Calibration of a pollination model using Approximate Bayesian Computation

joint work with Ullrika Sahlin, Yann Clough and Henrik G. Smith (from Lund University)

Rencontre de la chaire Modélisation Mathématiques et Biodiversité January 28th, 2021

Charlotte Baey





- 1. Introduction
- 2. Pollination model
- 3. Data
- 4. Statistical model
- 5. Approximate Bayesian Computation
- 6. Results
- 7. Conclusion and discussion

Introduction

- In 2000, the United Nations launches the *Millenium Ecosystem Assessment*
- Initial goal: "identify the impacts of ecosystem changes on human well-being, and actions needed to enhance the conservation and sustainable use of those systems"
- It popularized the term ecosystem services
 - the benefits humans obtain from ecosystems
 - e.g. : crop pollination, oxygen production by plants, carbon sequestration, ...
- One of the final recommendation was to assess these ecosystem services and include them in public policy decision making

- One possible answer: develop models for ecosystem services, and use these models to evaluate the impact of changes (climate change, agricultural practices, management interventions, ...) on the ecosystems
- These models are often complex, and rarely calibrated on experimental data (rely on expert judgment, literature data, ...)

- One possible answer: develop models for ecosystem services, and use these models to evaluate the impact of changes (climate change, agricultural practices, management interventions, ...) on the ecosystems
- These models are often complex, and rarely calibrated on experimental data (rely on expert judgment, literature data, ...)

Objectives

- Build a mechanistic model for pollination at the landscape level
- Propose a methodology to calibrate the model on experimental data

Pollination model



Based on a fitness isocline curve

$$\tau_f = \tau_0 \left(1 - \frac{f_0}{f} \right),$$

with:

- f_0 minimum floral value that will be visited by bees
- τ_0 the maximum distance travelled by a bee



(Olsson et al. 2015)

• For a bee nesting in patch *i* and floral patch *j* at distance d_{ij} :

$$\Delta_{ij} = au_0 \left(1 - rac{f_0}{f_j}
ight) - d_{ij},$$

 \rightarrow distance spare flying for patch *j* compared to what they were willing to fly for a patch of that quality.

• For a bee nesting in patch *i* and floral patch *j* at distance d_{ij} :

$$\Delta_{ij} = au_0 \left(1 - rac{f_0}{f_j}
ight) - d_{ij},$$

 \rightarrow distance spare flying for patch *j* compared to what they were willing to fly for a patch of that quality.

• For a bee nesting in patch *i* and floral patch *j* at distance d_{ij} :

$$\Delta_{ij} = \tau_0 \left(1 - \frac{f_0}{f_j}\right) - d_{ij},$$

 \rightarrow distance spare flying for patch *j* compared to what they were willing to fly for a patch of that quality.

• Suitability or fitness of a nest in patch *i*:

$$s_i = \sum_j \Delta_{ij} \mathbf{1}_{\Delta_{ij} > 0},$$

 \rightarrow distance a bee will spare flying when its nest is surrounded by patches of good quality.

• A bee in a nest with high suitability exploit less patches further away compared to a bee in a nest with low suitability

• A bee in a nest with high suitability exploit less patches further away compared to a bee in a nest with low suitability

- A bee in a nest with high suitability exploit less patches further away compared to a bee in a nest with low suitability
- We define a new maximum distance the bee is prepared to travel from patch *i*:

$$\tau_i = \frac{\tau_0}{1 + \exp((\sqrt{s_i} - a)/b)}.$$
 (1)

 \rightarrow patch-specific maximum distance.

- A bee in a nest with high suitability exploit less patches further away compared to a bee in a nest with low suitability
- We define a new maximum distance the bee is prepared to travel from patch *i*:

$$\tau_i = \frac{\tau_0}{1 + \exp((\sqrt{s_i} - a)/b)}.$$
(1)

 \rightarrow patch-specific maximum distance.

• We define:

$$\Delta_{ij}^* = \tau_i \left(1 - \frac{f_0}{f_j} \right) - d_{ij}, \tag{2}$$

 \rightarrow contribution from patch *j* to fitness of the bees in patch *i*.

• The number of foraging bees from nest in patch *i* to floral resources in patch *j* is

$$r_{i
ightarrow j} = q_i rac{\Delta_{ij}^*}{\sum_{j=1}^J \Delta_{ij}^*}.$$

where q_i is habitat quality (usually, the number of bees nesting there).

