Course Info

Uncertainty Quantification in Engineering Science

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Course Prerequisites

DESIRABLE

Elementary knowledge in Probability and Statistics Elementary knowledge in Dynamics and Vibrations Programming

Course Material

Class Notes

- Papers distributed as Required Reading (see class web site)
 - SUGGESTED (not necessary) TEXTBOOKS
 - Will be given later



OVERVIEW OF THE COURSE

Definitions

System – The real world (actual thing) to be analyzed

Mathematical Model – A collection of laws and mathematical equations introduced to describe the behavior of the actual system (usually based on physical laws or observations). It is based on theory and assumptions often used to construct a model.

Examples: algebraic equations, ordinary or partial differential equations (ODEs or PDEs), discrete equations

Computational Model – A numerical approximation or discretisation of the mathematical model in a form that can be implemented in computers. Most mathematical models are too complicated to solve them exactly and numerical approximations are most of the time introduced to solve the problem in available computers.

Examples: spatial and temporal discretization of PDEs, numerical integration, truncation of infinite sums

Sources of Uncertainty

- Modeling (or Structural) Uncertainty
 - Arise from assumptions used to build a mathematical model for
 - A. representing the physical system (the real thing)
 - B. representing the interactions of the system with the environment

Comes from the lack of knowledge for the underlying true physics, leading to discrepancies (model bias) between the predictions from the model and the observations (measurements). The model inadequacy is always present and the question is how to select the best models over a family of alternative models introduced to model the same physical phenomenon.

Parametric Uncertainty

Arise from lack of knowledge of the appropriate values of the parameters of a mathematical model. Examples include the material properties of a continuum such as solid or fluid, the properties involved in constitutive laws, the boundary conditions, etc.

Sources of Uncertainty

Computational (or Algorithmic) Uncertainty

linked to the numerical uncertainty arising from the numerical approximations introduced to implement the analysis in a computer. Examples include spatial and temporal discretization of PDEs using finite element methods, finite difference methods or particle methods.

Measurement uncertainty

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arises from the variability in the values of the experimental properties due to variability in experimental set up, errors in the measuring equipment, and inaccuracies in the data acquisition system.

Example 1: Solid Mechanics/Structural Dynamics

Modeling (or Structural) Uncertainty

Selection of linear or nonlinear constitute laws to represent the material behavior (e.g. stress-strain relationship)

Selection of boundary conditions

Parametric Uncertainty

The values of the constant parameters involved in the constitutive laws are not completely known (modulus of elasticity, Poisson ratio, etc)

The values of the stiffness in isolated parts of the structure are unknown

stiffness and damping values of isolation devices are uncertain (dampers, etc)

For contact problems, friction, restitution coefficients are not completely known

Computational (or Algorithmic) Uncertainty

Spatial discretization of the PDEs using finite element methods

Temporal discretization of the resulting ODEs

Measurement uncertainty

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Uncertainties in measuring the acceleration, strains, etc, in various locations of the structure due to errors in the measuring equipment, and inaccuracies in the data acquisition system.

Example 2: Fluid Dynamics

Modeling (or Structural) Uncertainty

Selection of flow model (Filtered Navier Stokes equations + Turbulence model) Selection of boundary conditions

Parametric Uncertainty

The values of the constant parameters involved in the Turbulence model

The values of the model are not suitable near boundaries

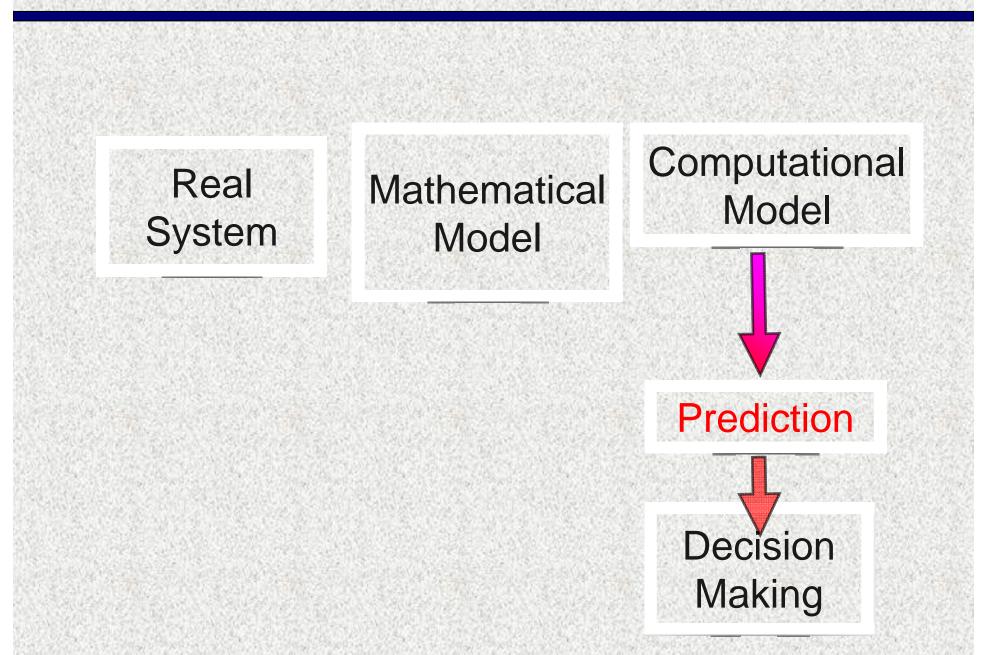
For some problems (flow in hydrophobic surfaces) the parameters of the boundary conditions are not known.

