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# *Uncertainty Quantification, Bayesian Inference, and Analysis of Models*

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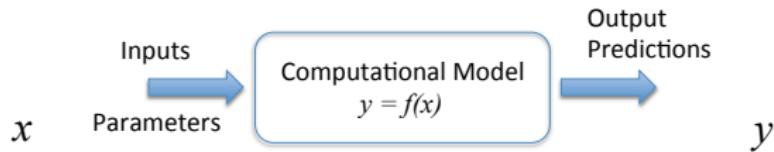
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# Outline

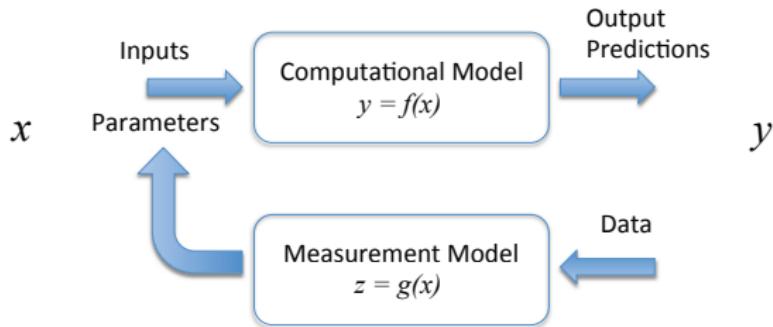
- 1 Introduction
- 2 Bayesian Inference
- 3 Illustration in Chemical Ignition
- 4 Model Comparison, Validation, Averaging
- 5 Closure

# Uncertainty Quantification and Computational Science



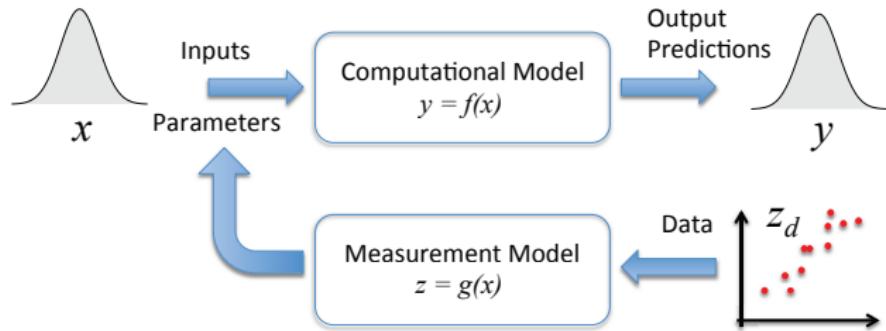
Forward problem

# Uncertainty Quantification and Computational Science



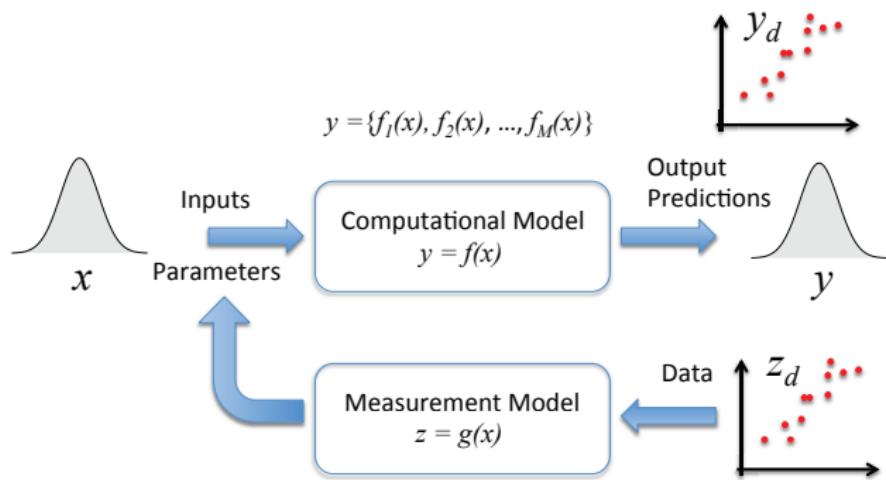
Inverse & Forward problems

# Uncertainty Quantification and Computational Science



Inverse & Forward UQ

# Uncertainty Quantification and Computational Science



**Inverse & Forward UQ**  
 Model validation & comparison, Hypothesis testing

# Why UQ? Why in computational combustion?

## Why UQ?

- Assessment of confidence in computational predictions
- Validation and comparison of scientific/engineering models
- Design optimization
- Use of computational predictions for decision-support
- Assimilation of observational data and model construction

## Further ...

- Explore model response over range of parameter variation
- Enhanced understanding extracted from computations
- Particularly important given **cost** of computations

# Specific uses of UQ in LES studies

## Forward uncertainty propagation

- Given known uncertainties in model inputs, e.g.
  - subgrid model parameters, initial and boundary conditions
  - estimate uncertainties in model output predictions
  - evaluate global sensitivities to model inputs
  - build surrogates for model output dependence on inputs

## Inverse UQ – model calibration, parameter estimation

- Given data on model output observables, e.g.
  - experimental measurements, DNS computations
  - estimate values of model inputs/parameters
  - estimate plausibility of, compare, select among models
  - validate models

# Least-Squares Parameter Estimation

- Fit model  $g()$ ; unknown parameters  $\lambda$ ; measurement  $y$
- Forward Problem:

$$g(\lambda) = y_m$$

- Estimate  $\lambda$  for best fit between  $g(\lambda)$  and  $y$  :

$$\lambda_{\text{fit}} = g^{-1}(y)$$

- This is a classic inverse problem
  - Typically solved using least-squares regression
  - e.g. Newton's method

$$\lambda_{\text{rms}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\lambda} (||y - g(\lambda)||)$$

i.e. minimize the  $\chi^2$ :

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\mathcal{D}} \frac{((g(\lambda) - y)^2}{\sigma_k^2}$$

# Issues with Least Squares (LS) Parameter Estimation

- Choice of optimal number of fit parameters ( $p$ )
  - $\chi^2$  decreases with increased  $p$
  - Danger of overfitting
- No general means for handling *nuisance* parameter
- LS best fit is the Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE) assuming gaussian noise in the data
- LS Estimation of Uncertainty in inferred parameter values relies on assumed linearity of the model in the parameters
- Support Planes method to estimate standard deviation
  - Variation of one parameter at a time
  - Solve the LS problem for remaining  $p - 1$  params
  - Re-evaluate  $\chi^2$
  - When  $\chi^2$  decreases by a predetermined factor, the parameter is  $n\sigma$  away from best fit

# Bayes formula for Parameter Inference

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

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

$$p(\lambda|y) = \frac{\text{Likelihood} \quad \text{Prior}}{\text{Posterior} \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{Evidence}} = \frac{p(y|\lambda) \quad p(\lambda)}{p(y)}$$

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

# Advantages of Bayesian Methods

- Formal means of logical inference and machine learning
- Means of incorporation of prior knowledge/measurements and heterogeneous data
- Full probabilistic description of parameters
- General means of handling nuisance parameters through marginalization
- Means of identification of *optimal* model complexity
  - Ockham's razor
  - Only as much complexity as is required by the physics, and no more
  - Avoid fitting to noise

# 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

# 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:  $\epsilon$

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

- 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  $\lambda$ , 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

$$\begin{aligned} y_i &= g(\lambda) + \epsilon_i \\ \epsilon_i &\sim N(0, \sigma^2) \\ L(\lambda) = p(y_1, \dots, y_N | \lambda, \sigma) &= \prod_{i=1}^N p(y_i | \lambda, \sigma) \end{aligned}$$

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

Recall that the weighted least-squares data mis-fit is given by

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \left[ \frac{y_i - g(\lambda)}{\sigma_i} \right]^2$$

and the best-fit estimate of  $\lambda$  is

$$\lambda_{\text{rms}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\lambda} (\chi^2(\lambda))$$

Minimizing  $\chi^2$  is equivalent to maximizing the likelihood  
 Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE):

$$\lambda_{\text{MLE}} \equiv \lambda_{\text{rms}}$$

Exploration of the likelihood provides for a more general  
 examination of quality of fit than  $\chi^2$

# Experimental Data

- Empirical data error model structure can be informed based on knowledge of the experimental apparatus
- Both bias and noise models are typically available from instrument calibration
- Noise PDF structure
  - A counting instrument would exhibit Poisson noise
  - A measurement combining many noise sources would exhibit Gaussian noise
- Noise correlation structure
  - Point measurement
  - Field measurement

# Line fitting example

Consider the fitting of a straight line

$$y_m = ax + b$$

to data  $D = \{(x_i, y_i), i = 1, \dots, N\}$ .

