

Fitting simple epidemic models: an approximate approach

DES Postgraduate Presentation Competition 2020

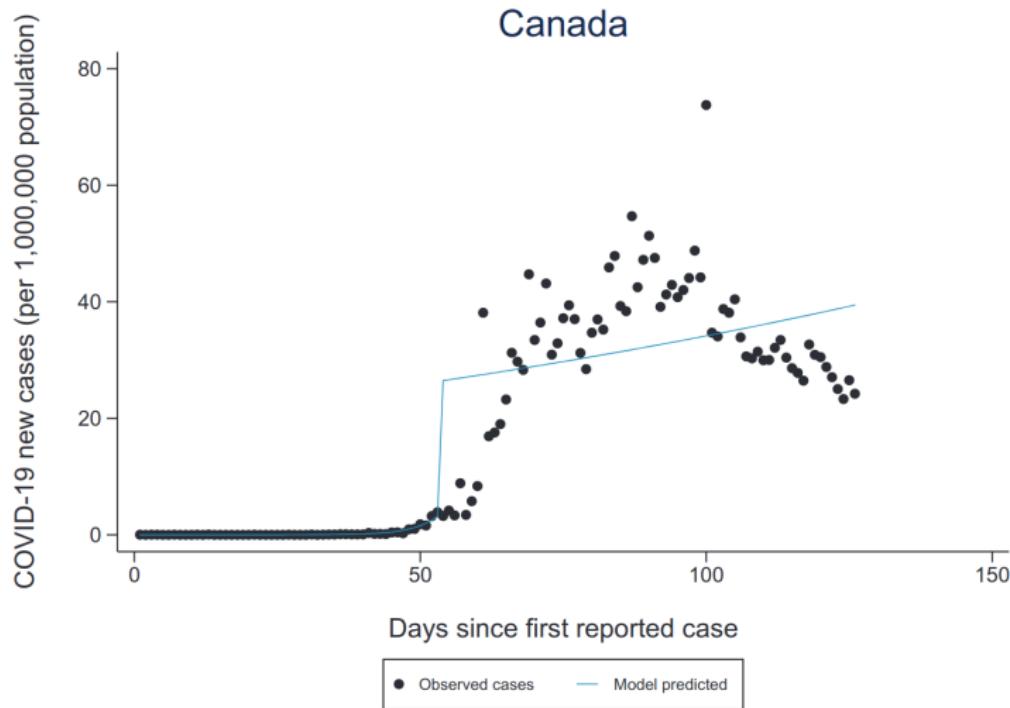
David Wu

December 2020

Department of Engineering Science
University of Auckland

Predicting epidemics is hard.

Prediction is hard



Islam et. al. (2020) Physical distancing interventions and incidence of coronavirus disease 2019: natural experiment in 149 countries. BMJ 2020;371:m3939

Prediction is hard

Predicting an epidemic trajectory is difficult

 Claus O. Wilke and  Carl T. Bergstrom

PNAS November 17, 2020 117 (46) 28549-28551; first published November 3, 2020; <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2020200117>

Prediction is hard

Predicting an epidemic trajectory is difficult

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1073

The turning point and end of an expanding epidemic cannot be precisely forecast

 Mario Castro,  Saúl Ares,  José A. Cuesta, and  Susanna Manrubia

PNAS October 20, 2020 117 (42) 26190-26196; first published October 1, 2020; <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2007868117>

Prediction is hard

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The turning point and end of an expanding epidemic cannot be precisely forecast

 Mario
PNAS October
[/pnas.200761](https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.200761)



Infectious Disease Modelling

Volume 5, 2020, Pages 271-281



Why is it difficult to accurately predict the COVID-19 epidemic?

Weston C. Roda ^a , Marie B. Varughese ^b , Donglin Han ^a , Michael Y. Li ^a 

Basic Problem Statement

Fit the model

$$x = F(t; \theta)$$

to some data

$$y = g(t, x; \theta)$$

Basic Problem Statement

Fit the model

Model is typically
not explicit

$$\cancel{x = F(t; \theta)}$$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(t, x; \theta)$$

to some data

$$y = g(t, x; \theta)$$

Basic Problem Statement

Fit the model

Model is typically
not explicit

Highly nonlinear

$$\begin{aligned}x &= F(t; \theta) \\ \frac{dx}{dt} &= f(t, x; \theta)\end{aligned}$$

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to some data

$$y = g(t, x; \theta)$$

Data is partially
observed

Basic Problem Statement

Fit the model

to some data

Model is typically
not explicit

Highly nonlinear

$$x = F(t; \theta)$$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(t, x; \theta)$$

$$y = g(t, x; \theta)$$

Data is partially
observed

Model is probably
not (quite) correct

Standard Approach

Standard Approach

Initialise with some guess $x_0^{(0)}, \theta^{(0)}$.

At each iteration i until convergence,

1. Integrate the model f from $x_0^{(i)}$ with parameters $\theta^{(i)}$ to produce solution $x^{(i)}$
2. Compute residuals $r^{(i)} = y - g(x^{(i)}, \theta^{(i)})$
3. Step to reach a next iterate $x_0^{(i)}, \theta^{(i)}$
 - Typically a Newton step

A Useful Fitting Method

1. Solves relatively quickly
2. Allows for model misspecification
3. Infers (or otherwise deals with) non-observed states

Generalised Profiling

We can achieve these goals by:

- using collocation methods to avoid integration, and
- relaxing the condition of matching the model.

Generalised Profiling

$$\min_{x, \theta} \underbrace{\left\| L_d (y - g(x)) \right\|^2}_{\substack{\text{state estimation} \\ \text{data misfit}}} + \underbrace{\left\| L_m \left(\frac{dx}{dt} - f(x; \theta) \right) \right\|^2}_{\substack{\text{parameter estimation} \\ \text{model misfit}}}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} L_d^T L_d &= \Gamma_d^{-1} && \} \text{Inverse covariance of} \\ &&& \text{observation error} \\ L_m^T L_m &= \frac{1}{\Delta t} \Gamma_m^{-1} && \} \text{Inverse covariance of} \\ &&& \text{process error} \end{aligned}$$

