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3 **A dynamic neural network model for predicting risk of Zika in real-time**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 **Background**

20 In 2015 the Zika virus spread from Brazil throughout the Americas, posing an
21 unprecedented challenge to the public health community. During the epidemic,
22 international public health officials lacked reliable predictions of the outbreak's
23 expected geographic scale and prevalence of cases, and were therefore unable to plan
24 and allocate surveillance resources in a timely and effective manner.

25

26 **Methods**

27 In this work we present a dynamic neural network model to predict the geographic
28 spread of outbreaks in real-time. The modeling framework is flexible in three main
29 dimensions i) selection of the chosen risk indicator, *i.e.*, case counts or incidence rate,
30 ii) risk classification scheme, which defines the high risk group based on a relative or
31 absolute threshold, and iii) prediction forecast window (one up to 12 weeks). The
32 proposed model can be applied dynamically throughout the course of an outbreak to
33 identify the regions expected to be at greatest risk in the future.

34

35 **Results**

36 The model is applied to the recent Zika epidemic in the Americas at a weekly
37 temporal resolution and country spatial resolution, using epidemiological data,
38 passenger air travel volumes, vector habitat suitability, socioeconomic and population
39 data for all affected countries and territories in the Americas. The model performance
40 is quantitatively evaluated based on the predictive accuracy of the model. We show
41 that the model can accurately predict the geographic expansion of Zika in the

42 Americas with the overall average accuracy remaining above 85% even for prediction
43 windows of up to 12 weeks.

44

45 **Conclusions**

46 Sensitivity analysis illustrated the model performance to be robust across a range of
47 features. Critically, the model performed consistently well at various stages
48 throughout the course of the outbreak, indicating its potential value at any time during
49 an epidemic. The predictive capability was superior for shorter forecast windows, and
50 geographically isolated locations that are predominantly connected via air travel.

51 The highly flexible nature of the proposed modeling framework enables policy
52 makers to develop and plan vector control programs and case surveillance strategies
53 which can be tailored to a range of objectives and resource constraints.

54

55 **Keywords**

56 Zika, epidemic risk prediction, dynamic neural network

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61 **Background**

62 The Zika virus, which is primarily transmitted through the bite of infected *Aedes*
63 *aegypti* mosquitoes (1), was first discovered in Uganda in 1947 (2) from where it
64 spread to Asia in 1960s, where it since has caused small outbreaks. In 2007 ZIKV
65 caused an island wide outbreak in Yap Island, Micronesia (3), followed by outbreaks
66 in French Polynesia (4) and other Pacific islands between 2013–2014 where attack
67 rates where up to 70% (5-7). It reached Latin America between late 2013 and early
68 2014, but was not detected by public health authorities until May 2015 (8) and since
69 affected 48 countries and territories in the Americas (9-11). Since there is no
70 vaccination or treatment available for Zika infections (12, 13), the control of *Ae.*
71 *aegypti* mosquito populations remains the most important intervention to contain the
72 spread of the virus (14). In order to optimally allocate resources to suppress vector
73 populations, it is critical to accurately anticipate the occurrence and arrival time of
74 arboviral infections to detect local transmission (15).

75

76 Whereas for dengue, the most common arbovirus infection, prediction has attracted
77 wide attention from researchers employing statistical modelling and machine learning
78 methods to guide vector control (16-29), such real-time machine learning based
79 models do not yet exist for Zika virus. Early warning systems for Thailand, Indonesia,
80 Ecuador and Pakistan have been introduced and are currently in use (30-34). In
81 addition to conventional predictions based on epidemiological and meteorological
82 data (20, 35, 36), more recent models have successfully incorporated search engines
83 (37, 38), land use (39), human mobility information (40, 41) and spatial dynamics
84 (42-44), and various combinations of the above (45) to improve predictions. Whereas

85 local spread may be mediated by overland travel, continent wide spread is mostly
86 driven by air passenger travel between climatically synchronous regions (46-52).
87
88 The aims of our work are to 1) present recurrent neural networks for time ahead
89 predictive modelling as a highly flexible tool for outbreak prediction, and 2)
90 implement and evaluate the model performance for the Zika epidemic in the
91 Americas. The application of neural networks for epidemic risk forecasting has
92 previously been applied to dengue forecasting and risk classification (53-58),
93 detection of mosquito presence (59), temporal modeling of the oviposition of *Aedes*
94 *aegypti* mosquito (60), *Aedes* larva identification (61), and epidemiologic time-series
95 modeling through fusion of neural networks, fuzzy systems and genetic algorithms
96 (62). Recently, Jian *et al* (63) performed a comparison of different machine learning
97 models to map the probability of Zika epidemic outbreak using publically available
98 global Zika case data and other known covariates of transmission risk. Their study
99 provides valuable insight into the potential role of machine learning models for
100 understanding Zika transmission; however, it is static in nature, *i.e.*, it does not
101 account for time-series data, and did not account for human mobility, both of which
102 are incorporated in our modelling framework.
103
104 Here, we apply a dynamic neural network model for N-week ahead prediction for the
105 2015-2016 Zika epidemic in the Americas. The model implemented in this work
106 relies on multi-dimensional time-series data at the country (or territory) level,
107 specifically epidemiological data, passenger air travel volumes, vector habitat
108 suitability for the primary spreading vector *Ae. aegypti*, socioeconomic and
109 population data. The modeling framework is flexible in three main dimensions: 1) the

110 preferred risk indicator can be chosen by the policy maker, *e.g.*, we consider outbreak
111 size and incidence rate as two primary indicators of risk for a region, 2) five risk
112 classification schemes are defined, where each classification scheme varies in the
113 (relative or absolute) threshold used to determine the set of countries deemed “high
114 risk”, and 3) it can be applied for a range of forecast windows (1 – 12 weeks). Model
115 performance and robustness is evaluated for various combinations of risk indicator,
116 risk classification level, and forecasting windows. Thus, our work represents the first
117 flexible framework of neural networks for epidemic risk forecasting, that allows
118 policy makers to evaluate and weigh the trade-off in prediction accuracy between
119 forecast window and risk classification schemes. Given the availability of the
120 necessary data, the modelling framework proposed here can be applied in real time to
121 future outbreaks of Zika, and other similar vector-borne outbreaks.

122

123 **Materials and Methods**

124

125 ***Data***

126 The model relies on socioeconomic, population, epidemiological, travel and mosquito
127 vector suitability data. All data is aggregated to the country level and provided for all
128 countries and territories in the Americas. Each data set and corresponding processing
129 is described in detail below, and summarized in Table 1. All input data is available as
130 Additional files 1-11.

131

132

133

134

Table 1. Summary of input data

Description	Original Temporal Resolution	Spatial Resolution	Temporal Disaggregation	Reference
Zika cases (2015)	monthly	country or territory level	estimation, smoothing spline curve fitting	(50, 51, 64)
Zika cases (2016)	weekly	country or territory level	-	Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) (65)
incidence rates	weekly	country or territory level	(case counts/(population / 100,000))	(51)
incoming and outgoing travel volumes (2015)	monthly	country or territory level	smoothing spline curve fitting	International Air Transport Associate (IATA), (64)
incoming and outgoing travel volumes (2016)	monthly	country or territory level	estimation, smoothing spline curve fitting	as previously done (51, 66, 67), (64)
<i>Aedes</i> vector suitability	monthly	country or territory level	smoothing spline curve fitting	(51, 64, 68, 69)
gross domestic product (GDP) per capita	annual	country or territory level	-	World Bank (70), and U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis (71)
physicians per 1000 people	annual	country or territory level	-	Centre of Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) (72), WHO World Health Statistics report (73), and the PAHO (74)
beds per 1000 people	annual	country or territory level	-	
population densities (people per sq. km of land area)	annual	country or territory level	-	World Bank (75), and the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis (71)

135

136 *Epidemiological Data*

137 Weekly Zika infected cases for each country and territory in the Americas were
 138 extracted from the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) (65), as described in
 139 previous studies (48, 51) (data available: [github.com/andersen-lab/Zika-cases-](https://github.com/andersen-lab/Zika-cases-PAHO)
 140 PAHO). The epidemiological weeks 1 - 78 are labeled herein as EPI weeks,

141 corresponding to the dates 29-Jun-2015 - 19-Dec-2016, respectively. Although Zika
142 cases in Brazil were reported as early as May 2015, no case data is available for all of
143 2015 from PAHO because the Brazil Ministry of Health did not declare the Zika cases
144 and associated neurological and congenital syndrome as notifiable conditions until 17
145 February of 2016 (65). The missing numbers of cases from July to December 2015 for
146 Brazil were estimated based on the positive correlation between *Ae. aegypti*
147 abundance (described below) and reported case counts as has been done previously
148 (50, 51). We used smoothing spline (64) to estimate weekly case counts from the
149 monthly reported counts. The weekly country level case counts (Figure 1A) were
150 divided by the total population / 100,000, as previously described (51), to compute
151 weekly *incidence rates* (Figure 1B).

