Short title:

Bayesian ancestral state reconstruction models for investigating *Salmonella* outbreaks

Long title:

Investigation of the validity of two Bayesian ancestral state reconstruction models for

estimating *Salmonella* transmission during outbreaks

Authors:

Samuel J. Bloomfield

Quadram Institute, Norwich Research Park, Colney Lane, Norwich, United Kingdom

Contribution: Conceptualization, Data collection, Formal analysis, Investigation,

Methodology, Project Administration, Software, Writing – Original Draft preparation,

Writing – Review and Editing,

Timothy G. Vaughan

Department of Biosystems Science and Engineering, ETH Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland

Contribution: Conceptualization, Data collection, Formal analysis, Investigation,

Methodology, Software, Supervision, Writing – Review and Editing,

Jackie Benschop

Molecular Epidemiology and Public Health Laboratory, Massey University, Palmerston

North, New Zealand

Contribution: Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing – Review and Editing,

Jonathan C. Marshall

Molecular Epidemiology and Public Health Laboratory, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand

Contribution: Data collection, Formal analysis, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – Review and Editing,

David T. S. Hayman

Molecular Epidemiology and Public Health Laboratory, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand

Contribution: Conceptualization, Data collection, Formal analysis, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – Review and Editing,

Patrick J. Biggs

Molecular Epidemiology and Public Health Laboratory, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand

Contribution: Supervision, Visualization, Writing – Review and Editing,

Philip E. Carter

Institute of Environmental Science and Research, Keneperu, New Zealand

Contribution: Supervision, Writing – Review and Editing,

Nigel P. French

Molecular Epidemiology and Public Health Laboratory, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand. The New Zealand Foo Safety and Science Centre.

Contribution: Conceptualization, Data collection, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Methodology, Project Administration, Supervision, Writing – Review and Editing,

Abstract

Ancestral state reconstruction models use genetic data to characterize a group of organisms' common ancestor. These models have been applied to salmonellosis outbreaks to estimate the number of transmissions between different animal species that share similar geographical locations, with animal host as the state. However, as far as we are aware, no studies have validated these models for outbreak analysis. In this study, salmonellosis outbreaks were simulated using a stochastic Susceptible-Infected-Recovered model, and the host population and transmission parameters of these simulated outbreaks were estimated using Bayesian ancestral state reconstruction models (discrete trait analysis (DTA) and structured coalescent (SC)). These models were unable to accurately estimate the number of transmissions between the host populations or the amount of time spent in each host population. The DTA model was inaccurate because it assumed the number of isolates sampled from each host population was proportional to the number of individuals infected within each host population. The SC model was inaccurate possibly because it assumed that each host population's effective population size was constant over the course of the simulated outbreaks. This study highlights the need for phylodynamic models that can take into consideration factors that influence the characteristics and behavior of outbreaks, e.g. changing effective population sizes, variation in infectious periods, intra-population transmissions, and disproportionate sampling of infected individuals.

Introduction

Ancestral state reconstruction models estimate the ancestral states of organisms based on their evolutionary history. Outbreaks are "...the occurrence of disease in excess of what would normally be expected in a defined community, geographical area or season" (1). Ancestral state reconstruction models have been used to investigate the transmission of

infectious agents between animal populations over the course of outbreaks, with host

population as the state (2). However, as far as we are aware, no studies have validated these

models for this type of analysis.

The discrete trait analysis (DTA) and structured coalescent (SC) models are ancestral

state reconstruction models. Both models treat each host population as a discrete trait and can

be approximated using Markov chain Monte Carlo methods (3,4). There are many differences

between these two ancestral state reconstruction models. In the context of host association

studies, the DTA model uses a substitution model to model the transmission between host

populations (3). The pruning algorithm (5), often used in phylogenetic analysis to account for

possible mutations, is similarly used by the DTA model to integrate all possible migration

histories (6). The SC model assumes that the pathogen associated with each host population

has a fixed effective population size and models the transmission between populations. The

DTA model assumes that the number of offspring an individual pathogen is likely to produce

is independent of its host population, whilst the SC model allows for variation between host

populations (4). The DTA model assumes that the proportion of isolates sampled from each

host population is proportional to the size of the pathogen population associated with that

host, whilst the SC model allows for variation in these population sizes (6). Some of these

assumptions are applicable to the investigation of outbreaks (e.g. varying effective population

size), whilst others are not (e.g. isolate proportionality).

Salmonellosis is an intestinal infection caused by non-typhoidal *Salmonella* strains.

Salmonellosis outbreaks vary in size and can involve one or more host populations (7).

Identifying the amount of time *Salmonella* spends in a host population over an outbreak and

the amount of transmission between host populations can inform control measures to limit

salmonellosis outbreaks, e.g. if human cases are primarily from exposure to poultry sources

then control measures that limit human exposure to poultry or decrease the amount of

Salmonella in poultry may be beneficial. However, there is growing evidence that exposure

to human sources contributes more to salmonellosis outbreaks than previously thought (8).

