

SIR_model

September 12, 2023

0.0.1 The SIR model of disease spread SOLUTIONS

S is the number of susceptible individuals.

I is the number of infected individuals.

R is the number of resistant/recovered individuals.

All three variables change over time and we can understand how by thinking about their *rates of change* (pillar 2).

Susceptible individuals become infected when they come into contact with an infected individual and the disease is transmitted. The number of such contacts is (roughly) **SR**, but not every contact transmits the disease, so we multiply by a (positive) constant **a** that measures how contagious the disease is. This gives **S' = -aSR**.

An individual becomes resistant by recovering from the infection. People recover at a constant rate **b**, so at every time step we get **bI** newly recovered individuals. This gives **R' = bI**.

The number of infected individuals is just the combination of the two things we've already done. We add the newly infected and subtract the newly recovered. This gives **I' = aSI - bI**.

Putting that all together, we have:

$$\mathbf{S}' = -\mathbf{aSR}$$

$$\mathbf{I}' = \mathbf{aSI} - \mathbf{bI}$$

$$\mathbf{R}' = \mathbf{bI}$$

What we have set up is a *system of differential equations*, which we can deal with using pillar 5: one step at a time. To go one step forward in time we simply add the changes based on our current values:

$$\mathbf{S}(t+1) = \mathbf{S}(t) - \mathbf{aS}(t)\mathbf{I}(t)$$

$$\mathbf{I}(t+1) = \mathbf{I}(t) + \mathbf{aS}(t)\mathbf{I}(t) - \mathbf{bI}(t)$$

$$\mathbf{R}(t+1) = \mathbf{R}(t) + \mathbf{bI}(t)$$

It should have been apparent in problem 3 of the worksheet that doing the calculations by hand gets tedious fairly quickly. Instead, let's have a computer do all the work:

```
[7]: # Set values for our variables and constants (this is a comment; Python ignores  
      ↪ it):  
      S0=100
```

```

I0=1
R0=0
a=0.01
b=0.125

# Now have the computer do the math:
S1=S0-a*S0*I0
I1=I0+a*S0*I0-b*I0
R1=R0+b*I0

# Output the results:
print('S(1)=', S1)
print('I(1)=', I1)
print('R(1)=', R1)

# Press shift+enter to run the python code

```

```

S(1)= 99.0
I(1)= 1.875
R(1)= 0.125

```

0.1 Problem 1:

Copy, paste, and modify the code above to generate estimates for **S(2)**, **I(2)**, **R(2)** and **S(3)**, **I(3)**, **R(3)**. Put your code in the cell below. Remember shift+enter to run the code.

```

[9]: # Now have the computer do the math:
S2=S1-a*S1*I1
I2=I1+a*S1*I1-b*I1
R2=R1+b*I1

# Output the results:
print('S(2)=', S2)
print('I(2)=', I2)
print('R(2)=', R2)

# Now have the computer do the math:
S3=S2-a*S2*I2
I3=I2+a*S2*I2-b*I2
R3=R2+b*I2

# Output the results:
print('S(3)=', S3)
print('I(3)=', I3)
print('R(3)=', R3)

```

```

S(2)= 97.14375
I(2)= 3.496875

```

R(2)= 0.359375
S(3)= 93.74675449218749
I(3)= 6.4567611328125
R(3)= 0.796484375

We're still not fully taking advantage of the computer. We'd really like to make the computer *iterate* without our having to copy, paste, and modify. We can do that with a *for loop* (or any other kind of loop or recursive structure; I'd like to use a *for loop* later, so I'm introducing it here).

Python still knows everything we've coded, even things from earlier cells.

```
[15]: # Set a number of days
d=30

# Start keeping track of our values as lists
S=[S0]
I=[I0]
R=[R0]

# Do the math for that many steps and append the new numbers to the ends of the
↳lists
for t in range(d):
    S.append(S[t]-a*S[t]*I[t])
    I.append(I[t]+a*S[t]*I[t]-b*I[t])
    R.append(R[t]+b*I[t])

# Output the results:
print('S(7)=', S[7])
print('I(7)=', I[7])
print('R(7)=', R[7])

print('S(30)=', S[30])
print('I(30)=', I[30])
print('R(30)=', R[30])
```

S(7)= 40.74099015505391
I(7)= 50.402956478033246
R(7)= 9.856053366912828
S(30)= 0.0030111763239796478
I(30)= 4.751003952081127
R(30)= 96.24598487159484

0.2 Problem 2:

Modify the code above to get estimates for **S**, **I**, and **R** at **d=7** and **d=30**.

