

The founding fathers

Ross, R. 1916. An application of the theory of probabilities to the study of *a priori* pathometry. Part I. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, Series A 92: 204-230.

Kermack, W.O. and W.G. McKendrick. 1927. A contribution to the mathematical theory of epidemics. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, Series A 115: 700-721.

The modern synthesis

Hethcote, H.W. and James A. Yorke. 1984. Gonorrhea Transmission Dynamics and Control. (Lecture Notes in Biomathematics vol. 56). Springer-Verlag, NY.

Available at www.math.uiowa.edu/ftp/hethcote/lhb56.pdf.

Anderson, R. A. and R.M. May. 1992. Infectious Diseases of Humans: Dynamics and Control. Oxford University Press, Oxford UK.

For a quick “101”

Ellner, S.P. and J. Guckenheimer. 2006. Dynamic Models in Biology. Princeton University Press, Princeton NJ.

And then

Keeling, M.J. and P. Rohani. 2008. Modeling Infectious Diseases in Humans and Animals. Princeton University Press, Princeton NJ.

Sattenspiel, L. and A. Lloyd. 2009. The Geographic Spread of Infectious Diseases: Models and Applications. Princeton University Press, Princeton NJ.

Computational Sustainability Seminar: Epidemic models

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J. Mao-Jones, K.B. Ritchie, L.E. Jones, S.P. Ellner. 2010. How microbial community composition regulates coral disease transmission (PloS Biology, in press).

J. Bruno, S.P. Ellner, I. Vu, K.Kim, C.D. Harvell. Impacts of aspergillus on sea fan coral demography: modelling a moving target (Ecological Monographs, in review).

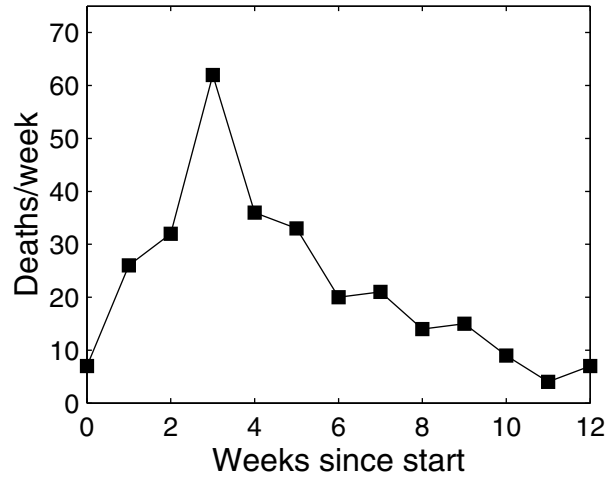
S.P. Ellner, L.E. Jones, L.D. Mydlarz, C.D. Harvell. 2007. Within-host disease ecology in the sea fan *Gorgonia ventalina*: modeling the spatial immunodynamics of a coral-pathogen interaction. *American Naturalist* 170, E143 – E161.

Sir Ronald Ross (1857-1932). Nobel Prize in Medicine (1902) for determining the life cycle of the malaria parasite and the role of mosquitos in malaria transmission.

