Real-time Zika risk assessment in the United States

Lauren A Castro*,[1], BA, Spencer J Fox*,[1@], BS , Xi Chen[2] MS, Kai Liu[3] MS, Steve Bellan[4] PhD,

Nedialko B Dimitrov[2] PhD, Alison P Galvani[5,6] PhD, Lauren Ancel Meyers[1,7] PhD

Affiliations:

1 - Department of Integrative Biology, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX, USA

2 - Graduate Program in Operations Research Industrial Engineering, The University of Texas at

Austin, Austin, TX, USA

3 - Institute for Cellular and Molecular Biology, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX,

USA

4 - Center for Computational Biology and Bioinformatics, The University of Texas at Austin,

Austin, TX, USA

5 - Center for Infectious Disease Modeling and Analysis, Yale School of Public Health, New

Haven, CT, USA

6 - Department of Ecology and Evolution, Yale University, New Haven, CT, USA

7 - The Santa Fe Institute, Santa Fe, NM, USA

* contributed equally to this manuscript

[@] corresponding author: spncrfx@gmail.com

Abstract

Background: The southern United States (US) may be vulnerable to outbreaks of Zika Virus

(ZIKV), given its broad distribution of ZIKV vector species and periodic ZIKV introductions by

travelers returning from affected regions. As cases mount within the US, policymakers seek early

and accurate indicators of self-sustaining local transmission to inform intervention efforts.

However, given ZIKV's low reporting rates and geographic variability in both importations and

transmission potential, a small cluster of reported cases may reflect diverse scenarios, ranging

from multiple self-limiting but independent introductions to a self-sustaining local outbreak.

Methods and Findings: We developed a stochastic model that captures variation and

uncertainty in ZIKV case reporting, importations, and transmission, and applied it to assess

county-level risk throughout the state of Texas. For each of the 254 counties, we identified

surveillance triggers (i.e., cumulative reported case thresholds) that robustly indicate further

epidemic expansion. Regions of greatest risk for sustained ZIKV transmission include 33 Texas

counties along the Texas-Mexico border, in the Houston Metro Area, and throughout the I-35

Corridor from San Antonio to Waco. Across this region, variation in reporting rates, ZIKV

introductions, and vector habitat suitability drives variation in the recommended surveillance

triggers for public health response. For high risk Texas counties, we found that, for a reporting

rate of 20%, a trigger of two cumulative reported cases corresponds to a 60% chance of an

ongoing local transmission.

Conclusions: With reliable estimates of key epidemiological parameters, including reporting

rates and vector abundance, this framework can help optimize the timing and spatial allocation of

public health resources to fight ZIKV in the US.

Introduction

In February 2016, Zika virus (ZIKV) was declared a public health emergency of international concern [1]. As of 11 May of 2016, the World Health Organization (WHO) confirmed mosquito-transmitted cases in 58 countries, with an estimated 290,000 cases in the Americas alone [2]. In the US, one of the primary vectors for ZIKV, *Aedes aegypti*, is thought to inhabit at least 30 states [3]. Texas ranks among the most vulnerable states for ZIKV transmission due to its suitable climate, international airports, and geographical proximity to affected countries [3–8]. Of the 503 imported ZIKV cases in the US, 35 have occurred in Texas. While these importations have yet to spark autochthonous (local) transmission, Texas has historically sustained several autochthonous outbreaks of one other arbovirus vectored by *Ae. Aegypti*—dengue (DENV) [9].

As peak mosquito season approaches in the US and more cases are potentially introduced via international travelers attending the Rio 2016 Olympic Games, public health decision makers will face considerable uncertainty in gauging the severity of the threat and in effectively initiating interventions, given the large fraction of unreported ZIKV cases as well as the shifting economic balance between intervention expenditure and disease burden [10,11]. Depending on the ZIKV symptomatic fraction, reliability and rapidity of diagnostics, importation rate, and transmission rate, the detection of five cases in a single Texas county, for example, may indicate five unrelated importations, a small outbreak from a single importation, or even a large, hidden epidemic underway (Fig 1). These possibilities are illustrated by prior outbreaks. In French Polynesia, a handful of suspected ZIKV cases were reported by October 2013; two months later an estimated 14,000-29,000 individuals had been infected [12,13]. By contrast, in Dominica, despite 18 confirmed cases in early 2016, two months later no sustained epidemic has yet ensued [14].

