

Periodicity oils the wheels  
– periodicity, Quasi-Monte Carlo,  
and uncertainty quantification

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This lecture takes a journey:

From **integration** of periodic functions on the unit cube  $[0, 1]^s$ .

to high-dimensional **approximation** in realistic applications

# Quasi-Monte Carlo integration

**Quasi Monte Carlo integration** (or QMC):

$$Q_{n,s}(f) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(\mathbf{t}_k) \approx \int_{[0,1]^s} f(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} =: I_s(f),$$

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with  $\mathbf{t}_1, \dots, \mathbf{t}_n \in [0, 1]^s$ , and cleverly chosen.

How to choose  $\mathbf{t}_1, \dots, \mathbf{t}_n$  in a QMC rule?

- ▶ Non-periodic case: *Low discrepancy points* (Koksma, Hlawka, Sobol, Faure, Niederreiter, Dick, ...). But not for this lecture.
- ▶ Periodic case:

# The number theorists and the periodic case

In the 1950s and 1960s **number theorists** ( Korobov, Zaremba, Hua, ...) considered multiple integration for continuous **periodic** functions on  $[0, 1]^s$  for  $s$  arbitrary (**but not necessarily large!**).

Periodic means

$$f(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_s) = f(y_1+1, y_2, \dots, y_s) = f(y_1, y_2+1, \dots, y_s) = \dots$$

# The periodic setting

Let  $f$  be a continuous periodic function on the unit  $s$ -cube with Fourier coefficients  $\widehat{f}(\mathbf{h}) = \widehat{f}(h_1, \dots, h_s)$  and absolutely convergent Fourier series

$$f(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{\mathbf{h} \in \mathbb{Z}^s} e^{i\mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{y}} \widehat{f}(\mathbf{h}),$$

where

$$\widehat{f}(\mathbf{h}) = \int_{[0,1]^s} f(\mathbf{y}) e^{-i\mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{y}} d\mathbf{y},$$

## A typical periodic theorem of the 1950s and 60s

Let  $E_s$  be the set of  $s$ -variate continuous and *periodic functions* on  $[0, 1]^s$  such that

$$|\widehat{f}(h_1, \dots, h_s)| \leq \frac{1}{(\overline{h}_1 \dots \overline{h}_s)^2}, \quad h_1, \dots, h_s \in \mathbb{Z},$$

where

$$\overline{h} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h = 0, \\ |h| & \text{if } h \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

**Theorem.** Assume  $n$  is prime. Then there exists  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}^s$  such that

$$\left| I_s(f) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(\left\{\frac{k\mathbf{z}}{n}\right\}\right) \right| \leq \frac{C_s}{n^2} \quad \forall f \in E_s,$$

with  $C_s$  independent of  $n$ .

(The braces tell us to take the *fractional part* of each component of the  $s$ -vector.)

That sum is a “Lattice Rule”

Lattice Rule (of rank 1)

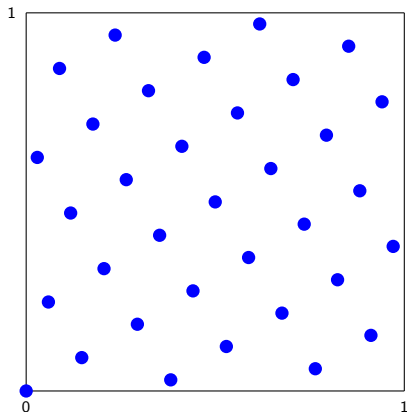
$$Q_{n,s}(f) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f \left( \left\{ k \frac{\mathbf{z}}{n} \right\} \right),$$

$$\mathbf{z} \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}^s$$



## Example of a (good) lattice rule

$$s = 2, \quad n = 34, \quad \mathbf{z} = (1, 21)$$



$$\mathbf{t}_k := \left\{ \left( \frac{k}{34}, \frac{21k}{34} \right) \right\}, \quad k = 1, \dots, 34$$

## Comments

- ▶  $n^{-2}$  is an excellent result for large  $s$ : Product Simpson's rule:  
 $n^{-2/s}$ : Monte Carlo:  $n^{-1/2}$ ; Koksma-Hlawka  $n^{-1}(\log n)^{(s-1)/2}$

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- ▶ Proof rests on  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \exp(2\pi i k \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{z}/n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{z} \equiv 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{z} \not\equiv 0 \end{cases}$

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- ▶ Functions in  $E_s$  are VERY smooth: their **mixed** 2nd derivatives have bounded (in  $\mathbf{h}$ ) Fourier coefficients.
- ▶ What about the “constant”  $\mathbf{C}_s$ ? The dependence on dimension was largely ignored in the early works.

