

Análise Estatística de Simuladores

Lecture 4: Calibration

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The University of
Nottingham

This lecture is all about calibration.

1 Calibration

- What, why, when
- Approaches

2 The concept of model error

- Kennedy and O'Hagan 2001 framework,
- Toy example: freefall

3 Example: UVic climate model

Calibration

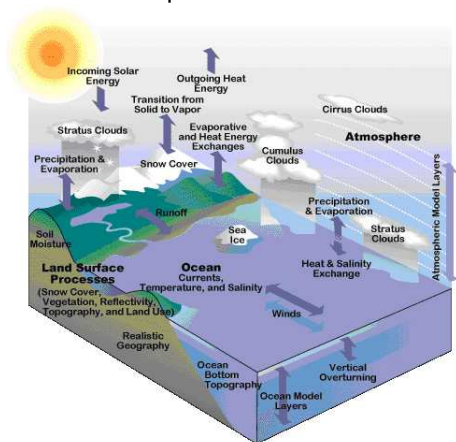
Calibration

Inverse problems

For forwards models we specify parameters θ and i.c.s and the model generates output \mathcal{D}_{sim} . Usually, we are interested in the inverse-problem, i.e., observe data \mathcal{D}_{field} , want to estimate parameter values.

Different terminology:

- Calibration
- Parameter estimation
- Inverse-problem
- Bayesian inference



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- 1 Scientific knowledge captured by the model, η
- 2 Empirical information contained in the data, \mathcal{D}_{field}
- 3 Expert opinion based upon experience.

We want to combine all three sources to produce the 'best' parameter estimates we can.

Calibration - why?

In physical experiments nature controls all the model parameters.

- e.g., if we drop a ball of the leaning tower of Piza, we do not have to specify what acceleration due to gravity is, nature sets $g = 9.81\text{ms}^{-2}$ for us.

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- It is only if we run the model at a 'true' (or optimal) value $\hat{\theta}$ that we will predict the behaviour of the physical system being modelled.
- For example, if we model an object falling from the tower of Piza, but use $g = 1\text{ms}^{-2}$ in our computer model, we will produce very poor predictions.

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We may wish to calibrate if we want to

- Predict future behaviour
- Find physical values of unknown parameters
- Reduce and estimate the appropriate degree of uncertainty about our predictions

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$$\mathcal{D}_{field} = \eta(\hat{\theta}) + e$$

where $e \sim N(0, \sigma_{obs}^2)$ then

$$\pi(D|\hat{\theta}) = \prod_i \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_{obs}^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(D_i - \eta_i(\hat{\theta}))^2}{2}\right)$$

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③ General ad hoc approaches

- For example, choosing θ to minimize the sum of squares difference between the data and the model prediction, i.e., minimize

$$S = \sum_i (D_i - \eta_i(\hat{\theta}))^2$$

or some other measure.

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 - Even unknown function will be described by probability distributions across a class of unknown functions
- Bayesian approach uses the principle of conditionality, and always (where possible) conditions on our data.

Bayesian Inference

The basics of Bayesian inference are very simple.

- If quantity θ is unknown we describe our uncertainty by prior distribution $\pi(\theta)$.
- Suppose we have data D from model $\pi(D|\theta)$
- Then conditional on observing this data, our posterior distribution is

$$\pi(\theta|D) = \frac{\pi(\theta)\pi(D|\theta)}{\pi(D)}$$

In general we just use the relationship

$$\text{posterior} \propto \text{prior} \times \text{likelihood (model)}$$

Given a model and prior the entire Bayesian statistical approach is fully specified. In practice, computational difficulties make life difficult, and we must resort to Monte Carlo methods.

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- and perhaps a credibility interval. For example, the two-tailed 95% highest probability credibility interval is defined by the two end points

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- i.e., there is 95% posterior probability that $\theta \in [\theta_l, \theta_u]$ with θ_{MAP} the most likely value.

Model error

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This type of calibration is assuming a **perfect model hypothesis** - i.e., that our model is capable of exactly reproducing reality.

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When can we interpret the value found for θ as a physical value?

- If the model is a perfect representation of the system
- When the model is imperfect, but we have a description (that we believe) of the discrepancy between model and system.

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- solving the inverse problem $y = \eta(\theta) + e$ may not give sensible results.
 - e is measurement error
 - $\eta(\theta)$ is our computer model
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- If the model is imperfect, the residuals $D - \eta(\theta)$ will be correlated, even if the real measurement error process is iid.

