Title: An ensemble *n*-sub-epidemic modeling framework for short-term forecasting 1 2 epidemic trajectories: Application to the COVID-19 pandemic in the USA 3 Short title: An ensemble n-sub-epidemic modeling framework for short-term forecasting 4 5 epidemics 6 Gerardo Chowell^{1,2}, Sushma Dahal¹, Amna Tariq¹, Kimberlyn Roosa³, James M. Hyman⁴, 7 Ruivan Luo¹ 8 9 ¹Department of Population Health Sciences, School of Public Health, Georgia State University, 10 11 Atlanta, GA, USA. ² Division of International Epidemiology and Population Studies, Fogarty International Center, 12 13 National Institutes of Health. Bethesda, MD. USA. ³ National Institute for Mathematical and Biological Synthesis (NIMBioS), University of 14 15 Tennessee, Knoxville, TN, USA ⁴ Department of Mathematics, Center for Computational Science, Tulane University, New 16 17 Orleans, LA, USA. ^{*}Corresponding author (gchowell@gsu.edu) 18 19 20 Abstract 21 We analyze an ensemble of *n*-sub-epidemic modeling for forecasting the trajectory of epidemics 22 23 and pandemics. These ensemble modeling approaches, and models that integrate sub-epidemics 24 to capture complex temporal dynamics, have demonstrated powerful forecasting capability. This 25 modeling framework can characterize complex epidemic patterns, including plateaus, epidemic 26 resurgences, and epidemic waves characterized by multiple peaks of different sizes. We systematically assess their calibration and short-term forecasting performance in short-term 27 28 forecasts for the COVID-19 pandemic in the USA from late April 2020 to late February 2022. 29 We compare their performance with two commonly used statistical ARIMA models. The best fit

30 sub-epidemic model and three ensemble models constructed using the top-ranking sub-epidemic 31 models consistently outperformed the ARIMA models in terms of the weighted interval score 32 (WIS) and the coverage of the 95% prediction interval across the 10-, 20-, and 30-day short-term 33 forecasts. In the 30-day forecasts, the average WIS ranged from 377.6 to 421.3 for the sub-34 epidemic models, whereas it ranged from 439.29 to 767.05 for the ARIMA models. Across 98 35 short-term forecasts, the ensemble model incorporating the top four ranking sub-epidemic 36 models (Ensemble(4)) outperformed the (log) ARIMA model 66.3% of the time, and the 37 ARIMA model 69.4% of the time in 30-day ahead forecasts in terms of the WIS. Ensemble(4) 38 consistently yielded the best performance in terms of the metrics that account for the uncertainty 39 of the predictions. This framework could be readily applied to investigate the spread of 40 epidemics and pandemics beyond COVID-19, as well as other dynamic growth processes found 41 in nature and society that would benefit from short-term predictions.

42

43 Summary

44 The COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted the urgent need to develop reliable tools to forecast 45 the trajectory of epidemics and pandemics in near real-time. We describe and apply an ensemble 46 *n*-sub-epidemic modeling framework for forecasting the trajectory of epidemics and pandemics. 47 We systematically assess its calibration and short-term forecasting performance in weekly 10-30 48 days ahead forecasts for the COVID-19 pandemic in the USA from late April 2020 to late 49 February 2022 and compare its performance with two different statistical ARIMA models. This 50 framework demonstrated reliable forecasting performance and substantially outcompeted the 51 ARIMA models. The forecasting performance was consistently best for the ensemble sub-52 epidemic models incorporating a higher number of top-ranking sub-epidemic models. The 53 ensemble model incorporating the top four ranking sub-epidemic models consistently yielded the

- 54 best performance, particularly in terms of the coverage rate of the 95% prediction interval and
- 55 the weighted interval score. This framework can be applied to forecast other growth processes
- 56 found in nature and society including the spread of information through social media.

58 Introduction

59

60 The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic has amplified the critical need for reliable 61 tools to forecast the trajectory of epidemics and pandemics in near real-time. During the early 62 stages of the COVID-19 pandemic, multiple modeling teams embarked on the challenging task 63 of producing short-term forecasts of the course of the COVID-19 pandemic in terms of the 64 trajectory for the number of new cases, hospitalizations, or deaths (e.g., [1-10]). Soon after the 65 epidemic started, our research team published short-term forecasts of the pandemic during the 66 early outbreaks of the novel coronavirus in China [4] and subsequently focused on producing 67 weekly forecasts for the USA [11]. In a related effort, the US COVID-19 Forecasting Hub 68 brought together multiple research teams to synthesize weekly short-term forecasts of the 69 COVID-19 pandemic in the USA [12]. It is time to systematically and rigorously evaluate the 70 forecasting performance of these different pandemic forecasting efforts and document the 71 lessons learned to continue advancing our understanding of epidemic forecasting.

72

73 Ensemble modeling approaches and models that integrate sub-epidemics to capture complex 74 temporal dynamics have demonstrated powerful forecasting capability (e.g., [13] [14-17]). In 75 prior work, we developed a sub-epidemic modeling framework to characterize and improve 76 forecasting accuracy during complex epidemic waves [13]. This mathematical framework 77 characterizes epidemic curves by aggregating multiple asynchronous sub-epidemics and 78 outperforms simpler growth models at providing short-term forecasts of various infectious 79 disease outbreaks [13, 18]. It is possible to model sub-epidemics associated with transmission 80 chains that are asynchronously triggered and progress somewhat independently from the other

sub-epidemics. This framework supports a family of sub-epidemic models that yield similar fits
to the calibration data, but their corresponding forecasts could produce diverging trajectories.

