

Vensim® Software

Linking systems thinking to powerful dynamic models

Calibration with Vensim – Part 2

Tom Fiddaman 2022

Advanced Calibration

- Weighting Payoff Elements
- Kalman Filtering
- Markov Chain Monte Carlo
- Sensitivity



Less-Naïve Calibration

• Weight (model-data) comparisons

Motivation

- To recognize varying scale and quality
 - At different times (bigger data -> bigger error)
 - Of different measurements (#elk > #wolves, or wolf error > elk error)
- For computation of confidence bounds
 - A properly-weighted likelihood has a known distribution and is compatible with MCMC
- In many cases, we can estimate the weights

Example – Lots of elk, any wolves?



Maximum Likelihood

- Choose the value of parameters that maximizes the likelihood of observing the data given the model
- This is called a Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE)
- Suppose there is more than one observation
 - Then the likelihood is the product of the individual likelihoods for each data point
 - Working with log likelihood is easier, because ln() converts the product to a sum
- Likelihood expresses the probability of getting the data observed from your model, not the chance that the model is right

Likelihood Surface Gaussian errors

• Likelihood =
$$\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{(model-data)^2}{\sigma}^2/2}$$

- This is the PDF of the Gaussian (Normal) distribution
- σ represents the standard error associated with a data point, corresponding with the weight assigned in Vensim (or its inverse)



Log-Likelihood Gaussian errors

• Likelihood =
$$\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{(model-data)^2}{\sigma}^2/2}$$

- Log(Likelihood) =
 - $LN(\sigma)$ the bigger the σ , the lower the likelihood, as it's spread thinner
 - $LN(\sqrt{2\pi})$ this is a constant we can ignore

 $-\frac{\left(\frac{model-data}{\sigma}\right)^{2}}{2}$ - the weighted sum of squares, as in the naïve method, but for the factor /2



Log Likelihood Gaussian errors

- Likelihoods combine multiplicatively, i.e. Likelihood(A and B) = Likelihood(A)*Likelihood(B)
- Log likelihoods therefore sum, LN(Likelihood(A and B))
 = LN(Likelihood(A)) + LN(Likelihood(B))

• $\left(\frac{model-data}{\sigma}\right)^2$ is $\left(\frac{\text{error}}{\sigma}\right)^2$ so if we've guessed right about σ , we expect this to have magnitude ~1.

- For multiple data points, we expect the weighted sum of squares to have magnitude of the number of data points, and have a Chi-squared distribution.
- Therefore a properly-weighted payoff should have a magnitude of N or N/2 (depending on the method choice)

Adding data shrinks the likelihood peak



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Error Distribution Assumptions

- N Normal (simplest used first for naïve estimate)
 - Payoff is the sum of (model-data)^{2*}weight
 - Weight = 1/(standard error of measurement)
 - Proportional to 2*log likelihood
 - You can't estimate the weight as a parameter
- G Gaussian (often best choice)
 - Sum of ((model-data)/StdDev)²/2 LN(StdDev)
 - This is a log likelihood (up to a constant multiplier) and can be used to estimate the StdDev
- K Kalman

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 Same as Gaussian, but specified with Variance instead of StdDev (primarily for use with the Kalman filter)

Error Distribution Assumptions 2

• R – Robust

- Sum of ABS((model-data) /AbsErr) LN(AbsErr)
- AbsErr scale parameter is a median absolute deviation rather than standard deviation
- This is a log likelihood (up to a constant multiplier) and can be used to estimate the AbsErr
- Not as efficient as Gaussian, but resistant to contaminated data
- (Others Robust/Huber, Poisson, etc.)
- For most purposes (not COVID!), use Normal, Gaussian, Kalman or Robust
- Normal, Gaussian, Kalman differ only in interpretation of the weight

How do you determine σ ?

• Guess:

- "plus or minus x%"
- Standard deviation of the data (if stationary)

• Iterate:

- Run the model
- Look at the payoff or the residuals
- Adjust the error toward what you observe

• Estimate:

- Include the error or weight as an optimization control parameter
- Requires extra terms in the payoff

- Likelihood
$$e^{-\frac{model-data}{\sigma}^2/2}$$

Scale Variation



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Response to Scale Variation

- Log-transform the data
- Then σ represents the fractional error, rather than the absolute error
- This doesn't work if the data includes 0, but there are other quasi-log transformations that could be used
- It also doesn't work for data with both negative and positive values, for which an absolute error makes more sense