0.2.1 Answers above

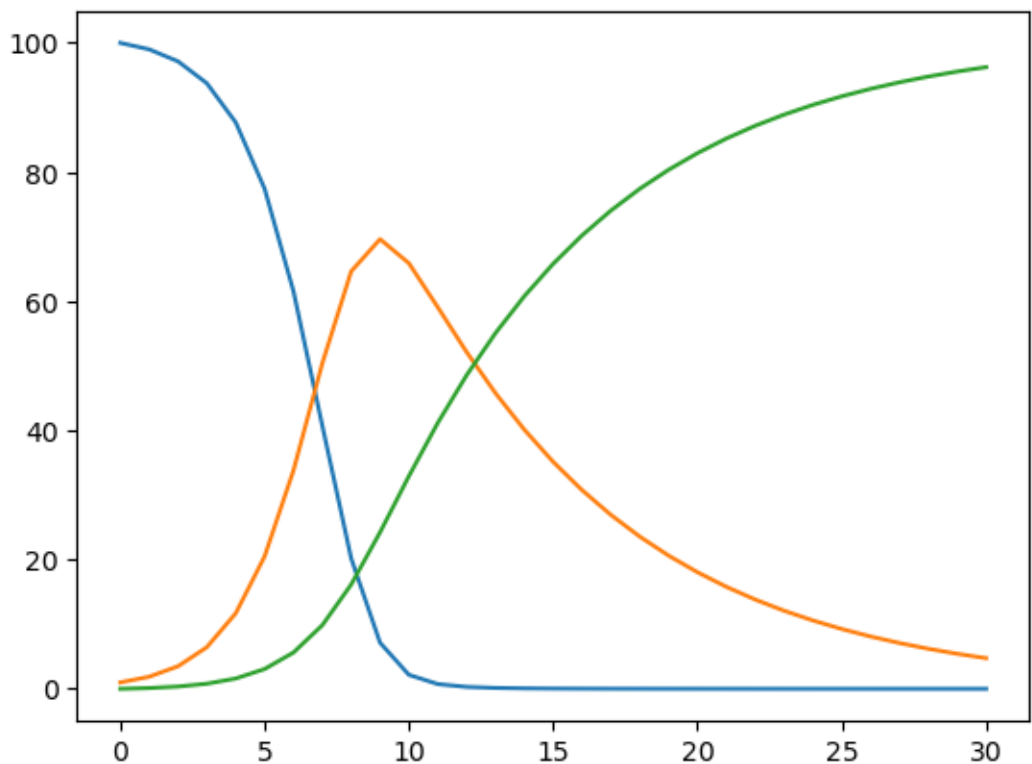
0.3 Problem 3:

Now that we have lists of values for **S**, **I**, and **R**, we can also start to make plots. Copy, paste, and modify the code below to generate plots for **I** and **R**. Are they what you expected to see?

```
[20]: #Tell python that we want to use a plotting function
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

# Generate a list of x-values to go with the y-values we already have
x=list(range(d))
x.append(d)

# Generate the plot for S and display it
plt.plot(x, S) # 30 day prediction, one step per day
plt.plot(x, I)
plt.plot(x, R)
plt.show()
```

