

Detecting superspreaders in wildlife reservoirs of disease

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Bovine tuberculosis (bTB) within-species spread

- Bovine tuberculosis (bTB) has high socio-economic impacts on the cattle industry worldwide;
- In the UK and Ireland, its control is complicated by infection in a wild badger (*Meles meles*) population;
- bTB transmission between cattle and badgers has been evaluated extensively;
- There remains considerable debate about
 - the relative impacts of **within-species spread**;
 - the efficacy of interventions to control transmission.
- Detecting **high-risk individuals** can make control measures more efficient;
- **Superspreading** is rarely characterised in wildlife populations.

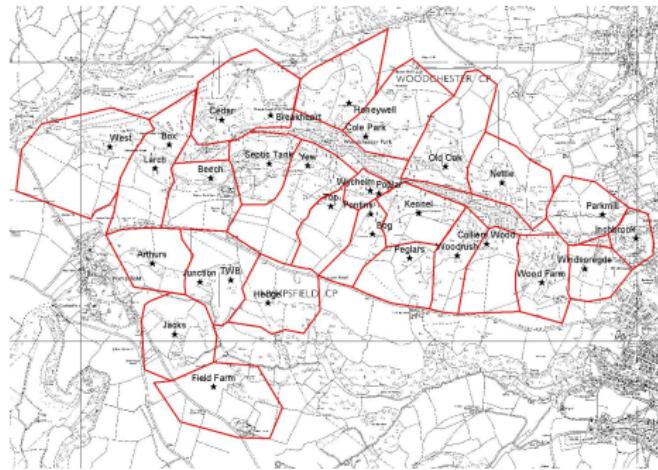
Inference: key challenges and aims

- Monitoring relies on imperfect surveillance and incomplete sampling of individuals over time;
 - Imperfect diagnostic test performance;
 - Key epidemiological events are only partially observed;
 - Hidden processes are high dimensional.
- We fit a disease **transmission model** to individual-level data from a badger population;
- Key **epidemiological events** are inferred alongside **model parameters**;
- Investigate the existence of **superspreading** by using a novel estimator for the individual effective reproduction number.

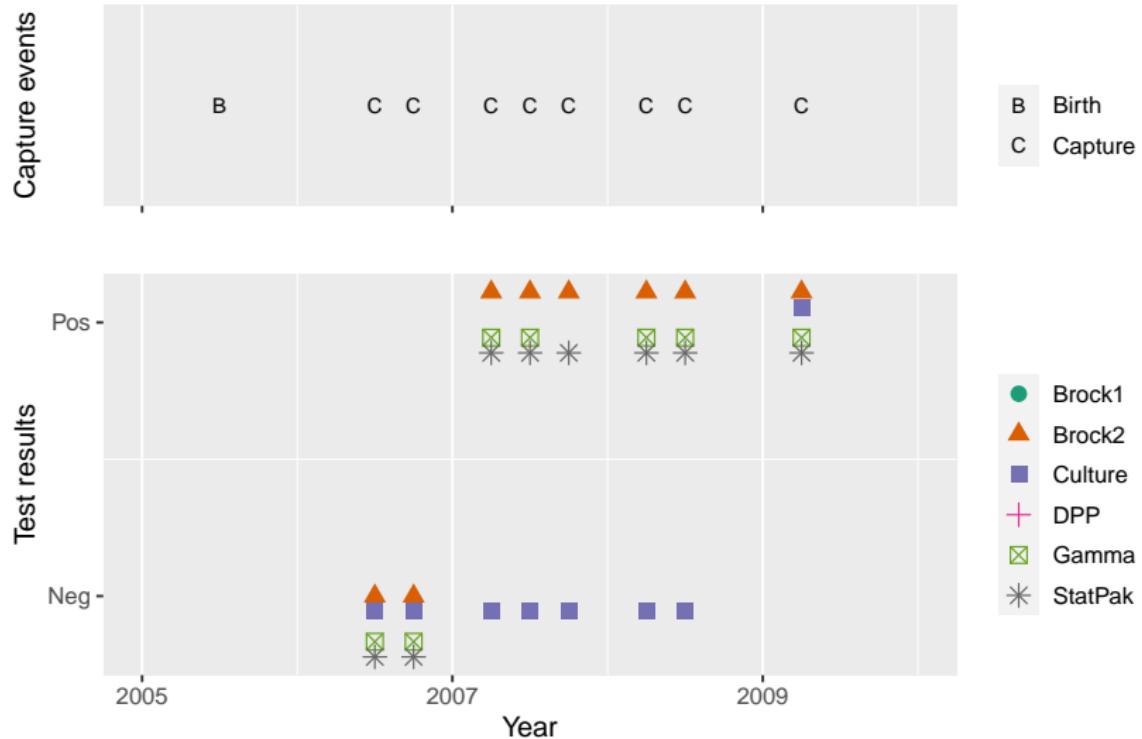
Woodchester Park data

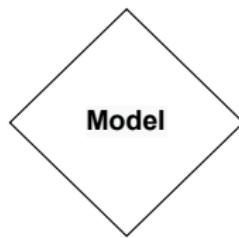
We used data from a 40-year longitudinal study (Woodchester Park, Gloucestershire, UK) (Delahay et al., 2013; Buzdugan et al., 2017):

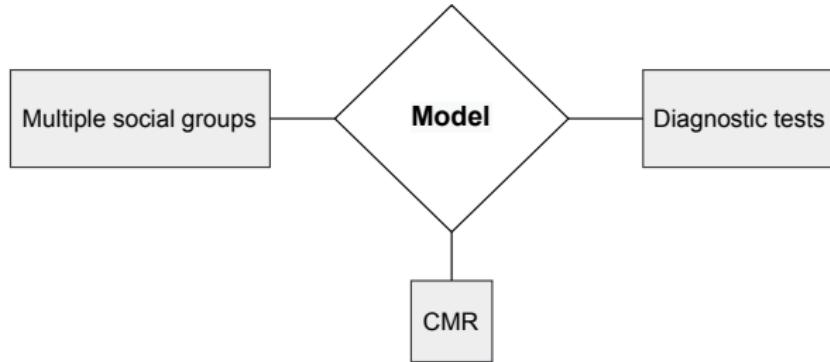
- 2,391 badgers captured in 34 social groups;
- Capture history and test results from Jan-1980 to Jan-2020;
- bTB diagnostic tests: Brock, Culture, DPP, Gamma, Stat Pak.

