

# MULTI-FIDELITY SURROGATE MODELING: A TUTORIAL

J.D. Jakeman, Gianluca Geraci

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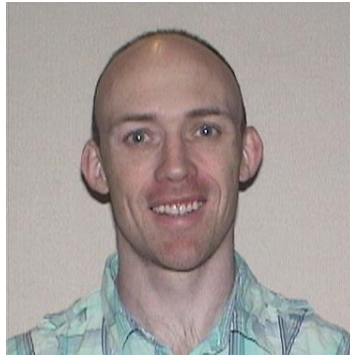
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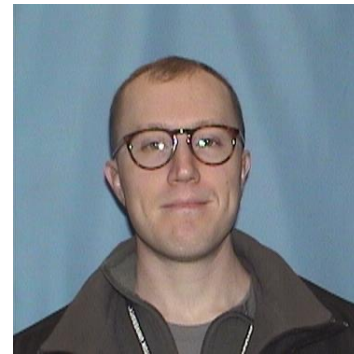
# COLLABORATORS

**Left to Right**

*John Jakeman*, Michael Eldred,  
Gianluca Geraci (SNL)

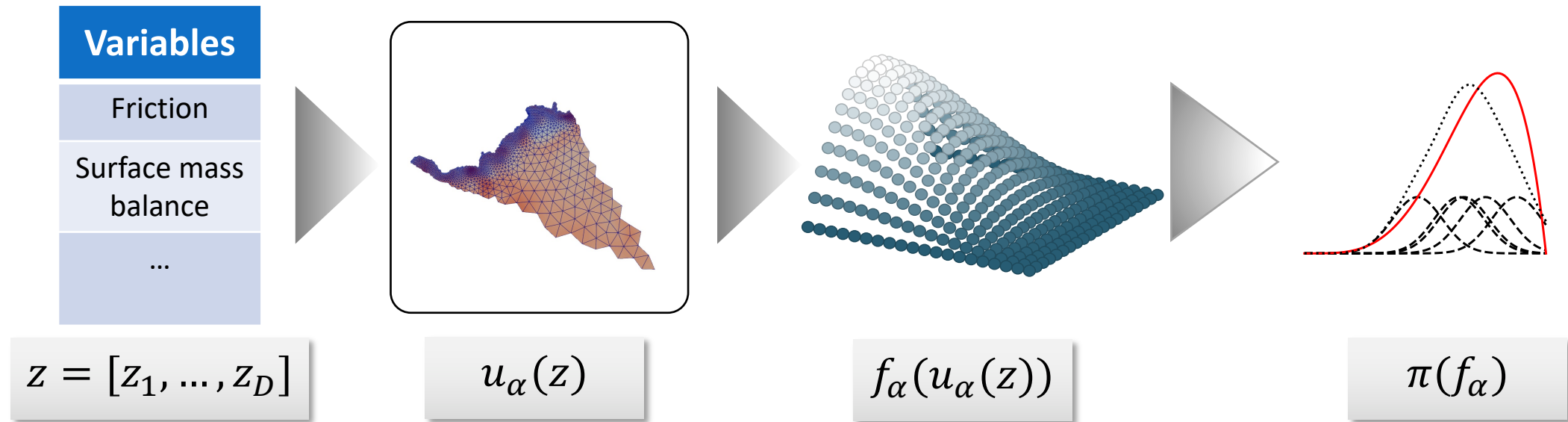


Tom Smith, Tom Seidl (SNL)  
Alex Gorodetsky (University of  
Michigan)



# UNCERTAINTY QUANTIFICATION

All models are approximations of reality. Sources of uncertainty must be identified and their effect on predictions quantified



# PARAMETERIZE UNCERTAINTY

Transient Advection diffusion

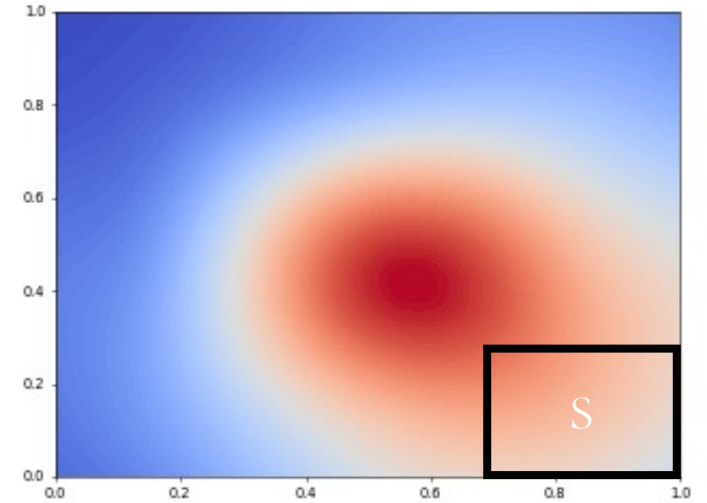
$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(x, t, z) = \nabla \cdot [k(x, z) \nabla u(x, t, z)] - \nabla \cdot (vu(x, t, z)) + g(x, t)(x, t, z) \in D \times [0, 1] \times \Gamma$$

$$\mathcal{B}(x, t, z) = 0(x, t, z) \in \partial D \times [0, 1] \times \Gamma$$

$$u(x, t, z) = u_0(x, z)(x, t, z) \in D \times \{t = 0\} \times \Gamma$$

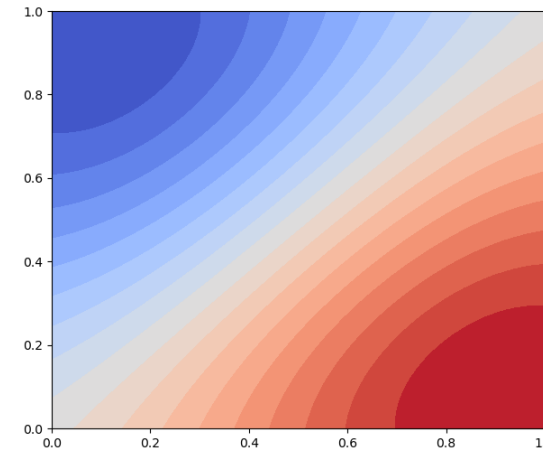
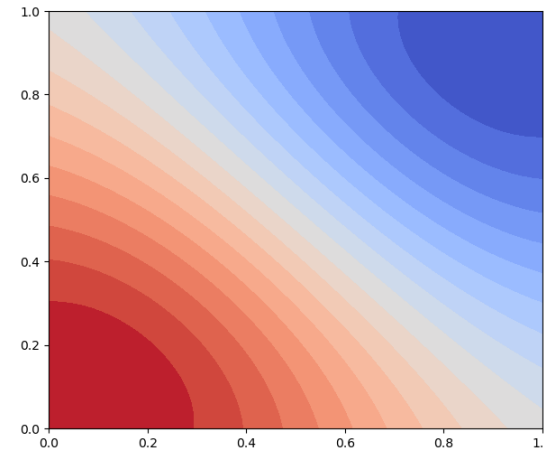
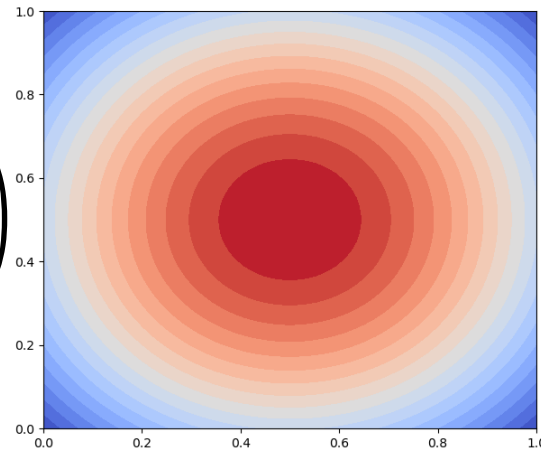
Accuracy of QoI  $f(z)$  depends on numerical discretization

$$f(z) = \int_S u(x, T, z) dx$$



Often diffusion field is unknown so parameterize with a Karhunen Loeve expansion  
(realizations shown below)

$$k(x, z) = \exp \left( \sum_{d=1}^D \sqrt{\lambda_d} \psi_d(x) z_d \right)$$



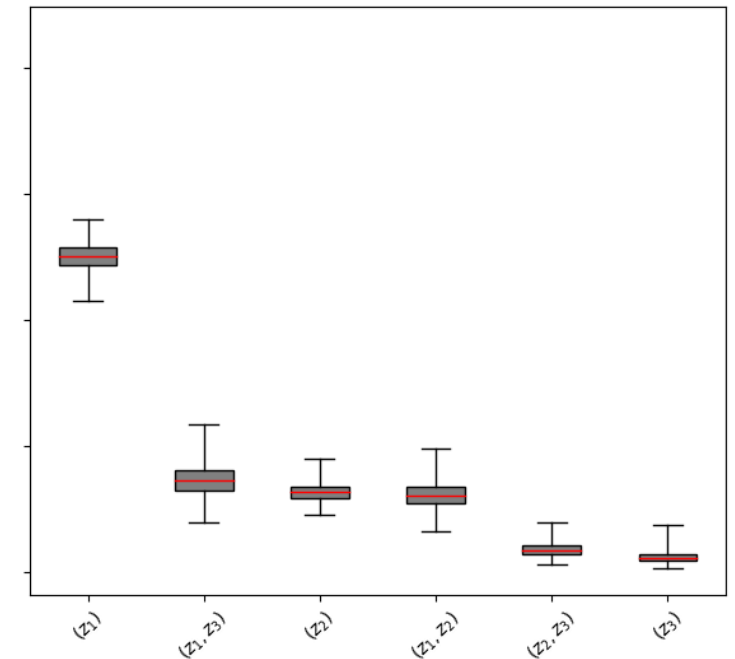
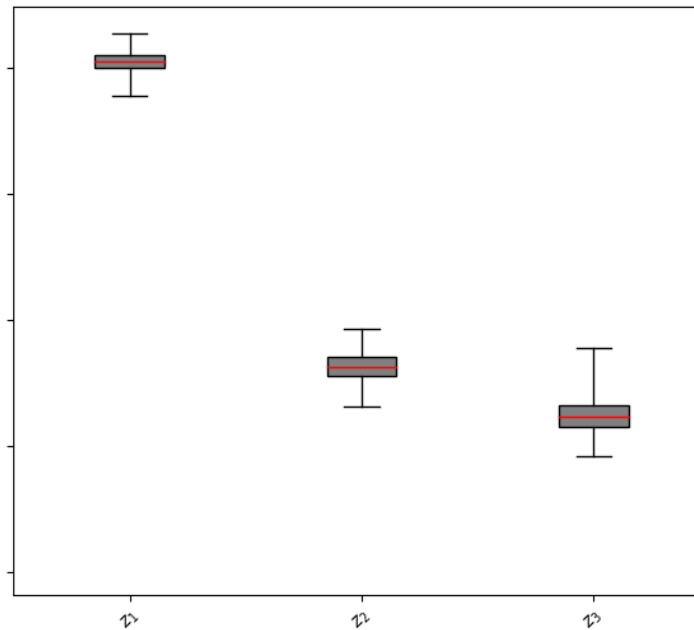
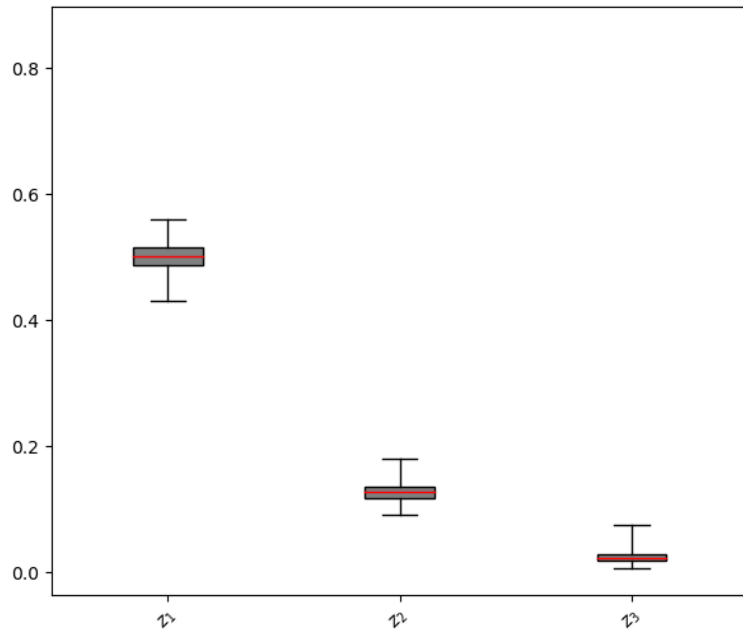


# SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

Sensitivity Analysis quantifies the impact of variable subsets on predictions

$$f(z) = \hat{f}_0 + \sum_{i=1}^d \hat{f}_i(z_i) + \sum_{i,j=1}^d \hat{f}_{i,j}(z_i, z_j) + \cdots + \hat{f}_{1,\dots,d}(z_1, \dots, z_d)$$

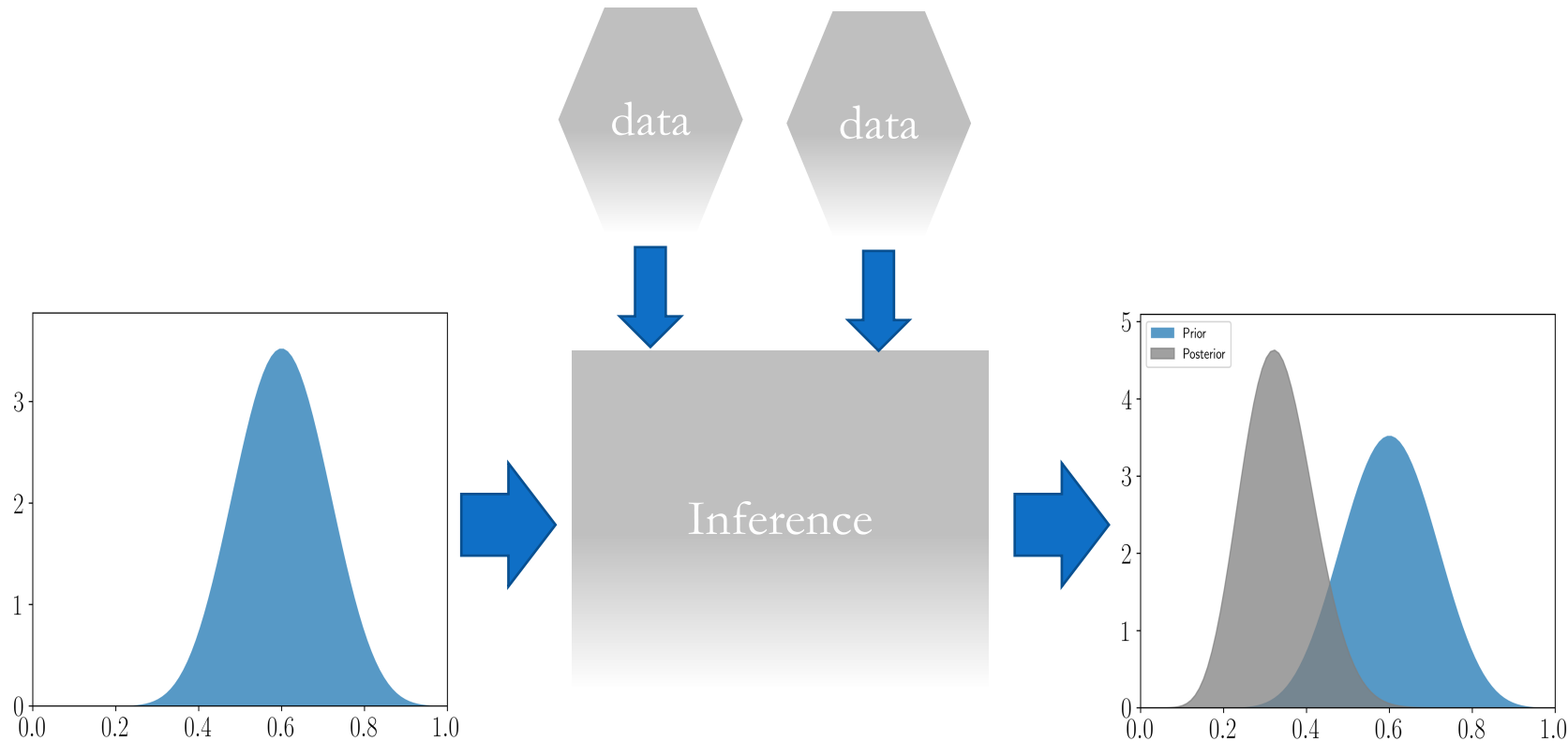
$$S_i = \frac{\mathbb{V}[\hat{f}_{e_i}]}{\mathbb{V}[f]}, \quad S_i^T = \frac{\sum_{u \in \mathcal{J}} \mathbb{V}[\hat{f}_u]}{\mathbb{V}[f]}$$



# BAYESIAN INFERENCE (CALIBRATION)

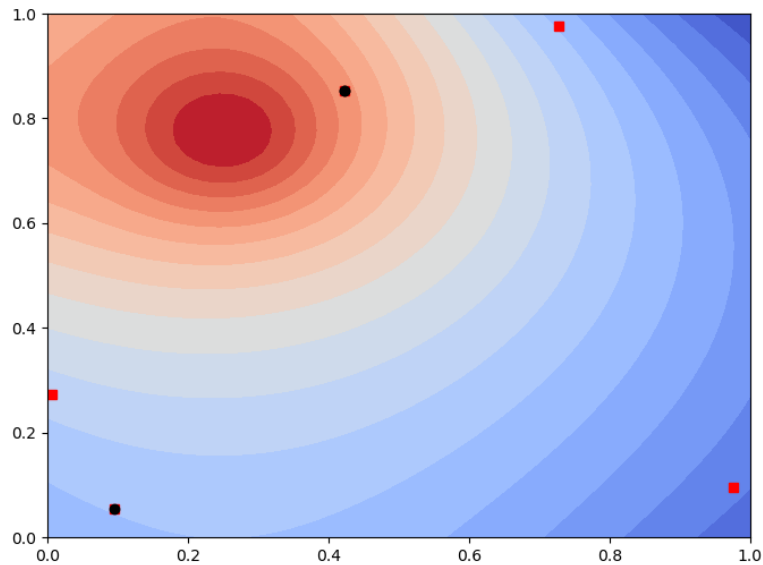
Bayesian inference uses data  $d$  to update estimates of uncertainty

$$\pi(z \mid d) = \frac{\pi(d \mid z) \pi(z)}{\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \pi(d \mid z) \pi(z) dz}$$



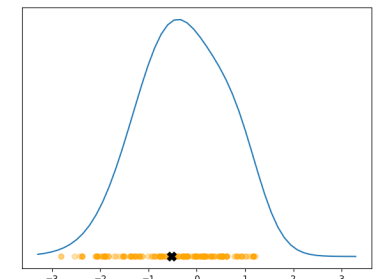
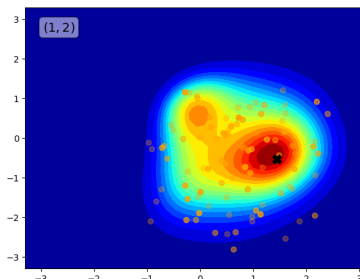
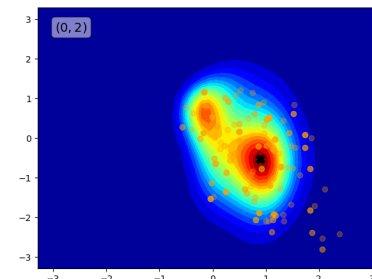
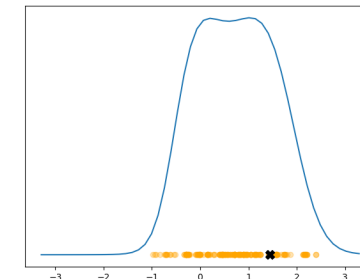
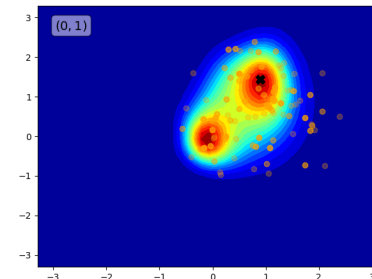
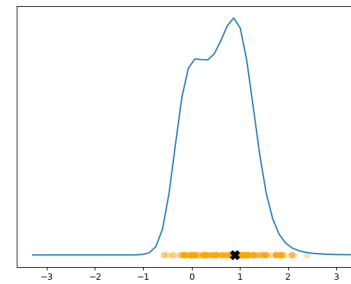
# BAYESIAN INFERENCE (CALIBRATION)

We can collect sparse  
measurements of concentration



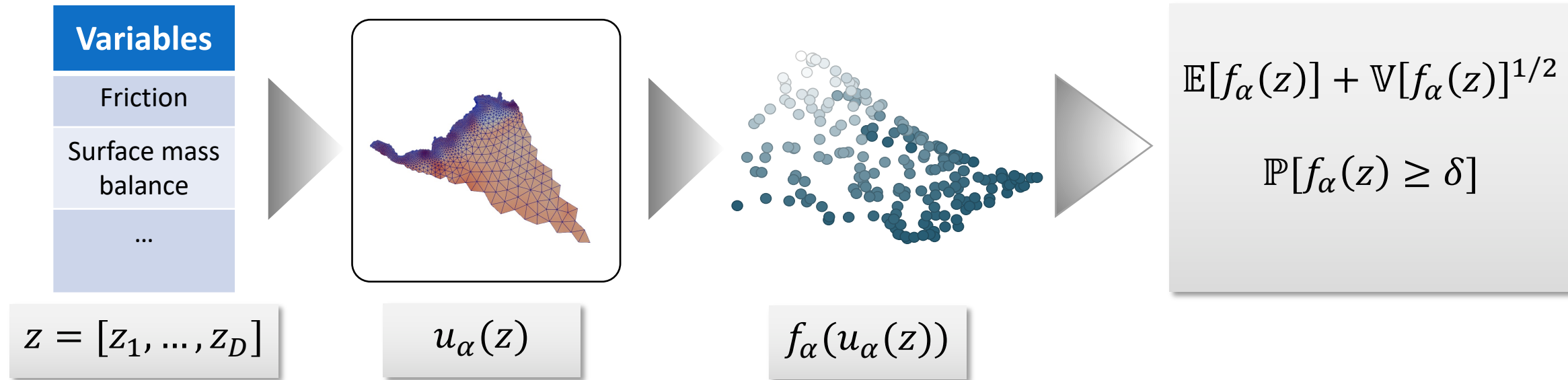
Experimental design can be used to  
choose data that will most inform  
uncertainty

And update prior distribution on  
coefficients



# FORWARD PROPAGATION

Forward propagation of uncertainty computes measures of prediction uncertainty from a set of model evaluations



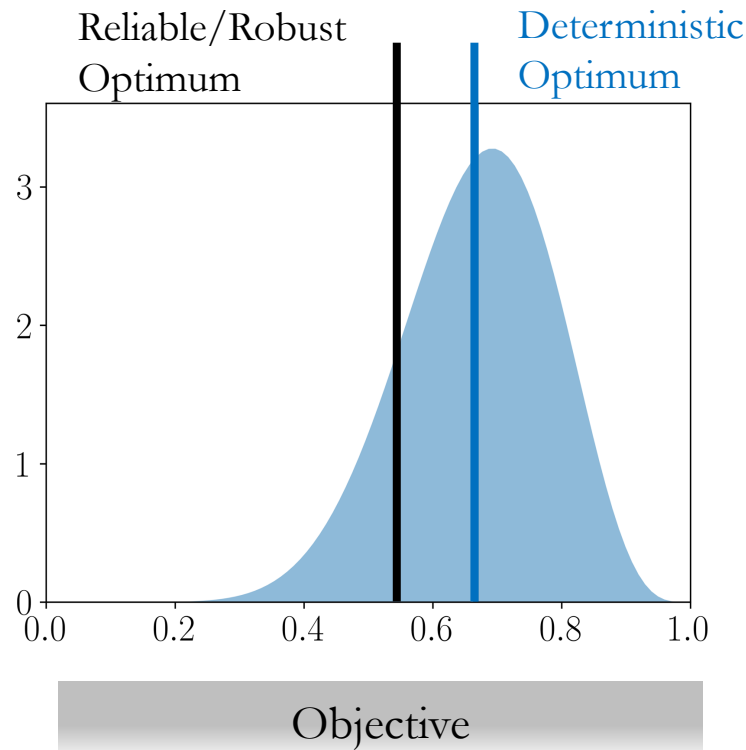
When a model is computational expensive only a limited number of evaluations may be available.