• The number of foraging bees from nest in patch *i* to floral resources in patch *j* is

$$r_{i
ightarrow j} = q_i rac{\Delta_{ij}^*}{\sum_{j=1}^J \Delta_{ij}^*}.$$

where q_i is habitat quality (usually, the number of bees nesting there).

• The (instantaneous) total number of bees visiting patch *i* is:

$$\nu_i = \sum_{j=1}^J r_{j \to i},$$

Data



- Two studies on pollinator abundances in southern Sweden
- Data collected in four different years, several times a year (covering 3 different periods of bumblebees life cycle)
- Number of bees flying or foraging in a given transect for a given period of time was recorded

For each sampling site *i*, each year *j* and each period *k*:

A landscape map

A floral quality map

A nesting map



informed by expert judgement or literature data

Statistical model

Statistical model - Bayesian formulation

• *y*_{*ijk*}: observed nb of bees on site *i*, year *j* and period *k*.

- y_{ijk} : observed nb of bees on site *i*, year *j* and period *k*.
- Likelihood

$$\left\{ egin{array}{ll} egin{array}{ll} y_{ijk} & |\lambda_{ijk}, heta & \sim \mathcal{P}(m{c}_i \cdot \lambda_{ijk}) \ & \log \lambda_{ijk} & = \log
u_i(heta, \mathcal{M}_{jk}) + eta_k + arepsilon_{ijk} \ & arepsilon_{ijk} & \sim \mathcal{N}(m{0}, \sigma^2). \end{array}
ight.$$

- c_i a known scaling parameter,
- λ_{ijk} the real intensity of the visitation rates,
- β_k a period-specific parameter
- Complete vector of parameters $\psi = (\tau_0, f_0, a, b, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_K, \sigma^2)$

- y_{ijk} : observed nb of bees on site *i*, year *j* and period *k*.
- Likelihood

$$egin{array}{lll} egin{array}{lll} egin{arra$$

- c_i a known scaling parameter,
- λ_{ijk} the real intensity of the visitation rates,
- β_k a period-specific parameter
- Complete vector of parameters $\psi = (\tau_0, f_0, a, b, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_K, \sigma^2)$
- Priors

$$\begin{split} \tau_0 &\sim \mathcal{LN}_{[0,1000]}(\log(1000), 1) \quad f_0 &\sim \mathcal{LN}(\log(0.1), 1) \\ a &\sim \mathcal{U}([100, 1000]) \quad b &\sim \mathcal{U}([100, 1000]) \\ \beta_k &\sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \sigma_k^2), \quad k = 1, \dots, K \\ \sigma^2 &\sim \mathcal{IG}(\xi, \eta) \end{split}$$

Statistical model - Bayesian formulation

Prior distributions



Approximate Bayesian Computation

In a Bayesian context, we are now interested in the **posterior** distribution of the parameters, i.e. in π(ψ | y)

- In a Bayesian context, we are now interested in the **posterior** distribution of the parameters, i.e. in π(ψ | y)
- We have :

$$\pi(\psi \mid \mathbf{y}) \propto \underbrace{f(\mathbf{y} \mid \psi)}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{p(\psi)}_{\text{prior}}$$

- In a Bayesian context, we are now interested in the **posterior** distribution of the parameters, i.e. in π(ψ | y)
- We have :

$$\pi(\psi \mid \mathbf{y}) \propto \underbrace{f(\mathbf{y} \mid \psi)}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{p(\psi)}_{\text{prior}}$$

- In a Bayesian context, we are now interested in the **posterior** distribution of the parameters, i.e. in π(ψ | y)
- We have :

$$\pi(\psi \mid \mathbf{y}) \propto \underbrace{f(\mathbf{y} \mid \psi)}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{p(\psi)}_{\text{prior}}$$

- In a Bayesian context, we are now interested in the **posterior** distribution of the parameters, i.e. in π(ψ | y)
- We have :

$$\pi(\psi \mid \mathbf{y}) \propto \underbrace{f(\mathbf{y} \mid \psi)}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{p(\psi)}_{\text{prior}}$$

$$f(y \mid \psi) = \int f(y, \lambda \mid \psi) d\lambda = \int f(y \mid \lambda, \psi) f(\lambda \mid \psi) d\lambda$$
$$= \prod_{ijk} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma y_{ijk}!} \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{y_{ijk}-1} \exp\left(-\frac{(\log \lambda - \log \nu_i(\theta, \mathcal{M}_{ijk}) - \beta_k)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) d\lambda$$

