

Simulation-Based Inference

An Overview for Applications in Astrophysics & Cosmology

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SBI in Galaxy Evolution 2025, University of Bristol

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27th of May 2025

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Simulation-Based Inference (SBI): Contents

1. SBI: Motivation & Background
2. Types of Simulation-Based Inference (ABC, NDE & SNDE)
3. Data Compression
4. Model Testing & Misspecification with SBI
5. Diagnosing & Testing SBI
6. Conclusion & Outlooks

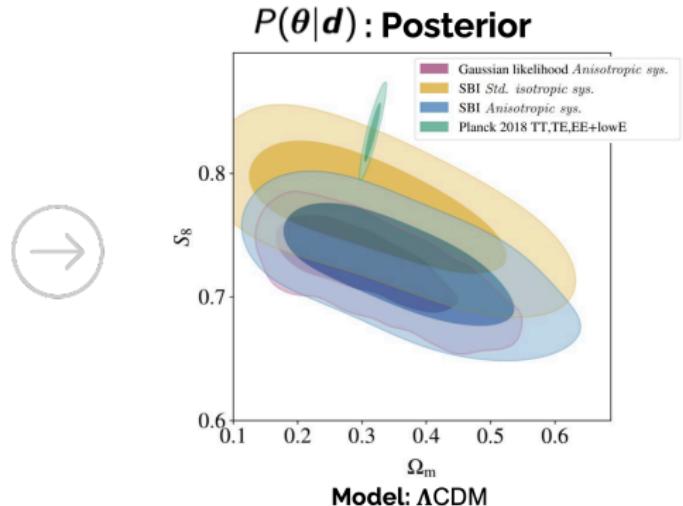
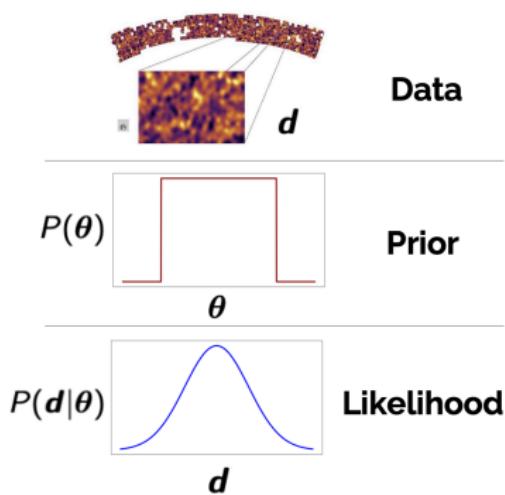
SBI: Motivation & Background

Bayesian Inference

Probability of a statement being true given an update to a prior belief and a specific model.

⇒ Bayes' Theorem:

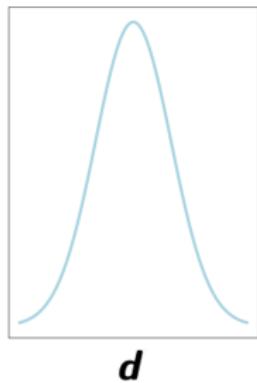
$$P(\theta | d) = \frac{P(d | \theta) P(\theta)}{P(d)} \quad (1)$$



Modelling Likelihood Distributions

Given a
model!

$P(d|\theta)$



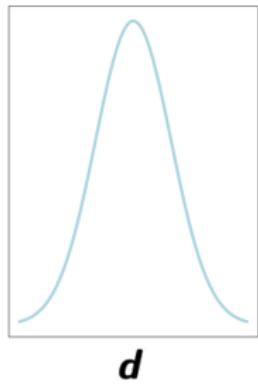
Analytic

e.g. $P(d) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{(d-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$

Modelling Likelihood Distributions

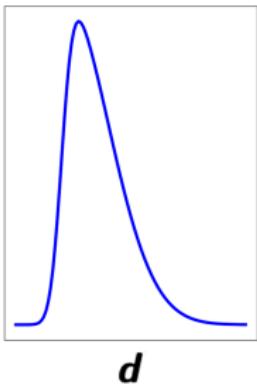
Given a model!

$$P(d|\theta)$$



Analytic

$$\text{e.g. } P(d) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{(d-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$



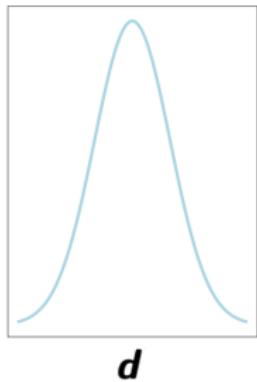
Biased

e.g. Systematics

Modelling Likelihood Distributions

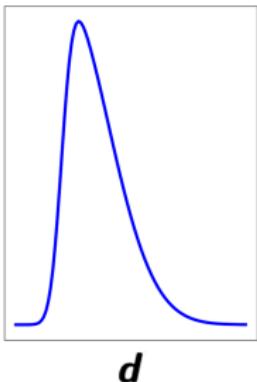
Given a model!