Consider an (improper) uninformative prior

$$\pi(a, b) = \text{Const}$$

providing no prior information on  $(a, b)$ .

Assume *iid* additive unbiased Gaussian noise in  $y$  with a given constant noise variance  $\sigma^2$ , thus the data model is:

$$y = ax + b + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

with no noise in the independent variable  $x$ .

# Line fitting example

Presuming  $\sigma$  known, we have the likelihood,

$$L(a, b) = p(D|a, b) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(y_i|a, b)$$

where

$$p(y_i|a, b) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - ax_i - b)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

and, per Bayes formula, the posterior density  $p(a, b|D)$  is

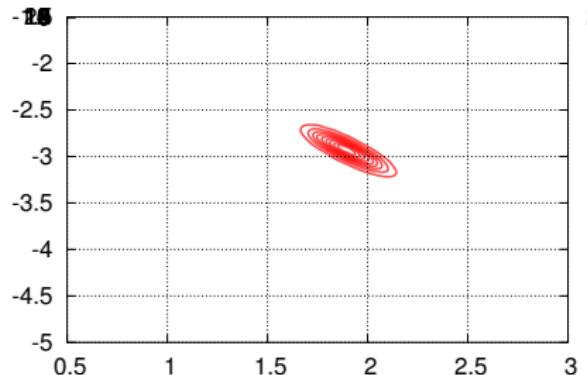
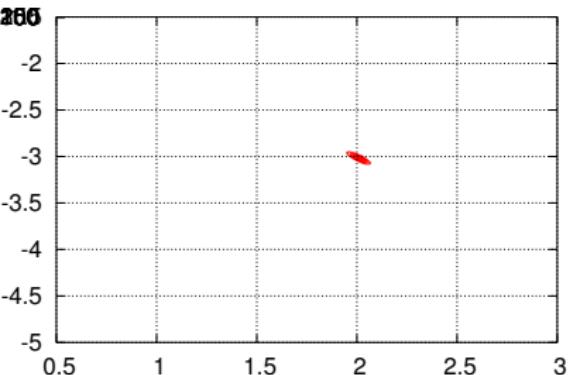
$$p(a, b|D) = \frac{p(D|a, b)\pi(a, b)}{p(D)} \propto p(D|a, b)\pi(a, b)$$

# Line fitting example – cont'd

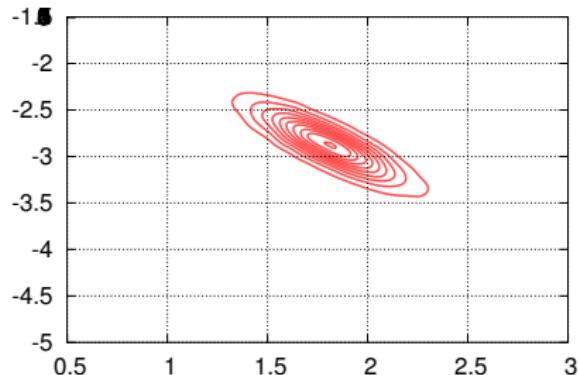
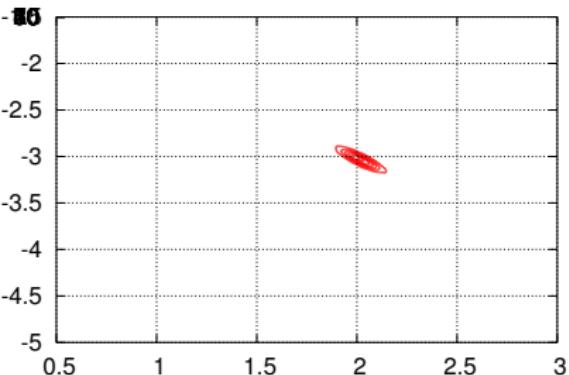
The posterior on  $(a, b)$  is the two-dimensional Multivariate Normal (MVN) distribution

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(a, b|D) &\propto (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-N/2} \prod_{i=1}^N \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - ax_i - b)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \\
 &\propto (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-N/2} \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(y_i - ax_i - b)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

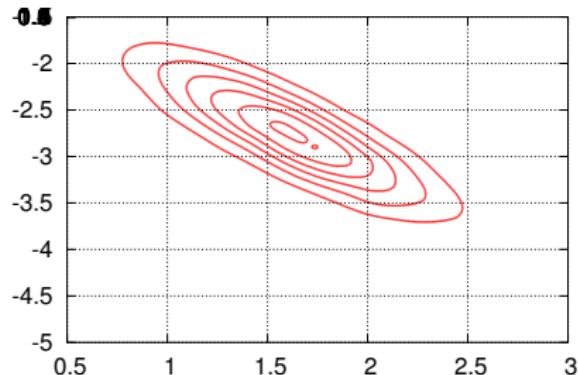
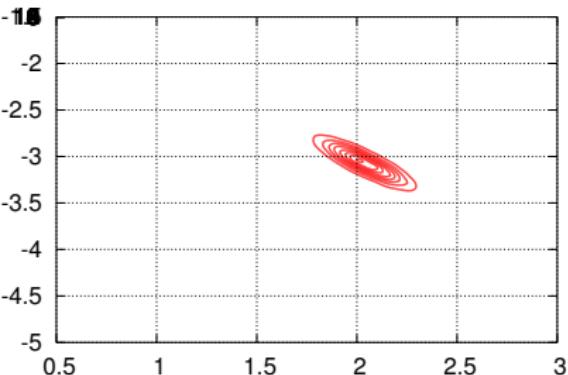
Linear model, Gaussian noise,  $\sigma$ -given, and a Gaussian or constant-uninformative prior.

Line fitting example – Effect of data size on  $p(a, b|D)$ Low data noise:  $\sigma = 0.25$  $N = 20$  $N = 200$ 

- More data  $\Rightarrow$  more accurate parameter estimates

Line fitting example – Effect of data size on  $p(a, b|D)$ Medium data noise:  $\sigma = 0.5$  $N = 20$  $N = 200$ 

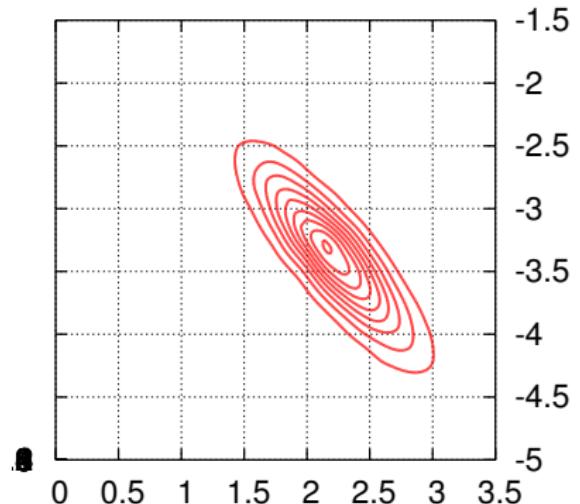
- More data  $\Rightarrow$  more accurate parameter estimates
- Higher noise amplitude  $\Rightarrow$  higher uncertainty

Line fitting example – Effect of data size on  $p(a, b|D)$ High data noise:  $\sigma = 1.0$  $N = 20$  $N = 200$ 

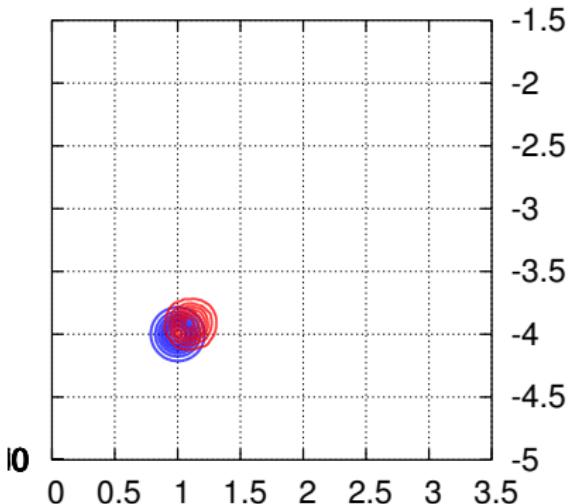
- More data  $\Rightarrow$  more accurate parameter estimates
- Higher noise amplitude  $\Rightarrow$  higher uncertainty