# How big is $C_s$ ?

**Recall Theorem.** Assume  $n$  is prime and  $f \in E_s$ . Then there exists  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}^s$  such that

$$\left| I_s(f) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f \left( \left\{ \frac{k\mathbf{z}}{n} \right\} \right) \right| \leq \frac{C_s}{n^2} \quad \forall f \in E_s,$$

with  $C_s$  independent of  $n$ .

**Theorem** (IHS and H Woźniakowski, Math Comp 1997) For all  $\mathbf{z} \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}^s$

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Proof idea: If  $n < 2^s$  then for every  $\mathbf{z}$  there is an  $f \in E_s$  that vanishes at all cubature points.

# But the integration problem CAN be tractable!

It is convenient now to change to a **Hilbert space** setting.

In that setting it is now known that we need to introduce “weights”, to capture the fact that often **some variables are more important than others**.

## A periodic Hilbert space setting with weights

$$\|f\|_H := \left[ \sum_{\mathbf{h} \in \mathbb{Z}} \left( \prod_{j, h_j \neq 0} \frac{|h_j|^\alpha}{\gamma_j} \right) |\hat{f}(\mathbf{h})|^2 \right]^{1/2},$$

- ▶  $\alpha > 1$  is a smoothness parameter
- ▶  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_s$  are *weights*: the weight  $\gamma_j$  is small if the variable  $y_j$  is unimportant.

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WHY choose this particular function space? Because  $H$  is a **reproducing kernel Hilbert space** with a somewhat simple reproducing kernel! (coming later).

# Lifting the curse of dimensionality

**Theorem** (IHS and Woźniakowski 2001)

Assume  $n$  is prime. Then  $\exists \mathbf{z} \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}^s$  such that

$$\left| I_s(f) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(\left\{\frac{k\mathbf{z}}{n}\right\}\right) \right| \leq \frac{C_s}{\sqrt{n}} \|f\|_H \quad \forall f \in H,$$

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And if  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \gamma_j^{1/\alpha} < \infty$  then  $\exists \mathbf{z} \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}^s$  such that

$$\left| I_s(f) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(\left\{\frac{k\mathbf{z}}{n}\right\}\right) \right| \leq \frac{C_{s,\alpha}}{n^{\alpha/2}} \|f\|_H \quad \forall f \in H$$

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The proofs were again not constructive. But good (CBC) constructions of  $\mathbf{z}$  now exist.

## Another expression for the $H$ norm with general weights

With  $\alpha$  an even integer,  $H$  is an “unanchored” weighted Sobolev space of dominating mixed smoothness of order  $\alpha/2$ :

$$\|f\|_H^2 = \sum_{\mathbf{u} \subseteq \{1:s\}} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\alpha|\mathbf{u}|} \gamma_{\mathbf{u}}} \int_{[0,1]^{|\mathbf{u}|}} \left| \int_{[0,1]^{s-|\mathbf{u}|}} \left( \prod_{j \in \mathbf{u}} \frac{\partial^{\alpha/2}}{\partial y_j^{\alpha/2}} \right) f(\mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{u}}, \mathbf{y}_{-\mathbf{u}}) d\mathbf{y}_{-\mathbf{u}} \right|^2 d\mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{u}},$$

- ▶  $\gamma_{\mathbf{u}} > 0$  is a generalization of  $\prod_{j=1}^s \gamma_j$
- ▶  $\gamma_{\mathbf{u}}$  is associated with the subspace  $\mathbf{u}$  of  $\{1 : s\}$ ,
- ▶  $\mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{u}}$  denotes the components of  $\mathbf{y}$  that belong to the subset  $\mathbf{u}$ ,
- ▶  $\mathbf{y}_{-\mathbf{u}}$  denotes the components that do not belong to  $\mathbf{u}$ .



