MCMC 2: Lecture 3 SIR models (2)

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- Population of N individuals
- At time t there are:
 - S(t) susceptibles
 - I(t) infectives
 - R(t) recovered / immune individuals
 - Thus S(t)+I(t)+R(t) = N for all t.
 - Initially (S(0),I(0),R(0)) = (N-1,1,0).

- Each infectious individual remains so for a length of time T_I drawn from f(x | θ). Note that θ might have several components.
- During this time, infectious contacts occur with each susceptible according to a Poisson process of rate β / N.
- Thus overall infection rate is βS(t)I(t) / N.
- Model parameters are β and θ .

- Popular choices for the infectious period distribution T_I include the Gamma distribution and the Weibull distribution.
- If T_I is the Exponential distribution then we have the general epidemic = Markov SIR epidemic.
- For non-Exponential T₁ then {(S(t),I(t)): t ≥ 0} is not a Markov process.

Suppose we observe n removals at times

$$\mathbf{r}_1 \leq \mathbf{r}_2 \leq \mathbf{r}_3 \leq \ldots \leq \mathbf{r}_n.$$

- The inference problem is to estimate the model parameters β and θ.
- In a Bayesian setting, this means we need to find (or sample from) the posterior density π(β, θ | r₁, r₂, ..., r_n)

- As for the general epidemic, the likelihood $\pi(r_1, r_2, ..., r_n \mid \beta, \theta)$
- is very hard to compute.
- Again our solution is to introduce infection times as extra variables to give a tractable augmented likelihood.

Augmented Likelihood

- Let b be the label of the last removal time, i.e. $r_b \ge r_k$ for all k = 1, ..., n.
- Given removal data, b is observed and fixed for any given labelling.
- Define a as the label of the first infection time, i.e. i_a < i_k for all k ≠ a.
- Given removal data, a is unknown.

- Define $\mathbf{r} = (r_1, r_2, ..., r_n)$
- Define $\mathbf{i} = (i_1, i_2, ..., i_{a-1}, i_{a+1}, ..., i_n)$
- Let f(x | θ) denote the probability density function of the infectious period distribution.

■ The augmented likelihood is $\pi(\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{r} \mid \beta, \theta, \mathbf{i}_a, \mathbf{a}) =$ $\prod_{j \neq a} \beta N^{-1} I(\mathbf{i}_j) \times \exp(-\beta N^{-1} \int S(t)I(t) dt)$ $\times \prod_{1 \le j \le n} f(\mathbf{r}_j - \mathbf{i}_j \mid \theta)$

where as before I(t-) means I(t) just before time t

The target posterior density is π(β, θ, i, i_a, a | r) ∞ π(i, r | β, θ, i_a, a) π(β, θ, i_a, a)

Set independent priors as

$$\beta \sim \text{Gamma}(m_{\beta}, \lambda_{\beta})$$

- a ~ uniform on $\{1, ..., n\}$
- $i_a \sim uniform on (-\infty, r_1)$
- $\theta \sim ??$ Depends what θ is!

- MCMC algorithm that targets the posterior density needs ways of updating the parameters β, θ, i, i_a and a.
- β, i, i_a and a can all be updated as for the Markov model: β still has a Gammadistributed full conditional distribution, and we can update infection times as before.
- Updates for θ depend on what θ is.

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- 2. <u>Debugging tips</u>
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- 1. Test each piece of code separately
- Most MCMC algorithms in this field involve various components, e.g.
- Gibbs updates
- Metropolis-Hastings updates
- Likelihood
- It is good practice to check each component works before proceeding.

- 2. Validate output using simulations
- As discussed in Lecture 1, one way to test MCMC code (e.g. for SIR model) is
- Simulate SIR model M times (e.g. M=1000)
- Run MCMC on each output to infer parameters
- Average parameter estimates from MCMC should be close to the known true values

2. Validate output using simulations

If the MCMC code is time-consuming to run then an alternative is use simulation output that gives a single large epidemic - idea being that this should give reasonable information about the model parameters.

3. Beware Zeroes

Some languages allow operations such as "0/0" without reporting an error.

4. Try a very small data set

Sometimes it is possible to test MCMC code by using a very small data set where one can work out the required inference by hand. This can then be checked against the MCMC output.

5. Use log likelihood

Many likelihoods require calculation of products which can in turn lead to numerical instabilities and run-time errors.

One way to tackle this issue is to instead work with the log likelihood, since

 $log(A_1 \times A_2 \times ... \times A_m) = log(A_1) + ... + log(A_m)$

5. Use log likelihood (cont)

- The likelihood may involve the calculation of Beta or Gamma functions.
- R has built-in functions to compute such functions, i.e. beta, gamma; but if we are working on the log scale, instead of doing something like log(gamma(k)) we could use another built in function lgamma(k) to ensure numerical stability, especially if k is large.

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In this section, for illustration it is assumed that we have MCMC output from the Markov SIR model removal-data-observed scenario:

 $(\beta_1, \gamma_1), (\beta_2, \gamma_2), ..., (\beta_M, \gamma_M)$ where M is large (e.g. M=10⁶).

Each pair (β_k, γ_k) is (approx) a sample from the joint posterior density π ($\beta, \gamma | \mathbf{r}$)

Marginal summaries

Quantities such as the marginal mean, median, variance etc of β and of γ can be readily obtained using the package R.

