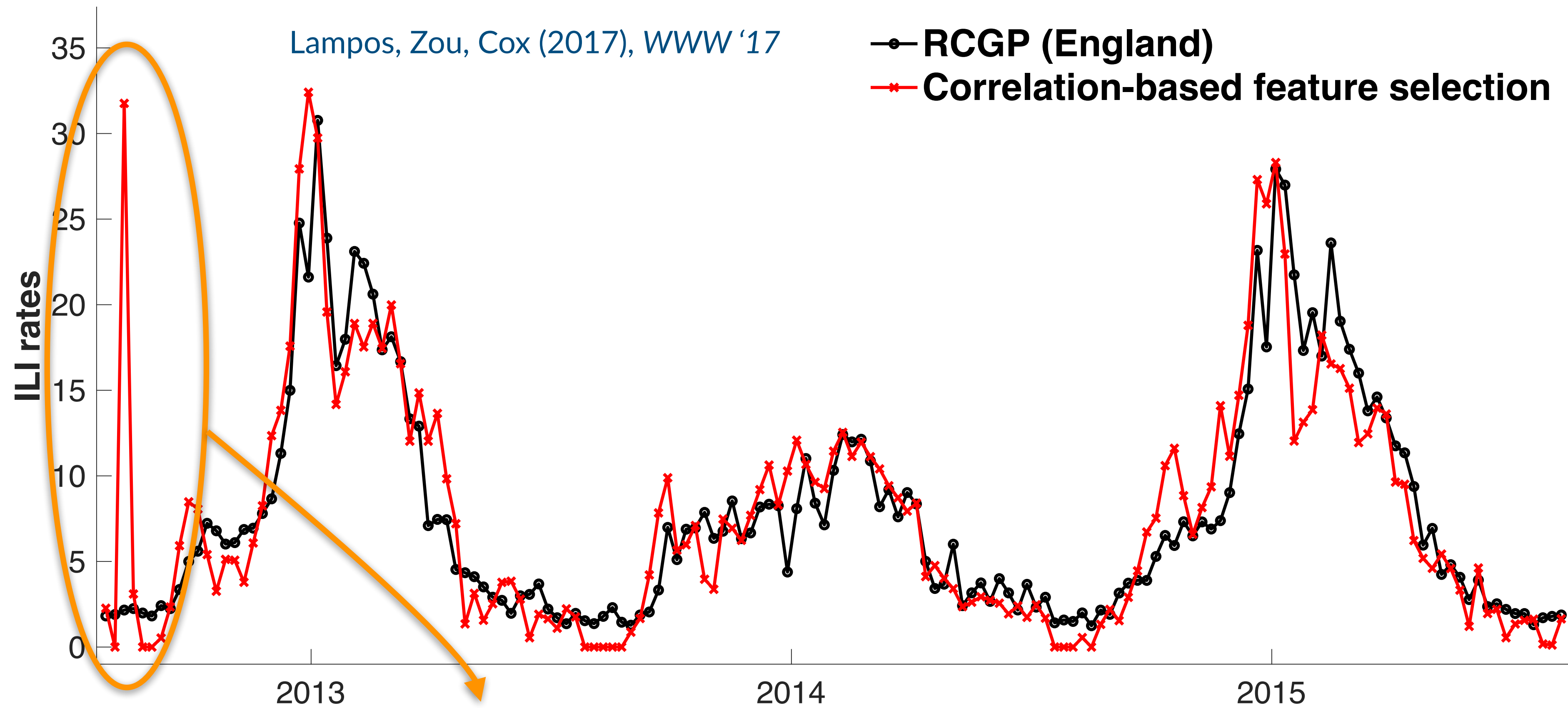
Positive context	Negative context	Most similar queries
#flu fever flu flu medicine GP hospital	Bieber ebola Wikipedia	<i>“cold flu medicine”</i> <i>“flu aches”</i> <i>“cold and flu”</i> <i>“cold flu symptoms”</i> <i>“colds and flu”</i>
flu flu GP flu hospital flu medicine	ebola Wikipedia	<i>“flu aches”</i> <i>“flu”</i> <i>“colds and flu”</i> <i>“cold and flu”</i> <i>“cold flu medicine”</i>

Lamos, Zou, Cox (2017), WWW '17

Feature selection based on *correlation* and *regularised regression*



Feature selection based on *correlation* and *regularised regression*

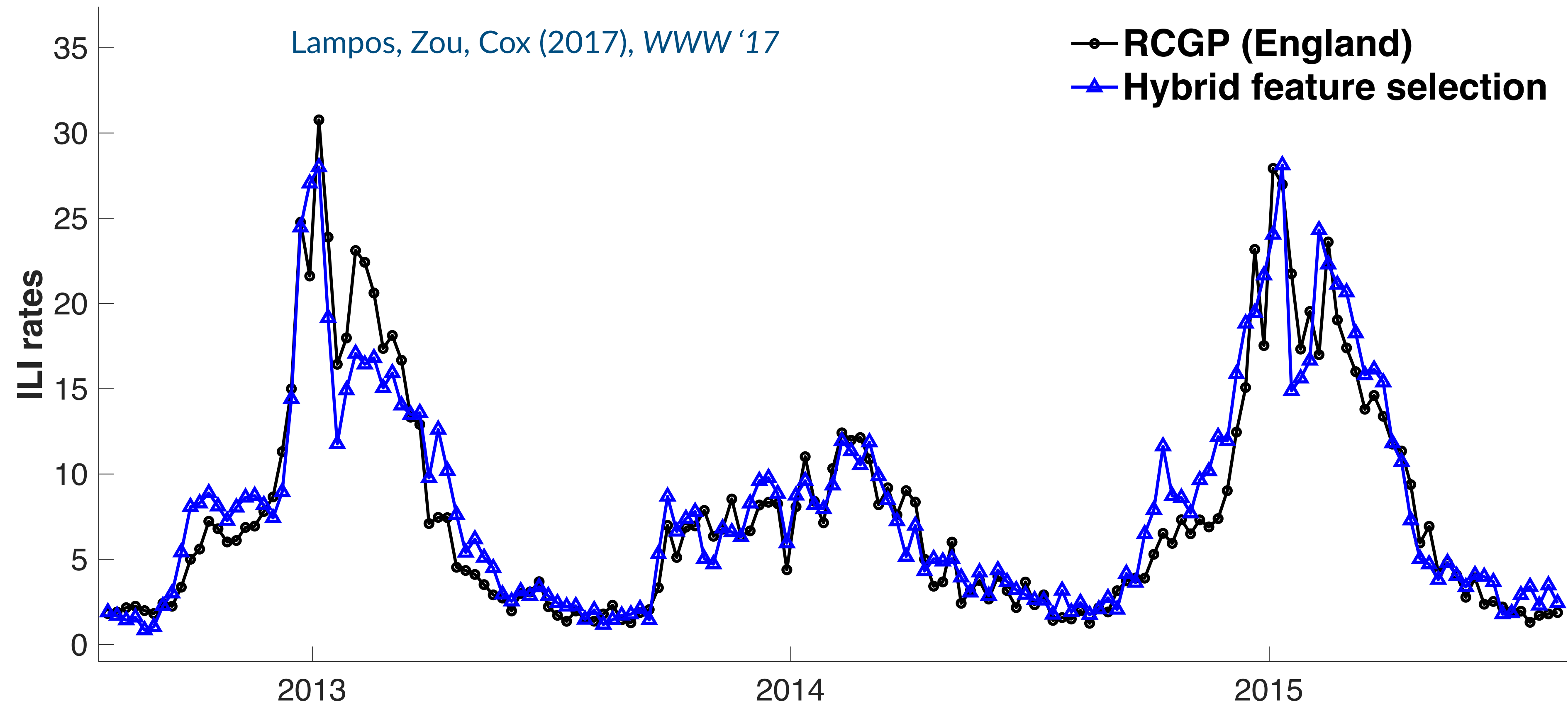


Examples of problematic query selections

prof. surname: 70%
name surname: 27%
heating oil: 21%

name surname recipes: 21%
blood game: 12.3%
swine flu vaccine side effects: 7.2%

Hybrid feature selection: *distributional semantics* and *correlation*

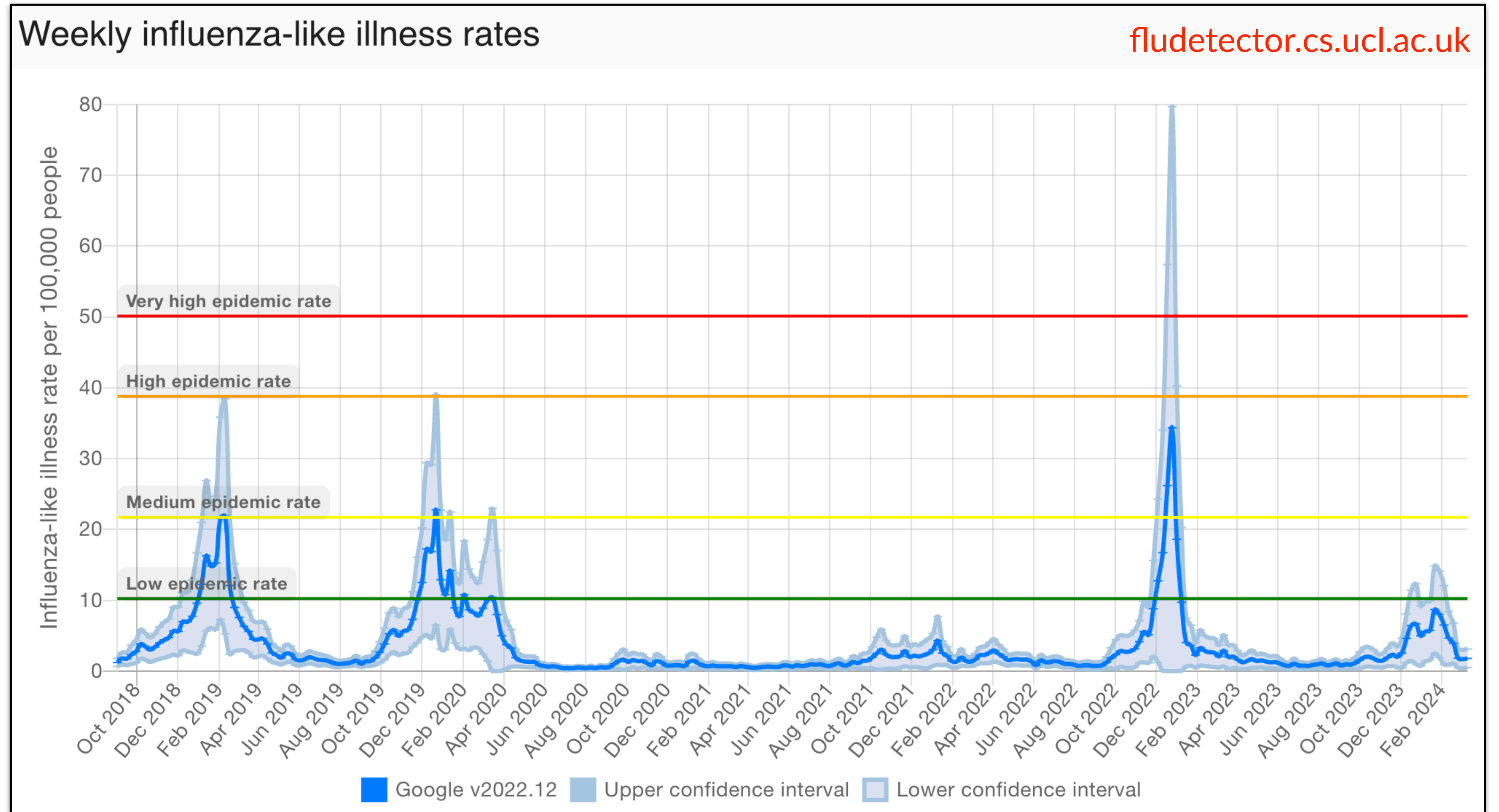


- ▶ 12.3% accuracy improvement in terms of mean absolute error
- ▶ .913 bivariate correlation with the ground truth (*RCGP ILI rates*)

Flu detector, part of UK's influenza surveillance



gov.uk/government/statistics/national-flu-and-covid-19-surveillance-reports-2023-to-2024-season



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 - ▶ broader, more granular *geographic coverage*
 - ▶ not affected by *closure days* and other *temporal biases*
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- **Applicable to locations that lack an established health surveillance infrastructure**
- Track novel infectious diseases

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Wagner *et al.* (2018), *Sci. Rep.*; Budd *et al.* (2020), *Nat. Med.*

Part B

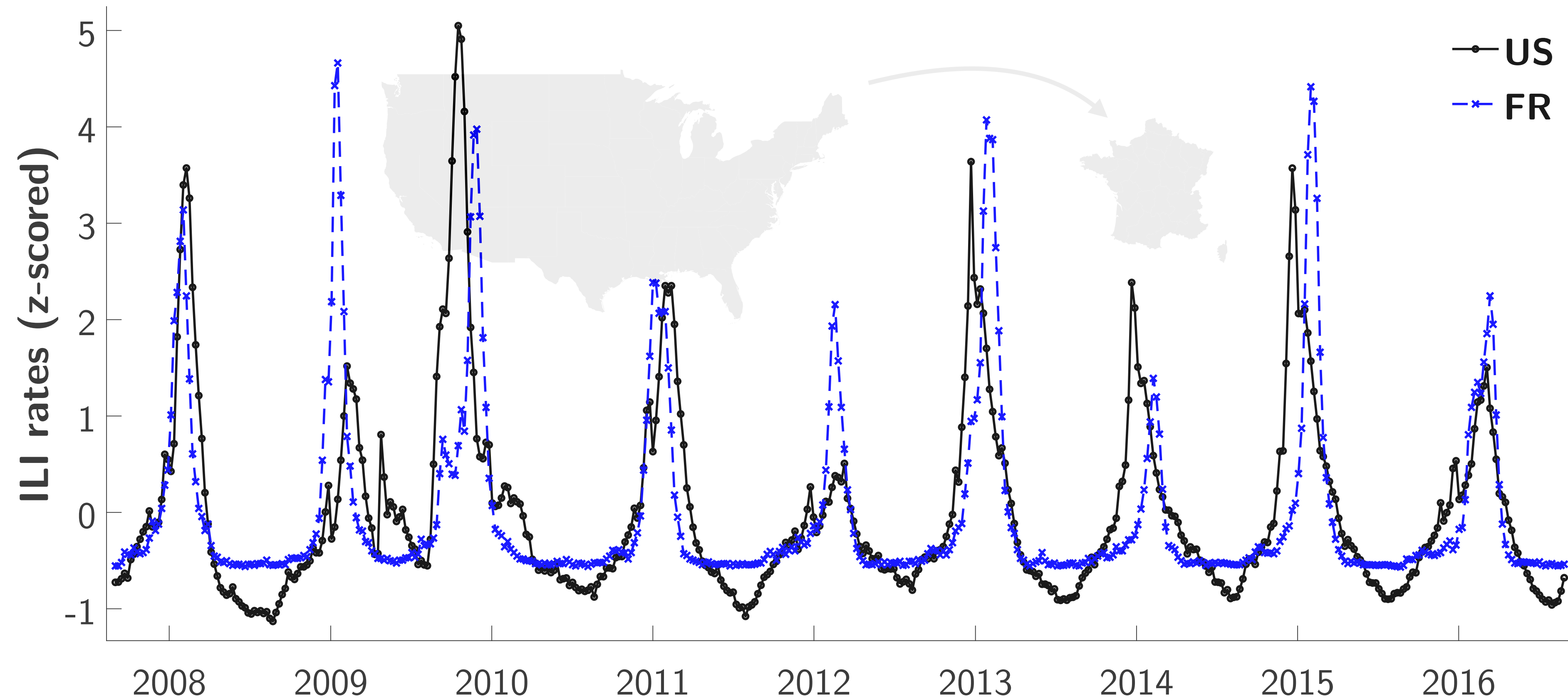
Transferring a disease model from one country to another using web search activity

Zou, Lampos, Cox (2019), WWW '19

Transfer learning across countries for flu models from web search

- **Transfer learning *in general***
 - ▶ Gain knowledge from a domain/task, and then apply it to another one
- **Transfer learning *for estimating flu rates across different countries***
 - ▶ Locations: source (*no missing data*), target (*no disease rates*)
 - ▶ regularised regression model for a source location based on web search activity and historical disease rates
 - ▶ map search queries from the source to the target location
 - *semantic similarity* (bilingual if necessary)
 - *temporal similarity*
 - *hybrid similarity* (their linear combination controlled by γ)
 - ▶ transfer regression model (*equivalent to zero-shot learning*)

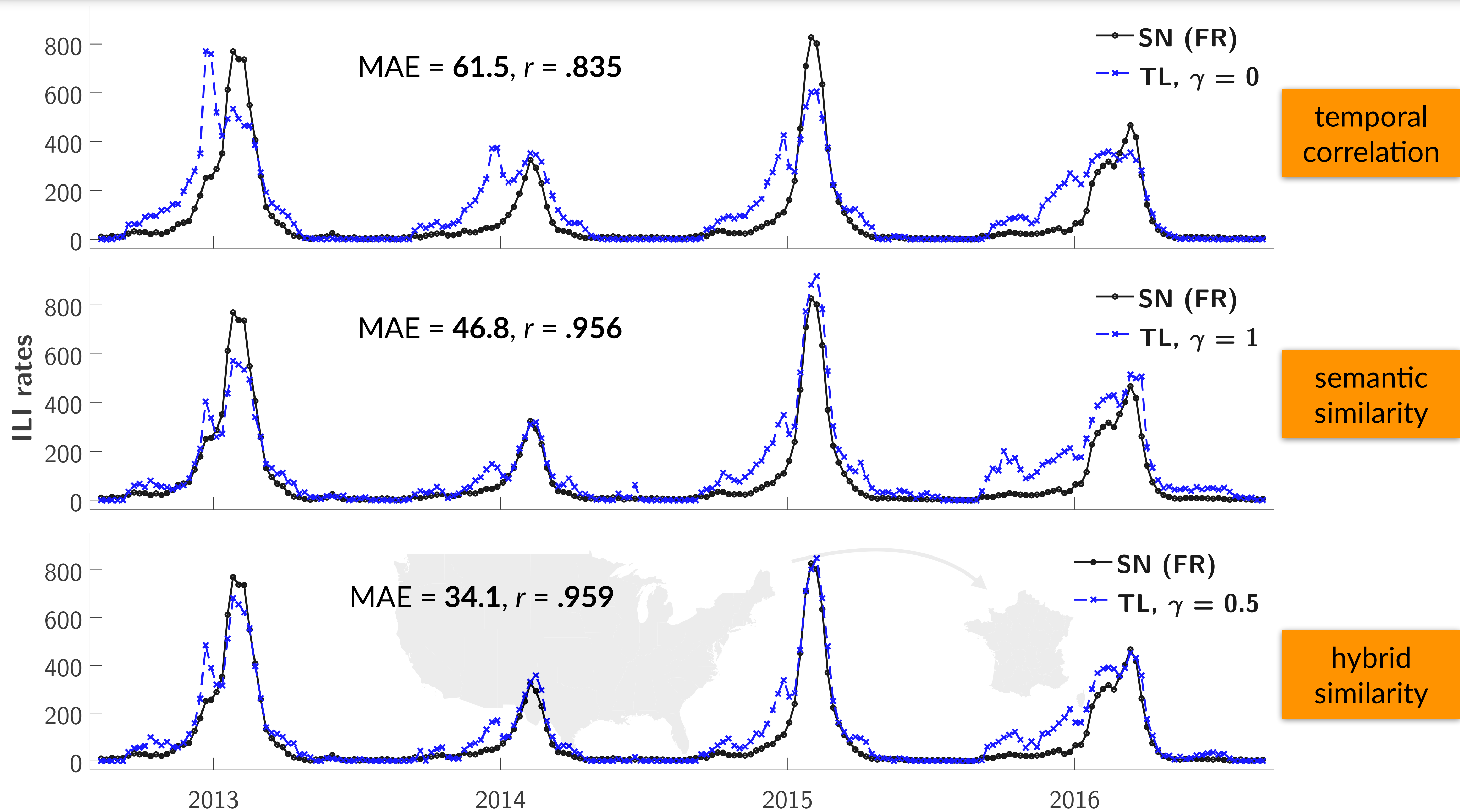
Transferring a flu model based on web searches: *from* US *to* France



