

 *Uncertainty Quantification*
in
Computational Models

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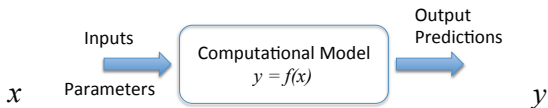
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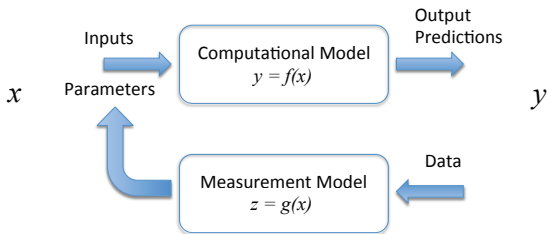
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Uncertainty Quantification and Computational Science



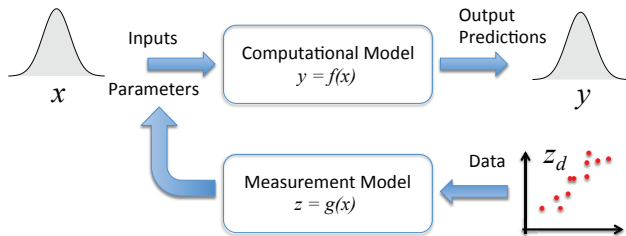
Forward problem

Uncertainty Quantification and Computational Science



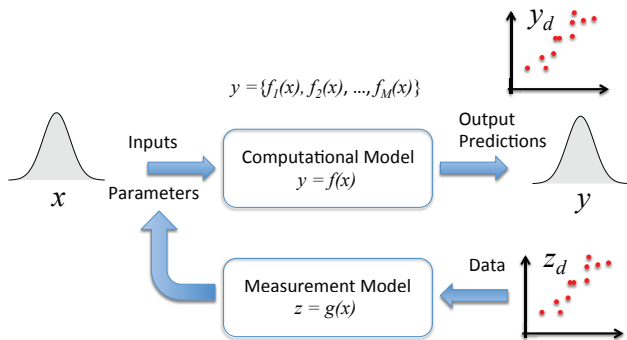
Inverse & Forward problems

Uncertainty Quantification and Computational Science



Inverse & Forward UQ

Uncertainty Quantification and Computational Science



Inverse & Forward UQ

Model validation & comparison, Hypothesis testing

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Forward UQ - Polynomial Chaos
- 3 Inverse Problem - Bayesian Inference
- 4 Closure

Forward propagation of parametric uncertainty

Forward model: $y = f(x)$

- Local sensitivity analysis (SA) and error propagation

$$\Delta y = \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x_0} \Delta x$$

This is ok for:

- small uncertainty
- low degree of non-linearity in $f(x)$
- Non-probabilistic methods
 - Fuzzy logic
 - Evidence theory - Dempster-Shafer theory
 - Interval math
- Probabilistic methods - this is our focus

Represent uncertain quantities using probability theory

- Random sampling, MC, QMC
 - Generate random samples $\{x^i\}_{i=1}^N$ from the PDF of x , $p(x)$
 - Bin the corresponding $\{y^i\}$ to construct $p(y)$
 - Not feasible for computationally expensive $f(x)$
 - slow convergence of MC/QMC methods
 - ⇒ very large N required for reliable estimates
- Build a cheap surrogate for $f(x)$, then use MC
 - Collocation - interpolants
 - Regression - fitting
- Galerkin methods
 - Polynomial Chaos (PC)
 - Intrusive and non-intrusive PC methods

Probabilistic Forward UQ & Polynomial Chaos Representation of Random Variables

With $y = f(x)$, x a random variable, estimate the RV y

- Can describe a RV in terms of its
 - density, moments, characteristic function, or
 - as a function on a probability space
- Constraining the analysis to RVs with finite variance
 - ⇒ Represent RV as a spectral expansion in terms of orthogonal functions of standard RVs
 - Polynomial Chaos Expansion
- Enables the use of available functional analysis methods for forward UQ

Polynomial Chaos Expansion (PCE)

- Model uncertain quantities as random variables (RVs)
- Given a *germ* $\xi(\omega) = \{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n\}$ - a set of *i.i.d.* RVs
 - where $p(\xi)$ is uniquely determined by its moments

Any RV in $L^2(\Omega, \mathfrak{G}(\xi), P)$ can be written as a PCE:

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t, \omega) = f(\mathbf{x}, t, \xi) \simeq \sum_{k=0}^P u_k(\mathbf{x}, t) \Psi_k(\xi(\omega))$$

- $u_k(\mathbf{x}, t)$ are mode strengths
- $\Psi_k()$ are multivariate functions orthogonal w.r.t. $p(\xi)$

Orthogonality

By construction, the functions $\Psi_k()$ are orthogonal with respect to the density of ξ

$$u_k(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{\langle u \Psi_k \rangle}{\langle \Psi_k^2 \rangle} = \frac{1}{\langle \Psi_k^2 \rangle} \int u(\mathbf{x}, t; \lambda(\xi)) \Psi_k(\xi) p_\xi(\xi) d\xi$$

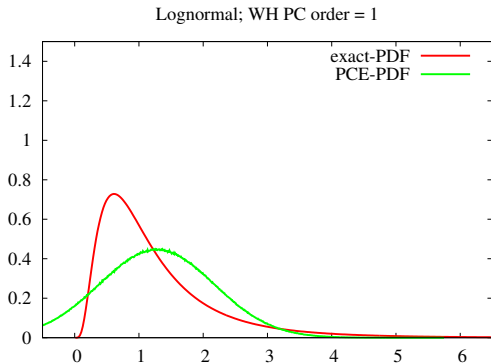
Examples:

- Hermite polynomials with Gaussian basis
- Legendre polynomials with Uniform basis, ...
- Global versus Local PC methods
 - Adaptive domain decomposition of the support of ξ