Therefore, methods and models are required that can approximate the number of cases that

are the result of exposure to different animal and/or human sources. The aim of this study

was to use simulated outbreaks to investigate whether the DTA or SC models could be

applied to infer transmission dynamics in outbreaks involving multiple hosts, motivated by

non-typhoidal *Salmonella*.

Methods

Outbreak simulations

The MASTER package (9) in BEAST2 (10) was used to simulate stochastic

transmission dynamics for a pathogen infecting structured populations, including associated

phylogenetic and transmission trees. Outbreaks were generated using a stochastic

Susceptible-Infected-Recovered (SIR) model, intended to simulate the transmission of

zoonotic salmonellosis. In this model, susceptible host individuals become infectious by

exposure to other infected individuals:

$S_i + I_i \xrightarrow{\beta_{ii}} 2I_i$ (1)

$S_i + I_j \xrightarrow{\beta_{ji}} I_i + I_j$ (2)

Equation 1 represents the transmission of the infectious agent from an infected

individual to a susceptible individual of the same host population. Equation 2 represents the

transmission of the infectious agent from an infected individual to a susceptible individual of

another host population. Here, S_i represents a susceptible individual from one host

population, I_i represents an infectious individual from the same host population, I_j represents

an infectious individual from another host population, and β_{ii} and β_{ji} represents the

transmission rate per susceptible individual per infectious individual.

In this model, infectious individuals also recover or are removed over time:

$$I_i \xrightarrow{\gamma_i} R_i \qquad (3)$$

Equation 3 determines the infectious period for an infectious individual. Here, I_i

represents an infectious individual in one host population, R_i represents a recovered/removed

individual in the same host population, and γ_i represents the recovery/removal rate per

infectious individual for this host population. The mean infectious period for a host of type i

is $\frac{1}{\gamma_i}$.

Simulated outbreaks

We simulated 23 outbreaks using the MASTER package, hereinafter 'outbreak

simulations'. This created 23 transmission trees consisting of all the transmissions that took

place over the course of each simulated outbreak (Fig 1). These simulations consisted of two

host populations: human and animal. We wanted to compare the simulated outbreaks with a

previously reported salmonellosis outbreak in New Zealand that involved *Salmonella*

enterica serovar Typhimurium DT160 (herein, DT160) (11). Therefore, the initial susceptible

host population size, infectious period (γ) and transmission rate (β) values varied between the

23 simulations but represented possible values for salmonellosis outbreaks in New Zealand

(S1 Appendix).

Fig 1. Flow diagram of the methods used to compare the SC and DTA models using

various sampling methods. White rectangles represent the methods used and blue rectangles

represent the data produced.

Simulated genetic sequences from outbreaks

One hundred '*Salmonella*' isolates were randomly sampled from each outbreak simulation, after stratifying for host population, hereinafter 'random sampling'. For each outbreak simulation, the transmission tree was simplified to only include nodes common to the 100 isolates (both steps were accomplished using custom Perl scripts). The sampled transmission trees were used to simulate genetic data for the 23 simulated outbreaks using the sequence simulation capability of the BEAST 2 package MASTER, hereinafter 'sequence simulations'. 800 SNPs were simulated in total for the 100 isolates, similar to the 793 core SNPs shared by 109 DT160 isolates (11). Perl and R scripts were used to analyze the sampled transmission tree and to calculate the amount of time spent in each host population and quantify the number of transmissions, later referred to as the 'known parameters'.

Model consistency

To investigate variation in model estimates between different samples (i.e. model consistency), one of the simulated outbreaks was randomly sampled 10 times after stratifying for host population. For each sample, sequence simulations were used to create genetic data.

Sample size

To investigate the effect of different sample sizes on the models' estimates, one of the simulated outbreaks was randomly sampled 12 times. The number of isolates sampled systematically ranged from 25 to 300 isolates in 11 increments of 25. For each sample, sequence simulations were used to create genetic data. The genetic data systematically ranged from 200 to 2400 SNPs in 11 increments of 200, respectively. To determine if sample size affected the extremity of a model's estimates, the simulated outbreak chosen had significantly

different population values between host populations and similar transmission values for

comparison.

Disproportionate sampling

To investigate the effect of the relative number of isolates from each source on model

estimates (i.e. disproportionate sampling), as expected during the outbreaks, one of the

simulated outbreaks was randomly sampled 10 times with different numbers of animal and

human isolates. For each sample, 100 isolates were analyzed, but the proportion of isolates

that were from each host population were systematically ranged from 5-95% in 10%

intervals. For each sample, sequence simulations were used to create genetic data.

Equal-time sampling

To investigate an alternative sampling method, 'equal-time sampling', an in-house

Perl script was used to stratify the isolates from the initial 23 simulated outbreaks by host

population, before randomly sampling an equal number of isolates from each year of the

simulated outbreaks, to a total of 100 isolates. Sequence simulations were used to create

genetic data for the samples.

