



The STOC free model Objectives, hypotheses and model overview

Aurélien Madouasse & the STOC free consortium

https://www.stocfree.eu/

April 30, 2021

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Infectious diseases of cattle

Regulated diseases

- Public health threats
 - e.g. Tuberculosis
- Economic impact
 - e.g. Foot and mouth disease
- Legislation on how to perform surveillance in order to substantiate freedom from disease
- ullet Every country performs surveillance in the same way ightarrow comparable output
- **⇒** Input-based surveillance

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Infectious diseases of cattle

Non-regulated diseases

- A lot of important infectious diseases are not regulated but have regional / national control programmes in place
 e.g. BVD, paratuberculosis ...
 - No legal prescription on the way to perform surveillance
 - Important diversity in the design of surveillance programmes
 - The *free status* in one programme can have a different meaning than the *free status* in another programme
- ⇒ Creates difficulties when trading animals between herds enrolled in different programmes
- ⇒ Output-based surveillance: production of an output that is comparable regardless of the input surveillance data

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A method for output-based surveillance

- Need for a method taking inputs from diverse surveillance programmes able to produce an output that is comparable
 - Structure of the method/model determined by what is common across surveillance programmes
 - Probability of freedom from infection estimated in a given programme from:
 - surveillance data available in the programme
 - relevant knowledge (e.g. test characteristics)

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Control programmes

Common features

- Control programmes against cattle non-regulated diseases: prevalence > 0
- Objective: disease control or eradication
- Organised at regional or country level
- Rely on a surveillance component for the identification of infected herds or animals
- Detection of infection followed by control phase
- Surveillance performed in all participating herds
- Herd tested repeatedly over time
 - ⇒ Longitudinal data

Test results



Т.,

T.

T_{t+1}



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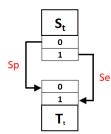
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Control programmes

Common features

- Tests are imperfect
 - Sensitivity: $Se = p(T^+|D^+) < 1$
 - Specificity: $Sp = p(T^{-}|D^{-}) < 1$
- \Rightarrow Uncertainty in the true status of tested animals / herds



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Modelling objectives

- Objective: Predict herd level probabilities of (freedom from) infection from longitudinal test data collected as part of surveillance programmes against endemic infectious diseases of cattle
- The modelling framework should:
 - Allow the use of longitudinal data i.e. account for the fact that sequences of test results are not random
 - Account for imperfect test information

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Hidden Markov models

- Hidden Markov Models (HMMs) model a latent discrete variable with a Markovian dynamics, whose state at a given time determines the distribution of an observed variable
 - discrete variable: the variable of interest can be in 1 of k states. In the STOC free model, k = 2 (positive or negative status)
 - latent variable: this discrete variable is not directly observed. In the STOC free model, the latent status determines the probability of a negative or positive test result through test sensitivity and specificity
 - Markovian dynamics: the latent status is modelled in discrete time steps. The latent status at time t only depends on the status at time t - 1. The probabilities of transition between the k states between 2 time points are described by a k x k transition matrix.

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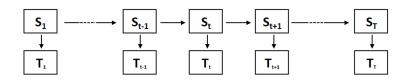
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Representation of surveillance programmes as HMMs



- S_t : latent status of interest at time t , from t=1 to t=T
- T_t : test result at time t

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Representation of surveillance programmes as HMMs Status dynamics

Time steps of equal duration

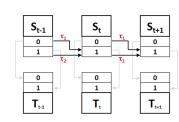
(Discrete-time model)

 Herd status at time t depends on herd status at time t₁

(Markovian property)

$$S_t \sim \textit{Bernoulli}(\pi_t)$$

$$\pi_t = \begin{cases} \tau_1 & \text{if } S_{t-1} = 0 \\ \tau_2 & \text{if } S_{t-1} = 1 \end{cases}$$



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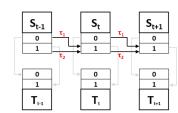
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Representation of surveillance programmes as HMMs Status dynamics