Fig 1. ZIKV emergence scenarios. A ZIKV infection could spark **(A)** a small self-limiting outbreak or **(B)** a full-blown epidemic**.** Cases are partitioned into symptomatic (grey) and asymptomatic (black). Arrows indicate new ZIKV importations by infected travelers and vertical dashed lines indicate case reporting events. On the 75th day, these divergent scenarios are almost indistinguishable to public health surveillance, as exactly four cases have been detected in both. By the 75th day, the outbreak (A) has died out while the epidemic (B) continues to grow. Each scenario is a single stochastic realization of the model with R_0=1.1, reporting rate of 10%, and introduction rate of 0.1 case/day.

Here, we develop a model to support real-time ZIKV risk assessment that accounts for uncertainty regarding ZIKV epidemiology, including importation rates, reporting rates, and local vector population density. This framework can be readily updated as our understanding of ZIKV evolves to provide actionable guidance for public health officials, in the form of surveillance triggers that robustly indicate imminent epidemic growth. By simulating ZIKV transmission using a stochastic branching process model [15] based on recent ZIKV data and epidemiological estimates, we derive thresholds of reported cases indicative of ongoing local transmission for each of the 254 counties in Texas. Our results suggest that counties along the Texas-Mexico border, in the Houston Metro Area, and throughout the I-35 Corridor from San Antonio to Waco are at highest risk for sustained outbreaks.

Methods

Model

To transmit ZIKV, a mosquito must bite an infected human, the mosquito must get infected with the virus, and then the infected mosquito must bite a susceptible human. Rather than explicitly model the full transmission cycle, we aggregate the two-part cycle of ZIKV transmission (mosquito-to-human and human-to-mosquito) into a single meta-latent period, and do not explicitly model mosquitos. For the purposes of this study, we need only ensure that the model produces a realistic human-to-human generation time of ZIKV transmission.

We simulate a Susceptible-Exposed-Infectious-Recovered (SEIR) transmission process stemming from a single ZIKV infection using a Markov branching process model, stratifying for reported and unreported cases. The temporal evolution of the compartments is governed by daily probabilities for infected individuals transitioning between E, I and R states, new ZIKV introductions, and reporting of current infectious cases (Table S7). We assume that infectious cases cause a Poisson distributed number of secondary cases per day (via human to mosquito to human transmission), and that low reporting rates correspond to the percentage (~20%) of symptomatic ZIKV infections [10]. We make the simplifying assumption that asymptomatic cases transmit ZIKV at the same rate as symptomatic cases, which can be modified if future evidence suggests otherwise.

Serial interval

The ZIKV serial interval measures the average duration from an exposure to the subsequent exposure of a secondary case, and is estimated to range from 10 to 23 days [16]. Using boxcar models [17] for both the infectious and meta-latent period, we chose model parameters that produce a comparable delay between subsequent human infections rather than fit a more mechanistic model of human and vector infection and latency to ZIKV case data. First, we

solved for transition rates that yield a negative binomial distribution of infectious periods with

mean duration of 9.88 days (Table S6) [18]. Then, we fit the meta-latent period so that the

combined duration of the infectious and meta-latent periods matched the empirical ZIKV serial

interval distribution [16], yielding a mean meta-latent period of 10.4 days (95% CI 6-17) and a

mean serial interval of 15.3 days (95% CI 9.5-23.5). Given that the meta-latent period includes

human and mosquito incubation periods and mosquito biting rates, this range is consistent with

the estimated 5.9 day human ZIKV incubation period [18]. This flexible framework can be

extended and updated readily as we learn more about ZIKV.

