

# Agent-Based Model (ABM) for Epidemiological Spread: Urban and rural environments

Brandon George, Josh Lai, Daniel Kim

## Research question:

How do the factors of movement, vaccination rate and environment interact to impact the spread of disease?

### Why?

- Importance of understanding disease dynamics to inform public health strategies and interventions.
- Relevance in simulating real-world disease responses, such as reactive vaccination strategies during outbreaks.
- Movement is represented by distance and speed that an individual goes through their environment, while environment represents the boundaries of a city/area in which individuals stay
- Modeling can reveal how factors like age, movement, and density affect transmission, allowing for tailored strategies, such as targeting specific age groups or high-density areas.

### Variables of interest:

**Age:** determines movement patterns, which determines how frequently agents move in environment

**Vaccination Rates:** Proportion(%) of agents who are vaccinated in a population of susceptible agents

**Environmental Setting:** Urban (high-density) vs. rural (low-density) areas.

# Background

3 Subtopics, which the model was based on:

- ABMs in epidemiology
- Disease dynamics in different environments
- Vaccination strategies



# Agent-Based Models (ABMs) in Epidemiology

## Customization of parameters

- Able to easily customize parameters and variables to suit specific goals.
- ABMs show flexibility by capturing spatial elements like movement within an environment.(Alaliyat & Yndestad 2015)

## Reality based

- ABM's are able to incorporate real time factors and track outcomes
- Incorporating factors like age and movement in disease spread helped simulate disease spread (Hunter, Mac Namee, & Kelleher 2018)

## Versatility of modeling

- ABMs help identify the most effective strategy based on factors like population connectivity, vaccine availability, and the timing of interventions
- ABMs can represent disease spread across diverse population structures and settings, representing heterogeneity(Azman & Lessler 2015)

## Why this supports our research question?

- ABMs capture diverse population characteristics like age and movement in different settings.
- They allow us to examine interactions in urban vs. rural contexts, key to our study.
- The ability to integrate vaccination rates and movement dynamics makes ABMs ideal for our focus on disease spread.
- ABMs provide insights into tailored intervention strategies, helping us model responsive public health approaches.

# Disease Dynamics in Different Environments

## Rural Areas and Public Health Challenges:

- Rural areas often face challenges in public health knowledge and vaccine hesitancy, which can exacerbate disease spread
- Important to understand how these factors interact with population density, mobility, and vaccination rates in influencing disease transmission.
- Initially, COVID-19 incidence was higher in urban areas, but rural areas eventually saw significant increases.(Cuadros & Branscum (2021))
- Rural areas have higher death rates and unique challenges that can increase preventable deaths.(Moy et al.,2017)

## Relevance to Research Question:

- Rural areas display limited public health knowledge
- Highlights importance of population density and connectivity in rural areas
- The challenges faced by rural areas, particularly with vaccination rates and healthcare access, can significantly alter disease dynamics. This makes it important to consider these variables in modeling disease spread.

# Vaccination Strategies and Disease Control

## Reactive vaccination

- Reactive vaccination strategies are shown to be effective in disease hotspots
- Timing of the intervention can significantly impact the spread of disease
- (Grais et al., 2006)

## Vaccination Strategies

- Vaccination plays a critical role in mitigating disease spread by building immunity within populations.
- By incorporating vaccination strategies in the ABM, we can model how vaccines slow the transmission of diseases.
- Shown in previous studies(Maziarz and Zach, 2020)

## ABMs and disease control

- ABMs can be used to simulate the effects of intervention of Covid vaccines.
- Additional methods such as masks and social distancing can also feasibly be modeled
- ( Philip Ciunkiewicz et al., 2022)

## Why this supports our research question?

- Allows our ABM to be more accurate and represent real life scenarios.
- Both vaccines and disease control are major factors in the spread of a disease.
- Our ABM can stay up to date on new medical advancements in real time.

# Why an ABM?

- ABM is ideal because it captures differences within populations and allows each agent to act independently based on specific attributes and interact spatially.
- ABMs can adjust variables like vaccination thresholds and movement rates, allowing the model to simulate responsive strategies and show different interventions affect disease outcomes.
- ABMs allow for the exploration of reactive vaccination strategies which help to assess which strategies are most effective under various conditions.
- Can run model multiple times to observe common trends

# Model overview

How do the factors of movement, vaccination rate and environment interact to impact the spread of disease?