152

153 *Travel Data*

154 Calibrated monthly passenger travel volumes for each airport-to-airport route in the
155 world were provided by the International Air Transport Associate (IATA) (76), as
156 previously used in (51, 66). The data includes origin, destination and stopover airport
157 paths for 84% of global air traffic, and includes over 240 airlines and 3,400 airports.
158 The airport level travel was aggregated to a regional level, to compute monthly
159 movements between all countries and territories in the Americas. The *incoming* and
160 *outgoing travel volumes* for each country and territory, originally available from
161 IATA at a monthly temporal resolution, were curve fitted, again using smoothing
162 spline method (64) to obtain corresponding weekly volumes to match with the
163 temporal resolution of our model. In this study, data and estimates from 2015 were
164 also used for 2016, as was done previously (51, 66, 67).

165

166 *Mosquito Suitability Data*

167 The monthly vector suitability data sets were based on habitat suitability for the
168 principal Zika virus species *Ae. aegypti*, previously used in (51), and initially
169 estimated using original high resolution maps (68) and then enriched to account for
170 seasonal variation in the geographical distribution of *Ae. aegypti* by using time-
171 varying covariate such as temperature persistence, relative humidity, and precipitation
172 as well as static covariates such as urban versus rural areas. The monthly data was
173 translated into weekly data using a smoothing spline (64).

174

175 *Socioeconomic and Human Population Data*

176 For a country, to prevent or manage an outbreak depends on their ability to implement
177 a successful surveillance and vector control programs (77). Due to a lack of global
178 data to quantify vector control at country level, we utilized alternative economic and
179 health related country indicators which have previously been revealed to be critical
180 risk factors for Zika spread (51). A country's economic development can be measured
181 by the *gross domestic product (GDP)* per capita at purchasing power parity (PPP), in
182 international dollars. The figures from World Bank (70) and the U.S. Bureau of
183 Economic Analysis (71) were used to collect GDP data for each country. The number
184 of *physicians* and the number of hospital *beds* per 10,000 people were used to indicate
185 the availability of health infrastructure in each country. These figures for U.S. and
186 other regions in the Americas were obtained from the Centre of Disease Control and
187 Prevention (CDC) (72), WHO World Health Statistics report (73), and the PAHO
188 (74). Finally, the human *population densities* (people per sq. km of land area) for each
189 region were collected from World Bank (75) and the U.S. Bureau of Economic
190 Analysis (71).

191 *Connectivity-risk Variables*

192 In addition to the raw input variables, novel connectivity-risk variables are defined and
193 computed for inclusion in the model. These variables are intended to capture the risk
194 posed by potentially infected travelers arriving at a given destination at a given point in
195 time, and in doing so, explicitly capture the dynamic and heterogeneity of the air-traffic
196 network in combination with real-time outbreak status. Two variables are chosen,
197 hereafter referred to as *case-weighted travel risk* and *incidence-weighted travel risk*, as
198 defined in equations (1.a) and (1.b), respectively.

199

200
$$CR_j^t = \sum_i C_i^t \cdot V_{i,j}^t \quad \forall t, \forall j, i \neq j \quad (1.a)$$

201

202
$$IR_j^t = \sum_i I_i^t \cdot V_{i,j}^t \quad \forall t, \forall j, i \neq j \quad (1.b)$$

203

204 For each region j at time t , CR_j^t and IR_j^t are computed as the sum of product between
205 passenger volume traveling from origin i into destination j at time t ($V_{i,j}^t$) and the state
206 of the outbreak at origin i at time t , namely reported cases, C_i^t , or reported incidence
207 rate, I_i^t . Each of these two variables is computed for all 53 countries or territories for
208 each of the 78 epidemiological weeks. The two dynamic variables, CR_j^t and IR_j^t , are
209 illustrated in Figure 1C and 1D, below the raw case counts and incidence rates,
210 respectively.

211

212 ***Neural Network Model***

213 A class of neural architectures based upon Nonlinear Auto Regressive models with
214 eXogenous inputs (NARX) known as NARX neural networks (78-80) is employed
215 herein due to its suitability for modeling of a range of nonlinear systems and

216 computational capabilities equivalent to Turing machines (81). The NARX networks,
217 as compared to other recurrent neural network architectures, require limited feedback
218 (i.e., feedback from the output neuron rather than from hidden states) and converge
219 much faster with a better generalization (81, 82). The NARX model can be formalized
220 as follows (81):

$$221 \quad y(t) = f\left(x(t), x(t-1), \dots, x(t-d_x); y(t-1), \dots, y(t-d_y)\right) \quad (2)$$

222 where $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ denote, respectively, the input and output (or target that should
223 be predicted) of the model at discrete time t , while d_x and d_y (with $d_x \geq 1$, $d_y \geq 1$,
224 and $d_x \leq d_y$) are input and output delays called memory orders (Figure 2). In this
225 work, a NARX model is implemented to provide N -step ahead prediction of a time
226 series, as defined below:

227

$$228 \quad y_k(t+N) =$$
$$229 \quad f\left(\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{x}_1(t), \mathbf{x}_1(t-1), \dots, \mathbf{x}_1(t-d_x), \dots, \mathbf{x}_M(t), \mathbf{x}_M(t-1), \dots, \mathbf{x}_M(t-d_x), \\ y_k(t), y_k(t-1), \dots, y_k(t-d_y) \end{array}\right) \quad (3)$$

230

231 Here, $y_k(t+N)$ is the risk classification predicted for the k^{th} region N weeks ahead
232 (of present time t), which is estimated as a function of $\mathbf{x}_m(t)$ inputs from all $m =$
233 $1, 2, \dots, M$ regions for d_x previous weeks, and the previous risk classification state,
234 $y_k(t)$ for region k for d_y previous weeks. The prediction model is applied at time t ,
235 to predict for time $t+N$, and therefore relies on data available up until week t . That is,
236 to predict outbreak risk for epidemiological week X , N -weeks ahead, the model is
237 trained and tested using data available up until week $(X-N)$. For example, 12-week
238 ahead prediction for Epi week 40, is performed using data available up to week 28.

239 The function $f(\cdot)$ is an unknown nonlinear mapping function that is approximated by

240 a Multilayer Perceptron (MLP) to form the NARX recurrent neural network (79, 80).
241 In this work, series-parallel NARX neural network architecture is implemented in
242 Matlab R2018a (The MathWorks, Inc., Natick, Massachusetts, United States) (83).
243
244 In the context of this work, the desired output, $y_k(t + N)$, is a binary risk classifier,
245 *i.e.*, classifying a region k as high or low risk at time $t+N$, for each region, k , N
246 weeks ahead (of t). The vector of input variables for region m at time t is $\mathbf{x}_m(t)$, and
247 includes both static and dynamic variables. We consider various relative (R) and
248 absolute (A) thresholds to define the set of “high risk” countries at any point in time.
249 We define relative risk thresholds that range uniformly between 10% and 50%, where
250 the 10% scheme classifies the 10% of countries reporting the highest number of cases
251 (or highest incidence rate) during a given week as high risk, and the other 90% as low
252 risk, similar to (45). The relative risk schemes are referred herein as R=0.1, R=0.2,
253 R=0.3, R=0.4, and R=0.5. It is worth noting, for a given percentile, *e.g.*, R=0.1, the
254 relative risk thresholds are dynamic and vary week to week as a function of the scale
255 of the epidemic, while the size of the high risk group remains fixed over time, *e.g.*,
256 10% of all countries. We also consider absolute thresholds, which rely on case
257 incidence rates to define the “high risk” group. Five absolute thresholds are selected
258 based on the distribution of incidence values over all countries and the entire
259 epidemic. Specifically, the 50th, 60th, 70th, 80th and 90th percentiles were chosen,
260 and are referred herein as A=50, A=60, A=70, A=80, and A=90. These five thresholds
261 correspond to weekly case incidence rates of 0.43, 1.47, 4.05, 9.5 and 32.35 (see
262 Additional file 12: Figure S1), respectively. In contrast to the relative risk scheme,
263 under the absolute risk scheme for a given percentile, *e.g.*, A=90, the threshold
264 remains fixed but the size of the high (and low) risk group varies week to week based

265 on the scale of the epidemic. The fluctuation in group size for each threshold is
266 illustrated in Additional file 12: Figure S1 for each classification scheme, $A=50$ to
267 $A=90$. Critically, our prediction approach differs from (45), in that our model is
268 trained to predict the risk level directly, rather than predict the number of cases, which
269 are post-processed into risk categories. The performance of the model is evaluated by
270 comparing the estimated risk level (high or low) to the actual risk level for all
271 locations at a specified time. The actual risk level is simply defined at each time
272 period t during the outbreak by ranking the regions based on to the number of
273 reported case counts (or incidence rates), and grouping them into high and low risk
274 groups according to the specified threshold and classification scheme.

