

Calibrating Environmental Engineering Models

David Ruppert

Cornell University

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What this talk is about

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 - The team
 - The research problem
- 2 The Model
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 - Modeling the noise
 - Likelihood
- 3 Methodology
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 - Experimental Design
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Summary

- **Christine Shoemaker**, co-PI, Professor of Civil and Environmental Engineering
 - PhD in applied math
 - works in applied optimization
- David Ruppert, co-PI
- **Nikolai Blizniouk**, PhD student in Operations Research
- Christine's students and post-docs
 - Rommel Regis
 - Stefan Wild
 - Pradeep Mugunthan

Work of Chris Shoemaker and her students

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Summary

Christine Shoemaker's research:

- global optimization
- optimization of computationally expensive functions
- methods for calibration and uncertainty analysis
- **example:** remediation of a US-DOD site
 - contaminated with chlorinated ethenes in the soil and groundwater

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Summary

- Typical problem in environmental engineering:
 - remediation of contaminated groundwater
- Modeled as a system of partial differential equations describing
 - movement of pollutants
 - chemical reactions
- Coefficients are unknown
- **Calibration** means estimation of parameters in model
 - this is an inverse problem
 - also a nonlinear regression problem

Why is Calibration Difficult?

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Summary

- Likelihood may be multimodal
- Non-Gaussian data
- Spatial and temporal correlations
- Model is computationally expensive
 - May take minutes or even hours to evaluate the model for one set of parameter values

Deterministic component of model

- i th observation is

$$Y_i = (Y_{i,1}, \dots, Y_{i,d})^T$$

- in absence of noise:

$$Y_{i,j} = f_j(X_i, \beta)$$

- $f_j(\cdot)$ comes from scientific theory
- X_i is a covariate vector
- β contains the parameters of interest
- noise is modeled empirically

Components of the noise model

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We modeled the noise via:

- data transformation
- spatial-temporal correlation model

Purpose of data transformation

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Summary

We used transformations to:

- normalize the response distribution
- stabilize the variance

Transform-both-sides model

- The **transform-both-sides** model is

$$h \{ Y_{i,j}, \lambda_j \} = h \{ f_j(X_i, \beta), \lambda_j \} + \epsilon_{i,j},$$

Transform-both-sides model

- The **transform-both-sides** model is

$$h \{ Y_{i,j}, \lambda_j \} = h \{ f_j(X_i, \beta), \lambda_j \} + \epsilon_{i,j},$$

- equivalently

$$Y_{i,j} = h^{-1} [h \{ f_j(X_i, \beta), \lambda_j \} + \epsilon_{i,j}, \lambda_j]$$

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- transforms both sides of the equation giving deterministic model

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- **preserves the theoretical model**

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- transforms both sides of the equation giving deterministic model
- **preserves the theoretical model**
- $\{h(\cdot, \lambda) : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ is some transformation family

Transform-both-sides examples

- the **identity transformation** gives the usual nonlinear regression model

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 - **additive Gaussian errors**

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Transform-both-sides examples

- the **identity transformation** gives the usual nonlinear regression model
 - **additive Gaussian errors**
- if we use the **log transformation** then

$$Y_{i,j} = \exp [\log \{f_j(X_i, \beta)\} + \epsilon_{i,j}] = f_j(X_i, \beta) \exp(\epsilon_{i,j})$$

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- **multiplicative, lognormal errors**

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- **multiplicative, lognormal errors**
- if we use the **square root transformation**

$$Y_{i,j} = \left[\sqrt{f_j(X_i, \beta)} + \epsilon_{i,j} \right]^2$$

Transform-both-sides examples

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- **notice a problem?**

The Box-Cox family

- the most common transformation family is due to Box and Cox (1964):

$$\begin{aligned}h(y, \lambda) &= \frac{y^\lambda - 1}{\lambda} \text{ if } \lambda \neq 0 \\ &= \log(y) \text{ if } \lambda = 0\end{aligned}$$

The Box-Cox family

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$$\begin{aligned}h(y, \lambda) &= \frac{y^\lambda - 1}{\lambda} \text{ if } \lambda \neq 0 \\ &= \log(y) \text{ if } \lambda = 0\end{aligned}$$

- technical problem:
 - does not map $(0, \infty)$ onto $(-\infty, \infty)$, except for $\lambda = 0$
 - so transformed response has a truncated normal distribution
 - this makes Bayesian inference more complex