- In a Bayesian context, we are now interested in the **posterior** distribution of the parameters, i.e. in π(ψ | y)
- We have :

$$\pi(\psi \mid \mathbf{y}) \propto \underbrace{f(\mathbf{y} \mid \psi)}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{p(\psi)}_{\text{prior}}$$

• But here the likelihood is intractable:

$$\begin{split} f(y \mid \psi) &= \int f(y, \lambda \mid \psi) d\lambda = \int f(y \mid \lambda, \psi) f(\lambda \mid \psi) d\lambda \\ &= \prod_{ijk} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma y_{ijk}!} \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{y_{ijk}-1} \exp\left(-\frac{\left(\log \lambda - \log \nu_i(\theta, \mathcal{M}_{ijk}) - \beta_k\right)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) d\lambda \end{split}$$

• how to handle this situation?

- In a Bayesian context, we are now interested in the **posterior** distribution of the parameters, i.e. in π(ψ | y)
- We have :

$$\pi(\psi \mid \mathbf{y}) \propto \underbrace{f(\mathbf{y} \mid \psi)}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{p(\psi)}_{\text{prior}}$$

$$f(y \mid \psi) = \int f(y, \lambda \mid \psi) d\lambda = \int f(y \mid \lambda, \psi) f(\lambda \mid \psi) d\lambda$$
$$= \prod_{ijk} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma} y_{ijk}!} \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{y_{ijk}-1} \exp\left(-\frac{(\log \lambda - \log \nu_i(\theta, \mathcal{M}_{ijk}) - \beta_k)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) d\lambda$$

- how to handle this situation?
 - change the likelihood so that it becomes tractable? \rightarrow can introduce biais, do not reflect the "true" process as we think it is generated

- In a Bayesian context, we are now interested in the **posterior** distribution of the parameters, i.e. in π(ψ | y)
- We have :

$$\pi(\psi \mid \mathbf{y}) \propto \underbrace{f(\mathbf{y} \mid \psi)}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{p(\psi)}_{\text{prior}}$$

$$f(y \mid \psi) = \int f(y, \lambda \mid \psi) d\lambda = \int f(y \mid \lambda, \psi) f(\lambda \mid \psi) d\lambda$$
$$= \prod_{ijk} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma} y_{ijk}!} \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{y_{ijk}-1} \exp\left(-\frac{(\log \lambda - \log \nu_i(\theta, \mathcal{M}_{ijk}) - \beta_k)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) d\lambda$$

- how to handle this situation?
 - change the likelihood so that it becomes tractable? \rightarrow can introduce biais, do not reflect the "true" process as we think it is generated
 - use an estimation method which can deal with untractable likelihood \rightarrow approximate Bayesian computation (ABC)

Approximation Bayesian computation (ABC)

• Introduced at the end of the 1990 in the area of population genetics
- Introduced at the end of the 1990 in the area of population genetics
- Initial ABC algorithm: "rejection sampling" (Tavaré et al. 1997)

- Introduced at the end of the 1990 in the area of population genetics
- Initial ABC algorithm: "rejection sampling" (Tavaré et al. 1997)

- Introduced at the end of the 1990 in the area of population genetics
- Initial ABC algorithm: "rejection sampling" (Tavaré et al. 1997)

ABC rejection sampling

Input: a threshold ε and a distance *d* on the set of observations

For m = 1, ..., M:

- 1. draw a sample $\psi^{(m)}$ from the prior distribution
- 2. generate a set of observations $y^{(m)}$ using $p(y \mid \psi)$
- 3. if $d(y_{obs}, y^{(m)}) \leq \varepsilon$, keep $\psi^{(m)}$
- 4. **Output**: a sample of size M_{ε} with all the accepted sets of parameters $\psi^{(m)}$

- Introduced at the end of the 1990 in the area of population genetics
- Initial ABC algorithm: "rejection sampling" (Tavaré et al. 1997)

ABC rejection sampling

Input: a threshold ε and a distance *d* on the set of observations

For *m* = 1, . . . , *M*:

- 1. draw a sample $\psi^{(m)}$ from the prior distribution
- 2. generate a set of observations $y^{(m)}$ using $p(y \mid \psi)$
- 3. if $d(y_{obs}, y^{(m)}) \leq \varepsilon$, keep $\psi^{(m)}$
- 4. **Output**: a sample of size M_{ε} with all the accepted sets of parameters $\psi^{(m)}$
- The accepted values follow the ABC posterior distribution $\pi_{\varepsilon}(\psi \mid y)$:

$$\pi_{ABC}(\psi \mid y_{obs}) \propto \int f(y|\psi) p(\psi) \mathbb{1}_{A_{\varepsilon}}(y) dy,$$

where $A_{\varepsilon} = \{y; d(y_{obs}, y) < \varepsilon\}.$

• When $\varepsilon \to 0$, the ABC posterior converges to the true posterior distribution