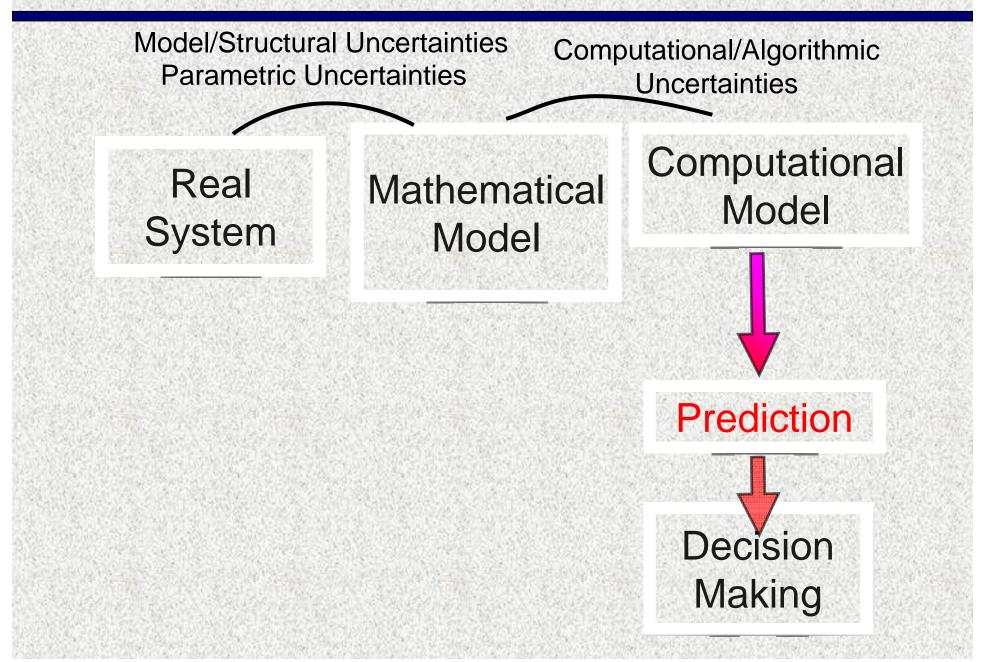
Computational (or Algorithmic) Uncertainty

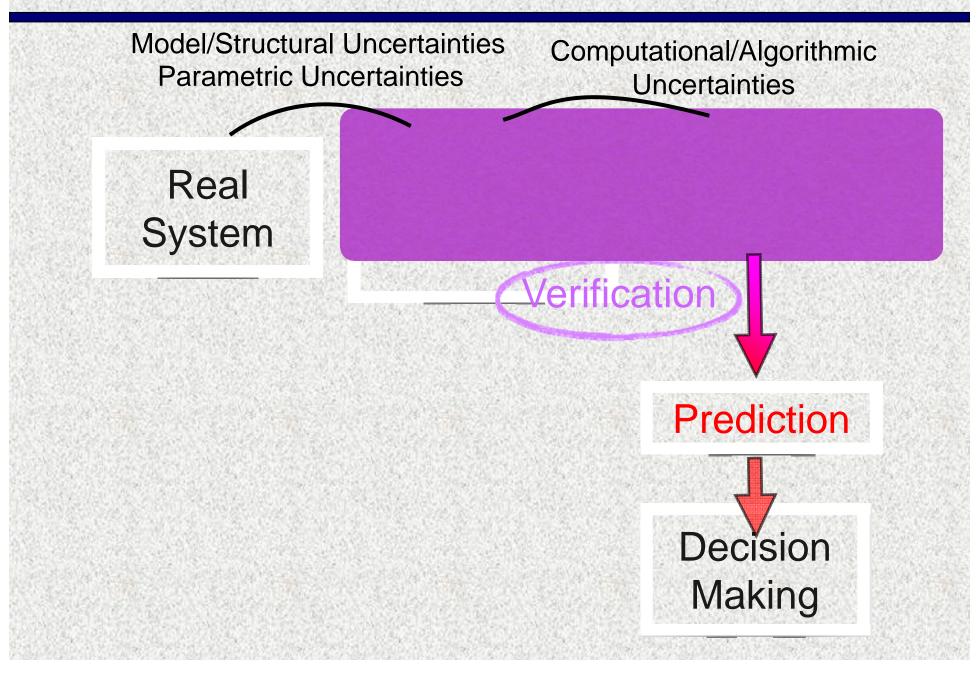
Spatial discretization of the PDEs using numerical methods (grids, particles, etc.) Temporal discretization of the resulting ODEs