COIL transformation family

- **CO**nvex combination of Identity and Log (COIL) family:

$$h_C(y, \lambda) = \lambda y + (1 - \lambda) \log(y), \quad 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1.$$

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- COIL can approximate Box-Cox:

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- COIL can approximate Box-Cox:
 - For each $\lambda \in [0, 1)$ there are constants $\lambda' \in [0, 1)$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$h_{BC}(y, \lambda) \approx a + b h_C(y, \lambda')$$

for a wide range of y values (verified empirically)

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- The inverse $h_C^{-1}(\cdot, \lambda)$ does not have a closed form

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for a wide range of y values (verified empirically)

- The inverse $h_C^{-1}(\cdot, \lambda)$ does not have a closed form
 - evaluate by interpolation (fast)

Multivariate transformations

- Define

$$\boldsymbol{\lambda} = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d)^T$$

- and

$$h(y, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \{h(y_1, \lambda_1), \dots, h(y_d, \lambda_d)\}^T$$

Separable correlation model

- Define the noise vectors:
 - $\epsilon_i = (\epsilon_{i,1}, \dots, \epsilon_{i,d})^T = h\{Y_i, \boldsymbol{\lambda}\} - h\{f(X_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}), \boldsymbol{\lambda}\}$
 - $\epsilon_{\bullet,j} = (\epsilon_{1,j}, \dots, \epsilon_{n,j})^T$
 - $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} = (\epsilon_1^T, \dots, \epsilon_n^T)^T$
- $\text{cov}(\epsilon_{i,j}, \epsilon_{i',j'}) = \mathbf{C}_{j,j'} \cdot \rho_{ST}(X_i, X_{i'}; \boldsymbol{\gamma})$
 - \mathbf{C} is a $d \times d$ covariance matrix for ϵ_i
 - $\rho_{ST}(X_i, X_{i'}; \boldsymbol{\gamma})$ is a space-time correlation function parameterized by $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$
- $\text{Var}\{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}\} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbf{S}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}) \otimes \mathbf{C}$
 - $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{\gamma}, \mathbf{C})$
 - $\mathbf{S}_{i,i'}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \rho_{ST}(X_i, X_{i'}; \boldsymbol{\gamma})$

TBS Likelihood

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- Our statistical model is
$$h\{\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}\} \sim MVN [h\{\mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{\beta}), \boldsymbol{\lambda}\}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}(\boldsymbol{\theta})]$$

- Likelihood is

$$[\mathbf{Y}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\theta}] =$$

$$\frac{\exp \left[-0.5 \left\| h(\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) - h\{\mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{\beta}), \boldsymbol{\lambda}\} \right\|_{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}(\boldsymbol{\theta})^{-1}}^2 \right]}{(2\pi)^{nd/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}(\boldsymbol{\theta})|^{1/2}} \cdot |J_h(\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})|$$

- $|J_h(\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})|$ is the Jacobian
- $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is the covariance matrix

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- Goal:
 - Approximate the posterior density accurately with as few expensive likelihood evaluations as possible

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- Goal:
 - Approximate the posterior density accurately with as few expensive likelihood evaluations as possible
- There are four steps:
 - 1 Locate the region(s) of high posterior density

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Summary

- Goal:
 - Approximate the posterior density accurately with as few expensive likelihood evaluations as possible
- There are four steps:
 - 1 Locate the region(s) of high posterior density
 - 2 Find an “experimental design” that covers the region of high posterior density

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 - the likelihood is evaluated on this design

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 - 1 Locate the region(s) of high posterior density
 - 2 Find an “experimental design” that covers the region of high posterior density
 - the likelihood is evaluated on this design
 - 3 Use function evaluations from Steps 1 and 2 to approximate the posterior

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 - 3 Use function evaluations from Steps 1 and 2 to approximate the posterior
 - 4 MCMC and standard Bayesian analysis using the **approximate** posterior density

Removing nuisance parameters

- The posterior density is

$$[\beta, \lambda, \theta | \mathbf{Y}] = \frac{[\beta, \lambda, \theta, \mathbf{Y}]}{\int [\beta, \lambda, \theta, \mathbf{Y}] d\beta d\lambda d\theta},$$

- where $[\beta, \lambda, \theta, \mathbf{Y}] = [\mathbf{Y} | \beta, \lambda, \theta] \cdot [\beta, \lambda, \theta]$

