

$$r \in \{ \frac{1}{2}, 1, 2 \}$$

$$p^s(Y)$$

Examples for amortized SBI

① robot arm \Rightarrow see earlier

② Epidemiology: SIR model L Kermack & McKendrick 1927

• compartments

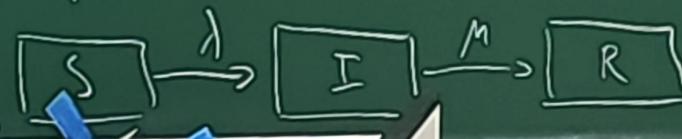
Susceptible S	people who are healthy but can get infected
Infected I	— ill and can transmit disease
Recovered R	— healthy again and now immune

in the most simple model variant

• simplifying assumptions:

- stationary dynamics: behavior of virus/bacteria and people does not change over time (no mutations, no countermeasures)
- only consider averages over all people in each compartment
 \Rightarrow all people in same compartment are considered identical
- simplest variant 3 compartments SIR $S+I+R=N$ population size

- design model:
 - a healthy individual meets on average λ_1 people per day
(assume that N is so big that λ_1 is independent of N)
 - infected people are not isolated, but meet others as usual
 \Rightarrow a fraction $\frac{I}{N}$ of the λ_1 meetings is potentially dangerous
 - a fraction λ_2 of all the dangerous meetings actually leads to transmission
 - if we observe a reduction in infection, we cannot distinguish if
people became more cautious ($\lambda_1 \downarrow$) or virus is less infectious ($\lambda_2 \downarrow$)
 \Rightarrow can only recover $\lambda = \lambda_1 \lambda_2$
 - \Rightarrow number of new infections per day: $\lambda \frac{I}{N} \cdot S$ λ : infection rate
 - nobody dies, infected people recover after δ days on average
 \Rightarrow number of people to recover per day: $\frac{\gamma}{\delta} I = \mu I$ μ : recovery rate
 - diagram



- write the dynamics as a system of ordinary differential equations (ODEs)

$$\frac{dS(t)}{dt} = -\lambda \cdot \frac{I(t)}{N} \cdot S(t) \quad \text{minus: infected people leave compartment } S$$

$$\frac{dI(t)}{dt} = \lambda \frac{I(t)}{N} S(t) - \mu I(t) \quad \text{minus: recovered leave comp. } I$$

$$\frac{dR(t)}{dt} = \mu I(t) \quad \text{immunity of } R \hat{=} \text{none leaves comp. } R$$

- can divide all equations by $N \Rightarrow [S] = \frac{s}{N}$ etc.

$$\frac{d[S(t)]}{dt} = -\lambda [I(t)] \cdot [S(t)], \frac{d[I(t)]}{dt} = \lambda [I(t)] [S(t)] - \mu [I(t)], \frac{d[R(t)]}{dt} = \mu [I(t)]$$

- adding of three equations proves correct normalization

$$\frac{d[S(t) + I(t) + R(t)]}{dt} = 0 \quad [S(t) + I(t) + R(t)] = \text{const.} \stackrel{!}{=} 1$$

- to solve equations, must define initial conditions; e.g. values at $t=0$

$I_0 = \lfloor I(t=0) \rfloor = \text{const}$ initial number of infected (when disease is first detected)

$$\lfloor R(t=0) \rfloor = 0$$

$$\lfloor S(t=0) \rfloor = 1 - I_0$$

Given I_0, λ, μ we can solve the ODEs for any time $t > 0$ by "integration"

- simplest method: Euler forward method. use discrete time steps Δt and

approximation: $\lfloor S(t+\Delta t) \rfloor = \lfloor S(t) \rfloor - \lambda \lfloor I(t) \rfloor \lfloor S(t) \rfloor \cdot \Delta t$

$$\lfloor \frac{dS}{dt} \rfloor = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\lfloor S(t+\Delta t) \rfloor - \lfloor S(t) \rfloor}{\Delta t}, \text{ now stop here at finite } \Delta t \rfloor$$

$$\lfloor I(t+\Delta t) \rfloor = \lfloor I(t) \rfloor + (\lambda \lfloor I(t) \rfloor \lfloor S(t) \rfloor - \mu \lfloor I(t) \rfloor) \Delta t$$

$$\lfloor R(t+\Delta t) \rfloor = \lfloor R(t) \rfloor + \mu \lfloor I(t) \rfloor \Delta t$$

- theory says that Euler forward is a good approximation if Δt is small enough

$$\Delta t \leq \min \left(\frac{2}{\lambda \lfloor I(t) \rfloor \lfloor S(t) \rfloor}, \frac{2}{|\lambda \lfloor I(t) \rfloor \lfloor S(t) \rfloor - \mu \lfloor I(t) \rfloor|}, \frac{2}{\mu \lfloor I(t) \rfloor} \right) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(in not 100\%)} \\ \text{sure} \end{array}$$

- more sophisticated solvers (e.g. Euler backward, Runge-Kutta methods)
allow larger time steps

