ABC(SMC)^2: Simultaneous inference and model checking of chemical reaction networks

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Abstract. We present an approach that simultaneously infers model parameters while statistically verifying properties of interest to chemical reaction networks, which we observe through data and we model as parametrised continuous-time Markov Chains. The new approach simultaneously integrates learning models from data, done by likelihood-free Bayesian inference, specifically Approximate Bayesian Computation, with formal verification over models, done by statistically model checking properties expressed as logical specifications (in CSL). The approach generates a probability (or credibility calculation) on whether a given chemical reaction network satisfies a property of interest.

1 Introduction

Contribution We introduce a framework that integrates Bayesian inference and formal verification that additionally employs supervised machine learning, which allows for model-based probabilistic verification of data-generating stochastic biological systems. The methodology performs data-driven inference of accurate models, which contributes to the verification of whether or not the underlying stochastic system satisfies a given formal property of interest. Verification entails the estimation of the probability that models of the system satisfy a formal specification. Our framework accommodates partially known systems that might only generate finite, noisy observations. These systems are captured by parametric models, with uncertain rates within a known stoichiometry.

Related Work Bayesian inference techniques [9, 10] have been applied extensively to biological systems [42, 49]. Exact inference is in general difficult due to the intractability of the likelihood function, which has led to likelihood-free methods such as Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) [44, 48]. [22] computes the probability that an underlying stochastic system satisfies a given property using data produced by the system and leveraging system's models. Along this line of work, the integration of verification of parameterised discrete-time Markov chains and Bayesian inference is considered in [38], with an extension to Markov decision processes in [39]. Both [38, 39] work with small finite-state models with fully observable traces, which allows the posterior probability distribution to be calculated analytically and parameters to be synthesised symbolically. On the contrary, here we work with partially observed data and stochastic models with

intractable likelihoods, and must rely on likelihood-free methods and statistical parameter synthesis procedures. Building on previous work [36], which allowed for likelhood-free Bayesian Verification of systems, the presented framework is applicable to a wider variety of stochastic models.

Both probabilistic and statistical model checking have been applied to biological models [31, 32, 51], with tools for parameter synthesis [11, 12]. Although the parameter synthesis approach in [11] rigorously calculates the satisfaction probability over the whole parameter space, it suffers from scalability issues. A Bayesian approach to statistical model checking is considered in [27] and partly inspires this work. Parametric verification has been considered from a statistical approach underpinned by Gaussian Processes: smoothed Model checking [5] provides an estimate of the satisfaction probability with uncertainty estimates, and has been used for parameter estimation from Boolean observations [7] and for parameter synthesis [8]. [2] proposes a methodology that, given a reachability specification, computes a related probability distribution on the parameter space, and an automaton-based adaptation of the ABC method is introduced to estimate it.

Approach Our framework is as follows (Section 3). Given a property of interest, a class of parametrised models and data from the underlying system, we simultaneously infer parameters and perform model-based statistical model checking. We then use a supervised machine learning method to determine regions of the parameter space that relate to models verifying the given property of interest. We integrate the generated posterior over these synthesised parameter regions, to quantify a probability (or credibility calculation) on whether or not the system satisfies the given property. We apply this framework to Chemical Reaction Networks (CRNs) [23, 49] (Section 4), representing the data-generating biological system, which can be modelled by parametrised continuous-time Markov Chains [28]. We argue that the alternative use of CRN data for black-box statistical model checking would be infeasible.

2 Background

2.1 Parametric Continuous-Time Markov Chains

Although our methodology can be applied to a number of parametrised stochastic models, in view of the applications of interest we work with discrete-state, continuous-time Markov chains [28].

Definition 1 (Continuous-time Markov Chain). *A continuous-time Markov chain (CTMC) $\mathcal{M}$ is a tuple (S, R, AP, L), where;*

- *S is a finite, non-empty set of states,*
- *s_0 is the initial state of the CTMC,*
- *$R : S \times S \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is the transition rate matrix, where $R(s, s')$ is the rate of transition from state s to state s',*

– $L : S \to 2^{AP}$ *is a labelling function mapping each state,* $s \in S$*, to the set* $L(s) \subseteq AP$ *of atomic propositions* AP*, that hold true in* s*.*

For the models in this paper, we assume s_0 is unique and deterministically given. The transition rate matrix R governs the dynamics of the overall model.

Definition 2 (Path of a CTMC). *Let* $\mathcal{M} = (S, R, AP, L)$ *be a CTMC. An infinite path of a CTMC* $\mathcal{M}$ *is a non-empty sequence* $s_0 t_0 s_1 t_1 \dots$ *where* $R(s_i, s_{i+1}) > 0$ *and* $t_i \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ *for all* $i \geq 0$*. A finite path is a sequence* $s_0 t_0 s_1 t_1 \dots s_{k-1} t_{k-1} s_k$ *such that* s_k *is absorbing. The value* t_i *represents the amount of time spent in the state* s_i *before jumping to the next state in the chain, namely state* s_{i+1}*. We denote by* $Path^{\mathcal{M}}(s)$ *the set of all (infinite or finite) paths of the CTMC* $\mathcal{M}$ *starting in state* s*. A trace of a CTMC is the mapping of a path through the labelling function* L*.*

Parametric CTMCs extend the notion of CTMC by allowing transition rates to depend on a vector of model parameters, $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^k$. The domain of each parameter θ_i is given by a closed bounded real interval describing the range of possible values, $[\theta_i^{\perp}, \theta_i^{\top}]$. The parameter space Θ is defined as the Cartesian product of the individual intervals, $\Theta = \bigtimes_{i \in \{1,\dots,k\}} [\theta_i^{\perp}, \theta_i^{\top}]$, so that Θ is a hyperrectangle.

Definition 3 (Parametric CTMC). *Let* Θ *be a parameter space. A parametric Continuous-time Markov Chain (pCTMC) over* θ *is a tuple* (S, R_θ, AP, L)*:*

– S, s_0, AP *and* L *are as in Definition 1, and*
– $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$ *is the vector of parameters, taking values in a compact hyperrectangle* $\Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^k_{\geq 0}$*,*
– $R_\theta : S \times S \to \mathbb{R}[\theta]$ *is the parametric rate matrix, where* $\mathbb{R}[\theta]$ *denotes a set of polynomials over* $\mathbb{R}^+$ *with variables* θ_k*,* $\theta \in \Theta$*.*

Given a pCTMC and a parameter space Θ, we denote with $\mathcal{M}_\Theta$ the set $\{\mathcal{M}_\theta, \theta \in \Theta\}$ where $\mathcal{M}_\theta = (S, R_\theta, AP, L)$ is the instantiated CTMC obtained by replacing the parameters in R with their valuation in θ. So a standard CTMC is induced by selecting a specific parameter $\theta \in \Theta$: the sampled paths of an instantiated pCTMC $\mathcal{M}_\theta$ are defined similarly to ω. In this work we deal with Chemical Reaction Networks (CRNs), which have dynamics that can be modelled by CTMCs.

Definition 4 (Chemical Reaction Network). *A Chemical Reaction Network (CRN)* $\mathcal{C}$ *is a tuple* $(M, X, W, \mathcal{R}, \boldsymbol{\upsilon})$*, where*

– $M = \{m_1, \dots, m_n\}$ *is a set of* n *species,*
– $X(t) = (X_1(t), ..., X_n(t))$ *is a vector where each* X_i *represents the number of molecules of each species* i *at time* t*.* $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}^N$ *the state space,*
– $\mathcal{R} = \{r_1, \dots, r_k\}$ *is the set of chemical reactions, each of the form* $r_j = (\boldsymbol{v}_j, \alpha_j)$*, with* $\boldsymbol{v}_j$ *the stoichiometry vector of size* n *and* $\alpha_j = \alpha_j(X, \upsilon_j)$ *is the propensity or rate function,*
– $\boldsymbol{\upsilon} = (\upsilon_1, \dots, \upsilon_k)$ *is the vector of (kinetic) parameters, taking values in a compact hyperrectangle* $\Upsilon \subset \mathbb{R}^k$*.*

Each reaction j of the CRN is represented as $r_j : \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_{j,i} m_i \xrightarrow{\alpha_j} \sum_{i=1}^{n} u'_{j,i} m_i$, where $u_{j,i}$ ($u'_{j,i}$) is the amount of species m_i consumed (produced) by reaction r_j. CRNs are used to model many biological processes and can be modelled by CTMCs if we consider each state of the pCTMC to be a unique combination of the number of species, taking a given species count X_0 to be the initial state of the pCTMC, $s_0 = X_0$. Parametrising the reaction rates within a CRN results in a parametric CRN (pCRN), which can be modelled as a pCTMC. For the rest of this paper, with a slight abuse in notation, we will let $\mathcal{M}_\theta$ be the pCTMC that represents a pCRN, where θ are the kinetic rates.

2.2 Properties - Continuous Stochastic Logic

We wish to verify properties over CRNs and their pCTMC models. We employ a time-bounded fragment of *continuous stochastic logic* (CSL) [1, 31].