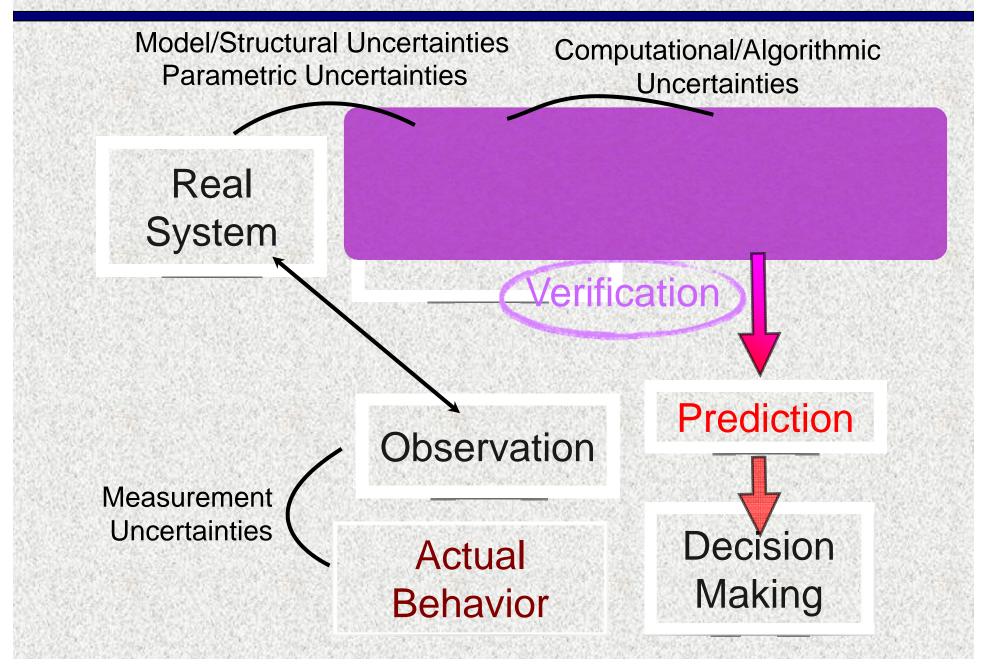
Measurement uncertainty

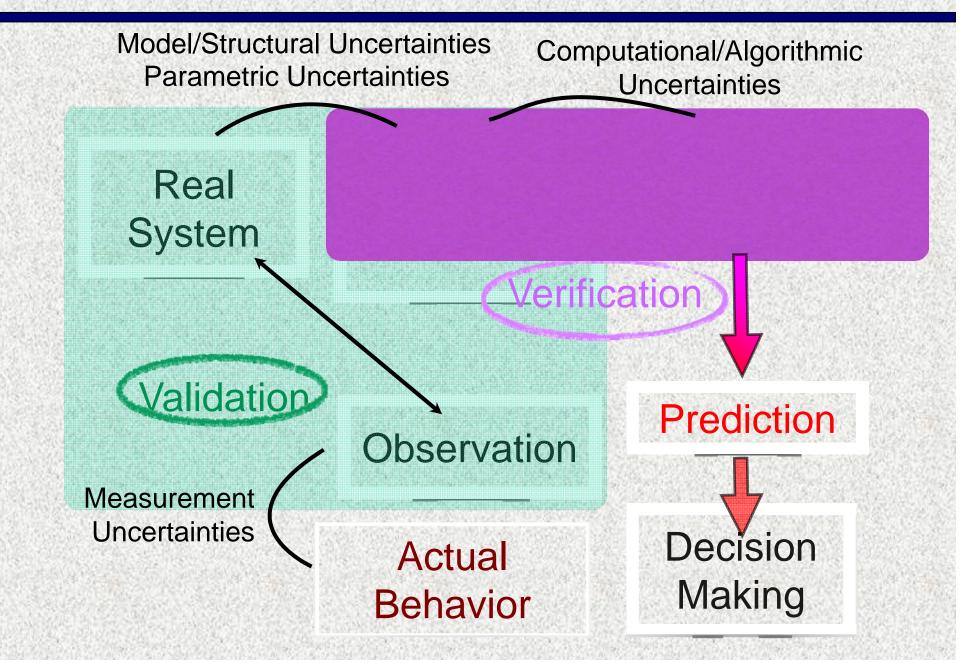
Uncertainties in measuring flow quantities such as flow fields and drag coefficients due to errors in the measuring equipment, and inaccuracies in the data acquisition system.