Equal intra-population transmission and infectious periods

To investigate if different intra-population transmission rates and infectious periods

had any effect on model estimates, twelve additional outbreaks were simulated but with equal

intra-population transmission rates and infectious periods (EPTI) for both host populations,

but inter-population transmission rates and initial susceptible host population sizes that

varied. For each simulation, 100 isolates were sampled using random sampling, and sequence

simulations were used to create genetic data.

DTA model

DTA model

For the DTA model, the genetic data was imported into BEAUti 1.8.3 to create an

XML file for BEAST 1.8.3 (12). The generalized time reversible (GTR) model was used to

model base substitutions (13), the Gaussian Markov random field (GMRF) Bayesian skyride

model was used to allow for changes in the effective population size (14), and a strict

molecular clock was used to estimate the mutation rate, which was calibrated by the tip date.

The XML file was run in BEAST for 10 million steps as a single run with a 10% burn-in.

SC model

For the SC model, the genetic data was imported into BEAUti 2.4 with the

MultiTypeTree package (4) to create an XML file for BEAST 2.4 (10). The GTR model was

used to model base substitution and a strict molecular clock was used to estimate the

mutation rate, which was calibrated by the tip date. The XML file was run in BEAST for 250

million steps as a single run with a 10% burn-in. The SC model was run for a larger number

of steps than the DTA model as its population and transmission parameters took longer to

converge. BEAST 1.8.3 is unable to run the SC model, unlike BEAST 2.4. BEAST 2.4 can

run GMRF and DTA models but does not have a BEAUti interface to easily set up these

models. BEAST 1.8.3. does have an interface for these models so was used for the DTA

model.

Model comparison

The SC and DTA models were used to estimate the amount of time spent in each host

population (population parameters) and the amount of transmissions between the host

populations (transmission parameters). However, the models' raw outputs were not directly

comparable, as the SC model's implementation explicitly records transmissions along

branches, whilst the DTA approach integrates and marginalizes over these transmissions and

therefore does not record them in its output. Therefore, the relative amount of time (i.e.

proportion) spent in each host population and the relative number of inter-population

transmissions made up of each transmission were compared. The performance of the two

models were compared using four parameters:

1. The proportion of outbreak simulations that a model included the known parameter

within their 95% highest posterior density (HPD) intervals.

2. The mean squared error between a known parameter and a model's mean estimates.

3. The size of a model's 95% HPD intervals.

4. The correlation coefficient between a known parameter and a model's mean estimates.

DT160 outbreak

The DTA and SC models were used to analyze a previously-described salmonellosis

outbreak in New Zealand caused by DT160 (11). 109 DT160 isolates from animal (n=74) and

human (n=35) host populations over 14 years were investigated using the 793 core SNPs they

shared.

Scripts

The in-house scripts used in this study are available from GitHub

(https://github.com/samuelbloomfield/Scripts-for-outbreak-simulations).

Results

Model consistency

There was some variation in the DTA and SC models' population and transmission

mean estimates for the same simulated outbreak that was randomly sampled ten times (Fig 2).

The SC model's 95% HPD intervals included known population parameters more frequently,

whilst the DTA model's 95% HPD intervals included known transmission parameters more

frequently.

The outbreak transmission tree was the same for the ten samples, as these samples

were taken from the same simulated outbreak. However, the samples consisted of different

animal and human isolates, such that when the outbreak transmission tree was simplified to

only include nodes and branches common to these isolates, there was some variation in the

time spent in animal and human populations, and the number of transmissions between these

populations between samples. The known parameters were taken from the ten sampled

transmission trees, not the entire outbreak transmission tree, resulting in slight differences in

the known parameters between the ten samples. This is true for other analyses below that

sampled the same outbreak multiple times. Some of the outbreaks investigated in this

outbreak consisted of hundreds of thousands of infected animals and humans (S1 Appendix),

leaving large outbreak transmission trees that required large time periods to calculate the

number of transmissions and time spend in the populations. The small amount of variation in

the sampled transmission trees and the outbreak transmission tree for this dataset suggests

that the sampled transmission tree parameters are representative of the outbreak transmission

tree parameters.

Fig 2. The proportion of time spent in the animal (A and E) and human (B and F) host

populations, and the proportion of inter-population transmissions made up of animal-to-

human (C and G) and human-to-animal (D and H) transmissions as estimated by the SC

(blue: A-D) and DTA (red: E-F) models, for 10 random samples of the same simulated

outbreak. The circles represent the mean, the error bars represent the 95% HPD interval, the

black horizontal lines represent the known parameters for the sampled outbreaks, and the

grey horizontal lines represent the known parameters for the entire outbreak.

Sample size

The DTA and SC models were affected by variation in sample size for the same

simulated outbreak differently. Increased sample sizes were associated with smaller 95%

HPD intervals and more accurate and extreme mean population estimates by the SC model up

to 100 samples. After this point, increased sample sizes had little effect on the precision,

extremity or accuracy of the model's mean population estimates (Fig 3). The DTA model's

mean population estimates were more precise than the SC model's. Sample size had no effect

on their accuracy but decreased the size of their 95% HPD intervals. The accuracy of the SC

and DTA models' mean transmission estimates and their 95% HPD intervals displayed some

variation, but there were no trends with sample size.