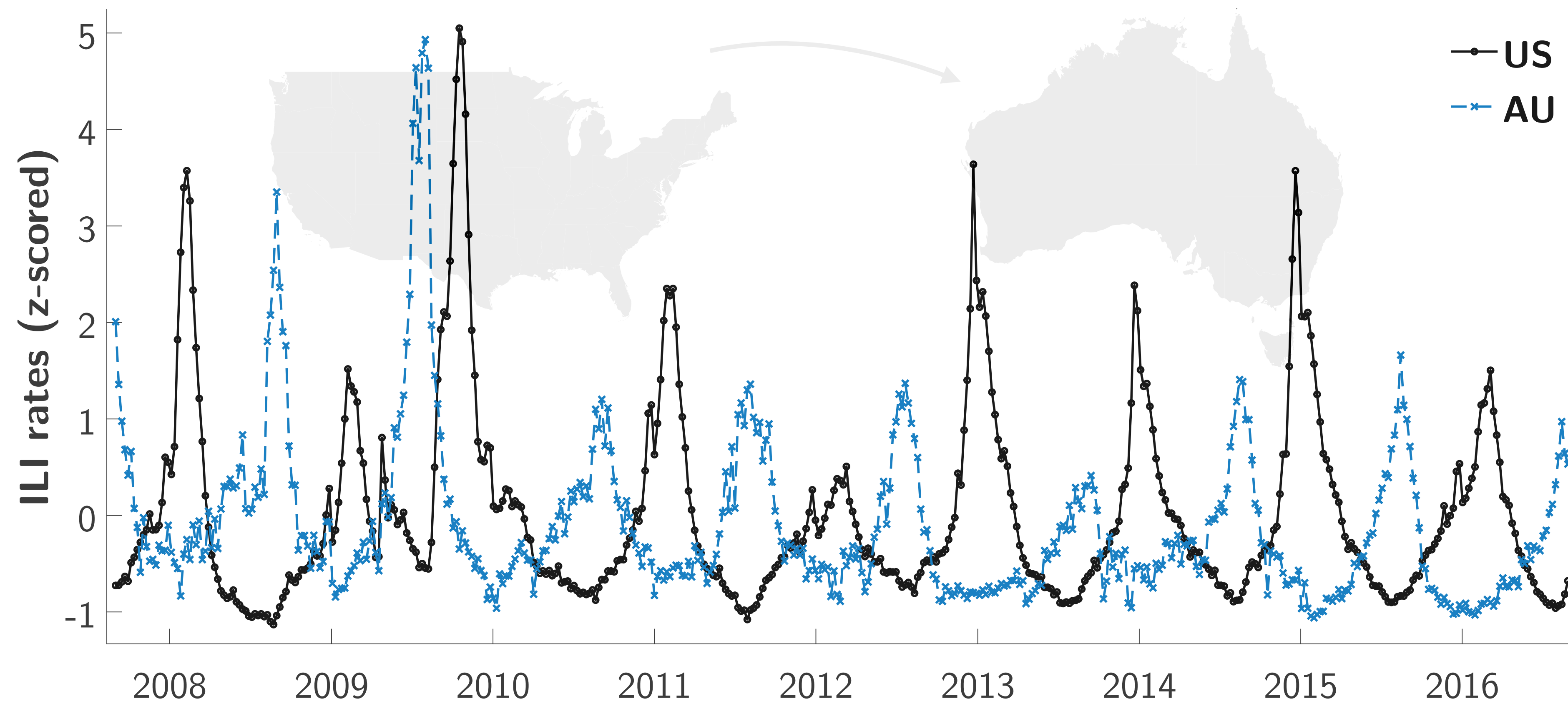
How similar are the flu rates between the **US** and **France (FR)**?

– temporal differences (e.g. different onset/peak moments), intensity differences

Transferring a flu model based on web searches: *from* US *to* France



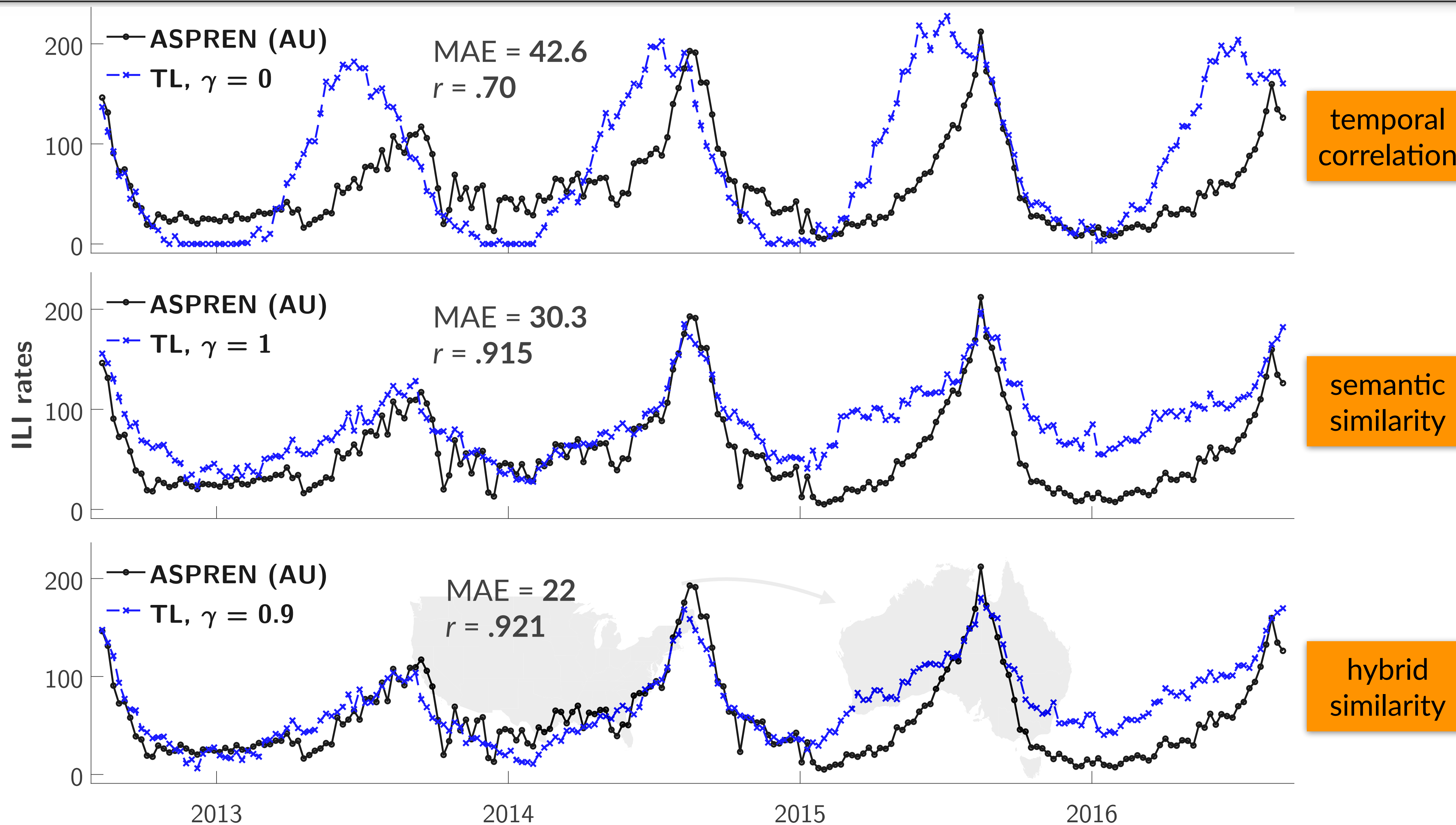
Transferring a flu model based on web searches: *from* US *to* Australia



How similar are the flu rates between the **US** and **Australia (AU)**?

– different (\approx opposite) seasons, significant intensity differences in more recent years

Transferring a flu model based on web searches: *from* US *to* Australia



Part C

Modelling COVID-19 prevalence using web search activity

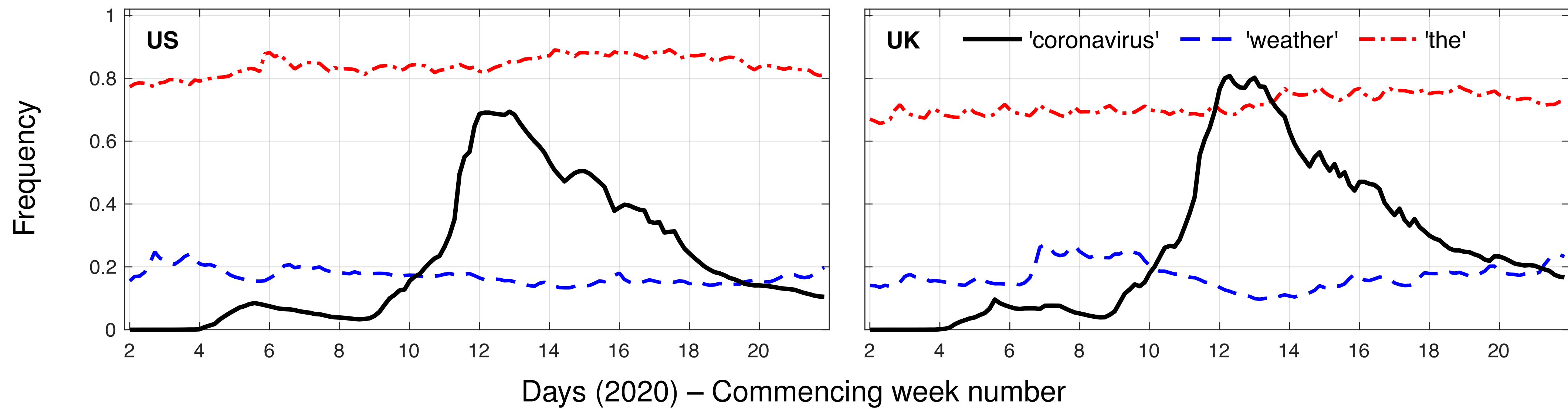
Lamos et al. (2021), *npj Digit. Med.*

Google search activity

Google Health Trends: frequency $x_{L,d}$ of web search query q for a location L during a day d

$$x_{L,d} = \frac{\text{number of times } q \text{ was issued by users in location } L \text{ during day } d}{\text{total number of searches by users in location } L \text{ during day } d}$$

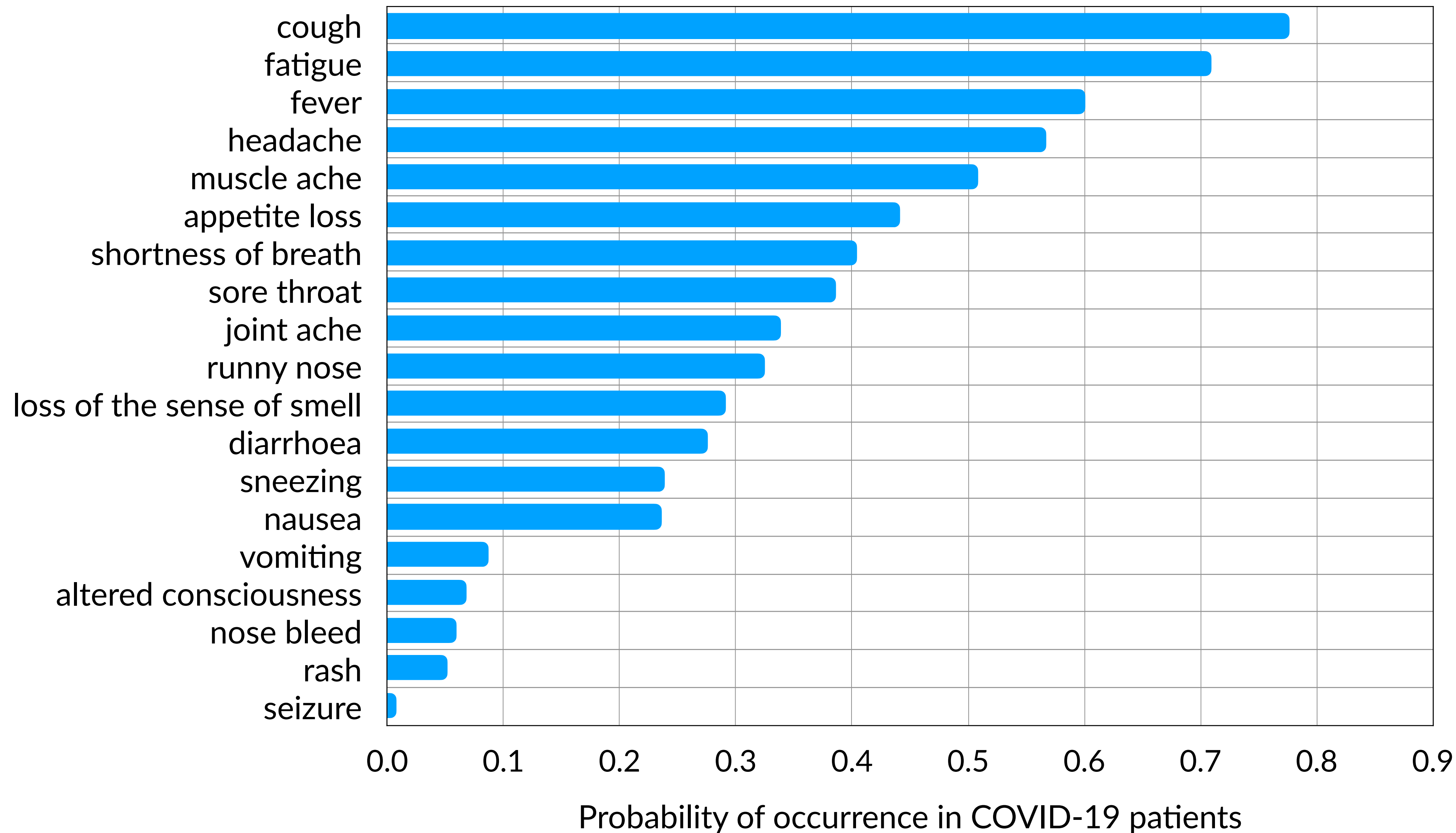
Unprecedented search frequency trends during the first COVID-19 pandemic waves



Challenges in modelling COVID-19 using web search activity

- No reliable and not enough ground truth data
 - ▶ Supervised learning no longer possible – *can we use transfer learning?*
 - ▶ Evaluation of any model will be problematic
- Unsupervised learning
 - ▶ Which search queries to use?
 - ▶ How do we know our model is related to COVID-19 and not other infectious diseases?
 - ▶ How do we know our signal is not affected by other factors such as concern, curiosity, and media coverage rather than by infection?

First few hundred (FF100) patient survey (NHS & UKHSA)



Boddington *et al.*
(2021), *Bull. WHO*

- ▶ **cough:** *cough*, coughing
- ▶ **fatigue:** *fatigue*
- ▶ **fever:** chills, *fever*, high temp fever, high temperature
- ▶ **headache:** head ache, *headache*, headaches, migraine
- ▶ **muscle ache:** *muscle ache*, muscular pain
- ▶ **appetite loss:** *appetite loss*, loss of appetite, lost appetite
- ▶ **shortness of breath:** breathing difficulties, breathing difficulty, cant breathe, *shortness of breath*, short breath
- ▶ ...
- ▶ **loss of the sense of smell:** anosmia, loss of smell, loss smell
- ▶ **COVID-19 terms:** coronavirus, covid, covid-19, covid19

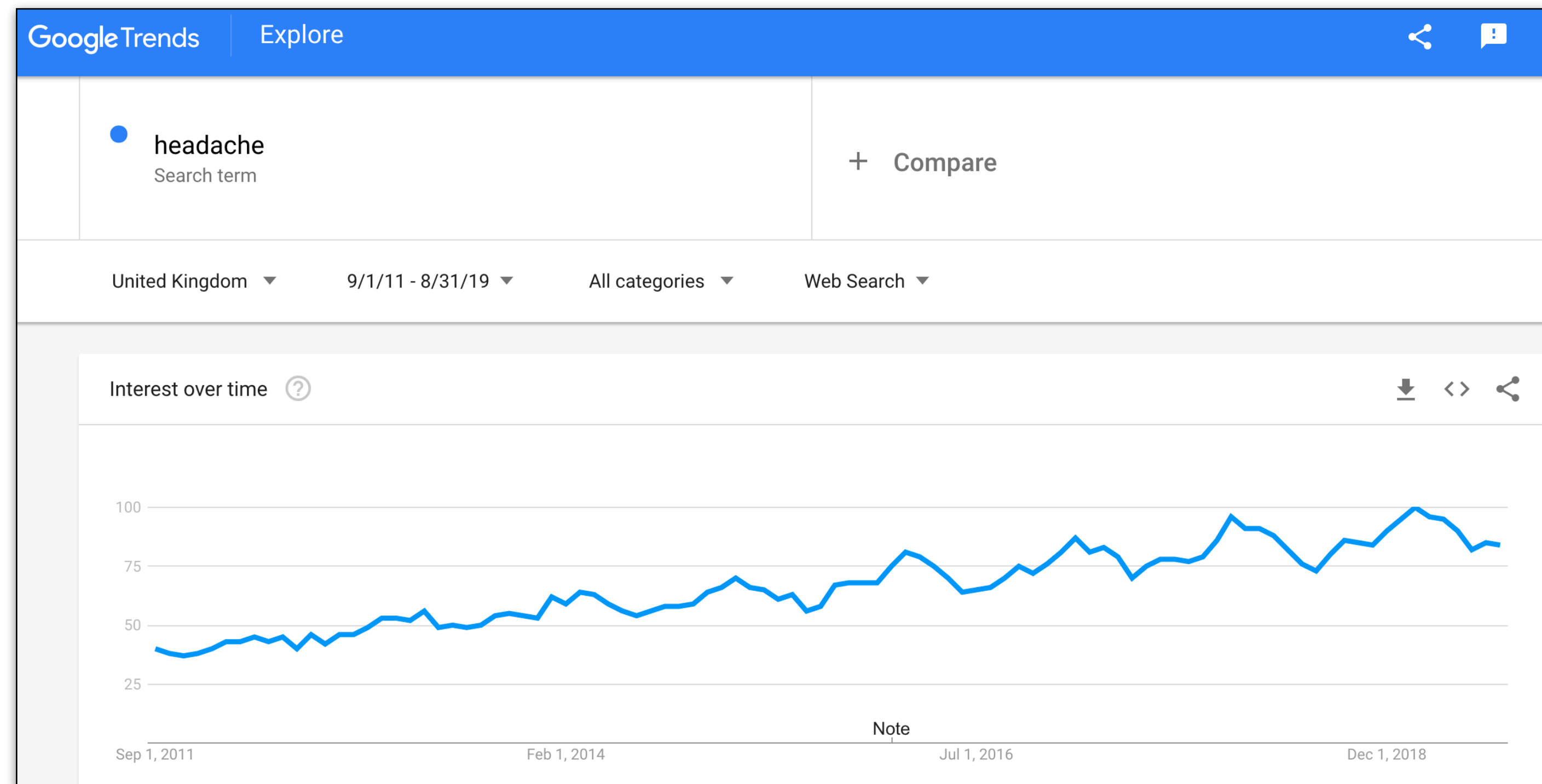
- ▶ **cough:** tosse, tossire
- ▶ **fatigue:** affaticamento, fatica, spossatezza, stanchezza
- ▶ **fever:** alta temperatura, brividi, febbre
- ▶ **headache:** emicrania, mal di testa
- ▶ **muscle ache:** dolore muscolare, dolori muscolari, male ai muscoli, mialgia
- ▶ **appetite loss:** appetito perso, inappetenza, perdita appetito, perdita di appetito
- ▶ **shortness of breath:** difficoltà respiratoria, difficoltà respiratorie, fiato corto, mancanza di respiro, respiro corto
- ▶ ...
- ▶ **loss of the sense of smell:** perdita olfatto
- ▶ **COVID-19 terms:** coronavirus, covid, covid-19, covid19