Uncertainty Quantification

Probability is used to quantify uncertainties. Probability models are used to model the missing/incomplete information.

We use Cox interpretation of probability, representing the degree of belief or plausibility of a proposition based on available information. It expresses our relative belief in the truth of various propositions. It ranks the propositions by assigning a real number to each one. The largest the numerical value associated with a proposition, the more we believe it.
Probabilities are always conditional on information and this conditioning must be stated explicitly.
Cox has shown that for consistent plausible reasoning the real number we attach to our beliefs of the propositions have to obey the usual rules of probability theory. The calculus of probability is thus used to manage (quantify and propagate) uncertainties (incomplete information) in system analysis.

Probability density functions (PDF) assigned on a parameter are used to quantify how plausible each possible value of this parameter is.

Probability Logic Fundamentals

Let a, b and c be propositions. Also define

 $P(b \mid a)$ = plausibility of proposition b conditioned on the information contained in proposition a

The axioms of probability logic are stated as

 $P(b | a) \ge 0$ P(b | a, b) = 1 $P(b | a) + P(\sim b | a) = 1$ P(c, b | a) = P(c | b, a) P(b | a)

Sum rule Product rule

Properties

 $P(b \,|\, a) \!\in\! [0,\!1]$

P(c or b | a) = P(c | a) + P(b | a) - P(c, b | a)

 $P(c \text{ or } b \mid a) = P(c \mid a) + P(b \mid a)$ if b and c cannot both be true (mutually exclusive) conditioned on a

Probability Logic Fundamentals

Properties

If only one of b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n is true based on the information in a, then

Marginalization Theorem

$$P(c \mid a) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} P(c, b_k \mid a)$$

Total Probability Theorem

$$P(c \mid a) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} P(c \mid b_k, a) \ P(b_k \mid a)$$

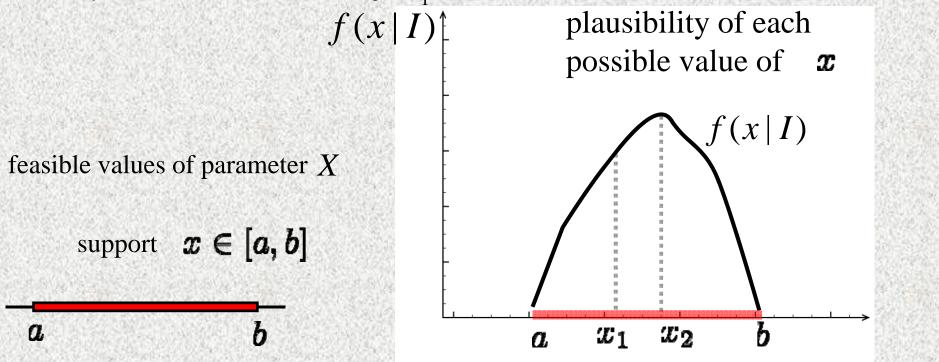
Bayes Theorem

$$P(b_k \mid c, a) = \frac{P(c \mid b_k, a) P(b_k \mid a)}{\sum_{k=1}^{n} P(c \mid b_k, a) P(b_k \mid a)}, \qquad k = 1, \dots, n$$

Consider a mathematical model and a single parameter X of this model. We assume that we have incomplete information about the value of the parameter. We know that the parameter can take values in the range [a,b] (range of possible values). In the absence of observations, lets assume that we can specify how plausible is each possible value of the parameter based on theoretical arguments, expert opinions or engineering experience.