and x is projected on a spline basis

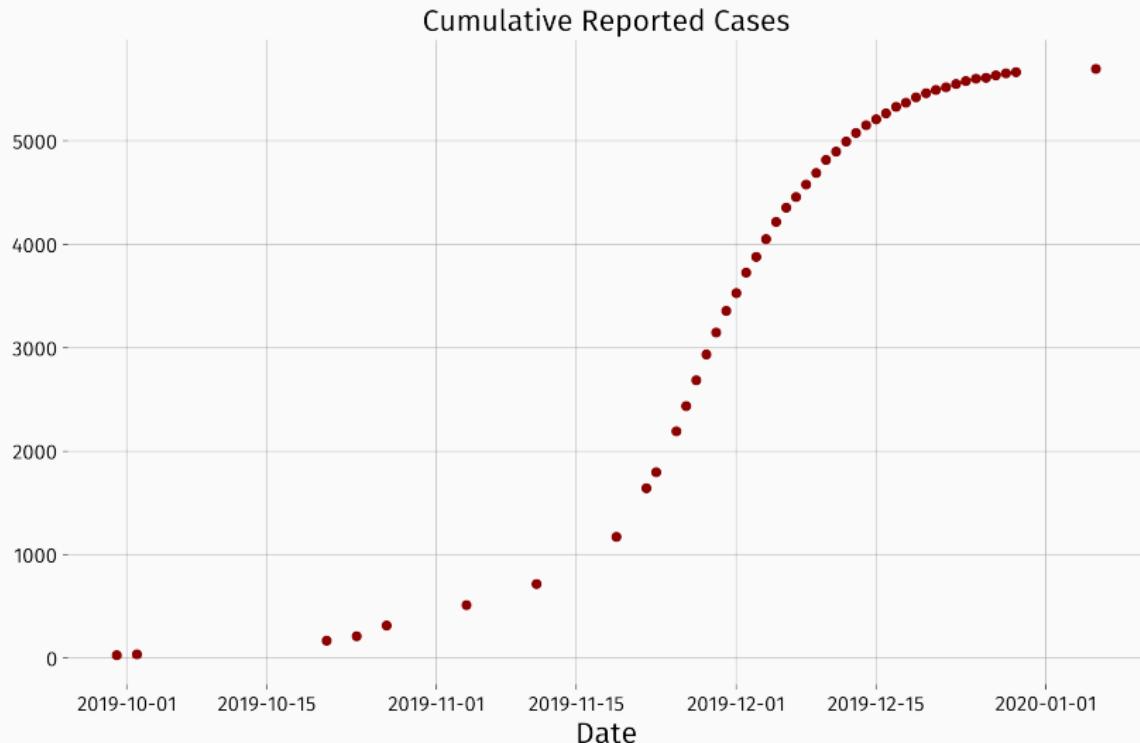
$$x(t) = \Phi(t)c$$

Case Study: Samoan Measles Outbreak

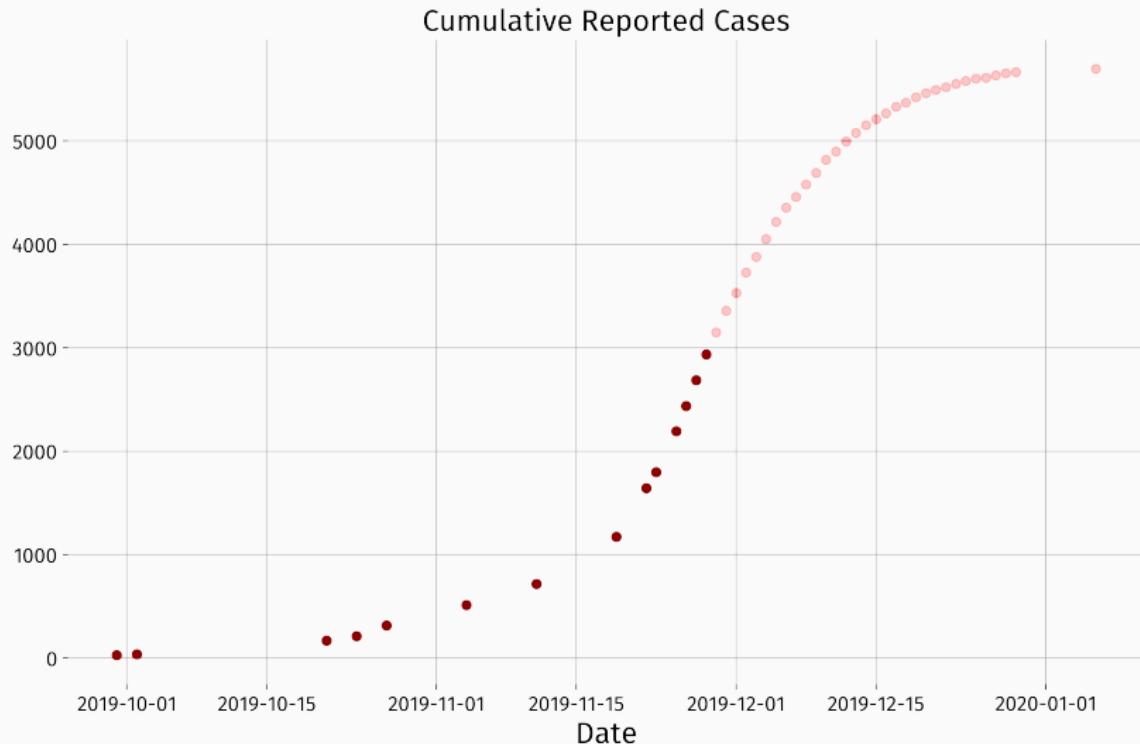
Applied these concepts to a compartmental model for predicting the Samoan measles outbreak of 2019.

- Lasted over 3 months (Sep 2019 – Jan 2020)
- Over 5700 cases (pop. 200,000)
- 83 deaths
- Anomalously low vaccination at time of outbreak
 - 40% first-dose MCV
 - 28% second-dose MCV