# Line fitting example – prior vs. data-size

## 20 data points



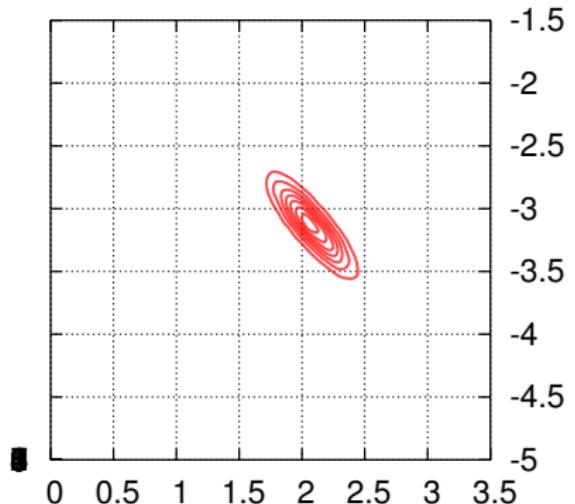
Constant uninformative prior



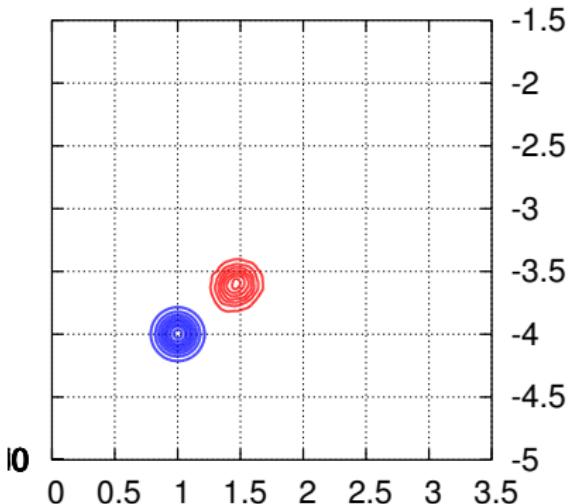
Gaussian prior

# Line fitting example – prior vs. data-size

## 80 data points



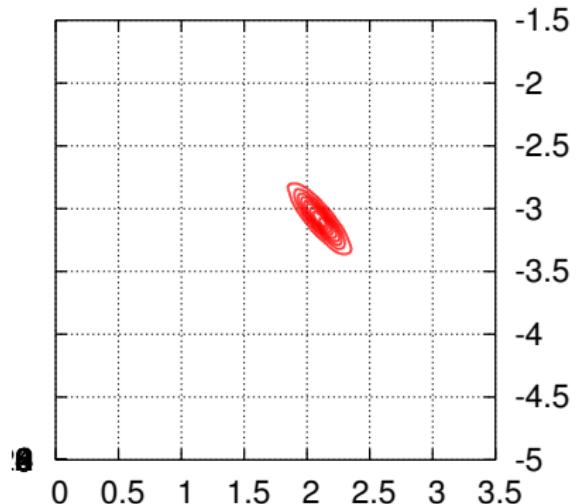
Constant uninformative prior



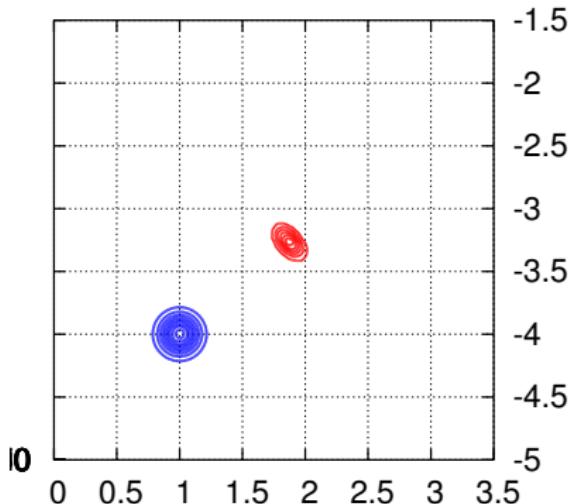
Gaussian prior

# Line fitting example – prior vs. data-size

## 200 data points



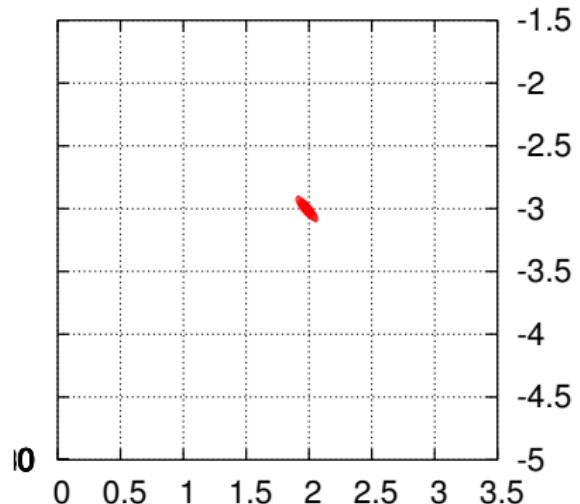
Constant uninformative prior



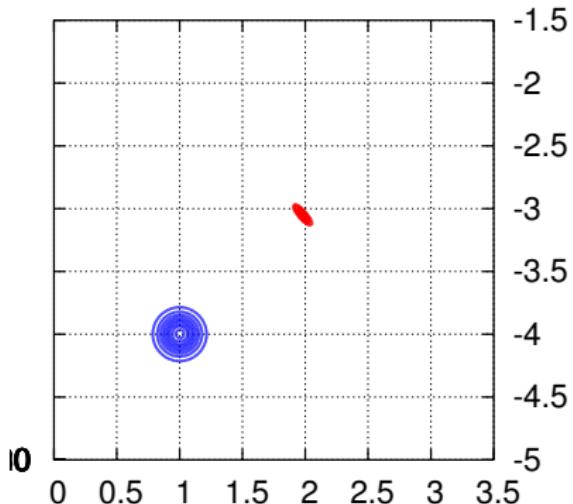
Gaussian prior

# Line fitting example – prior vs. data-size

## 2000 data points



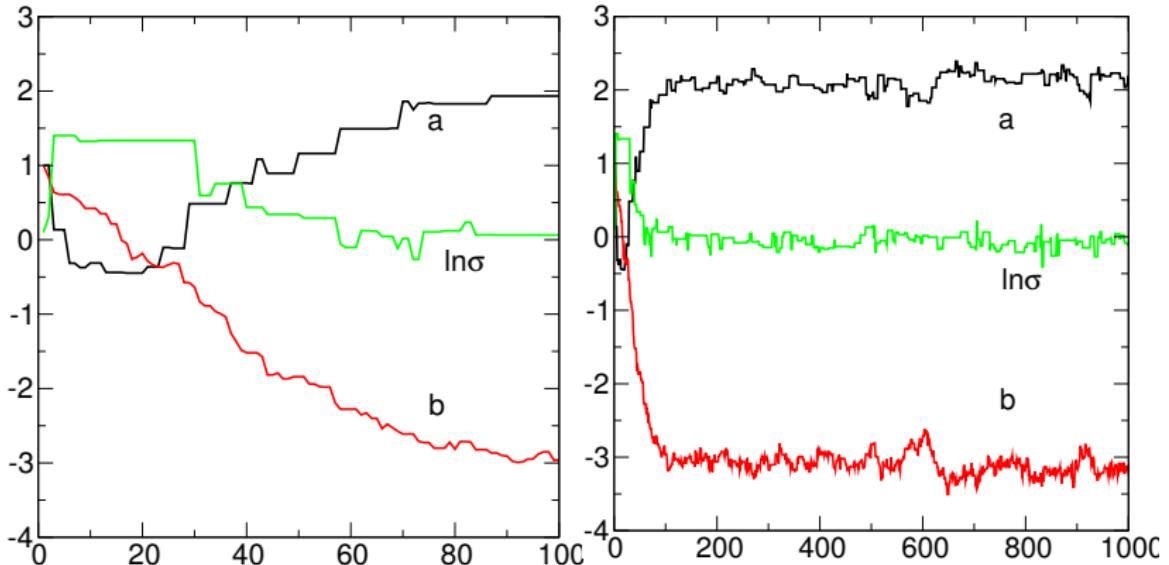
Constant uninformative prior



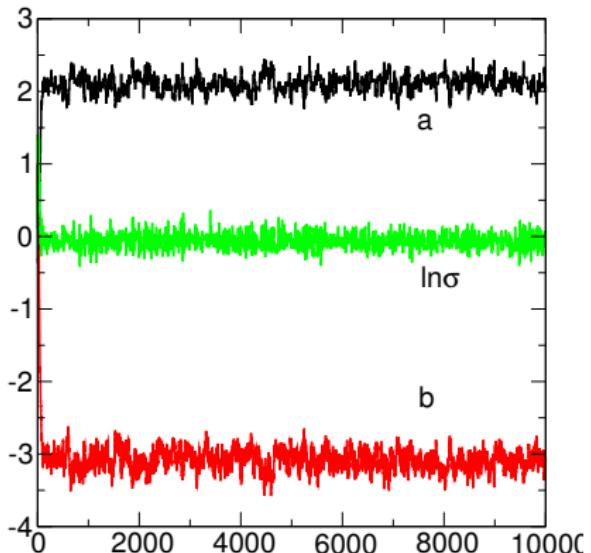
Gaussian prior

# Exploring the Posterior

- Given any sample  $\lambda$ , 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

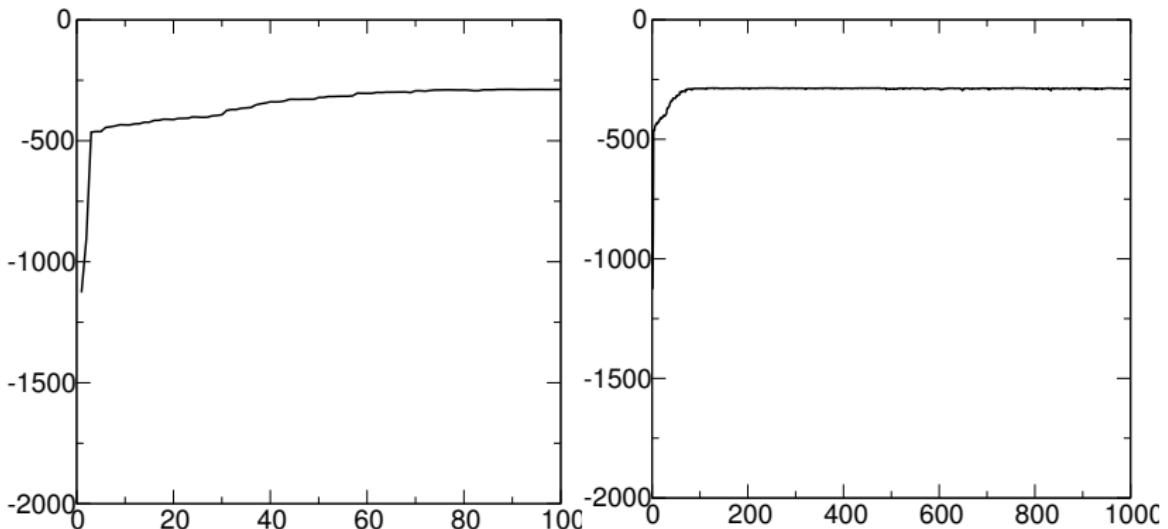
Line fitting example – MCMC –  $(a, b, \ln \sigma)$  samples

- Initial transient “Burn-in” period,  $\approx 100$  steps
- Problem and initial condition dependent

Line fitting example – MCMC –  $(a, b, \ln \sigma)$  samples

- Visual inspection reveals “good mixing”
- No significant long-term correlation or periodicity

## Line fitting example – MCMC – posterior density



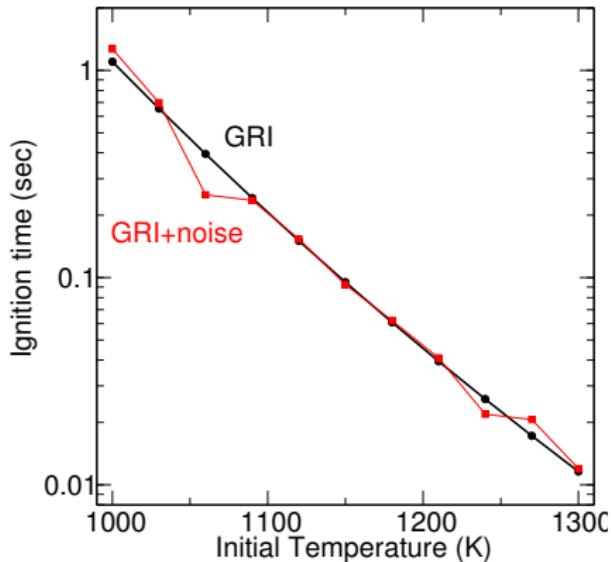
- Chain finds high posterior density (HPD) region
- stays there generating many random samples

# Chemical Rate Parameter Estimation example

Synthetic ignition data generated using a detailed model+noise

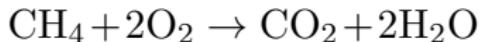
- Ignition using GRImech3.0 methane-air chemistry
- Ignition time versus Initial Temperature
- Multiplicative noise error model
- 11 data points:

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_i^d &= \tau^{\text{GRI}}(T_i^o) (1 + \sigma \epsilon_i) \\ \epsilon &\sim N(0, 1) \end{aligned}$$



# Fitting with a simple chemical model

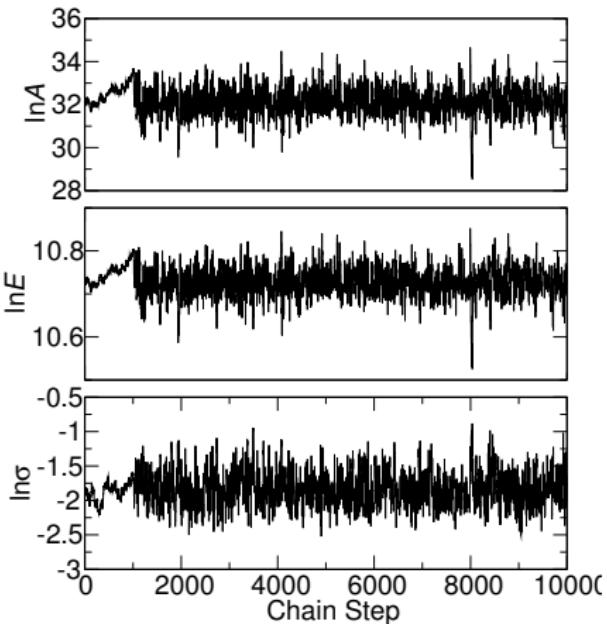
- Fit a global single-step irreversible chemical model



