Two Problems Related to Biosurveillance

Myron J. Katzoff Office of Research and Methodology Centers for Disease Control and Prevention National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS) Hyattsville, MD

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A Definition and Objective

• **Biosurveillance**(HSPD-21): the process of active data-gathering with appropriate analysis and interpretation of biosphere data that might relate to disease activity and threats to human or animal health – whether infectious, toxic, metabolic or otherwise and regardless of intentional or natural origin – in order to achieve early warning of health threats, early detection of health events and overall situational awareness of disease activity.

•**Objective**: To describe how extreme value theory might be used in a biosurveillance problem.

The Problem

• Soon after exposure to a variety of different pathogens, victims will present symptoms of influenza-like illness(IFI) .

• Such exposures would very likely be "hidden" if they occurred during the "flu season".

• A clue to the possibility of such exposures might be a sudden increase in the incidence of influenza.

• How can we assess the extremeness of the number of influenza cases in a population?

This could be our earliest indication that something outof-the-ordinary is happening.

Outline

Consider EV theory from the perspective of what is needed for *statistical modeling* as an aid in decision-making when extreme natural or man-made catastrophic events occur

- Block maxima models
- Threshold excess models
- Time/spatial-location (nonstochastic) dependence
- Stochastic dependence
- SUMMARY

A First Fundamental Result: Extremal Types

<u>Theorem 1</u>:Let $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of IID r.v.'s and let $M_n = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$. If there exist sequences of constants $\{\alpha_n > 0\}$ and $\{\beta_n\}$ such that

$$\Pr\left[rac{M_n-eta_n}{lpha_n}\leq z
ight]
ightarrow G(z) ext{ as } n
ightarrow\infty$$

where $G(\cdot)$ is a nondegenerate DF, then G is a member of the generalized extreme value (GEV) family of DF's:

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

where $\sigma > 0$ and $-\infty < \mu < \infty$; and the support is $\{z : 1 + \xi(z - \mu)/\sigma > 0\}$.

Block Maxima Models

(creating a straw man)

• Suppose we have several years (say, m) of weekly observations and that for a crude and very quick analysis pertinent to the current year we are willing to regard each previous year as providing 52 independent observations from a common distribution.

• Let X_j denote the maximum number of cases in each year (a year providing a block of observations) for j = 1, 2, ..., m.

Block Maxima Models (creating a straw man) *continued*

We might then consider maximum likelihood estimation of μ, σ and ξ in $G(\cdot)$ of Theorem 1 – that is, we would find values for these parameters which maximize the log-likelihood

$$l(\mu,\sigma,\xi) = -m\ln\sigma - \left(1 + \frac{1}{\xi}\right)\sum_{j=1}^{m}\ln\left[1 + \xi\left(\frac{z-\mu}{\sigma}\right)\right] - \sum_{j=1}^{m}\left[1 + \xi\left(\frac{z-\mu}{\sigma}\right)\right]^{-\frac{1}{\xi}}$$

6

Some Problems/Issues

- Systematic components of seasonality and trends
- Dependence among the observed numbers of cases in adjacent weeks
- Changes in the population base: numbers of people; mix by age, race and sex
- Spatial distribution and clustering of a population at risk

<u>etc.</u>

Some Problems/Issues continued

From Coles (2001)

• "... modeling only block maxima is a wasteful approach to extreme value analysis if other data on extremes [for example, the five largest values] are available"

• " If an entire time series of ... observations is available, then better use is made of data by avoiding altogether the procedure of blocking."

A Second Fundamental Result:

Excess Above A Threshold, u

<u>Theorem 2</u>: As before, let $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of IID r.v.'s and let $M_n = \max\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$. Suppose that the conditions of Theorem 1 are again satisfied so that for the DF common to all the r.v.'s of the sequence there exist sequences of constants $\alpha_n > 0$ and β_n such that

$$\Pr\left[\frac{M_n - \beta_n}{\alpha_n} \le z\right] \to G(z)$$
 (nondegenerate)

as $n \to \infty$ and

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

for some μ, σ and ξ . Then, for large enough u (a real number), the DF of (X-u) conditional on X > u is given approximately by the generalized Pareto distribution function – that is,

$$H(y) = \Pr[(X - u) \le y] = 1 - (1 + \frac{\xi y}{\tilde{\sigma}})^{-\frac{1}{\xi}},$$

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for y in $\{y : y > 0 \text{ and } (1 + \xi y / \tilde{\sigma}) > 0\}$, where $\tilde{\sigma} = \sigma + \xi(u - \mu)$.

Important Value Added by Threshold Excess Models

• It is reasonable to expect that some level of incidence in IFIsymptoms is normal and nothing to be concerned about but, beyond a certain threshold, there is, indeed, reason for alarm!

• EV theory supplies the statistical models and the diagnostic procedures for determining what a useful threshold might be: Q-Q plots, Gumbel plots, mean-excess plots and Z- and W-statistics.