Definition 5. *Let ϕ be a CSL formula interpreted over states $s \in S$ of a parametrised model $\mathcal{M}_\theta$, and φ be a formula over its paths. Its syntax is*

$$\phi := \mathit{true} \mid a \mid \neg\phi \mid \phi \wedge \phi \mid \phi \vee \phi \mid P_{\sim\zeta}[\varphi] \ ,$$

$$\varphi := X^{[t,t']}\phi \mid \phi_1 U^{[t,t']}\phi_2 \ ,$$

where $a \in AP$, $\sim \in \{<, \leq, \geq, >\}$, $\zeta \in [0,1]$, and $t, t' \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$.

$P_{\sim\zeta}[\varphi]$ holds if the probability of the path formula φ being satisfied from a given state meets $\sim \zeta$. Path formulas are defined by combining state formulas through temporal operators: $X^I\phi$ is true if ϕ holds if the next state of the Markov chain is reached at time $\tau \in I = [t, t']$, while $\phi_1 U^I \phi_2$ is true if ϕ_2 is satisfied at some $\tau \in I$ and ϕ_1 holds at all preceding time instants [31].

We define a *satisfaction function* to capture how the satisfaction probability of a given property over a model paths relates to its parameters and initial state.

Definition 6 (Satisfaction Function). *Let ϕ be a CSL formula, $\mathcal{M}_\theta$ be a parametrised model over a space Θ, s_0 is the initial state, and $Path^{\mathcal{M}_\theta}(s_0)$ is the set of all paths generated by $\mathcal{M}_\theta$ with initial state s_0. Denote by $\Lambda_\phi : \theta \to [0,1]$ the satisfaction function such that*

$$\Lambda_\phi(\theta) = P\left(\{\omega \in Path^{\mathcal{M}_\theta}(s_0) \models \varphi\} \mid \omega(0) = s_0\right), \tag{1}$$

where a path $\omega \models \varphi$ if its associated trace satisfies the path formula φ corresponding to the CSL formula ϕ. That is, $\Lambda_\phi(\theta)$ is the probability that the set of paths from a given pCMTC $\mathcal{M}_\theta$ satisfies a property φ. If $\Lambda_\phi(\theta) \sim \zeta$, then we say that $\mathcal{M}_\theta \models \phi$.

2.3 Bayesian Inference

Given a set of observations or data, y_{obs}, a parametrised model (either stochastic or deterministic), $\mathcal{M}_\theta$, and prior information, the task of Bayesian inference

is to learn the true model parameter via its probability distribution. Prior beliefs about the model parameters, expressed through a probability distribution $\pi(\theta)$, are updated via y_{obs}, where assumptions on the model's dynamics are encoded into the likelihood function $p(y_{obs}|\theta)$. Using Bayes' theorem, the posterior distribution is obtained as $\pi(\theta|y_{obs}) = p(y_{obs}|\theta)\pi(\theta)/\pi(y_{obs})$. When likelihood functions are intractable one can resort to likelihood-free methods, such as Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) [44], to approximate this posterior as $\pi_{ABC}(\theta|y_{obs}) \approx \pi(\theta|y_{obs})$.

Intractable Likelihoods for CRNs We discuss next why we resort to likelihood-free methods for inferring parameters of CRN networks from noisy data observed at discrete points in time. A biochemical reaction network model is a discrete-state, continuous-time Markov process, which can be described by the chemical master equation (CME) [19],

$$\frac{d\mathcal{P}(x,t|x_0)}{dt} = \sum_{j=1}^{M} \alpha_j(x,\theta_j)\mathcal{P}(x-v_j,t|x_0) - \mathcal{P}(x,t|x_0)\sum_{j=1}^{M}\alpha_j(x,\theta_j), \quad (2)$$

where $\mathcal{P}(x,t|x_0)$ is the probability that the state of the Markov chain at time t is $X(t) = x$, given $X(0) = x_0$, $v_{j,i} = u'_{j,i} - u_{j,i}$ with v_j being the jth column of the stoichiometric matrix $v_{j,i}$ and θ is the vector of kinetic parameters in the CRN. The solution of the CME characterises the exact probability that the model is in any state at any time. Unfortunately, analytic solutions to the CME are only known for very special (and restrictive) CRNs. Precise traces $y \sim p(y|\theta)$ from the CRN of interest $\mathcal{M}_\theta$ can be generated by the stochastic simulation algorithm [18]. Furthermore, often $X(t)$ cannot be observed directly. Instead, an observation of the state vector sample path is observed, $Y(t) = g(X(t))$, where g is an arbitrary observation function on $X(t)$.

To illustrate why we work with likelihood-free inference, we consider the simplest case that $Y(t) = X(t)$, that is, the entire trace can be perfectly observed at time t: in this simpler instance, the likelihood is given by

$$p(Y|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{W} \mathcal{P}(Y(t_i),\theta,t_i - t_{i-1}|Y(t_{i-1})), \quad (3)$$

where $\mathcal{P}$ is the solution to the chemical master equation which we note is dependent on the kinetic parameters θ, $t_0 = 0$ and W is the number of observations taken. So even in this simple case the likelihood depends on the solution to the CME, which is analytically intractable for many cases. As a result, the Bayesian posterior will not be analytically tractable, hence we resort to likelihood-free methods, such as ABC.

Approximate Bayesian Computation ABC methods [44] produce an approximation to the posterior probability distribution when the likelihood $p(y|\theta)$

is intractable. The likelihood is approximated by matching simulated data $y \sim p(y|\theta)$ with the observed data y_{obs}, according to some function of the distance $\|y - y_{obs}\|$ or correspondingly over summary statistics of the simulated and observed data, namely $\|s - s_{obs}\|$.

Ideally, the observations y_{obs} are directly mapped to the variables of the model, which is endowed with sufficient statistics y. However, in many real world settings, model variables cannot be fully observed, and moreover outputs y can be perturbed by noise due to measurement error. Since it is in general hard to identify a finite-dimensional set of sufficient statistics, it is common and computationally advantageous to use (insufficient) summary statistics $s = S(y)$, where function S performs a simplification of the signals y (e.g., averaging, smoothing, or sampling), and which ideally is so that $\pi(\theta|y_{obs}) = \pi(\theta|s_{obs})$ [40].

The procedure is as follows: first samples are generated by $\theta^* \sim \pi(\theta)$, each of which is used to generate simulated data $y \sim p(y|\theta)$, where the proposed sample θ^* is accepted if $\|y - y_{obs}\| \leq h$ for some $h \geq 0$, $h \in \mathbb{R}^+$, and rejected if $\|y - y_{obs}\| > h$. This procedure is equivalent to drawing a sample (θ, y) from the joint distribution

$$\pi_{ABC}(\theta, y|y_{obs}) \propto K_h(\|y - y_{obs}\|)p(y|\theta)\pi(\theta), \tag{4}$$

where $K_h(u)$ is a standard smoothing kernel function [43], which depends on a predetermined distance h and on $u = \|y - y_{obs}\|$. A standard choice we use for the smoothing kernel function is the indicator function, where $K_h(\|y - y_{obs}\|) = 1$ if $\|y - y_{obs}\| \leq h$, and $K_h(\|y - y_{obs}\|) = 0$ otherwise. Accordingly, the ABC approximation to the true posterior distribution is

$$\pi_{ABC}(\theta|y_{obs}) = \int \pi_{ABC}(\theta, y|y_{obs})dy. \tag{5}$$

As $h \to 0$ samples from the true posterior distribution are obtained [44] as:

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \pi_{ABC}(\theta|y_{obs}) \propto \int \delta_{y_{obs}}(y)p(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)dy = p(y_{obs}|\theta)\pi(\theta),$$

where $\delta_{y_{obs}}(y)$ is the Dirac delta measure, where $\delta_x(A) = 1$ if $x \in A$ and $\delta_x(A) = 0$ otherwise. In practice, it is highly unlikely that $y \approx y_{obs}$ can be generated from $p(y|\theta)$, thus a non-trivial scale parameter h is needed. Furthermore, the full datasets y_{obs} and y are often replaced by summary statistics s_{obs} and s, respectively, leading to sampling from the posterior distribution $\pi_{ABC}(\theta|s_{obs})$. The ABC approximation to $\pi(\theta|s_{obs})$ is given by

$$\pi_{ABC}(\theta|s_{obs}) \propto \int K_h(\|s - s_{obs}\|)p(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)dy, \tag{6}$$

where, by slight abuse of notation, $K_h(\|s - s_{obs}\|)$ is defined as for y, y_{obs}.