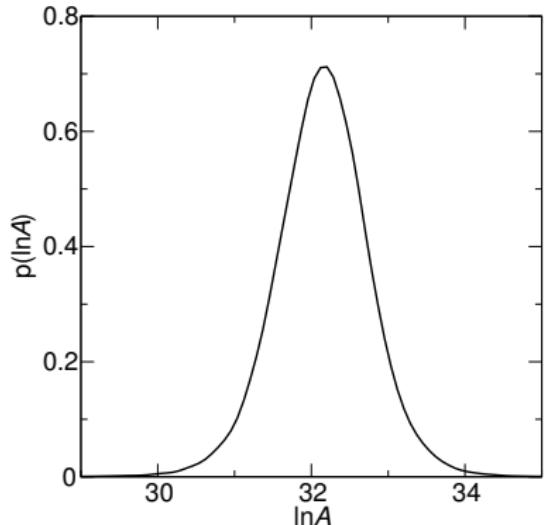
$$\mathfrak{R} = [\text{CH}_4][\text{O}_2]k_f$$

$$k_f = A \exp(-E/R^oT)$$

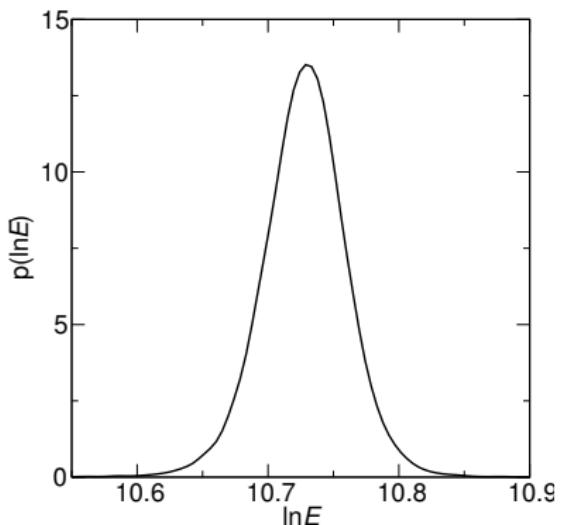
- Infer 3-D parameter vector ( $\ln A, \ln E, \ln \sigma$ )
- Good mixing with adaptive MCMC when start at MLE



# Marginal Posteriors on $\ln A$ and $\ln E$

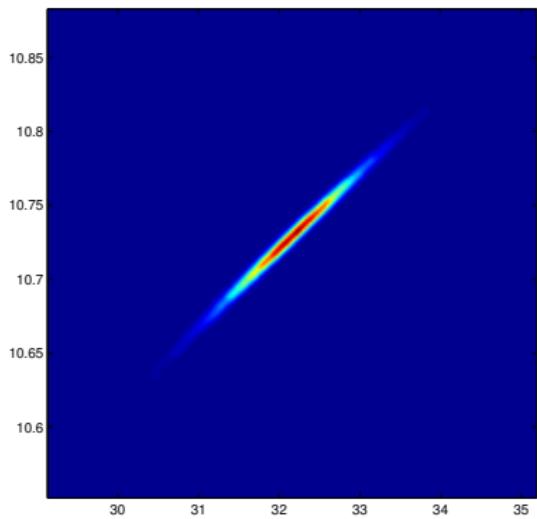


$$\ln A = 32.15 \pm 3 \times 0.61$$

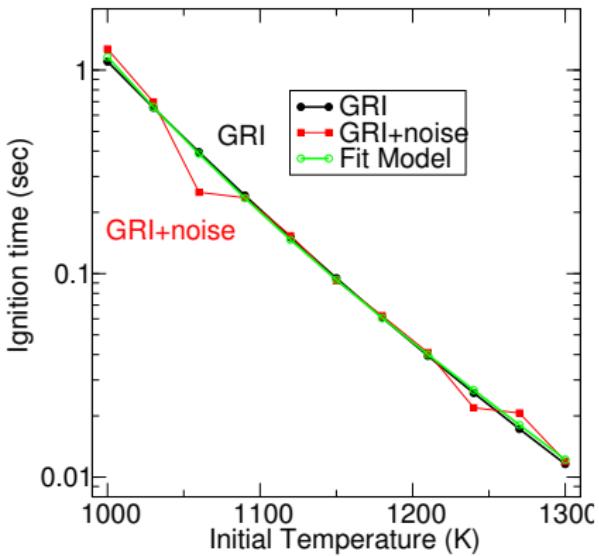


$$\ln E = 10.73 \pm 3 \times 0.032$$

# Bayesian Inference Posterior and Nominal Prediction



Marginal joint posterior on  $(\ln A, \ln E)$  exhibits strong correlation



Nominal fit model is consistent with the true model

# Model UQ

- No model of a physical system is strictly true
- The probability of a model being strictly true is zero
- Given limited information, some models may be relied upon for describing the system

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

- $p(M_k|I)$  is the probability that  $M_k$  is the model behind the available information
  - Model Plausibility
- Parameter estimation from data is conditioned on the model

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

# Bayesian Model Comparison

Evidence (marginal likelihood) for  $M_k$ :

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

Bayes Factor  $B_{ij}$ :

$$B_{ij} = \frac{p(D|M_i)}{p(D|M_j)}$$

Plausibility of  $M_k$ :

$$p(M_k|D, \mathcal{M}) = \frac{p(D|M_k) \pi(M_k|\mathcal{M})}{\sum_s p(D|M_s) \pi(M_s|\mathcal{M})} \quad k = 1, \dots$$

Posterior odds:

$$\frac{p(M_i|D, \mathcal{M})}{p(M_j|D, \mathcal{M})} = B_{ij} \frac{\pi(M_i|\mathcal{M})}{\pi(M_j|\mathcal{M})}$$

# Marginal Likelihood example

- Consider Fitting with data from a truth model

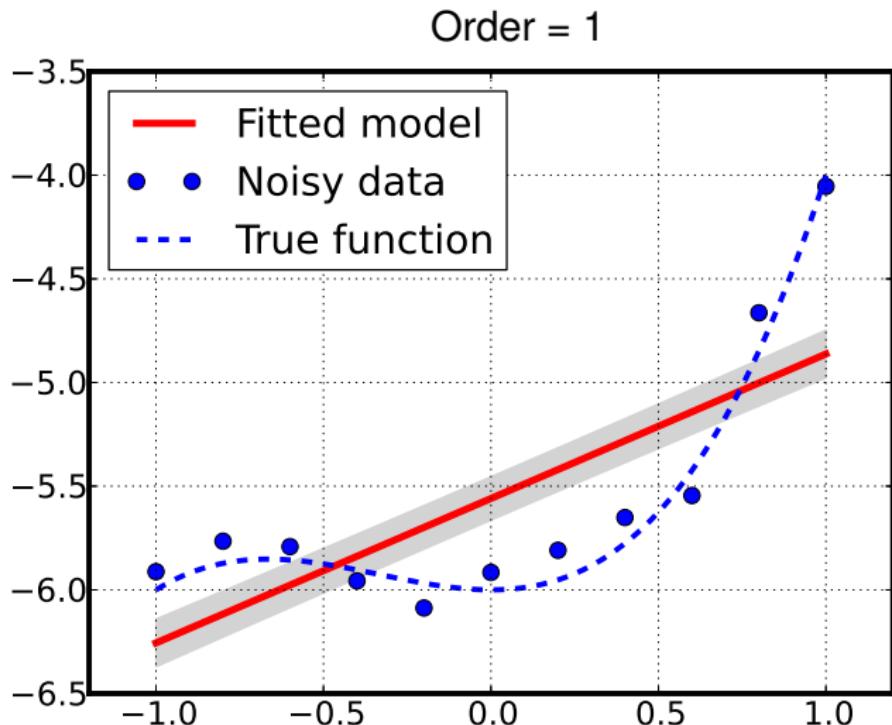
$$y_t = x^3 + x^2 - 6$$

- Gaussian *iid* additive noise model with fixed variance  $s$
- Bayesian regression with a Gaussian Likelihood, *iid* and given  $s$
- Consider a set of Legendre Polynomial expansion models, order 1-10