275

276 The static variables used in the model include GDP PPP, population density, number
277 of physicians, and number of hospital beds for each region. The dynamic variables
278 include mosquito vector suitability, outbreak status (both reported case counts and
279 reported incidence rates), total incoming travel volume, total outgoing travel volume,
280 and the two connectivity-risk variables defined as in Equations (1.a) & (1.b), again for
281 each region. Before applying to the NARX model, all data values are normalized to
282 the range $[0, 1]$.

283

284 A major contribution of this work is the flexible nature of the model, which allows
285 policy makers to be more or less risk averse in their planning and decision making.
286 Firstly, the risk indicator can be chosen by the modeler; in this work we consider two
287 regional risk indicators, i) the number of reported cases and ii) incidence rate. Second,
288 we consider a range of risk classification schemes, which define the set of high-risk
289 countries based on either a relative or absolute threshold that can be chosen at the

290 discretion of the modeler, *i.e.*, $R=0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5$, and $A=90, 80, 70, 60, 50$.

291 Third, the forecast window, N , is defined to range from $N = 1, 2, 4, 8$ and 12 weeks.

292 Subsequently, any combination of risk indicator, risk classification scheme and

293 forecasting window can be modelled.

294

295 In initial settings of the series-parallel NARX neural network, a variety numbers of

296 hidden layer neurons and numbers of tapped delay lines (Eq. (2)) were explored for

297 training and testing of the model. Sensitivity analysis revealed minimal difference in

298 performance of the model under different settings. Therefore, for all experiments

299 presented in this work, the numbers of neural network hidden layer neurons and

300 tapped delay lines are kept constant as two and four, respectively.

301

302 To train and test the model, the actual risk classification for each region at each week

303 during the epidemic, $y_k(t)$, was used. For each model run, *e.g.*, a specified risk

304 indicator, risk classification scheme and forecasting window, the input and target

305 vectors are randomly divided into three sets:

306

307 1. 70% for training, to tune model parameters minimizing the mean square error

308 between the outputs and targets,

309 2. 15% for validation, to measure network generalization and to prevent

310 overfitting, by halting training when generalization stops improving (*i.e.*,

311 mean square error of validation samples starts increasing), and

312 3. 15% for testing, to provide an independent measure of network performance

313 during and after training.

314

315 The performance of the model is measured using two metrics: 1) prediction accuracy
316 (ACC) and 2) receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves. Prediction accuracy is
317 defined as $ACC = (TP + TN) / (TP + FP + TN + FN)$, where true positive (TP) is the
318 number of high risk locations correctly predicted as high risk, false negative (FN) is
319 the number of high risk locations incorrectly predicted as low risk, true negative (TN)
320 is the number of low risk locations correctly predicted as low risk, and false positive
321 (FP) is the number of low risk locations incorrectly predicted as high risk. The second
322 performance metric, ROC curve (84), explores the effects on TP and FP as the
323 position of an arbitrary decision threshold is varied, which in the context of this
324 prediction problem distinguished low and high risk locations. ROC curve can be
325 characterized as a single number using the area under the ROC curve (AUC), with
326 larger areas having an AUC that approaches one indicating a more accurate detection
327 method. In addition to quantifying model performance using these two metrics, we
328 evaluate the robustness of the predictions by comparing the ACC across multiple runs
329 that vary in their selection of testing and training sets (resulting from the randomized
330 sampling).

331

332 **Results**

333 The model outcome reveals the set of locations expected to be at high risk at a
334 specified date in the future, *i.e.*, N weeks ahead of when the prediction is made. We
335 apply the model for all epidemiological weeks throughout the epidemic, and evaluate
336 performance under each combination of i) risk indicator, ii) classification scheme, and
337 iii) forecast window. For each model run, both ACC and ROC AUC are computed.

338

339

340 ***Model Performance***

341 Figures 3 and 4 exemplify the output of the proposed model. Figure 3 illustrates the
342 model predictions at a country-level for a 4-week prediction window, specifically for
343 Epi week 40, *i.e.*, using data available up until week 36. Figure 3A illustrates the
344 actual risk percentile each country is assigned to in week 40, based on reported case
345 counts. The results presented in the remaining panels of Figure 3 reveal the risk level
346 (high or low) predicted for each country under the five relative risk classification
347 schemes, namely (B) $R=0.1$, (C) $R=0.2$, (D) $R=0.3$, (E) $R=0.4$, and (F) $R=0.5$, and
348 whether or not it was correct. For Panels (B)-(E), green indicates a correctly predicted
349 low risk country (TN), light grey indicates an incorrectly predicted high risk country
350 (FP), dark grey indicates an incorrectly predicted low risk country (FN), and the
351 remaining color indicates a correctly predicted high risk country (TP). The inset
352 highlights the results for the *Caribbean* islands. The figure also presents the average
353 ACC over all regions and ACC for just the Caribbean region (grouped similar to (10))
354 for each classification scheme.

355

356 Figure 4 illustrates the model predictions at a country-level for varying prediction
357 windows, and a fixed classification scheme of $R=0.2$, again for Epi week 40. Figure
358 4A illustrates the actual risk classification (high or low) each country is assigned to in
359 Epi week 40, based on reported case counts. The results presented in the remaining
360 panels of Figure 4 reveal the risk level (high or low) predicted for each country under
361 the five forecasting windows, specifically (B) $N=1$, (C) $N=2$, (D) $N=4$, (E) $N=8$, and
362 (F) $N=12$, and whether or not it was correct. For Panels (B)-(E), red indicates a
363 correctly predicted high risk country (TP), green indicates a correctly predicted low
364 risk country (TN), light grey indicates an incorrectly predicted high risk country (FP),

365 dark grey indicates an incorrectly predicted low risk country (FN). The inset
366 highlights the results for the *Caribbean* islands. Similar to Figure 3, for each forecast
367 window, the reported ACC is averaged both over all regions and for just the
368 Caribbean.

369

370 The model's performance and sensitivity to the complete range of input parameters is
371 summarized in Additional file 13: Table S2. ACC is presented for each combination
372 of risk indicator (case count and incidence rate), classification scheme (i.e., $R = 0.1,$
373 $0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5$ and $A = 90, 80, 70, 60, 50$) and forecast window (i.e., $N = 1, 2, 4, 8$
374 and 12), for selected Epi weeks throughout the epidemic. ROC AUC (averaged over
375 all locations and all EPI weeks) is computed for all combinations of risk indicator
376 (case count and incidence rate), classification scheme (i.e., $R = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5$
377 and $A = 90, 80, 70, 60, 50$) and forecast window (i.e., $N = 1, 2, 4, 8$ and 12).

378

379 Figures 5 and 6 illustrate trends in the model performance as a function of
380 classification scheme and forecast window, aggregated over space and time.