Fig 3. The proportion of time spent in the animal (A and E) and human (B and F) host

populations, and the proportion of inter-population transmissions made up of animal-to-

human (C and G) and human-to-animal (D and H) transmissions as estimated by the SC

(blue: A-D) and DTA (red: E-F) models versus the number of isolates sampled from the same

outbreak. The circles represent the mean, the error bars represent the 95% HPD interval, the

black horizontal lines represent the known parameters for the sampled outbreaks, and the

grey horizontal lines represent the known parameters for the entire outbreak.

Disproportionate sampling

The DTA and SC models responded to variation in sample proportions for the same

simulated outbreak differently. The DTA model's mean estimates showed a much stronger

positive correlation with the proportion of isolates sampled from each host population than

the SC models' mean estimates (Fig 4). The DTA model's mean estimates displayed a

sigmoid-like association with the proportion of isolates sampled from each host population

(Fig 5).

Fig 4. Bar graph of the correlation coefficients between the models' mean estimates

and the proportion of sampled isolates that are animal or human hosts for the same outbreak

that was disproportionately sampled.

Fig 5. The proportion of time spent in the animal (A and E) and human (B and F) host

populations, and the proportion of inter-population transmissions made up of animal-to-

human (C and G) and human-to-animal (D and H) transmissions as estimated by the SC

(blue: A-D) and DTA (red: E-F) models versus the proportion of sampled isolates that are

animal (A, C, E and G) and human (B, D, F and H) for the same outbreak that was

disproportionately sampled. The diagonal line represents accurate parameter estimates of the

sampled outbreaks, the dots represent the mean, and the error bars represent the 95% HPD

interval.

Multiple variable simulations

The DTA and SC models showed different associations between known and estimated

parameters when 100 isolates were randomly sampled from each of the 23 simulated

outbreaks. The SC model predicted a larger proportion of known population and transmission

parameters within its 95% HPD interval compared to the DTA model (Fig 6). However, its

mean 95% HPD interval sizes were larger and the DTA model's mean estimates showed a

stronger positive correlation with the known parameter values than the SC model's mean

estimates. Both models had similar mean squared errors between the known parameters and

the models' mean estimates. However, the SC model's mean population estimates were all

within the 0.2-0.8 interval and its mean transmission rates were all within the 0.35-0.65

interval, whilst the DTA models had mean estimates that lay outside of these ranges (Fig 7).

Fig 6. The proportion of outbreak simulations that the models included the known

parameter within their 95% highest posterior density (HPD) intervals (A); the correlation

coefficient between known parameters and the models' mean estimates (B); the mean squared

error between known parameters and the models' mean estimates (C); and the size of the

models' 95% HPD intervals (D), for the population and transmission estimates made by the

DTA (red) and SC (blue) models for 23 randomly-sampled simulated outbreaks that 100

isolates were randomly sampled from.

Fig 7. The proportion of time spent in the animal (A and E) and human (B and F) host

populations, and the proportion of inter-population transmissions made up of animal-to-

human (C and G) and human-to-animal (D and H) transmissions as estimated by the SC

(blue: A-D) and DTA (red: E-F) models versus the true parameters for 23 simulated

outbreaks that 100 isolates were randomly sampled from. The diagonal line represents

accurate parameter estimates of the sampled outbreaks, the dots represent the mean, and the

error bars represent the 95% HPD interval.

The phylogenetic trees produced by the DTA and SC models for the 23 simulated

outbreaks poorly reflected the sampled transmission trees (Fig 8). The DTA model was

unable to detect transmissions along branches in the transmission trees. The SC model could

identify transmissions along branches, but often over-estimated the amount of transmissions

compared to the true transmission tree. In the example given, the SC model predicted that

'Salmonella' was predominantly in the animal (red) population, as indicated by the

predominantly red branches, but that coalescent events primarily occurred in the human

(blue) population. This was common for most of the *maximum a priori* trees produced by the

SC model, where the population that was estimated to have a smaller effective population

size would be where the coalescent events took place, whilst the population with the

estimated larger effective population size would predominate the branches. The phylogenetic

trees in Fig 8 represent the most likely trees estimated using the DTA and SC models for one

simulated outbreak, not the variation amongst each model, as each model estimated

thousands of phylogenetic trees.

Fig 8. Sampled transmission tree (A), maximum clade credibility tree produced by the

DTA model (B) and *maximum a posteriori* tree produced by the SC model (C), for one of the

23 simulated outbreaks that 100 isolates were randomly sampled from. The blue areas

represent time spent in the human population and the red areas represent time spent in the

animal population.

Equal-time sampling

The DTA and SC models gave similar population and transmission estimates for the

23 simulated outbreaks with random (Fig 6-7) and equal-time sampling (Fig 9-10) of 100

isolates. Random sampling estimated more known parameters within its 95% HPD interval,

but equal-time sampling had smaller mean squared errors between known parameters and the

mean estimates, and smaller 95% HPD intervals. The SC and DTA models also estimated

similar phylogenetic trees for simulated outbreaks that were sampled using random and

equal-time sampling (Fig 11). This suggests that neither sampling method was more suitable

for these ancestral state reconstruction models.

