

# EPFL

## Modeling Epidemics For Neural Network Students

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<https://www.worldometers.info/coronavirus/>

<https://labblog.uofmhealth.org/rounds/how-scientists-quantify-intensity-of-an-outbreak-like-covid-19>

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Compartmental\\_models\\_in\\_epidemiology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Compartmental_models_in_epidemiology)

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Xmun0ZqpQeg>

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List\\_of\\_countries\\_by\\_hospital\\_beds](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_hospital_beds)

<https://www.medrxiv.org/content/10.1101/2020.03.05.20031815v1>

**1. Neural Networks and Epidemics**

**2. The Problem with COVID19**

**3. The SIR model**

**4. Intervention strategies**

**5. Quiz**



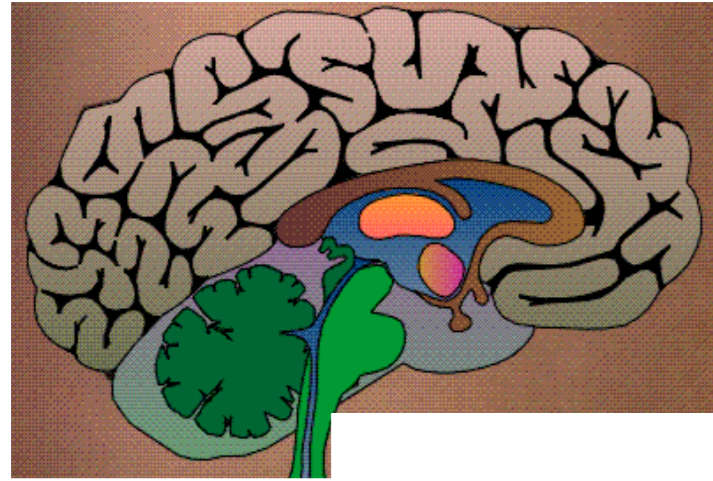
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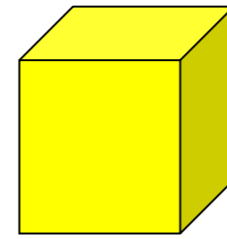
Special session for the students in my Neural Network Classes at EPFL.

This is a class on Neural Networks, but given the special situation I would like to talk today about how to model an epidemics such as COVID19.