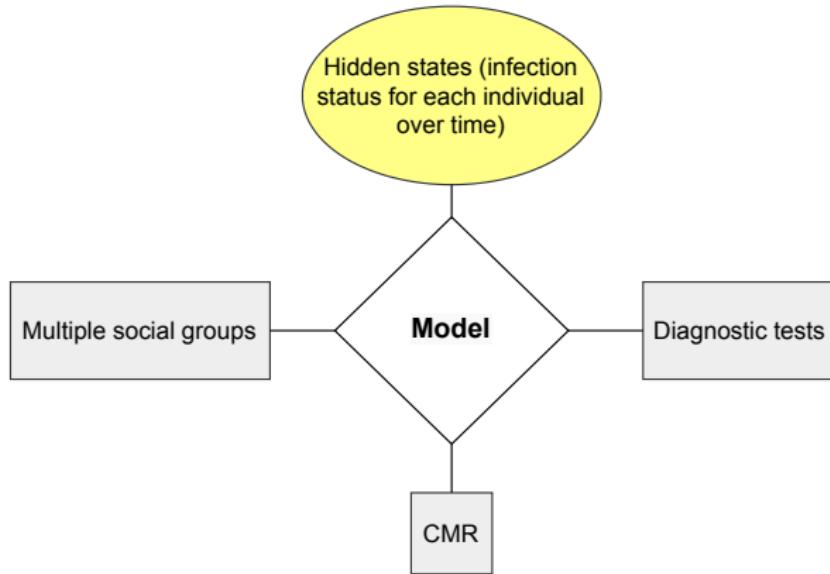


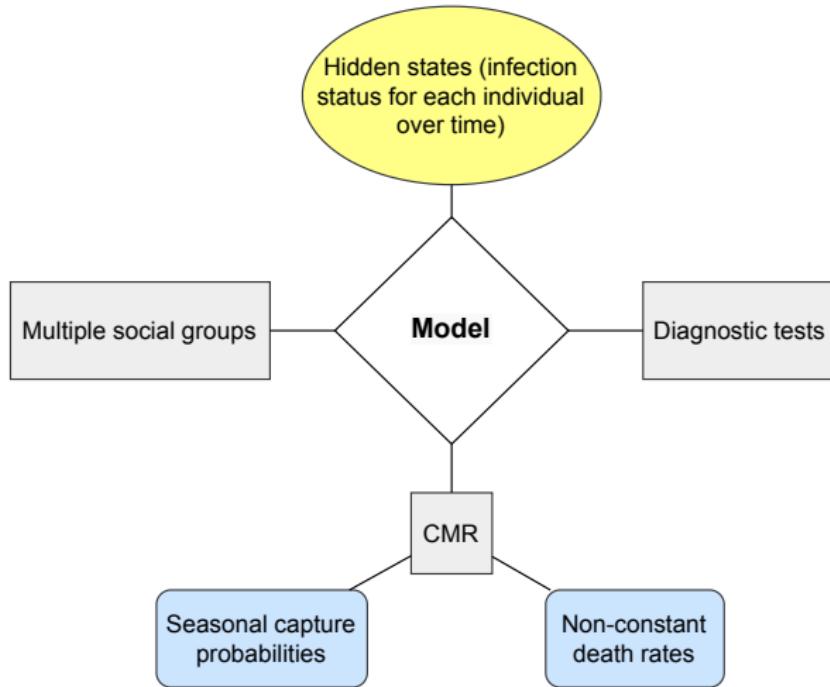
Individual-level data

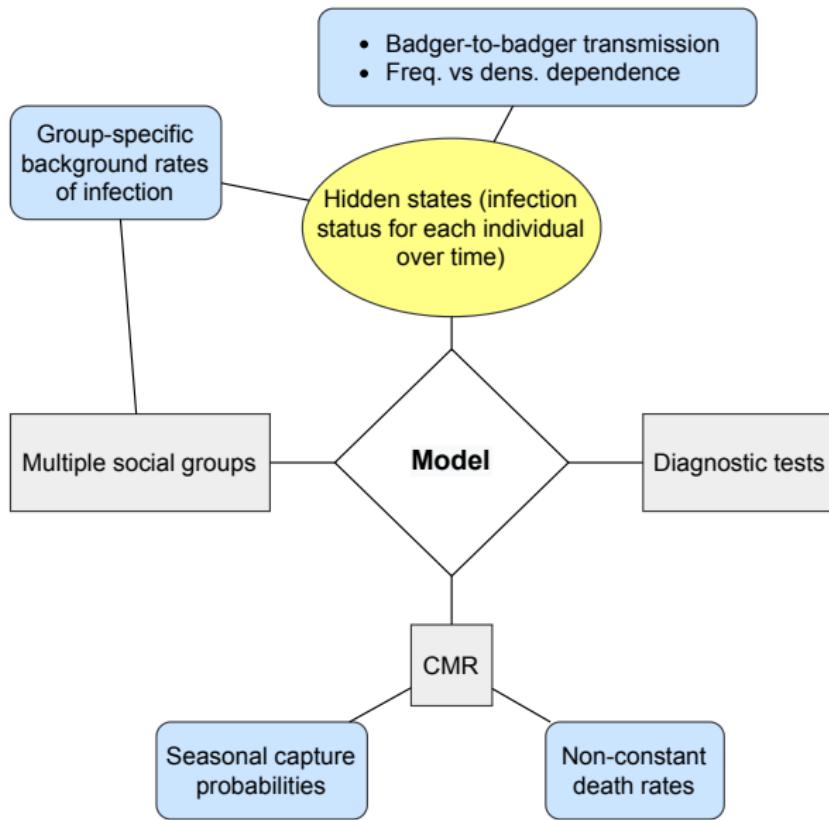


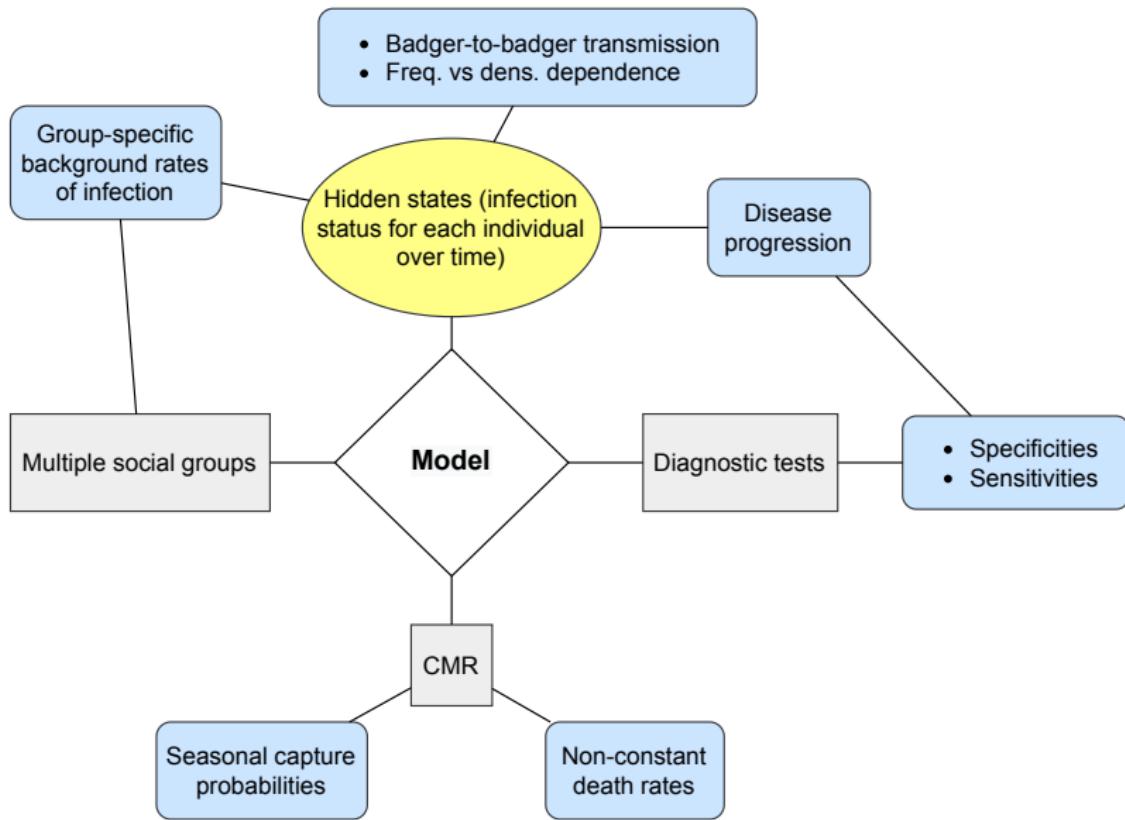


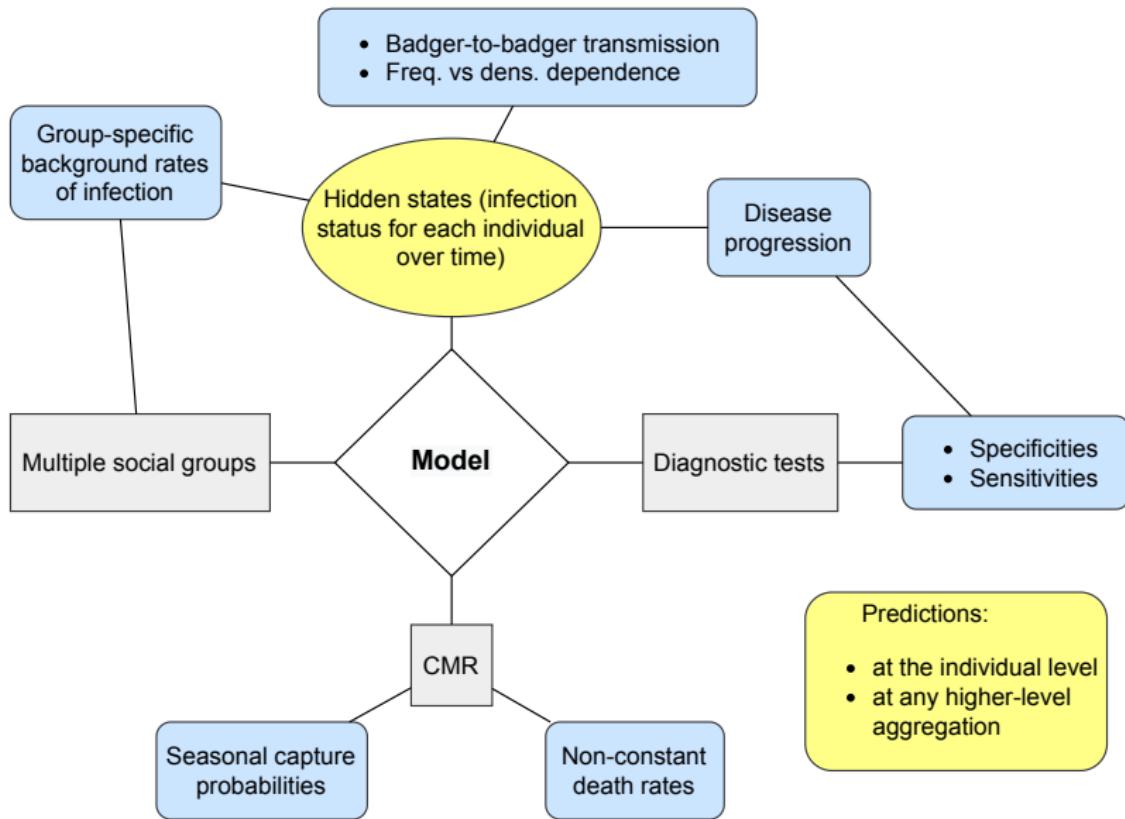












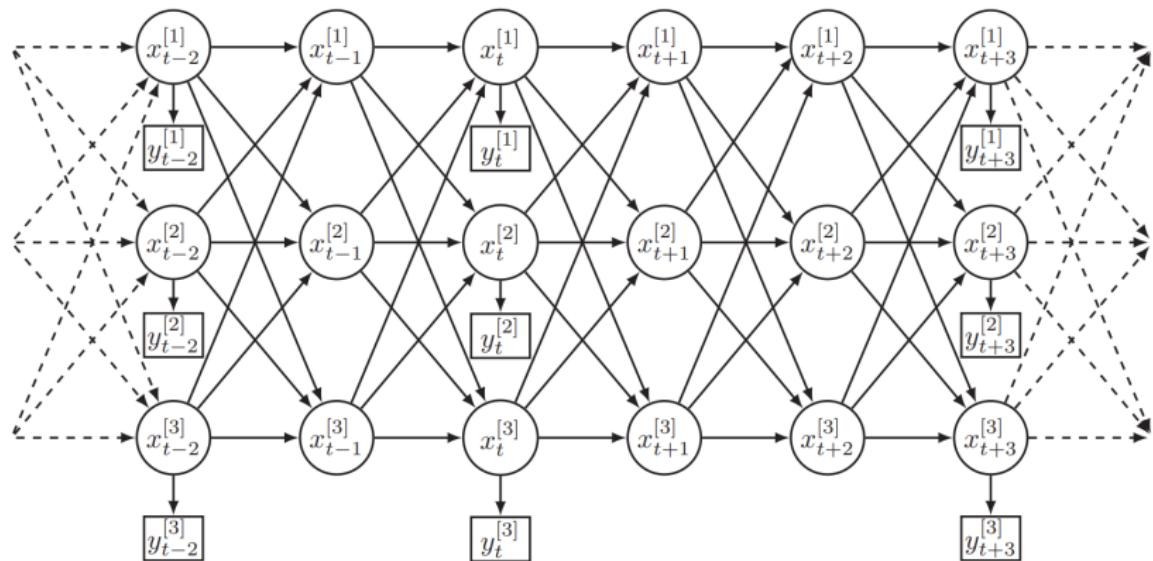
Bayesian inference of CHMM

We can view the epidemic as a coupled hidden Markov model (CHMM)

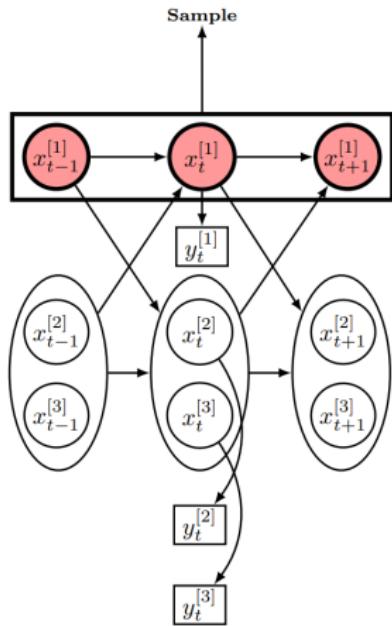
$X_t^{[i]}$: hidden state of individual $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ at time $t \in \{1, \dots, T\}$;

$Y_t^{[i]}$: diagnostic test results;

$W_t^{[i]}$: capture history.