Fig 9. The proportion of outbreak simulations that the models included the known

parameter within their 95% highest posterior density (HPD) intervals (A); the correlation

coefficient between known parameters and the models' mean estimates (B); the mean squared

errors between known parameters and the models' mean estimates (C), and the size of the

models' 95% HPD intervals (D), for the population and transmission estimates made by the

DTA (red) and SC (blue) models for 23 simulated outbreaks that 100 isolates were sampled

equally over time from.

Fig 10. The proportion of time spent in the animal (A and E) and human (B and F)

host populations, and the proportion of inter-population transmissions made up of animal-to-

human (C and G) and human-to-animal (D and H) transmissions as estimated by the SC

(blue: A-D) and DTA (red: E-F) models versus the true parameters for 23 simulated

outbreaks that 100 isolates were sampled equally over time from. The diagonal line

represents accurate estimates of the sampled outbreaks, the dots represent the mean, and the

error bars represent the 95% HPD interval.

Fig 11. Sampled transmission tree (A and D), maximum clade credibility tree

produced by the DTA model (B and E) and *maximum a posteriori* tree produced by the SC

model (C and F), for one of the 23 simulated outbreaks that 100 isolates were sampled

randomly (A-C) and equally over time (D-F). The blue areas represent time spent in the

human population and the red areas represent time spent in the animal population.

Equal intra-population transmission rates and infectious periods

The DTA and SC models provided more accurate estimates of population parameters for the 12 simulated outbreaks with equal intra-population transmission rates and infectious periods (EPTI) (Fig 12 and 13) than the 23 simulations where these parameters varied (Fig 6 and 7), with smaller mean squared errors, a higher proportion of known parameter within their 95% HPD intervals, and mean estimates that were more positively correlated with the known parameters. The DTA model's mean population estimates displayed a sigmoid shape, similar to the simulated outbreak that was disproportionately sampled (Fig 5). On the other hand, the DTA and SC models gave less accurate transmission estimates for the 12 outbreaks with equal intra-population transmission rates and infectious periods between host populations than for the 23 simulations where these parameters varied, with larger mean squared errors, a lower proportion of known parameter within their 95% HPD intervals, and mean estimates that were less positively correlated or negative correlated with the known parameters.

Fig 12. The proportion of outbreak simulations that the models included the known parameter within their 95% highest posterior density (HPD) intervals (A); the correlation coefficients between known parameters and the models' mean estimates (B); the mean squared error between known parameters and the models' mean estimates (C); and the size of the models' 95% HPD intervals (D), for the population and transmission estimates made by the DTA (red) and SC (blue) models for 12 EPTI simulated outbreaks that 100 isolates were randomly sampled from.

Fig 13. The proportion of time spent in the animal (A and E) and human (B and F)

host populations, and the proportion of inter-population transmissions made up of animal-to-

human (C and G) and human-to-animal (D and H) transmissions as estimated by the SC

(blue: A-D) and DTA (red: E-F) models versus the true parameters for 12 EPTI simulated

outbreaks that 100 isolates were randomly sampled from. The diagonal line represents

accurate estimates of the sampled outbreaks, the dots represent the mean, and the error bars

represent the 95% HPD interval.

The phylogenetic trees estimated for the 12 EPTI outbreaks (Fig 14) were like those

of previous simulated outbreaks (Fig 8). They also demonstrated that the DTA model was

unable to estimate ancestral branch states that were a different host population to daughter

branches and tips. The SC model could estimate the state of ancestral branches that differed

to the tips, but often estimated these branches inaccurately.

Fig 14. Sampled transmission tree (A), maximum clade credibility tree produced by

the DTA model (B) and maximum a posteriori tree produced by the SC model (C), for a EPTI

simulated outbreak that 100 isolates were randomly sampled from. The blue areas represent

time spent in the human population and the red areas represent time spent in the animal

population.

Host sampling effect on the models' estimates

To determine the effect of host sampling on the SC and DTA models' estimates, the

correlation coefficient between the proportion of samples isolated from each host population

and the mean estimates for the simulated outbreaks were calculated (Fig 15; S1-S3 Fig). The

DTA model's mean population and transmission estimates were more positively correlated

with the proportion of samples isolated from each population, than the SC model's. The DTA

model's mean estimates displayed similar correlation coefficients for the 12 EPTI simulations

and the 23 simulated outbreaks that were sampled randomly and equally over time, whilst the

SC model's estimates gave different correlation coefficients for these datasets.

Fig 15. Bar graph of the correlation coefficients between the SC and DTA models'

mean estimates and the proportion of isolates sampled from each host population for 12 EPTI

simulated outbreaks that 100 isolates were randomly sampled from, and 23 simulated

outbreaks that 100 isolates were sampled randomly and equally over time.