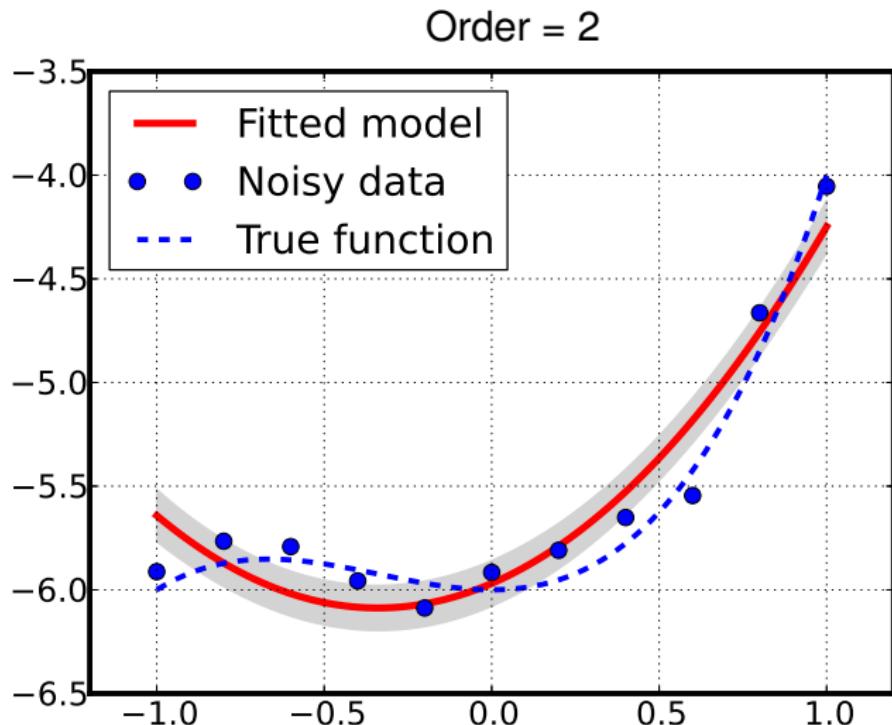
$$y_m = \sum_{k=0}^P c_k \psi_k(x)$$

- Uniform priors  $[-D, D]$  on all coefficients

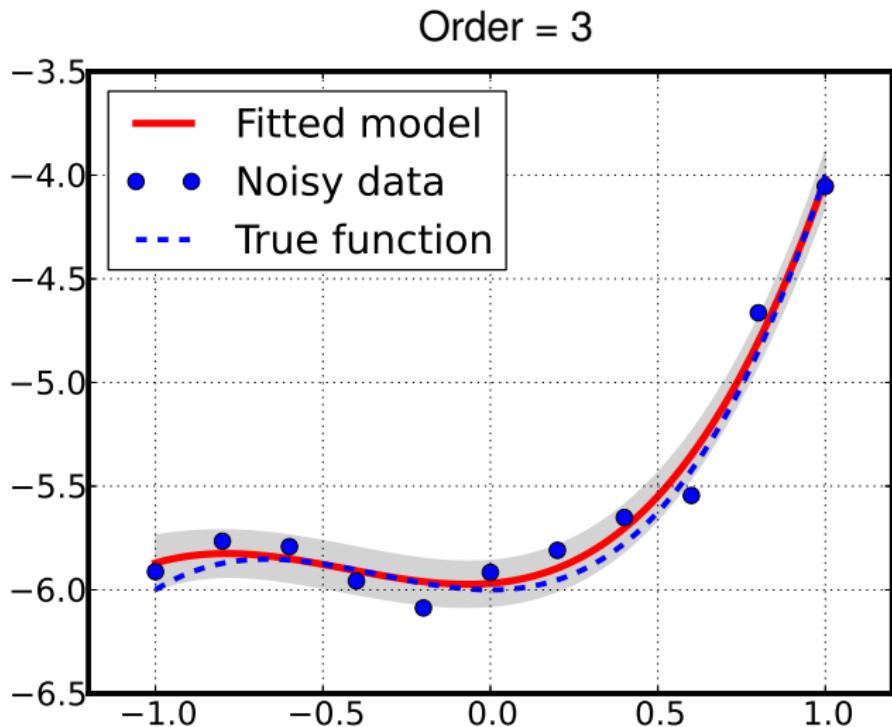
# Too much model complexity leads to overfitting