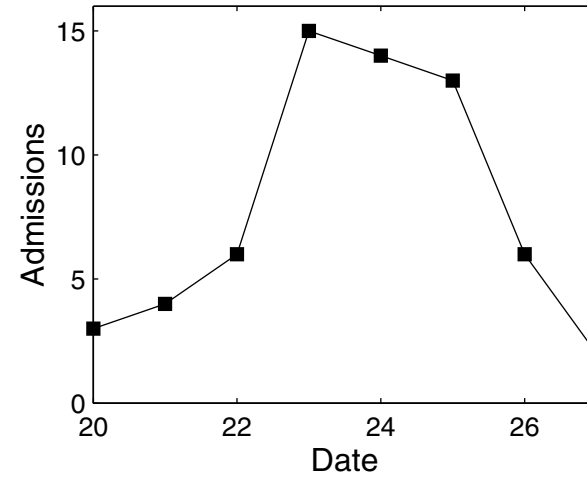


Examples of epidemic curves

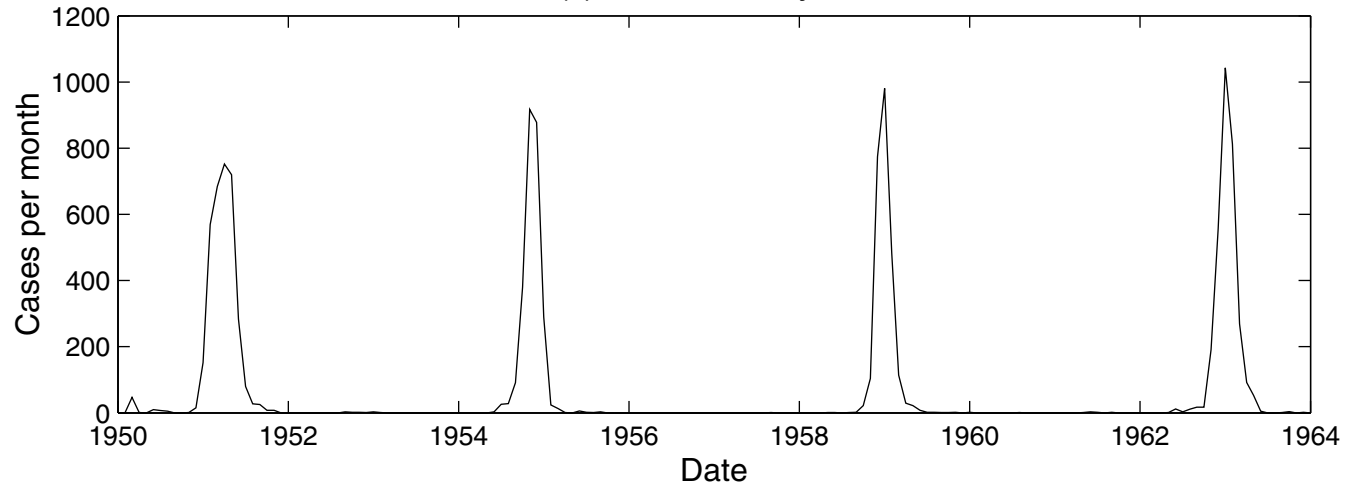
(a) PDV, Ireland 1988/89



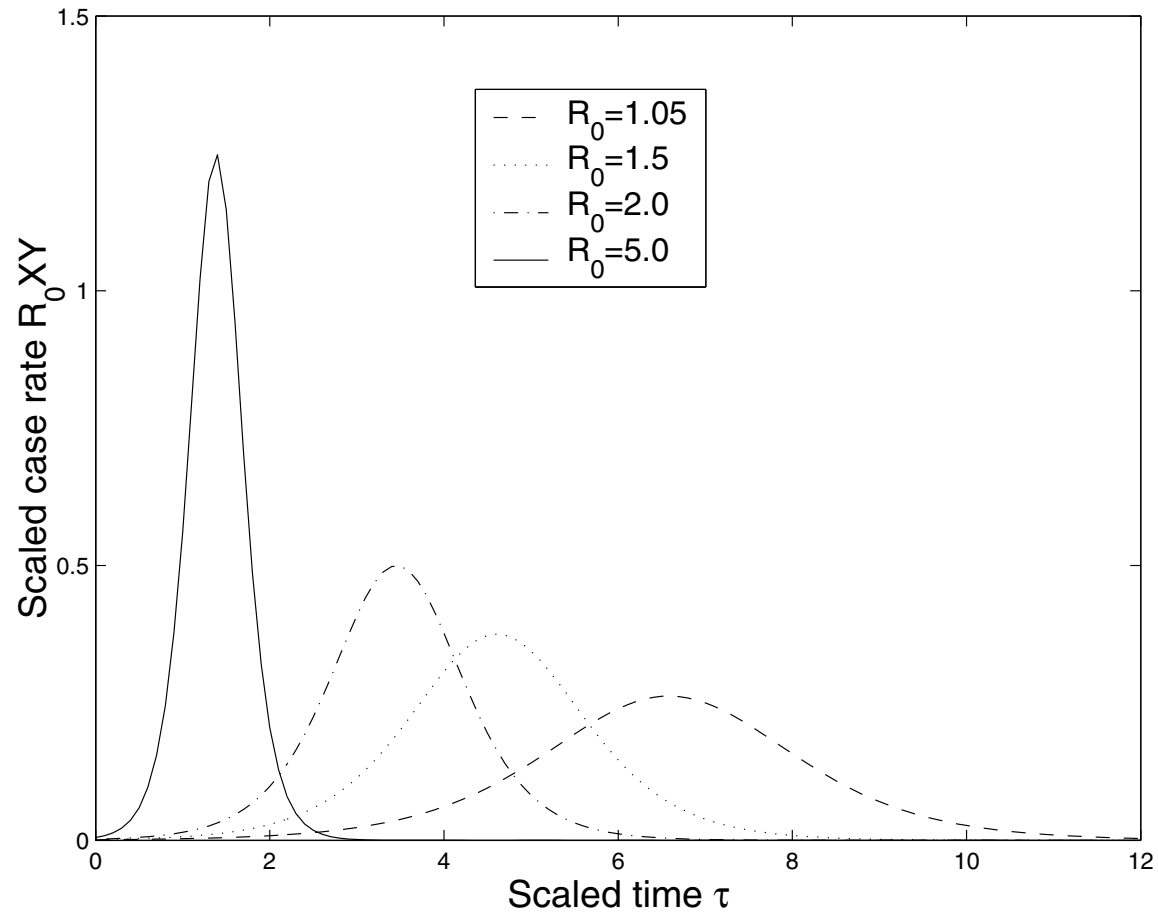
(b) Flu, Fort Benning 1/95



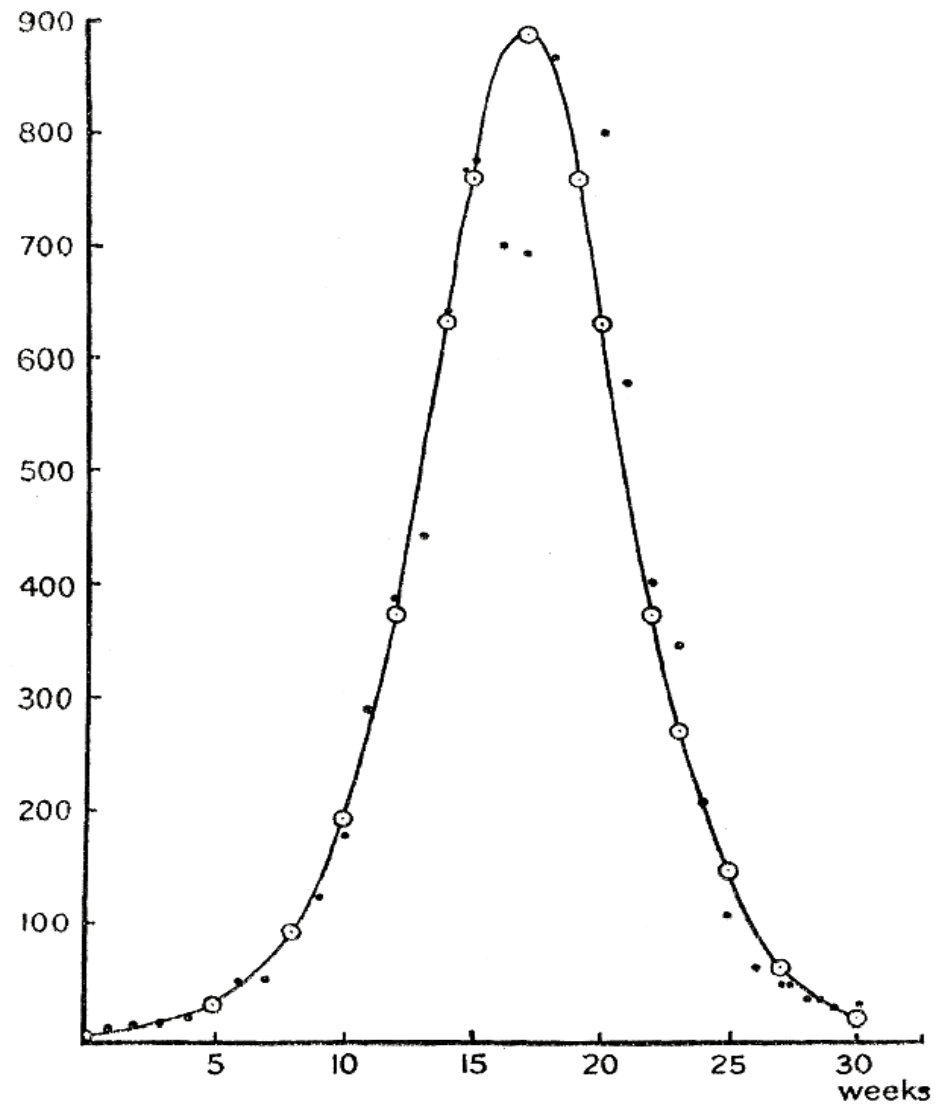
(c) Measles, Reykjavik



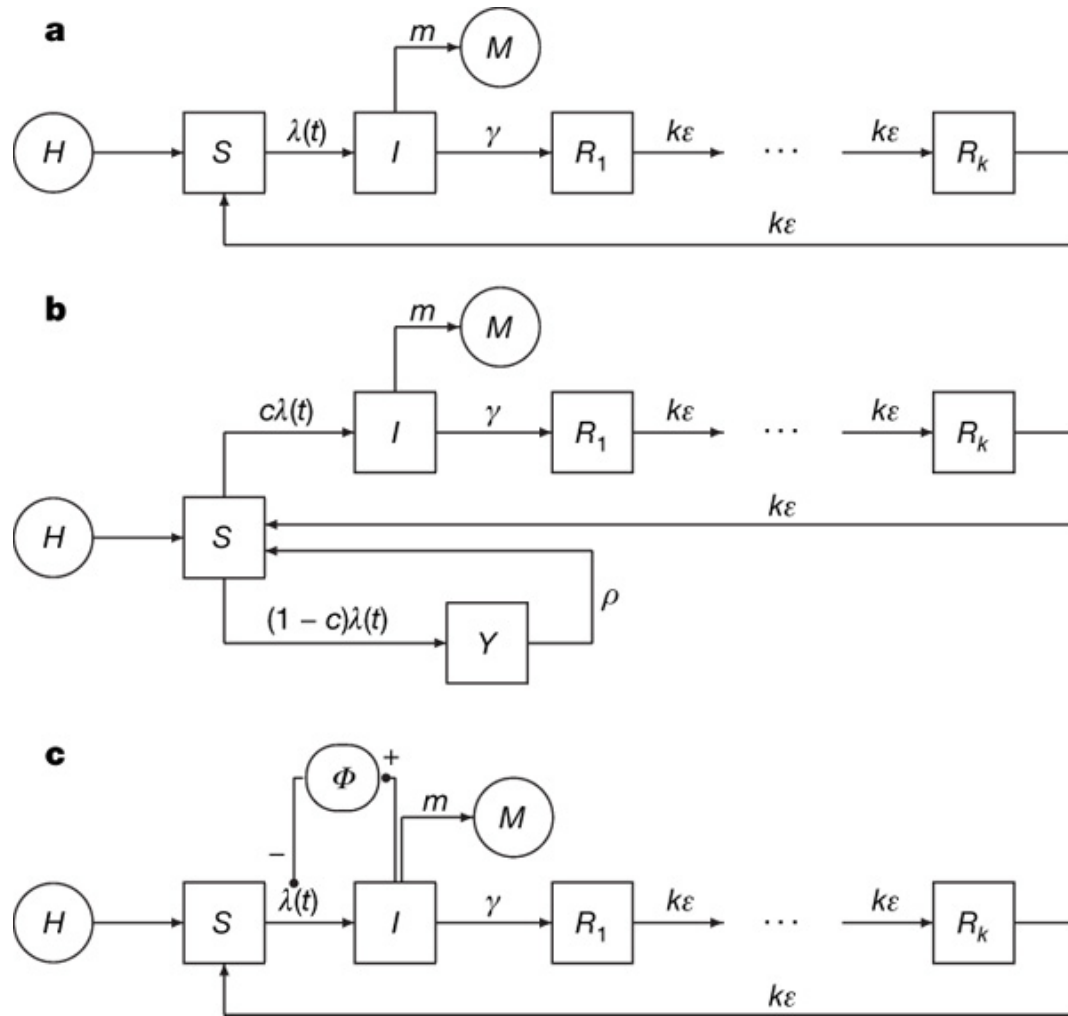
Epidemic curves in Kermack-McKendrick model for disease without recovery.



Deaths per week from plague in the island of Mumbai, December 17, 1905 to July 21, 1906
(from Kermack and McKendrick 1927)



Aaron A. King, Edward L. Ionides, Mercedes Pascual, Menno J. Bouma. 2008. Inapparent infections and cholera dynamics. *Nature* 454, 877-880.