# UNCERTAINTIES EFFECT DESIGNS

## Deterministic design

Compute design at nominal values  $\mathbf{z}^*$

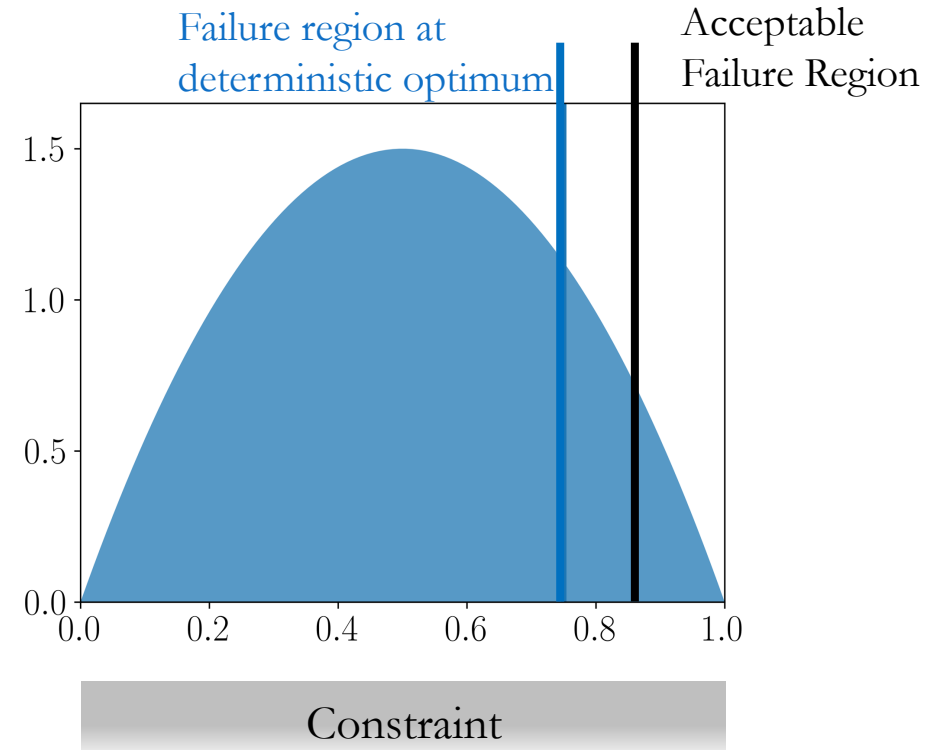
$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\xi \in \Xi} \mathcal{L}(u(\mathbf{z}^*, \xi)) \\ \text{s.t. } \mathcal{C}(u(\mathbf{z}^*, \xi)) \leq 0 \end{aligned}$$



## Design under uncertainty

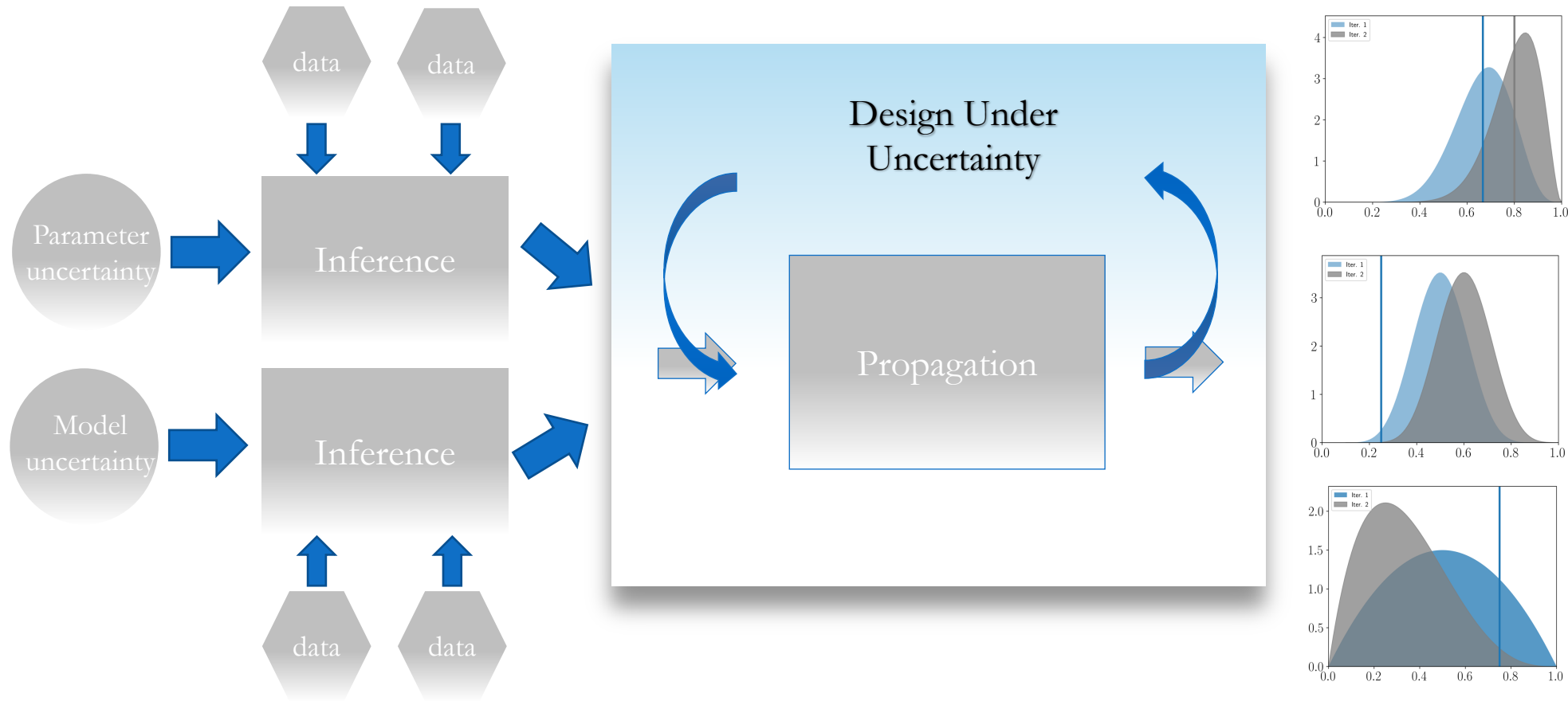
Create design that is robust to uncertainty

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\xi \in \Xi} \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{L}(u(\mathbf{z}^*, \xi))] \\ \text{s.t. } \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{C}(u(\mathbf{z}, \xi)) \leq \delta] - \epsilon \leq 0 \end{aligned}$$





# END TO END WORKFLOW

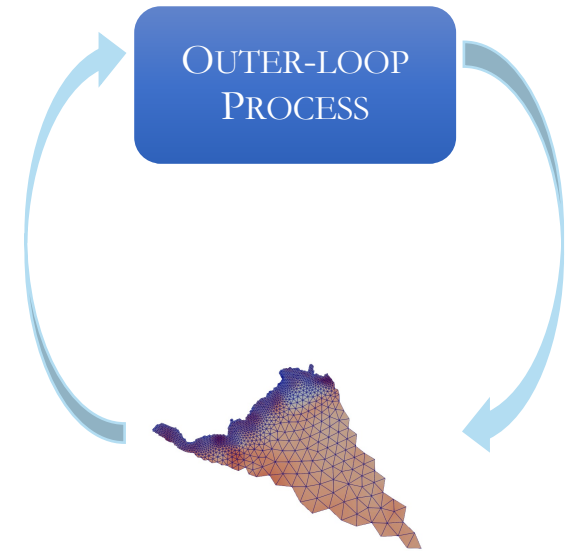


When a model is computational expensive only a limited number of evaluations may be available.

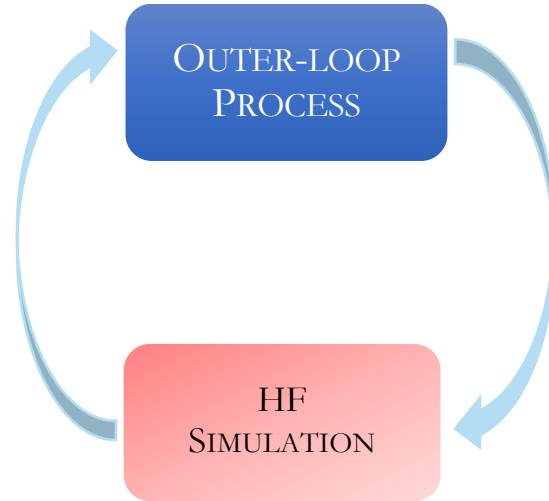
Efficient methods are needed to reduce the computational cost

# MULTI-FIDELITY UQ

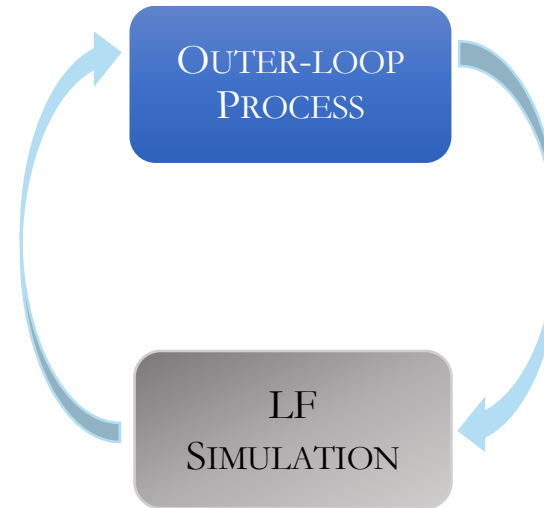
Goal:  
Uncertainty  
Quantification UQ



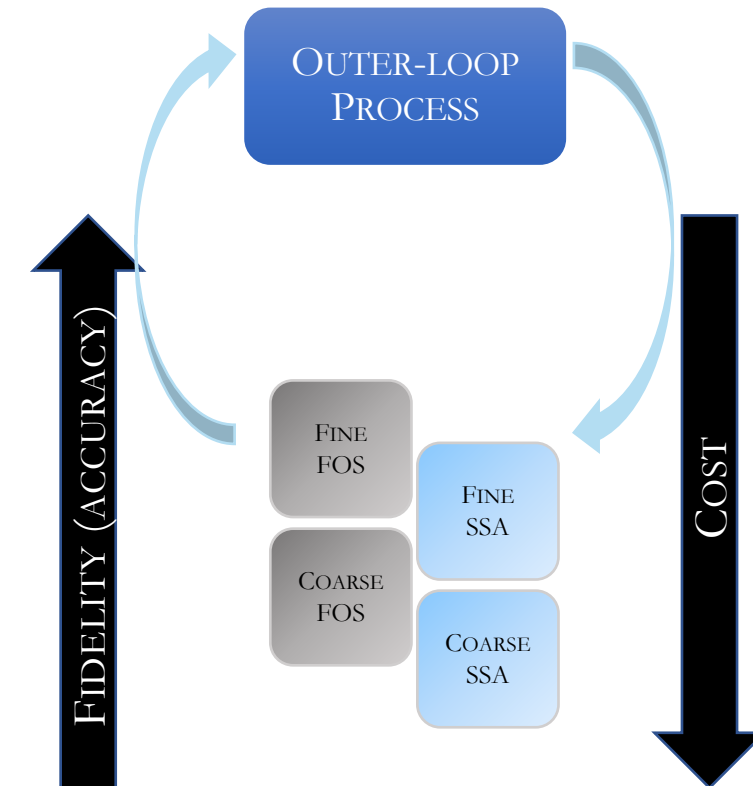
Challenge:  
Expensive data intractable



Existing approach:  
Use lower-fidelity data



Multi-fidelity solution:  
Use data from multiple  
models



MF UQ AND MF SURROGATES CAN REDUCE  
THE COST OF BUILDING SINGLE-FIDELITY BY  
10-100X

# NUMERICAL DISCRETIZATION IMPACTS ACCURACY

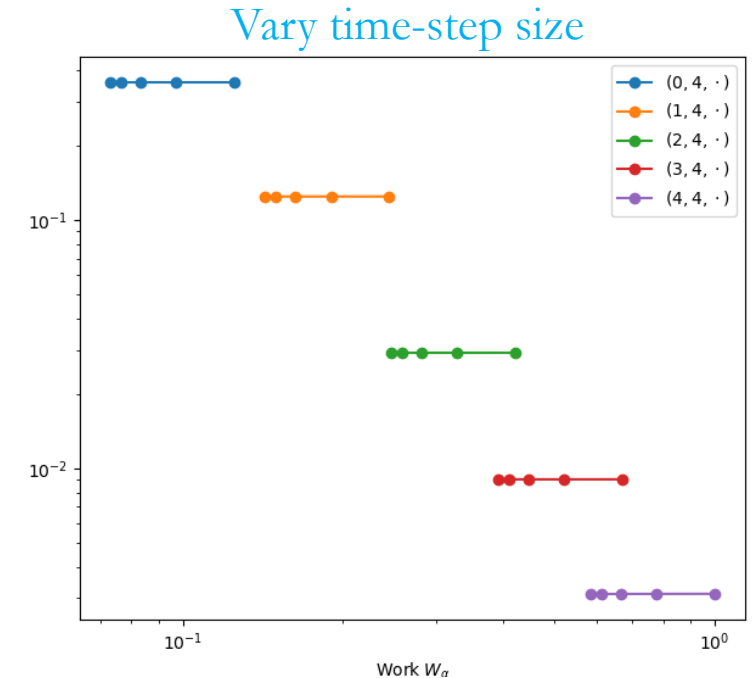
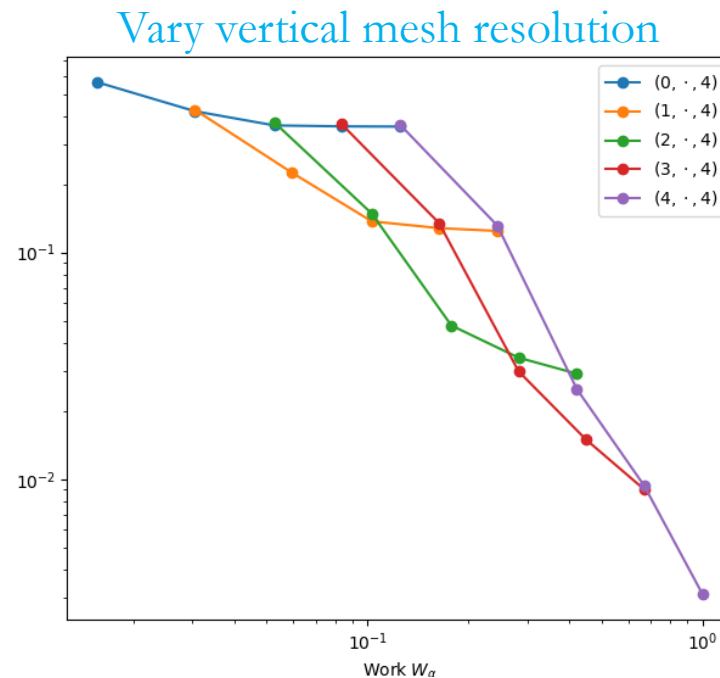
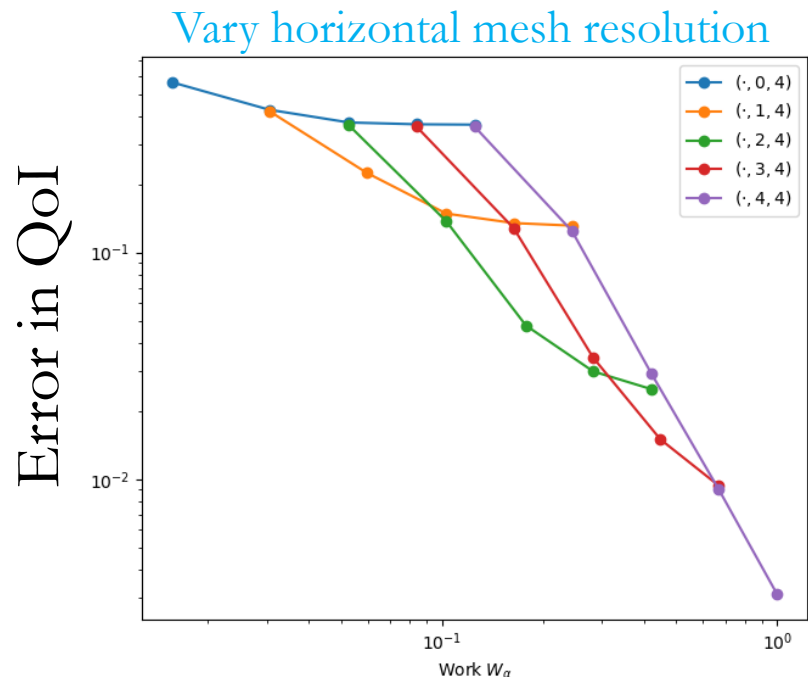
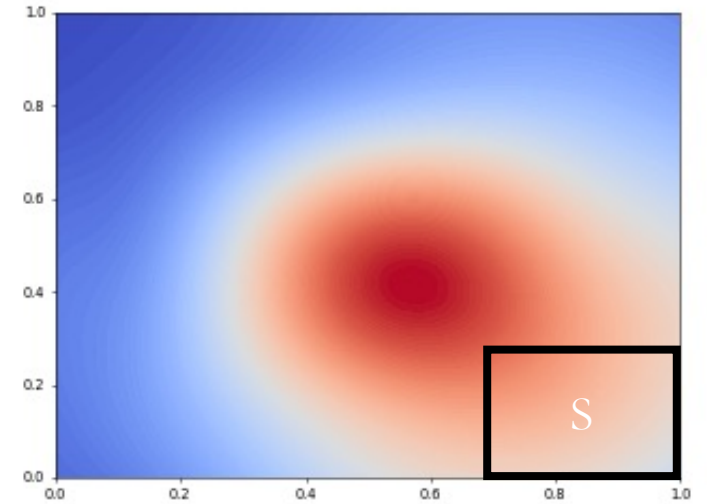
## Transient Advection diffusion

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(x, t, z) = \nabla \cdot [k(x, z) \nabla u(x, t, z)] - \nabla \cdot (vu(x, t, z)) + g(x, t)(x, t, z) \in D \times [0, 1] \times \Gamma$$

$$\mathcal{B}(x, t, z) = 0(x, t, z) \in \partial D \times [0, 1] \times \Gamma$$

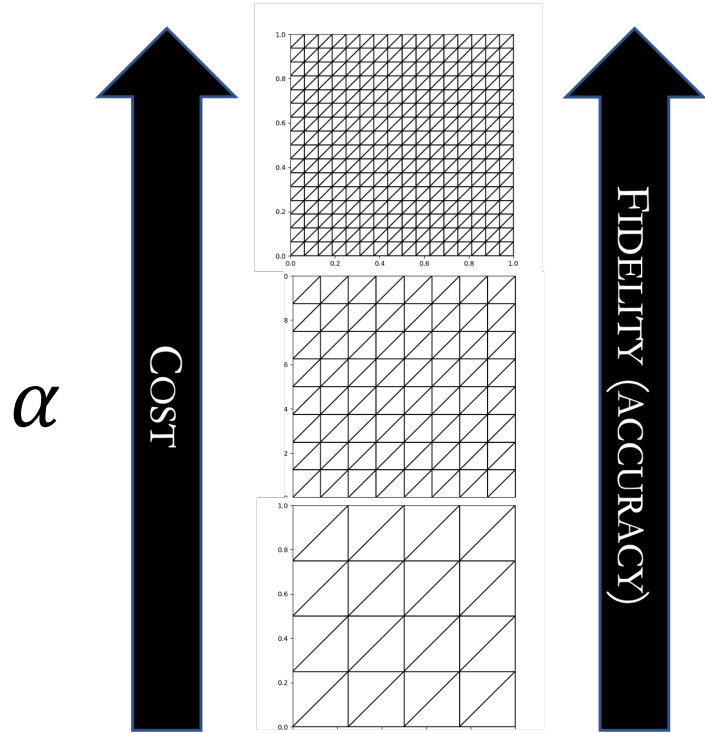
$$u(x, t, z) = u_0(x, z)(x, t, z) \in D \times \{t = 0\} \times \Gamma$$

Accuracy of QoI  $f(z)$  depends on numerical discretization  $f(z) = \int_S u(x, T, z) dx$



# MULTI-LEVEL VS MULTI-INDEX

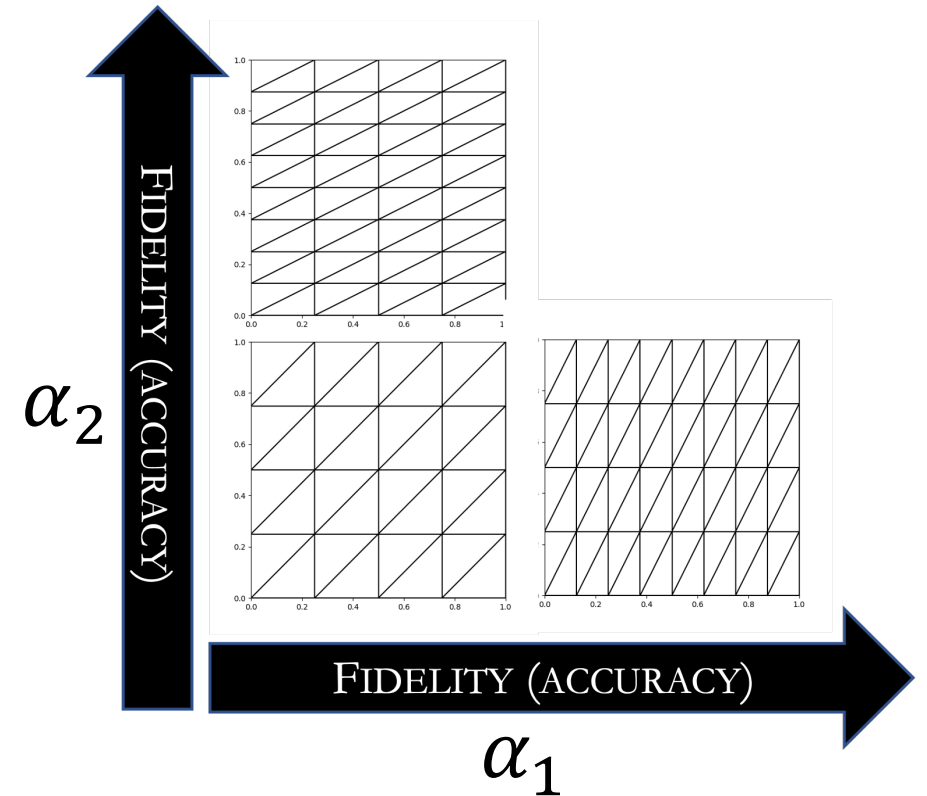
Multi-level methods



Both assume

$$\|f - f_\alpha\| \leq \|f - f_{\alpha'}\|$$

Multi-index methods

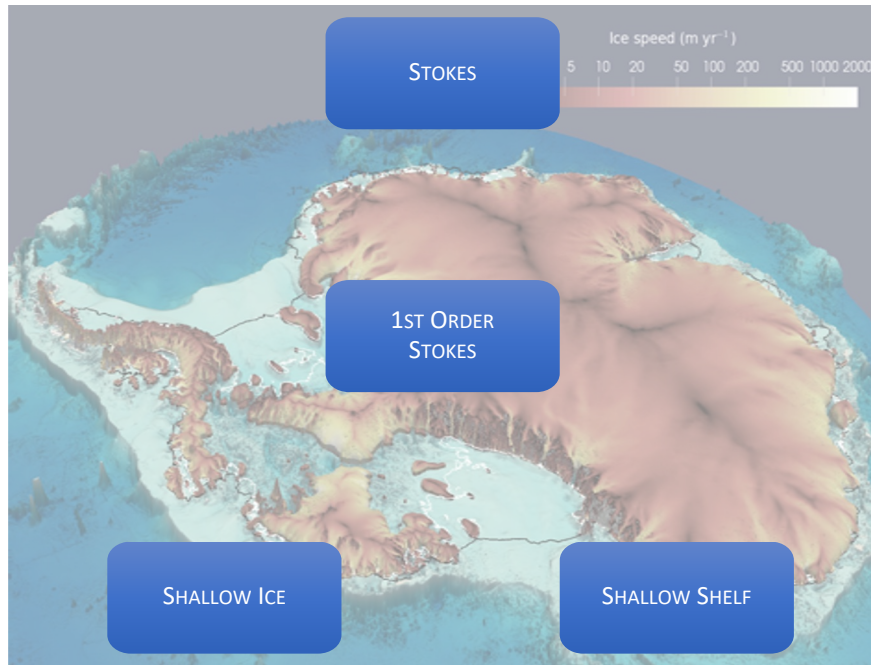


Use a 1D hierarchy of models  
controlled by a scalar index  $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$

Use a multi-dimensional hierarchy  
controlled by a multi-index  
 $\alpha = [\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots]$

# MOVING BEYOND MULTI-INDEX METHODS

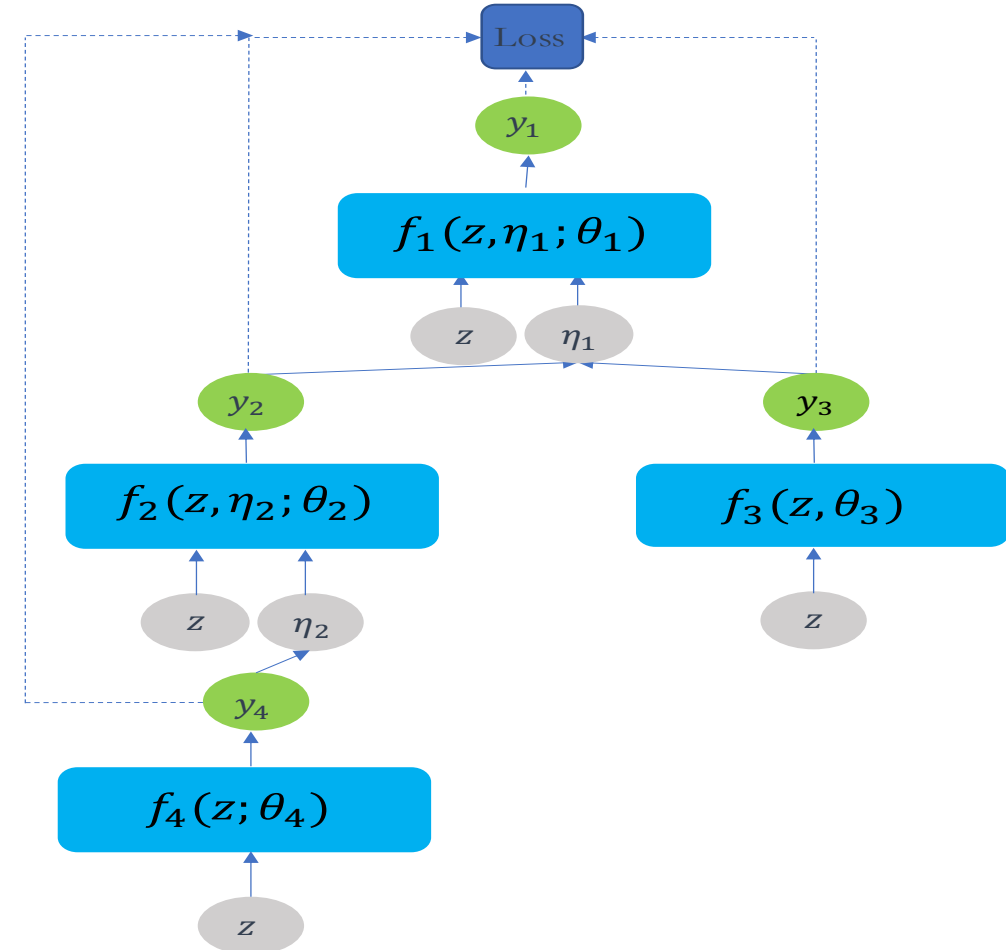
Some problems possess an ensemble of models that do not admit a strict hierarchy



[Gorodetsky et al. MFNets: Multi-fidelity data-driven networks for bayesian learning and prediction, International Journal for Uncertainty Quantification, 2020.](#)

[A. Gorodetsky et al. MFNets: Learning network representations for multifidelity surrogate modeling, 2020.](#)

Methods that can encode general dependencies are now being developed





# MULTI-FIDELITY QUADRATURE

Goal: Compute the expected value using two (or more) models

$$Q_{\alpha,N}^{\text{CV}} = Q_{\alpha,N} + \eta (Q_{\kappa,N} - \mu_{\kappa})$$

Minimizing variance ratio to find  $\eta$

$$\gamma = \frac{\mathbb{V}[Q_{\alpha,N}^{\text{CV}}]}{\mathbb{V}[Q_{\alpha,N}]}$$

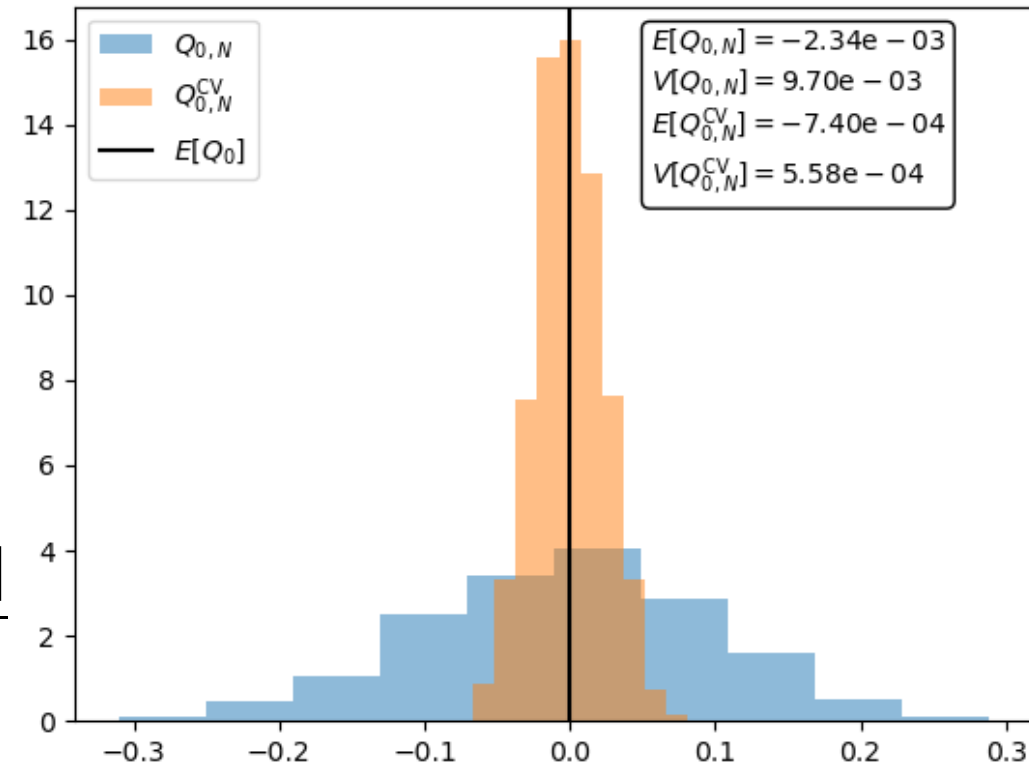
Yields

$$\eta = - \frac{\text{Cov}[N^{-1} \sum_i^N f_{\alpha}(z^{(i)}), N^{-1} \sum_i^N f_{\kappa}(z^{(i)})]}{\mathbb{V}[N^{-1} \sum_i^N f_{\kappa}(z^{(i)})]} = - \frac{\text{Cov}[f_{\alpha}, f_{\kappa}]}{\mathbb{V}[f_{\kappa}]}$$

Such that

$$\gamma = 1 - \text{Cor}[Q_{\alpha,N}, Q_{\kappa,N}]^2$$

If  $Q_{\alpha} = Q$  (unbiased) then CV estimator is also unbiased



But variance of CV estimator is much smaller than HF estimator if models are highly correlated

# MULTI-FIDELITY SURROGATES

## GOAL

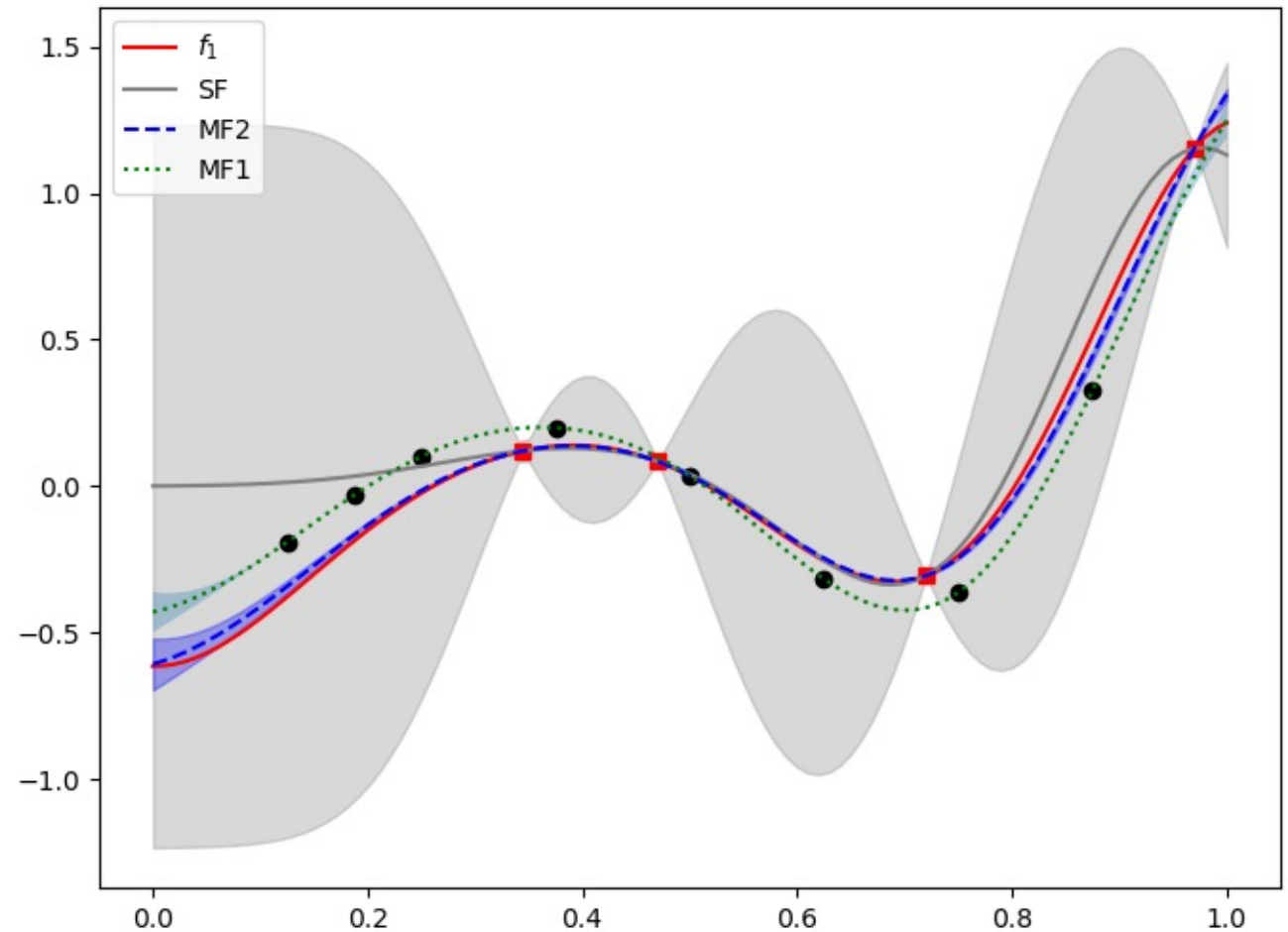
Build a surrogate using data  
from models of varying  
fidelity

Set of model fidelities including  $\alpha^*$

$$f_{\boxed{A}, \boxed{N}}(z) \approx f_{\boxed{\alpha^*}}(z)$$

Num samples per  
model

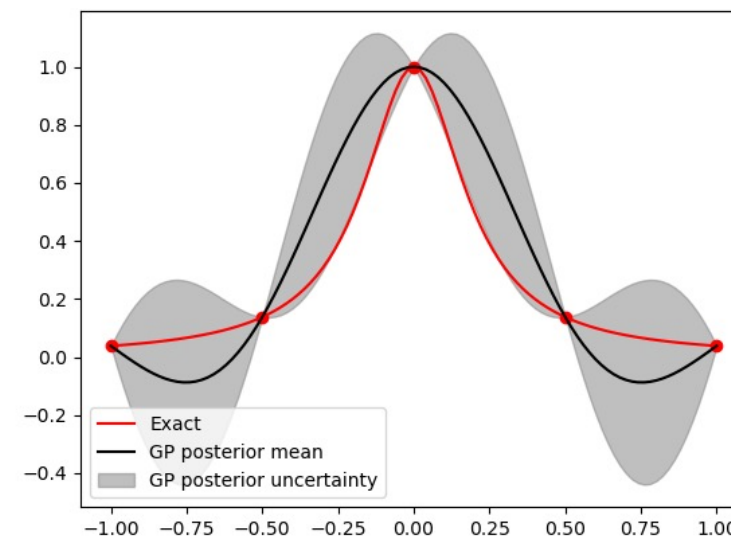
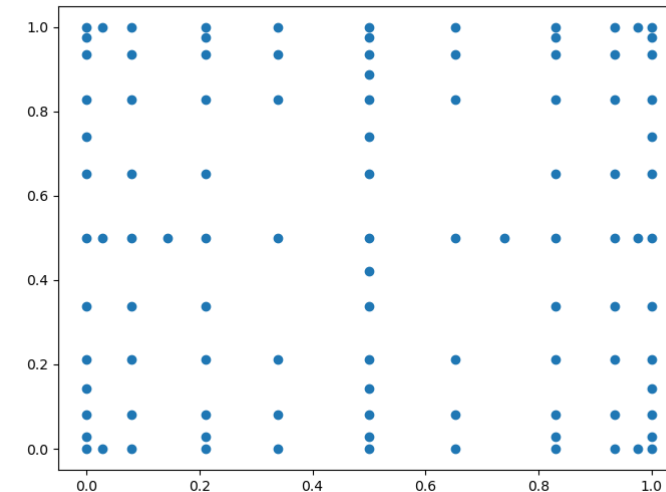
Highest fidelity



A low-fidelity model can be used to accurately  
extrapolate away from high-fidelity data

# OVERVIEW

1. Multi-level/Multi-index collocation
  - Tensor product interpolation
  - Sparse grid approximation
  - Multi-index collocation
2. Multi-level Gaussian processes
  - Single fidelity Gaussian processes and experimental design
  - Multi-level Gaussian processes and experimental design
3. Alternatives
  - Deep GPs, neural networks, low-rank methods, MFNNets

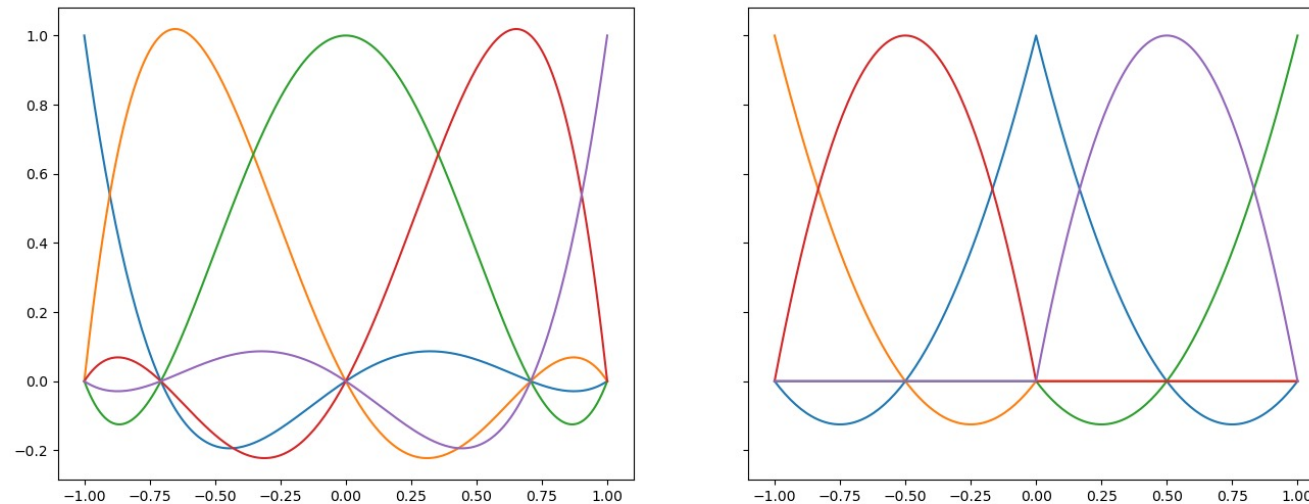


# TENSOR-PRODUCT INTERPOLATION

Tensor product Lagrange interpolation is based on one dimensional interpolants

$$\phi_{i,j}(z_i) = \prod_{k=1, k \neq j}^{m_{\beta_i}} \frac{z_i - z_i^{(k)}}{z_i^{(j)} - z_i^{(k)}}, \quad i \in [d], \quad z_i^{(j)} = \cos\left(\frac{(j-1)\pi}{m_{\beta_i}}\right), \quad j = 1, \dots, m_{\beta_i}$$

Note other basis functions can be used, e.g. piecewise polynomials.



**Lemma 3.1** (Strong convergence [9]).

Let  $\nu : \hat{\Xi} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $\omega : \Xi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  denote two densities which satisfy

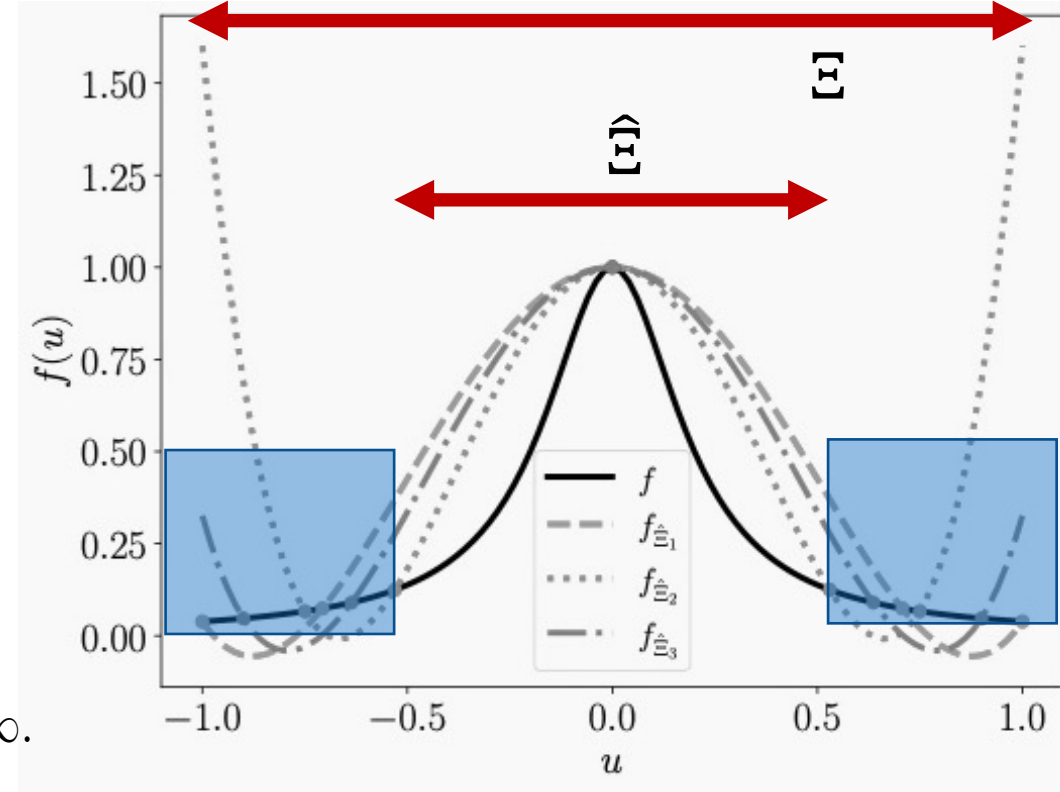
$$\delta = 1 - \int_{\Xi \cap \hat{\Xi}} \omega(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$

Given an approximation  $f_\nu$  of  $f$  with approximation error  $\epsilon$ , i.e.,

$$\epsilon := \|f - f_\nu\|_{L^p_\nu(\Xi)}, \quad p \geq 1,$$

then, if  $f$  is bounded with  $C_f = \|f\|_{L^\infty(\Xi)}$ , it holds that

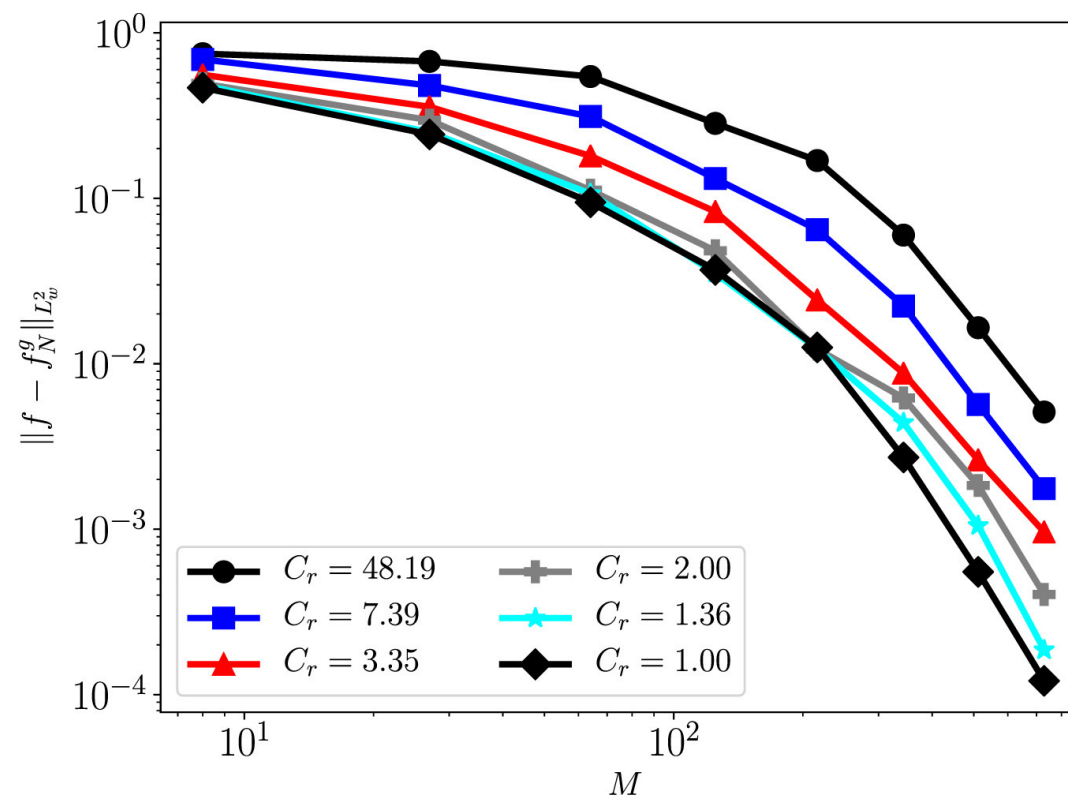
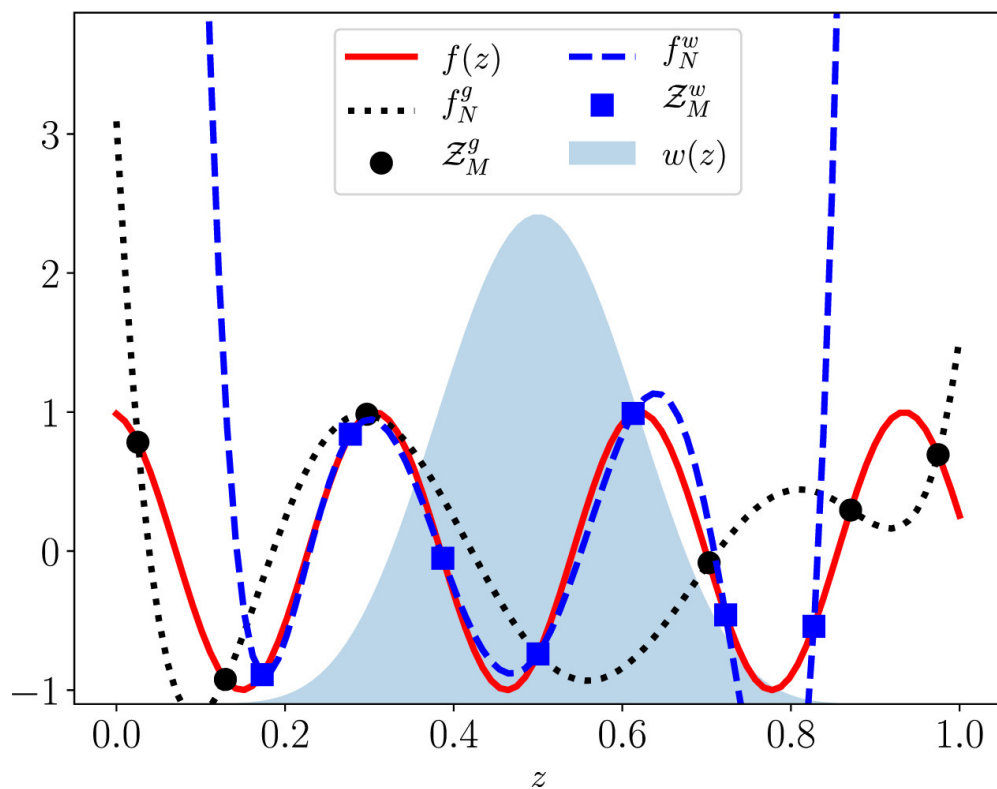
$$\|f - f_\nu\|_{L^p_\omega(\Xi)} \leq C_r^{1/p} \epsilon + C_f \delta^{1/p}, \quad \text{provided} \quad C_r := \max_{\mathbf{u} \in \Xi \cup \hat{\Xi}} \frac{\omega(\mathbf{u})}{\nu(\mathbf{u})} < \infty.$$





Interpolants for an oscillatory function parameterized by a Beta(10,10) random variable

The constant  $C_r$  of convergence significantly impacts error



# TENSOR-PRODUCT INTERPOLATION

The tensor product interpolant is

$$\hat{f}_{\alpha,\beta}(\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{j \leq \beta} \hat{f}_{\alpha}(\mathbf{z}^{(j)}) \prod_{i \in [d]} \phi_{i,j_i}(z_i).$$

It requires evaluating the model on the tensor product grid

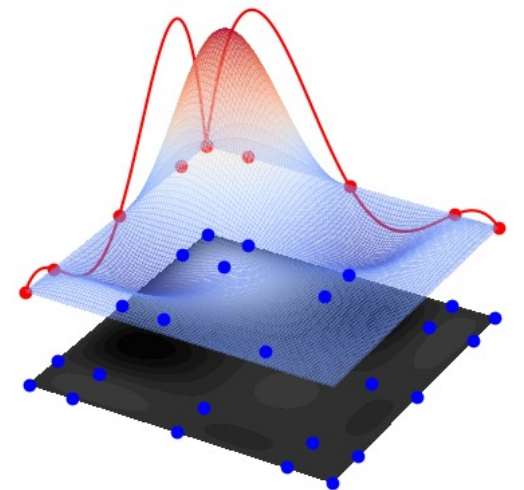
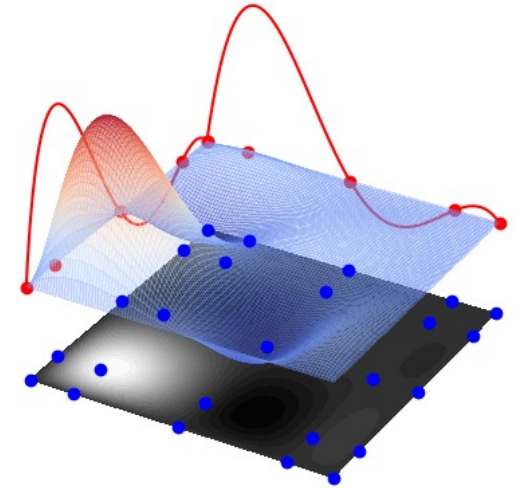
$$\mathcal{Z}_{\beta} = \bigotimes_{i=1}^d \mathcal{Z}_{\beta_i}^i = [\mathbf{z}^{(1)} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{z}^{(M_{\beta})}] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times M_{\beta}}$$

With number of points

$$M_{\beta} = \prod_{i \in [d]} m_{\beta_i}$$

And model evaluations

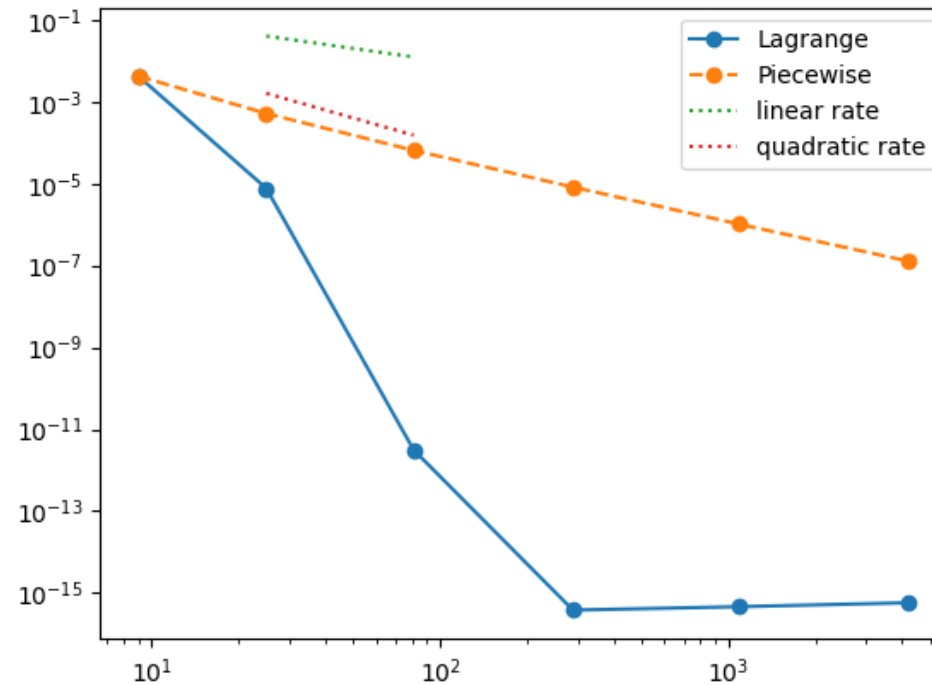
$$\mathcal{F}_{\alpha,\beta} = \hat{f}_{\alpha}(\mathcal{Z}_{\beta}) = [\hat{f}_{\alpha}(\mathbf{z}^{(1)}) \quad \dots \quad \hat{f}_{\alpha}(\mathbf{z}^{(M_{\beta})})]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{M_{\beta} \times q},$$



# SMOOTHNESS MATTERS

The performance of Lagrange-based tensor products depends on the smoothness  $s$  and the dimension of the target function

$$\|f_\alpha - f_{\alpha,\beta}\|_{L^\infty(\Gamma)} \leq C_{d,s} N_\beta^{-s/d}$$



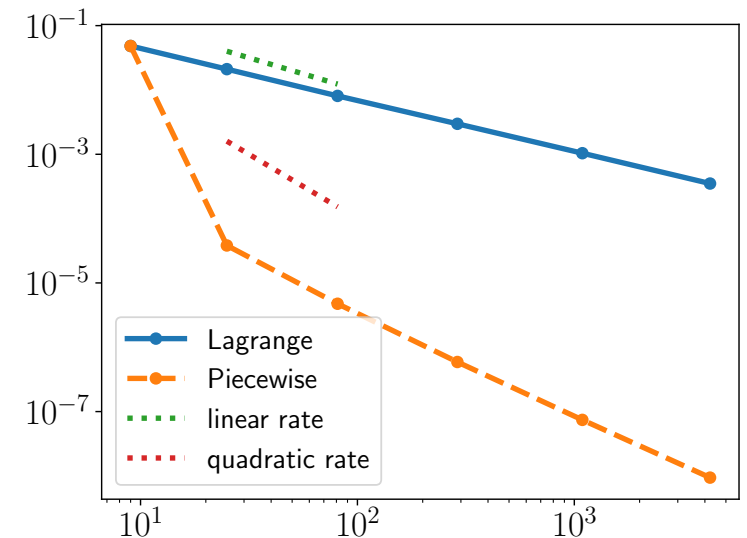
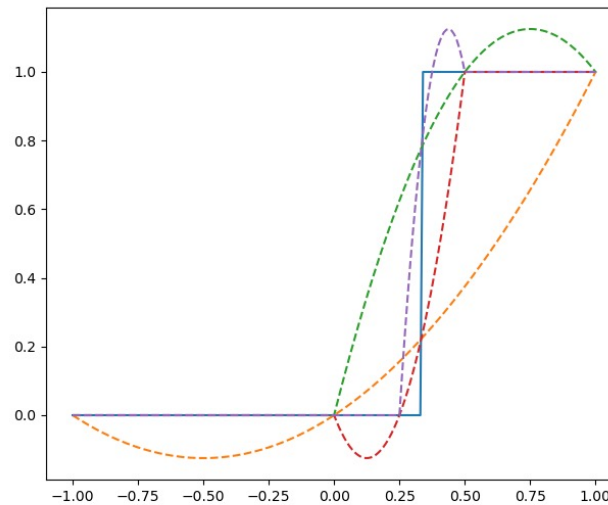
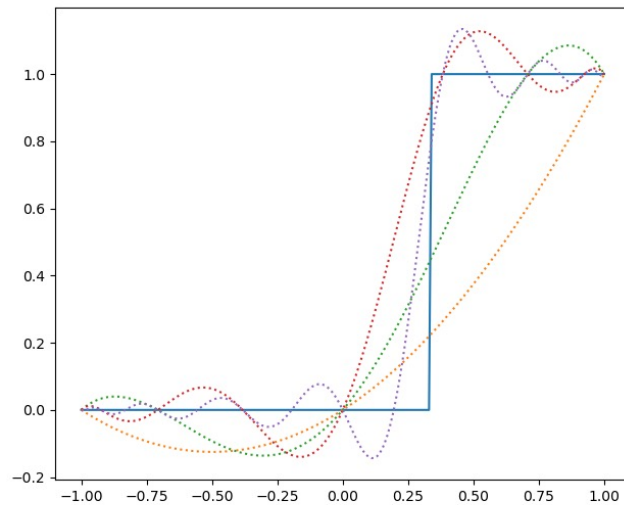
$$f(z) = \cos \left( 2\pi w_1 + \sum_{d=1}^D c_d z_d \right)$$

Exponential convergence is obtained for analytic functions

# SMOOTHNESS MATTERS

Lagrange polynomials introduce Gibbs like phenomena when approximating discontinuous functions

Only linear convergence is obtained for functions with only integrable first order derivatives



$$f(z) = \exp \left( - \sum_{d=1}^D c_d |z_d - w_d| \right)$$

# QUADRATURE USING THE SURROGATE

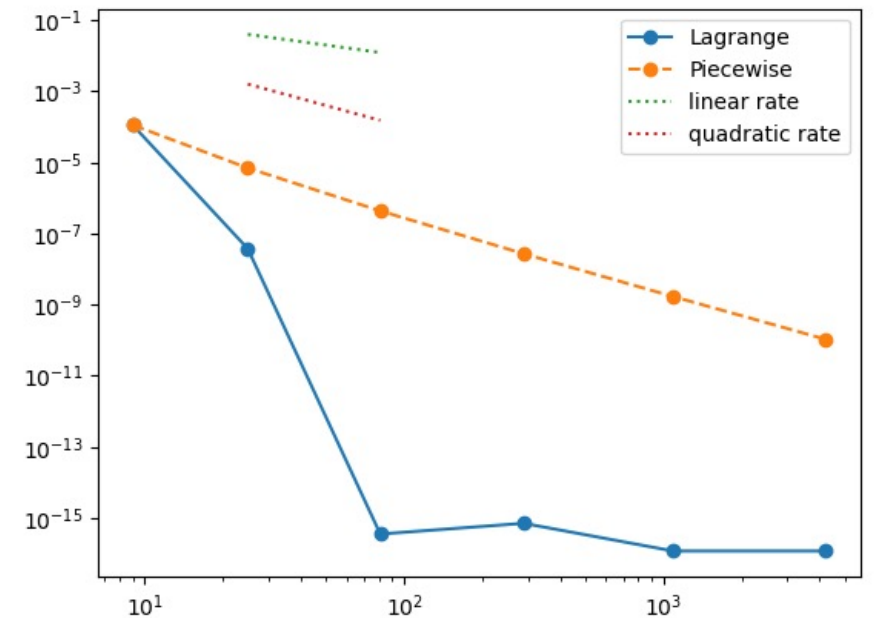
The error in the Monte Carlo estimate of the mean using the surrogate satisfies

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E} \left[ (Q_\alpha - \mathbb{E}[Q])^2 \right] &= N^{-1} \mathbb{V}[Q_\alpha] + (\mathbb{E}[Q_\alpha] - \mathbb{E}[Q])^2 \\ &\leq N^{-1} \mathbb{V}[Q_\alpha] + C_{d,r} N_\beta^{-s/d}\end{aligned}$$

Unlike the expensive model, the first term can be made very small because the surrogate is cheap to evaluate

However the mean of tensor product interpolants can be computed exactly.

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_\beta &= \int_\Gamma \sum_{j \leq \beta} f_\alpha(z^{(j)}) \prod_{i=1}^d \phi_{i,j_i}(z_i) w(z) dz = \sum_{j \leq \beta} f_\alpha(z^{(j)}) v_j. \\ v_j &= \prod_{i=1}^d \int_{\Gamma_i} \phi_{i,j_i}(z_i) dw(z_i),\end{aligned}$$



$$f(z) = \cos \left( 2\pi w_1 + \sum_{d=1}^D c_d z_d \right)$$



# SPARSE GRID APPROXIMATION

The number of tensor product points grows exponentially with dimension (curse of dimensionality)

Sparse grids can be used to exploit function smoothness to mitigate the curse of dimensionality

Index set controlling  
accuracy

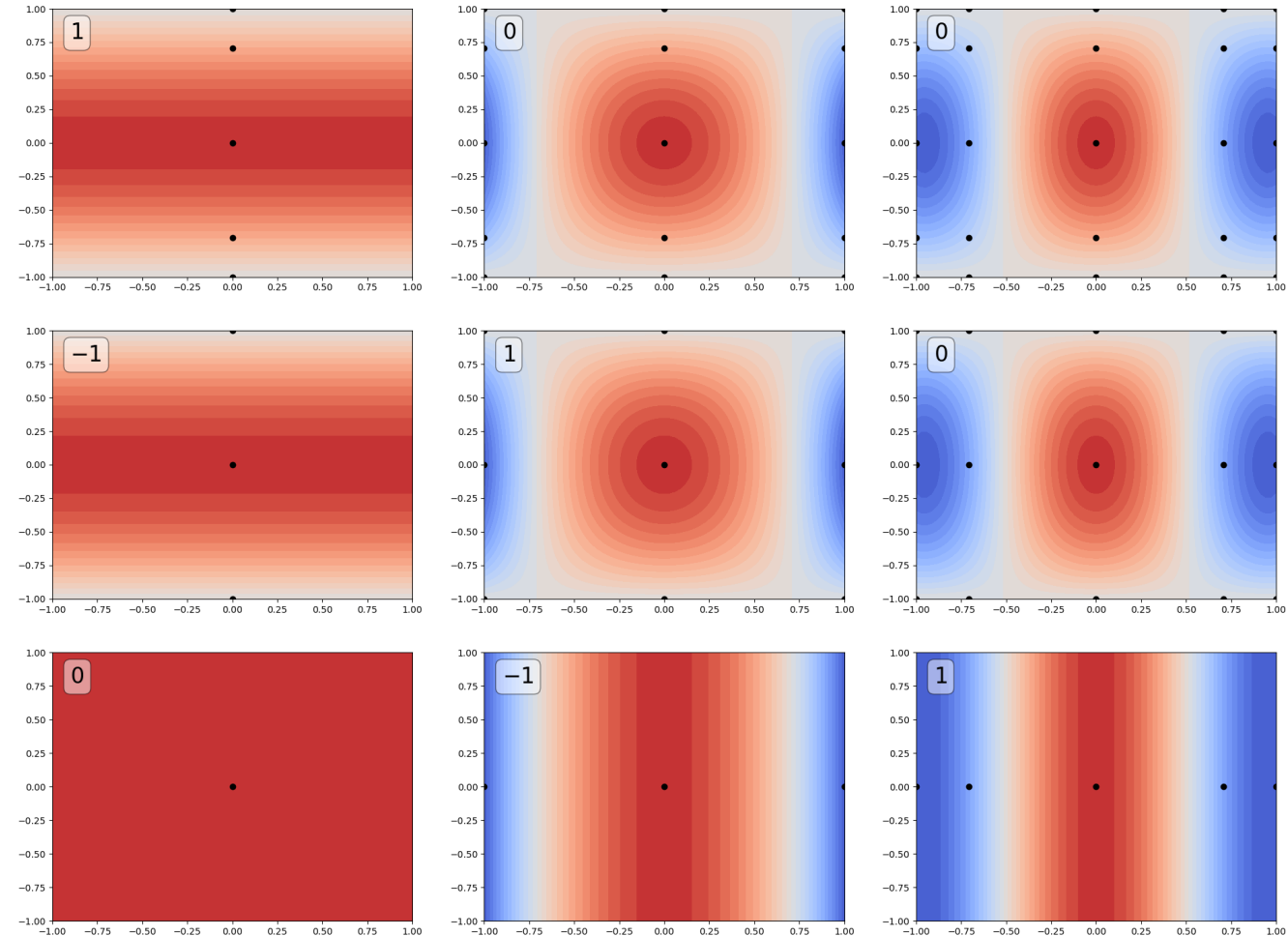
TP approx

$$f_{\alpha} \mathcal{I}(z) = \sum_{\beta \in \mathcal{I}} c_{\beta} f_{\alpha, \beta}(z),$$

numerical model  
discretization

Tensor product  
resolution

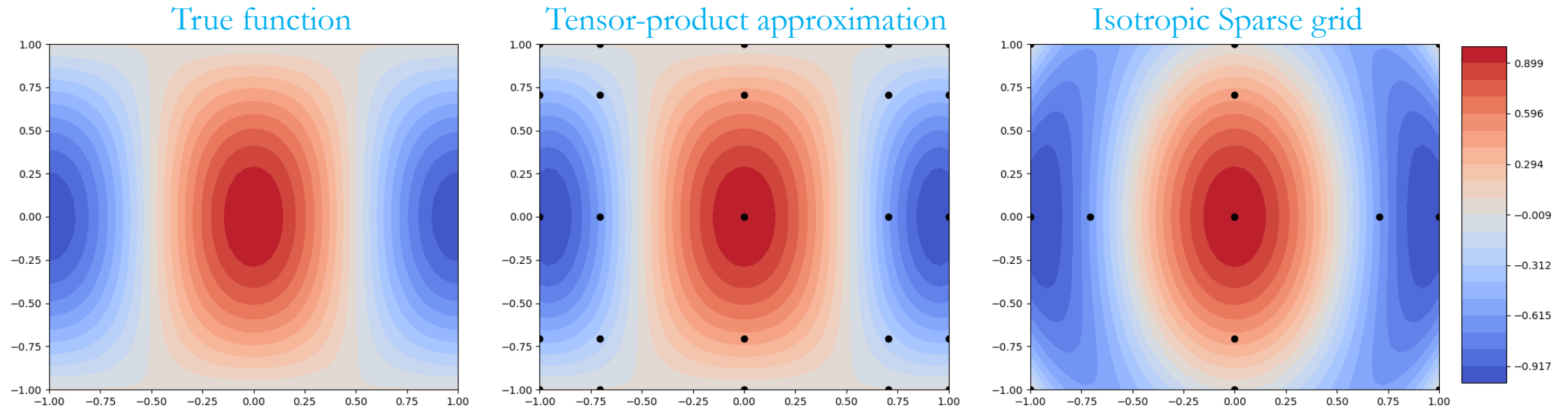
Isotropic sparse grid



# ISOTROPIC SPARSE GRID

An isotropic sparse grid uses

$$\mathcal{I}(l) = \{\beta \mid (\max(0, l - 1) \leq \|\beta\|_1 \leq l + D - 2), \quad l \geq 0 \quad c_\beta = (-1)^{l-|\beta|_1} \binom{D-1}{l-|\beta|_1}.$$



[V. Barthelmann, E. Novak and K. Ritter. High dimensional polynomial interpolation on sparse grid. Advances in Computational Mathematics \(2000\).](#)

[H. Bungartz and M. Griebel. Sparse grids. Acta Numerica \(2004\).](#)

# SPARSE GRID CONVERGENCE

Tensor product error grows exponentially with dimension for fixed smoothness  $r$

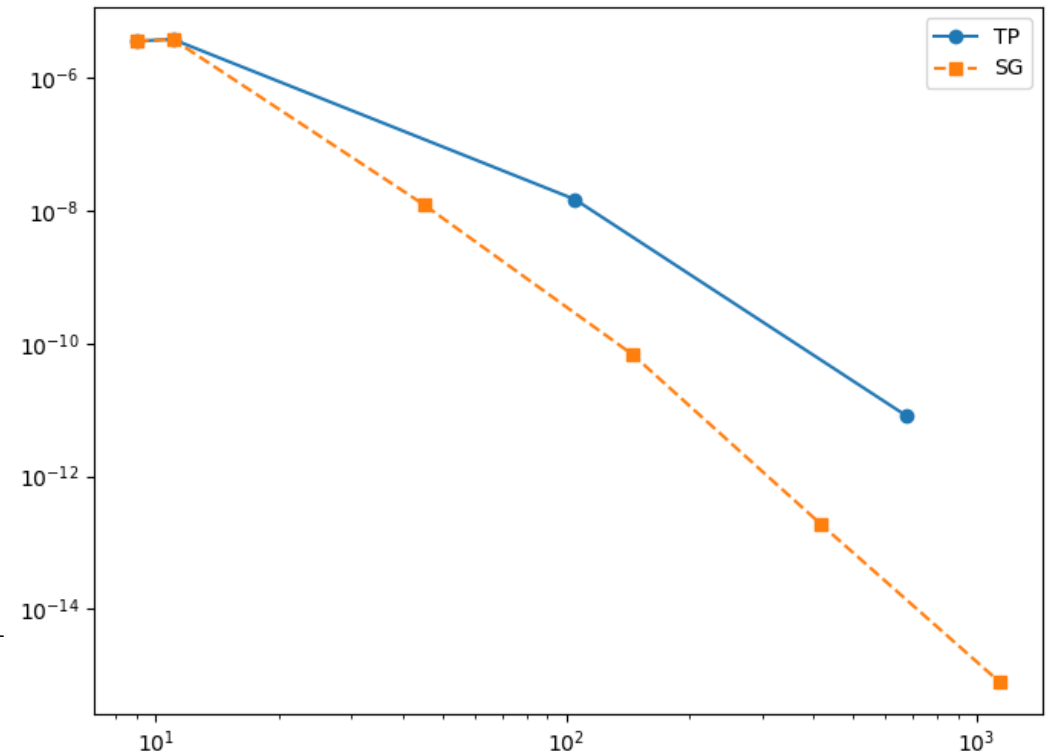
$$\|f - f_{\mathcal{I}(l)}\|_{L^\infty} \leq K_{D,r} M_l^{-r/D}$$

Isotropic sparse error grids is less strongly dependent on dimension

$$\|f - f_{\mathcal{I}(l)}\|_{L^\infty} \leq C_{D,r} M_{\mathcal{I}(l)}^{-r} (\log M_{\mathcal{I}(l)})^{(r+2)(D-1)+1}$$

Isotropic grids treat all dimensions equally, but for many models some dimensions are more important than others

$$f(z) = \exp\left(-\frac{\sum_{d=1}^4 (0.5(z_d + 1) - 0.5)^2}{20}\right)$$



# ADAPTIVE SPARSE GRIDS

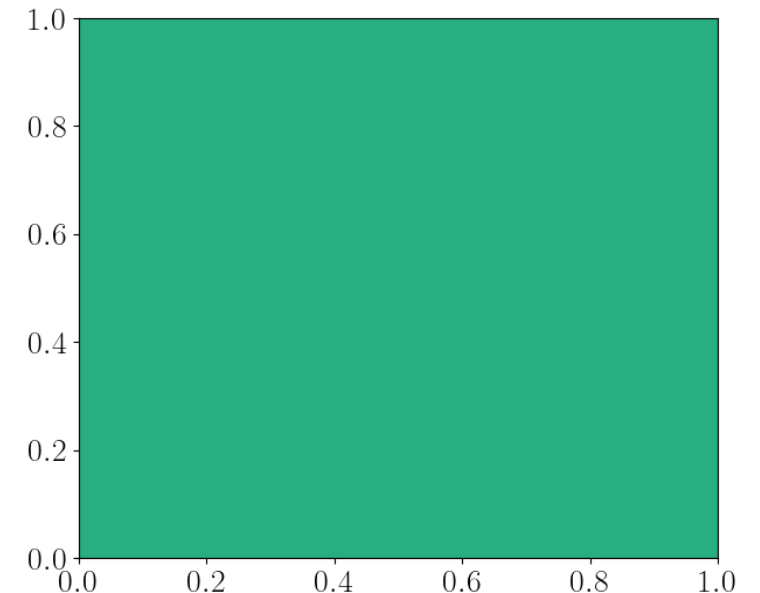
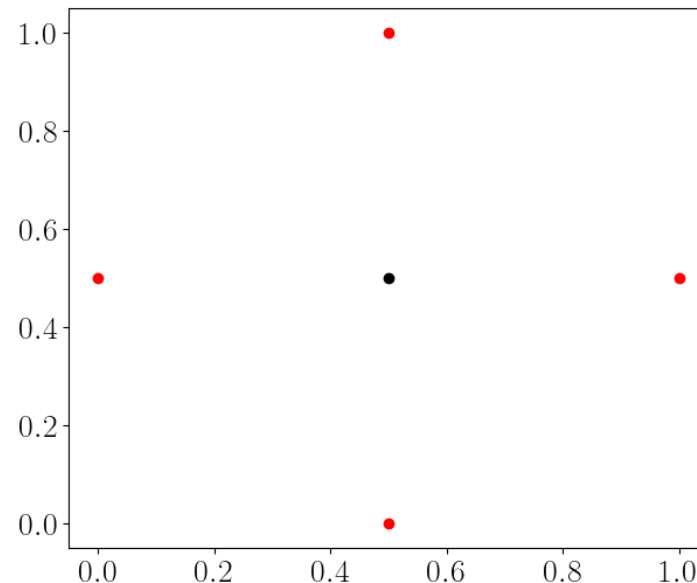
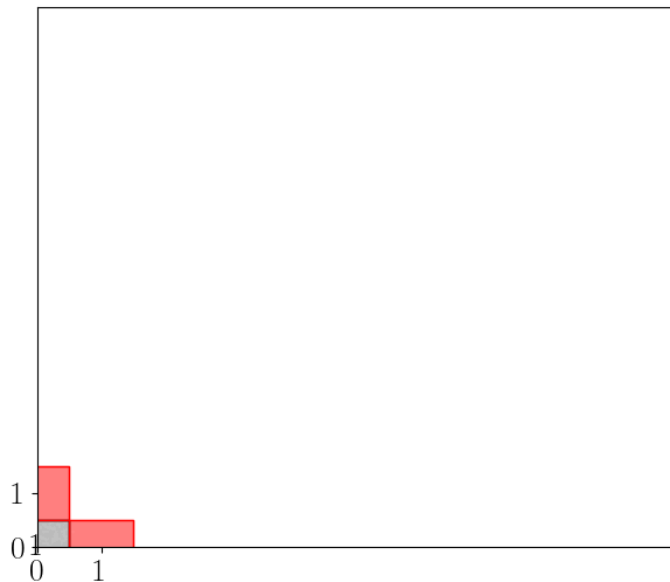
Finding the optimal index set can be posed as binary knapsack problem

$$\max \sum_{\beta} \Delta E_{\beta} \delta_{\beta} \text{ such that } \sum_{\beta} \Delta W_{\beta} \delta_{\beta} \leq W_{\max},$$

$$\Delta E_{\beta} = \|f_{\alpha, \mathcal{I} \cup \beta} - f_{\alpha, \mathcal{I}}\|$$

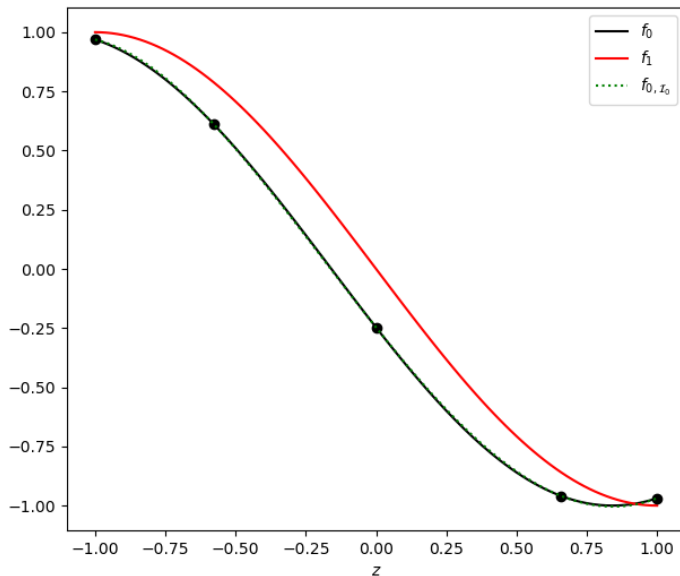
$$\Delta W_{\beta} = \|W_{\alpha, \mathcal{I} \cup \beta} - W_{\alpha, \mathcal{I}}\|$$

A greedy algorithm can be used to find an approximate solution

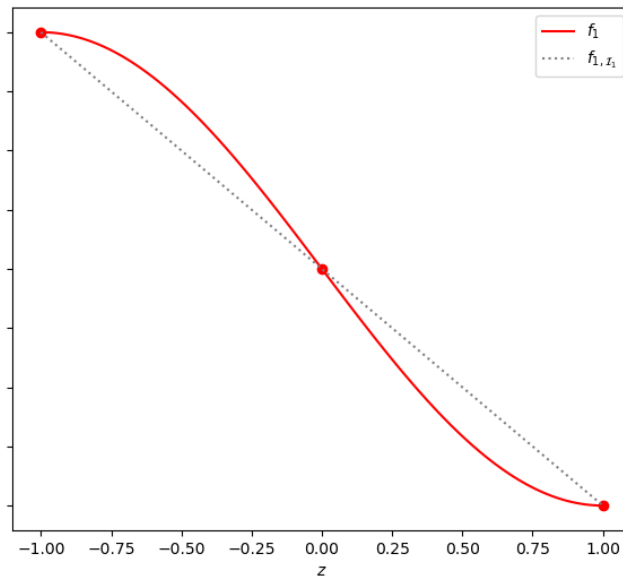


# MULTI-FIDELITY APPROXIMATION: AN OBSERVATION

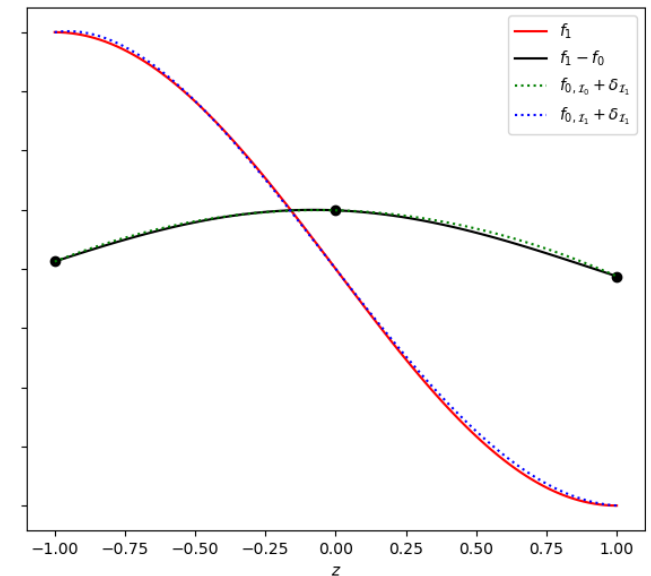
The discrepancy between model fidelities is often “easier” to approximate than the high-fidelity function



Surrogate that uses only low fidelity model  $f_{1,N_1}$  has small stochastic error but has large deterministic error



Surrogate that uses only high fidelity model  $f_{0,N_0}$  has large stochastic error but has no deterministic error



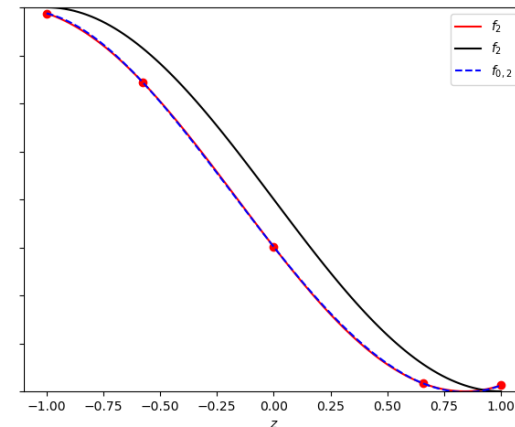
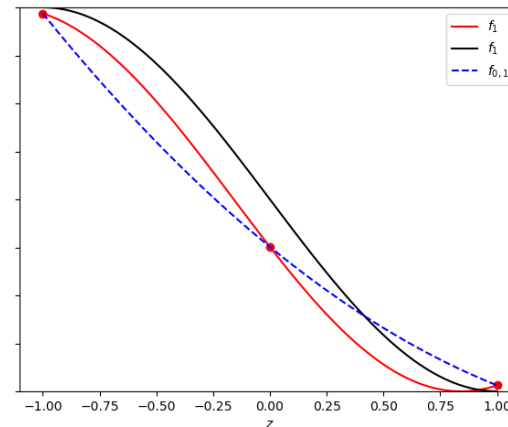
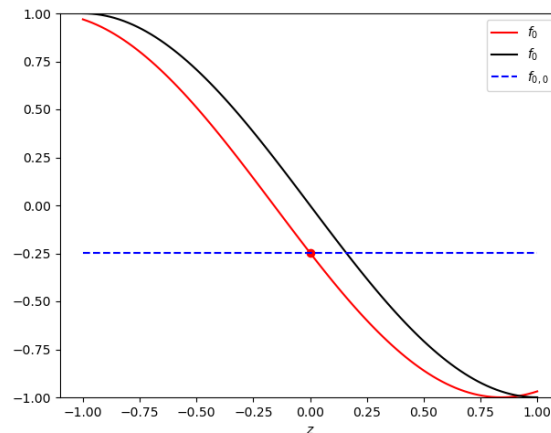
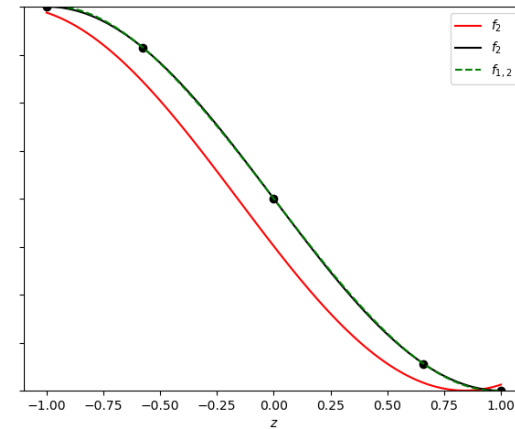
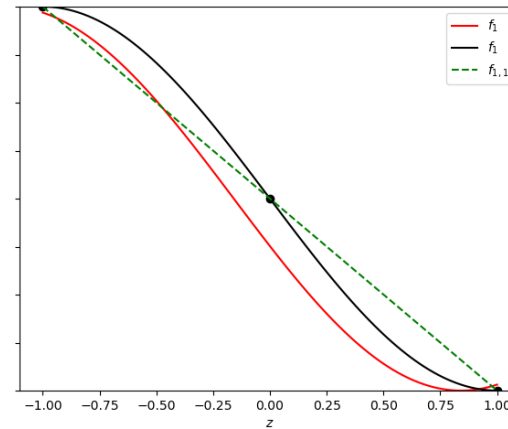
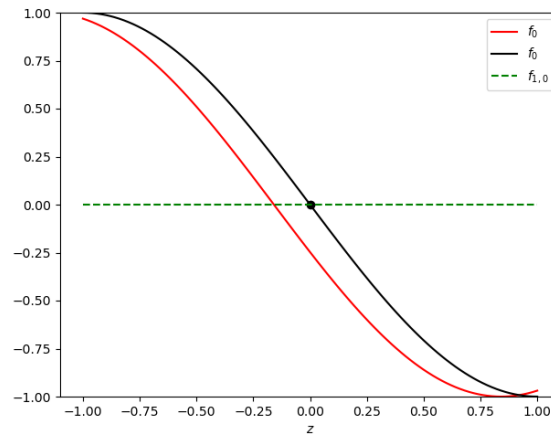
MF Surrogate has small stochastic error and has no deterministic error

# MULTI-INDEX COLLOCATION

$$f_{\mathcal{I}}(z) = \sum_{[\alpha, \beta] \in \mathcal{I}} c_{[\alpha, \beta]} f_{\alpha, \beta}(z).$$

Like sparse grids MISC is a linear combination of tensor product interpolants

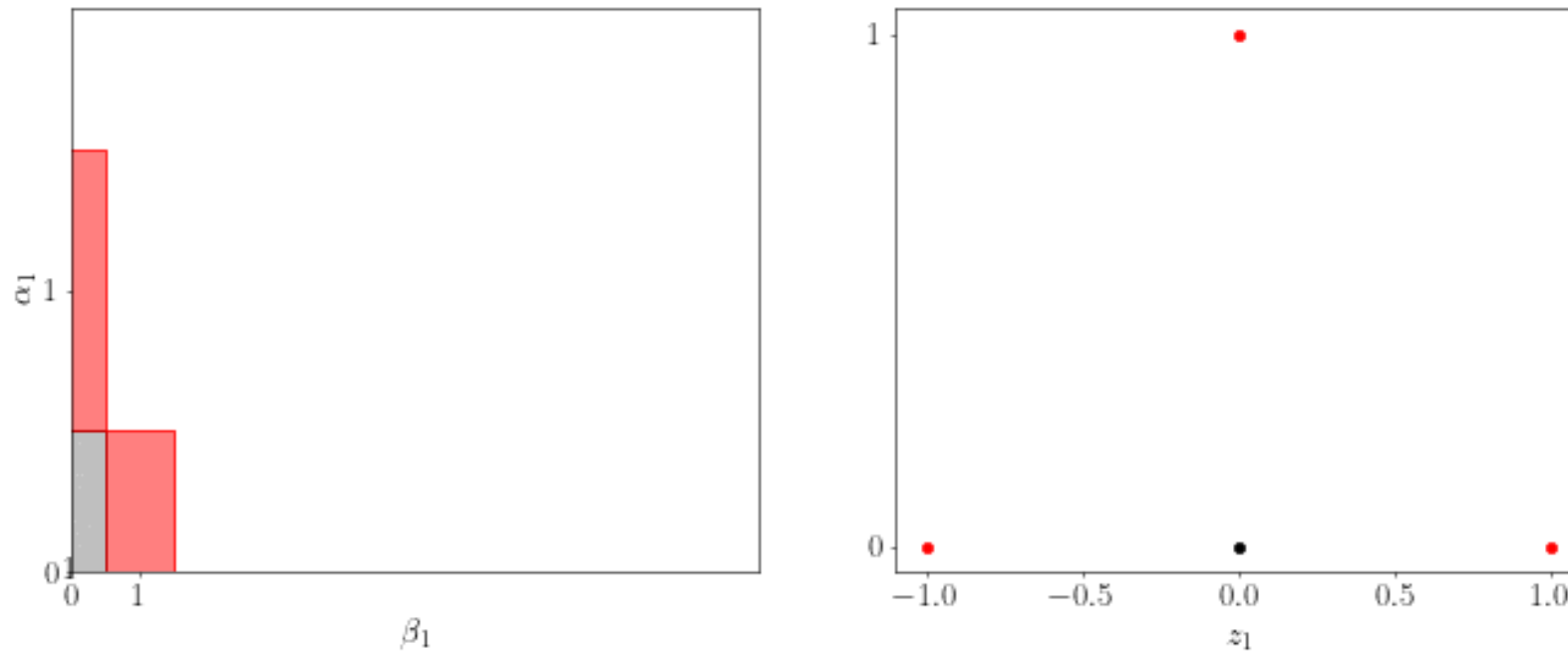
However, now additional indices are used to increase the fidelity of data being used





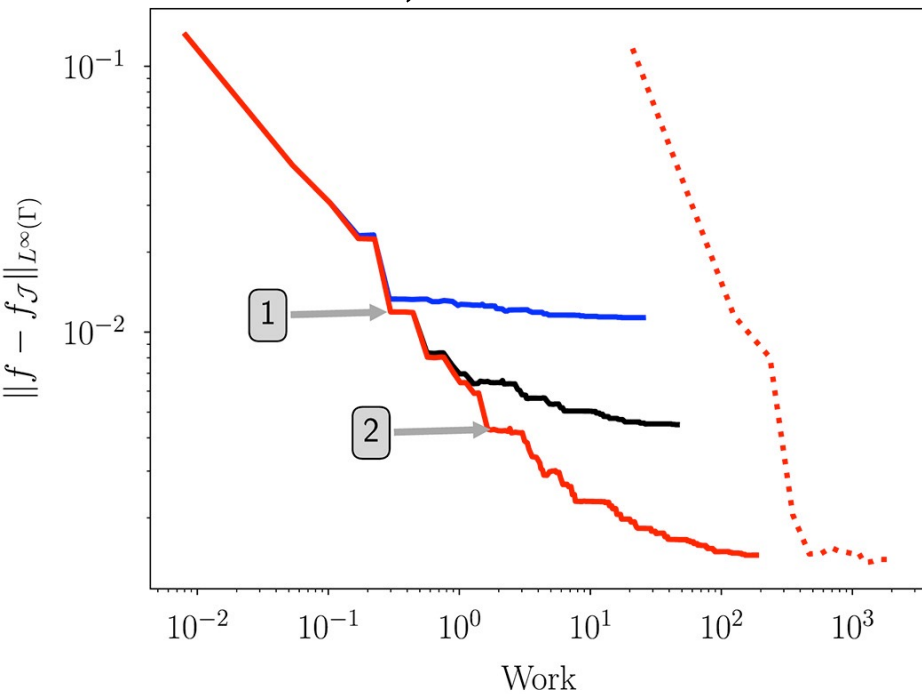
# ADAPTIVE MULTI-INDEX COLLOCATION

The sparse grid adaptation algorithm can be modified for use with multi-fidelity models



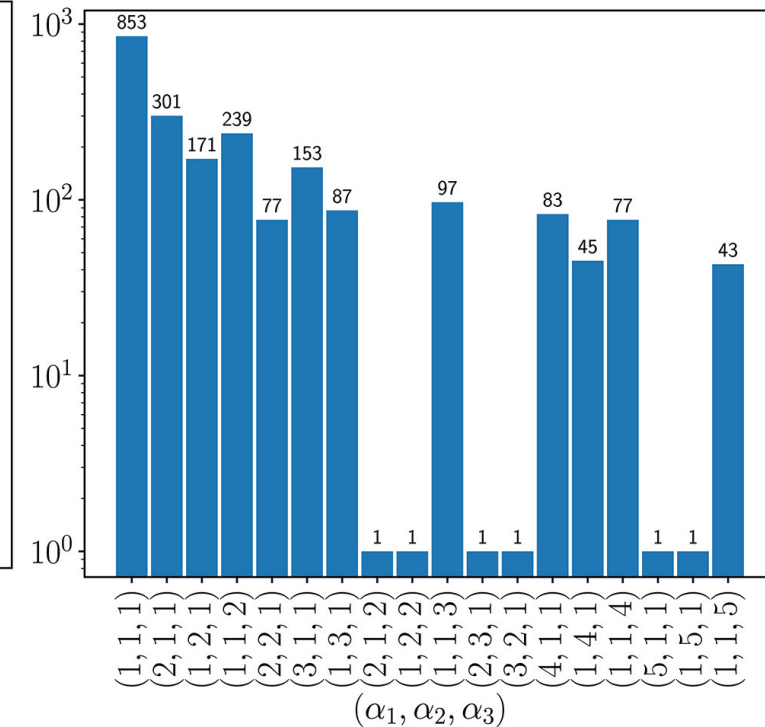
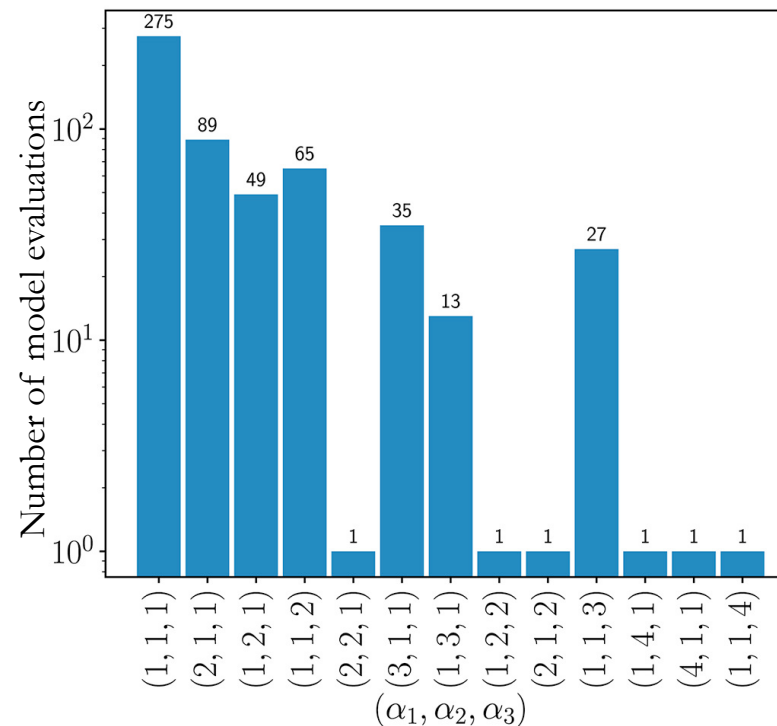
# ADVECTION DIFFUSION MODEL

MISC reduces the computational cost of building a surrogate relative to a single fidelity sparse grid for a 3D hierarchy (x-refinement, y refinement and time refinement)



Work is allocated to each model according to cost relative to the improvement in predictive accuracy.

Low fidelity meshes are used early on and higher-fidelity meshes when requesting higher accuracy



# GAUSSIAN PROCESSES

Gaussian processes are a distribution over a class of functions

$$f(\cdot) \mid \boxed{\theta} \sim \mathcal{N} \left[ \boxed{m(\cdot)}, C(\cdot, \cdot; \theta) + \boxed{\epsilon^2} I \right]$$

Hyper-parameters Noise variance

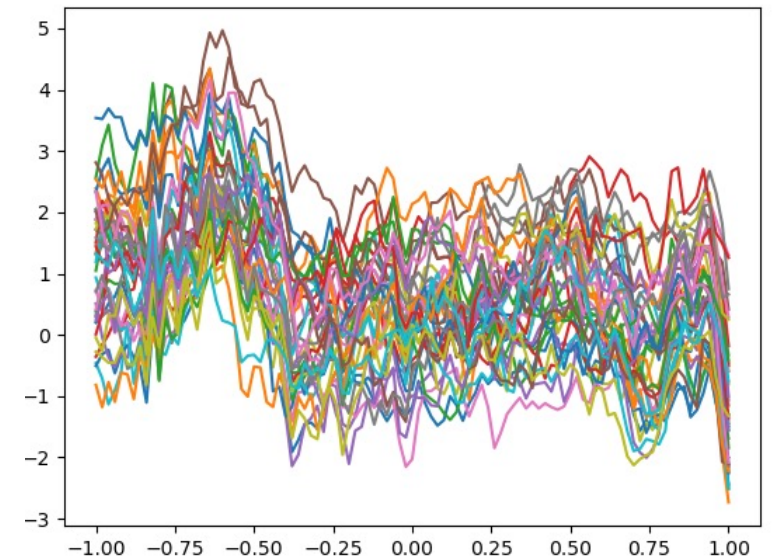
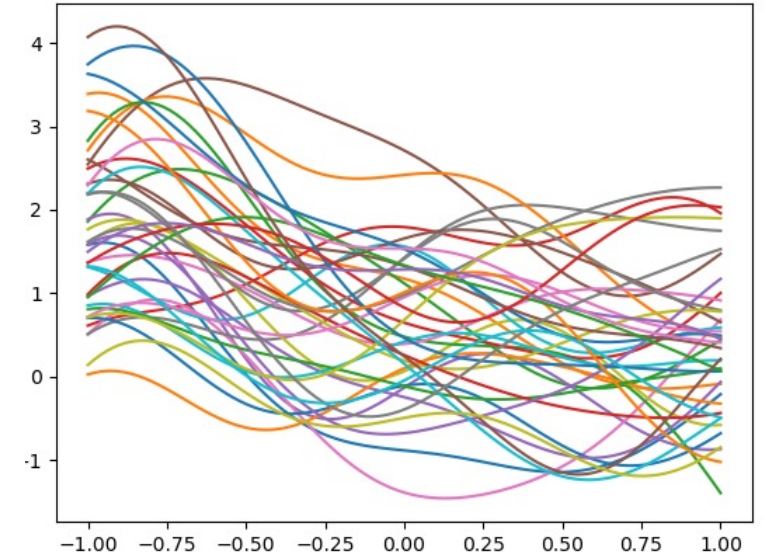
The kernel  $C$  should be tailored to the smoothness of the function being approximated. The Matern kernel is a flexible choice

$$C_{\nu}(z, z^*; \theta) = \boxed{\sigma^2} \frac{2^{1-\nu}}{\Gamma(\nu)} \left( \frac{\sqrt{2\nu} d(z, z^*; \ell)}{\ell} \right)^{\nu} K_{\nu} \left( \frac{\sqrt{2\nu} d(z, z^*; \ell)}{\boxed{\ell}} \right).$$

Controls  
smoothness

Kernel variance. Controls  
magnitude of function

Length scale. Controls  
frequency of realizations



# GAUSSIAN PROCESSES

The posterior distribution of the Gaussian processes conditional on training data  $(z^{(i)}, y^{(i)} = f(z^{(i)}))$  is

$$f(\cdot) \mid \theta, y \sim \mathcal{N}(m^*(\cdot), C^*(\cdot, \cdot; \theta) + \epsilon^2 I)$$

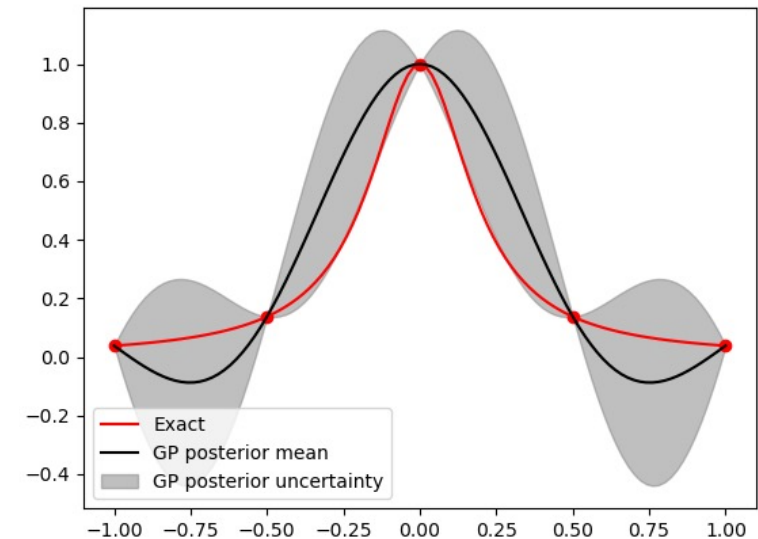
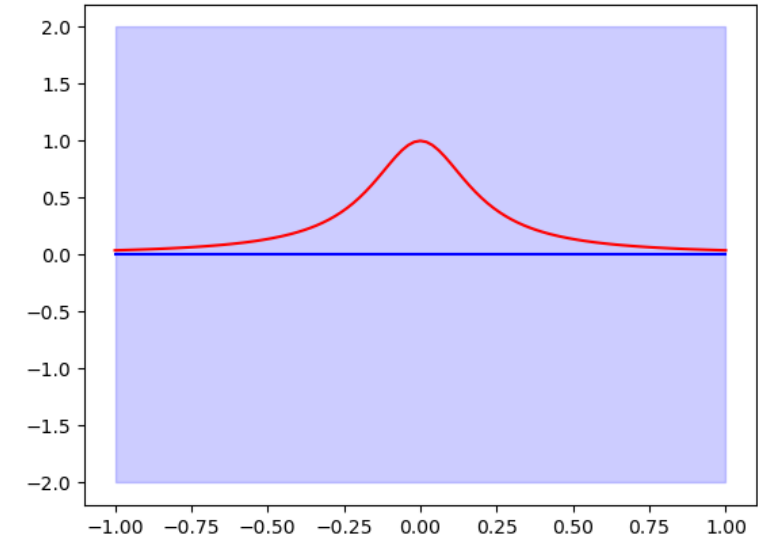
With posterior mean and covariance

$$m^*(z) = t(z)^\top A^{-1} y \quad C^*(z, z') = C(z, z') - t(z)^\top A^{-1} t(z')$$

where

$$A_{ij} = C(z^{(i)}, z^{(j)}) \text{ for } i, j = 1, \dots, M$$

$$t(z) = [C(z, z^{(1)}), \dots, C(z, z^{(N)})]^\top$$



# EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

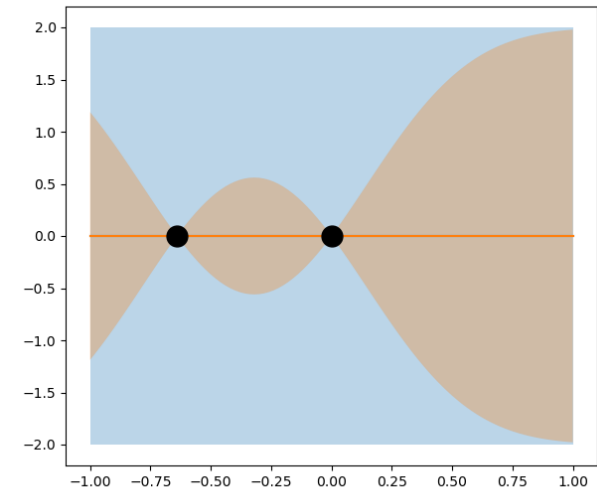
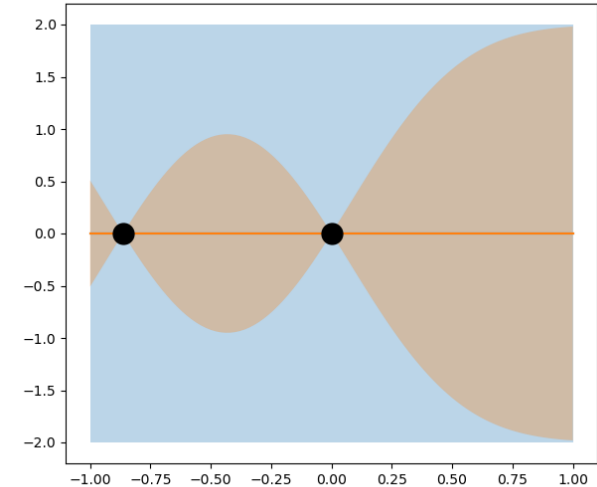
Not all training data reduce variance equally.

Experimental design can be used to reduce variance systematically.

Integrated variance (IVAR) designs minimize the posterior distribution of the GP with respect to the distribution of the inputs  $\mathcal{Z}$

$$\mathcal{Z}^\dagger = \underset{\mathcal{Z} \subset \Omega \subset \Gamma, |\mathcal{Z}|=M}{\operatorname{argmin}} \int_{\Gamma} C^*(z, z \mid \mathcal{Z}) \rho(z) dz$$

Note the designs do not depend on the data and can be computed a priori



# IVAR EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

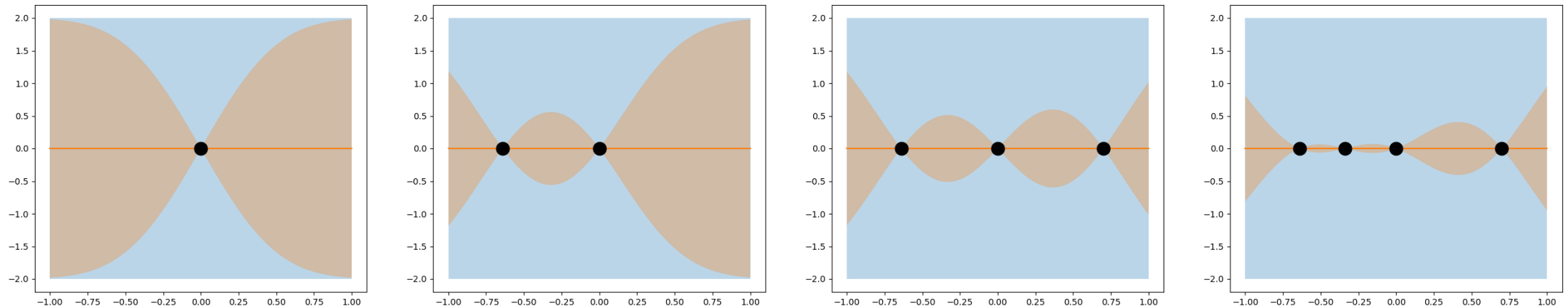
The IVAR objective simplifies to

$$\int_{\Gamma} C^*(z, z \mid \mathcal{Z}) \rho(z) dz = 1 - \text{Trace} [A_{\mathcal{Z}} P_{\mathcal{Z}}] \quad P_{\mathcal{Z}} = \int_{\Gamma} A_{\mathcal{Z} \cup \{z\}} A_{\mathcal{Z} \cup \{z\}}^{\top} \rho(z) dz$$

Which is typically solved greedily such that

$$z_{N+1} = \underset{z' \in \mathcal{Z}_{\text{cand}}}{\text{argmin}} \text{Trace} [A_{\mathcal{Z}_N \cup \{z'\}} P_{\mathcal{Z}_N \cup \{z'\}}] .$$

When  $\rho$  and  $C$  are separable then  $P$  can be computed using 1D quadrature



# MULTILEVEL GAUSSIAN PROCESSES

Multilevel GPs assume

$$f_m(z) = \rho_{m-1} f_{m-1}(z) + \delta_m(z)$$

For  $\mathcal{Z} = (\mathcal{Z}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Z}_M)$ , the posterior mean and covariance again satisfy

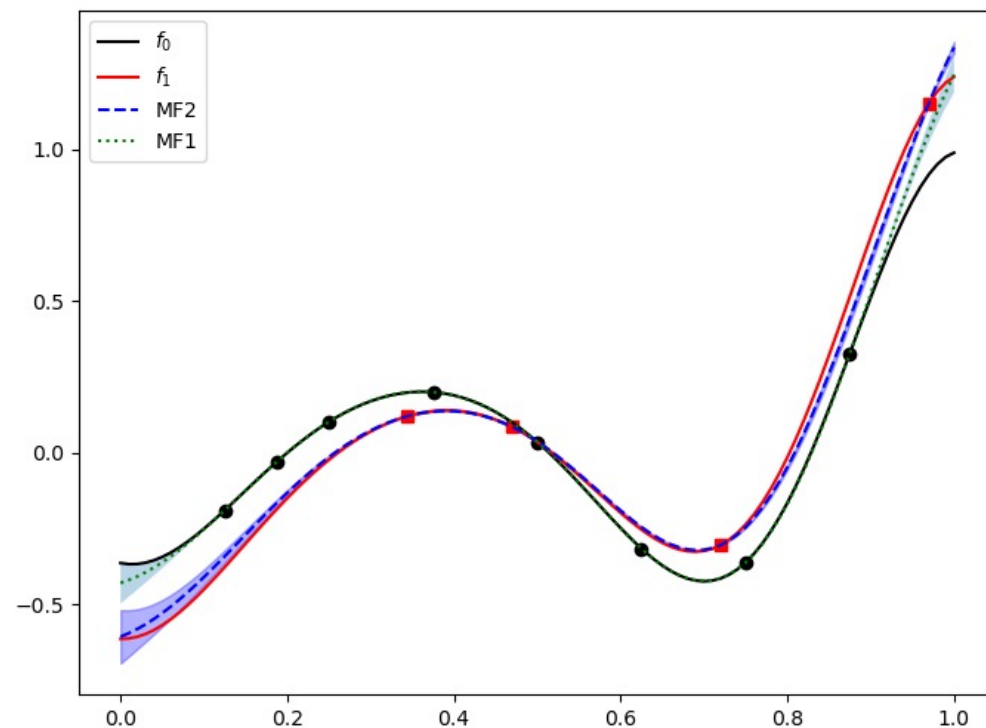
$$m^*(z) = t(z)^\top C(\mathcal{Z}, \mathcal{Z})^{-1} y$$

$$C^*(z, z') = C(z, z') - t(z)^\top C(\mathcal{Z}, \mathcal{Z})^{-1} t(z')$$

Where for two models

$$C(\mathcal{Z}, \mathcal{Z}) = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cov}[f_1(\mathcal{Z}_1), f_1(\mathcal{Z}_1)] & \text{Cov}[f_1(\mathcal{Z}_1), f_2(\mathcal{Z}_2)] \\ \text{Cov}[f_2(\mathcal{Z}_2), f_1(\mathcal{Z}_1)] & \text{Cov}[f_2(\mathcal{Z}_2), f_2(\mathcal{Z}_2)] \end{bmatrix}$$

$$f_1(z) = \frac{1}{5}((3y-1)^2 + 1) \sin((10y-2))$$
$$f_2(z) = \frac{9}{10} f_1(z) + \left(\frac{2y-1}{4}\right)$$



# MULTILEVEL KERNELS

For two models  $\mathcal{Z} = [\mathcal{Z}_1, \mathcal{Z}_2]$ :

$$C(\mathcal{Z}, \mathcal{Z}) = \begin{bmatrix} C_1(\mathcal{Z}_1, \mathcal{Z}_1) & \rho_1 C_1(\mathcal{Z}_1, \mathcal{Z}_2) \\ \rho_1 C_1(\mathcal{Z}_2, \mathcal{Z}_1) & \rho_1^2 C_1(\mathcal{Z}_2, \mathcal{Z}_2) + C_2(\mathcal{Z}_2, \mathcal{Z}_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

The low-fidelity covariance is

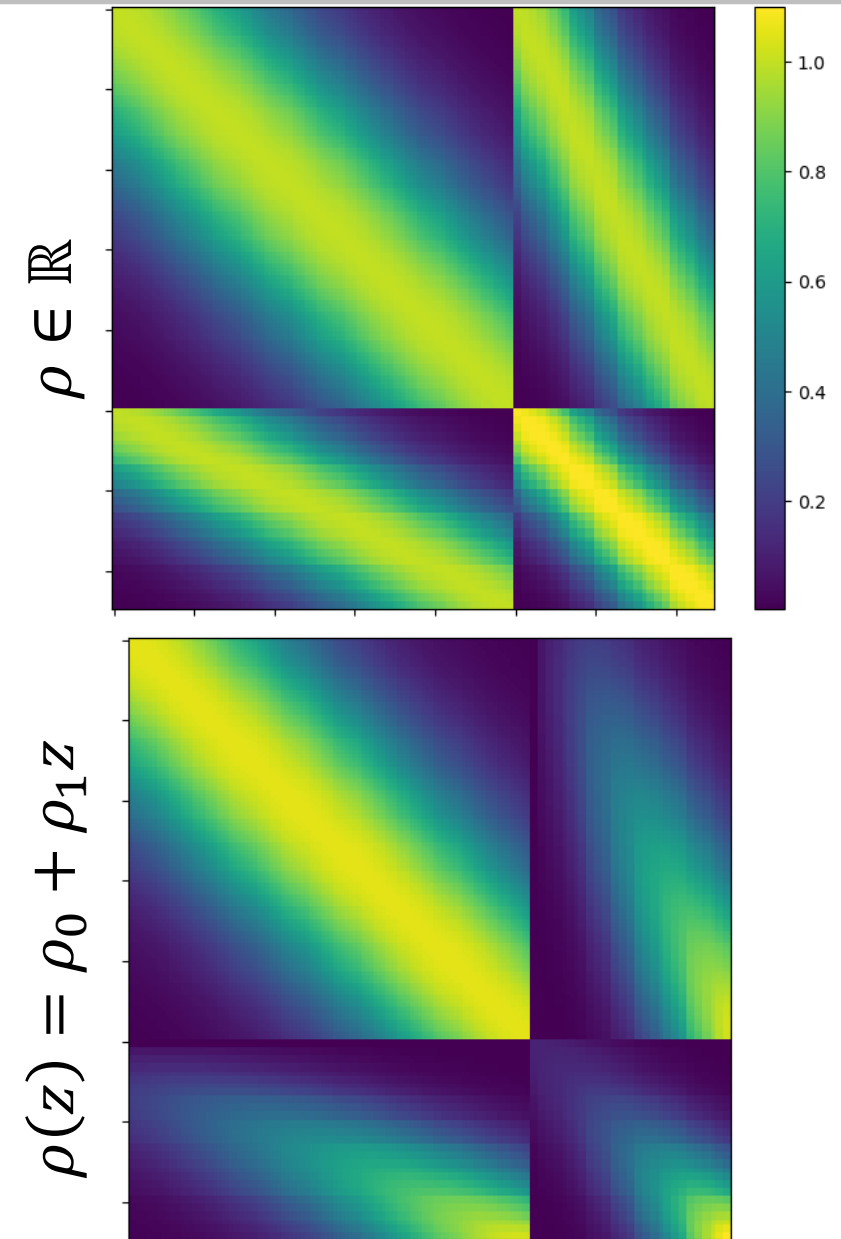
$$\mathbb{Cov}[f_1(\mathcal{Z}_1), f_1(\mathcal{Z}_1)] = \mathbb{Cov}[\delta_1(\mathcal{Z}_1), \delta_1(\mathcal{Z}_1)] = C_1(\mathcal{Z}_1, \mathcal{Z}_1)$$

The high-fidelity covariance is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{Cov}[f_2(\mathcal{Z}_2), f_2(\mathcal{Z}_2)] &= \mathbb{Cov}[\rho_1 f_1(\mathcal{Z}_2) + \delta_2(\mathcal{Z}_2), \rho_1 f_1(\mathcal{Z}_2) + \delta_2(\mathcal{Z}_2)] \\ &= \mathbb{Cov}[\rho_1 \delta_2(\mathcal{Z}_2) + \delta_2(\mathcal{Z}_2), \rho_1 \delta_1(\mathcal{Z}_2) + \delta_2(\mathcal{Z}_2)] \\ &= \mathbb{Cov}[\rho_1 \delta_2(\mathcal{Z}_1), \rho_1 \delta_1(\mathcal{Z}_2)] + \mathbb{Cov}[\delta_2(\mathcal{Z}_2), \delta_2(\mathcal{Z}_2)] \\ &= \rho_1^2 C_1(\mathcal{Z}_2, \mathcal{Z}_2) + C_2(\mathcal{Z}_2, \mathcal{Z}_2) \end{aligned}$$

The covariance between models is

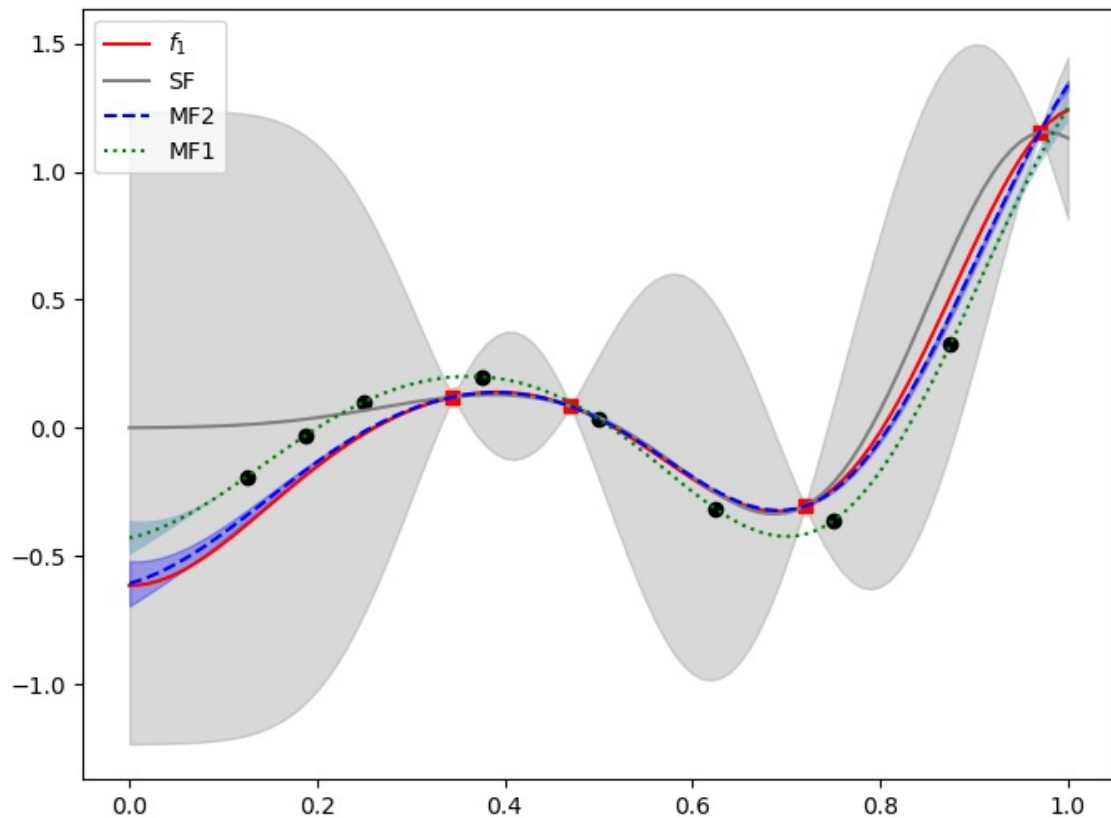
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{Cov}[f_1(\mathcal{Z}_1), f_2(\mathcal{Z}_2)] &= \mathbb{Cov}[\delta_1(\mathcal{Z}_1), \rho_1 \delta_1(\mathcal{Z}_2) + \delta_2(\mathcal{Z}_2)] \\ &= \mathbb{Cov}[\delta_1(\mathcal{Z}_1), \rho_1 \delta_1(\mathcal{Z}_2)] = \rho_1 C_1(\mathcal{Z}_1, \mathcal{Z}_2) \end{aligned}$$



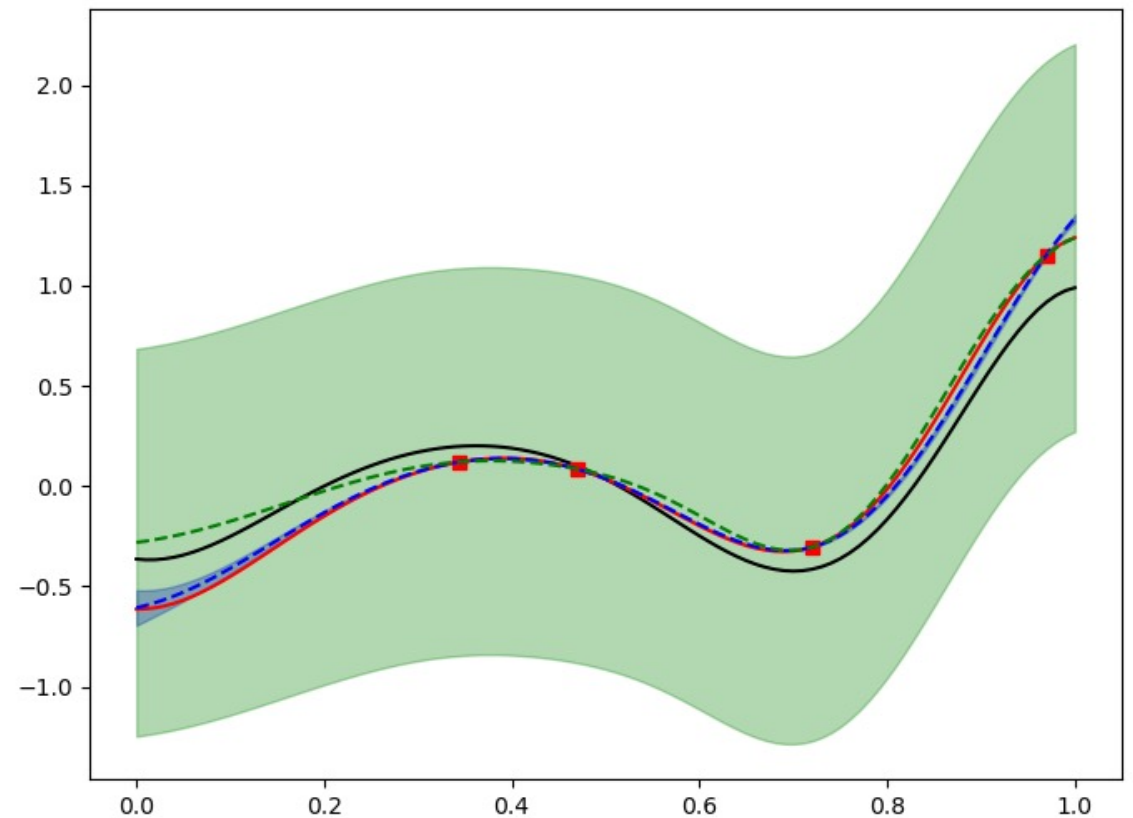


# MULTILEVEL GAUSSIAN PROCESSES

The multilevel GP is a better approximation than the single fidelity GP using only the HF data



Alternative methods build GP sequentially similar to multilevel collocation. However there is no way to estimate error consistently and the resulting GP is often less accurate



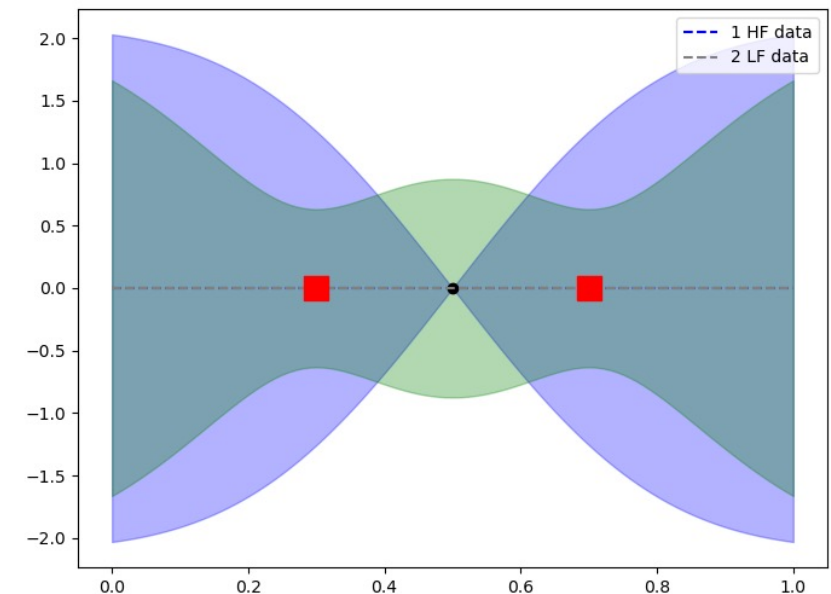
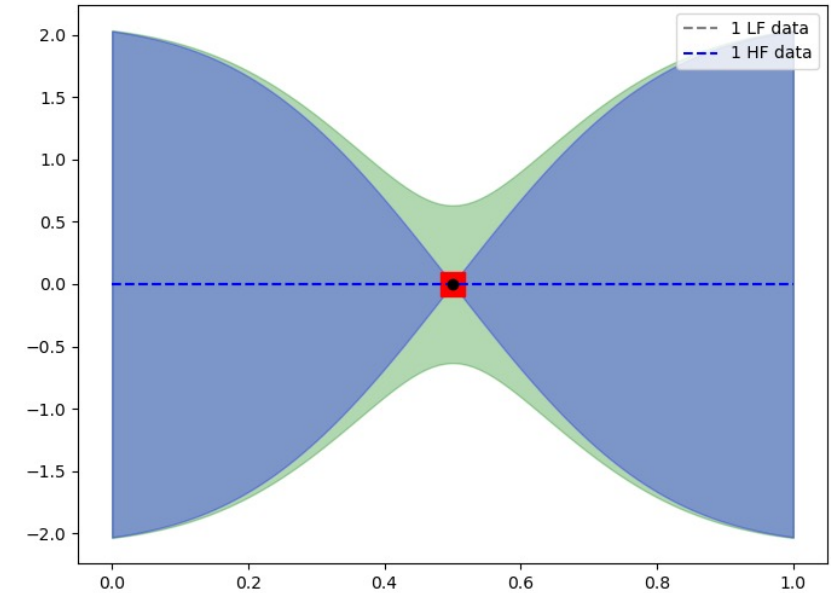
# ML GP EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Similar to single-fidelity GPs, not all training data reduce variance equally.

But ML GPs have the additional complication that function data evaluated using different models at the same sample  $\mathbf{z}$  reduce uncertainty differently.

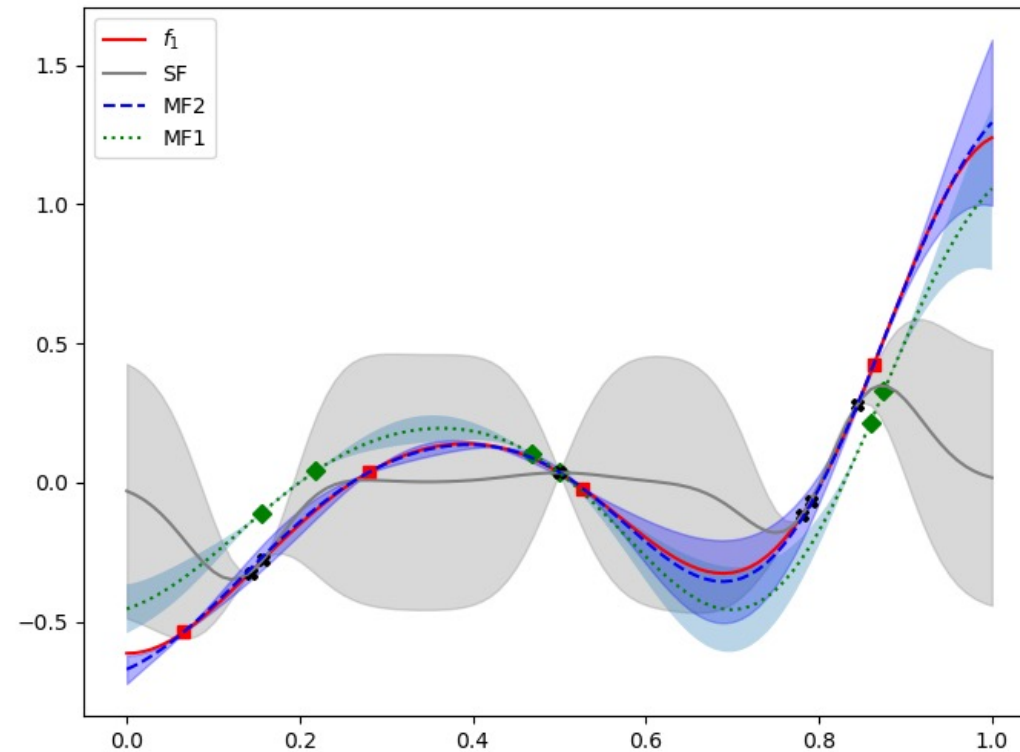
The relative cost of evaluating each model must also be accounted for. Two low-fidelity evaluations may be more cost effective at reducing variance in HF prediction

[L. Le Gratiet and J. Garnier Recursive co-kriging model for design of computer experiments with multiple levels of fidelity. International Journal for Uncertainty Quantification, 4\(5\), 365–386, 2014.](#)



# ML GP EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Assume cost of evaluating each model is  $W_1 = 1, W_2 = 3$



The ML-GP is much more accurate for the same amount of work

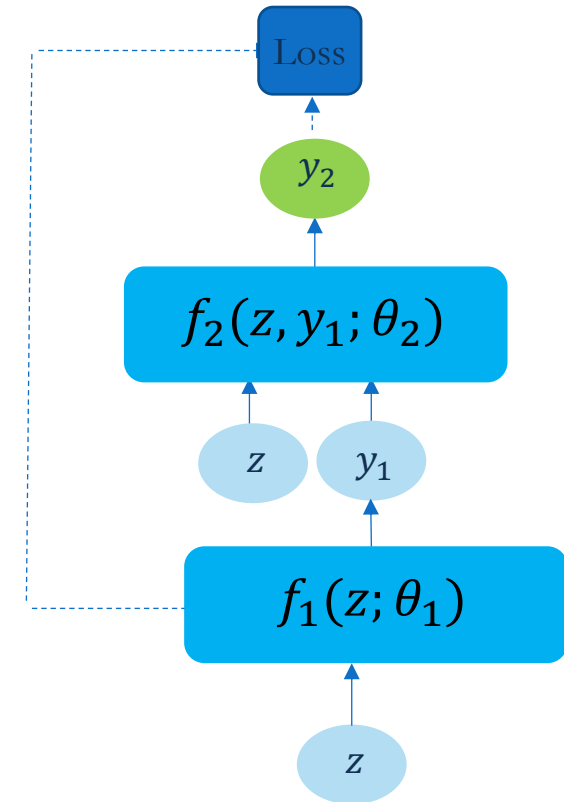
# NONLINEAR MULTI-FIDELITY SURROGATES

Multilevel GPs assume a linear relationship between models

$$f_m(z) = \rho_{m-1} f_{m-1}(z) + \delta_m(z)$$

However, a nonlinear model may more efficiently capture the relationship.

$$f_2(z) = g(f_1(z))$$

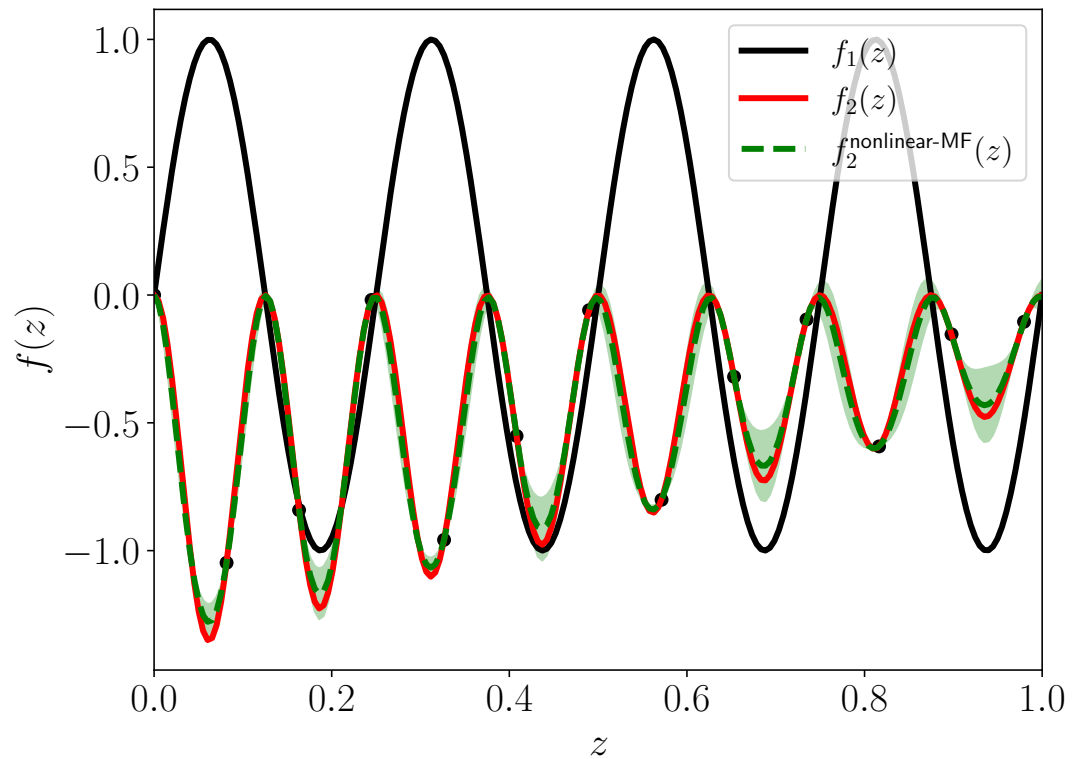
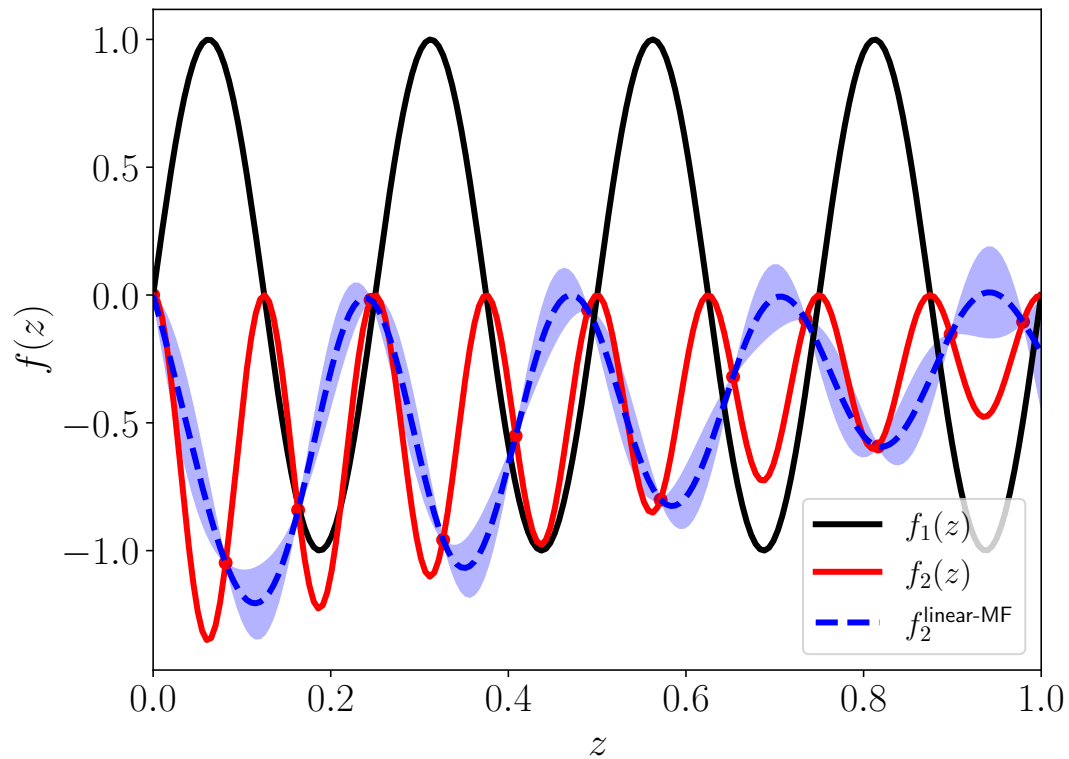


Deep Gaussian processes where  $g$  and  $f_1$  are both Gaussian process have been proposed

Using neural networks for  $g$  and  $f_1$  has also been proposed

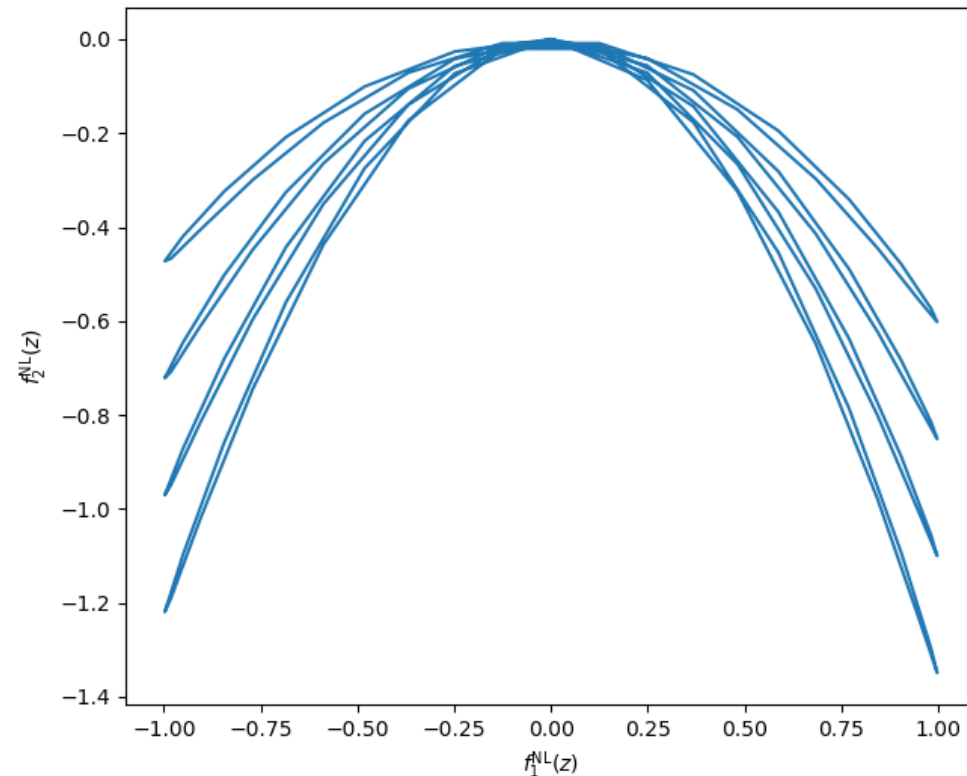
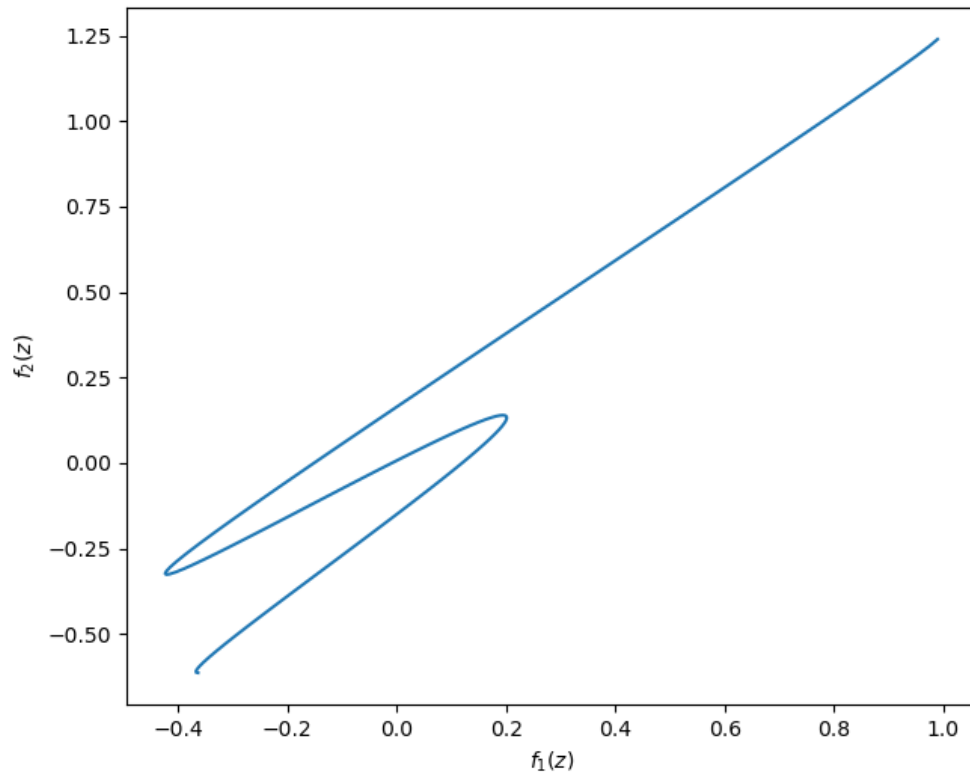
# MF DEEP GAUSSIAN PROCESSES

$$f_1(z) = \sin(8\pi z)$$
$$f_2(z) = (x - \sqrt{2})f_1(z)^2$$



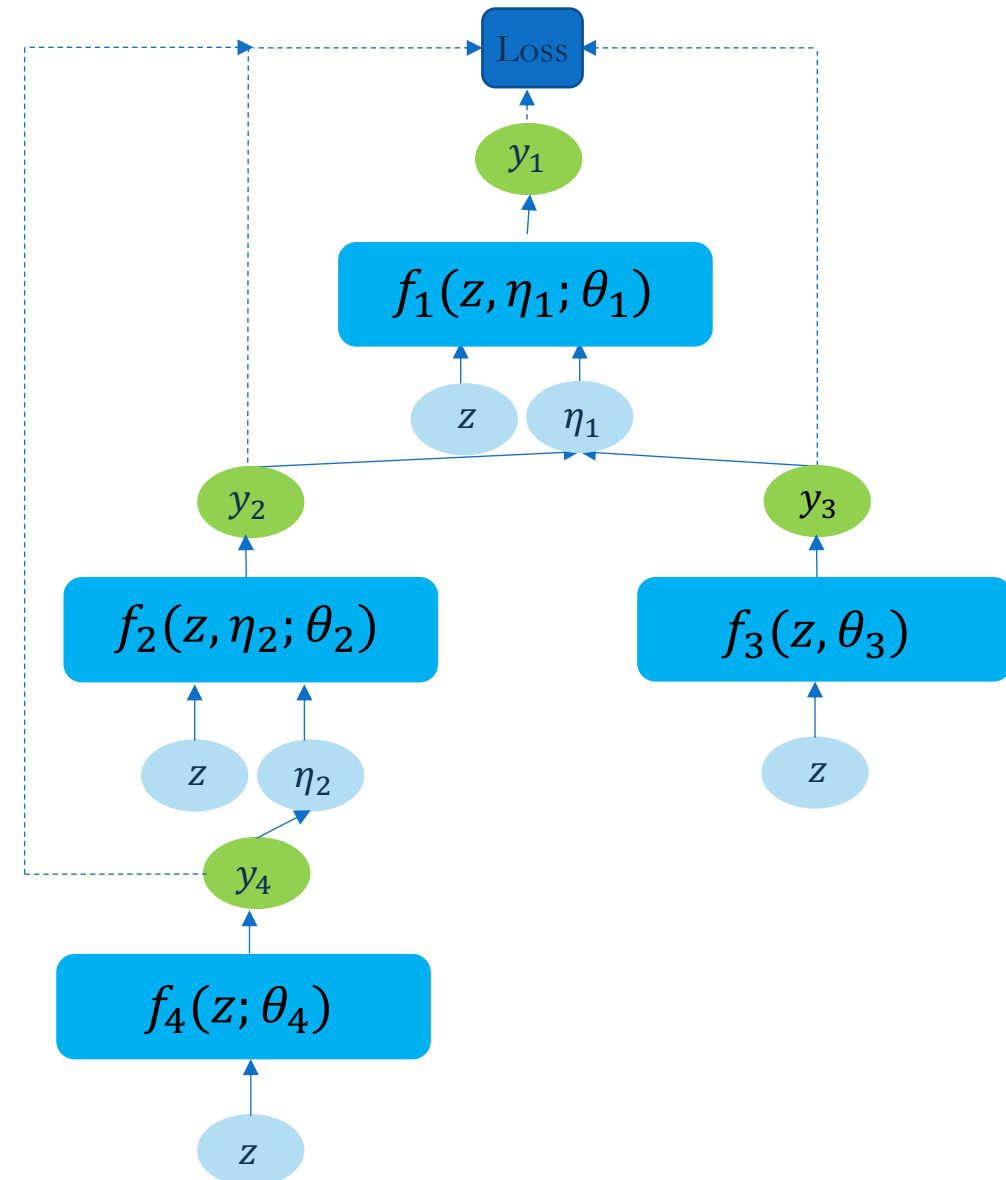
# MF DEEP GAUSSIAN PROCESSES

Linear MF GPs tend to perform worse than the non-linear MF GPs when the correlation between models is highly complicated



# NON-HIERARCHICAL SURROGATES

Often models do not admit a 1D hierarchy. In this case we can build multi-fidelity surrogates for models with relationships represented by directed acyclic graphs

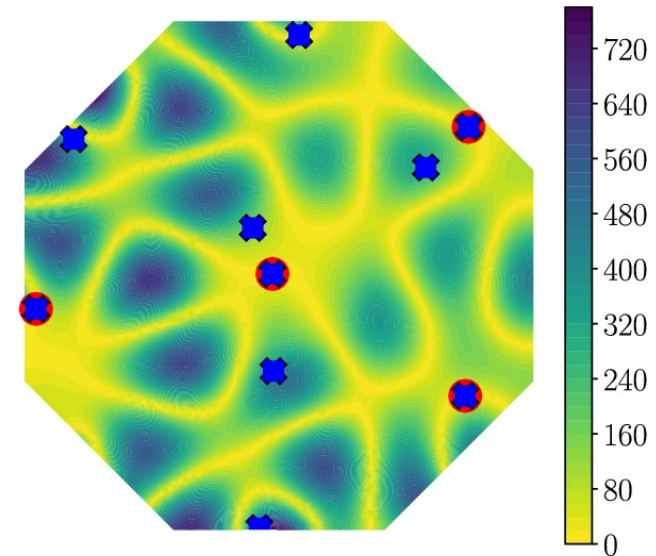
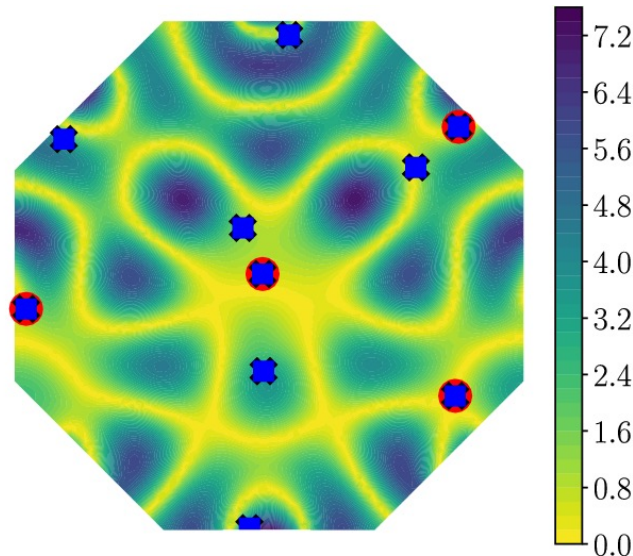
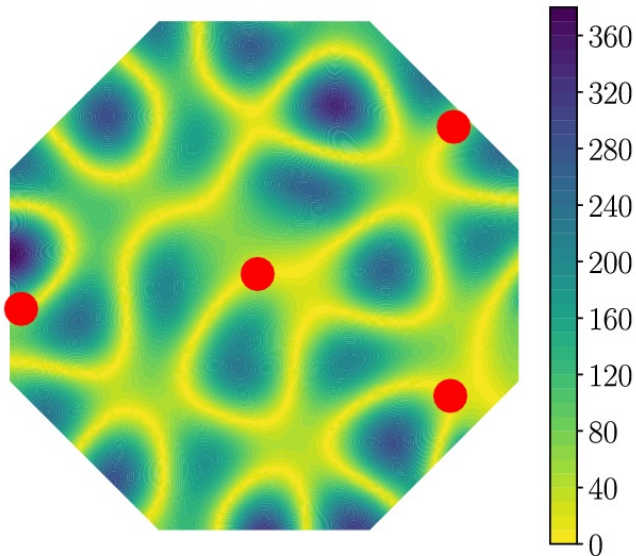
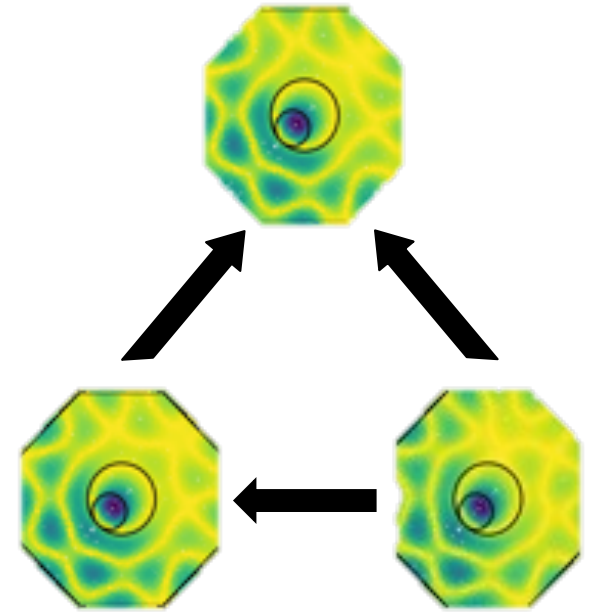




# DIRECT FIELD ACOUSTIC TESTING

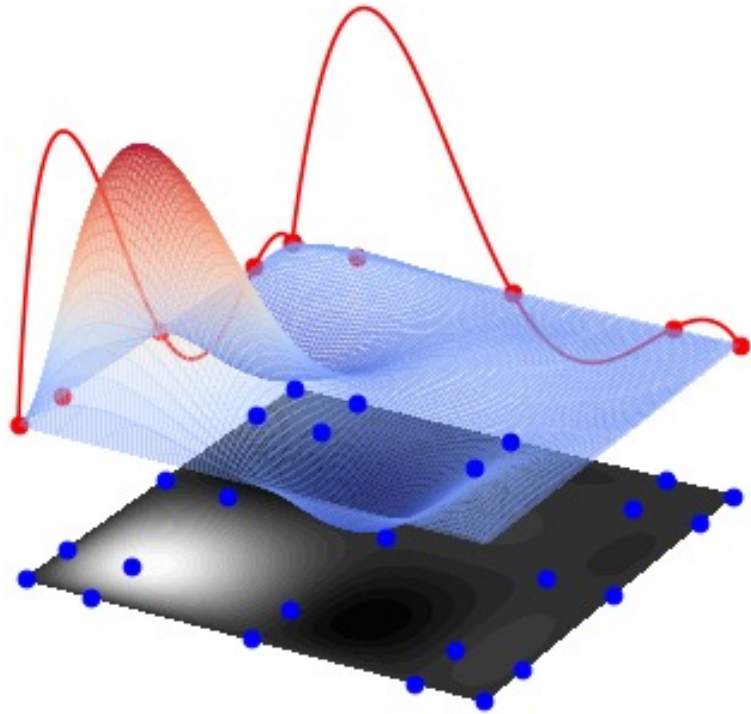
We can fuse multiple experiments that characterize performance of engineered structures under extreme vibration environments simulated using the Helmholtz equation

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta\phi(x) + \kappa^2\phi(x) &= 0, & x \in D \\ \frac{\partial\phi(x)}{\partial n} &= \rho_0\omega Z_i, & x \in \partial D\end{aligned}$$





# PYAPPROX



## REPOSITORY

<https://github.com/sandialabs/pyapprox/actions>

## DOCUMENTATION

<https://sandialabs.github.io/pyapprox/index.html>

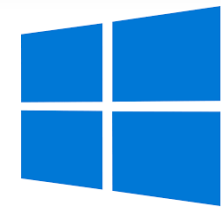
LICENSE MIT



**INSTALLATION** Installation of PyApprox and its dependencies managed by Pip or Pip+Anaconda

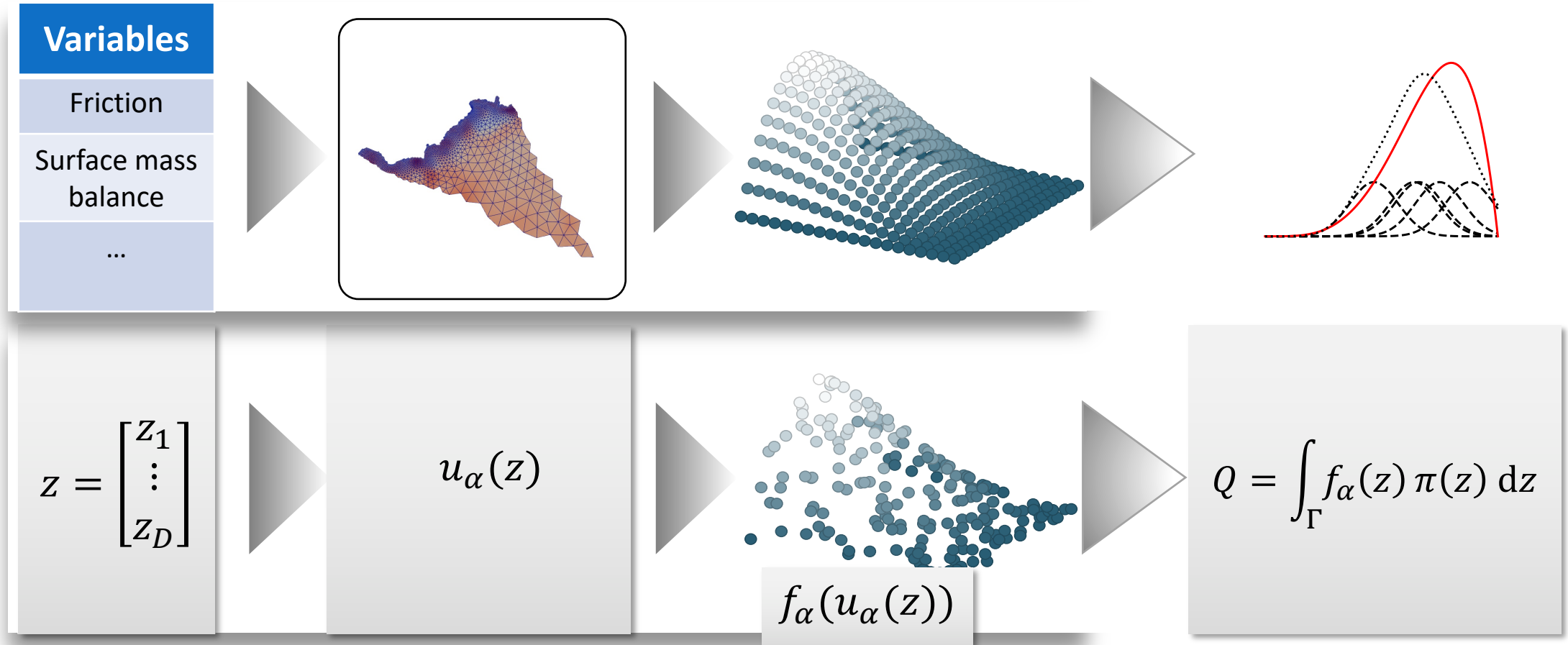


**TARGET PLATFORMS** PyApprox is currently built and tested on multiple platforms



**AUTOMATED TESTING:** Over 550 tests run on each commit to master

# FORWARD PROPAGATION OF UNCERTAINTY



Must compute statistics from limited number of samples (simulations)  
So build surrogate that can be used in place of the expensive model