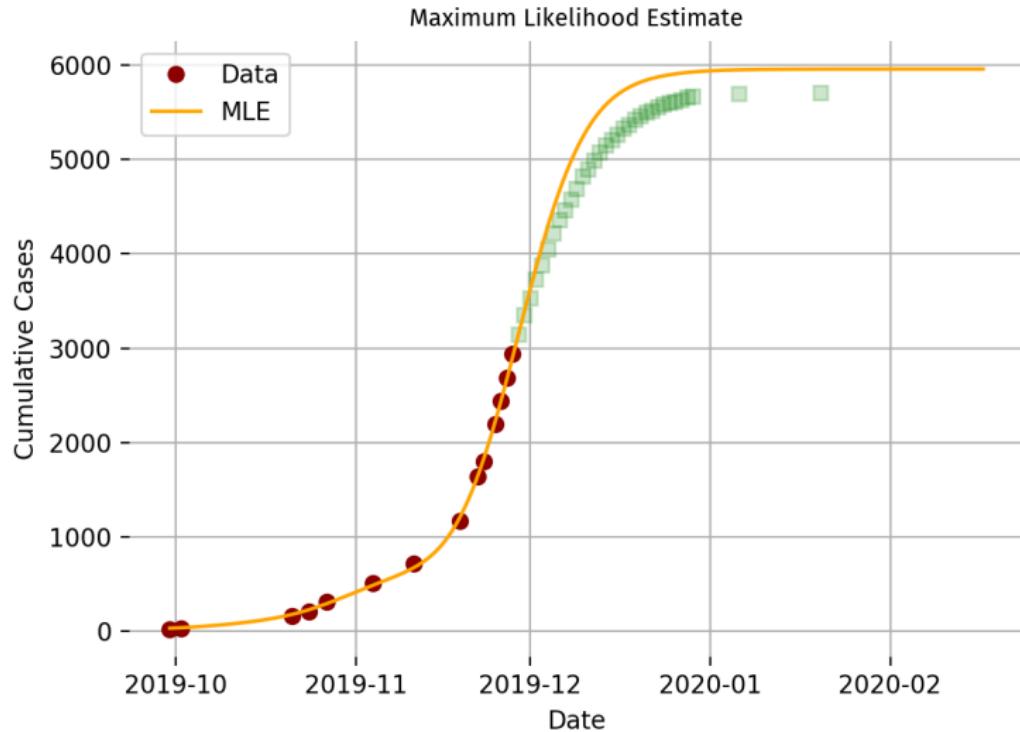
Case Study: Samoan Measles Outbreak



Case Study: Samoan Measles Outbreak



Case Study: Samoan Measles Outbreak

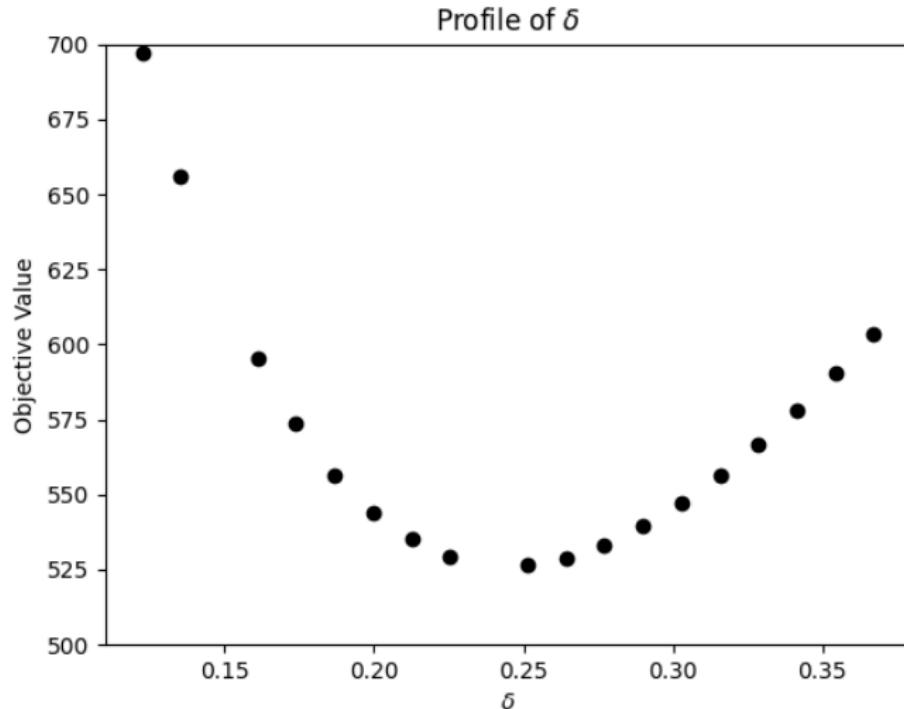


Parameter Uncertainty

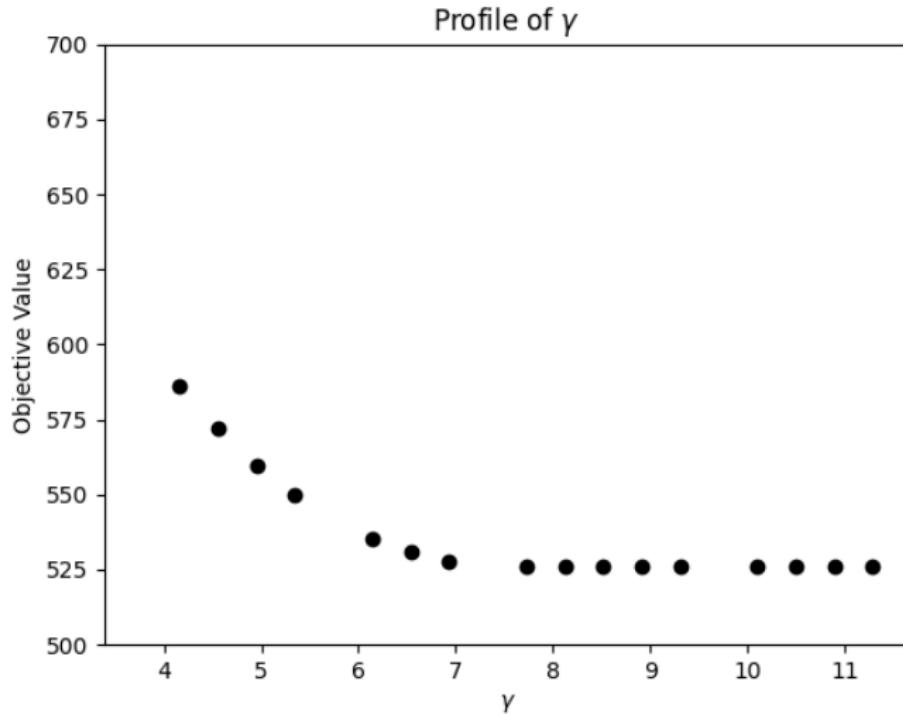
We can profile the **sensitivity** of the objective function **with respect to the parameters** of the model **by gridding** over them, and **re-solving**, letting all other parameters be free.

If other parameters can compensate for the change in the parameter of interest, we'll get a **flat profile**, signalling ***nonidentifiability***.