To determine if the difference in sampling fraction could account for the DTA

model's estimates for the simulated outbreaks, the correlation coefficient between the

proportion of samples isolated from each host and the known parameters were calculated (Fig

16; S4-S6 Fig). The known population parameters for the 12 EPTI simulated outbreaks and

the sampling proportions were highly correlated, accounting for the more accurate estimates

of these known parameters by the DTA model (Fig 13) compared to the known transmission

parameters and other outbreak datasets where there was less correlation (Fig 7, 10, 13).

Fig 16. Bar graph of the correlation coefficients between the proportion of isolates

sampled from each host population and the known population and transmission parameters

for 12 EPTI simulated outbreaks that 100 isolates were randomly sampled from, and 23

simulated outbreaks that 100 isolates were sampled randomly and equally over time.

DT160 outbreak

The SC and DTA models both predicted that DT160 spent most of the time in the

animal host population over the course of the DT160 outbreak in New Zealand (Fig 17).

However, the SC model predicted that there were relatively equal amounts of transmission

between the animal and human host populations, whilst the DTA model predicted that there

was a large amount of animal-to-human transmission and relatively less human-to-animal

transmission. The phylogenetic trees estimated for the DT160 outbreak also displayed larger

intervals between coalescent events later in the outbreak compared to the outbreaks simulated

in this study (Fig 18).

Fig 17. Estimates of the proportion of time spend in the animal (A) and human (B)

host populations, and the proportion of inter-population transmissions made up of animal-to-

human (C) and human-to-animal (D) transmissions for the DT160 outbreak, as estimated by

the SC (blue) and DTA (red) models on 109 isolates. The circles represent the mean and the

error bars represent the 95% HPD interval.

Fig 18. Maximum clade credibility tree produced by the DTA model (A) and

maximum a posteriori tree produced by the SC model (B), based on 109 DT160 isolates.

Discussion

The DTA and SC models are ancestral state reconstruction models that were designed

to estimate the ancestral state of a group of organisms based on their evolutionary history

(3,4). In this study we demonstrated using simulated outbreaks and a previously described

salmonellosis outbreak that neither of these models could accurately estimate known

population and transmission parameters for these outbreaks.

The DTA model assumes that the proportion of samples from each host population is

proportional to its relative size (6). This is a problem for outbreaks involving multiple host

populations, as the host populations may be sampled at different rates, resulting in samples

disproportional to the number of individuals infected within each host population. The

simulated outbreaks in this study were stratified by host population before random sampling

in efforts to meet this assumption. However, differing intra-population transmission rates and

infectious periods between the host populations resulted in inter-population transmission rates

and length of times spent in host populations disproportionate to the number of individuals

infected within each host population and thus the proportion of each population sampled.

This may explain why the DTA model consistently over-estimated the length of time in the

animal host population and the number of animal-to-human transmissions for the initial 23

simulated outbreaks, as the human host populations of these outbreaks were simulated to

have longer infectious periods than the animal host populations. This resulted in longer

periods spent in the human host population and a larger number of human-to-animal

transmissions relative to the number of humans sampled.

The DTA model appeared to estimate population parameters more accurately when

the parameter was directly proportional to the number of isolates from each host population

sampled. In these instances, the population estimates and simulated outbreak parameters

shared a sigmoid-like relationship due to the model's ancestral branch estimates: the DTA

model usually predicts that all the ancestral branches are one host population, until the

majority of the tips are another host population, where all the ancestral branches switch (11).

The correct population parameters were also only estimated when simulating outbreaks with

equal intra-population transmission rates and infectious periods, parameters that usually

differ between *Salmonella* host populations (15,16). However, even in these instances the

DTA model inaccurately estimated ancestral host population states and transmission

parameters.

The SC model gave similar estimates for all the simulated outbreaks. It was poor at

estimating simulated outbreaks known parameters, only accurately estimating them when

they were within the range that it consistently estimated. The SC model's inaccurate

estimates are possibly due to the model's assumption that the effective population size of the

host populations were consistent throughout the outbreak (10), which does not apply to

salmonellosis outbreaks whose effective population size varies over the course of the

outbreak (11). There may be other reasons why the SC model was unable to detect a signal,

but it is difficult to test for these without first accounting for the model's effective population

size assumption.

The inability of the SC and DTA models to accurately estimate salmonellosis

outbreak parameters highlights the need for outbreak-specific models. These models would

need to be able to take into consideration variable sampling between host populations, like

the SC model, and changes in the effective population size, like the DTA model. In addition,

they would need to be able to take into consideration variation in infectious periods and intra-

population transmission rates.

The MASTER package of BEAST2 allowed many salmonellosis outbreaks to be

simulated using the stochastic SIR model. The simulated outbreaks contained a large amount

of variation in the amount of time spent in the animal and human host populations, but less

variation in inter-population transmissions due to only simulating two host populations.