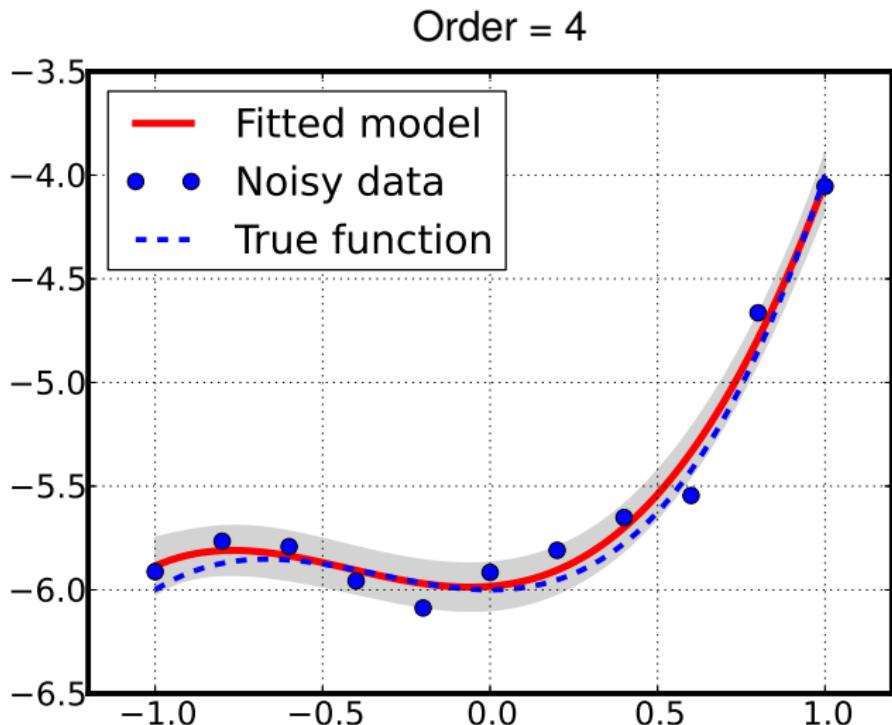
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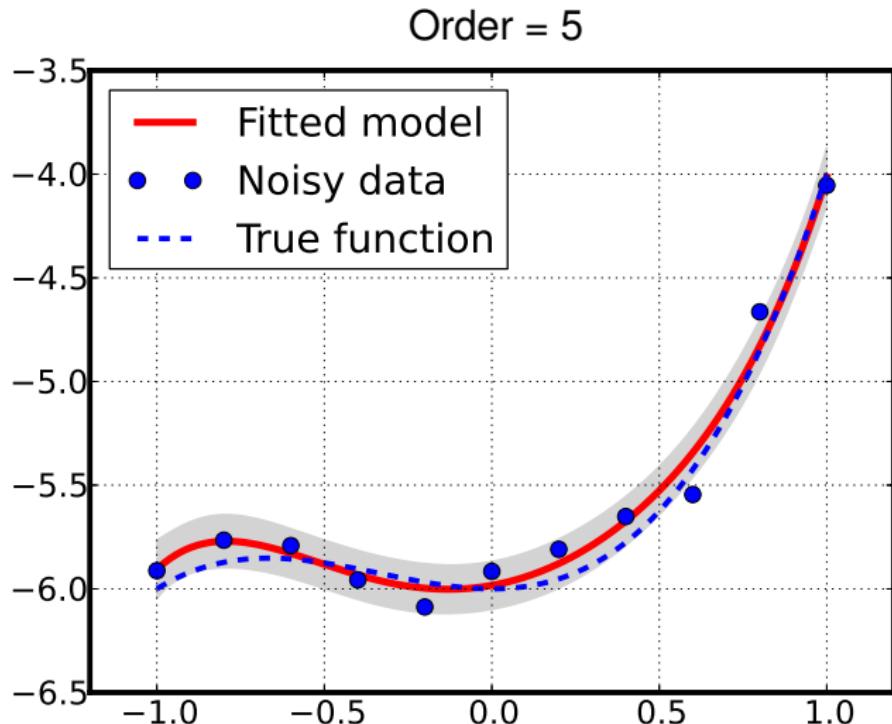
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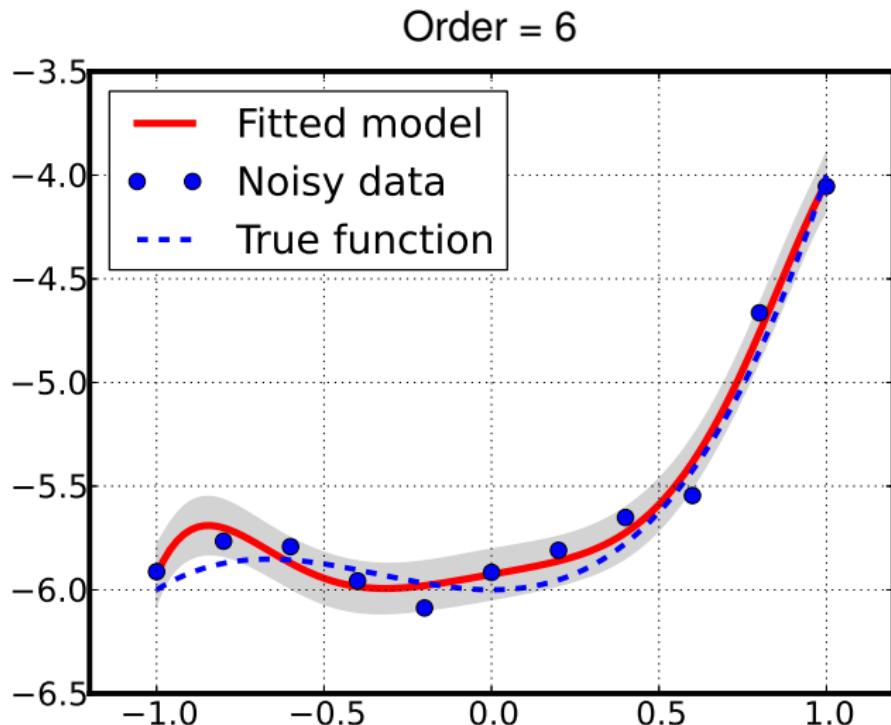
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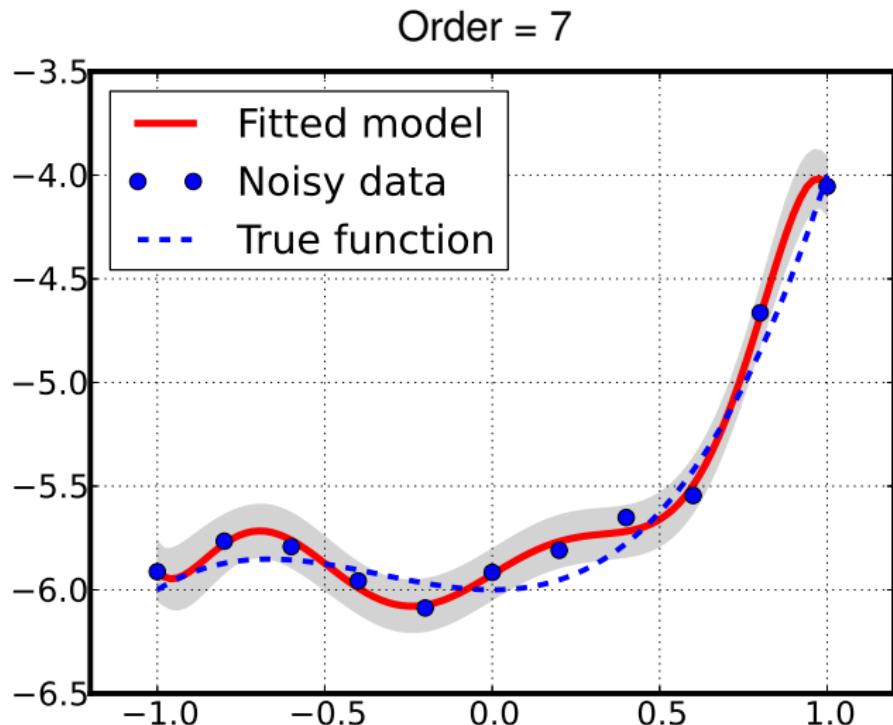
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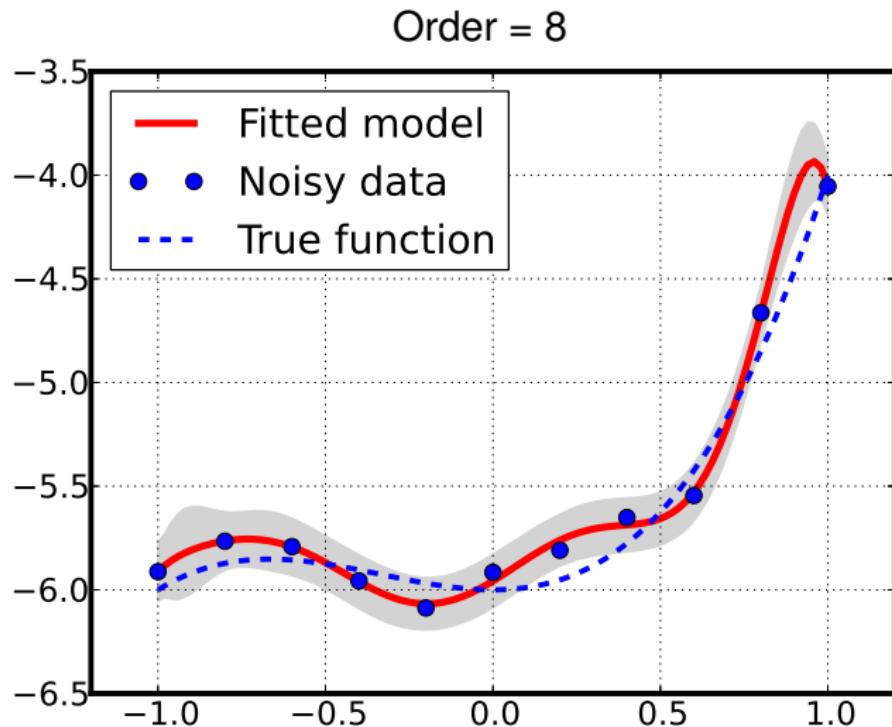
