

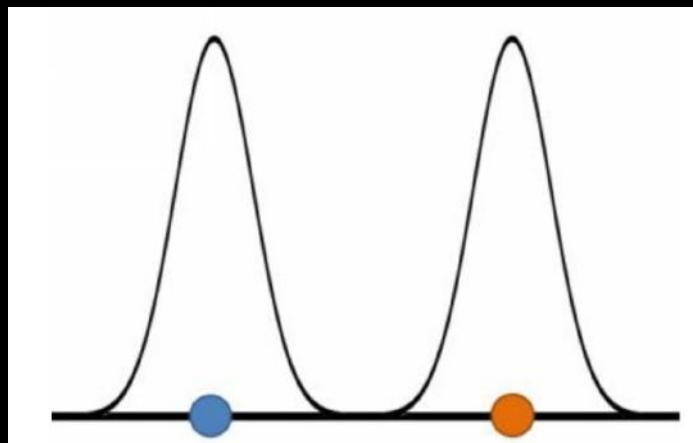
# Computing for Medicine

Data Science: Modeling  
Tavpritesh Sethi

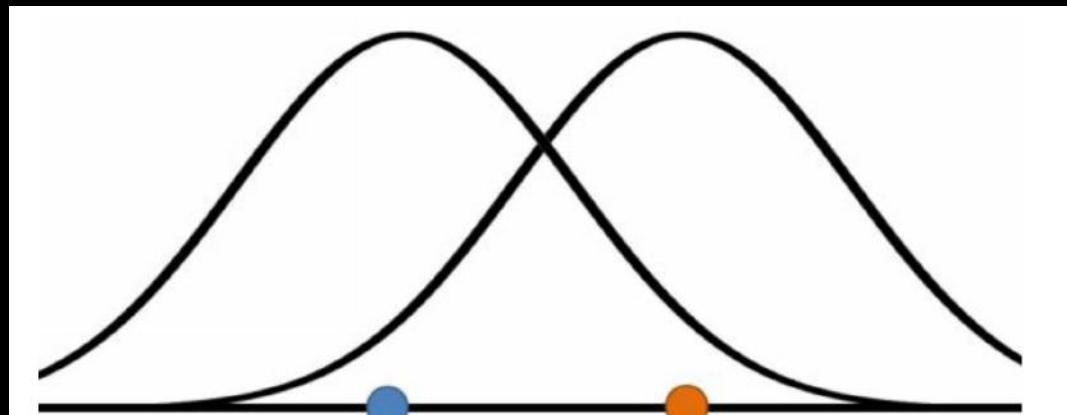
# Statistical Inference

- Hypothesis Testing
  - T test, ANOVA, Wilcoxon Rank sum test etc
- Parameter Estimation
  - Simple Linear Models, Generalized Linear Models etc

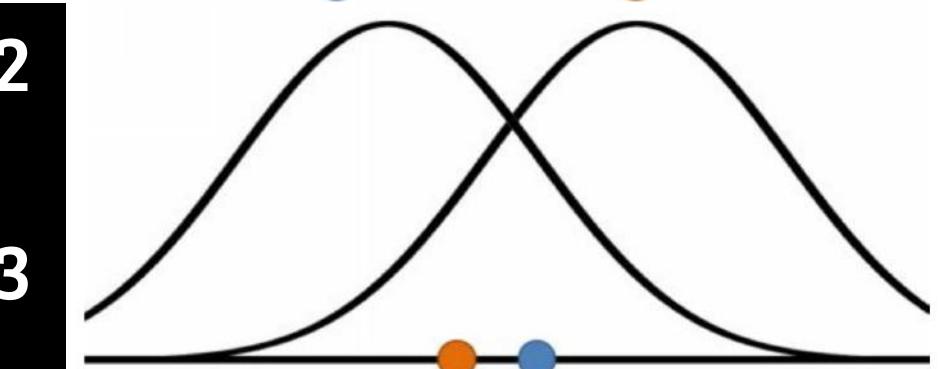
# Example: Use of Normal distribution in Inference



1

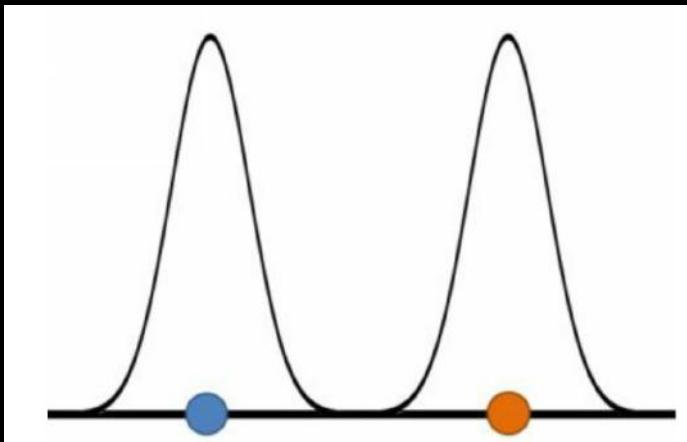


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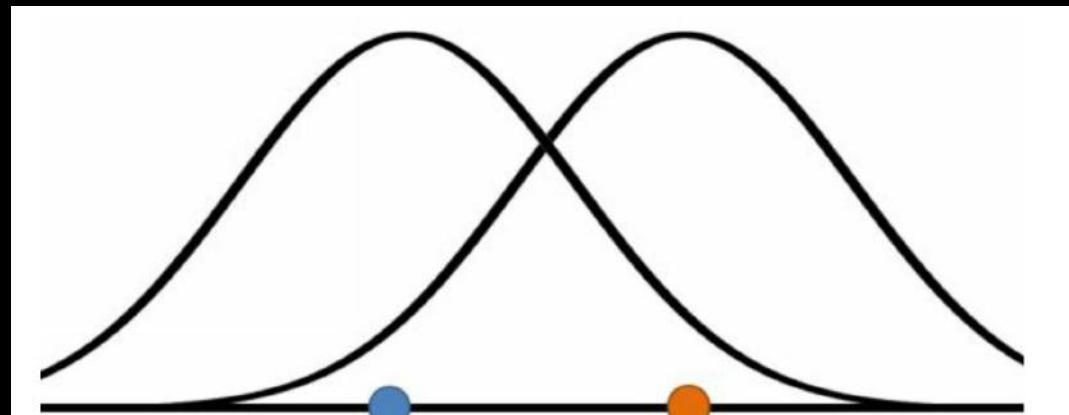


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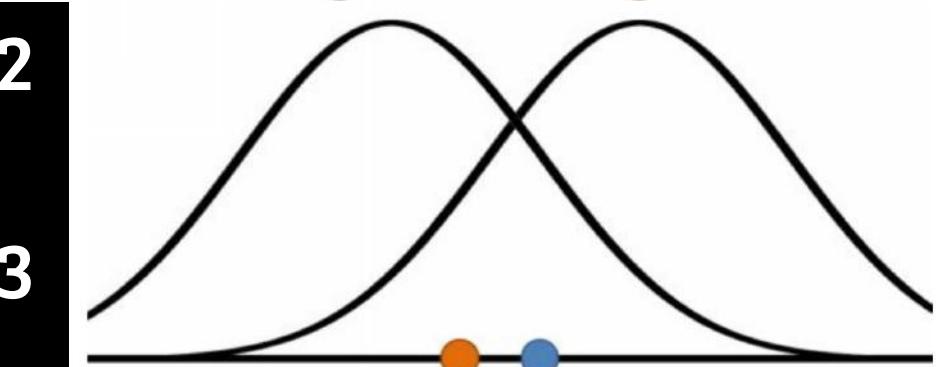
# Hypothesis testing



1



2



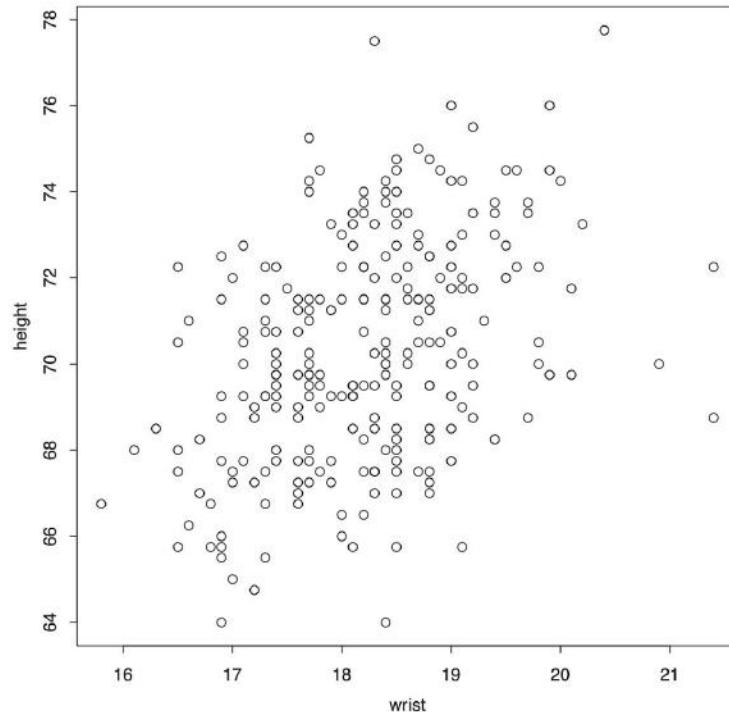
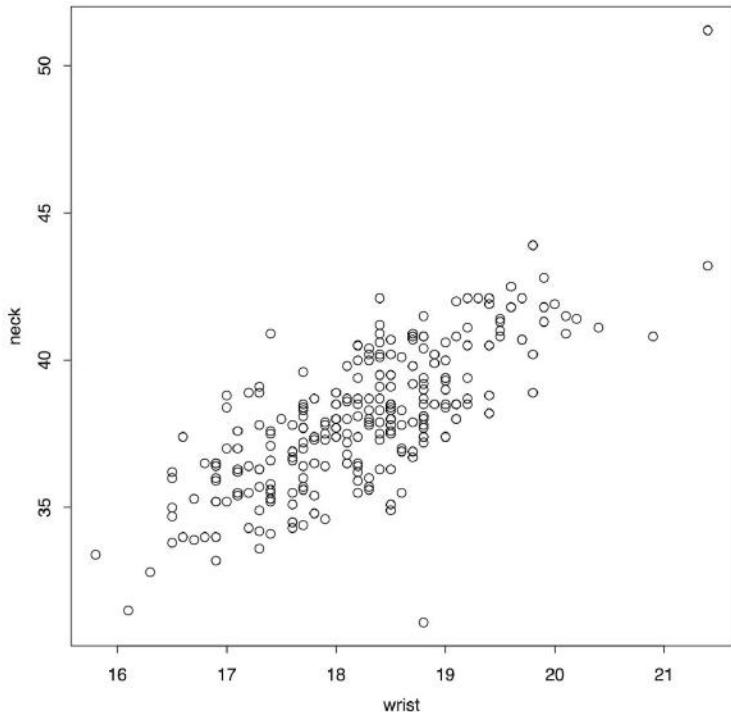
3

# Association: Thinking with Correlations

$$\text{cov}(x, y) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}).$$

$$\text{cor}(x, y) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{s_x} \right) \left( \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{s_y} \right) = \text{cov}(x, y) / (s_x s_y).$$

# Correlations is not Causation



# Anscombe's Quartet

Set A		Set B		Set C		Set D	
X	Y	X	Y	X	Y	X	Y
10	8.04	10	9.14	10	7.46	8	6.58
8	6.95	8	8.14	8	6.77	8	5.76
13	7.58	13	8.74	13	12.74	8	7.71
9	8.81	9	8.77	9	7.11	8	8.84
11	8.33	11	9.26	11	7.81	8	8.47
14	9.96	14	8.1	14	8.84	8	7.04
6	7.24	6	6.13	6	6.08	8	5.25
4	4.26	4	3.1	4	5.39	19	12.5
12	10.84	12	9.11	12	8.15	8	5.56
7	4.82	7	7.26	7	6.42	8	7.91
5	5.68	5	4.74	5	5.73	8	6.89

## Summary Statistics Linear Regression

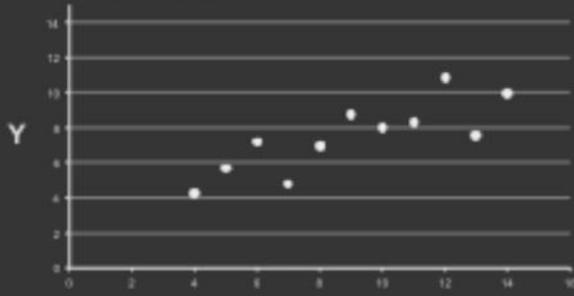
$$\begin{aligned} u_x &= 9.0 & \sigma_x &= 3.317 \\ u_y &= 7.5 & \sigma_y &= 2.03 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= 3 + 0.5 X \\ R^2 &= 0.67 \end{aligned}$$

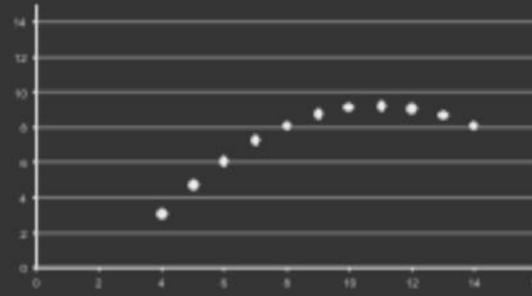
[Anscombe 73]