• Herd level probability of new infection (τ_{1t}) modelled as a function of one or several risk factors (X_t) using logistic regression

$$ln(\frac{\tau_{1t}}{1-\tau_{1t}}) = X_t \theta$$



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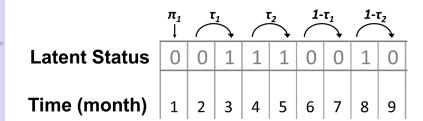
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Representation of surveillance programmes as HMMs Status dynamics



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Representation of surveillance programmes as HMMs Test results

 Herd status at time t is either negative (0) OR positive (1)

0

 Test result at time t is either negative (0) OR positive (1)

0

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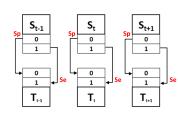
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Representation of surveillance programmes as HMMs

- Test results at the herd level
- Test results depend on the latent status through sensitivity and specificity

$$p(T_t = 1) = egin{cases} 1 - Sp & ext{if } S_t = 0 \ Se & ext{if } S_t = 1 \end{cases}$$



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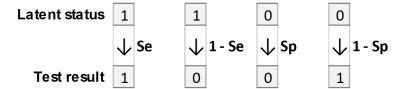
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Representation of surveillance programmes as HMMs Test results



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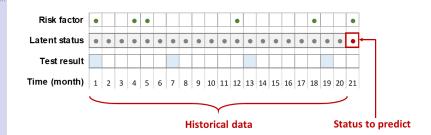
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Predictions

- \bullet The model predicts a herd level probability of being status positive at time T
- All the data available up to T are used for paremeter estimation



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Summary of the different model parameters

- π_1 : probability of being status positive on the first test month
- τ_1 : probability of becmoing status positive between 2 months
- $\theta_1, \theta_2 \dots$ coefficients of the logistic regression for the probability of becoming status positive
- τ_2 : probability of remaining status positive between 2 months
- Se: herd-level test sensitivity
- Sp: herd-level test specificity

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The complete model - no risk factor

$$S_1 \sim Bernoulli(\pi_1)$$
 $S_t \sim Bernoulli(\pi_t) \ \ orall t > 1$
 $\pi_t = egin{cases} au_1 & ext{if } S_{t-1} = 0 \ au_2 & ext{if } S_{t-1} = 1 \end{cases}$
 $T_t \sim Bernoulli(p(T_t))$
 $p(T_t) = egin{cases} 1 - Sp & ext{if } S_t = 0 \ Se & ext{if } S_t = 1 \end{cases}$

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The complete model - with risk factors

$$S_1 \sim Bernoulli(\pi_1)$$
 $S_t \sim Bernoulli(\pi_t) \quad \forall t > 1$
 $\pi_t = \begin{cases} au_{1t} & \text{if } S_{t-1} = 0 \\ au_2 & \text{if } S_{t-1} = 1 \end{cases}$
 $In(\frac{ au_{1t}}{1 - au_{1t}}) = X_{ht}\theta$
 $T_t \sim Bernoulli(p(T_t))$
 $p(T_t) = \begin{cases} 1 - Sp & \text{if } S_t = 0 \\ Se & \text{if } S_t = 1 \end{cases}$

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Data, hypotheses and parameters

- Data: test results, risk factors
- What we need to know: probability of infection on the current month
- What we know (more or less): test characteristics, characteristics of infection dynamics ...
- The modelling framework needs to be able to predict herd level probabilities of infection from test results and knowledge about test characteristics
- Chosen approach: Bayesian inference

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Bayes' theorem

- What is a conditional probability?
 - Probability of an event given that another event has already happened

Sensitivity = probability of a positive test result (T^+) given that (|) an individual is diseased (D^+)

$$Se = p(T^+|D^+)$$

Positive predictive value = probability that an individual is diseased given a positive test result

$$PPV = p(D^+|T^+)$$

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Bayes' theorem

- What is Bayes' theorem?
 - A simple formula that relates p(B|A) to p(A|B)

$$p(B|A) = \frac{p(A|B)p(B)}{p(A)}$$

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Bayes' theorem

- Bayes' theorem applied to determining the probability of disease given a positive test result
 - Usually we know test sensitivity, and we would like to know the probability that disease is present given test result

$$p(D^+|T^+) = \frac{p(T^+|D^+)p(D^+)}{p(T^+)}$$

- $p(D^+|T^+)$: Positive predictive value
- $p(T^+|D+)$: Test sensitivity
- $p(D^+)$: Disease prevalence
- $p(T^+)$: Probability of a positive test