<u>Importation rate</u>

Our analysis assumes that any ZIKV outbreaks in Texas will originate with infected

travelers returning from regions with high ZIKV activity. During the first quarter of 2016, 27

travel-associated cases of ZIKV were reported in Texas, with 11 occurring in Houston's Harris

County [19], yielding a baseline first quarter estimate of 0.3 imported cases per day throughout

Texas. Given the geographic and biological overlap between ZIKV, DENV and Chikungunya

(CHIKV), we use historical DENV and CHIKV importation data to inform our importation

model, while recognizing that future ZIKV importations may be fueled by large epidemic waves

in neighboring regions and travel from the 2016 Olympics, and thus far exceed recent DENV and

CHIKV importations [20]. In 2014 and 2015, arbovirus introductions into Texas were threefold

higher during the third quarter than the first quarter of each year, perhaps driven by seasonal

increases in arbovirus activity in endemic regions and the approximately 40% increase in

international travel to the US [21]. Taking this as a *baseline* (lower bound) scenario, we project a

corresponding increase in ZIKV importations to 0.9 cases per day (statewide) for the third

quarter. We also consider an *elevated* importation scenario, in which the first quarter cases (27) in

Texas represent only the symptomatic (20%) imported cases, corresponding to a projected third

quarter importation rate of 4.5 cases/day.

To estimate the importation rate for a specific county, we multiply the statewide rate by

the county importation probability, which is given by a maximum entropy model [22] that we fit

to the 183 DENV, 38 CHIKV, and 31 ZIKV reported Texas importations from 2002 to 2016.

DENV, CHIKV, and ZIKV importation patterns differ most noticeably along the Texas-Mexico

border. Endemic DENV transmission and sporadic CHIKV outbreaks in Mexico regularly spill

over into neighboring Texas counties. In contrast, ZIKV is not yet as widespread in Mexico as it

is in Central and South America, with no reported ZIKV importations along the border to date.

We included DENV and CHIKV importation data in the model fitting so as to consider potential

future importations pressure from Mexico, as ZIKV continues its northward expansion. We

analyzed 72 socio-economic, environmental, and travel variables, and used both representative

variable selection [23] and predictive variable selection [24] to identify the most informative

variables. Near duplicate variables and those that contributed least to model performance, based

on out-of-sample cross validation, were discarded, reducing the original set of 72 variables to 10

(Supplement §1).

<u>Estimating local transmission rates</u>

Upon ZIKV importation by an infected traveler, the risk of ZIKV emergence will depend

on the likelihood of mosquito-borne transmission. For each Texas county, we used the Ross-

Macdonald formulation to estimate the ZIKV reproduction number (R_0), which is the average

number of secondary infections caused by the introduction of a single infectious individual into a

fully susceptible population (Supplement §2) [25]. To parameterize the model, we use mosquito

life history estimates from a combination of DENV and ZIKV studies and estimated *Aedes*

aegypti abundance for each county [4]. For parameters that are sensitive to temperature (i.e.,

mosquito mortality and the extrinsic incubation period), we adjusted the estimates using average

reported temperatures for the month of August [26]. We then obtained the county-level ZIKV

transmission rate, using $\beta = R_0 * \gamma$.

<u>Identifying Surveillance Triggers</u>

Policymakers must often make decisions in the face of uncertainty, such as when and

where to initiate ZIKV interventions. Our stochastic framework allows us to address a simple but

important question: *at what point (after how many reported cases), has the probability of ongoing*

local transmission reached a critical threshold. The choice of critical threshold will depend on

the risk tolerance of the policymaker. A policymaker wishing to trigger interventions early, upon

even a low probability of epidemic spread, has a low tolerance for failing to intervene (false

negative); a policymaker willing to wait longer, has a higher risk tolerance.

For each scenario, we ran 10,000 stochastic simulations, which terminate when the

outbreak ceases or cumulative infections reaches 2,000. We classify simulations as either

epidemics or self-limiting outbreaks; epidemics are those reaching 2,000 cumulative infections

with a maximum prevalence above 50 (Fig S3). We define prevalence as the number of current

unreported and reported infections. To identify surveillance triggers, we solved for the minimum

number of cumulative reported cases (c) that indicate future epidemic expansion with a specified

probability (p). That is, we find c such that among all simulations that eventually reach c, at least

a fraction p subsequently progress into an epidemic. For example, if we set our threshold

probability (risk tolerance) to $p=0.5$ and derive an epidemic trigger of $c=10$ reported cases, then

we expect outbreaks that reach 10 reported cases to have a 50% chance of future epidemic

expansion. In supplementary analysis, we also consider surveillance triggers for detecting when

the current prevalence has reached a specified threshold (Fig S6).