$$P(d|\theta)$$



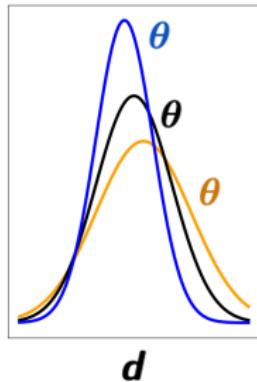
Analytic

$$\text{e.g. } P(d) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{(d-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$



Biased

e.g. Systematics



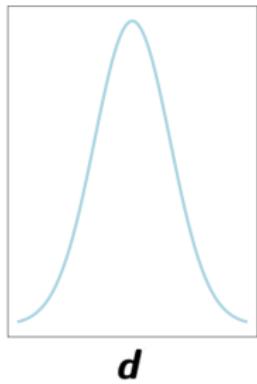
Signal-dependent uncertainty

e.g. Non-random noise

Modelling Likelihood Distributions

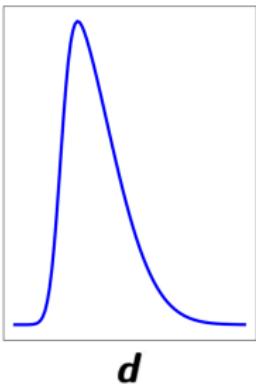
Given a model!

$$P(d|\theta)$$



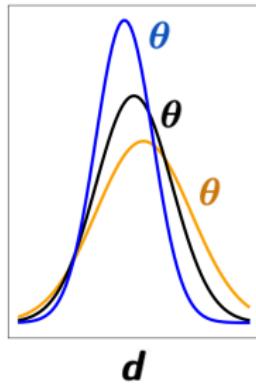
Analytic

$$\text{e.g. } P(d) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{(d-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$



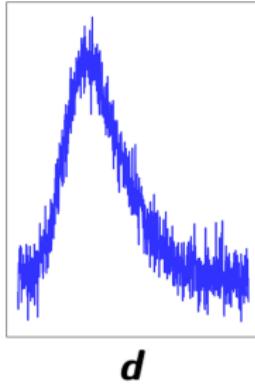
Biased

e.g. Systematics



Signal-dependent uncertainty

e.g. Non-random noise



Intractable

e.g. Many sources of uncertainty

Zooming Out: the Joint Probability

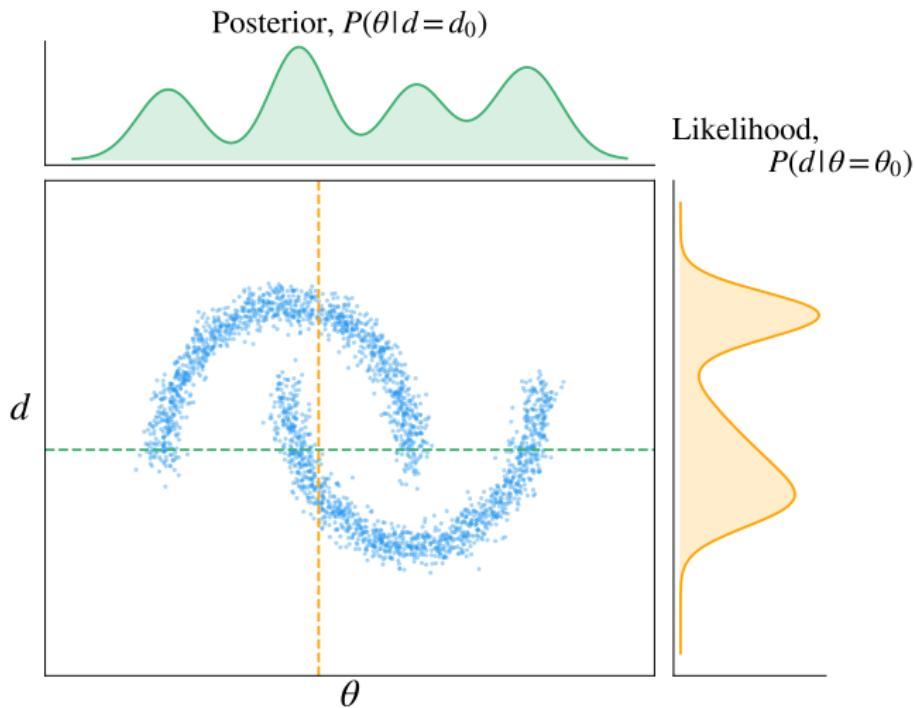
$$P(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{d}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{d} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) P(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{P(\mathbf{d})} \propto P(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{d}) P(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \quad (2)$$

Joint probability: $P(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{d} \mid \text{Model})$

Simulator: $\mathbf{d}_i \sim P(\mathbf{d} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \text{Model})$

Zooming Out: the Joint Probability

Joint probability: $P(\theta, d \mid \text{Model})$



Generalised Bayesian Inference (GBI)

Standard Bayesian inference: Derived from Boolean logic when introducing uncertainty

→ Joint probability, $P(\theta, d)$ defines everything for a given model.