83

84 Ensemble modeling aims to boost forecasting performance by systematically integrating the 85 predictive accuracy tied to individual models [16, 19-21]. Past work indicates that multimodel 86 ensemble approaches are powerful forecasting tools that frequently outperform individual 87 models in epidemic forecasts [14, 15, 22-27]. We extend prior sub-epidemic modeling work and 88 propose an ensemble sub-epidemic modeling framework for forecasting the trajectory of 89 epidemics and pandemics. In this model, the sub-epidemics can start at different time points and 90 may follow different growth rates, scaling of growth, and final sizes. Hence, this ensemble 91 modeling framework can characterize more diverse epidemic patterns which were impossible to capture by earlier sub-epidemic models, including plateaus, epidemic resurgences, and epidemic 92 93 waves characterized by multiple peaks of different sizes.

94

95 Here, we systematically assess the calibration and short-term forecasting performance in weekly 96 10-30 day forecasts in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic in the USA from late April 2020 to late February 2022, including the Omicron-dominated wave. We then compare the 97 98 performance of the ensemble modeling framework with a set of Autoregressive Integrated 99 Moving Average (ARIMA) models, following the EPIFORGE 2020 guidelines to report 100 epidemic forecasts [28]. Our extended ensemble modeling framework substantially outperforms 101 individual top-ranking sub-epidemic models and the ARIMA models based on standard 102 performance metrics that account for the uncertainty of the predictions.

- 103
- 104 Data

We used daily COVID-19 deaths reported in the USA from the publicly available data tracking system of the Johns Hopkins Center for Systems Science and Engineering (CSSE) from 27 February 2020 to 30 March 2022 [29]. The data is updated on the CSSE webpage once every day at 23:59 (UTC) and is read from the daily case report. The data is also publicly available in the GitHub repository [30].

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111 *n*-sub-epidemic model

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We model epidemic trajectories comprised of one or more overlapping and asynchronous subepidemics. That is, the sub-epidemics are used as building blocks to characterize more complex epidemic trajectories. The mathematical equation for the sub-epidemic building block is the 3parameter generalized-logistic growth model (GLM), which has performed well in short-term forecasts of single outbreak trajectories for different infectious diseases, including COVID-19 [31-33]. This model is given by the following differential equation:

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120
$$\frac{dC(t)}{dt} = C'(t) = rC^p(t)\left(1 - \frac{C(t)}{K_0}\right),$$

121

where $\frac{dC(t)}{dt}$ describes the curve of daily deaths over time *t*. The cumulative curve at time *t* is given by C(t), while *r* is a positive parameter denoting the growth rate per unit of time, K_0 is the final outbreak size, and $p \in [0,1]$ is the "scaling of growth" parameter which allows the model to capture early sub-exponential and exponential growth patterns. If p = 0, this equation describes a constant number of new deaths over time, while p = 1 indicates that the early

127 growth phase is exponential. Intermediate values of p (0) describe early sub-128 exponential (e.g., polynomial) growth dynamics.

129

An *n*-sub-epidemic trajectory comprises *n* overlapping sub-epidemics and is given by thefollowing system of coupled differential equations:

132

$$\frac{dC_i(t)}{dt} = C_i'(t) = A_i(t)r_iC_i^{p_i}(t)\left(1 - \frac{C_i(t)}{K_{0_i}}\right).$$

133

Where $C_i(t)$ tracks the cumulative number of deaths for sub-epidemic i, and the parameters that characterize the shape of the i_{th} sub-epidemic are given by (r_i, p_i, K_{0i}) , for i = 1, ..., n. Thus, the 1-sub-epidemic model is equivalent to the generalized growth model described above. When n > 1, we model the onset timing of the $(i + 1)_{th}$ sub-epidemic, where $(i + 1) \le n$, by employing an indicator variable given by $A_i(t)$ so that the $(i + 1)_{th}$ sub-epidemic is triggered when the cumulative curve of the i_{th} sub-epidemic exceeds C_{thr} .

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141 The $(i + 1)_{th}$ sub-epidemic is only triggered when $C_{thr} \leq K_{0i}$. Hence, we have:

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143
$$A_{i}(t) = \begin{cases} 1, \ C_{i-1}(t) > C_{thr} \\ 0, \ \text{Otherwise} \end{cases} \quad i = 2, \dots n ,$$

144

where $A_1(t) = 1$ for the first sub-epdemic. Hence, the total number of parameters that are needed to model an *n*-sub-epidemic trajectory is given by 3n + 1. The initial number of deaths is given

147 by $C_1(0) = I_0$, where I_0 is the initial number of deaths in the observed data. The cumulative

148 curve of the *n*-sub-epidemic trajectory is given by:

$$C_{tot}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} C_i(t).$$

149

150 The *n*-sub-epidemic wave model can characterize diverse epidemic patterns, including epidemic 151 plateaus where the epidemic stabilizes at a high level for an extended period, epidemic 152 resurgences where the number of cases increases again after a low incidence period, and 153 epidemic waves characterized by multiple peaks.

