Practical course using the \mathbf{Q} software

Disease outbreak analysis using \square

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Abstract

This tutorial introduces different tools, from exploratory approaches to modelbased methods, for the analysis of pathogen genome data collected during disease outbreaks, using the \mathbb{R} software [5]. We illustrate how different approaches including phylogenetics, genetic clustering, SeqTrack [3] and *outbreaker* [2] can be used to uncover the features of a disease outbreak, and possibly help designing containment strategies. This tutorial uses the packages *ape* [4] for phylogenetic analyses, *adegenet* [1] for genetic clustering and quick transmission tree reconstruction (SeqTrackalgorithm), and *outbreaker* [2] for advanced reconstruction of epidemics. While the data and analysed outbreak are purely fictional, the methodology presented here will be useful for a range of actual disease outbreaks.

Contents

1	Introduction	3						
	1.1 An emerging pathogen outbreak	3						
	1.2 Your objective	3						
2	First look at the data	4						
3	Phylogenetic analysis	7						
4	4 Identifying clusters of cases							
5	5 Analysis using SeqTrack							
6	Detailed outbreak reconstruction using <i>outbreaker</i>	12						
	6.1 <i>outbreaker</i> analysis	12						
	6.2 Inference from the reconstructed ancestries	23						
7	Update from detailed case investigations	31						

1 Introduction

1.1 An emerging pathogen outbreak

A new virus has just emerged in the small city of Arkham, Massachusetts (USA), causing an outbreak of a very peculiar and unique disease. The most common symptoms include dementia and to varying extent fever, resulting in frequently attempted cannibalism and subsequent isolation of the patients (Figure 1).



Figure 1: Example of a "mild" case.

Unfortunately, in a smaller number of more concerning cases the patients were seen to grow fangs, claws, and various numbers of tentacles and pseudopods, and were subsequently shot by the police forces (Figure 2). Authorities refer to the two types of cases as "mild" and "severe", respectively.



Figure 2: Example of a "severe" case.

1.2 Your objective

An expert in the analysis of disease outbreaks, you have been mandated for the analysis of the first collected data. So far, the mode of transmission of the disease is not obvious, but the pathogen has been identified as a virus, and its genome sequenced. Your task is to exploit this information to cast some light on who infected whom.

2 First look at the data

We first load the R packages used for the analysis of the data: *ape* (for phylogenetics), *adegenet* (for genetic clustering and *SeqTrack*), and *outbreaker* (for detailed outbreak reconstruction).

```
> library(ape)
> library(adegenet)
> library(outbreaker)
```

The data consist of two files: the file cases.csv containing descriptions of the first 30 cases sampled so far, and a DNA alignment in fasta format (alignment.fa) containing one viral genome sequence for each case. We read these data directly from the server where they are available, starting with cases descriptions:

```
> cases <- read.csv("http://adegenet.r-forge.r-project.org/files/fakeOutbreak/cases.csv")
> cases
```

	id	collec.dates	SAY	ວດອ	neak fever	outcome	notes
1	1	2013-02-18	m	30	37.5	mild	10005
	2	2013-02-20	f	40	38.5	mild	
2 3 4	3	2013-02-21	f	32	38.0	mild	
4	4	2013-02-21	m	35	38.5	mild	
5	5	2013-02-22	f	3	39.5	mild	
5 6 7	6	2013-02-24	f	34	39.0	mild	
7	7	2013-02-23	m	61	40.0	severe	
8	8	2013-02-24	f	68	39.5	severe	
9	9	2013-02-24	m	35	39.5	mild	
10	10	2013-02-24	f	34	39.5	mild	
11	11	2013-02-26	m	26	39.0	mild	
	12	2013-02-25	f	69	37.5	severe	
	13	2013-02-25	m	19	40.5	mild	
	14	2013-02-25	f	66	37.5	mild	
	15	2013-02-25	f	3	37.0	mild	
	16	2013-02-26	m	19	37.0	mild	
17		2013-02-26	m	35	38.5	mild	
18		2013-02-27	m	37	37.0	mild	
	19	2013-02-26	m	11	37.5	mild	
	20	2013-02-28	m	35	37.5	mild	
21		2013-02-27	m	49	37.0	mild	
	22	2013-02-28	m	35	37.0	mild	
	23	2013-02-26	m	34	37.0	mild	
	24	2013-02-27	m	59	37.5	severe	
	25	2013-02-26	f	47	37.0	mild	
	26	2013-02-26	f	34	37.0	mild	
27	27	2013-02-28	f	26	37.5	mild	
28		2013-02-27	f f	16	37.0		possible-contamination
29	29	2013-03-01		15	41.0	mild	
30	30	2013-03-01	m	40	37.0	mild	

The data contain the following fields: id is the identifier of the cases, collec.dates are collection dates (in format *yyyy-mm-dd*), the gender (sex) and age (age) of the patients, the highest temperature of the case (peak.fever), and the outcome of the case (outcome). The additional field notes has been used for notes on the samples, and indicates that sample 28 might have experienced DNA contamination (possible mixture of different samples).

As operations on the collection dates will be useful, we convert the dates (originally as character strings) into Date objects; we also create a new object days, which gives collection times in number of days after the first sample (which has been sampled, by definition, on day 0):

```
> dates <- as.Date(cases$collec.dates)
> head(dates)
[1] "2013-02-18" "2013-02-20" "2013-02-21" "2013-02-21" "2013-02-22"
[6] "2013-02-24"
> range(dates)
```

```
[1] "2013-02-18" "2013-03-01"
> days <- as.integer(difftime(dates, min(dates), unit="days"))
> days
[1] 0 2 3 3 4 6 5 6 6 6 8 7 7 7 7 8 8 9 8 10 9 10 8 9 8
[26] 8 10 9 11 11
DNA sequences for the 30 cases are read from the server using fasta2DNAbin:
```

```
> dna <- fasta2DNAbin("http://adegenet.r-forge.r-project.org/files/fakeOutbreak/alignment.fa")</pre>
```

```
Converting FASTA alignment into a DNAbin object...
```

Finding the size of a single genome...

genome size is: 10,000 nucleotides

(168 lines per genome)

```
Importing sequences...
Forming final object...
```

...done.

```
> dna
```

```
30 DNA sequences in binary format stored in a matrix.
```

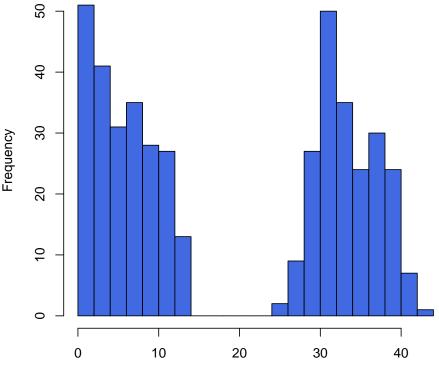
All sequences of same length: 10000

Labels: 1 2 3 4 5 6 ...

