

Parameter estimation

Parameter estimation

- We've seen that basic reproductive ratio, R_0 , is a very important quantity
- How do we calculate it?
- In general, we might not know (many) model parameters. How do we achieve parameter estimation from epidemiological data?
- Review some simple methods

1a. Final outbreak size

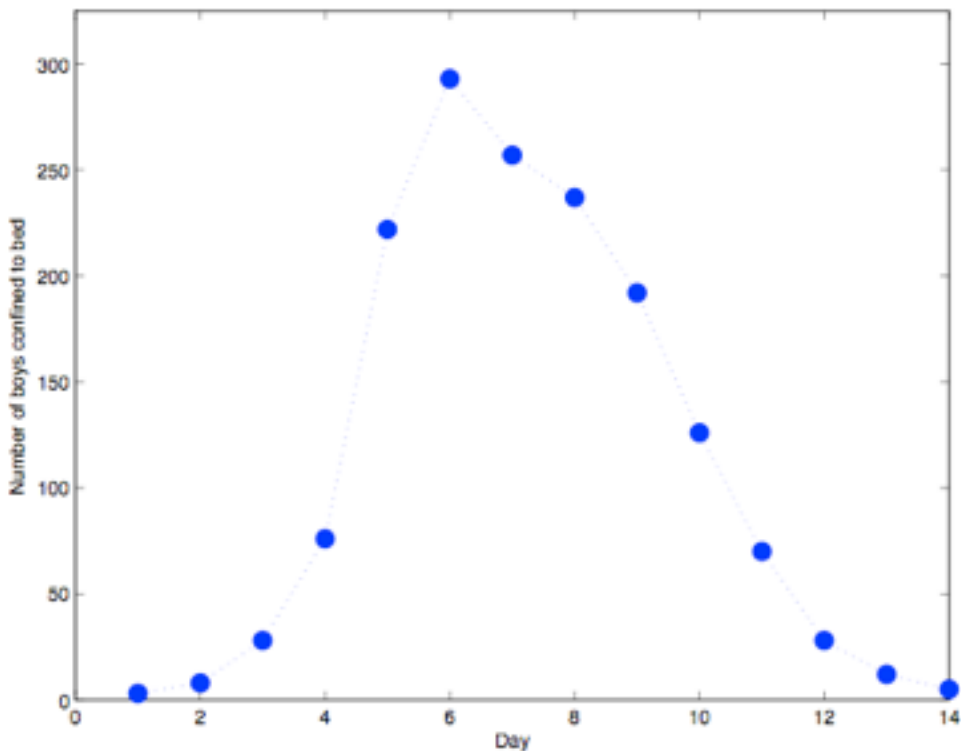
- From lecture 3, we recall that at end of epidemic:
 - $S(\infty) = 1 - R(\infty) = S(0) e^{-R(\infty) R_0}$
- So, if we know **population size** (N) , **initial susceptibles** (to get $S(0)$), and **total number infected** (to get $R(\infty)$), we can calculate R_0

$$R_0 = -\frac{\log(1 - R(\infty))}{R(\infty)}$$

Note: Ma & Earn (2006) showed this formula is valid even when numerous assumptions underlying simple SIR are relaxed

1. Final outbreak size

- Worked example:



Influenza epidemic in a British boarding school in 1978

$N = 764$

$X(0) = 763$

$Z(\infty) \sim 700, 725, 750$

$R_0 \sim 2.66, 3.06, 3.89$

1b. Final outbreak size

- Becker showed that with more information, we can also estimate R_0 from

$$R_0 = \frac{(N-1)}{C} \ln \left\{ \frac{X_0 + \frac{1}{2}}{X_f - \frac{1}{2}} \right\} \quad (\sim 1.66)$$

- Again, we need to know **population size** (N) , **initial susceptibles** (X_0), **total number infected** (C)
- Usefully, standard error for this formula has also been derived

$$SE(R_0) = \frac{(N-1)}{C} \sqrt{\sum_{j=X_f+1}^{X_0} \frac{1}{j^2} + \frac{CR_0^2}{(N-1)^2}}$$

Recall this?

Small aside: mean age at infection

- An epidemiologically interesting quantity is mean age at infection – how do we calculate it in simple models?
- From first principles, it's mean time spent in susceptible class
- At equilibrium, this is given by $1/(\beta I^*)$, which leads to

$$A \approx \left(\frac{1}{\mu(R_0 - 1)} \right)$$

- This can be written as $R_0 - 1 \approx L/A$ (L= life expectancy)
- Historically, this equation's been an important link between epidemiological estimates of A and deriving estimates of R_0

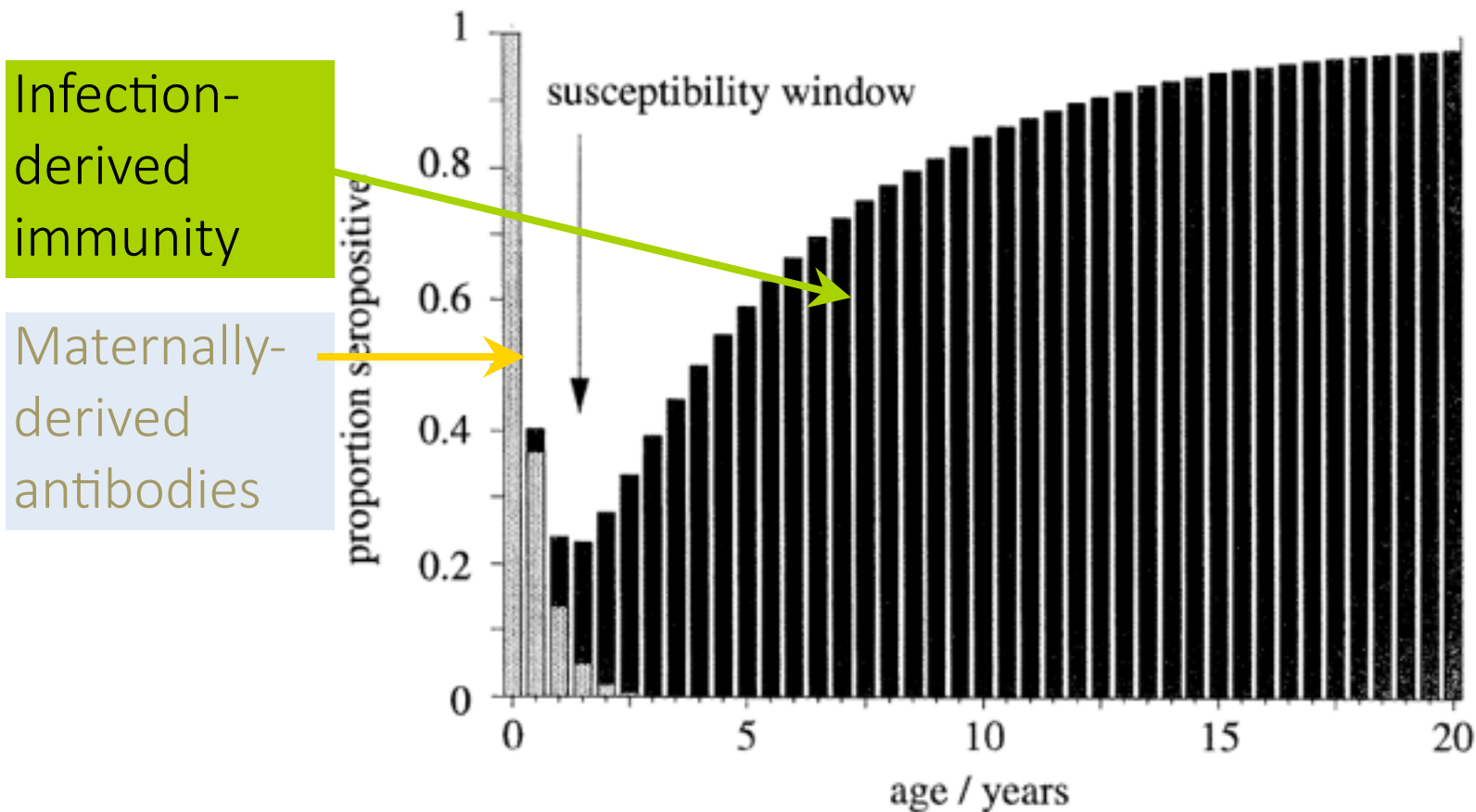
2. Independent data

- For $S(E)IR$ model, we can calculate average length of time it takes for an individual to acquire infection (assuming born susceptible)
- Expression for *Mean Age at Infection* is

$$A \approx \frac{1}{\mu R_0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad A \approx \frac{L}{R_0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad R_0 \approx \frac{L}{A}$$

R_0 is mean life expectancy (L) divided
by mean age at infection (A)

Measles Age-Stratified Seroprevalence



Mean age at infection (A) is ~ 4.5 years
Assume $L \sim 75$, so $R_0 \sim 16.6$

Historical significance

Anderson & May (1982; *Science*)

Table 2. The intrinsic reproductive rate, R_0 , and average age of acquisition, A , for various infections [condensed from (25); see also (36)]. Abbreviations: r, rural; u, conurbation.