Our analysis considered the following countries and corresponding languages:

- ▶ United States of America (US), United Kingdom (UK), Australia, Canada – **English**
- ▶ France – **French**
- ▶ Italy – **Italian**
- ▶ South Africa – **Zulu, Afrikaans, English**, and many more
- ▶ Greece – **Greek**

A simple COVID-19 prevalence model (1/2)

1. Query frequencies are noisy
 - harmonic smoothing using the frequencies of the past 2 weeks
2. Query frequencies are not stationary (*increasing or decreasing mean*)
 - linear detrending



3. For each symptom category, obtain the frequency sum across all its search terms (cumulative symptom-related search frequency) on a daily basis
4. Apply min-max normalisation on the cumulative frequency of each symptom category; values become from 0 to 1 and all categories now share units
5. Compute a daily weighted score using the FF100 symptom probabilities as weights
6. Use the previous 8 years (2011-2019) to obtain a historical baseline of this scoring function

Reducing the effect of news media coverage (1/2)

For a given *day* and *location*

- proportion of COVID-19-related news articles: $m \in [0,1]$
- COVID-19 score based on web searches: $g \in [0,1]$

Decompose g such that $g = g_p + g_c$

- g_p represents '*infection*'
- g_c represents '*concern*'

Then $\gamma \in [0,1]$ exists such that

- $g_p = \gamma g$
- $g_c = (1 - \gamma)g$

Reducing the effect of news media coverage (2/2)

Linear autoregressive model to forecast COVID-19 score g at a time point t based on its past values

$$\arg \min_{w, b_1} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N (g_t - w_1 g_{t-1} - w_2 g_{t-2} - b_1)^2 \rightarrow \text{prediction error } \epsilon_1$$

Linear autoregressive model to forecast COVID-19 score g at a time point t based on its past values and the current and past values of m

$$\arg \min_{w, v, b_2} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N (g_t - w_1 g_{t-1} - w_2 g_{t-2} - v_1 m_t - v_2 m_{t-1} - v_3 m_{t-2} - b_2)^2 \rightarrow \text{prediction error } \epsilon_2$$

- $\epsilon_1 < \epsilon_2$: the media signal does not help COVID-19 score predictions $\rightarrow \gamma \approx 1$, i.e. the media is expected to not have a causal effect on the estimated COVID-19 scores
- $\epsilon_1 \geq \epsilon_2$: $\gamma = \epsilon_2 / \epsilon_1$ (crude estimation of % of impact of news media)

News media coverage corpus

- Data obtained from the Media Cloud database — mediacloud.org
- Number of news media sources per country

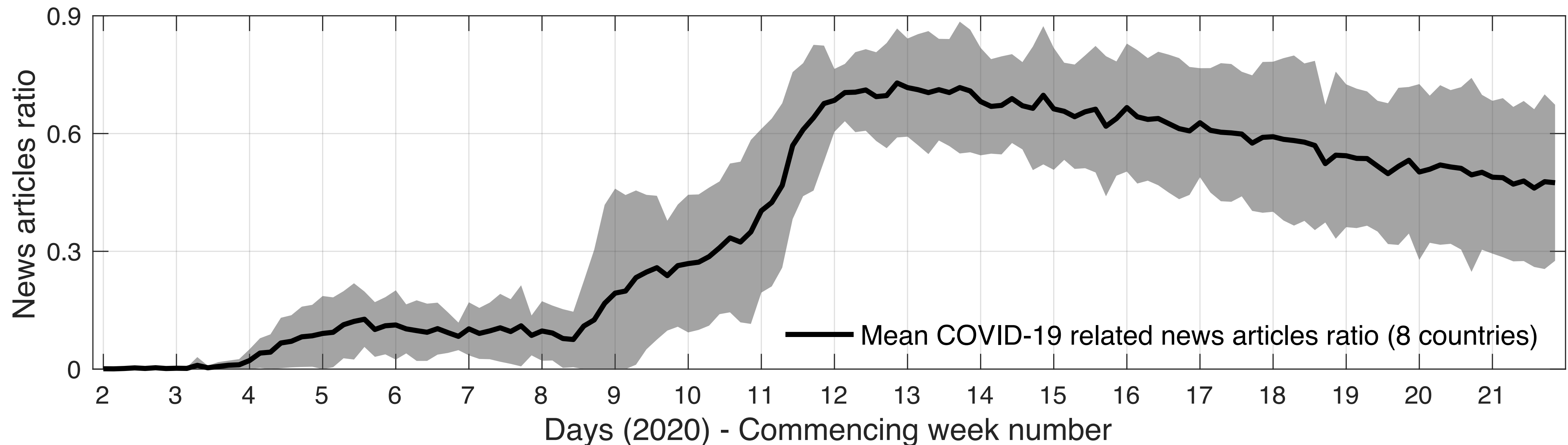
US	225
UK	93
Australia	61
Canada	79
France	360
Italy	178
Greece	75
South Africa	135

- Obtain the daily ratio of articles that include basic COVID-19-related keywords in their title or main text
e.g. “covid” or “coronavirus”

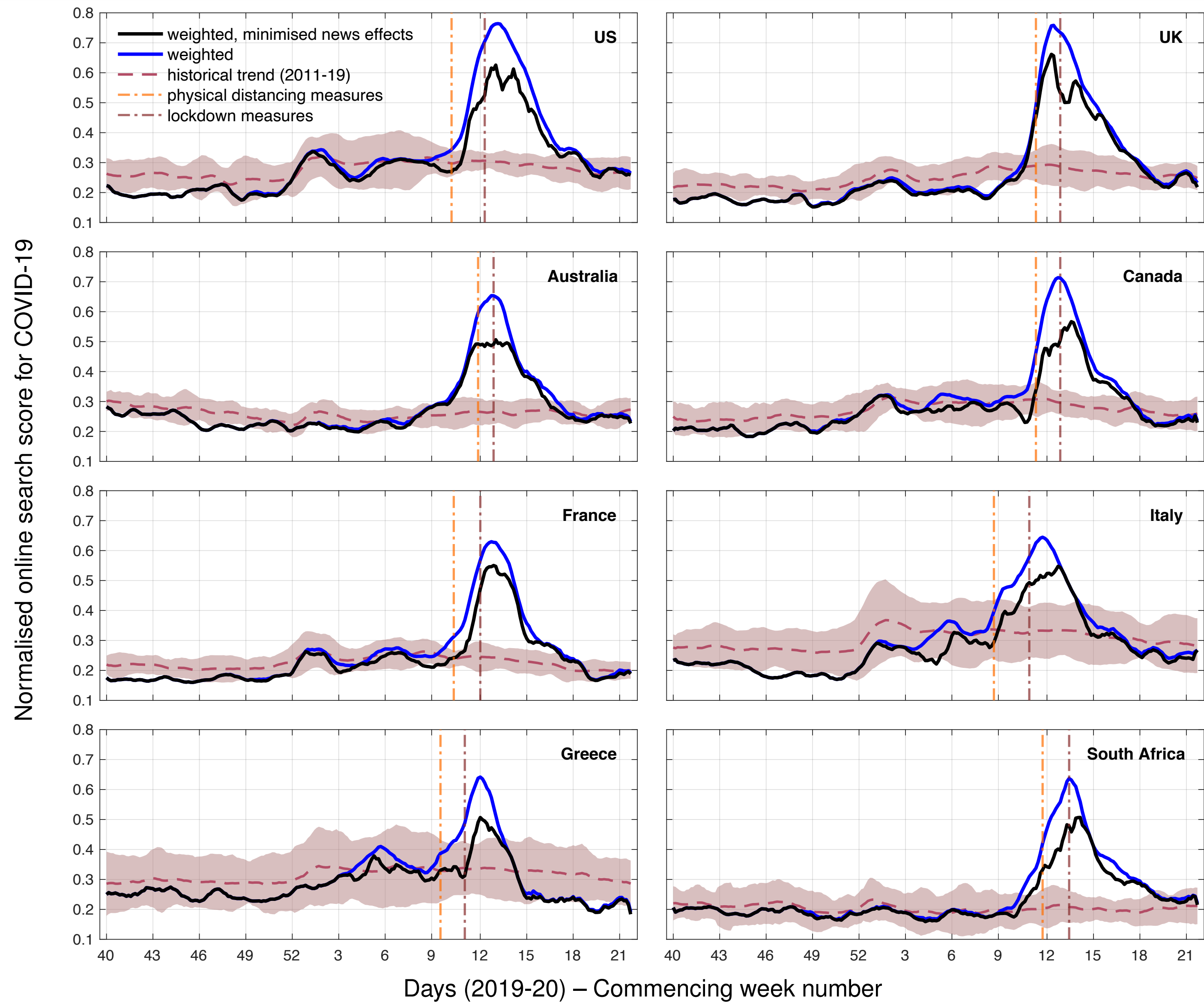
News media coverage corpus

- Data obtained from September 30, 2019 to May 24, 2020
- > 0 frequency from ~January, 2020 onwards
- ~2.5 million COVID-19-related articles from a total of ~10 million

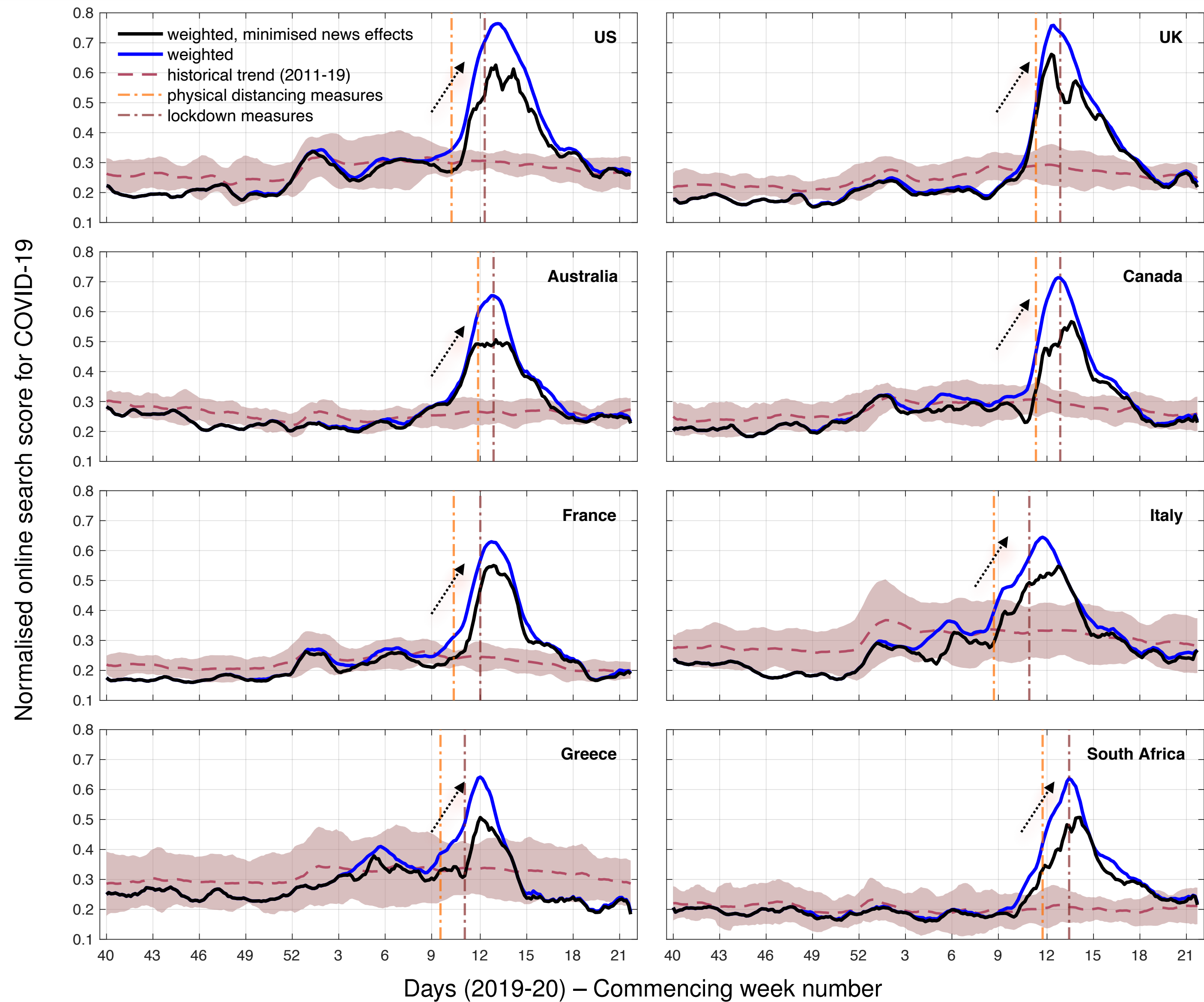
Average proportion of COVID-19-related news articles in the 8 countries of our analysis



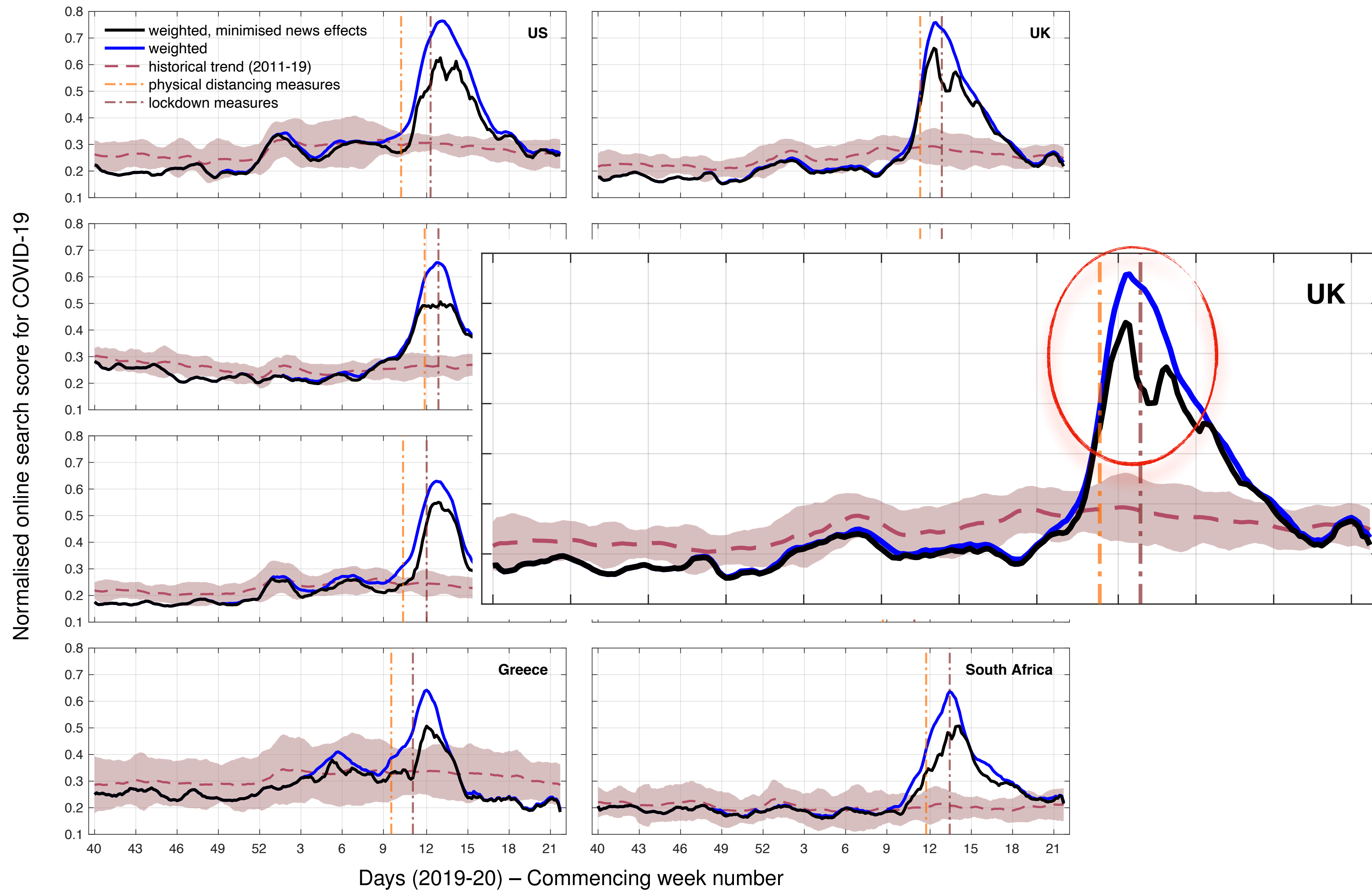
Unsupervised COVID-19 models in 8 countries based on web search