PC Illustration: WH PCE for a Lognormal RV

- Wiener-Hermite PCE constructed for a Lognormal RV
- PCE-sampled PDF superposed on true PDF
- Order = 1

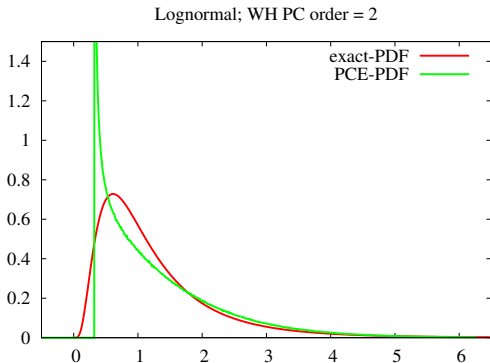
$$\begin{aligned}
 u &= \sum_{k=0}^P u_k \Psi_k(\xi) \\
 &= u_0 + u_1 \xi
 \end{aligned}$$



PC Illustration: WH PCE for a Lognormal RV

- Wiener-Hermite PCE constructed for a Lognormal RV
- PCE-sampled PDF superposed on true PDF
- Order = 2

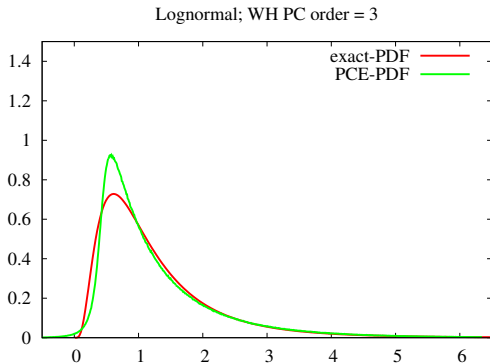
$$\begin{aligned}
 u &= \sum_{k=0}^P u_k \Psi_k(\xi) \\
 &= u_0 + u_1 \xi + u_2 (\xi^2 - 1)
 \end{aligned}$$



PC Illustration: WH PCE for a Lognormal RV

- Wiener-Hermite PCE constructed for a Lognormal RV
- PCE-sampled PDF superposed on true PDF
- Order = 3

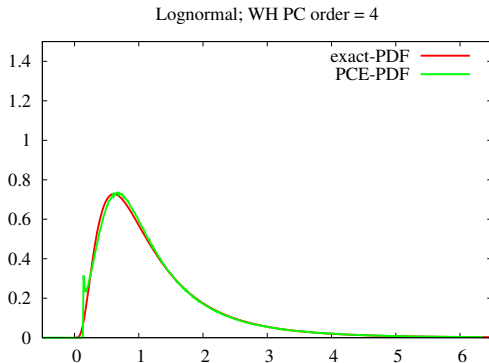
$$\begin{aligned}
 u &= \sum_{k=0}^P u_k \Psi_k(\xi) \\
 &= u_0 + u_1 \xi + u_2 (\xi^2 - 1) + u_3 (\xi^3 - 3\xi)
 \end{aligned}$$



PC Illustration: WH PCE for a Lognormal RV

- Wiener-Hermite PCE constructed for a Lognormal RV
- PCE-sampled PDF superposed on true PDF
- Order = 4

$$\begin{aligned}
 u &= \sum_{k=0}^P u_k \Psi_k(\xi) \\
 &= u_0 + u_1 \xi + u_2 (\xi^2 - 1) + u_3 (\xi^3 - 3\xi) + u_4 (\xi^4 - 6\xi^2 + 3)
 \end{aligned}$$

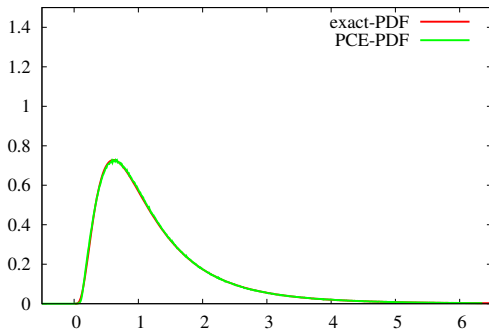


PC Illustration: WH PCE for a Lognormal RV

- Wiener-Hermite PCE constructed for a Lognormal RV
- PCE-sampled PDF superposed on true PDF
- Order = 5

$$\begin{aligned}
 u &= \sum_{k=0}^P u_k \Psi_k(\xi) \\
 &= u_0 + u_1 \xi + u_2 (\xi^2 - 1) + u_3 (\xi^3 - 3\xi) + u_4 (\xi^4 - 6\xi^2 + 3) \\
 &\quad + u_5 (\xi^5 - 10\xi^3 + 15\xi)
 \end{aligned}$$

Lognormal; WH PC order = 5



Random Fields

- A random variable is a function on an event space Ω
 - No dependence on other coordinates –e.g. space or time
- A random field is a function on a product space $\Omega \times D$
 - e.g. sea surface temperature $T_{SS}(z, \omega)$, $z \equiv (\mathbf{x}, t)$
- It is a more complex object than a random variable
 - A combination of an infinite number of random variables
- In many physical systems, uncertain field quantities, described by random fields:
 - are smooth, *i.e.*
 - they have an underlying *low dimensional structure*due to large correlation length-scales

Random Fields – KLE

- Smooth random fields can be represented with a small no. of stochastic degrees of freedom
- A random field $M(x, \omega)$ with
 - a mean function: $\mu(x)$
 - a continuous covariance function:

$$C(x_1, x_2) = \langle [M(x_1, \omega) - \mu(x_1)][M(x_2, \omega) - \mu(x_2)] \rangle$$