381 Specifically, Figure 5 reveals the model performance (ACC, averaged over all
382 locations and all EPI weeks) for each combination of risk classification scheme (i.e.,
383 $R = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4$ and 0.5) and forecast window (i.e., $N = 1, 2, 4, 8$ and 12). The
384 aggregated ROC curves (averaged over all locations and all epidemiological weeks)
385 for $R=0.4$ are presented in Figure 6, and reveal the (expected) increased accuracy of
386 the model as the forecast window is reduced. The ROC AUC results are consistent
387 with ACC results presented in Figure 5, highlighting the superior performance of the
388 1 and 2 week ahead prediction capability of the model. The ROC AUC value remains
389 above 0.91 for $N=1, 2$ and above 0.83 for $N=4$, both indicating high predictive

390 accuracy of the model. The ROC curves for the other relative risk classification
 391 schemes are presented in Additional file 14: Figure S2.

392

393 ***Global and Regional Analysis***

394 We further explore the model’s performance at a regional level by dividing the
 395 countries and territories in the Americas into three groups, namely *Caribbean, South*
 396 *America* and *Central America*, as in (10), and compare with the *Global* performance,
 397 *i.e.*, all countries. For each group the average performance of the model in terms of
 398 ACC was evaluated and presented for each combination of risk indicator (case count
 399 and incidence rate), classification scheme (*i.e.*, $R = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5$ and $A = 90,$
 400 $80, 70, 60, 50$) and forecast window (*i.e.*, $N = 1, 2, 4, 8$ and 12), aggregated over then
 401 entire epidemic period (Table 2).

402 **Table 2. Summary of Global and Regional Model Performance**

Relative Risk Classification Scheme	Prediction Window Size (N in weeks)	Overall Prediction Accuracy (ACC)							
		Global		Caribbean		South America		Central America	
		Risk Indicator		Risk Indicator		Risk Indicator		Risk Indicator	
		incidence	cases	incidence	cases	incidence	cases	incidence	cases
R=0.1	1	95.71	96.95	94.63	98.84	93.65	92.28	97.95	94.18
	2	94.29	96.12	92.90	98.86	91.68	90.78	97.01	90.67
	4	91.30	93.13	89.38	97.30	87.11	84.80	95.34	84.14
	8	86.34	90.63	85.72	95.70	74.58	81.97	91.74	76.69
	12	82.57	87.05	81.75	93.59	68.63	75.94	87.99	68.14
R=0.2	1	93.07	93.54	91.73	94.94	92.65	90.16	92.64	87.33
	2	90.01	92.27	88.30	93.93	89.37	88.60	89.26	84.68
	4	84.68	88.09	82.66	89.72	82.77	84.40	82.28	76.49
	8	75.22	81.87	71.58	83.96	69.34	76.27	73.73	65.25
R=0.3	12	68.96	78.25	65.01	80.92	62.75	71.30	63.73	58.09
	1	90.70	93.41	88.30	94.05	91.41	91.41	90.58	87.84
	2	86.74	89.82	85.27	91.06	86.68	86.68	84.15	80.46
	4	80.85	84.31	77.10	85.36	82.63	79.38	78.73	72.76
R=0.4	8	70.10	76.46	64.73	77.31	69.34	71.34	66.31	58.05
	12	63.37	71.66	56.86	70.66	62.39	64.88	57.35	56.86
	1	90.46	91.68	88.25	91.31	93.03	90.54	87.84	86.64
	2	86.79	88.52	84.62	88.24	89.76	86.30	83.10	81.51
R=0.5	4	79.36	81.67	76.41	81.97	83.04	75.44	72.57	71.83
	8	68.47	72.85	61.67	71.12	73.19	71.19	62.29	54.66
	12	59.82	65.22	51.89	60.33	62.21	60.96	53.19	53.43
	1	89.51	91.16	89.67	90.25	87.42	88.42	85.10	90.41
R=0.5	2	86.21	86.90	84.83	86.13	85.15	82.84	83.10	84.15
	4	77.67	78.46	76.29	77.55	75.44	75.71	70.71	67.72
	8	66.42	68.05	61.99	65.78	69.80	68.26	53.60	47.46
	12	56.16	58.31	48.04	51.81	62.21	54.90	43.38	46.81

403

404 ***Model Robustness***

405 Figure 7A and 7B show how the ACC varies over 10 independent runs of the model.
406 This sensitivity analysis was conducted for all combinations risk indicator, relative
407 risk classification schemes, and selected epidemiological weeks (i.e., week number /
408 starting date: 30 / 18-Jan-2016, 40 / 28-Mar-2016, 50 / 6-Jun-2016, 60 / 15-Aug-2016,
409 and 70 / 24-Oct-2016). This time period represents a highly complex period of the
410 outbreak with country level rankings fluctuating substantially, as evidenced in Figure
411 1. Due to computation time, the sensitivity analysis was evaluated for only the 4-
412 week forecast window. The size of the error bars illustrates the robustness of the
413 proposed modeling framework.

414

415 ***NARX Feature Selection***

416 While the NARX framework does not provide assigned weights for each input feature
417 as output, sensitivity analysis can be conducted to help identify the key predictive
418 features. We tested the performance of the NARX framework under three different
419 combinations of input features, with the particular objective of quantifying the role of
420 travel data in our outbreak prediction model. We considered i) a simple ‘baseline’
421 model using only case count and incidence data, ii) an expanded baseline model that
422 includes case and incidence data, and all non-travel related variables, and iii) the
423 proposed model which includes all features listed in Table 1. The results comparing
424 the performance of these three models with the detailed list of input features for each
425 is provided in Additional file 15: Table S1. The results reveal the case-related data
426 (regional case counts and incidence rates) to be the dominant explanatory variables
427 for predicting outbreak risk in a region, as would be expected. The inclusion of non-
428 travel related variables (regional suitability, regional GDP, regional physicians,

429 regional hospital beds, regional population density) is not shown to improve
430 predictive capability over the baseline model, and in fact, sometime performs worse
431 than the baseline model. In contrast, the inclusion of travel data (weekly case-
432 weighted travel risk, weekly incidence-weighted travel risk, weekly incoming travel
433 volume, weekly outgoing travel volume) is revealed to improve the predictive
434 capability, especially for the shorter prediction windows, with a higher AUC ROC for
435 a majority (20 of the 25) of the scenarios tested. These results support the inclusion
436 of the dynamic travel-related variables, which substantially increase the complexity of
437 the model (inputs), and thus, justifies the use of the NARX framework selected.

438

439 **Discussion**

440 Overall, the proposed model is shown to be accurate and robust, especially for shorter
441 prediction windows and higher risk thresholds. As would be expected, the
442 performance of the proposed model decreases as the prediction window increases
443 because of the inherent uncertainty in outbreak evolution over long periods of time.
444 Specifically, the model is almost 80% accurate for 4-week ahead prediction for all
445 classification schemes, and almost 90% accurate for all 2-week ahead prediction
446 scenarios, *i.e.*, the correct risk category of 9 out of 10 locations can always be
447 predicted, indicating strong performance. Although, when the objective is to identify
448 the top 10% of at-risk regions, the average accuracy of the model remains above 87%
449 for prediction up to 12-weeks in advance. Generally, the model performance is
450 shown to decrease as the risk threshold is reduced, *e.g.*, the size of the high risk group
451 is increased, representing a more risk averse policy. The decrease in performance is
452 likely due to the increased size and fluctuation of the high risk country set over time
453 for lower thresholds. For example, for the absolute risk threshold of $A=50$, the

454 number of countries classified as high risk fluctuates between 1 and 34 throughout the
455 course of the epidemic, compared with $A=90$, where the set only ranges from 0 to 12
456 (see Additional file 12: Figure S1). These results reveal the trade-off between desired
457 forecast window and precision of the high risk group. The quantifiable trade-off
458 between the two model inputs (classification scheme and forecast window) can be
459 useful for policies which may vary in desired planning objectives.

460

461 The results in Figures 3 and 4, as well as Table 2 reveal a similar trend at the regional
462 level as was seen at the global level, with a decrease in predictive accuracy as the
463 forecast window increases in length, and the and high risk group increases in size.
464 As shown in Figure 3, the ACC remains above 90% for $R < 0.3$, indicating superior
465 model performance. For example, at Epi week 40, $R = 0.3$ and $N=4$ (using outbreak
466 data and other model variables up to Epi week 36), there were 16 total regions
467 classified as high risk, of which the model correctly identified 13. Furthermore, of the
468 16 high risk regions, 8 were in the *Caribbean* (i.e., Aruba, Curacao, Dominican
469 Republic, Guadeloupe, Haiti, Jamaica, Martinique, and Puerto Rico), of which the
470 model correctly identified 7. Aruba in the only Caribbean, and Honduras and Panama
471 were the only regions incorrectly predicted as low risk in this scenario; accurately
472 classifying low risk regions is also important (and assuring the model is not too risk
473 averse). For the same scenario, i.e., Epi week 40, $R = 0.3$ and $N=4$, all 18 low risk
474 *Caribbean* locations and 17 of the 19 low risk non-*Caribbean* locations were
475 accurately classified by the model. Paraguay and Suriname were the only regions
476 incorrectly predicted as high risk. These results are consistent with the high reported
477 accuracy of the model, i.e., Overall ACC = 90.15%; *Caribbean* ACC = 96.15%.

