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An epidemic model with noisy parameters

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a r t i c l e i n f o

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A B S T R A C T

We analyse an *SIR* model where the epidemiological parameters are subject to small amplitude random fluctuations. We derive a final size equation and extend the result to an *SEIR* model. We use a small amplitude perturbation to estimate the expected final size of the *SIR* model and its variance, and compare the result with numerical simulations. We show that although individual realisations may exhibit considerable variation around solutions of the deterministic model, the mean of the final size distribution is in good agreement with the deterministic final size, and its standard deviation is small compared to the mean.

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1 **1. Introduction**

 The use of mathematical models for understanding infectious disease dynamics is now well-established [\[6\].](#page--1-0) Whereas in the past there may have been a perception that deterministic and stochas- tic models were applied in mutually exclusive studies [\[5\],](#page--1-0) there is now a realisation that both types of model have their uses and are appropriate in different circumstances [\[2,3,13\].](#page--1-0) For a recent review of progress and the remaining challenges with stochastic epidemic models see [\[4\].](#page--1-0)

 An analysis of a simple deterministic epidemic model fre-11 quently involves relating the basic reproduction number R_0 to the 12 final size of the epidemic [6.11]. For a stochastic model the final final size of the epidemic $[6,11]$. For a stochastic model the final size may be expressed as a probability distribution, rather than as a number or proportion [\[2\].](#page--1-0) Here, we consider a generalisa- tion of the well-known deterministic *SIR* and *SEIR* models, replac- ing their parameters with a fixed parameter plus a small amplitude randomly fluctuating component. We approximate this fluctuating component with white noise and use results from stochastic cal- culus [\[7,10\]](#page--1-0) to analyse the models. The introduced noise may be due to individual hosts responding to infection at different times, with heterogeneous responses, or to environmental fluctuations. This technique has previously been used to establish conditions for the persistence of an endemic state of an *SIS* model [\[9\],](#page--1-0) and con- ditions for the stability of the disease-free equilibrium of an en- demic *SIR* model [\[14\].](#page--1-0) Khaladi and co-workers have analysed an epidemic model in a random environment that changes between a finite number of configurations at times determined according

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to a Markov process [\[1,8\].](#page--1-0) In a previous study we analysed an *SIR* 28 model where \mathcal{R}_0 was specified by a distribution rather than a sin-
gle value [12]. In that model the dynamics were deterministic once 30 gle value $[12]$. In that model the dynamics were deterministic once the parameters of the distribution had been chosen, although the 31 final size was then specified as a probability distribution. 32

In Section 2 we discuss an *SIR* model with small amplitude 33 white noise added to the parameters. In [Section](#page--1-0) 3 we derive a 34 quantity whose expected value may be used to determine the final 35 size of an epidemic. In [Section](#page--1-0) 4 we approximate our stochastic 36 model with a linear stochastic process that is a small perturbation 37 of the deterministic model, and derive an expression for the ex- 38 pected final size and its variance, which we compare with numeri- 39 cal simulations of the stochastic model. We extend these results to 40 an *SEIR* model in [Section](#page--1-0) 5. 41

2. A stochastic *SIR* **model** 42

We consider an *SIR* epidemic model [\[6,11\]](#page--1-0) of the form: 43

$$
\begin{aligned} \dot{x}(t) &= -\beta xy \\ \dot{y}(t) &= \beta xy - \gamma y \end{aligned} \tag{1}
$$

with initial conditions $x(0) = x_0$, $0 < x_0 < 1$; and $y(0) = y_0$, $0 < 44$
 $y_0 \ll 1$; where $x(t)$ is the proportion of the population suscepti $y_0 \ll 1$; where $x(t)$ is the proportion of the population suscepti- 45 ble at time *t*, and $y(t)$ is the proportion of the population infec- 46 ble at time t , and $y(t)$ is the proportion of the population infectious. The basic reproduction number is $\mathcal{R}_0 = \frac{\beta}{\gamma}$. It is well-known 47 [\[11\]](#page--1-0) that for this model (assuming the population to be large): an 48 epidemic occurs if $\mathcal{R}_0x_0 > 1$; the proportion of the population that 49 is infected can be approximated initially by $y(t) = y_0 e^{\beta x_0 t - \gamma t}$ duris infected can be approximated initially by $y(t) = y_0 e^{\beta x_0 t - \gamma t}$; dur-
ing the epidemic $x + y - \mathcal{R}_0^{-1} \log x$ is a conserved quantity; and the ing the epidemic $x + y - \mathcal{R}_0^{-1} \log x$ is a conserved quantity; and the 51 proportion of the population that is infected during the entire epi- 52

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53 demic, $P = x_0 - x_\infty$, solves the *final size equation*

$$
\log\left(1-\frac{P}{x_0}\right) + \mathcal{R}_0 P = 0\tag{2}
$$

54 It would be unusual for an epidemic to be allowed to run its 55 course. More generally, if a control measure reduces \mathcal{R}_0 to a value 56 \mathcal{R}_c say, when the prevalence of infection is v_1 and a proportion x_1 56 R_c say, when the prevalence of infection is y_1 and a proportion x_1 as of the population is susceptible, then the further proportion of the of the population is susceptible, then the further proportion of the 58 population that will be infected by the time the prevalence reaches $59 \, y_2$ may be found by solving the equation

$$
\log\left(1-\frac{p}{x_1}\right)+\mathcal{R}_c p=\mathcal{R}_c(y_2-y_1)
$$

 for *p*. We will investigate the changes in these results, and in the dynamics of the system, when the contact and recovery rates, and 62 hence the basic reproduction number \mathcal{R}_0 , are subject to random variation.

