# Population and disease models 

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## 3 Branching process approximations.

### 3.1 Whittle's threshold theorem.

Back to the SIR-epidemic, in the case $R_{0}>1$, or $\beta<\alpha$, which should lead to large epidemics. However, this is not certain, because of chance elements. Whittle's stochastic threshold theorem says the following, for an epidemic with $I_{0}$ small and with $N$ large:

If $R_{0}<1$, then the probability of having $N-S(\infty)$ as big as any non-zero fraction of $N$ is very small: if $R_{0}>1$, then $N-S(\infty)$ will be some positive fraction of $N$ with probability close to $(\beta / \alpha)^{I_{0}}$.

More precisely, Whittle noted that, given any $\varepsilon>0$, the process $I(\cdot)$ can be bounded above and below by birth and death processes $X^{u}$ and $X^{l, \varepsilon}$, until the first time that $S<(1-\varepsilon) N$ :

1. above by the process $X^{u}$ with per capita birth rate $\alpha$ and death rate $\beta$;
2. below by the process $X^{l, \varepsilon}$ with smaller birth rate $(1-\varepsilon) \alpha$, but the same death rate $\beta$.
[^0]He then showed that, for either of the birth and death processes, provided that $\alpha(1-\varepsilon)>\beta$, the events of extinction and of becoming extinct with only $\varepsilon N$ individuals ever born differ on a set of probability geometrically small with $N$. Hence, comparing the extinction probabilities of the two birth and death processes, he concluded that
$\left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right)^{I_{0}}+\eta_{N}^{1} \leq \mathbb{P}[$ the epidemic ends with $S(\infty) \geq(1-\varepsilon) N] \leq\left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha(1-\varepsilon)}\right)^{I_{0}}+\eta_{N}^{2}$,
where both $\eta_{N}^{1}$ and $\eta_{N}^{2}$ are geometrically small. This argument can be adapted for $\varepsilon=\varepsilon_{N}$; taking for instance $\varepsilon_{N}=N^{-1 / 2}$ gives

$$
\mathbb{P}[\text { the epidemic is small }] \sim(\beta / \alpha)^{I_{0}}
$$

when $R_{0}>1$. Of course, for $R_{0}<1$, both birth and death processes die out fast with probability geometrically close to 1 .

The time $\tau$ to reach $S=(1-\varepsilon) N$, if this happens, is in distribution larger than

$$
\left(\log (\varepsilon N)-\log W^{u}\right) /(\alpha-\beta)
$$

and smaller than

$$
\left(\log (\varepsilon N)-\log \left(W^{l, \varepsilon}\right)\right) /(\alpha(1-\varepsilon)-\beta)
$$

by the same comparison, where, by the usual martingale convergence argument,

$$
\begin{aligned}
e^{(\beta-\alpha) t} X^{u}(t) & \rightarrow W^{u} \quad \text { a.s. } \\
e^{(\beta-\alpha\{1-\varepsilon\}) t} X^{l, \varepsilon}(t) & \rightarrow W^{l, \varepsilon} \quad \text { a.s. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus the time to reach, say, $S=N-N^{1 / 2}$ is of order $c \log N$ for some $c$; in any fixed time interval $[0, T]$, the change in $S(t)$ is only of order $O(1)$. This explains why the Kurtz theorem is consistent and correct for starting with $I_{0}=O(1)$, but not helpful.

### 3.2 The Ball and Donnelly coupling.

In this approach, the epidemic is not just bounded by birth and death processes, but attached to one of them, path by path; this makes comparison arguments very direct. Start with $X^{u}$ as before, with $X^{u}(0)=I_{0}$. Associate the epidemic process $(\widetilde{S}, \widetilde{I})$ with $X^{u}$ by

1. choosing a label for each newborn individual and for each of the $I_{0}$ initial indviduals uniformly and indpendently from $\{1,2, \ldots, N+1\}$ (excluding the parent's label).
2. marking individuals that are assigned a label that has previously been assigned to an unmarked individual, or that are offspring of a marked individual.
Set

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widetilde{I}(t) & :=\text { number of unmarked individuals alive at } t \\
\widetilde{S}(t) & :=S_{0}-\#\{\text { unmarked individuals born up to time } t\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The process $(\widetilde{S}, \widetilde{I})$ is clearly Markovian; it is easy to check that it is indeed an SIR-epidemic process.
The coupling: if $\tau$ denotes the first occasion on which a label is chosen for the second time, then we have

$$
X^{u}(t)=\widetilde{I}(t) \quad \text { for all } 0 \leq t<\tau:
$$

the infective process is identical to the birth and death process $X^{u}$ up to the random time $\tau$ (and $\widetilde{S}(t)$ decreases by 1 on each occasion when $\widetilde{I}(t)$ increases, so that it is also determined precisely by $X^{u}$ up to the time $\tau$ ).