Uncertainty Analysis

Given the considerable uncertainty regarding ZIKV epidemiology, we solve for

surveillance triggers assuming that both R_0 and importation rate are unknown, but lie within a

plausible range for Texas. We consider two scenarios: a *high risk* scenario, where R_0 is thought to

exceed one, and a completely *unknown* risk scenario (Fig S5). For each case, we derive triggers

by randomly drawing 10,000 simulations from all combinations of Texas (baseline) importation

and transmission rates from either the high risk Texas counties ($R_0 \geq 1$) or all counties.

Results

To develop surveillance triggers for Texas, we first project county-level ZIKV

importation and transmission rates for August 2016. ZIKV importation risk within Texas is

predicted by variables reflecting urbanization, mobility patterns, and socioeconomic status (Table

S4), and is concentrated in metropolitan counties of Texas (Fig 2A). The highest risk counties,

Harris (with an estimated 27% chance of receiving the next imported Texas case) and Travis

(10%), which includes Austin, both contain international airports. Other high risk regions include

Brazos County, the Dallas and San Antonio metropolitan areas, and several counties along the

Texas-Mexico border.

We also estimate county-level ZIKV risks of autochthonous ZIKV transmission (Fig 2B),

and find that the majority of Texas counties (87%) have an estimated $R_0 < 1$, and thus are unlikely

to sustain local epidemics. The Southeast region of Texas has the highest estimated transmission

risk, driven primarily by high mosquito habitat suitability. These estimates are sensitive to

uncertainty in several parameters (Fig S1-S2), and should be updated as we learn more about

ZIKV. Without perfect estimates for county R_0, we develop plausible distributions for a county of

high or unknown risk for local transmission using our 254 county estimates, resulting in a median

high risk R_0 of 1.1 (95% CI: 1.0-1.8) and median unknown risk R_0 of 0.5 (95% CI: 0.0-1.2).

Fig 2. ZIKV importation and transmission risk across Texas. (A) Color shading indicates the probability that the next ZIKV import will occur in a given county for each of the 254 Texas counties. Probability is colored on a log scale. The 10 most populous cities in Texas are labeled. Houston's Harris County has 2.7 times greater chance than Austin's Travis County of receiving the next imported case. **(B)** Estimated county-level R_0 for ZIKV.

Under a single set of epidemiological conditions, wide ranges of outbreaks are possible (Fig 3A). The relationship between what policymakers can observe (cumulative reported cases) and what they wish to know (current prevalence) can be obscured by such uncertainty, and will depend critically on both the transmission and reporting rates (Fig 3B). If key drivers, such as R_0, can be estimated with confidence, then the breadth of possibilities narrows, enabling more precise surveillance. For example, under a known moderate R_0 scenario, ten cumulative reported cases corresponds to an expected prevalence of 6 with a 95% CI of 1-15; under an unknown high R_0 scenario, the same number of cases corresponds to an expected prevalence of 10 with a much wider 95% CI of 2-33 (Fig 3B).

Fig 3. Surveillance triggers for detecting and forecasting ZIKV transmission. (A) Simulated outbreaks, assuming

an importation rate of 0.01 case per day, for a known (moderate risk) R_0 (blue) or an unknown high risk R_0 (red). 2,000

randomly sampled simulations are shown for each scenario. (B) Current prevalence as a function of the cumulative

detected cases, assuming an importation rate of 0.01 case per day, for a known R_0 (blue) or an unknown high-risk R_0

(red), and a relatively high (dashed) or low (solid) reporting rate. Ribbons indicate 50% quantiles. (C) The increasing

probability of imminent epidemic expansion across a range of reported cases, compared across the high risk (red) and

known moderate risk (blue) for a low (solid) and high (dashed) reporting rate. Suppose cases arise in a known high risk

county and a policymaker wishes to trigger a response as soon as the chance of sustained transmission reaches 50%

(horizontal line). Then, if the reporting rate is 20%, he or she should trigger the response as soon as the 2nd case is

reported.