Bayesian inference of CHMM using iFFBS¹



Algorithm Pseudo-algorithm of iFFBS+MCMC.

Set $r = 1$. Draw Θ from their initial value distributions and initialise $\mathbf{X}_{1:T}^{[1:m]}$,

for $r = 2, \dots, R$ **do**

for $i = 1, \dots, m$ **do**

 Draw $\mathbf{X}_{1:T}^{[i]} \sim P\left(\mathbf{X}_{1:T}^{[i]} \mid \mathbf{X}_{1:T}^{[-i]}, \mathbf{W}_{1:T}^{[i]}, \mathbf{Y}_{1:T}^{[i]}, \Theta\right)$;

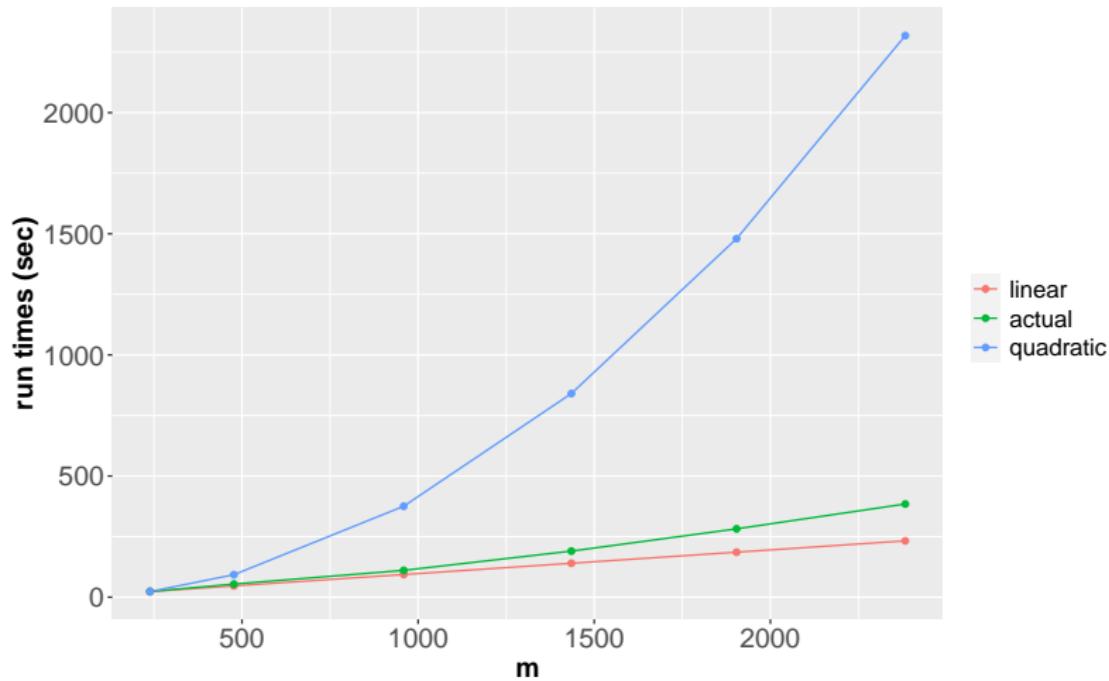
end for

 Draw $\Theta \sim \pi\left(\Theta \mid \mathbf{X}_{1:T}^{[1:m]}, \mathbf{W}_{1:T}^{[1:m]}, \mathbf{Y}_{1:T}^{[1:m]}\right)$;

end for

¹(Touloupou et al., 2020)