- define observables X
 - report on every day number of new infections and newly recovered
 - observations are not perfect \Rightarrow observation model
 - reporting delay: $\Delta S^{\text{obs}}(t) = f(\Delta S^*(t-L))$ L : delay
 - underreporting: $\Delta S^{\text{obs}} \sim \beta \Delta S^*$ β : fraction of deleted cases
 - noise
 - exact values

$$\Delta S^*(t) = S^*(t-\Delta t) - S^*(t)$$

$$\Delta R^*(t) = R^*(t) - R^*(t-\Delta t)$$
 - measured values

$$\tilde{\Delta S}(t) = \Delta S^*(t-L) \cdot \varepsilon_S \quad \varepsilon_S \sim N(\bar{\varepsilon}, \sigma^2)$$

\hookrightarrow

relative error, because multiplication

$$\tilde{\Delta R}(t) = \Delta R^*(t-L) \cdot \varepsilon_R \quad \varepsilon_R \sim N(\bar{\varepsilon}, \sigma^2)$$

(for simplicity, we assume that observation parameters are equal for $\tilde{\Delta S}$ and $\tilde{\Delta R}$)

• full simulation: $Y = [I_0, \lambda, \mu, L, S, \sigma^2] \sim p^s(Y)$
 (for synthetic data) usually, independent prior $p^s(Y) = p^s(I_0)p^s(\lambda)p^s(\mu)p^s(L)p^s(S)p^s(\sigma^2)$

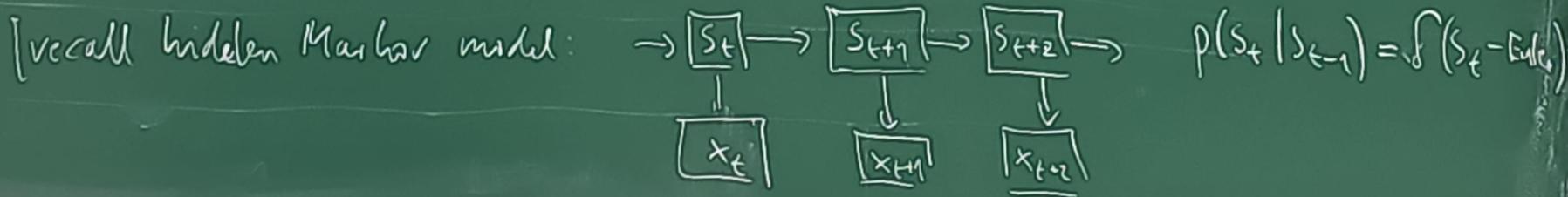
$$X = \phi(Y, \eta) \quad \text{choose according to epidemiological ODE + reporting noise prior knowledge}$$

$$\eta = [(\varepsilon_S(\Delta t), \varepsilon_R(\Delta t)), (\varepsilon_S(2\Delta t), \varepsilon_R(2\Delta t)), \dots, (\varepsilon_S(T), \varepsilon_R(T))]$$

$$X = [\Delta \hat{S}(\Delta t), \Delta \hat{R}(\Delta t), \Delta \hat{S}(2\Delta t), \Delta \hat{R}(2\Delta t), \dots, (\Delta \hat{S}(T), \Delta \hat{R}(T))]$$

N, T are hyperparameters or sampled $N \sim p^s(N), T \sim p^s(T)$

\Rightarrow run simulation to create a large TS = $\{(Y_i \sim p^s(Y), X_i = \phi(Y_i, \eta \sim p^s(\eta)))\}_{i=1}^M$



• traditional non-probabilistic parameter fitting: least squares

$$\hat{\eta} = \underset{\eta}{\operatorname{arg\min}} \mathbb{E}_{\eta \sim p^s(\eta)} [\|x^{\text{obs}} - \phi(Y, \eta)\|^2]$$

real data

$\phi(\hat{Y}, \eta)$ should reproduce

disadvantages:- non-linear least squares might get stuck in a
bad local optimum

real observations

- disregards the uncertainty and ambiguity in Y

at best, we get $\hat{Y} = \underset{Y}{\operatorname{arg\max}} p^s(Y | x^{\text{obs}})$

but not the full $p^s(Y | x^{\text{obs}})$ \nwarrow true posterior of simulation

• amortized SBI learns a generative neural network for $p(Y | x^{\text{obs}}) \approx p^s(Y | x^{\text{obs}})$
using a large TS of synthetic data ($M = 10\,000 +$)

full algorithm:

- ① define the simulation $\phi(Y, \eta)$ and priors $p^s(Y)$ and $p^s(\eta)$
- ② use simulation to generate synthetic TS
- ③ set up architecture of generative neural network

X (or $\log X$)

Summary network

$\downarrow h(x)$ learned features of X

CNF

any feature detector, for time series with varying length T

\Rightarrow Recurrent network (RNN, LSTM, transformers)

map variable length X
to fixed length $h(x)$

$\hat{p}(y|h(x)) \leftarrow$

(4) train CNF & summary network jointly using NLL loss

$$\hat{p}, \hat{h} = \underset{p, h}{\operatorname{arg\min}} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M -\log p(y_i | h(x_i)) \Rightarrow h(x) \text{ will become optimally informative for } p(y | h(x))$$

(5) validate \hat{p}, \hat{h} (check calibration, sensitivity etc.) using a synthetic test set

$\Rightarrow \hat{p}, \hat{h}$ faithfully represent the simulation posterior

(6) infer $\hat{p}(y | h(x^{obs}))$ for real data

(7) check for potential simulation gap (\Rightarrow simulation is unrealistic, "model misspecification")