There's an option for that ... Policy Payoff Types

Payoff Element		×
Payoff type Calibration	O Policy	
Payoff details		
Variable	Wolves	Sel
Compare to	Measured Wolves	Sel
StdDev	Est Wolf measurement SD frac	Sel
The weight should be p when more is better and	ositive for calibration. For policy optimizations use a positive number d a negative number when less is better.	
Transform	Log v 🔶	
Distribution	Gaussian 🗸	
Timing	Always ~	
	OK Cancel	

Weighted Calibration Setup

ElkWolves - estimate - weighted

• Go to the Advanced tab

- Load comparison data (recommend NoisyDataShort.cin)
- Create a Payoff (.vpd) different weighting
- Create a Control file (.voc) adds error terms

• Hit the Optimize button

Simulation Control		\times
Optimization		
Run Payoff definition	LogWeightedFit.vpd	?
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Cancel

0K

Optimization Control File (.voc)

Method & Settings (no change)

Parameters & Bounds (adds error terms)

Optimization Cont	trol			
Filename Optimization Contr Filename: Para	rol. Edit the filena meters+SD.voc	me to save change	es to a different control file Browse Save As Clear Settings	
Optimizer				
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Payoff Report

- Open the <u>runname</u>.rep file (a text editor is OK, but Excel is better for viewing)
- Contents, for each data series:
 - Contribution to payoff
 - Source of data, # of points
 - R^2
 - Durbin Watson & Autocorrelation
 - Theil statistics
 - MSE = mean squared error, Um = unequal means, Us = unequal variance, Uc = unequal covariance
 - MAE, MAPE, MAEoM

Addressing Pitfalls – Kalman filtering

- State dependent noise
- Sample size
- Data quality
- Autocorrelated errors
- Error covariance
- Measurement error
- State estimation
- Endogeneity



The General Problem

- If the state of the model has drifted away from the state of the world, the model's incremental responses are likely to be wrong
- Ordinary Least Squares on first differences essentially assumes that the data is always right
- Ordinary simulations assume that the model is always right
- Ideal: blend the apparent state in the data with the model's estimate of system state (which includes information from prior data)



Example: GPS mapping

- The observer has six states:
 - Position X, Y, Z (lat, lon, altitude)
 - Velocity dX, dY, dZ
- The device takes intermittent noisy measurements of position only
- A simple approach to noise is to smooth successive position estimates, but that introduces a lag – we can do better with a model
- From physics: Position = Integral(Velocity)
- Strategy:

- Maintain estimates of position and velocity states
- Integrate velocity to predict position changes
- Update towards the measurements as they arrive

Kalman Filtering



How far to update?

• Consider:

- How reliable is the data?
- How reliable is the model up to that point?

• Bayesian update (assuming Gaussian errors):

- New state = variance-weighted combination of model and data = $(Model/Var_{model} + Data/Var_{data})/(1/Var_{model} + 1/Var_{data})$
- Update variance similarly

• Complications

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- Need to consider covariance (track N_{states}^2)
- Data might not measure states directly (need linear algebra)
- Non-Gaussian errors & outliers

Kalman Filtering



Is the forecast in the confidence bounds?

Why Confidence Bounds? Perspectives

• Statistical

- Is an effect significantly different from zero?

• Practical

- What does uncertainty imply for policy?
- What data might narrow the bounds?



Several Paths to Confidence Bounds

• Old way

- Optimize to find the best fit to data
- Explore the payoff surface around the maximum

• New ways

- Bootstrapping (draw samples from the data)
- Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)



Multidimensional Likelihood



Confidence Bounds & Likelihood

• Gaussian Likelihood = $\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-(\frac{model-data}{\sigma})^2/2}$

- Log Likelihood $\approx -\ln \sigma \frac{(\frac{model-data}{\sigma})^2}{2}$ (leaving out invariant terms)
- A weighted log-likelihood calibration payoff is a sum of squares; 2*Log(likelihood/best likelihood) is distributed Chi-squared with one degree of freedom
- The expected value is the number of data points
- Varying the payoff by the ChiSq critical value at 95% yields a 95% confidence bound
 - If your payoff uses the "Normal" distribution setting, 3.84
 - If you use "Gaussian" (preferred), 1.92 (=3.84/2)
 - (Difference is due to presence or absence of the /2 factor)

Standard Vensim payoff value sensitivity

• Test the payoff surface in the direction of each parameter independently

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Parameter A

• Even harder if the likelihood surface is shaped like a banana, or a snake, or a bag of 10-dimensional jellybeans...

