

# CalibrateEmulateSample.jl: Accelerated Parametric Uncertainty Quantification

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## Summary

A Julia language ([Bezanson et al., 2017](#)) package providing practical and modular implementation of “Calibrate, Emulate, Sample” ([Cleary et al., 2021](#)), hereafter CES, an accelerated workflow for obtaining model parametric uncertainty is presented. This is also known as Bayesian inversion or uncertainty quantification. To apply CES one requires a computer model (written in any programming language) dependent on free parameters, a prior distribution encoding some prior knowledge about the distribution over the free parameters, and some data with which to constrain this prior distribution. The pipeline has three stages, most easily explained in reverse:

1. The goal of the workflow is to draw samples (Sample) from the Bayesian posterior distribution, that is, the prior distribution conditioned on the observed data,
2. To accelerate and regularize sampling we train statistical emulators to represent the user-provided parameter-to-data map (Emulate),
3. The training points for these emulators are generated by the computer model, and selected adaptively around regions of high posterior mass (Calibrate).

We describe CES as an accelerated workflow, as it is often able to use dramatically fewer evaluations of the computer model when compared with applying sampling algorithms, such as Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC), directly.

- Calibration tools: We recommend choosing adaptive training points with Ensemble Kalman methods such as EKI ([Iglesias et al., 2013](#)) and its variants ([Huang et al., 2022](#)); and CES provides explicit utilities from the codebase EnsembleKalmanProcesses.jl ([Dunbar, Lopez-Gomez, et al., 2022](#)).
- Emulation tools: CES integrates any statistical emulator, currently implemented are Gaussian Processes (GP) ([Williams & Rasmussen, 2006](#)), explicitly provided through packages SciKitLearn.jl ([Pedregosa et al., 2011](#)) and GaussianProcesses.jl ([Fairbrother et al., 2022](#)), and Random Features ([Liu et al., 2022](#); [Rahimi et al., 2007](#); [Rahimi & Recht, 2008](#)), explicitly provided through [RandomFeatures.jl](#) that can provide additional flexibility and scalability, particularly in higher dimensions.
- Sampling tools: The regularized and accelerated sampling problem is solved with MCMC, and CES provides the variants of Random Walk Metropolis ([Metropolis et al., 1953](#); [Sherlock et al., 2010](#)), and preconditioned Crank-Nicholson ([Cotter et al., 2013](#)), using APIs from [Turing.jl](#). Some regular emulator mean functions are differentiable, and including accelerations of derivative-based MCMC into CES, (e.g., NUTS, [Hoffman et](#)

44 [al., 2014](#); Barker, [Livingstone & Zanella, 2022](#)); is an active direction of work.

45 To highlight code accessibility, we also provide a suite of detailed scientifically-inspired examples,  
46 with documentation that walks users through some use cases. Such use cases not only  
47 demonstrate the capability of the CES pipeline, but also teach users about typical interface  
48 and workflow experience.

## 49 Statement of need

50 Computationally expensive computer codes for predictive modelling are ubiquitous across  
51 science and engineering disciplines. Free parameter values that exist within these modelling  
52 frameworks are typically constrained by observations to produce accurate and robust predictions  
53 about the system they are approximating numerically. In a Bayesian setting, this is viewed  
54 as evolving an initial parameter distribution (based on prior information) with the input of  
55 observed data, to a more informative data-consistent distribution (posterior). Unfortunately,  
56 this task is intensely computationally expensive, commonly requiring over  $10^5$  evaluations of  
57 the expensive computer code (e.g., Random Walk Metropolis), with accelerations relying on  
58 intrusive model information, such as a derivative of the parameter-to-data map. CES is able  
59 to approximate and accelerate this process in a non-intrusive fashion and requiring only on the  
60 order of  $10^2$  evaluations of the original computer model. This opens the doors for quantifying  
61 parametric uncertainty for a class of numerically intensive computer codes that has previously  
62 been unavailable.