478

479 Figure 4 reveals that the performance of model, expectedly, deteriorates as the
480 forecast window increases; however, the average accuracy remains above 80% for
481 prediction up to 8-weeks ahead, and well about 90% for up to 4-weeks ahead. The
482 prediction accuracy for the Caribbean slightly lags the average performance in the
483 Americas. Specifically, for $R=0.2$, 5 of the 11 *Caribbean* regions were designated as
484 HIGH risk locations at Epi week 40, *i.e.*, Dominican Republic, Guadeloupe, Jamaica,
485 Martinique, Puerto Rico. For a one-week prediction window, $N=1$, the model was
486 able to correctly predict 3 of the high risk regions (*i.e.*, Jamaica, Martinique, Puerto
487 Rico), for $N=2$ it correctly identified two (*i.e.*, Martinique, Puerto Rico), and for $N=4$,
488 it again correctly identified three (*i.e.*, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Puerto Rico).
489 However, the model did not correctly predict any high risk locations in the Caribbean
490 at $N=8$ and $N=12$ window lengths. This error is due to the low and sporadic reporting
491 of Zika cases in the region around week 30, and the high variability of the outbreak
492 over the 8 and 12 week period. Similar prediction capability is illustrated for $R=0.5$
493 (not shown in the figure), in which case out of the 13 *Caribbean* HIGH risk locations,
494 the model correctly identifies all locations at $N=1, 2$ and 4, 10 of the 13 locations at
495 $N=8$, and only 1 of the 13 at $N=12$.

496

497 When comparing performance across regions (see Table 2) results reveal the
498 predictive accuracy is best for the *Caribbean* region, while predictions for *Central*
499 *America* were consistently the worst; the discrepancy in performance between these
500 groups increases as the forecast window increases. The difference in performance
501 across regions can be attributed to the high spatial heterogeneity of the outbreak
502 patterns, the relative ability of air travel to accurately capture connectivity between
503 locations, and errors in case reporting that may vary by region. For example, the

504 *Caribbean*, which consists of more than twice as many locations as any other group,
505 first reported cases around week 25, and remained affected throughout the epidemic.
506 In contrast, *Central America* experienced a slow start to the outbreak (at least
507 according to case reports) with two exceptions, namely Honduras and El Salvador.
508 The large number of affected region in the Caribbean, with more reported cases
509 distributed over a longer time period contributed to the training of the model, thus
510 improving the predictive capability for these regions. Additionally, the geographically
511 isolated nature of Caribbean islands enables air travel to more accurately capture
512 incoming travel risk, unlike countries in Central and South America, where
513 individuals can also move about using alternative modes, which are not accounted for
514 in this study. These factors combined explain the higher predictive accuracy of the
515 model for the Caribbean region, and importantly, helps to identify the critical features
516 and types of settings under which this model is expected to perform best.
517
518 Finally, the robustness of the model predictions is illustrated by the short error bars in
519 Figure 7. The model is also demonstrated to perform consistently throughout the
520 course of the epidemic, with the exception of week 30, at which time there was
521 limited information available to train the model, *e.g.*, the outbreak was not yet
522 reported in a majority of the affected countries. Comparing Figure 7A and 7B reveals
523 relatively similar performance for both risk indicators, and Additional File 13: Table 2
524 demonstrating the model's flexibility and adaptability with respect to both the risk
525 scheme chosen, *i.e.*, relative or absolute, and the metric used to classify outbreak risk,
526 *i.e.*, number of cases or incidence rate in a region.
527
528

529 ***Limitations***

530 There are several limitations of this work. The underlying data on case reporting vary
531 by country and may not represent the true transmission patterns (85). However, the
532 framework presented was flexible enough to account for these biases and we
533 anticipate will only be improved as data become more robust. Additionally, 2015
534 travel data was used in place of 2016 data, as has been done previously (51, 66, 67),
535 which may not be fully representative of travel behaviour. Furthermore, air travel is
536 the only mode of travel accounted for, thus, additional person movements between
537 country pairs that share land borders are unaccounted for, and as a result, the model
538 likely underestimates the risk posed to some regions. This limitation may partially
539 explain the increased model performance for the geographically isolated Caribbean
540 Islands, which represent a large proportion of ZIKV affected regions. This study does
541 not account for species of mosquitos other than *Ae. Aegypti*, such as *Ae. Albopictus*,
542 which can also spread ZIKV; however, *Ae. Aegypti* are known to be the primary
543 spreading vector, and responsible for the majority of the ZIKV epidemic in the
544 Americas (86). Additionally, alternative non-vector-borne mechanisms of
545 transmission are ignored. Lastly, due to the lack of spatial resolution of case reports,
546 we were limited to make country to country spread estimates. We do however
547 appreciate that there is considerable spatial variation within countries (i.e., northern
548 vs. southern Brazil) and that this may influence the weekly covariates used in this
549 study. We again hypothesise that models will become better as the spatial resolution
550 of available data increases.

551

552

553

554 **Conclusions**

555 We have introduced a flexible, predictive modelling framework to forecast outbreak
556 risk in real-time that can be scaled and readily applied in future outbreaks. An
557 application of the model was applied to the Zika epidemic in the Americas at a
558 weekly temporal resolution, and country-level spatial resolution, using a combination
559 of population, socioeconomic, epidemiological, travel patterns and vector suitability
560 data. The model performance was evaluated for various risk classification schemes,
561 forecast windows and risk indicators, and illustrated to be accurate and robust across a
562 broad range of these features. First, the model is more accurate for shorter prediction
563 windows and restrictive risk classification schemes. Secondly, regional analysis
564 reveals superior predictive accuracy for the Caribbean, suggesting the model to be
565 best suited to geographically isolated locations that are predominantly connected via
566 air travel. Predicting the spread to areas that are relatively isolated has previously
567 been shown to be difficult due to the stochastic nature of infectious disease spread
568 (87). Thirdly, the model performed consistently well at various stages throughout the
569 course of the outbreak, indicating its potential value at the early stages of an epidemic.
570 The outcomes from the model can be used to better guide outbreak resource allocation
571 decisions, and can be easily adapted to model other vector-borne epidemics.

572

573

574 **Additional files**

575 **Additional file 1: Data (cases).** Country or territory level weekly Zika cases.

576

577 **Additional file 2: Data (incidence).** Country or territory level weekly Zika incidence
578 rates.

579

580 **Additional file 3: Data (incoming_travel).** Country or territory level, weekly
581 incoming travel volume.

582

583 **Additional file 4: Data (outgoing_travel).** Country or territory level weekly
584 outgoing travel volume.

585

586 **Additional file 5: Data (suitability).** Country or territory level weekly *Aedes* vector
587 suitability.

588

589 **Additional file 6: Data (gdp).** Country or territory level GDP per capita.

590

591 **Additional file 7: Data (physicians).** Country or territory level physicians per 1000
592 people.

593

594 **Additional file 8: Data (beds).** Country or territory level beds per 1000 people.

595

596 **Additional file 9: Data (pop_density).** Country or territory level population densities
597 (people per sq. km of land area).

598

599 **Additional file 10: Data (case_weighted_travel_risk).** Country or territory level
600 weekly case-weighted travel risk.

601

602 **Additional file 11: Data (incidence_weighted_travel_risk).** Country or territory
603 level weekly incidence-weighted travel risk.

604

605 **Additional file 12: Figure S1. Number of high risk countries each week under all**
606 **absolute risk classification schemes.** The number of countries classified as high risk
607 each week for each absolute case incidence threshold, ranging from A=50 to A=90. In
608 parentheses is the weekly incidence rate defining the high risk threshold based on the
609 percentile (A) specified.