Base composition: a c g t 0.251 0.242 0.251 0.256

To have an idea of the existing diversity in these sequences, we compute the simple pair-wise Hamming distances and plot their distribution:

```
> D <- dist.dna(dna, model="N")
> hist(D, col="royalblue", nclass=30,
+ main="Distribution of pairwise genetic distances",
+ xlab="Number of differing nucleotides")
```



Distribution of pairwise genetic distances

Number of differing nucleotides

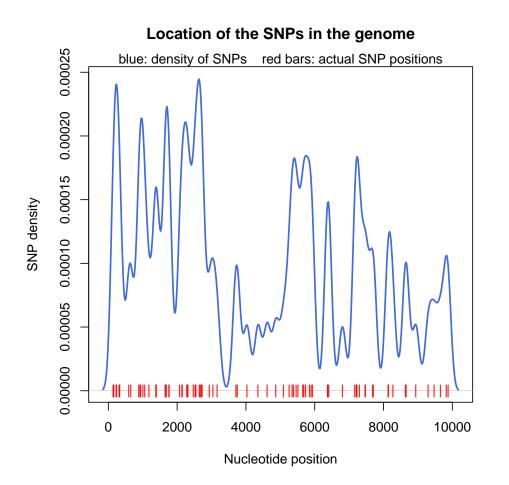
For such a small temporal scale and genome, the amount of diversity is considerable. The fact that the distribution is clearly bimodal suggests the existence of at least two clades (and possibly more).

It may be interesting to see if this remarkable polymorphism is distributed randomly across the genome. We can extract SNP positions very simply from the DNA sequences using seg.sites:

```
> snps <- seg.sites(dna)
> head(snps)
[1] 142 161 226 236 313 331
> length(snps)
```

[1] 79

There are 79 polymorphic sites in the sample. We can visualize their position, and try to detect hotspots of polymorphism by computing the density of SNPs as we move along the genome:



Here, the polymorphism seems to be distributed fairly randomly.

3 Phylogenetic analysis

The genetic relationships between a set of taxa are typically inferred using phylogenetic trees. Here, we reconstruct a phylogeny using the usual Neighbour-Joining algorithm on pairwise genetic distances. As the mere number of differing nucleotides may be too crude a measure of genetic differentiation, we use Tamura and Nei's distance, which handles different rates for transitions and transversions (see ?dist.dna for other available distances):

```
> D.tn93 <- dist.dna(dna, model="TN93")</pre>
```

The package *ape* makes the construction of phylogenies from distances matrices easy; in the following, we create a Neighbour-Joining tree (nj) based on our new distance matrix (D.tn93), we root this tree to the first sample (root), and ladderize it to make it prettier (ladderize):

> tre <- root(tre,1) > tre <- ladderize(tre)</pre>

We also rename the tips of the tree (tre\$tip.label) to include the collection dates after the case indices:

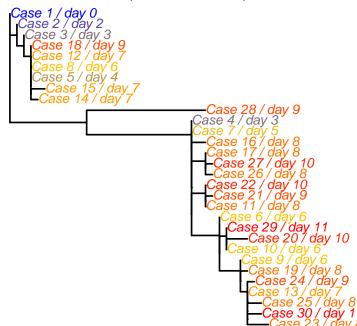
> tre\$tip.label <- paste("Case ",1:30, " / day ", days, sep="")</pre>

Finally, we plot the resulting tree, using colors to represent collection dates (blue: ancient; red: recent):

```
> plot(tre,edge.width=2, tip.col=num2col(days, col.pal=seasun))
> title("Neighbour-Joining tree (TN93 distances)")
> mtext(side=3, text="(rooted to first case)")
```

Neighbour–Joining tree (TN93 distances)

(rooted to first case)



How many clades are there? Is this tree clock-like? Is rooting to the first sample appropriate? What other graphical representation would you recommend?

4 Identifying clusters of cases

Identifying clusters of cases from a phylogeny is not always straightforward. Adegenet implements a simple clustering approach based on the number of mutations separating sequences, classifying them in the same cluster if their distance is less than a given threshold. This function is called **gengraph**, and can be used with an interactive mode (by default), using:

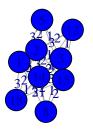
> clust <- gengraph(D)</pre>

(legend: sequences are the nodes of the graphs; edges link sequences from the same cluster; numbers on the edges indicate numbers of mutations)

Try a few values; you should see that 3 groups are obtained for anything between 15 and 25 mutations, with the result looking like this: > clust

> plot(clust\$g, main="Clusters obtained by gengraph")

Clusters obtained by gengraph





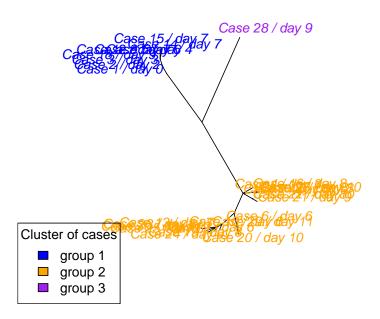
This confirms what the phylogeny suggested: there are two distinct clades, and one outlier (case 28), which is very likely an indication that this sample was indeed contaminated — as a reminder:

```
> cases[28,]
id collec.dates sex age peak.fever outcome notes
28 28 2013-02-27 f 16 37 mild possible-contamination
We can verify the congruence of the groups and the phylogeny easily:
```

```
> plot(tre, tip.color=clust$col[clust$clust$membership], type="unrooted")
> title("Neighbour-Joining tree (TN93 distances)")
> mtext(side=3, text="(unrooted tree)")
> legend("bottomleft", fill=clust$col, legend=paste("group",1:3), title="Cluster of cases")
```

Neighbour–Joining tree (TN93 distances)

(unrooted tree)



5 Analysis using SeqTrack

The phylogenetic tree gives us an idea of the possible chains of transmissions, but overlooks the collection dates. The *SeqTrack* algorithm has been designed to fill this gap. It aims to reconstruct ancestries between the sampled sequences based on their genetic distances and collection dates, so that the obtained tree has maximum parsimony. It is implemented in *adegenet* by the function seqTrack (see ?seqTrack). Here, we use *SeqTrack* on the matrix of pairwise distances (distmat), indicating the labels of the cases (x.names=cases\$id) and the collection dates (x.dates=dates):

```
> distmat <- as.matrix(D)
> sqtk.res <- seqTrack(distmat, x.names=cases$id, x.dates=dates)
> class(sqtk.res)
```