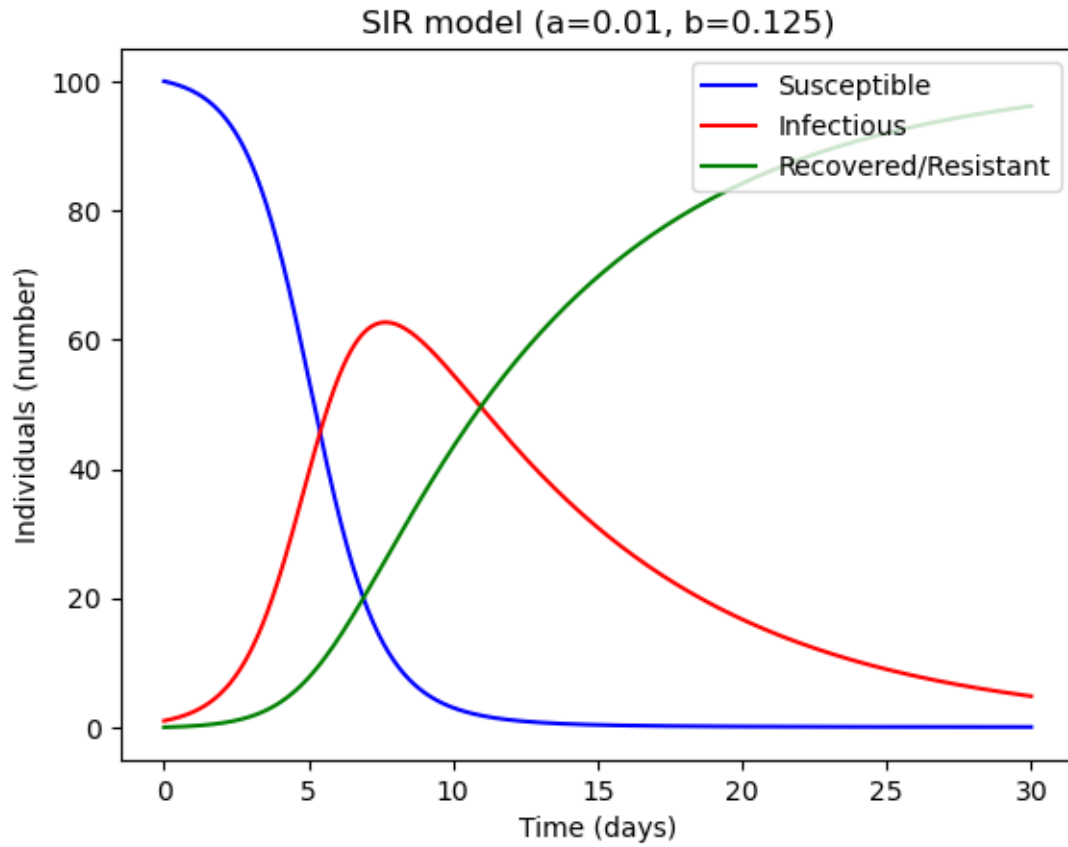


We can collect all of this into a single little program called `sir_model(a, b)`. This program also allows for steps smaller than one day at a time. To take smaller steps, we simply scale **a** and **b**: dividing by **n** gives the values for **n** steps per day. For example, if **b=0.125** per day, then we divide by 2 to get **0.0625** per 12 hours; that's 2 steps per day.