610

611 **Additional file 13: Table S2. Summary of model performance.** ACC is presented
612 for each combination of risk indicator (case count and incidence rate), classification
613 scheme (i.e., R = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5 and A = 90, 80, 70, 60, 50) and forecast
614 window (i.e., N = 1, 2, 4, 8 and 12), for selected Epi weeks throughout the epidemic.
615 ROC AUC (averaged over all locations and all EPI weeks) is computed for all
616 combinations of risk indicator (case count and incidence rate), classification scheme
617 (i.e., R = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5 and A = 90, 80, 70, 60, 50) and forecast window (i.e.,
618 N = 1, 2, 4, 8 and 12).

619

620

621 **Additional files 14: Figure S2. Aggregate model performance measured by ROC**
622 **AUC.** The ROC AUC is averaged over all locations and all weeks, for each relative
623 risk classification scheme, *i.e.*, $R = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5$ and forecast window *i.e.*, $N =$
624 $1, 2, 4, 8$ and 12 . For the results shown the risk indicator is case counts.

625
626 **Additional file 15: Table S1. Summary of model sensitivity to feature selection.**
627 The ACC and ROC AUC performance of the model is computed and presented under
628 different combinations of input data features. The proposed model is compared
629 against two baseline models; one includes only case (and incidence) data, and the
630 second includes case and all non-travel related data, while the final proposed model
631 includes all features. The results presented are for the absolute risk classification
632 scheme, where the risk indicator is incidence rate.

633

634 **Abbreviations**

635 **ACC:** Prediction accuracy

636 **AUC:** Area under the curve

637 **CDC:** Centre of disease control and prevention

638 **FN:** False negative

639 **FP:** False positive

640 **GDP:** Gross domestic product

641 **IATA:** International air transport associate

642 **MLP:** Multilayer perceptron

643 **NARX:** Nonlinear autoregressive models with exogenous inputs

644 **PAHO:** Pan American health organization

645 **PPP:** Purchasing power parity

646 **ROC:** Receiver operating characteristic

647 **TN:** True negative

648 **TP:** True positive

649 **ZIKV:** Zika virus

650

651 **Ethics approval and consent to participate.** Not applicable.

652 **Consent for publication.** Not applicable.

653

654 **Availability of data and material.** All data used in this study is provided as
655 Additional files.

656

657 **Competing Interests.** We have no competing interests.

658

659 **Authors' Contributions.** LG and MA conceived the study, designed the experiments,
660 analyzed the model results, and drafted the original manuscript. MA developed the
661 model and performed the computational analysis. MUGK contributed vector
662 distribution data. All authors contributed to data curation and editing of the
663 manuscript. LG supervised the study.

664 **Acknowledgements.** We thank Raja Jurdak and Dean Paini for their inputs and
665 discussion on the model.

666

667 **Funding.** We received no funding for this work.

668

669

670

671 **References**

672

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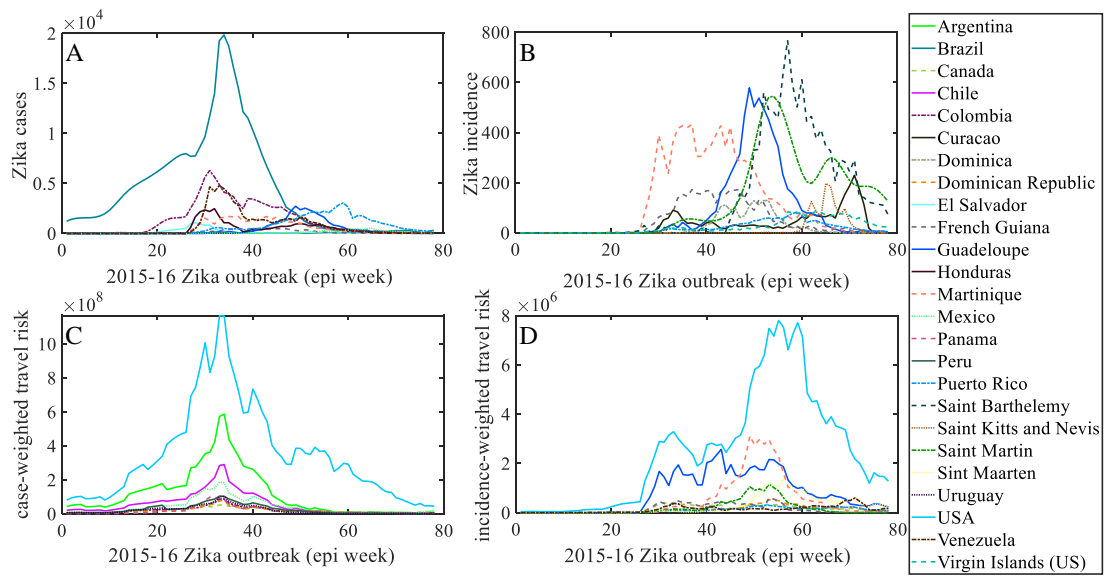
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933 **Fig 1. Weekly distribution of case and connectivity-risk variables.** (A) Zika cases

934 (B) incidence rates in the Americas, (C) case-weighted travel risk CR_j^t , and (D)

935 incidence weighted travel risk IR_j^t , for top 10 ranked countries and territories in the