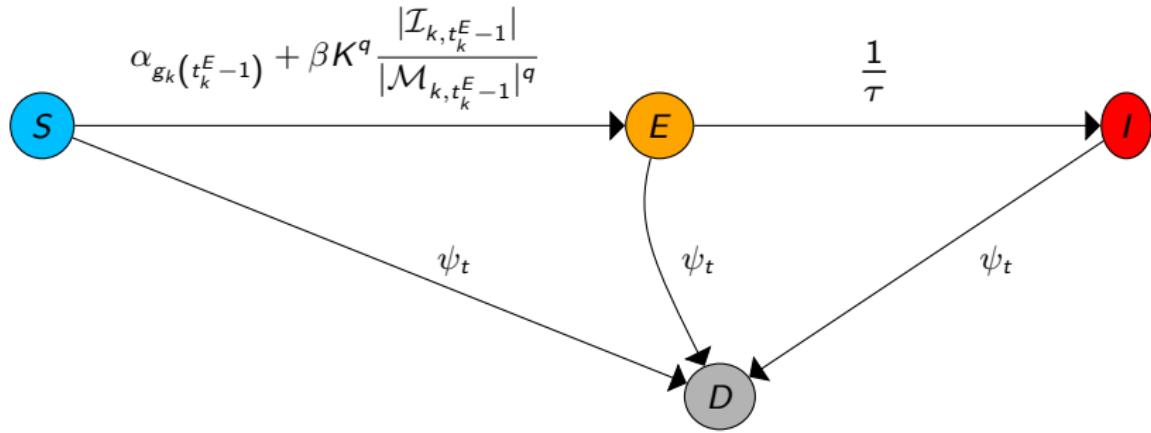
Computational complexity



iFFBS requires just:

- transition probabilities for the hidden states;
- probabilities of observing outcomes given the hidden states.

Transitions between hidden states



For modelling the death process, we used the Gompertz-Makeham hazard function

$$h(s) = c + ae^{bs}, \quad s = \text{age},$$

from which we derive the death probability $\psi_t = P(X_t^{[i]} = \text{dead} \mid X_{t-1}^{[i]} = \text{alive})$.

Observation processes

- Seasonal capture probabilities $\eta_{(t \bmod 4)}$;
- Parameters for sensitivity and specificity of each diagnostic test are inferred:

→ The sensitivity of test j for individual i at time t is given by:

$$\theta_j = P(Y_{jt}^{[i]} = \text{positive} \mid X_t^{[i]} = \text{infectious});$$

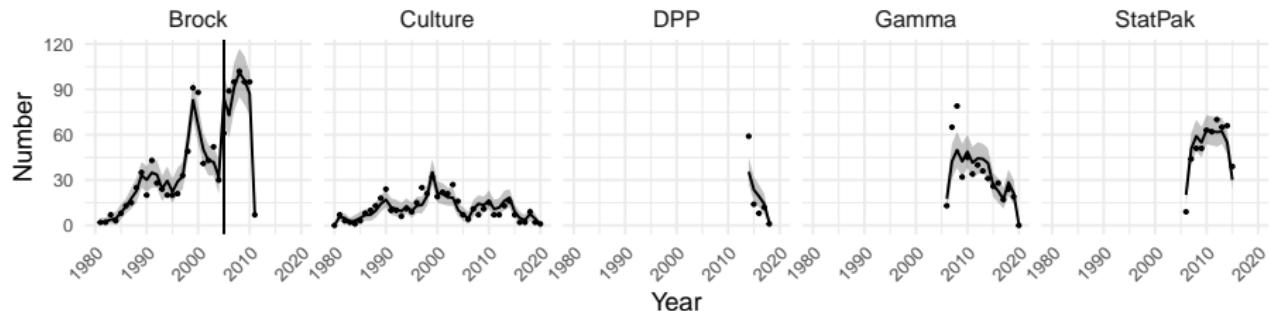
$$\rho_j \theta_j = P(Y_{jt}^{[i]} = \text{positive} \mid X_t^{[i]} = \text{exposed}), \quad 0 < \rho_j < 1.$$

→ The specificity of test j is given by:

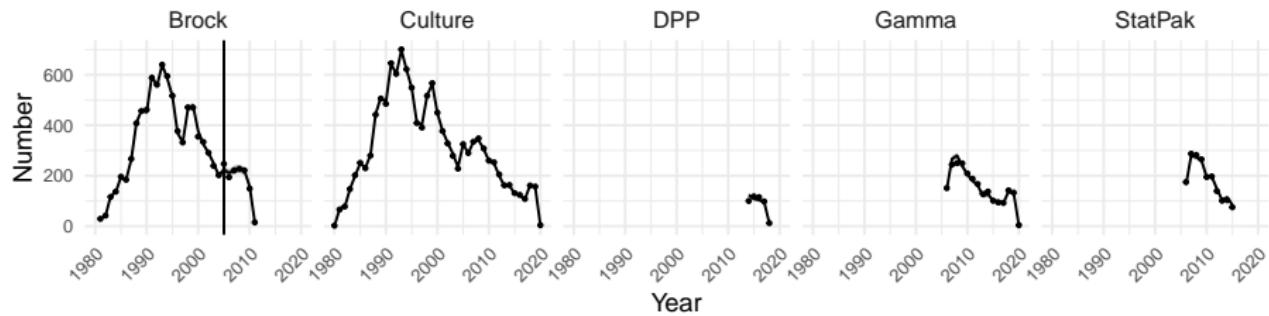
$$\phi_j = P(Y_{jt}^{[i]} = \text{negative} \mid X_t^{[i]} = \text{susceptible}).$$

Test sensitivities are infectivity-profile dependent (Brooks-Pollock et al., 2014).