Approximate Bayesian Computation - Sequential Monte Carlo The major issue with standard ABC is that if the prior $\pi(\theta)$ differs from the posterior distribution, $p(\theta|y_{obs})$, then the acceptance rates, namely the rates at which

sampled parameters are accepted, will be low, thus resulting in more proposed parameters and associated simulations, which leads to an increase in computational burden. Approximate Bayesian Computation - Sequential Monte Carlo (ABCSMC) [47] techniques are developed to mitigate this issue. ABCSMC algorithms [46, 47] (cf. Appendix A) are designed to overcome this burden by constructing a sequence of slowly-changing intermediate distributions, $f_m(\theta)$, $m = 0, \ldots, M$, where $f_0(\theta) = \pi(\theta)$ is the initial sampling distribution and $f_M(\theta) = f(\theta)$ is the target distribution of interest, namely the approximated posterior, $\pi_{ABC}(\theta|s_{obs})$. A population of particles or samples from generation m, $\theta_m^{(i)}$, where $i = 1, \ldots, N$ is the number of particles, are propagated between these distributions sequentially, so that these intermediary distributions act as an importance sampling scheme [44], which is a technique used to sample from a distribution that over-weights specific regions of interest. This technique attempts to bridge the gap between the prior $\pi(\theta)$ and the (unknown) posterior $\pi(\theta|s_{obs})$. In the ABCSMC framework, a natural choice for the sequence of intermediary distributions is

$$f_m(\theta) = \pi_{ABC}^{h_m}(\theta, s|s_{obs}) \propto K_{h_m}(\|s - s_{obs}\|)p(y|\theta)\pi(\theta), \tag{7}$$

where $m = 0, \ldots, M$ and h_m is a monotonically decreasing sequence, namely such that $h_m > h_{m+1} \geq 0$. As above, K_{h_m} is the standard smoothing kernel, which now depends on the distance h_m. We expect that $\lim_{h_m \to 0} \pi_{ABC}^{h_m}(\theta|s_{obs}) = \pi(\theta|s_{obs})$ [44], and that the more samples N are generated, the more accurate the approximated quantity will become.

A key part of the ABCSMC scheme is the generation of samples θ^* and the setting of weights (which is typical for other importance sampling schemes). Sample θ^* is initially ($m = 0$) taken from the prior and subsequently ($m > 0$) sampled from the intermediary distributions $f_{m-1}(\theta)$ through its corresponding weights (see below), as parameter $\theta_{m-1}^{(j)}$. Afterwards, θ^* is perturbed into θ^{**} by a kernel, $F_m(\theta^{**}|\theta^*)$. For the perturbed parameter, θ^{**}, a number of B_t simulations y_b, and in turn s^b, are generated from $p(y|\theta^{**})$, and the quantity $b_t(\theta^{**}) = \sum_{b=1}^{B_t} K_{h_m}(\|s^b - s_{obs}\|)$ is calculated. If $b_t(\theta^{**}) = 0$, then θ^{**} is discarded and we resample θ^* again. Otherwise, the accepted θ^{**} results in the pair $\{\theta_m^{(i)}, w_m^{(i)}\}$, where the corresponding weights $w_m^{(i)}$ are set to

$$w_m^{(i)} = \begin{cases} b_t\left(\theta_m^{(i)}\right), & \text{if } m = 0 \\ \dfrac{\pi\left(\theta_m^{(i)}\right) b_t\left(\theta_m^{(i)}\right)}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} w_{m-1}^{(j)} F_m\left(\theta_m^{(i)}|\theta_{m-1}^{(j)}\right)}, & \text{if } m > 0 \end{cases} \tag{8}$$

and later normalised, after re-sampling each ith particle, $i = 1, \ldots, N$. If B_t is large, the estimate of $\pi_{ABC}(\theta|s_{obs})$ is accurate, which implies the acceptance probability is accurate, but it might come at the cost of many Monte Carlo draws. Conversely, if B_t is small, the acceptance probability is cheaper to evaluate [4] but can become highly variable.

The algorithm controls the transitioning between the intermediary distributions $f_{m-1}(\theta)$ and $f_m(\theta)$, by setting a user-inputted rate υ, at which the thresholds h_m reduce until the algorithm stops. Stopping rules for ABCSMC schemes vary: here, we have opted for terminating the algorithm after a predetermined number M of steps (a.k.a. epochs). The algorithm returns weighted samples,

$$\left\{\theta_M^{(i)}, w_M^{(i)}\right\} \sim \pi_{ABC}^{h_M}(\theta|s_{obs}) \propto \int K_{h_M}(\|s - s_{obs}\|)p(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)dy.$$

2.4 Statistical Model Checking with the Massart Algorithm

Statistical model checking (SMC) techniques are used to estimate the validity of quantitative properties of probabilistic systems by simulating traces from an executable model of the system [33]. Unlike precise (up to numerics) probabilisitic model checking, SMC results are typically attained with statistical precision and can come, in particular, with confidence bounds [13, 35]. In this work, we require Monte Carlo simulations to estimate the probability of properties of interest with a user-defined degree of accuracy (denoted below as ϵ). This can be obtained via standard concentration inequalities, such as the Chernoff [13] or the Okamoto [37] bounds. We wish to estimate a probability $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta)$ that approximates the unknown $\Lambda_\phi(\theta)$ within an absolute error ϵ and with a $(1-\delta)$ confidence lower bound, namely

$$P(|\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta) - \Lambda_\phi(\theta)| > \epsilon) \leq \delta. \tag{9}$$

For instance, the Okamoto bound ensures that drawing $n \geq n_{\mathcal{O}} = \lceil \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2} \log \frac{2}{\delta} \rceil$ simulations, results in an estimate $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta)$ with a statistical guarantee as in (9), where $\delta = 2\exp\left(-2n\epsilon^2\right)$.

In this work, we leverage the sharper Massart bounds [34]: we use the Sequential Massart algorithm [25,26] (described below), which progressively defines confidence intervals of the estimated probability and then applies the Massart bounds [34]. Massart bounds depend on the unknown probability $\Lambda_\phi(\theta)$ that we are estimating, which forces one to numerically evaluate with certainty an interval in which $\Lambda_\phi(\theta)$ evolves. Let us denote by $C(\Lambda_\phi(\theta), I)$ the coverage of $\Lambda_\phi(\theta)$ by a confidence interval I, i.e., the probability that $\Lambda_\phi(\theta) \in I$.

Theorem 1 (Absolute-Error Massart Bound with Coverage [26]). *Let $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta)$ be the probability estimated from n Monte Carlo simulations, ϵ be a given error, $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi^L(\theta)$ and $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi^U(\theta)$ be the lower and upper bounds of a confidence interval $I = [\hat{\Lambda}_\phi^L(\theta), \hat{\Lambda}_\phi^U(\theta)]$ and I^c be its complement within $[0,1]$. The Massart bound is defined as*

$$P(|\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta) - \Lambda_\phi(\theta)| > \epsilon) \leq 2\exp\left(-n\epsilon^2 h_a(\Lambda_\phi(\theta), \epsilon)\right) + C(\Lambda_\phi(\theta), I^c), \tag{10}$$

$$\text{where } h_a(\Lambda_\phi(\theta), \epsilon) = \begin{cases} \frac{9}{2}\frac{1}{(3\Lambda_\phi(\theta)+\epsilon)(3(1-\Lambda_\phi(\theta))-\epsilon)}, & \text{if } 0 < \Lambda_\phi(\theta) < 1/2 \\ \frac{9}{2}\frac{1}{(3(1-\Lambda_\phi(\theta))+\epsilon)(3\Lambda_\phi(\theta)+\epsilon)}, & \text{if } 1/2 \leq \Lambda_\phi(\theta) < 1. \end{cases}$$

Notice that the above theorem requires the true satisfaction probability $\Lambda_\phi(\theta)$, which is not known. We can replace it with its estimate $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta)$, which can be conservatively set to $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta) = \hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi(\theta)$ if $\hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi(\theta) < 1/2$, $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta) = \hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi(\theta)$ if $\hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi(\theta) > 1/2$, and $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta) = 1/2$ if $1/2 \in I$. The following sample-size result follows:

Theorem 2 ([26]). *Let α be a coverage parameter chosen such that $\alpha < \delta$ and $C(\Lambda_\phi(\theta), I^c) < \alpha$. Under the conditions of Theorem 1, a Monte Carlo algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ that outputs an estimate $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta)$ fulfils the condition in* (9) *if* $n > \lceil \frac{1}{h_a(\Lambda_\phi(\theta),\epsilon)\epsilon^2} \log \frac{2}{\delta-\alpha} \rceil$.

The Sequential Massart Algorithm requires three inputs: an error parameter ϵ and two confidence parameters δ and α. Initially, $\hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi(\theta) = 0$, $\hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi(\theta) = 1$, $C(\Lambda_\phi(\theta), [0,1]^c) = 0$, and $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta) = 1/2$, which results in the Okamoto-like bound with $h_a(1/2, \epsilon) \approx 2$ when $\epsilon \to 0$: the quantity $n_{\mathcal{O}} = \lceil \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2} \log \frac{2}{\delta} \rceil$ thus represents an upper-bound on the number of simulations required for the statistical guarantees. After each sampled trace, we update both a Monte Carlo estimator and a $(1-\alpha)$-confidence interval for $\Lambda_\phi(\theta)$. The updated confidence interval is then used in the Massart function to compute an updated required sample size n satisfying Theorem 2. This process is repeated until the calculated sample size is lower than or equal to the current number of simulated traces.