Can we

- account for the error?
- correct the error?

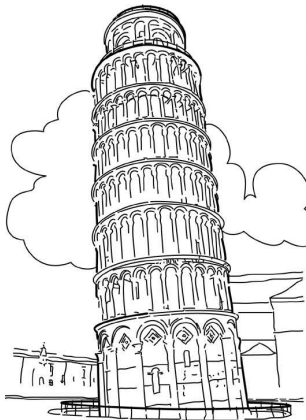
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Kennedy and O'Hagan (2001) suggested we introduce reality ζ into our statistical inference

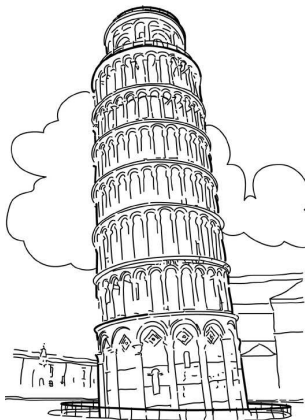
- Reality $\zeta = \eta(\hat{\theta}) + \delta$, the best model prediction plus model error $\delta(x)$.
- Data $y = \zeta + e$ where e represents measurement error

Toy Example: Freefall



Consider an experiment where we drop a weight from a tower and measure its position x_t every Δt seconds.

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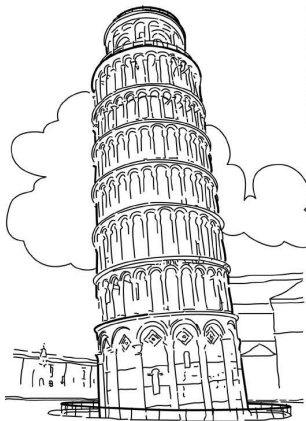


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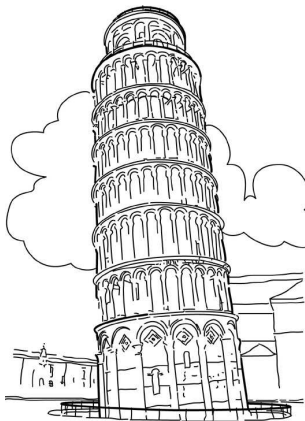
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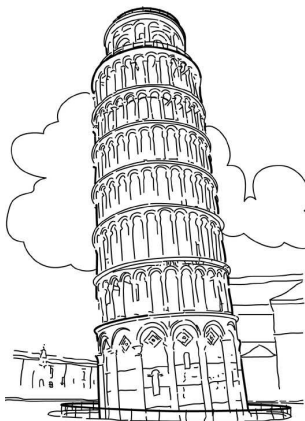


Assume that the 'true' dynamics (reality) are given by

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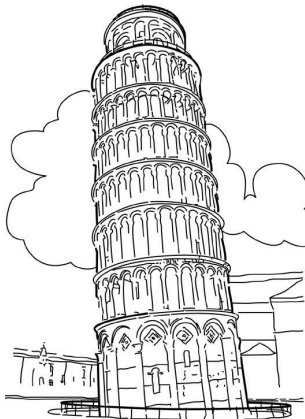
This gives single time step updates

$$\begin{aligned}x_{t+1} &= \zeta_x(x_t, v_t) \\&= x_t + \frac{1}{k} \left(\frac{g}{k} - v_t \right) (e^{-k\Delta t} - 1) + \frac{g\Delta t}{k} \\v_{t+1} &= \zeta_v(x_t, v_t) \\&= \left(v_t - \frac{g}{k} \right) e^{-k\Delta t} + \frac{g}{k}\end{aligned}$$

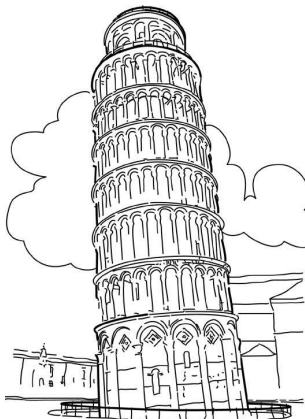
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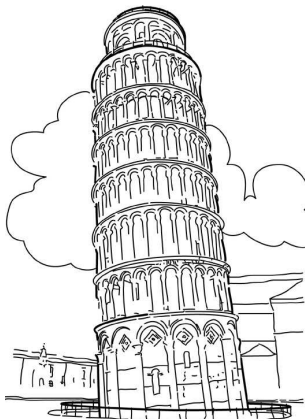
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Because we have ignored air-resistance in our model, we have model error!