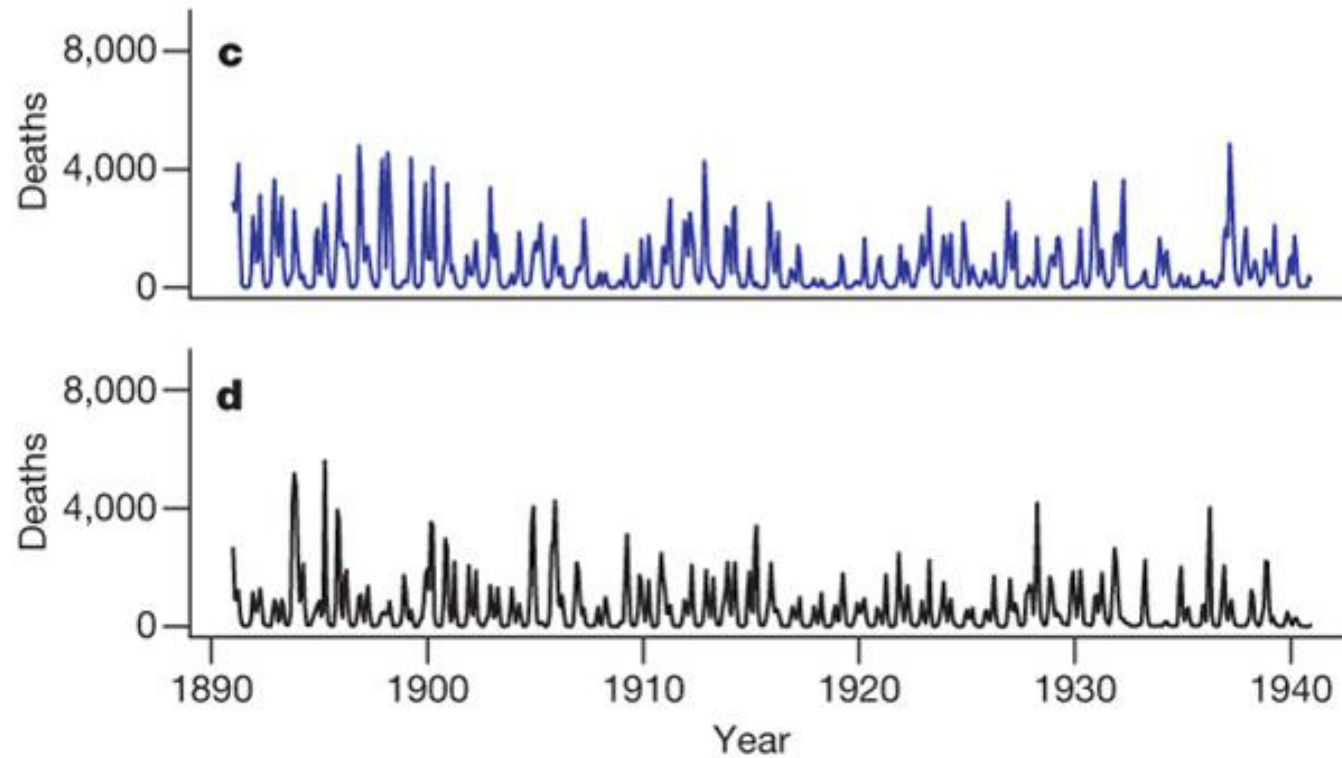
(a) SIRS model

(b) Two-path model (inapparent (Y) and serious (I) infections)

(c) Environmental-phage model
Force of infection $\lambda(t)$ includes human-to-human transmission and an environmental reservoir.

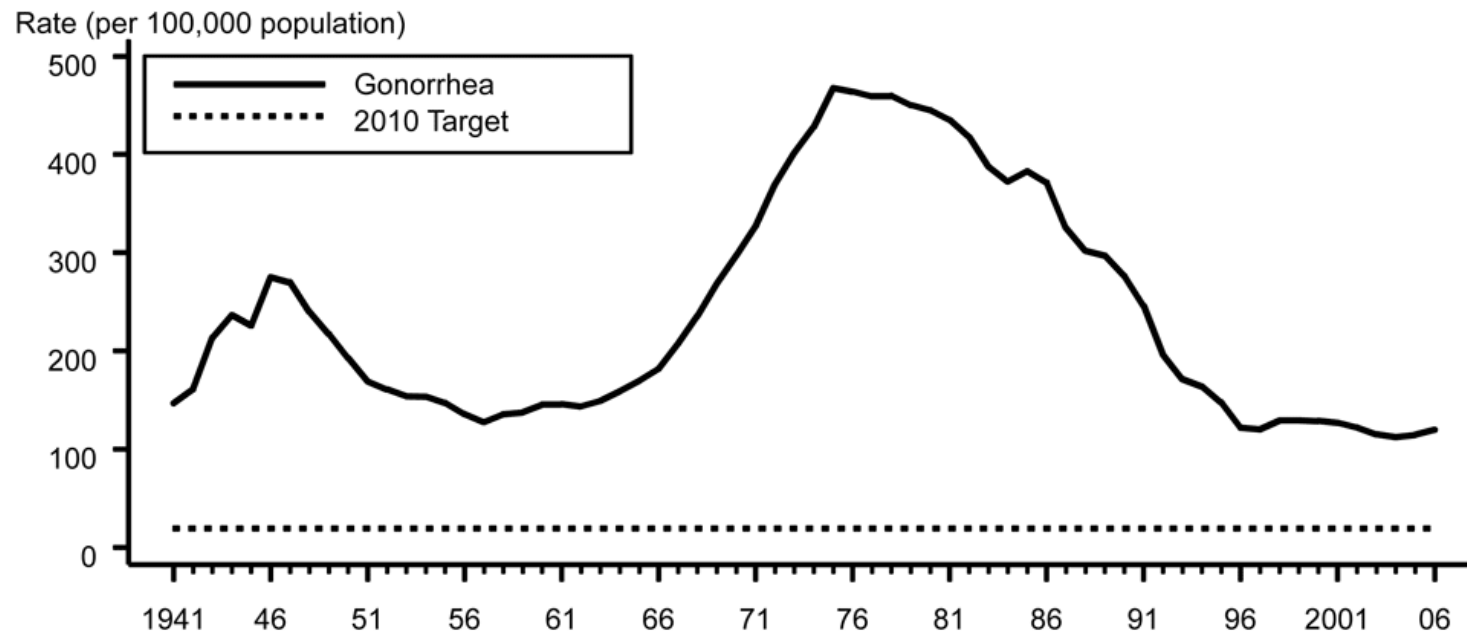
Aaron A. King, Edward L. Ionides, Mercedes Pascual, Menno J. Bouma. 2008. Inapparent infections and cholera dynamics. *Nature* 454, 877-880.

Simulated and actual cholera deaths



Gonorrhea rate (cases per 100,000 population) in the US.

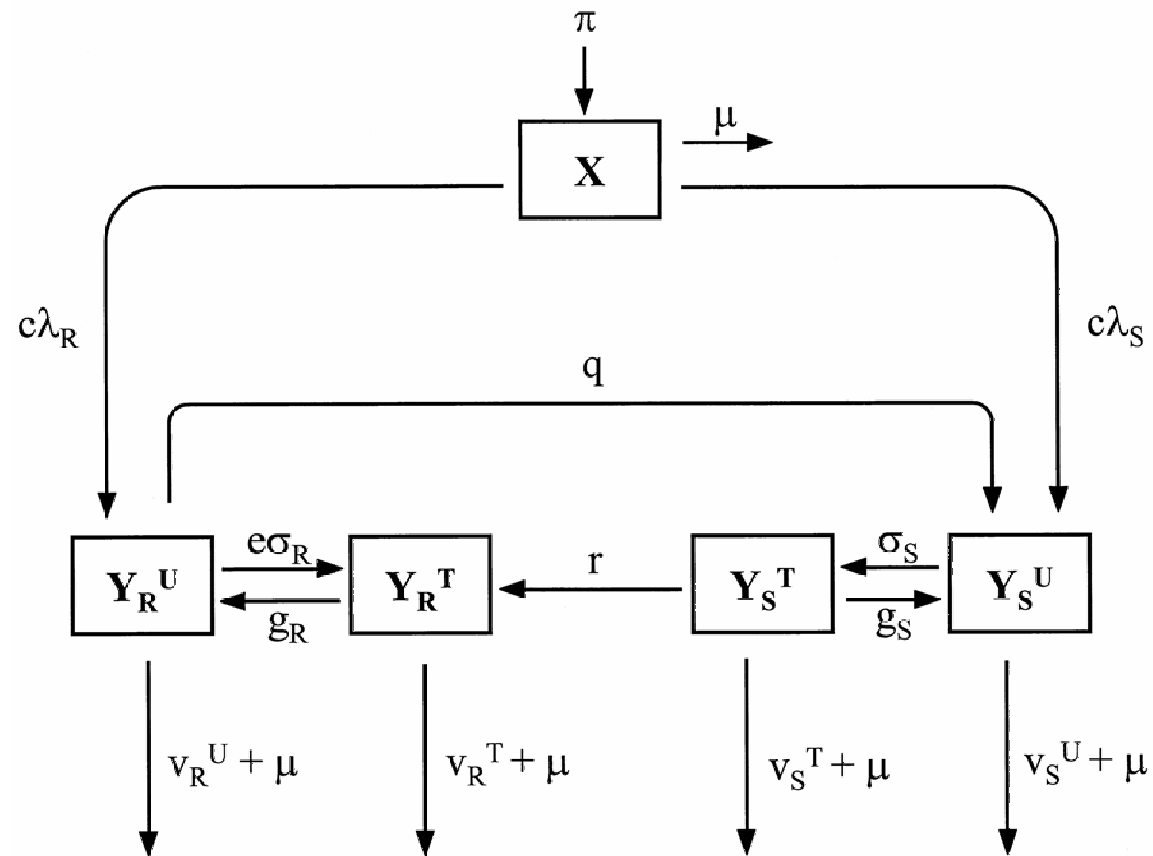
Source: CDC 2006 Sexually Transmitted Diseases Surveillance Report, at www.cdc.gov/std/stats/toc2006.htm.