Disease	Average age at infection, A (years)	Geographical location	Type of community	Time period	Assumed life expectancy (years)	R_0
Measles	4.4 to 5.6	England and Wales	r and u	1944 to 1979	70	13.7 to 18.0
	5.3	Various localities in North America	r and u	1912 to 1928	60	12.5
Whooping cough	4.1 to 4.9	England and Wales	r and u	1944 to 1978	70	14.3 to 17.1
	4.9	Maryland	u	1908 to 1917	60	12.2
Chicken pox	6.7	Maryland	u	1913 to 1917	60	9.0
	7.1	Massachusetts	r and u	1918 to 1921	60	8.5
Diphtheria	9.1	Pennsylvania	u	1910 to 1916	60	6.6
	11.0	Virginia and New York	r and u	1934 to 1947	70	6.4
Scarlet fever	8.0	Maryland	u	1908 to 1917	60	7.5
	10.8	Kansas	r	1918 to 1921	60	5.5
Mumps	9.9	Baltimore, Maryland	u	1943	70	7.1
	13.9	Various localities in North America	r and u	1912 to 1916	60	4.3
Rubella	10.5	West Germany	r and u	1972	70	6.7
	11.6	England and Wales	r and u	1979	70	6.0
Poliomyelitis	11.2	Netherlands	r and u	1960	70	6.2
	11.9	United States	r and u	1955	70	5.9

3. Epidemic Take-off

A slightly more common approach is to study the epidemic take off

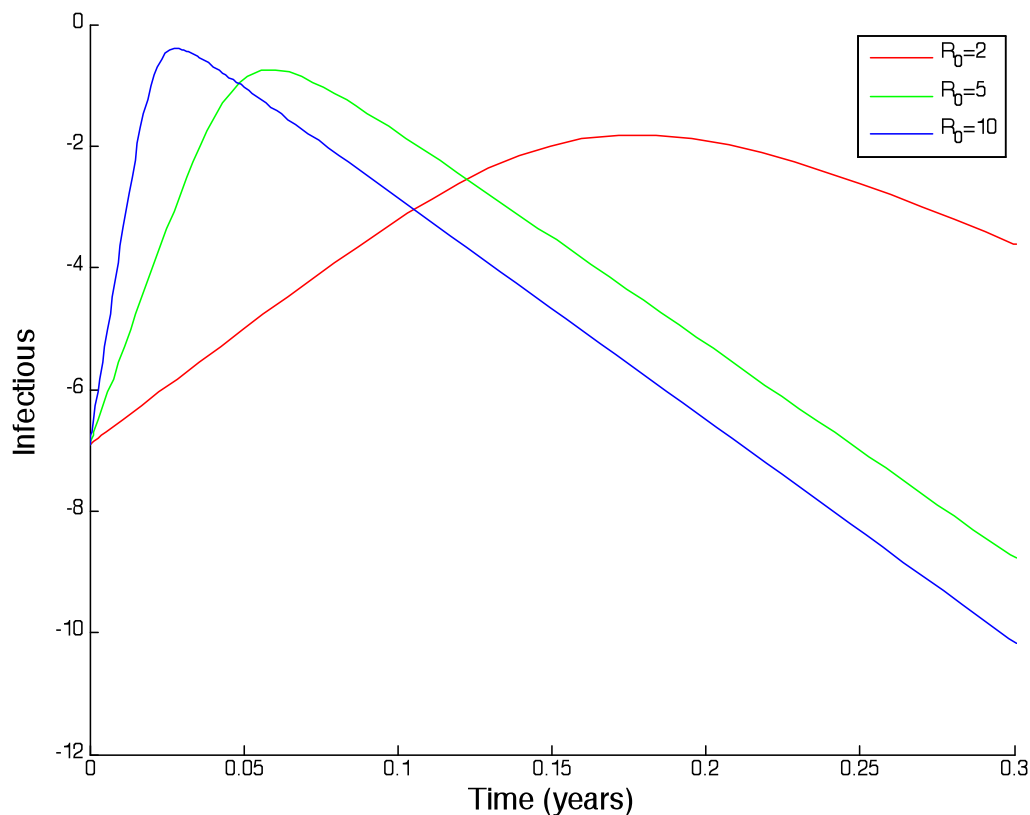
Recall from linear stability analysis that

$$I_{SIR} \approx I(0) \times e^{(R_0 - 1)\gamma t}$$

Take logarithms

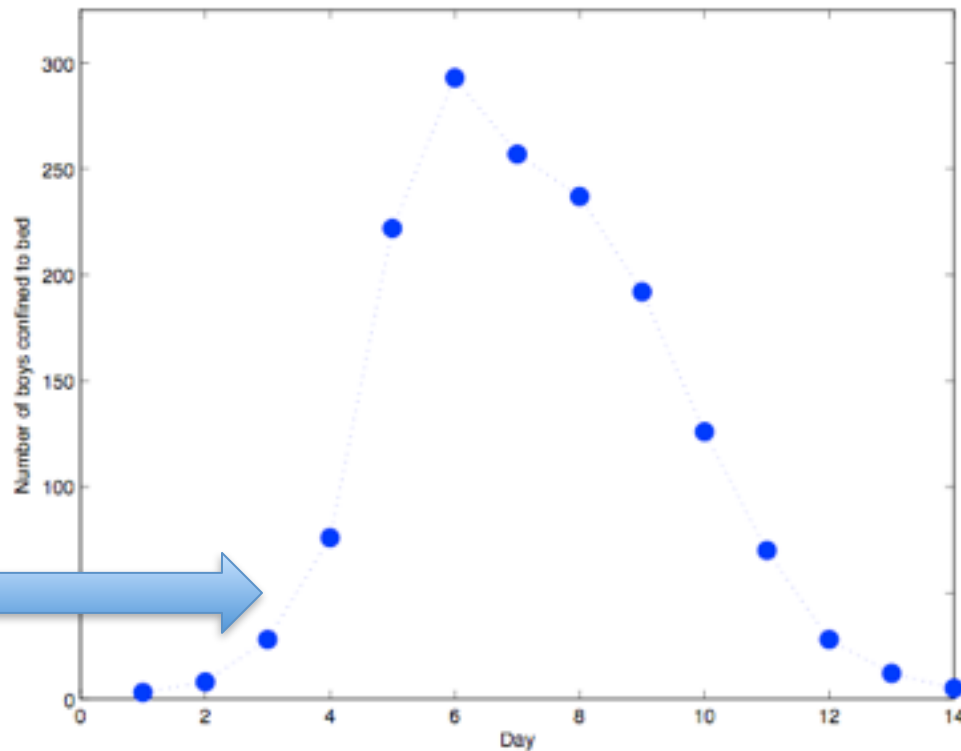
$$\log(I_{SIR}) = \log(I(0)) + (R_0 - 1)\gamma t$$