# From integration (easier) to approximation (harder):

For  $f \in H$ , how to **approximate**  $f(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_s) = f(\mathbf{y})$ , for **s** very large?

(Large **s**  $\implies$  'The curse of dimensionality'.)

$$f(\mathbf{y}) \approx f_n(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^n \dots f(\mathbf{t}_k),$$

We need these ingredients:

- ▶ A set  $\mathbf{t}_1, \dots, \mathbf{t}_n$  at which to compute the **n** function values.
- ▶ A finite-dimensional function space for the approximation.
- ▶ A way of constructing the approximating function  $f_n(\mathbf{y})$ .

Reference: [Kaarnioja](#), [Kazashi](#), [Kuo](#), [Nobile](#), [Sloan](#), Numer. Math. 2022.

There's a **lot** of interest in high-dimensional approximation.

Some buzz words:

- ▶ Polynomial chaos (Wiener)
- ▶ Generalized polynomial chaos
- ▶ Stochastic Galerkin,
- ▶ Stochastic collocation
- ▶ Sparse grid
- ▶ Monte Carlo
- ▶ Multilevel Monte Carlo
- ▶ Best  $N$ -term approximation
- ▶ Reduced order modelling
- ▶ Sparse approximation, other nonlinear methods
- ▶ Uncertainty quantification

## Our approximatuiou is linear, a **kernel** approximation

Given a function  $f$  and a set of points  $\mathbf{t}_1, \mathbf{t}_2, \dots, \mathbf{t}_n$  in  $[0, 1]^s$ , a **kernel approximation** based on the points  $\mathbf{t}_1, \mathbf{t}_2, \dots, \mathbf{t}_n$  takes the form

$$f_n(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k K(\mathbf{t}_k, \mathbf{y}), \quad \mathbf{y} \in [0, 1]^s.$$

$K(\cdot, \cdot)$  is a kernel if  $K(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}') = K(\mathbf{y}', \mathbf{y})$  and if  $K$  is positive definite, i.e. if

$$\sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{k'=1}^N b_k K(\mathbf{y}_k, \mathbf{y}_{k'}) b_{k'} \geq 0 \quad \forall \quad \mathbf{y}_k, b_k, N,$$

with equality only if  $b_k = 0$  for all  $k$ .

## Kernel interpolation

A kernel **interpolant** based on the points  $\mathbf{t}_1, \mathbf{t}_2, \dots, \mathbf{t}_n$  is given by

$$f_n(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k K(\mathbf{t}_k, \mathbf{y}), \quad \mathbf{y} \in [0, 1]^s,$$

together with

$$f_n(\mathbf{t}_k) = f(\mathbf{t}_k), \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, n.$$

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together with

$$f_n(\mathbf{t}_k) = f(\mathbf{t}_k), \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, n.$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^n K(\mathbf{t}_k, \mathbf{t}_{k'}) a_k = f(\mathbf{t}_{k'}), \quad k' = 1, \dots, n.$$

The matrix  $K(\mathbf{t}_k, \mathbf{t}_{k'})$  is typically dense. Solving the linear system (always possible) can be a major cost when  $n$  is large. But not for us.

## Good choices for $K$ and $\{\mathbf{t}_1, \dots, \mathbf{t}_s\}$

Advocated by Zeng, Leung, Hickernell 2004, and Zeng, Kritzer, Hickernell 2009.

We take  $K(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}')$  to be the "reproducing kernel" of  $H$ : i.e.

- ▶  $K(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}') = K(\mathbf{y}', \mathbf{y})$ ,
- ▶  $K(\cdot, \mathbf{y}) \in H \quad \forall \mathbf{y} \in H$ , and
- ▶  $\langle f, K(\cdot, \mathbf{y}) \rangle_H = f(\mathbf{y}) \quad \forall f \in H$ ;

and take the interpolation points to be lattice points:

$$\mathbf{t}_k = \left\{ \frac{k\mathbf{z}}{n} \right\}, \quad k = 1, \dots, n,$$

But how to choose  $\mathbf{z}$ ? Later!