Variables of interest:

Movement patterns:

- Refers to the frequency and direction in which agents (individuals) move.
- Movement likelihood affected by age (younger: higher probability to move and change direction).

Vaccination rates:

- The proportion of agents that are vaccinated based on infected threshold.
- Vaccination will be applied in response to the amount of infected individuals.

Environmental Setting:

- Refers to whether the agents are located in urban (high-density) or rural (low-density) areas.
- The parameters gridSize and gridHeight set the boundaries in which agents move based on the density of their area.

Overall:

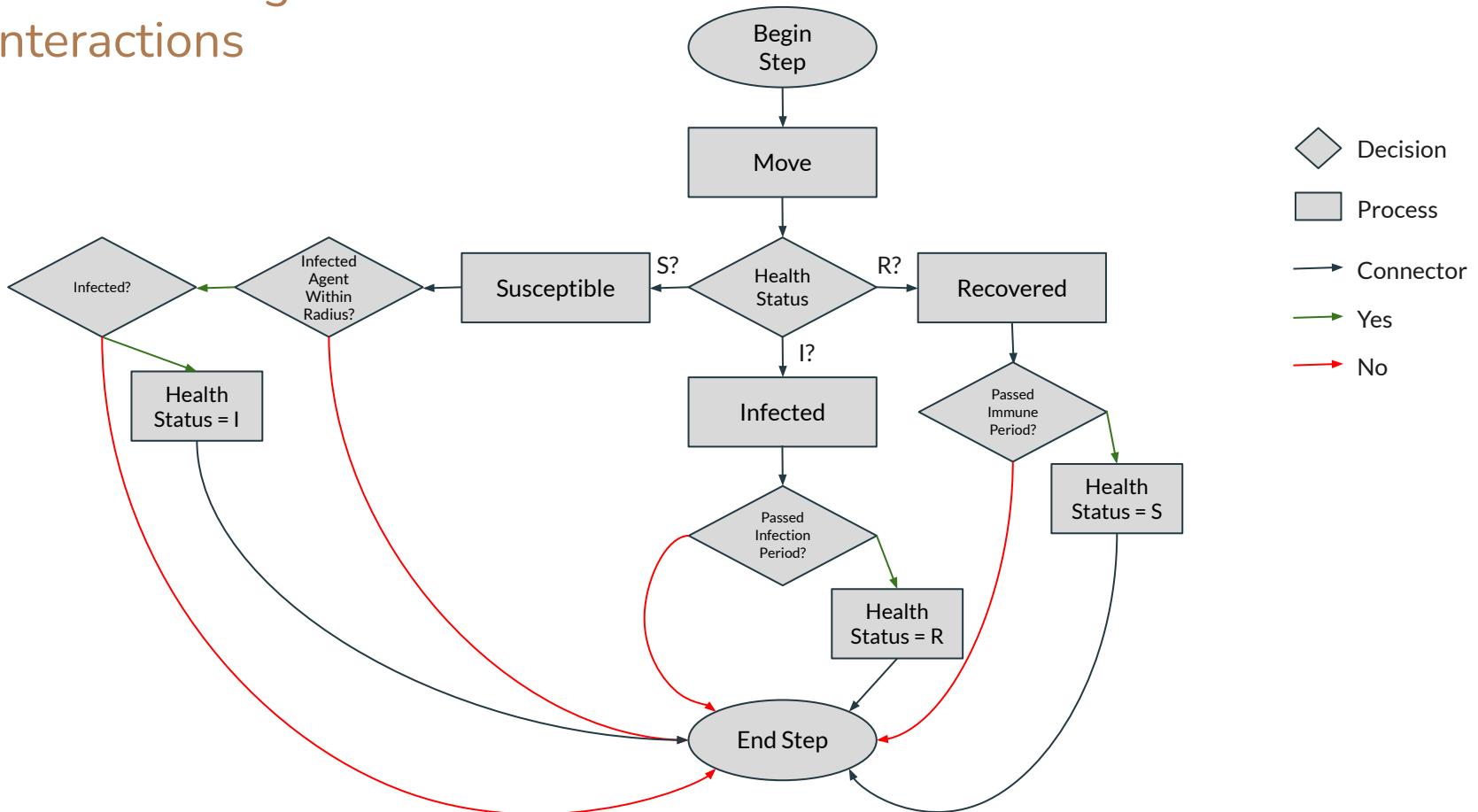
- Agents represent individuals with age-based movement and vaccination status, moving and interacting on a 2D grid.
- The model accounts for different population densities.
- Disease transmission occurs when susceptible individuals come in contact with infected ones.
- Vaccination takes place when an infected threshold is reached.
- By adjusting population density, movement rates, and vaccination triggers, the model represents several different scenarios, each with specific intervention strategies.