Test positives



Test negatives

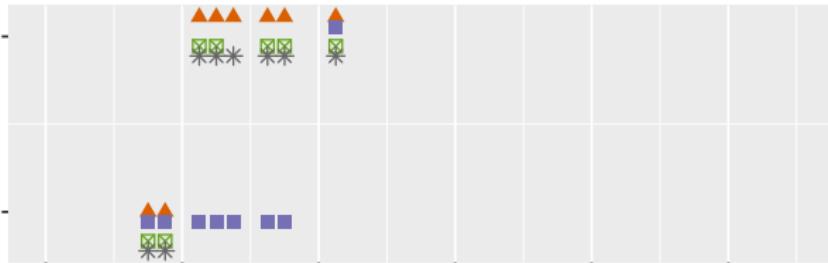


Capture events



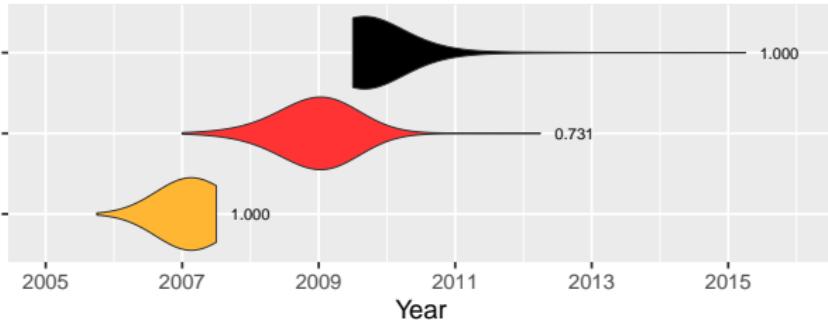
- B Birth
- C Capture

Test results



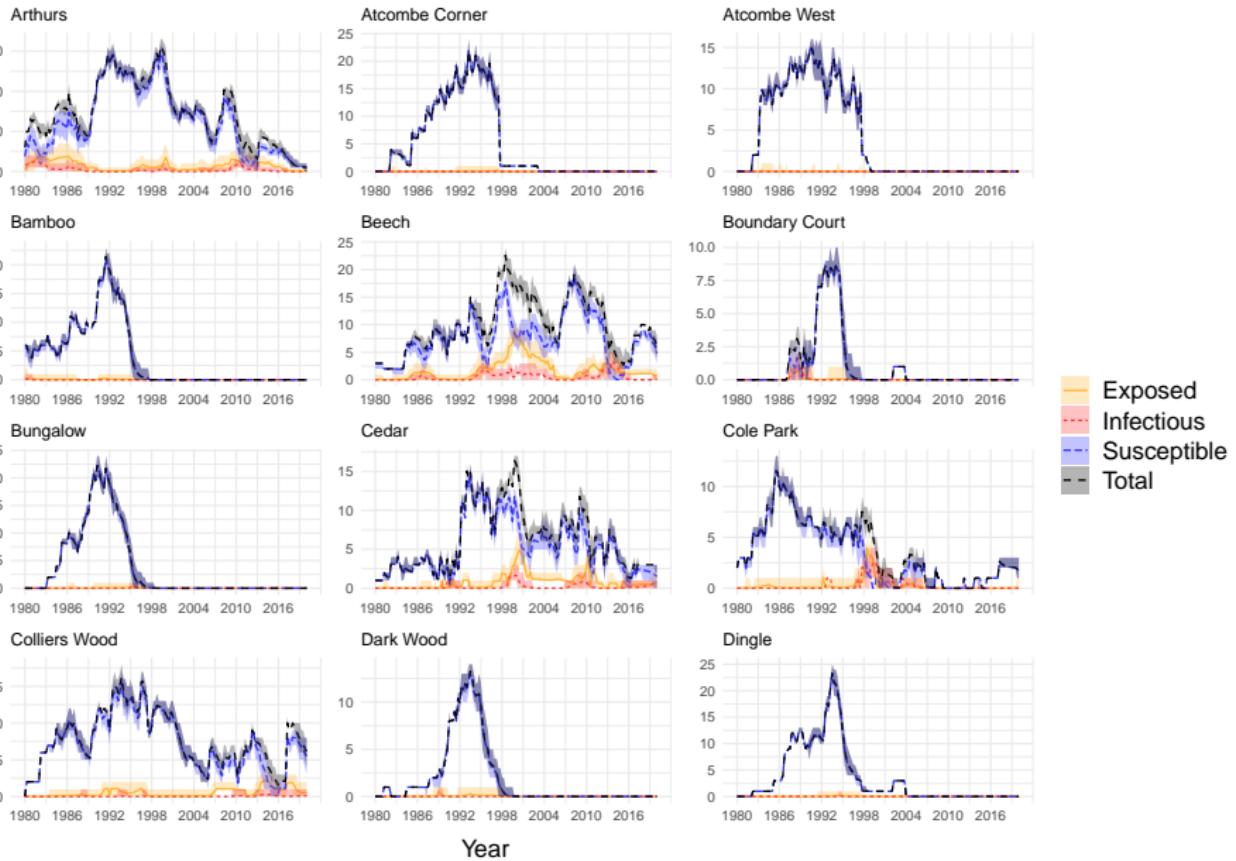
- Brock1
- Brock2
- Culture
- DPP
- Gamma
- StatPak