[1]	" 5	seqTra	ck" "o	lata.frame"	
> s	qtl	.res			
$\begin{array}{c}1\\2\\3\\4\\5\\6\\7\\8\\9\\10\\1\\1\\2\\3\\4\\1\\5\\16\\7\\8\\9\\21\\2\\2\\3\\2\\4\\2\\5\\2\\2\\2\\3\\0\end{array}$		ances NA 1 2 1 3 4 4 5 4 4 5 9 5 5 5 4 4 5 9 5 5 5 4 4 5 9 5 5 5 4 4 5 9 5 5 5 4 4 1 2 1 3 4 4 5 9 5 5 5 5 4 4 10 2 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	2 0 1 1 2	2013-02-22 2013-02-24 2013-02-24 2013-02-24 2013-02-24 2013-02-26 2013-02-25 2013-02-25 2013-02-25 2013-02-25 2013-02-26 2013-02-26 2013-02-26 2013-02-27 2013-02-28 2013-02-27 2013-02-28 2013-02-26 2013-02-26 2013-02-26 2013-02-28	ances.date <na> 2013-02-18 2013-02-20 2013-02-21 2013-02-21 2013-02-21 2013-02-21 2013-02-21 2013-02-21 2013-02-21 2013-02-22 2013-02-22 2013-02-22 2013-02-22 2013-02-24 2013-02-22 2013-02-24 2013-02-26 2013-02-25 2013-02-25 2013-02-25 2013-02-21 2013-02-24 2013-02-24 2013-02-24 2013-02-24 2013-02-25</na>

The result sqtk.res is a data.frame with the special class seqTrack, containing the following information:

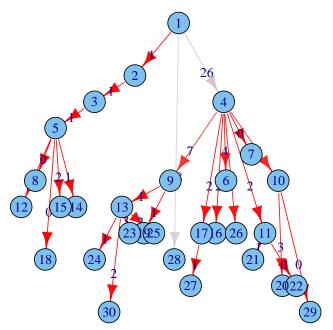
- \star sqtk.res\$id: the indices of the cases.
- \star sqtk.resances: the indices of the putative ancestors of the cases.
- * sqtk.res\$weight: the number of mutations for each putative ancestry.
- ***** sqtk.res\$date: the collection dates of the cases.
- ***** sqtk.res\$ances.date: the collection dates of the putative ancestors.

seqTrack objects can be plotted simply using:

> g <- plot(sqtk.res, main="SeqTrack reconstruction of the outbreak")
> mtext(side=3, text="red: no/few mutations; grey: many mutations")

SeqTrack reconstruction of the outbreak

red: no/few mutations; grey: many mutations



> g

```
IGRAPH DNW- 30 29 --
+ attr: name (v/c), dates (v/n), weight (e/n), label (e/n), color (e/c)
```

Each sequence/case is a node of the graph, and arrows model putative ancestries/transmissions. The number of mutations between ancestors and descendents are indicated by the color of the arrows (red = no/few mutations; light grey= many mutations) and the numbers in blue. Time is represented on the y axis (up: ancient; down: recent). Note that the function plot invisibly returns a graph object which can be used for further visualization. In particular, tkplot offers a basic interface for interactive graphics which you can try using:

> tkplot(g)

One of the (several) limitations of SeqTrack is made quite obvious here: all sequences are forced to coalesce to the initial one, while there are some clearly distinct clusters indicative of two separate introductions (cases 1 and 4).

$\begin{tabular}{ll} 6 & Detailed outbreak reconstruction using $out-breaker$ \\ breaker \end{tabular}$

6.1 *outbreaker* analysis

The SeqTrack algorithm provides a single, parsimonious reconstruction of the disease transmission tree, based on the pathogen sequences and the temporal ordering

of their collection dates. While useful, it still represents a very incomplete reconstruction of the outbreak: it assumes a single introduction of the disease, does not take the time interval between cases into account, does not estimate dates of infections, overlooks alternative yet likely transmissions, and does not provide statistical support for individual ancestries. *outbreaker* [2] has been developed to address these issues.

This method exploits information on pathogen genomes, collection dates and (possibly vague) information about the generation time (time interval between primary and secondary cases) to reconstruct the outbreak, including likely dates of infections and ancestries. In the present case, we do not possess external sources of information about the generation time distribution, but a fairly uninformative distribution can be constructed. Here, we want this distribution to meet two properties:

- \star not exclude *a priori* any transmission in the outbreak; in other words, the probability of the longest possible time interval must be non-zero.
- \star be monotonically decreasing, i.e. longer time intervals between transmissions are given smaller probabilities; this will force shorter transmission chains, which is consistent with the very short time intervals observed between the first cases of the outbreak.

Given the short time span of the outbreak:

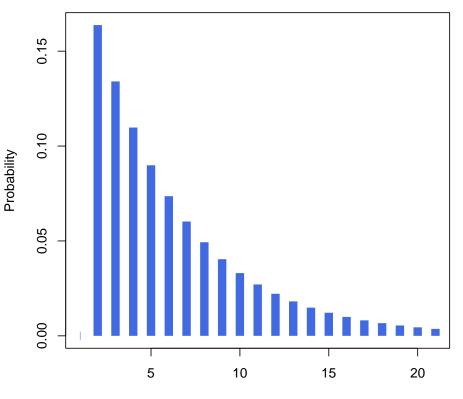
```
> range(days)
```

[1] 0 11

> head(days)

[1] 0 2 3 3 4 6

we use an exponential distribution to model the generation time distribution:



Generation time distribution

```
Days after infection
```

We now run **outbreaker**, providing as input the DNA sequences, their collection dates (in days since the first sample), and generation time distribution; as we are confident that every cases have been observed, we fix the number of generations between consecutive cases to be one (move.kappa=FALSE and init.kappa fixed to 1); finally, we use a star-like tree to initialize the MCMC:

```
> obkr.res <- outbreaker(dna=dna, dates=days, w.dens=w,
+ move.kappa=FALSE, init.kappa=rep(1,30), init.tree="star")
```

```
> class(obkr.res)
```

```
[1] "list"
```

```
> names(obkr.res)
```

<pre>[1] "chains"</pre>	"collec.dates"	"w"	"f"
[5] "D"	"idx.dna"	"tune.end"	"find.import"
[9] "burnin"	"find.import.at"	"n.runs"	"call"

