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





Outline

Introduction

Linking models to data

Bayesian inference

Practical session in R

1. Introduction

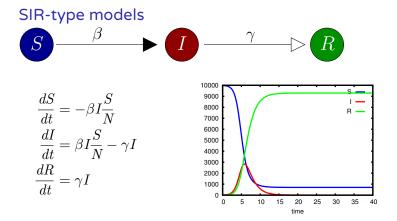
Model

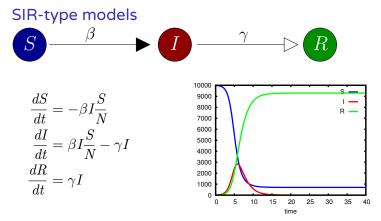
A simplified description, especially a mathematical one, of a system or process, to assist calculations and predictions

Oxford English Dictionary

Mathematical model

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





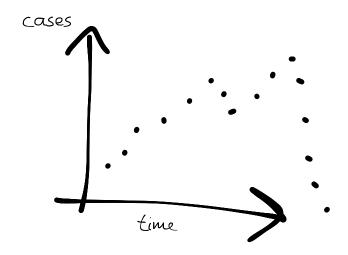
Mechanistic models description vs mechanism

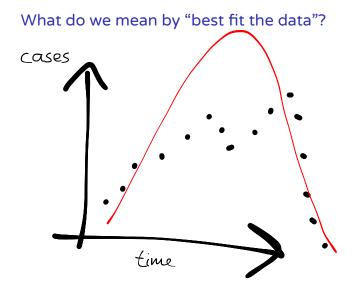
Parameter estimation

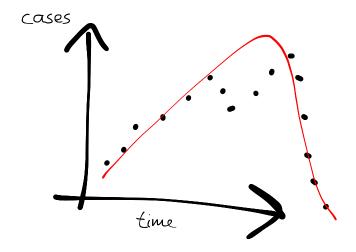
Given a model, what are the parameter combinations that best fit the data (in whichever way)

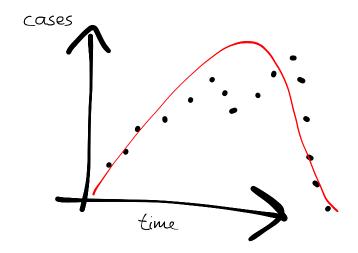
Why are we doing this?

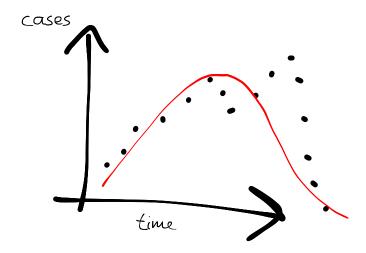
- Learn something about the system
 - test a scientific hypothesis
 - e.g., why did the UK H1N1 epidemic wane in summer 2009? (Dureau et al., 2013)
 - · estimate parameters
 - e.g. which fraction of infections with cholera in Bangladesh are asymptomatic? (King et al., 2008)
 - · sometimes in real time
- Validate the model
 - · especially: for prediction





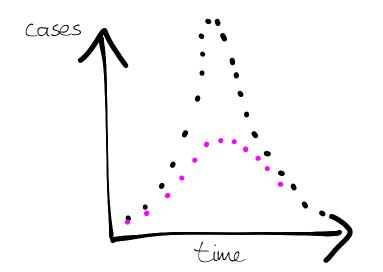




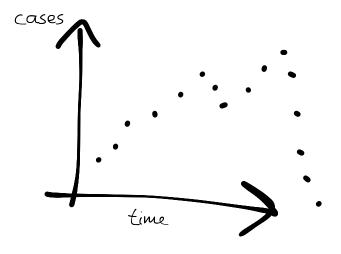


State estimation

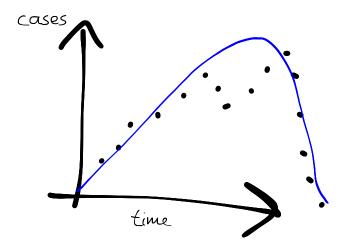
Given what we observe, what is the state of the sytem?