Generalised Bayesian Inference: Considers the case of imperfect models → Based on Decision theory Berger (2013)

→ Finds optimal belief given an **imperfect model** and a specific goal

→ Model is characterised through a **Loss function**, $L(\theta, d)$, Bissiri et al. (2013):

$$\underbrace{P_G(\theta | d)}_{\text{Generalised Posterior}} \propto \underbrace{\exp(-\eta L(\theta, d))}_{\text{Generalised Likelihood}} \times \underbrace{P(\theta)}_{\text{Prior}}, \quad (3)$$

where η quantifies the degree of match/mismatch between the data and the model ($\eta = 1$ corresponds to standard Bayes' theorem).
 $L(\theta, d) = -\ln P(d | \theta)$ returns Bayes' theorem.

Types of SBI

Types of Simulation-Based Inference

a.k.a. Likelihood-free or implicit likelihood inference

- Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC)
- Neural Density Estimation (NDE)
 - Neural Posterior Estimation (NPE)
 - Neural Likelihood Estimation (NLE)
 - Neural Ratio Estimation (NRE)
 - Neural Posterior Score Estimation (NPSE)
- Sequential Methods

Simplest Case: Approximate Bayesian Computation

1. Draw simulations from simulator within prior space:

$$d^* \sim P(d | \theta^*); \quad \theta^* \sim P(\theta). \quad (4)$$

2. Define a distance metric between simulated data, d^* , and observed data, d_0 (e.g. Euclidean):

$$D = D(d_0, d^*). \quad (5)$$

3. Accept or reject according to arbitrary threshold, ϵ and repeat Rubin (1984):

$$\text{if } D < \epsilon, \text{ keep } \theta^*. \quad (6)$$

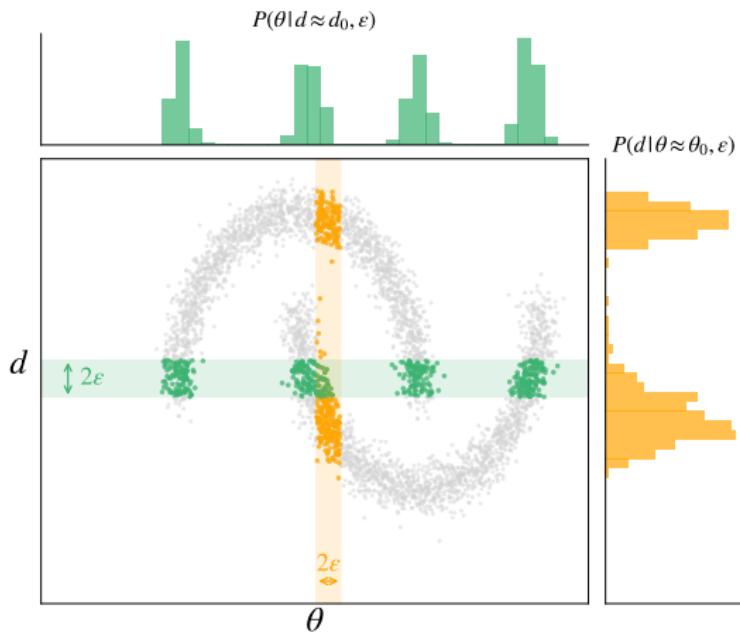
In the context of GBI, the Loss function is:

$$L(\theta, d) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } D < \epsilon, \\ \infty, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Simplest Case: Approximate Bayesian Computation

Converges given:

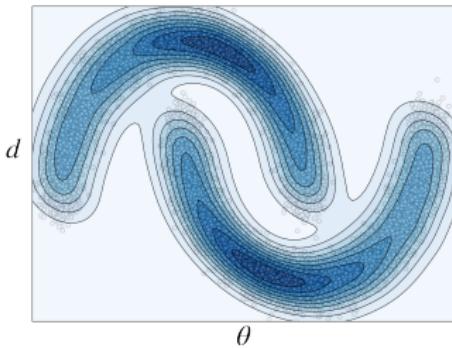
$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} P_{\text{ABC}}(\theta \mid d_0) = P(\theta \mid d_0). \quad (8)$$



Simplest Case: Approximate Bayesian Computation

- **Curse of Dimensionality:** Performance degrades significantly with the dimensionality the data vector and model.
- Requires significant **compression**.
- The results sensitive to the choice of distance metric and ϵ .
- **Inefficiency:** Large number of simulations may be rejected, especially for small ϵ .
- **Not amortised:** Reevaluation required for each new d_0 .
- **Recent applications:** e.g. galaxy morphology (Cameron and Pettitt, 2012; Tortorelli et al., 2021), diffuse X-ray background (Baxter et al., 2022), galaxy-scale strong lenses (He et al., 2022)