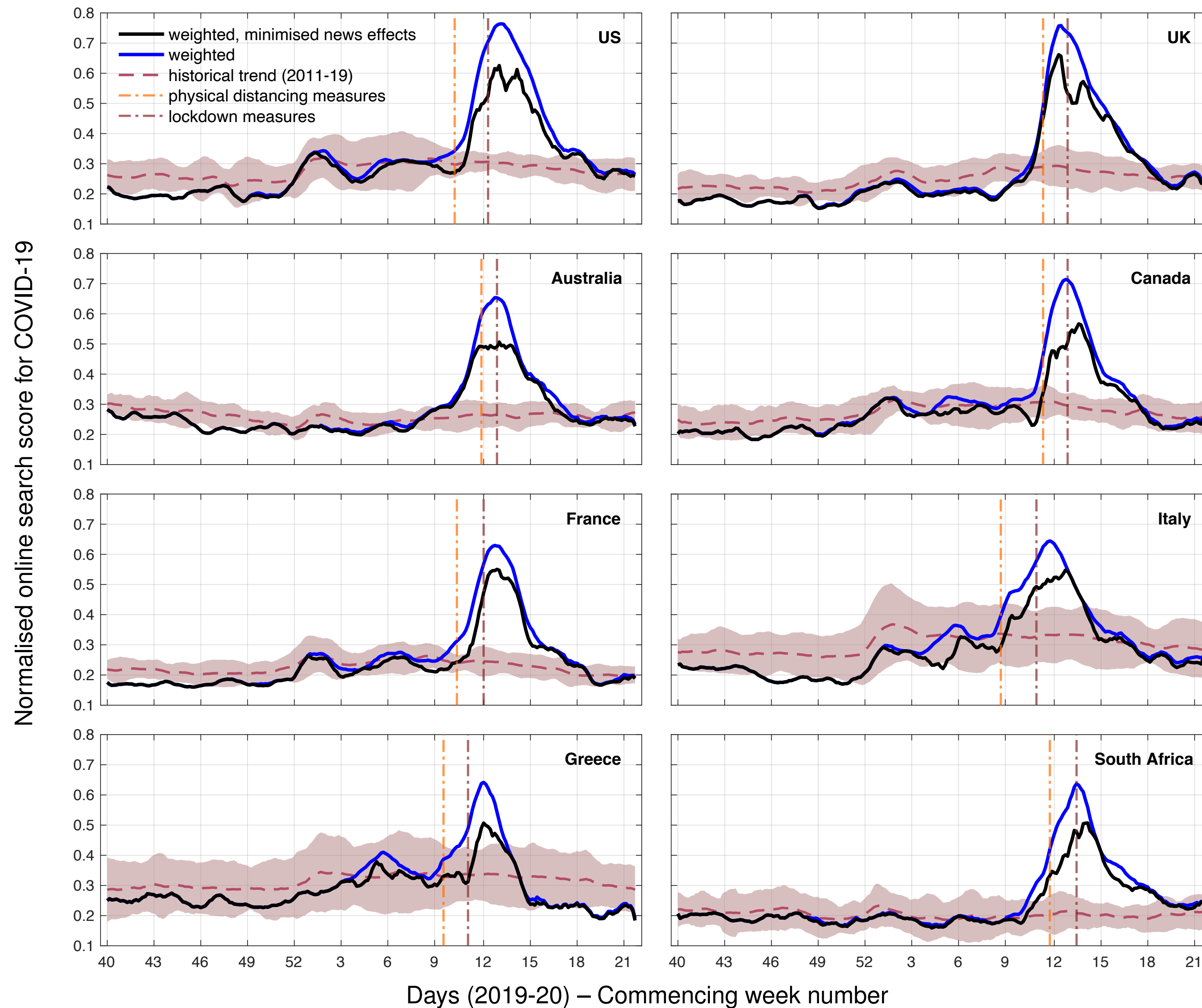
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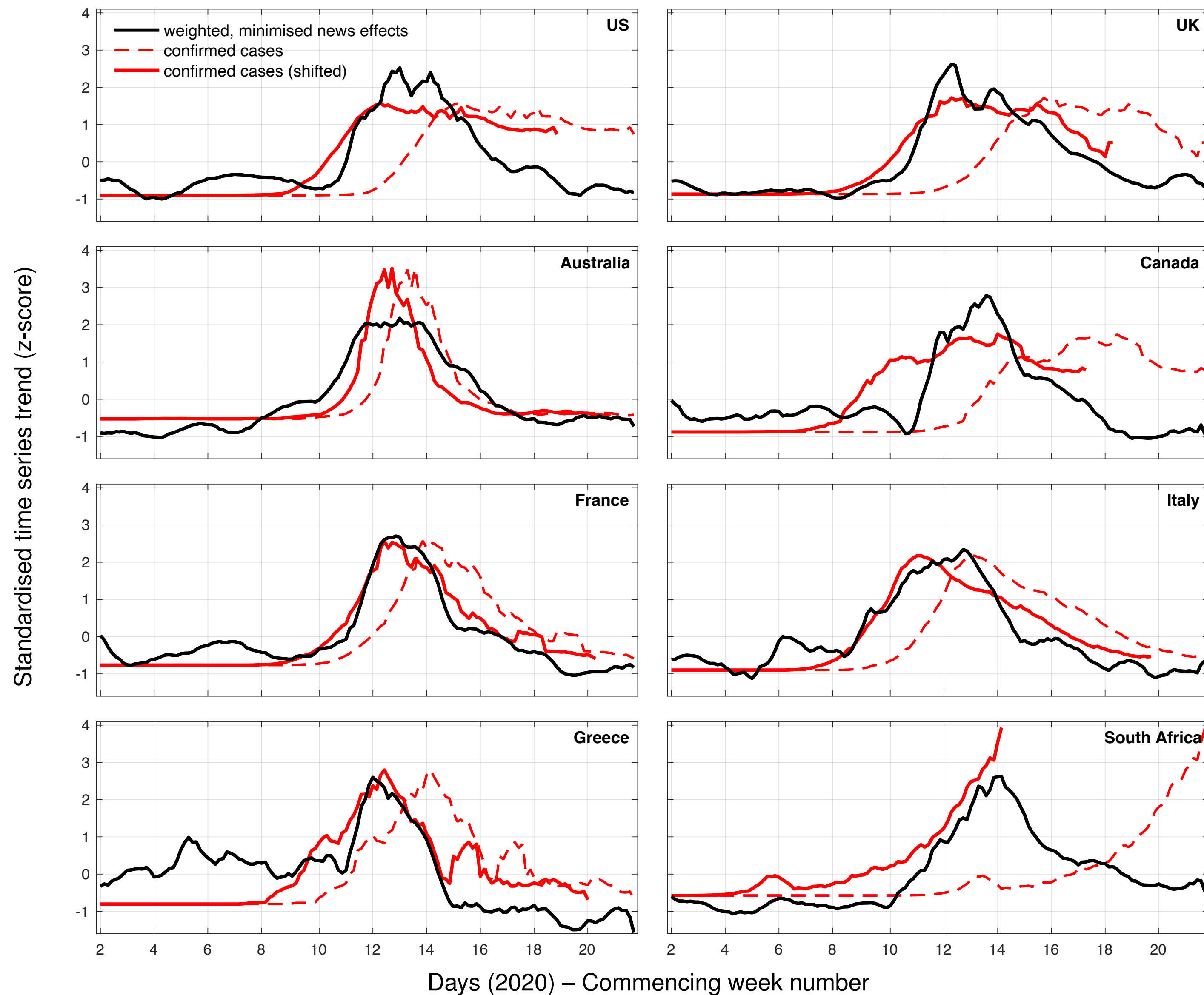
Unsupervised COVID-19 models in 8 countries based on web search



Reducing news media effects:

- ▶ Altered trend during peak periods
- ▶ Average reduction by **16.4%** (14.2%–18.7%) in a period of 14 days prior and after their peak moments, $r = .822$ (.739–.905)
- ▶ Reduction of **3.3%** (2.7%–4%) outside peak periods

Comparison with *confirmed COVID-19 cases*



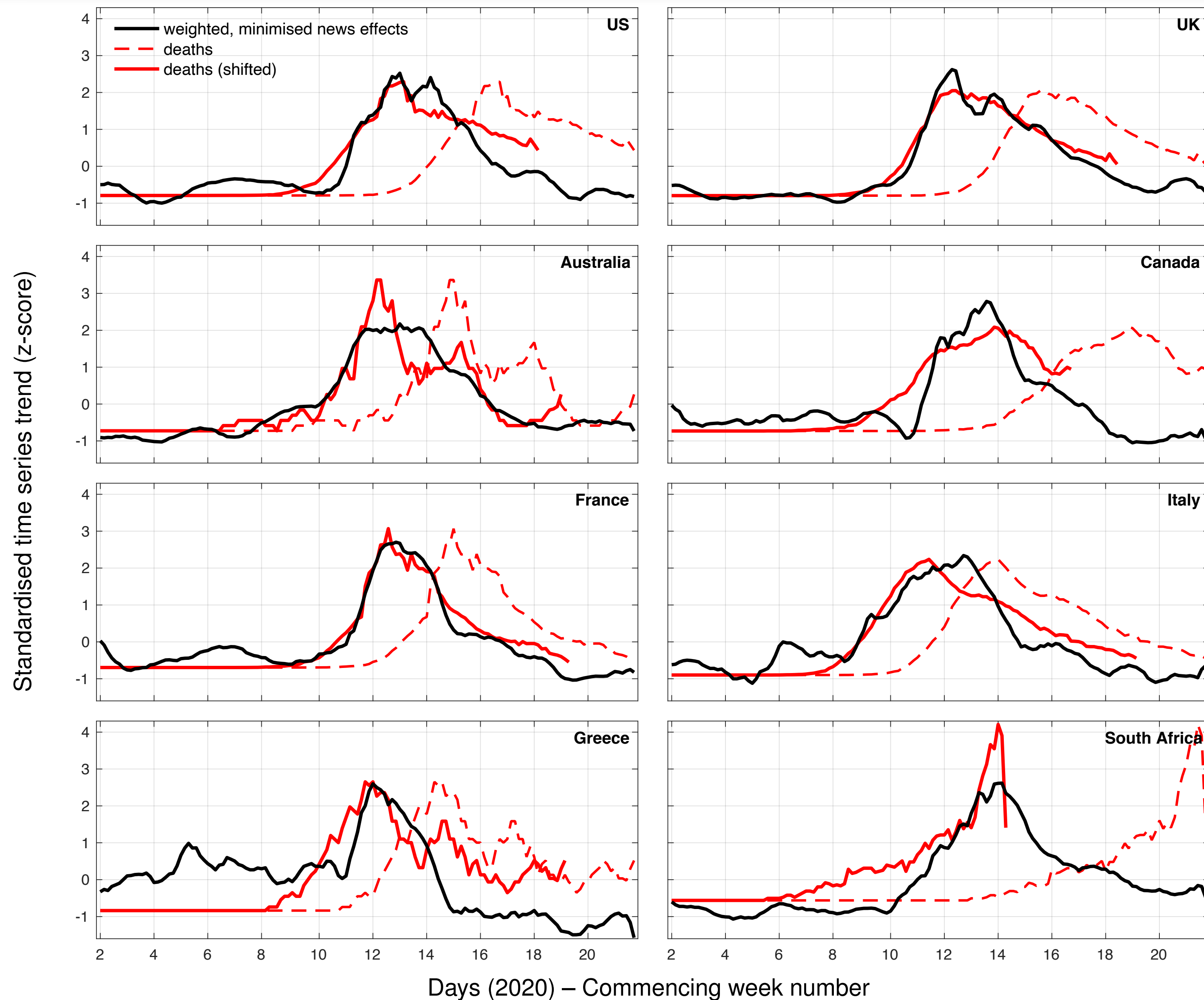
Web search activity based models provide an early warning

$$r_{\max} = .83 (.74-.92)$$

when cases are brought forward by 16.7 (10.2–23.2) days

(South Africa is excluded)

Comparison with *deaths of people with COVID-19*



Web search activity based models provide an early warning

$$r_{\max} = .85 (.70-.99)$$

when deaths of people with COVID-19 are brought forward by 22.1 (17.4–26.9) days

(South Africa is excluded)

- Transfer an incidence model – trained on web search activity – for a *source* country that has already experienced a COVID-19 epidemic to other *target* countries that are on earlier stages of the epidemic
- “Supervised” learning approach
 - ▶ corroborate our previous unsupervised findings
 - ▶ will also transfer characteristics/biases of the source country, and especially of its clinical reporting system
- Source country: Italy
 - ▶ first major outbreak in Europe and among the countries in our study

Transfer learning for COVID-19 incidence models

- Source model: regularised regression (*elastic net*)
 - ▶ use daily search query frequencies to estimate confirmed cases
 - ▶ Italy is our source country

$$\arg \min_{\mathbf{w}, \beta} \left(\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{S}\mathbf{w} - \beta\|_2^2 + \lambda_1 \|\mathbf{w}\|_1 + \lambda_2 \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 \right)$$

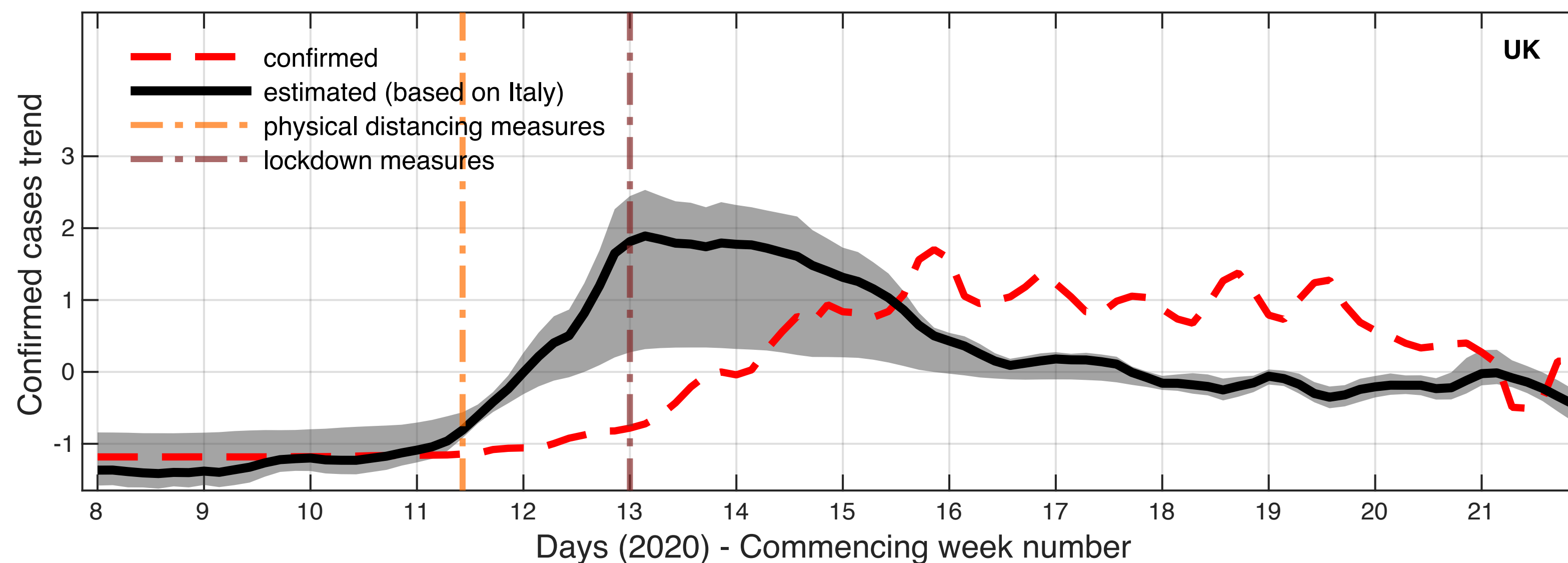
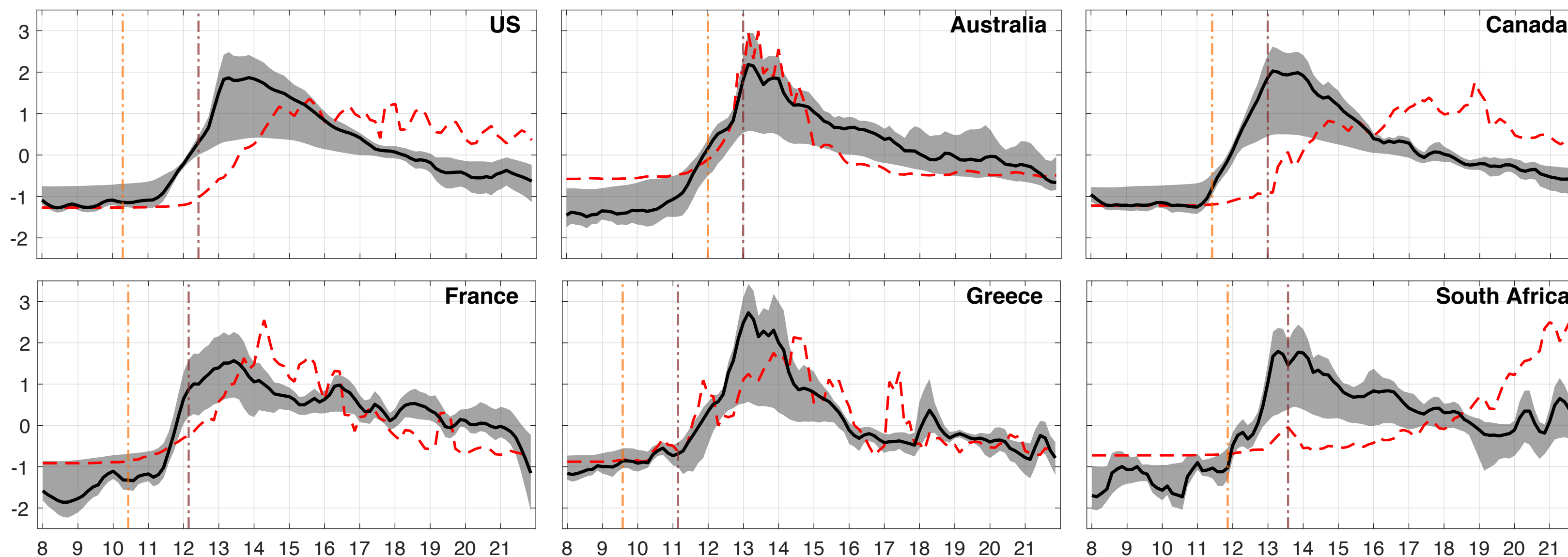
$\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$: M daily frequencies of N search terms
 $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^N, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$: regression weights and intercept
 $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$: regularisation parameters

- Many regression models (~80K) — different regularisation amount
 - ▶ sparsity levels from 5.5% to 91%
3 to 49 selected queries from the 54 we considered for Italy
 - ▶ use this as crude quantification of model's uncertainty

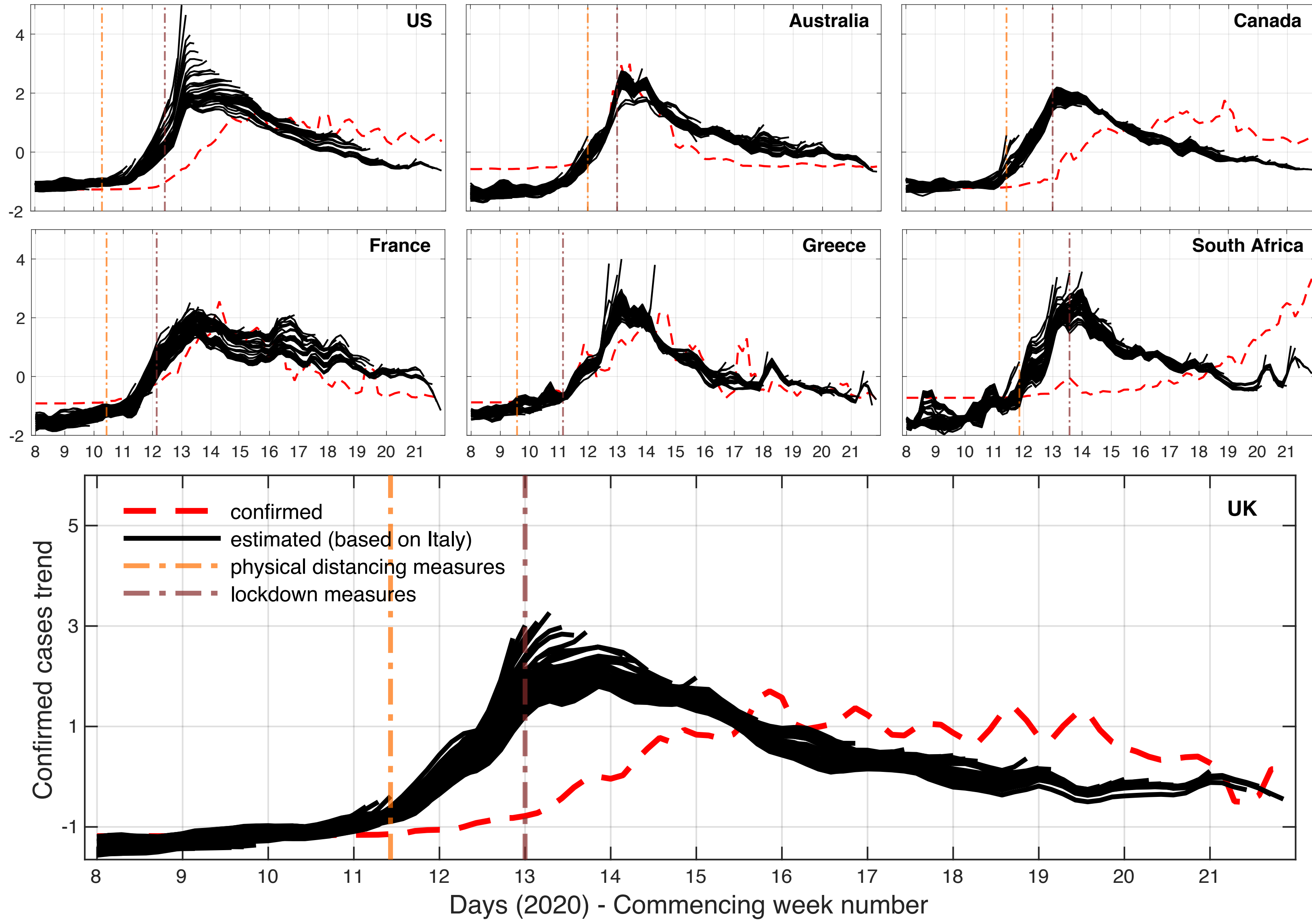
Transfer learning for COVID-19 incidence models

- Establish search query pairs between the source and the target countries
 - ▶ lookup for query pairs within the same symptom category
 - ▶ pair a source query to the target query with the greatest bivariate correlation, after identifying an optimal shifting period
- Transfer the regression weights from the source to the target feature space for all ~80K elastic net models
 - ▶ Final estimate of COVID-19 incidence is the mean over all elastic net models
 - ▶ .025 and .975 quantiles are used to form 95% confidence intervals
- Perform this daily from Feb. 17 to May 24, 2020, training models on increasing data from the source country