Blower et al. (2000) model for emergence of ARV-resistant HIV

X = Susceptible

Y = infected: **T**reated or **U**ntreated, **S**usceptible or **R**esistant Strain

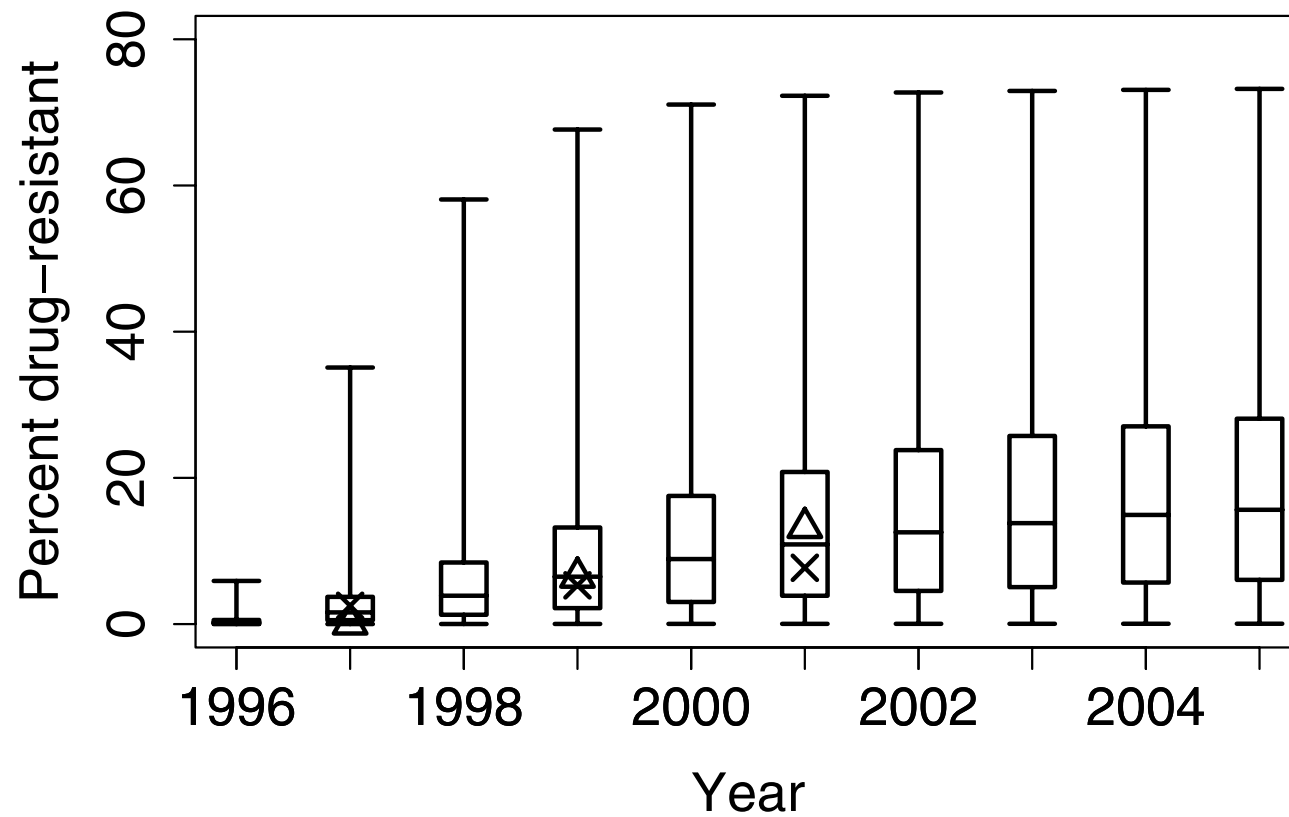


Model predictions versus empirical data (243 newly infected individuals in San Francisco with no prior exposure to ARV drugs). Redrawn from Blower et al. (2003)

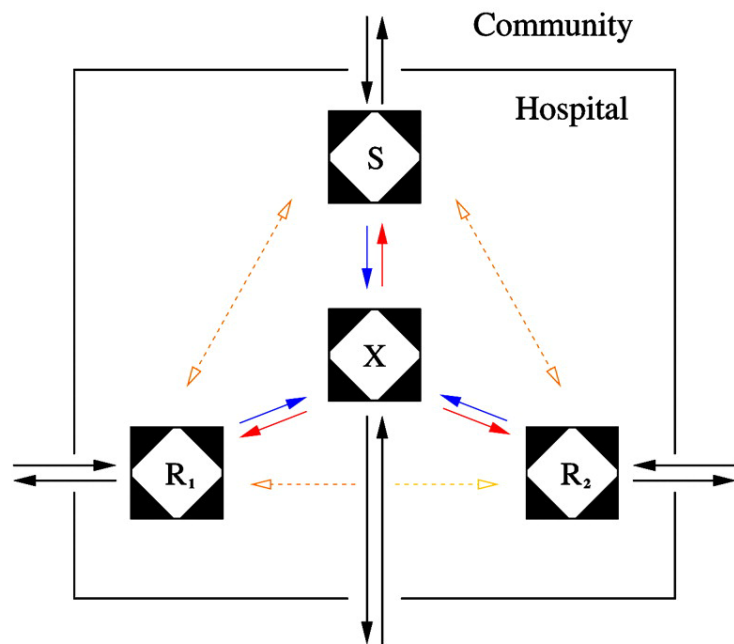
Boxes enclose interquartile range of model simulations with bar at the median

Triangles: estimated fraction resistant to non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor

Crosses: estimated resistance to protease inhibitor



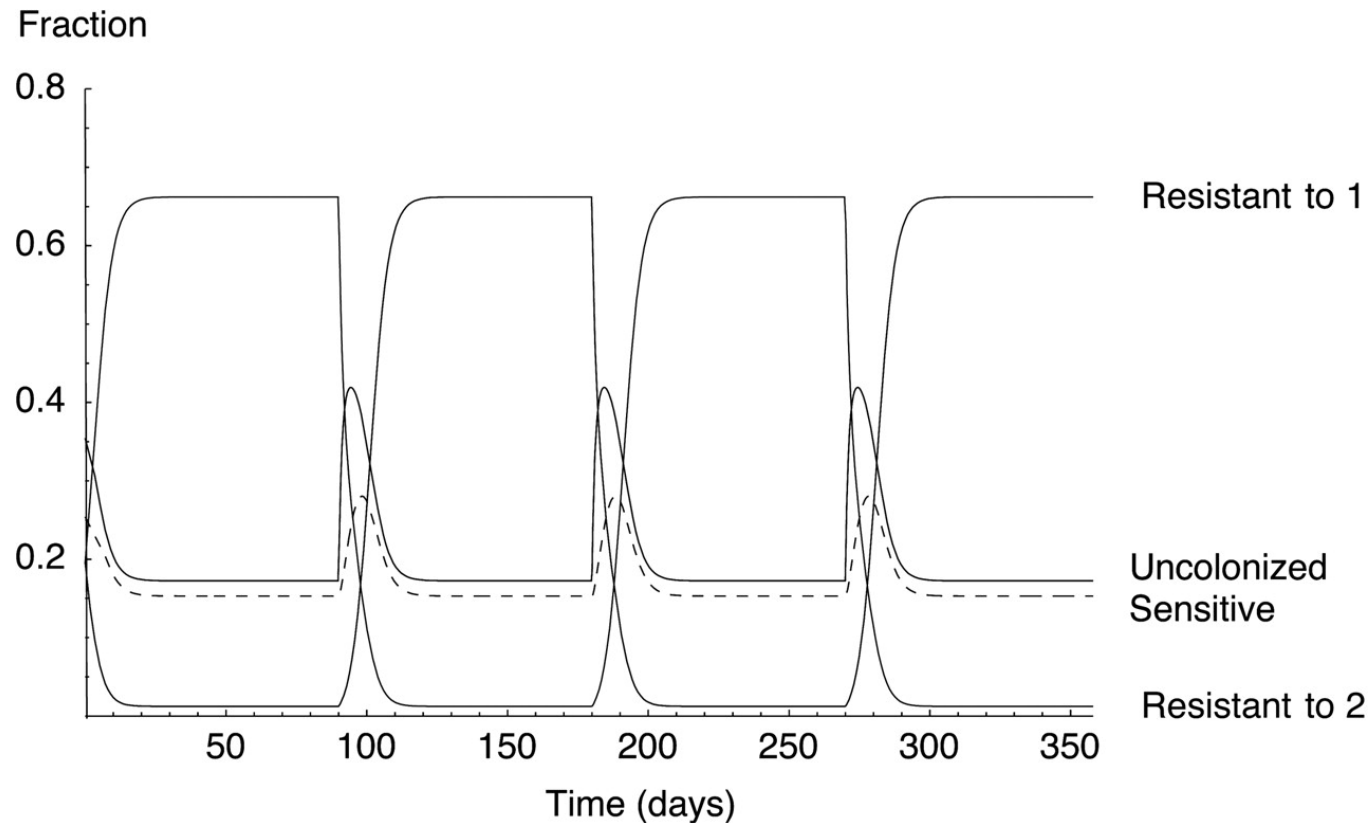
C. T. Bergstrom, M. Lo, and M. Lipsitch. 2003. Ecological theory suggests that antimicrobial cycling will not reduce antimicrobial resistance in hospitals. PNAS 101: 13285-13290.