# 6.0. Neural Review: Brain information processing

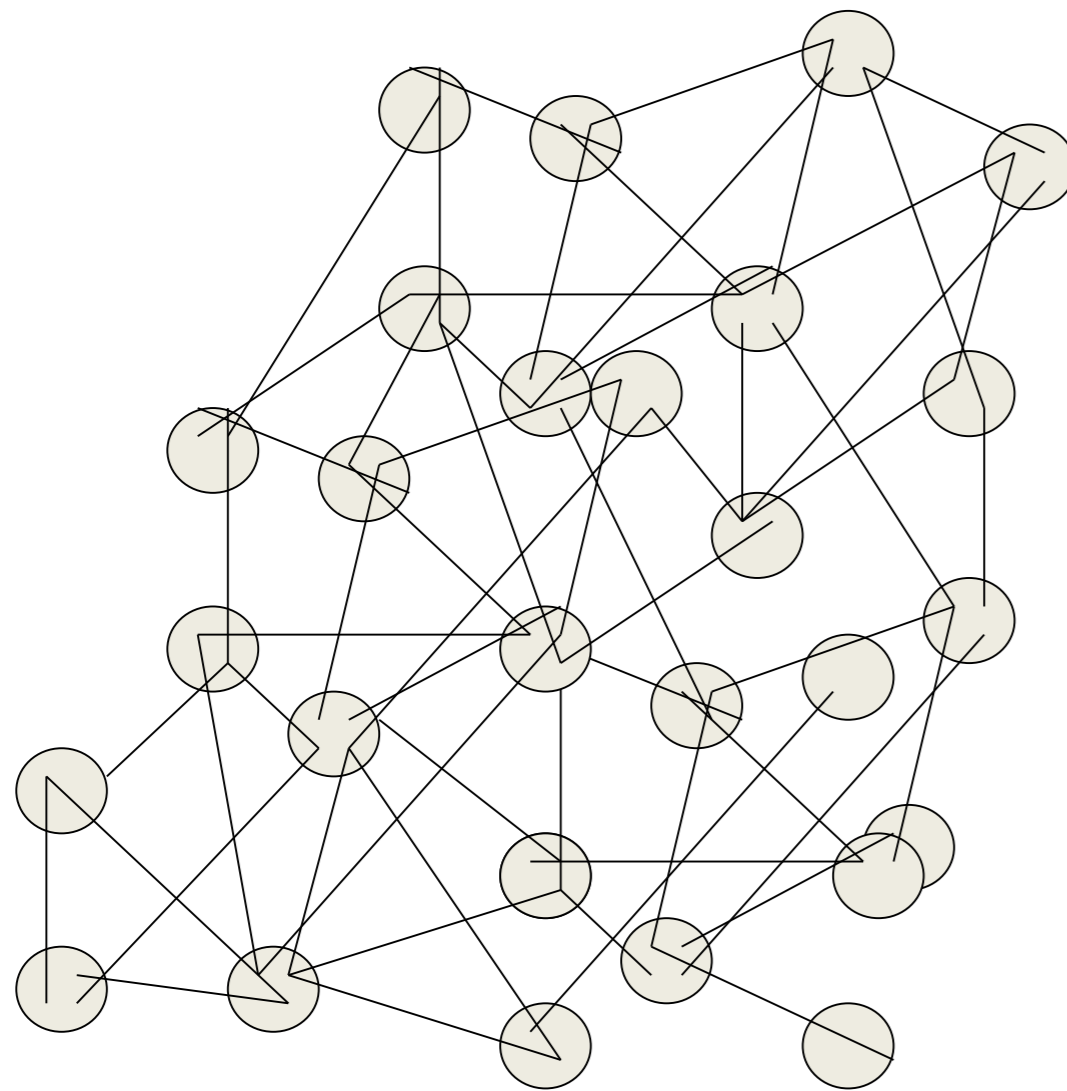


**Brain**



1mm

10 000 neurons  
3 km of wire  
many connections



**Billions of neurons**



# Comments to previous slide

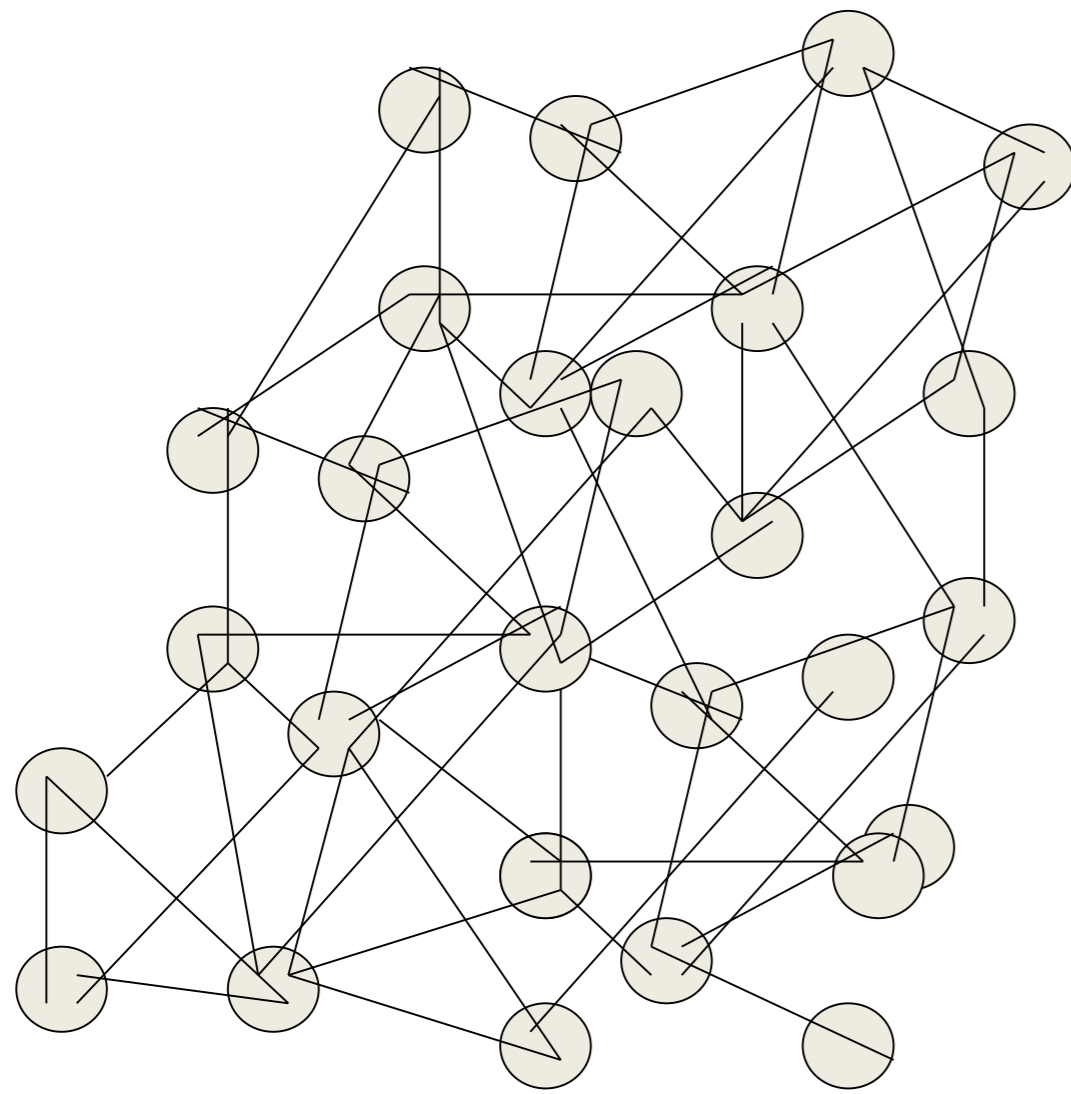
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Comments previous slide:

Normally we talk in this class about neural networks. In the brain there are billions of neurons that are highly connected with each other: Each neuron makes several thousand connections to other neurons and neuronal activity spreads from one group of neurons to the next.

# 6.0. Epidemics: Interacting people

Same type of math that we apply to recurrent neural networks can be applied to spreading of an infection



- Equations for activation
- Spreading of activation
- Network analysis: average dynamics



# Comments to previous slide

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Comments previous slide:

The same type of math that we use to analyze recurrent neural networks can also be used to analyze network activity.

I am neither a virologist nor an epidemiologist.

But, for more than 20 years, I have used mathematical models to describe biological phenomena in neural networks.

Using this type of math we can analyse a standard model of epidemics.



# Spread of COVID19 infections: where is the problem?

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1. Switzerland has 4.5 hospital beds per 1000 people

this includes: accidents, cancer, neurology, ...

Suppose half of them can be made free for an epidemics.