Model Error Term

In this toy problem, the true discrepancy function can be calculated.

- It is a two dimensional function

$$\delta = \begin{pmatrix} \delta_x \\ \delta_v \end{pmatrix} = \zeta - \eta$$

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$$\delta(x, v, t) = \begin{pmatrix} \delta_x \\ \delta_v \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{-gk(\Delta t)^2}{2} \end{pmatrix} - v_t \begin{pmatrix} \frac{k(\Delta t)^2}{2} \\ k\Delta t(1 - \frac{k\Delta t}{2}) \end{pmatrix}$$

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This is solely a function of v .

- Note, to learn δ we only have the observations D_1, \dots, D_T of x_1, \dots, x_T - we do not observe v .

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However, the principal of universality says that nature is consistent throughout all space and time (background independence), so with a little thought we might reason that δ should be independent of x and t .

We could use something very flexible and generic, such as a Gaussian process (which can fit any functional form)

$$\delta(x, v, t) \sim GP(m(v), \sigma^2 c(v, v'))$$

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- See Wilkinson and Oakley 2010 for a method to estimate a functional form for δ .

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Note δ does not depend on θ .

- Argue that $\eta(\cdot, \hat{\theta})$ and $\delta(\cdot)$ are independent. Kennedy and O'Hagan 2001 use Gaussian processes to model both the model η and the error δ .

Calibrating the UVic Climate Model

Example: UVic Earth System Climate Model

With Nathan Urban (Penn State)

UVic ESCM is an intermediate complexity model with a general circulation ocean and dynamic/thermodynamic sea-ice components coupled to a simple energy/moisture balance atmosphere. It has a dynamic vegetation and terrestrial carbon cycle model (TRIFFID) as well as an inorganic carbon cycle.

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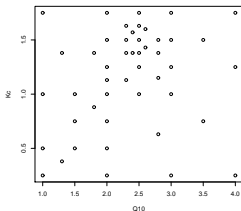
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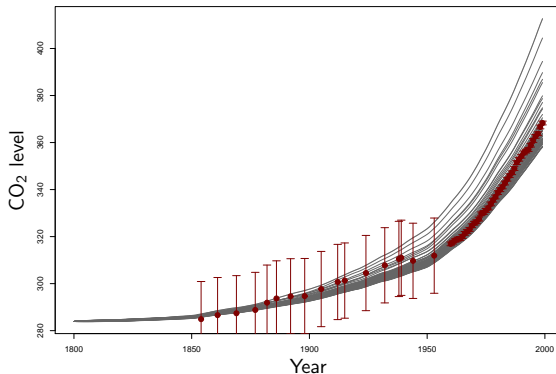
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- Output: time-series of CO_2 values, cumulative carbon flux measurements, ...
- 48 member ensemble, grid design D , output \mathcal{D}_{sim} ($48 \times n$).



The U.Vic Model

- 60 field measurements, \mathcal{D}_{field} :
 - 40 instrumental CO₂ measurements from 1960-1999
 - 17 ice core CO₂ measurements
 - 3 cumulative ocean carbon flux measurements



Multivariate Models

Wilkinson 2010

The output from UVic is a temporal spatial field of predicted CO₂ values. To emulate this we need an extension of the univariate GP method produced previously.

Multivariate Models

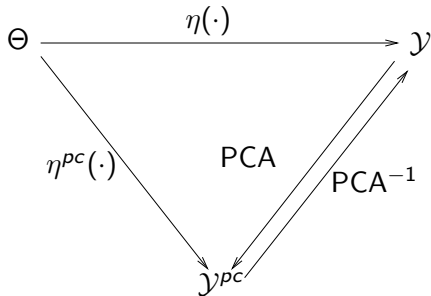
Wilkinson 2010

The output from UVic is a temporal spatial field of predicted CO2 values. To emulate this we need an extension of the univariate GP method produced previously. If model outputs are highly correlated we can reduce the dimension of the output by projecting the data onto some lower dimensional manifold \mathcal{Y}^{pc} .