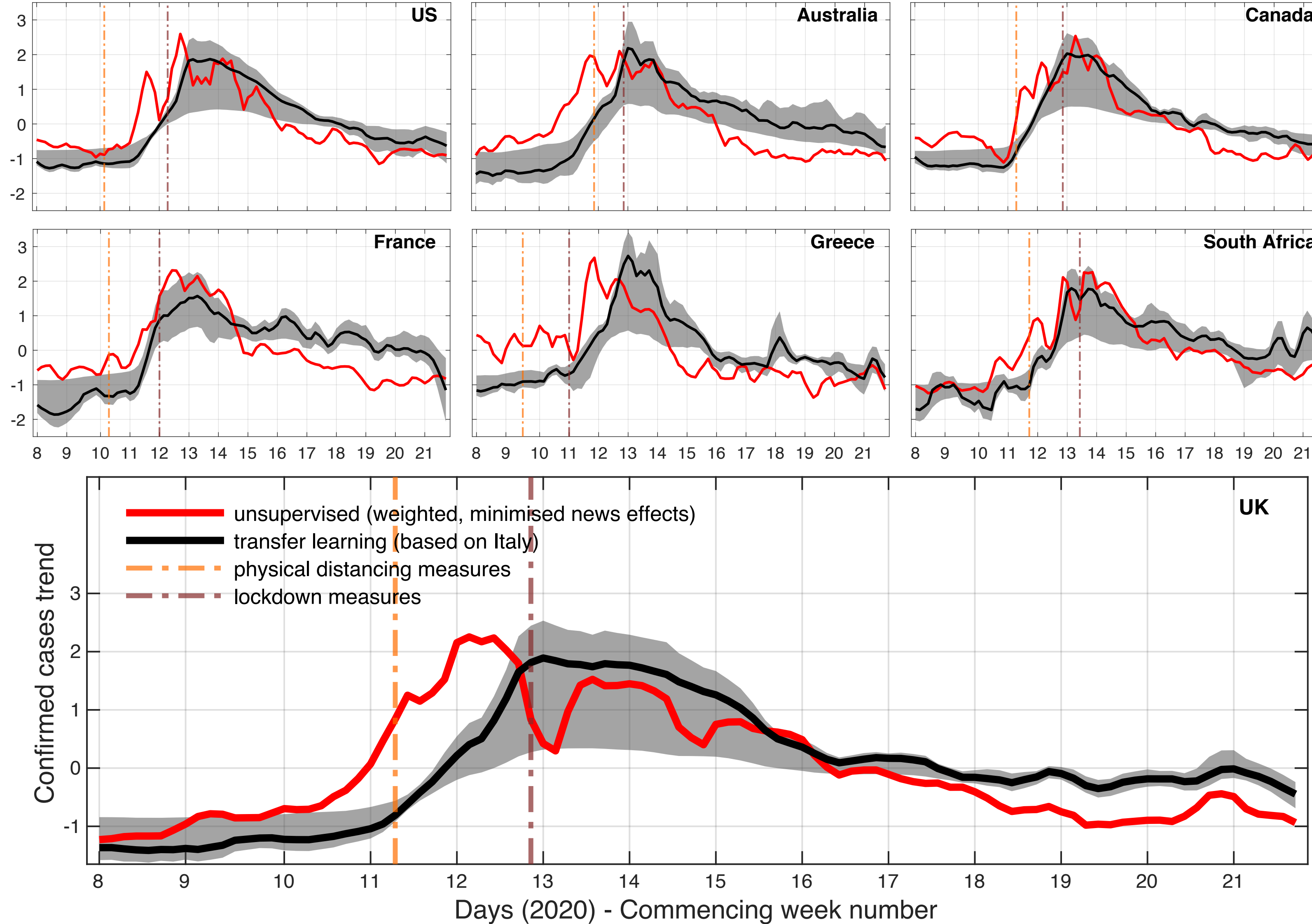
Transfer learning for COVID-19 incidence models



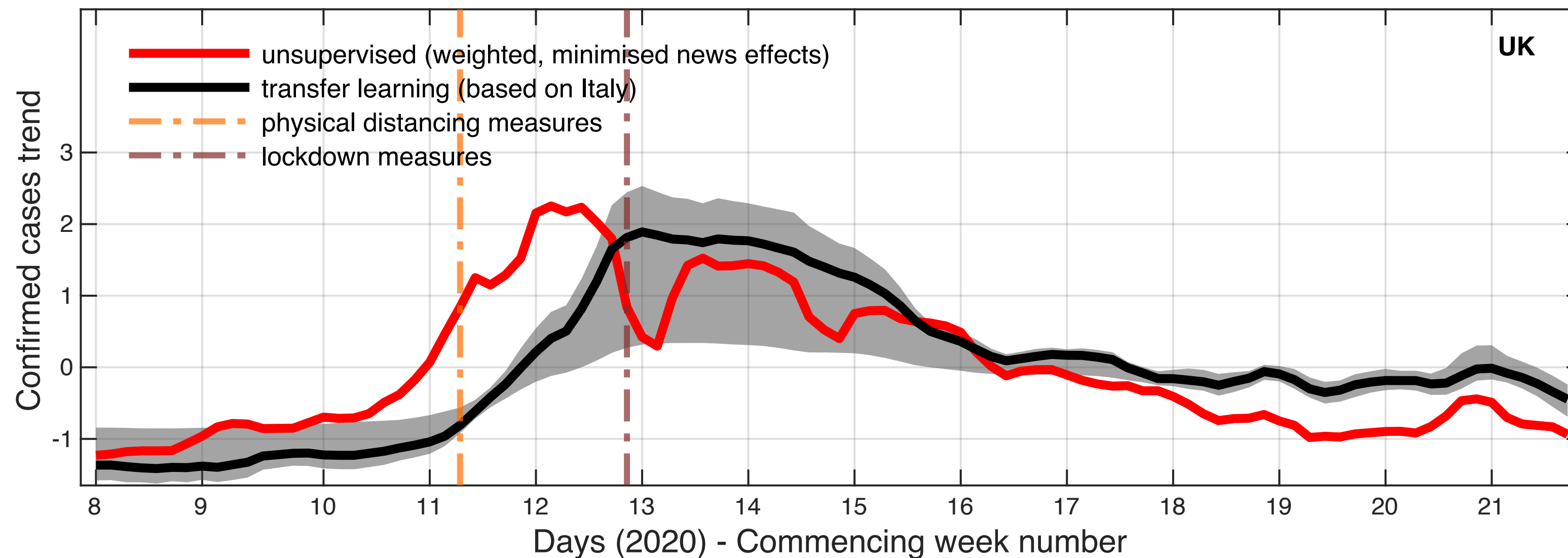
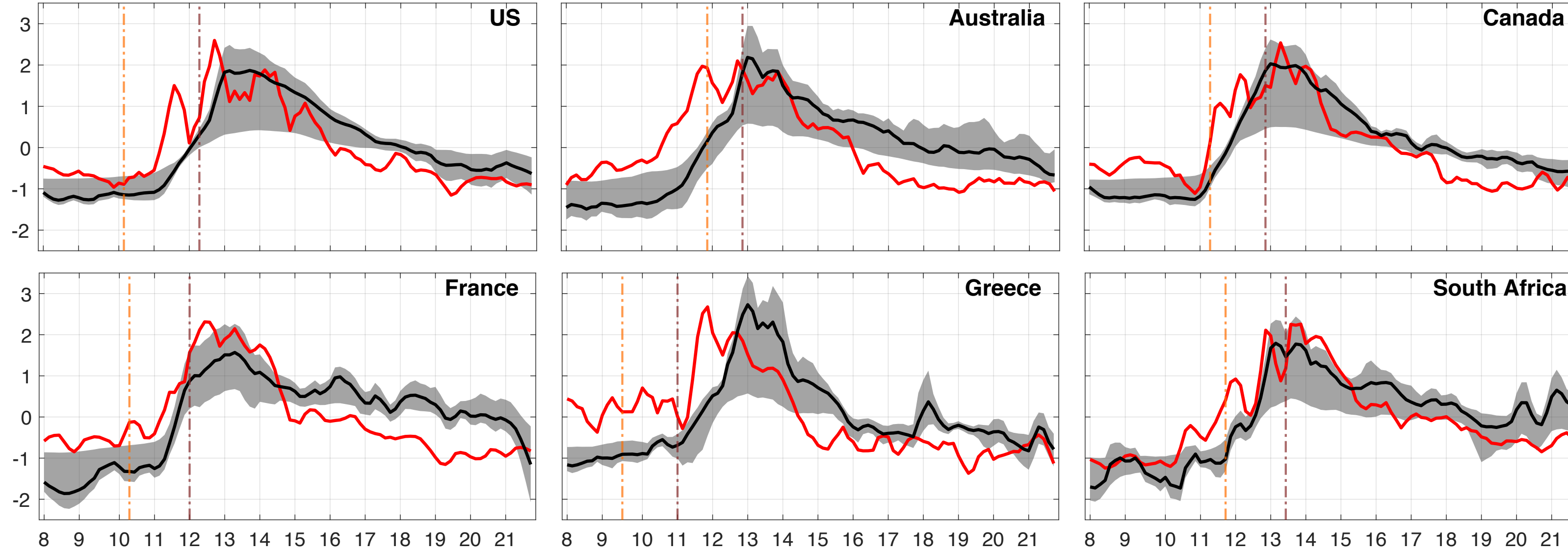
Transfer learning for COVID-19 incidence models – *In practice*



Transfer learning vs. unsupervised learning



Transfer learning vs. unsupervised learning



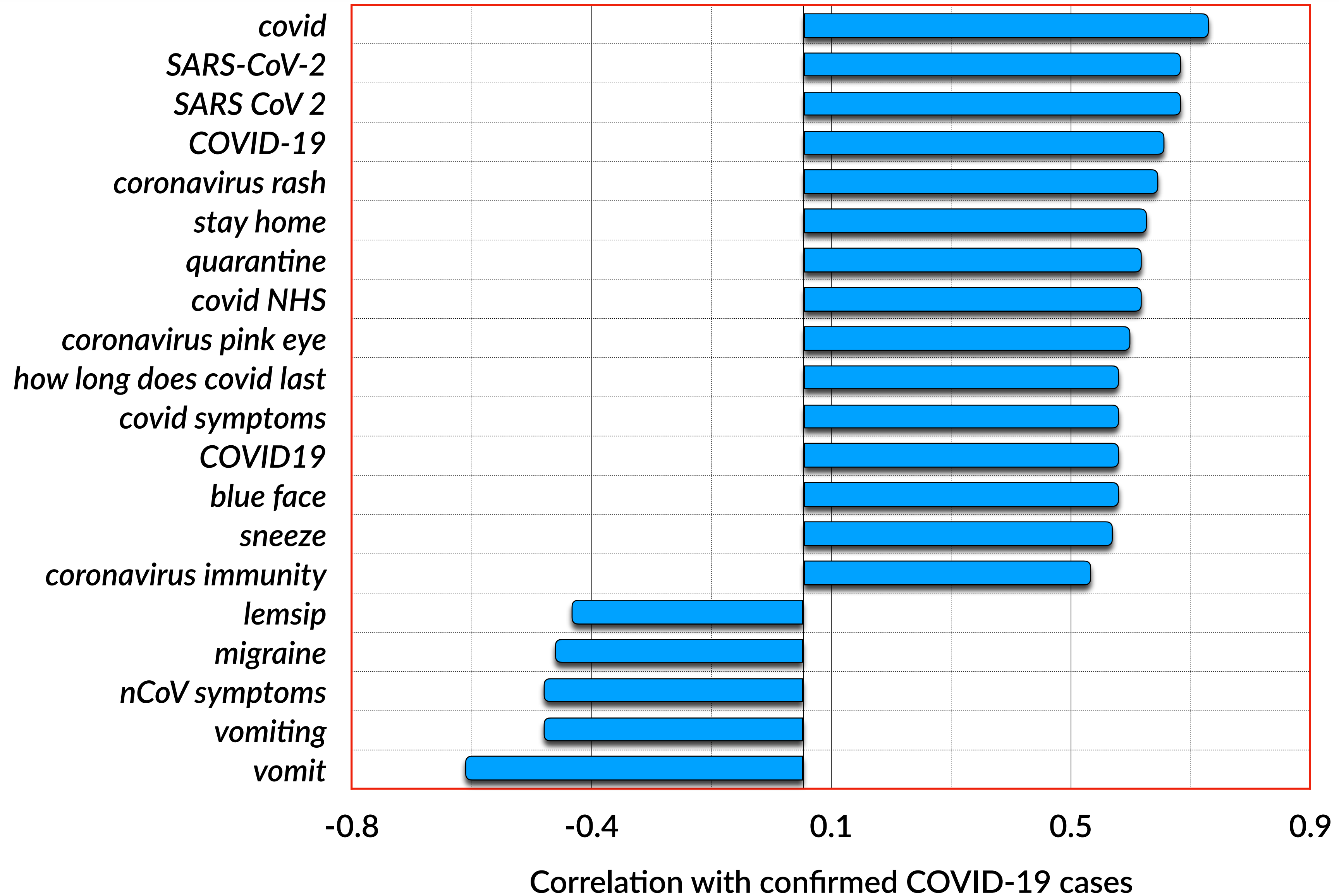
Correlation between the transferred models and the unsupervised models with reduced media effects

- $r_{\text{avg}} = .66$
- $r_{\text{max-avg}} = .80$, when the transferred time series are brought 5 days forward

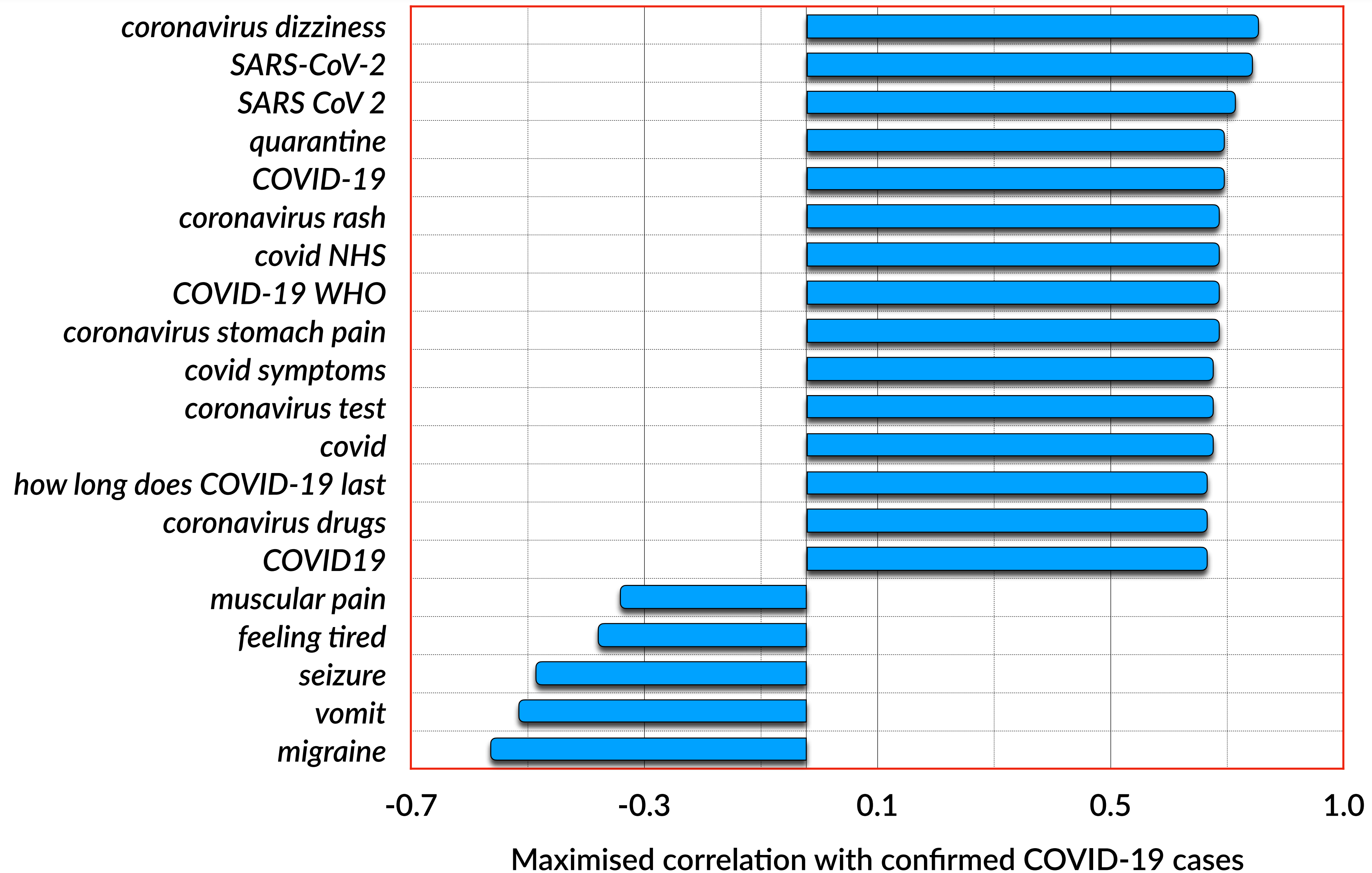
Correlation analysis

- Examine the statistical relationship between web search frequencies and confirmed COVID-19 cases (or deaths)
- Jointly for 4 English-speaking countries (US, UK, Australia, Canada)
 - ▶ attempt to reduce the bias of clinical endpoints in these different countries
 - ▶ focus on English-speaking countries for more comprehensive outcomes (without the need to translate searches)
- Use a broader set of search terms, not just symptom-related
 - figshare.com/projects/Tracking_COVID-19_using_online_search/81548
- Compute the joint bivariate correlation between search frequency and clinical indicators (cases or deaths) without any shifting and after shifting data so as to maximise it

Correlation between web searches and COVID-19 cases



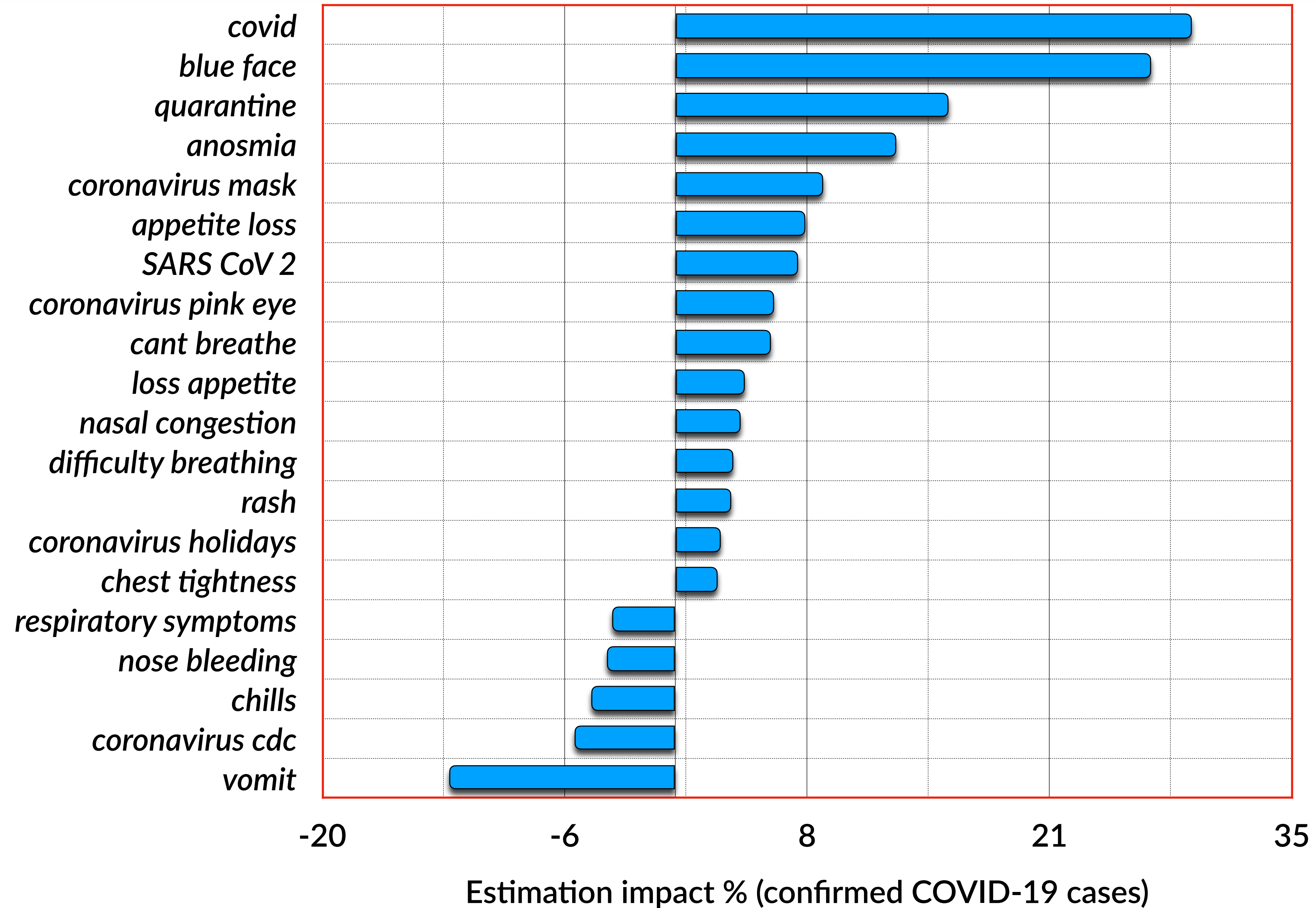
Maximised correlation between web searches and COVID-19 cases