Neural Posterior Estimation (NPE)



$$D_{KL}(P \parallel Q) =$$

$$\sum_x P(x) \log \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$$

See Papamakarios and Murray (2016); Lueckmann et al. (2017); Greenberg et al. (2019); Cranmer et al. (2020)

1. Draw simulations:

$$d^* \sim P(d \mid \theta^*); \quad \theta^* \sim P(\theta). \quad (9)$$

2. Find an estimator of the posterior, $\hat{P}_w(\theta \mid d)$, with its weights, w , such that:

$$w^* = \arg \min_w \mathbb{E}_{P(d)} [D_{KL}(P(\theta \mid d) \parallel \hat{P}_w(\theta \mid d))], \quad (10)$$

$$w^* = \arg \max_w \mathbb{E}_{P(\theta, d)} [\ln(\hat{P}_w(\theta \mid d))]. \quad (11)$$

3. Train a neural network from this loss function:

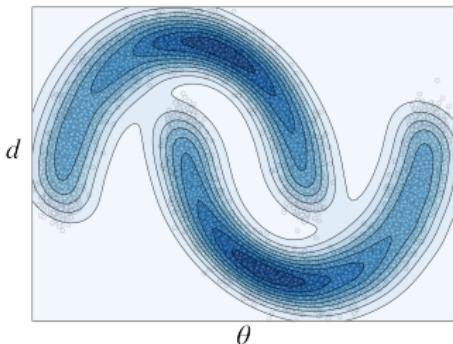
$$L(w) = -\mathbb{E}_{P(\theta, d)} [\ln(\hat{P}_w(\theta \mid d))] \quad (12)$$

4. Use network to directly sample $\hat{P}_w(\theta \mid d)$.

Neural Posterior Estimation (NPE)

- **Amortised***: Direct mapping from d to $P(\theta | d)$.
- ***Amortisation gap**: If observed data, d_0 , changes, $\hat{P}_w(\theta | d)$ may not be well characterised at new $d_0 \rightarrow$ Additional training required.
- ***Prior-dependent**: For new parameters priors, retraining is necessary.
- **Recent applications**: e.g. galaxy clustering (Lemos et al., 2023b), exoplanets (Vasist et al., 2023), gravitational waves (Leyde et al., 2024), X-ray spectra (Barret and Dupourqué, 2024), lensed quasars (Erickson et al., 2024)
- **Implemented in**: `sbi` (Tejero-Cantero et al., 2020), `lampe` (Rozet et al., 2021) and `ltu-ili` (Ho et al., 2024).

Neural Likelihood Estimation (NLE)



$$D_{KL}(P||Q) = \sum_x P(x) \log \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$$

See Papamakarios and Murray (2016); Papamakarios et al. (2017); Alsing et al. (2019); Cranmer et al. (2020); Boelts et al. (2022); Glöckler et al. (2022)

1. Draw simulations:

$$\mathbf{d}^* \sim P(\mathbf{d} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^*); \quad \boldsymbol{\theta}^* \sim P(\boldsymbol{\theta}). \quad (13)$$

2. Find an estimator of the likelihood, $\hat{P}_w(\mathbf{d} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$, with its weights, w , such that:

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \arg \min_w \mathbb{E}_{P(\mathbf{d})} [D_{KL}(P(\mathbf{d} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) || \hat{P}_w(\mathbf{d} | \boldsymbol{\theta}))], \quad (14)$$

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \arg \max_w \mathbb{E}_{P(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{d})} [\ln(\hat{P}_w(\mathbf{d} | \boldsymbol{\theta}))]. \quad (15)$$

3. Train a neural network from this loss function:

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = -\mathbb{E}_{P(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{d})} [\ln(\hat{P}_w(\mathbf{d} | \boldsymbol{\theta}))]. \quad (16)$$

4. Define priors, $P(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, and sample posterior with an MCMC.

Neural Likelihood Estimation (NLE)

- **Prior-independent:** Learnt likelihood can be reused for sampling when varying the priors.
- **Useful for model testing:** Likelihood evaluation allows for model comparison.
- **Sampling required:** Requires sampling with MCMC or other sampler to obtain posteriors.
- **Compression:** Can struggle with high-dimensional data → Requiring compression.
- **Recent applications:** e.g. weak lensing (Jeffrey et al., 2024; von Wietersheim-Kramsta et al., 2025), seismology (Saoulis et al., 2025)
- **Implemented in:** `sbi` (Tejero-Cantero et al., 2020), `delfi` (Alsing et al., 2019) and `ltu-ili` (Ho et al., 2024).

NDE: Normalising Flows

- Used for **NPE** and **NLE**, as they naturally encode the normalisation of the probability densities (Papamakarios et al., 2021).
- Learns **invertible and differentiable** transformations between any distribution and a Gaussian.
- Usually train ensembles in parallel for robustness.
- Examples: Masked Autoregressive Flows (MAF), Neural Spline Flows (NSF), etc.