The object obkr.res is a list with a number of named items, described in ?outbreaker. The most important one is obkr.res\$chains, containing the MCMC outputs:

```
> class(obkr.res$chains)
```

```
[1] "data.frame"
```

```
> dim(obkr.res$chains)
```

[1] 201 99

> names(obkr.res\$chains)

> obkr.res\$chains[1:10,1:10]

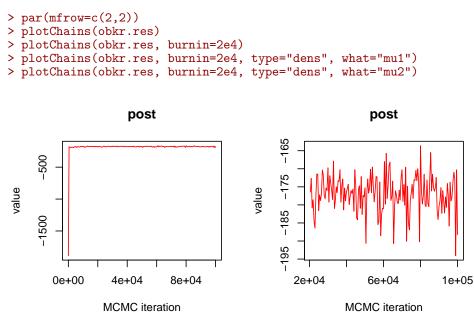
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	500 1000 1500 2000 2500 3000 3500 4000	-187 -192 -186 -188 -187 -193 -181	.7824 .8066 .9006 .2000 .1996 .2994 .8729 .6145	-181.6428 -188.2122 -193.3492 -186.7201 -189.0329 -188.2209 -194.5370 -182.2536	$\begin{array}{c} 0.8604325\\ 0.4055156\\ 0.4485830\\ 0.5200072\\ 0.8333027\\ 0.9214907\\ 0.6641120\\ 0.6391482 \end{array}$	5.015320e-05 5.006900e-05 4.985273e-05 4.932467e-05 4.971446e-05 4.990173e-05 4.969108e-05 5.224465e-05	mu2 5.000000e-05 2.068721e-05 8.663932e-06 1.608505e-05 3.004623e-05 2.003563e-05 2.305008e-05 1.789834e-05 2.208487e-05	0.4124804 0.1730399 0.3226513 0.6091523 0.4030141 0.4619093 0.3601922 0.4227201
10	4500		.5227	-182.9857	0.4630125	5.55/0/3e-05	1.028319e-05	0.1850469
1	0.977		Tinf_1 -1	Tinf_2				
2	0.994		-3	1				
3	0.990		-11	-4				
4	0.957		-7	-4				
5	0.954	3718	-8	-2				
6	0.992	2438	-9	-8				
7	0.999		-3	-1				
8	0.976		-5	-4				
9 10	0.970		-2 -6	0 -2				
10	0.991	0120	-0	-2				

The columns of this data.frame store the following outputs:

- $\star\,$ step: the MCMC iteration of the sample
- * post/like/prior: log values for posterior, likelihood, and prior densities
- \star mu1: rate of transitions, per site and generation
- \star mu2: rate of transversions, per site and generation
- * gamma: the ratio between transversions and transitions (μ_2/μ_1)
- \star pi: the proportion of the transmission tree sampled
- \star Tinf_[number]: dates of infection
- * alpha_[number]: the index of the ancestral cases (infectors)
- ★ kappa_[number]: the number of generations between cases and their most recent sampled ancestor (here, fixed to 1)
- \star run: for parallel runs, the index of the run.

Convergence of the chain and distributions of parameters can be visualized using plotChains (see ?plotChains for details):

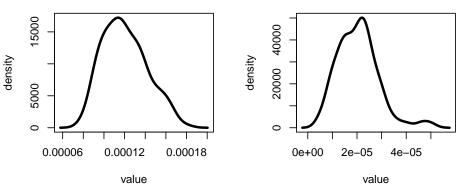
Imperial College London



MCMC iteration

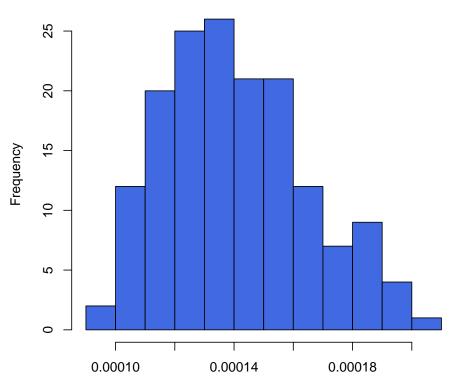






One can easily derive statistics from posterior samples to get e.g. credibility intervals. For instance, the overall mutation rate (sum of the two rates) is obtained, after discarding a burnin of 20,000 iterations, by:

```
> mu <- (obkr.res$chains$mu1+obkr.res$chains$mu2)[obkr.res$chains$step>2e4]
> hist(mu, col="royalblue", main="Posterior distribution of the mutation rate",
+ xlab="Mutations per site and generation")
```



Posterior distribution of the mutation rate

Mutations per site and generation

Its mean and 95% credibility interval are: > mean(mu)

```
[1] 0.0001407029
```

```
> quantile(mu, c(0.025, 0.975))
```

```
2.5% 97.5%
0.0001018515 0.0001907035
```

which is, in number of mutations per genome and per transmission event: > mean(mu*ncol(dna))

```
[1] 1.407029
```

```
> quantile(mu*ncol(dna), c(0.025, 0.975))
```

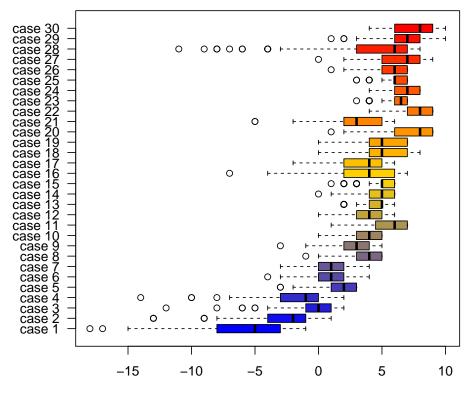
2.5% 97.5% 1.018515 1.907035

Likely dates of infection are probably better visualized as boxplots:

```
> Tinf <- obkr.res$chains[obkr.res$chains$step>2e4,grep("Tinf",names(obkr.res$chains))]
> boxplot(Tinf, horizontal=TRUE, col=seasun(30),las=1,
          xlab="posterior date of infection (in days after 1st sample)",
+
+
```

```
names=paste("case",1:30), main="Estimated dates of infection")
```





posterior date of infection (in days after 1st sample)

The overall dynamics corresponding to these dates of infection can be summarized as incidence curves:

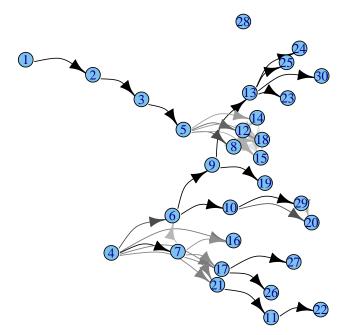
10 0 00 ω 0 0 ဖ 0 0 Incidence 0 o 4 0 0 00 2 00 o 00000000000 00 0 o C -18 -15 -12 -9 -6 -3 2 4 6 8 10 0 Time

Inferred incidence

incid is a matrix containing one time series of incidence for each posterior tree. The displayed boxplot summarizes the entire posterior distribution. When did the outbreak take off? Can we trust the decrease at the end of the time series?