So, regression slope will give R_0



3. Epidemic take-off

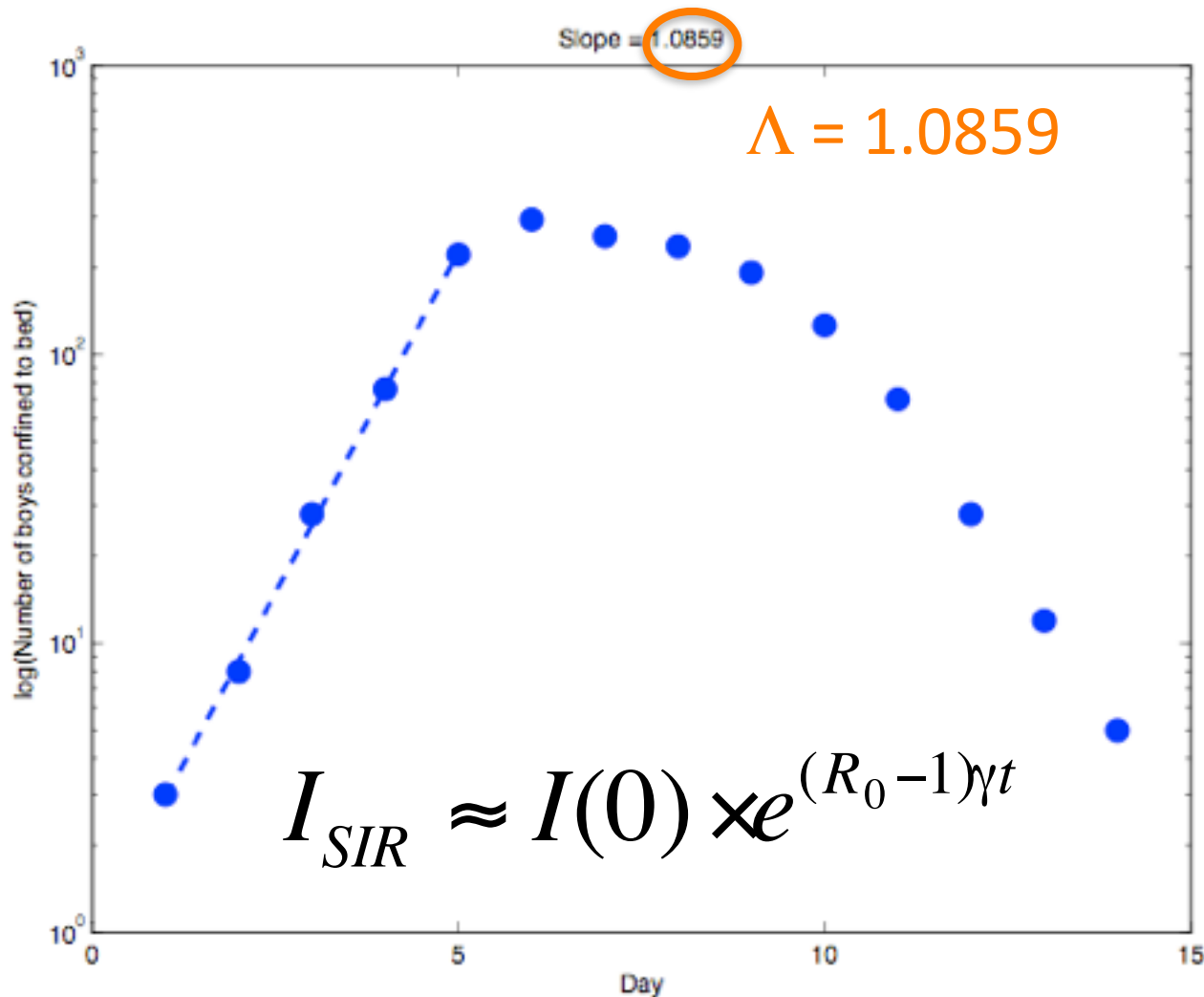
- Back to school boys



Looks like
classic
exponential
take-off



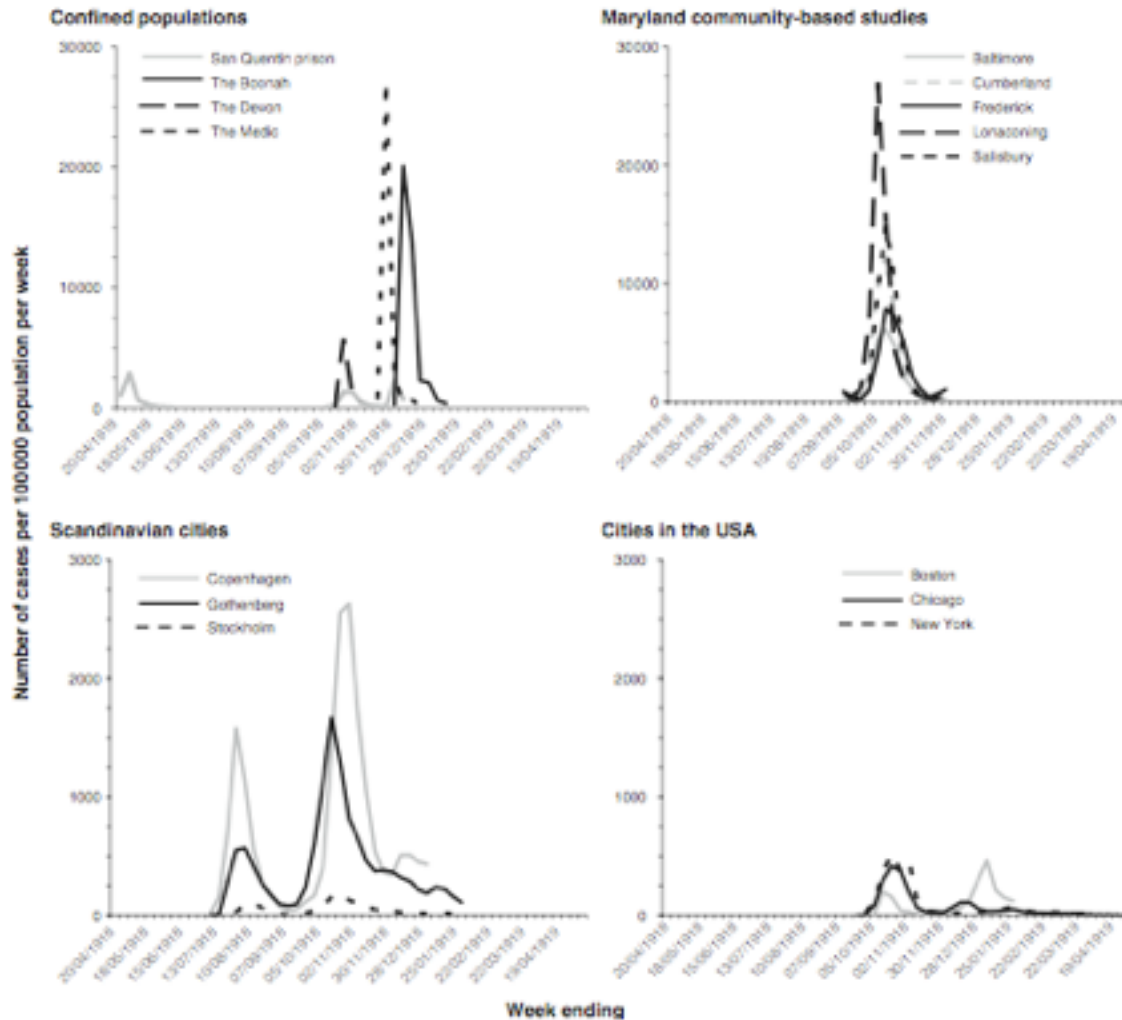
Epidemic take-off



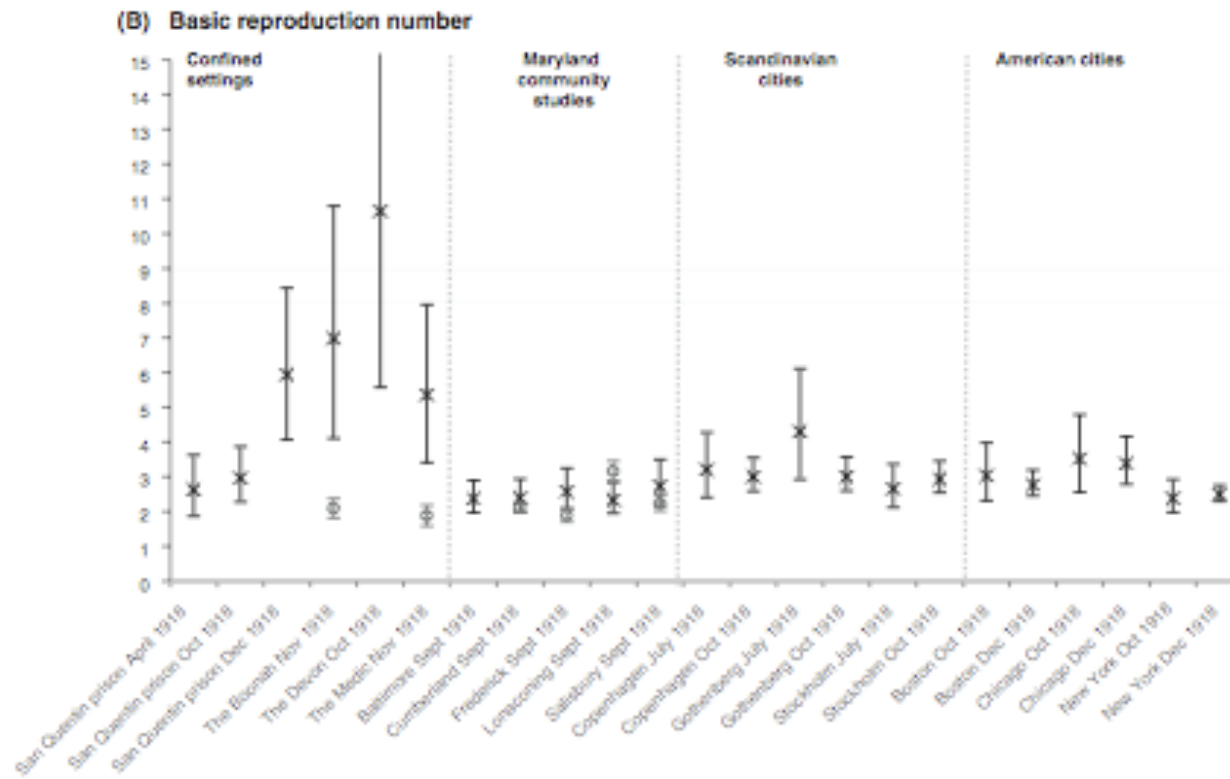
Our value for 'flu incubation period'

So,
 $R_0 = 1.0859 \times 2.5 + 1$
 $= 3.7$

Vynnycky *et al.* (2007)



Vynnycky *et al.* (2007)



Variants on this theme

- Recall

$$\log(I_{SIR}) = \log(I(0)) + (R_0 - 1)\gamma t$$

- Let T_d be 'doubling time' of outbreak
- Then,

$$\star R_0 = \log(2) / T_d \gamma + 1$$

4. Likelihood & inference

- We focus on random process that (putatively) generated data
- A model is explicit, mathematical description of this random process
- “The likelihood” is probability that data were produced given model and its parameters:

$$L(\text{model} \mid \text{data}) = \Pr(\text{data} \mid \text{model})$$

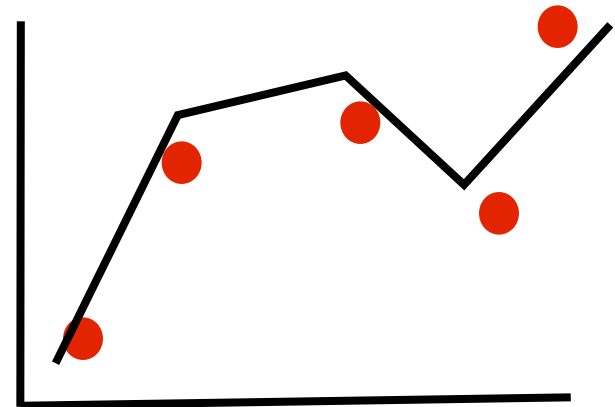
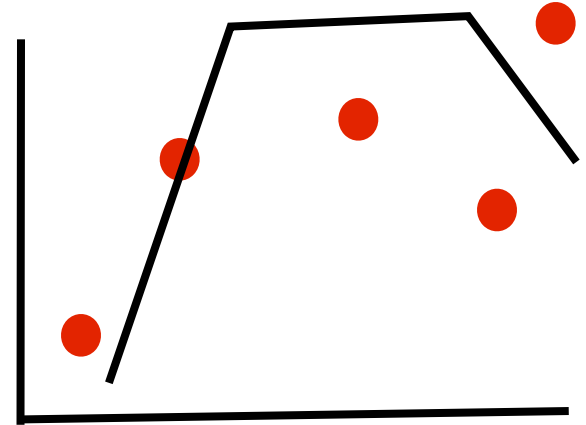
- Likelihood quantifies (in some sense optimally) model goodness of fit

4. Likelihood & estimation

- Assume we have **data, D** , and **model output, M** (both are vectors containing state variables). Model predictions generated using set of **parameters, θ**