## 63 State of the field

64 In Julia there are a few tools for performing non-accelerated uncertainty quantification, from  
65 classical sensitivity analysis approaches, for example, [UncertaintyQuantification.jl](#), GlobalSen-  
66 sitivity.jl ([Dixit & Rackauckas, 2022](#)), and MCMC, for example, [Mamba.jl](#) or [Turing.jl](#). For  
67 computational efficiency, ensemble methods also provide approximate sampling, ([Dunbar,](#)  
68 [Lopez-Gomez, et al., 2022](#); e.g., the Ensemble Kalman Sampler [Garbuno-Inigo et al., 2020](#)),  
69 though these only provide Gaussian approximations of the posterior.

70 Accelerated uncertainty quantification tools also exist for the related approach of Approximate  
71 Bayesian Computation (ABC), for example, GpABC ([Tankhilevich et al., 2020](#)) or [Approx-](#)  
72 [Bayes.jl](#); these tools both approximately sample from the posterior distribution. In ABC, this  
73 approximation comes from bypassing the likelihood that is usually required in sampling methods,  
74 such as MCMC. Instead, the goal of ABC is to replace the likelihood with a scalar-valued  
75 sampling objective that compares model and data. In CES, the approximation comes from  
76 learning the parameter-to-data map, then following this it calculates an explicit likelihood and  
77 uses exact sampling via MCMC. Some ABC algorithms also make use of statistical emulators  
78 to further accelerate sampling (GpABC). Although flexible, ABC encounters challenges due to  
79 the subjectivity of summary statistics and distance metrics, that may lead to approximation  
80 errors particularly in high-dimensional settings ([Nott et al., 2018](#)). CES is more restrictive due  
81 to use of an explicit Gaussian likelihood, but also leverages this structure to deal with high  
82 dimensional data.

83 Several other tools are available in other languages for a purpose of accelerated learning of the  
84 posterior distribution or posterior sampling. Two such examples, written in Python, approximate  
85 the log-posterior distribution directly with a Gaussian process: [PyVBMC](#) ([Huggins et al., 2023](#))  
86 additionally uses variational approximations to calculate the normalization constant, and [GPry](#)  
87 ([Gammal et al., 2023](#)), which iteratively trains the GP with an active training point selection  
88 algorithm. Such algorithms are distinct from CES, which approximates the parameter-to-data  
89 map with the Gaussian process, and advocates ensemble Kalman methods to select training  
90 points.

## 91 A simple example from the code documentation

92 We sketch an end-to-end example of the pipeline, with fully-detailed walkthrough given in the  
93 online documentation.

94 We have a model of a sinusoidal signal that is a function of parameters  $\theta = (A, v)$ , where  $A$   
95 is the amplitude of the signal and  $v$  is vertical shift of the signal

$$f(A, v) = A \sin(\phi + t) + v, \forall t \in [0, 2\pi].$$

96 Here,  $\phi$  is the random phase of each signal. The goal is to estimate not just point estimates  
97 of the parameters  $\theta = (A, v)$ , but entire probability distributions of them, given some noisy  
98 observations. We will use the range and mean of a signal as our observable:

$$G(\theta) = [\text{range}(f(\theta)), \text{mean}(f(\theta))]$$

99 Then, our noisy observations,  $y_{obs}$ , can be written as:

$$y_{obs} = G(\theta^\dagger) + \mathcal{N}(0, \Gamma)$$

100 where  $\Gamma$  is the observational covariance matrix. We will assume the noise to be independent  
101 for each observable, giving us a diagonal covariance matrix.

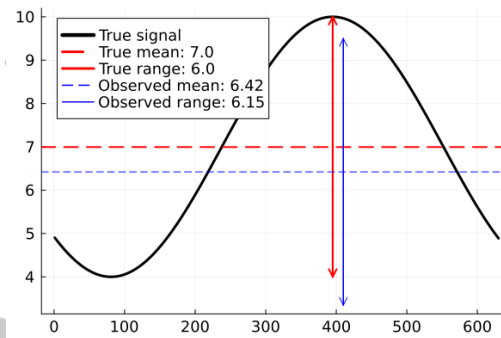


Figure 1: The true and observed range and mean.