2. Most Covid19 patients have no or weak symptoms.

Suppose that 5% of Covid19 patients have complications:

pneumonia with breathing difficulties that need to be hospitalized

3. If 10% of the population are simultaneously infected:

- then this does not sound like a lot

- but there are not enough beds for patients w. complications





# Spread of infections: where is the problem?

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Comments previous slide:

Newspapers talk a lot about the number of deaths and mortality. However, the mortality depends on the treatment. A good treatment of pneumonia with breathing problems requires a hospital. Therefore we need hospital beds. The example on the previous slide is based on the actual number of hospital beds in Switzerland. All the other numbers are estimations. And even for hospital beds I do not distinguish between normal care and intensive care units.

However, there is a common misconception that for an epidemics you have 50 percent of people being sick at the same time. This is **WRONG**. Already with 10 percent of people who are simultaneously sick, we run into a real problem in Switzerland – and this is exactly the problem that Italy has experienced during the last two weeks and is still suffering from.

There will not be enough beds to treat the serious cases with complications in a hospital!!



# Problems of COVID19

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- Patients that could normally be treated cannot go to hospital:  
**‘overload of healthcare system’**
  - Covid19 Epidemics is difficult to stop because
    - people with mild (or no) symptoms are infectious
    - estimation: each infected person infects on average  
(at least) 2-3 others
- We need to control the number of **SIMULTANEOUS** infections
- Stay at home



# Comments to previous slide

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Comments previous slide:

The fact that not enough hospital beds are available is called the ‘overload of the healthcare system’.

The specific case of COVID19 is particularly difficult, since people that do not feel sick (because they have no symptoms or only weak symptoms) can spread the disease. Thus, the simple rule: ‘stay at home when you have a fever’ does not work! In a village in Italy where the whole population has been tested, 50 percent of the infected people reported feeling ‘not sick’.

Infected people, even if they feel not sick, can infect others.

Therefore everybody has to stay at home – otherwise the number of simultaneously infected people goes above the fraction that hospitals can manage.



# Model of how infections spread:



$N$  = Total population, split into three groups:  $S+I+R$

$S$  = Susceptible: persons that can get the disease

$I$  = Infectious: can infect others

$R$  = Recovered: are now immune.

In  $\Delta t = 1$  day, number of infectious people increases by

$$\Delta I = \frac{\beta}{N} \Delta t \cdot S \cdot I(t) - \gamma \Delta t \cdot I(t) \quad \longrightarrow \quad I(t + \Delta t) = \Delta I + I(t)$$

number of people  
infected by a single  
person in 1 day

rate of recovery



# Comments to previous slide

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Suppose that we have a population of  $N$  people with closed borders. Some of them are infectious (number  $I$ ). These people can infect those other people that are still susceptible (number  $S$ ) since they have not yet had the disease. The factor of spreading is  $\beta$  (with a normalization constant  $N$ ).

The number of infectious people increases because new people can get infected. It decreases because some people recover. The decay factor is  $\gamma$ .

$\beta$  times  $\Delta t$  (divided by  $N$ ) is the probability that a single infectious person infects one other person in. We can think of it as the probability that an infectious person meets another person times the probability that the infection is transmitted during the encounter. The factor  $N$  has no deep meaning: it is a convention to scale  $\beta$  with  $N$  so that the total size of the population is less relevant when we compare countries of different size. However the scaling with  $\Delta t$  is important: if I choose  $\Delta t=1$  hour instead of  $\Delta t=1$  day the increase in  $\Delta I$  is proportionally smaller.

The increase  $\Delta I$  is proportional to the number of encounters  $S \cdot I$  between susceptible and infectious people; the decrease is due to recovery from infection.



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The previous considerations lead to the famous SIR model.



# Spread of infections: SIR model



$S$  = Susceptible: can get the disease

$I$  = Infectious: can infect others

$R$  = Recovered: are now immune.

$N$  = Total population.  $N=S+I+R$

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \frac{\beta}{N} S \cdot I - \gamma I$$

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = -\frac{\beta}{N} S \cdot I$$



# Comments to previous slide

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To model spreading of infections, a famous mathematical model is the SIR model. SIR stands Susceptible-Infected-Recovered.

We make the time step  $\Delta t$  smaller and small which then leads to a differential equation for the number of infectious people.

The number  $S$  of susceptible people decreases because they get infected.

We end up with two differential equations, and two parameters gamma and beta.

# Basic Reproduction number in the SIR model



basic reproduction number

$$R_0 = \frac{\beta}{\gamma}$$

Increase of infections if

$$\frac{S}{N} > \frac{1}{R_0}$$

$I$  = Infectious

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \frac{\beta}{N} S \cdot I - \gamma I$$

$$\frac{1}{\beta} \frac{dI}{dt} = \left( \frac{S}{N} - \frac{\gamma}{\beta} \right) I$$

$S$  = Susceptible:

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = -\frac{\beta}{N} S \cdot I$$

$$\frac{1}{\beta} \frac{dS}{dt} = -\frac{1}{N} S \cdot I$$



# Comments to previous slide

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We can think of '1 over beta' as a time scale of infection. In case of COVID probably a few days. If we rewrite the equations with that time scale we see that the relevant term is a comparison of the FRACTION S/N of susceptible people with a ratio ( $\gamma/\beta$ ). The inverse of this ratio defines the basic reproduction number:

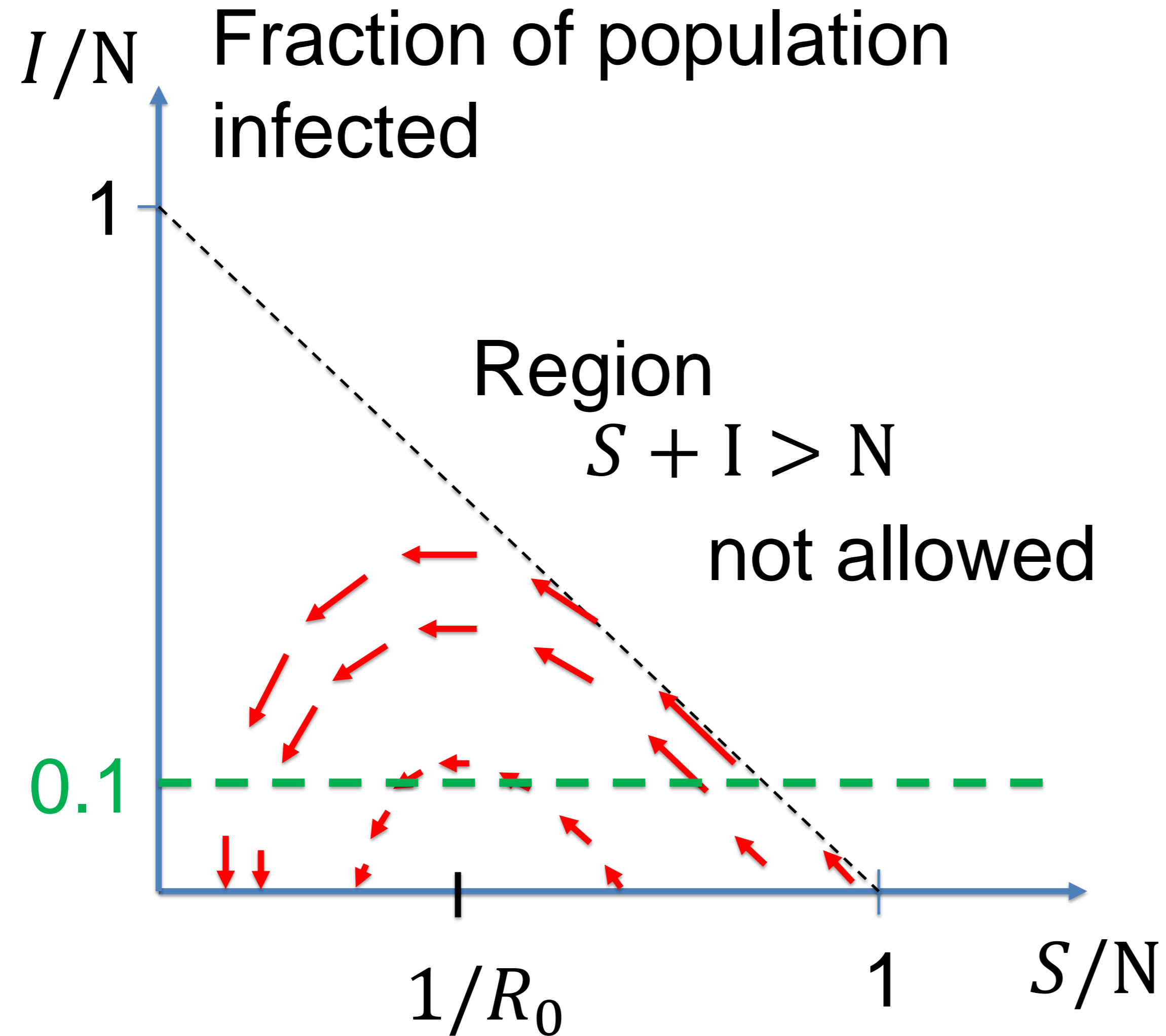
$R_0$  is the typical number of people a single patient can infect during the duration of his or her infection. This is the number people talk about in the papers.

To understand this statement consider the following:

$(1/\gamma)$  is the time an infectious person has to infect other people. Hence  $\beta$  times  $(1/\gamma)$  is the total number of infections a single infectious person can cause during the infectious periode.

Infections start to DECREASE if the fraction of susceptible people falls below  $1/R_0$ .

# SIR Model: Phase Plane Analysis



Fraction of population not yet infected



# Comments to previous slide

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We now use phase plane analysis to study this 2-dimensional system.

I did not plot the nullclines, but you will do this in the exercises.

The system is somewhat special because we do not have one or two or three fixed points, but a whole line of fixed points along the x-axis.

The triangle below the black-dashed line indicates the allowed region (because  $S+I+R=N \rightarrow S+I < N$  (or  $=N$ )).

Based on the tools we discussed in class two weeks ago, we can qualitatively construct the arrows in all regions.