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Unimodality, Smoothness

• If not, the confidence bounds can be misleading





Alternate Approach to Estimation Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

- Perform a random walk over the payoff surface, with moves chosen according to point likelihoods
- Stationary distribution of the Markov process reflects likelihood surface
- Problem: determining scale of proposed jumps
- Solution: Differential Evolution (run multiple Markov chains and recombine from population to propose jumps)



MCMC







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Procedure

• Payoff

 We want the input to be (reasonably close to) a loglikelihood, so use the same kind of properly-weighted payoff we already developed

Control file

- We can use the same parameter set
- Change Optimizer to MCMC
- Possibly set other options



The Optimization Control File

- :OPTIMIZER=MCMC
- :MCLIMIT=5000 total number of runs
- :MCBURNIN=4000 runs to discard as warmup
- ... etc. See Help system for details.

List of parameters to optimize:

0<=Reference wolf growth rate<=1
0<=Reference elk per wolf<=1
0<=Relative initial elk<=2</pre>

(same as before)

...

MCMC – the Output

• Three parts:

- _runname_MCMC_sample.tab: A sample of points representing the likelihood surface - the sample's statistics give you confidence bounds and represent the joint distribution of parameters.
- _runname_MCMC_points.tab: A diagnostic file containing more information on sample points, including those rejected
- _runname_MCMC_stats.tab: A diagnostic file containing convergence metrics



Using the Sample for Sensitivity Runs

• Plug the _MCMC_sample.tab file in as a Sensitivity simulation Simulation Control

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Using the Sample for Sensitivity Runs



Bayesian System Dynamics

Bayes Rule: P(A|B) = P(B|A)*P(A)/P(B)

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Posterior
P(Params | Data)
= P(Data | Params) * P(Params) / P(Data)
Likelihood Prior Ignore
```

Implementation: combine calibration optimization or MCMC with priors that capture the state of knowledge about parameters.



Priors

• No priors = uniform priors

- This is essentially what we've been doing so far
- It's not always a good choice, *but* if you have lots of data, it probably doesn't matter.

• Non-informative or Maximum Entropy priors

- Contribute as little information as possible, i.e. assume maximum ignorance a priori
- For a scale parameter like a time constant, this is
 -LN(param) for positive parameters

• Informative priors

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 If you – or experts or literature – have some opinion about a parameter, you can use a subjective probability distribution to characterize that

Example

• Suppose we think from other information that wolves live for about 7 years

The life spans of wild wolves vary dramatically. Although the average lifespan is **between 6 and 8 years**, many will die sooner, and some can reach 13. Wolves in captivity can live up to 17 years. Apr 13, 2012



https://www.pbs.org > wnet > river-of-no-return-gray-wol... River of No Return | Gray Wolf Facts | Nature - PBS

• We could capture this in the model with a prior on the wolf mortality rate



Likelihood for Priors

• If our belief is Normal (Gaussian):

• Likelihood =
$$\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{(param-prior)^2}{\sigma}^2/2}$$

- For an MCMC log likelihood, we only need the last term
- σ represents our belief about the plausible variation in the prior



Other Choices

- Noninformative scale parameter
 - -LN(parameter)

Interval variables

- Noninformative: Haldane or Jeffreys
- Informative: Beta
- Subjective

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- Draw something in a lookup



Lifespan Prior

- In the first order model, Lifespan = 1/Wolf Mortality Rate
 - In the data generator, mortality rate = .08/year = 12.5 year lifespan, so there will be some conflict between our prior and the "truth"
- We could use the Normal (Gaussian) distribution to express our prior, something like:
 - Wolf Mortality Prior
 - = -1/2*{(1/Wolf Mortality Rate Wolf Lifespan Belief)
 - / Wolf Mortality Confidence}^2
 - "Wolf Mortality Confidence" is the standard deviation, in years, expressing our belief about how widely lifespan might vary
- Normality probably isn't the optimal choice, because it admits negative values; instead use Lognormal:
 - Wolf Mortality Prior
 - = -1/2*{LN(Wolf Mortality Rate*Wolf Lifespan Belief)
 - / Wolf Mortality Confidence}^2
 - "Wolf Mortality Confidence" is the standard deviation of our belief, expressed as a fraction of the central value

My Typical Playbook

- Build/refine structure
- Load data
- Create an interface view with model-data comparisons
- Do some hand calibration to see what parameters are interesting
- Do a quick & dirty calibration
 - Weight payoff with log transform and wild guesses at fractional errors
- Evaluate fit, work with model more, ponder what is really problematic or uncertain
- Design policies
- Test policies deterministically

Do policy experiments with sensitivity

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- Develop a more carefully weighted payoff, consider Kalman filtering, priors
- Do MCMC to generate a confidence sample
- Do sensitivity runs based on the sample