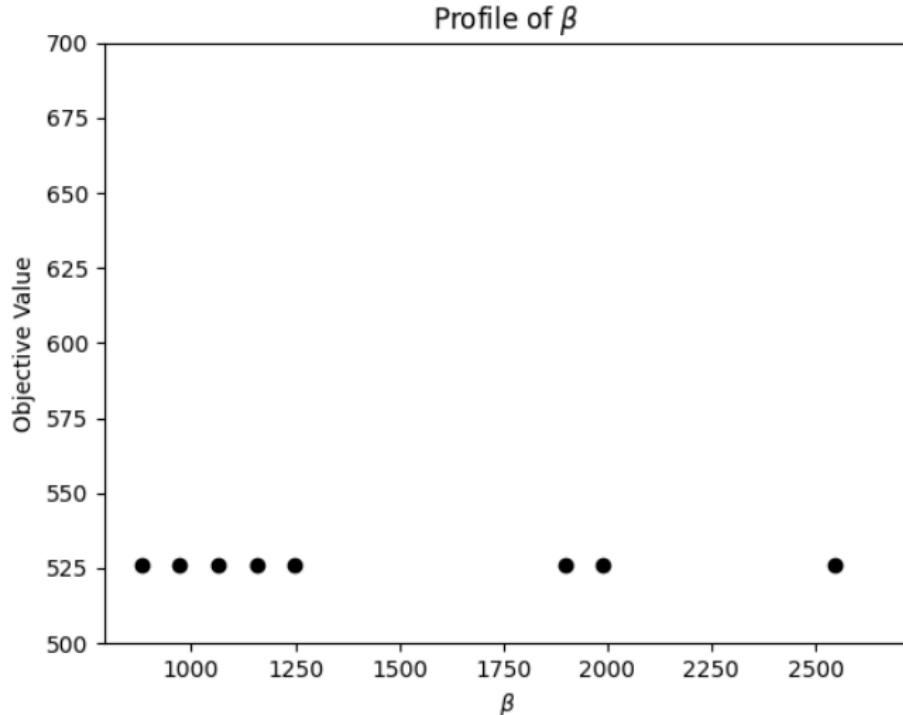
Parameter Uncertainty



Parameter Uncertainty

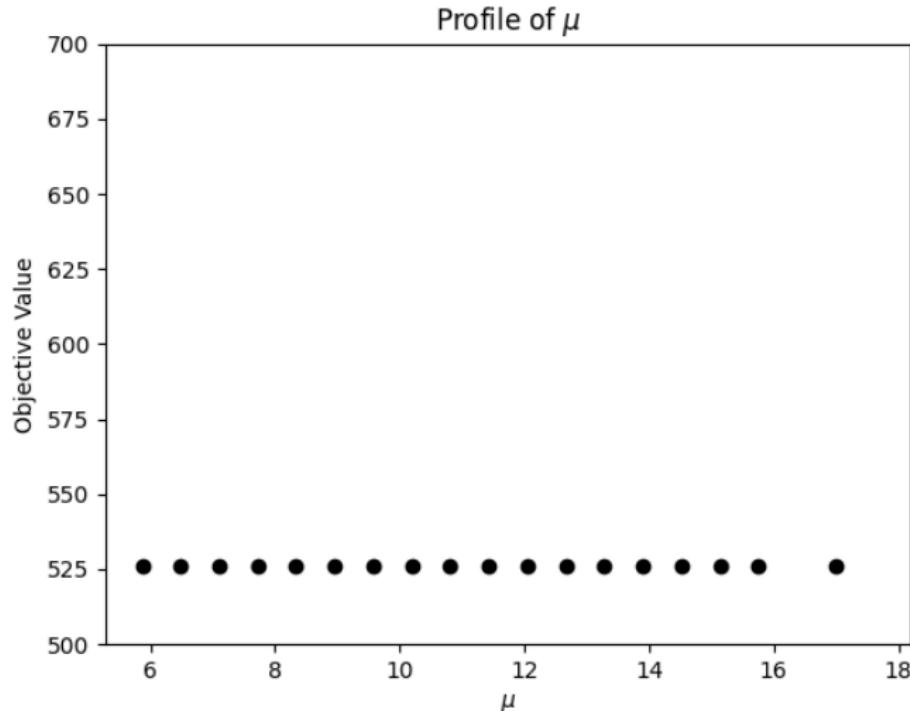


Parameter Uncertainty



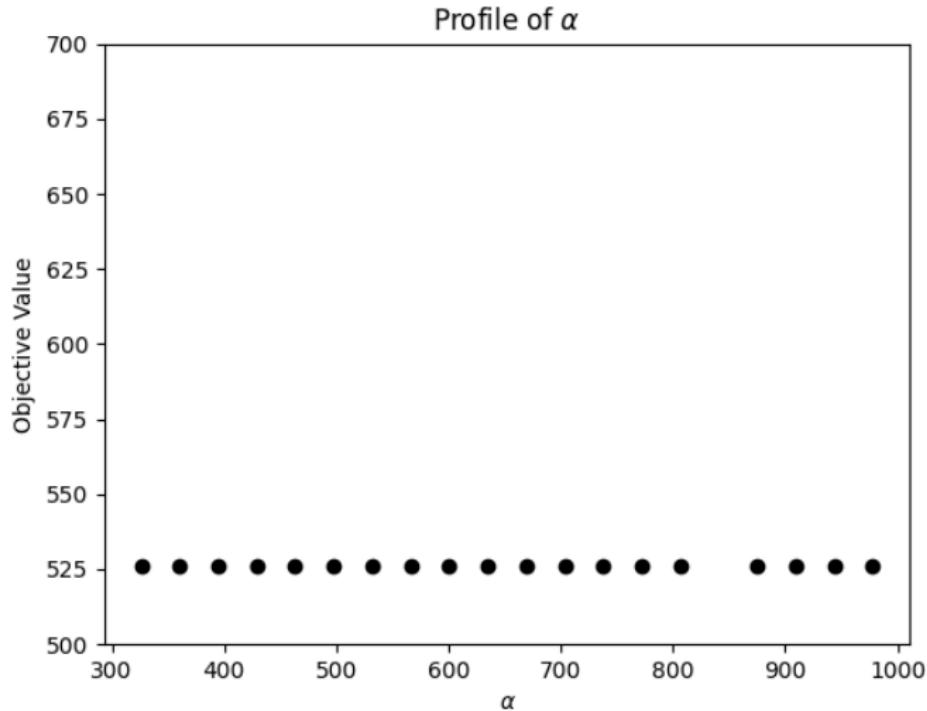
$$R_0 = \beta / (\mu + \alpha + \eta)$$

Parameter Uncertainty



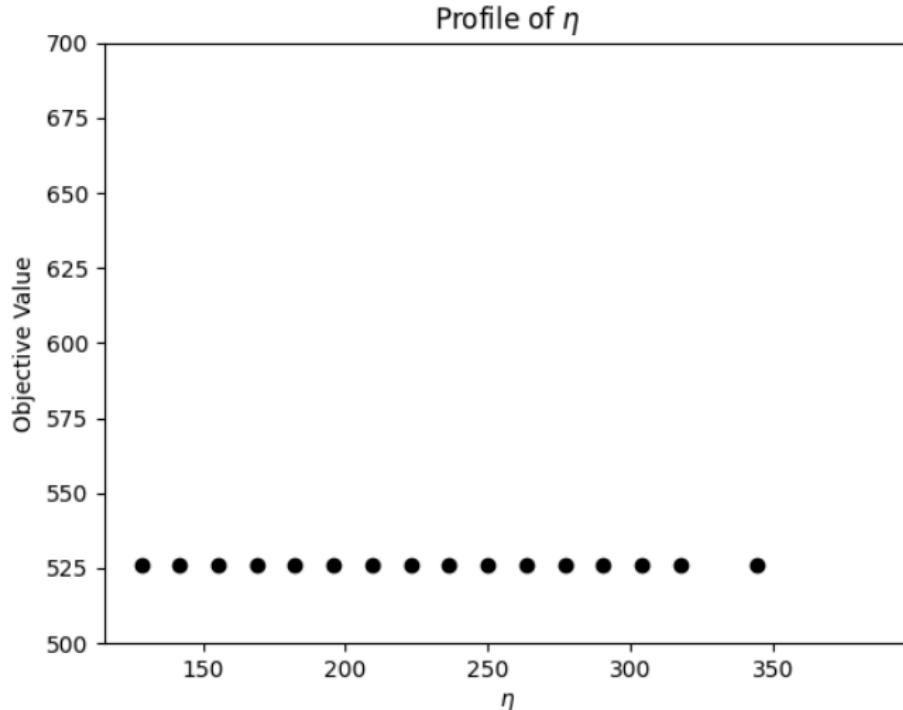
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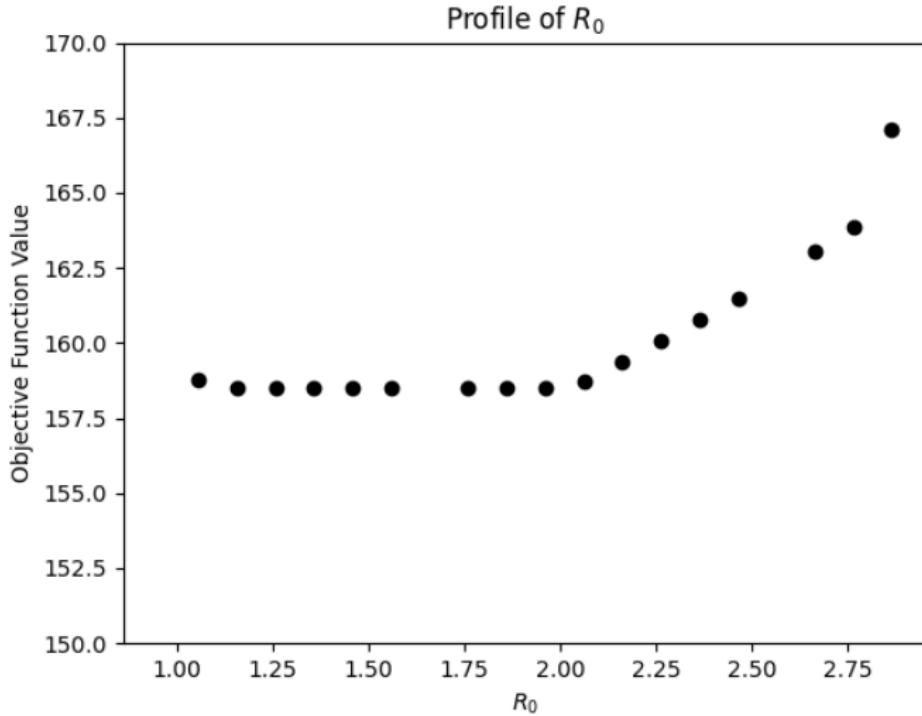
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Parameter Uncertainty



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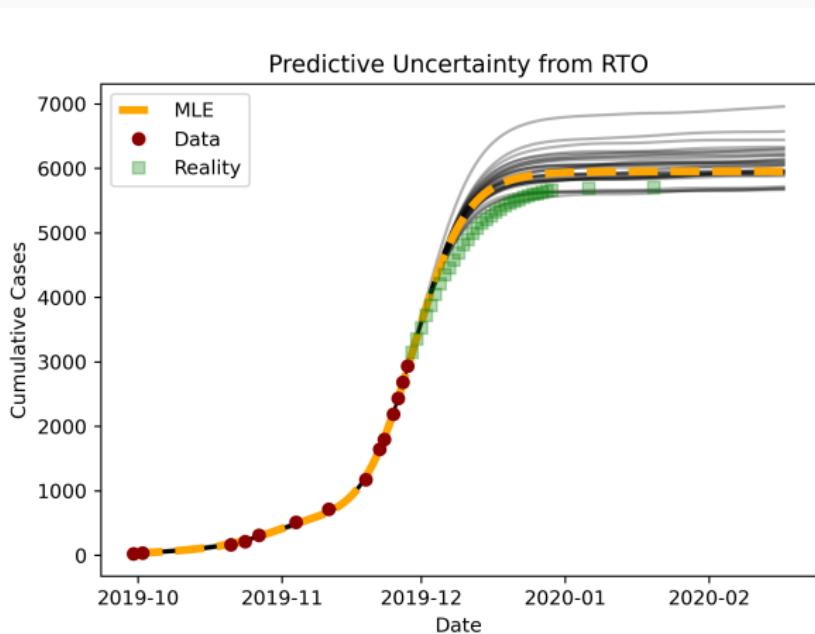
Parameter Uncertainty