$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{dS}{dt} &= (m - S) \mu - (\tau_1 + \tau_2 + \gamma) S + \beta S X + \sigma \beta (c_1 R_1 + c_2 R_2) S \\
 \frac{dR_1}{dt} &= (m_1 - R_1) \mu - (\tau_2 + \gamma) R_1 + \beta (1 - c_1) R_1 X - \sigma \beta (c_1 S + (c_1 - c_2) R_2) R_1 \\
 \frac{dR_2}{dt} &= (m_2 - R_2) \mu - (\tau_1 + \gamma) R_2 + \beta (1 - c_2) R_2 X - \sigma \beta (c_2 S + (c_2 - c_1) R_1) R_2 \\
 \frac{dX}{dt} &= (1 - m - m_1 - m_2 - X) \mu + (\tau_1 + \tau_2 + \gamma) S + (\tau_2 + \gamma) R_1 + (\tau_1 + \gamma) R_2 \\
 &\quad - \beta X (S + (1 - c_1) R_1 + (1 - c_2) R_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

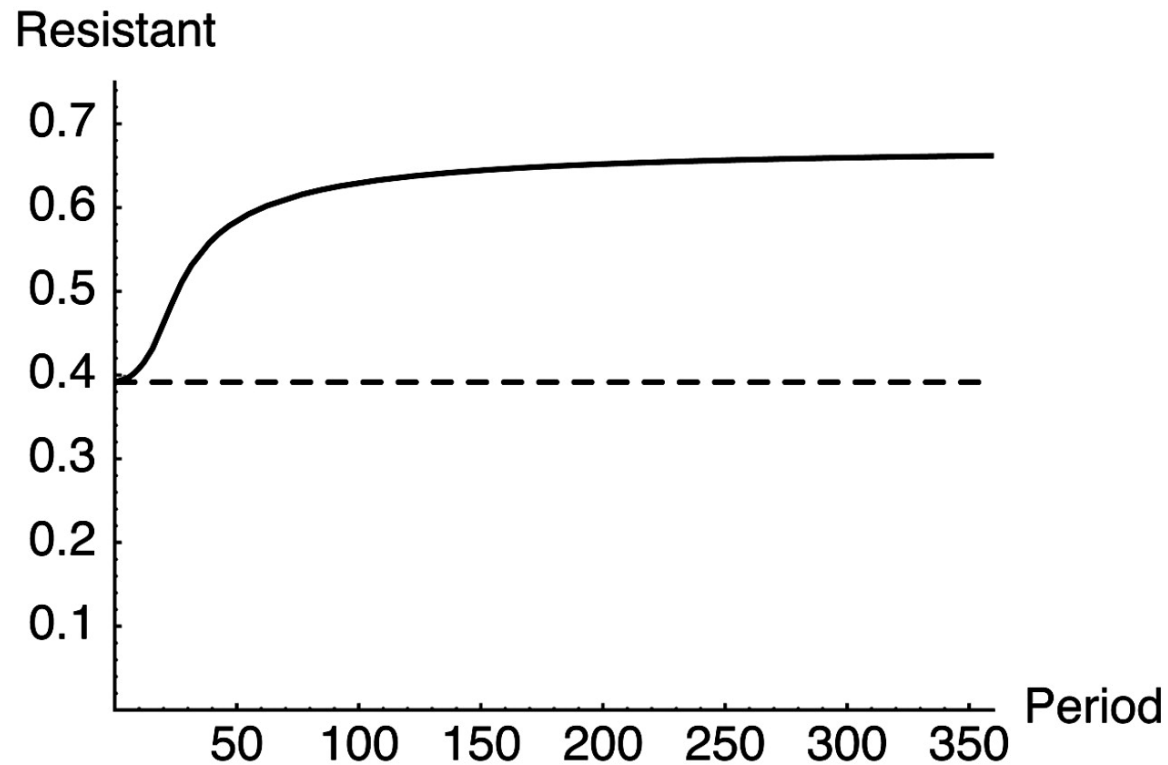
X =No infection, S =Infected w/Susceptible strain, R_i =Infected w/drug i -Resistant strain.
 Red=infection, yellow=supercolonization, blue=clearance, black=influx and efflux.

C. T. Bergstrom, M. Lo, and M. Lipsitch. 2003. Ecological theory suggests that antimicrobial cycling will not reduce antimicrobial resistance in hospitals. PNAS 101: 13285-13290.



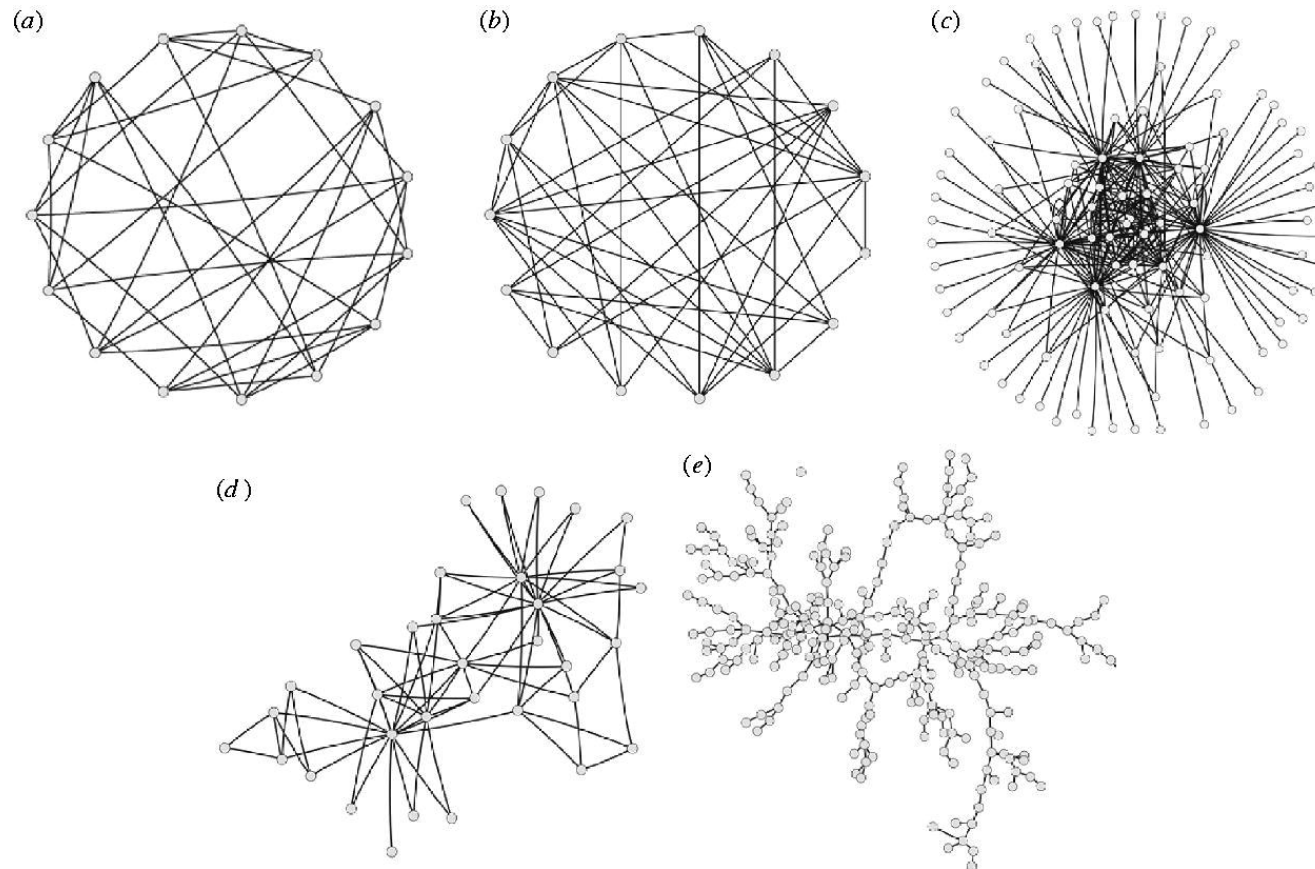
Strain frequencies over time for cycling with drug switch every 90 days and 80% compliance. Parameter values: $\beta = 1$, $c = 0$, $Y = 0.03$, $m = 0.7$, $m_1 = .05$, $m_2 = .05$, $\tau_1 + \tau_2 = 0.5$, $\mu = 0.1$, $\sigma = 0.25$.