For some choice of $t_{N}$, define

$$
\Delta_{N}:=d_{T V}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(X^{u}(t), 0 \leq t \leq t_{N}\right), \mathcal{L}\left(\widetilde{I}(t), 0 \leq t \leq t_{N}\right)\right),
$$

and note that, from the coupling above,

$$
\Delta_{N} \leq \mathbb{P}\left[\tau<t_{N}\right] .
$$

When is this probability small?
If $M$ labels are sampled as above, then the probability of having a coincident pair is the solution to a birthday problem, with great Poisson approximation using the Stein-Chen method. In particular,

$$
\mathbb{P}[\text { no coincident pair }] \sim e^{-\frac{1}{N}\binom{M}{2}} .
$$

So $\Delta_{N}$ is small if $M \ll \sqrt{N}$, i.e. as long as

$$
N-\widetilde{S} \ll \sqrt{N}
$$

then the infectives process in the epidemic is indistinguishable from the birth and death process $X^{u}$, with high probability.

### 3.3 The Radon-Nikodym coupling.

For the epidemic process, the probability density of a path having its first $m$ jumps at times

$$
0<t_{1}<t_{2}<\cdots<t_{m},
$$

with sequence of states $\left(S_{1}, I_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(S_{m}, I_{m}\right)$ is

$$
\prod_{i=0}^{m-1}\left\{e^{-I_{i}\left[\alpha s_{i}+\beta\right]\left(t_{i+1}-t_{i}\right)} \frac{\left(\alpha s_{i}\right)^{u_{i}} \beta^{1-u_{i}}}{\alpha s_{i}+\beta}\right\},
$$

where $t_{0}=0, s_{i}=S_{i} / N$ and

$$
u_{i}=\mathbf{1}\left\{I_{i+1}=I_{i}+1\right\} .
$$

For the linear birth and death process $X^{u}$ and the state sequence $\left\{I_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq\right.$ $m\}$, the formula is the same, but with $s_{i}$ replaced by 1 . Hence the likelihood ratio of the two processes at such a path is

$$
r_{m}:=\prod_{i=0}^{m-1}\left(1+z_{i}\right)
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
1+z_{i}=\frac{e^{I_{i}\left(1-s_{i}\right)\left(t_{i+1}-t_{i}\right)} s_{i}^{u_{i}}}{1-\frac{\alpha\left(1-s_{i}\right)}{\alpha+\beta}} . \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that

$$
\left(I_{0}-1\right) / N \leq 1-s_{i} \leq\left(I_{0}-1+i\right) / N \text { for all } i,
$$

and that, under the birth and death probability measure,

$$
I_{i}(\alpha+\beta)\left(t_{i+1}-t_{i}\right)
$$

is a realization of a random variable $E_{i} \sim \exp (1)$, and that the $E_{i}$ are all independent: thus, 'typically',

$$
z_{i}=O\left(\left(I_{0}+i\right) / N\right)
$$

is small.

So consider sampling paths from the process $X^{u}$ of length $m$; the quantity $r_{m}$ is then a realization of a likelihood ratio martingale $R_{m}$, the corresponding random variables $Z_{i}$ have zero mean, and have variance

$$
\operatorname{Var} Z_{i} \leq c(\alpha, \beta)\left(1-s_{i}\right)^{2} \leq c^{\prime}(\alpha, \beta)\left(i+I_{0}\right)^{2} / N^{2} .
$$

Hence

$$
\mathbb{P}\left[\sup _{0 \leq m \leq M}\left|R_{m}-1\right| \geq \varepsilon\right] \leq \frac{(1+\varepsilon)^{2} c^{\prime}(\alpha, \beta)}{N^{2} \varepsilon^{2}} \sum_{i=0}^{M}\left(i+I_{0}\right)^{2}=O\left(\frac{\left(M+I_{0}\right)^{3}}{\varepsilon^{2} N^{2}}\right) .
$$

Thus, for $M+I_{0} \ll N^{2 / 3}$, we can choose $\varepsilon \ll 1$ to make this probability small, and hence $\Delta_{N}$ also: the epidemic and birth and death processes can be coupled so as to be indistinguishable for $N-\widetilde{S} \ll N^{2 / 3}$, with high probability.


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