64 Consider the *SIR* model with noise in the contact and recovery 65 rates

$$
\frac{dS_t}{dt} = -\beta_t S_t I_t
$$

\n
$$
\frac{dI_t}{dt} = \beta_t S_t I_t - \gamma_t I_t
$$
\n(3)

66 We use the subscript *t* to denote a stochastic process in time. We 67 approximate the noise components of β_t and γ_t on a finite interval 68 [0, *T*] as follows. Choose integers *m* and *n* such that $n\Delta t = 1$ time
69 unit, and $T = m\Delta t$. Define a function $w^{(n)}(t) = w$; for $(i-1)\Delta t <$ 69 unit, and $T = m\Delta t$. Define a function $w^{(n)}(t) = w_i$ for $(i-1)\Delta t <$
70 $t < i\Delta t$ and $i = 1$ m. Let the w_i be independent and identically 70 *t* < *i* Δt and *i* = 1 . . *m*. Let the *w_i* be independent and identically 71 distributed random variables, with mean *w* and variance σ^2 . We distributed random variables, with mean \bar{w} and variance σ^2 . We 72 now define

$$
W_t^{(n)} = \frac{W^{(n)}(t) - \bar{W}}{\sigma \sqrt{\Delta t}}
$$

73 and observe that

$$
\int_0^T W_t^{(n)} dt = \frac{T}{\sigma \sqrt{\Delta t}} \left(\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m w_i - \bar{w} \right)
$$

74 The summation in the equation above is an estimate of \bar{w} based 75 on *m* samples, hence it is normally distributed for large *m* with *r*⁶ expected value \bar{w} and variance σ^2/m . The integral $\int_0^T \tilde{W}_t^{(n)} dt$ has 77 expected value zero, and

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\int_0^T W_t^{(n)}\,\mathrm{d}t\right)^2\right] = \left(\frac{T}{\sigma\sqrt{\Delta t}}\right)^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{m} = T
$$

Taking the limit as $n \to \infty$, $W_t^{(n)} \Delta t \to W_t dt = dB_t$ where W_t is 79 white noise and *B_t* is Brownian motion. We now write white noise and B_t is Brownian motion. We now write

$$
\beta_t(\omega) = \beta \left(1 + \epsilon_\beta \frac{\mathrm{d}B_t^{(\beta)}}{\mathrm{d}t} \right) \qquad \gamma_t(\omega) = \gamma \left(1 + \epsilon_\gamma \frac{\mathrm{d}B_t^{(\gamma)}}{\mathrm{d}t} \right)
$$

80 where ϵ_{β} and ϵ_{γ} are positive, and $B_t^{(\beta)}(\omega)$ and $B_t^{(\gamma)}(\omega)$ are two 81 independent Brownian motions for a given realisation ω . We re-82 quire ϵ_{β} and ϵ_{γ} to be small in the sense that $β_t(ω)$ and $γ_t(ω)$ 83 are almost always positive, a requirement satisfied when $\epsilon_{\beta}^2 + \epsilon_{\gamma}^2$ is 84 small compared with Δt . Note that ϵ_{β} and ϵ_{γ} have units $[{\rm time}]^{\frac{1}{2}}$ 85 $\,$ and $\,W_t$ has units $\,$ [time] $^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. We assume that the dimensionless 86 quantities $\delta_{\beta} = \epsilon_{\beta} \sqrt{\beta}$ and $\delta_{\gamma} = \epsilon_{\gamma} \sqrt{\gamma}$ are small compared to one. 87 Eq. (3) can be rewritten

$$
dS_t(\omega) = -\beta S_t I_t dt - \epsilon_\beta \beta S_t I_t dB_t^{(\beta)}(\omega)
$$

\n
$$
dI_t(\omega) = \beta S_t I_t dt - \gamma I_t dt + \epsilon_\beta \beta S_t I_t dB_t^{(\beta)}(\omega) - \epsilon_\gamma \gamma I_t dB_t^{(\gamma)}(\omega)
$$
\n(4)

Fig. 1. The dynamics of the stochastic *SIR* model calculated numerically from **Q2** Eq. (4): (A) S_t the proportion of the population susceptible and (B) I_t the proportion infectious against time. A total of 200 realisations are shown, with four sample plots highlighted in red, green, magenta and cyan, the rest in blue. The deterministic solution is shown in black. Parameter values are $S_0 = 1$, $\beta = 2$, $\gamma = 1$, $\epsilon_{\beta} = 0.075$, $\epsilon_{\gamma} = 0.025$. Hence $\delta_{\beta} = 0.106$ and $\delta_{\gamma} = 0.025$. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Numerical solutions of multiple realisations of Eq. (4) are pre- 88 sented in Fig. 1. 89

In the initial part of the epidemic, taking $S_t = S_0$, the second of 90 (4) becomes a stochastic population growth equation Eq. (4) becomes a stochastic population growth equation

$$
dl_t(\omega) = (\beta S_0 - \gamma)l_t dt + \epsilon_0 \gamma l_t dB_t^{(0)}(\omega)
$$
\n(5)

where 92

$$
\epsilon_0 = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\beta S_0}{\gamma}\right)^2 \epsilon_\beta^2 + \epsilon_\gamma^2}
$$

and 93

$$
B_t^{(0)}(\omega)=\frac{\beta S_0}{\gamma}\frac{\epsilon_\beta}{\epsilon_0}B_t^{(\beta)}(\omega)-\frac{\epsilon_\gamma}{\epsilon_0}B_t^{(\gamma)}(\omega)
$$

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