# Methods section

# Entities

Agent: Characteristics	Internal upkeep	Environment: Characteristics gridSize and gridWidth
Age(Young 7-65, Old 65+)	None	
Health status:Susceptible, Infected, Recovered	Keep track of health status, can change based on interactions between agents	
Vaccination status(Vaccinated/not vaccinated)	Can change based on vaccination policy	
X,Y	Changing based on movement keeps track of agent	Rationale: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Age 65+ represents age of retirement. Retired individuals tend to be less mobile</li><li>• Reflects real-world differences in disease transmission based on age and environment.</li><li>• Previous ABM models utilize SIR model to simulate age and disease spread(Namee, Kelleher, Hunter 2018)</li></ul>
Xdir,Ydir	Changing based on movement which is dependant upon age,	

# Decision Diagram and interactions



## Virtual experiments

Parameter	Default values	Explanation/Rationale
# of older/younger agents	50/50	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>An equal split of older and younger agents ensures balanced comparisons in infection dynamics across age groups. (Hunter et al., 2019)</li> </ul>
Pinfection(constant)	0.3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A moderate infection probability balances between overly rapid and slow spread, reflecting disease like COVID-19 (Philip C. et al., 2022)</li> </ul>
Infection duration	50 steps	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Represents diseases with a medium infection duration, gives opportunity for disease spread before immunity kicks in.</li> </ul>
GridHeight,GridWidth	50x50	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Setting boundaries for space representing environment. Urban areas have higher connectivity, justifying a smaller grid size. (Cuadraos et al., 2021)</li> </ul>
# of agents needed to trigger vaccinations	10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Default value of 10 since it would be about 10 percent of the population of agents, modeling early vs late vaccination intervention. (Azman et al., 2015)</li> </ul>
# of agents who become vaccinated(constant)	20	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>20% of population ensures a measurable effect of vaccination without completely stopping spread. Previous studies showed 20-30 percent of vaccination at the end (Azman et al., 2015)</li> </ul>
Infection radius(constant)	1 block	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Default value of 1 to represent an infected agent spreading disease within a close radius. Previous studies used smaller radius to represent close radius (Alaliyat et al., 2015)</li> </ul>
Immunity duration(constant)	100 steps	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Immunity duration is double the infection duration. Alaliyat and Yndestad (2015) highlighted that immunity loss affects disease dynamics cycles</li> </ul>

# Hypotheses

**Research Question:** How do movement, vaccination rate, and environment interact to impact disease spread?

## **Hypotheses:**

- 1. Decreasing older agents increases total infections.
- 2. Changing the environment from urban to rural lowers total infections.
- 3. Increasing infection duration raises the total number of cases over time.
- 4. Decreasing the number of infections needed to trigger vaccinations, will decrease the number of infected agents over time.

**Justification:** These 4 hypotheses fit together to model movement, vaccination rate, and environment and we can see how each one affects the disease spread based on the results of testing these.

## Parameter sweep

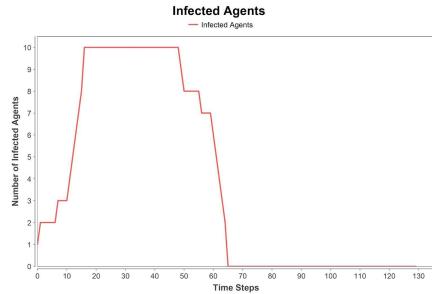
Parameter	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	Test 4
# of older agents/# of younger agents	50/50, 20/80	50/50	50/50	50/50
PInfection	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Infection duration	50 steps	50 steps	50,100 steps	50 steps
GridHeight, GridWidth	50x50 150x150	150x150,50x50	50x50 150x150	50x50 150x150
# of infected agent needed to trigger vaccinations	10	10	10	10/30
# of agents who become vaccinated	20	20	20	20
Infection radius	1 block	1 block	1 block	1 block
Immunity duration	100 steps	100 steps	100 steps	100 steps

- Hypothesis 1 is tested by decreasing number of older agents and replacing with younger agents.
- Hypothesis 2 is tested by comparing 800x800 to 300x300 to represent rural vs urban.
- Hypothesis 3 is tested by comparing 50 vs 100 steps of infection duration.
- Hypothesis 4 is tested by comparing 6 to 10 number of agents needed to trigger vaccination.