Removing nuisance parameters

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- where $[\beta, \lambda, \theta, \mathbf{Y}] = [\mathbf{Y} | \beta, \lambda, \theta] \cdot [\beta, \lambda, \theta]$
- Interest focuses on

$$[\beta | \mathbf{Y}] = \int [\beta, \lambda, \theta | \mathbf{Y}] d\lambda d\theta$$

Removing nuisance parameters - four methods

- Exact:

$$[\beta | \mathbf{Y}] = \int [\beta, \lambda, \theta | \mathbf{Y}] d\lambda d\theta$$

- Profile posterior:

$$\pi_{\max}(\beta, \mathbf{Y}) = \sup_{\zeta} [\beta, \zeta, \mathbf{Y}] = [\beta, \hat{\zeta}(\beta), \mathbf{Y}]$$

- $\hat{\zeta}(\beta)$ maximizes $[\beta, \zeta, \mathbf{Y}]$ with respect to ζ
- Laplace approximation:
 - multiplies the profile posterior by a correction factor
- Pseudo-posterior:

$$[\beta, \hat{\zeta}(\hat{\beta}), \mathbf{Y}]$$

- $\{\hat{\beta}, \hat{\zeta}(\hat{\beta})\}$ is the MAP = joint mode of posterior

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- When locating the posterior mode we want:

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- When locating the posterior mode we want:
 - 1 As few expensive function evaluations as possible

Finding posterior mode using Condor

- When locating the posterior mode we want:
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 - 2 A small percentage of “wasted evaluations”

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- When locating the posterior mode we want:
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 - a) few evaluation locations in region of very low posterior probability

Finding posterior mode using Condor

- When locating the posterior mode we want:
 - 1 As few expensive function evaluations as possible
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 - b) few evaluation locations that are very close together

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- All good optimization techniques achieve 1

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 - MATLAB's `fmincon` exhibited this problem

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- CONDOR uses sequential quadratic programming

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 - MATLAB's `fmincon` exhibited this problem
- CONDOR uses sequential quadratic programming
 - worked well in our empirical tests

Further function evaluations needed

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- Goal:
 - approximate posterior on $C_R(\alpha) = \{\beta : [\beta, \mathbf{Y}] > \kappa(\alpha)\}$
- Function evaluations in optimization stage insufficient to approximate posterior accurately

Constructing the experimental design

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1 Normal approximation to posterior

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- 1 Normal approximation to posterior
 - requires a small number of additional function evaluations

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2

$$\hat{C}_R(\alpha) = \left\{ \boldsymbol{\beta} : (\boldsymbol{\beta} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})^T \left[\hat{\mathbf{I}}^{\boldsymbol{\beta}\boldsymbol{\beta}} \right]^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\beta} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \leq \chi_{p,1-\alpha}^2 \right\}$$

Constructing the experimental design

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- 3 Space-filling design on $\widehat{C}_R(\alpha)$

Constructing the experimental design

- 1 Normal approximation to posterior
 - requires a small number of additional function evaluations

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- 3 Space-filling design on $\hat{C}_R(\alpha)$
- 4 Remove points not in $\hat{C}_R(\alpha')$ for $\alpha' < \alpha$

Constructing the experimental design

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$$\hat{C}_R(\alpha) = \left\{ \beta : (\beta - \hat{\beta})^T [\hat{I}^{\beta\beta}]^{-1} (\beta - \hat{\beta}) \leq \chi_{p,1-\alpha}^2 \right\}$$

- 3 Space-filling design on $\hat{C}_R(\alpha)$
- 4 Remove points not in $\hat{C}_R(\alpha')$ for $\alpha' < \alpha$
 - E.g., $\alpha = 0.1$ and $\alpha' = 0.01$

Radial basis functions

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- $\pi(\cdot, \mathbf{Y})$ denotes one of the approximations to $[\beta, \mathbf{Y}]$

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Summary

- $\pi(\cdot, \mathbf{Y})$ denotes one of the approximations to $[\boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{Y}]$
- $l(\cdot) = \log\{\pi(\cdot, \mathbf{Y})\}$ is interpolated at $\mathcal{B}_D = \{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(1)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(N)}\}$ by

$$\tilde{l}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i \phi(\|\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(i)}\|_2) + q(\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

where

- $a_1, \dots, a_N \in \mathbb{R}$
- ϕ is a radial basis function
 - we used $\phi(r) = r^3$
- $q \in \Pi_m^p$ (the space of polynomials in \mathbb{R}^p of degree $\leq m$)
- $\boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p$