102 For this experiment  $\theta^\dagger = (A^\dagger, v^\dagger) = (3.0, 7.0)$ , and the noisy observations are displayed in  
103 blue in Figure 1.

104 We define prior distributions on the two parameters. For the amplitude, we define a prior with  
105 mean 2 and standard deviation 1. It is additionally constrained to be nonnegative. For the  
106 vertical shift we define a prior with mean 0 and standard deviation 5.

```
const PD = CalibrateEmulateSample.ParameterDistributions
prior_u1 = PD.constrained_gaussian("amplitude", 2, 1, 0, Inf)
prior_u2 = PD.constrained_gaussian("vert_shift", 0, 5, -Inf, Inf)
prior = PD.combine_distributions([prior_u1, prior_u2])
```

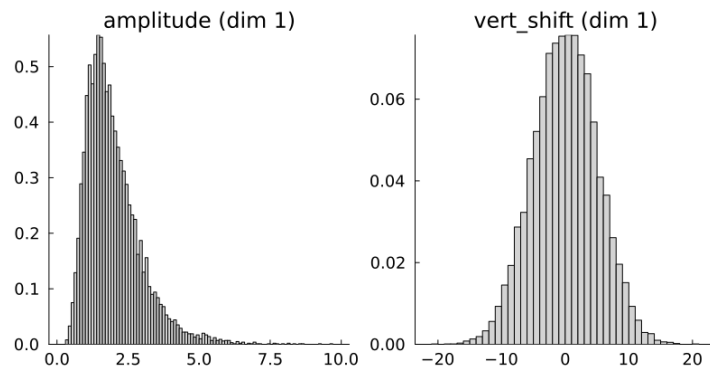


Figure 2: Marginal distributions of the prior

107 The prior is displayed in Figure 2.

108 We now adaptively find input-output pairs from our map  $G$  in a region of interest using an  
109 inversion method (an ensemble Kalman process). This is the Calibrate stage, and iteratively  
110 generates parameter combinations, that refine around a region of high posterior mass.

```
const EKP = CalibrateEmulateSample.EnsembleKalmanProcesses
N_ensemble = 10
N_iterations = 5
initial_ensemble = EKP.construct_initial_ensemble(prior, N_ensemble)
ensemble_kalman_process = EKP.EnsembleKalmanProcess(
    initial_ensemble, y_obs, Γ, EKP.Inversion();
)
for i in 1:N_iterations
    params_i = EKP.get_phi_final(prior, ensemble_kalman_process)
    G_ens = hcat([G(params_i[:, i]) for i in 1:N_ensemble]...)
    EKP.update_ensemble!(ensemble_kalman_process, G_ens)
end
```

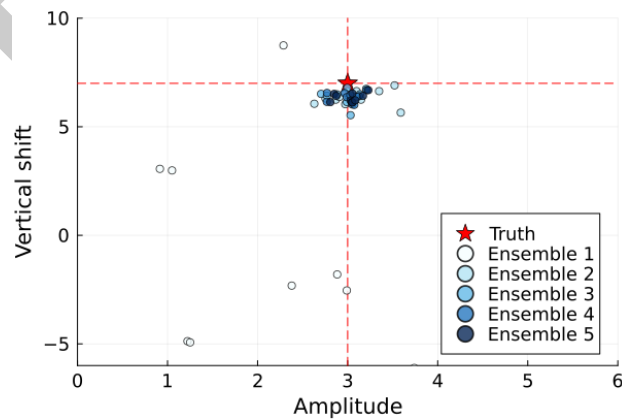
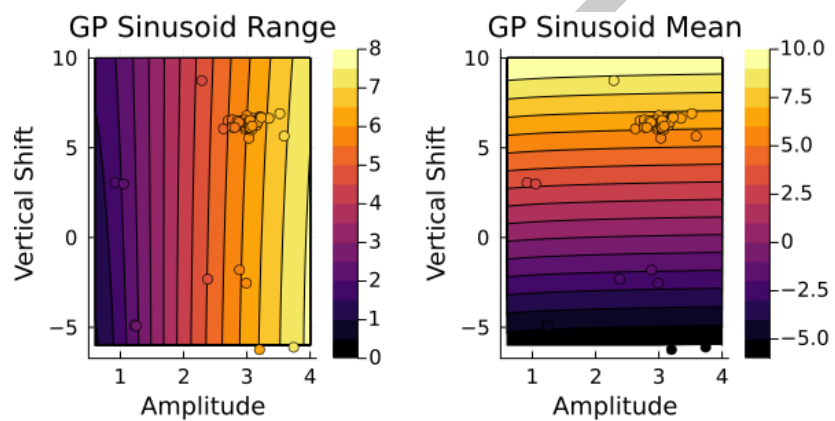


