# Validating time-of-detection methods for alerting an upcoming critical transition: a trade-off between sensitivity and specificity.

# Monitoring early-warning signals (EWS) in infectious disease data could be used to inform when a disease went through elimination

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## What are early-warning signals?

EWS are time-changing statistics which behave in a predictable way on the approach towards a critical transition. Critical Slowing Down phenomenon manifests itself in increased autocorrelation, variance and magnitude of fluctuations as a system approaches a transition, due to the system's slow recovery from perturbations as its dominant eigenvalue approaches zero<sup>1</sup>.

EWS are updated in real-time, can be automated and are computationally efficient.

This is key in infectious disease modelling to assess when the basic reproduction number  $(R_0)$  has reduced below the threshold of one<sup>2</sup>.

# What is the time-of-detection?

Time-of-detection is the first time when there is significant evidence of an impeding critical transition.

- (a) Is the time of first detection prior to the time the bifurcation oc-
- (a) How long is the lead-time period between detecting and reaching the bifurcation?
- (a) What is the TPR and FPR of this prediction?

#### References

[1] Scheffer, M, et al. "Early-warning signals for critical transitions." Nature (2009) [2] Southall, E, et al. "Prospects for detecting early warning signals in discrete event sequence data: Application to epidemiological incidence data." PLoS Comp Bio

- (2020)[3] Drake, J & Griffen, B. "Early warning signals of extinction in deteriorating environments." Nature (2010)
- [4] Shiryaev, A "Quickest detection problems: Fifty years later." Sequential Analysis (2010)





We validate an empirical study which offered lead time predictions using EWS: normalised composite<sup>3</sup>, and compared the performance to a method in change-point analysis from statistics called **Quickest Detection**<sup>4</sup>.

For each method we present:

A demonstration for simulated data which is: Going through bifurcation (disease elimination) in green. We want to trigger a bifurcation

• At steady state in blue. We **do not** want to trigger a bifurcation.

The first "time-of-detection" is highlighted with a red star. The bifurcation point is the vertical dotted line.

An extension of each method by varying the number of consecutive points required to exceed the threshold for a detection to be triggered

From 500 simulations undergoing a bifurcation (disease elimination)

From 500 simulations at steady state,

We plot the power metric

Each boxplot is the distribution of time-of-detection from each simulation (each simulation data point is shown with grey dots), where: • **Green Boxplots:** simulations going through a bifurcation. Want to return time-of-detection for all 500 simulations (high number of dots). *TPR* given in legend. Blue Boxplots: simulations at steady state. DO NOT want to

• **Purple Boxplots:** simulations where incidence is reducing but the system **does not** undergo a bifurcation. DO NOT want to return time-of-detection for any simulations (low number of dots).  $FPR_2$  given in legend.

## Validation Methods

**STEP 1** (timeseries)

### **STEP 2** (heatmaps)

bifurcating simulations which detect a bifurcation TPR

steady state simulations which detect a bifurcation FPR =

Power Metric = TPR - FPR, Power Metric  $\in [-1, 1]$ , A score close to 1 (coloured red) indicates a high sensitivity and **high specificity**. A score close to -1 (coloured blue) indicates a low sensitivity and low specificity.

### **STEP 3** (boxplots)

For the best EWS and number of consecutive points (chosen from STEP 2 heatmap), we calculate the time-of-detection for each simulation.

return time-of-detection for any simulations (low number of dots).  $FPR_1$  given in legend.

The **normalised composite** of multiple EWS is calculated. If the composite exceeds the long-run mean plus two standard-deviations, a detection is triggered.

**STEP 1:** Demonstration using the composition of variance and coefficient of variation.

**STEP 2:** 

CV + Va Ku + CV + Va

Ku + CV

Ku + CV + AC + VaCV + AC + Va

De + Ku + CV + Va

De + Ku + CV + AC + Va

De + CV + AC + Va

De + Ku + CV + AC

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{De} + \mathsf{CV} + \mathsf{Va} \\ \mathsf{Ku} + \mathsf{CV} + \mathsf{AC} \\ \mathsf{De} + \mathsf{Ku} + \mathsf{CV} \end{array}$ 

CV + AC

Ku + Va

De + CV

De + Ku

AC + Va

Ku + AC + Va

De + CV + AC

De + Ku + Va Ku + AC

De + Ku + AC

De + AC + Va

De + Ku + AC + Va

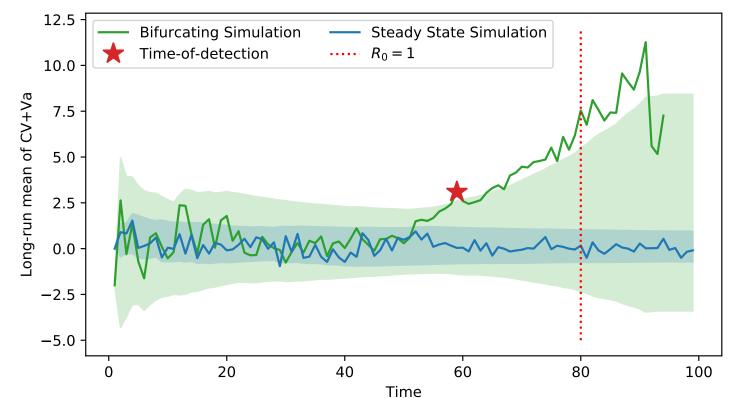
**STEP 3**:

Conclusions:

- ered

Contact:

# **Normalised Composite Method<sup>3</sup>**



Power Metric

- 0.50

- 0.25

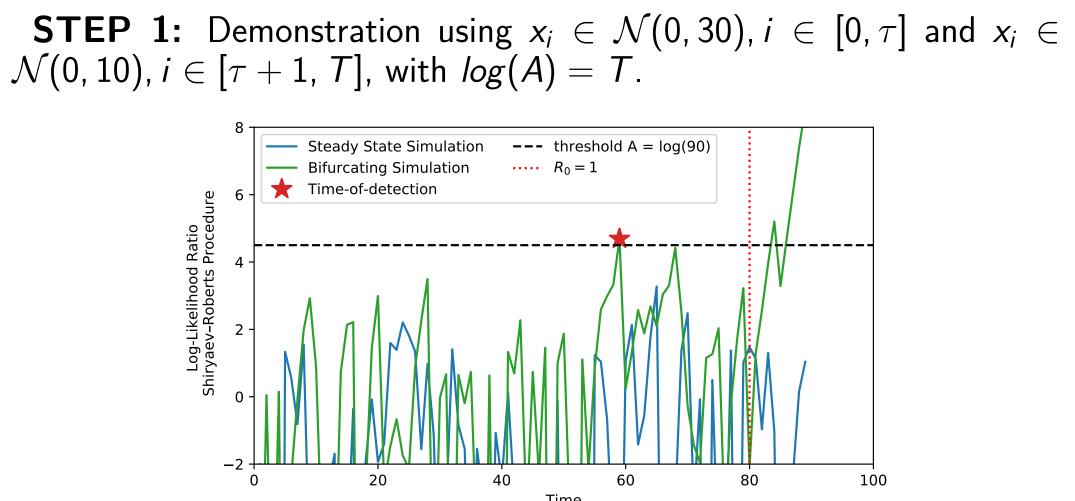
- 0.00

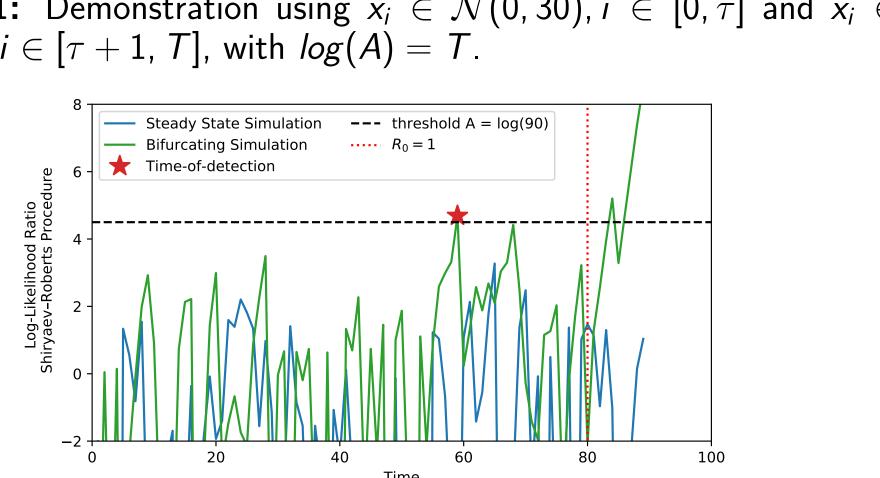
- -0.25

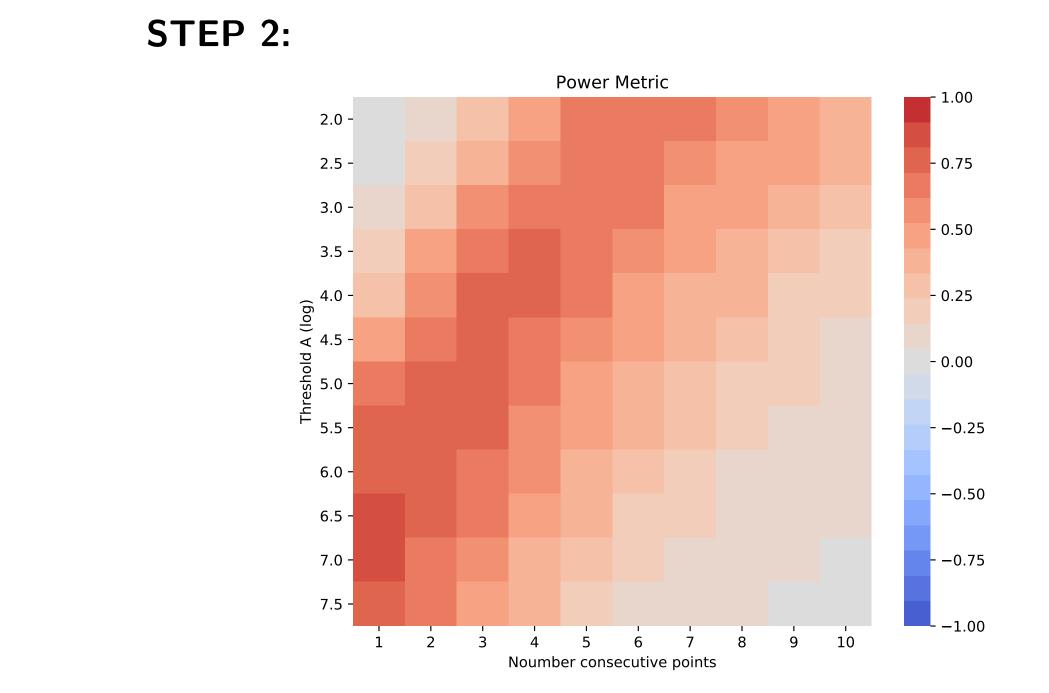
- -0.50

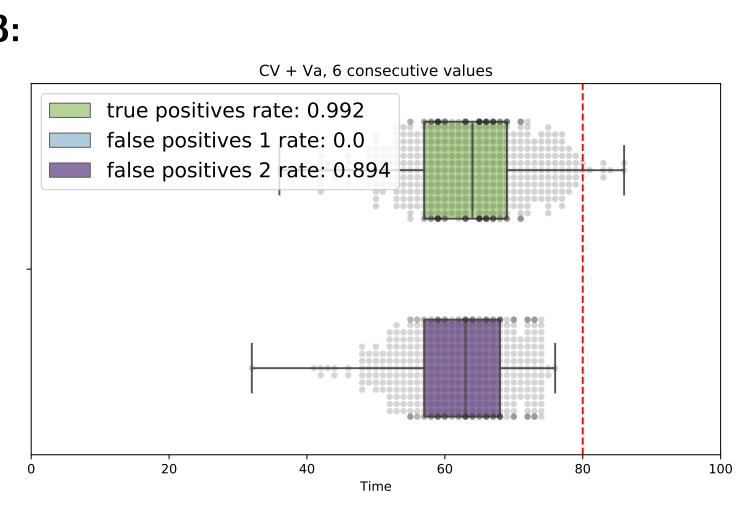
- -0.75

The **Quickest Detection** method from change-point analysis employs two probability densities describing the data pre- vs post-bifurcation. A detection is triggered when the Shiryaev–Roberts statistic (based of the likelihood ratio) exceeds a threshold A.





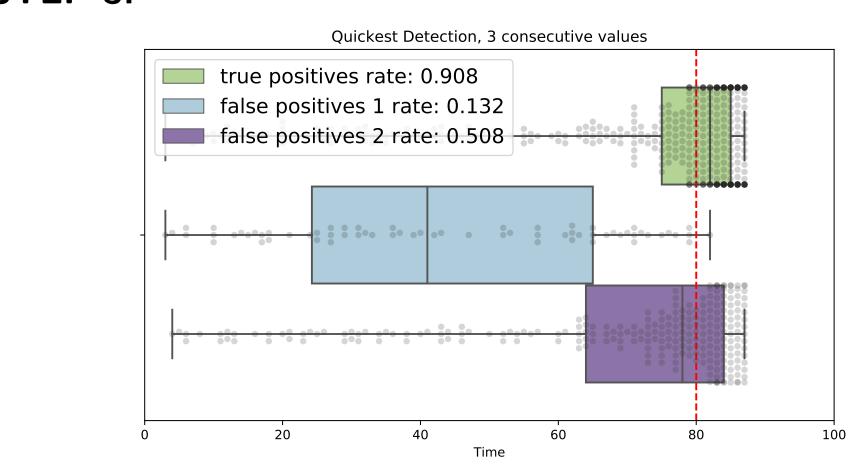




Noumber consecutive points

 CV + Va is highly specific and sensitive for all consecutive values Indicators more specific when at least 5 consecutive points are consid-

• AC, De, Va (and their combinations) are poor EWS • High false detection rate on "changing-not-bifurcating" data (purple) **STEP 3**:



Conclusions:

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# **Quickest Detection Method**<sup>4</sup>

• Requires the user to define the probability distributions and threshold Small to no lead-time

Best method for data which is "changing-not-bifurcating" (purple)