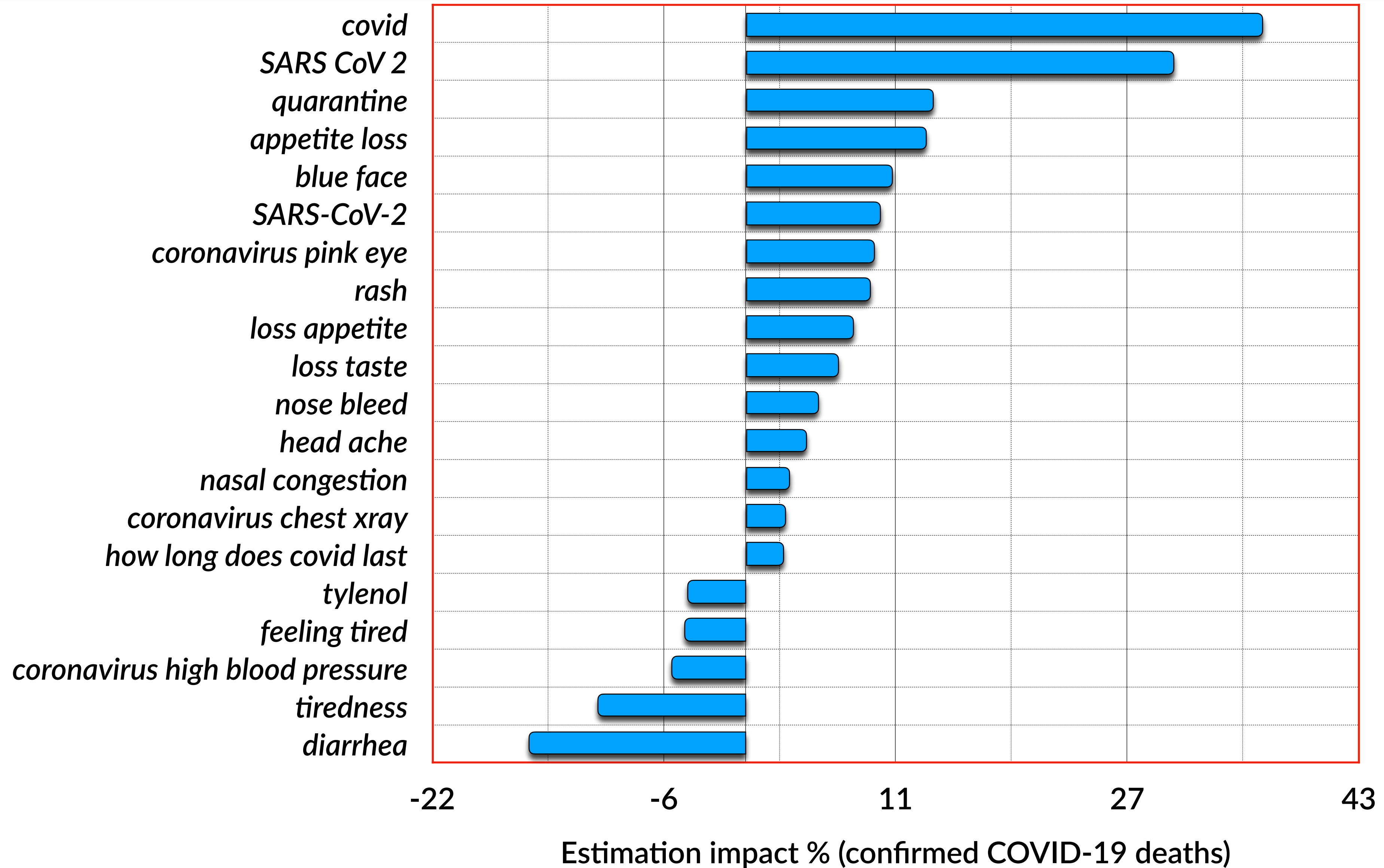
Regression analysis

- Same 4 English speaking countries (US, UK, Australia, Canada)
- Joint approach again
- Multivariate regression analysis
 - ▶ Learn many elastic net models for different levels of sparsity (50%-99% to reduce the chance of *overfitting*) to jointly estimate cases or deaths based on web search data in these 4 countries
 - ▶ Train on data up to day d , test performance on the next day, $d+1$
 - ▶ Repeat this daily from the 2nd of March to the 24th of May, 2020
 - ▶ Use ground truth to find the best solution at each sparsity level
 - ▶ Compute the impact (average across all days) of each search term in the best solution at each density level

Regression analysis – *confirmed COVID-19 cases*

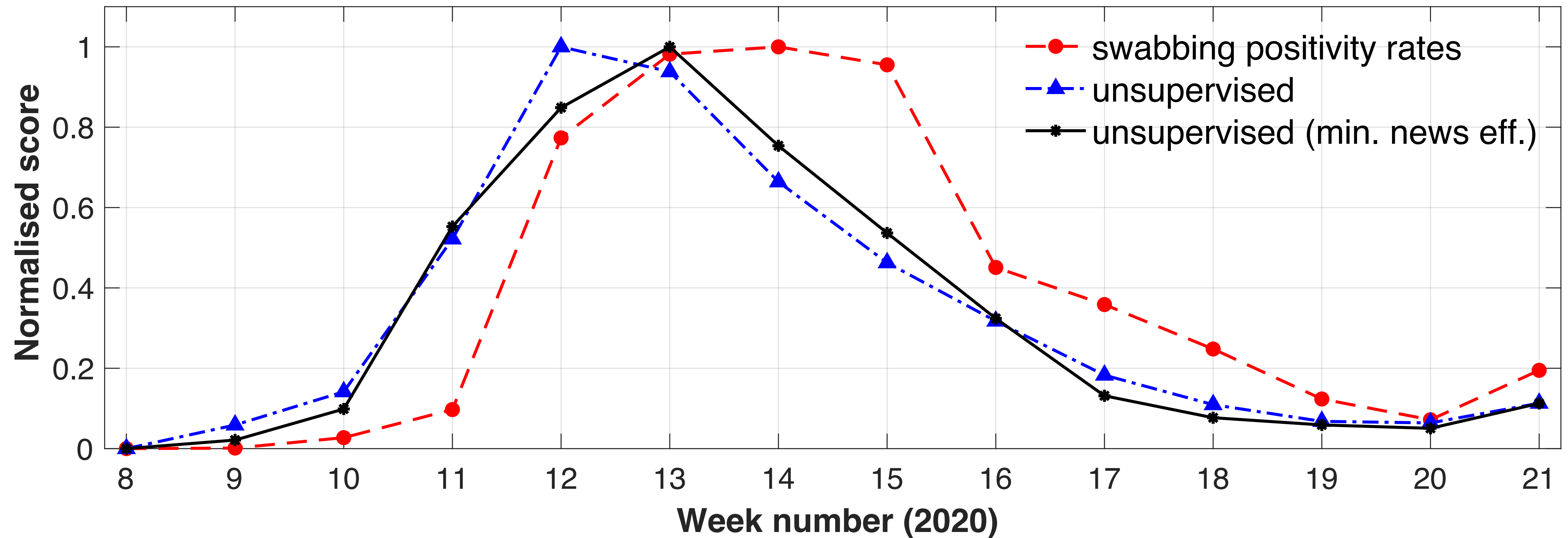


Regression analysis — *COVID-19 deaths*



Comparison with RCGP's swabbing scheme (England)

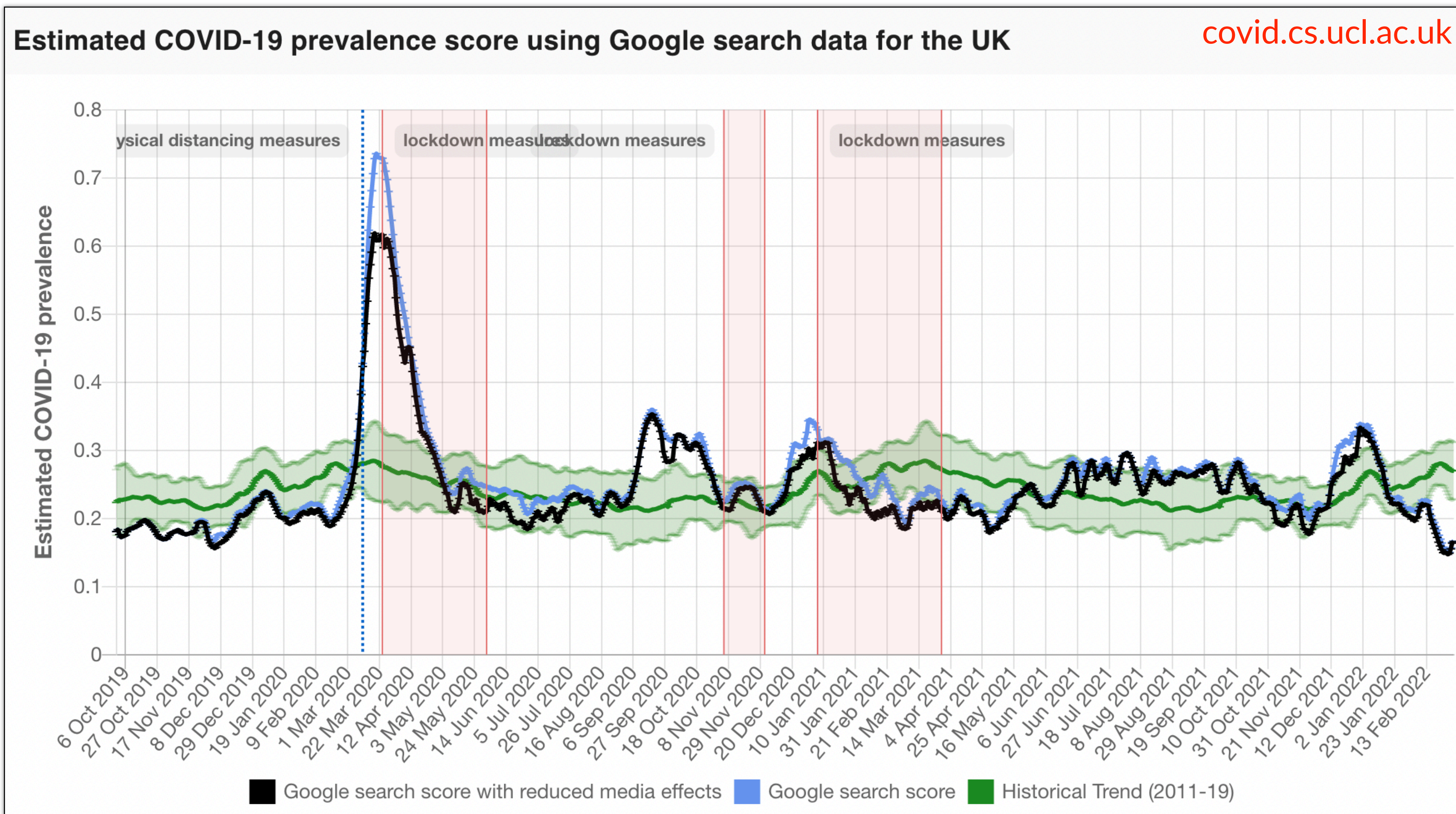
The Royal College of General Practitioners (**RCGP**) swabbing scheme included people with no COVID-19-related symptoms → better capturing community-level spread



Translation and impact – Part of UK's COVID-19 surveillance



gov.uk/government/statistics/national-flu-and-covid-19-surveillance-reports-2023-to-2024-season

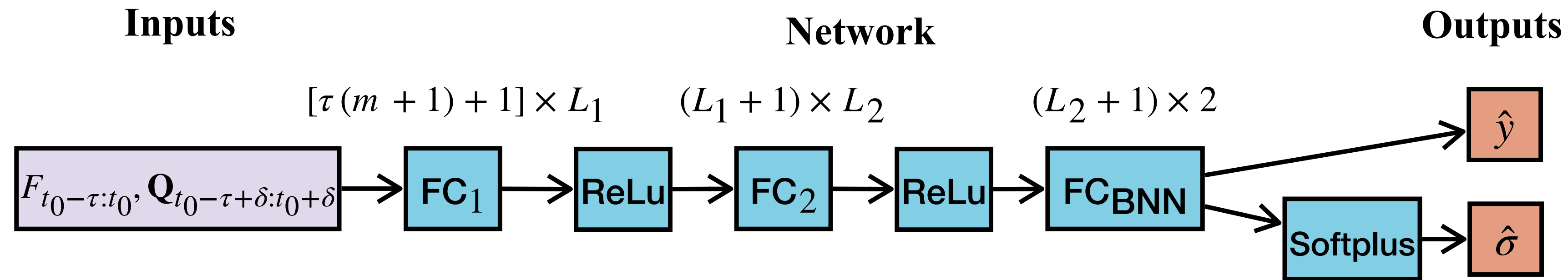


Part D

Advanced models for disease prevalence forecasting

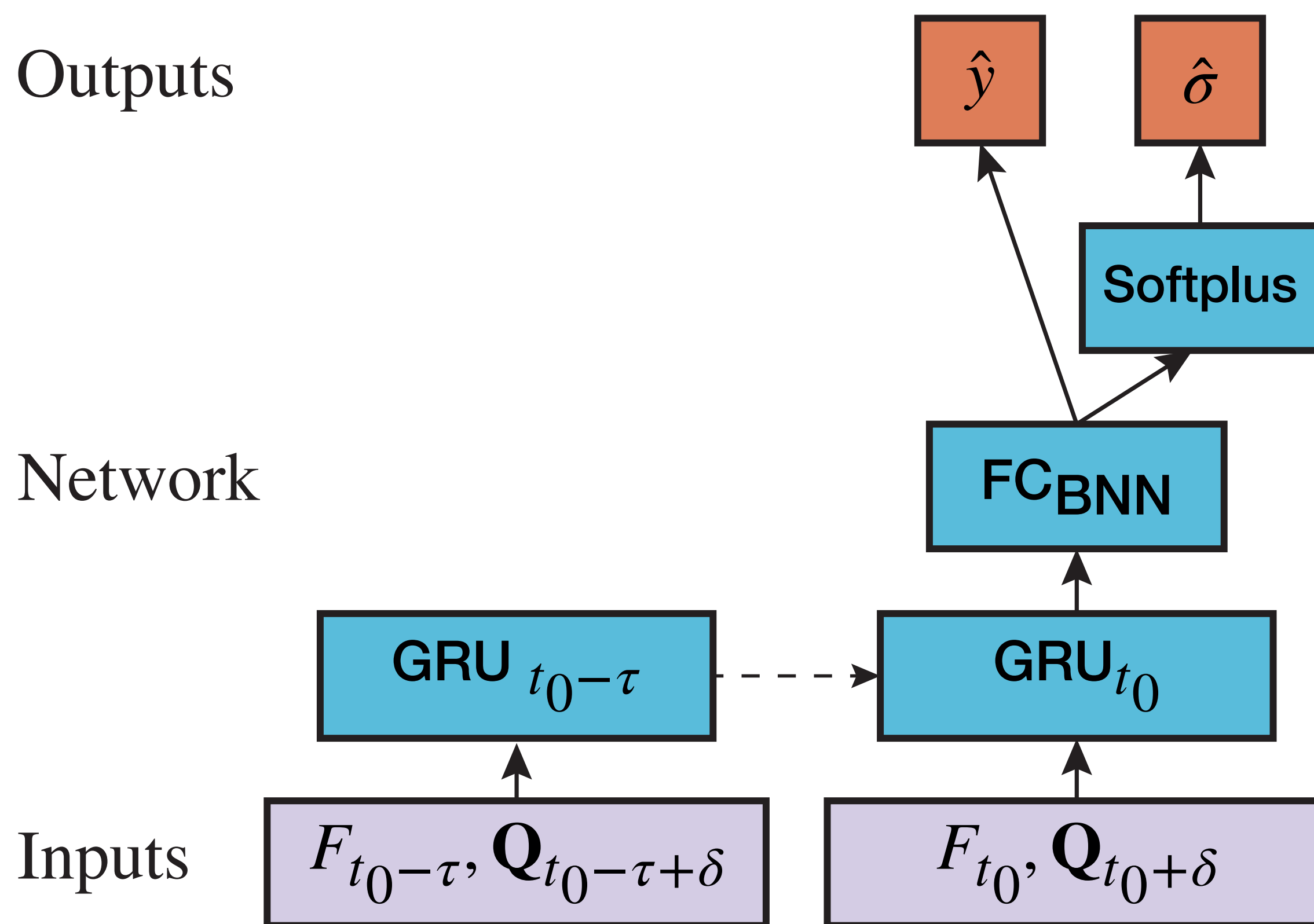
Morris, Hayes, Cox, Lampos (2023), *PLOS Comput. Biol.*
Shu, Lampos (2024), *Under review*

Neural networks for disease forecasting – Feedforward baseline



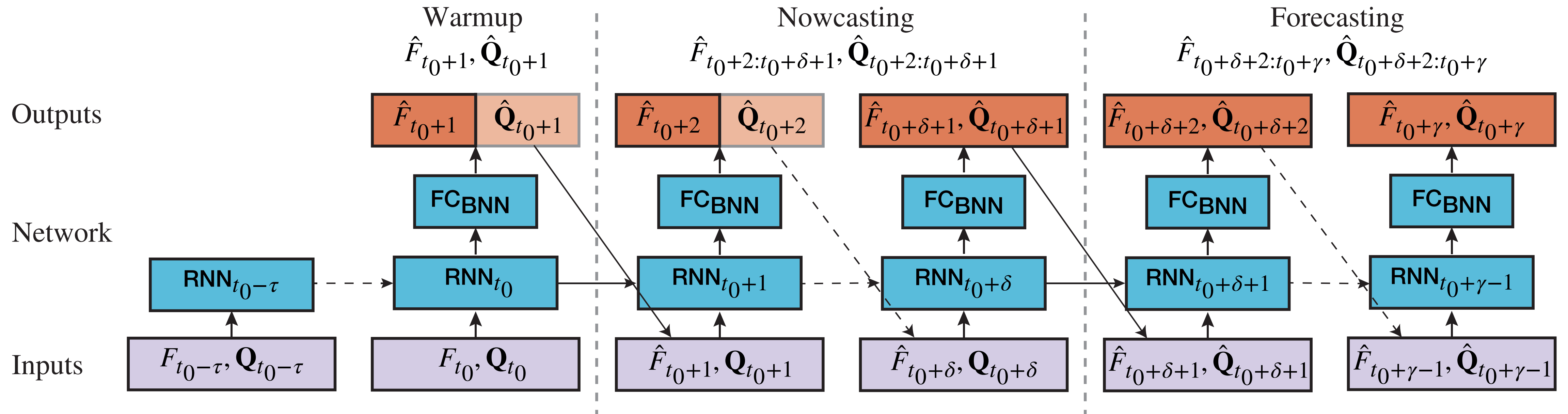
- ▶ **Input:** web search activity (Q), previous ILI rates (F) with a temporal delay δ flattened over a window of $\tau + 1$ days
- ▶ **Output:** mean forecasted ILI rate and its standard deviation $\gamma - \delta$ days ahead
- ▶ BNN denotes a fully connected Bayesian layer with a probability distribution over its weights
- ▶ **Data / aleatoric uncertainty:** by using negative log likelihood as our loss function to obtain a mean and a standard deviation for each forecast
- ▶ **Model / epistemic uncertainty:** by training the BNN layer using variational inference
- ▶ **Combine** data and model uncertainties by sampling the posterior of the NN's parameters
- ▶ Multiple **output estimates (samples)** are used to derive a forecast and its confidence intervals