Neural Ratio Estimation (NRE)

1. Typically, learn the likelihood-to-evidence:

$$r(d | \theta) = P(d | \theta) / P(d) = P(\theta | d) / P(\theta). \quad (17)$$

2. Train a neural classifier, $Q_w(d, \theta)$, to distinguish draws from:
 - The “true” joint distribution $P(d, \theta) = P(d | \theta) P(\theta)$.
 - The product of the marginal distributions $P(d) P(\theta)$.
3. When optimised, we find:

$$Q^*(d, \theta) = P(d, \theta) / [P(d, \theta) + P(d)P(\theta)]. \quad (18)$$

$$\hat{r}(d | \theta) = \frac{Q_w(d, \theta)}{1 - Q_w(d, \theta)} \approx \frac{P(d | \theta)}{P(d)}. \quad (19)$$

4. Sample posterior from $P(\theta | d_0) \propto \hat{r}(d_0 | \theta) P(\theta)$.

See Hermans et al. (2019); Cranmer et al. (2020); Durkan et al. (2020); Delaunoy et al. (2022); Miller et al. (2022)

Neural Likelihood Estimation (NLE)

- **Robust ratio estimates:** Useful to directly compute likelihood ratios for model testing.
- **Scalability:** Can scale well in high-dimensional parameter spaces, e.g. Truncated Marginal Neural Ratio Estimation (TMNRE).
- **Density-Chasm problem:** joint distribution and marginal distributions may have little overlap in high dimensions.
- **Recent applications:** e.g. CMB (Cole et al., 2022), strong lensing (Anau Montel et al., 2023; Filipp et al., 2024), pulsars (Berteaud et al., 2024), supernova cosmology (Karchev and Trotta, 2024)
- **Implemented in:** `sbi` (Tejero-Cantero et al., 2020), `swyft` (Miller et al., 2022) and `ltu-ili` (Ho et al., 2024).

Neural Posterior Score Estimation (NPSE)

1. Directly estimates the score of the posterior (or likelihood):

$$s(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{d}) = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \ln P(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{d}). \quad (20)$$

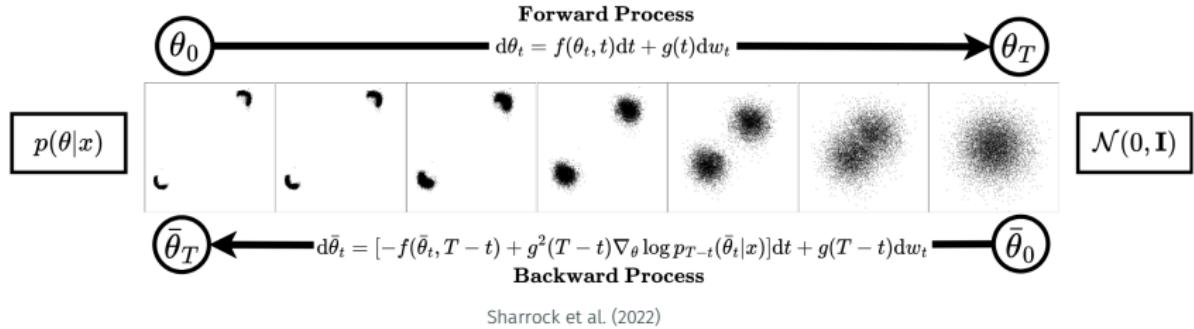
2. “Forward” noising process perturbs samples from the target distribution with noise.
3. A network, $s_w(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{d}, t)$, is trained to estimate the score of the distributions at different noise levels, t (e.g. with denoising score matching), such that:

$$s_w(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{d}_0, t) \approx \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \ln P_t(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{d}_0). \quad (21)$$

4. Sample posterior by either inverting the network or using Langevin MCMC.

See Hyvärinen and Dayan (2005); Sharrock et al. (2022)

Neural Posterior Score Estimation (NPSE)

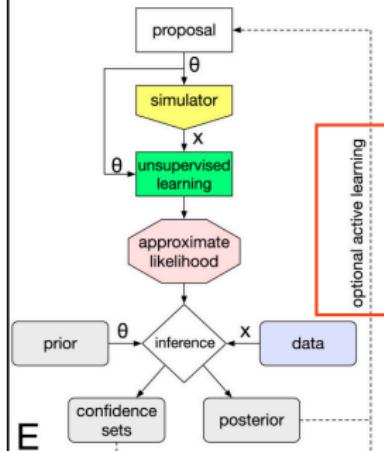


Sharrock et al. (2022)

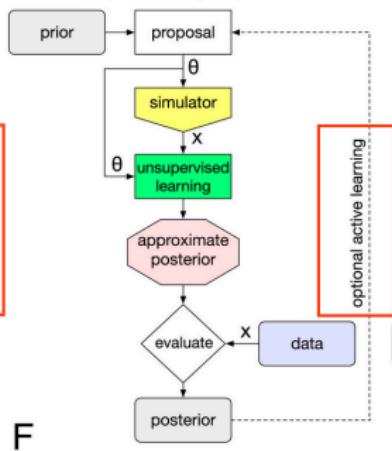
- **Flexible** network architecture, without normalisation requirements (e.g. diffusion models).
- Should scale well to **high-dimensional** data/parameter spaces.
- Naturally incorporates **gradients**.
- Still untested in many contexts.