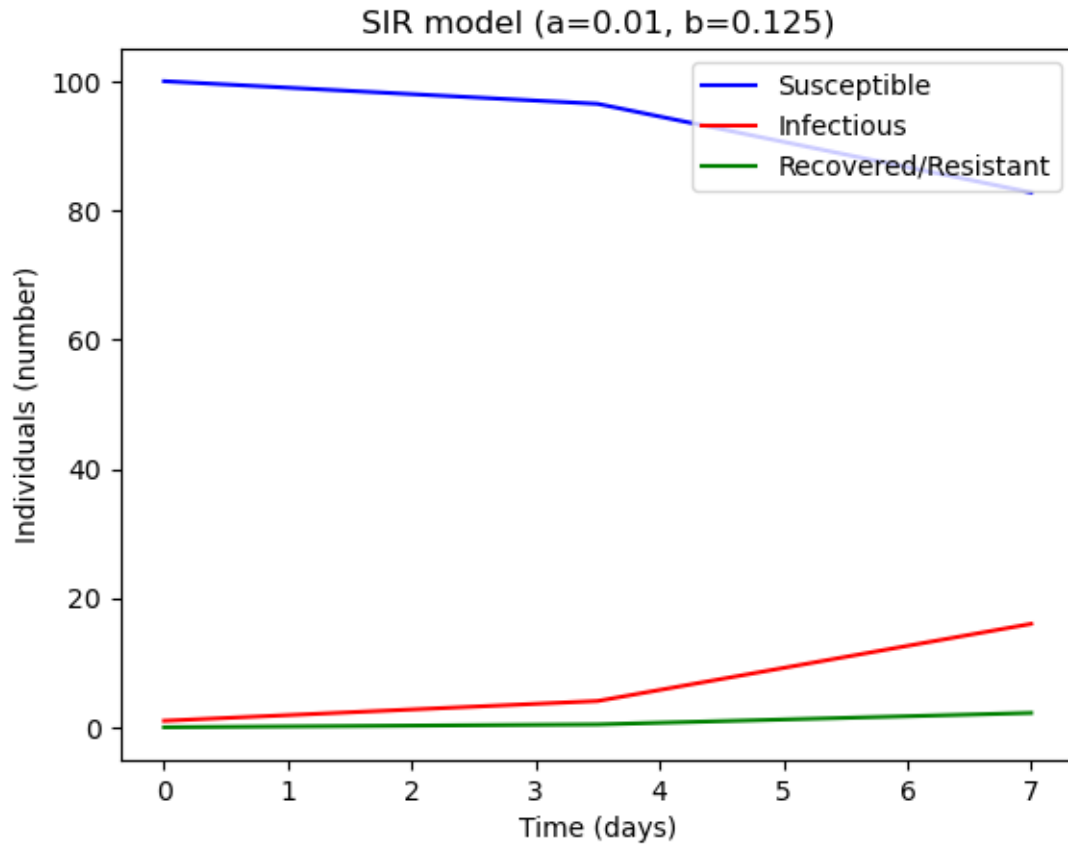
You can read (and change) the code below, if you want. Otherwise, skip to the examples below. Run the code to see what we're getting.

```
[22]: def sir_model(a, b, S0=100, I0=1, R0=0, days=30, n=1000):
    # Input variables a and b are our infection and recovery rate parameters.
    ↪Should be measured using days as the unit of time.
    # Inputs S0, R0, and I0 are the initial values for S, I, and R. Defaults
    ↪are 100, 1, and 0, respectively.
    # Input days is the number of days we want to predict. Default is 7 days
    ↪(one week).
    # Input n is the number of steps to take in making our prediction. Default
    ↪is 1000.
    # In use, a and b will be scaled by multiplication by days/n
    scale=days/n # set our scaling factor
    d=[0] # a list of times measured in days (the x values for our plot)
    s=[S0] # a list of values for S at the times in d (y values for the plot of
    ↪S)
    i=[I0] # a list of values for I at the times in d (y values for the plot of
    ↪I)
    r=[R0] # a list of values for R at the times in d (y values for the plot of
    ↪R)
    for x in range(n): # this loop steps through the days, calculating S(t+1),
    ↪I(t+1), and R(t+1)
        d.append((x+1)*scale)
        s.append(s[x]-(a*scale*s[x]*i[x]))
        i.append(i[x]+a*scale*s[x]*i[x]-b*scale*i[x])
        r.append(r[x]+b*scale*i[x])
    # Now we just need to plot our results
    plt.plot(d,s, color='blue', label='Susceptible')
    plt.plot(d,i, color='red', label='Infectious')
    plt.plot(d,r, color='green', label='Recovered/Resistant')
    plt.xlabel('Time (days)')
    plt.ylabel('Individuals (number)')
    plt.title('SIR model (a='+str(a)+' , b='+str(b)+' )')
    plt.legend(loc='upper right')
    plt.show()
```