154

155 **Parameter estimation**

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To reduce the noise in the original data due to artificial reasons such as the weekend effects, we use the 7-day moving average of daily death series to fit the n-sub-epidemic model. Let

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$$y_{t_i} = y_{t_1}, y_{t_2}, \dots, y_{t_{n_d}}$$
 where $j = 1, 2, \dots, n_d$

denote the smoothed daily COVID-19 death series of the epidemic trajectory based on the 160 moving average. Here, t_i are the time points for the time series data, n_d is the number of 161 observations, and each y_{t_i} , j=1,2,..., n_d , is the average of the death counts at the neighboring 162 seven days $(t_{j-3}, t_{j-2}, t_{j-1}, t_j, t_{j+1}, t_{j+2}, t_{j+3})$. We will use this smoothed data to estimate a total 163 of 3n + 1 model parameters, namely $\Theta = (C_{thr}, r_1, p_1, K_{0_1}, \dots, r_n, p_n, K_{0_n})$. Let $f(t, \Theta)$ denote 164 the expected curve of new COVID-19 deaths of the epidemic's trajectory. We can estimate 165 model parameters by fitting the model solution to the observed data via nonlinear least squares 166 167 [34] or via maximum likelihood estimation assuming a specific error structure [35]. For

168 nonlinear least squares, this is achieved by searching for the set of parameters $\hat{\Theta}$ that minimizes 169 the sum of squared differences between the observed data $y_{t_j=}y_{t_1,}y_{t_2}\dots y_{t_{n_d}}$ and the model 170 mean corresponds to $f(t, \Theta)$. That is, $\Theta = (C_{thr}, r_1, p_1, K_{0_1}, \dots, r_n, p_n, K_{0_n})$ is estimated by 171 $\hat{\Theta} = \arg \min \sum_{j=1}^{n_d} (f(t_j, \Theta) - y_{t_j})^2$.

172

This parameter estimation method weights each of the data points equally and does not require a specific distributional assumption for y_t , except for the first moment $E[y_t] = f(t_i; \theta)$. That is, the mean of the observed data at time t is equivalent to the expected count (e.g., number of deaths) denoted by $f(t, \theta)$ at time t [36]. This method yields asymptotically unbiased point estimates regardless of any misspecification of the variance-covariance error structure. Hence, the estimated model mean $f(t_i, \hat{\theta})$ yields the best fit to observed data y_{t_i} in terms of squared L2 norm. In Matlab, we can use the *finincon* function to set the optimization problem.

180

181 To quantify parameter uncertainty, we follow a parametric bootstrapping approach which allows 182 the computation of standard errors and related statistics in the absence of closed-form formulas [37]. We generate B bootstrap samples from the best-fit model $f(t, \hat{\Theta})$, with an assumed error 183 184 structure, to quantify the uncertainty of the parameter estimates and construct confidence 185 intervals. Typically, the error structure in the data is modelled using a probability model such as 186 the Poisson or negative binomial distribution. Because the time-series data we are fitting to 187 involve large counts, the Poisson or negative binomial distribution can be well approximated by a normal distribution for large numbers. So, using the best-fit model $f(t, \hat{\Theta})$, we generate B-188 189 times replicated simulated datasets of size n_d , where the observation at time t_i is sampled from a

190 normal distribution with mean $f(t_j, \hat{\theta})$ and variance $\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n_d} (f(t_j, \hat{\theta}) - y_{t_j})^2}{n_d - (3n+1)}$. Next, we refit the model 191 to each of the *B* simulated datasets to re-estimate parameters for each. The new parameter 192 estimates for each realization are denoted by $\hat{\Theta}_b$ where b = 1, 2, ..., B. Using the sets of re-193 estimated parameters $(\hat{\Theta}_b)$, it is possible to characterize the empirical distribution of each 194 estimate, calculate the variance, and construct confidence intervals for each parameter. The 195 resulting uncertainty around the model fit can similarly be obtained from $f(t, \hat{\Theta}_1)$, 196 $f(t, \hat{\Theta}_2), ..., f(t, \hat{\Theta}_B)$.

197

198 Model-based forecasts with quantified uncertainty

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Forecasting the model $f(t, \widehat{\Theta})$, *h* days ahead provides an estimate for $f(t + h, \widehat{\Theta})$. The uncertainty of the forecasted value can be obtained using the previously described parametric bootstrap method. Let

$$f(t+h,\widehat{\Theta}_1), f(t+h,\widehat{\Theta}_2), \dots, f(t+h,\widehat{\Theta}_B)$$

203 denote the forecasted value of the current state of the system propagated by a horizon of *h* time 204 units, where $\hat{\Theta}_b$ denotes the estimation of parameter set Θ from the b_{th} bootstrap sample. We can 205 use these values to calculate the bootstrap variance as the measure of the uncertainty of the 206 forecasts and use the 2.5% and 97.5% percentiles to construct the 95% prediction intervals (PI).

207

208

209 Model selection

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211 We considered a set of *n*-sub-epidemic models where $1 \le n \le 2$ and ranked them from best to

212 worst according to the AIC_c which is given by [38, 39]:

$$AIC_c = n_d \log(SSE) + 2m + \frac{2m(m+1)}{n_d - m - 1}$$

213

where $SSE = \sum_{j=1}^{n_d} (f(t_j, \widehat{\Theta}) - y_{t_j})^2$, m = 3n + 1 is the number of model parameters, and n_d is the number of data points. The AIC_c for the parameter estimation from the nonlinear leastsquares fit, which implicitly assumes normal distribution for error.

217

We selected the four top ranking sub-epidemic models for further analyses. We used them to construct three ensemble sub-epidemic models, which we refer to as: Ensemble(2), Ensemble(3), and Ensemble(4). The next section describes the process of constructing these ensemble models from the top-ranking sub-epidemic models.