- When $\varepsilon \to 0$, the ABC posterior converges to the true posterior distribution
- On the contrary, when $\varepsilon \to \infty$, the ABC posterior converges to the prior distribution

- When $\varepsilon \to$ 0, the ABC posterior converges to the true posterior distribution
- On the contrary, when $\varepsilon \to \infty,$ the ABC posterior converges to the prior distribution
- In the meantime, when the dimension increases, $d(y_{obs}, y^{(m)})$ tends to be very large \rightarrow curse of dimensionality

- When $\varepsilon \to$ 0, the ABC posterior converges to the true posterior distribution
- On the contrary, when $\varepsilon \to \infty$, the ABC posterior converges to the prior distribution
- In the meantime, when the dimension increases, $d(y_{obs}, y^{(m)})$ tends to be very large \rightarrow curse of dimensionality
- Several extensions to the original algorithm have been proposed:

- When $\varepsilon \to$ 0, the ABC posterior converges to the true posterior distribution
- On the contrary, when $\varepsilon \to \infty,$ the ABC posterior converges to the prior distribution
- In the meantime, when the dimension increases, $d(y_{obs}, y^{(m)})$ tends to be very large \rightarrow curse of dimensionality
- Several extensions to the original algorithm have been proposed:
 - introduction of summary statistics $s(\cdot)$ of dimension $q < n \rightarrow$ samples from $\pi(\psi \mid s_{obs})$ instead of the posterior $\pi(\psi \mid y_{obs})$

- When $\varepsilon \to$ 0, the ABC posterior converges to the true posterior distribution
- On the contrary, when $\varepsilon \to \infty,$ the ABC posterior converges to the prior distribution
- In the meantime, when the dimension increases, $d(y_{obs}, y^{(m)})$ tends to be very large \rightarrow curse of dimensionality
- Several extensions to the original algorithm have been proposed:
 - introduction of summary statistics $s(\cdot)$ of dimension $q < n \rightarrow$ samples from $\pi(\psi \mid s_{obs})$ instead of the posterior $\pi(\psi \mid y_{obs})$
 - replace crude rejection by kernel smoothing \rightarrow each sample is used, with a weight $w_m = K(d(y_{obs}, y^{(m)}))$

ABC - choice of summary statistics

• Choice of the summary statistics is crucial: a poor specification leads to a poor approximation of the posterior, but choosing **sufficient statistics** has no impact, i.e. $\pi(\psi \mid s_{obs}) = \pi(\psi \mid y_{obs})$.

Objective

find low-dimensional summary and highly informative summary statistics

- Choice of the summary statistics is crucial: a poor specification leads to a poor approximation of the posterior, but choosing **sufficient statistics** has no impact, i.e. $\pi(\psi \mid s_{obs}) = \pi(\psi \mid y_{obs})$.
- A statistic is said to be sufficient w.r.t. a parameter θ if it carries all the necessary knowledge to perform inference for θ . More precisely, *s* is sufficient iff:

$$\mathbb{P}(y \in A \mid s(y) \in B, \theta) = \mathbb{P}(y \in A \mid s(y) \in B)$$

ex. : for a Gaussian i.i.d. sample $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, the sample mean is sufficient for μ .

Objective

find low-dimensional summary and highly informative summary statistics

• First idea: build a relationship between the parameter values and the summary statistics values, e.g. via regression techniques.

$$\psi_i^{(m)} = m_i(s(y^{(m)}) - s_{obs}) + \sigma(s(y^{(m)}))\varepsilon_{im}, \quad i = 1, ..., p$$

Then, samples from $\pi_{ABC}(\psi \mid s_{obs})$ are obtained via:

$$\psi_i^{*(m)} = \hat{m}_i(s_{obs}) + \left(\psi_i^{(m)} - \hat{m}(s(y^{(m)}))\right) \frac{\hat{\sigma}(s_{obs})}{\hat{\sigma}(s(y^{(m)}))}$$

• First idea: build a relationship between the parameter values and the summary statistics values, e.g. via regression techniques.

$$\psi_i^{(m)} = m_i(s(y^{(m)}) - s_{obs}) + \sigma(s(y^{(m)}))\varepsilon_{im}, \quad i = 1, ..., p$$