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Bayes' theorem

 Bayes' theorem applied to determining the probability of disease given a positive test result

$$p(D^+|T^+) = \frac{p(T^+|D^+)p(D^+)}{p(T^+)}$$

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Bayes' theorem

 Bayes' theorem applied to determining the probability of disease given a positive test result

$$p(D^+|T^+) = \frac{p(T^+|D^+)p(D^+)}{p(T^+)}$$

$$p(D^+|T^+) = \frac{p(T^+|D^+)p(D^+)}{p(T^+|D^+)p(D^+) + p(T^+|D^-)p(D^-)}$$

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Bayes' theorem

 Bayes' theorem applied to determining the probability of disease given a positive test result

$$p(D^+|T^+) = \frac{p(T^+|D^+)p(D^+)}{p(T^+)}$$

$$p(D^+|T^+) = \frac{p(T^+|D^+)p(D^+)}{p(T^+|D^+)p(D^+) + p(T^+|D^-)p(D^-)}$$

$$p(D^+|T^+) = \frac{Se\pi}{Se\pi + (1 - Sp)(1 - \pi)}$$

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Bayes' theorem

Bayes' theorem applied to statistical inference

• We have some data (y) and a model, we would like to know what is the probability of the model parameter (θ) values given these data

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

- $p(\theta|y)$ Probability of parameters given data \rightarrow **Posterior** distribution
- $p(y|\theta)$ Probability of data given parameters \rightarrow **Likelihood** function
 - $p(\theta)$ Parameter prior distributions \rightarrow **priors**
 - p(y) Normalising constant

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Bayes' theorem

Bayes' theorem applied to statistical inference

- Bayesian inference is a way to estimate model parameters incorporating:
 - data
 - prior knowledge/hypotheses about the model parameters

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Bayes' theorem

Bayes' theorem applied to statistical inference

- The normalising constant p(y):
 - is an integral that cannot be readily computed, except in simple cases
 - makes the area under the posterior density curve sum to 1
 - is a constant

$$p(y) = \int p(y|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta$$

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Bayes' theorem

Bayes' theorem applied to statistical inference

 Because in most cases the normalising constant cannot be computed, we need estimation methods that do no need to compute it for the estimation of the full posterior density

$$p(\theta|y) \propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta)$$

 Solution: draw many samples from likelihood x prior distribution using Markov Chain Monte Carlo

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Markov Chain Monte Carlo

- **Monte Carlo**: draw random samples (θ) from statistical distributions
- Markov Chain: the next random values drawn depend on the values of the current ones

$$p(\theta|y) \propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta)$$

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Markov Chain Monte Carlo Principles of MCMC algorithms

- Start with some random initial values (t = 1)
- Use values at current iteration to sample values at next iteration (Markovian transition)
- The Markov Chain is constructed in such a way that it moves towards the target posterior probability distribution
- There is no way to be absolutely sure that the samples come from the target distribution
 - First iterations discarded ⇒ burn in or warmup
 - Different simulations are run in parallel ⇒ chains

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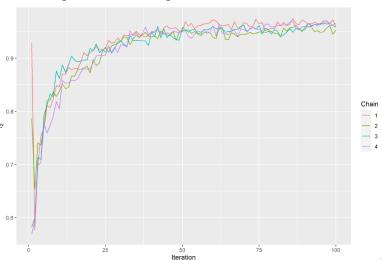
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Convergence

Moving towards the target distribution



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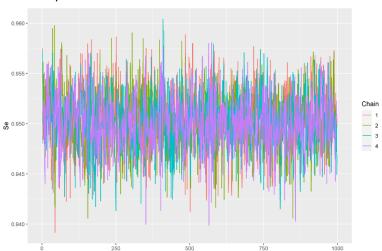
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Convergence

All chains should converge to the same distribution \rightarrow traceplot



Iteration

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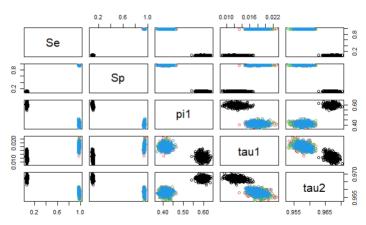
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Convergence