Autoregressive Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

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- draw MCMC sample from $\tilde{\pi}(\cdot, \mathbf{Y}) = \exp\{\tilde{\ell}(\cdot)\}$

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- draw MCMC sample from $\tilde{\pi}(\cdot, \mathbf{Y}) = \exp\{\tilde{l}(\cdot)\}$
 - restrict sample to $\hat{C}_R(\alpha')$

Autoregressive Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- draw MCMC sample from $\tilde{\pi}(\cdot, \mathbf{Y}) = \exp\{\tilde{l}(\cdot)\}$
 - restrict sample to $\hat{C}_R(\alpha')$
- Metropolis-Hastings candidate:
$$\beta^c = \mu + \rho(\beta^{(t)} - \mu) + e_t$$

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 - $\rho = 0 \rightarrow$ independence MH

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 - e_t 's are *i.i.d.* from density g

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- if the candidate is accepted, then $\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^c$

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 - $\rho = 1 \rightarrow$ random-walk MH
 - e_t 's are *i.i.d.* from density g
- if the candidate is accepted, then $\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^c$
- otherwise, $\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^{(t)}$

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- few statisticians are working on environmental engineering problems

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- few statisticians are working on environmental engineering problems
- environmental engineers typically use ad hoc and inefficient statistical methods

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- few statisticians are working on environmental engineering problems
- environmental engineers typically use ad hoc and inefficient statistical methods
- modern statistical techniques such as variance functions, transformations, spatial-temporal models potentially offer substantial improvements

- GLUE = Generalized Likelihood Uncertainty Estimation

GLUE

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- GLUE = Generalized Likelihood Uncertainty Estimation
- widely used

GLUE

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GLUE

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- replaces the likelihood function of iid normal errors with an arbitrary objective function

GLUE

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- shows no appreciation of maximum likelihood as a general method

GLUE

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- GLUE = Generalized Likelihood Uncertainty Estimation
- widely used
- apparently considered state-of-the-art by many environmental engineers
- replaces the likelihood function of iid normal errors with an arbitrary objective function
- shows no appreciation of maximum likelihood as a general method
- objective function is not based on the data-generating probability model

Synthetic data example: Chemical spill

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- To test algorithm:

Synthetic data example: Chemical spill

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- To test algorithm:
 - use computationally inexpensive function

Synthetic data example: Chemical spill

- To test algorithm:
 - use computationally inexpensive function
 - then approximate and exact result can be compared

Synthetic data example: Chemical spill

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- To test algorithm:
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- chemical accident caused spill at two locations on a long channel

Synthetic data example: Chemical spill

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 - mass M spill at location 0 at time 0

Synthetic data example: Chemical spill

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Synthetic data example: Chemical spill

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- diffusion coefficient is d

Synthetic data example: Chemical spill

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- diffusion coefficient is d
- parameter vector is $\beta = (m, d, l, \tau)^T$

Synthetic data example: Chemical spill

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 - use computationally inexpensive function
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- want estimate of average concentration at end of channel

Synthetic data example: Chemical spill

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- want estimate of average concentration at end of channel
- l is of special interest

Synthetic data example: Chemical spill

- To test algorithm:
 - use computationally inexpensive function
 - then approximate and exact result can be compared
- chemical accident caused spill at two locations on a long channel
 - mass M spill at location 0 at time 0
 - mass M spill at location L and time τ
- diffusion coefficient is d
- parameter vector is $\beta = (m, d, l, \tau)^T$
- want estimate of average concentration at end of channel
- l is of special interest
- need assessments of uncertainty as well

Chemical spill model

- Model is:

$$C(s, t; M, D, L, \tau) = \frac{M}{\sqrt{4\pi Dt}} \exp\left[\frac{-s^2}{4Dt}\right] + \frac{M}{\sqrt{4\pi D(t-\tau)}} \exp\left[\frac{-(s-L)^2}{4D(t-\tau)}\right] \cdot \mathbb{I}(\tau < t)$$

Details of simulation

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- assume data is collected at spatial location 0 (0.5) 2.5 and times 0.3 (0.3) 60 (5 time 200 observations)
- assume that a major goal is to estimate average concentration of time interval [40, 140] at the end of the channel ($s = 3$), specifically

$$F(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=0}^{20} f\{(3, 40 + 5i), \boldsymbol{\beta}\}$$