Then, samples from $\pi_{ABC}(\psi \mid s_{obs})$ are obtained via:

$$\psi_{i}^{*(m)} = \hat{m}_{i}(s_{obs}) + \left(\psi_{i}^{(m)} - \hat{m}(s(y^{(m)}))\right) \frac{\hat{\sigma}(s_{obs})}{\hat{\sigma}(s(y^{(m)}))}$$

• Estimation via weighted least squares, where weights are given by a chosen smoothing kernel *K*

• First idea: build a relationship between the parameter values and the summary statistics values, e.g. via regression techniques.

$$\psi_i^{(m)} = m_i(s(y^{(m)}) - s_{obs}) + \sigma(s(y^{(m)}))\varepsilon_{im}, \quad i = 1, \dots, p$$

Then, samples from $\pi_{ABC}(\psi \mid s_{obs})$ are obtained via:

$$\psi_{i}^{*(m)} = \hat{m}_{i}(s_{obs}) + \left(\psi_{i}^{(m)} - \hat{m}(s(y^{(m)}))\right) \frac{\hat{\sigma}(s_{obs})}{\hat{\sigma}(s(y^{(m)}))}$$

- Estimation via weighted least squares, where weights are given by a chosen smoothing kernel *K*
- Local regression around $s_{obs} \rightarrow$ lowers the effect of the distance between $s(y^{(m)})$ and s_{obs} .

• First idea: build a relationship between the parameter values and the summary statistics values, e.g. via regression techniques.

$$\psi_i^{(m)} = m_i(s(y^{(m)}) - s_{obs}) + \sigma(s(y^{(m)}))\varepsilon_{im}, \quad i = 1, ..., p$$

Then, samples from $\pi_{ABC}(\psi \mid s_{obs})$ are obtained via:

$$\psi_{i}^{*(m)} = \hat{m}_{i}(s_{obs}) + \left(\psi_{i}^{(m)} - \hat{m}(s(y^{(m)}))\right) \frac{\hat{\sigma}(s_{obs})}{\hat{\sigma}(s(y^{(m)}))}$$

- Estimation via weighted least squares, where weights are given by a chosen smoothing kernel *K*
- Local regression around $s_{obs} \rightarrow$ lowers the effect of the distance between $s(y^{(m)})$ and s_{obs} .
- Can be combined with dimension reduction methods to further reduce the summary statistics dimension

Regression adjustment methods

• local linear heteroscedastic model (Beaumont et al. 2002) [LocLH]

- local linear heteroscedastic model (Beaumont et al. 2002) [LocLH]
- local nonlinear heteroscedastic model (Blum and François 2010) [LocNLH]

- local linear heteroscedastic model (Beaumont et al. 2002) [LocLH]
- local nonlinear heteroscedastic model (Blum and François 2010) [LocNLH]
- adaptive nonlinear heteroscedastic model (Blum and François 2010) [ANLH] \rightarrow two-step procedure:

- local linear heteroscedastic model (Beaumont et al. 2002) [LocLH]
- local nonlinear heteroscedastic model (Blum and François 2010) [LocNLH]
- adaptive nonlinear heteroscedastic model (Blum and François 2010) [ANLH] \rightarrow two-step procedure:
 - 1. perform a LocNLH regression and estimate the distribution support *D* of the adjusted values

- local linear heteroscedastic model (Beaumont et al. 2002) [LocLH]
- local nonlinear heteroscedastic model (Blum and François 2010) [LocNLH]
- adaptive nonlinear heteroscedastic model (Blum and François 2010) [ANLH] \rightarrow two-step procedure:
 - 1. perform a LocNLH regression and estimate the distribution support *D* of the adjusted values
 - 2. perform a second LocNLH regression using parameters values samples from p_D , the conditional prior of the parameters given that they fall in D

- local linear heteroscedastic model (Beaumont et al. 2002) [LocLH]
- local nonlinear heteroscedastic model (Blum and François 2010) [LocNLH]
- adaptive nonlinear heteroscedastic model (Blum and François 2010) [ANLH] \rightarrow two-step procedure:
 - 1. perform a LocNLH regression and estimate the distribution support *D* of the adjusted values
 - 2. perform a second LocNLH regression using parameters values samples from p_D , the conditional prior of the parameters given that they fall in D
- penalized regression (Wegmann et al. 2016)