936 Americas for each respective variable.

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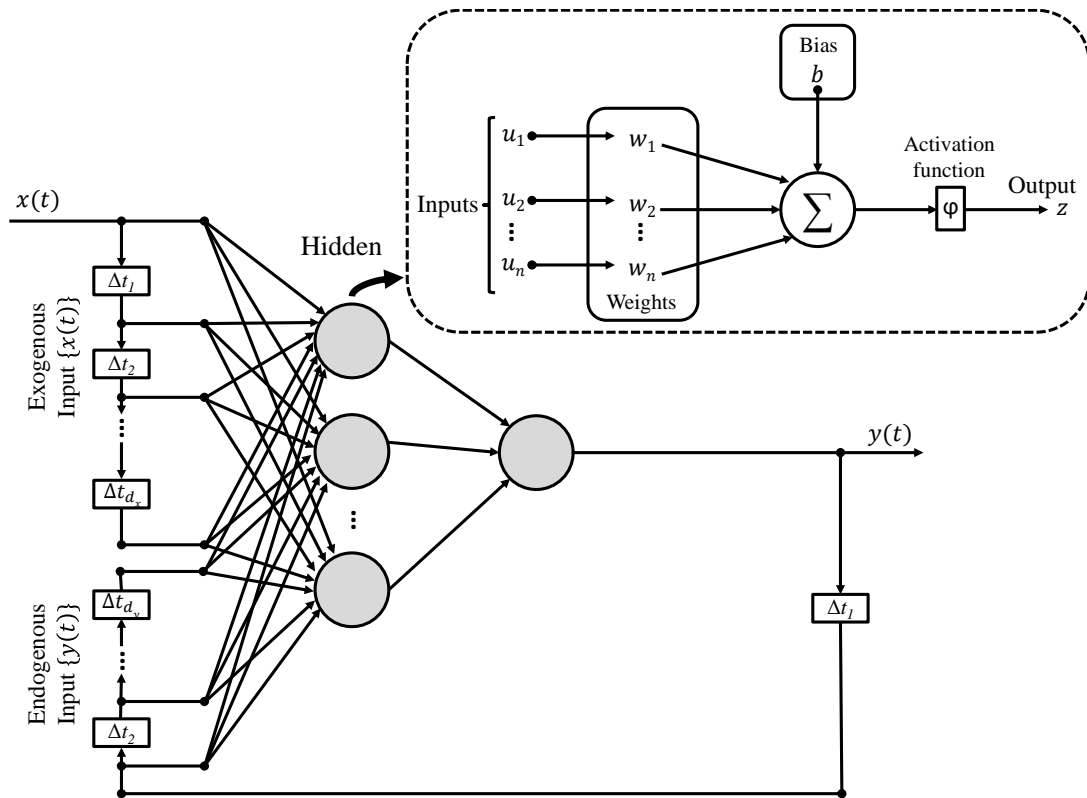
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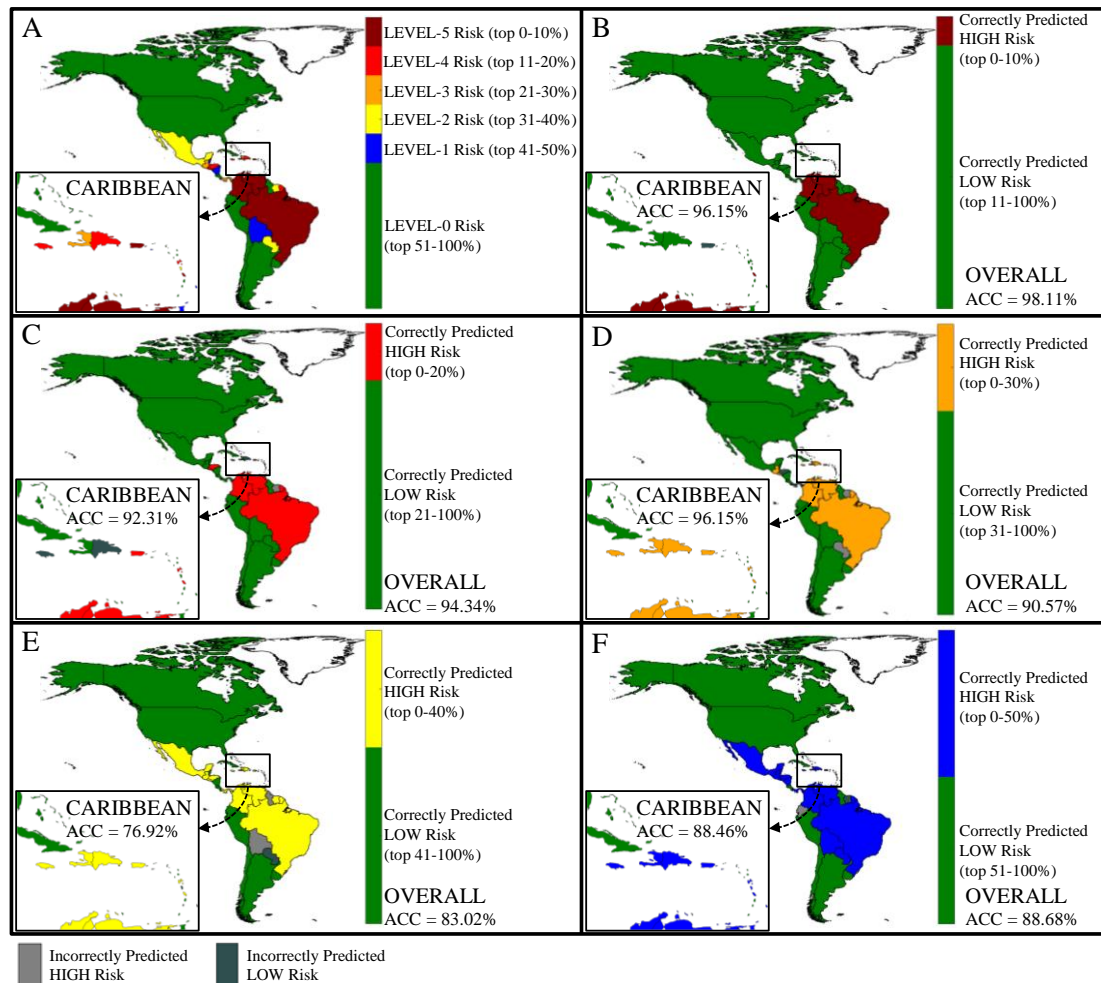
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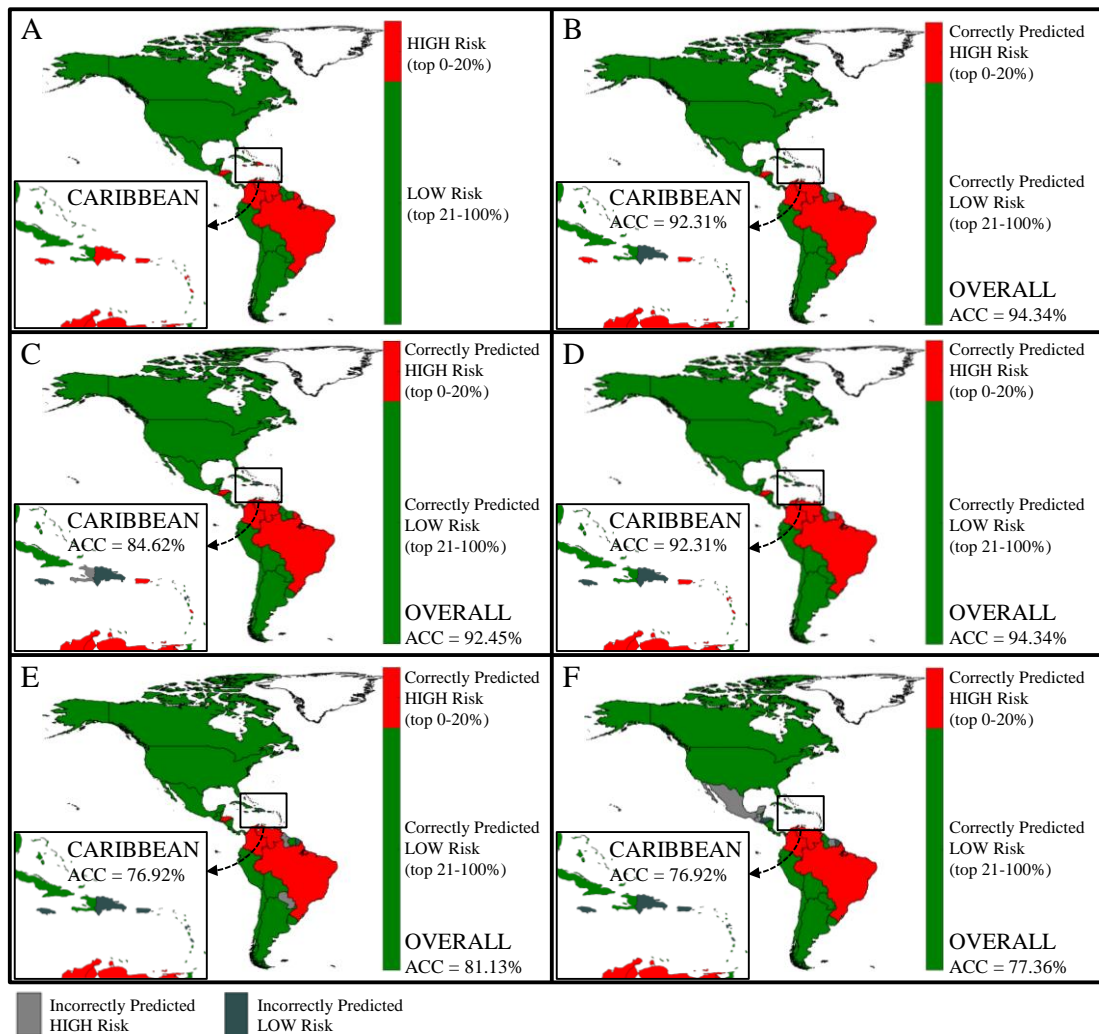
944 **Fig 2. Schematic of NARX network with \mathbf{d}_x input and \mathbf{d}_y output delays:** Each
 945 neuron produces a single output based on several real-valued inputs to that neuron by
 946 forming a linear combination using its input weights and sometimes passing the
 947 output through a nonlinear activation function: $\mathbf{z} = \boldsymbol{\phi}(\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{w}_i \mathbf{u}_i + \mathbf{b}) = \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} +$
 948 $\mathbf{b})$, where \mathbf{w} denotes the vector of weights, \mathbf{u} is the vector of inputs, \mathbf{b} is the bias and
 949 $\boldsymbol{\phi}$ is a linear or nonlinear activation function (e.g., Linear, Sigmoid, and Hyperbolic
 950 tangent (88)).