# Anscombe's Quartet

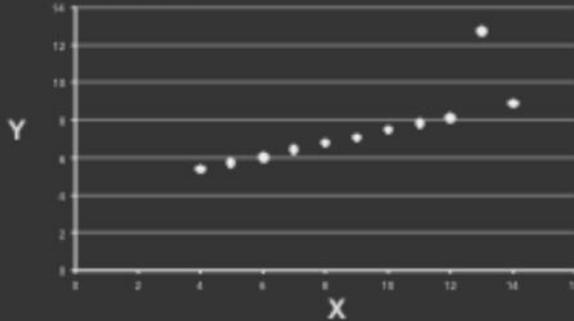
Set A



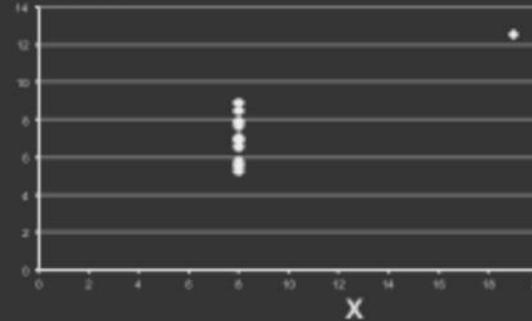
Set B



Set C



Set D



# Same Stats, Different Graphs: Generating Datasets with Varied Appearance and Identical Statistics through Simulated Annealing

Justin Matejka and George Fitzmaurice  
Autodesk Research, Toronto Ontario Canada  
[{first.last}@autodesk.com](mailto:{first.last}@autodesk.com)

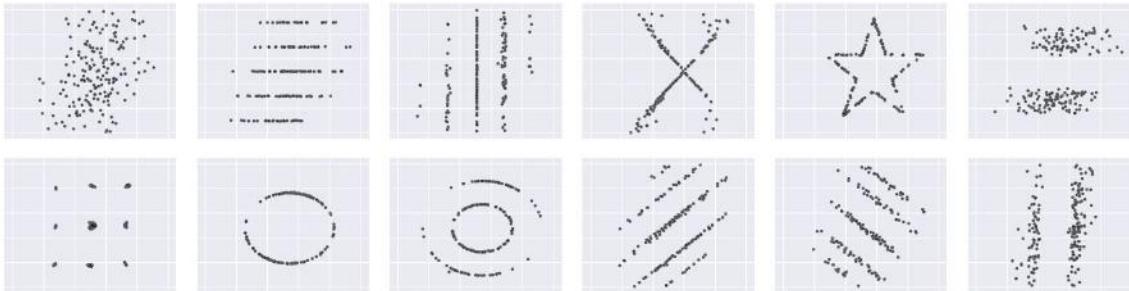
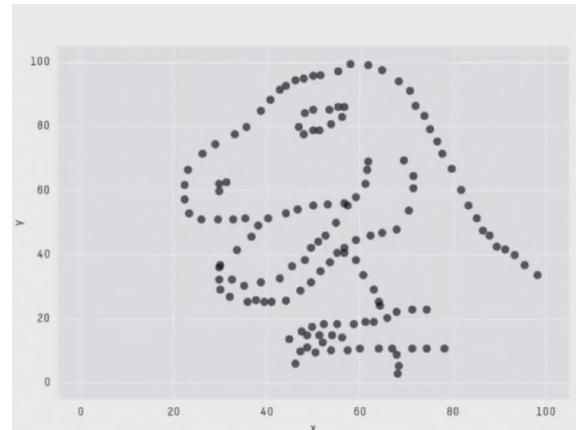


Figure 1. A collection of data sets produced by our technique. While different in appearance, each has the same summary statistics (mean, std. deviation, and Pearson's corr.) to 2 decimal places. ( $\bar{x} = 54.02$ ,  $\bar{y} = 48.09$ ,  $s_x = 14.52$ ,  $s_y = 24.79$ , Pearson's  $r = +0.32$ )



X Mean: 54.2659224  
Y Mean: 47.8313999  
X SD : 16.7649829  
Y SD : 26.9342120  
Corr. : -0.0642526

100

80

60

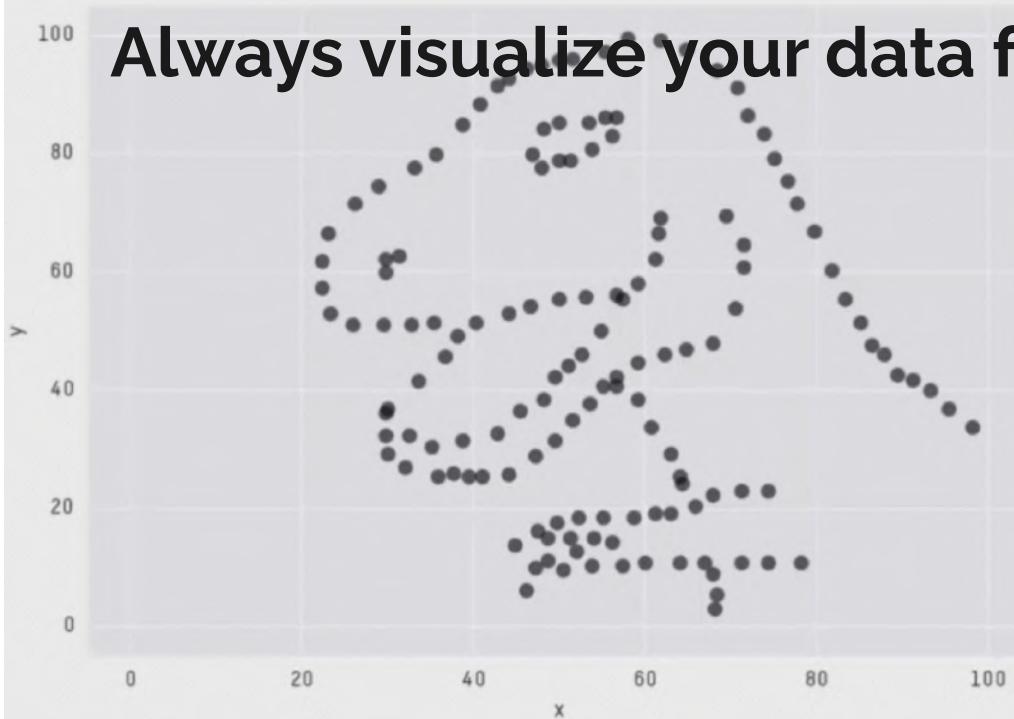
40

20

0

x

# Always visualize your data first!



X Mean: 54.2659224

Y Mean: 47.8313999

X SD : 16.7649829

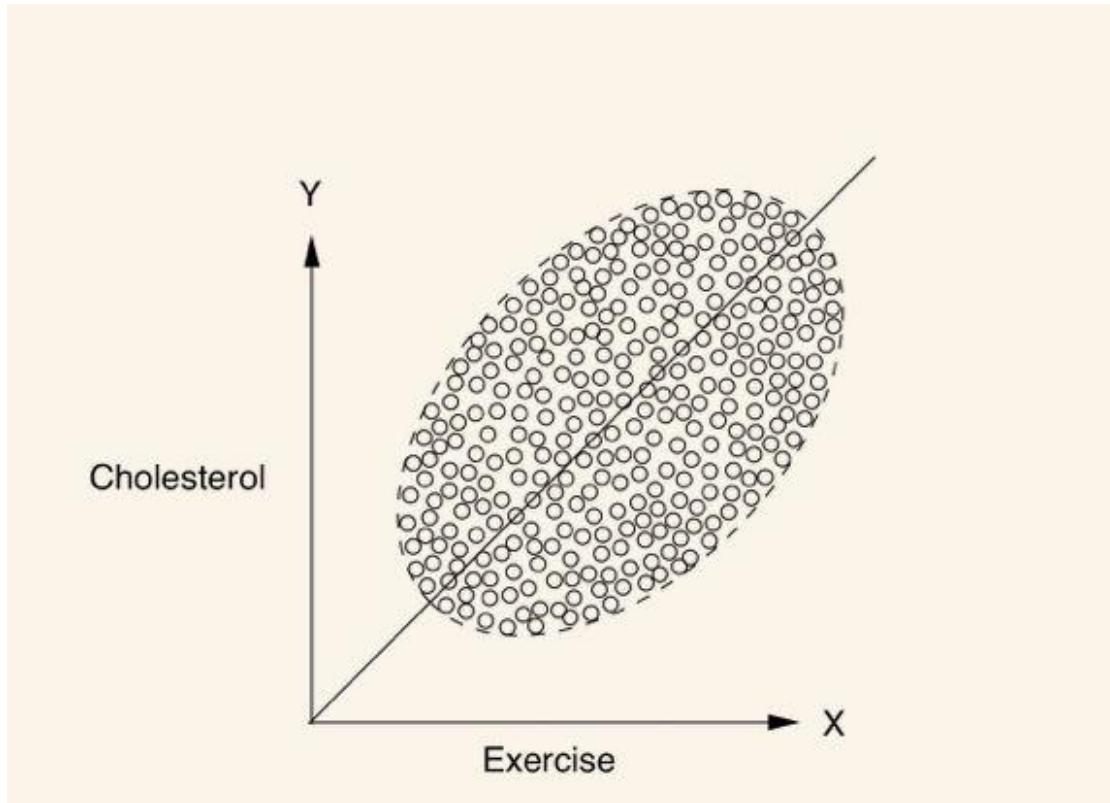
Y SD : 26.9342120

Corr. : -0.0642526

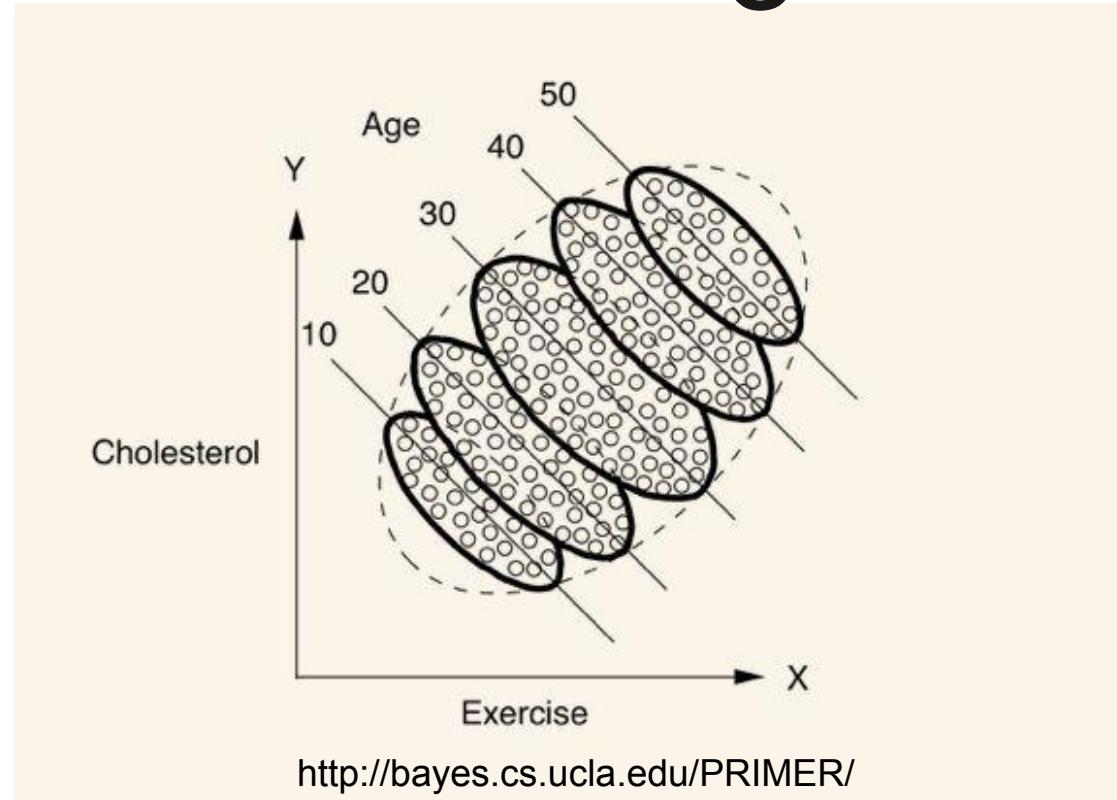
# Confounding

# Correlations and Confounding

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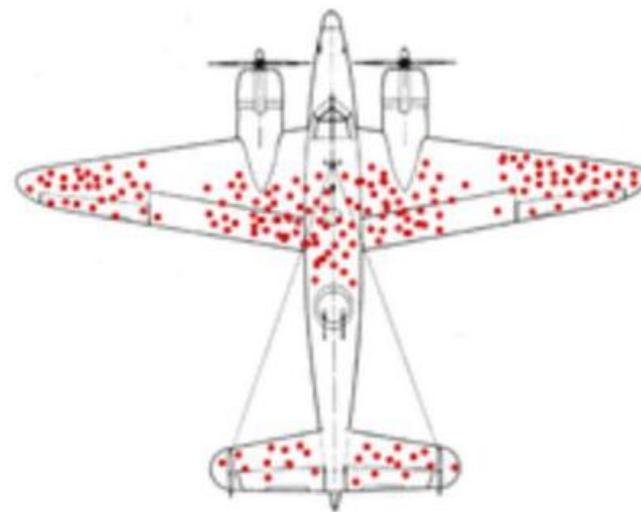
# Hidden Confounding Factors



# Correlation is not causation!

---

Where to put the armor?



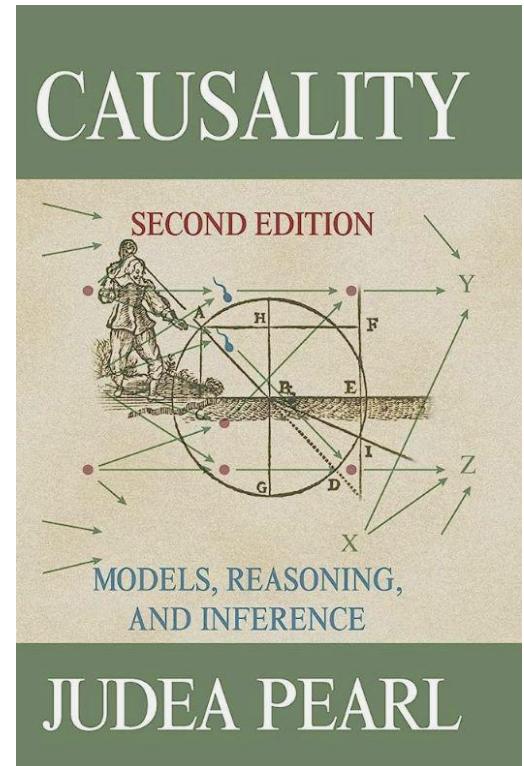
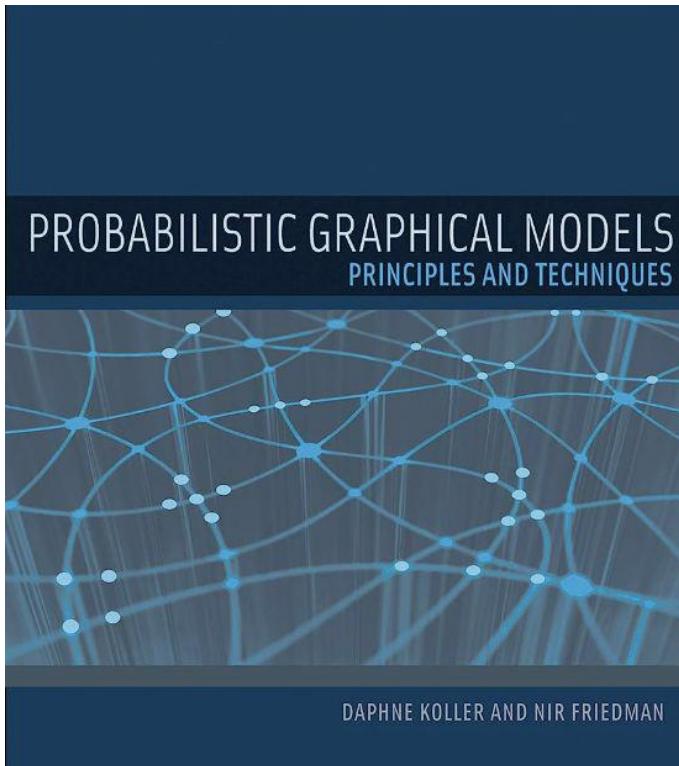
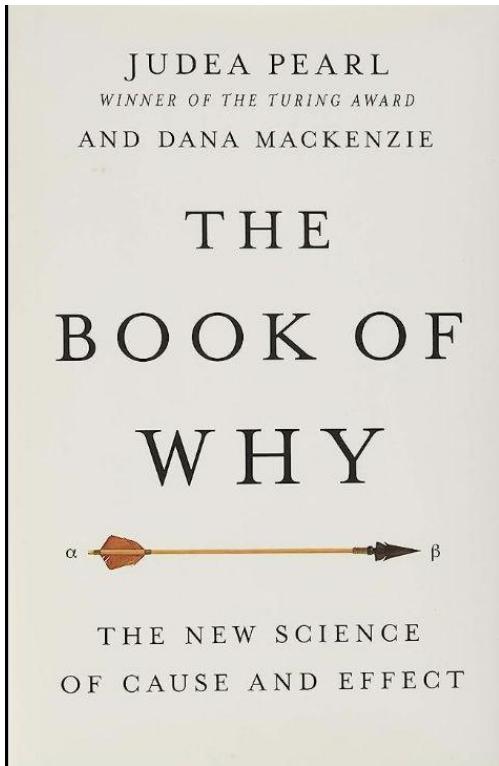
# Israeli Data: August 15, 2021

From: <https://datadashboard.health.gov.il/COVID-19/general>

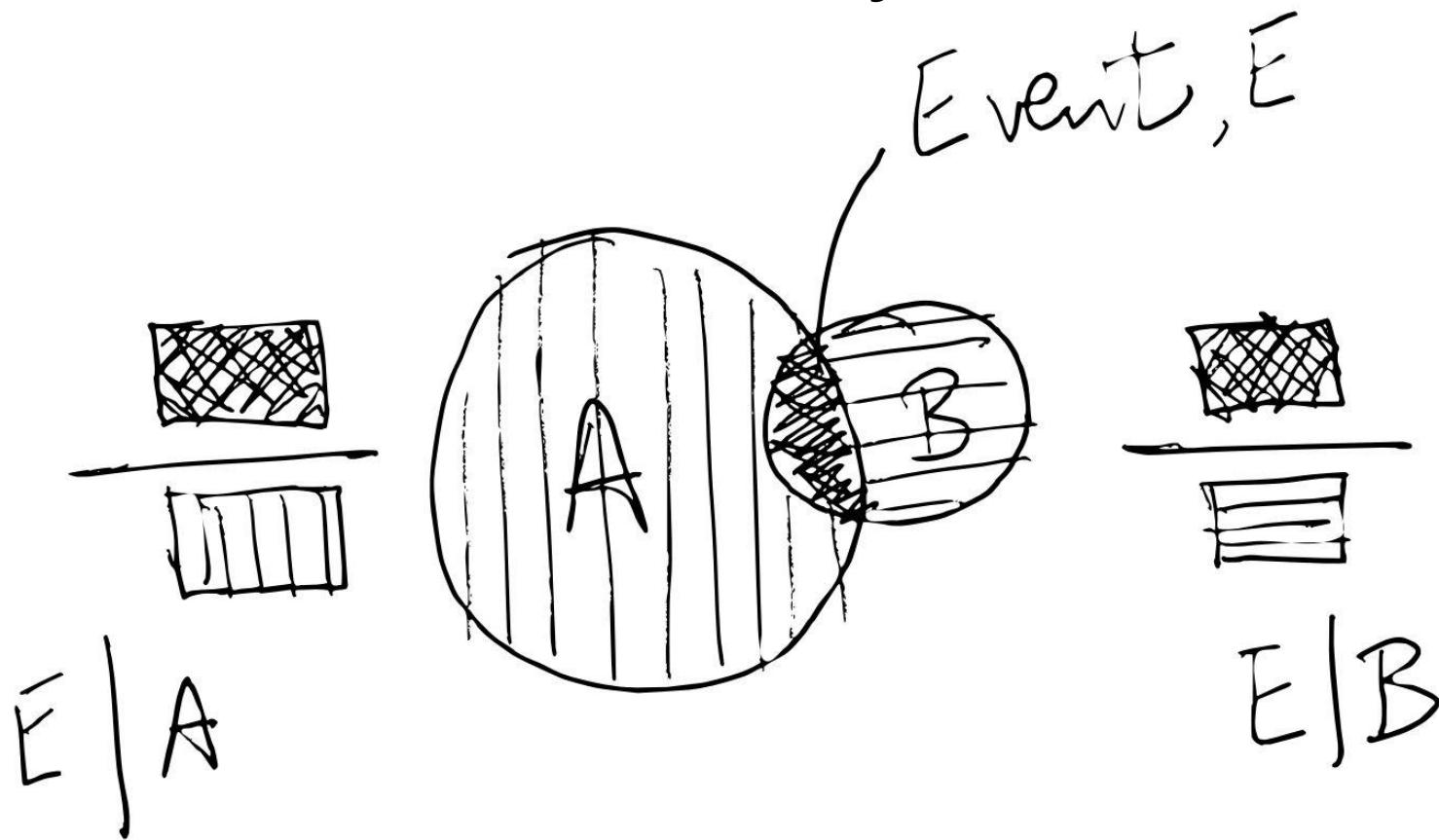
Age	Population (%)		Severe cases		Efficacy vs. severe disease
	Not Vax %	Fully Vax %	Not Vax per 100k	Fully Vax per 100k	
All ages	1,302,912 <b>18.2%</b>	5,634,634 <b>78.7%</b>	214 <b>16.4</b>	301 <b>5.3</b>	<b>67.5%</b>
<50	1,116,834 <b>23.3%</b>	3,501,118 <b>73.0%</b>	43 <b>3.9</b>	11 <b>0.3</b>	<b>91.8%</b>
>50	186,078 <b>7.9%</b>	2,170,563 <b>90.4%</b>	171 <b>90.9</b>	290 <b>13.6</b>	<b>85.2%</b>

This strange result illustrates something called **Simpson's Paradox**, in this case meaning you can have **very high efficacy in each group**, but the **overall efficacy looks much lower** because one group (older people) is **more vaccinated** and have a **much higher risk of severe disease**.

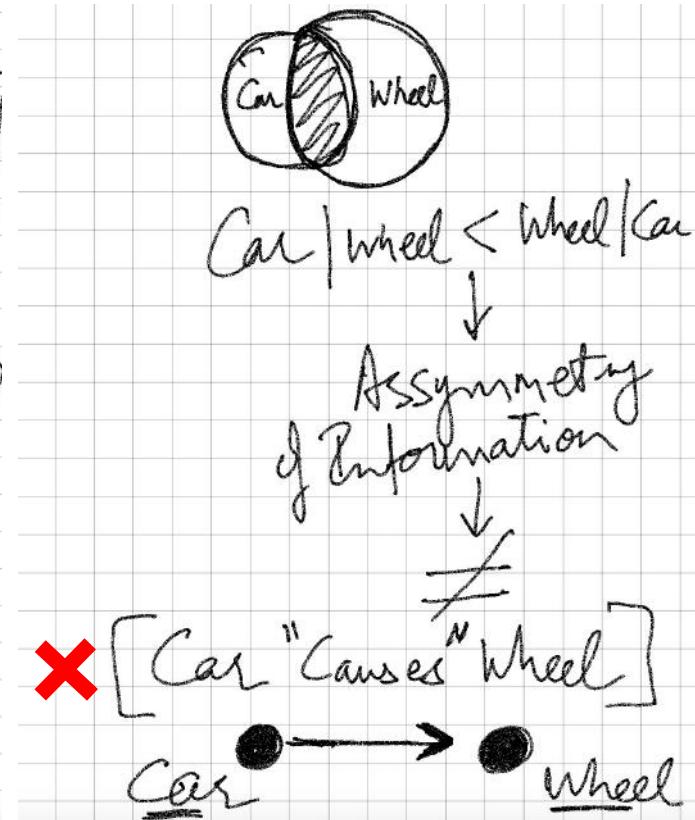
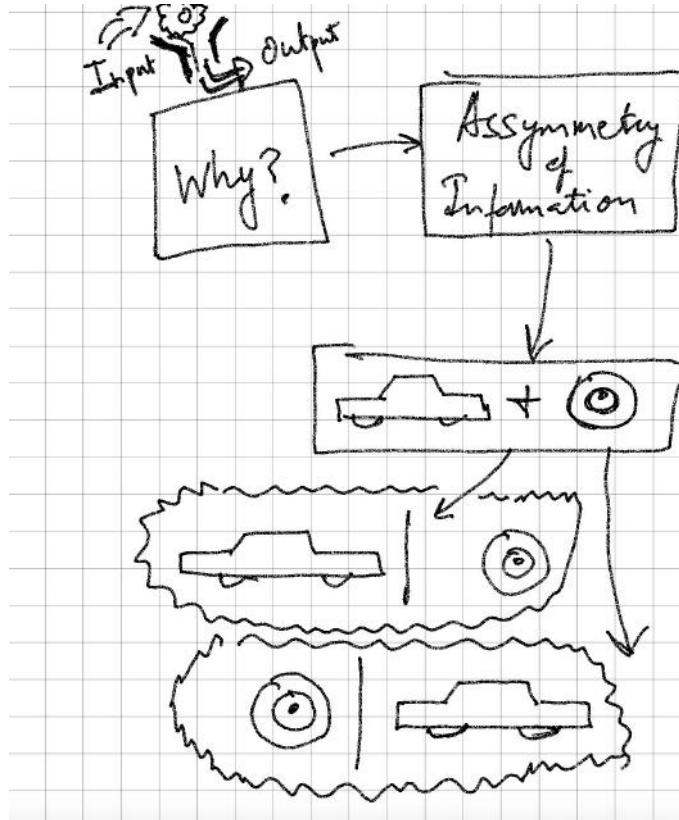
# Recommended Reading



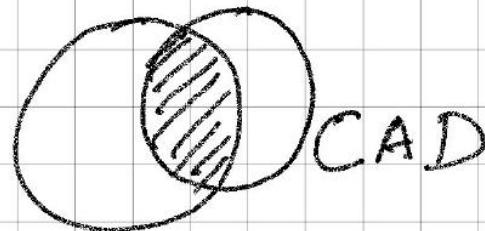
# Conditional Probability



# Bayes Rule Exploits Real World Asymmetry



# Another Example



Aspirin

$$Pr(\text{Aspirin} | \text{CAD}) > Pr(\text{CAD} | \text{Aspirin})$$

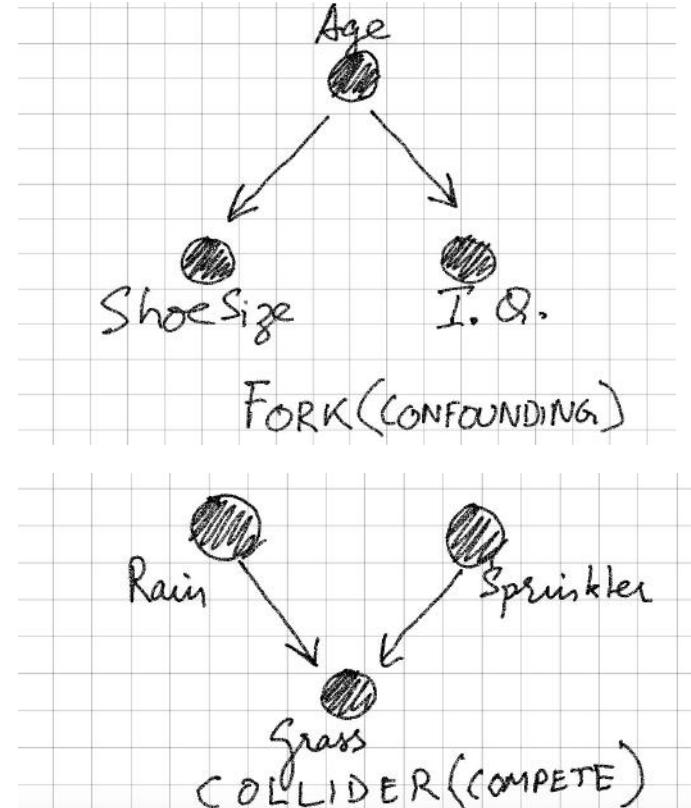
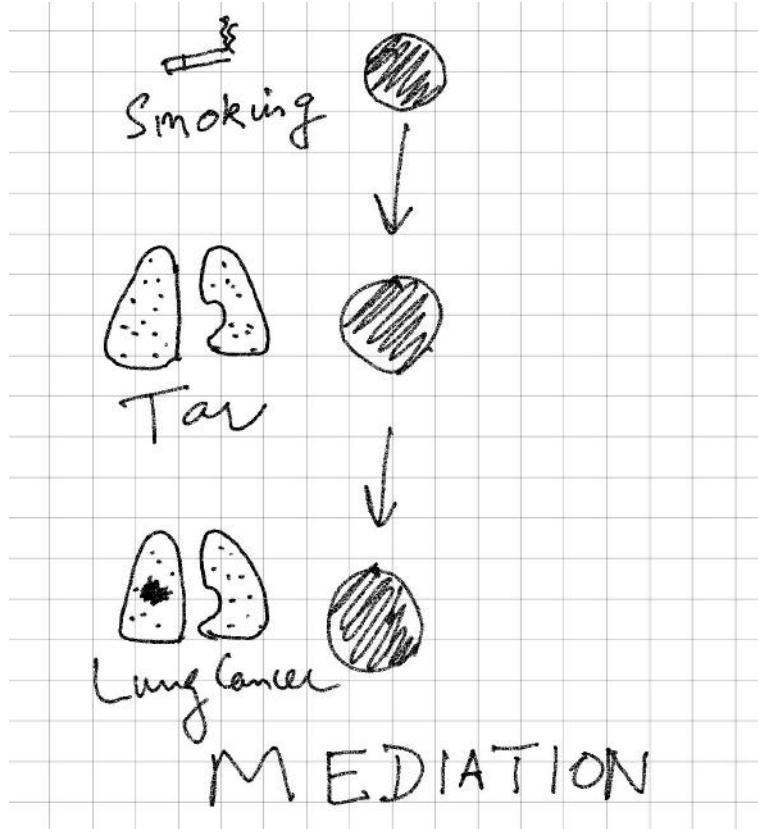


CAD

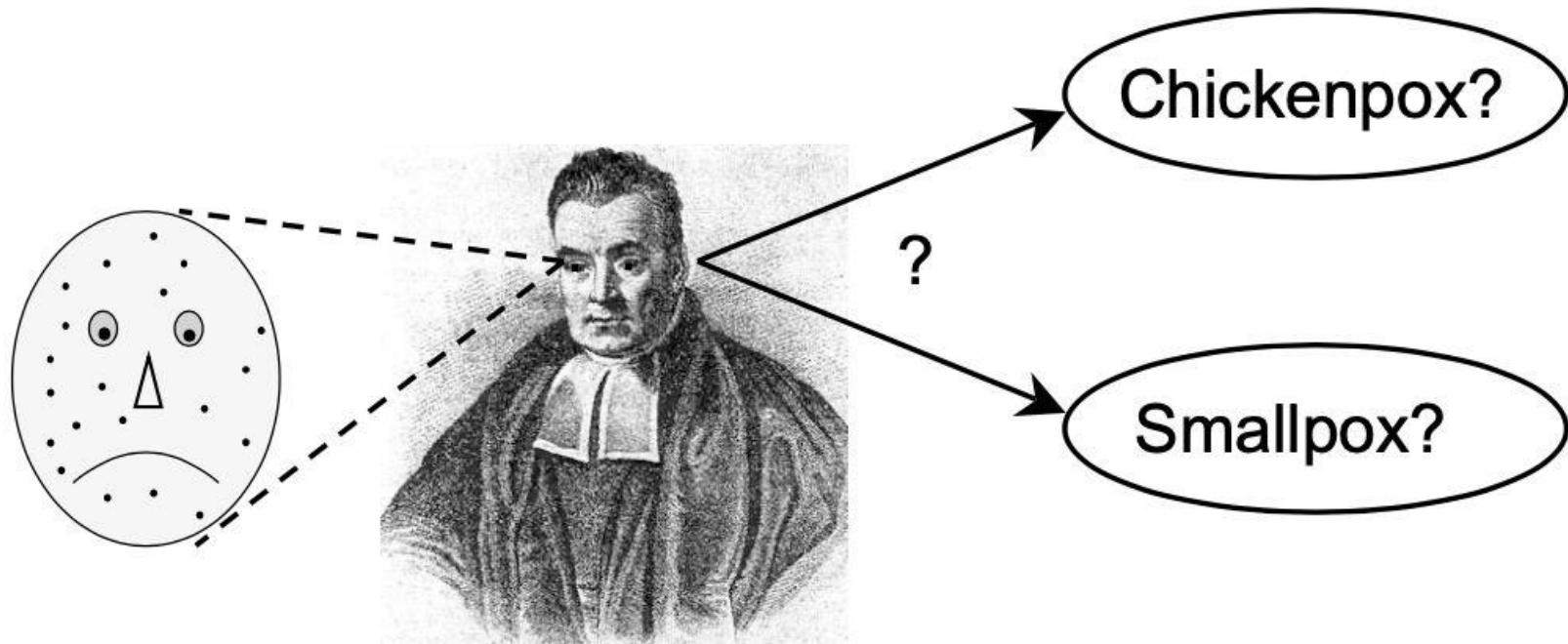


Aspirin

# World of Conditional Probabilities



# Bayes Rule



We know,

$$p(\text{spots}|\text{smallpox}) = 0.9.$$

$$p(\text{spots}|\text{chickenpox}) = 0.8.$$

The background of the image features a repeating pattern of black and white vertical stripes, similar to a zebra's coat. In the upper right quadrant, the head and neck of a zebra are visible, looking slightly towards the left. The zebra has its characteristic black and white stripes. A dark teal rectangular box is positioned in the lower-left area of the image, containing the text.

When You Hear Hooves, Think Horse,  
Not Zebra

# Likelihood

$$p(\text{spots}|\text{smallpox}) = 0.9.$$

Likelihood of smallpox = probability of spots given smallpox

$$p(\text{spots}|\text{chickenpox}) = 0.8.$$

Likelihood of chickenpox = probability of spots given smallpox

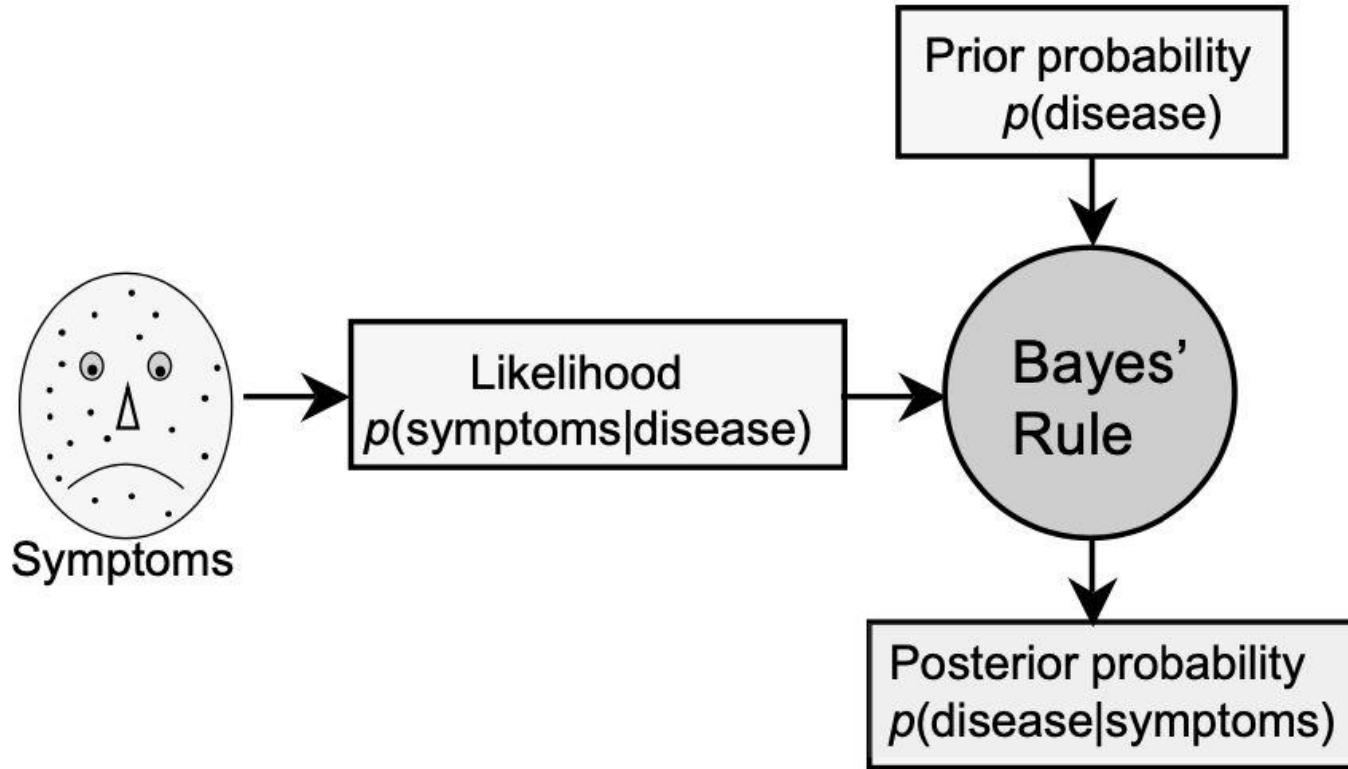
**Beware the confusion in language!**

# Maximum Likelihood Estimate

$$p(\text{spots}|\text{smallpox}) = 0.9. \quad > \quad p(\text{spots}|\text{chickenpox}) = 0.8.$$

Statistical models that work by maximizing the value of likelihood is known as maximum likelihood estimate (MLE)

# Bayes Rule in Machine Learning

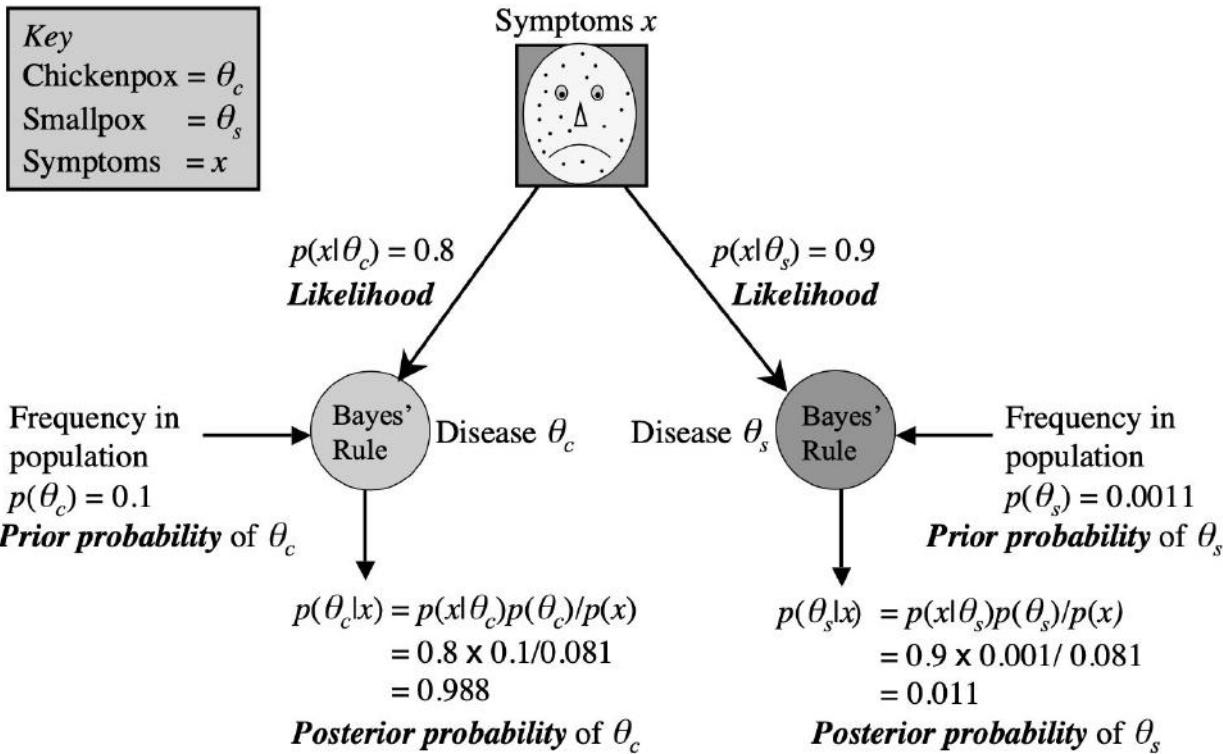


# Bayes Rule

$$p(\text{smallpox}|\text{spots}) = \frac{p(\text{spots}|\text{smallpox}) \times p(\text{smallpox})}{p(\text{spots})}.$$

```
# likelihood = prob of spots given smallpox.  
pSpotsGSmallpox <- 0.9;  
# prior = prob of smallpox.  
pSmallpox <- 0.001;  
# marginal likelihood = prob of spots.  
pSpots <- 0.081;  
# find posterior = prob of smallpox given spots.  
pSmallpoxGSpots = pSpotsGSmallpox * pSmallpox / pSpots;  
# print  
s <- sprintf("pSmallpoxGSpots = %.3f", pSmallpoxGSpots)  
print(s)  
# Output: pSmallpoxGSpots = 0.011
```

# Bayesian Inference



# Maximum a Posteriori (MAP) Estimate

Smallpox       $p(\theta_s|x) = \frac{p(x|\theta_s) \times p(\theta_s)}{p(x)}.$

---

Chickenpox       $p(\theta_c|x) = \frac{p(x|\theta_c) \times p(\theta_c)}{p(x)}.$

# Succinct Notation

$$p(\theta|x) = \frac{p(x|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(x)}.$$

$$p(\text{hypothesis}|\text{data}) = \frac{p(\text{data|hypothesis}) \times p(\text{hypothesis})}{p(\text{data})}$$

# Maximum a Posteriori (MAP) Estimate

Smallpox

$$p(\theta_s|x) = \frac{p(x|\theta_s) \times p(\theta_s)}{p(x)}.$$

---

Chickenpox

$$p(\theta_c|x) = \frac{p(x|\theta_c) \times p(\theta_c)}{p(x)}.$$

$$R_{post} = \frac{p(x|\theta_c)}{p(x|\theta_s)} \times \frac{p(\theta_c)}{p(\theta_s)}.$$

What has cancelled out?

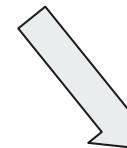
# Bayes Factor

$$R_{post} = \frac{p(x|\theta_c)}{p(x|\theta_s)} \times \frac{p(\theta_c)}{p(\theta_s)}.$$

Posterior Odds



Likelihood Ratio  
(Bayes Factor)



Prior Odds

The cancelled out term is also called Marginal Likelihood or Evidence

# Model Selection

*posterior odds = Bayes factor × prior odds.*

$$R_{post} = \frac{0.80}{0.90} \times \frac{0.1}{0.001} = 88.9.$$

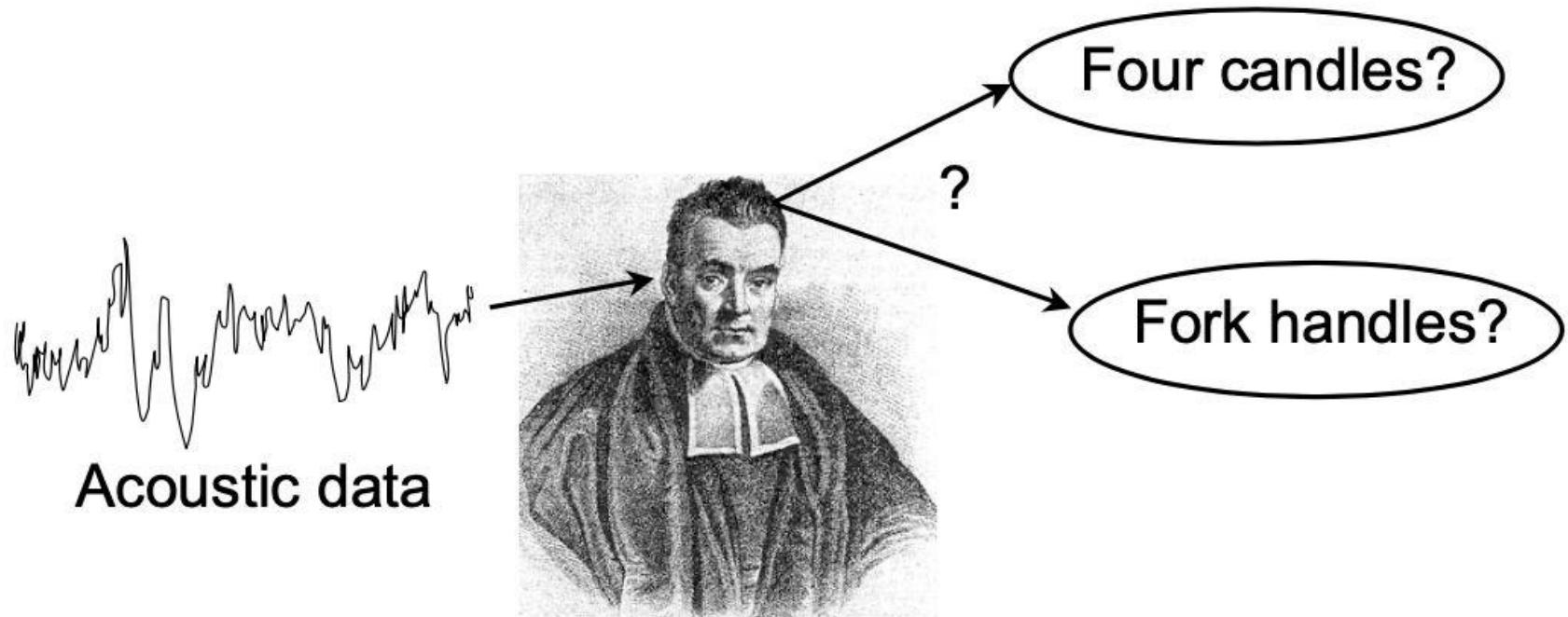
**Thumb rule:** A posterior odds greater than 3 or less than 1/3 is considered substantial difference between the probabilities of the two models.

# When is Bayes Rule Useful?



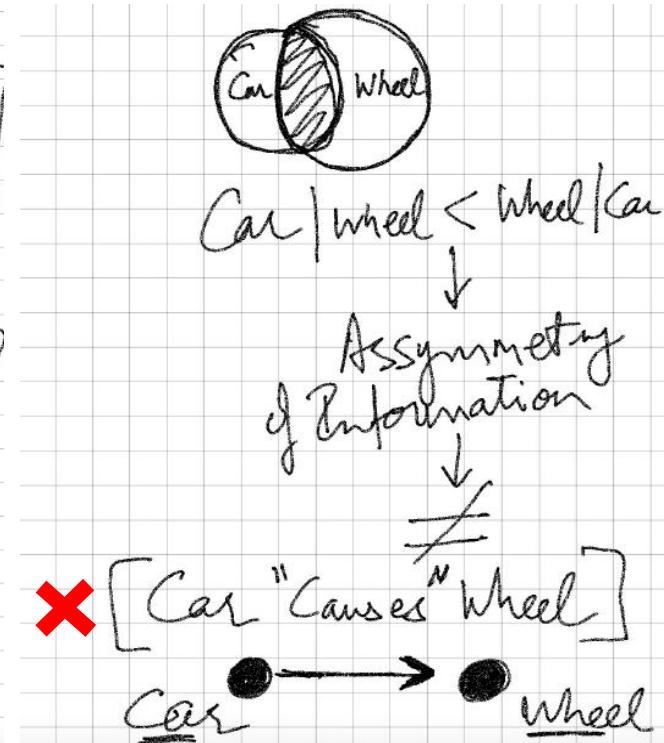
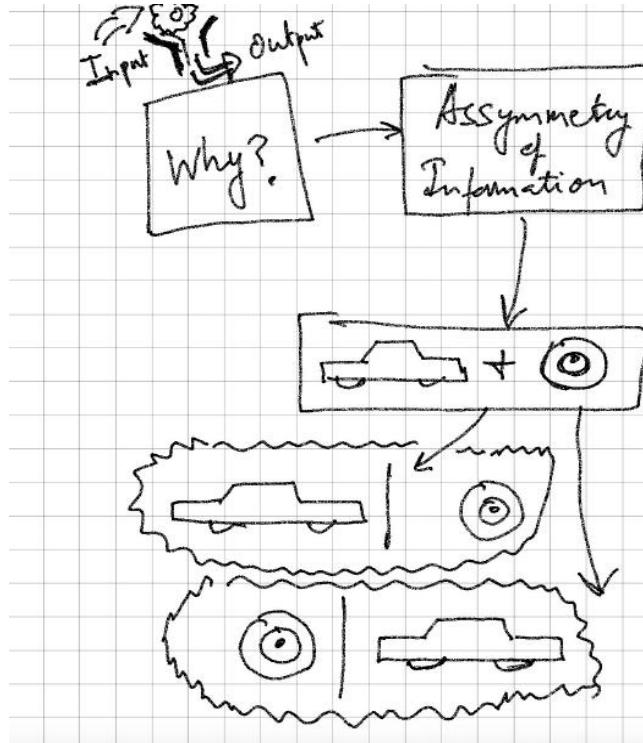
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pV1IP4N9ajg>

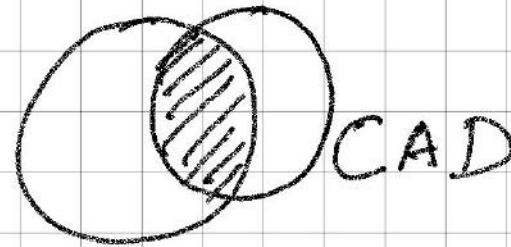
# ML with Bayesian Models



# **BAYESIAN NETWORKS**

# Bayesian Networks





Aspirin

CAD

$$Pr(\text{Aspirin} | \text{CAD}) > Pr(\text{CAD} | \text{Aspirin})$$

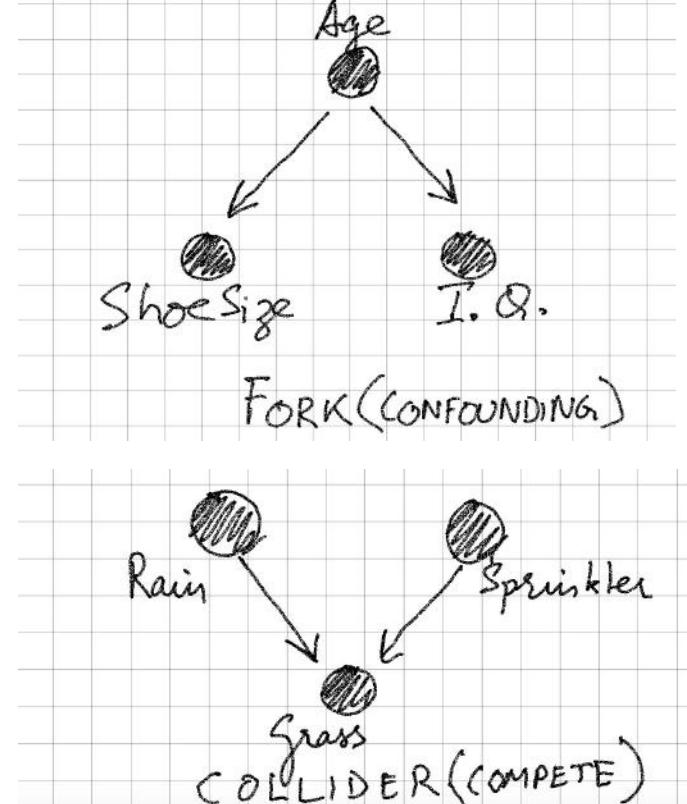
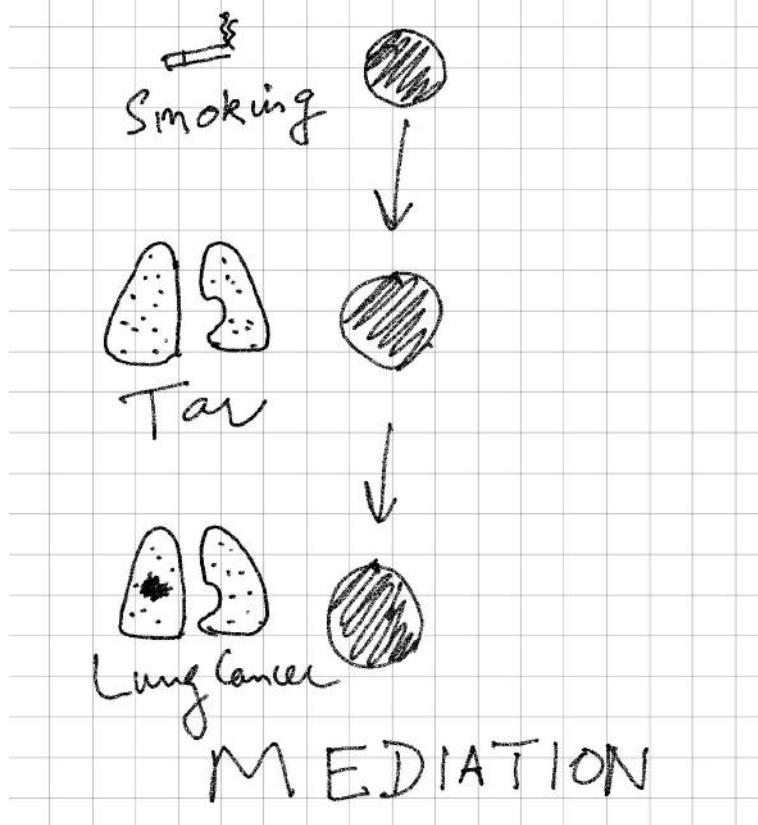


CAD



Aspirin

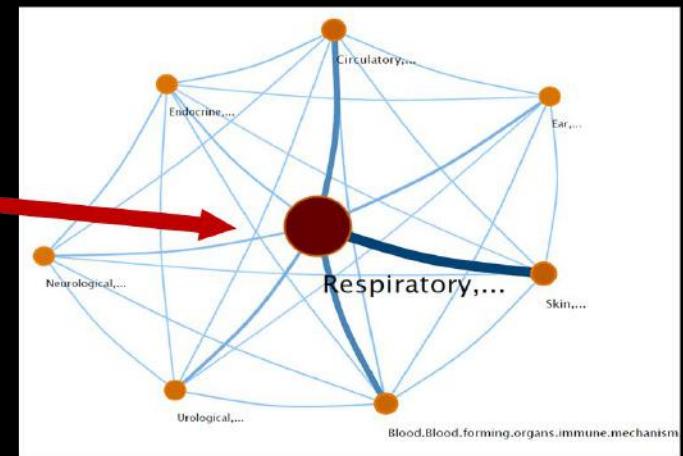
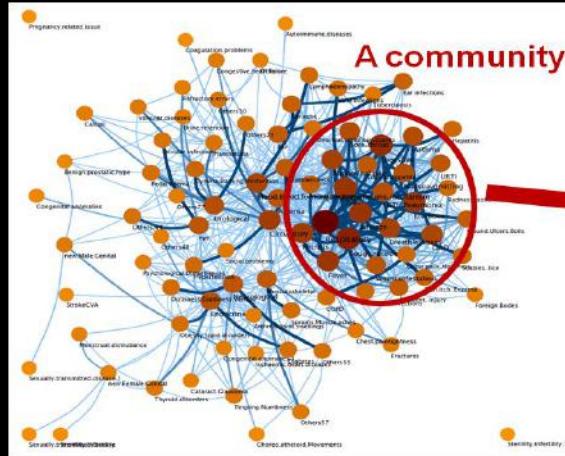
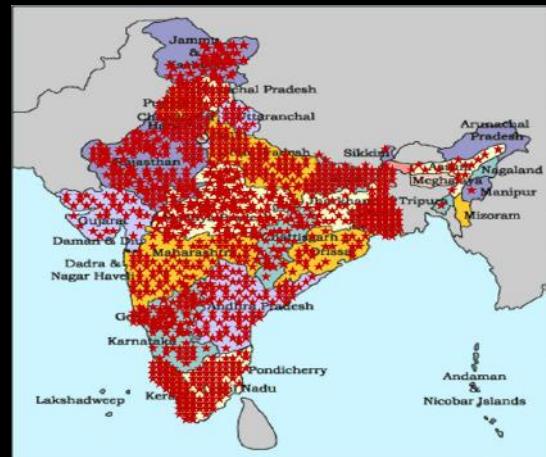
# Building Blocks of Bayesian Nets



## Prevalence of Symptoms in a Single Indian Healthcare Day on a Nationwide Scale

## One day point prevalence study of symptoms in 2,04,912 patients across India

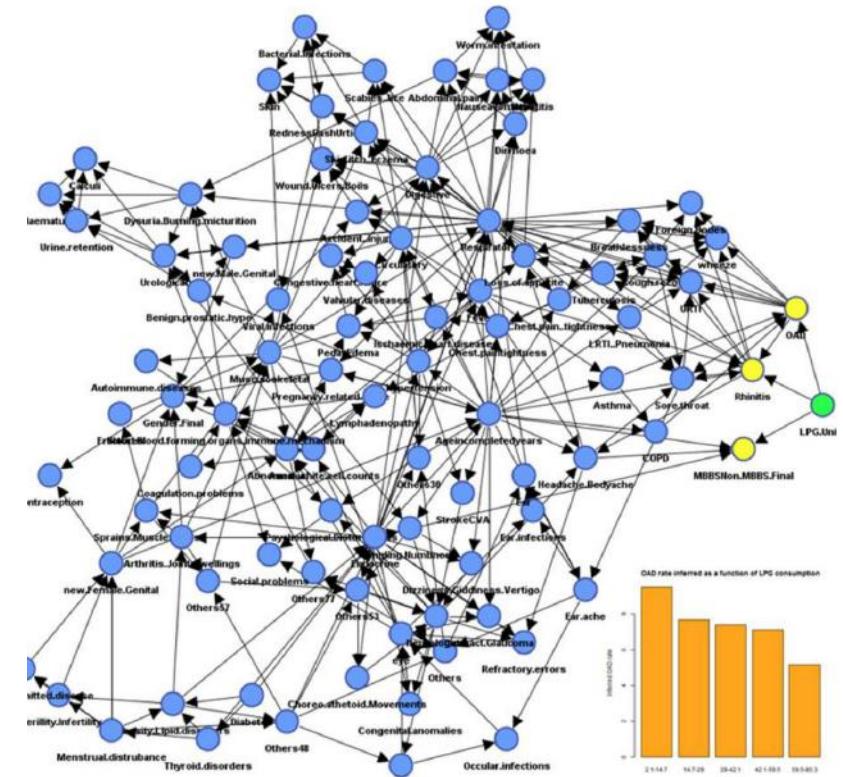
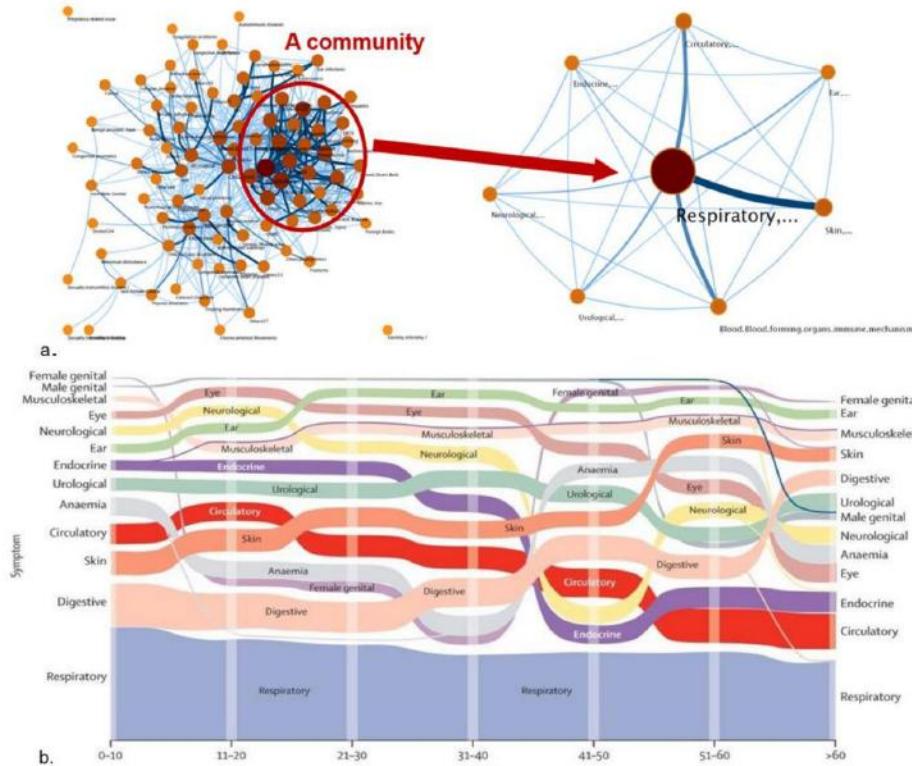
Chest Research Foundation, Pune, India



Networks approach: many diseases happen together, connectivity differs across age  
*Lancet Global Health, Dec 2015*

Sundeep Salvi et al. Symptoms and medical conditions in 204 912 patients visiting primary health-care practitioners in India: a 1-day point prevalence study (the POSEIDON study), *The Lancet Global Health*, Volume 3, Issue 12, 2015, Pages e776-e784, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X\(15\)00152-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X(15)00152-7).

# Associations to Decisions



Sundeep Salvi et al. Symptoms and medical conditions in 204 912 patients visiting primary health-care practitioners in India: a 1-day point prevalence study (the POSEIDON study), *The Lancet Global Health*, Volume 3, Issue 12, 2015, Pages e776-e784, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X\(15\)00152-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X(15)00152-7).

# Case Study II: AI for Reducing Health Inequities

- The richest American men live **15 years** longer than the poorest American men<sup>1</sup>
- The richest American women live **10 years** longer than the poorest American women<sup>1</sup>
- **Healthcare inequities** impose an estimated burden of **\$300 billion per year** in the United States
- Longevity is the **sum-total of influences** on the healthcare
- Hence **longevity-gap** is a complex **socio-demographic** challenge
- Key motivation: **learn policy for mitigating** the longevity-gap using explainable AI and release it to public, policymakers

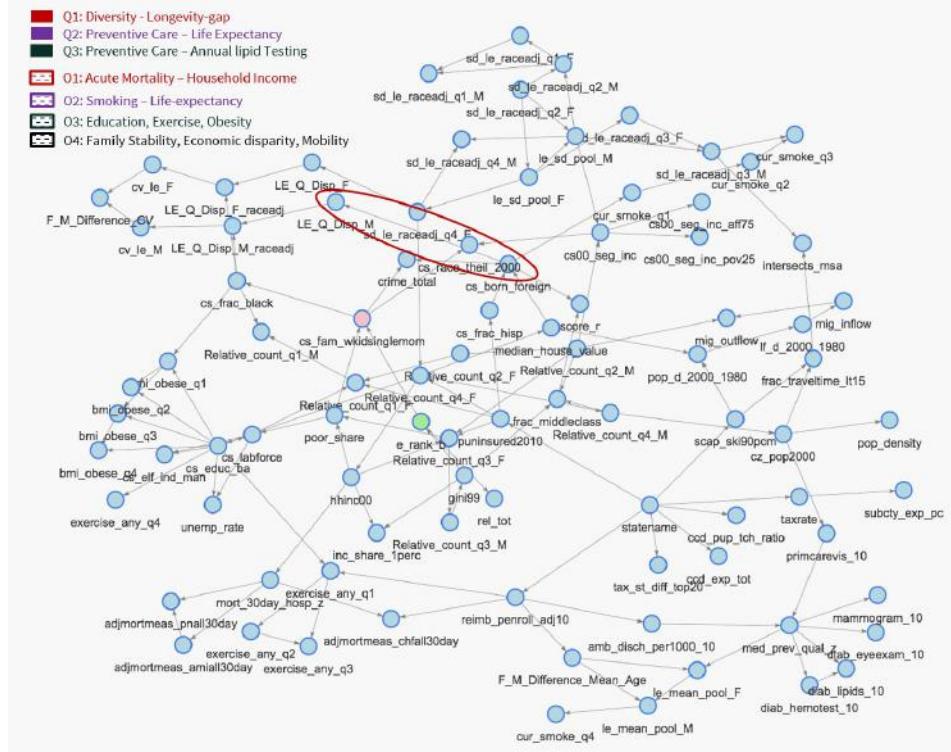
# Key Messages

We used data from: **Mortality** (Census), **Healthcare Indices** (Dartmouth Atlas), **Health-behaviors** (CDC, BRFSS), **Education** (K-12 and Post Secondary), **Demographics** (e.g. race, ethnicity, diversity, gender ratio etc), **Socioeconomics** (e.g. Gini index, Poverty rate, Income segregation, Social Mobility), **Social Cohesion**. (e.g. Social Capital Index, Religious adherents), **Labor market conditions and Taxation**. (e.g. unemployment, manufacturing sector).

## Key Messages

1. **Social.** Diversity mitigates health inequality in the US. Counties with higher diversity are 38% less likely to have a longevity gap between the rich and the poor.
2. **Preventive Care.** Counties with high quality primary care services (not just visits but investigations) have a 43% increase in the probability of living beyond 85 years in females (corresponding 30% increase for males.)
3. **Clinical.** Acute mortality (30-day Hospital Mortality Index) is 30% less in Counties with household income in the highest segment.
4. **Usual suspects.** Smoking, Education, Exercise as expected to be key influencers of longevity.
5. **Socio-demographic.** Family stability decreases crime rate, increases upward social mobility across economic tiers and indirectly decreases Gini disparity in counties.

# Diversity Mitigates Longevity Gap

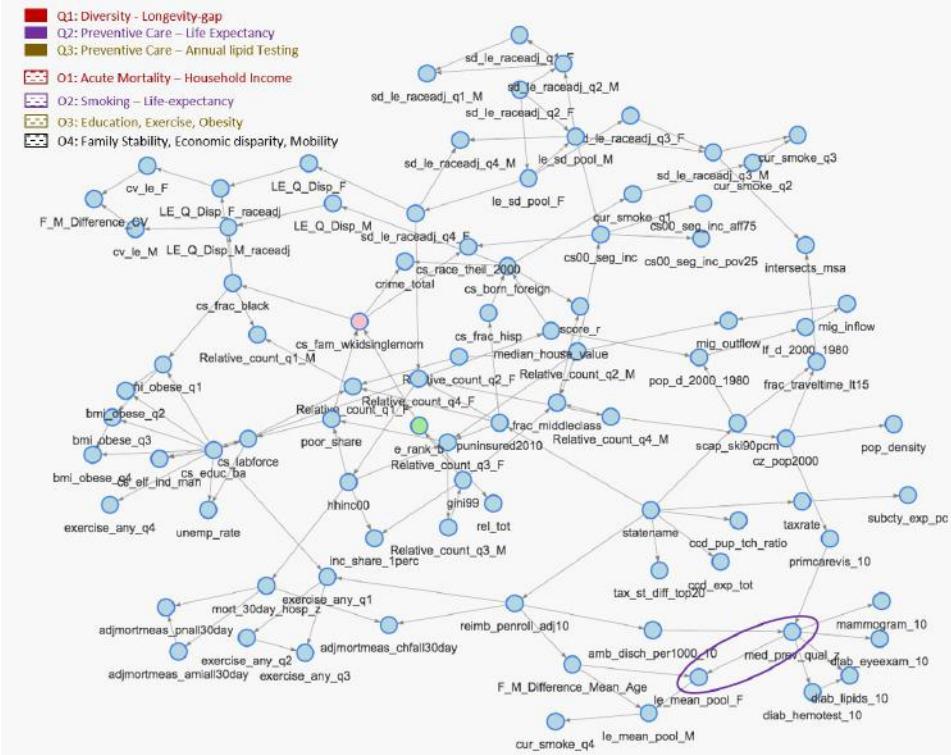


## A 1. Diversity

Counties with higher diversity  
are 38% less likely to have a  
longevity gap between the  
rich and the poor.

**Likely explanation:** Structure indicates that Higher Diversity is Associated with Higher Income, especially in Females, thus improving healthcare services.

# The Impact of Primary Care



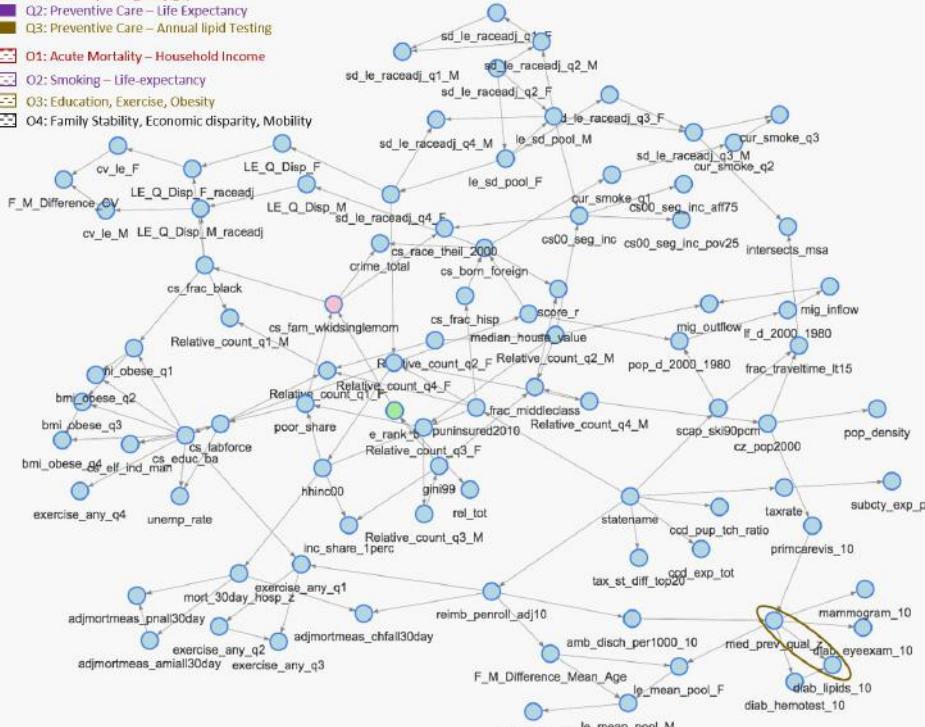
## A 2. Quality of Preventive Care

Counties with high quality primary care services have a 43% increase in the probability of living beyond 85 years in females  
(corresponding 30% increase for males.)

**Likely explanation:** Self Evident, but previously unquantified in a Joint Model

# Which primary care investigation has most impact?

- Q1: Diversity - Longevity-gap
- Q2: Preventive Care – Life Expectancy
- Q3: Preventive Care – Annual lipid Testing
- Q4: Acute Mortality - Household Income
- Q5: Smoking – Life-expectancy
- Q6: Education, Exercise, Obesity
- Q7: Family Stability, Economic disparity, Mobility



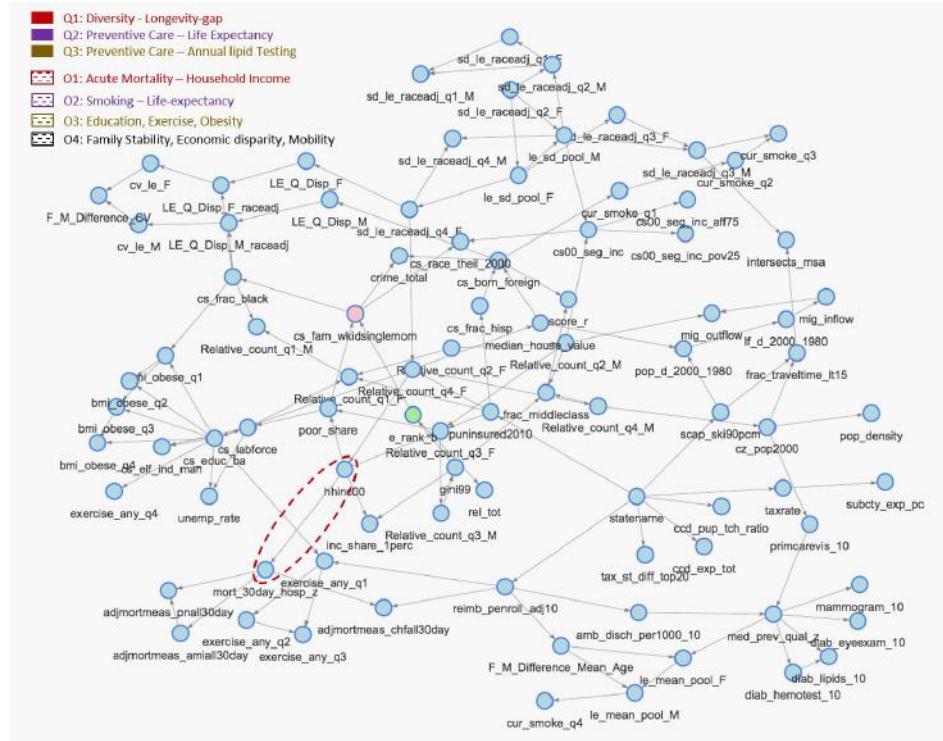
Sethi T, S. Maheshwari, A. Mittal, S. Chugh. Learning to Address Health Inequality in the United States with a Bayesian Decision Network. Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence 33, 710-717. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1609/aaai.v33i01.3301710>

## A 3. Annual Lipid Testing esp. in the diabetic population

diab_eyeexam_10	mammogram_10	diab_lipids_10	payoff
[70.2,85.6]	[68.2,86.1]	[79.3,92.9]	0.52
[70.2,85.6]	[68.2,86.1]	[65.6,79.3)	0.48
[62.2,70.2)	[68.2,86.1]	[79.3,92.9]	0.44
[70.2,85.6]	[59.5,68.2)	[79.3,92.9]	0.40
[62.2,70.2)	[68.2,86.1]	[65.6,79.3)	0.26
[70.2,85.6]	[59.5,68.2)	[65.6,79.3)	0.22
[42.4,62.2)	[68.2,86.1]	[79.3,92.9]	0.20
[62.2,70.2)	[59.5,68.2)	[79.3,92.9]	0.12
[70.2,85.6]	[31.1,59.5)	[79.3,92.9]	0.11
[42.4,62.2)	[68.2,86.1]	[65.6,79.3)	0.08

Likely explanation:  
Diabetics are at highest risk of cardiovascular mortality

# Income and Acute Mortality



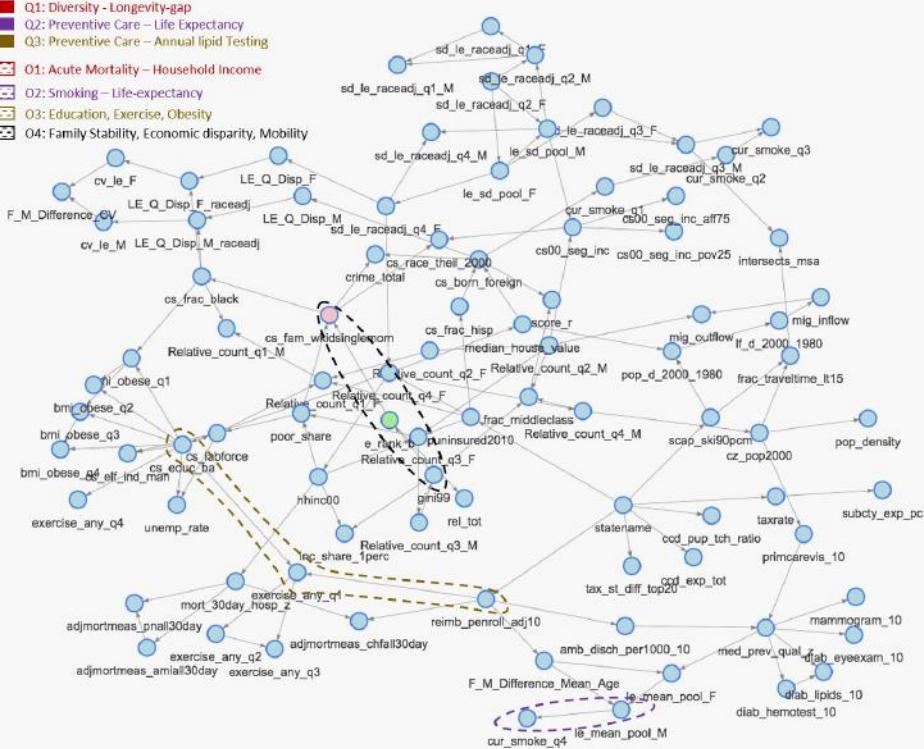
01.

ACUTE MORTALITY (30-DAY HOSPITAL MORTALITY INDEX > 0.92) IS 30% LESS IN COUNTIES WITH HOUSEHOLD INCOME IN THE HIGHEST SEGMENT.

HIGHEST CONTRIBUTOR TO  
ACUTE MORTALITY IN LOWER  
INCOME HOUSEHOLDS IS  
PNEUMONIA

# Smoking, Exercise, Health Behaviors

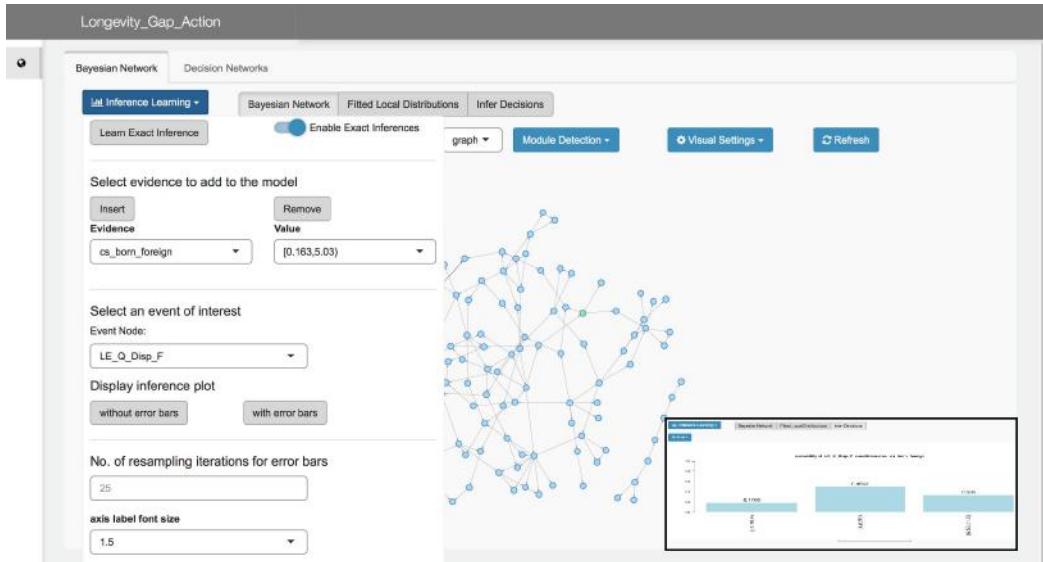
- Q1: Diversity - Longevity-gap
- Q2: Preventive Care – Life Expectancy
- Q3: Preventive Care – Annual lipid Testing
- Q4: Acute Mortality – Household Income
- Q5: Smoking – Life-expectancy
- Q6: Education, Exercise, Obesity
- Q7: Family Stability, Economic disparity, Mobility



## USUAL SUSPECTS (O2-O4)

- HIGH LIFE-EXPECTANCY IN MALES (81.9 - 85 YEARS) MAKES IT 33% MORE LIKELY FOR SMOKING TO BE IN THE LOWEST STRATUM IN THE COUNTY.
- COUNTIES WITH HIGH PROPORTION OF EXERCISE HAVE 19% LESS HOSPITALIZATION RATES
- COUNTIES WITH LOWER FAMILY STABILITY ARE 40% MORE LIKELY TO HAVE LOWER SOCIAL MOBILITY

# Deploy your XAI models as Web applications



[https://github.com/SAFE-ICU/Longevity\\_Gap\\_Action](https://github.com/SAFE-ICU/Longevity_Gap_Action)

## Key Messages

1. **Social.** Diversity mitigates health inequality in the US. Counties with higher diversity are 38% less likely to have a longevity gap between the rich and the poor.
2. **Preventive Care.** Counties with high quality primary care services (not just visits but investigations) have a 43% increase in the probability of living beyond 85 years in females (corresponding 30% increase for males.)
3. **Clinical.** Acute mortality (30-day Hospital Mortality Index) is 30% less in Counties with household income in the highest segment.
4. **Usual suspects.** Smoking, Education, Exercise as expected to be key influencers of longevity.
5. **Socio-demographic.** Family stability decreases crime rate, increases upward social mobility across economic tiers and indirectly decreases Gini disparity in counties.