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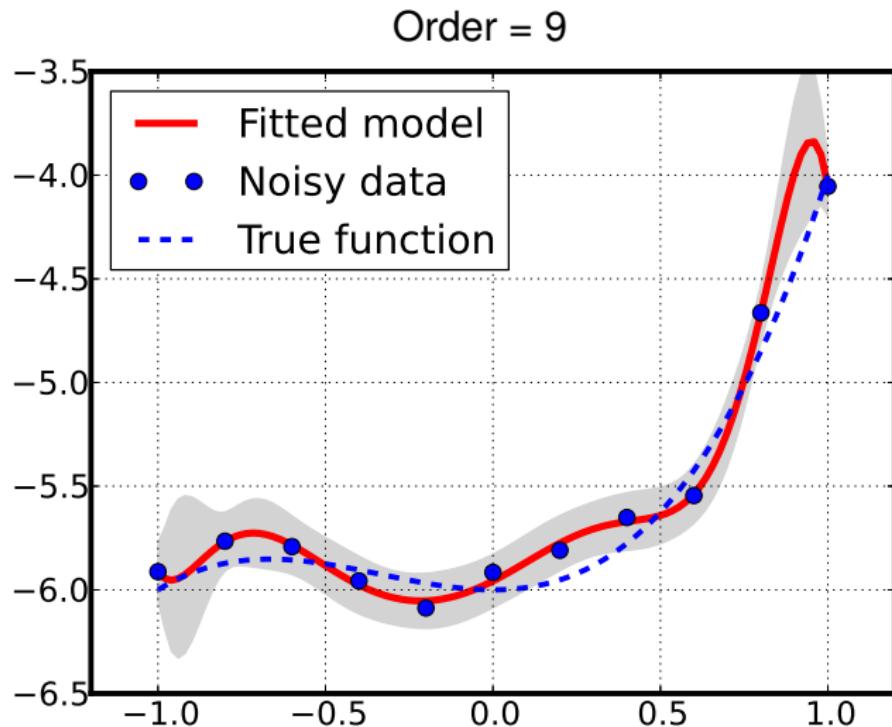
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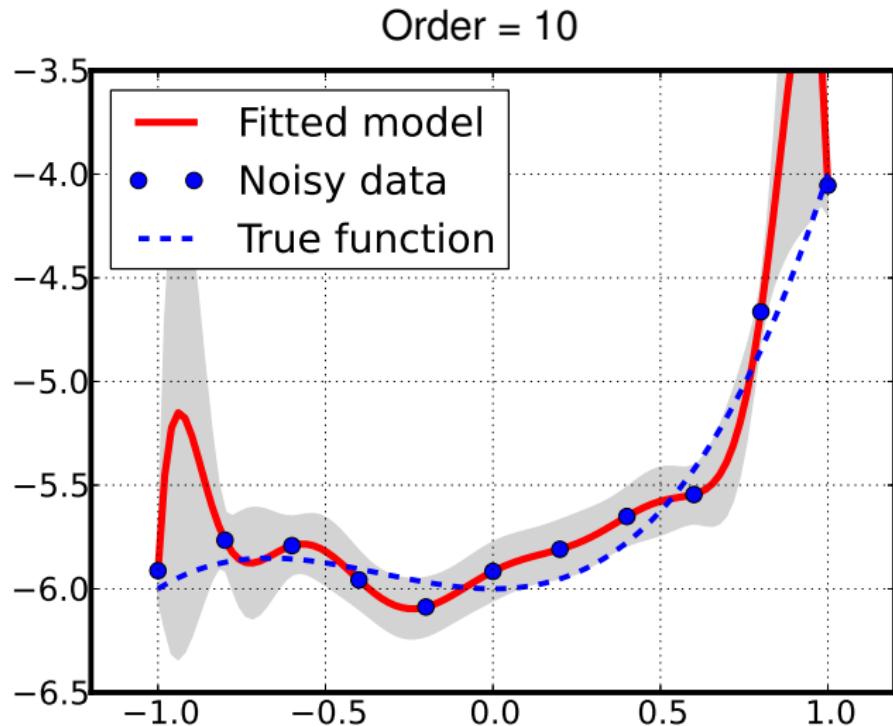
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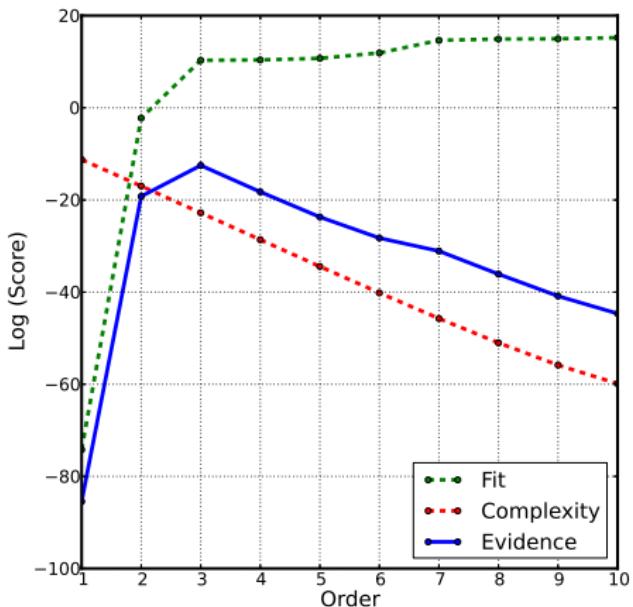
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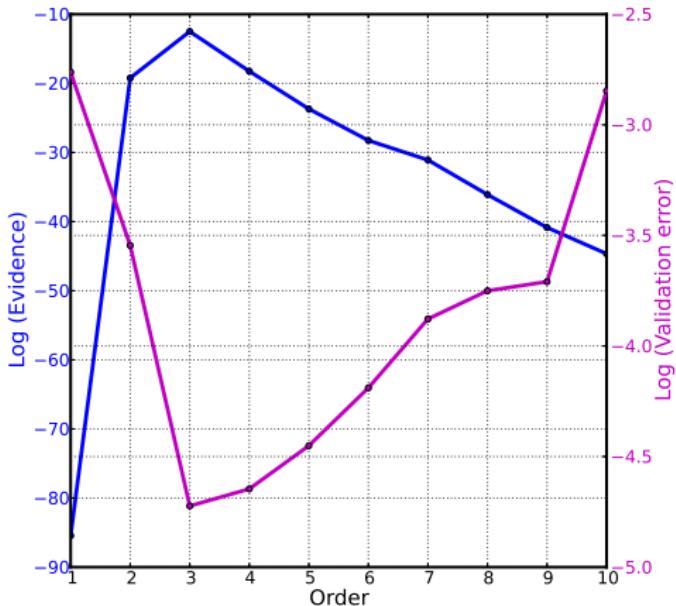