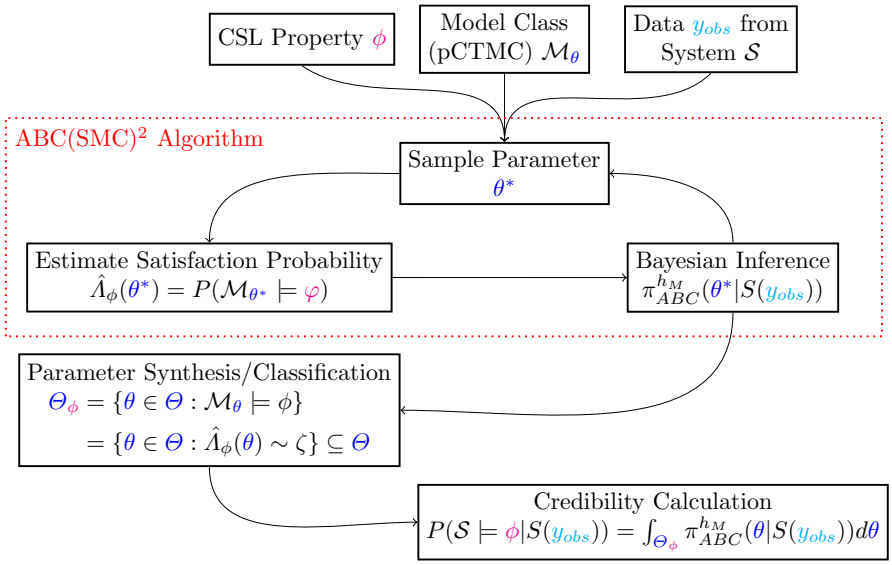


Fig. 1. Bayesian Verification via ABC(SMC)^2.

2.5 Bayesian Verification

In this work we extend the Bayesian Verification framework (cf. Fig. 4 in the Appendix) introduced in [36], which addresses the following problem. Consider a data generating stochastic system $\mathcal{S}$ (in this work, a CRN), where we denote the generated data as y_{obs}. We are interested in verifying a CSL property of interest ϕ over system $\mathcal{S}$ using sampled observations of the underlying system, y_{obs}, or a summary statistics $s_{obs} = S(y_{obs})$ thereof. We assume this goal cannot be reliably attained by means of statistical techniques directly applied on data y_{obs} (for instance, in the case studies later, we can access only very few observations). To tackle this problem, we integrate model-based techniques (formal verification) with the use of data (Bayesian inference). Suppose that we have sufficient knowledge to propose a parametric model that adequately describes the underlying system, $\mathcal{M}_\theta$. We employ Bayesian inference to learn the posterior probability distribution of the model, namely $\pi(\theta|s_{obs})$ from (possibly scarce) data s_{obs}. We also use this parametric model to formally verify the property of interest ϕ, as follows. We synthesise two complementary parameter regions, $\Theta_\phi = \{\theta \in \Theta : \mathcal{M}_\theta \models \phi\}$ and $\Theta_{\neg\phi} = \{\theta \in \Theta : \mathcal{M}_\theta \not\models \phi\}$. We then integrate the inferred posterior probability distribution over Θ_ϕ to obtain the credibility calculation, which represents the probability that the underlying system $\mathcal{S}$ satisfies the property:

$$\mathcal{C} = P(\mathcal{S} \models \phi|s_{obs}) = \int_{\Theta_\phi} \pi(\theta|s_{obs})\mathrm{d}\theta. \tag{11}$$

If needed, this integral can be estimated via Monte Carlo methods. A complementary result can be drawn over $\Theta_{\neg\phi}$. The full procedure and further details are presented in [36] and summarised in Appendix B.

The limitations of the Bayesian Verification framework of [36] lie in the parameter synthesis part. Parameter synthesis of pCTMCs is considered in the work of [11], and accelerated by means of GPU processing in [12]. This and related probabilistic approaches to parameter synthesis are limited to finite-state systems that can be easily uniformised. In many practical applications they do not scale to realistic models. To address this limitation, we resort to statistical approaches (via SMC) for parameter synthesis, similar to [8]: whilst in this work we zoom in on CSL formulae with the provided semantics, it is of interest to look beyond this logic. We formally integrate the SMC technique into the algorithm that performs Bayesian inference. More precisely, we utilise the simulations needed in the ABCSMC algorithm to perform SMC, which yields the estimation of the probability of satisfying the property of interest, $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta)$. Whilst the ABCSMC algorithm rejects parts of the sampled parameters, we propose to retain these samples, and their corresponding simulations, to later provide a classification (via support vector machines) of the parameter space. With these statistically-estimated parameter regions, we complete the Bayesian Verification framework, as per (11). The new framework (detailed in the next section and presented in Fig. 1), which employs models to extract information from the observation data s_{obs}, is likelihood-free and entirely based on simulations, which makes it usable with models of different size and structure.

3 ABC(SMC)^2: Approximate Bayesian Computation - Sequential Monte Carlo with Statistical Model Checking

We address the scalability limitations of our previous work [36], and specifically the parameter synthesis part: in [36] the synthesis was calculated symbolically, which practically limited the applicability to CTMCs with small state spaces and a few parameters. We incorporate here statistical model checking within the Bayesian inference framework and instead *estimate* parameter regions. We name the modified algorithm Approximate Bayesian Computation - Sequential Monte Carlo with Statistical Model Checking: ABC(SMC)^2 and present it in Fig. 1.

In the ABCSMC scheme (Algorithm 2 in Appendix A), a total of B_t simulations are performed for each sampled parameter θ^{**}, whether the sample is retained or not towards the approximate posterior $\pi^{h_M}_{ABC}(\theta|s_{obs})$: this leads to a considerable amount of wasted computational effort. We propose instead to statistically model check (SMC) each of the sampled parametrised models by means of the generated simulations, whilst parameter inference on the model is run (ABCSMC); we shall use the outcome of the SMC algorithm for the Bayesian Verification framework, by classifying the parameter synthesis regions using statistical approaches.

At any of the M iterations, for each sampled point $\theta^{**} \in \Theta$, we estimate the probability $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta^{**}) \approx \Lambda_\phi(\theta^{**})$, with statistical guarantees, that an instantiated model $\mathcal{M}_{\theta^{**}}$ satisfies a given property of interest ϕ, namely $P(\mathcal{M}_{\theta^{**}} \models \varphi) = \hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta^{**})$. We then proceed with the ABCSMC algorithm as normal, calculating whether the sampled parameter θ^{**} contributes to the approximate posterior (acceptance) or not (rejection). In addition to producing samples $\{\theta^{(i)}_{h_M}, w^{(i)}_{h_M}\}$, which allows one to construct an approximation of the posterior distribution $\pi^{h_M}_{ABC}(\theta|s_{obs})$, the algorithm outputs $\left\{\theta^{**}, \hat{\Lambda}_\phi\left(\theta^{**}\right), \hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi\left(\theta^{**}\right), \hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi\left(\theta^{**}\right)\right\}$ for all the sampled parameters θ^{**} (whether accepted or not). These values are later used to train an SVM classifier to generate the parameter synthesis regions. We shall then integrate the approximate posterior over the classified parameter regions, to obtain a credibility calculation.

3.1 ABC(SMC)^2

Recall that the output of the ABCSMC algorithm is a set of samples $\theta^{(i)}_M$ with their corresponding weights $w^{(i)}_M$, which satisfy the following:

$$\{\theta^{(i)}_M, w^{(i)}_M\} \sim \pi^{h_M}_{ABC}(\theta|s_{obs}) \propto \int K_{h_M}\left(\|s - s_{obs}\|\right) p(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)dy, \qquad (12)$$

where $i = 1, \ldots, N$ is the number of particles used to approximate the posterior. For each parameter θ^{**}, simulation data is generated from the model $y_b \sim p(y|\theta^{**})$ to calculate $s^b = S(y_b)$, for a total of B_t times, and this data is used to estimate $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta^{**}) \approx \Lambda_\phi(\theta^{**})$.