We apply our model to address the question, *at what point (after how many reported*

cases), has the probability of ongoing local transmission reached a critical threshold. Under both

a known moderate risk and unknown high risk scenario, we track the probability of epidemic

expansion following each additional reported case (Fig 3C). Across the full range of reported

cases, the probability of epidemic spread will always be higher under the high risk scenario, with

the moderate risk scenario showing more sensitivity to the reporting rate. These curves can

support both real-time risk assessment as cases accumulate and the identification of surveillance

triggers indicating when risk exceeds a specified threshold. For example, suppose a policymaker

wishes to initiate an intervention when the chance of sustained transmission exceeds 50%. In the

high risk scenario, they should act immediately following the 2nd or 3rd reported case; in the

moderate risk scenario, the corresponding trigger rangers from 3 to 10 reported cases, depending

on the reporting rate. As the policymaker's threshold (risk tolerance) increases, the recommended

surveillance triggers can increase by orders of magnitude.

We determine county-level surveillance triggers throughout Texas, assuming that a

policymaker would act when the probability of sustained local transmission reaches 70%, under

two importation scenarios: (1) a baseline importation rate extrapolated from recent importations

to August 2016 (Fig 4A), and (2) an elevated importation scenario assuming that only one fifth of

ZIKV importations (the symptomatic proportion) have been observed (Fig 4B). Under baseline

importations, only 21 of the 254 counties in Texas are expected to attain the trigger conditions

(Fig 4A), and have triggers ranging from 1 (Starr County) to 71 (Bastrop County) reported cases,

with a mean of 15. The San Antonio metropolitan region appears to be most at risk, with almost

every county capable of epidemics and triggers ranging from 2 to 5 reported cases. The greater

Houston metropolitan area also is at high risk, with surveillance triggers of 2 (Brazoria) and 3

(Fort Bend) cases.

Under the elevated importation rate scenario, the mean surveillance triggers decrease by

4 reported cases (Fig 4B) and the size of Texas' population at risk for sustained ZIKV

transmission is expected to increase from ~14% to ~30%. If the importation rate is sufficiently

high, even lower risk regions (R_0 just below one) can experience sustained outbreaks. For

example, under the elevated importation scenario, Harris county, with an estimated $R_0 = 0.8$, is

likely to suffer persistent transmission, fueled by an expected 1.2 importations per day. Notably,

the Dallas metropolitan area is projected to be at minimal risk for sustained transmission under

both scenarios.

To avoid confusion and facilitate implementation, policymakers may wish to issue

common guidelines for all counties. For example, they may seek a common surveillance trigger

that provides robust warning across the plausible range of local conditions. For example,

assuming a 20% reporting rate, we consider the implications of a statewide trigger of two

reported cases (Fig 4C). Upon seeing two cases, the epidemic risk varies widely, with most

counties having near zero probabilities of a sustained outbreak and a few counties far exceeding

50%. For example, two reported cases in Starr County, along the Texas-Mexico border,

correspond to a 98% chance of ongoing transmission.

Fig 4. ZIKV surveillance triggers across Texas. Recommended county-level surveillance triggers for detecting that

the probability of sustained local transmission has reached p_T=0.70, assuming a reporting rate of 20%. These reflect **(A)**

the baseline importation scenario for August 2016 (81 cases statewide per 90 days) projected from historical arbovirus

data, and **(B)** the elevated importation scenario (405 cases statewide per 90 days) that assumes recent ZIKV

importations represent only 20% of all importations. White counties indicate that less than 1% of the 10,000 simulated

outbreaks resulted in sustained transmission. **(C)** Assuming the baseline importation scenario, the probability of an

impending epidemic at the moment the second ZIKV case is reported in a county. White counties never reach two

reported cases, across all 10,000 simulated outbreaks; light gray counties reach two cases, but never experience

epidemics.

Discussion

US public health authorities are responding to ZIKV importations and preparing for the

possibility of ZIKV outbreaks in vulnerable regions. A key challenge is knowing when and where

to initiate interventions based on potentially sparse and biased ZIKV case reports. Our simple

model is designed to address this challenge by developing robust surveillance triggers for

epidemic events, such as reaching a threshold of current ZIKV infections indicative of future

epidemic expansion. We demonstrate its application across the 254 ecologically and

demographically diverse counties of Texas, a high risk state [5,6,8]. Based on county-level

estimates for ZIKV importation and transmission rates (Fig 3) we expect that most Texas counties

are not at risk for a sustained ZIKV epidemic (Fig 4A). However, 30% of Texas' population

resides in vulnerable regions, including the cities of Austin, San Antonio, and Waco along the I-

35 corridor, Houston, and the Rio Grande Valley. The higher the ZIKV importation rate in these

locations, the higher the chance of sustained transmission (Fig 4B). However, even in the most

high risk regions of Texas, we expect far more limited ZIKV transmission than observed in

Central America, South America, and Puerto Rico, where R_0 has been estimated to be as high as

11 [25,27,28]. This is consistent with recent introductions of DENV and CHIKV into Texas,

which have failed to spark large epidemics.

