Centre for the Mathematical Modelling of Infectious Diseases London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine





centre for the mathematical modelling of infectious diseases

1. Introduction

Model

A simplified description, especially a mathematical one, of a system or process, to assist calculations and predictions

Oxford English Dictionary

Mathematical model

Takes *parameters* and produces *output* (using some set of rules / equations)

Model fitting and inference for infectious disease dynamics SIR-type models

$$S \xrightarrow{\beta} \longrightarrow I \xrightarrow{\gamma} B$$

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = -\beta I \frac{S}{N}$$
$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \beta I \frac{S}{N} - \gamma I$$
$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \gamma I$$



Model fitting and inference for infectious disease dynamics SIR-type models

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$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \gamma I$$



Mechanistic models description vs mechanism

Parameter estimation

Given a model, what are the parameter combinations that best fit the data (in whichever way)

Why are we doing this?

- Learn something about the system
 - test a scientific hypothesis
 - e.g., why did the UK H1N1 epidemic wane in summer 2009? [1]
 - estimate parameters
 - e.g. which fraction of infections with cholera in Bangladesh are asymptomatic? [2]
 - sometimes in real time
- Validate the model
 - especially: for prediction











State estimation

Given what we observe, what is the state of the sytem?



Model selection



Model selection



Model selection



Model selection



Model selection



2. Linking models to data









Assessing the "closeness" of model output and data



Assessing the "closeness" of model output and data



Assessing the "closeness" of model output and data



Probabilistic formulation

- Often we know something about how the data were taken \rightarrow observations introduce uncertainty
- We can express the uncertainty in observing the process as a probability

p(data|underlying process)

• By including this in our model, we get

p(data|model output)

Interlude: probabilities I

• If A is a random variable, we write

$$p(A=a)$$

for the probability that A takes value a.

• We often write

$$p(A = a) = p(a)$$

• Example: The probability that Novak Djokovic wins Wimbledon

$$p(W = Djokovic) = p(Djokovic)$$

Normalisation

$$\sum_{a} p(a) = 1$$

Interlude: probabilities II

• If A and B are random variables, we write

$$p(A = a, B = b) = p(a, b)$$

for the joint probability that A takes value a and B takes value b

• Example: The probability that Djokovic wins Wimbledon and it is sunny on the final day

p(W = Djokovic, S = sunny) = p(Djokovic, sunny)

• We can obtain a marginal probability from joint probabilities by summing

$$p(a) = \sum_{b} p(a, b)$$

Interlude: probabilities III

• The conditional probability of getting outcome *a* from random variable *A*, given that the outcome of random variable *B* was *b*, is written as

$$p(A = a|B = b) = p(a|b)$$

• Example: the probability that Djokovic wins Wimbledon if it is sunny on the final day

$$p(W = Djokovic|S = sunny) = p(Djokovic|Sunny)$$

· Conditional probabilities are related to joint probabilities as

$$p(a|b) = \frac{p(a,b)}{p(b)}$$

• We can combine conditional probabilities in the chain rule

$$p(a, b, c) = p(a|b, c)p(b|c)p(c)$$

Probability distributions (discrete)

- E.g., how many people die of horse kicks if there are 0.61 kicks per year
- Described by the Poisson distribution



- 1. Evaluate the probability
- 2. Randomly sample

Evaluating under the (Poisson) probability distribution

- E.g., how many people die of horse kicks if there are 0.61 kicks per year
- Described by the Poisson distribution



Evaluate

What is the probability of 2 deaths in a year?

dpois(x = 2, lambda = 0.61)

[1] 0.1010904

- 1. Evaluate the probability
- 2. Randomly sample

Generating a random sample (Poisson distribution)

- E.g., how many people die of horse kicks if there are 0.61 kicks per year
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Sample

Give me a random sample from the probability distribution

[1] 2

- 1. Evaluate the probability
- 2. Randomly sample

Probability distributions (continuous)

- Extension of probabilities to continuous variables
- E.g., the temperature in London tomorrow



Normalisation:

$$\int p(a) \, da = 1$$

Marginal probabilities:

$$p(a) = \int p(a, b) db$$

- 1. Evaluate the probability (density)
- 2. Randomly sample

Evaluating under the (normal) probability distribution



Evaluate

What is the probability density of $30^{\circ}C$ tomorrow?

dnorm(x = 30, mean = 23, sd = 2)

[1] 0.0004363413

- 1. Evaluate the probability (density)
- 2. Randomly sample

Generating a random sample (normal distribution)



Sample

Give me a random sample from the probability distribution



[1] 22.99336

- 1. Evaluate the probability (density)
- 2. Randomly sample







SIR model, assume that cases are detected with independent reporting probability $\rho = 0.5$.