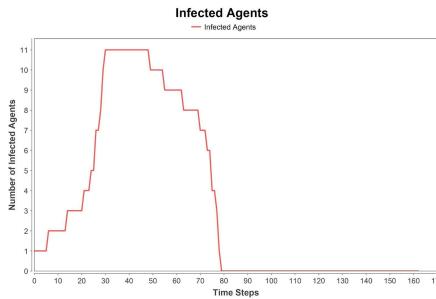
# Results

# Test 1: Concrete hypothesis: Decreasing older agents increases total infections

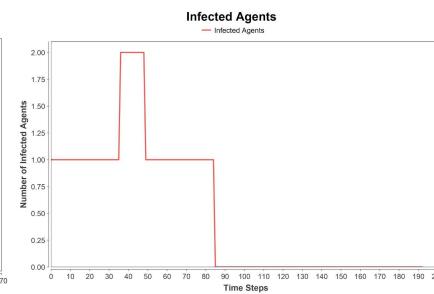
Graph 1: 50/50 older/younger agents in Urban environment



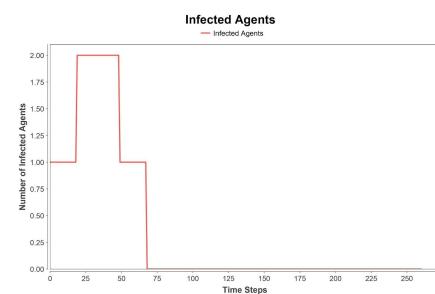
Graph 2: 20/80 older/younger agents in Urban environment



Graph 3: 50/50 older/younger agents in a rural environment



Graph 4: 20/80 older/younger agents in Urban environment



## Explanation:

- Reduced mobility limits older agents' role in the disease transmission chain.
- Younger, more mobile agents encounter more individuals, increasing their potential for spreading the disease.
- Aligns with prior research indicating that movement facilitates the spread of infectious diseases.
- **Parameter Swept:** Age parameter was varied to test its impact on disease transmission dynamics.

## Observations:

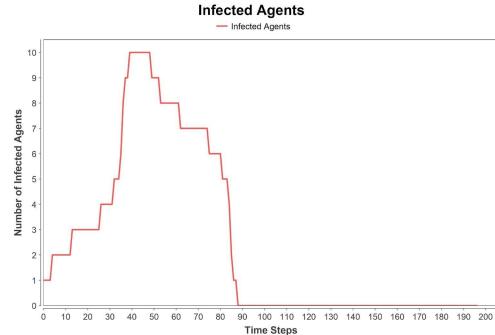
- The primary effect of varying the age distribution is on the duration the model stays at the peak infection level.
- Total infections remain similar across all scenarios, regardless of the ratio of younger to older agents.

## Conclusion:

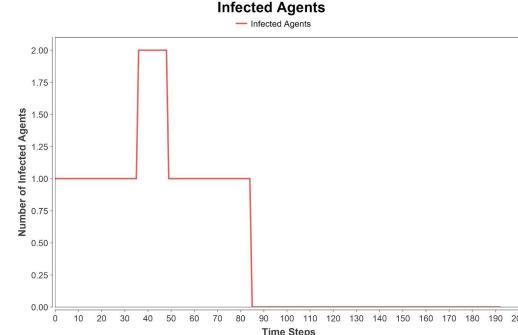
- Data does not provide strong evidence to conclude that decreasing the number of older agents increases total infections.
- Similar numbers of infected agents were observed in both urban and rural comparisons.

## Test 2: Concrete hypothesis: Changing the environment from urban to rural lowers total infections.

Graph 1: Urban environment



Graph 2: Rural environment



### Explanation:

- Urban areas have higher population density, leading to more interactions between susceptible and infected agents.
- Rural areas, with lower population density, result in fewer interactions and slower disease spread.
- Aligned with prior studies that controlled the environment size to simulate population density.
- Parameter Swept:** Size and grid width of the model to represent urban vs. rural density, while keeping all other parameters constant.