The posterior ancestries (columns "alpha" in res\$chains) define a graph of possible ancestries, which can be extracted and plotted using transGraph; here, we remove annotations from the edges (annot="") and retain only ancestries with a frequency $\geq 5\%$ (thres=.05):

```
> g2 <- transGraph(obkr.res, vertex.size=10, annot="", thres=.05)
> g2
IGRAPH DN-- 30 44 --
+ attr: name (v/c), dates (v/n), label (v/n), color (e/c), support
    (e/n), curved (e/x), nb.mut (e/n), label (e/c)
```



Darker arrows correspond to well-supported ancestries, while lighter ones are more ambiguous. The object g2 is an igraph, which can be visualized interactively like before using tkplot:

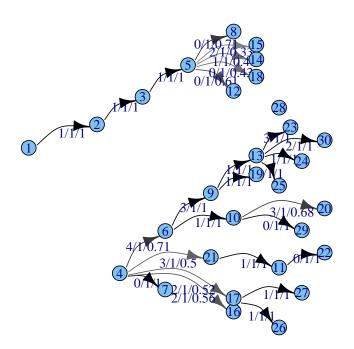
> tkplot(g2)

For some purposes, one may wish to retain only the best supported ancestries of each case. This can be achieved by get.tTree:

```
> obkr.tre <- get.tTree(obkr.res)
> class(obkr.tre)
```

```
[1] "tTree"
```

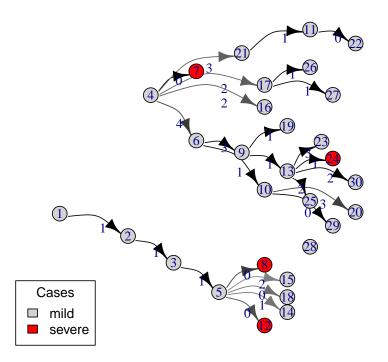
> plot(obkr.tre, vertex.size=10, edge.curved=TRUE)



By default, the annotations of the edges indicate *number of mutations/number of generations/posterior support*. See **?get.tTree** for a detail of the content of **obkr.tre**. Note that these objects can also be converted to **igraph** objects using **as.igraph**, and implicitly using the **plot** method. The latter also allows for representing additional information, such as features of the cases using colors. For instance, we can represent the consensus ancestries with the outcome of the different cases:

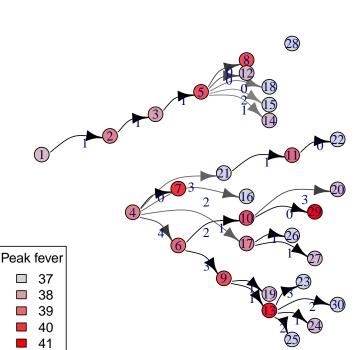
```
> plot(obkr.tre, vertex.size=10, annot="dist",
+ vertex.color=fac2col(cases$outcome, col.pal=redpal),
+ edge.curved=TRUE)
> title("Outbreaker - consensus ancestries")
> legend("bottomleft", fill=redpal(2), legend=unique(cases$outcome),
+ title="Cases")
```

Outbreaker – consensus ancestries



Similarly, we can represent the peak temperature of the patients:

```
> plot(obkr.tre, vertex.size=10, annot="dist",
+ vertex.color=num2col(cases$peak.fever, col.pal=redpal),
+ edge.curved=TRUE)
> title("Outbreaker - consensus ancestries")
> leg.val <- 37:41
> leg.col <- num2col(leg.val, col.pal=redpal, x.min=min(cases$peak.fever),
+ x.max=max(cases$peak.fever))
> legend("bottomleft", fill=leg.col, legend=leg.val, title="Peak fever")
```



Outbreaker – consensus ancestries

While trends may be suggested from such plot, a more quantitative assessment of potential determinants of infectiousness is needed before drawing conclusions.

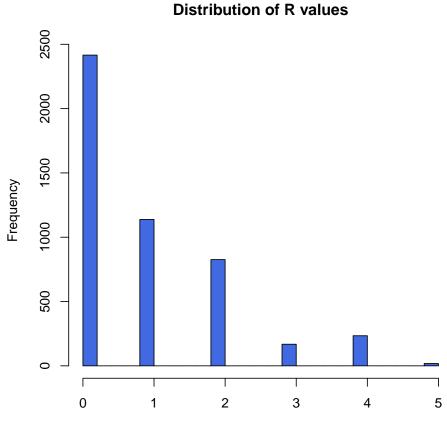
6.2 Inference from the reconstructed ancestries

One of the first concerns once we inferred a transmission tree is the identification of key individuals for the spread of the epidemic. This can be assessed by computing the number of secondary cases per infected individual, that is, the individual effective reproduction numbers (R_i) . The posterior distribution of these values can be obtained using get.R:

```
> Rmat <- get.R(obkr.res,burnin=2e4)
> class(Rmat)
[1] "matrix"
> ncol(Rmat)
[1] 30
```

Rmat is a matrix of posterior values of R_i for each of the 30 cases (in column). The distribution of R_i is obtained by:

```
> hist(Rmat, col="royalblue", nclass=20, main="Distribution of R values",
+ xlab="Number of secondary cases")
```



Number of secondary cases

Shall we be looking for individuals driving the epidemic?

```
The average R_i over all chains is computed using:

> Rindiv <- apply(Rmat, 2, mean)

> Rindiv

1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7 \quad 8 \quad 9 \quad 10

1.00000 1.00000 1.00000 3.29375 2.48125 2.00000 1.70625 1.13125 2.00000 1.68125

11 \quad 12 \quad 13 \quad 14 \quad 15 \quad 16 \quad 17 \quad 18 \quad 19 \quad 20

1.00000 0.85000 4.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 2.00000 0.53750 0.00000 0.00000

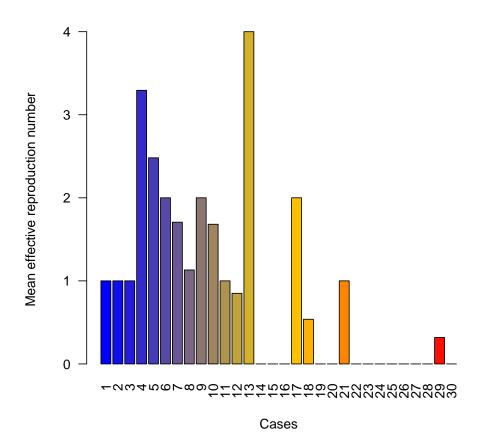
21 \quad 22 \quad 23 \quad 24 \quad 25 \quad 26 \quad 27 \quad 28 \quad 29 \quad 30

1.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.31875 0.00000

> barplot(Rindiv, col=seasun(30),las=2, xlab="Cases",
```

```
ylab="Mean effective reproduction number")
```

