

# Model fitting and inference for infectious disease dynamics

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

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SCHOOL of  
HYGIENE  
& TROPICAL  
MEDICINE



centre for the  
mathematical  
modelling of  
infectious diseases

# Outline

Introduction

Linking models to data

Bayesian inference

# 1. Introduction

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# Model fitting and inference for infectious disease dynamics

## 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

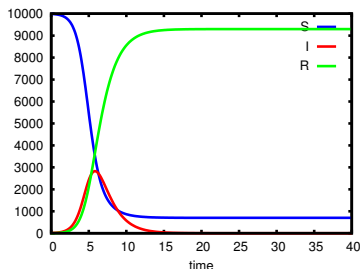
## SIR-type models



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

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

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



# Model fitting and inference for infectious disease dynamics

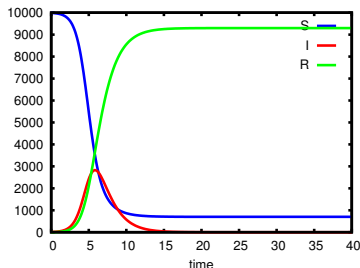
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## Mechanistic models

description vs mechanism

# Model fitting and inference for infectious disease dynamics

## Parameter estimation

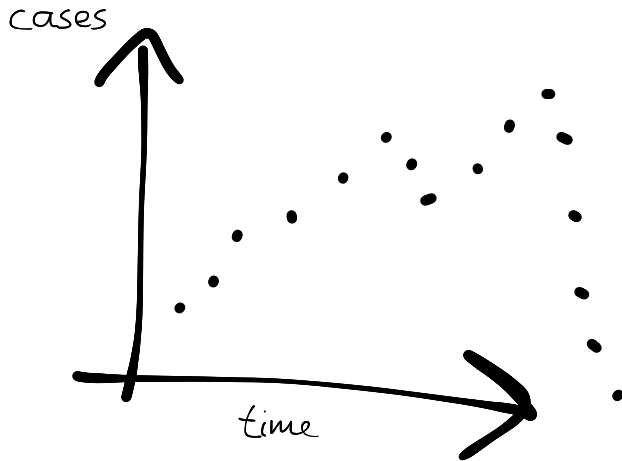
Given a model, what are the parameter combinations that best fit the data (in whichever way)

## 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

# Model **fitting** and inference for infectious disease dynamics

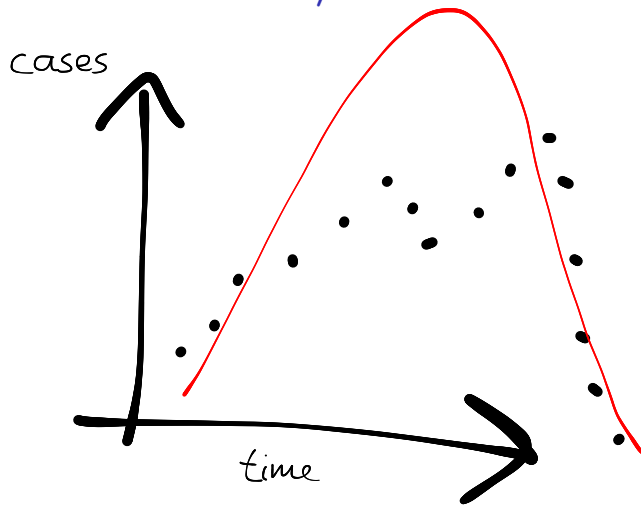
What do we mean by “best fit the data”?





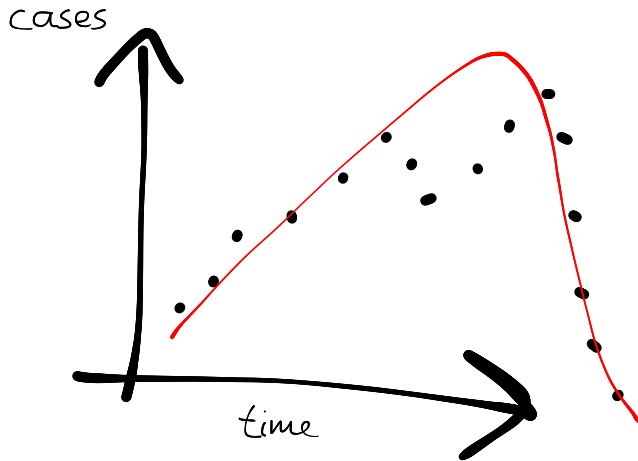
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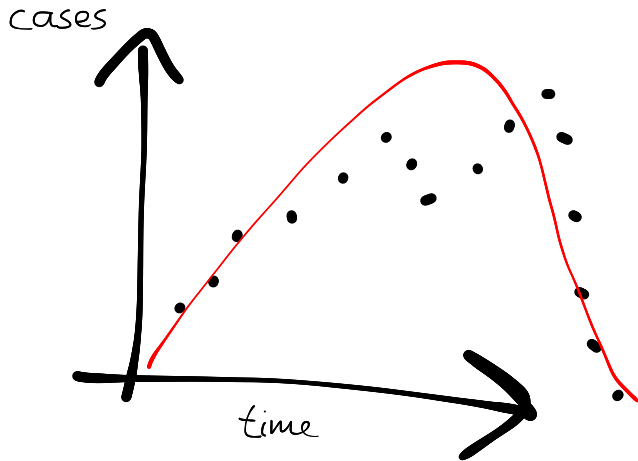
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What do we mean by “best fit the data”?



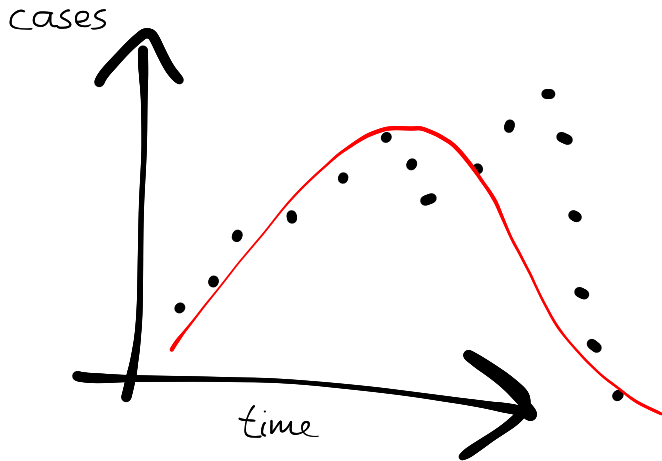
# Model **fitting** and inference for infectious disease dynamics

What do we mean by “best fit the data”?



# Model **fitting** and inference for infectious disease dynamics

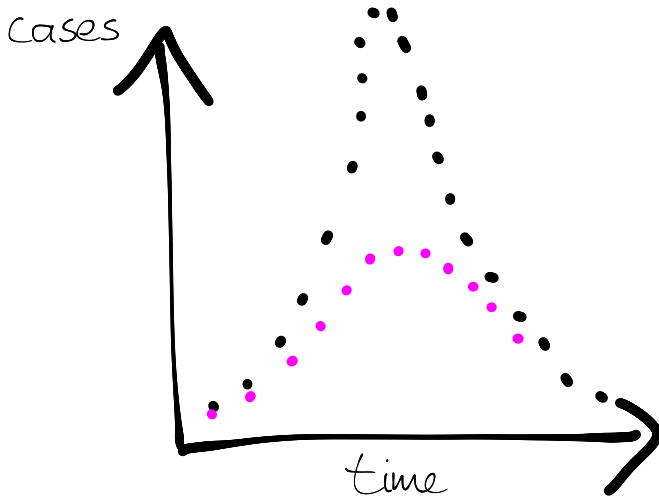
What do we mean by “best fit the data”?



# Model fitting and inference for infectious disease dynamics

## State estimation

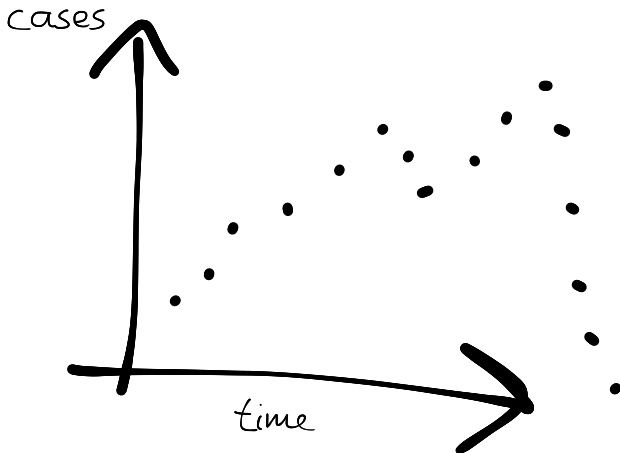
Given what we observe, what is the **state** of the sytem?



# Model fitting and inference for infectious disease dynamics

## Model selection

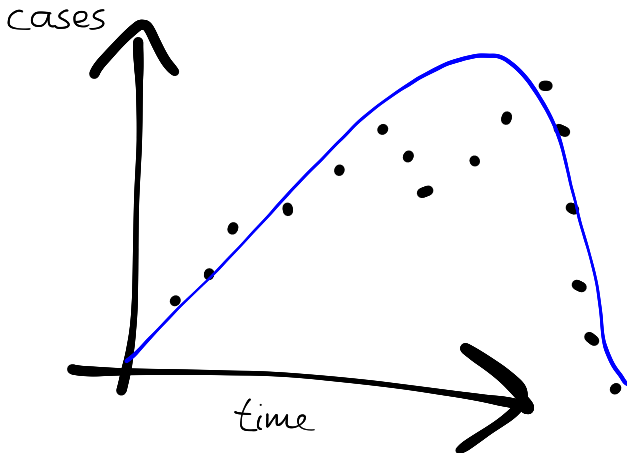
Given a set of potential models, how do we decide which is the right one?



# Model fitting and **inference** for infectious disease dynamics

## Model selection

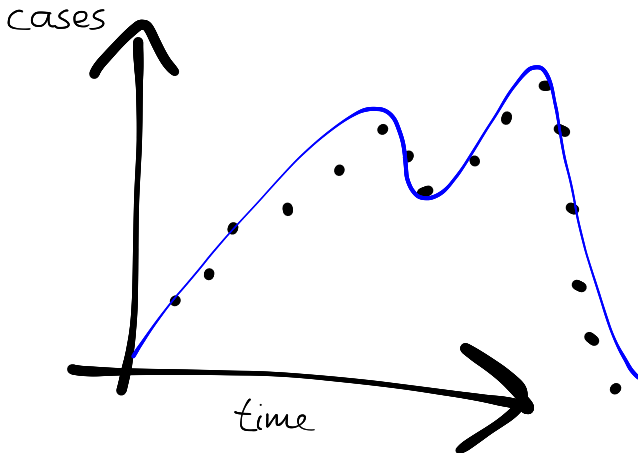
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# Model fitting and **inference** for infectious disease dynamics

## Model selection

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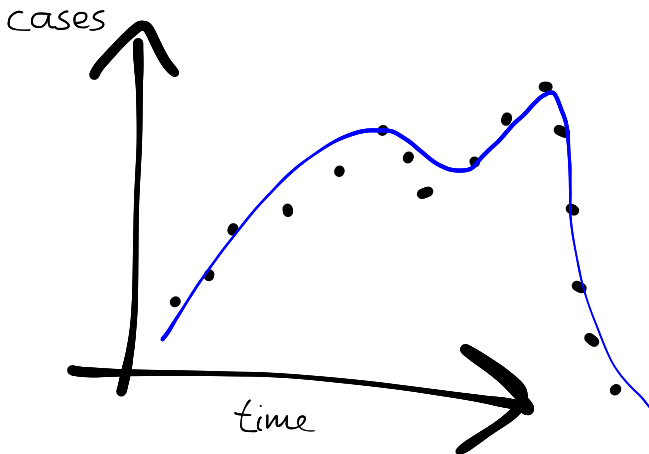




# Model fitting and **inference** for infectious disease dynamics

## Model selection

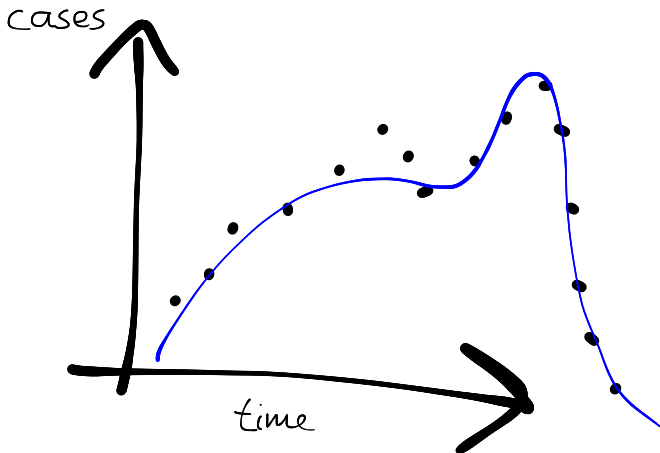
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# Model fitting and **inference** for infectious disease dynamics

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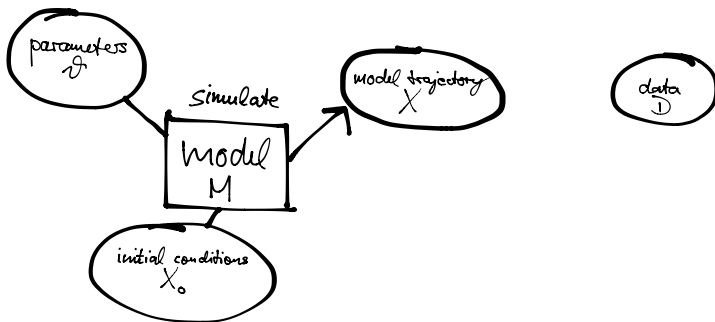
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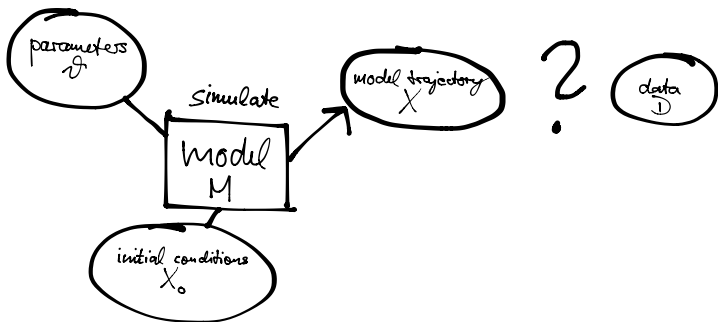


## 2. Linking models to data

model  
M

data  
D





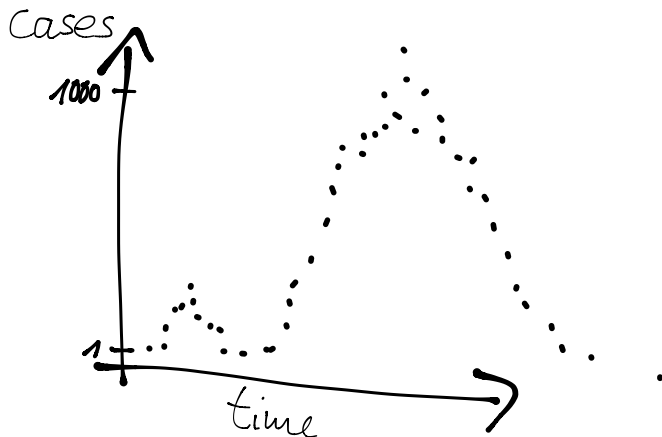
## Assessing the “closeness” of model output and data

- eyeballing
- absolute distance
- squared distance

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Do these work?

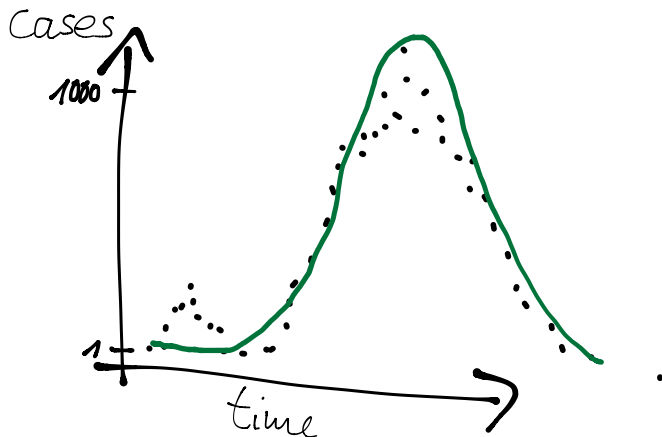




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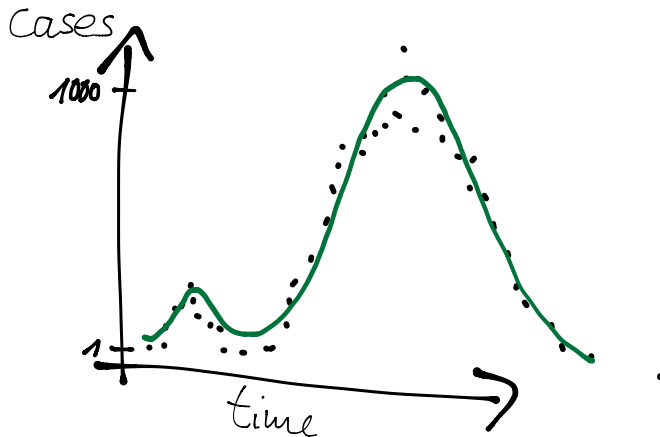
Do these work?



# Assessing the “closeness” of model output and data

- 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

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

## 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

$$p(T = \text{Andy}) = p(\text{Andy})$$

- 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 Andy Murray wins Wimbledon and it is sunny final day

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

- 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

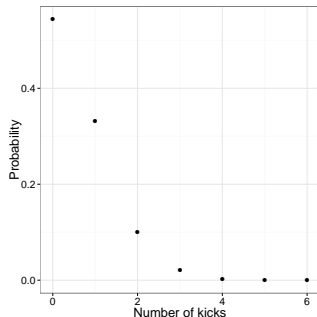
$$p(a|b) = \frac{p(a, b)}{p(b)}$$

- 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

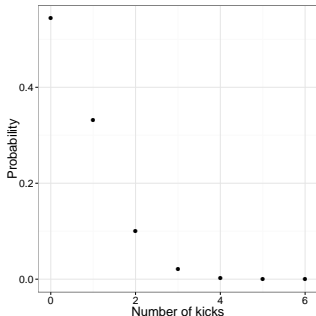


## Two directions

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
```

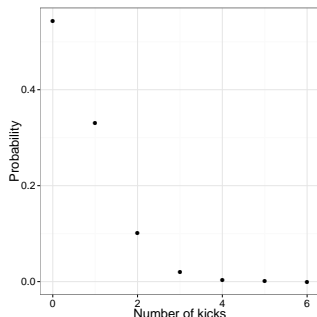
### Two directions

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)
```

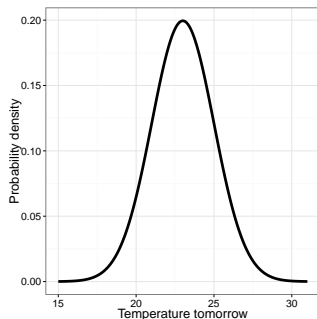
```
[1] 0
```

### Two directions

1. Evaluate the probability
2. **Randomly sample**

## Probability distributions (continuous)

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



Normalisation:

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

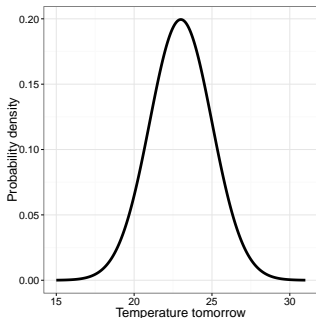
Marginal probabilities:

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

## Two directions

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

# Evaluating under the (normal) probability distribution



## Evaluate

What is the probability density of 30° C tomorrow?

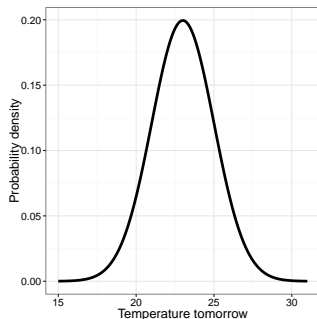
```
dnorm(x = 30,  
      mean = 23,  
      sd = 2)
```

```
[1] 0.0004363413
```

## Two directions

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

# Generating a random sample (normal distribution)



## Sample

Give me a random sample from the probability distribution

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

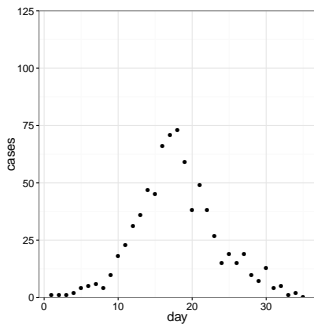
```
[1] 21.82921
```

## Two directions

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

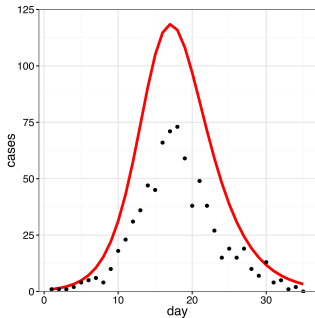
## Example: observation uncertainty

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



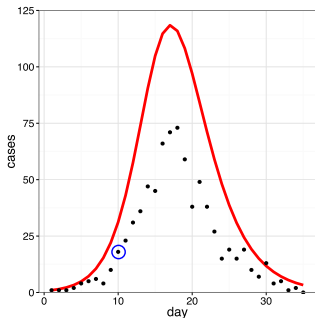
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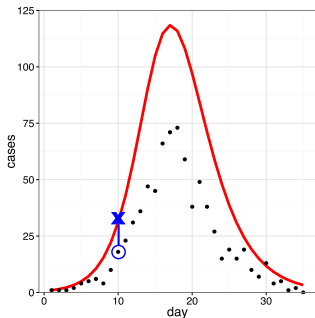
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At time 10, 18 cases observed.

## Example: observation uncertainty

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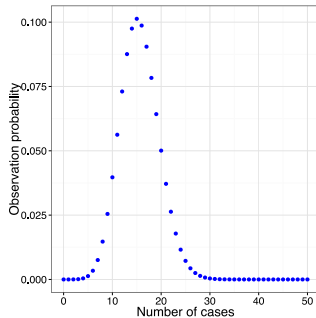
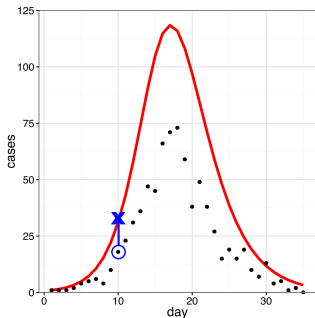


At time 10, 18 cases observed, 31.1 cases in the model.



## Example: observation uncertainty

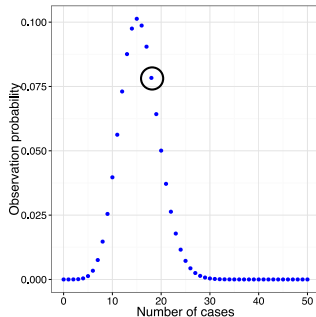
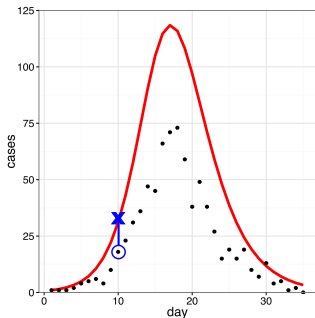
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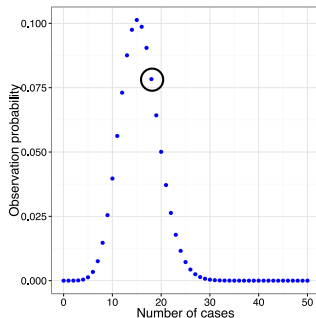
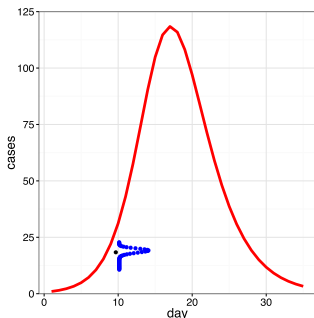
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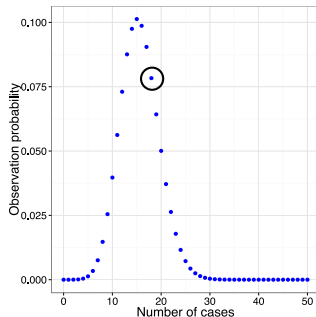
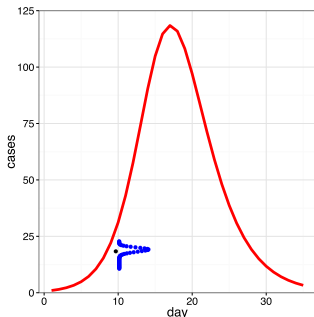


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$$p(\text{data point } 10|\theta) = 0.078$$

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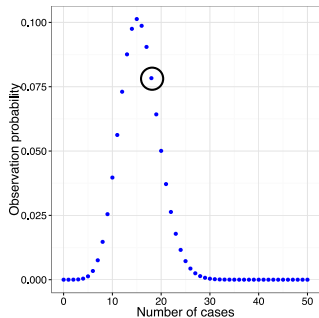
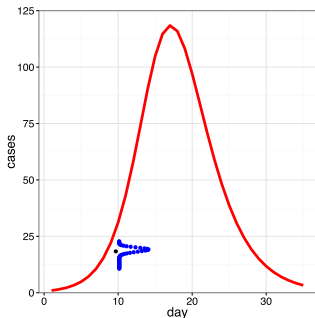
$$p(\text{data point } 10|\theta) = 0.078$$

Multiply across the data to get the full trajectory likelihood.

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

## Example: observation uncertainty

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

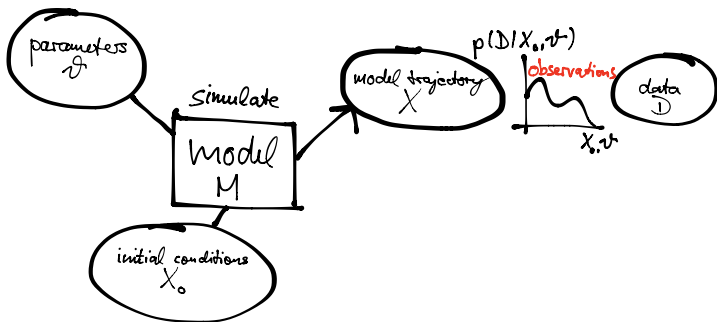


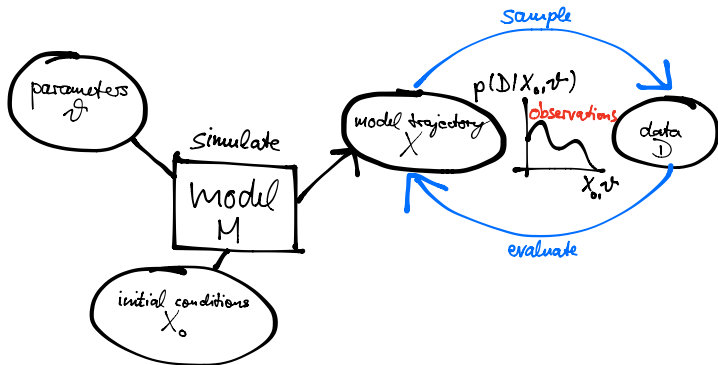
At time 10, 18 cases observed, 31.1 cases in the model.

$$p(\text{data point } 10|\theta) = 0.078$$

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  $\theta$ . So we can write

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

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

- This is called the **likelihood** of parameters  $\theta$
- 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**

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



# 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

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- 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*  $\theta$

### 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*
- $p(\text{data})$  is a *normalisation constant*
- In words,

$$(\text{posterior}) \propto (\text{normalised likelihood}) \times (\text{prior})$$

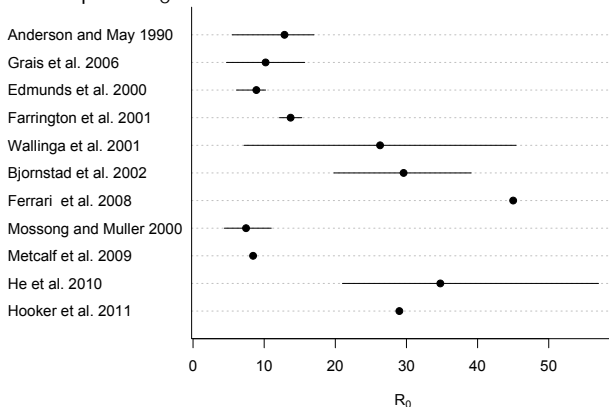
## Prior probabilities

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

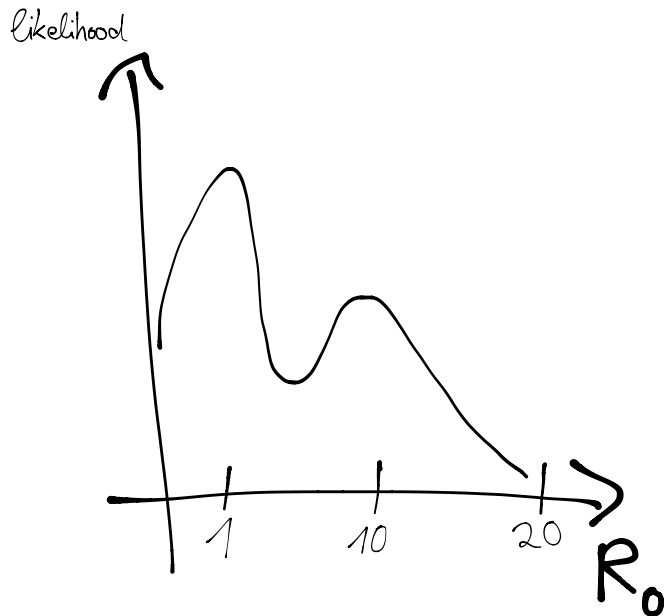
$$p(\theta)$$

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

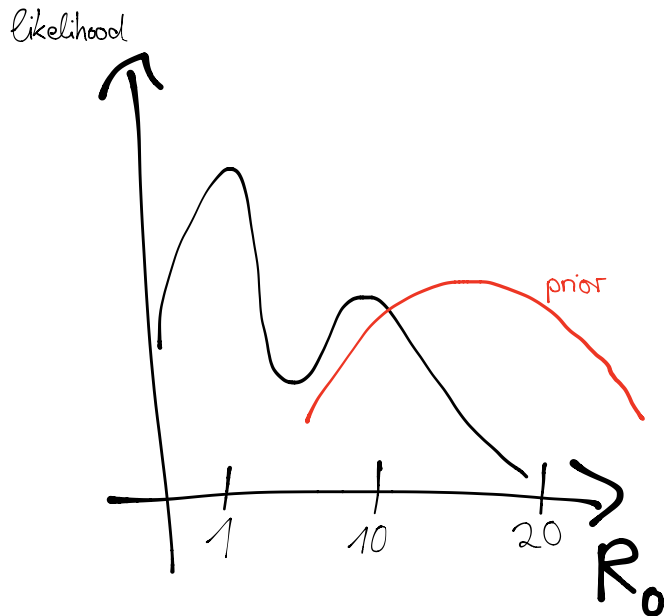
- Example:  $R_0$  of measles



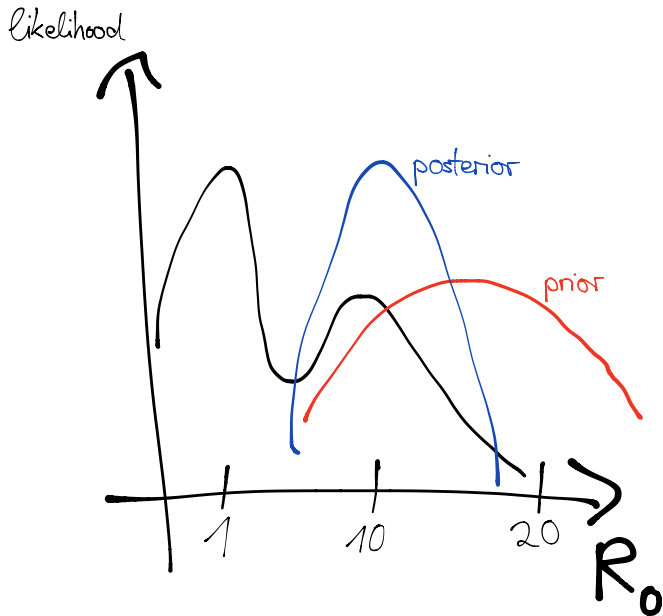
## Example: estimating $R_0$ of measles



## Example: prior for estimating $R_0$ of measles



## Example: posterior for estimating $R_0$ of measles





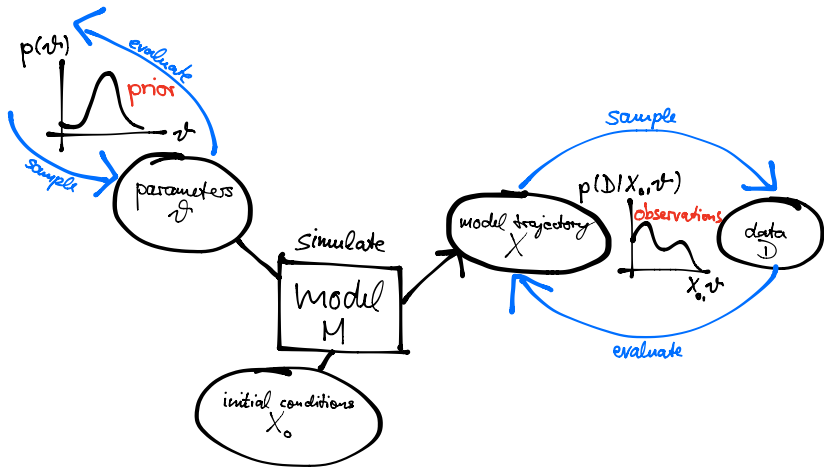
# Sampling from the posterior

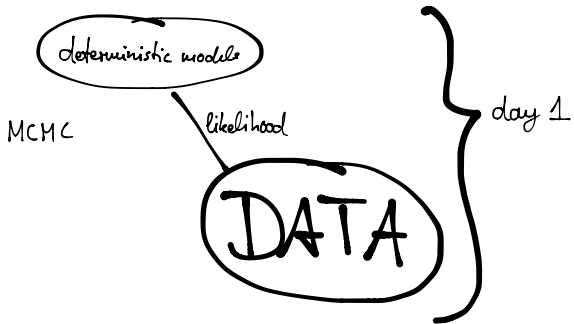
## Bayesian statistics

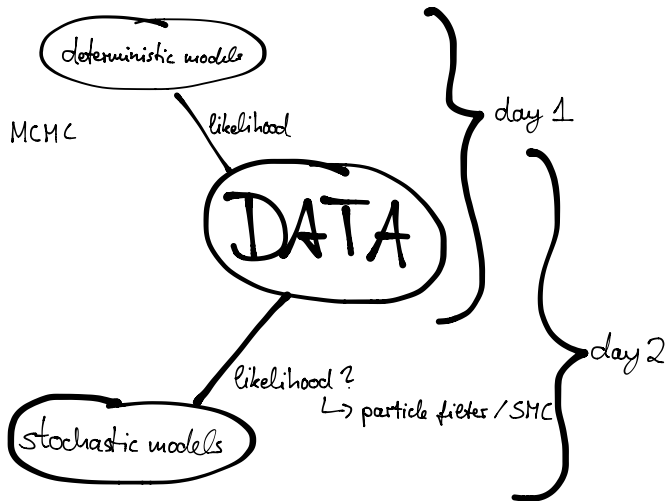
Parameter(s)  $\theta$  are interpreted as a *random* variable, distributed according to the posterior.

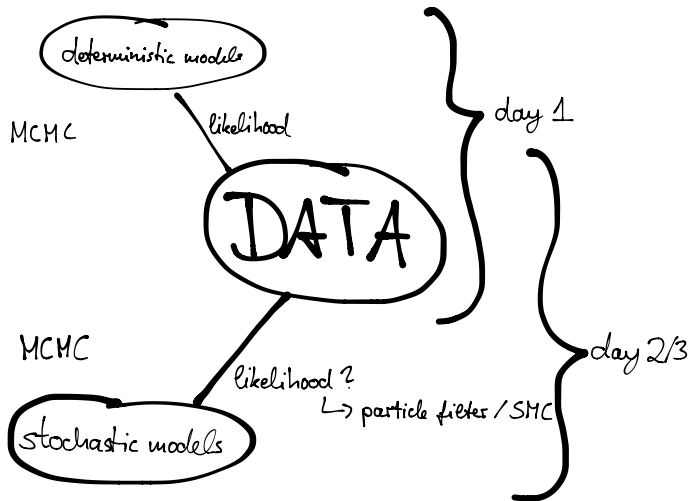
$$p(\theta|\text{data}) \propto p(\text{data}|\theta)p(\theta)$$

We want to generate **samples** of  $\theta$  from this distribution.



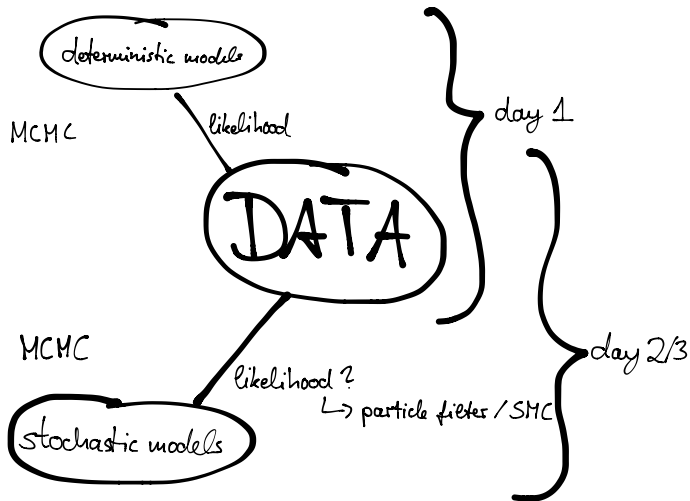






day 3 (afternoon):

- discussion / open session



day 3 (afternoon):

- discussion / open session

day 4:

- other methods
- available software
- final discussion