We utilise the sequential Massart algorithm [26] presented in the previous section for this SMC procedure. We replace the number of simulations for each

sampled parameter, B_t, with the calculated minimum number of samples estimated in the sequential Massart algorithm [26], $B_t = n \leq n_{\mathcal{O}}$, to calculate an estimated probability $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta^{**})$ with accuracy and confidence. We sample θ^{**} a total of R times, whether or not these samples are accepted as samples from the posterior at any generation m. For these sampled parameters, $\theta^{(r)}$, $r = 1, \ldots, R$, we estimate the corresponding mean estimated probabilities $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi\left(\theta^{(r)}\right)$ and $(1-\delta)$ uncertainty bounds: $\left\{\theta^{(r)}, \hat{\Lambda}_\phi\left(\theta^{(r)}\right), \hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi\left(\theta^{(r)}\right), \hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi\left(\theta^{(r)}\right)\right\}$. Here R depends on the acceptance rate of the sampled parameters $\theta^{(r)}$, where $R \geq N \times M$, where N is the number of particles to sample and M is the total number of generations of the ABCSMC scheme. From this new algorithm, we obtain a set of weighted parameter vectors from the final generation M, $\{\theta^{(i)}_M, w^{(i)}_M\} \sim \pi^{h_M}_{ABC}(\theta|s_{obs})$ where $i = 1, \ldots, N$, as well as R sampled parameters and their corresponding estimated probabilities $\left\{\theta^{(r)}, \hat{\Lambda}_\phi\left(\theta^{(r)}\right), \hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi\left(\theta^{(r)}\right), \hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi\left(\theta^{(r)}\right)\right\}_{r=1}^{R}$.

We present the ABC(SMC)^2 scheme in Algorithm 1, with the $MASSART$ function corresponding to the Absolute-Error Massart Algorithm presented in Appendix C. The ABC(SMC)^2 algorithm takes as inputs a property of interest, ϕ, a prior probability distribution $\pi(\theta)$ an absolute-error tolerance ϵ as well as a coverage parameter α and confidence value δ. The estimated probabilities $\left\{\theta^{(r)}, \hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta)^{(r)}, \hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi(\theta)^{(r)}, \hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi(\theta)^{(r)}\right\}$, will be utilised for approximate parameter synthesis, which is discussed in the next section.

3.2 Approximate Parameter Synthesis via Statistical MC

The aim of parameter synthesis is to partition the parameter space Θ according to the satisfaction of the CSL property ϕ. Unlike the PMC-based synthesis in [36] (recalled in Sec. 2.5), we utilise a statistical approach to classify the parameter space, akin to [8]. So instead of employing the true satisfaction probability $\Lambda_\phi(\theta) \sim \zeta$ (where ζ is the probability bound contained in formula ϕ) to determine Θ_ϕ (and its complement), we use $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta^{(r)})$, a statistical approximation computed at each sampled parameter point $\theta^{(r)}$. Evidently, recalling the confidence parameter δ, we should compute $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta^{(r)}) \sim \zeta \pm \epsilon$ (where the sign $\pm$ depends on the direction of the inequality $\sim$).

In practice, we use the estimated lower $\hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi(\theta^{(r)})$ and upper bounds $\hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi(\theta^{(r)})$, such that $\Lambda_\phi(\theta^{(r)}) \in \left[\hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi(\theta^{(r)}), \hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi(\theta^{(r)})\right]$, to partition the parameter space as:

- $\Theta_\phi = \{\theta \in \Theta : \hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi(\theta) > \zeta\}$,
- $\Theta_{\neg\phi} = \{\theta \in \Theta : \hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi(\theta) < \zeta\}$,
- $\Theta_{\mathcal{U}} = \Theta \backslash (\Theta_\phi \cup \Theta_{\neg\phi})$.

Notice that these formulas are a function of $\theta \in \Theta$. Since in the ABC(SMC)^2 procedure we generate a finite number of parameter samples $\theta^{(r)}$, which are biased towards the sought posterior distribution, there might be areas of the parameter space Θ that are insufficiently covered. We thus resort to supervised learning techniques to classify parameter synthesis regions: we utilise support

Algorithm 1 ABC(SMC)^2

Input:

- CSL specification ϕ
- Prior distribution $\pi(\theta)$ and data generating function $p(y|\theta)$
- A kernel function $K_h(u)$ and scale parameter $h > 0$ where $u = \|y - y_{obs}\|$
- $N > 0$, number of particles used to estimate posterior distributions
- Sequence of perturbation kernels $F_m(\theta|\theta^*)$, $m = 1, \ldots, M$
- A quantile $\upsilon \in [0, 1]$ to control the rate of decrease of thresholds h_m
- Summary statistic function $s = S(y)$
- Parameters for statistical MC: absolute-error value ϵ, confidence δ, coverage α

Output:

- Set of weighted parameter vectors $\left\{\theta_M^{(i)}, w_M^{(i)}\right\}_{i=1}^N$ drawn from $\pi_{ABC}(\theta|s_{obs}) \propto \int K_{h_M}(\|s - s_{obs}\|)p(s|\theta)\pi(\theta)ds$
- Set of parameters with corresponding estimated mean, $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi\left(\theta^{(r)}\right)$ and $(1-\delta)$ confidence interval $\left[\hat{\Lambda}_\phi^L\left(\theta^{(r)}\right), \hat{\Lambda}_\phi^U\left(\theta^{(r)}\right)\right]$ of estimated probability to satisfy ϕ, $P\left(\mathcal{M}_{\theta^{(r)}} \models \varphi\right) = \hat{\Lambda}_\phi\left(\theta^{(r)}\right)$: $\left\{\theta^{(r)}, \hat{\Lambda}_\phi\left(\theta^{(r)}\right), \hat{\Lambda}_\phi^L\left(\theta^{(r)}\right), \hat{\Lambda}_\phi^U\left(\theta^{(r)}\right)\right\}$

1: Set $r = 0$
2: **for** $m = 0, \ldots, M$: **do**
3: **for** $i = 0, \ldots, N$: **do**
4: **if** $m = 0$ **then**
5: Sample $\theta^{**} \sim \pi(\theta)$
6: **else**
7: Sample θ^* from the previous population $\{\theta_{m-1}^{(i)}\}$ with weights $\{w_{m-1}^{(i)}\}$ and perturb the particle to obtain $\theta^{**} \sim F_m(\theta|\theta^*)$
8: **end if**.
9: **if** $\pi(\theta^{**}) = 0$ **then**
10: **goto** line 3
11: **end if**
12: Calculate $\left(\left\{\hat{\Lambda}_\phi\left(\theta^{**}\right), [\hat{\Lambda}_\phi^L\left(\theta^{**}\right), \hat{\Lambda}_\phi^U\left(\theta^{**}\right)\right\}, B_t, \sum_{b=1}^{B_t} K_{h_m}(\|s^b - s_{obs}\|), \bar{d}\right)$ from the modified Massart Algorithm: $MASSART\left(\epsilon, \delta, \alpha, h_m, \theta^{**}, s_{obs}\right)$
13: Calculate $b_t(\theta^{**}) = \frac{1}{B_t}\sum_{b=1}^{B_t} K_{h_m}(\|s^b - s_{obs}\|)$
14: Set $\left(\theta^{(r)}, \hat{\Lambda}_\phi\left(\theta^{(r)}\right), \hat{\Lambda}_\phi^L\left(\theta^{(r)}\right), \hat{\Lambda}_\phi^U\left(\theta^{(r)}\right)\right) = \left(\theta^{**}, \hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta^{**}), \hat{\Lambda}_\phi^L(\theta^{**}), \hat{\Lambda}_\phi^U(\theta^{**})\right)$
15: $r \leftarrow r + 1$
16: **if** $b_t(\theta^{**}) = 0$ **then**
17: **goto** line 3
18: **end if**
19: Set $\theta_m^{(i)} = \theta^{**}$, $\bar{d}_m^{(i)} = \bar{d} = \frac{1}{B_t}\sum_{b=1}^{B_t}\|s^b - s_{obs}\|$ and calculate

20:
$$w_m^{(i)} = \begin{cases} b_t\left(\theta_m^{(i)}\right), & \text{if } m = 0 \\ \dfrac{\pi\left(\theta_m^{(i)}\right) b_t\left(\theta_m^{(i)}\right)}{\sum_{j=1}^N w_{m-1}^{(j)} F_m\left(\theta_m^{(i)}|\theta_{m-1}^{(j)}\right)}, & \text{if } m > 0 \end{cases}$$

21: **end for**
22: Normalise weights: $w_m^{(i)} \leftarrow w_m^{(i)} / \left(\sum_{i=1}^N w_m^{(i)}\right)$
23: Set $h_{m+1} = (\upsilon/N)\sum_{i=1}^N \bar{d}_m^{(i)}$
24: **end for**
25: **return** $\left\{\left(\theta_M^{(i)}, w_M^{(i)}\right)\right\}_{i=1}^N$, $\left\{\theta^{(r)}, \hat{\Lambda}_\phi\left(\theta^{(r)}\right), \hat{\Lambda}_\phi^L\left(\theta^{(r)}\right), \hat{\Lambda}_\phi^U\left(\theta^{(r)}\right)\right\}_{r=1}^R$

vector machines (SVMs) [14,45] as a classification technique. We train the SVM classifier on the data produced from the ABC(SMC)^2 algorithm, namely on the set $\{\theta^{(r)}, \hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta^{(r)}), \hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi(\theta^{(r)}), \hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi(\theta^{(r)})\}$ where $r = 1, \ldots, R$. The SVM which is trained on this data then provides a non-linear classifying function, $\xi_\phi(\theta)$, where $\xi_\phi(\theta) = 1$ if $\theta \in \Theta_\phi$, $\xi_\phi(\theta) = -1$ if $\theta \in \Theta_{\neg\phi}$ and $\xi_\phi(\theta) = 0$ if $\theta \in \Theta_{\mathcal{U}}$.