As an example, we suppose that a policymaker wishes to initiate interventions upon the

epidemic probability reaching 70%. The recommended triggers range from 1 to 71 reported cases,

across the 21 Texas counties capable of sustaining such outbreaks. The model can also be used to

assess universal triggers intended to robustly detect sustained transmission across a range of local

conditions. A risk averse policymaker will likely select a very low trigger, ensuring early

detection in the riskiest sites at the cost of false alarms in low risk locations (Fig 4C). Note that

our triggers include all imported and locally transmitted cases; trigger specificity may be

improved by rapidly and accurately excluding imported cases from the count and restarting the

count upon sufficient temporal separation of cases.

In Texas' vulnerable regions, where the estimated reproduction numbers lie above one,

frequent importations can compound the epidemic risk. Additionally, importations in counties

where estimated reproductive numbers lie below one, like Harris, can spark substantial

transmission (Fig 4B). These findings apply only to the early, pre-epidemic phase of ZIKV in

Texas, when travel from affected regions outside the contiguous US is the primary importation

source. If self-sustaining outbreaks emerge within Texas, there would likely be county-to-county

importations that are not yet included in the model, and could increase risk in counties

surrounding high risk regions.

340   Importantly, our analyses rest on the very recent and limited scientific investigations of

ZIKV's biology and epidemiology, and should be continually updated as our understanding

matures. Furthermore, while we demonstrated triggers for a few plausible scenarios, the design of

a trigger--both the event to be detected and the probability threshold upon which to take action--

requires extensive public health expertise and deliberation. Nonetheless, this simple framework

offers a flexible means for bringing current data and expert knowledge to assist critical public

health decision making.

347   The reporting rate dictates the relationship between observed cases and the underlying

outbreak, and its magnitude impacts the timeliness and precision of detection. If only a small

fraction of cases are reported, the first few reported cases may correspond to a wide range of

underlying epidemiological conditions, from isolated introductions to a growing epidemic. In

contrast, if most cases are reported, policymakers can wait longer (in terms of the number of

detected cases) to trigger interventions and have more confidence in their epidemiological

assessments. ZIKV reporting rates are expected to remain quite low, because an estimated 80% of

infections are asymptomatic, and DENV reporting rates have historically matched its

asymptomatic proportion [10,29]. Obtaining a realistic estimate of the ZIKV reporting rate is

arguably as important as increasing the rate itself, with respect to reliable situational awareness

and forecasting. An estimated 8-22% of ZIKV infections were reported during the 2013-2014

outbreak in French Polynesia [28]; similarly, an estimated 10% have been reported during the

ongoing epidemic in Columbia [27]. While these provide a baseline estimate for the US, there are

many factors that could increase (or decrease) the detection rate, such as ZIKV awareness among

both the public and health-care practitioners. Thus, rapid estimation of the reporting rate should

be a high priority. While some methods require extensive epidemiological data not typically

available early in an outbreak [30], a new method exploiting early outbreak viral sequence data

was introduced during the recent West African Ebola epidemic [31]. However, as of May 2016,

there are no US ZIKV sequences available on GenBank and few available from other regions.

Our flexible framework can help policymakers make sound risk assessments from noisy

and biased surveillance data. It forces analysts to be explicit about risk tolerance, that is, the

certainty needed before sounding an alarm. For example, should ZIKV-related pregnancy

advisories be issued when there is only 5% chance of an impending epidemic? 10% chance?