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- 223

224 Constructing Ensemble Models from top-ranking models

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226 Ensemble models that combine the strength of multiple models may exhibit significantly 227 enhanced predictive performance (e.g., [14-17]). Here we generate ensemble models from the weighted combination of the highest-ranking sub-epidemic models as deemed by the AIC_{c_i} for 228 229 the *i*-th model where $AIC_{c_1} \leq \cdots \leq AIC_{c_l}$ and $i = 1, \dots, I$. An ensemble derived from the top-230 ranking I models is denoted by Ensemble(I) and illustrated in Figure 1. Thus, Ensemble(2) and Ensemble(3) refer to the ensemble models generated from the weighted combination of the top-231 232 ranking 2 and 3 models, respectively. We compute the weight w_i for the *i*-th model, i = 1, ..., I, where $\sum w_i = 1$ as follows: 233

235
$$w_i = \frac{\frac{1}{AIC_{c_i}}}{\frac{1}{AIC_{c_1}} + \frac{1}{AIC_{c_2}} + \dots + \frac{1}{AIC_{c_l}}} \text{ for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, l,$$

236

237 and hence $w_1 \leq \cdots \leq w_1$.

238

239 The estimated mean curve of daily COVID-19 deaths for the Ensemble(*I*) model is:

$$f_{ens(l)}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{l} w_i f_i(t, \widehat{\Theta}^{(i)})$$

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where given the training data, $\widehat{\Theta}^{(i)}$ denotes the set of estimated parameters, and $f_i(t, \widehat{\Theta}^{(i)})$ denotes the estimated mean curve of daily COVID-19 deaths, for the *i*-th model. Accordingly, we compute the weighted average and sample the bootstrap realizations of the forecasts for each model to construct the 95% CI or PI using the 2.5% and 97.5% quantiles [16]. Our MATLAB (The Mathworks, Inc) code for model fitting and forecasting is publicly available in the GitHub repository [30].

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Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the construction of the ensemble model from the weighted combination of the highest-ranking sub-epidemic models as deemed by the AIC_{c_i} for the *i*-th model where $AIC_{c_1} \le \dots \le AIC_{c_l}$ and $i = 1, \dots, I$. An ensemble derived from the top-ranking *I* models is denoted by Ensemble(I).

252

As a sensitivity analysis, we also investigated how the ensemble sub-epidemic models performed when the ensemble weights were proportional to the relative likelihood (l) rather than the reciprocal of the AIC_c. Let *AIC_{min}* denote the minimum *AIC* from the set of models. The relative

likelihood of model *i* is given by $l_i = e^{((AIC_{min} - AIC_i)/2)}$ [40]. We compute the weight w_i for the 256 *i*-th model where $\sum w_i = 1$ as follows: 257 258 $w_i = \frac{l_i}{l_1 + l_2 + \dots + l_l}$ for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, I$, 259 260 and hence $w_I \leq \cdots \leq w_1$. 261 262 Auto-regressive integrated moving average models (ARIMA) 263 264 265 We also generated short-term predictions of the pandemic trajectory using ARIMA models to 266 compare their performance with that of the sub-epidemic models. ARIMA models have been frequently employed to forecast trends in finance [41-43] and weather [44-46]. The ARIMA (p, 267 268 d, q) process is given by $\phi(B)(1-B)^d y_t = c + \theta(B)\epsilon_t$ or equivalently as $\phi(B)(1-B)^d(y_t - \mu t^d/d!) = \theta(B)\epsilon_t$, where p is the order of the AR 269 model, d is the degree of differencing, q is the order of the MA model, $\{\epsilon_t\}$ is a white noise 270

model, d is the degree of differencing, q is the order of the MA model, $\{\epsilon_t\}$ is a white noise process with mean 0 and variance σ^2 , and B denotes the backshift operator. The p-order polynomial $\phi(z) = 1 - \phi_1 z - \dots - \phi_p z^p$ and the q-order polynomial $d\theta(z) = 1 - \theta_1 z - \dots - \theta_1 z^q$ are assumed to have no roots inside the unit circle to ensure causality and invertibility. The constant $c = \mu (1 - \phi_1 - \dots - \phi_p)$, and μ is the mean of $(1 - B)^d y_t$. When d=0, μ is the mean of y_t .

277 The auto.arima function in the R package "forecast" is used to select orders and build the model 278 [47]. First, the degree of differencing $0 \le d \le 2$ is selected based on successive KPSS unit-279 root tests [48], which test the data for a unit root; if the test result is significant, the differenced 280 data is tested for a unit root; and this procedure is repeated until the first insignificant result is 281 obtained. Then given d, the orders p and q are selected based on the AIC_c for the d-times differenced data. For d=0 or d=1, a constant will be included if it improves the AIC_c value; for 282 283 d>1, the constant μ is fixed at 0 to avoid the model having a quadratic or higher order trend, 284 which is dangerous when forecasting. The final model is fitted using the maximum likelihood 285 estimation.

286

To guarantee the forecasted values and prediction intervals are above zero, we take the following two strategies. In the first one, we conduct the ARIMA order selection and model fitting using the log-transformed data. Then we take the exponential of the forecasted values and the PI bounds to predict the incident death counts and get the PIs. We refer to this approach as the (log) ARIMA throughout the manuscript. In the second case, the negative values are set as zero. Then, it is possible that the actual coverage probability of such PIs can be smaller than the nominal value (95%). We refer to this approach as ARIMA throughout the manuscript.

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295 Forecasting strategy and performance metrics

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We conducted short-term forecasts using the top-ranking *n*-sub-epidemic model $(1 \le n \le 2)$ and three ensemble models constructed with the top-ranking sub-epidemic models namely Ensemble(2), Ensemble(3), and Ensemble(4). For comparison, we also generated short-term

forecasts using the previously described ARIMA models. Overall, we conducted 588 forecastsacross models.

302

Using a 90-day calibration period for each model, we conducted a total of 98 weekly sequential 10-day, 20-day and 30-day forecasts from 20 April 2020 to 28 February 2022, spanning five pandemic waves. This range of forecasting horizons is comparable to that investigated in prior COVID-19 forecasting studies [49]. This period covers the latter part of the early spring wave, a summer wave in 2020, a fall-winter 2020/2021 wave, the summer-fall wave in 2021, and the winter 2022 wave.