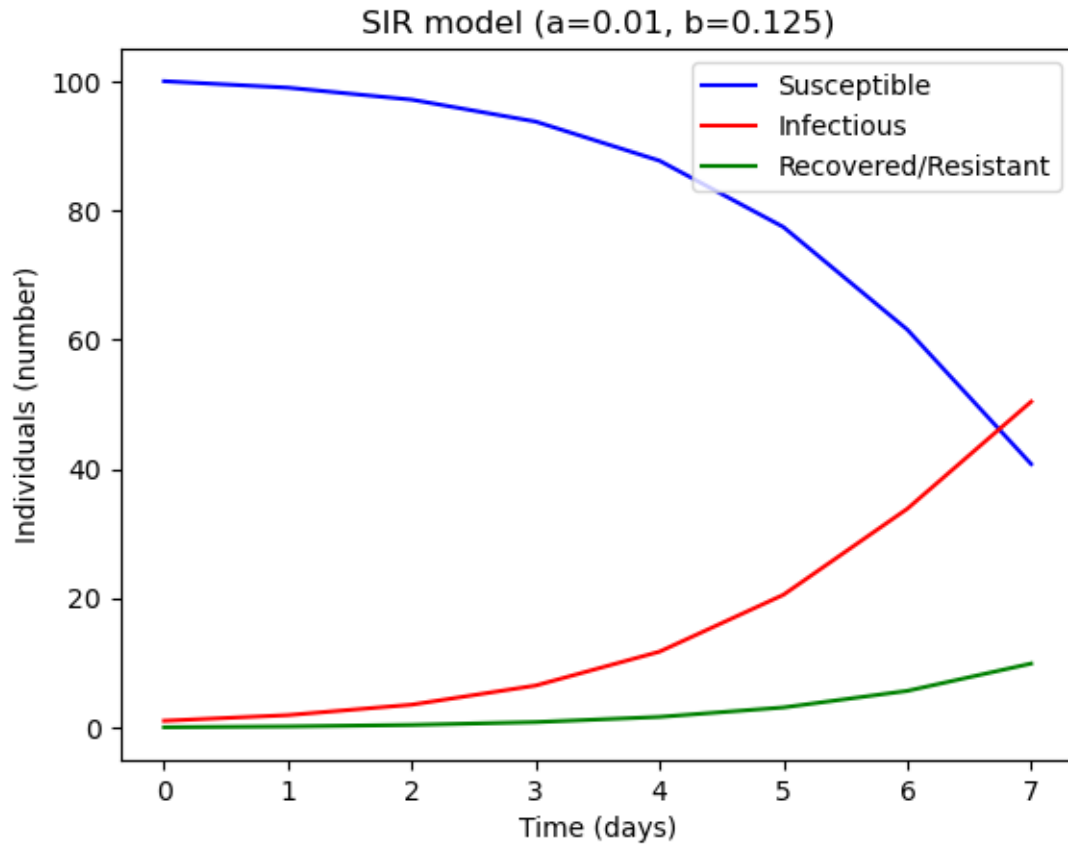
```
[24]: sir_model(0.01, 0.125, 100, 1, 0, 30, 1000) # model a fast-spreading disease
    ↪with 8 day recovery. 1 week projection in 1000 steps.
```



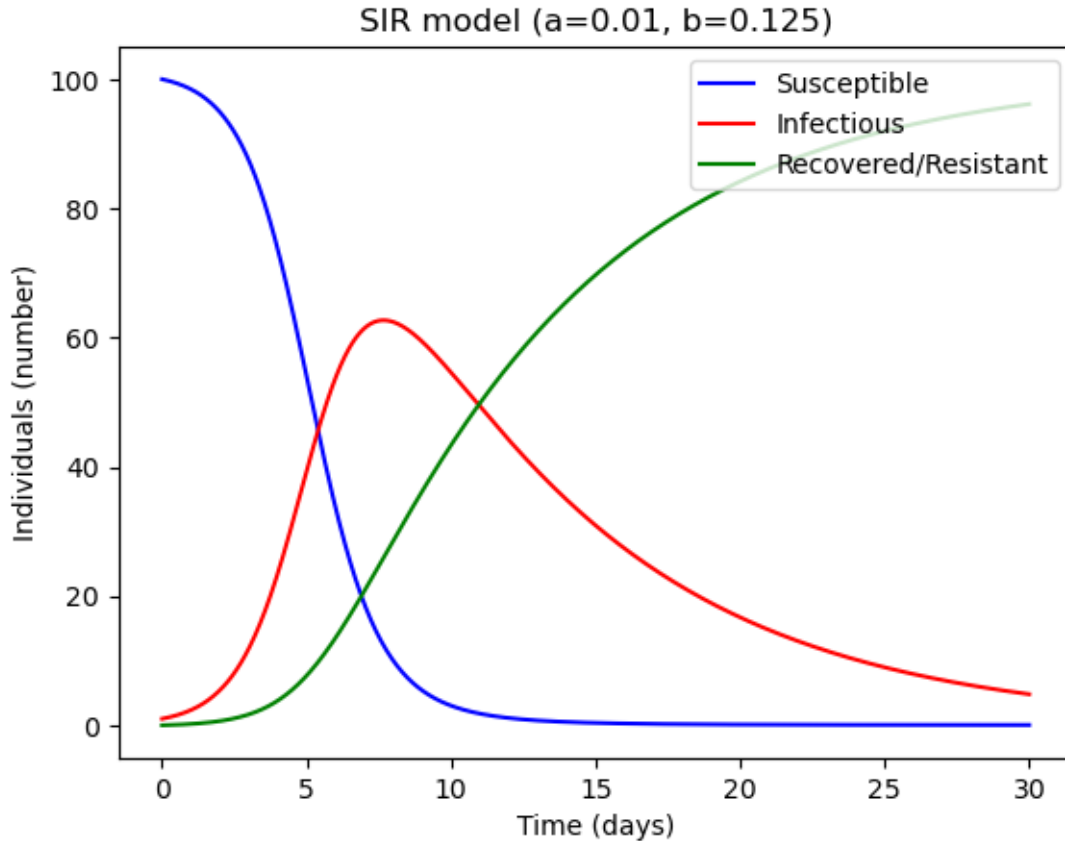
```
[26]: sir_model(0.01, 0.125, 100, 1, 0, 7, 2) # same disease, but projecting 1 week,
      ↪ forward in just 2 steps
```



```
[28]: sir_model(0.01, 0.125, 100, 1, 0, 7, 7) # now 7 steps in a week; one step per day
```



```
[30]: sir_model(0.01, 0.125, 100, 1, 0, 30, 1000) # same disease projected 30 days in  
↳ 1000 steps
```