80%? A policymaker has to weigh the costs of false positives--resulting in unnecessary fear

and/or intervention--and false negatives--resulting in suboptimal disease control and prevention--

complicated by the difficulty inherent in distinguishing a false positive from a successful

intervention. The more risk averse the policymaker (with respect to false negatives), the earlier

the trigger should be, which can be exacerbated by low reporting rates, high importation rate, and

inherent ZIKV transmission potential. In ZIKV prone regions with low reporting rates, even risk

tolerant policymakers should act quickly upon seeing initial cases; in lower risk regions, longer

waiting periods may be prudent.

Acknowledgements

We acknowledge the Texas Advanced Computing Center (TACC) at The University of Texas at

Austin for providing High performance computing resources that have contributed to the research

results reported within this paper. URL: http://www.tacc.utexas.edu.

References

1.   Gulland A. Zika virus is a global public health emergency, declares WHO. BMJ. BMJ

Publishing Group Ltd; 2016;352. doi:10.1136/bmj.i657

2.   World Health Organization. Zika situation report: 12 May 2016 [Internet]. 2016.

Available: http://www.who.int/emergencies/zika-virus/situation-report/12-may-2016/en/

3.   About estimated range of Aedes aegypti and Aedes albopictus in the United States, 2016

Maps. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [Internet]. Available:

http://www.cdc.gov/zika/vector/range.html

4.   Kraemer MUG, Sinka ME, Duda KA, Mylne A, Shearer FM, Barker CM, et al. The global

distribution of the arbovirus vectors Aedes aegypti and Ae. albopictus. Elife. eLife

Sciences Publications Limited; 2015;4: e08347. Available:

http://elifesciences.org/content/4/e08347v3

5.   Messina JP, Kraemer MU, Brady OJ, Pigott DM, Shearer FM, Weiss DJ, et al. Mapping

global environmental suitability for Zika virus. Elife. eLife Sciences Publications Limited;

2016;5: e15272. Available: https://elifesciences.org/content/5/e15272

6.   Gardner LM, Chen N, Sarkar S. Global risk of Zika virus depends critically on vector

status of Aedes albopictus. Lancet Infect Dis. Elsevier; 2016;16: 522–523. Available:

http://www.thelancet.com/article/S1473309916001766/fulltext

7.   Peterson AT, Osorio J, Qiao H, Escobar LE. Zika virus, elevation, and transmission risk.

PLoS Curr Outbreaks. 2016;9.

doi:10.1371/currents.outbreaks.a832cf06c4bf89fb2e15cb29d374f9de

8.   Monaghan AJ, Morin CW, Steinhoff DF, Wilhelmi O, Hayden M, Quattrochi DA, et al.

On the Seasonal Occurrence and Abundance of the Zika Virus Vector Mosquito Aedes

Aegypti in the Contiguous United States. PLoS Curr. 2016; 1–31.

doi:10.1371/currents.outbreaks.50dfc7f46798675fc63e7d7da563da76

9.   Arbovirus Activity in Texas 2014 Surveillance Report.

10.   Duffy M. Chen T.Hancock T. Powers A. Kool J. Lanciotti R. Pretrick M. Zika Virus

Outbreak on Yap Island, Federated States of Micronesia. N Engl J Med. 2009;360: 2536–

2543.

11.   Alfaro-Murillo JA, Parpia AS, Fitzpatrick MC, Tamagnan JA, Medlock J, Ndeffo-Mbah

ML, et al. A Cost-Effectiveness Tool for Informing Policies on Zika Virus Control. PLoS

Negl Trop Dis. Public Library of Science; 2016;10: e0004743. Available:

http://journals.plos.org/plosntds/article?id=10.1371/journal.pntd.0004743

12. Sudre B, Danielsson N, Rakotoarivony LM, Bortel W Van, Zeller H, Jansa J. Zika virus

infecton outbreak French Polynesia. 2014; 1–12.

13. Cao-Lormeau V-M, Roche C, Teissier A, Robin E, Berry A-L, Mallet H-P, et al. Zika

Virus, French Polynesia, South Pacific, 2013. Emerg Infect Dis J. 2014;20: 1084.

doi:10.3201/eid2006.140138

14. Pan American Health Organization, World Health Organization. Cumulative Zika

suspected and confirmed cases reported by countries and territories in the Americas, 2015-

2016 [Internet]. Washington, D.C.; 2016. Available:

http://ais.paho.org/phip/viz/ed_zika_cases.asp

15. Getz WM, Lloyd-Smith JO. Basic methods for modeling the invasion and spread of

contagious diseases. Dis Evol Model concepts, data Anal AMS-DIMACS Ser. 2006;71:

87.