Event times

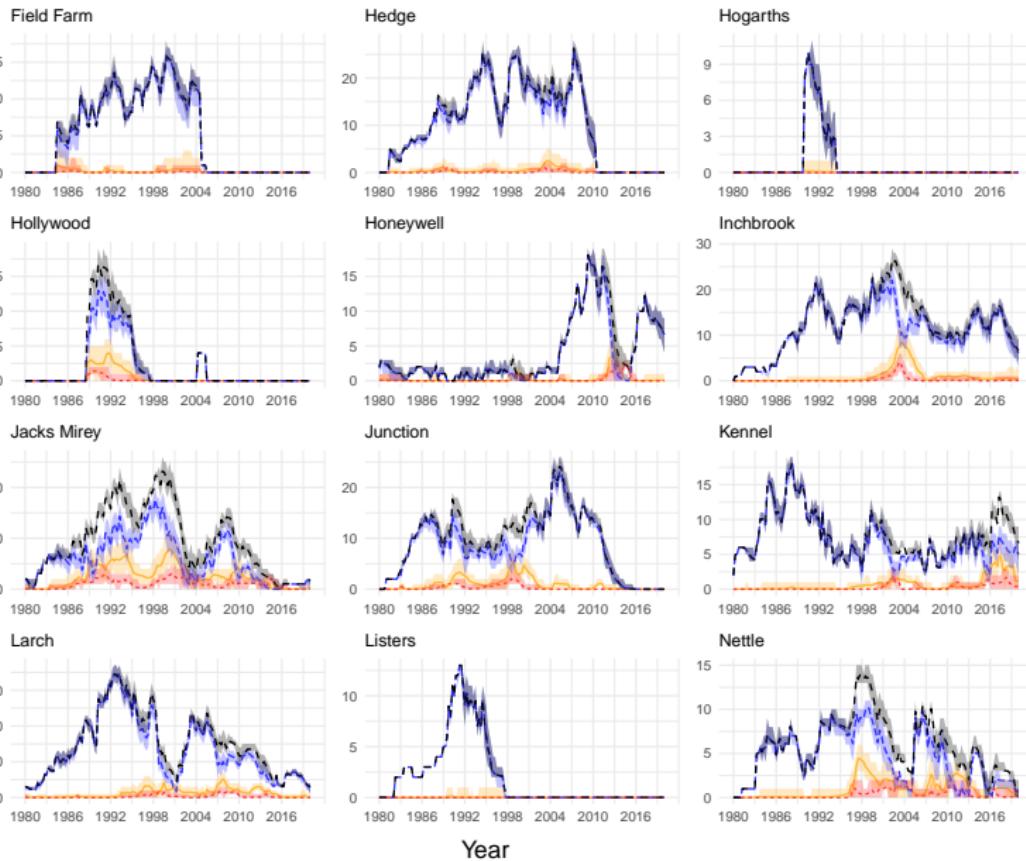


- Death time
- Time of infectiousness
- Infection time

Number of individuals

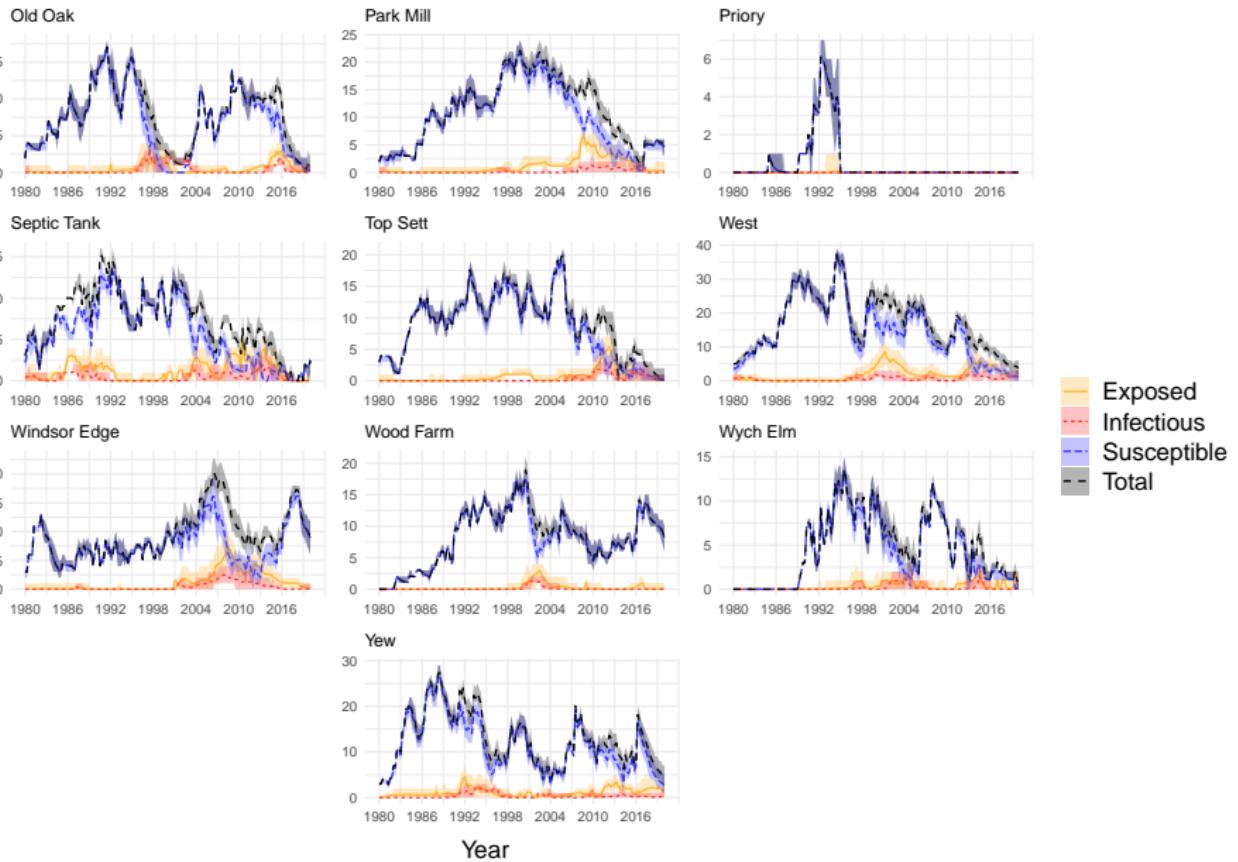


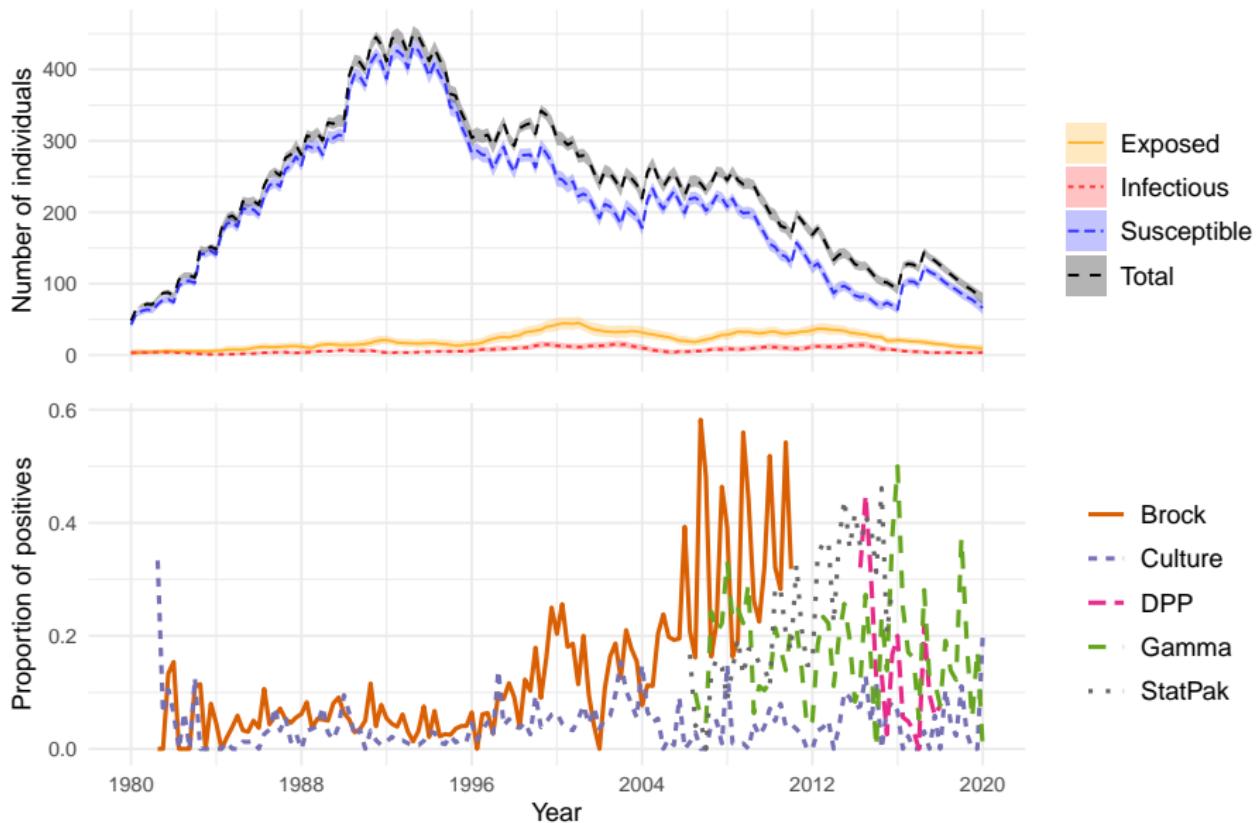
Number of individuals

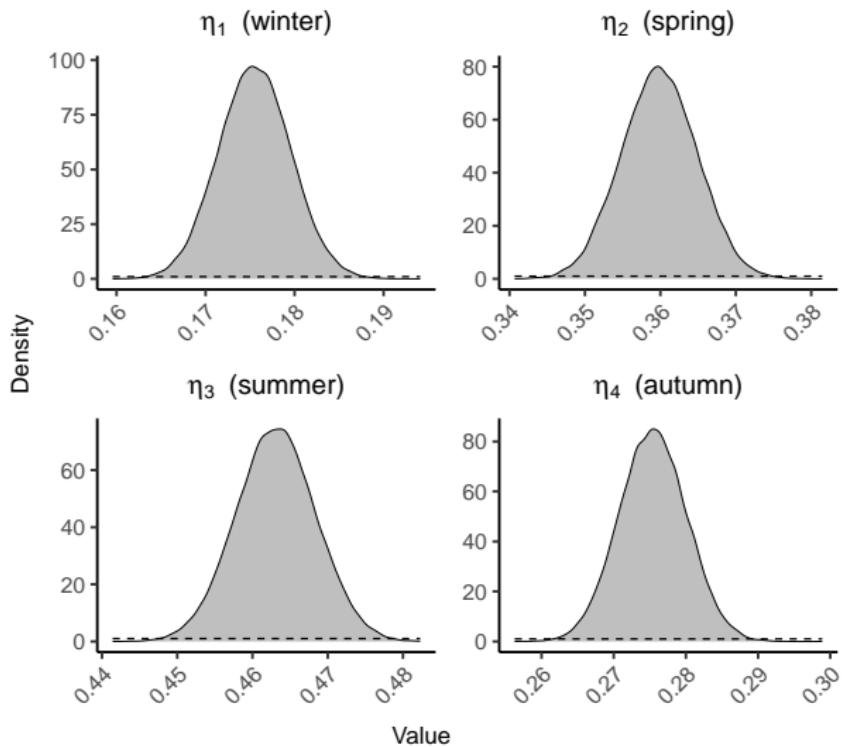


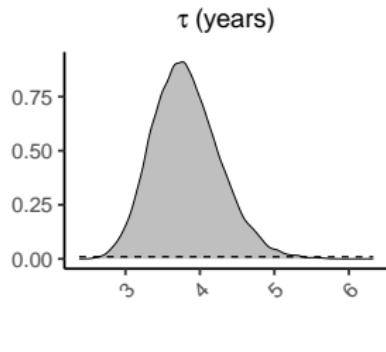
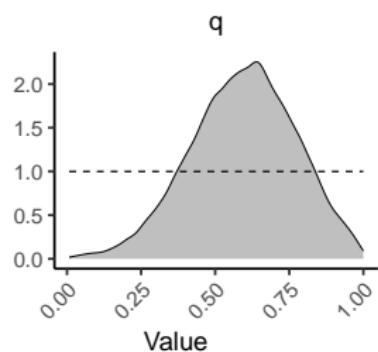
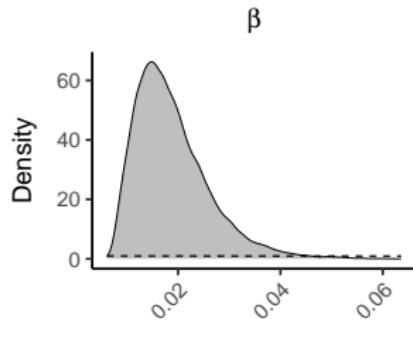
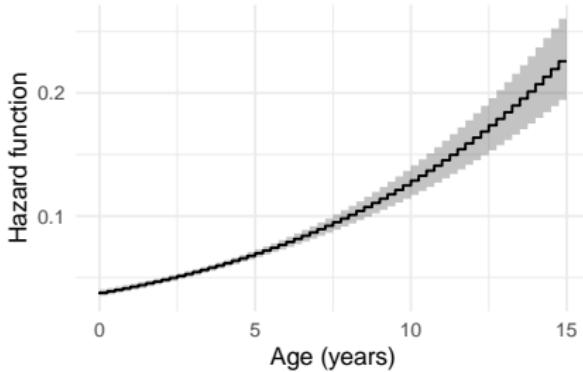
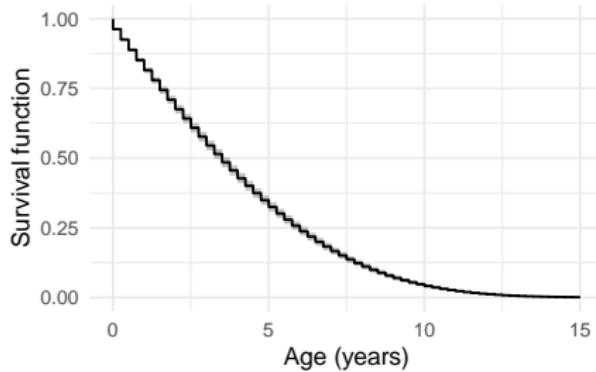
Exposed
Infectious
Susceptible
Total