Figure 3: The resulting ensemble from a calibration.

111 The adaptively refined training points from EKP are displayed in Figure 3. We now build an  
112 basic Gaussian process emulator from the GaussianProcesses.jl package to emulate the map  $G$   
113 using these points.

```
const UT = CalibrateEmulateSample.Utilities
const EM = CalibrateEmulateSample.Emulators
```

```
input_output_pairs = UT.get_training_points(
    ensemble_kalman_process, N_iterations,
)
gppackage = EM.GPJL()
gauss_proc = EM.GaussianProcess(gppackage, noise_learn = false)
emulator = EM.Emulator(
    gauss_proc, input_output_pairs, normalize_inputs = true, obs_noise_cov = Γ,
)
EM.optimize_hyperparameters!(emulator) # train the emulator
```

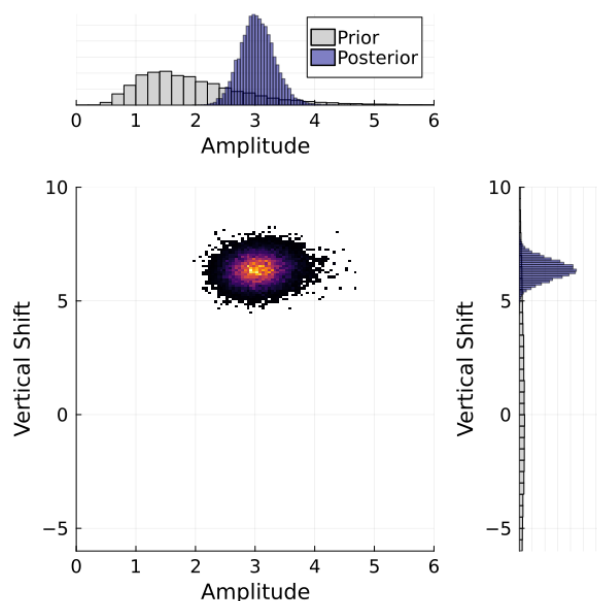


**Figure 4:** The Gaussian process emulator of the range and mean maps, trained on the re-used calibration pairs

114 We evaluate the mean of this emulator on a grid, and also show the value of the true  $G$  at  
115 training point locations in Figure 4.

116 We can then sample with this emulator using an MCMC scheme. We first choose a good  
117 step size (an algorithm parameter) by running some short sampling runs (of length 2,000  
118 steps). Then we run the 100,000 step sampling run to generate samples of the joint posterior  
119 distribution.

```
const MC = CalibrateEmulateSample.MarkovChainMonteCarlo
mcmc = MC.MCMCWrapper(
    MC.RWMHSampling(), y_obs, prior, emulator,
)
# choose a step size
new_step = MC.optimize_stepsize(
    mcmc; init_stepsize = 0.1, N = 2000,
)
# Now begin the actual MCMC
chain = MC.sample(
    mcmc, 100_000; stepsize = new_step, discard_initial = 2_000,
)
```



**Figure 5:** The joint posterior distribution histogram

A histogram of the samples from the CES algorithm is displayed in Figure 5. We see that the posterior distribution contains the true value (3.0, 7.0) with high probability.

## Research projects using the package

Some research projects that use this codebase, or modifications of it, are

- (Dunbar et al., 2021)
- (Bieli et al., 2022)
- (Hillier, 2022)
- (Howland et al., 2022)
- (Dunbar, Howland, et al., 2022)
- (Mansfield & Sheshadri, 2022)
- (King et al., 2023)

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