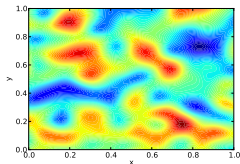
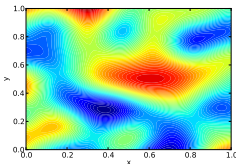
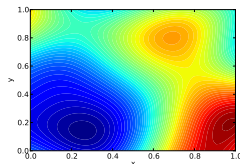
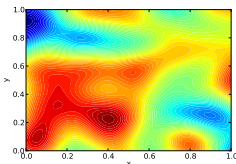
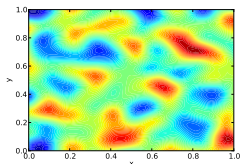
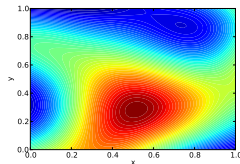
can be represented with the Karhunen-Loeve Expansion (KLE)

$$M(x, \omega) = \mu(x) + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{\lambda_i} \eta_i(\omega) \phi_i(x)$$

where

- λ_i and $\phi_i(x)$ are the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of the covariance function $C(\cdot, \cdot)$
 - η_i are uncorrelated zero-mean unit-variance RVs
- KLE \Rightarrow representation of random fields using PC

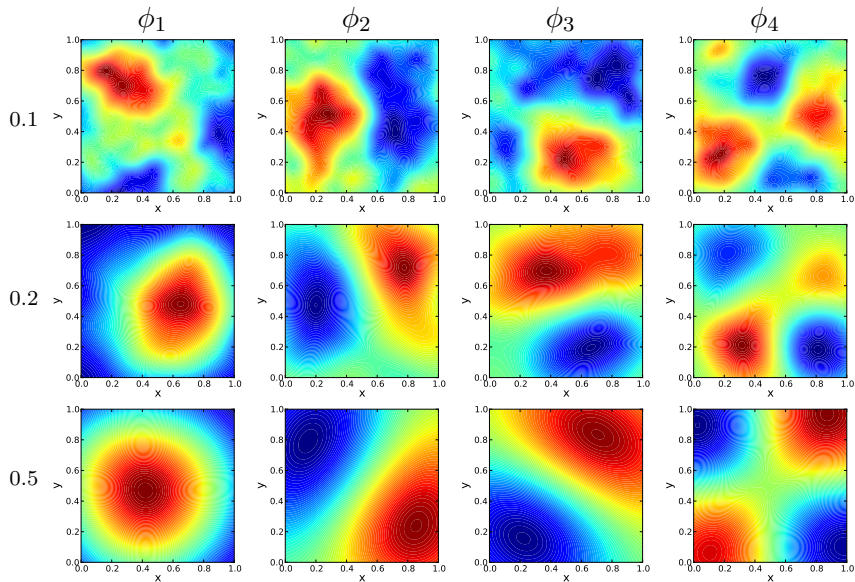
RF Illustration: KL of 2D Gaussian Process

 $\delta = 0.1$  $\delta = 0.2$  $\delta = 0.5$ 

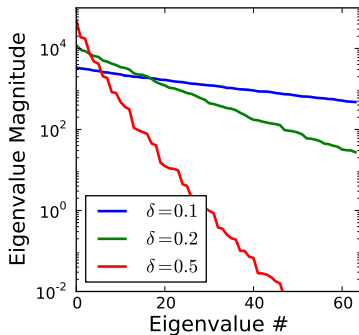
- 2D Gaussian Process with covariance:

$$C(x_1, x_2) = \exp(-\|x_1 - x_2\|^2 / \delta^2)$$

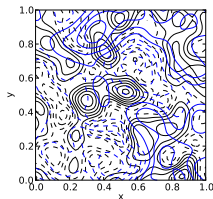
- Realizations smoother as covariance length δ increases

RF Illustration: 2D KL - Modes for $\delta = 0.1 - 0.5$ 

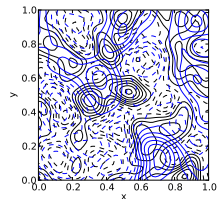
RF Illustration: 2D KL - eigenvalue spectrum

 $\delta = 0.1$

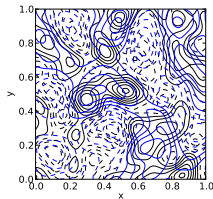
4 terms



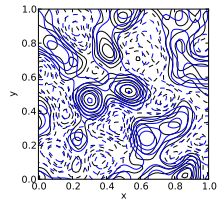
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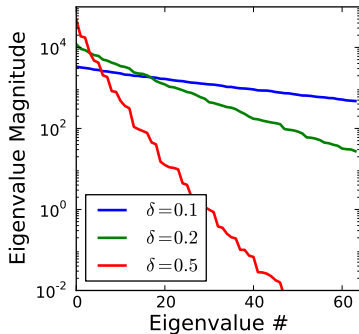
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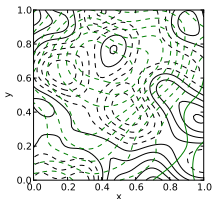
64 terms



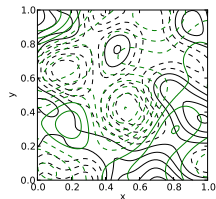
RF Illustration: 2D KL - eigenvalue spectrum


 $\delta = 0.2$

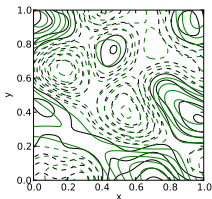
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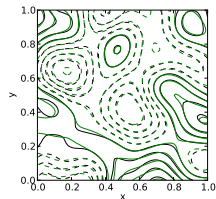
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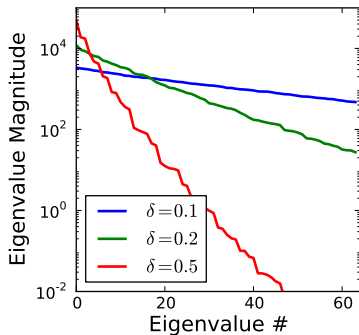
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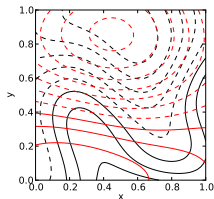
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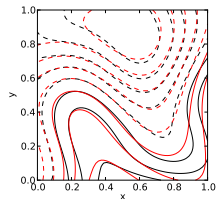
RF Illustration: 2D KL - eigenvalue spectrum