- Different chains can converge to different distributions
 - Model with 5 parameters / each color is a chain



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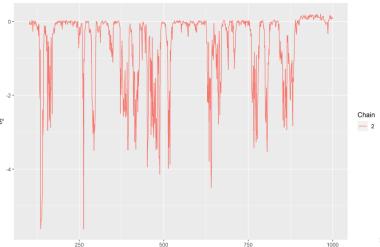
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Autocorrelation

 Autocorrelation: within a chain, high correlation between consecutive MCMC samples



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Markov Chain Monte Carlo in pratcice

- Run several chains (> 2): allows checking that the samples obtained do not come from different distributions
 convergence (traceplots, Gelman Rubin statistic)
- Initialise each chain with different values
- Discard the first *n* iterations = burn in, warmup
- If autocorrelation, use 1 out of k iterations (depending on autocorrelation) = thinning

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Markov Chain Monte Carlo Algorithms

- There exist many different MCMC algorithms:
 - Metropolis: first invented (1953)
 See an introduction here: Ben Lambert An introduction to the Random Walk Metropolis algorithm
 - Metropolis Hastings
 - Gibbs sampling: BUGS, WinBUGS, JAGS
 - Hamiltonian Monte Carlo: Stan

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Markov Chain Monte Carlo Gibbs sampling

- First widely used algorithm for Bayesian inference
 - Not possible before the 1990s because computation intensive
 - First implementations:
 - BUGS = Bayesian Inference Using Gibbs Sampling
 - WinBUGS , OpenBUGS
 - Most recent implementations
 - JAGS: Just Another Gibbs Sampler
 - MultiBUGS
 - ⇒ Same principles, more efficient

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Markov Chain Monte Carlo Gibbs sampling

- All the programmes use the same language to code statistical models
- Easy to write the code from model specification
- Straightforward to translate the STOC free model equations into code

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Markov Chain Monte Carlo

- Implemented in Stan
- Much more efficient than Gibbs sampling
 - Exploration of the posterior distribution much more efficient
 - Less autocorrelation \rightarrow requires less iterations
- Does not support latent discrete parameters
 - Not possible to code the STOC free model as simply as in JAGS

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Markov Chain Monte Carlo

 For a visual comparison of different MCMC algorithms, see: The Markov-chain Monte Carlo Interactive Gallery by Chi-Feng

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JAGS model

- Easy to go from model equations to JAGS code
- On the following slides:
 - Simplified version in which test results assumed available for all months
 - The real model allows for missing test results with a complicated system of loops. Same idea but harder to read
 - When no test available, the dynamics drive status evolution

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JAGS model

```
model{
 ## loop over all herds
 ## t1 is the vector of indices for first month of test in each herd
  ## t2 is the vector of indices for second month of test in each herd
  ## tf is the vector of indices for last month of test in each herd
 for(i in 1:N_herds){
    ### First monthly status of each herd
    ## probability of being latent status positive for herd i at t1
    logit_pi1[i] ~ dnorm(logit_pi1_mean, logit_pi1_prec)
    ## latent status for herd i at time = 1
   Status[t1[i]] ~ dbern(ilogit(logit_pi1[i]))
    ## probability of being test positive given herd status
   p_test_pos[t1[i]] <- Se * Status[t1[i]] +</pre>
                         (1 - Sp) * (1 - Status[t1[i]])
    ## test result associated with first Status => data
   test_res[t1[i]] ~ dbern(p_test_pos[t1[i]])
```

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JAGS model

Statuses 2 to last - 1

```
### Statuses 2 to 1 minus last
for(t in (t1[i] + 1):(tf[i] - 1)){
  # probability of new infection
  # logistic regression
  logit(tau1[t]) <- inprod(risk_factors[t,], theta)</pre>
  ## probability of being status positive given previous status,
  ## tau1 and tau2
  pi[t] <- (1 - Status[t - 1]) * tau1[t] +
            Status[t - 1] * tau2
  ## herd status at time t
  Status[t] ~ dbern(pi[t])
  ## probability of test positive at time t
  p_test_pos[t] <- Se * Status[t] + (1 - Sp) * (1 - Status[t])</pre>
  ## test result at time t => data
  test_res[t] ~ dbern(p_test_pos[t])
```