$$R_0 = \beta / (\mu + \alpha + \eta)$$

Predictive Uncertainty

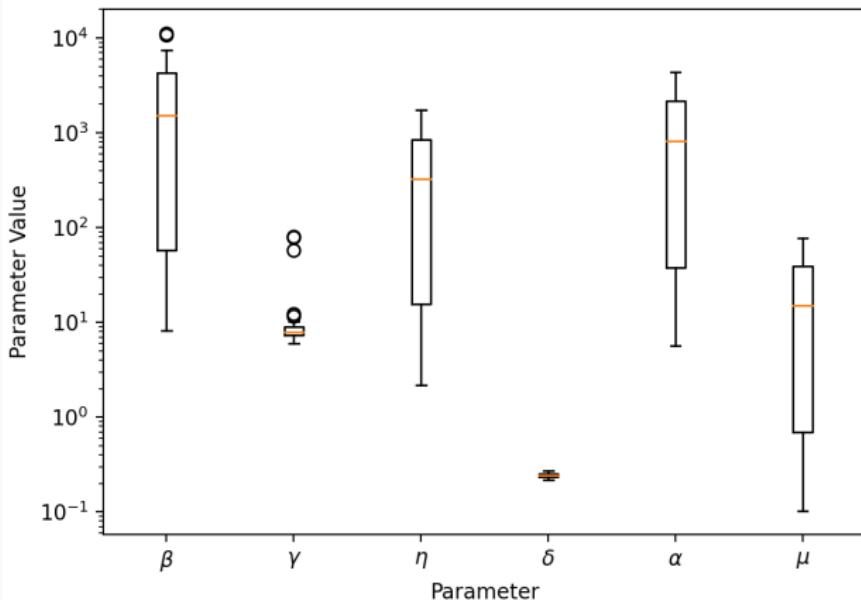
We derive predictive uncertainty under the Randomise-Then-Optimise framework (RTO). This involves perturbing the data and re-solving about the MLE.



Bardsley, J. M., Solonen, A., Haario, H., & Laine, M. (2014). *Randomize-Then-Optimize: A Method for Sampling from Posterior Distributions in Nonlinear Inverse Problems*. SIAM Journal on Scientific Computing, 36(4), A1895–A1910.

Parameter Uncertainty from RTO

We can also use the samples from RTO to infer parameter sensitivity.