 $\delta = 0.5$

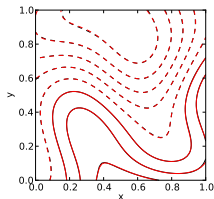
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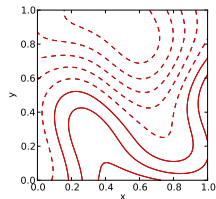
16 terms



32 terms



64 terms



Essential Use of PC in UQ

Strategy:

- Represent model parameters/solution as random variables
- Construct PCEs for uncertain parameters
- Evaluate PCEs for model outputs

Advantages:

- Computational efficiency
- Utility
 - Moments: $E(u) = u_0$, $\text{var}(u) = \sum_{k=1}^P u_k^2 \langle \Psi_k^2 \rangle, \dots$
 - Global Sensitivities - fractional variances, Sobol' indices
 - Surrogate for forward model

Requirement:

- RVs in L^2 , *i.e.* with finite variance, on $(\Omega, \mathfrak{G}(\xi), P)$

Intrusive PC UQ: A direct *non-sampling* method

- Given model equations: $\mathcal{M}(u(\mathbf{x}, t); \lambda) = 0$
- Express uncertain parameters/variables using PCEs

$$u = \sum_{k=0}^P u_k \Psi_k; \quad \lambda = \sum_{k=0}^P \lambda_k \Psi_k$$

- Substitute in model equations; apply Galerkin projection

- New set of equations: $\mathcal{G}(U(\mathbf{x}, t), \Lambda) = 0$
 - with $U = [u_0, \dots, u_P]^T$, $\Lambda = [\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_P]^T$

- Solving this deterministic system once provides the full specification of uncertain model outputs

Laminar 2D Channel Flow with Uncertain Viscosity

- Incompressible flow

- Viscosity PCE

$$- \nu = \nu_0 + \nu_1 \xi$$

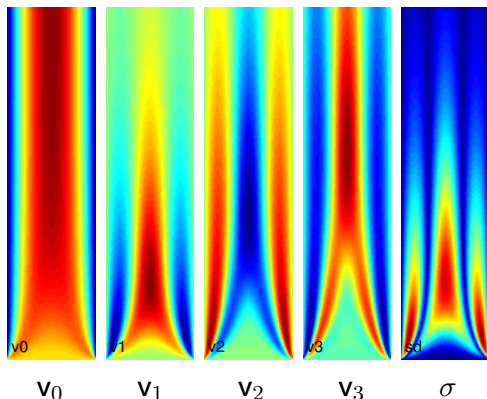
- Streamwise velocity

$$- \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=0}^P \mathbf{v}_i \Psi_i$$

- \mathbf{v}_0 : mean

- \mathbf{v}_i : i -th order mode

$$- \sigma^2 = \sum_{i=1}^P \mathbf{v}_i^2 \langle \Psi_i^2 \rangle$$



(Le Maître et al., J. Comput. Phys., 2001)

Intrusive PC UQ Pros/Cons

Cons:

- Reformulation of governing equations
- New discretizations
- New numerical solution method
 - Consistency, Convergence, Stability
 - Global vs. multi-element local PC constructions
- New solvers and model codes
 - Opportunities for automated code transformation
- New preconditioners

Pros:

- Tailored solvers can deliver superior performance

Non-intrusive PC UQ

- *Sampling*-based
- Relies on black-box utilization of the computational model
- Evaluate projection integrals *numerically*
- For any quantity of interest $\phi(\mathbf{x}, t; \lambda) = \sum_{k=0}^P \phi_k(\mathbf{x}, t) \Psi_k(\boldsymbol{\xi})$

$$\phi_k(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{1}{\langle \Psi_k^2 \rangle} \int \phi(\mathbf{x}, t; \lambda(\boldsymbol{\xi})) \Psi_k(\boldsymbol{\xi}) p_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) d\boldsymbol{\xi}, \quad k = 0, \dots, P$$

- Integrals can be evaluated using
 - A variety of (Quasi) Monte Carlo methods
 - Slow convergence; \sim indep. of dimensionality
 - Quadrature/Sparse-Quadrature methods
 - Fast convergence; depends on dimensionality

PC and High-Dimensionality

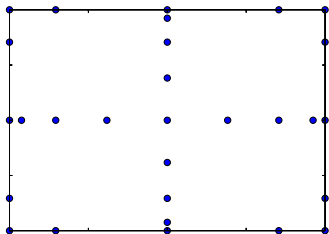
Dimensionality n of the PC basis: $\xi = \{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n\}$

- $n \approx$ number of uncertain parameters
- $P + 1 = (n + p)!/n!p!$ grows fast with n

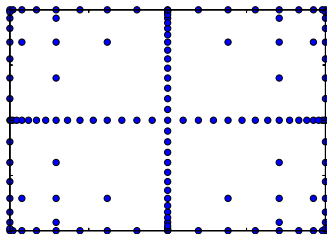
Impacts:

- Size of intrusive PC system
- Hi-D projection integrals \Rightarrow large # non-intrusive samples
 - Sparse quadrature methods

Clenshaw-Curtis sparse grid, Level = 3



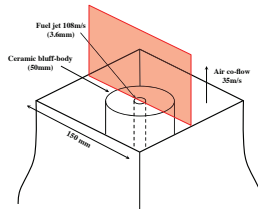
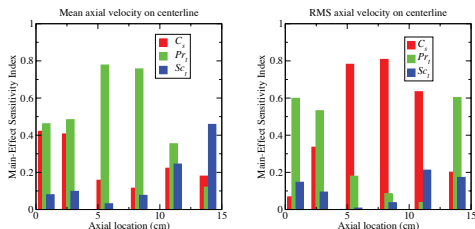
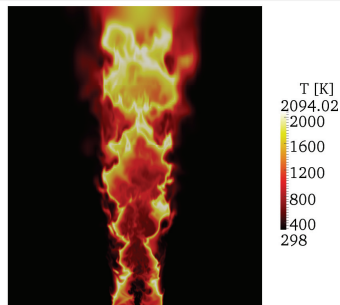
Clenshaw-Curtis sparse grid, Level = 5