### Observations:

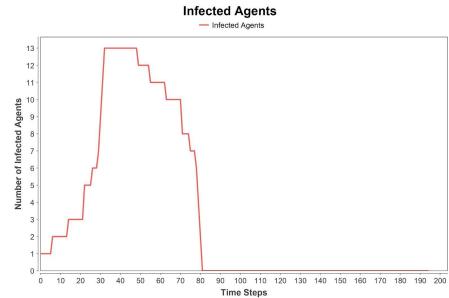
- The Urban environment has higher total infected agent count
- Rural environment has lower total infected agent count

### Conclusion:

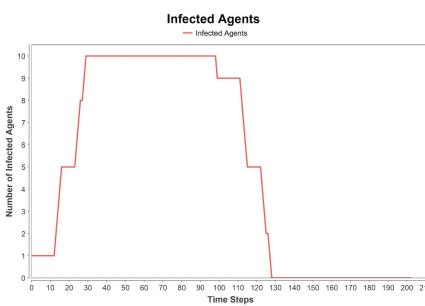
- Since all other parameters remain constant, the difference in outcomes can be attributed solely to changes in population density.
- Changing the environment from urban to rural significantly lowers the total number of infections.

## Test 3: Concrete hypothesis: Increasing infection duration raises the total number of infections over time

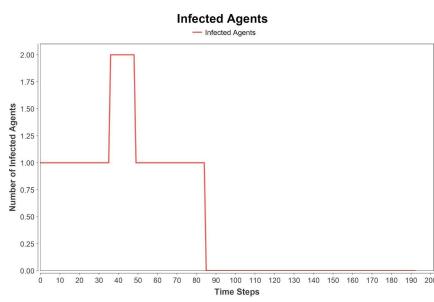
Graph 1: 50 Infection duration in an urban environment



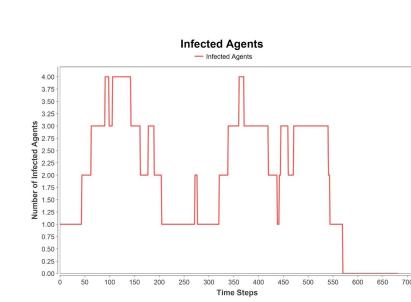
Graph 2: 100 Infection duration in an urban environment



Graph 3: 50 Infection duration in an rural environment



Graph 4: 100 Infection duration in an rural environment



### Explanation:

- Prolonged infection duration increases the contagious period, allowing more opportunities for transmission.
- This aligns with prior studies that examined the effects of infection duration on disease spread.
- **Parameter Swept:** Infection duration parameter to analyze its impact on total infections.

### Conclusion:

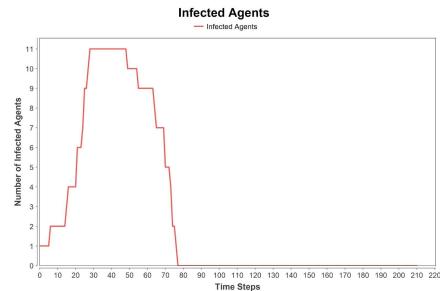
- Infection duration raises the total number of infections in rural areas but does not have a significant effect in urban areas.

### Observations:

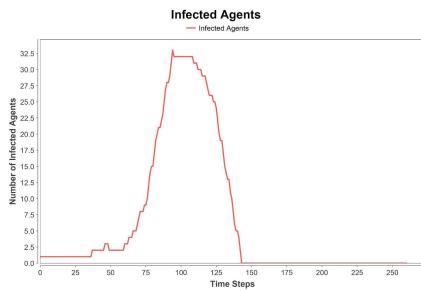
- **Urban environment:** Infection duration change leads to similar total number of infections over time in urban areas.
- **Rural environment:** Infection duration causes a noticeable difference: infections spike and then drop back to 4, indicating a greater impact in rural settings.

## Test 4: Concrete hypothesis: Decreasing the number of infections needed to trigger vaccinations, will decrease the number of infected agents over time.