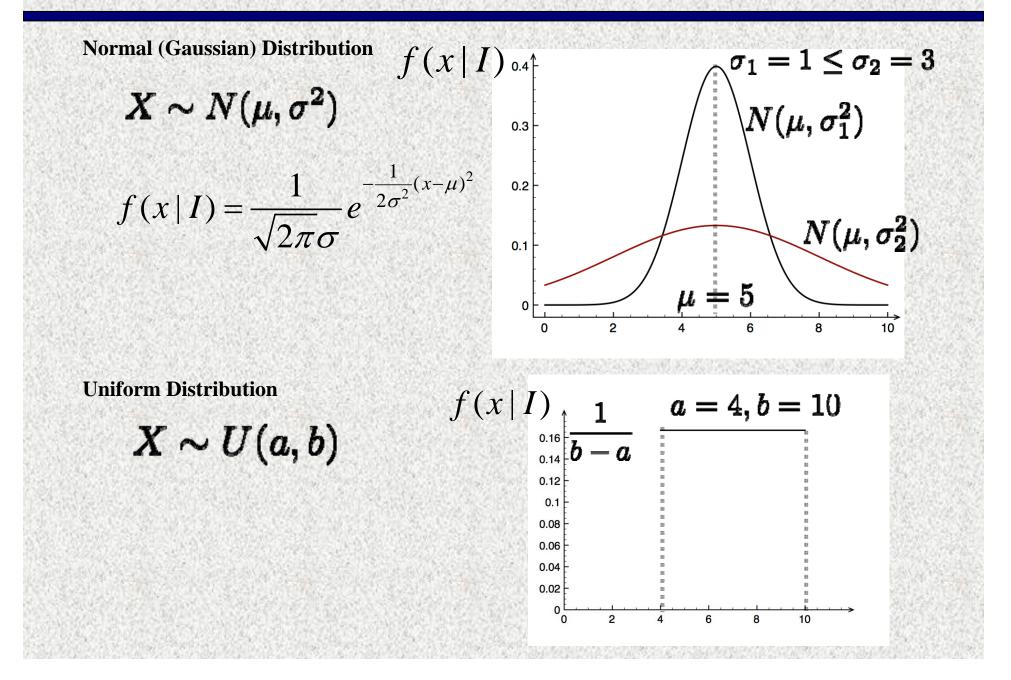
A PDF $f(x \mid I)$ is postulated to specify how plausible is each possible value x of the parameter based on the available information. The value of x is a constant and not a random

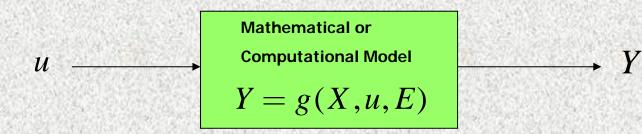
variable. Its constant value is uncertain to us. A number $f(x \mid I)$ is assigned to each possible value of the parameter to represent our belief that one value, say \mathcal{X}_2 , is more plausible than another value, say \mathcal{X}_1 .



Using the probability theory, the numbers/values f(x | I) for all $x \in [a, b]$ have to satisfy $\int f(x \mid I) \, dx = 1$ A first question that arises is how to propagate this uncertainty through the system. We will use the calculus of probability and we will demonstrate this with an very simple example. plausibility of each $f(x \mid I)$ possible value of \boldsymbol{x} f(x|I)feasible values of parameter Xsupport $x \in [a, b]$ Ь a x_1 22 h a.

Examples of PDFs: Normal (Gaussian) & Uniform





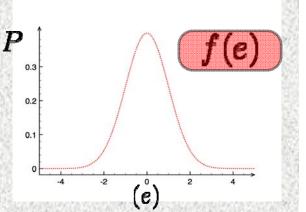
- X is the uncertain model parameter; χ is a possible value of X
- Y is the uncertain output quantity of interest (QoI); $_{\mathcal{V}}$ is a possible value of Y
- E is the prediction error
- ${oldsymbol{\mathcal{U}}}$ is the input; Assumed in this example to be known

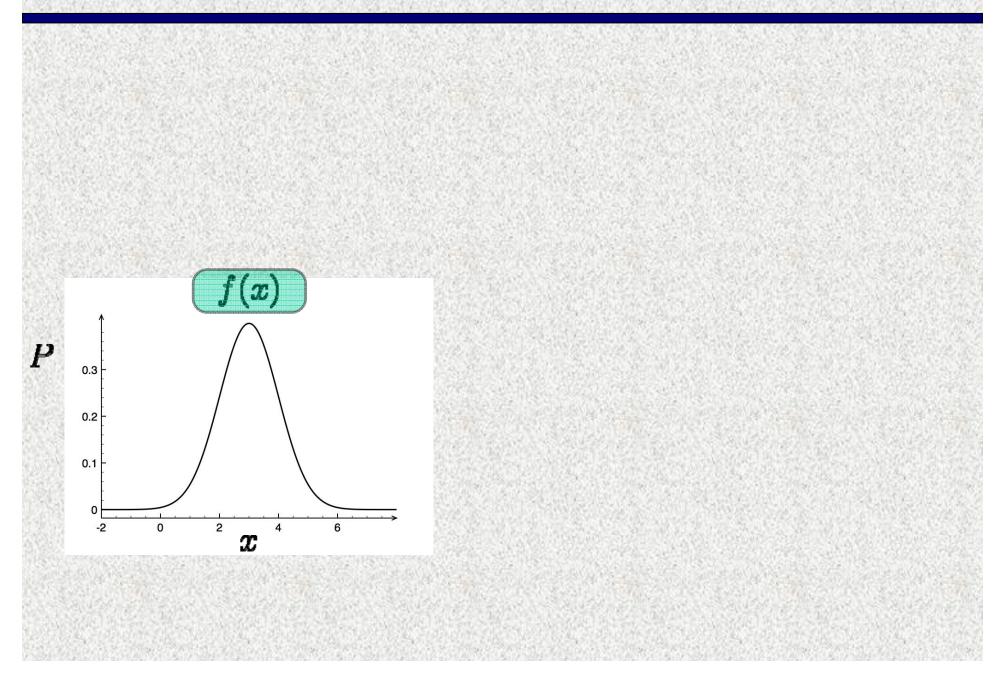
Example 1 (Special Linear Case): Y = X + E