UQ in LES computations: turbulent bluff-body flame

with M. Khalil, G. Lacaze, & J. Oefelein, Sandia Nat. Labs

- CH₄-H₂ jet, air coflow, 3D flow
- Re=9500, LES subgrid modeling
- 12×10^6 mesh cells, 1024 cores
- 3 days run time, 2×10^5 time steps
- 3 uncertain parameters (C_s , Pr_t , Sc_t)
- 2nd-order PC, 25 sparse-quad. pts



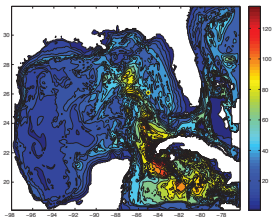
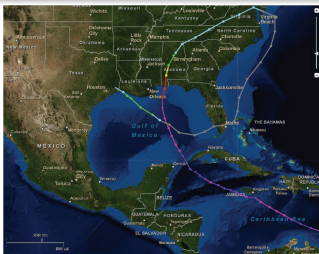
J. Oefelein & G. Lacaze, SNL

Main-Effect Sensitivity Indices

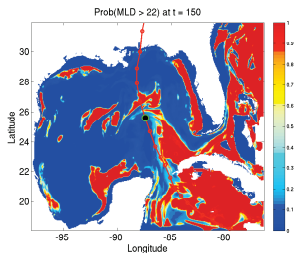
UQ in Ocean Modeling – Gulf of Mexico

A. Alexanderian, J. Winokur, I. Sraj, O.M. Knio, Duke Univ.

A. Srinivasan, M. Iskandarani, Univ. Miami; W.C. Thacker, NOAA



- Hurricane Ivan, Sep. 2004
- HYCOM ocean model (hycom.org)
- Predicted Mixed Layer Depth (MLD)
- Four uncertain parameters, *i.i.d.* U
 - subgrid mixing & wind drag params
- 385 sparse quadrature samples



(Alexanderian *et al.*, Winokur *et al.*, *Comput. Geosci.*, 2012, 2013)

Inverse UQ – Estimation of Uncertain Parameters

Forward UQ requires specification of uncertain inputs

Probabilistic setting

- Require joint PDF on input space
- Statistical inference – an inverse problem

Bayesian setting

- Given Data: PDF on uncertain inputs can be estimated using Bayes formula
 - Bayesian Inference
- Given Constraints: PDF on uncertain inputs can be estimated using the Maximum Entropy principle
 - MaxEnt Methods

Bayes formula for Parameter Inference

- Data Model (fit model + noise model): $y = f(\lambda) * g(\epsilon)$
- Bayes Formula:

$$p(\lambda, y) = p(\lambda|y)p(y) = p(y|\lambda)p(\lambda)$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{Likelihood} \quad \text{Prior} \\
 p(y|\lambda) \quad p(\lambda) \\
 \hline
 p(\lambda|y) = \frac{\quad}{p(y)} \\
 \text{Posterior} \quad \text{Evidence}
 \end{array}$$

- Prior: knowledge of λ prior to data
- Likelihood: forward model and measurement noise
- Posterior: combines information from prior and data
- Evidence: normalizing constant for present context

The Prior

- Prior $p(\lambda)$ comes from
 - Physical constraints
 - Prior data
 - Prior knowledge
- The prior can be **uninformative**
- It can be chosen to impose **regularization**
- Unknown aspects of the prior can be added to the rest of the parameters as hyperparameters
- The choice of prior can be crucial when there is little information in the data relative to the number of degrees of freedom in the inference problem
- When there is sufficient information in the data, the data can overrule the prior

Construction of the Likelihood $p(y|\lambda)$

- Where does probability enter the mapping $\lambda \rightarrow y$ in $p(y|\lambda)$?
- Through a presumed error model:
- Example:

- Model:

$$y_m = g(\lambda)$$

- Data: y
- Error between data and model prediction: ϵ

$$y = g(\lambda) + \epsilon$$

- Model this error as a random variable
- Example
 - Error is due to instrument measurement noise
 - Instrument has Gaussian errors, with no bias

$$\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

Construction of the Likelihood $p(y|\lambda)$ – cont'd

For any given λ , this implies

$$y|\lambda, \sigma \sim N(g(\lambda), \sigma^2)$$

or

$$p(y|\lambda, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(y - g(\lambda))^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Given N measurements (y_1, \dots, y_N) , and presuming independent identically distributed (*iid*) noise

$$y_i = g(\lambda) + \epsilon_i$$

$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

$$L(\lambda) = p(y_1, \dots, y_N|\lambda, \sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(y_i|\lambda, \sigma)$$

Likelihood Modeling

- This is frequently the *core* modeling challenge
 - Error model: a statistical model for the discrepancy between the forward model and the data
 - composition of the error model with the forward model
- Error model composed of discrepancy between
 - data and the truth - (data error)
 - model prediction and the truth - (model error)
- Mean bias and correlated/uncorrelated noise structure
- Hierarchical Bayes modeling, and dependence trees

$$p(\phi, \theta | D) = p(\phi | \theta, D) p(\theta | D)$$

- Choice of observable - constraint on Quantity of Interest?