309

To assess the forecasting performance, we used four performance metrics: the mean absolute error (MAE), the mean squared error (MSE), the coverage of the 95% prediction intervals, and the mean interval score (MIS) [50]. The *mean absolute error* (MAE) is given by:

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$$\text{MAE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{h=1}^{N} \left| f(t_h, \hat{\Theta}) - \tilde{y}_{t_h} \right|.$$

Here \tilde{y}_{t_h} is the time series of the original death counts (unsmoothed) of the *h*-time units ahead forecasts, where t_h are the time points of the time series data [51]. Similarly, the *mean squared error* (MSE) is given by:

$$MSE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{h=1}^{N} (f(t_h, \hat{\Theta}) - \tilde{y}_{t_h})^2 .$$

We also employed two metrics that account for prediction uncertainty: the *coverage rate of the* 95% *PI* e.g., the proportion of the observations that fall within the 95% PI as well as the *weighted interval score* (WIS) [50, 52] which is a proper score. The WIS and the coverage rate of the 95% PIs take into account the uncertainty of the predictions, whereas the MAE and MSE only assess the closeness of the mean trajectory of the epidemic to the observations [53].

323

Recent epidemic forecasting studies have embraced the Interval Score (IS) for quantifying model forecasting performance [18, 24, 49, 54]. The WIS provides quantiles of predictive forecast distribution by combining a set of ISs for probabilistic forecasts. An IS is a simple proper score that requires only a central $(1-\alpha) \times 100\%$ PI [50] and is described as

328

$$IS_{\alpha}(F, y) = (u-l) + \frac{2}{\alpha} \times (l-y) \times \mathbf{1}(y < l) + \frac{2}{\alpha} \times (y-u) \times \mathbf{1}(y > u) .$$

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In this equation 1 refers to the indicator function, meaning that 1(y < l) = 1 if y < l and o otherwise. The terms l and u represent the $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ and $1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}$ quantiles of the forecast F. The IS consists of three distinct quantities:

333

334 1. The sharpness of *F*, given by the width u - l of the central $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ PI.

336 2. A penalty term $\frac{2}{\alpha} \times (l - y) \times \mathbf{1}(y < l)$ for the observations that fall below 337 the lower end point *l* of the $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ PI. This penalty term is

- 338 directly proportional to the distance between *y* and the lower end *l* of the 339 PI. The strength of the penalty depends on the level α .
- 340 3. An analogous penalty term $\frac{2}{\alpha} \times (y u) \times \mathbf{1}(y > u)$ for the observations 341 falling above the upper limit *u* of the PI.
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To provide more detailed and accurate information on the entire predictive distribution, we report several central PIs at different levels $(1 - \alpha_1) < (1 - \alpha_2) < \dots < (1 - \alpha_K)$ along with the predictive median, *m*, which can be seen as a central prediction interval at level $1 - \alpha_0 \rightarrow 0$. This is referred to as the WIS, and it can be evaluated as follows:

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$$WIS_{\alpha_{0:K}}(F, y) = \frac{1}{K + \frac{1}{2}} (w_0 \cdot |y - m| + \sum_{k=1}^{K} w_k \cdot IS_{\alpha_k}(F, y))$$

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where, $w_k = \frac{\alpha_k}{2}$ for k = 1, 2, ..., K and $w_0 = \frac{1}{2}$. Hence, WIS can be interpreted as a measure of how close the entire distribution is to the observation in units on the scale of the observed data [10, 55]. **Results**

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356 Quality of the sub-epidemic model fits

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358 The best fit sub-epidemic model and three ensemble models constructed using the top-ranking

sequential weekly calibration periods from 20-April-2020 to 28-February-2022 (Figure 2, Table
1). For instance, the average WIS was ~247 with little variation across models (Table 1). The
coverage rate of the 95% PIs averaged 97% and ranged from 91% to 100% during the study
period. Moreover, all performance metrics displayed similar temporal trends (Figure 2).

364

Model	Mean absolute error (MSE)	Mean squared error (MAE)	Percentage coverage of the 95% prediction interval	Weighted Interval Score (WIS)
Best fit sub-				
epidemic model	309260.00	394.74	97.06	247.28
Ensemble(2) model	308300.00	394.91	97.30	246.93
Ensemble(3) model	308620.00	395.24	97.46	247.09
Ensemble(4) model	309160.00	396.17	97.46	247.33

365 *The Ensemble(*i*) model incorporates the top *i* ranked sub-epidemic models in the ensemble as366 described in the text.

367

Table 1. Mean performance metrics quantifying the quality of model fits across 98 sequential
weekly calibration periods of the daily time series of COVID-19 deaths in the USA from 20April-2020 through 22-February 2022.

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Figure 2. Performance metrics quantifying the quality of sub-epidemic model fits to 98 sequential weekly calibration periods of the daily time series of COVID-19 deaths in the USA from 20-April-2020 through 22-February 2022. The best fit sub-epidemic model and three ensemble models constructed using the top-ranking sub-epidemic models (Ensemble(2), Ensemble(3), Ensemble(4)) yielded similar quality fits.

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Representative fits of the top-ranking sub-epidemic models to the daily curve of COVID-19 deaths in the USA from 27-Feb-2020 to 20-April-2020 are shown in Figure 3. Although these sub-epidemic models fit the data well, each of them results from the aggregation of two subepidemics characterized by different growth rates, scaling of growth, and outbreak sizes as shown in Figure 4.