At time 10, 18 cases observed, 31.1 cases in the model.



At time 10, 18 cases observed, 31.1 cases in the model.



At time 10, 18 cases observed, 31.1 cases in the model. $p(\text{data point } 10|\theta) = 0.078$

SIR model, assume that cases are detected with independent reporting probability $\rho = 0.5$.



Multiply across the data to get the probability of the whole trajectory.

$$p(\text{data}|\theta) = \prod_{i} p(\text{data point } i|\theta)$$

SIR model, assume that cases are detected with independent reporting probability $\rho = 0.5$.



Sum across the data to get the probability of the whole trajectory.

$$\log(p(\text{data}|\theta)) = \sum_{i} \log(p(\text{data point } i|\theta))$$





The likelihood

• We compare models to data using probabilities

p(data|model output)

• For a given model this depends on the parameters θ .

$$L(\theta) = p(\text{data}|\theta)$$

is called the likelihood of parameters θ . (note: θ encompasses all parameters; e.g., $\theta = \{\beta, \gamma\}$)

• likelihoods can span a wide range of orders of magnitude, which can lead to numerical problems

Solution: take the logarithm to get the log-likelihood

$$\log L(\theta) = \sum_{i} \log L(\theta)$$

Frequentist vs Bayesian inference

Frequentist inference:

- there are *true* parameters in the world, the uncertainty comes from the data
- this is encoded in the likelihood: $L(\theta) = p(\text{data}|\theta)$
- in inference, one tries to estimate these parameters
- probabilities express outcomes of repeated experiments

Frequentist vs Bayesian inference

Frequentist inference:

- there are *true* parameters in the world, the uncertainty comes from the data
- this is encoded in the likelihood: $L(\theta) = p(\text{data}|\theta)$
- in inference, one tries to estimate these parameters
- probabilities express outcomes of repeated experiments

Bayesian inference

- there are no true parameters, the *data* are true; uncertainty is in parameters / hypotheses
- this is encoded in the posterior: $p(\theta | \text{data})$
- probabilities express my belief in a given parameter
- the posterior is interpreted as the *probability distribution* of a *random variable* θ

3. Bayesian inference

Bayes' rule

• We said that in Bayesian inference, we need to calculate $p(\theta|\text{data})$. Applying the rule of conditional probabilities, we can write this as

$$p(\theta|\text{data}) = \frac{p(\text{data}|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(\text{data})}$$

- $p(\theta|\text{data})$ is the *posterior*
- $p(\text{data}|\theta)$ is the *likelihood*
- $p(\theta)$ is the *prior*
- p(data) is a *normalisation constant*
- In words,

(posterior) \propto (normalised likelihood) \times (prior)

Prior probabilities

• $p(\theta)$ quantifies our degree of belief via a probability distribution before confronting the model with data:

$p(\theta)$

E.g., from previous measurements, literature, experts etc.

• Example: R₀ of measles





Example: prior for estimating Ro of measles likelihood



Example: posterior for estimating Ro of measles likelihood



Sampling from the posterior

Bayesian statistics

Parameter(s) θ are interpreted as a *random* variable, distributed according to the posterior.

 $p(\theta|\text{data}) \propto p(\text{data}|\theta)p(\theta)$

We want to generate samples of θ from this distribution.







4. Practical session in R







http://sbfnk.github.io/mfiidd

5. References

- J. Dureau, K. Kalogeropoulos, and M. Baguelin.
 "Capturing the time-varying drivers of an epidemic using stochastic dynamical systems.". *Biostatistics* 3 (July 2013), 541–555.
- [2] A. A. King et al. "Inapparent infections and cholera dynamics.". *Nature* 7206 (Aug. 2008), 877–880.