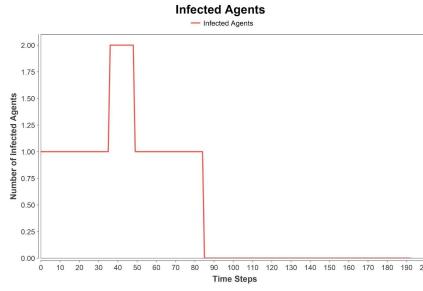
Graph 1: 10 infected agents needed for vaccination, in an urban environment



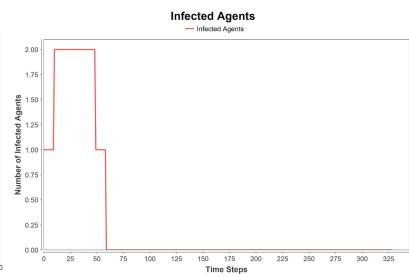
Graph 2: 30 infected agents needed for vaccination, in an urban environment



Graph 3: 10 infected agents needed for vaccination, in a rural environment



Graph 4: 30 infected agents needed for vaccination, in a rural environment



### Explanation:

- Early vaccination reduces the susceptible population, interrupting the transmission chain earlier and controlling outbreaks more effectively.
- Supported by previous studies highlighting the effectiveness of proactive vaccination campaigns.
- **Parameter Swept:** Number of infected agents required to trigger vaccination, simulating different vaccination strategies.

### Conclusion:

- In urban environments, reducing the number of infected agents needed for vaccination effectively decreases total infections.
- For rural environments, the data does not show a significant difference based on vaccination timing.

### Observations:

- **Urban graphs:**
  - The second graph shows a significantly higher total number of infections compared to the first, indicating the effectiveness of earlier vaccination.
- **Rural graphs:**
  - Minimal difference in total infections between the two graphs, suggesting vaccination timing has less impact in rural settings.

# To conclude:

## **Key Takeaway from the Model:**

- Vaccination plays a critical role in controlling the spread of infectious diseases, particularly in urban environments where population density amplifies transmission.
- However, the model reveals that proactive vaccination strategies may have limited impact in rural areas, highlighting the importance of tailoring intervention strategies to specific population dynamics.

## **Implications:**

- For rural areas, additional measures like improving healthcare accessibility or targeting high-risk groups earlier in the outbreak
- This shows the need for context-specific public health strategies to effectively mitigate disease outbreaks.

# References

1. Alaliyat, Saleh, and Harald Yndestad. "an Agent-Based Model to Simulate Contagious ..." *Researchgate*, 2015, [www.researchgate.net/publication/303430670\\_An\\_agent-based\\_model\\_to\\_simulate\\_contagious\\_disease\\_dynamics\\_in\\_fish\\_populations](http://www.researchgate.net/publication/303430670_An_agent-based_model_to_simulate_contagious_disease_dynamics_in_fish_populations).
2. Hunter, Elizabeth, et al. "An Open-Data-Driven Agent-Based Model to Simulate Infectious Disease Outbreaks." *PloS One*, U.S. National Library of Medicine, 19 Dec. 2018, [pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC6300276/](https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC6300276/).
3. Azman, Andrew S, and Justin Lessler. "Reactive Vaccination in the Presence of Disease Hotspots." *Proceedings. Biological Sciences*, U.S. National Library of Medicine, 7 Jan. 2015, [pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC4262159/](https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC4262159/).
4. Cuadros, Diego F, et al. "Dynamics of the Covid-19 Epidemic in Urban and Rural Areas in the United States." *Annals of Epidemiology*, U.S. National Library of Medicine, July 2021, [pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC8061094/](https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC8061094/).
5. Moy, Ernest, et al. "Leading Causes of Death in Nonmetropolitan and Metropolitan Areas- United States, 1999-2014." *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report. Surveillance Summaries* (Washington, D.C. : 2002), U.S. National Library of Medicine, 13 Jan. 2017, [pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC5829895/](https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC5829895/).
6. Grais, R F, et al. "Exploring the Time to Intervene with a Reactive Mass Vaccination Campaign in Measles Epidemics." *Epidemiology and Infection*, U.S. National Library of Medicine, Aug. 2006, [pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC2870458/](https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC2870458/).
7. Maziarz, Mariusz, and Martin Zach. "Agent-Based Modelling for SARS-COV-2 Epidemic Prediction and Intervention Assessment: A Methodological Appraisal." *Journal of Evaluation in Clinical Practice*, U.S. National Library of Medicine, Oct. 2020, [pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC7461315/](https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC7461315/).
8. Ciunkiewicz, P, et al. "Agent-Based Epidemiological Modeling of COVID-19 in Localized Environments." *Computers in Biology and Medicine*, U.S. National Library of Medicine, May 2022, [pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC8915620/](https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC8915620/).