Concluding Remarks

- Framework for inference that does not require integration
- With parameter and predictive uncertainty
- Works for a case study with sparse data

Concluding Remarks

- Framework for inference that does not require integration
- With parameter and predictive uncertainty
- Works for a case study with sparse data
- Still a need for regularisation
- Still problems with convergence

Thanks

Oliver Maclaren

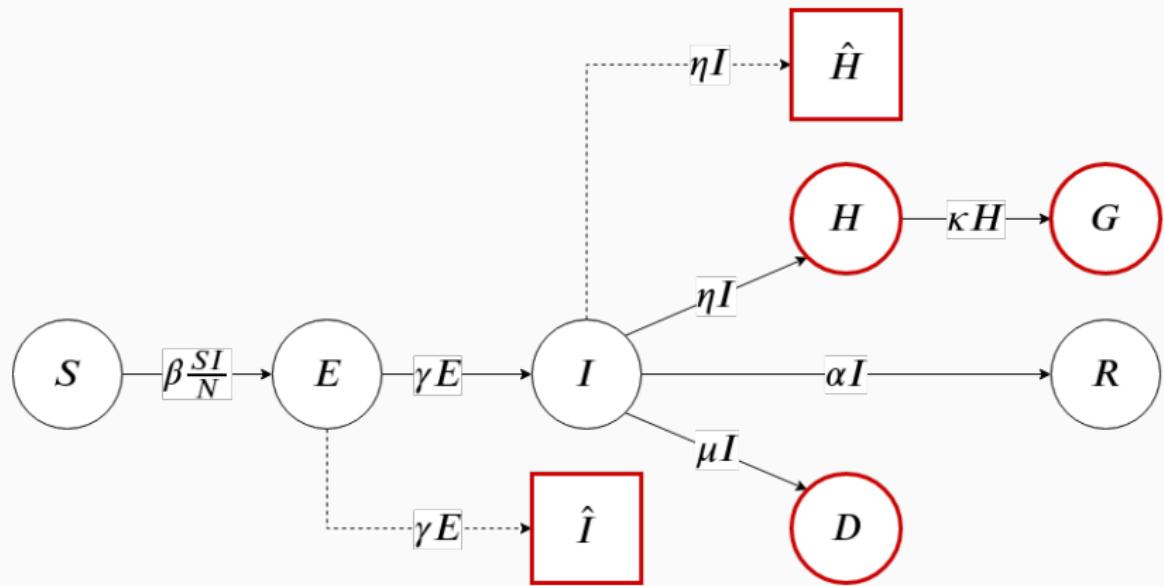
Vinod Suresh

Helen Petousis-Harris



samoa**observer**

Samoan Measles Model



Model (Equation Form)

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dS}{dt} &= -\beta \frac{SI}{N} \\ \frac{dE}{dt} &= \beta \frac{SI}{N} - \gamma E \\ \frac{dl}{dt} &= \gamma E - \alpha l - \mu l \\ \frac{dR}{dt} &= (1 - \eta) \alpha l\end{aligned}$$

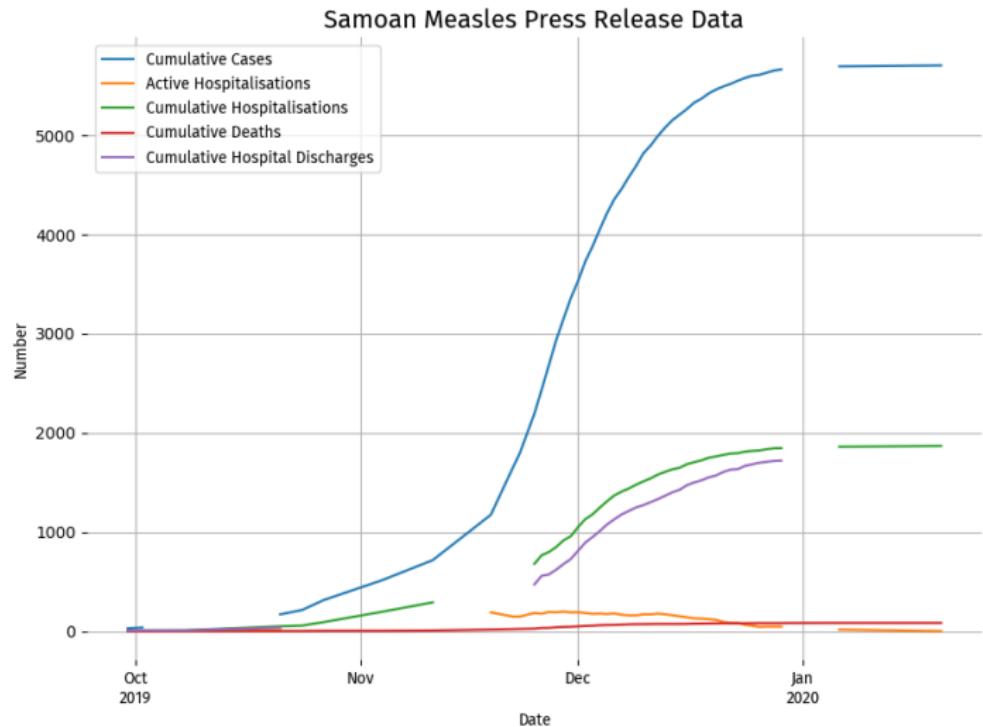
$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dH}{dt} &= \eta \alpha l - \kappa H \\ \frac{dG}{dt} &= \kappa H \\ \frac{dD}{dt} &= \mu l \\ \frac{d\hat{l}}{dt} &= \gamma E \\ \frac{d\hat{H}}{dt} &= \eta \alpha l\end{aligned}$$

Covariance Structure for Samoan Measles Model

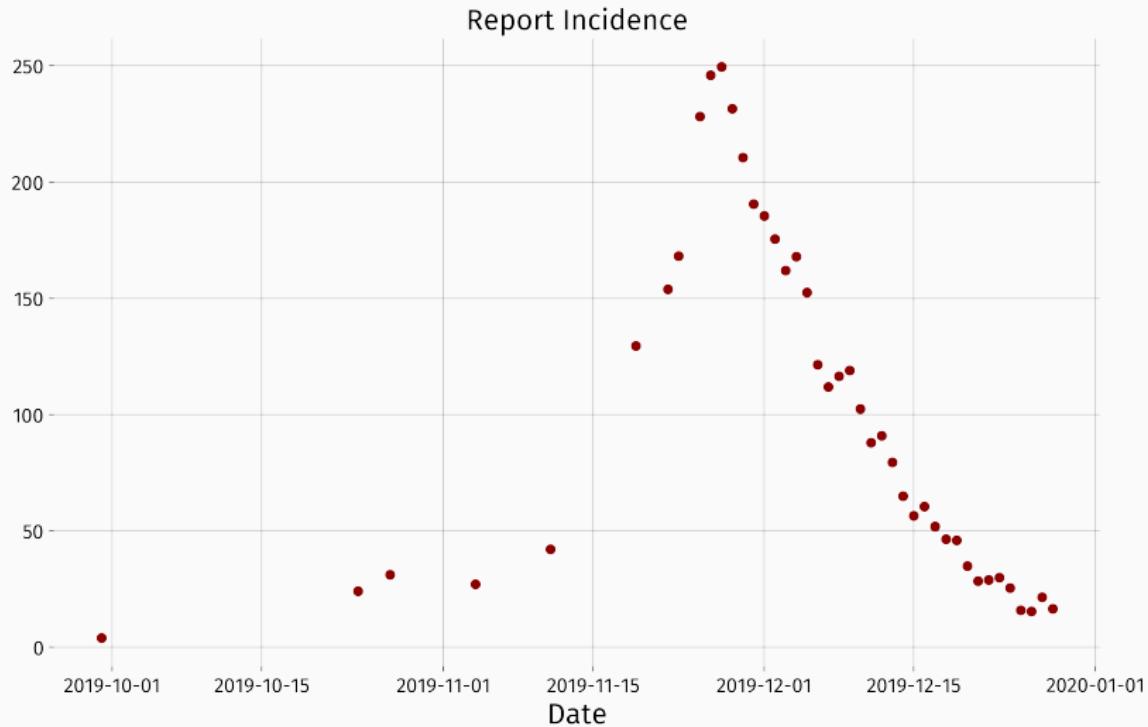
$$\Gamma_d = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 I & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 I & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_3 I & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sigma_4 I & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \sigma_5 I \end{bmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} H \\ G \\ D \\ \hat{I} \\ \hat{H} \end{pmatrix} \text{ (observed states)}$$