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JAGS model

```
# probability of new infection
logit(tau1[tf[i]]) <- inprod(risk_factors[tf[i],], theta)</pre>
## Predicted probability of infection for herd i on last month
pi[tf[i]] <- tau1 * (1 - Status[tf[i] - 1]) +
             tau2 * Status[tf[i] - 1]
# probability of infection updated with test result
predicted_proba[tf[i]] <- test_res[tf[i]] * (</pre>
  Se * pi[tf[i]] / (Se * pi[tf[i]] + (1 - Sp) * (1 - pi[tf[i]]))
) + (1 - test res[tf[i]]) * (
    (1 - Se) * test_res[tf[i]] /
      ((1 - Se) * pi[tf[i]] + Sp * (1 - pi[tf[i]]))
```

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Modelling

Estimation & prediction

Implementati

JAGS Stan

JAGS vs. Stan The STOCfree

JAGS model

```
### Priors
## test characteristics
Se ~ dbeta(Se_beta_a, Se_beta_b)
Sp ~ dbeta(Sp_beta_a, Sp_beta_b)
## Status dynamics - sampling on the logit scale
logit_tau2 ~ dnorm(logit_tau2_mean, logit_tau2_prec)
## logit back to the probability scale
tau2 <- ilogit(logit_tau2)
## Logistic regression coefficients
for(i rf in 1:n risk factors){
 theta[i_rf] ~ dnorm(theta_norm_mean[i_rf], theta_norm_prec[i_rf])
```

Estimation prediction

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JAGS vs. Sta The STOCfre

Stan model

- Stan implements Hamiltonian Monte Carlo which is expected to be more efficient at sampling from the full posterior distribution
- Stan does not support latent discrete parameters
- Translation of the model's equations not as easy as with JAGS
- Various HMM implementations in Stan described in a tutorial by Damiano et al. (2017)

The STOC free model Aurélien

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Stan

Stan model

- Forward algorithm adapted from the tutorial
- Same model as the JAGS version, but estimation performed in a different way

free model

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Comparison of the JAGS and Stan implementations

- The JAGS and Stan implementations of the model were compared using data collected as part of BVDV control programme in France
 - Work under review with PCI Animal Science, available as a pre-print.
- The Stan implementation:
 - gives the same parameter estimates
 - is much faster
 - converges much better
 - returns predicted probabilities of infection that are easier to interpret

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The STOCfree package

The STOCfree R package

What is an R package?



- Programming environment for data manipulation and analysis
- Widely used
- Free



R package

- Set of functions gathered to perform specific tasks
- Users install a package and can use the functions they contain
- Packages are installed from the web (CRAN, GitHub...)

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The STOCfree R package on Github

- The package is hosted on Github https://github.com/AurMad/STOCfree
- Github is a server hosting:
 - The package code
 - The package documentation
 - The history of development and different package versions, using the Git versioning programme

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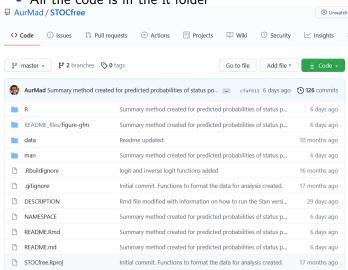
Estimation prediction

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package

The STOCfree R package on Github

All the code is in the R folder



The STOC free model

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The STOCfree R package on Github

The documentation is at the bottom of the page



STOCfree: prediction of probabilities of freedom from infection from longitudinal data

- Overview
- Package installation and update
- Attaching packages
- Steps of the analysis
- Test data
- · Priors for test characteristics
- Priors for the model parameters related to status dynamics
- · Running the STOC free model in Stan
- Running the STOC free model in JAGS
- Model results
- · Inclusion of risk factors

Overview





Thank you for your attention



http://www.stocfree.eu/

This study was awarded a grant by EFSA and was co-financed by public organisations in the countries participating in the study.