0.3.1 Problem 4

Try modifying the values of \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} (one at a time, then both) to answer the following. Include things like peak values for \mathbf{I} and a general estimate of how long the disease affects a significant portion of the population. You may also need to adjust the time scale to get good estimates.

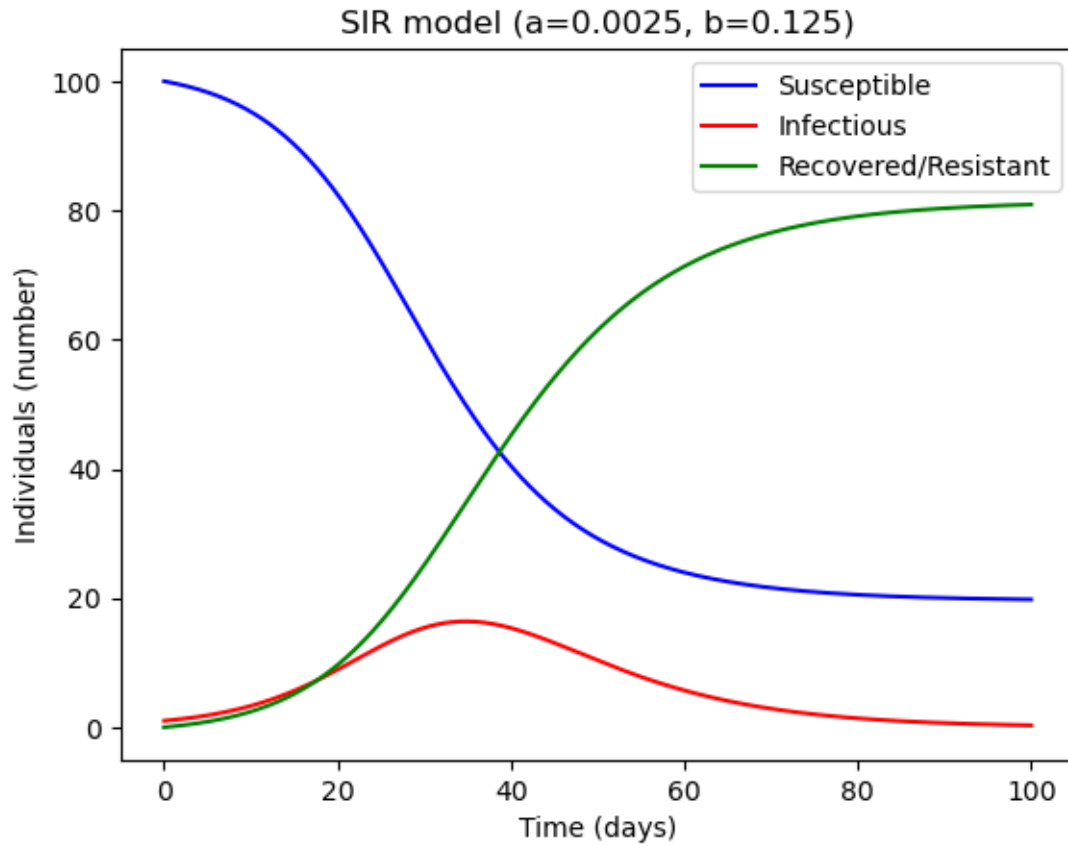
- How does \mathbf{a} affect projections?
- How does \mathbf{b} affect projections?
- Are there values of \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} that keep some people from ever getting sick?
- What kinds of things in the real world affect \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} ?