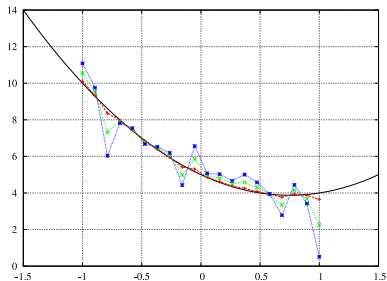
Exploring the Posterior

- Given any sample λ , the un-normalized posterior probability can be easily computed

$$p(\lambda|y) \propto p(y|\lambda)p(\lambda)$$

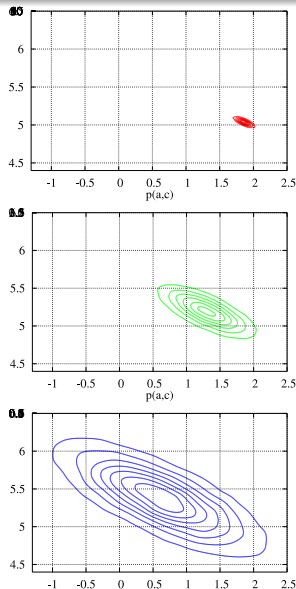
- Explore posterior w/ Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)
 - Metropolis-Hastings algorithm:
 - Random walk with proposal PDF & rejection rules
 - Computationally intensive, $\mathcal{O}(10^5)$ samples
 - Each sample: evaluation of the forward model
 - Surrogate models
- Evaluate moments/marginals from the MCMC statistics

Bayesian inference illustration: noise $\uparrow \Rightarrow$ uncertainty \uparrow



- data: $y = 2x^2 - 3x + 5 + \epsilon$
- $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$, $\sigma = \{0.1, 0.5, 1.0\}$
- Fit model $y = ax^2 + bx + c$

Marginal posterior density $p(a, c)$:



Bayesian inference – High Dimensionality Challenge

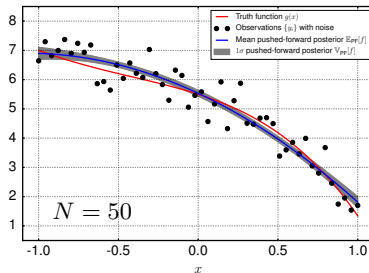
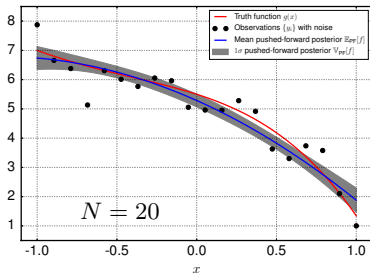
- Judgement on local/global posterior peaks is difficult
 - Multiple chains; Tempering
- Choosing a good starting point is very important
 - An initial optimization strategy is useful, albeit not trivial
- Choosing good MCMC proposals, and attaining good mixing
 - Likelihood-informed
 - Markov jump in those dimensions informed by data
 - Sample from prior in complement of dimensions
 - Adaptive proposal learning from MCMC samples
 - Log-Posterior Hessian \Rightarrow local Gaussian approx.
 - Adaptive, Geometric, Langevin MCMC
 - Dimension independent
 - Proposal design: good MCMC performance in hiD
 - Literature: A. Stuart, M. Girolami, K. Law, T. Cui, Y. Marzouk
(Law 2014; Cui *et al.*, 2014,2015; Cotter *et al.*, 2013)

Bayesian inference – Model Error Challenge

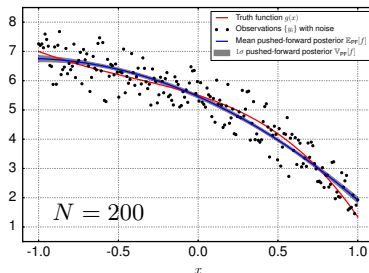
- Quantifying model error, as distinct from data noise, is important for assessing confidence in model validity
- Conventional statistical methods for representation of model error have shortcomings when applied to physical models
- New methods are under-development for model error:
 - physical constraints are satisfied
 - feasible disambiguation of model-error/data-noise
 - calibrated model error terms adequately impact all model outputs of interest
 - uncertainties in predictions from calibrated model reflect the range of discrepancy from the truth
- Embed model error in submodel components where approximations exist

(K. Sargsyan *et al.*, 2015)

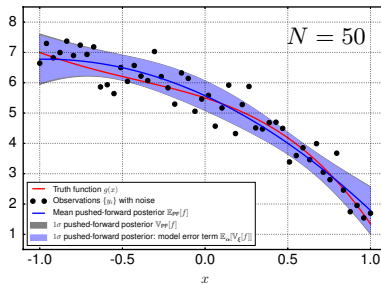
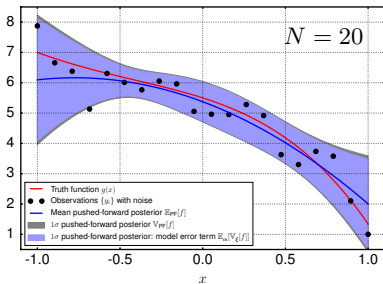
Quadratic-fit – Classical Bayesian likelihood



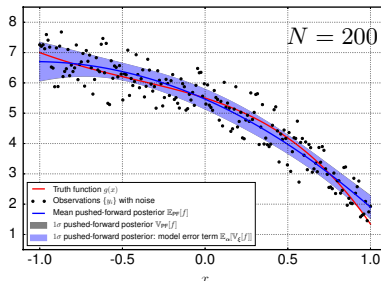
- With additional data, predictive uncertainty around the wrong model is indefinitely reducible
- Predictive uncertainty not indicative of discrepancy from truth