C. T. Bergstrom, M. Lo, and M. Lipsitch. 2003. Ecological theory suggests that antimicrobial cycling will not reduce antimicrobial resistance in hospitals. PNAS 101: 13285 - 13290.

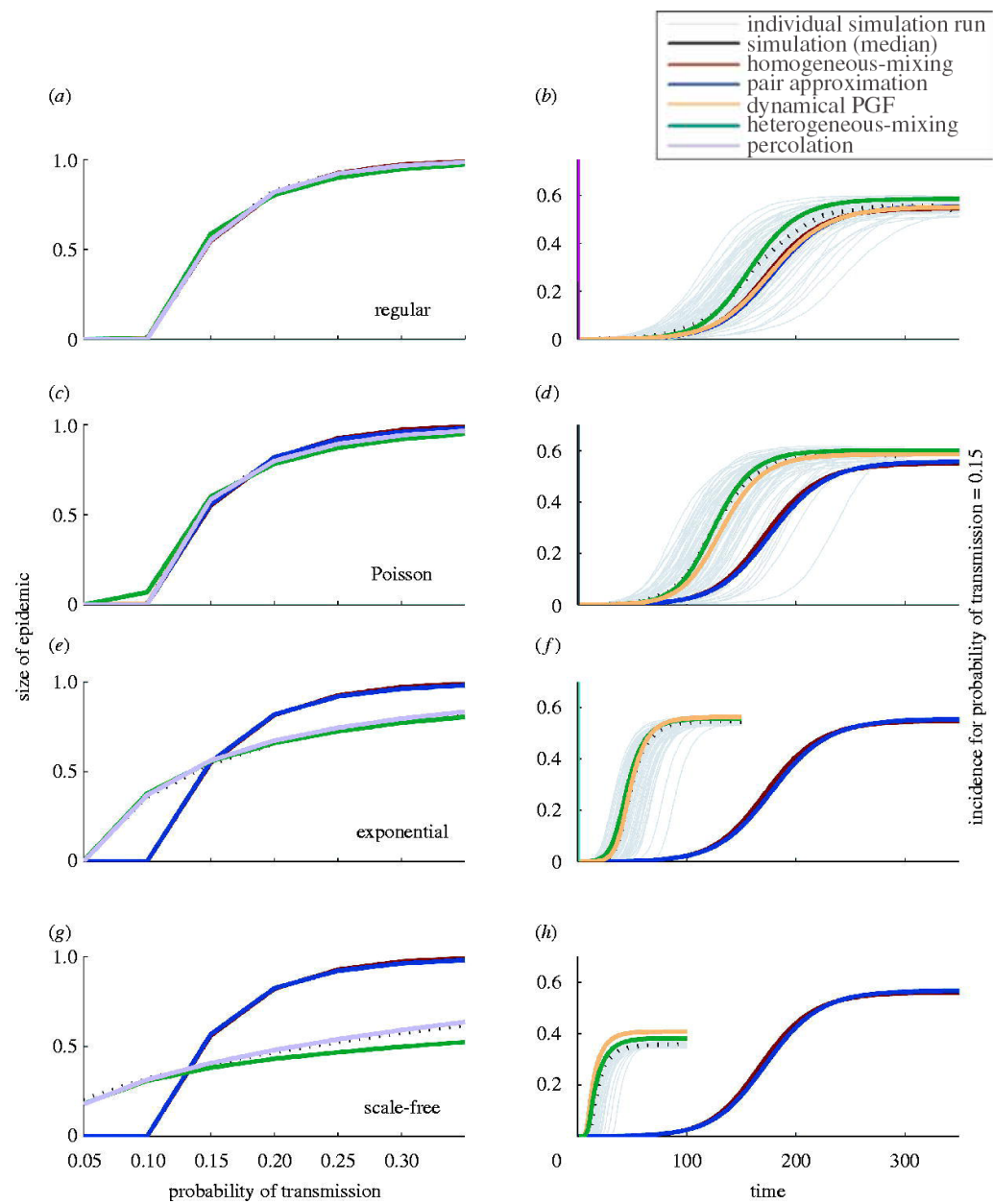


Average total resistance as a function of cycle period, calculated numerically. Solid lines, average total fraction of patients colonized with resistant bacteria under cycling; dashed lines, total fraction of patients colonized with resistant bacteria under a 50-50 mixing regime.

S. Bansal, B.T. Grenfell, L.A. Meyers. 2007. When individual behaviour matters: homogeneous and network models in epidemiology *Journal of The Royal Society Interface* 4(6): 879 - 891.



(a) Regular random network with 15 nodes and mean=5, (b) Poisson random graph with 15 nodes and mean=5, (c) Scale-free random graph with 100 nodes and mean=5, (d) Zachary Karate Club contact network (Zachary 1977) with 34 nodes and mean=5 and (e) the sexual network for adolescents in a Midwestern US town, with 287 nodes and mean=2. These networks do not contain spatial information; layouts were chosen to facilitate visual comparisons.



From Bansal et al. (2007). Comparison of homogeneous-mixing and network models on random networks. Networks have 10000 nodes and mean degree of 10. (b,d,f,h) Grey lines, individual simulation runs; dotted black line, median of simulation runs. The network-based models are pair approximation (Keeling 1999), percolation (Newman 2002), heterogeneous mixing (Moreno et al. 2002) and dynamical PGF (Volz in press). In (a,c), all curves overlap. In (b), curves for homogeneous-mixing, pair approximation and dynamical PGF overlap. In (d-h), curves for homogeneous-mixing and pair approximation overlap. In (e,g), curves for dynamical PGF and percolation completely overlap. Percolation does not provide dynamical predictions and is thus not graphed in (b), (d), (f) or (h).

Agent-based SIS model

Deterministic ODE model:

$$\begin{aligned} dS/dt &= -\beta(t)SI + \gamma I \\ dI/dt &= \beta(t)SI - \gamma I \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Stochastic agent-based model:

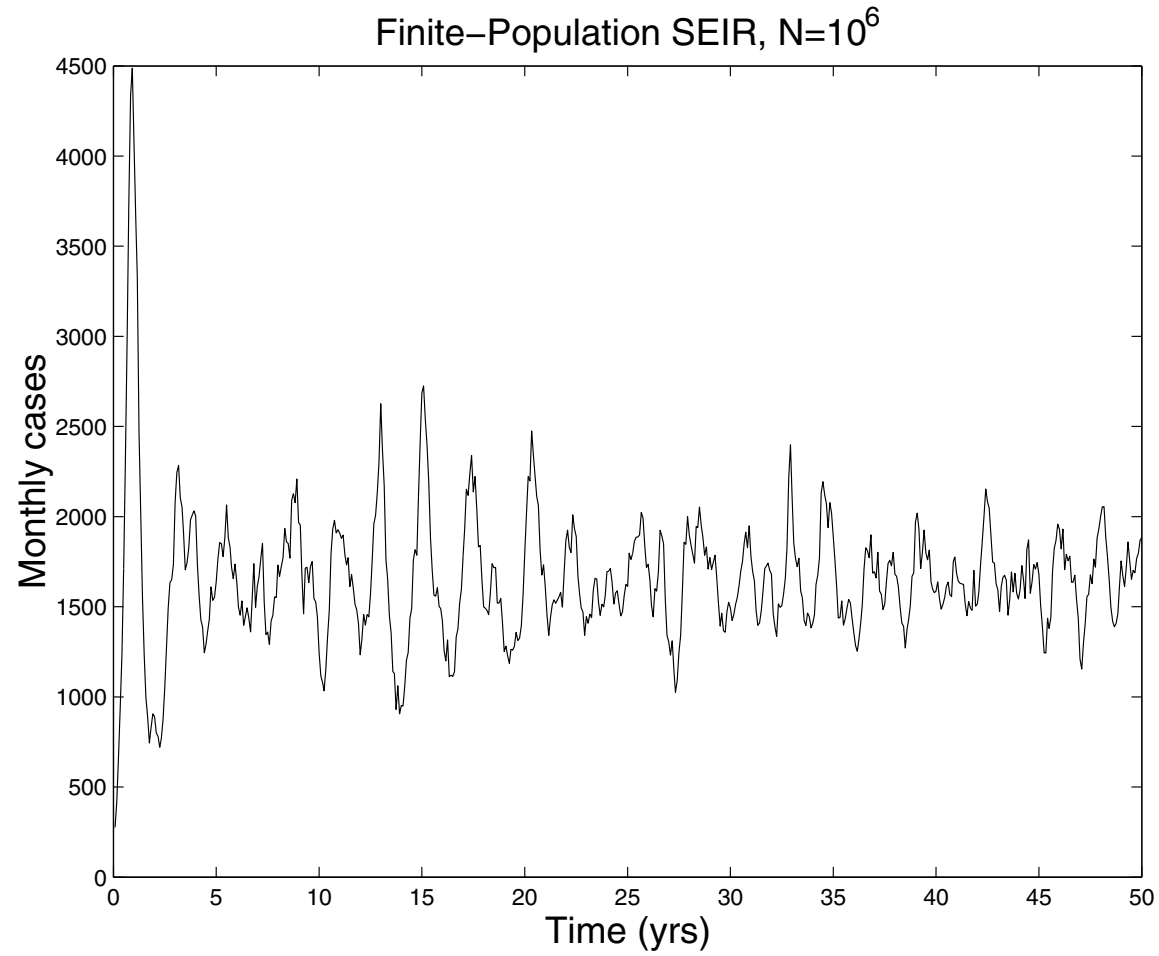
Discretize time into short increments $0, \tau, 2\tau, 3\tau, \dots$.

To get from time $t = n\tau$ to time $(n + 1)\tau$, see who changes state:

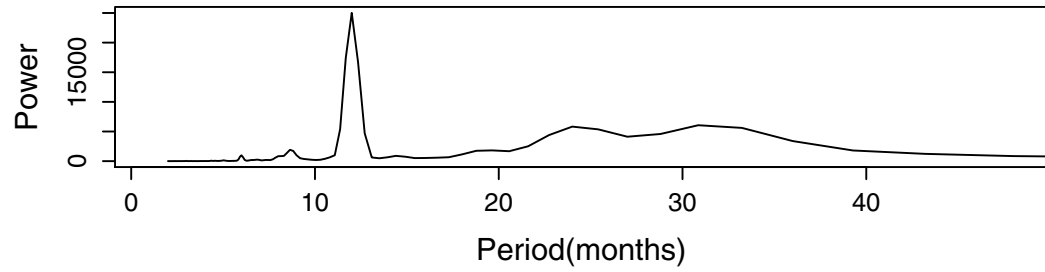
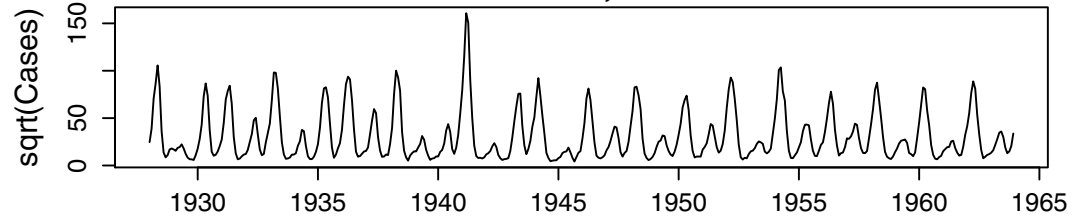
- each individual in S at time t tosses a coin with $P(\text{Heads}) = \beta(t)I(t)\tau$
- each individual in I at time t tosses a coin with $P(\text{Heads}) = \gamma\tau$
- each individual who got Heads moves to the other compartment, giving new state variables $S(t + \tau), I(t + \tau)$

Exact (continuous-time) simulation also possible, by *Gillespie algorithm*

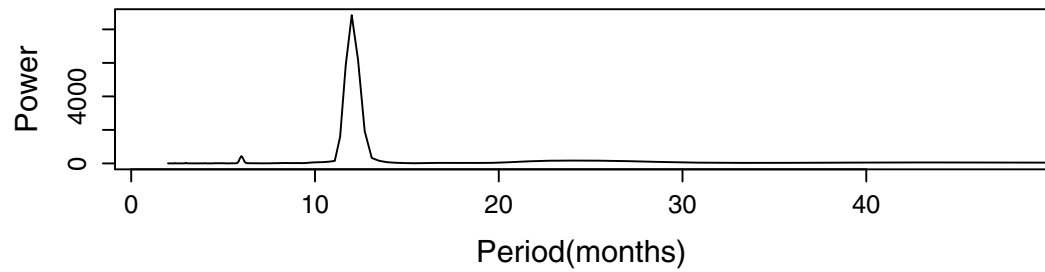
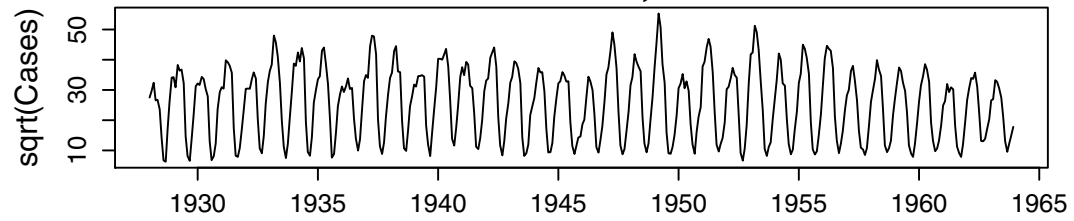
Finite-population SEIR model with parameters for pre-vaccination measles in a city of 1 million, without seasonal variation