4 Experiments

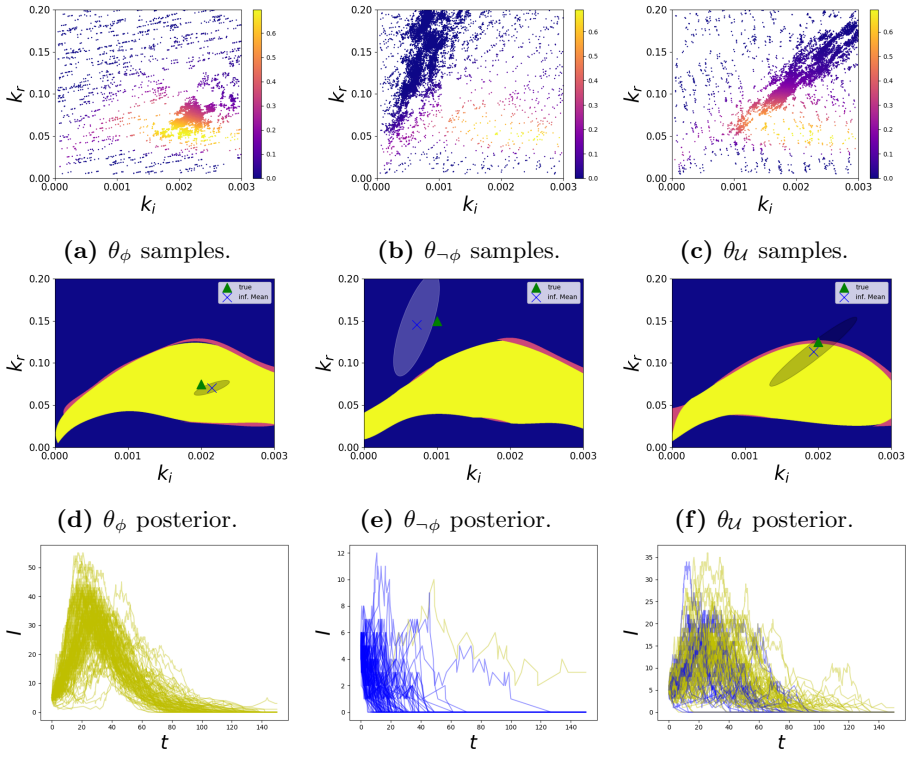
Experimental Setup All experiments have been run on an Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5-1660 v3 @ 3.00GHz, 16 cores with 16GB memory. ABC(SMC)^2 is coded in C++, while Python is used for the SVM classifier. A comparison of the parameter synthesis technique via PRISM or via SMC and SVM can be seen in Appendix D.

SIR System and Parameterised Model Towards an accessible explanation of the ABC(SMC)^2 algorithm, we consider the stochastic SIR epidemic model [29], which has the same structure (stoichiometry over species counts) as CRNs [12]. The model describes the dynamics of three epidemic types, a susceptible group (S), an infected group (I), and a recovered group of individuals (R) - here we let S, I and R evolve via the rules

$$S + I \xrightarrow{k_i} I + I, \quad I \xrightarrow{k_r} R.$$

This is governed by the rate parameters $\theta = (k_i, k_r)$, and each state of the pCTMC describes the combination of the number of each type (S, I, R) (this equates to molecule/species counts in CRNs). The initial state of the pCTMC is $s_0 = (S_0, I_0, R_0) = (95, 5, 0)$. We wish to verify the property $\phi = P_{>0.1}((I > 0)U^{[100,150]}(I = 0))$, i.e. whether, with a probability greater than 0.1, the infection dies out within a time interval between $t = 100$ and $t = 150$ seconds. We confine our parameters to the set $\Theta = [k_i^\perp, k_i^\top] \times [k_r^\perp, k_r^\top] = [5 \times 10^{-5}, 0.003] \times [0.005, 0.2]$. We generate observation data from the SIR model with three different parameter choices, corresponding to the CTMCs $\mathcal{M}_{\theta_\phi}$, $\mathcal{M}_{\theta_{\neg\phi}}$ and $\mathcal{M}_{\theta_{\mathcal{U}}}$, where $\theta_\phi = (0.002, 0.075)$, $\theta_{\neg\phi} = (0.001, 0.15)$ and $\theta_{\mathcal{U}} = (0.002, 0.125)$. From Figure 5a (in Appendix D), we see that $\theta_\phi \in \Theta_\phi$, $\theta_{\neg\phi} \in \Theta_{\neg\phi}$, and finally $\theta_{\mathcal{U}}$ is near the borderline. These models will correspond to three "true" underlying stochastic systems $\mathcal{S}$, with associated observation data. For each instance, we work with observed data y_{obs} that is sampled at a finite number of time steps. The observed data consists of only 5 simulated traces, observed at 10 time points. The summary statistics $S(y_{obs}) = s_{obs}$ is the average of the 5 traces. It is worth emphasising that with so few observation traces, black-box SMC (directly based on observation traces, not on model-generated simulations) would be hopeless.

Application of ABC(SMC)^2 Algorithm Our algorithm outputs samples from the approximated posterior and their corresponding weights, $\left\{\theta_M^{(i)}, w_M^{(i)}\right\} \sim \pi_{ABC}^{h_M}(\theta|s_{obs})$ where $i = 1, \ldots, N$. By the strong law of large numbers, letting $\bar{\theta}_M = \sum_{i=1}^N \theta_M^{(i)} w_M^{(i)}$, $P\left(\lim_{N\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^N w_M^{(i)} \theta_M^{(i)} - \mathbb{E}[\bar{\theta}_M] = 0\right) = 1$. Thus we assume that the approximated posterior can be modelled by a multivariate Normal



(a) θ_ϕ samples. **(b)** $\theta_{\neg\phi}$ samples. **(c)** $\theta_{\mathcal{U}}$ samples.

(d) θ_ϕ posterior. **(e)** $\theta_{\neg\phi}$ posterior. **(f)** $\theta_{\mathcal{U}}$ posterior.

(g) Samples traces from θ_ϕ posterior. **(h)** Samples traces from $\theta_{\neg\phi}$ posterior. **(i)** Samples traces from $\theta_{\mathcal{U}}$ posterior.

Fig. 2. Bayesian Verification results from ABC(SMC)^2 for Case θ_ϕ (2a and 2d), Case $\theta_{\neg\phi}$(2b and 2e), and Case $\theta_{\mathcal{U}}$ (2c and 2f). Sampled points θ with estimated probabilities $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta)$ (2a, 2b and 2c). Inferred posterior $\pi^{h_M}_{ABC}(\theta|s_{obs})$ and parameter regions (2d, 2e and 2f). Traces of I molecules simulated from $\mathcal{M}_\theta$, with θ sampled from the θ_ϕ posterior (2g), the $\theta_{\neg\phi}$ posterior (2h) and the $\theta_{\mathcal{U}}$ posterior (2i). The set Θ_ϕ, is shown in yellow, whereas $\Theta_{\neg\phi}$ is shown in blue. The undecided areas $\Theta_{\mathcal{U}}$ is shown in magenta. For Fig (2g-2i) the traces colour represent which set the sampled parameters are members of.

distribution, $\pi^{h_M}_{ABC}(\theta|s_{obs}) \approx \mathcal{N}(\bar{\theta}_M, \Sigma_M)$, where the mean is given by $\bar{\theta}_M$ and the elements of the empirical covariance matrix are defined as

$$\Sigma_{M\,jk} = \frac{1}{1 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} (w_M^{(i)})^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_M^{(i)} \left(\theta_M^{(i)} - \bar{\theta}_M\right)_j \left(\theta_M^{(i)} - \bar{\theta}_M\right)_k .$$

We choose the number of samples to be $N = 500$; the number of sequential steps to be $M = 20$; the kernel function $K_h(u)$ to be a simple indicator function,

i.e. $K_h(u) = 1$ if $u < h$, $K_h(u) = 0$ otherwise; the rate at which the thresholds h_m decrease to be $\upsilon = 0.5$; and the summary statistic $s = S(y)$ is chosen to be the sample mean of the simulations and of the observations. We choose $\pi(\theta)$ to be a uniform prior over Θ. The perturbation kernel $F_m(\theta^{**}|\theta^*)$ is chosen to be a multivariate Normal distribution, so that $\theta^{**} \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta^*, 2\Sigma_{m-1})$, where the covariance is twice the second moment computed over the accepted weights and particles at step $m-1$, namely $\left\{\theta_{m-1}^{(i)}, w_{m-1}^{(i)}\right\}$, where $i = 1, \ldots, N$. For further details on alternative choices for threshold sequences, summary statistics and perturbation kernels, see [3, 15, 16, 41, 44].