Therefore, unequal transmission values were only simulated using one very high and one

very low inter-population transmission value. This in part explains why the SC model was

more likely to provide estimates that matched known simulation parameters because it always

gave similar mean estimates around the 0.35-0.65 range, which most of the known

transmission parameters for the simulated outbreaks were within. Further work with multiple

host populations may help better understand these models' application to salmonellosis

outbreaks.

The DTA and SC models' estimates of the DT160 outbreak underline some of the

limitations of this study. The DTA model estimated that DT160 spent most of its time in the

animal host population and that there was a larger amount of animal-to-human transmission

than human-to-animal transmission, which is to be expected as the DTA model is affected by

sample size and a larger number of animal isolates were analyzed than human isolates in the

DT160 study. The SC model estimated similar amounts of animal-to-human transmission

than human-to-animal transmission, which is also to be expected as our study shows it

usually gives similar transmission rates between two host populations. However, the SC

model estimated that DT160 spent over 90% of its time in the animal host population and less

than 10% of its time in the human host population, outside the 20-80% range estimated for

simulated outbreaks, and both models produced phylogenetic trees with larger distances

between coalescent events towards the later part of the outbreak than simulated outbreaks.

The effective population size affects the timing of coalescent events for randomly sampled

individuals (17). This suggests that the DT160 outbreak had a much larger effective

population size than any of the simulated outbreaks in this study. It also indicates that the SC

model's estimates maybe influenced by branch length. Simulations with larger effective

population sizes are required to test this.

In conclusion, our comparison of applicability of the SC and DTA models to

salmonellosis outbreaks between the known parameters of simulated outbreaks and the

models' estimates suggest neither model is appropriate for this analysis. Our findings

highlight the need for outbreak-specific models that can also take into consideration intra-

population transmission rates, infectious periods, disproportionate sampling and changes in

the effective population size.

Acknowledgements

We acknowledge the contribution of the New Zealand eScience Infrastructure (NeSI)

high-performance computing facilities to the results of this research.

References

1.   WHO. Disease outbreaks [Internet]. World Health Organization. 2016. p. 1–1.

Available from: http://www.who.int/topics/disease_outbreaks/en/

2.   Mather AE, Reid SWJ, Maskell DJ, Parkhill J, Fookes MC, Harris S., et al.

Distinguishable epidemics of multidrug-resistant *Salmonella* Typhimurium DT104 in

different hosts. Science (80-) [Internet]. 2013;341(6153):1514–7. Available from:

https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

84885656011&partnerID=40&md5=31f2c7923584046fd043e1f0ebf66e6a

3.   Lemey P, Rambaut A, Drummond A, Suchard M. Bayesian phylogeography finds its

roots. PLoS Comput Biol [Internet]. 2009;5(9):1–16. Available from:

https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

70349675664&partnerID=40&md5=ef46381e24c435e991da9c5654f6bc3b

4.   Vaughan TG, Kühnert D, Popinga A, Welch D, Drummond AJ. Efficient Bayesian

inference under the structured coalescent. Bioinformatics [Internet].

2014;30(16):2272–9. Available from:

https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

84906255301&partnerID=40&md5=3e9fd7aac4d0f3e2f7573b99d56a0136

5.   Felsenstein J. Evolutionary trees from DNA sequences: A maximum likelihood

592 approach. J Mol Evol [Internet]. 1981;17(6):368–76. Available from:

593 https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

594 0019797407&doi=10.1007%2FBF01734359&partnerID=40&md5=eb071314e58843b

595 437de4d67c4e77341

596 6. De Maio N, Wu CH, O'Reilly KM, Wilson D. New routes to phylogeography: A

597 Bayesian structured coalescent approximation. PLoS Genet [Internet]. 2015;11(8):1–

598 22. Available from: https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

599 84940739133&partnerID=40&md5=ac9b1b1462c622ca95b13159ba9b0302

600 7. Gould LH, Walsh KA, Vieira AR, Herman K, Williams IT, Hall AJ, et al. Surveillance

601 for foodborne disease outbreaks - United States, 1998-2008. MMWR Surveill Summ

602 [Internet]. 2013;62(1):1–34. Available from:

603 https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

604 84893354227&partnerID=40&md5=e446fa7f0c9956ecba67bb3392167787

605 8. Wikswo M. Outbreaks of acute gastroenteritis transmitted by person-to-person contact-

606 United States, 2009-2010. Am J Public Health [Internet]. 2014;104(11):e13–4.

607 Available from: https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

608 84986880401&partnerID=40&md5=d3ff522e8cb9145941b43b13a7253817

609 9. Vaughan TG, Drummond AJ. A stochastic simulator of birth-death master equations

610 with application to phylodynamics. Mol Biol Evol [Internet]. 2013;30(6):1480–93.