It is also useful to plot the marginal posterior density of each parameter and/or a histogram.

Joint summaries

- It can be useful to assess the extent to which β and γ can be estimated separately.
- The posterior correlation and a scatterplot of the samples against axes β and γ provide such information.

Functions of model parameters

- The quantity R₀ is of enormous interest in mathematical epidemic theory. It is (roughly) defined as the average number of secondary cases caused by a typical infective in an infinitely large population of susceptibles.
- If $R_0 \le 1$, epidemics are unlikely to take off.

- Functions of model parameters
- For the (general) SIR model,

$\mathsf{R}_0 = \beta \mathsf{E}(\mathsf{T}_\mathsf{I}),$

where $E(T_I)$ is the mean infectious period.

This follows from the fact that each infective causes new infections at (Poisson) rate β during a period of time T₁.

- Functions of model parameters
- For the Markov model we have

$$\mathsf{R}_0 = \beta \mathsf{E}(\mathsf{T}_\mathsf{I}) = \beta / \gamma ,$$

since $T_I \sim Exp(\gamma)$.

- Thus given the MCMC output we can create a new file containing
 - $(\beta_1/\gamma_1), (\beta_2/\gamma_2), ..., (\beta_M/\gamma_M)$
- i.e. samples from the posterior density of R_0 .

Functions of model parameters

 R_0 can be summarised in the usual ways (mean, variance etc): also interesting to find the posterior probability that $R_0 \le 1$.

Functions of model parameters

Can also be interesting to translate inference for <u>rates</u> into inference for <u>probabilities</u>.

e.g. 1 - exp(- β / N) is the probability that one infective individual infects a given susceptible in one time unit.

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As with any attempt to fit a model to data, it is always important to think about how informative the data are about the model parameters which one is trying to estimate.

In some settings it is obvious what can or cannot be estimated; in other settings it can be much less obvious.

Example: Latent periods

Consider the Markov SIR model with latent periods, say of fixed unknown length = c.

Thus when an individual is <u>infected</u>, they must wait c days until they become <u>infectious</u>.

Latent individuals are called "exposed".

Example: Latent periods

Thus we have an SEIR model where Exposed period = c time units.



Example: Latent periods

Introduce "exposure" times (= infection times) $e_1, e_2, ..., e_n$, where $e_k = i_k - c$ and define $\mathbf{e} = (e_1, e_{a-1}, e_{a+1}, ..., e_n)$.

As before, $\mathbf{r} = (r_1, r_2, ..., r_n)$ is observed. Define $\mathbf{i} = (i_1, i_2, ..., i_n)$.

The augmented likelihood is

$$\pi(\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{r} \mid \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \mathbf{e}_{a}, \mathbf{a}) = \prod_{j \neq a} \boldsymbol{\beta} N^{-1} \mathbf{I}(\mathbf{i}_{j}) \times \exp(- \boldsymbol{\beta} N^{-1} \int \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{t}) \mathbf{I}(\mathbf{t}) d\mathbf{t} \\ \times \boldsymbol{\gamma}^{n} \exp\{- \boldsymbol{\gamma} \sum (\mathbf{r}_{j} - \mathbf{i}_{j})\} \\ \times \mathbf{1}_{\{\mathbf{e}_{k} - \mathbf{i}_{k} = \mathbf{c}, \ k = 1, \dots n\}}$$

Example: Latent periods

- It is straightforward to adapt the standard MCMC algorithm to include c as an extra parameter - e.g. using M-H updates for c.
- <u>However</u> such an algorithm would be uninformative about c given removal data alone.

Example: Latent periods

Roughly speaking, for any value of c, the infection rate β would be estimated accordingly - large c means large β and small c means small β .

So although the MCMC algorithm is correct, the output would need to be carefully interpreted. Here we would see high posterior correlation between c and β.

Example: Latent periods

In practice, a better strategy would be to fix c to certain (biologically reasonable) values and then perform estimation for β and γ .

Example: Gamma infectious periods

- A common generalisation of the Markov SIR model is to have Gamma-distributed infectious periods.
- Thus each infective remains so for a period of time T_I, where

 $T_{I} \sim \Gamma(c,d), \text{ say } (c = \text{shape, } d = \text{rate}).$ Note E(T_{I}) = c / d.

Example: Gamma infectious periods

As seen earlier, the likelihood is $\pi(\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{r} \mid \beta, c, d, i_a, a) =$ $\prod_{j \neq a} \beta N^{-1} I(i_j) \times \exp(-\beta N^{-1} \int S(t)I(t) dt)$ $\times \prod_{1 \le j \le n} f(r_j - i_j \mid c, d)$

where $f(x | c,d) = x^{c-1}d^c \exp(-dx) / \Gamma(c)$ is the p.d.f. of T₁.

Example: Gamma infectious periods

- The two parameters c,d can be updated in an MCMC algorithm.
- It is not immediately obvious if it is possible to estimate both parameters separately from removal data.

One might expect $E(T_1) = c / d$ to be estimated with reasonable precision.

Example: Gamma infectious periods

This suggests it might be better to use a different parameterisation of the Gamma distribution, with mean and variance rather than shape and rate.

Example: Data for Markov SIR model

Another important aspect of estimation is the detail of the data.

For example, suppose we have observations (= removal times) in a population of N=100 susceptibles, of whom n become infected.

Clearly if n=0, no inference can be drawn.

But what if n=1? n=10? n=100?