## Here's our kernel

$$K(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}') = \sum_{\mathbf{u} \subseteq \{1:s\}} \gamma_{\mathbf{u}} \prod_{j \in \mathbf{u}} \eta_{\alpha}(y_j - y'_j),$$

where  $\eta_{\alpha}$  is a known periodic function of a single variable, given by

$$\eta_{\alpha}(y) = \sum_{h \neq 0} \frac{e^{2\pi i h y}}{|h|^{\alpha}},$$

and the  $\gamma_{\mathbf{u}}$  are our weights.

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For  $\alpha$  an even integer,  $\eta_{\alpha}$  is a simple piecewise polynomial:

$$\eta_{\alpha}(y) = \frac{(2\pi)^{\alpha}}{(-1)^{\alpha/2-1}\alpha!} B_{\alpha}(\{y\})$$

with

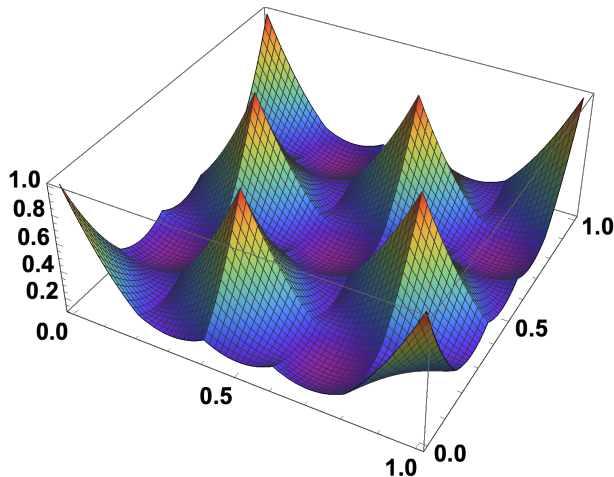
$$B_2(y) = y^2 - y + \frac{1}{6}, \quad B_4(y) = y^4 - 2y^3 + y^2 - \frac{1}{30}, \quad \dots$$



## What does a kernel interpolant look like?

Here's the kernel interpolant of the function  $f(y_1, y_2) = 1$ .

Here  $s = 2, n = 5$ .



Lattice points give a major simplification:

The matrix elements become

$$K(\mathbf{y}_k, \mathbf{y}_{k'}) = \kappa(\mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{y}_{k'}) = \kappa\left(\left\{\frac{(k - k')\mathbf{z}}{n}\right\}\right).$$

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So the interpolation matrix is a **circulant** matrix, making it easy to invert by FFT – needs only  $O(n \ln n)$  flops.

## But can we **compute** the kernel?

Computing the kernel is **not** feasible for general weights  $\gamma_{\mathbf{u}}$ : recall

$$\kappa(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}') = \sum_{\mathbf{u} \subseteq \{1:s\}} \gamma_{\mathbf{u}} \prod_{j \in \mathbf{u}} \eta_{\alpha}(y_j - y'_j).$$

There are  $2^s$  subsets of  $\{1, \dots, s\}$ !

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There are  $2^s$  subsets of  $\{1, \dots, s\}$ !

But for **product weights** the computation is easy:

Recall: product weights take the form

$$\gamma_{\mathbf{u}} = \prod_{j \in \mathbf{u}} \gamma_j.$$

$$\Rightarrow \kappa(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}') = \prod_{j \in \{1:s\}} (1 + \gamma_j \eta(y_j - y'_j)).$$

## With product weights the method is fast

For **product weights** the method can compute  $f_n(\mathbf{y})$  at  $m$  arbitrary points  $\mathbf{y}$  in a time of order

$$O\left( \underbrace{Tn}_{f(t_k)\forall k} + \underbrace{n\ln n}_{\text{lin. sys.}} + \underbrace{snm}_{\text{kernel evals.}} \right),$$

Here  $T$  is the time for a single function evaluation.

There is also an off-line cost of order  $O(sn\ln n)$  for computing  $\mathbf{z}$ .

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But how to choose  $\gamma_{\mathbf{u}}$ ? How to choose  $\mathbf{z}$ ?

