Numerical Optimization 17: Uncertainty

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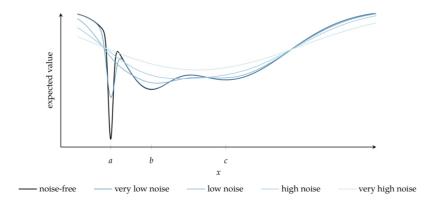
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Overview

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Uncertainty

In many engineering tasks, however, there may be uncertainty due to a number of factors, such as model approximations, imprecision, and fluctuations of parameters over time. We want to minimize f(x,z), but we do not have control over z. Feasibility depends on both the design vector x and the uncertain vector z.



Polynomial chaos

Polynomial chaos is a method for fitting a polynomial to f(x, z) and using the resulting surrogate model to estimate the mean and variance. In one dimension, we approximate f(z) with a surrogate model consisting

$$f(z) = \hat{f}(z) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i b_i(z)$$

The mean of \hat{f} can be derived as follows

of k polynomial basis functions, b_1, \dots, b_k :

$$\hat{\mu} = \int_{Z} p(z)\hat{f}(z)dz = \int_{Z} \sum_{i=1}^{k} p(z)\theta_{i}b_{i}(z)dx = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \int_{Z} \theta_{i}b_{i}(z)p(z)dz$$
$$= \theta_{1} \int_{Z} b_{1}(z)p(z)dz + \dots + \theta_{n} \int_{Z} b_{n}(z)p(z)dz$$

Polynomial chaos

The variance of \hat{f} can be derived as follows

$$\hat{\sigma} = \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}^{2}] - (\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}])^{2} = \int_{Z} p^{2}(z)\hat{f}(z)dz - \mu^{2}$$

$$= \int_{Z} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \theta_{i}\theta_{j}b_{i}(z)b_{j}(z)p(z)dz - \mu^{2}$$

$$= \int_{Z} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_{i}^{2}b_{i}^{2}(z) + 2\sum_{i=2}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \theta_{i}\theta_{j}b_{i}(z)b_{j}(z)\right)p(z)dz - \mu^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_{i}^{2} \int_{Z} b_{i}^{2}(z)dz + 2\sum_{i=2}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \theta_{i}\theta_{j} \int_{Z} b_{i}(z)b_{j}(z)p(z)dz - \mu^{2}$$

Orthogonal polynomial basis

The mean and variance can be efficiently computed if the basis functions are chosen to be orthogonal under p. Two basis functions b_i and b_j are orthogonal with respect to a probability density p(z) if

$$\int_{\mathcal{Z}} b_i(z)b_j(z)p(z)dz = 0. \text{ (if } i \neq j)$$

If the chosen basis functions are all orthogonal to one another and the first basis function is $b_1(z) = 1$, the mean is:

$$\hat{\mu} = \theta_1 \int_{\mathcal{Z}} b_1(z) p(z) dz + \dots + \theta_n \int_{\mathcal{Z}} b_n(z) p(z) dz$$

$$= \theta_1 \int_{\mathcal{Z}} b_1^2(z) p(z) dz + \dots + \theta_n \int_{\mathcal{Z}} b_1(z) b_n(z) p(z) dz$$

$$= \theta_1$$

Orthogonal polynomial basis

Similarly, the variance is

$$\hat{\sigma} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_{i}^{2} \int_{Z} b_{i}^{2}(z) dz + 2 \sum_{i=2}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \theta_{i} \theta_{j} \int_{Z} b_{i}(z) b_{j}(z) p(z) dz - \mu^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_{i}^{2} \int_{Z} b_{i}^{2}(z) dz - \mu^{2}$$

$$= \theta_{1}^{2} \int_{Z} b_{1}^{2}(z) dz - \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_{i}^{2} \int_{Z} b_{i}^{2}(z) dz - \mu^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_{i}^{2} \int_{Z} b_{i}^{2}(z) dz$$

Orthogonal polynomial basis

The mean thus falls immediately from fitting a surrogate model to the observed data, and the variance can be very efficiently computed given the values $\int_Z b_i^2(z)p(z)dz$ for a choice of basis functions and probability distribution. All orthogonal polynomials satisfy the recurrence relation:

$$b_{i+1}(z) = \begin{cases} (z - a_i)b_i(z) & i = 1\\ (z - a_i)b_i(z) - \beta_i b_{i-1}z & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

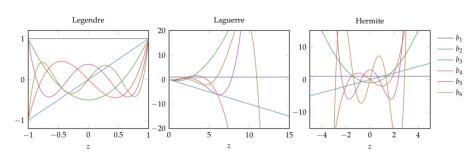
with $b_1(z) = 1$ and weights

$$\alpha_i = \frac{\int_Z z b_i^2(z) p(z) dz}{\int_Z b_i^2(z) p(z) dz}$$
$$\beta_i = \frac{\int_Z b_i^2(z) p(z) dz}{\int_Z b_{i-1}^2(z) p(z) dz}$$

The recurrence relation can be used to generate the basis functions. Each basis function b_i is a polynomial of degree i-1.

Orthogonal polynomial basis functions

Distribution	Domain	Density	Name	Recursive Form	Closed Form
Uniform	[-1, 1]	$\frac{1}{2}$	Legendre	$Le_k(x) = \frac{1}{2^k k!} \frac{d^k}{dx^k} [(x^2 - 1)^k]$	$b_i(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} {i-1 \choose j} {-i-2 \choose j} \left(\frac{1-x}{2}\right)^j$
Exponential	$[0,\infty)$	e^{-x}	Laguerre	$\frac{d}{dx} La_k(x) = \left(\frac{d}{dx} - 1\right) La_{k-1}$	$b_i(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} {i-1 \choose j} \frac{(-1)^j}{j!} x^j$
Unit Gaussian	$(-\infty,\infty)$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-x^2/2}$	Hermite	$H_k(x) = xH_{k-1} - \frac{d}{dx}H_{k-1}$	$b_i(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor (i-1)/2 \rfloor} (i-1)! \frac{(-1)^{\frac{i-1}{2}-j}}{(2j)!(\frac{i-1}{2}-j)!} (2x)^{2j}$



Coefficients

The coefficients $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k$ can be inferred by exploiting the orthogonality of the basis functions, producing an integration term amenable to Gaussian quadrature.

$$f(z) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_{i} b_{i}(z)$$

$$\int_{Z} f(z) b_{j}(z) p(z) dz = \int_{Z} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_{i} b_{i}(z) \right) b_{j}(z) p(z) dz$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_{i} \int_{Z} b_{i}(z) b_{j}(z) p(z) dz$$

$$= \theta_{j} \int_{Z} b_{j}(z) p(z) dz$$

$$\implies \theta_{j} = \frac{\int_{Z} f(z) b_{j}(z) p(z) dz}{\int_{Z} b_{j}(z) p(z) dz}$$

Multivariate

Polynomial chaos can be applied to functions with multiple random inputs. Multivariate basis functions over m variables are constructed as a product over univariate orthogonal polynomials:

Summary

- Polynomial chaos is a powerful uncertainty propagation technique basedon orthogonal polynomials.
- Bayesian Monte Carlo uses Gaussian processes to efficiently arrive at the moments with analytic results for Gaussian kernels.