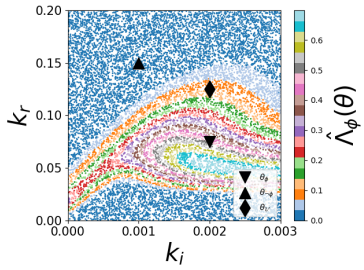
For the SMC component of the algorithm, we select the parameters $(\epsilon, \delta, \alpha) = (0.01, 0.05, 0.001)$, which results in a maximum number of necessary simulations that equals $B_t \leq n_{\mathcal{O}} = \lceil \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2} \log \frac{2}{\delta} \rceil = 18445$. At the conclusion of the ABC(SMC)^2 algorithm, we train the classifier over half of the sampled parameters (denoted by $\theta^{(r)}$, whether eventually accepted or rejected), with the corresponding estimated probabilities and test it on the other half, which results in the SVM classifier accuracy in Table 3 in Appendix E.

Outcomes of ABC(SMC)^2 Algorithm For the three case studies, the inferred mean $\bar{\theta}_M$, covariance Σ_M, total number of sampled parameters ($\theta^{(r)}$, $r = 1, \ldots, R$) and resulting credibility calculation are given in Table 3, with corresponding runtimes in Table 4 (Appendix E). Figures 2d, 2e and 2f plot the inferred posterior, showing the mean (denoted by $\times$) and 2 standard deviations from the mean (corresponding ellipse around the mean), as well as the true parameter value ($\triangle$). In Case θ_ϕ, we can assert , with a parameter synthesis based off a confidence of $(1-\delta) = 0.95$ and absolute-error $\epsilon = 0.01$, that the underlying stochastic system $\mathcal{S}$ does indeed satisfy the property of interest, as the credibility calculation gives $P(\mathcal{S} \models \phi | S(y_{obs})) = 1$. Case $\theta_{\neg\phi}$ has a low probability of satisfying the property of interest ($P(\mathcal{S} \models \phi | S(y_{obs})) = 0.0054$), whereas for Case $\theta_{\mathcal{U}}$ the inferred mean converges to the true mean that we would expect the estimated probability of satisfying the property to converge to, which is 0.5.

Table 3, and Figure 3 suggest that simulation times are largely dependent on the estimated probabilities, $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta)$: the closer the estimated probabilities are to 0.5, the larger the number of simulations required, see Table 2. To improve the runtime of Case $\theta_{\mathcal{U}}$, we would need to reduce variance and improve the accuracy of the inferred parameters, for instance by increasing the number of observed data points y_{obs} or with an alternative choice of either the summary statistics chosen or of the perturbation kernels [16].

5 Discussion and Future work

The new ABC(SMC)^2 framework allows the Bayesian Verification framework of [36] to be applied to a wide variety of models. In ABC(SMC)^2 we have newly utilised the simulations needed for the likelihood-free inference (also present in [36]) for statistical model checking of properties of interest and used the outputs of this procedure to allow for approximate parameter synthesis. The



Case	$\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta)$	Total simulations
θ_ϕ	0.47254	18445
$\theta_{\neg\phi}$	0.00408719	2202
$\theta_{\mathcal{U}}$	0.100433	14775

Fig. 3 & Table 1. True parameter values with corresponding estimated probabilities using SMC (15000 uniform samples), and number of SMC simulations used in ABC(SMC)^2 .

ABC(SMC)^2 framework presented here hinges largely on the ABCSMC scheme of [47] and is thus bound to its limitations: theoretically, there is nothing stopping the framework to be considered for models with a higher number of latent variables, but we would expect a higher runtime due to more proposals $F_m(\theta^{**}|\theta^*)$ being rejected due to the higher dimensionality and would thus need to employ alternative proposal distributions to those considered here. Another limitation of the framework is the dependence on a possibly large number of simulations for parameter synthesis (the SMC part), which however it is a strong alternative to the parameter synthesis technique of [12] that leverages GPU acceleration. To address possibly large simulation times, we can leverage ongoing research on approximation techniques to speed up simulations of CRNs [6, 20, 23, 48]. Furthermore, the overall ABC(SMC)^2 scheme can easily be parallelised over its components, namely CRN simulations [50], ABCSMC inference [24] and the SMC [26] algorithm for verification.

We plan to apply the framework to different model classes, such as stochastic differential equations [17, 21] and to incorporate the problem of Bayesian model selection [30, 47].

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A Approximate Bayesian Computation - Sequential Monte Carlo (ABCSMC) Algorithm

Algorithm 2 ABCSMC

Input:

- Prior $\pi(\theta)$ and data-generating likelihood function $p(y_{obs}|\theta)$
- A kernel function $K_h(u)$ and scale parameter $h > 0$ where $u = \|y - y_{obs}\|$
- $N > 0$, number of particles used to estimate posterior distributions
- Sequence of perturbation kernels $F_m(\theta|\theta^*)$, $m = 1, \ldots, M$
- A quantile $\upsilon \in [0, 1]$ to control the rate of decrease of h_m
- Summary statistic function $s = S(y)$
- $B_t > 0$, number of simulations per sampled particle. For stochastic systems $B_t > 1$

Output:

- Set of weighted parameter vectors $\left\{\theta_M^{(i)}, w_M^{(i)}\right\}_{i=1}^N$ drawn from $\pi_{ABC}(\theta|s_{obs}) \propto \int K_{h_M}(\|s - s_{obs}\|)p(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)ds$

1: **for** $m = 0, \ldots, M$: **do**
2: **for** $i = 0, \ldots, N$: **do**
3: **if** $m = 0$ **then**
4: Generate $\theta^{**} \sim \pi(\theta)$
5: **else**
6: Generate θ^* from the previous population $\{\theta_{m-1}^{(i)}\}$ with weights $\{w_{m-1}^{(i)}\}$ and perturb the particle to obtain $\theta^{**} \sim F_m(\theta|\theta^*)$
7: **end if**
8: **if** $\pi(\theta^{**}) = 0$ **then**
9: **goto** line 3
10: **end if**
11: **for** $b = 1, \ldots, B_t$: **do**
12: Generate $y_b \sim p(y|\theta^{**})$
13: Calculate $s^b = S(y_b)$
14: **end for**
15: Calculate $b_t(\theta^{**}) = \sum_{b=1}^{B_t} K_{h_m}(\|s^b - s_{obs}\|)$
16: **if** $b_t(\theta^{**}) = 0$ **then**
17: **goto** line 3
18: **end if**
19: Set $\theta_m^{(i)} = \theta^{**}$, $\bar{d}_m^{(i)} = \frac{1}{B_t}\sum_{b=1}^{B_t}\|s^b - s_{obs}\|$ and calculate

20:
$$w_m^{(i)} = \begin{cases} b_t\left(\theta_m^{(i)}\right), & \text{if } t = 0 \\ \dfrac{\pi\left(\theta_m^{(i)}\right) b_t\left(\theta_m^{(i)}\right)}{\sum_{j=1}^N w_{m-1}^{(j)} F_m\left(\theta_m^{(i)}|\theta_{m-1}^{(j)}\right)}, & \text{if } t > 0 \end{cases}$$

21: **end for**
22: Normalise weights: $w_m^{(i)} \leftarrow w_m^{(i)} / \left(\sum_{i=1}^N w_m^{(i)}\right)$
23: Set $h_{m+1} = (\upsilon/N)\sum_{i=1}^N \bar{d}_m^{(i)}$
24: **end for**
25: **return** $\left\{\left(\theta_M^{(i)}, w_M^{(i)}\right)\right\}_{i=1}^N$

B Bayesian Verification Framework

There are 3 aspects to the Bayesian Verification framework. The Bayesian inference, parameter synthesis and probability or credibility calculation. The infer-

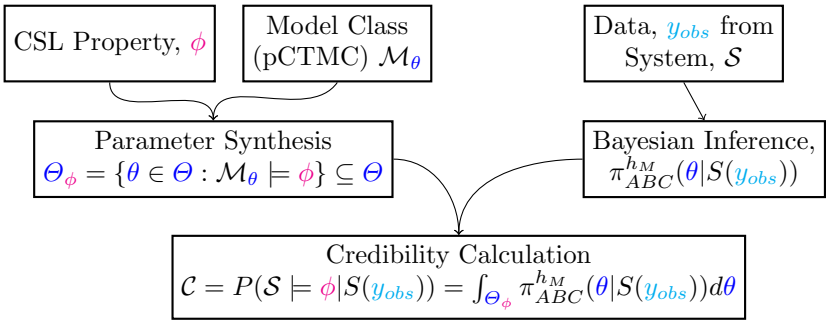

Fig. 4. Bayesian Verification Framework of [36].

ence technique we use has been covered in the main text and here we focus on the probability calculation.