Sequential SBI and Active Learning

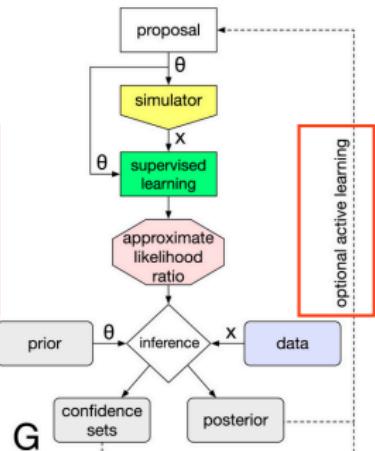
Amortized likelihood



Amortized posterior



Amortized likelihood ratio



E

F

G

Cranmer et al. (2020)

Sequential SBI and Active Learning

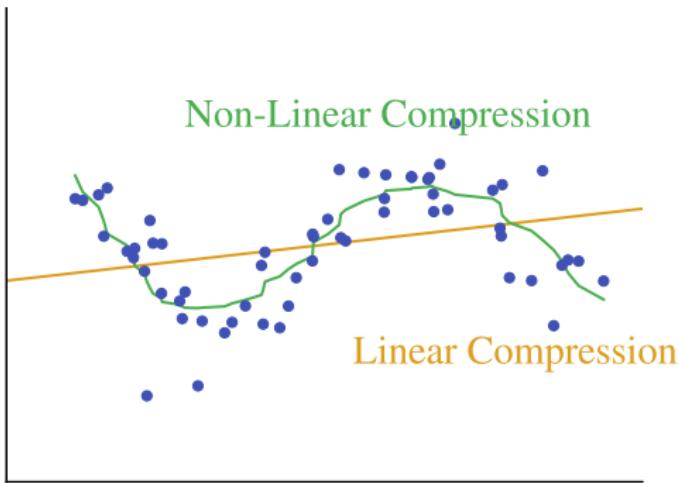
1. Draw initial simulations, (θ_i, d_i) .
2. Train initial density estimate $\hat{P}_{W^{(1)}}(\theta | x)$ or $\hat{P}_{W^{(1)}}(d | \theta)$.
3. For subsequent rounds $r > 1$, construct a proposal distribution, $\tilde{P}^{(r)}(\theta)$; e.g., $\tilde{P}^{(r)}(\theta) \propto \hat{P}_{W^{(r-1)}}(\theta | d_0)$.
4. Draw new simulations with $\theta_j \sim \tilde{P}^{(r)}(\theta)$ and $d_j \sim P(d | \theta_j)$.
5. Retrain the density estimator using all accumulated simulations.

Data Compression

Data Compression: Linear Compression

- **Principal Component Analysis (PCA):** Projects data onto principal components capturing maximal variance (e.g. Barret and Dupourqué 2024).
- **Score Compression:** Utilizes the score function (gradient of the log-likelihood with respect to parameters, $\nabla_{\theta} \ln P(\mathbf{d} | \theta)$), for compression. Can be lossless in Fisher information (Alsing and Wandelt, 2018).
- **MOPED and e-MOPED:** Lossless compression in Fisher information under Gaussian likelihood assumption (Heavens et al., 2000).
- **Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA):** Finds linear combinations of two sets of model parameters, θ , and data, d , that are maximally correlated (e.g. Park et al. 2025).

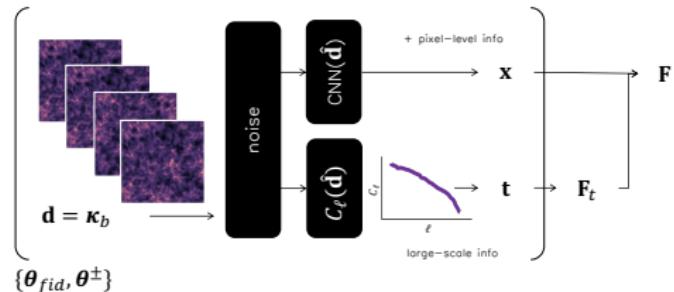
Data Compression: Linear vs. Non-Linear Compression



- **Linear methods** may lose non-Gaussian and non-linear information. Sometimes also require an analytic likelihood.
- **Non-linear methods** can address this, but can come at the expense of efficiency and interpretability.