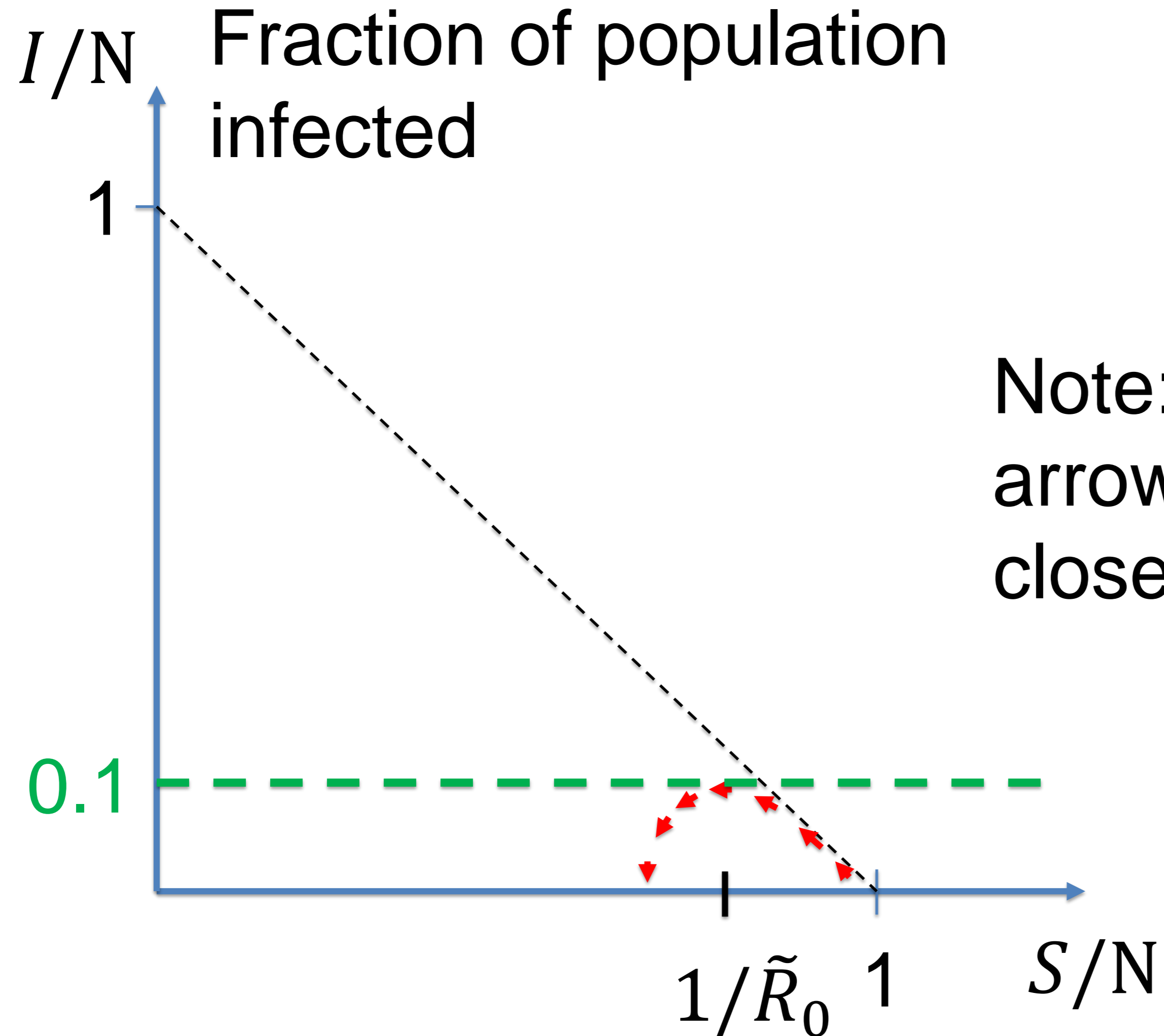
Trajectories depend on the initial condition.

For COVID19, the initial condition is very close to  $S=N$  and  $I=0$ , so say  $S=N-\epsilon$  and  $I=\epsilon$ . This means that the trajectory makes a large excursion.

**HOWEVER**, the fraction of simultaneously infected people should stay below 0.1 (green line). **THIS IS WHERE THE PROBLEM COMES FROM!**



# SIR Model: Influence of $R_0$



Fraction of population infected

Note:  
arrows are smaller  
close to x-axis

Fraction of population  
not yet infected



# Comments to previous slide

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We now change  $R_0$  to a new value  $\tilde{R}_0$ .