- Transmission dynamics subject to
 - “process noise”: heterogeneity among individuals, random differences in timing of discrete events (environmental and demographic stochasticity)
 - “observation noise”: random errors made in measurement process itself

4. Likelihood & estimation

- If we ignore process noise, then model is deterministic and all variability attributed to measurement error
- Observation errors assumed to be sequentially independent
- Maximizing likelihood in this context is called 'trajectory matching'



4. Likelihood & estimation

- Data, D
 - Model output, M
 - Parameters, θ
-
- If we assume measurement errors are normally distributed, with mean μ and variance σ^2 then

$$L(M(\theta) | D) = \prod_i \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(D_i - M_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

4. Likelihood & estimation

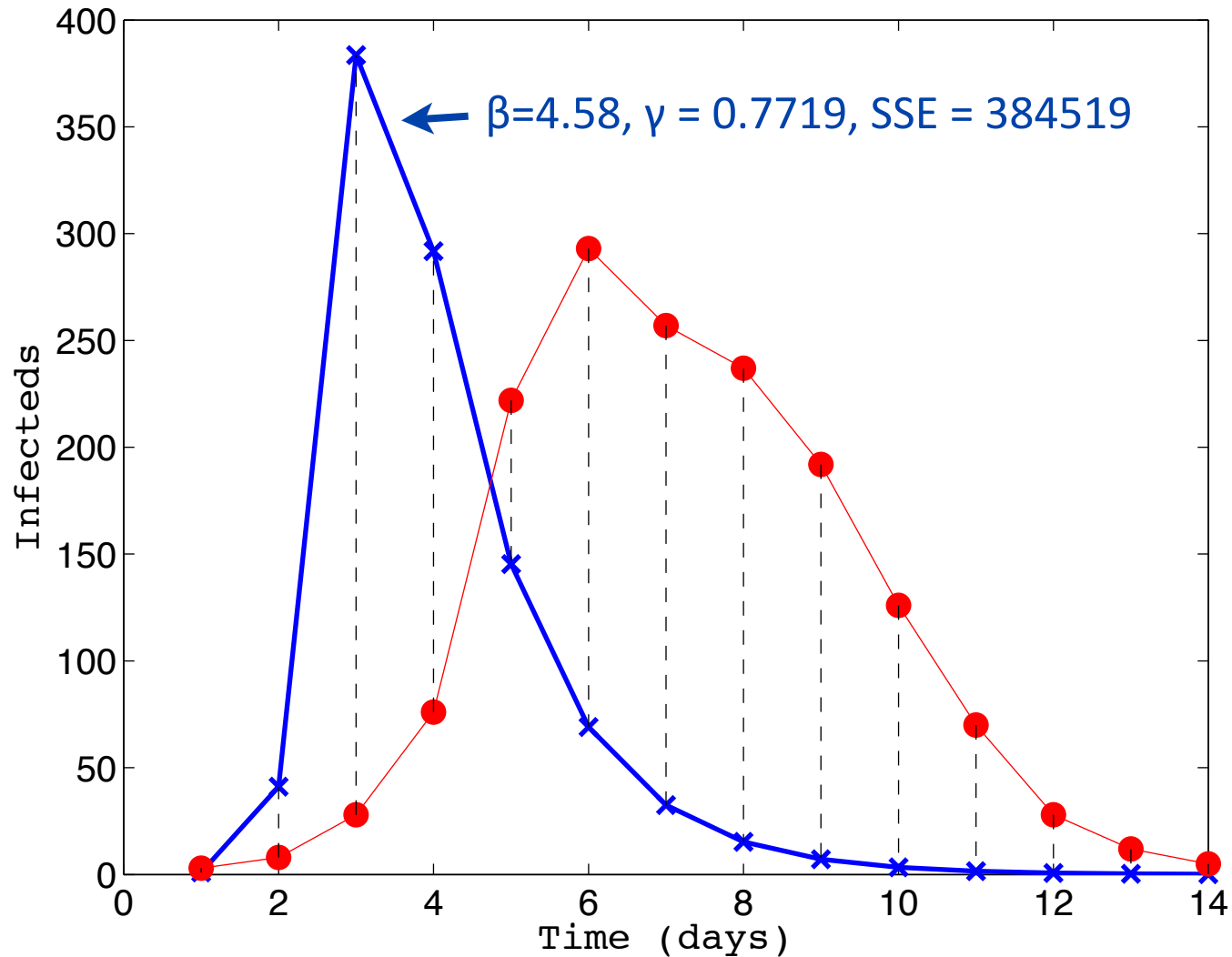
- Data, D
 - Model output, M
 - Parameters, θ
-
- Often easier to deal with Log-likelihoods:

$$\log(L(M(\theta) | D)) = -\frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i (D_i - M_i)^2$$