Number of individuals

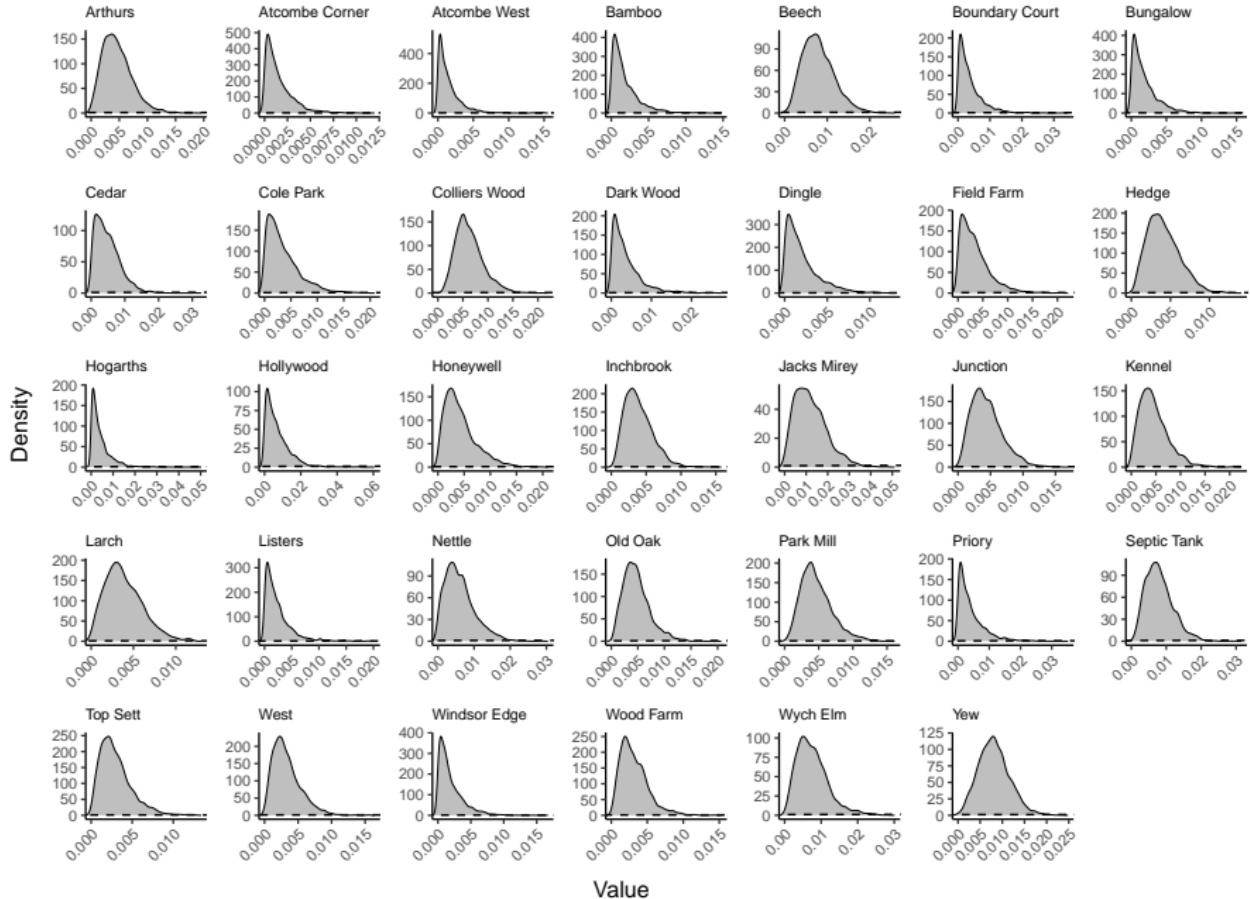








Group-specific background rate of infection



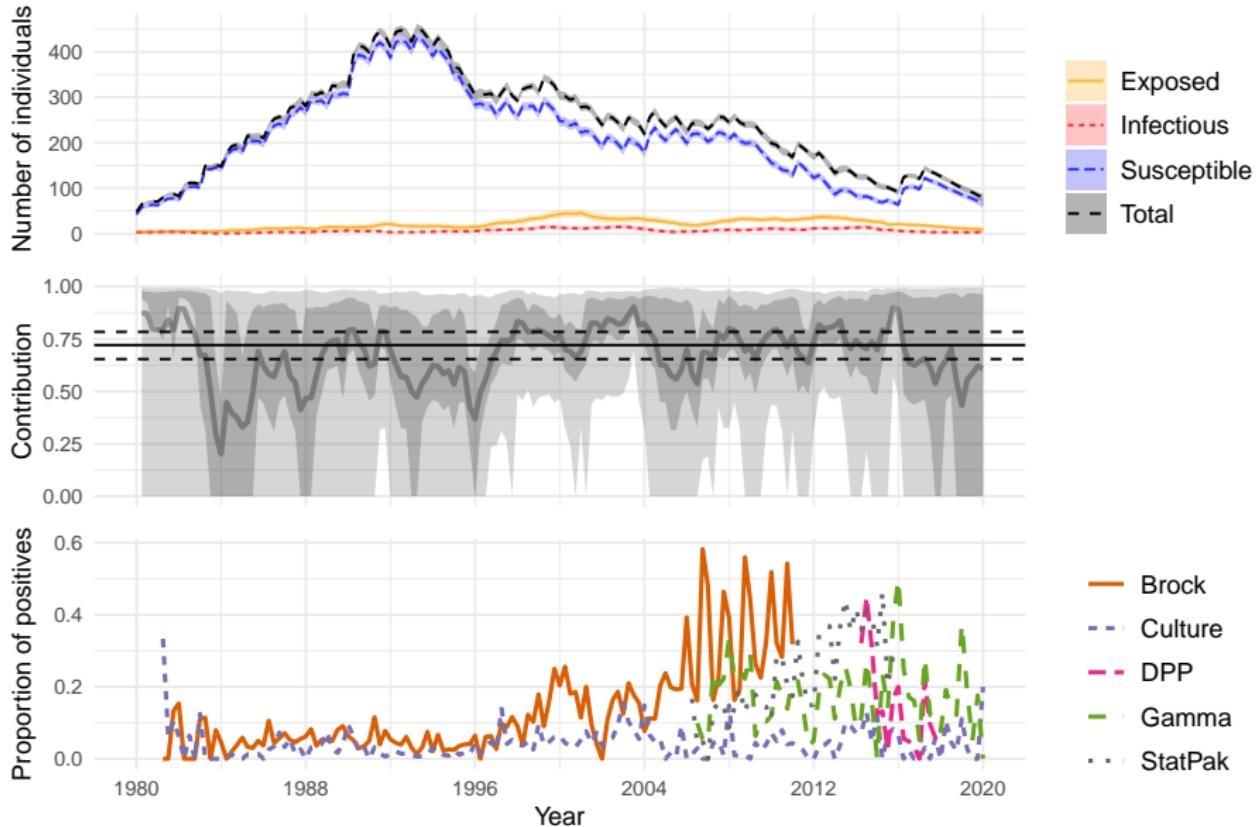
Type	Parameter	Mean	95% CI
Sensitivity (E)	Brock1	0.56	(0.49, 0.63)
	Brock2	0.73	(0.65, 0.81)
	Culture	0.072	(0.049, 0.098)
	DPP	0.41	(0.3, 0.53)
	Gamma	0.47	(0.41, 0.52)
	StatPak	0.82	(0.75, 0.87)
Sensitivity (I)	Brock1	0.91	(0.85, 0.96)
	Brock2	0.94	(0.84, 0.99)
	Culture	0.79	(0.72, 0.86)
	DPP	0.92	(0.76, 1)
	Gamma	0.85	(0.77, 0.93)
	StatPak	0.95	(0.89, 0.99)
Specificity	Brock1	0.98	(0.98, 0.99)
	Brock2	0.78	(0.76, 0.8)
	Culture	0.99	(0.99, 1)
	DPP	0.94	(0.92, 0.96)
	Gamma	0.92	(0.91, 0.93)
	StatPak	0.94	(0.93, 0.96)

Relative rates of infection

The relative contribution of direct badger-to-badger transmission on any infected badger k at its infection time t_k^E can be calculated as:

$$\frac{\beta K^q |\mathcal{I}_{k, t_k^E - 1}| / |\mathcal{M}_{k, t_k^E - 1}|^q}{\alpha_{g_k}(t_k^E - 1) + \beta K^q |\mathcal{I}_{k, t_k^E - 1}| / |\mathcal{M}_{k, t_k^E - 1}|^q}.$$

These can then be aggregated at any spatio-temporal resolution.