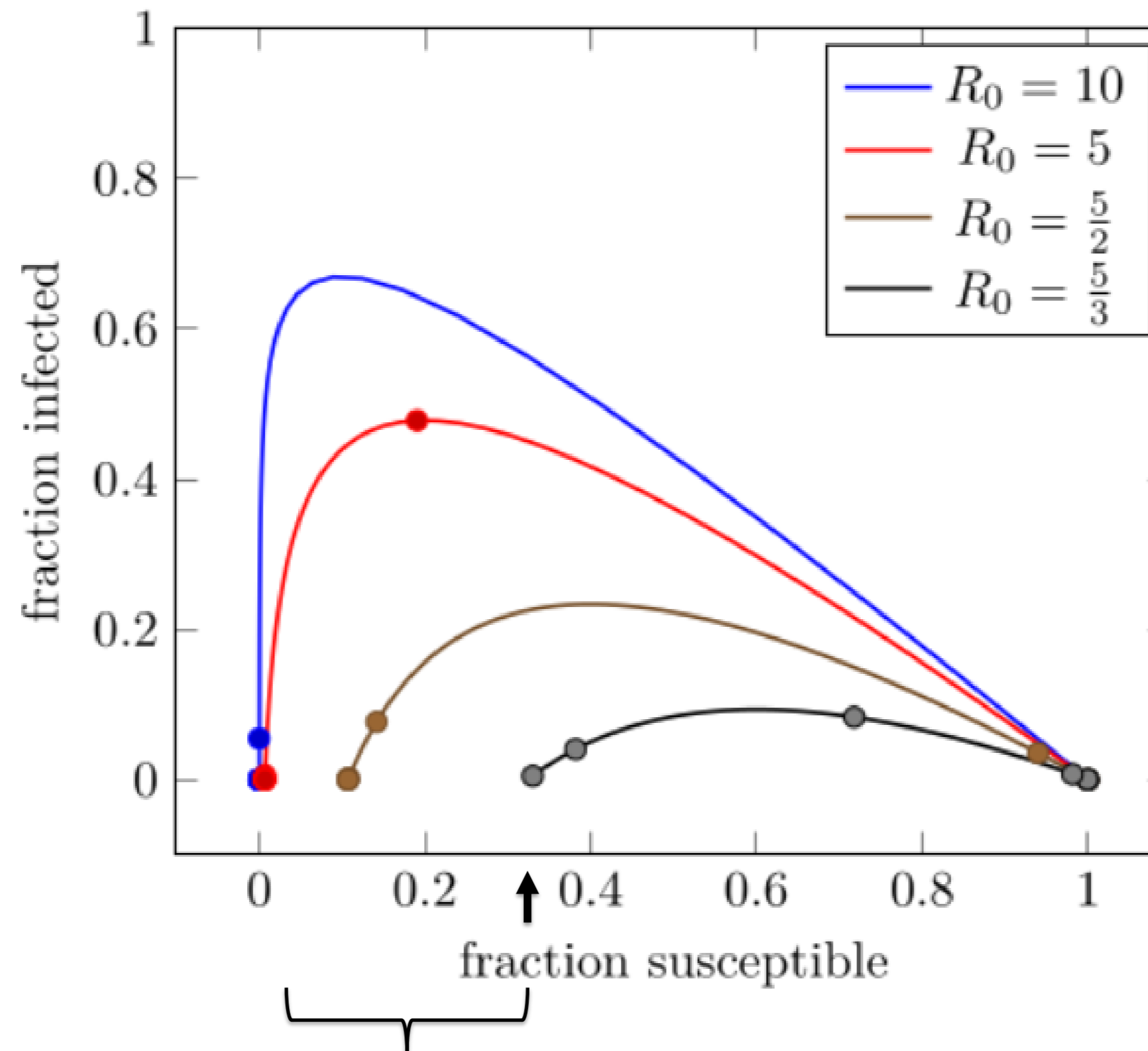
If the new value is close to one (say  $R_0 = 1.2$ ) then the excursions are rather small (below the green line) and slow (arrows are small).

# SIR Model: Influence of $R_0$

Fraction of population infected

distance between dots: 1 time unit  $T$  (e.g. 1 month, or 2 months)

simulation by Johanni Brea



Fraction of population not yet infected

Fraction of people who did not get ill ( $R_0=5/3$ )



# Comments to previous slide

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So far we discussed qualitative features of the SIR model.  
Real simulations give curves like the one in this graph.

The only free parameter of the curve is the parameter value  $R_0$ . To indicate the speed, we simulate for a fixed period  $T$ , put a dot, and then simulate for another period  $T$ .

We don't know the  $T$  for the COVID19, but it is probably 1-3 months.

Thus the disease stops more rapidly for  $R_0=10$  than for  $R_0 = 5/3$ . You pay for this by the big excursion.

Not that for  $R_0=5/2$  and  $R_0=5/3$  the disease stops well before everybody has had it.



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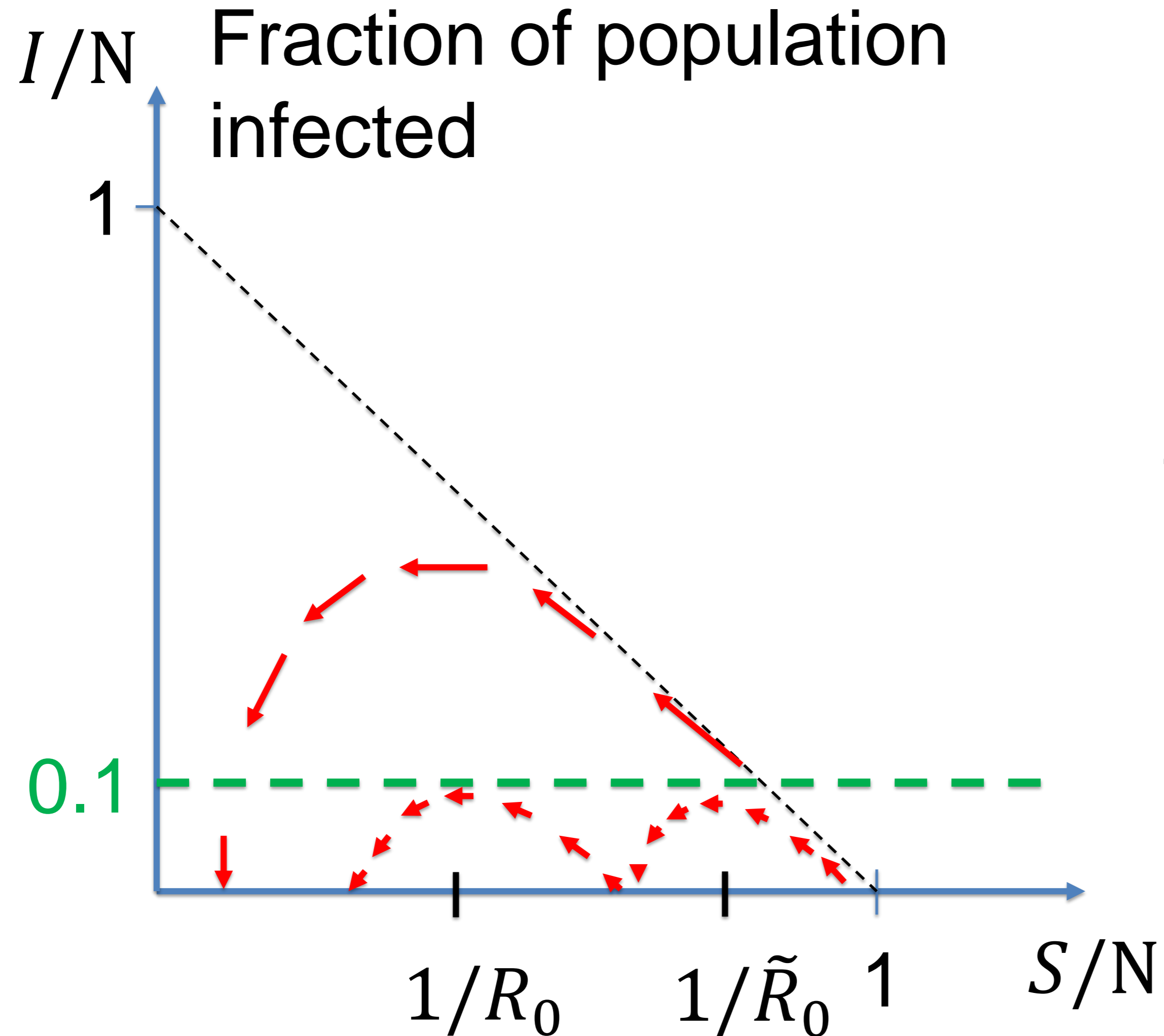
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The previous insights can be used to design intervention strategies.