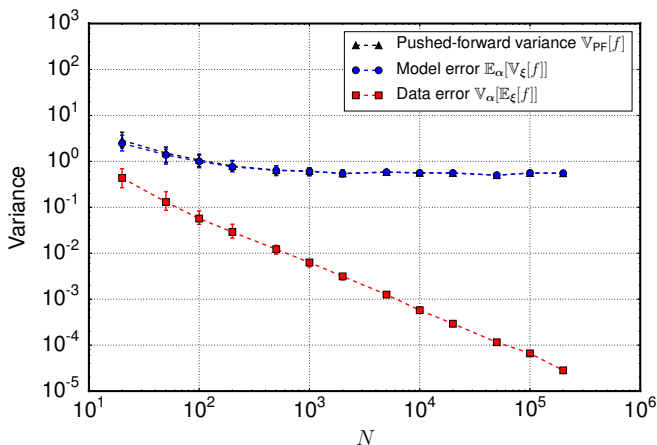
Quadratic-fit – ModErr – MargGauss



- With additional data, predictive uncertainty due to data noise is reducible
- Predictive uncertainty due to model error is not reducible



Quadratic-fit – ModErr – MargGauss



Calibrating a quadratic $f(x)$ w.r.t. $g(x) = 6 + x^2 + 0.5(x + 1)^{3.5}$

Model Evidence and Complexity

Let $\mathcal{M} = \{M_1, M_2, \dots\}$ be a set of models of interest

- Parameter estimation from data is conditioned on the model

$$p(\theta|D, M_k) = \frac{p(D|\theta, M_k)\pi(\theta|M_k)}{p(D|M_k)}$$

Evidence (marginal likelihood) for M_k :

$$p(D|M_k) = \int p(D|\theta, M_k)\pi(\theta|M_k)d\theta$$

Model evidence is useful for model selection

- Choose model with maximum evidence
- Compromise between fitting data and model complexity
 - Optimal complexity – Occam's razor principle
 - Avoid overfitting

Too much model complexity leads to overfitting

Data model: $i = 1, \dots, N$

$$y_i = x_i^3 + x_i^2 - 6 + \epsilon_i$$

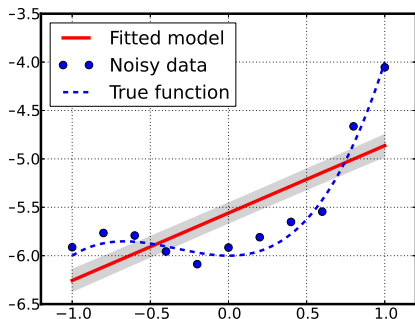
$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, s)$$

Bayesian regression with Legendre
PCE fit models, order 1-10

$$y_m = \sum_{k=0}^P c_k \psi_k(x)$$

Uniform priors $\pi(c_k), k = 0, \dots, P$

Order = 1



Fitted model pushed-forward
posterior versus the data

Too much model complexity leads to overfitting

Data model: $i = 1, \dots, N$

$$y_i = x_i^3 + x_i^2 - 6 + \epsilon_i$$

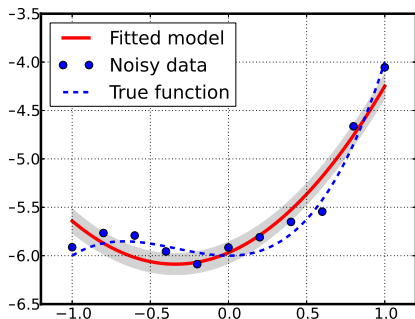
$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, s)$$

Bayesian regression with Legendre
PCE fit models, order 1-10

$$y_m = \sum_{k=0}^P c_k \psi_k(x)$$

Uniform priors $\pi(c_k), k = 0, \dots, P$

Order = 2



Fitted model pushed-forward
posterior versus the data

Too much model complexity leads to overfitting

Data model: $i = 1, \dots, N$

$$y_i = x_i^3 + x_i^2 - 6 + \epsilon_i$$

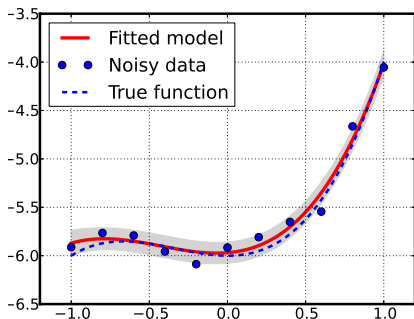
$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, s)$$

Bayesian regression with Legendre
PCE fit models, order 1-10

$$y_m = \sum_{k=0}^P c_k \psi_k(x)$$

Uniform priors $\pi(c_k), k = 0, \dots, P$

Order = 3



Fitted model pushed-forward
posterior versus the data

Too much model complexity leads to overfitting

Data model: $i = 1, \dots, N$

$$y_i = x_i^3 + x_i^2 - 6 + \epsilon_i$$

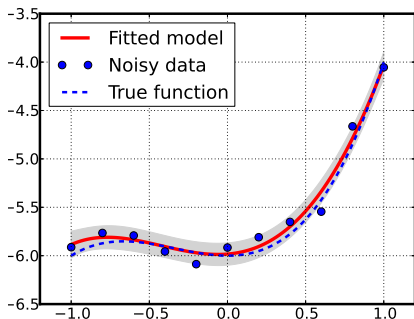
$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, s)$$

Bayesian regression with Legendre PCE fit models, order 1-10

$$y_m = \sum_{k=0}^P c_k \psi_k(x)$$

Uniform priors $\pi(c_k), k = 0, \dots, P$

Order = 4



Fitted model pushed-forward posterior versus the data

Too much model complexity leads to overfitting

Data model: $i = 1, \dots, N$

$$y_i = x_i^3 + x_i^2 - 6 + \epsilon_i$$

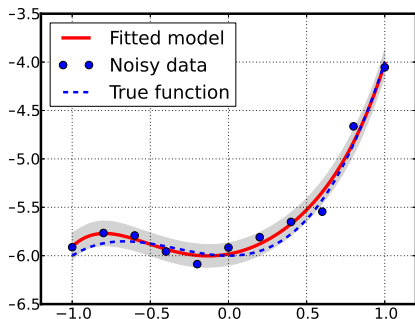
$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, s)$$