 $oldsymbol{X}$ and $oldsymbol{E}$ are independent

$$f(x) = N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

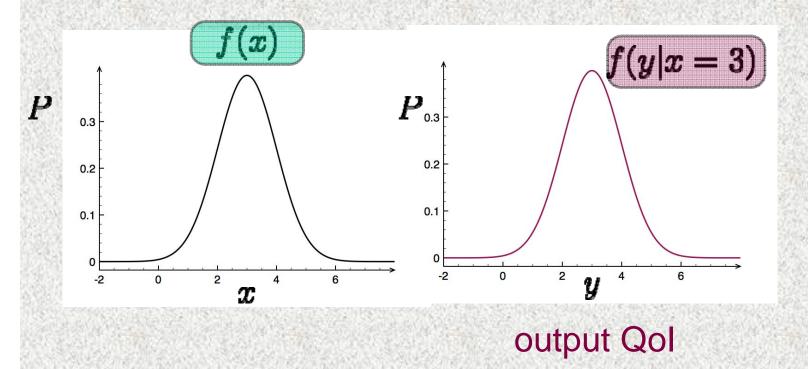
 $E \sim N(0, 1^2)$





Using the calculus of probability, the probability distribution (PDF) of y conditioned on the value of x is

$$f(y \mid x) = N(x, 1^2)$$

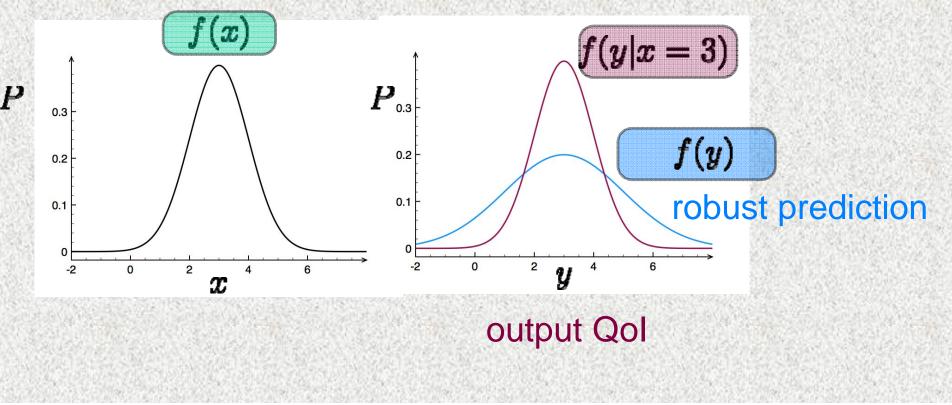


Using the calculus of probability, the probability distribution (PDF) of y conditioned on the value of x is

$$f(y|x) = N(\mu, 1^2)$$

The probability distribution of the output QoI Y is given by

$$f(y) = N(\mu, \sigma^2 + 1^2)$$



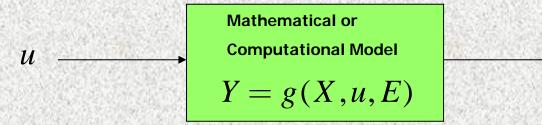
Uncertainty Quantification

Measures of Uncertainty in Qol

- PDF
- Mean, std, skewness (asymmetry), curtosis (deviation from normality)
- Confidence intervals
- Probability of QoI lying in a predefined set (failure probability; probability of unacceptable performance, first passage problem)

Uncertainty Propagation

 $\cdot Y$



Tools for uncertainty propagation in prior system analysis

- Analytical (Useful for demonstration of theory; not applicable in practical engineering problems)
- Local expansion techniques: Perturbation, Taylor series, etc (small uncertainties)
- Functional expansion methods: Neumann, Polynomial Chaos
- Numerical integration methods: sparse grid methods
- Reliability-based approximate or asymptotic methods: FORM, SORM
- Stochastic simulation methods: Monte Carlo, Importance sampling, adaptive sampling, subset simulation, line sampling, etc

Uncertainty Quantification based on Observations

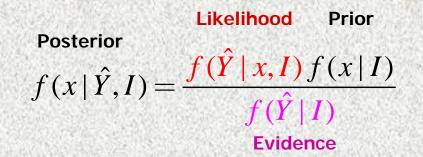
Observations or measurement data are collected from the system.