0.3.2 Answers:

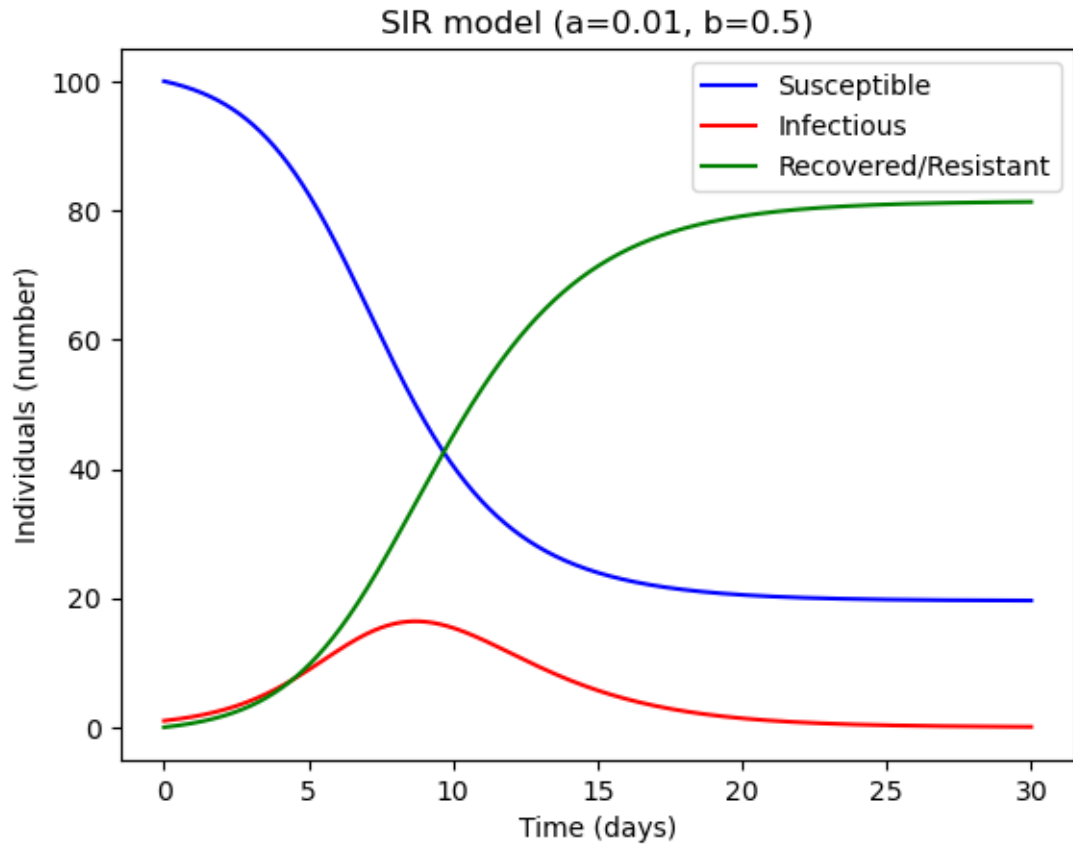
- Increasing a makes I increase faster and reach a higher peak sooner. Decreasing a makes I increase more slowly and lowers the peak, which it reaches later. Eventually the peak happens far enough in the future that I need to change the time scale to see it (the peak is still there, though)
- Increasing b makes the peak of I lower, but doesn't seem to change the timing of the peak. Decreasing b makes the peak higher, again without changing the timing.
- Yes, a low enough a or a high enough b mean some people never get sick. Increasing the threshold b/a above $S(0)$ means the disease never really spreads much.

- Hand washing, masking, social distancing, quarantine, and basic biology of the disease all affect a . Access to care and the biology of the illness are probably the big factors controlling b . Vaccinations may affect both: the COVID vaccines didn't necessarily prevent illness, but they probably made it harder to catch COVID and helped people recover more quickly.

```
[46]: sir_model(0.0025, 0.125, 100, 1, 0, 100, 1000)
```



```
[65]: sir_model(0.01, 0.5, 100, 1, 0, 30, 1000)
```



[]: