Lesson 3: Likelihood-based inference for POMP models

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Objectives

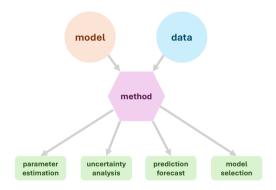
Students completing this lesson will:

- 1. Gain an understanding of the nature of the problem of likelihood computation for POMP models.
- 2. Be able to explain the simplest particle filter algorithm.
- 3. Gain experience in the visualization and exploration of likelihood surfaces.
- 4. Be able to explain the tools of likelihood-based statistical inference that become available given numerical accessibility of the likelihood function.

Overview I

A general framework of epidemiological inference includes three layers:

- ➤ The input: a model of interest and the given data
- ► A method for inference
- Inferences include estimation, uncertainty, prediction and forecast, and model selection.



Overview II

Methods for inference can be categorized into three groups:

- ▶ Optimization-based: minimize a cost function (e.g., SSE, MSE, MAE) that measures the difference between observed data and model predictions
- Likelihood-based: maximize a likelihood function, which represents the probability of observing the given data given the parameters
- Summary Statistics-based: use a set of features of the data instead of the full set of data

In this lesson, we focus on the likelihood-based method because

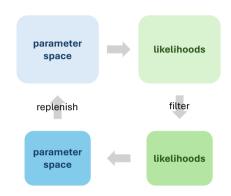
- it fits for stochastic models and
- it incorporates all data (i.e., full-information).

The likelihood I

- ▶ The basis for modern frequentist, Bayesian, and information-theoretic inference.
- ▶ Method of maximum likelihood introduced by Fisher (1922).
- ▶ The likelihood function itself is a representation of the what the data have to say about the parameters.
- ▶ A good general reference on likelihood is by Pawitan (2001).

The likelihood II

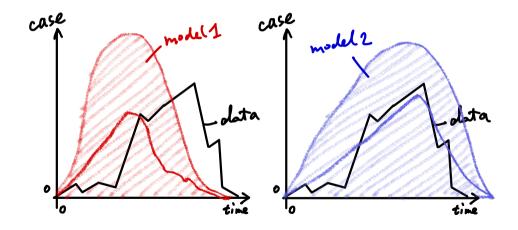
- Goal: fit the model to the data and conduct statistical inferences, such as parameter estimation.
- The likelihood, thus, can be considered as a metric to assess the goodness of the proposed parameters.
- By exploring the space of parameters, we can eventually obtain the maximum likelihood estimator (MLE).



Thus, the objective of this lesson is to discuss how we compute the likelihood given a model of interest with a proposed set of parameters in both theory and in pomp.

Definition of the likelihood function I

▶ How likely the data are drawn from a distribution or sampled from a model?



Definition of the likelihood function II

- Notations:
 - $\triangleright y_{1:N}^*$: the data, a sequence of N observations
 - $f_{Y_{1:N}}(y_{1:N};\theta)$: the statistical model, a probability distribution for each value of a parameter vector θ
 - $Y_{1:N} \sim f_{Y_{1:N}}(y_{1:N};\theta)$: a random variable drawn from distribution $f_{Y_{1:N}}(y_{1:N};\theta)$
- ▶ The likelihood function is used to measure the "how likely' ':

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = f_{Y_{1:N}}(y_{1:N}^*;\theta).$$

The log-likelihood function:

$$\ell(\theta) = \log \mathcal{L}(\theta) = \log f_{Y_{1:N}}(y_{1:N}^*; \theta).$$

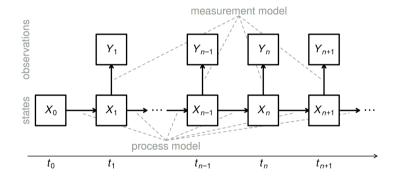
Simulation is easy for complex models

- igwedge $f_{Y_{1:N}}(y_{1:N}; \theta)$ is simple and with an explicit expression:
 - ▶ the simulation of $Y_{1:N}$ is direct, e.g., $Y_k \sim N(0,1)$ for $k=1,\ldots,N$
 - the likelihood function is explicit
- igwedge $f_{Y_{1:N}}(y_{1:N}; heta)$ is complex or even without an explicit expression:
 - the simulation of $Y_{1:N}$, given the underlying dynamical model, is a bit more complex but convenient
 - the likelihood function exists with a complicated expression or even without an explicit expression

Thus, we can develop numerical methods to compute the complex or implicit likelihood functions!

The likelihood for a POMP model I

Recall the following schematic diagram, showing dependence among variables in a POMP model.



The likelihood for a POMP model II

Recall the following definitions and properties:

- **Measurements**: Y_n , at time t_n depend on the latent process, X_n , at that time.
- ▶ The Markov property: latent process variables depend on their value at the previous timestep.
 - 1. The distribution of the state X_{n+1} , conditional on X_n , is independent of the values of X_k , k < n and Y_k , $k \le n$.
 - 2. The distribution of the measurement Y_n , conditional on X_n , is independent of all other variables.
- ▶ The **latent process**: X(t), may be defined at all times, but we are particularly interested in its value at observation times. Therefore, we write

$$X_n = X(t_n).$$

lackbox We write collections of random variables using the notation $X_{0:N}=(X_0,\dots,X_N).$

The likelihood for a POMP model III

▶ The one-step transition density, $f_{X_n|X_{n-1}}(x_n|x_{n-1};\theta)$, together with the measurement density, $f_{Y_n|X_n}(y_n|x_n;\theta)$ and the initial density, $f_{X_0}(x_0;\theta)$, specify the entire joint density via

$$\begin{split} f_{X_{0:N},Y_{1:N}}(x_{0:N},y_{1:N};\theta) \\ &= f_{X_0}(x_0;\theta) \, \prod_{n=1}^N f_{X_n|X_{n-1}}(x_n|x_{n-1};\theta) \, f_{Y_n|X_n}(y_n|x_n;\theta). \end{split}$$

▶ The marginal density for sequence of measurements: $Y_{1:N}$, evaluated at the data, $y_{1:N}^*$, is

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = f_{Y_{1:N}}(y_{1:N}^*;\theta) = \int \! f_{X_{0:N},Y_{1:N}}(x_{0:N},y_{1:N}^*;\theta) \, dx_{0:N}.$$

Special case: deterministic latent process

- ▶ When the latent process is non-random, the log-likelihood for a POMP model closely resembles a nonlinear regression model.
- In this case, we can write $X_n = x_n(\theta)$, and the log-likelihood is

$$\ell(\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log f_{Y_n|X_n} \big(y_n^*|x_n(\theta);\theta\big).$$

If we have a Gaussian measurement model, where Y_n given $X_n = x_n(\theta)$ is conditionally normal with mean $\hat{y}_n(x_n(\theta))$ and constant variance σ^2 , then the log-likelihood contains a sum of squares which is exactly the criterion that nonlinear least squares regression seeks to minimize.

General case: stochastic unobserved state process

For a POMP model, the likelihood takes the form of an integral:

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{L}(\theta) &= f_{Y_{1:N}}(y_{1:N}^*;\theta) \\ &= \int f_{X_0}(x_0;\theta) \prod_{n=1}^N f_{Y_n|X_n}(y_n^*|x_n;\theta) \, f_{X_n|X_{n-1}}(x_n|x_{n-1};\theta) \, dx_{0:N}. \end{split} \tag{1}$$

▶ This integral is high dimensional and, except for the simplest cases, can not be reduced analytically.

Monte Carlo likelihood: direct simulation I

Spoiler Alert: This section serves to introduce the concept of the **particle filter** and the approach of Monte Carlo integration by first proposing an intuitive and a simpler method. This simple method usually **does NOT work** on anything but **very short** time series.

Let's rewrite the likelihood integral using an equivalent factorization. As an
exercise, you could check how the equivalence of Equation 1 and Equation 2
follows algebraically from the Markov property and the definition of conditional
density.

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{L}(\theta) &= f_{Y_{1:N}}(y_{1:N}^*;\theta) \\ &= \int \left\{ \prod_{n=1}^N f_{Y_n|X_n}(y_n^*|x_n;\theta) \right\} \, f_{X_{0:N}}(x_{0:N};\theta) \, dx_{0:N}. \end{split} \tag{2}$$

Monte Carlo likelihood: direct simulation II

2. Notice, using the representation in Equation 2, that the likelihood can be written as an expectation,

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}\left[\prod_{n=1}^N f_{Y_n|X_n}(y_n^*|X_n;\theta)\right],$$

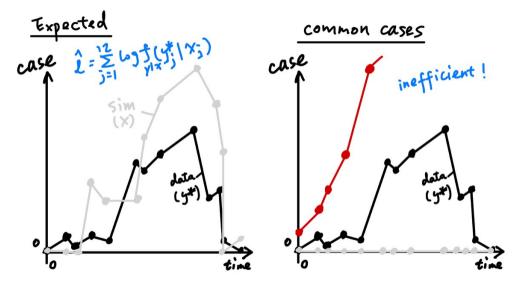
where the expectation is taken with $X_{0:N} \sim f_{X_{0:N}}(x_{0:N};\theta)$.

3. Now, using a law of large numbers, we can approximate an expectation by the average of a Monte Carlo sample. Thus,

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) \approx \frac{1}{J} \sum_{i=1}^{J} \prod_{n=1}^{N} f_{Y_n|X_n}(y_n^*|X_n^j;\theta),$$

where $\{X_{0:N}^{j},j=1,\dots,J\}$ is a Monte Carlo sample of size J drawn from $f_{X_{0:N}}(x_{0:N};\theta).$

Monte Carlo likelihood: direct simulation III



Sequential Monte Carlo: The particle filter I

Fortunately, we can compute the likelihood for a POMP model by a much more efficient algorithm than direct Monte Carlo integration:

1. We proceed by factorizing the likelihood in a different way:

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{L}(\theta) &= f_{Y_{1:N}}(y_{1:N}^*;\theta) = \prod_{n=1}^N f_{Y_n|Y_{1:n-1}}(y_n^*|y_{1:n-1}^*;\theta) \\ &= \prod_{n=1}^N \int f_{Y_n|X_n}(y_n^*|x_n;\theta) \, f_{X_n|Y_{1:n-1}}(x_n|y_{1:n-1}^*;\theta) \, dx_n, \end{split}$$

with the understanding that $f_{X_1\mid Y_{1:0}}=f_{X_1}.$

Sequential Monte Carlo: The particle filter II

2. The Markov property leads to the **prediction formula:**

$$\begin{split} f_{X_n|Y_{1:n-1}}(x_n|y_{1:n-1}^*;\theta) \\ &= \int & f_{X_n|X_{n-1}}(x_n|x_{n-1};\theta) \, f_{X_{n-1}|Y_{1:n-1}}(x_{n-1}|y_{1:n-1}^*;\theta) \, dx_{n-1}. \end{split}$$

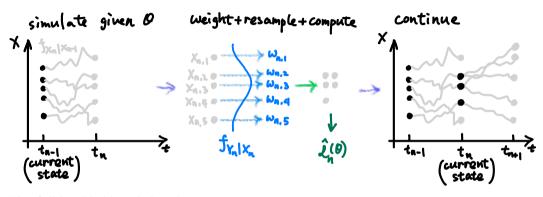
3. Bayes' theorem gives the filtering formula:

$$\begin{split} f_{X_n|Y_{1:n}}(x_n|y_{1:n}^*;\theta) \\ &= f_{X_n|Y_n,Y_{1:n-1}}(x_n|y_n^*,y_{1:n-1}^*;\theta) \\ &= \frac{f_{Y_n|X_n}(y_n^*|x_n;\theta)\,f_{X_n|Y_{1:n-1}}(x_n|y_{1:n-1}^*;\theta)}{\int f_{Y_n|X_n}(y_n^*|u_n;\theta)\,f_{X_n|Y_{1:n-1}}(u_n|y_{1:n-1}^*;\theta)\,du_n}. \end{split}$$

Sequential Monte Carlo: The particle filter III

- lacktriangle This suggests that we keep track of two key distributions at each time t_n ,
 - The prediction distribution is $f_{X_n|Y_{1:n-1}}(x_n|y_{1:n-1}^*)$.
 - The filtering distribution is $f_{X_n|Y_{1:n}}(x_n|y_{1:n}^*)$.
- ▶ The prediction and filtering formulas give us a two-step recursion:
 - The prediction formula gives the prediction distribution at time t_n using the filtering distribution at time t_{n-1} .
 - The filtering formula gives the filtering distribution at time t_n using the prediction distribution at time t_n .
- ➤ The particle filter use Monte Carlo techniques to sequentially estimate the integrals in the prediction and filtering recursions. Hence, the alternative name of sequential Monte Carlo (SMC).

Sequential Monte Carlo: The particle filter IV

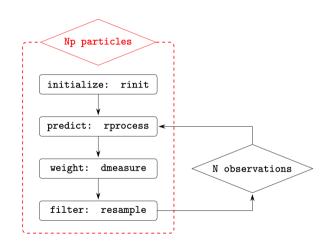


The full log-likelihood then has approximation

$$\ell(\theta) = \log \mathcal{L}(\theta) = \sum_n \log \mathcal{L}_n(\theta) \approx \sum_n \log \hat{\mathcal{L}}_n(\theta).$$

Sequential Monte Carlo: conclusion

- It can be shown that the particle filter provides an unbiased estimate of the likelihood (Kitagawa (1987), Arulampalam et al. (2002), Doucet, Freitas, and Gordon (2001), King, Nguyen, and Ionides (2016)).
- This implies a consistent but biased estimate of the log-likelihood.



Parallel computing: general

It will be helpful to parallelize most of the computations. Most machines nowadays have multiple cores and using this computational capacity is as simple as:

- 1. letting R know you plan to use multiple processors;
- 2. using the parallel for loop provided by the foreach package; and
- 3. paying proper attention to the use of parallel random number generators (RNG). For example:

The second line tells foreach that we will use the doFuture backend, along with %dofuture% when we set up the foreach loop. The third line explicitly exports the global environment to each of the session on Windows machines; macOS/Linux does that automatically.

Parallel computing: Exercise

The following codes (or the /scripts/exercise_parallel.R script) is an example of setting up a parallel computing scheme.

```
library(foreach)
library(doFuture)
plan(multisession, workers=8)
source("model measSIR.R")
foreach(
  i=1:20, .combine="c", .options.future = list(seed=TRUE),
  .errorhandling = "remove"
) %dofuture% {
  measSIR |> pfilter(Np=5000)
} -> pfs
pfs |> logLik() |> logmeanexp(se=TRUE)
```

References

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License, acknowledgments, and links

- ▶ This lesson is prepared for the Simulation-based Inference for Epidemiological Dynamics module at the Summer Institute in Statistics and Modeling in Infectious Diseases, SISMID.
- The materials build on previous versions of this course and related courses.
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- ▶ Produced with R version 4.4.2 and pomp version 6.1.
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