$$\Gamma_m = \begin{bmatrix} s_1 I & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_2 I & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & s_{N-1} I & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & s_N I \end{bmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} S \\ E \\ \vdots \\ \hat{I} \\ \hat{H} \end{pmatrix} \text{ (all states)}$$

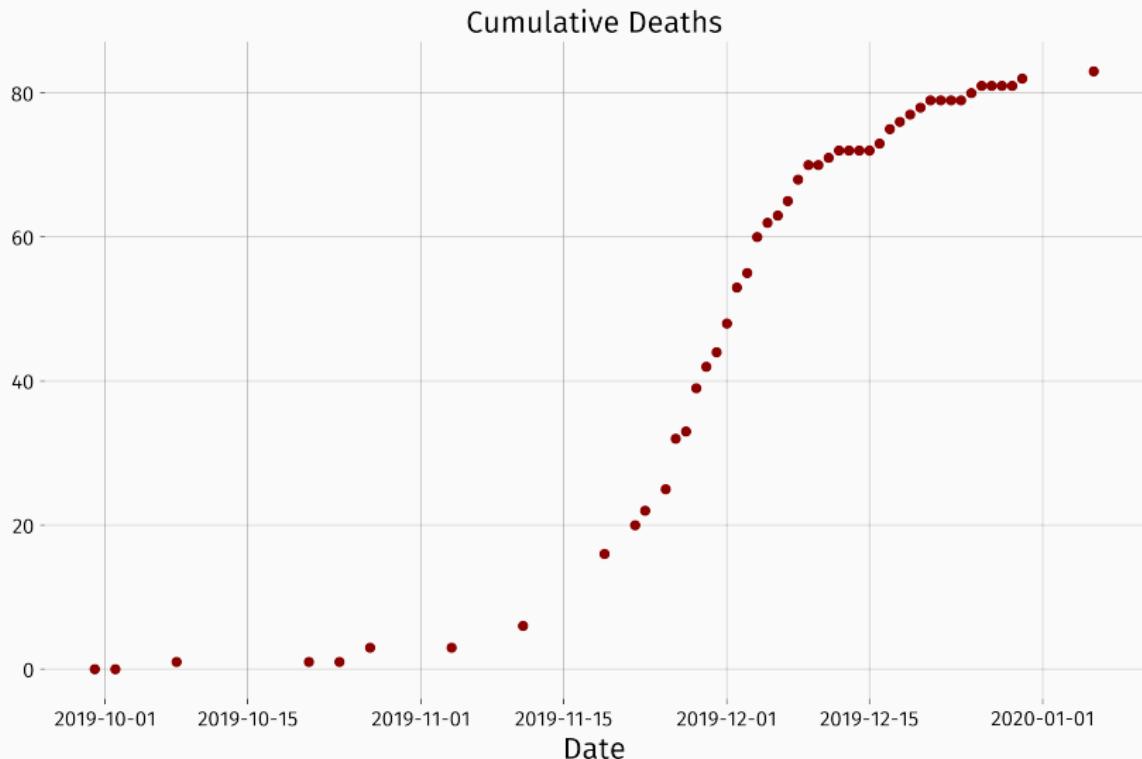
Available Data



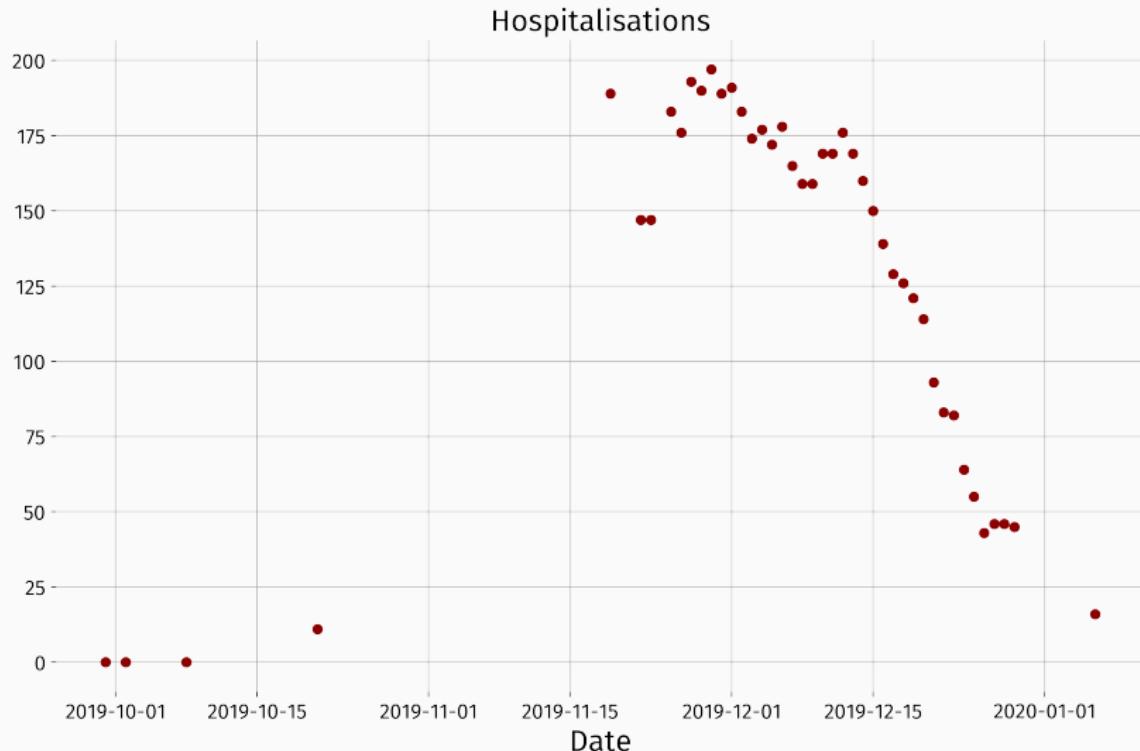
Report Incidence



Deaths



Hospitalisations



Full Objective

Assuming Gaussian error structures

$$l(x, \theta) = \|y - g(x, \theta)\|_{L_d}^2 + \|\mathcal{D}x - f(x, \theta)\|_{L_m}^2 - \log |\Gamma_d| - \log |\Gamma_m|$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} L_d^T L_d &= \Gamma_d^{-1}, \\ L_m^T L_m &= \Gamma_m^{-1} \Delta t \end{aligned}$$

Full Objective

We conceptualise the objective function as of the form

$$\sum_i \left\{ \|u_i - v_i\|_{L_i}^2 + s(L_i) \right\}$$

where u_i are some “data”, v_i some function of the unknowns (parameters, states), and s some function on the covariance. For our particular formulation, we take:

$$u_0 = y$$

$$u_1 = 0$$

$$v_0 = g(x, \theta)$$

$$v_1 = \mathcal{D}x - f(x, \theta)$$

$$L_0 = L_d$$

$$L_1 = L_m$$

Regularisation can be interpreted as “extra data” on parameters, a la the Bayesian framework.