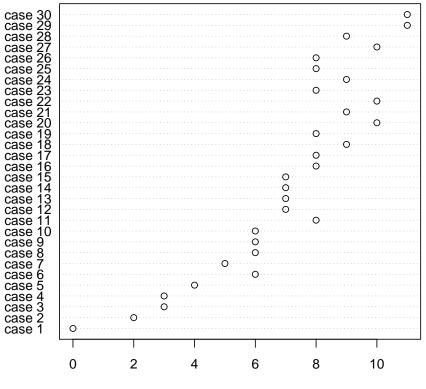
24



Now that we have this proxy for the "infectiousness" of individuals, we can try to correlate it to other factors such as age, sex, or other measured covariates. Note that we only have a snapshot of an ongoing epidemic, so we probably have not measured the infectiousness of the last infected individuals. Let us first have another look at the distribution of the collection dates:

```
> dotchart(days,labels=paste("case", 1:30),
+ xlab="Days since first sample",
+ main="Distribution of the collection dates")
```

Distribution of the collection dates



Days since first sample

There is no obvious way of defining a threshold date, but keeping all cases until day 8 (included) seems to exclude most recent cases while conserving a fair portion of the sample.

> toKeep <- days<9</pre>

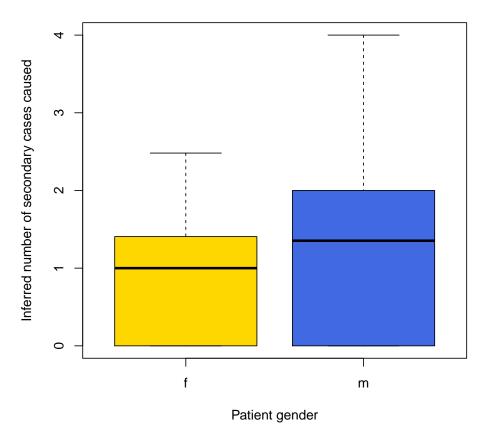
We can now examine and test possible relationships between R_i (object Rindiv) and covariates in cases. For a reminder:

```
> head(cases)
```

	id	collec.dates	sex	age	peak.fever	outcome	notes
1	1	2013-02-18					
2	2	2013-02-20	f	40	38.5	mild	
3	3	2013-02-21	f	32	38.0	mild	
4	4	2013-02-21	m	35	38.5	mild	
5	5	2013-02-22	f	3	39.5	mild	
6	6	2013-02-24	f	34	39.0	mild	

Interprete the following graphs and tests:

```
> boxplot(Rindiv[toKeep]~cases$sex[toKeep], xlab="Patient gender",
+ ylab="Inferred number of secondary cases caused", col=c("gold","royalblue"))
> title("Inferred infectivity vs gender")
```

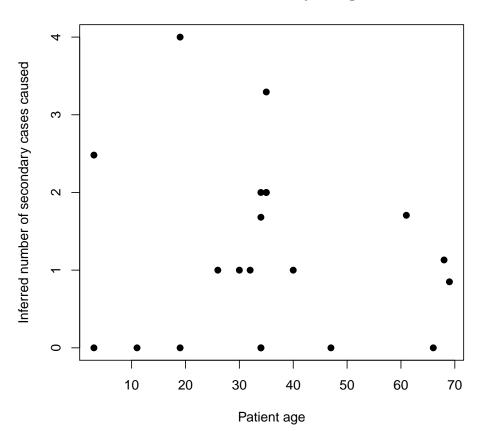


Inferred infectivity vs gender

```
> t.test(Rindiv[toKeep]~cases$sex[toKeep])
```

```
Welch Two Sample t-test
```

```
> title("Inferred infectivity vs age")
```



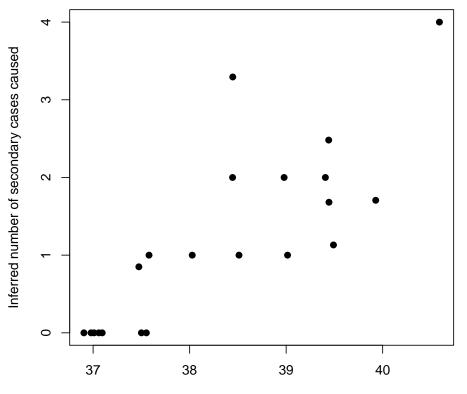
Inferred infectivity vs age

```
> cor.test(Rindiv[toKeep], cases$age[toKeep], method="spearman")
```

Spearman's rank correlation rho

```
data: Rindiv[toKeep] and cases$age[toKeep]
S = 1511.191, p-value = 0.9359
alternative hypothesis: true rho is not equal to 0
sample estimates:
rho
0.01870712
```

```
> plot(Rindiv[toKeep]~jitter(cases$peak.fever[toKeep]), xlab="Peak fever of the cases",
+ ylab="Inferred number of secondary cases caused",
+ pch=20, cex=1.5)
> title("Inferred infectivity vs peak fever")
```



Inferred infectivity vs peak fever

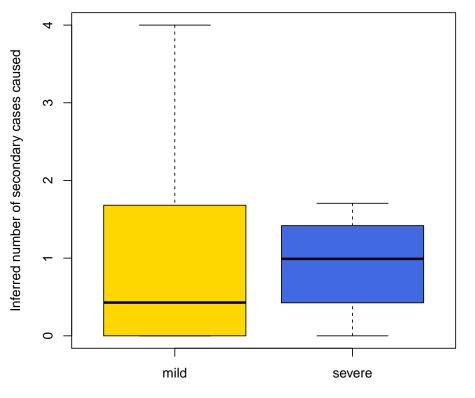
Peak fever of the cases

> cor.test(Rindiv[toKeep], cases\$peak.fever[toKeep], method="spearman")