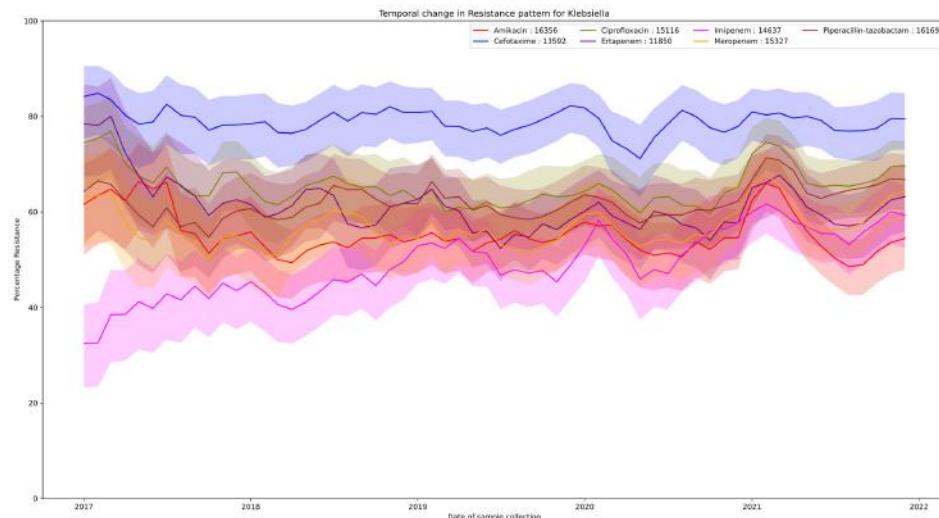
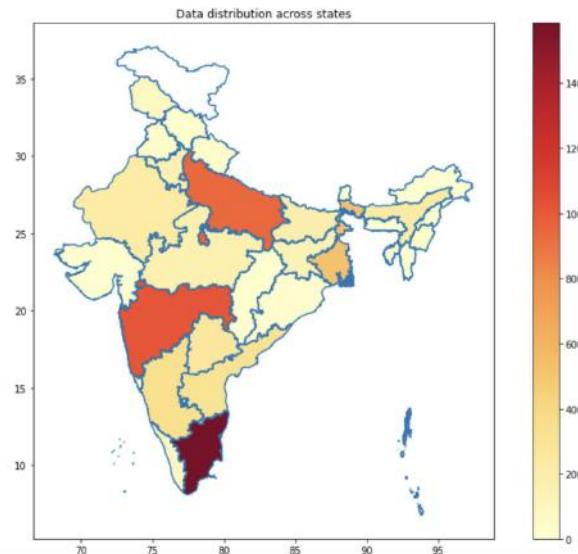
Tavpritesh Sethi, Anant Mittal, Shubham Maheshwari, Samarth Chugh. *Learning to Address Health Inequality in the United States with a Bayesian Decision Network*.  
<https://arxiv.org/abs/1809.09215> Accepted for publication in the Thirty-third AAAI conference in Artificial Intelligence, AAAI-2019



## Emerging trends in antimicrobial resistance in bloodstream infections: multicentric longitudinal study in India (2017–2022)

Jasmine Kaur <sup>a,b,c</sup> · Harpreet Singh <sup>c</sup> · Tavpritesh Sethi

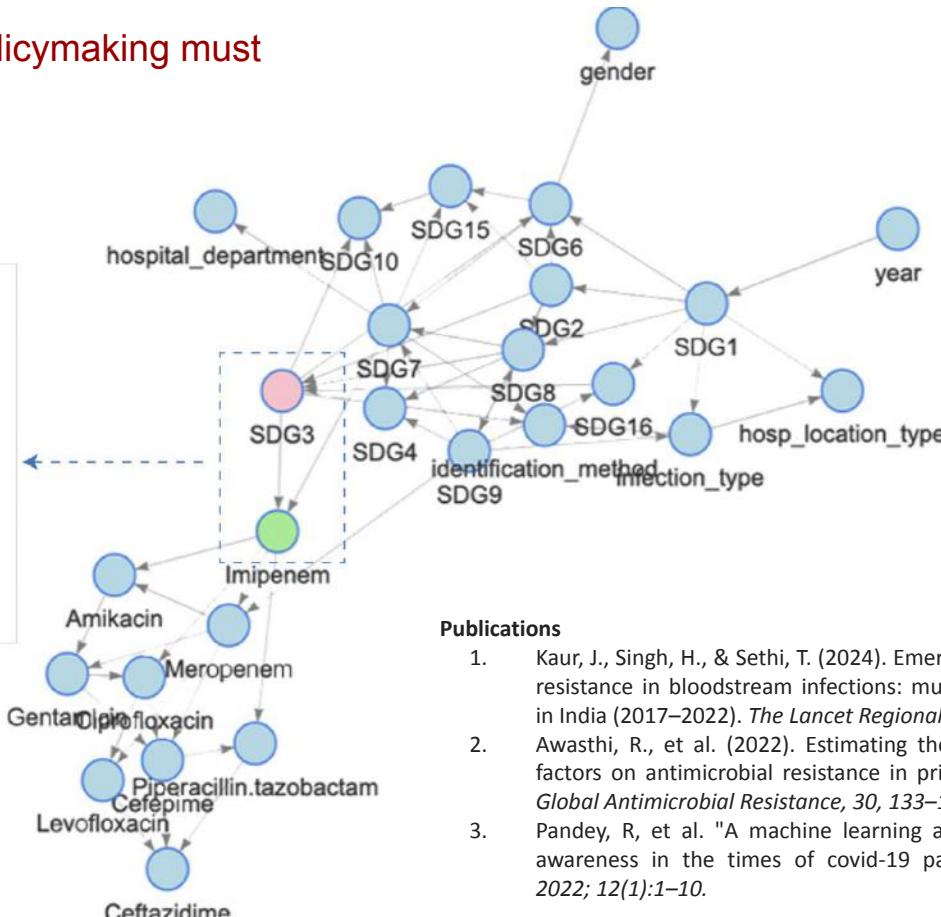
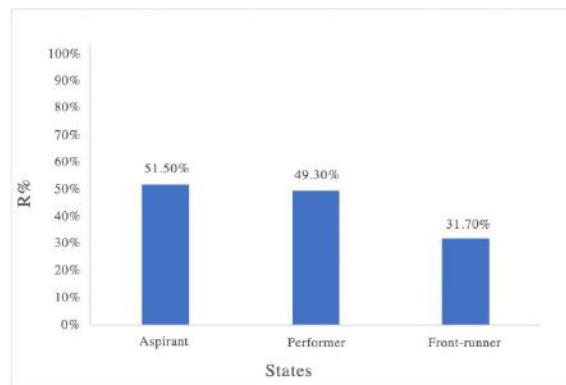
Klebsiella Sepsis



0.25% monthly average for increase in Imipenem resistance

# AI for Understanding Impact on SDG Achievement

**Key Takeaway:** Evidence-based policymaking must leverage AI for tracking progress.



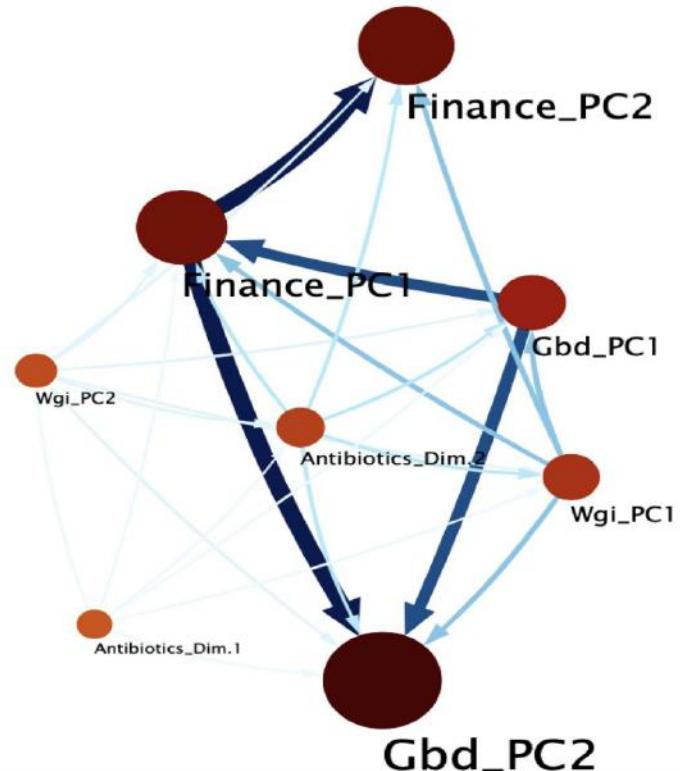
## Publications

1. Kaur, J., Singh, H., & Sethi, T. (2024). Emerging trends in antimicrobial resistance in bloodstream infections: multicentric longitudinal study in India (2017–2022). *The Lancet Regional Health-Southeast Asia*, 26.
2. Awasthi, R., et al. (2022). Estimating the impact of health systems factors on antimicrobial resistance in priority pathogens. *Journal of Global Antimicrobial Resistance*, 30, 133–142.
3. Pandey, R., et al. "A machine learning application for raising wash awareness in the times of covid-19 pandemic". *Scientific reports* 2022; 12(1):1–10.

# Systems Indicators and AMR

Age and temporal distribution of data

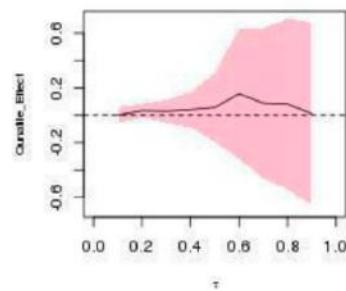
	Women	Men	Overall
Sex	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)
	278 128 (43.88%)	348 136 (54.93%)	633 820
Age group			
0 to 2 years	15 329 (42.83%)	20 012 (55.91%)	35 793
13 to 18 years	6348 (47.06%)	7043 (52.21%)	13 490
19 to 64 years	130 162 (44.04%)	163 201 (55.22%)	295 537
3 to 12 years	12 613 (46.88%)	14 052 (52.22%)	26 907
65 to 84 years	86 561 (41.63%)	119 801 (57.62%)	207 922
85 and over	23 406 (54.29%)	19 364 (44.91%)	43 114
Year			
2004	9433 (46.93%)	10 655 (53.01%)	20 101
2005	10 473 (48.04%)	11 274 (51.71%)	21 801
2006	13 967 (46.65%)	15 876 (53.03%)	29 940
2007	18 264 (45.70%)	21 409 (53.57%)	39 964
2008	16 303 (44.33%)	19 925 (54.18%)	36 773
2009	18 575 (44.55%)	22 514 (54.00%)	41 692
2010	14 476 (44.59%)	17 341 (53.42%)	32 462
2011	11 622 (44.66%)	13 931 (53.53%)	26 023
2012	22 432 (42.16%)	29 477 (55.40%)	53 206
2013	29 962 (42.73%)	38 850 (55.40%)	70 125
2014	30 492 (43.23%)	39 482 (55.98%)	70 529
2015	27 992 (43.21%)	36 104 (55.73%)	64 785
2016	29 744 (42.74%)	39 290 (56.45%)	69 598
2017	24 393 (42.93%)	32 008 (56.33%)	56 821



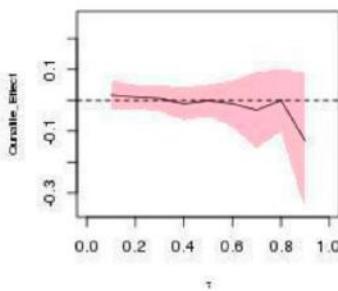
Awasthi R, Rakholia V, Agrawal S, Dhingra LS, Nagori A, Kaur H, Sethi T. Estimating the impact of health systems factors on antimicrobial resistance in priority pathogens. J Glob Antimicrob Resist. 2022 Sep;30:133-142.

# Impact Calculation: Counterfactual Analysis

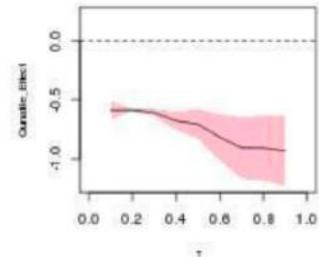
*Acinetobacter baumannii*



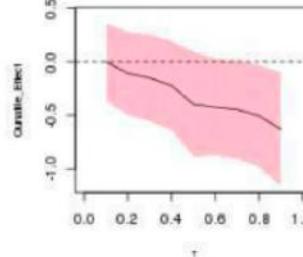
*E. coli*



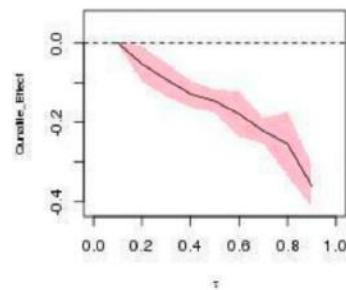
*Acinetobacter baumannii*



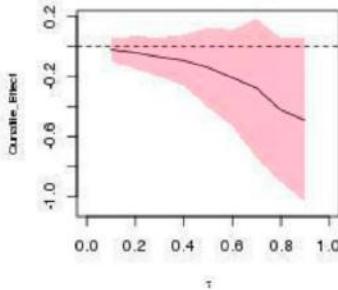
*E. coli*



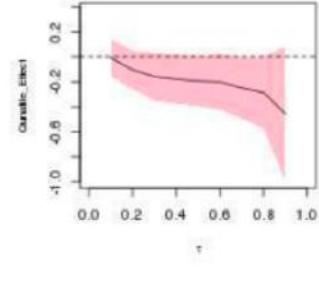
*Enterobacter cloacae*



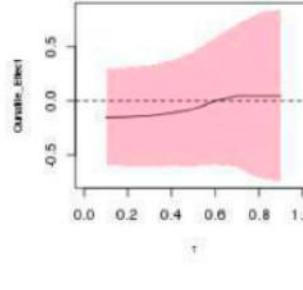
*Klebsiella pneumoniae*



*Enterobacter cloacae*



*Klebsiella pneumoniae*



Ceftriaxone High Income

Ceftriaxone Middle Income

# **Key Steps in Building a BN Model**

- Learn Structure
  - Score Based
  - Constraint Based
- Validate Structure
  - Bootstrapping
  - Domain Based Sanitization
- Conduct Inference
  - Exact Inference
  - Approximate Inference