- requires additional function evaluations (but not much more computation)

Details, continued

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- $\lambda = 0.333$ in COIL family
- one chemical species
- σ can be integrated out of the posterior analytically

Posterior densities: components of β

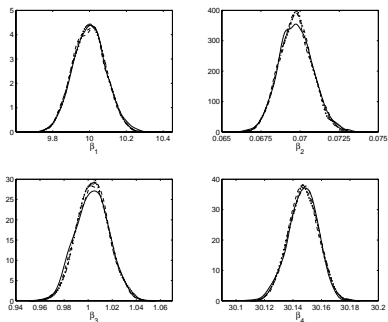


Figure: Kernel estimates of the posterior densities of β_i 's with the exact joint posterior (solid line) and RBF approximations to joint posterior (dashed line), pseudoposterior (dashed-dotted line), profile posterior with and without Laplace correction (dotted and large dotted lines, respectively).

Posterior densities: $F(\beta)$

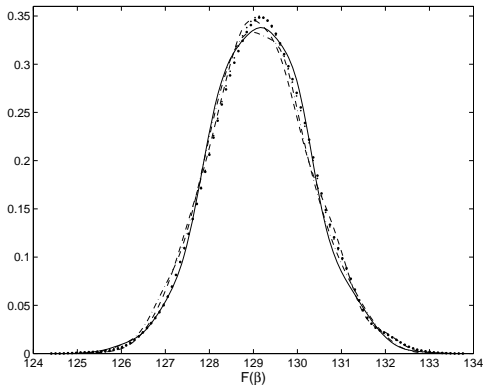


Figure: Kernel smoothed density estimates for the posterior of $F(\beta)$.

Results of a Monte Carlo experiment

	true	MC mean		ratio of C.I. lengths		
		exact	RBF	size .9	size .95	size .99
$\beta_1 = M$	10	10.0057 (.0866)	10.0061 (.0893)	.9969 (.0602)	.9961 (.0624)	.9844 (.0738)
$\beta_2 = D$.07	.07008 (.00097)	.07008 (.00101)	.9910 (.0592)	.9888 (.0612)	.9687 (.0673)
$\beta_3 = L$	1	1.0005 (.0136)	1.0005 (.0134)	.9671 (.0785)	.9662 (.0765)	.9604 (.0750)
$\beta_4 = \tau$	30.16	30.1610 (.0096)	30.1610 (.0096)	.9786 (.0779)	.9709 (.0818)	.9403 (.0835)
$F(\beta)$	128.998	129.063 (1.087)	129.067 (1.100)	.9959 (.062)	.9937 (.0628)	.9841 (.0695)

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Results of a Monte Carlo experiment

Table: Observed coverage probabilities.

	size .9 cred. int.		size .95 cred. int.		size .99 cred. int.	
	exact	RBF	exact	RBF	exact	RBF
β_1	.905 (.009)	.904 (.009)	.950 (.007)	.944 (.007)	.986 (.004)	.990 (.003)
β_2	.908 (.009)	.903 (.009)	.954 (.007)	.951 (.007)	.991 (.003)	.987 (.004)
β_3	.916 (.009)	.899 (.010)	.953 (.007)	.954 (.007)	.989 (.003)	.988 (.003)
β_4	.904 (.009)	.909 (.009)	.947 (.007)	.945 (.007)	.988 (.003)	.987 (.004)
$F(\beta)$.904 (.009)	.902 (.009)	.947 (.007)	.937 (.008)	.994 (.002)	.980 (.004)

What have we achieved?

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In this research we have:

- applied modern statistical tools to calibration of environmental engineering models, e.g.,

What have we achieved?

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In this research we have:

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 - transform-both-side

What have we achieved?

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In this research we have:

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 - spatial-temporal correlation models

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In this research we have:

- applied modern statistical tools to calibration of environmental engineering models, e.g.,
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 - spatial-temporal correlation models
- implemented a Bayesian method of uncertainty analysis

What have we achieved?

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Summary

In this research we have:

- applied modern statistical tools to calibration of environmental engineering models, e.g.,
 - transform-both-side
 - spatial-temporal correlation models
- implemented a Bayesian method of uncertainty analysis
- substantially reduced the number of evaluations of the computationally expensive environmental model

Race Brook, Nov 5, 2005

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