Spearman's rank correlation rho

```
data: Rindiv[toKeep] and cases$peak.fever[toKeep]
S = 220.6951, p-value = 7.152e-07
alternative hypothesis: true rho is not equal to 0
sample estimates:
                rho
0.8566915
```

```
> boxplot(Rindiv<sup>c</sup>cases$outcome, xlab="Case outcome",
+ ylab="Inferred number of secondary cases caused", col=c("gold","royalblue"))
> title("Inferred infectivity vs outcome")
```



Inferred infectivity vs outcome



> t.test(Rindiv~cases\$outcome)

Welch Two Sample t-test

What can you say about the transmissibility of this disease? Should prophylaxis target specific groups of individuals? Looking back at the data, especially the most recent cases:

```
> tail(cases, 10)
```

	id	collec.dates	COV	200	noak fovor	outcomo	notes
			Ser	age		ouccome	110065
21	21	2013-02-27	m	4 9	37.0	mild	
22	22	2013-02-28	m	35	37.0	mild	
23	23	2013-02-26	m	34	37.0	mild	
24	24	2013-02-27	m	59	37.5	severe	
25	25	2013-02-26	f	47	37.0	mild	
26	26	2013-02-26	f	34	37.0	mild	
27	27	2013-02-28	f	26	37.5	mild	
28	28	2013-02-27	f	16	37.0	mild	possible-contamination
29	29	2013-03-01	f	15	41.0	mild	-
30	30	2013-03-01	m	40	37.0	mild	

Which individual(s) would you recommend isolating in priority? The authorities had already noticed inappropriate behaviour in patient 29 (Fig. 3) prior to the outbreak, and are considering interning this person in a specialized institution. What recommendation would you make regarding this case?



Figure 3: Patient 29 (indicated by the red arrows) was reputedly sick before the outbreak started.

7 Update from detailed case investigations

As you were finishing your analyses, you have been updated on the situation by the authorities. Apparently, detailed investigations have helped casting light on the transmissions that took place for the first 25 cases. Information on likely infectors is contained in the following file:

```
> newinfo <- read.csv("http://adegenet.r-forge.r-project.org/files/fakeOutbreak/update.csv")
> newinfo
```

1234567891011231456789	infection.dates 2013-02-15 2013-02-17 2013-02-19 2013-02-19 2013-02-21 2013-02-21 2013-02-21 2013-02-22 2013-02-23 2013-02-23 2013-02-23 2013-02-23 2013-02-23 2013-02-24 2013-02-24 2013-02-24 2013-02-24 2013-02-24	NA 1 2 NA 3 4 4 5 6 6 7 8 9 5 5 7 7 8
16	2013-02-24	7
17	2013-02-24	7

It is fairly straightforward to compare the results of *SeqTrack* (sqtk.res) and *outbreaker* (obkr.tre) to this new data; we just need to avoid comparing NAs (as NA==NA is NA, not TRUE), so we replace unknown ancestries (NA) with 0.

```
> sqtk.res$ances[is.na(sqtk.res$ances)] <- 0
> obkr.ances <- obkr.tre$ances[1:25]
> obkr.ances[is.na(obkr.ances)] <- 0
> newinfo$infectors[is.na(newinfo$infectors)] <- 0
> comp <- rbind(sqtk.res$ances[1:25], obkr.ances, newinfo$infectors)
> rownames(comp) <- c("seqTrack", "outbreaker","investigations")
> colnames(comp) <- paste("case", 1:25)
> comp
```

	case	1 (case 2	2 ca	ase 3	cas	se 4	case	e 5 ca	ase	6 cas	se 7	case	8	case	9
seqTrack		0	1	L	2		1		3		4	4	l	5		4
outbreaker		0	1	L	2		0		3		4	4	Ł	- 5		6
investigations		0	1	L	2		0		3		4	4	ł	5		6
-	case	10	case	11	case	12	case	13	case	14	case	15	case	16	case	17
seqTrack		4		4		5		9		5		5		4		4
outbreaker		6		21		5		9		5		5		4		4
investigations		6		7		8		9		5		5		7		7
-	case	18	case	19	case	20	case	21	case	22	case	23	case	24	case	25
seqTrack		5		9		10		11		11		13		13		13
outbreaker		5		9		10		4		11		13		13		13
investigations		8		9		10		11		11		13		13		13

```
> mean(comp[1,]==comp[3,])
```

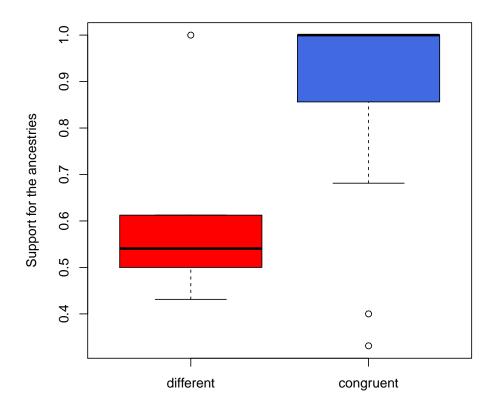
[1] 0.68

> mean(comp[2,]==comp[3,])

[1] 0.76

Which method is most congruent with the new field observations, and what are the respective proportions of congruent results (inferred transmissions)? For outbreaker, one can assess easily if discrepancies are associated with weakly supported ancestries:

```
> split(obkr.tre$p.ances[1:25], obkr.ances[1:25]==newinfo$infectors)
$`FALSE
alpha_11 alpha_12 alpha_16 alpha_17 alpha_18 alpha_21
 1.00000
         0.61250 0.55625 0.52500
                                      0.43125
                                               0.50000
$`TRUE`
 alpha_1
          alpha_2
                   alpha_3
                                               alpha_6
0.71250
                                                                  alpha_8
0.70625
                            alpha_4
                                      alpha_5
                                                         alpha_7
          1.00000
                   1.00000
                                      1.00000
                                                         1.00000
 1.00000
                             1.00000
 alpha_9 alpha_10 alpha_13 alpha_14 alpha_15 alpha_19 alpha_20 alpha_22
 1.00000
         1.00000 1.00000
                             0.40000
                                      0.33125
                                               1.00000
                                                        0.68125
                                                                  1.00000
alpha_23 alpha_24 alpha_25
 1.00000 1.00000 1.00000
> boxplot(split(obkr.tre$p.ances[1:25], obkr.ances[1:25]==newinfo$infectors),
          col=c("red1", "royalblue"), names=c("different", "congruent"),
+
+
          ylab="Support for the ancestries")
```