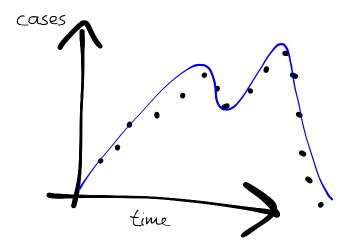
Model selection



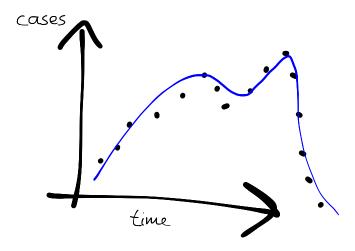
Model selection



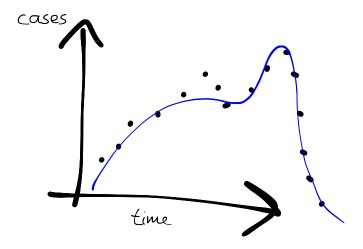
Model selection



Model selection

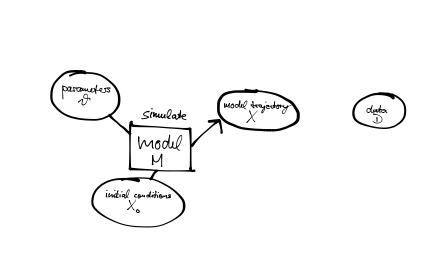


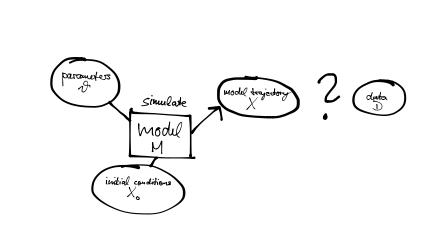
Model selection



2. Linking models to data

Model M

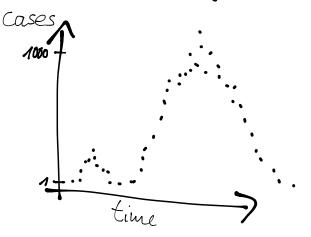




- eyeballing
- · absolute distance
- · squared distance

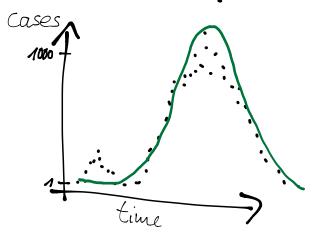
- eyeballing
- absolute distance
- squared distance

Do these work?



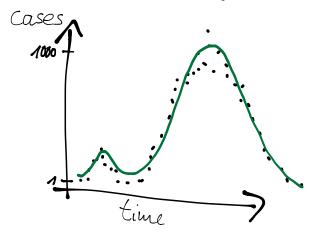
- eyeballing
- absolute distance
- squared distance

Do these work?



- eyeballing
- · absolute distance
- squared distance

Do these work?



Probabilistic formulation

- Often we know something about how the data were taken

 → observations introduce uncertainty
- We can express the uncertainty in observing the process as a probability

$$p(\text{data}|\text{underlying process})$$

By including this in our model, we get

p(data|model output)

Interlude: probabilities I

Probability theory is nothing but common sense reduced to calculation.

Laplace, 1812

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 Andy Murray wins Wimbledon this year

$$p(T = Andy) = p(Andy)$$

Normalisation

$$\sum p(a) = 1$$

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 Andy Murray wins Wimbledon and it is sunny final day

$$p(T = Andy, W = sunny) = p(Andy, sunny)$$

 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 Andy Murray wins Wimbledon, given that it is sunny on final day

$$p(T = \text{Andy}|W = \text{sunny}) = p(\text{Andy}|\text{sunny})$$

Conditional probabilities are related to joint probabilities as

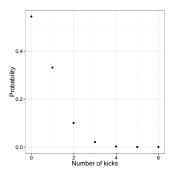
$$p(a|b) = \frac{p(a,b)}{p(b)}$$

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)

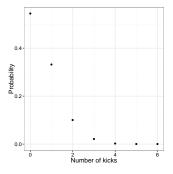
- E.g., how many people die of horse kicks if there are 0.61 kicks per year
- Described by the Poisson distribution



- 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

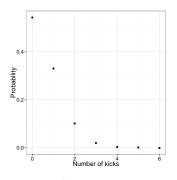
What is the probability of 2 deaths in a year?

[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
- Described by the Poisson distribution



Sample

Give me a random sample from the probability distribution

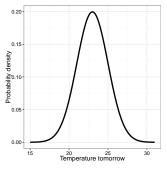
```
rpois(n = 1,
lambda = 0.61)
```

[1] 0

- 1. Evaluate the probability
- 2. Randomly sample

Probability distributions (continuous)

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



Normalisation:

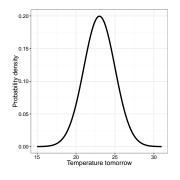
$$\int p(a) \, da = 1$$

Marginal probabilities:

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

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

Evaluating under the (normal) probability distribution



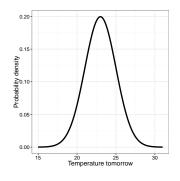
Evaluate

What is the probability density of 30° *C* tomorrow?

[1] 0.0004363413

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

Generating a random sample (normal distribution)



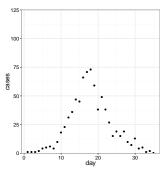
Sample

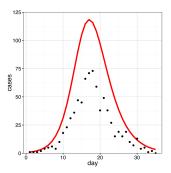
Give me a random sample from the probability distribution

```
rnorm(n = 1,
    mean = 23,
    sd = 2)
```

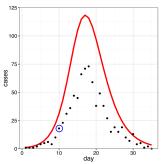
[1] 23.05824

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



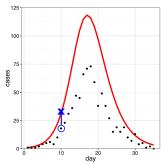


SIR model, assume that cases are detected with independent reporting probability $\rho=0.5$.

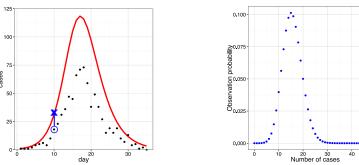


At time 10, 18 cases observed.

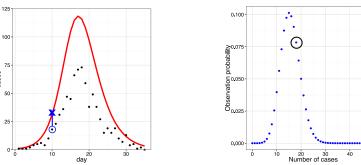
SIR model, assume that cases are detected with independent reporting probability $\rho=0.5$.



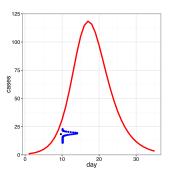
At time 10, 18 cases observed, 31.1 cases in the model.

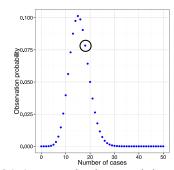


At time 10, 18 cases observed, 31.1 cases in the model.



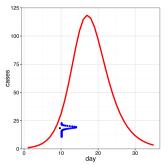
At time 10, 18 cases observed, 31.1 cases in the model.

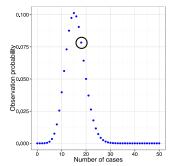




At time 10, 18 cases observed, 31.1 cases in the model. $p({\rm data\ point\ }10|\theta)=0.078$

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



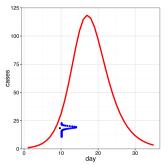


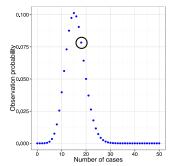
At time 10, 18 cases observed, 31.1 cases in the model. $p({\rm data\ point\ }10|\theta)=0.078$

Multiply across the data to get the full trajectory likelihood.

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

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

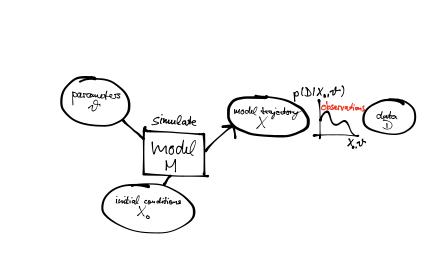


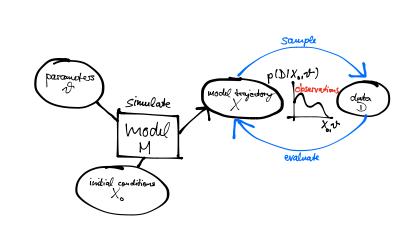


At time 10, 18 cases observed, 31.1 cases in the model. $p({\rm data\ point\ }10|\theta)=0.078$

Sum across the data to get the full trajectory log-likelihood.