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384 Figure 3. Representative fits of the top-ranking sub-epidemic models to the daily curve of 385 COVID-19 deaths in the USA from 27-Feb-2020 to 20-April-2020. The sub-epidemic models 386 capture well the entire epidemic curve, including the latter plateau dynamics, by considering 387 models with two sub-epidemics. The best model fit (solid red line) and 95% prediction interval 388 (dashed red lines) are shown in the left panels. The cyan curves correspond to the associated 389 uncertainty from individual bootstrapped curves. The sub-epidemic profiles are shown in the 390 center panels, where the red and blue curves represent the two sub-epidemics and the grey curves 391 are the estimated epidemic trajectories. For each model fit, the residuals are also shown (right 392 panels). Black circles correspond to the data points.

393

Figure 4. Parameter estimates for the first (top panel) and the second sub-epidemics (bottom panels) were derived for the top-ranking sub-epidemic model after fitting the sub-epidemic modeling framework to the daily curve of COVID-19 deaths in the USA from 27-Feb-2020 to 20-April-2020 (see also Figure 2). Parameter estimates for both sub-epidemics are well identified, as indicated by their relatively narrow bootstrap confidence intervals.

399

400 Short-term forecasting performance

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402	The best fit sub-epidemic model and three ensemble models constructed using the top-ranking
403	sub-epidemic models (Ensemble(2), Ensemble(3), Ensemble(4)) consistently outperformed the
404	ARIMA models in terms of the weighted interval score (WIS) and the coverage of the 95%
405	prediction interval across the 10, 20 and 30 day short-term forecasts (Table 2). For instance, for
406	30-day forecasts, the average WIS ranged from 377.6 to 421.3 for the sub-epidemic models,
407	whereas, it ranged from 439.29 to 767.05 for the ARIMA models. Across 98 short-term
408	forecasts, the Ensemble(4) outperformed the (log) ARIMA model 66.3% of the time and the
409	ARIMA model 69.4% of the time in 30-day ahead forecasts in terms of the WIS (Figure 5 &
410	Figure 6). Similarly, the coverage of the 95% PI ranged from 82.2% to 88.2% for the sub-
411	epidemic models, whereas it ranged from 58% to 60.3% for the ARIMA models in 30-day
412	forecasts. In terms of the coverage of the 95% PI, the Ensemble(4) outperformed the (log)
413	ARIMA model 89.8% of the time and the ARIMA model 91.8% of the time (Figure 5 & Figure
414	6). Forecasting performance generally improved as the number of top-ranking sub-epidemic
415	models included in the ensemble increased (Table 1). The Ensemble(4) model consistently
416	yielded the best performance in terms of the metrics that account for the uncertainty of the
417	predictions.

Model	Mean	Mean squared	Percentage	Weighted	
	absolute	error (MAE)	coverage of the 95%	Interval Score	
	error (MSE)		prediction interval	(WIS)	
10 days ahead					
Top-ranked sub-					
epidemic model	551740.00	535.16	87.14	352.00	
Ensemble(2) model	504560.00	516.44	88.88	331.83	

Ensemble(3) model	491020.00	513.39	89.29	328.00	
Ensemble(4) model	491740.00	513.14	89.39	326.56	
(log) ARIMA model	424880.00	458.72	42.45	365.19	
ARIMA model	430070.00	467.18	43.06	380.47	
		20 days ahead			
Top-ranked sub-					
epidemic model	646880.00	570.34	85.15	382.90	
Ensemble(2) model	576700.00	544.35	88.57	354.04	
Ensemble(3) model	558890.00	540.71	89.59	350.73	
Ensemble(4) model	557130.00	539.30	89.44	346.83	
(log) ARIMA model	591980.00	536.22	51.07	422.41	
ARIMA model	538690.00	528.87	55.05	404.92	
30 days ahead					
Top-ranked sub-					
epidemic model	749560.00	613.75	82.18	421.29	
Ensemble(2) model	670740.00	586.52	87.35	383.36	
Ensemble(3) model	650790.00	584.20	88.20	382.79	
Ensemble(4) model	644270.00	579.77	88.16	377.64	
(log) ARIMA model	818530.00	621.58	57.99	767.05	
ARIMA model	656480.00	591.93	60.34	439.29	

419 *The Ensemble(i) model incorporates the top i ranked sub-epidemic models in the ensemble as

420 described in the text.

421

Table 2. Mean forecasting performance metrics for the sub-epidemic models (ensemble weights are proportional to the reciprocal of the AICc) and the ARIMA models across 98 sequential weekly calibration periods of the daily time series of COVID-19 deaths in the USA from 20-April-2020 through 22-February 2022. Values highlighted in bold correspond to the best performance metrics.

427

Figure 5. Forecasting performance metrics for the (log) ARIMA model and the Ensemble(4) model across 98 30-day forecasts. The symbol (^) indicates weekly forecasts where the Ensemble(4) model outperformed the (log) ARIMA model. For example, the Ensemble(4) outperformed the (log) ARIMA model 66.3% of the time in terms of the WIS and 89.8% of the time in terms of the coverage rate of the 95% PI (Figure 4 & Figure 6).

433

Figure 6. Forecasting performance metrics for the ARIMA model and the Ensemble(4) model
across 98 30-day forecasts. The symbol (^) indicates weekly forecasts where the Ensemble(4)
model outperforms the ARIMA model. For instance, the Ensemble(4) outperformed the ARIMA
model 69.4% of the time in terms of the WIS and 91.8.8% of the time in terms of the coverage
rate of the 95% PI (Figure 4 & Figure 6).

439

In terms of the metrics based on point estimate information, the ARIMA models showed lower overall MSE or MAE compared to the sub-epidemic models in 10 and 20-day forecasts, but the Ensemble(4) achieved the best forecasting performance in 30-day forecasts (Table 2). Overall, the forecasting performance deteriorated at longer forecasting horizons across all models considered in our study.