Let these observations be denoted by \hat{Y} .

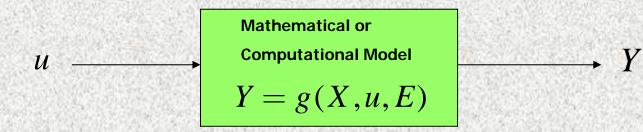
The problem is now to update the uncertainty in the parameters using the information contained

in the observations. This is achieved using the Bayes theorem.

BAYES THEOREM



Bayes theorem gives the **posterior PDF (uncertainty)** of the model parameters which quantifies how plausible is each possible value of the parameter in light of the available observations from the system. This updated PDF of the uncertainty in the parameters is based on two quantities. The first one is called the **likelihood** and gives the probability to observe the data given a possible value of the model parameters. The likelihood is influenced by the data. The second one is the **prior probability** of the model parameters, which contains any information before data are utilized. The term in the denominator is called the **evidence** and for parameter estimation is just a normalization constant (does not depend on the parameters). For model selection, however, this term plays a crucial role.



- X is the uncertain model parameter; χ is a possible value of X
- Y is the uncertain output quantity of interest (QoI); $_{\mathcal{V}}$ is a possible value of Y
- E is the prediction error
- ${oldsymbol{\mathcal{U}}}$ is the input; Assumed in this example to be known

Example 1 (Special Linear Case): Y = X + E

X and E are independent

$$f(x) = N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

 $E \sim N(0, 1^2)$

 \hat{Y} A single observation (data) from the system

Given the data $\;\hat{Y}$, the posterior PDF of the parameter χ is obtained from Bayes theorem as

$$f(x|\hat{Y},I) = \frac{f(y=\hat{Y}|x,I)f(x|I)}{f(y=\hat{Y}|I)}$$

Using the mathematical model Y = X + E we obtain the likelihood in the form

$$f(y \mid x, I) = N(x, \sigma^2)$$

which for
$$y = \hat{Y}$$
 gives

$$f(\hat{Y} \mid x, I) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi 1}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(\hat{Y} - x)^2}{1^2}\right]$$

Substituting in (1) along with the prior PDF

$$f(x \mid I) = N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

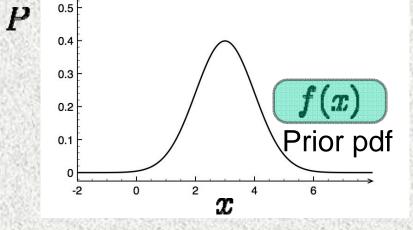
one readily obtains that

$$f(x | \hat{Y}, I) \propto \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{(\hat{Y} - x)^2}{1^2} + \frac{(x - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right)\right]$$

which can be shown to simplify to a normal distribution for the **posterior PDF** of the parameter

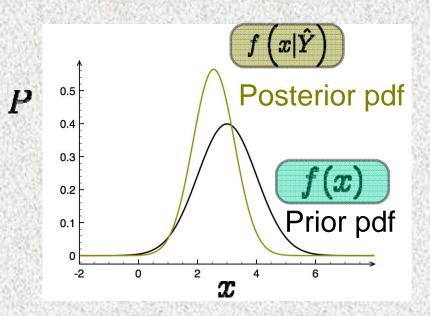
$$f(x | \hat{Y}, I) = N\left(\frac{\mu + \hat{Y}\sigma^2}{1 + \sigma^2}, \frac{\sigma^2}{1 + \sigma^2}\right)$$

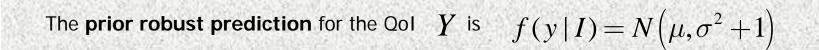
prior PDF
$$f(x) = N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