- local linear heteroscedastic model (Beaumont et al. 2002) [LocLH]
- local nonlinear heteroscedastic model (Blum and François 2010) [LocNLH]
- adaptive nonlinear heteroscedastic model (Blum and François 2010) [ANLH] \rightarrow two-step procedure:
 - 1. perform a LocNLH regression and estimate the distribution support *D* of the adjusted values
 - 2. perform a second LocNLH regression using parameters values samples from p_D , the conditional prior of the parameters given that they fall in D
- penalized regression (Wegmann et al. 2016)
- best subset selection (via criteria such as AIC or BIC for example) (Numes and Balding 2010, Blum et al. 2013)

• As outputs of the previous approaches, we get a sample of the ABC posterior

- As outputs of the previous approaches, we get a sample of the ABC posterior
- However, we are sometimes only interested in some quantities from this posterior distribution (e.g. quantiles, mean, ...)

Methods based on quantile regression

- As outputs of the previous approaches, we get a sample of the ABC posterior
- However, we are sometimes only interested in some quantities from this posterior distribution (e.g. quantiles, mean, ...)
- $\rightarrow\,$ what if we try to approximate these quantities using ABC instead of the whole posterior ?

Methods based on quantile regression

- As outputs of the previous approaches, we get a sample of the ABC posterior
- However, we are sometimes only interested in some quantities from this posterior distribution (e.g. quantiles, mean, ...)
- $\rightarrow\,$ what if we try to approximate these quantities using ABC instead of the whole posterior ?

- As outputs of the previous approaches, we get a sample of the ABC posterior
- However, we are sometimes only interested in some quantities from this posterior distribution (e.g. quantiles, mean, ...)
- $\rightarrow\,$ what if we try to approximate these quantities using ABC instead of the whole posterior ?

Some examples

- Raynal et al. 2016 suggested the use of random forests combined with quantile regression [qRF]
- Other machine learning algorithms could be used, e.g. gradient boosting methods, also combined with quantile regression [qGBM]

Results

Simulated data

• We simulated three datasets corresponding to different parameter values



- We generated *M* = 100 000 parameter samples from the prior and *M* corresponding simulated datasets
- Summary statistics were defined as : min, max, mean, quantiles of order 25%, 50% (median), 75%, and number of 0 observed per landuse type, and per combination of landuse type and flowering period

ightarrow from 790 observations to 112 summary statistics

Results (no local linear approaches)



Results (no local linear approaches)





Posterior mean - posterior median for CPF model parameters

Param	True	LocNLH 5%	LocNLH 2.5%	ANLH 5%	qRF
$ au_0$	750	512 / 499	510 / 498	679 / 684	691 / 717
	750	501 / 476	512 / 486	556 / 550	454 / 419
	100	249 / 196	230 / 173	192 / 170	214 / 158
fo	0.05	0.167 / 0.101	0.174 / 0.103	0.095 / 0.076	0.102 / 0.069
	0.05	0.166 / 0.102	0.164 / 0.100	0.111 / 0.090	0.111 / 0.082
	0.05	0.172 / 0.109	0.167 / 0.101	0.124 / 0.097	0.212 / 0.114
а	500	532 / 534	539 / 548	545 / 547	592 / 635
	250	537 / 544	538 / 543	549 / 551	588 / 599
	500	526 / 522	534 / 537	545 / 540	559 / 575
b	200	538 / 537	548 / 559	541 / 534	526 / 518
	250	542 / 545	538 / 538	542 / 539	498 / 477
	200	519 / 517	526 / 529	533 / 539	510 / 480



Param	MAP	95% CI	-	Param	MAP	95% CI
τ_0	623	[425 ; 855]		β_1	-2.54	[-6.53 ; 0.624]
f_0	0.137	[0.021 ; 0.540]		β_2	11.8	[4.54 ; 16.8]
а	640	[166 ; 948]		β_3	-0.270	[-3.54 ; 2.56]
b	578	[144 ; 928]		σ^2	1.40	[0.253 ; 17.8]

Conclusion and discussion
- Preliminary results suggest that some parameters are difficult to infer
- Methods based on nonlinear local regression perform better
- Improvements are needed to enhance predictive quality
- Results are conditional on the floral and nesting maps

- Evaluate the performances of the methods on more simulated data (computation of RMSE)
- Another choice for the summary statistics?
- Influence of the origin of the data (STEP study vs COST study)?
- Use the estimated ABC posterior distribution to tune likelihood-free MCMC algorithms (initialization of the chain, choice of the proposal distribution) (e.g. Wegmann 2009)
- Evaluate the influence of the input maps