 \bullet EV theory provides estimates of the probabilities of various exceedances δ of the threshold u

$$\zeta_u \left[1 + \frac{\xi \delta}{\tilde{\sigma}}\right]^{-\frac{1}{\xi}},$$

where $\zeta_u = \Pr[X > u]$. If $\xi = 0$, the second factor is replaced by its limit as $\xi \to 0$, $\exp(-\frac{\delta}{\tilde{\sigma}})$.

Systematic Nonrandom Variation

• For the GEV distribution

$$G_Z(z) = \exp\left\{-\left[1+\xi\left(\frac{z-\mu}{\sigma}\right)\right]^{-\frac{1}{\xi}}\right\},\,$$

one finds that $E[Z] = \mu - \frac{\sigma}{\xi}(1 + \Gamma(1 - \xi)), \Gamma(\cdot)$ being the gamma function, and $Var[Z] = (\frac{\sigma}{\xi})^2 \{\Gamma(1 - 2\xi) - \Gamma^2(1 - \xi)\}.$

• It may be difficult to model the shape parameter, ξ , as a function of time. However, to account for the systematic components of trend and seasonal variation, it is not unreasonable to consider μ and, possibly, σ^2 as functions of time, t.

Systematic Nonrandom Variation continued

For subsequent analyses, it is then useful to note that the standardized form of Z, defined by

$$Z^* = \frac{1}{\xi} \ln \left[1 + \xi \left(\frac{Z - \mu}{\sigma} \right) \right],$$

has a Gumbel distribution $G(z) = \exp\{-e^{-z}\}$ so that assuming accurate modeling of $\mu(t)$ and $\sigma^2(t)$ ($t \equiv j$ for j = 1, 2, ...) the

$$Z_j^* = \frac{1}{\xi} \ln \left[1 + \xi \left(\frac{Z_j - \hat{\mu}(j)}{\hat{\sigma}(j)} \right) \right]$$

are approximately Gumbel. Here the "hatted" variables are m.l.e. or other consistent estimators.

Stochastic Dependence

• Use is made of a property frequently assumed in the analysis of some wide-sense stationary time series: the "strength" of the dependence weakens somewhat monotonically with the time-separation of r.v.'s

• One example is that of the $D(u_n)$ condition: if for all $i_1 < i_2 < \ldots < i_p < j_1 < j_2 < \ldots < j_q$ with $j_1 - i_p > \ell$

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \mathsf{Pr}\left\{ X_{i_{1}} \leq u_{n}, \dots, X_{i_{p}} \leq u_{n}, X_{j_{1}} \leq u_{n}, \dots, X_{j_{q}} \leq u_{n} \right\} \\ - \mathsf{Pr}\left\{ X_{i_{1}} \leq u_{n}, \dots, X_{i_{p}} \leq u_{n} \right\} \\ \cdot \mathsf{Pr}\left\{ X_{j_{1}} \leq u_{n}, \dots, X_{j_{q}} \leq u_{n} \right\} \middle| \leq \alpha(n, \ell) \end{aligned}$$

where $\alpha(n, \ell_n) \to 0$ for some sequence ℓ_n such that $\ell_n/n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$. Examples: Gaussian m-dependent series, ARMA series.

Stochastic Dependence continued

<u>Theorem 3</u>: Let X_1, X_2, \ldots be a stationary process and define M_n as before. Then, if $\{\alpha_n > 0\}$ and β_n are sequences of real numbers such that

$$\Pr\{(M_n - \beta_n)/\alpha_n\} \to G(z),$$

a nondegenerate DF, and the sequence satisfies the $D(u_n)$ condition, $u_n = \alpha_n z + \beta_n$ for all z, then G belongs to the GEV family.

Poisson Models

• Since Poisson models are generalized linear models, for an observed process Y_j , we have two basic possibilities for the inverselink relationship when considering stochastic time-dependence. This can be exemplified by

$$g(\mu_j) = \vec{X_j}' \vec{\beta} + d_j$$

where, at time j, μ_j is the mean, X_j is a vector of covariates, β is a vector of regression coefficients, and d_j is either a latent process or an explicit function of the past observables: $Y_{j-1}, Y_{j-2}, \ldots, Y_1$.

• In the first specification of d_j , the process is called parameterdriven; in the second, observation-driven because the conditional expectation of the outcome given the past values of outcomes depends explicitly on those values.

Poisson Models continued

• The most useful class of models would provide for both positive and negative serial dependence, which is the case for parameterdriven models. However, methods for estimating the parameters of those models are computationally intensive.

• Observation-driven models are easier to deal with. But, for some of the observation-driven models, the requirement of stationarity imposes constraints on the values of model coefficients which exclude the possibility of positive dependence.

SUMMARY

Primary interests:

- Models of threshold excess
- Methods for dependent sequences that exploit stationarity and "weak" dependence
- Account for systematic variation with time
- Concentrate on methods for observation-driven series
- Account for differences in populations due to spatial distribution, indicators of health status and access to medical services
- Multivariate models to account for possible interactions due to simultaneously occurring events at several locations

Some Referencees

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