

Detecting changes in dispersion in COVID-19 case counts using a negative binomial model

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Rachael Aber

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Why study variability?

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- ▶ Metrics of variability are often an overlooked way to understand systems (How is variability related to different phases of an epidemic? [graham·measles·2019])
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- ▶ Metrics of variability are often an overlooked way to understand systems (How is variability related to different phases of an epidemic? [graham`measles`2019])
- ▶ Adam et al. [adam`time-varying`2022] found that COVID-19 transmission heterogeneity decreased over time and was associated with interventions to slow spread
- ▶ Information about what phase/dynamic regime an epidemic is in, as well as potentially indicating the level of heterogeneity at finer spatial and temporal scales (in)

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- ▶ A 'mean crowding' parameter [**lloyd's mean 1967**] was proposed, which is the mean number per individual of other individuals in the same quadrat
- ▶ Useful way to think about dispersion in case count time series, degree of dispersion is degree of clustering/crowding of cases (rel to crowding parm) (from the perspective)

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Introduction to the method

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- ▶ Adjusted for population size using an offset in the model (directly model)
- ▶ Dispersion allowed to vary more slowly than the process mean
- ▶ Linear predictor includes a natural spline in time to account for autocorrelation in case counts (ns are)

$$\log(E[Y_i]/n_i) = \beta_1 h_1(t_i) + \beta_2 h_2(t_i) + \beta_3 h_3(t_i) \quad (1)$$

$$\log(E[Y_i]) - \log(n_i) = \beta_1 h_1(t_i) + \beta_2 h_2(t_i) + \beta_3 h_3(t_i) \quad (2)$$

$$\log(E[Y_i]) = \beta_1(h_1(t_i) + \beta_2 h_2(t_i) + \beta_3 h_3(t_i) + \log(n_i)) \quad (3)$$

Negative binomial model



$$f_t(l) = \binom{l + \theta - 1}{l} \frac{\mu}{\mu + \theta} \frac{\theta}{\mu + \theta} \quad (4)$$

Negative binomial model



$$f_t(I) = \binom{I + \theta - 1}{I} \frac{\mu^I}{\mu + \theta} \frac{\theta}{\mu + \theta} \quad (4)$$



$$E(I) = \mu \quad (5)$$

$$Var(I) = \mu + \frac{\mu^2}{\theta} \quad (6)$$

Application to simulated data

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- ▶ For validity/power simulations, we used both Gaussian and uniform epidemic curves with an attack rate of 0.1
- ▶ Epidemic curves over 60 timesteps each were produced, and a likelihood-ratio test (LRT) procedure was applied to each
- ▶ Varying the effect size, location of the breakpoint, population size, and curve shape allowed us to test the validity and power of our approach

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- ▶ We estimated μ_t and θ_t using an iterative reweighted least-squares (procedure implemented via the NBPSeq package[**NBPSeq**] and from Di et al.[**yanming'nbp'2011**] with a moving window approach (for each window)

Application to empirical data

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- ▶ We investigated large counties (largest three counties in each state), due to power constraints

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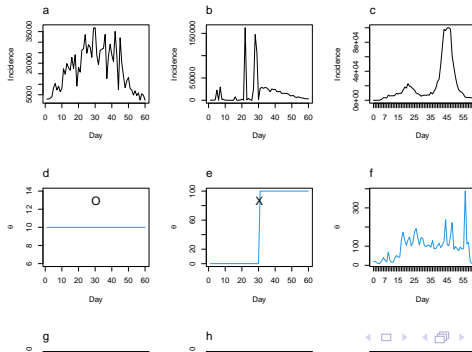
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Correspondence simulated and empirical

- ▶ We found that the negative binomial/LRT method is robust to differences in population size (for population sizes examined) (the criteria)

Correspondence simulated and empirical

- ▶ We found that the negative binomial/LRT method is robust to differences in population size (for population sizes examined) (the criteria)
- ▶ In row one and two of Fig. 1, we illustrated that an increase in θ is associated with decreased variability in simulated incidence time series (same relationship is observable in the empirical time series), with an increase in θ corresponding to a decrease in variability around the trend in incidence



Applied to counties

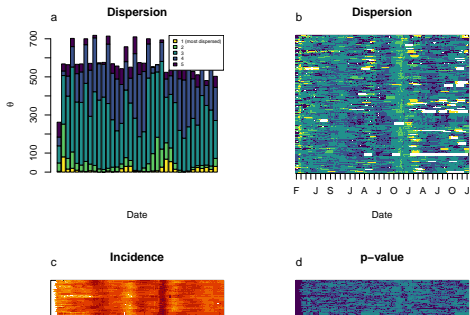
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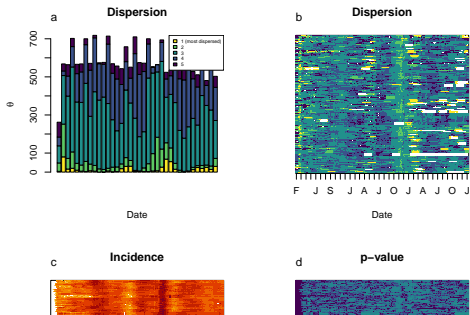
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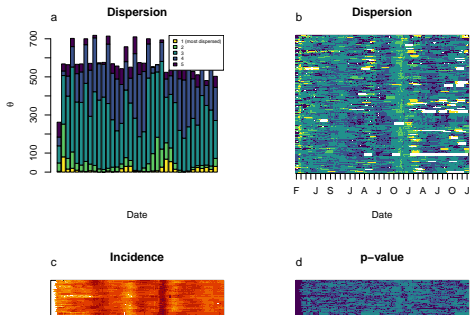
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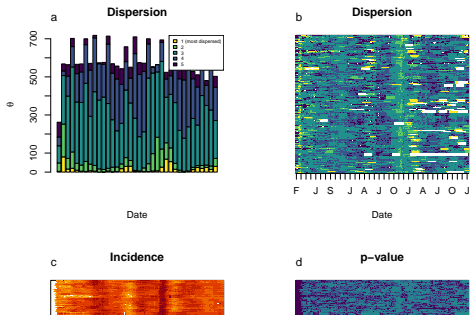


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Concluding remarks

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- ▶ Population-wide disease control approaches are often less effective than those which are targeted to individuals in high-transmission contexts
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[lloyd-smith`superspreading`2005] (catalyze the development of more efficient control strategies)
- ▶ Our results imply that we can revise our understanding of case count dispersion: dispersion is high at unexpected times (near peak incidence)



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Thanks!