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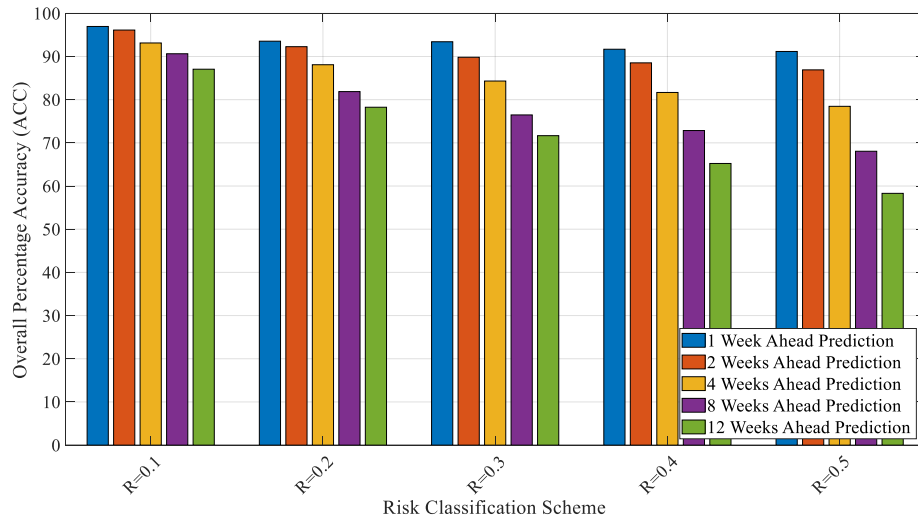
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Fig 3. Country prediction accuracy by relative risk level. Panel (A) illustrates the actual relative risk level assigned to each country at Epi week 40 for a fixed forecast window, $N=4$. Panels (B)-(E) each corresponds to a different classification scheme, specifically (B) $R=0.1$, (C) $R=0.2$, (D) $R=0.3$, (E) $R=0.4$, and (F) $R=0.5$. The inset shown by the small rectangle highlights the actual and predicted risk in Caribbean islands. For Panels (B)-(E), green indicates a correctly predicted low risk country, light grey indicates an incorrectly predicted high risk country, and dark grey indicates an incorrectly predicted low risk country. The risk indicator used is case counts.



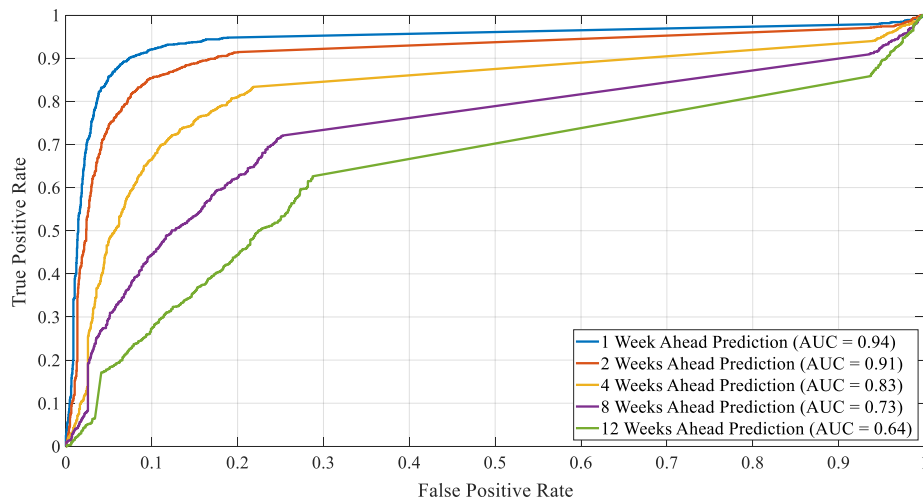
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Fig 4. Country prediction accuracy by forecast window. Panel (A) illustrates the actual relative risk level assigned to each country at Epi week 40 for a fixed classification scheme, $R=0.2$. Panels (B)-(E) each corresponds to different forecast windows, specifically (B) $N=1$, (C) $N=2$, (D) $N=4$, (E) $N=8$, and (F) $N=12$. The inset shown by the small rectangle highlights the actual and predicted risk in Caribbean islands. For Panels (B)-(E), the red indicates a correctly predicted high risk country and green indicates a correctly predicted low risk country. Light grey indicates an incorrectly predicted high risk country, and dark grey indicates an incorrectly predicted low risk country. The risk indicator used is case counts.



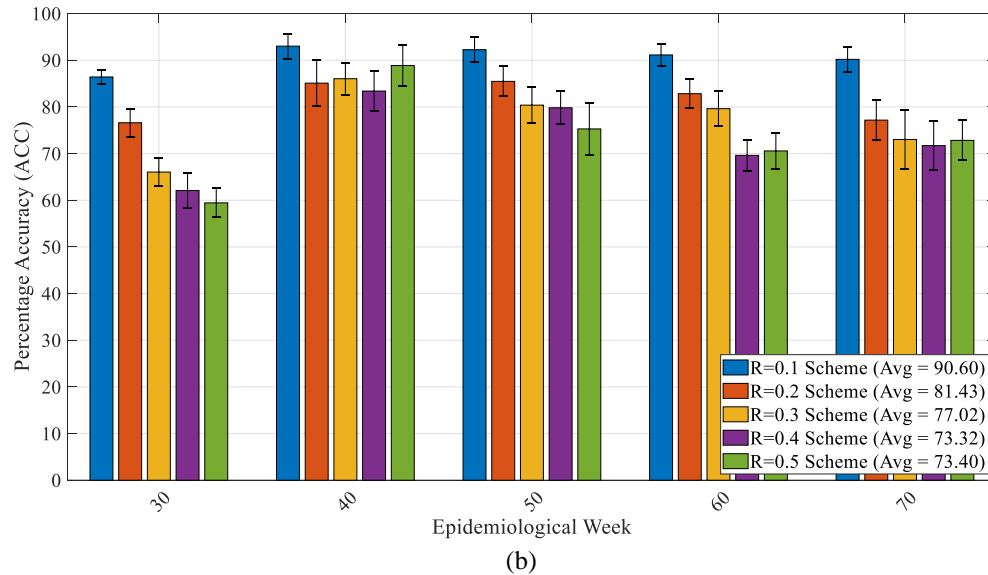
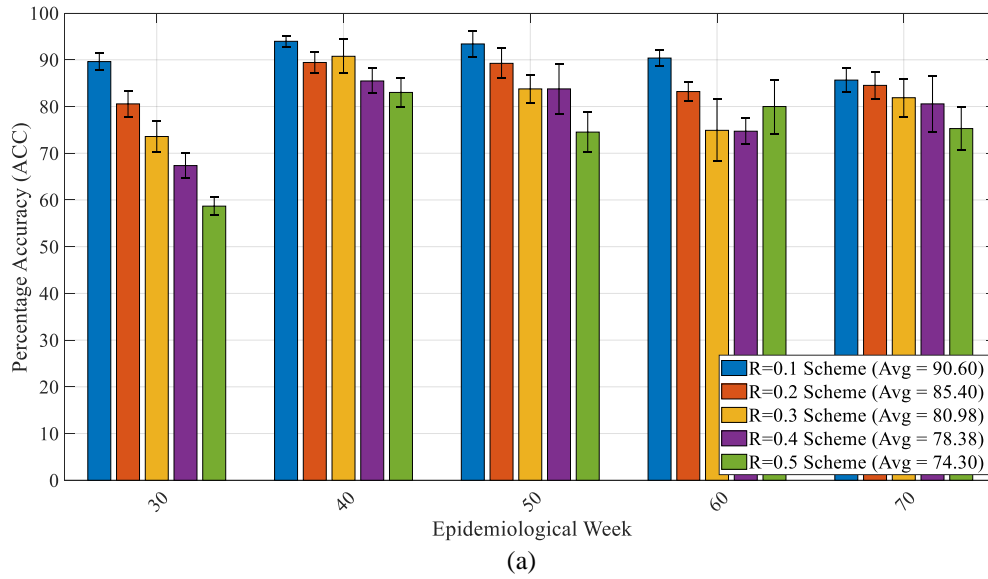
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Fig 5. Aggregate model performance measured by ACC (averaged over all locations and all weeks) for all combinations of relative risk classification schemes (i.e., $R = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4$ and 0.5) and forecast windows (i.e., $N = 1, 2, 4, 8$ and 12), where the risk indicator is case counts.



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Fig 6. Aggregate model performance measured by ROC AUC (averaged over all locations and all weeks) for a fixed relative risk classification scheme, i.e., $R = 0.4$, and forecast windows (i.e., $N = 1, 2, 4, 8$ and 12), where the risk indicator is case counts.



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Fig 7. Model performance and robustness. ACC is averaged over all locations for selected epidemiological weeks when risk indicator is (a) case counts and (b) incidence rate, and a fixed forecast windows (i.e., $N = 4$). The error bars represent the variability in expected ACC across ten runs for each combination.