Individual effective reproduction number (R_i)

- Some individuals can have a disproportionately large contribution to the spread of infection.

We propose an estimator for R_i , from which a population-level R can be derived.

We define:

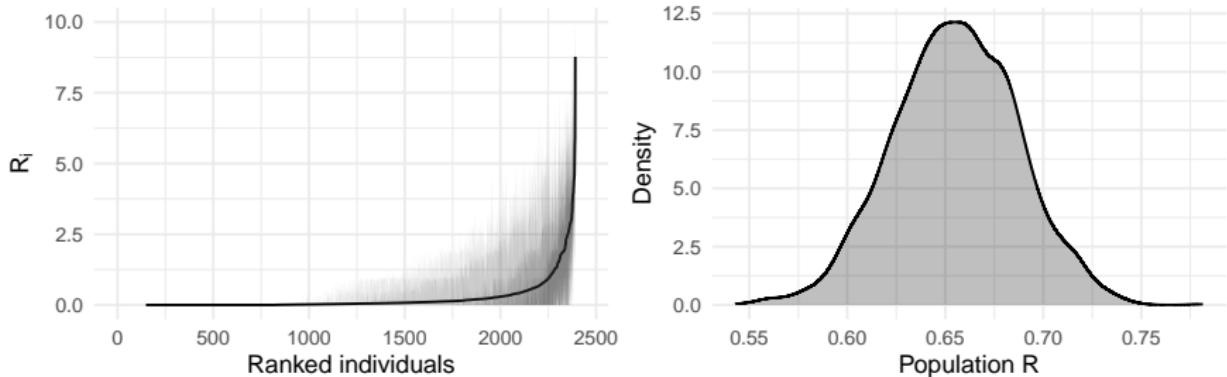
$$R_i = \sum_{k: t_k^E > t_i^E} p_{(k,i)},$$

where $p_{(k,i)}$ is the relative likelihood that individual i infects individual k .²

Conditional on the predicted event times, $p_{(k,i)}$ is given by

$$p_{(k,i)} = \begin{cases} \frac{\beta K^q / |\mathcal{M}_{k,t_k^E-1}|^q}{\alpha_{g_k(t_k^E-1)} + |\mathcal{I}_{k,t_k^E-1}| \beta K^q / |\mathcal{M}_{k,t_k^E-1}|^q} & \text{if } i \in \mathcal{I}_{k,t_k^E-1}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

²Wallinga and Teunis (2004) use a generation-time interval distribution to estimate $p_{(k,i)}$.

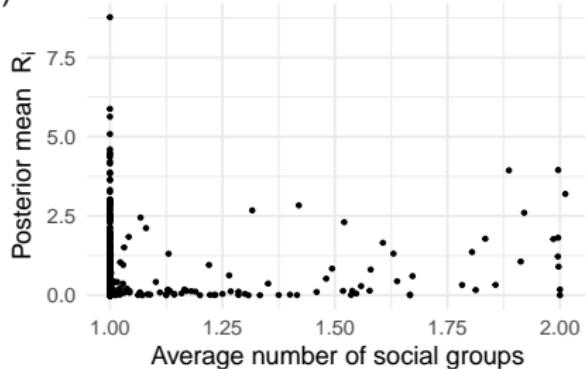


- This suggests the presence of **superspreaders** badgers.
→ This result emerges from the stochastic model **after fitting** it to the observed data.
- Population-level R is below 1 despite bTB **persistence**.
→ Periodic **reintroductions** from external sources and/or persistent environmental contamination?

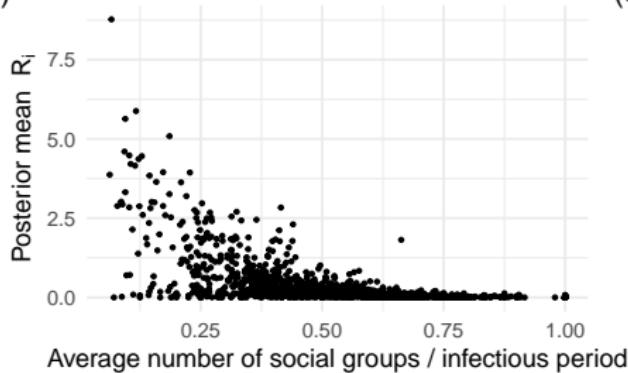
(a)



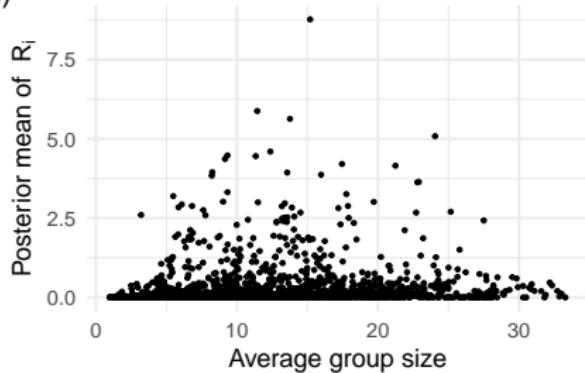
(b)

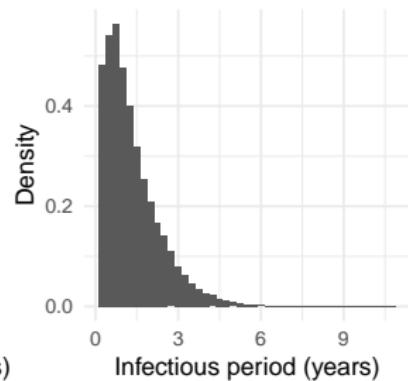
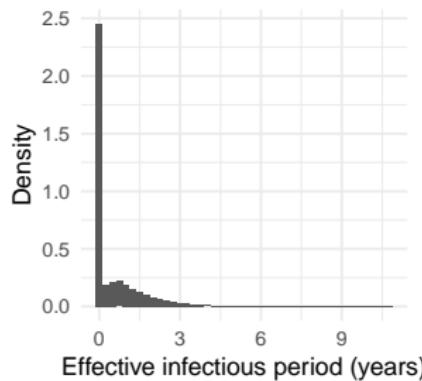
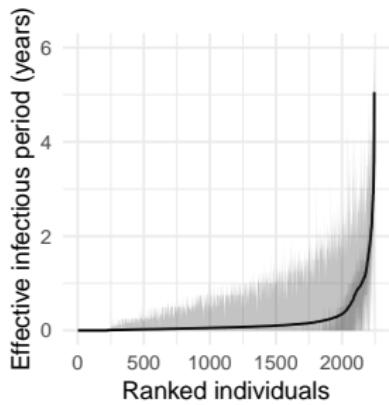


(c)



(d)





Conclusions

The model:

- fits in a few hours, enabling us to conduct efficient Bayesian inference simultaneously on:
 - all epidemiological parameters,
 - CMR surveillance process,
 - age-dependent mortality processes, and
 - imperfect diagnostic testing;
- produces predictions for the hidden epidemiological states at individual-level over time;
- provides novel estimates of individual effective reproduction numbers.

Future work

The methodology could be:

- extended to allow for systematic model comparison and/or model averaging;
- applied to other disease systems.

Nevertheless, there are several areas to explore bTB in badgers further:

- more nuanced infectivity-profile dependent sensitivity and specificity processes;
- individual-level covariate dependencies;
- infection-related mortality;
- non-exponentially distributed latent period;
- sex-/age-specific differences in susceptibility and transmission;
- characteristics of superspreadер badgers;
- ...

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Paper is now on bioRxiv!



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Any questions?