# SIR Model: Intervention strategy: Reduce $R_0$ initially



Initially we reduce  
 $R_0 \rightarrow \tilde{R}_0$   
then we go back to  
 $R_0$

Fraction of population  
not yet infected



# Comments to previous slide

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If a disease breaks out, the government must take measures so as to reduce  $R_0$  to  $\tilde{R}_0$  with a value close to one, or even smaller than one.

At a later time we can go back to the normal value. There might be a second small outbreak but it is not so big because fewer people are susceptible. Importantly, even AFTER the second outbreak fewer people have had the disease than in a case without intervention.

Intuitively the reason is as follows:

Suppose  $R_0=2$ . Hence every infected person will (at the beginning of the disease) infect two others by chance encounters.

Suppose we are the moment when 49 percent of the people have not had the disease and are still susceptible. There are now 2 different situations:

- (i) The other 51 percent are currently infected and infectious. In that case nearly all the remaining people will also be infected, because half of the chance encounters will be on average with a susceptible person.
- (ii) Only 1 percent are currently infected. These will by chance encounters infect another 1 percent, but then the disease rapidly dies out.

# Spread of infections in SIR Model

## Role of basic reproduction number

- Epidemics stops without excursion (immediate decrease of  $I$ )  
if reproduction number  $R_0 < 1$
- Epidemics stops after some time also if  $R_0 > 1$   
(with finite number of unaffected people  $S > 0$  remaining)
- Excursions (maximal number of  $I/N$ ) are smaller if
  - we start with  $S < N$  (i.e., many previously immune people)
  - the reproduction number  $R_0$  is close to 1
- No excursion/immediate return if initially  $\frac{S}{N} < 1/R_0$
- 'Speed' of spreading remains small if  $\frac{I}{N} \ll 1$



# Comments to previous slide

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There are two important parameters in the model:

The reproduction number  $R_0$  and the initial fraction  $S/N$  of susceptible people.

The two together determine where there is

- no excursion in the phase plane
- small excursion in the phase plane
- large excursion in the phase plane

By excursion in the phase plan, I loosely refer to the fact that initially the number of infected people grows, before it decays back again.

The two parameters together also determine how many people remain unaffected (have not had the disease and are still susceptible) once the disease has stopped.

# Spread of infections

1. Keep basic reproduction number  $R_0$  small:
  - Stay at home!
2.  $R_0$  may grow again thereafter (after many weeks!)
3. Strategy of confinement policy:
  - make peak of  $I(t)$  smaller, but broader
    - no overload of healthcare system
  - reduce area under peak
    - less people get it in total

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Compartmental\\_models\\_in\\_epidemiology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Compartmental_models_in_epidemiology)

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# Comments to previous slide

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Government recommendations are useful:

We must ALL TOGETHER reduce the reproduction number  $R_0$  for several weeks.

And this is done best if we stay at home.

Even if  $R_0$  is later increased again, the net effect of transient reduction is positive for two important reasons:

- At no point the number of infected people is so big as to overcharge the hospital system.
- The total number of people who got the disease is smaller.

I do not know for how many weeks the reduction is necessary. But probably 8-15 weeks.