16. Majumder MS, Cohn E, Fish D, Brownstein JS. Estimating a feasible serial interval range

for Zika fever. Bull World Health Organ. 2016;

17. Lloyd AL. Realistic Distributions of Infectious Periods in Epidemic Models: Changing

Patterns of Persistence and Dynamics. Theor Popul Biol. 2001;60: 59–71.

doi:10.1006/tpbi.2001.1525

18. Lessler J, Ott CT, Carcelen AC, Konikoff JM, Williamson J, Bi Q, et al. Times to Key

Events in the Course of Zika Infection and their Implications for Surveillance: A

Systematic Review and Pooled Analysis. bioRxiv. 2016; Available:

http://biorxiv.org/content/early/2016/03/02/041913.abstract

19. "Texas Department of State Health and Human Services." Zika in Texas [Internet]. 2016

[cited 5 Apr 2016]. Available: http://www.texaszika.org/

20. Musso D, Cao-Lormeau VM, Gubler DJ. Zika virus: following the path of dengue and

441   chikungunya? Lancet (London, England). Elsevier; 2015;386: 243–4. Available:

442   http://www.thelancet.com/article/S0140673615612739/fulltext

443   21.   Office of Travel & Tourism Industries. US Monthly Arrivals Trend Line [Internet]. 2014

444   [cited 25 May 2016]. Available: http://travel.trade.gov/view/m-2014-I-001/index.html

445   22.   Jaynes ET. Information Theory and Statistical Mechanics. Phys Rev. American Physical

446   Society; 1957;106: 620–630. doi:10.1103/PhysRev.106.620

447   23.   Wolsey LA. Integer programming. Vol. 42. New York: Wiley New York; 1998.

448   24.   Merow C, Smith MJ, Silander JA. A practical guide to MaxEnt for modeling species'

449   distributions: what it does, and why inputs and settings matter. Ecography (Cop).

450   Blackwell Publishing Ltd; 2013;36: 1058–1069. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0587.2013.07872.x

451   25.   Perkins A, Siraj A, Warren Ruktanonchai C, Kraemer M, Tatem A. Model-based

452   projections of Zika virus infections in childbearing women in the Americas. 2016;

453   doi:10.1101/039610

454   26.   World Media Group L. USA.com: Texas [Internet]. [cited 25 May 2016]. Available:

455   http://www.usa.com/texas-state.htm

456   27.   Rojas DP, Dean NE, Yang Y, Kenah E, Quintero J, Tomasi S, et al. The Epidemiology

457   and Transmissibility of Zika Virus in Girardot and San Andres Island, Colombia. bioRxiv.

458   2016; Available: http://biorxiv.org/content/early/2016/04/24/049957.abstract

459   28.   Kucharski AJ, Funk S, Eggo RM, Mallet H, Edmunds WJ, Nilles EJ. Transmission

460   dynamics of Zika virus in island populations : a modelling analysis of the 2013 – 14

461   French Polynesia outbreak. bioRxiv. 2016; 1–15.

462   29.   Dechant E, Rigau-Perez J. Hospitalizations for suspected dengue in Puerto Rico, 1991-

463   1995: estimation by capture-recapture methods. The Puerto Rico Association of

464   Epidemiologists. Am J Trop Med Hyg. 1999;61: 574–578. Available:

465   http://www.ajtmh.org/content/61/4/574.short

30.   Bhatt S, Gething PW, Brady OJ, Messina JP, Farlow AW, Moyes CL, et al. The global

distribution and burden of dengue. Nature. Nature Publishing Group; 2013;496: 504–507.

doi:10.1038/nature12060

31. Scarpino S V, Iamarino A, Wells C, Yamin D, Ndeffo-Mbah M, Wenzel NS, et al.

Epidemiological and viral genomic sequence analysis of the 2014 ebola outbreak reveals

clustered transmission. Clin Infect Dis. Oxford University Press; 2015;60: 1079–82.

Available: http://cid.oxfordjournals.org/content/early/2015/01/05/cid.ciu1131.full