Data Compression: Non-Linear Compression

- **Deep Auto-Encoders:** Unsupervised neural networks consisting of an encoder that maps data to a lower dimensional space.
- **Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN):** Type of encoder that involves filter/kernel optimization (e.g. Lemos et al. 2023b; Jeffrey et al. 2024).
- **Information-Maximising Neural Networks:** Compress with neural networks which find non-linear summary statistics that explicitly maximising the Fisher information (e.g. Charnock et al. 2018; Makinen et al. 2025).



Model Testing & Misspecification with SBI

Bayesian Model Testing

For a given model, \mathcal{M} , and observed data, d , the Bayesian evidence, $P(d | \mathcal{M})$, is defined as :

$$P(d | \mathcal{M}) = \int P(d | \theta, \mathcal{M}) P(\theta | \mathcal{M}) d\theta. \quad (22)$$

When comparing two models, \mathcal{M}_1 and \mathcal{M}_2 , one may define the Bayes factor:

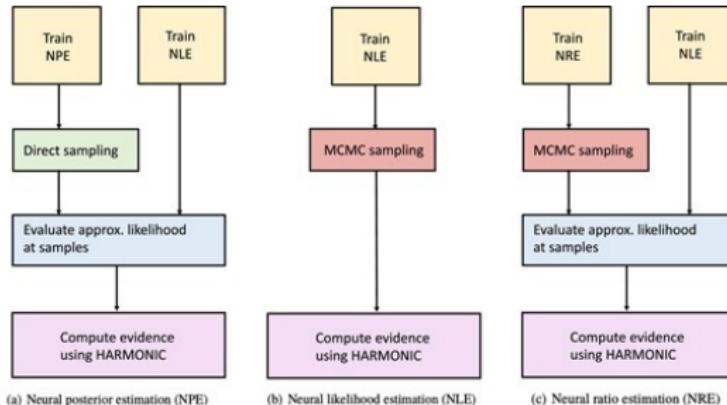
$$B_{12} = \frac{P(d | \mathcal{M}_1)}{P(d | \mathcal{M}_2)}. \quad (23)$$

→ Ratio of posterior odds to prior odds of the two models and provides a measure of the evidence in favor of \mathcal{M}_1 over \mathcal{M}_2 .

Naturally incorporates Occam's razor: overly complex models are disfavoured.

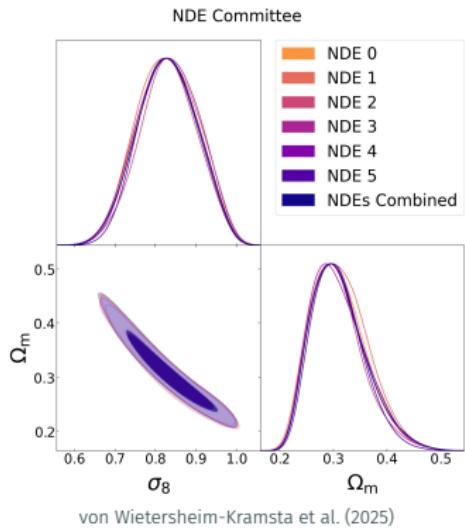
Bayesian Model Testing with SBI

- **NLE-based:** Integrate the learnt likelihood.
- **NLE/NPE or NRE:** If all are available, can compute $\hat{P}(d|\mathcal{M}) \approx \frac{\hat{P}_{w'}(d|\theta_0, \mathcal{M}) P(\theta_0|\mathcal{M})}{\hat{P}_w(\theta_0|d, \mathcal{M})}$ (Spurio Mancini et al., 2023).
- **floZ:** Training a normalising flow directly on the evidence (Srinivasan et al., 2024).
- **Classifier-based:** Train classifier to distinguish $d \sim \mathcal{M}_1$ from $d \sim \mathcal{M}_2$ (e.g. Jeffrey and Wandelt 2024).



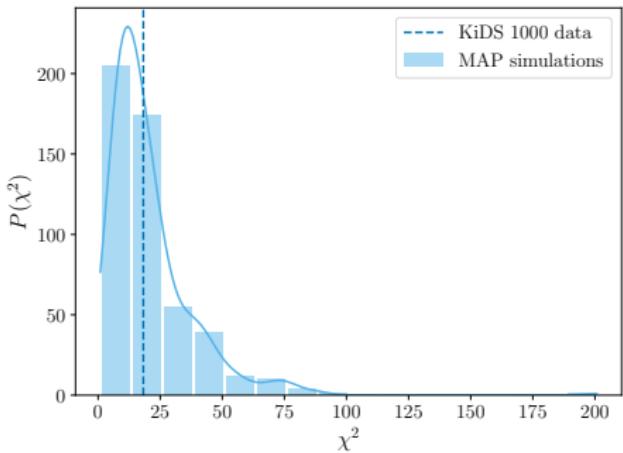
Model Misspecification in SBI

- Model misspecification can cause **biased posterior estimates** despite a self-consistent SBI.
- **Excessive extrapolation:** If the observed data is out-of-distribution (OOD), the trained NNs are no longer describing the correct probability distribution.
- **Mitigation:**
 - GBI framing
 - Error modelling within NDE (Huang et al., 2023; Kelly et al., 2025)
 - Ensembling