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





The likelihood

We have argued that it makes sense to write

$$p(\text{data}|\text{model output})$$

For a given model the output depends on the parameters
 θ. So we can write

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

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

- This is called the likelihood of parameters θ
- 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

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

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: $p(\text{data}|\theta)$
- in inference, I try 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: $p(\text{data}|\theta)$
- in inference, I try 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)

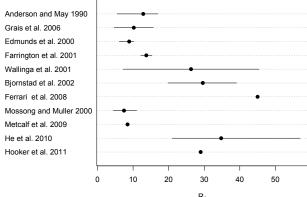
Prior probabilities

 p(θ) quantifies our degree of belief via a probability distribution before confronting the model with data:

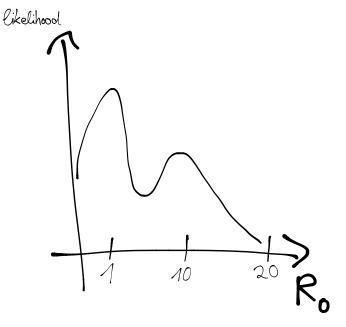
$$p(\theta)$$

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

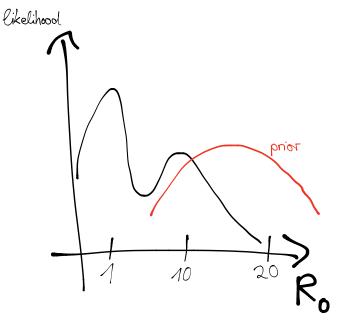
• Example: R₀ of measles



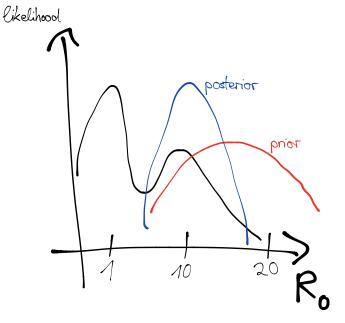
Example: estimating R₀ of measles



Example: prior for estimating R_0 of measles



Example: posterior for estimating R_0 of measles



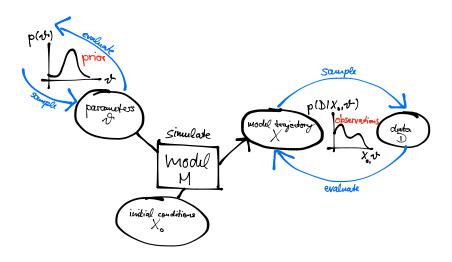
Sampling from the posterior

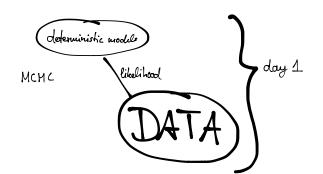
Bayesian statistics

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

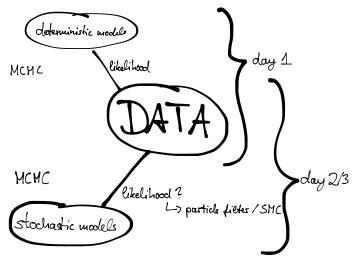
$$p(\theta|\text{data}) \propto p(\text{data}|\theta)p(\theta)$$

We want to generate samples of θ from this distribution.



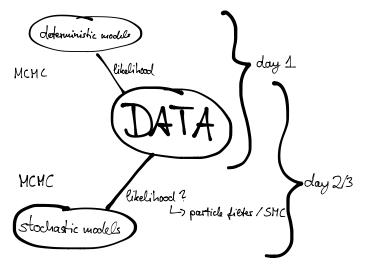


deterministic models day 1 likelihood MCHC iday2 likelihood 2 L) particle fieter/SMC stochastic models



day 3 (afternoon):

- discussion/ open session

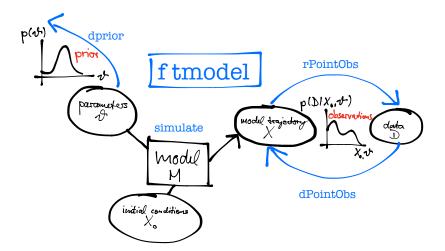


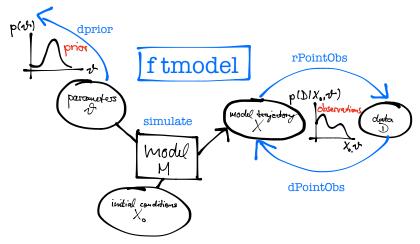
day 3 (afternoon):

- discussion/ open session day 4:

other methods
available software
find discussion

4. Practical session in R





http://sbfnk.github.io/mfiidd