Bayesian regression with Legendre PCE fit models, order 1-10

$$y_m = \sum_{k=0}^P c_k \psi_k(x)$$

Uniform priors $\pi(c_k), k = 0, \dots, P$

Order = 5



Fitted model pushed-forward posterior versus the data

Too much model complexity leads to overfitting

Data model: $i = 1, \dots, N$

$$y_i = x_i^3 + x_i^2 - 6 + \epsilon_i$$

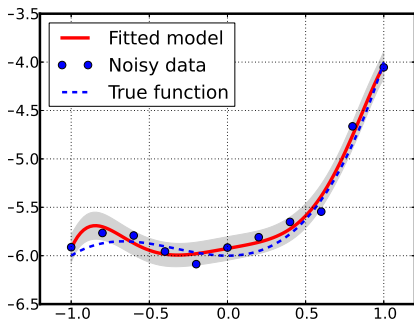
$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, s)$$

Bayesian regression with Legendre PCE fit models, order 1-10

$$y_m = \sum_{k=0}^P c_k \psi_k(x)$$

Uniform priors $\pi(c_k), k = 0, \dots, P$

Order = 6



Fitted model pushed-forward posterior versus the data

Too much model complexity leads to overfitting

Data model: $i = 1, \dots, N$

$$y_i = x_i^3 + x_i^2 - 6 + \epsilon_i$$

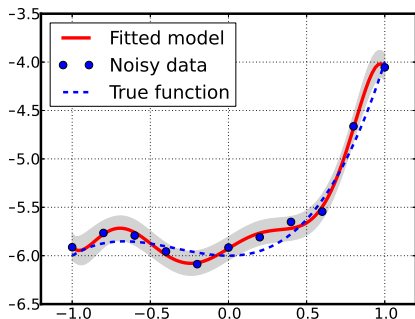
$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, s)$$

Bayesian regression with Legendre
PCE fit models, order 1-10

$$y_m = \sum_{k=0}^P c_k \psi_k(x)$$

Uniform priors $\pi(c_k), k = 0, \dots, P$

Order = 7



Fitted model pushed-forward
posterior versus the data

Too much model complexity leads to overfitting

Data model: $i = 1, \dots, N$

$$y_i = x_i^3 + x_i^2 - 6 + \epsilon_i$$

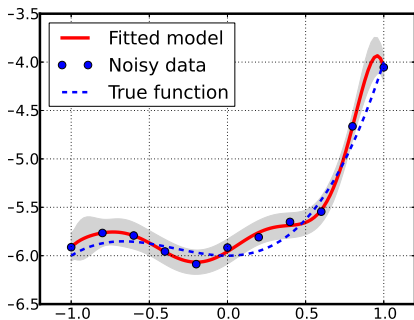
$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, s)$$

Bayesian regression with Legendre
PCE fit models, order 1-10

$$y_m = \sum_{k=0}^P c_k \psi_k(x)$$

Uniform priors $\pi(c_k), k = 0, \dots, P$

Order = 8



Fitted model pushed-forward
posterior versus the data

Too much model complexity leads to overfitting

Data model: $i = 1, \dots, N$

$$y_i = x_i^3 + x_i^2 - 6 + \epsilon_i$$

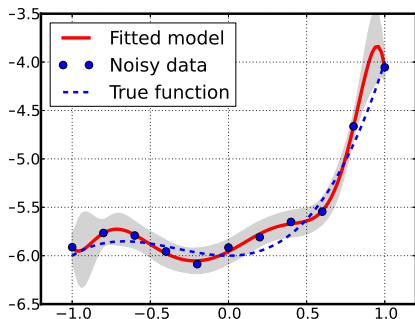
$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, s)$$

Bayesian regression with Legendre
PCE fit models, order 1-10

$$y_m = \sum_{k=0}^P c_k \psi_k(x)$$

Uniform priors $\pi(c_k), k = 0, \dots, P$

Order = 9



Fitted model pushed-forward
posterior versus the data

Too much model complexity leads to overfitting

Data model: $i = 1, \dots, N$

$$y_i = x_i^3 + x_i^2 - 6 + \epsilon_i$$

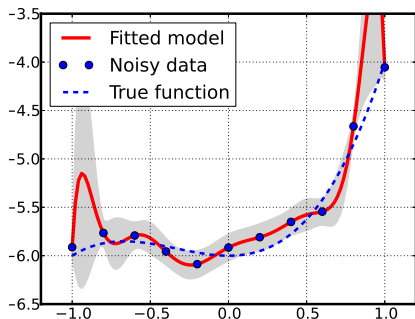
$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, s)$$

Bayesian regression with Legendre
PCE fit models, order 1-10

$$y_m = \sum_{k=0}^P c_k \psi_k(x)$$

Uniform priors $\pi(c_k), k = 0, \dots, P$

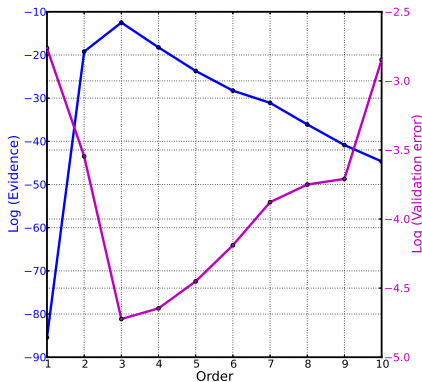
Order = 10



Fitted model pushed-forward
posterior versus the data

Evidence and Cross-Validation Error

- Model evidence peaks at the true polynomial order of 3
- Cross validation error is equally minimal at order 3
- Models with optimal complexity are robust to cross validation



Cross validation error and model evidence versus order

Closure

- Probabilistic UQ framework
 - Polynomial Chaos representation of random variables
- Forward UQ
 - Intrusive and non-intrusive forward PC UQ methods
- Inverse UQ
 - Parameter estimation via Bayesian inference
 - Model error
 - Model complexity
- Challenges
 - High dimensionality
 - Intrusive Galerkin stability
 - Nonlinearity
 - Time dynamics
 - Model error