It all starts with theoretical error bounds: the idea is to make choices of  $\gamma_{\mathbf{u}}$  and  $\mathbf{z}$  that give us good  $L_2$  error bounds:

**Defn.:** The **worst-case  $L_2$  error** for  $f \in H$  and an algorithm  $A$  for approximating  $f$  is

$$e(A, L_2, H) := \sup\{\|f - A(f)\|_{L_2} : f \in H, \quad \|f\|_H \leq 1\} \quad \text{for } f \in H.$$

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If  $A$  is linear this implies

$$\|f - A(f)\|_{L_2} \leq e(A, L_2, H) \times \|f\|_H.$$



## An upper bound on the wce

Recall  $\|f - A(f)\|_{L_2} \leq e(A, L_2, H) \times \|f\|_H.$

Let  $A^*$  denote our kernel interpolant algorithm.

Note that  $e(A^*, L_2, H)$  depends on both  $\gamma_{\mathbf{u}}$  and  $\mathbf{z}$ .

Step 1 is to find an easily computed upper bound on  $e(A^*, L_2, H)$  that uses the same function values.

Now  $A^*$  is known (see eg H Wendland *Scattered Data Approximation* CUP) to be 'best' among all algorithms  $A$  that use  $f(\mathbf{t}_1), \dots, f(\mathbf{t}_N)$  as the information, in the sense that

$$e(A^*, L_2, H) \leq e(A, L_2, H).$$

So for an upper bound we can use any other algorithm that uses the same information.

For bounding  $e(A^*, L_2, H)$  we use:

For upper bound we use a trigonometric polynomial algorithm  $A^\dagger$

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{y}) &= \sum_{\mathbf{h} \in \mathbb{Z}^s} \left( \int_{[0,1]^s} f(\mathbf{y}') e^{-2\pi i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{y}'} d\mathbf{y}' \right) e^{2\pi i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{y}} \\ &\approx \sum_{\mathbf{h} \in \mathcal{A}_n} \left( \int_{[0,1]^s} f(\mathbf{y}') e^{-2\pi i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{y}'} d\mathbf{y}' \right) e^{2\pi i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{y}} \\ &\approx \sum_{\mathbf{h} \in \mathcal{A}_n} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^N f\left(\left\{\frac{k\mathbf{z}}{n}\right\}\right) e^{-2\pi i k \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{z}/n} \right) e^{2\pi i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{y}} =: A^\dagger(f), \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathcal{A}_n := \{\mathbf{h} \in \mathbb{Z}^s : r(\mathbf{h}) \leq M\}$  for some  $M = M(n)$

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where  $\mathcal{A}_n := \{\mathbf{h} \in \mathbb{Z}^s : r(\mathbf{h}) \leq M\}$  for some  $M = M(n)$

$$\implies \|f - A^*(f)\|_{L_2} \leq e(A^*, L_2) \|f\|_H \leq e(A^\dagger, L_2) \|f\|_H,$$

Now use

**Theorem** (Cools, Kuo, Nuyens, IHS, Contemporary Math 2020 )

Assume  $n$  is prime. Given weights  $\gamma_{\mathbf{u}} > 0$ , for every  $\lambda \in (\frac{1}{\alpha}, 1]$ , there exists a choice of  $\mathbf{z} \in \{1 : s\}^s$  such that

$$e(A^\dagger, L_2, H) \leq \frac{\kappa}{n^{1/4\lambda}} \left( 1 + \sum_{\emptyset \neq \mathbf{u} \subseteq \{1:s\}} |\mathbf{u}| \gamma_{\mathbf{u}}^\lambda [2\zeta(\alpha\lambda)]^{|\mathbf{u}|} \right)^{1/2\lambda},$$

where  $\kappa = \dots$

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where  $\kappa = \dots$

**The proof is constructive!** The components  $z_1, z_2, \dots$  are constructed component by component (CBC). The proof is inductive: at each step it is shown that the best choice satisfies the bound for dimensions  $(1, 2, \dots, s)$ .

For this  $\mathbf{z}$  we have, for all  $\lambda \in (\frac{1}{\alpha}, 1]$

$$e(A^*, L_2, H) \leq \frac{\kappa}{n^{1/4\lambda}} \left( 1 + \sum_{\emptyset \neq \mathbf{u} \subseteq \{1:s\}} |\mathbf{u}| \gamma_{\mathbf{u}}^\lambda [2\zeta(\alpha\lambda)]^{|\mathbf{u}|} \right)^{1/2\lambda},$$

- ