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Uncertainty Quantification, Bayesian Inference, and Analysis of Models

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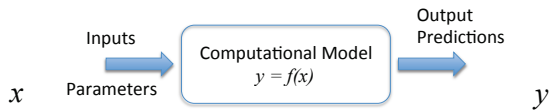
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Outline

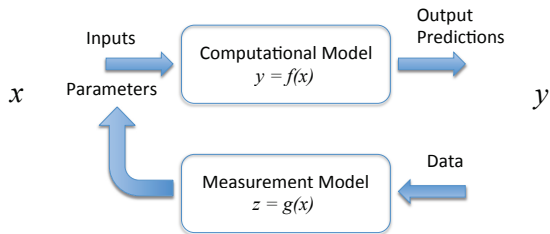
- 1 Introduction
- 2 Bayesian Inference
- 3 Illustration in Chemical Ignition
- 4 Model Comparison, Validation, Averaging
- 5 Closure

Uncertainty Quantification and Computational Science



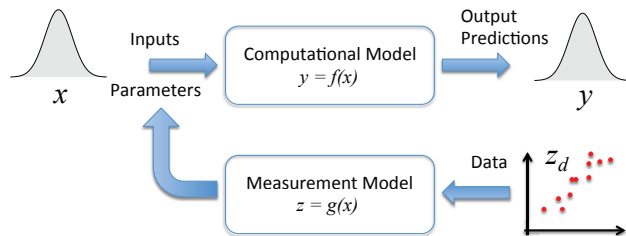
Forward problem

Uncertainty Quantification and Computational Science



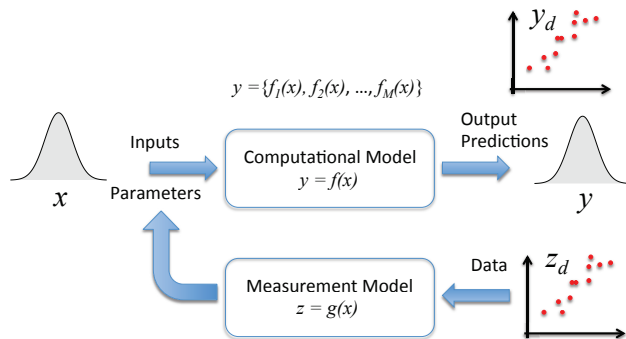
Inverse & Forward problems

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 λ ; measurement y
- Forward Problem:

$$g(\lambda) = y_m$$

- Estimate λ 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

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

i.e. minimize the χ^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)
 - χ^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 χ^2
 - When χ^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:

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

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

- 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

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: 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

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

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

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

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 λ is

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

Minimizing χ^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 χ^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 σ^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 σ 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

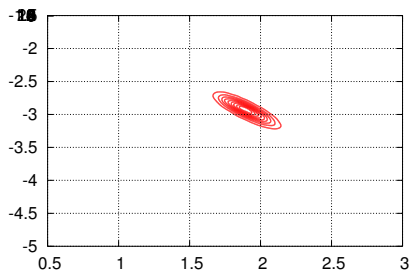
The posterior on (a, b) is the two-dimensional Multivariate Normal (MVN) distribution

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

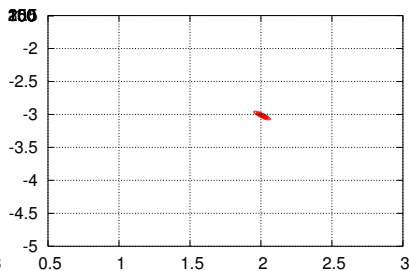
Linear model, Gaussian noise, σ -given, and a Gaussian or constant-uninformative prior.

Line fitting example – Effect of data size on $p(a, b|D)$

Low data noise: $\sigma = 0.25$



$N = 20$

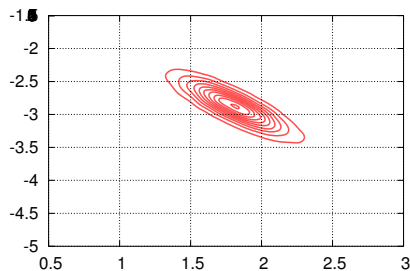


$N = 200$

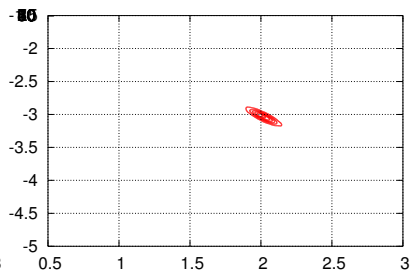
- More data \Rightarrow more accurate parameter estimates

Line fitting example – Effect of data size on $p(a, b|D)$

Medium data noise: $\sigma = 0.5$



$N = 20$

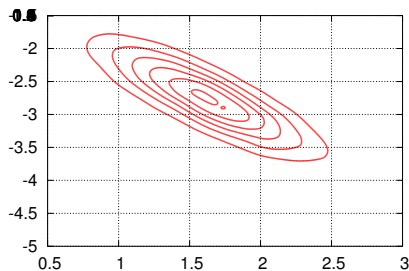


$N = 200$

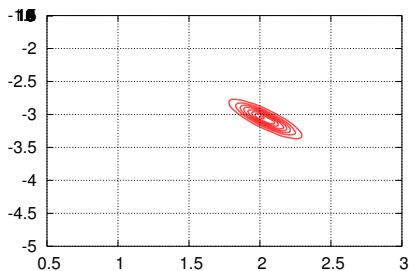
- More data \Rightarrow more accurate parameter estimates
- Higher noise amplitude \Rightarrow higher uncertainty

Line fitting example – Effect of data size on $p(a, b|D)$

High data noise: $\sigma = 1.0$



$N = 20$

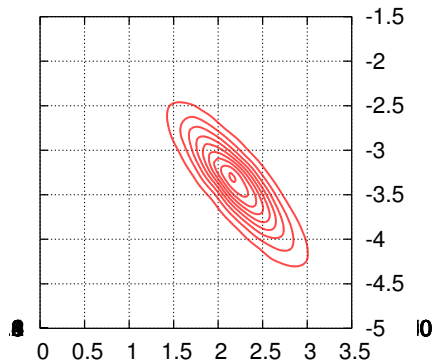


$N = 200$

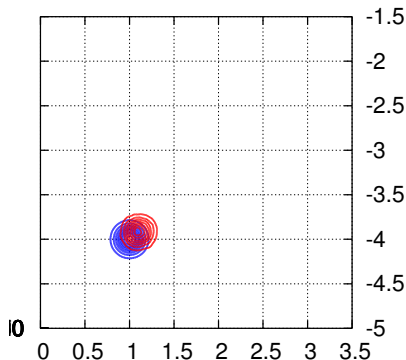
- More data \Rightarrow more accurate parameter estimates
- Higher noise amplitude \Rightarrow higher uncertainty

Line fitting example – prior vs. data-size

20 data points



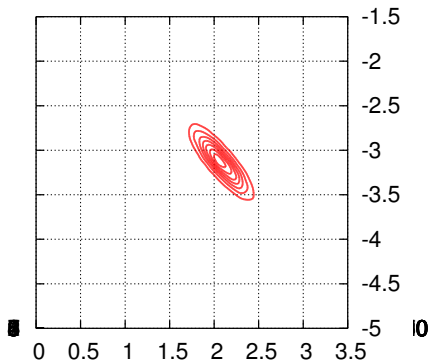
Constant uninformative prior



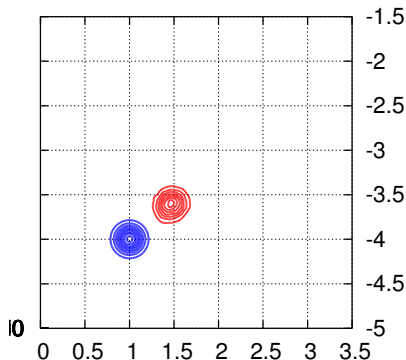
Gaussian prior

Line fitting example – prior vs. data-size

80 data points



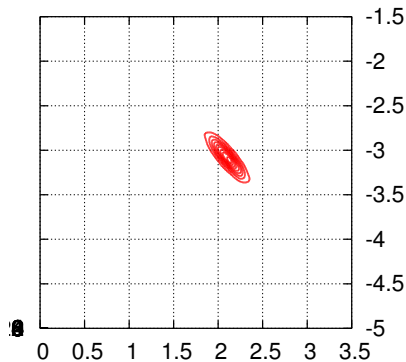
Constant uninformative prior



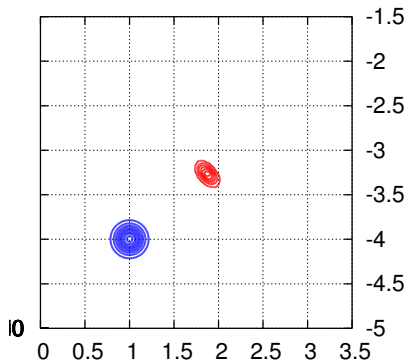
Gaussian prior

Line fitting example – prior vs. data-size

200 data points



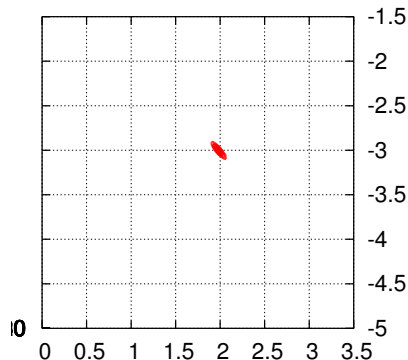
Constant uninformative prior



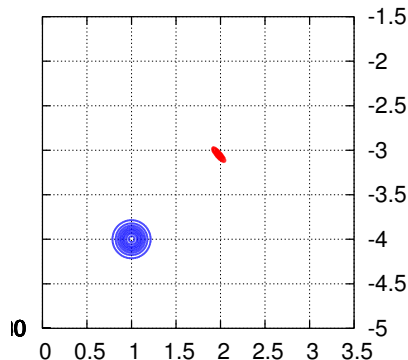
Gaussian prior

Line fitting example – prior vs. data-size

2000 data points



Constant uninformative prior



Gaussian prior

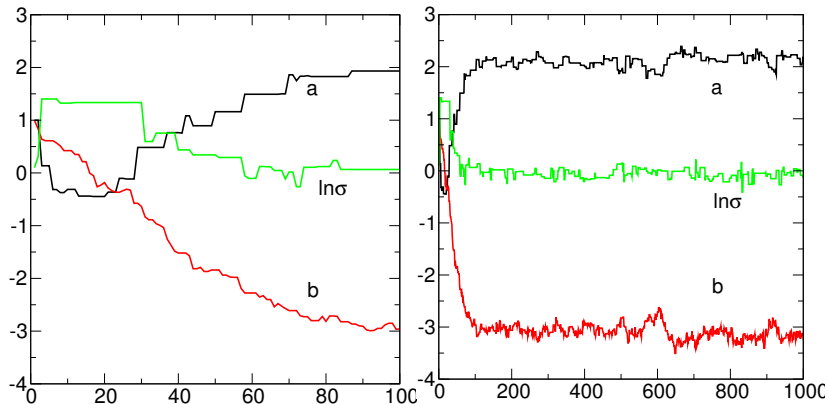
Exploring the Posterior

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

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

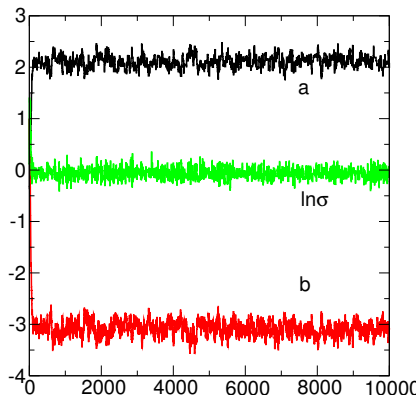
- Explore posterior w/ Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)
 - Metropolis-Hastings algorithm:
 - Random walk with proposal PDF & rejection rules
 - Computationally intensive, $\mathcal{O}(10^5)$ samples
 - Each sample: evaluation of the forward model
 - Surrogate models
- Evaluate moments/marginals from the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

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



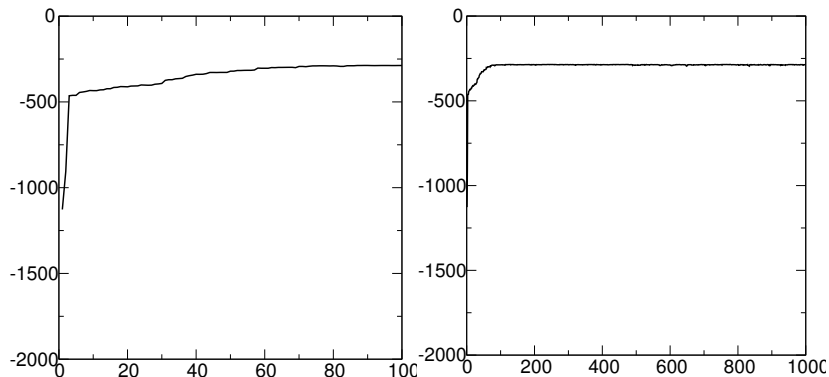
- Initial transient “Burn-in” period, ≈ 100 steps
- Problem and initial condition dependent

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

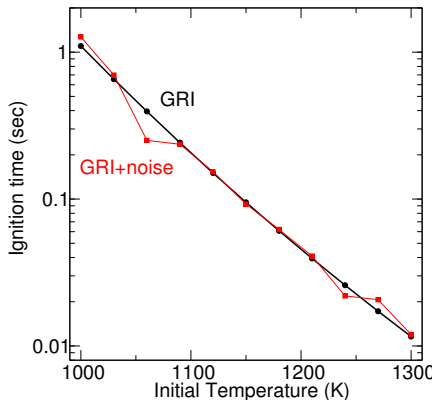
Chemical Rate Parameter Estimation example

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:

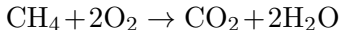
$$\tau_i^d = \tau^{\text{GRI}}(T_i^o) (1 + \sigma \epsilon_i)$$

$$\epsilon \sim N(0, 1)$$



Fitting with a simple chemical model

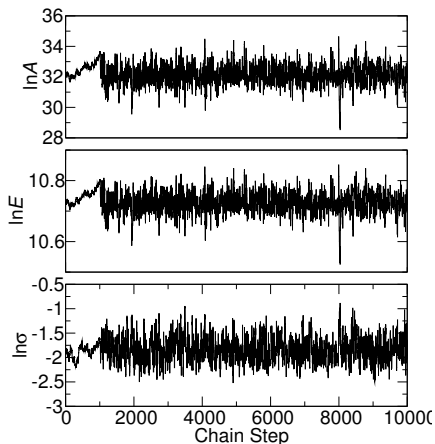
- Fit a global single-step irreversible chemical model



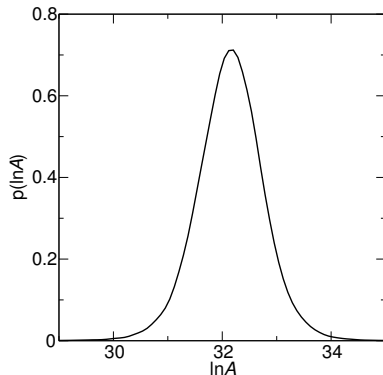
$$\mathfrak{R} = [\text{CH}_4][\text{O}_2]k_f$$

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

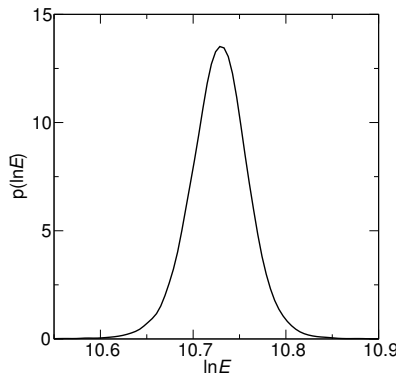
- Infer 3-D parameter vector $(\ln A, \ln E, \ln \sigma)$
- Good mixing with adaptive MCMC when start at MLE



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

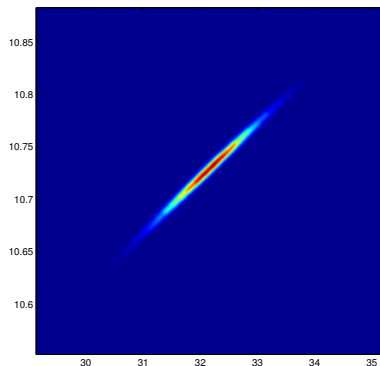


$$\ln A = 32.15 \pm 3 \times 0.61$$

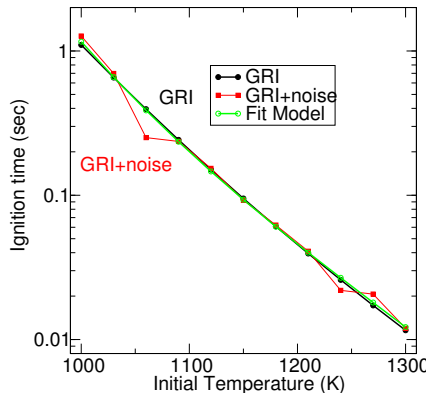


$$\ln E = 10.73 \pm 3 \times 0.032$$

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

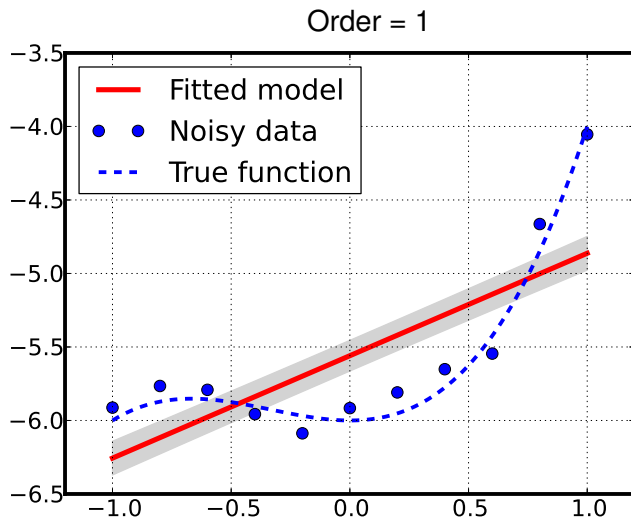
$$y_t = x^3 + x^2 - 6$$

- 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

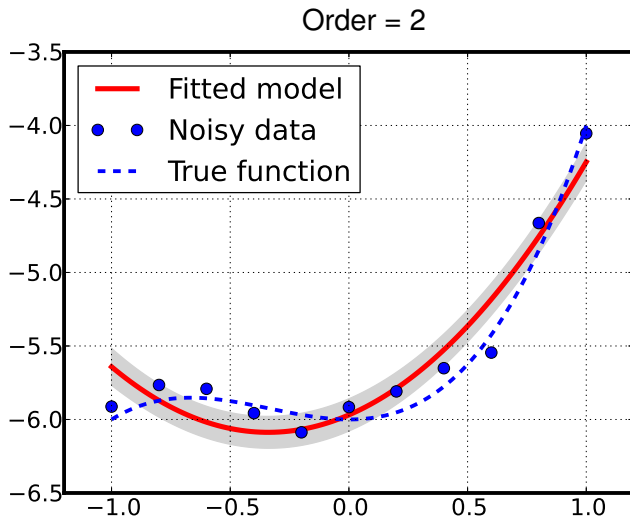
$$y_m = \sum_{k=0}^P c_k \psi_k(x)$$

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

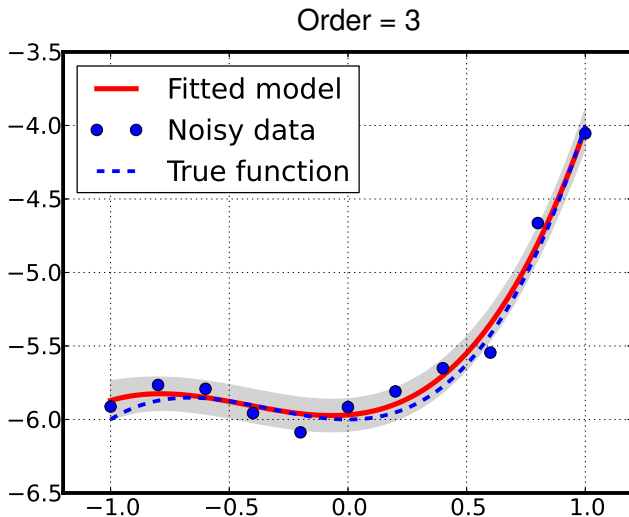
Too much model complexity leads to overfitting



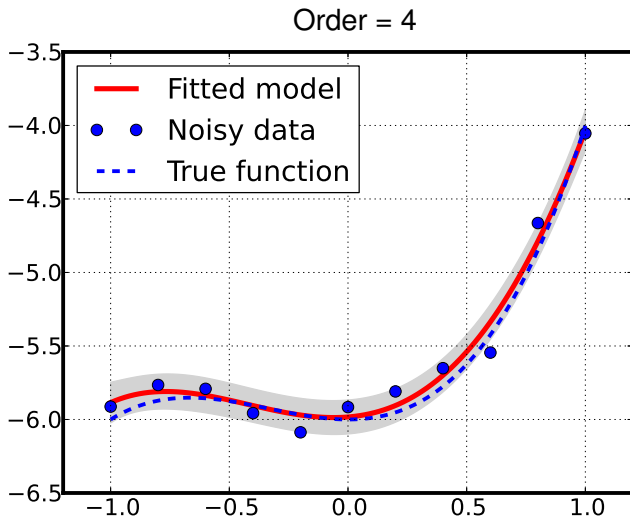
Too much model complexity leads to overfitting



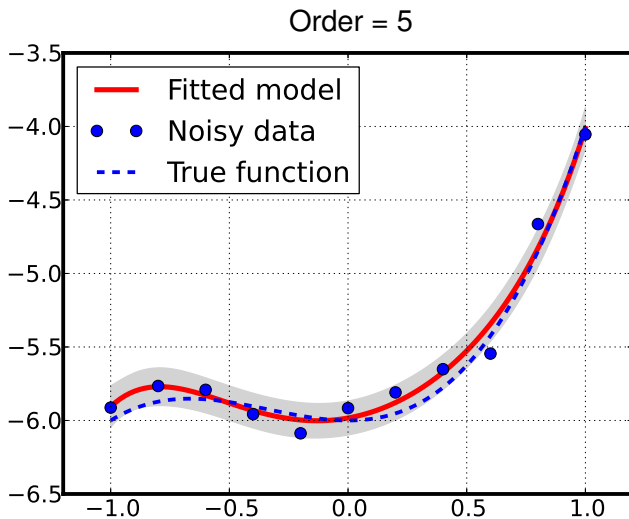
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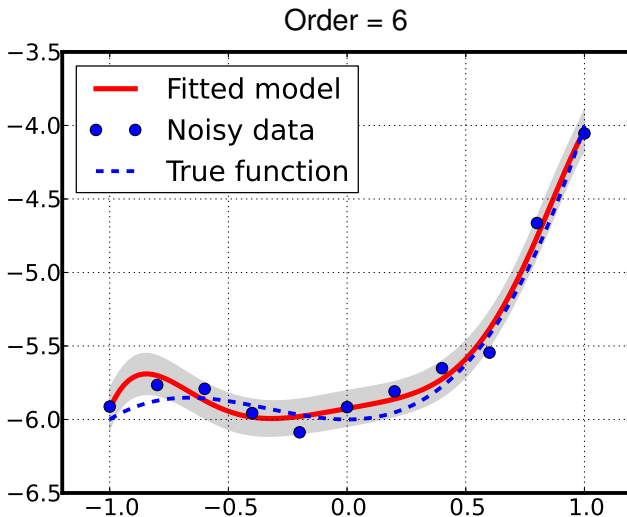
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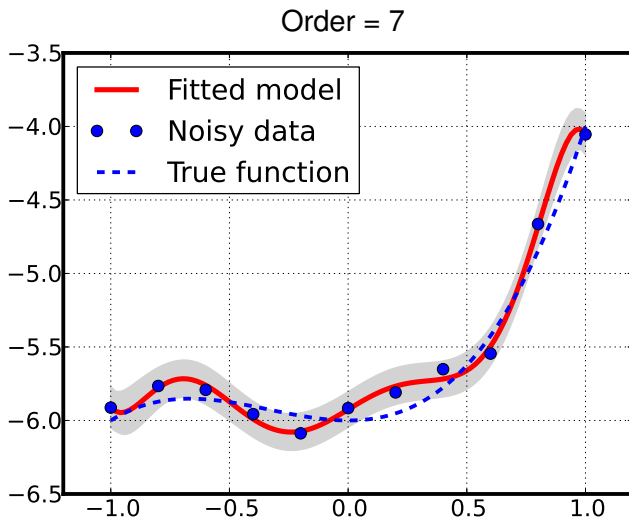
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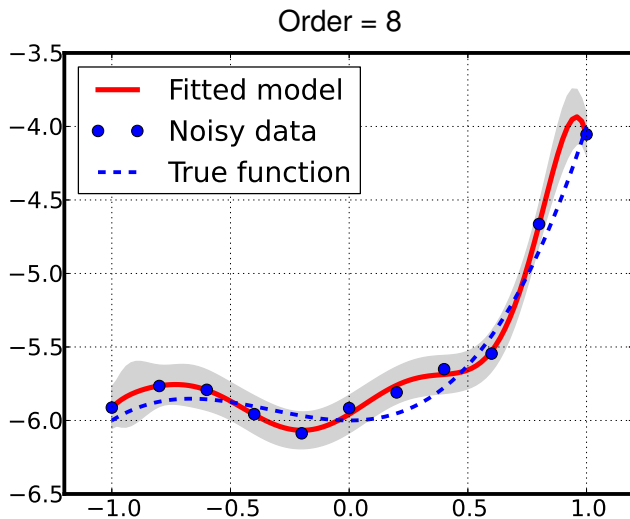
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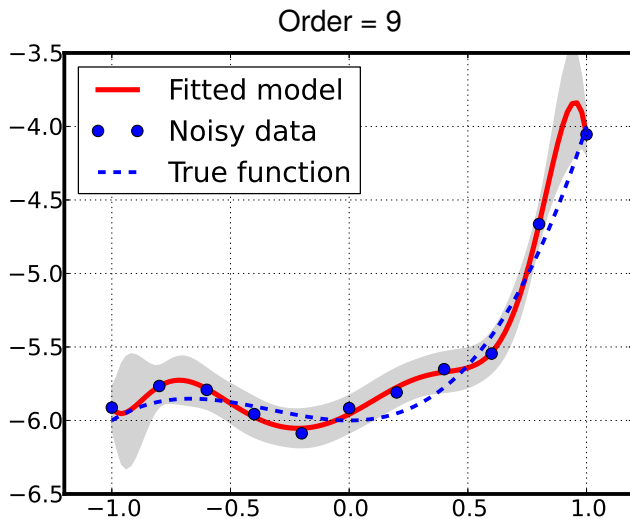
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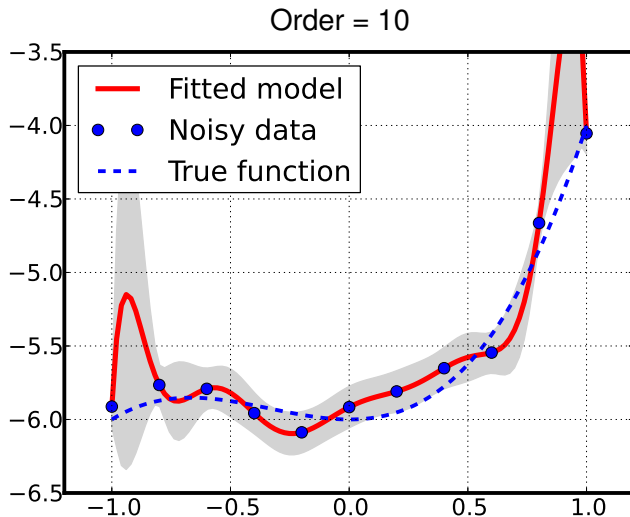
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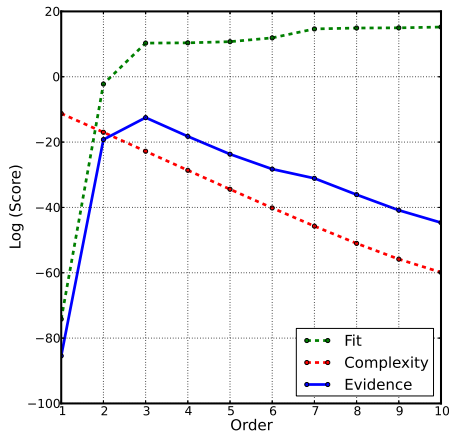
Too much model complexity leads to overfitting



Too much model complexity leads to overfitting

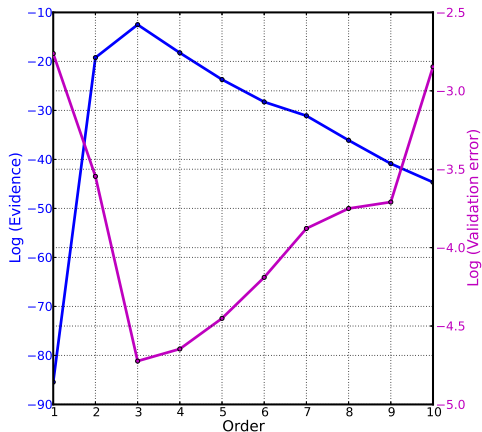


Evidence – Marginal Likelihood



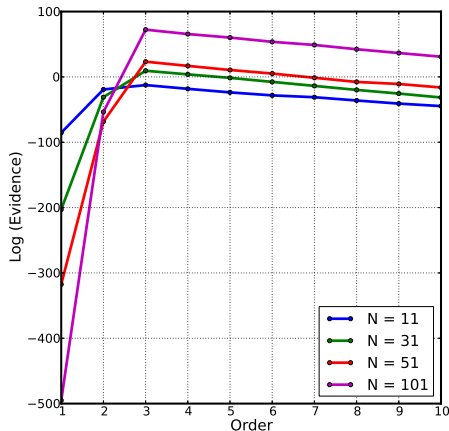
- Log evidence: sum of two scores, balances complexity & fit
- Peaks at 3rd order

Evidence and Validation Error



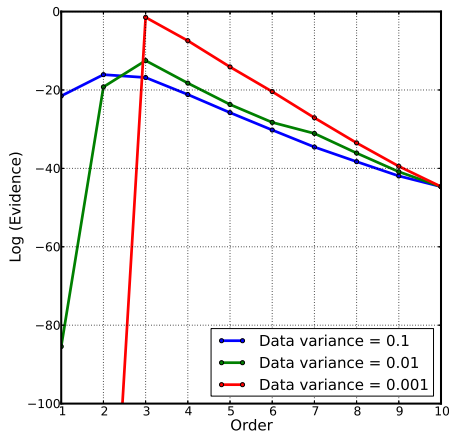
- Validation error – ℓ_2 error for a random set of 1000 points
- Validation error is minimal at the 3rd-order evidence peak

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