Neural networks for disease forecasting – Simple RNN (SRNN)



- ▶ Replace FF layers with a GRU layer
- ▶ Input is not flattened as it becomes a time series sequence

Neural networks for disease forecasting – Iterative RNN (IRNN)



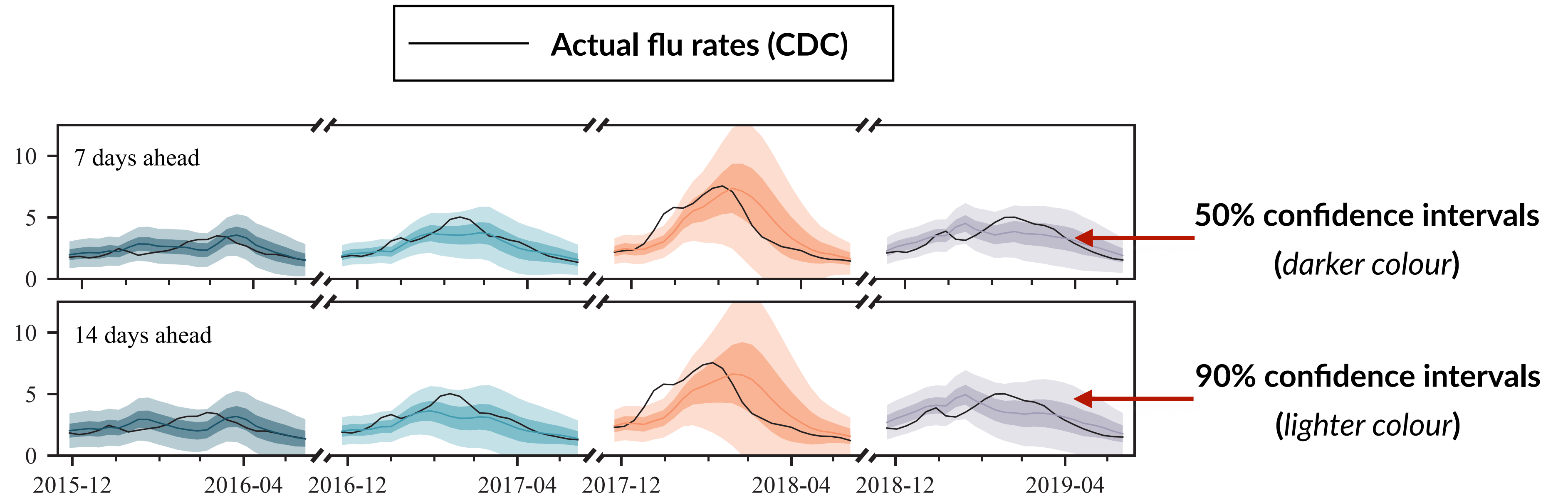
- ▶ Fully autoregressive, i.e. the network predicts all the input data for the next time step
- ▶ Feeds this data back to itself, unlimited forecasting horizon
- ▶ Initially for a certain some of the data (Google) is known to us (*we feed the actual data not the predicted ones*)
- ▶ **Limitation:** IRNN does not use forecasting distance to calibrate uncertainty

Forecasting accuracy (ILI, US)

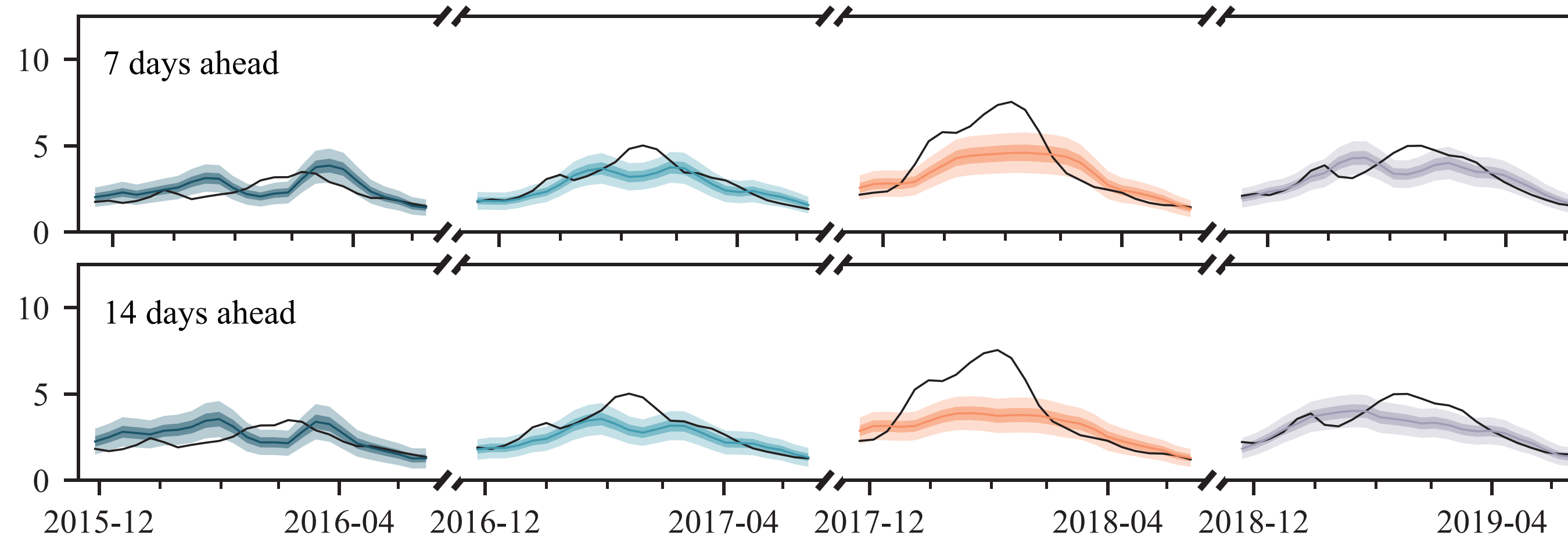
	Forecasting horizon	Accuracy metrics	FF	SRNN	IRNN
<p>CRPS: Continuous Ranked Probability Score</p> <p>MAE: Mean Absolute Error</p> <p><i>r</i>: bivariate (linear) correlation</p> <p>γ: γ days-ahead compared to the last ILI rate in the input (autoregressive), γ-14 days ahead compared the last search query frequency</p>	$\gamma = 21$	CRPS	0.39	0.41	0.30
		MAE	0.51	0.55	0.42
		<i>r</i>	0.85	0.83	0.87
	7 days ahead				
	$\gamma = 28$	CRPS	0.50	0.50	0.38
		MAE	0.63	0.64	0.53
<i>r</i>		0.76	0.78	0.84	
14 days ahead					

Influenza-like illness (ILI) forecasts (US)

Feedforward NN

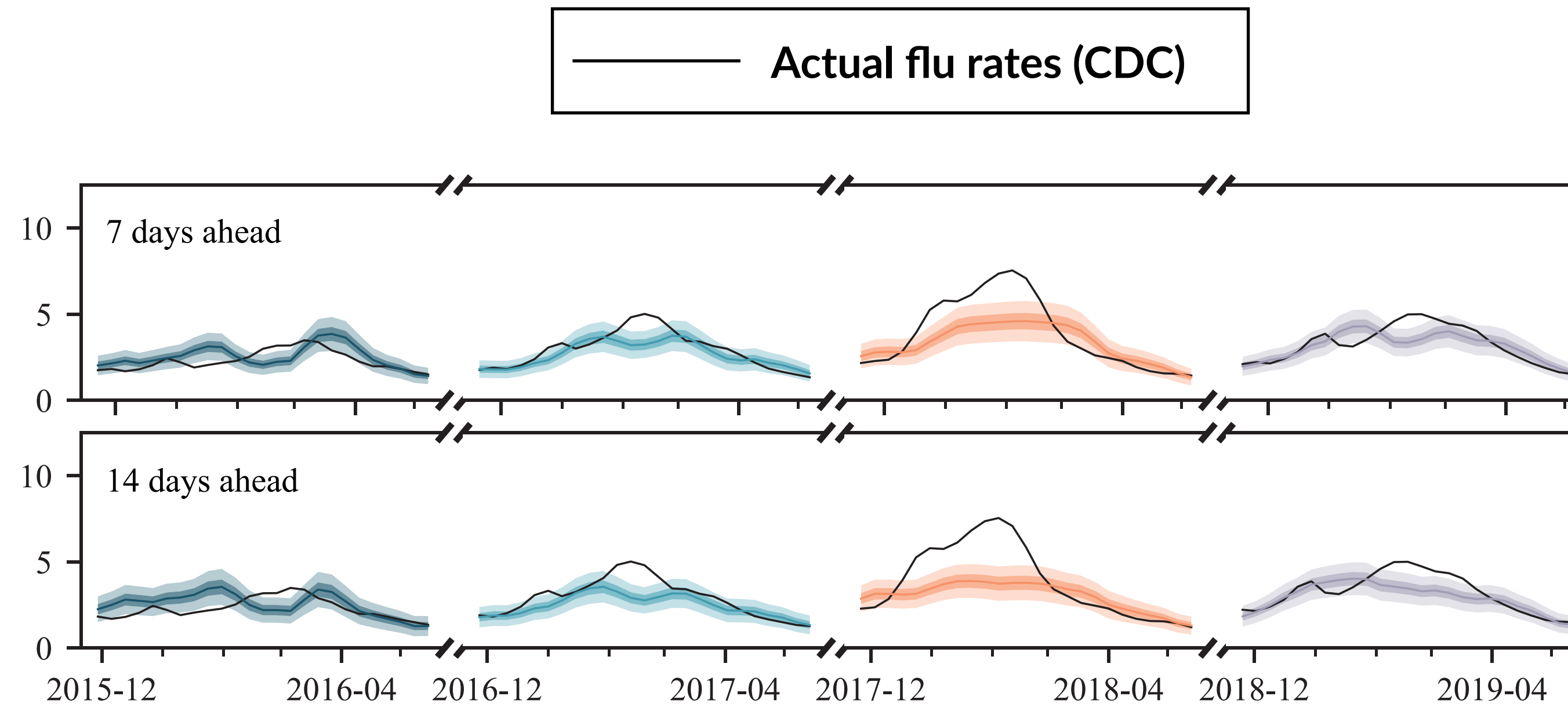


Simple RNN

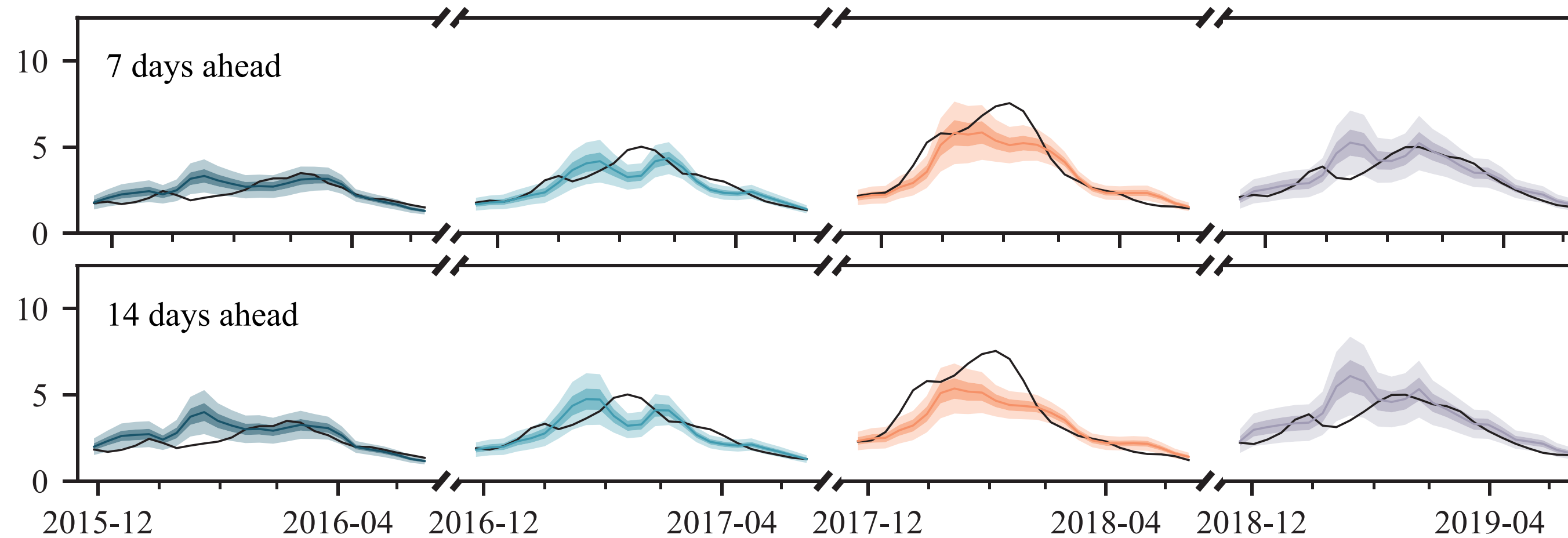


Influenza-like illness (ILI) forecasts (US)

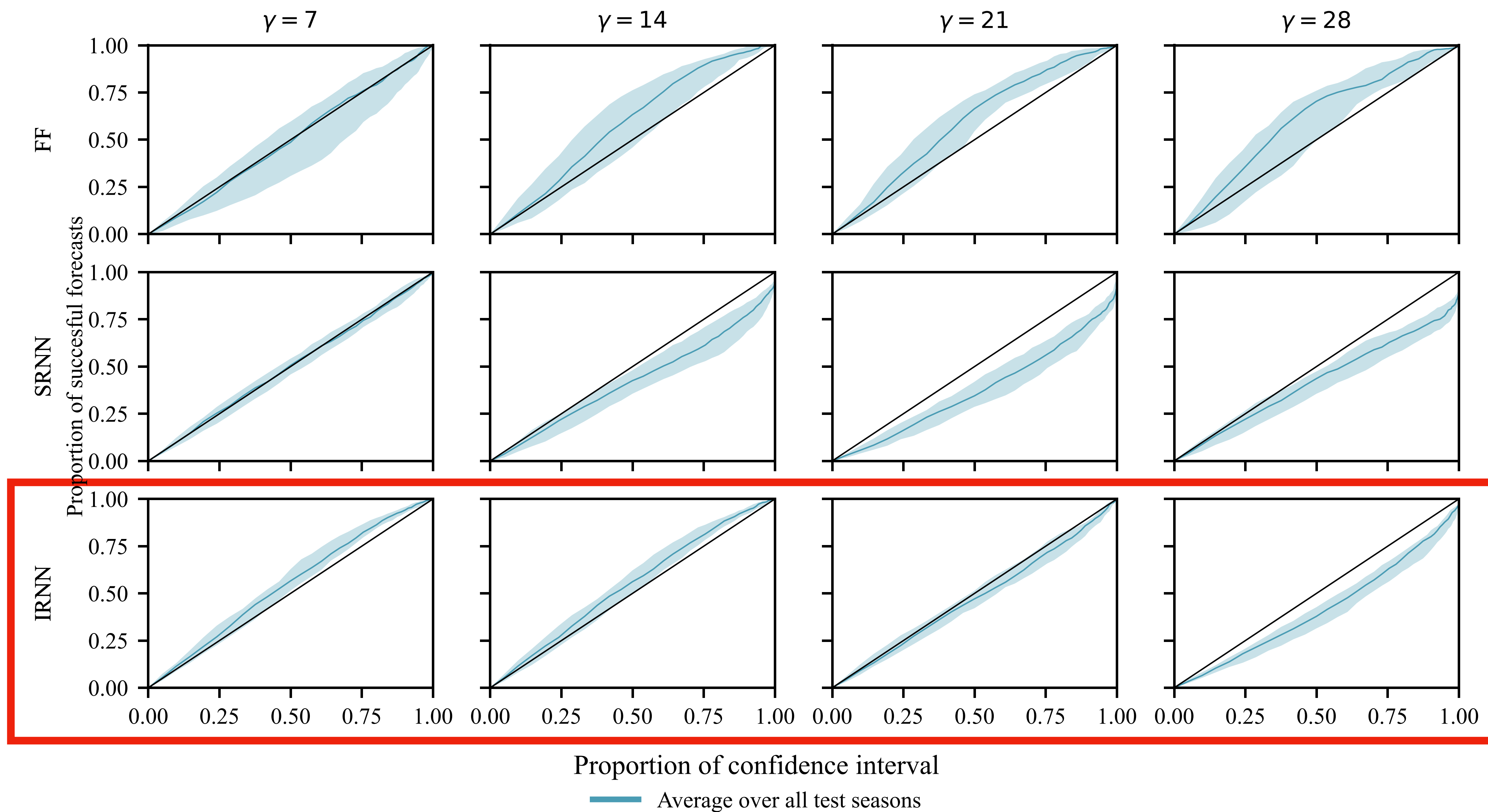
Simple RNN



Iterative RNN



Uncertainty calibration



Comparison between IRNN and “Dante”