In the final phase of the approach, a probability estimate is computed corresponding to the satisfaction of a CSL specification formula ϕ by a system of interest such that $\mathcal{S} \models \phi$, which we denote as the credibility. To calculate the credibility that the system satisfies the specified property, we integrate the posterior distribution $\pi(\theta|y_{obs})$ over the feasible set of parameters Θ_ϕ:

Definition 7. *Given a CSL specification ϕ and observed data y_{obs} and $s_{obs} = S(y_{obs})$ from the system $\mathcal{S}$, the probability that $\mathcal{S} \models \phi$ is given by*

$$\mathcal{C} = P(\mathcal{S} \models \phi|s_{obs}) = \int_{\Theta_\phi} \pi(\theta|s_{obs})\,d\theta, \tag{13}$$

where Θ_ϕ denotes the feasible set of parameters.

C Absolute-Error Massart Algorithm

Here we present the slightly modified Sequential Massart Algorithm with Absolute Error (Algorithm 3). The outputs of Algorithm 3 are $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta)$, the total number of simulation undertaken B_t, the sum of the kernel smoothing functions $\sum_{b=1}^{B_t} K_{h_m}(\|s^b - s_{obs}\|)$ and the mean summary statistic produced from n simulations, $\bar{d}$. The algorithm is slightly modified to consider the distance function that is crucial for the ABCSMC aspect of the algorithm.

Algorithm 3 Modified Absolute-Error Sequential Massart Algorithm

Input:

- Absolute-error value ϵ, a confidence parameter δ and coverage parameter α.
- Current distance threshold h_m.
- Sampled parameter θ^{**}.
- True data s_{obs}
- CSL specification ϕ

Output:

- Estimated probability $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta^{**})$ with corresponding bounds $[\Lambda^L_\phi(\theta^{**}), \Lambda^U_\phi(\theta^{**})]$.
- Sum of kernel smoothing functions $\sum_{b=1}^{B_t} K_{h_m}(\|s^b - s_{obs}\|)$.
- Mean summary statistic from B_t simulations $\bar{d}$.

Set Initial number of successes, $l = 0$, and initial iteration $k = 0$.
Set $B_t = n_{\mathcal{O}}$, where $n_{\mathcal{O}} = \lceil \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2} \log \frac{2}{\delta} \rceil$ is the Okamoto bound and the initial confidence interval $I_0 = [a_0, b_0] = [0, 1]$ in which $\Lambda_\phi(\theta^{**})$ belongs to.
while $k < B_t$ **do**
  $k \leftarrow k + 1$
  Generate trace $y^{(k)} \sim p(y|\theta^{**})$ and calculate $s^k = S(y^{(k)})$.
  Calculate $K_{h_m}(\|s^k - s_{obs}\|)$
  $z(y^{(k)}) = \mathbb{1}(y^{(k)} \models \phi)$
  $l \leftarrow l + z(y^{(k)})$
  $I_k = [a_k, b_k] \leftarrow \text{CONFINT}(l, k, \alpha)$
  if $1/2 \in I_k$ **then**
    $B_t = n_{\mathcal{O}}$
  else if $b_k < 1/2$ **then**
    $B_t = \lceil \frac{2}{h_a(b_k, \epsilon)\epsilon^2} \log \frac{2}{\delta - \alpha} \rceil$
  else
    $B_t = \lceil \frac{2}{h_a(a_k, \epsilon)\epsilon^2} \log \frac{2}{\delta - \alpha} \rceil$
  end if
  $B_t \leftarrow \min(B_t, n_{\mathcal{O}})$
end while
Calculate $\bar{d} = (1/B_t) \sum_{b=1}^{B_t} s^b$.
Calculate $\sum_{b=1}^{B_t} K_{h_m}(\|s^b - s_{obs}\|)$.
Set $a_k = \hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi(\theta^{**})$, $b_k = \hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi(\theta^{**})$.
return $\hat{\Lambda}_\phi(\theta^{**}) = l/B_t$, $\sum_{b=1}^{B_t} K_{h_m}(\|s^b - s_{obs}\|)$, $\bar{d}$, $[\hat{\Lambda}^L_\phi(\theta^{**}), \hat{\Lambda}^U_\phi(\theta^{**})]$.

D Parameter Synthesis: A Motivating Comparison

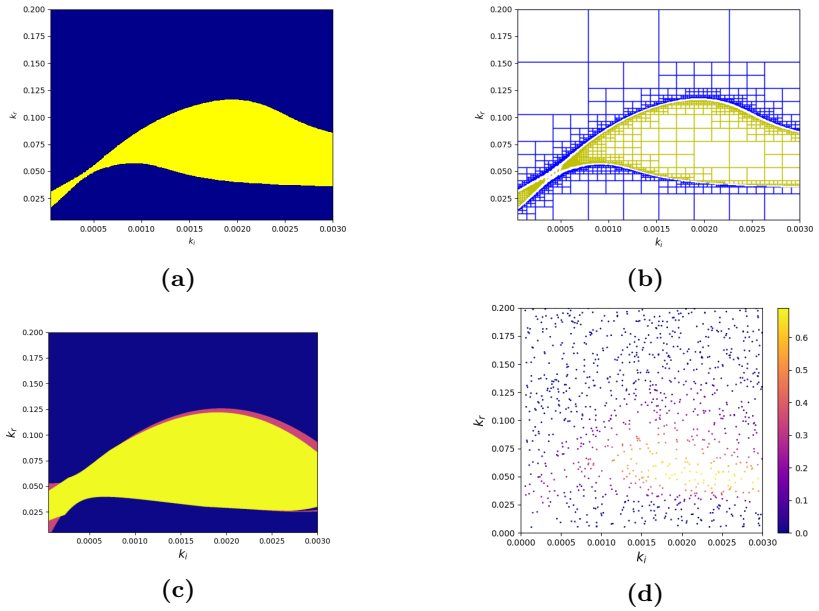

Fig. 5. The set Θ_ϕ, is shown in yellow (lighter colour), meanwhile $\Theta_{\neg\phi}$, is shown in blue (darker colour) $\Theta_{\neg\phi}$. The undecided areas, $\Theta_{\mathcal{U}}$ (if any) are shown in magenta.
(5a) Parameter regions synthesised by GPU-Accelerated PRISM [12]. (5b) Gridding scheme.
(5c) Parameter regions from SVM classification using 1000 samples from a uniform distribution. (5d) Estimated probabilities $\Lambda_\phi(\theta^*)$.

The PRISM-based parameter synthesis technique dissects the parameter space into 14413 grid regions (cf. Figure 5b), which results in calculating the satisfaction probability at 57652 points.

Instead, we consider sampling 1000 points from a Uniform distribution over the parameter space. We run the Massart algorithm at each point to obtain an estimated probability with corresponding $(1 - \delta)$ confidence bounds, where $\delta = 0.05$. With these samples and probabilities, we classify parameter regions with an SVM, which results in Figure 5c,with corresponding estimated probabilities in Figure 5d. The runtimes presented in Table 2 suggest that we obtain a good approximation of the parameter synthesis region in half the time of the GPU-accelerated PRISM tool, which could be further improved if we parallelised the computation [26]. These considerations have led us to embed the statistical parameter synthesis in the parameter inference algorithm.

Table 2. Parameter synthesis runtimes.

Parameter synth	Times [seconds]
PRISM-GPU	3096
SVM & SMC	1653.8

E Results of SIR Case Study

In this section we present the inferred posterior from the SIR case study in the main body of the text in Table 3 with the corresponding runtimes in Table 4.

Table 3. Inferred posterior and Bayesian Verification Results.

Case	$\bar{\theta}_M$	Σ_M	Sampled Pars θ^{**}	SVM Accuracy	Accuracy Credibility Calculation
θ_ϕ	$\begin{bmatrix}0.00215\\0.07050\end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix}1.46\cdot10^{-8} & 4.24\cdot10^{-7}\\4.24\cdot10^{-7} & 1.97\cdot10^{-5}\end{bmatrix}$	10952	99.6%	1
$\theta_{\neg\phi}$	$\begin{bmatrix}0.00072\\0.14519\end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix}2.47\cdot10^{-8} & 3.41\cdot10^{-6}\\3.41\cdot10^{-6} & 9.22\cdot10^{-4}\end{bmatrix}$	10069	99.8%	0.0054
$\theta_{\mathcal{U}}$	$\begin{bmatrix}0.00193\\0.11337\end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix}8.89\cdot10^{-8} & 5.86\cdot10^{-6}\\5.86\cdot10^{-6} & 4.21\cdot10^{-4}\end{bmatrix}$	10807	98.7%	0.6784

Table 4. Runtimes for algorithms.

	Times [seconds]		
Case	ABC(SMC)^2	SVM Optimisation	SVM Classification
θ_ϕ	64790	168	3.98
$\theta_{\neg\phi}$	8014	82	4.25
$\theta_{\mathcal{U}}$	35833	2166	5.12