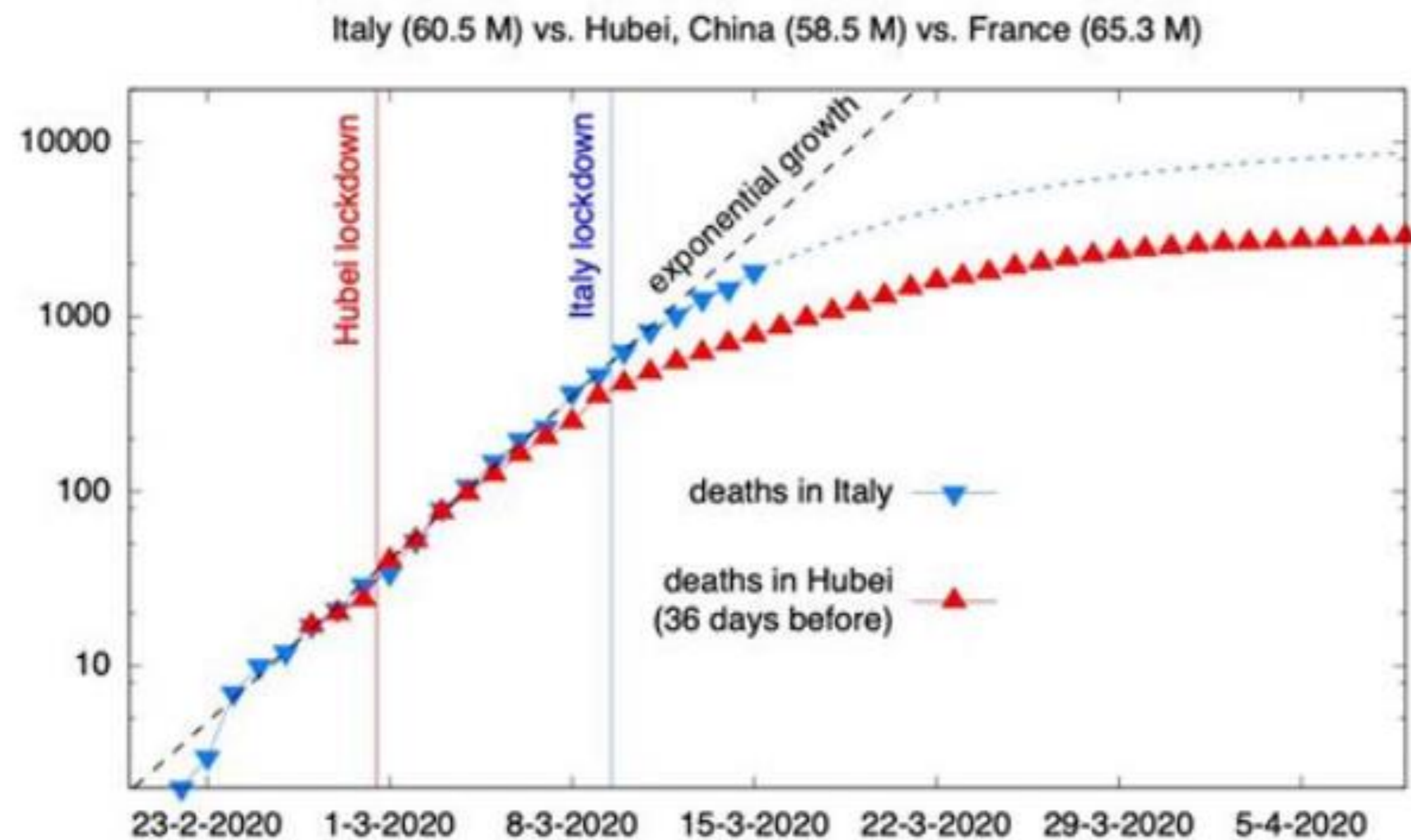


# Spread of infections: Intervention strategies work

**Federico Ricci-Tersenghi**

professor of physics in Italy

<https://www.facebook.com/federico.riccitersenghi/posts/10158298832728559>



Growth has been exponential, until country started intervention strategy

For all numbers:

<https://www.worldometers.info/coronavirus/>





# Comments to previous slide

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All these considerations are independent of whether all the people in the group R have recovered or whether some of them have died.

The main reason to follow the curve of the number of deaths is that this is the most reliable number in the current outbreak of COVID19.

The number of confirmed cases depends critically on the number of tests performed. I estimate that for one confirmed patient 10 other patients have the disease without even tested.

The slide here is mainly to show that intervention strategies work.

# Quiz: SIR model

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- [ ] The reproduction number  $R_0$  can be interpreted as the number of people a single infectious person will infect on average (at the beginning of the disease).
- [ ] The outbreak of an infectious disease with  $R_0 > 1$  will stop only once everybody in the population has had the disease.
- [ ] The number of people who get the disease before it dies out only depends on  $R_0$ .
- [ ] Intervention strategies try to reduce the value of  $R_0$ .
- [ ] If the intervention strategy ends and people go back to normal behavior (normal  $R_0$ ), the same number of people will get the disease in the end as if no intervention had taken place.



# Summary: epidemics with the SIR model

1. Infectious diseases have a threshold for spreading which is set by the basic reproduction number  $R_0$ . Diseases spread if

(i)  $R_0 > 1$  AND (ii) initial state of susceptible population  $S/N > 1/R_0$ .

During spreading the initial growth is exponential. Growth slows down because the fraction of susceptible people decreases. For a new disease such as COVID19 the initial fraction is close to one,  $S/N=1-\varepsilon$ . Hence it spreads for any  $R_0 > 1$ .

2. The peak number of infected people is reached if  $S/N= 1/R_0$ .

The final state is NOT the state with  $S=0$ , i.e., the epidemics stops BEFORE everybody has had the disease, just because there are no longer enough 'victims'.

3. By a step-by-step policy (temporary reduction of contact numbers) the fraction of susceptible people can be moved below  $1/R_0$ .

If the natural  $R_0$  is slightly above 2, that means that in the end 60 percent of the population will have had the disease AFTER the step-by-step policy.

Without temporary reduction of contact numbers about 90 percent would get the disease (because the trajectory in the phase plane makes a much bigger excursion, see curve for  $R=5/2$ )



# Strengths and Limits of the SIR model

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- Strengths:
- mathematically transparent, easy to interpret
  - only two parameters:  $R_0$  and initial value of  $S$

## Limits:

- No delay for incubation time
- Infinite immunity for recovered people
- Perfect mixing:
  - everybody interacts with everybody else
  - no group structure (clusters of friends)
  - no age structure

## Extensions of model:

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Compartmental\\_models\\_in\\_epidemiology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Compartmental_models_in_epidemiology)