# Evidence – Marginal Likelihood



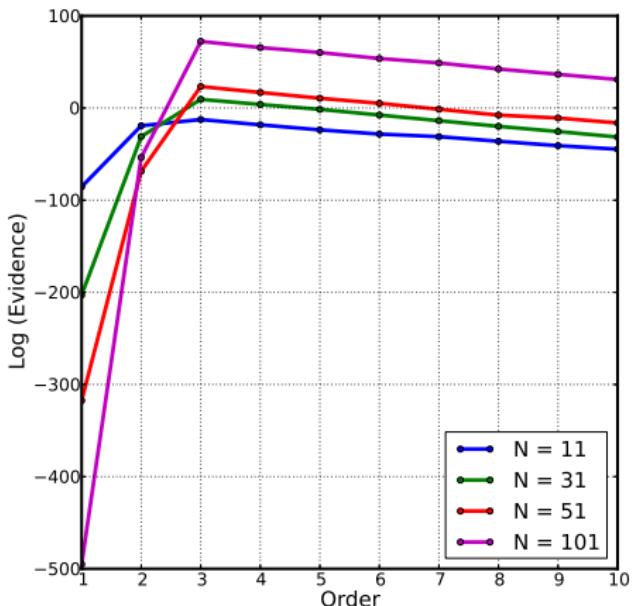
- Log evidence: sum of two scores, balances complexity & fit
- Peaks at 3rd order

# Evidence and Validation Error



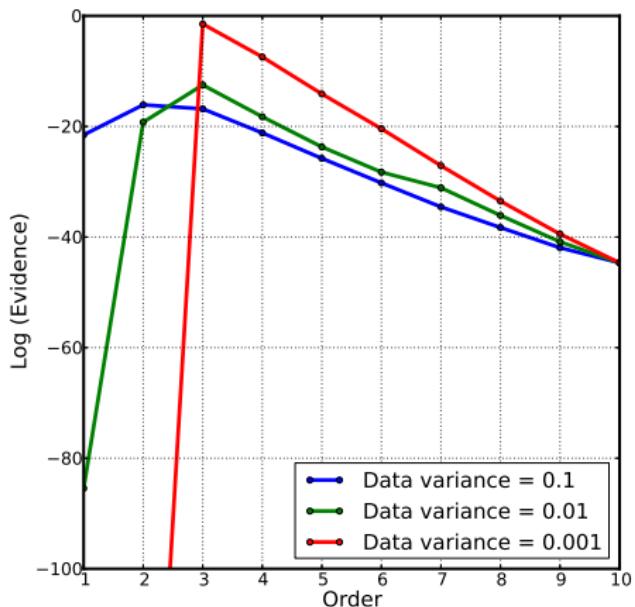
- Validation error –  $\ell_2$  error for a random set of 1000 points
- Validation error is minimal at the 3rd-order evidence peak

# Evidence



- Discrimination among models is more clear-cut with higher amount of data

# Evidence



- Discrimination among models is more clear-cut with less data noise

# Bayesian Model Comparison in Physical Models

Bayesian methods for model comparison and selection have been used in

- Combustion
  - Turbulent combustion modeling (Cheung, Rel. Eng. 2011)
  - Graphite nitridation chemistry (Miki, AIAA Conf. 2012)
  - Syngas chemistry (Braman, CTM 2013)
- Cosmology
- Social science
- Biology – phylogenetics
- Climate modeling
- ...

# Validation

- Validity is a statement of model utility for predicting a given observable under given conditions
- Inspection of model utility requires accounting for uncertainty
- Statistical tool-chest for model validation
  - Cross-validation
  - Bayes Factor
  - Model Plausibility
  - Posterior Odds
  - Posterior predictive:

$$p(\tilde{D}|D, M_k) = \int p(\tilde{D}|\theta, M_k)p(\theta|D, M_k)d\theta$$

# Model Averaging

- When multiple models are acceptable, and no model is a clear winner, model averaging can be used to provide a prediction of interest
- If prediction errors among models are uncorrelated, then averaging is expected to reduce prediction errors
  - Not likely if models are dependent, or if they have comparable large bias errors in a given observable of interest
- Bayesian Model Averaging

$$p(\phi|D, \mathcal{M}) = \sum_k p(\phi|D, M_k) p(M_k|D, \mathcal{M})$$

# Closure

- Probabilistic UQ framework
  - Forward and Inverse UQ
- Bayesian inference
  - Model calibration: parameter estimation
  - Parametric and model uncertainty
- Model comparison, validation, averaging
- Prediction with uncertainty