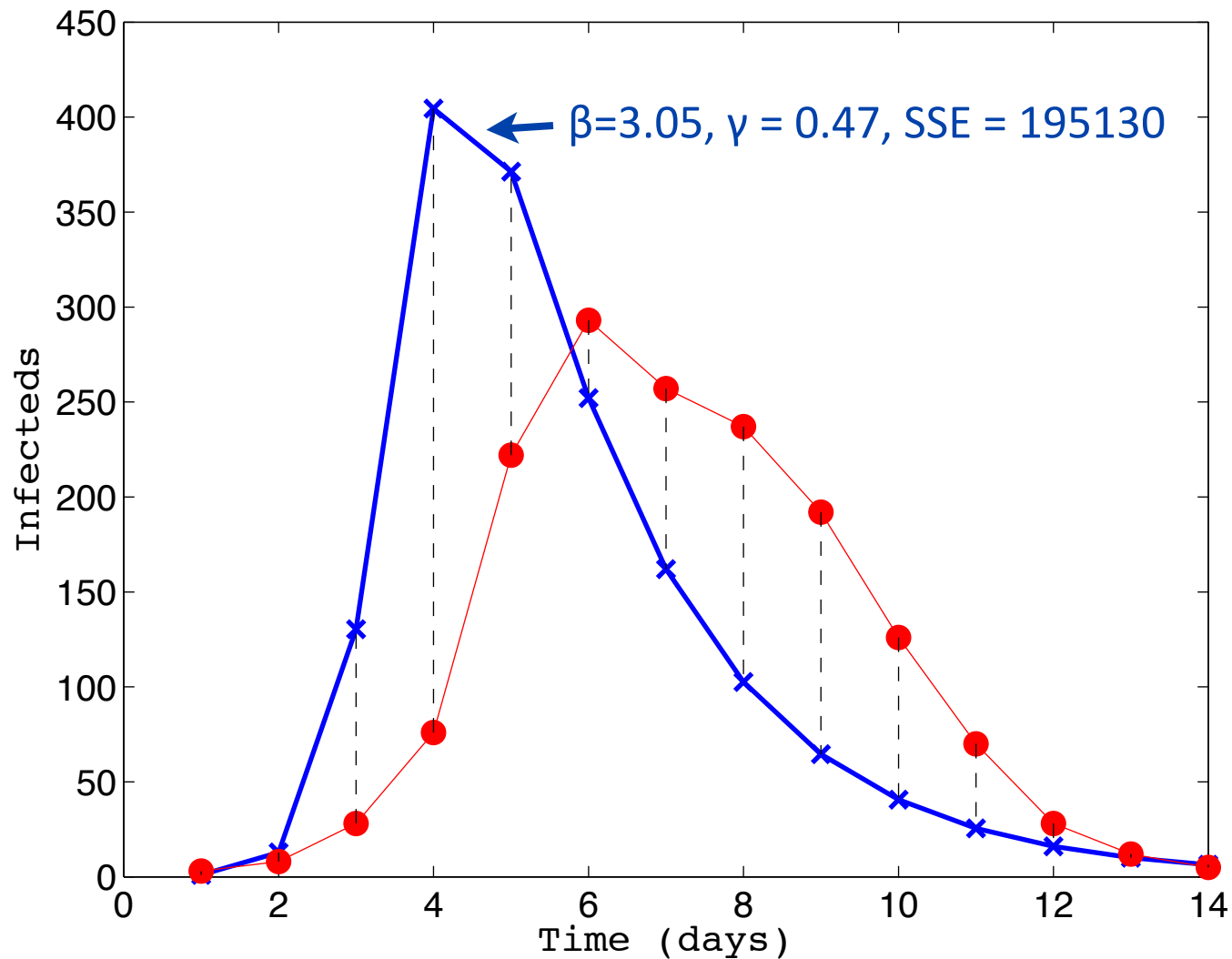
4. Likelihood & estimation

- Under such conditions, Maximum Likelihood Estimate, MLE, is simply parameter set with smallest deviation from data
- Equivalent to using least square errors, to decide on goodness of fit
 - Least Squares Statistic = $SSE = \sum (D_i - M_i)^2$
- Then, minimise SSE to arrive at MLE

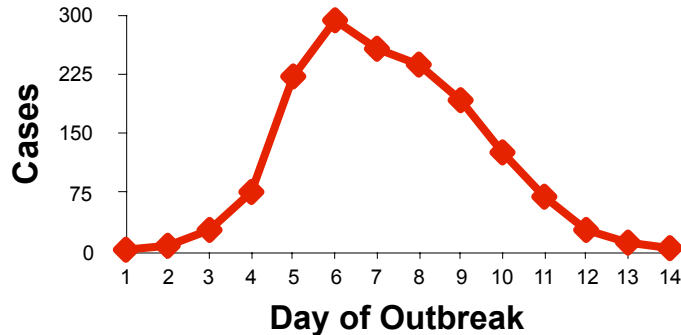
Trajectory matching



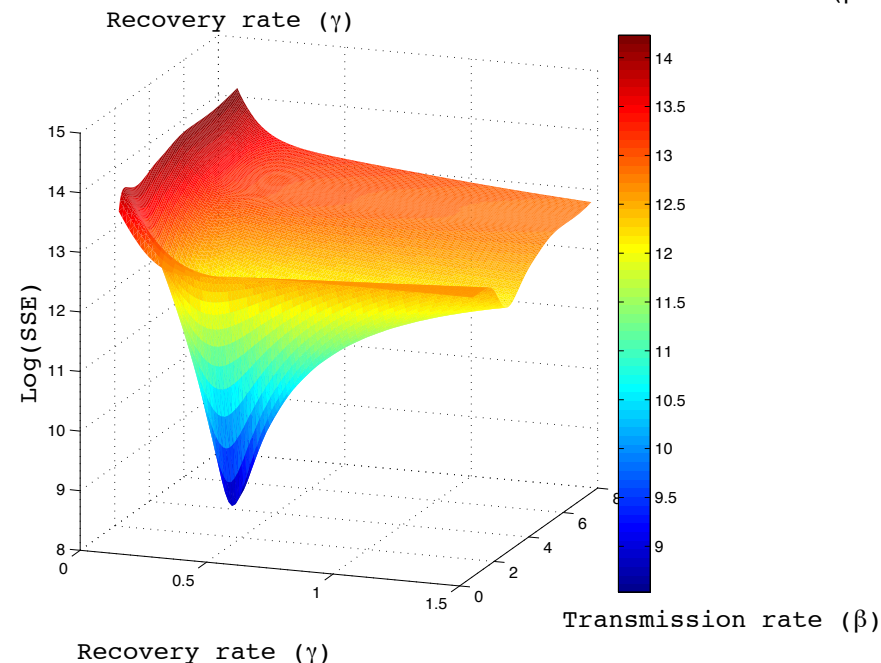
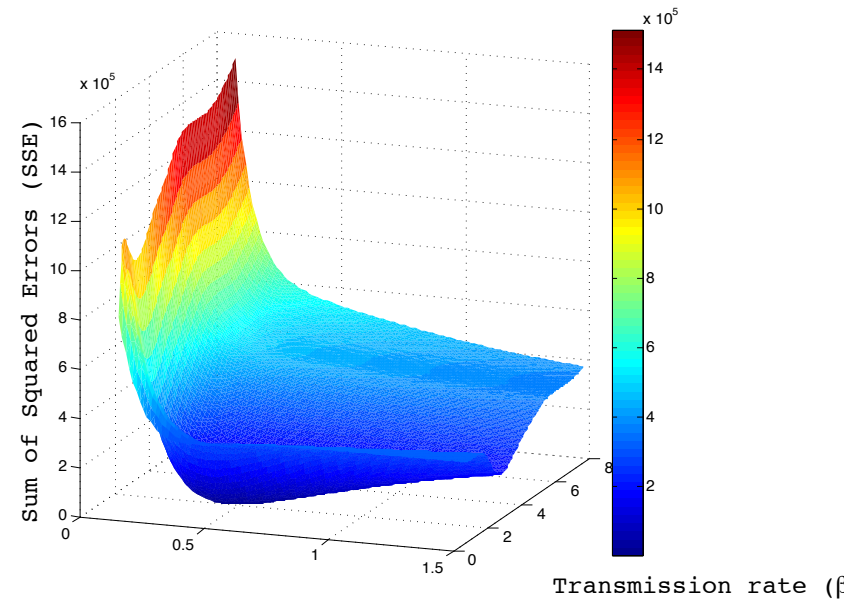
Trajectory matching