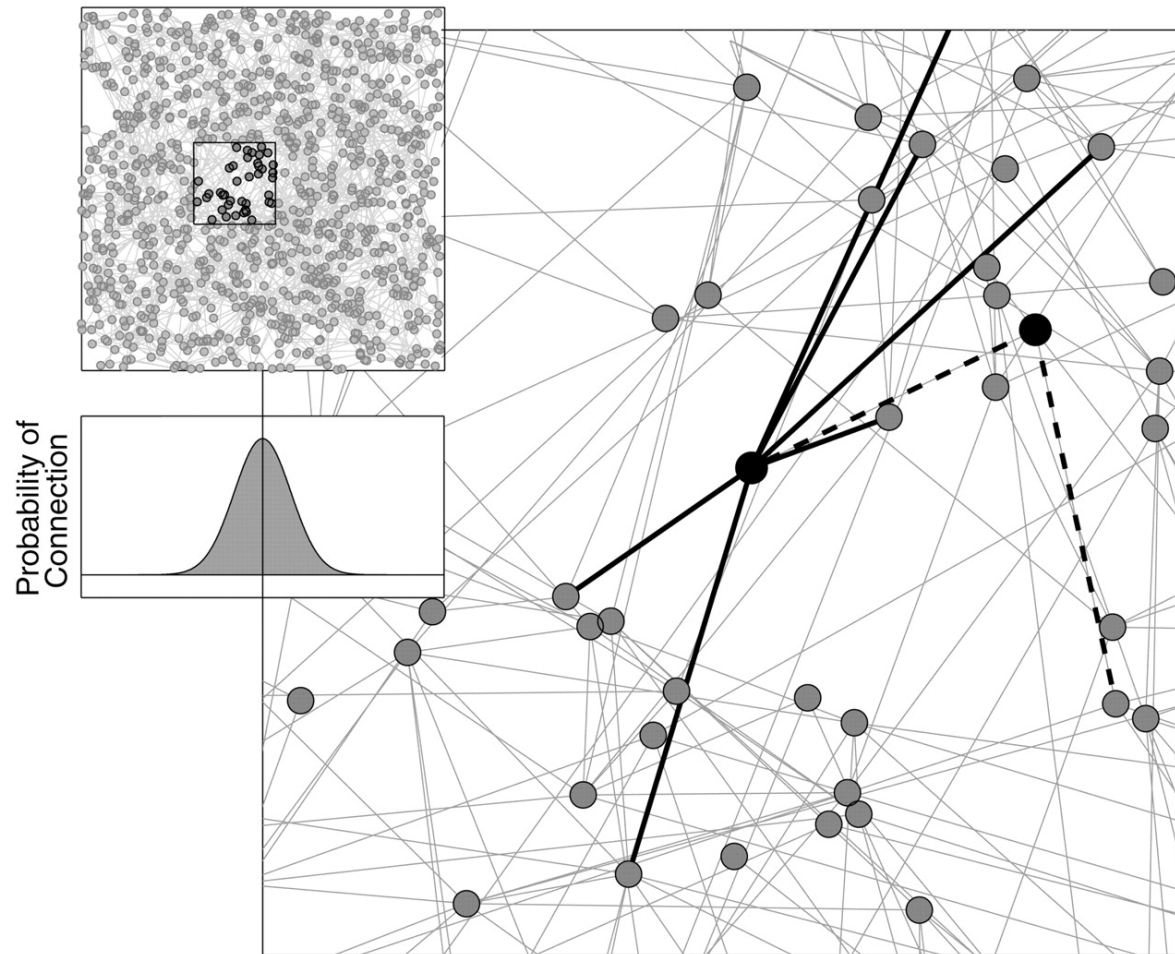


Measles, NYC



Chicken Pox, NYC

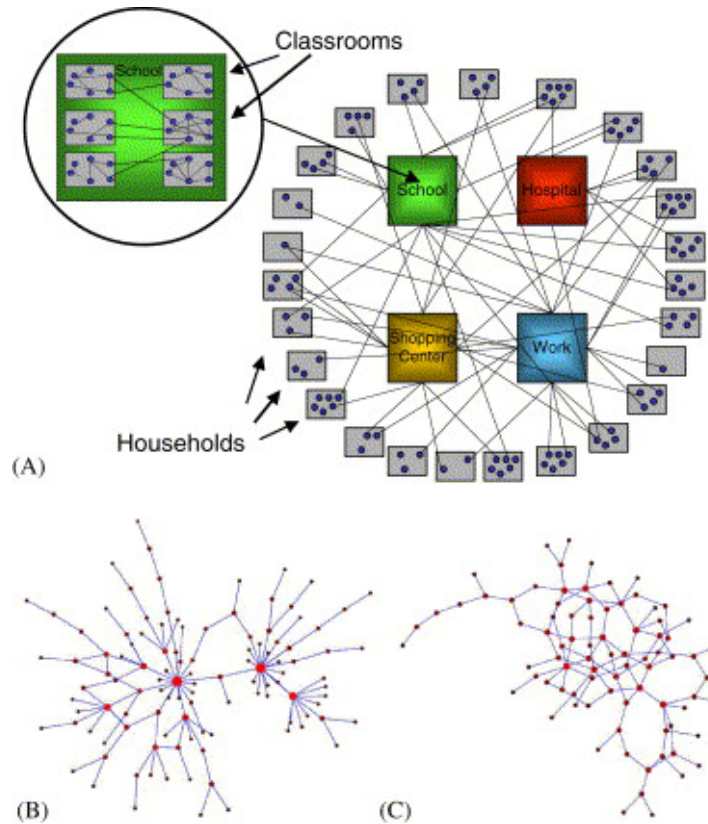




An example of the full contact network (Upper Inset) and a magnified section (main graph). Individuals are placed at random at an average density of one per unit area. The probability kernel determining the connection of two nodes (shown at the same scale as the full network in the Lower Inset) is the sum of a localized Gaussian (whose height and breadth may be specified) and a fixed probability representing global connections.

L.A. Meyers, B. Pourbohloul, M.E.J. Newman, D.M. Skowronski, R. C. Brunham. 2005. Network theory and SARS: predicting outbreak diversity. *Journal of Theoretical Biology* 232: 71–81.

Schemata of: (A) urban, (B) power law, and (C) Poisson networks.



Epstein JM, Goedecke DM, Yu F, Morris RJ, Wagener DK, et al. 2007 Controlling Pandemic Flu: The Value of International Air Travel Restrictions. PLoS ONE 2(5): e401.

Table S1 – Parameters and Values for the Model that Do Not Vary over Time

| No. | Parameter Name | Description | Type | Default Value |
|-----|----------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------|---------------|
| 2 | nCities | Total number of cities in the model | integer | 155 |
| 3 | initExposedCity | Index # of the city initially exposed to the disease | integer | 53 |
| 4 | initExposedNumber | Number of individuals initially exposed to the disease | integer | 100 |
| 15 | alpha | Fraction of population that is initially susceptible | real | 1 |
| 16 | beta | Fraction of newly infectious persons reported to the health registry | real | 0.3 |
| 17 | R0 | Basic reproduction number of virus | real | 1.7 |
| 18 | tau1 | Maximum day of the Exposed period | integer | 1 |
| 19 | tau2 | Maximum day of the Infectious period | integer | 7 |
| 20 | deathRate | Fraction of infected persons who die | real | 0 |
| 21 | interveneSequentially | Controls whether interventions are sequential or simultaneous | Boolean | true |
| 22 | interventionThreshold | Threshold of newly Infectious at which to apply interventions | real | 1000 |
| 23 | restrictTravel | Controls whether travel intervention is applied | Boolean | true |
| 24 | restrictionLevel | Fraction by which to restrict travel | real | 0.90 |
| 25 | quarantine | Controls whether quarantine is applied | Boolean | false |
| 26 | quarantineFraction | Fraction of Infectious who may be quarantined before recovery | real | 0.5 |
| 27 | vaccinateOneTime | Controls whether one-time vaccination occurs | Boolean | true |
| 28 | vaccinationFractionOneTime | Fraction of susceptibles to be vaccinated when one-time vaccination occurs | real | 0.1 |
| 29 | vaccinateDaily | Controls whether daily vaccination occurs | Boolean | false |
| 30 | vaccinationFractionDaily | Fraction of Susceptibles to be vaccinated daily | real | 0.001 |
| 31 | randomTravel | Controls whether travel is random | Boolean | true |
| 32 | randomContact | Controls whether number of infectious SI contacts is random | Boolean | true |
| 34 | minSF | Minimum value of seasonal scale factor | real | 0.1 |
| 35 | maxSF | Maximum value of seasonal scale factor | real | 1.0 |
| 36 | minLatN | Northern boundary of equatorial zone | real | 23.5 ° |
| 37 | maxLatN | Northern boundary of increasing northern seasonality | real | 66.5 ° |
| 38 | minLatS | Southern boundary of equatorial zone | real | - 23.5 ° |
| 39 | maxLatS | Southern boundary of increasing southern seasonality | real | - 66.5 ° |

Partial list of parameters for a VORTEX model.

| | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|
| Required (all models) | |
| Age at first breeding α | males & females |
| Mating system | |
| Maximum longevity | |
| Mean % of adults breeding each year | males & females |
| Variance in % breeding each year | males & females |
| Maximum litter size M | |
| Litter size distribution | $a_j, j = 0, 1, \dots, M$ |
| Annual mortality | $p_x, x = 0, 1, \dots, p$, males & females |
| Magnitude of environmental variability | in survival, in fecundity |
| Correlation of environmental variability between survival and fecundity | |
| % inbreeding depression due to recessive lethal alleles | |
| | |
| Optional | |
| Frequency of catastrophes | |
| Effect of catastrophes | On survival, on reproduction |
| Number of populations | |
| Which sexes disperse? | |
| Which ages disperse? | |
| Survival during dispersal | |
| % of individuals dispersing | |
| Effects of population density | On survival, fecundity, dispersal, |

Advantages of network and other agent-based models

1. Easy to model individual differences in
 - Spatial location
 - Disease parameters (susceptibility, infectivity, duration)
 - Which (and how many) individuals are regularly and persistently “linked”
 - Behavioral “rules”
2. Easy to model stochasticity (individual “coin-tossing”)
3. Individuals often can be observed directly: go straight from data to a model based on observed *rules*, rather than *rates* resulting from the rules.

Disadvantages (=research projects)

1. Realism \Rightarrow model can only be studied computationally. We can see what the model does, but it’s hard to know why: what are the (analogs of) equilibria, eigenvalues/vectors, low-dimensional attracting surfaces?
2. *Lots* of assumptions and parameters to estimate.
3. What is $\frac{\partial R_0}{\partial \text{rule}}$? How to know which assumptions/parameters determine important predictions?
4. How can a model be simplified for better understanding, while preserving its essential properties?

Without answers to 3. and 4., 2. becomes a big problem: you have to make up a whole lot.