Estimating Γ

Ramsay and Hooker suggest a simple grid search to determine appropriate Γ when they take the form σI , $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}$, but this is both slow and not extensible to more general covariance structures.

Instead of gridding, we can iterate through candidate Γ by utilising the iterated reweighted least squares method.

This involves sequentially computing optimal values of (x, θ) and (Γ_d, Γ_m) until convergence.

We found that this method typically need to be regularised via early stopping — if we consider that $\Gamma_m \rightarrow \infty$ is the naïve nonlinear least squares formulation, this makes sense.

Interpreting Model/Process Error

$$\|\mathcal{D}x - f(x; \theta)\|_{L_m}^2$$

We can interpret this as an enforcement of an (Euler-Maruyama) discretisation of the SDE

$$\Delta x = f(x; \theta) \Delta t + \Delta W$$

with $\text{Var}[\Delta W] = \Gamma_m \Delta t$

Traditional Confidence Intervals

Traditional confidence intervals use **quadratic approximations** of the log-likelihood (our objective function) about the MLE.

If the parameters are nonidentifiable, this can become problematic — **the Fisher information may be singular** (leading to the (typically) correct inference that finite intervals do not exist), or the approximation may **fail to detect one-sided nonidentifiability** (leading to the incorrect inference that there is a bounded interval).

Predictive Uncertainty (RTO)

Our implementation of RTO works by perturbing the data in the log-likelihood

$$l(x, \theta) = \left\| \underbrace{y}_{\text{data}} - g(x, \theta) \right\|_{L_d}^2 + \left\| \underbrace{0}_{\text{data}} - (\mathcal{D}x - f(x, \theta)) \right\|_{L_m}^2$$

to

$$l^*(x, \theta) = \left\| y^* - g(x, \theta) \right\|_{L_d}^2 + \left\| r^* - (\mathcal{D}x - f(x, \theta)) \right\|_{L_m}^2,$$

where

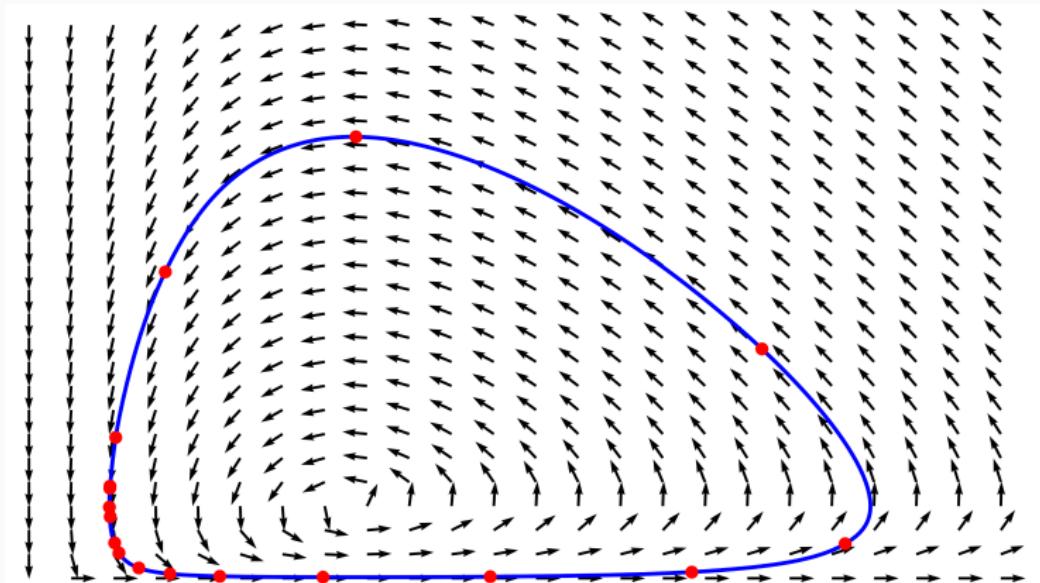
$$y^* = y + \epsilon_y, \quad \epsilon_y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Gamma_d),$$

$$r^* = 0 + \epsilon_r, \quad \epsilon_r \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Gamma_m \Delta t).$$

Generalised Profiling

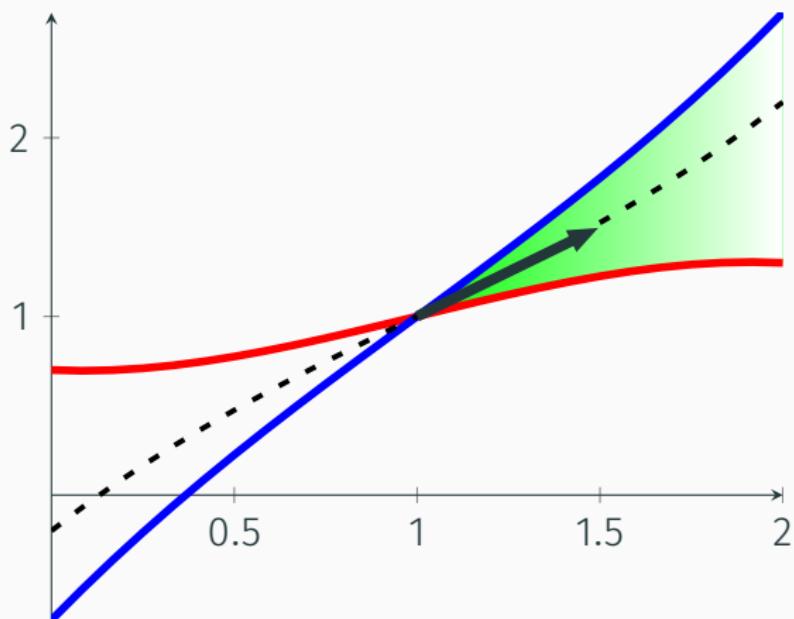
Collocation for model misfit

an example on the Lotka Volterra model in the phase plane



Generalised Profiling

Relaxing for model misspecification



(some of) It is on github.
dwu402/pypei





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