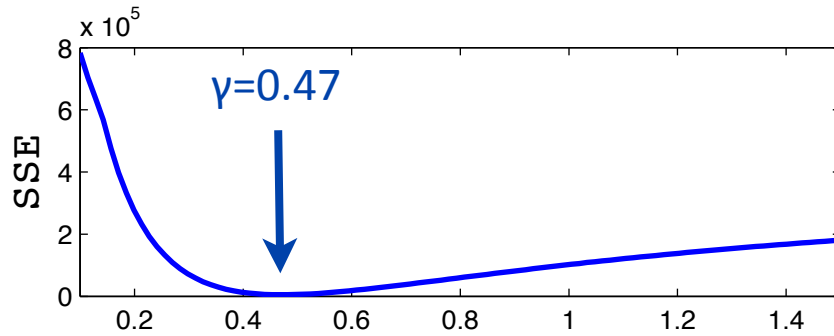
Model estimation: Influenza outbreak



- Systematically vary β and γ , calculate SSE
- Parameter combination with lowest SSE is 'best fit'

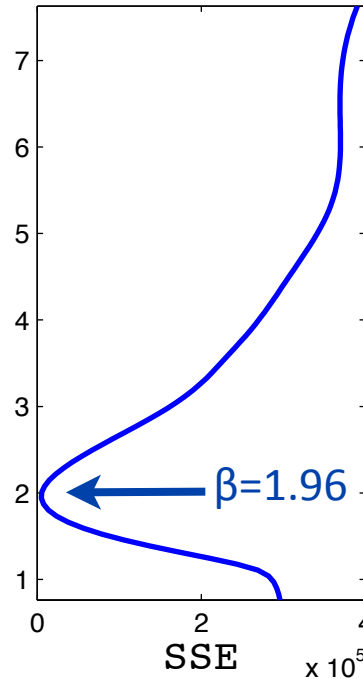
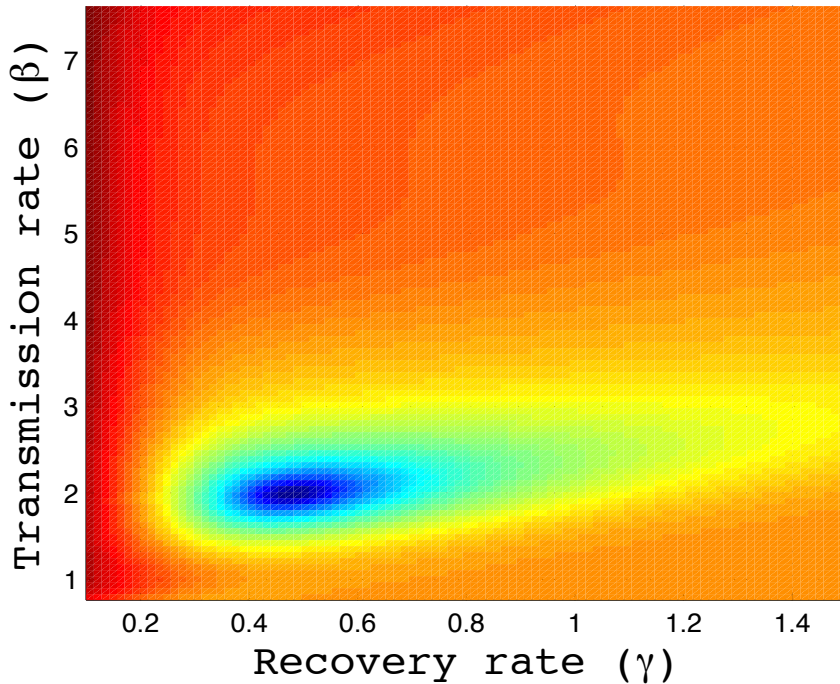


Model estimation: Influenza outbreak



Best fit parameter values:

1. $\beta = 1.96$ (per day)
2. $1/\gamma = 2.1$ days
3. $R_0 \sim 4.15$



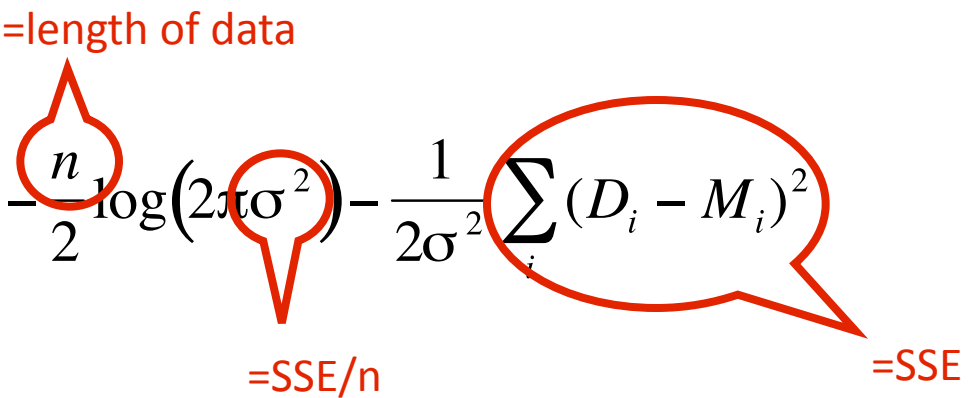
Generally, may have more parameters to fit, so grid search not efficient

Nonlinear optimization algorithms (eg Nelder-Mead) would be used

4. Likelihood & estimation

- How do we relate SSE to logLik?

$$\log(L(M(\theta) | D)) = -\frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i (D_i - M_i)^2$$