Multivariate Models

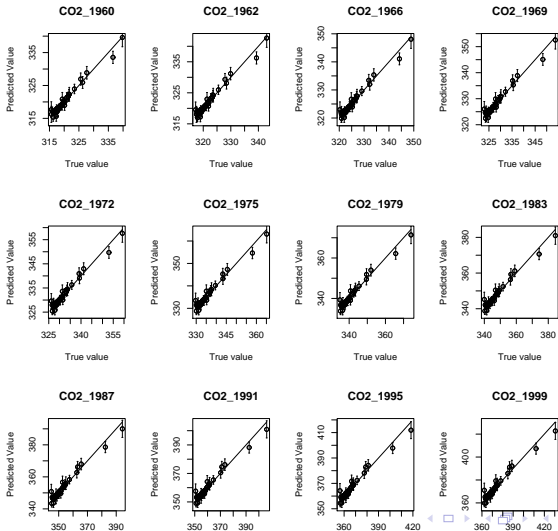
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The output from UVic is a temporal spatial field of predicted CO2 values. To emulate this we need an extension of the univariate GP method produced previously. If model outputs are highly correlated we can reduce the dimension of the output by projecting the data onto some lower dimensional manifold \mathcal{Y}^{pc} . We can then emulate the function that maps the input space Θ to the reduced dimensional output space \mathcal{Y}^{pc} .



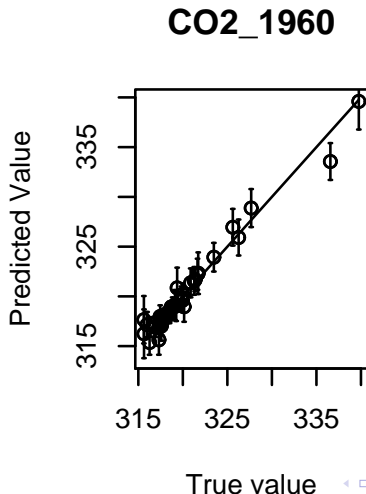
Emulator Diagnostics

Cross-validation plots, instrumental data only (1960:1999), using 3PCs (99.2% of variance explained)



Emulator Diagnostics

Cross-validation plots, instrumental data only (1960), using 3PCs (99.2% of variance explained)

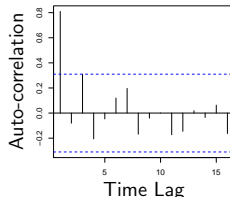


UVic Model Discrepancy

The calibration framework used is:

$$\mathcal{D}_{field}(t) = \eta(\theta, t) + \delta(t) + e(t)$$

The model predicts the underlying trend, but real climate fluctuates around this. We model



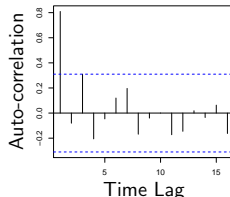
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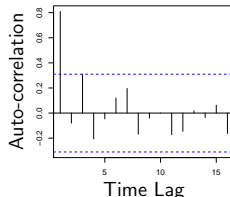
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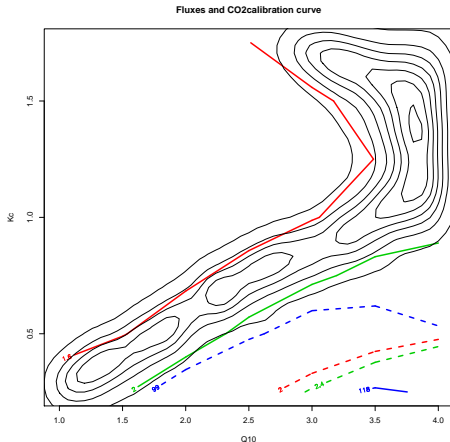
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- discrepancy as an AR1 process: $\delta(0) \sim N(0, \sigma_\delta^2)$, and $\delta(t) = \rho\delta(t-1) + N(0, \sigma_\delta^2)$.
- Measurement error as heteroscedastic independent random noise $e(t) \sim N(0, \lambda(t))$.



Results

After several hours of MCMC (Metropolis-within-Gibbs - see lecture 6) we find



The data are equally well explained by a range of parameter values.

- Calibration is the process of estimating parameters from empirical observations
- The Bayesian approach is ideal for measuring and summarizing any uncertainties.
- When calibrating models it is important to account for the existence of model error
 - we need a statistical relationship between the computer simulator output and the physical system.
- Accounting for model error is a relatively new idea in statistics. See Goldstein *et al.* 2009, Beven 2006, and Poole *et al.* 2000, for a selection of other approaches to calibration and model error.

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- MUCM toolkit, available at <http://mucm.aston.ac.uk/MUCM/MUCMToolkit/>