Let us examine again the possible effect of covariates on individual reproduction numbers R_i , this time computing R_i from the investigation data:

```
> Rindiv2 <- sapply(1:30, function(i) sum(newinfo$infectors==i, na.rm=TRUE))
> names(Rindiv2) <- paste("case",1:30,sep="")
> Rindiv2
```

```
case4
        case2
                case3
                               case5
                                       case6
                                               case7
                                                       case8
                                                              case9 case10 case11
case1
                     1
                            2
                                    3
                                            2
                                                   3
                              case16 case17 case18 case19 case20 case21 case22
                      case15
case12 case13
               case14
     0
             3
                    0
                            0
                                    0
                                           0
                                                   0
                                                           0
                                                                   0
                                                                          0
                                                                                  0
                              case27 case28
case23
       case24
               case25
                      case26
                                              case29
                                                     case30
     0
```

Again, we discard the most recent cases (collection on day 9 and later; this information is still in toKeep). What can you conclude from the following graphs and tests:

```
> boxplot(Rindiv2[toKeep]~cases$sex[toKeep], xlab="Patient gender",
+ ylab="Inferred number of secondary cases caused", col=c("gold","royalblue"))
> title("Inferred infectivity vs gender")
```

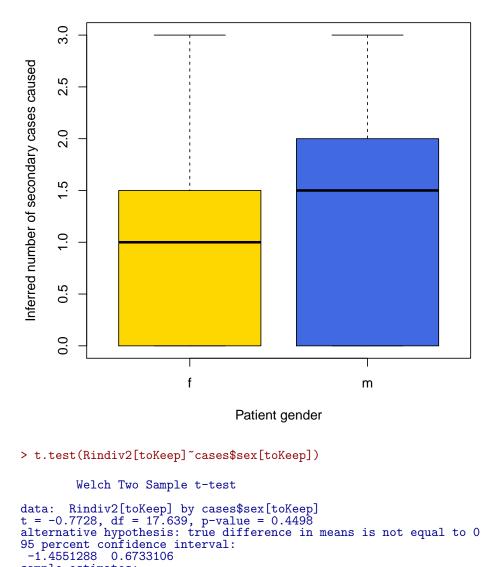
sample estimates:

+

mean in group f mean in group m 0.9090909 1.3000000

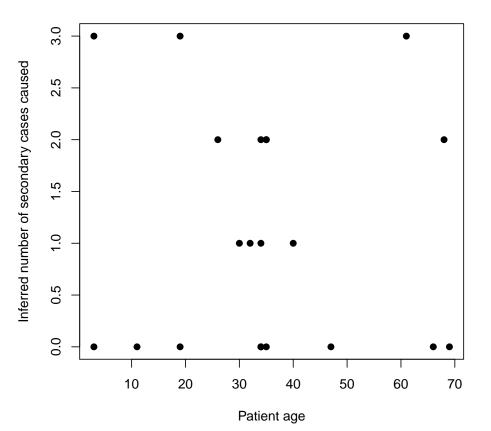
pch=20, cex=1.5)

> title("Inferred infectivity vs age")



> plot(Rindiv2[toKeep]~cases\$age[toKeep], xlab="Patient age", + ylab="Inferred number of secondary cases caused",

Inferred infectivity vs gender



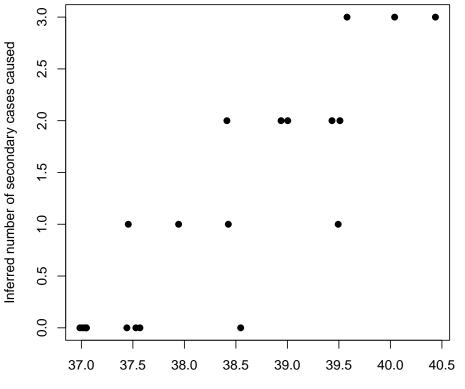
Inferred infectivity vs age

> cor.test(Rindiv2[toKeep], cases\$age[toKeep], method="spearman")

Spearman's rank correlation rho

```
data: Rindiv2[toKeep] and cases$age[toKeep]
S = 1639.074, p-value = 0.7817
alternative hypothesis: true rho is not equal to 0
sample estimates:
rho
-0.06433355
```

```
> plot(Rindiv2[toKeep]~jitter(cases$peak.fever[toKeep]), xlab="Peak fever of the cases",
+ ylab="Inferred number of secondary cases caused",
+ pch=20, cex=1.5)
> title("Inferred infectivity vs peak fever")
```



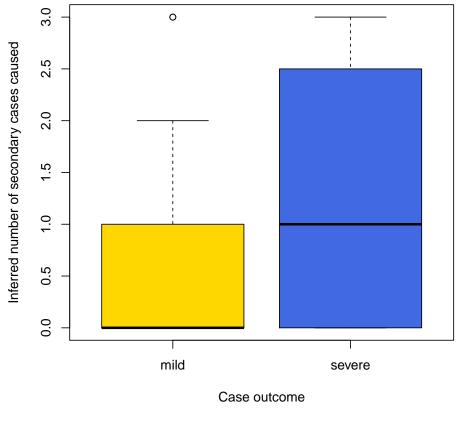
Inferred infectivity vs peak fever

Peak fever of the cases

> cor.test(Rindiv2[toKeep], cases\$peak.fever[toKeep], method="spearman")

Spearman's rank correlation rho

```
> boxplot(Rindiv2~cases$outcome, xlab="Case outcome",
+ ylab="Inferred number of secondary cases caused", col=c("gold","royalblue"))
> title("Inferred infectivity vs outcome")
```



Inferred infectivity vs outcome

> t.test(Rindiv2^{cases\$outcome)}

Welch Two Sample t-test

Are the conclusions based on these new data consistent with *outbreaker*'s results?

References

- [1] T. Jombart. adegenet: a R package for the multivariate analysis of genetic markers. *Bioinformatics*, 24:1403–1405, 2008.
- [2] T. Jombart, A. Cori, X. Didelot, S. Cauchemez, C. Fraser, and N. Ferguson. Bayesian reconstruction of disease outbreaks by combining epidemiologic and genomic data. *Nature Communications*, submitted.
- [3] T. Jombart, R. M. Eggo, P. J. Dodd, and F. Balloux. Reconstructing disease outbreaks from genetic data: a graph approach. *Heredity*, 106:383–390, 2010.
- [4] E. Paradis, J. Claude, and K. Strimmer. APE: analyses of phylogenetics and evolution in R language. *Bioinformatics*, 20:289–290, 2004.
- [5] R Development Core Team. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria, 2011. ISBN 3-900051-07-0.