611 Available from: https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

612 84877761231&doi=10.1093%2Fmolbev%2Fmst057&partnerID=40&md5=1a2586ee7

613 cf353efea6d6470c3855804

614 10. Bouckaert R, Heled J, Kühnert D, Vaughan T, Wu C-H, Xie D, et al. BEAST 2: A

615 Software Platform for Bayesian Evolutionary Analysis. PLoS Comput Biol [Internet].

616 2014;10(4). Available from: https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

84901305512&doi=10.1371%2Fjournal.pcbi.1003537&partnerID=40&md5=5515082

bdf0d92199f98e1acae7385fb

11.   Bloomfield SJ, Benschop J, Biggs PJ, Marshall JC, Hayman DTS, Carter PE, et al.

Genomic analysis of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium DT160 associated

with a 14-year outbreak, New Zealand, 1998-2012. Emerg Infect Dis. 2017;23(6):906–

13.

12.   Drummond AJ, Suchard MA, Xie D, Rambaut A. Bayesian phylogenetics with

BEAUti and the BEAST 1.7. Mol Biol Evol [Internet]. 2012;29(8):1969–73. Available

from: https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

84864530626&partnerID=40&md5=3fe0a37300c038c06df1307c8f1c69d9

13.   Tavare S. Some probabilistic and statistical problems in the analysis of DNA

sequences. Am Math Soc. 1986;17:57–86.

14.   Minin VN., Bloomquist E, Suchard M. Smooth skyride through a rough skyline:

Bayesian coalescent-based inference of population dynamics. Mol Biol Evol [Internet].

2008;25(7):1459–71. Available from:

https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

45849122039&partnerID=40&md5=83fbb3d858a0cfc4a5ef5aecd2df2447

15.   Alexander KA, Warnick LD, Cripps CJ, McDonough PL, Grohn YT, Wiedmann M, et

al. Fecal shedding of, antimicrobial resistance in, and serologic response to *Salmonella*

Typhimurium in dairy calves. J Am Vet Med Assoc [Internet]. 2009;235(6):739–48.

Available from: https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

70349632969&doi=10.2460%2Fjavma.235.6.739&partnerID=40&md5=a99e961243b

2435e87df7ce96b1ced42

16.   Murase T, Yamada M, Muto T, Matsushima A, Yamai S. Fecal excretion of

Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium following a food-borne outbreak. J Clin

Microbiol [Internet]. 2000;38(9):3495–7. Available from:

https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

0033831284&partnerID=40&md5=d957ddbb4032b53db984fc6877b83ccf

17.   Heled J, Drummond AJ. Bayesian inference of population size history from multiple

loci. BMC Evol Biol [Internet]. 2008;8(1):1–15. Available from:

https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-

60549111699&partnerID=40&md5=181e2952d1c48734d15ea5675d2f6327

S1 Appendix - Simulated outbreak parameters

S1 Fig. The proportion of time spent in the animal (A and E) and human (B and F)

host populations, and the proportion of inter-population transmissions made up of animal-to-

human (C and G) and human-to-animal (D and H) transmissions as estimated by the SC

(blue: A-D) and DTA (red: E-F) models versus the proportion of samples made up of animal

(A, C, E and G) and human (B, D, F and H) host populations for 12 EPTI simulated

outbreaks that 100 isolates were randomly sampled from. The dots represent the mean, and

the error bars represent the 95% HPD interval.

S2 Fig. The proportion of time spent in the animal (A and E) and human (B and F)

host populations, and the proportion of inter-population transmissions made up of animal-to-

human (C and G) and human-to-animal (D and H) transmissions as estimated by the SC

(blue: A-D) and DTA (red: E-F) models versus the proportion of samples made up of animal

(A, C, E and G) and human (B, D, F and H) host populations for 23 simulated outbreaks that

100 isolates were randomly sampled from. The dots represent the mean, and the error bars

represent the 95% HPD interval.

S3 Fig. Scatterplots of the proportion of time spent in the animal (A and E) and

human (B and F) host populations, and the proportion of inter-population transmissions made

up of animal-to-human (C and G) and human-to-animal (D and H) transmissions as estimated

by the SC (blue: A-D) and DTA (red: E-F) models versus the proportion of samples made up

of animal (A, C, E and G) and human (B, D, F and H) host populations for 23 simulated

outbreaks that 100 isolates were sampled equally over time from. The dots represent the

mean, and the error bars represent the 95% HPD interval.

S4 Fig. The proportion of samples made up of animal (A and C) and human (B and

D) host populations, versus the known population (A and B) and transmission (C and D)

parameters for 12 EPTI simulated outbreaks that 100 isolates were randomly sampled from.

S5 Fig. The proportion of samples made up of animal (A and C) and human (B and

D) host populations, versus the known population (A and B) and transmission (C and D)

parameters for 23 simulated outbreaks that 100 isolates were randomly sampled from.

S6 Fig. The proportion of samples made up of animal (A and C) and human (B and

D) host populations, versus the known population (A and B) and transmission (C and D)

parameters for 23 simulated outbreaks that 100 isolates were sampled equally over time from.

Fig 1

Fig 2

Fig 3

Fig 4

Fig 5

Fig 6

Fig 7

A

B

C

Fig 8

Fig 9

Fig 10

Fig 11

Fig 12

Fig 13

A

B

C

Fig 14

Fig 15

Fig 16

Fig 17

A

B

Fig 18