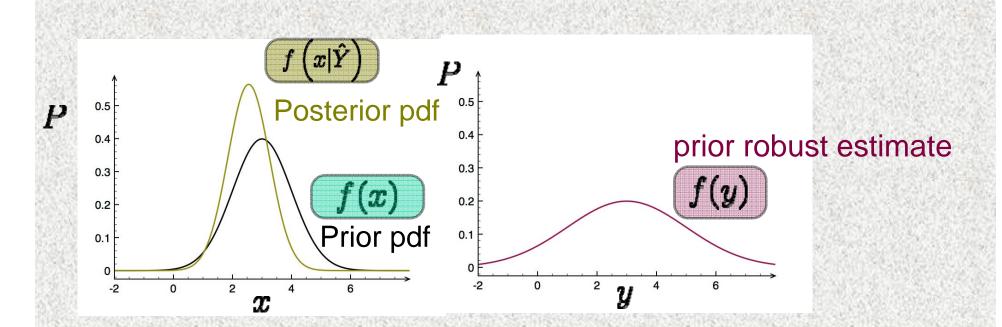


prior PDF
$$f(x) = N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

posterior PDF $f(x | \hat{Y}) = N\left(\frac{\mu + \hat{Y}\sigma^2}{1 + \sigma^2}, \frac{\sigma^2}{1 + \sigma^2}\right)$

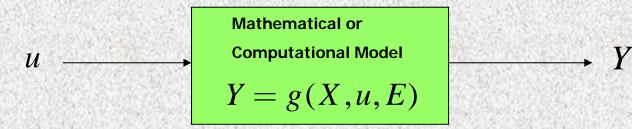






The prior robust prediction for the QoI Y is $f(y | I) = N(\mu, \sigma^2 + 1)$ The **posterior robust prediction** for the QoI Y, taking into account the observations (measurements), is readily obtained form the fact that the posterior PDF of the model parameter is normal $f(y | \hat{Y}, I) = N\left(\frac{\mu + \hat{Y}\sigma^2}{1 + \sigma^2}, \frac{\sigma^2}{1 + \sigma^2} + 1\right)$ posterior robust estimate Posterior pdf 0.5 0.5 $f\left(y|\hat{Y}
ight)$ prior robust estimate 0.4 0.3 0.3 f(y)0.2 0.2 Prior pdf 0.1 0.1 0 0 2 6 ¥ 2 -2 0 6 x

Uncertainty Quantification: Example 2



- X is the uncertain model parameter; χ is a possible value of X
- Y is the uncertain output quantity of interest (QoI); $_{\mathcal{V}}$ is a possible value of Y
- E is the prediction error
- ${oldsymbol{\mathcal{U}}}$ is the input; Assumed in this example to be known

Example 2 (Nonlinear Case): $Y_k = g_k(X, u) + E_k$

X and E are independent $f(x) = N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ $E_k \square N(0, 1^2)$ independent and identically distributed (i.i.d) $\hat{Y} = \{\hat{Y}_1, \dots, \hat{Y}_N\}$ Observations (data) from the system

The posterior PDF of the parameter is given by (for analysis see notes written on the board)

$$f(x | \hat{Y}) \propto \prod_{k=1}^{N} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} (\hat{Y}_{k} - g_{k}(x, u))^{2}\right] \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - \mu)^{2}}{\sigma^{2}}\right]$$
(1)

The posterior PDF does not follow a simple known distribution. This complicates the identification of the region of most plausible values the parameters and the subsequent system analysis such as the posterior robust prediction since it can not be computed using the arguments of example 1. Sampling from the posterior PDF is also a challenging problem. Stochastic simulation methods such as Markov Chain Monte Carlo have been developed to sample from the posterior PDF.
 Asymptotic approximations (valid for large number of data) can also be used to approximate

the posterior PDF by a normal PDF.

Using the total probability theorem, the **posterior robust prediction** of a QoI Y takes the form

$$f(y | \hat{Y}) = \int f(y | x) \frac{f(x, \hat{Y})}{Posterior PDF} dx$$

This integral can only be evaluated using numerical integration. However, this is **inefficient for more than a few model parameters**. Need to use more efficient techniques to evaluate such integrals. Such tools include **asymptotic approximations** and **stochastic simulation algorithms**.

Bayesian Uncertainty Quantification and Propagation

Tools for uncertainty quantification and propagation in posterior system analysis

- Asymptotic approximations
- Stochastic simulation methods: variants of MCMC (Markov Chain Monte Carlo), Transitional MCMC, Sequential Monte Carlo, DRAM, etc

Bayesian Uncertainty Quantification and Propagation

Issues to be considered

- Multi-dimensional uncertain parameter space (we only discussed the 1-d case)
- Models for which the QoI depends nonlinear on the parameters (we discussed the linear case)
- Selection of prior PDF for the model parameters
- Ranking alternative models introduced to represent the system Model averaging
- Account for measurement and computational uncertainties
- Approximate methods for posterior system analysis
- Stochastic simulation methods for posterior system analysis: variants of MCMC (Markov Chain Monte Carlo), Transitional MCMC, DRAM, etc
- Optimal experimental design: what quantities to measure in order to get the most information out of the data in order to reduce uncertainties in model parameters and predictions.