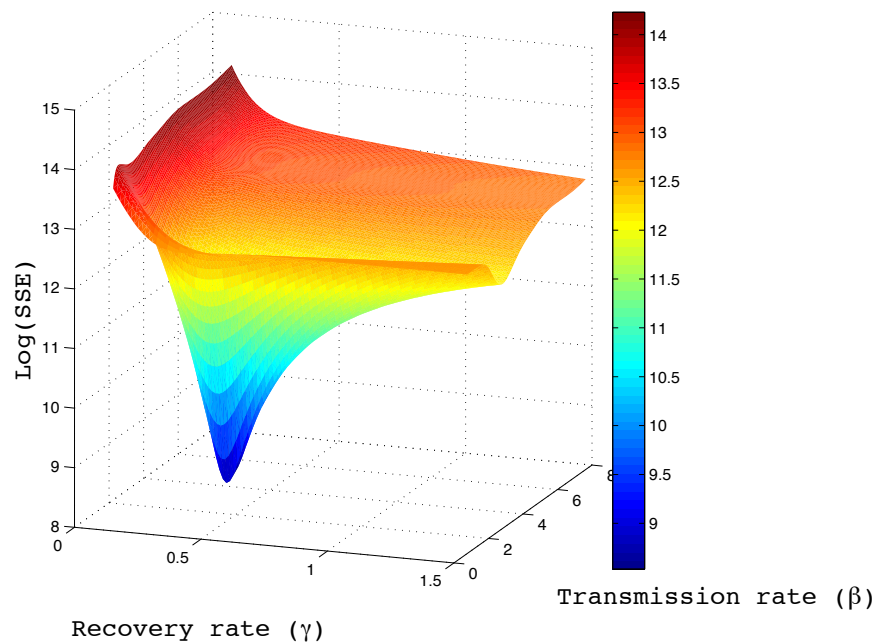
=length of data

=SSE/n

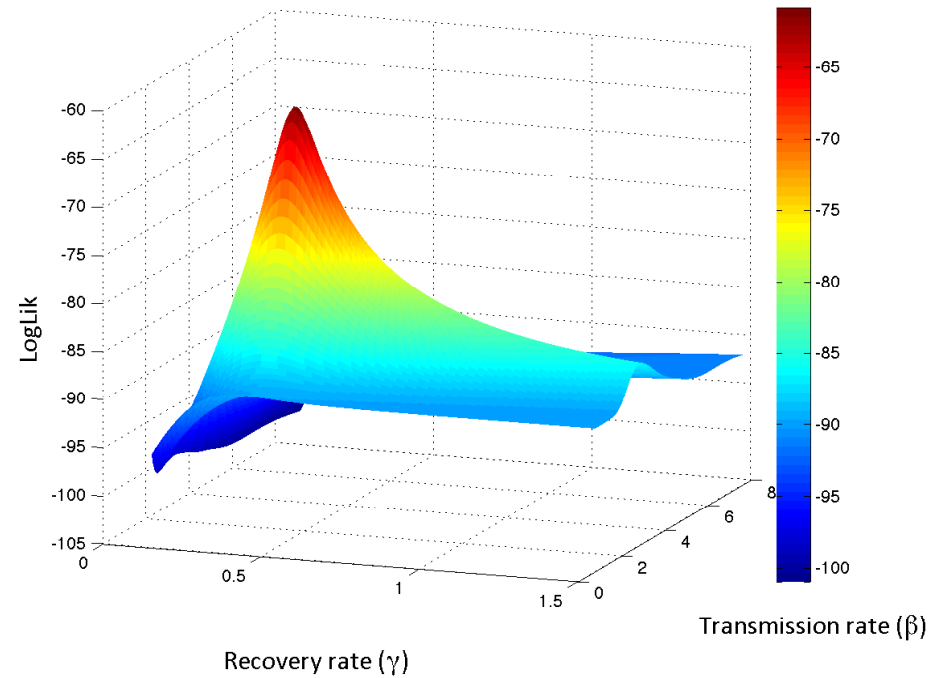
=SSE

Model estimation: Influenza outbreak

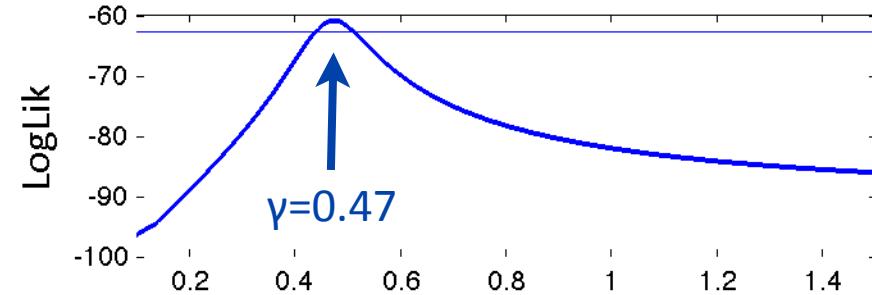
SSE



LogLik

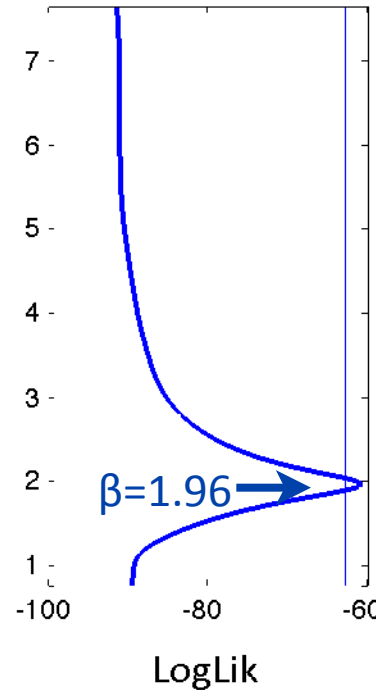
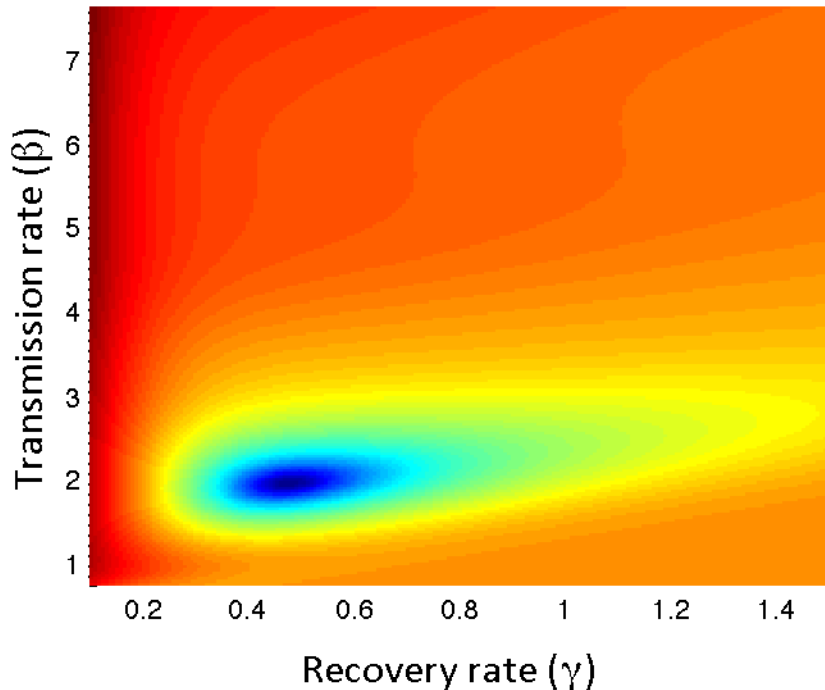


Model estimation: Influenza outbreak



Maximum Likelihood Estimates:

1. $\beta = 1.96$ (per day)
2. $1/\gamma = 2.1$ days
3. $R_0 \sim 4.15$



Recall 2 log-likelihood units indicate significant difference

Can use likelihood profiles to put confidence intervals on estimates

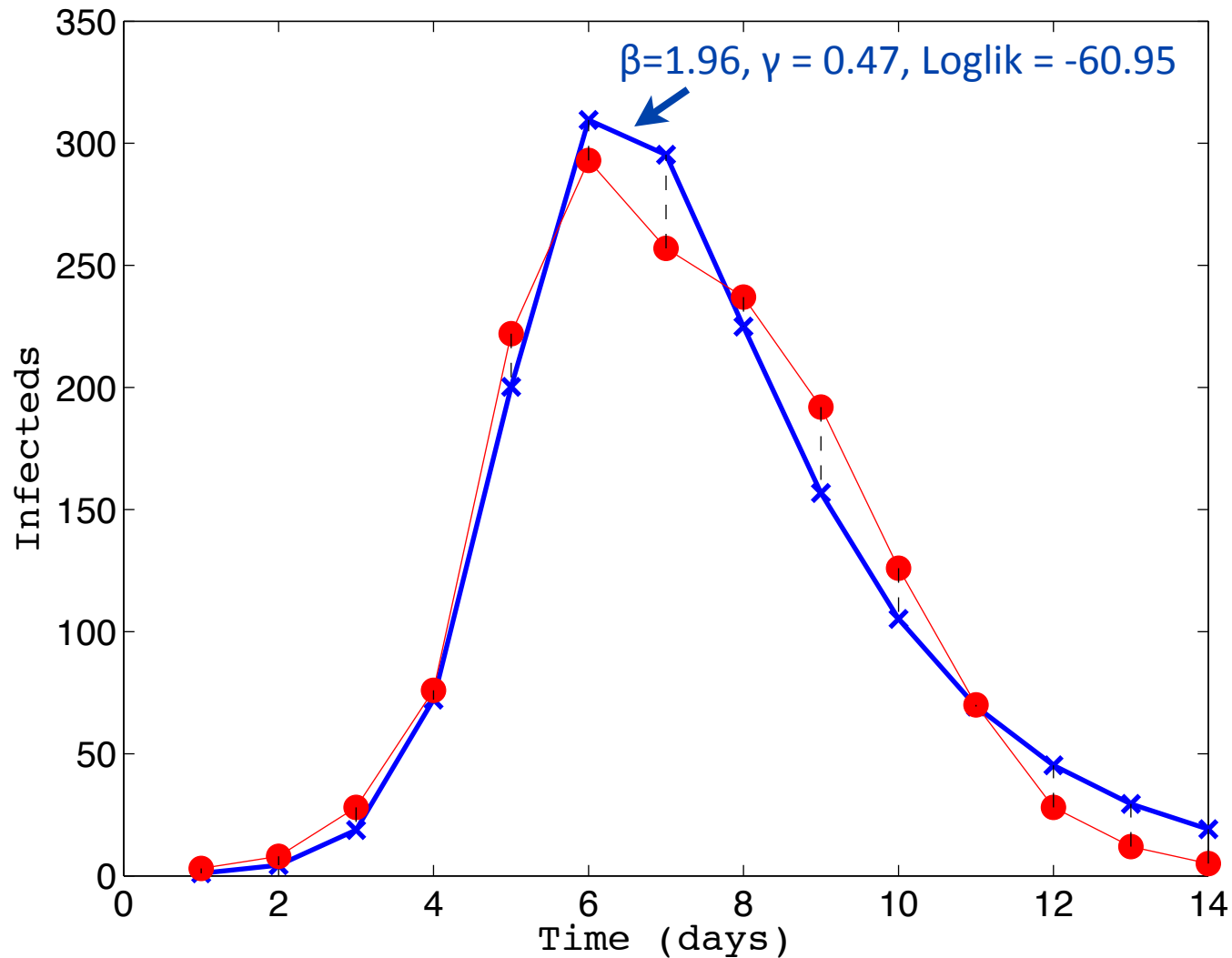
$\beta=1.96$ (1.90, 2.04)
 $\gamma=0.47$ (0.43, 0.50)

Model comparison

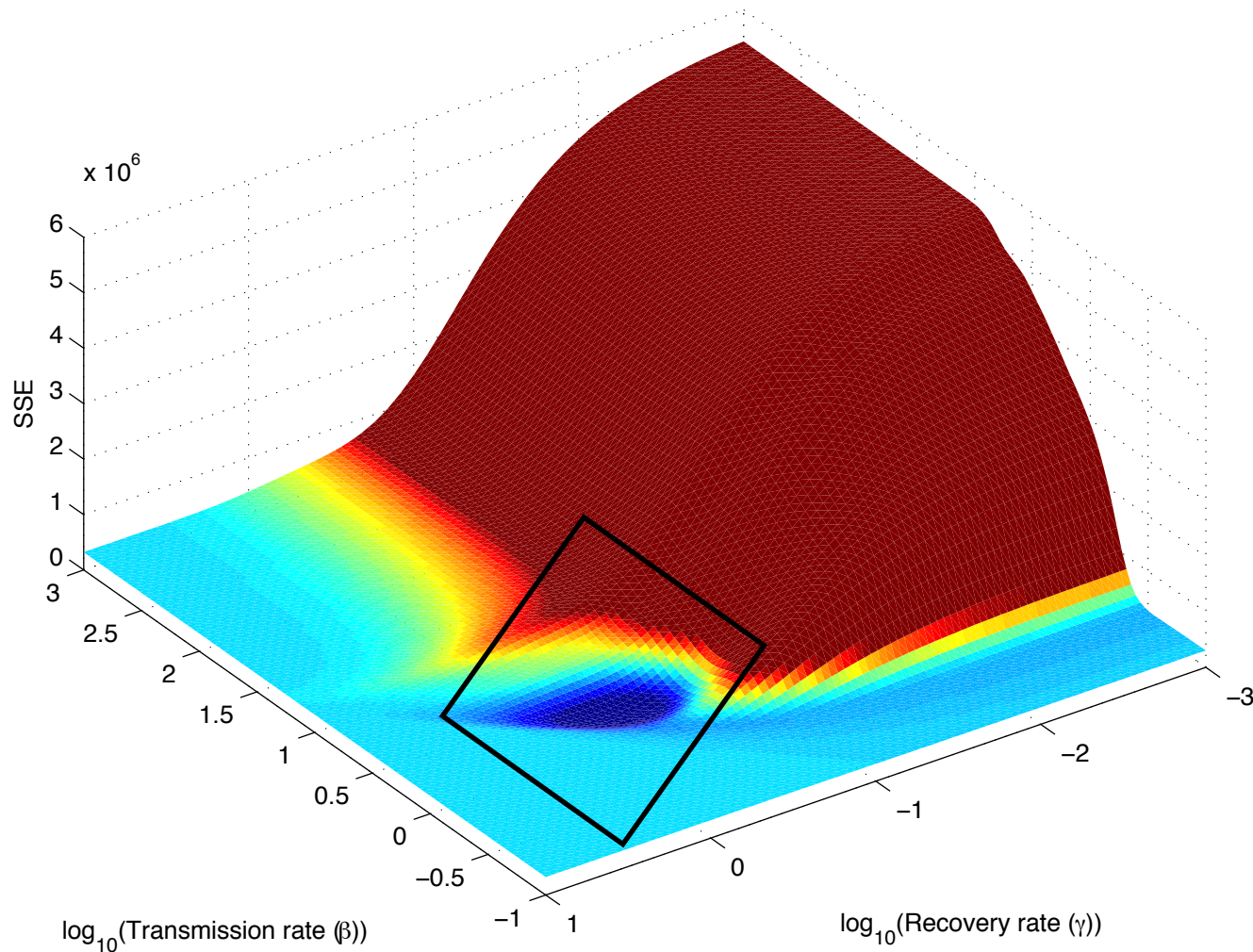
- How to compare models with different number of estimated parameters?
- Commonly use Akaike's Information Criterion
- $AIC = 2p - 2 \log Lik$, where p is number of estimated parameters for model
- rule-of-thumb: if AIC difference < 2 , models indistinguishable

	SIR	Model 2
β	1.96 (1.90,2.04)	
γ	0.47 (0.43,0.50)	
logLik	-60.95	
AIC	125.9	

Likelihood estimation



Likelihood surface



When likelihood surface is somewhat complex, success of estimation using gradient-based optimization algorithms (eg Nelder-Mead) will depend on providing a good initial guess

Caveat

- In boarding school example, data represent number of boys sick $\sim I(t)$
- Typically, data are 'incidence' (newly detected or reported infections)
- Don't correspond to any model variables
- May need to 'construct' new information:
 - $dC/dt = \gamma I$ diagnosis at end of infectiousness
 - $dC/dt = \beta SI$
- Set $C(t+\Delta t) = 0$ where Δt is sampling interval of data

Lecture Summary ...

- R_0 can be estimated from epidemiological data in a variety of ways
 - Final epidemic size
 - Mean age at infection
 - Outbreak exponential growth rate
 - Curve Fitting
- In principle, variety of unknown parameters may be estimated from data

Further, ...

1. Include **uncertainty** in initial conditions

- We took $I(0) = 1$. Instead could estimate $I(0)$ together with β and γ (now have 1 fewer data points)

2. Explicit **observation** model

- Implicitly assumed measurement errors normally distributed with fixed variance, but can relax this assumption

3. What is **appropriate** model?

- SEIR model? (latent period before becoming infectious)
- SEICR model? (“confinement to bed”)
- Time varying parameters? (e.g. action taken to control spread)

Further, ...

4. Assumed model deterministic -- how do we fit a stochastic model?
 - Use a 'particle filter' to calculate likelihood
5. Can we simultaneously estimate numerous parameters?
 - More complex models have more parameters... estimate all from 14 data points? \Rightarrow identifiability
6. More complex models are more flexible, so tend to fit better
 - How do we determine if increased fit justifies increased complexity? \Rightarrow information criteria