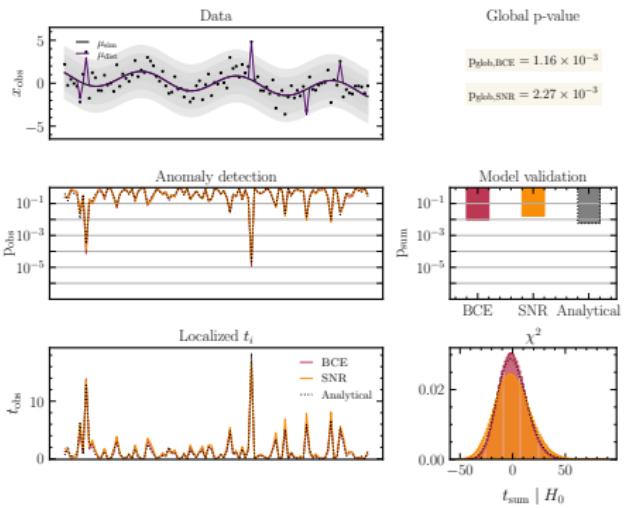


Diagnosing & Testing SBI

Testing for OOD: Goodness-of-Fit Tests

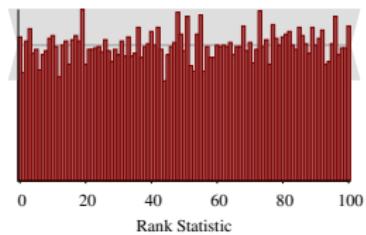


GoF measure under Gaussian likelihood assumption (von Wietersheim-Kramsta et al., 2025)

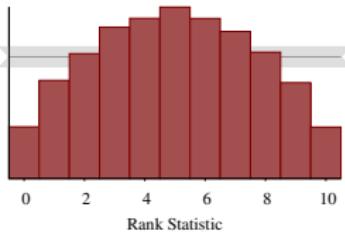


Posterior predictive tests (Anau Montel et al., 2025)

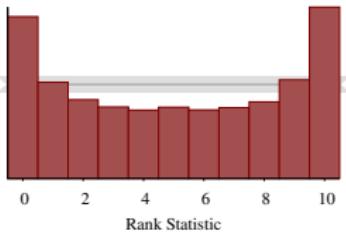
Consistency between SBI & Simulator: Simulation-Based Calibration



Accurate posterior



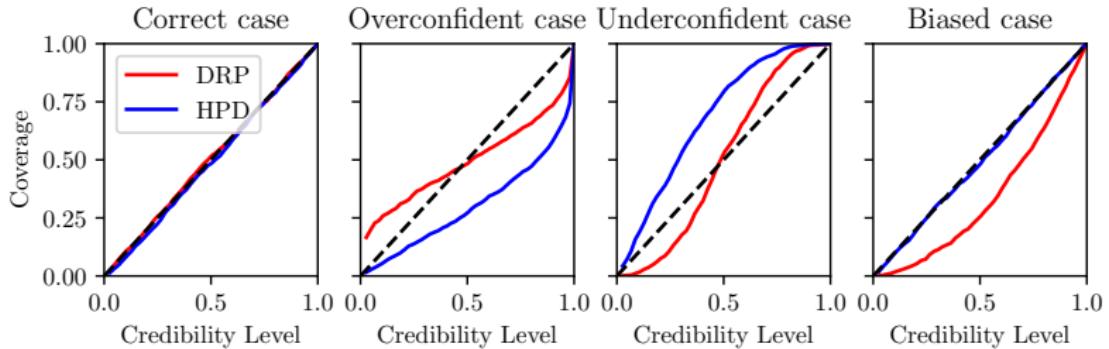
Learnt posterior too wide



Learnt posterior too narrow

Simulation-Based Calibration (Talts et al., 2018)

Consistency between SBI & Simulator: Coverage/TARP



Coverage tests/TARP (Deistler et al., 2022; Lemos et al., 2023a)

Conclusion & Outlooks

Outlooks

- SBI is a powerful method allowing for increasingly complex modelling.
 - Some **caveats** → Extensive testing and validation required.
 - Still limited by computational resources, particularly, with higher dimensional data.
-
- **Future avenues:**
 - Neural Posterior Score Estimation (NPSE)
 - Transfer Learning to combine constraints
 - Training with multifidelity simulators (Krouglova et al., 2025)
 - **Exenstive applications:** large datasets from surveys, simulations and high-resolution imaging.

Questions?

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