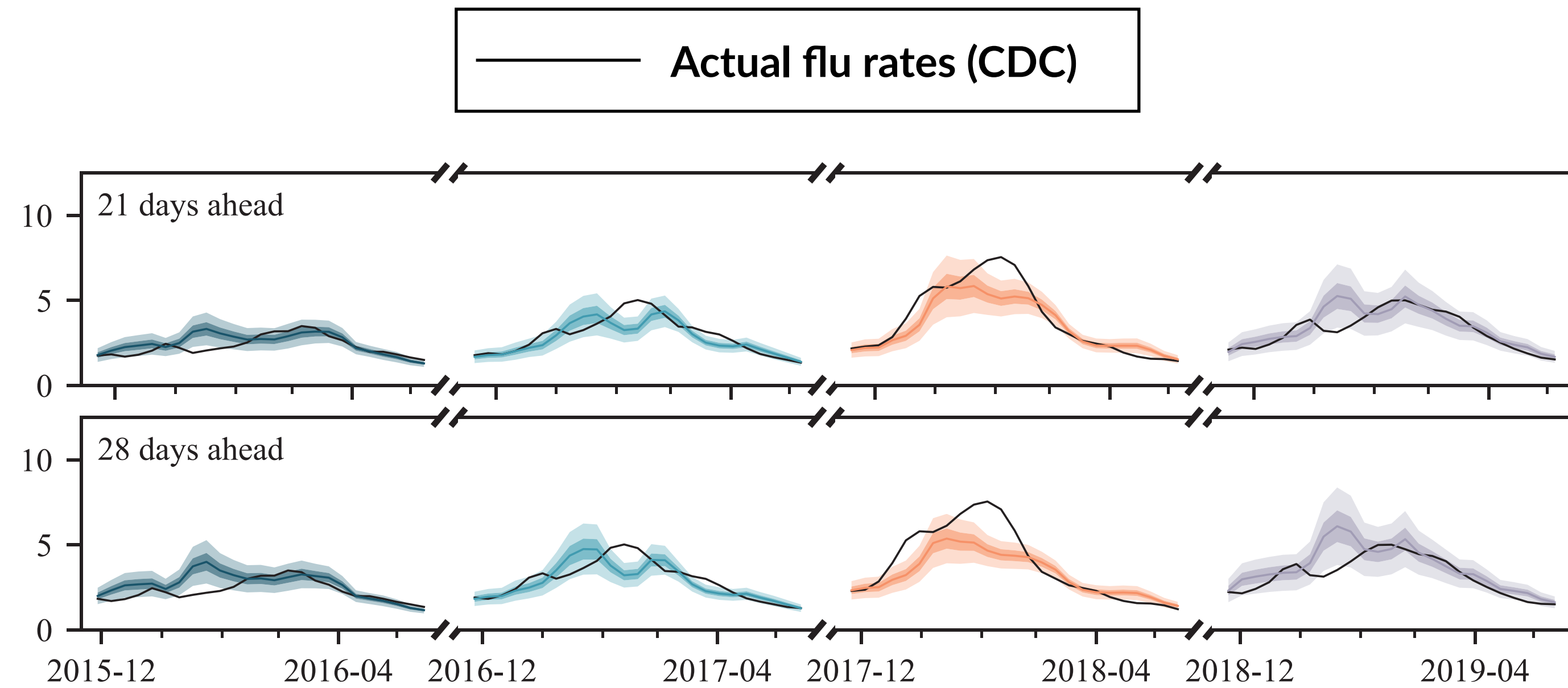
- ▶ State of the art performance based on a CDC competition
- ▶ “Dante” leverages information from US regions, IRNN model does not
- ▶ IRNN provides better accuracy and more meaningful uncertainty bounds (*see next slide!*)
- ▶ **NB:** In these experiments, we have removed the ability of our model to use more recent web search activity

Forecasting horizon	Accuracy metrics	Dante	IRNN
$\gamma = 21$	MAE	0.53	0.47
21 days ahead	r	0.73	0.81
$\gamma = 28$	MAE	0.61	0.60
28 days ahead	r	0.68	0.78

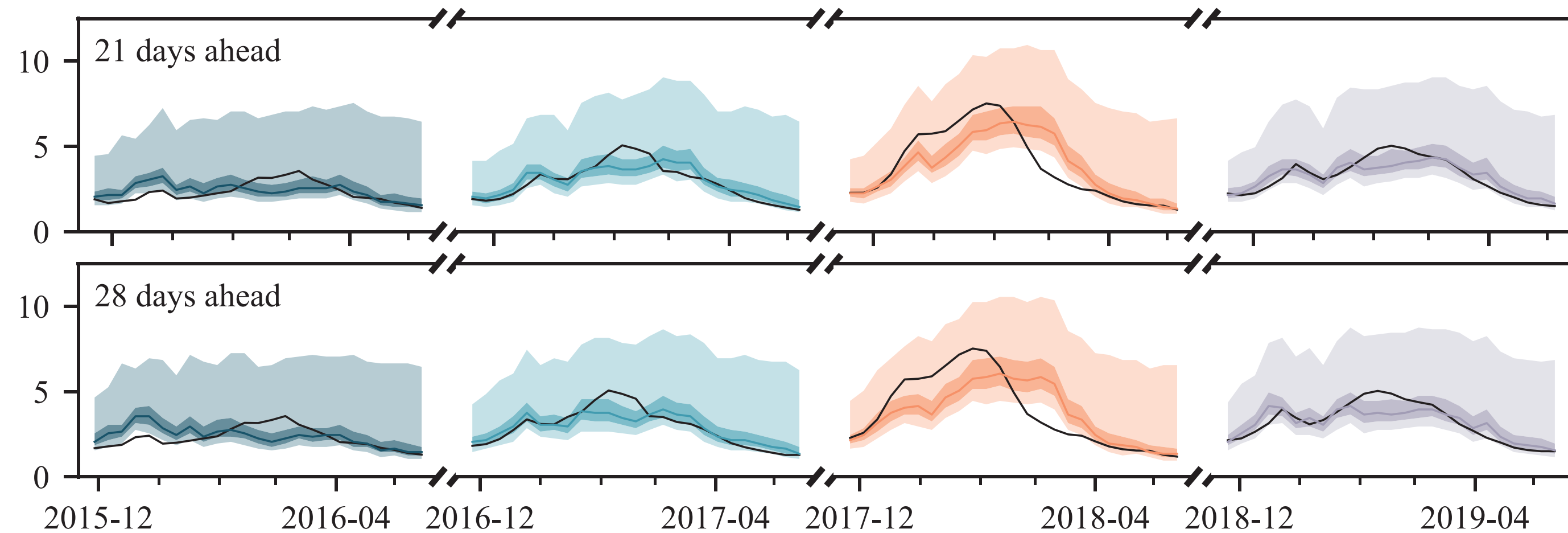
Osthus & Moran (2021), *Nat. Commun.*

Comparison with “Dante”

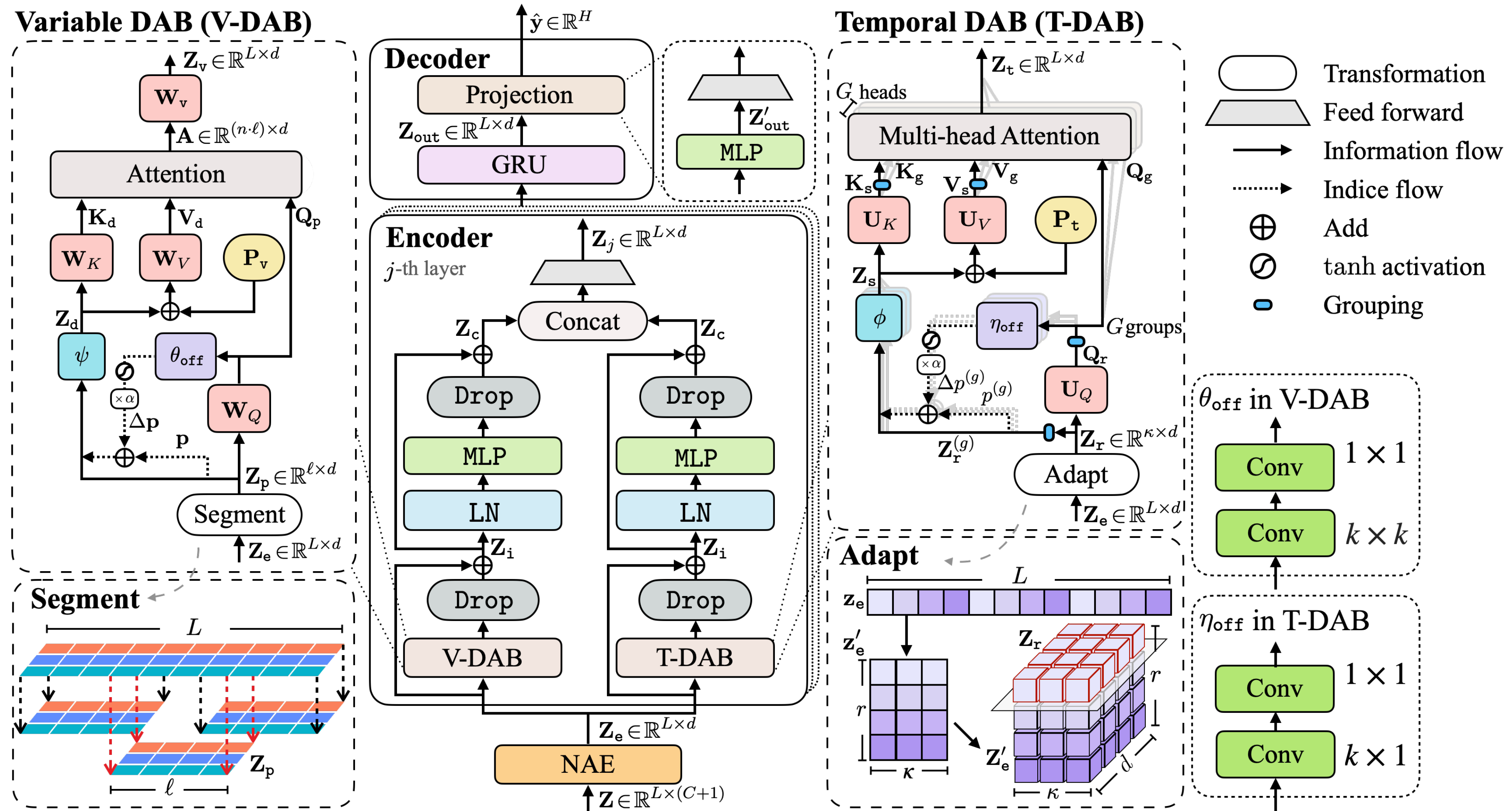
Iterative RNN



Dante



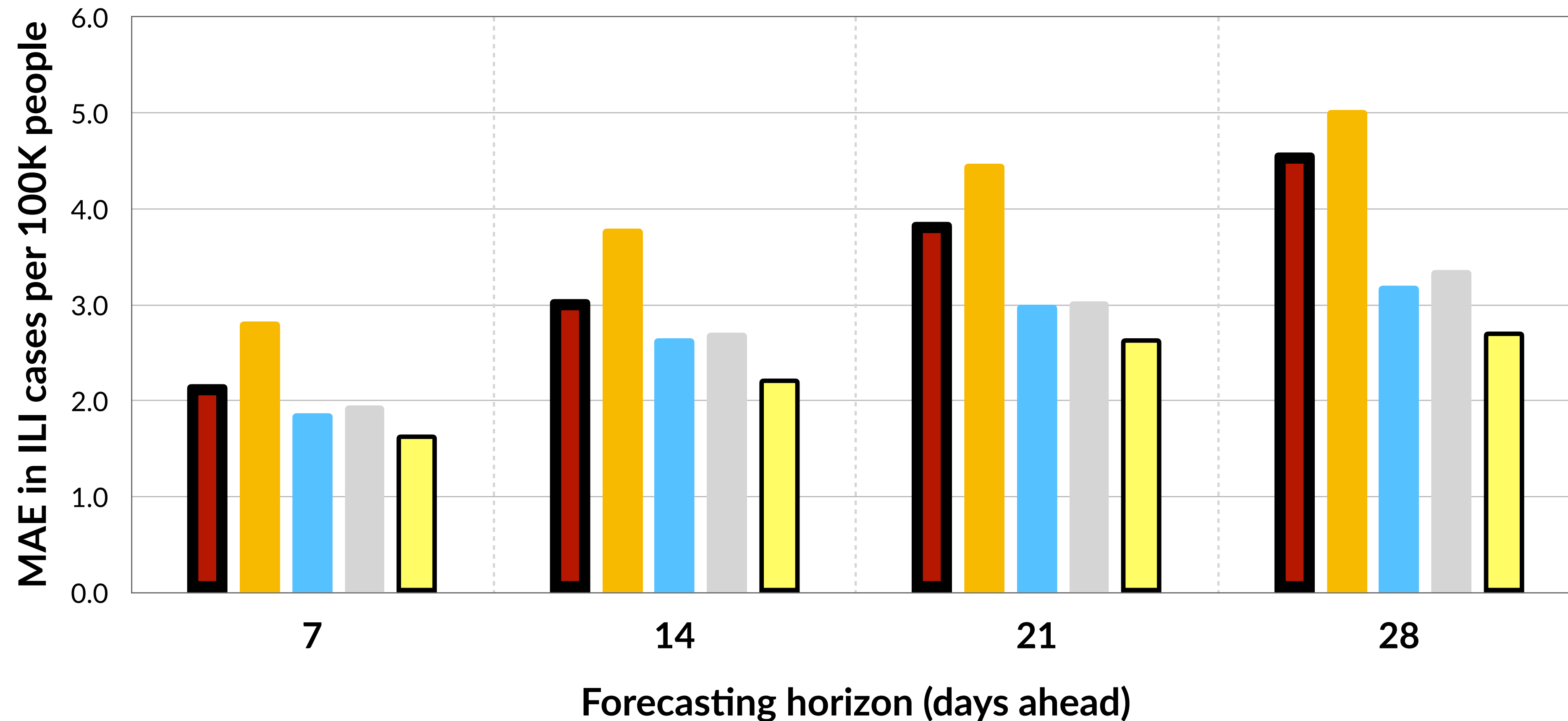
Time series forecasting with DEFORMTIME



DEFORMTIME – Influenza-like illness (ILI) forecasting accuracy (England)

Zeng *et al.* (2023) Zhang, Yan (2023) Luo, Wang (2024) Shu, Lamos (2024)

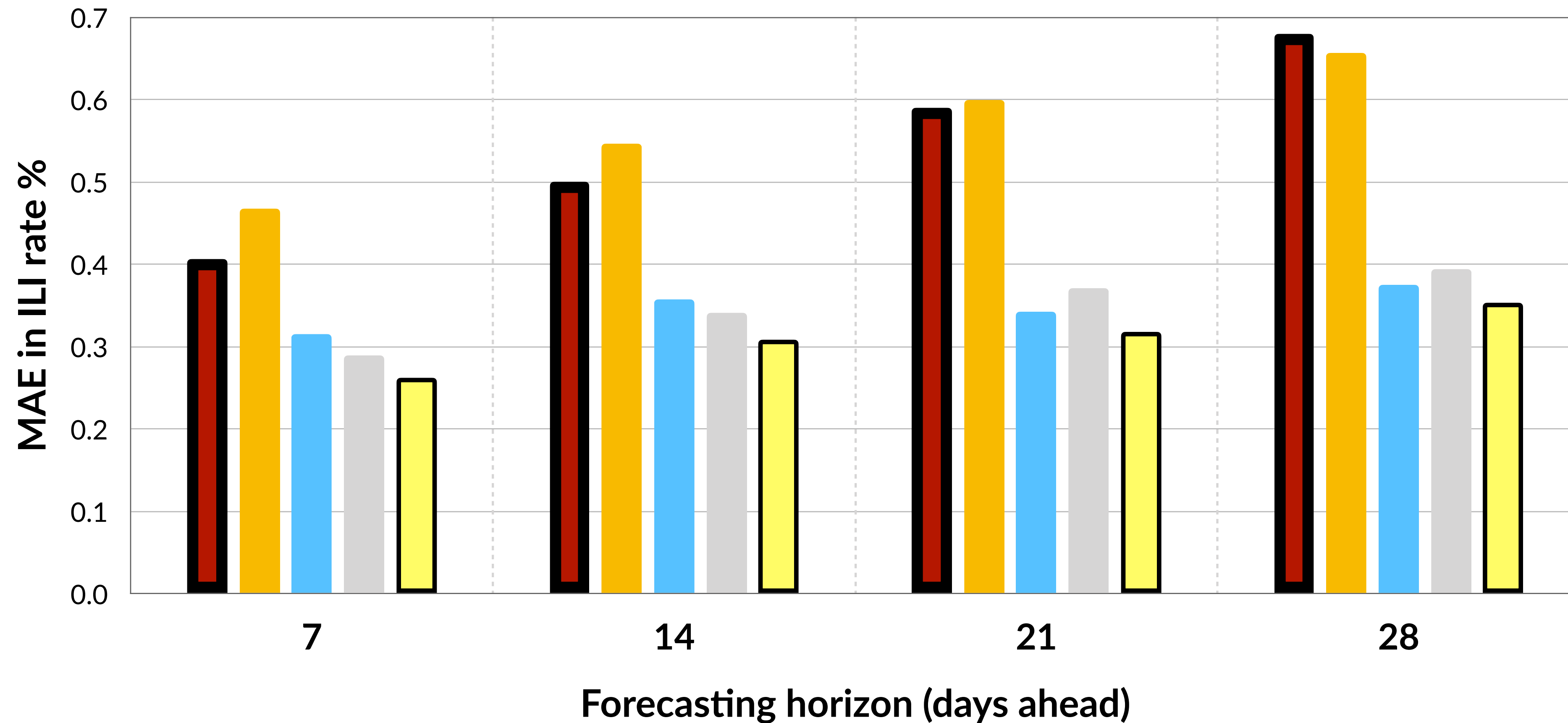
■ Persistence (baseline) ■ DLinear ■ Crossformer ■ ModernTCN ■ DeformTime



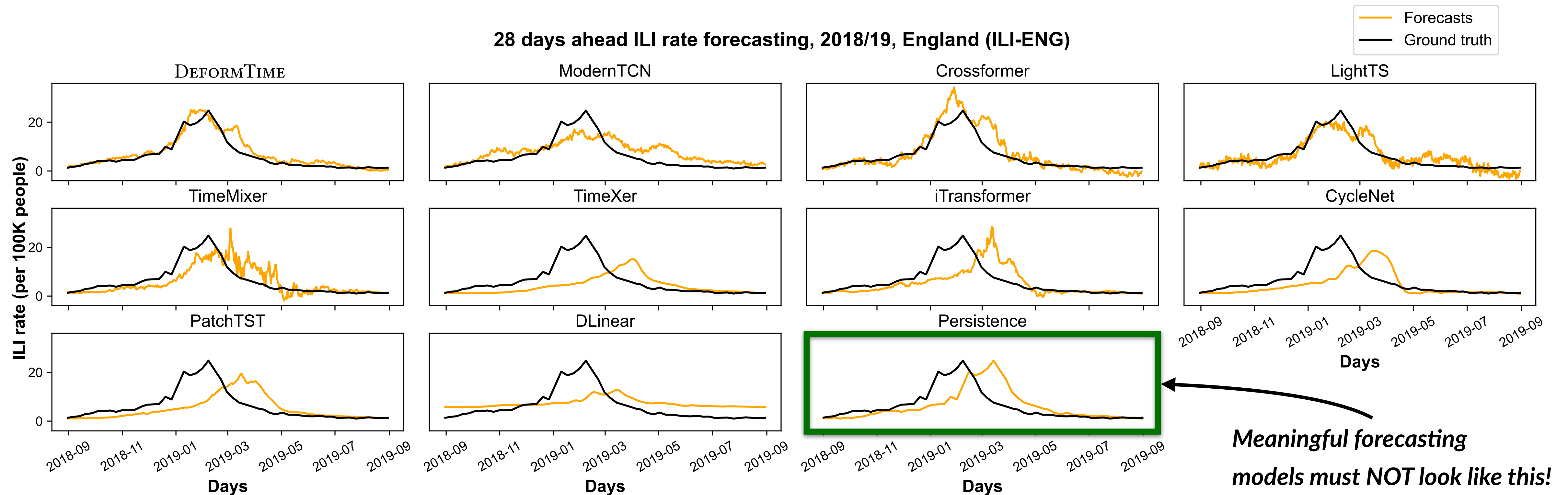
DEFORMTIME – Influenza-like illness (ILI) forecasting accuracy (US region 9)

Zeng *et al.* (2023) Zhang, Yan (2023) Luo, Wang (2024) Shu, Lamos (2024)

■ Persistence (baseline) ■ DLinear ■ Crossformer ■ ModernTCN ■ DeformTime



DEFORMTIME vs. other models – 28 days ahead, 2018/19, England



- “SOTA” forecasting models make similar forecasts to a persistence model
- **Exceptions:** DeformTime, ModernTCN, Crossformer, LightTS
- Forecasting influenza-like illness 28 days ahead seems possible

Concluding remarks

- **Web search activity** can be used for infectious disease monitoring
 - ▶ the original Google Flu Trends model was definitely not the right approach
 - ▶ *... but there are ways to get this right!*
- Disease models can be **transferred** to locations where historical disease rates are not available
- **Unsupervised models** based on web search activity
 - ▶ require a **careful design**
 - ▶ could be helpful for novel infectious diseases (COVID-19), esp. when everything else fails
- **Deep learning** for time series forecasting
 - ▶ uncertainty / further improvements / interpretability
 - ▶ combine with mechanistic models

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