445

Representative 30-day forecasts of the top-ranking sub-epidemic models to the daily curve of COVID-19 deaths in the USA from 20-April-2020 to 20-May-2022 are shown in Figure 7. The corresponding sub-epidemic profiles of the forecasts are shown in Figure 8. These models support forecasts with diverging trajectories even though they yield similar fits to the calibration

period. For instance, the top-ranked sub-epidemic model predicts a decline in the mortality
curve, whereas the second-ranked model predicts a stable pattern during the next 30 days (Figure
7). The corresponding forecasts generated from three ensemble models (Ensemble(2),
Ensemble(3), Ensemble(4)) built from the top-ranking sub-epidemic models are shown in Figure
9. The individual 30-day ahead predictions across 98 forecasting periods generated by the
Ensemble(4) and the ARIMA models are available in the GitHub repository [30].

456

Figure 7. Representative 30-day forecasts of the top-ranking sub-epidemic models to the daily curve of COVID-19 deaths in the USA from 20-April-2020 to 20-May-2020. The model fit (solid line) and 95% prediction interval (shaded area) are also shown. The vertical line indicates the start time of the forecast. Circles correspond to the data points. These four top-ranking models support forecasts with diverging trajectories even though they yield similar fits to the calibration period. For instance, the 1st ranked sub-epidemic model predicts a decline in the mortality curve whereas the 2nd ranked model predicts a stable pattern during the next 30 days.

464

Figure 8. Representative sub-epidemic profiles of the forecasts derived from the top-ranking sub-epidemic models to the daily curve of COVID-19 deaths in the USA from 20-April-2020 to 20-May-2022. The model fit (solid line) and 95% prediction interval (shaded area) are also shown. Black circles correspond to the calibration data. Blue and red curves represent different sub-epidemics of the epidemic wave profile. Gray curves correspond to the overall epidemic trajectory obtained by aggregating the sub-epidemic curves. The vertical line indicates the start time of the forecast.

Figure 9. Representative sub-epidemic ensemble model forecasts (Ensemble(2), Ensemble(3),
Ensemble(4)) of COVID-19 deaths in the USA from 20-April-2020 to 20-May-2022. Circles
correspond to the data points. The model fits (solid line) and 95% prediction intervals (shaded
area) are shown. Circles correspond to the data points. The vertical line indicates the start time of
the forecast

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In sensitivity analyses, defining ensemble weights as proportional to the relative likelihood did not achieve better performance relative to the ensemble models generated using weights proportional to the reciprocal of the AIC_c . Moreover, the rank of the ensemble models was not affected by the type of weights (Table 3).

Model	Mean absolute	Mean	Percentage	Weighted	
	error (MSE)	squared	coverage of the 95%	Interval Score	
		error (MAE)	prediction interval	(WIS)	
10 days ahead		I			
Top-ranked sub-					
epidemic model	551740.00	535.16	87.14	352.00	
Ensemble(2) model	548540.00	534.14	87.25	348.66	
Ensemble(3) model	547220.00	533.51	87.25	347.99	
Ensemble(4) model	546350.00	533.23	87.35	347.60	
(log) ARIMA					
model	424880.00	458.72	42.45	365.19	
ARIMA model	430070.00	467.18	43.06	380.47	
20 days ahead					
Top-ranked sub-					
epidemic model	646880.00	570.34	85.15	382.90	
Ensemble(2) model	640240.00	567.90	85.71	377.27	

Ensemble(3) model	640960.00	568.45	85.71	376.67
Ensemble(4) model	639280.00	567.74	85.56	376.36
(log) ARIMA				
model	591980.00	536.22	51.07	422.41
ARIMA model	538690.00	528.87	55.05	404.92
30 days ahead				
Top-ranked sub-				
epidemic model	749560.00	613.75	82.18	421.29
Ensemble(2) model	744130.00	612.63	82.65	414.72
Ensemble(3) model	745230.00	613.21	82.59	414.54
Ensemble(4) model	743020.00	612.48	82.52	414.16
(log) ARIMA				
model	818530.00	621.58	57.99	767.05
ARIMA model	656480.00	591.93	60.34	439.29

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485

Table 3. Mean forecasting performance metrics for the sub-epidemic models (ensemble weights were based on the relative likelihood) and the ARIMA models across 98 sequential weekly calibration periods of the daily time series of COVID-19 deaths in the USA from 20-April-2020 through 22-February 2022. Values highlighted in bold correspond to the best performance metrics.

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493 Discussion

494

495 Our ensemble sub-epidemic modeling approach outperformed individual top-ranking sub-496 epidemic models and a set of ARIMA models in weekly short-term forecasts covering the 497 national trajectory of the COVID-19 pandemic in the USA from the early growth phase up until

498 the Omicron-dominated wave. This framework has demonstrated reliable forecasting 499 performance across different pandemic phases from the early growth phase characterized by 500 exponential or sub-exponential growth dynamics to plateaus and new disease surges driven by 501 the relaxation of social distancing policies or the emergence of new variants. Importantly, we 502 found that forecasting performance consistently improved for the ensemble sub-epidemic models 503 that incorporated a higher number of top-ranking sub-epidemic models. The ensemble model 504 incorporating the top four ranking sub-epidemic models consistently yielded the best 505 performance, particularly in terms of the coverage rate of the 95% prediction interval and the 506 weighted interval score.

507

508 Our findings support the power of ensemble modeling approaches (e.g., [14-17]). Our ensemble 509 modeling framework derived from a family of sub-epidemic models demonstrated improved 510 performance as the number of top-ranking sub-epidemic models included in the ensemble 511 increased. Prior studies have documented the potential of ensemble models to enhance 512 forecasting performance during multi-epidemic periods [14]. For instance, in the context of 513 influenza, one study utilized "weighted density ensembles" for predicting timing and severity 514 metrics and found that the performance of the ensemble model was comparable to that of the top 515 individual model, albeit the ensemble's forecasts were more stable across influenza seasons [17]. 516 In the context of dengue in Puerto Rico, another study found that forecasts derived from 517 Bayesian averaging ensembles outperformed a set of individual models [25]. Results from the 518 US COVID-19 Forecasting Hub CDC were consistent with our findings in that a multimodel 519 ensemble frequently outperformed the set of individual models.

521 We also evaluated short-term forecasting performance by a set of ARIMA models, as prior 522 studies have underscored the value of ARIMA models in epidemic forecasting [56], by providing 523 a relatively simple and transparent approach to forecasting. For instance, in the context of 524 influenza-like-illness in the USA, a set of ARIMA models provided reasonably accurate short-525 term forecasts during the 2016/17 influenza season [57]. In another forecasting study during 526 multiple seasons of influenza in the USA, an ARIMA model yielded similar short-term 527 forecasting performance compared to other models based on the mechanistic SIR modeling 528 framework [58]. ARIMA models have also been used for spatial prediction of the COVID-19 529 epidemic [59, 60]. Another study [61] showed that the ARIMA model is more effective than the 530 Prophet time series model for forecasting COVID-19 prevalence. Finally, it is worth noting that 531 the US COVID-19 Forecast Hub did not include an ARIMA model in its set of evaluated models 532 [49]. Therefore, it is interesting to assess how ARIMA models perform in the context of the 533 COVID-19 pandemic in the US.

534

535 Prior work has underscored the need to assess alternative ways of constructing ensembles from a 536 set of individual models [14, 16]. We explored two ways of constructing the ensembles by 537 relying on the AIC_c or the relative likelihood associated with the individual models. We found 538 that the short-term forecasting performance achieved by the ensemble models was not 539 significantly affected by the type of ensemble weights used to construct them although 540 performance using ensemble weights based on the reciprocal of the AIC_c was slightly better. 541 Further research could explore how different weighting strategies influence the forecasting 542 performance of ensemble modeling approaches.

544 Short-term forecasting is an essential attribute of the models. As prior studies have underscored, 545 longer-term forecasts are of value, but their dependability varies inversely with the time horizon. 546 Our 20 and 30-day forecasts are most valuable for monitoring, managing, and informing the 547 relaxing of social distancing requirements. The early detection of potential disease resurgence 548 can signal the need for strict distancing controls, and the reports of cases can identify the 549 geographic location of incubating sub-epidemics.

550

551 Our study is not exempt of limitations. Our analysis relied on daily time series data of COVID-552 19 deaths in the USA, which is inherently noisy due to heterogeneous data reporting at fine 553 spatial scales (i.e., county-level) [62]. Noisy data complicate the ability of any mathematical 554 model to identify meaningful signals about the impact of transmission dynamics and control interventions. To deal with the high noise levels in the data, we fitted the models to smoothed 555 556 time series rather than the actual daily series, as described in the parameter estimation section. 557 Other forecasting studies, including the US COVID-19 Forecasting Hub, have relied on weekly 558 death counts to address this issue [49]. Beyond the COVID-19 pandemic, there is a need to 559 establish benchmarks to systematically assess forecasting performance across a diverse catalog 560 of mathematical models and epidemic datasets involving multiple infectious diseases, social 561 contexts, and spatial scales.

562

While our analysis demonstrated the accuracy of our ensemble sub-epidemic modeling framework in forecasting the COVID-19 pandemic, the same framework could be readily used to forecast other epidemics irrespective of the type of disease and spatial scale involved. Beyond infectious diseases, this framework could also be used to forecast other biological and social

- growth processes, such as the epidemics of lung injury associated with e-cigarette use or vapingand the viral spread of information through social media platforms.
- 569

In summary, our ensemble sub-epidemic models provided reliable short-term forecasts of the trajectory of the COVID-19 pandemic in the USA involving multiple waves and outcompeted a set of ARIMA models. The forecasting performance of the ensemble models improved with the number of top-ranking sub-epidemic models included in the ensemble. This framework could be readily applied to investigate the spread of epidemics and pandemics beyond COVID-19 and in a range of problems in nature and society that would benefit from short-term predictions.

576

Author contributions: Conceptualization, G.C.; methodology, G.C., J.H, R.L, validation, G.C.,
R.L; formal analysis, G.C., R.L; investigation, G.C., R.L; resources, G.C., ; data curation, G.C.,
S.D..; writing—original draft preparation, G.C., R.L; writing, review, and editing, A.T., G.C.,
S.D., K.R., R.L., J.M.H., ; visualization, G.C., R.L; supervision, G.C., R.L; project
administration, G.C.; funding acquisition, G.C. All authors have read and agreed to the published
version of the manuscript.

583

Funding: G.C. is partially supported from NSF grants 1610429 and 1633381 and R01 GM
130900. A.T. and S.D. are supported by a 2CI fellowship from Georgia State University.

- 586
- 587 **Conflicts of Interest**: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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664 Organization which was supporting the development of RTS,S, the vaccine which is the focus of

this paper. AB left PATH prior to any collaboration on this paper. All other authors have

666 declared no competing interests. The views expressed are those of the authors.

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670 PubMed Central PMCID: PMCPMC6346105 consulting for S.K. Analytics. The remaining authors671 declare no competing interests.

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Jean MAE

Mean WIS



















1st Ranked Model

3rd Ranked Model





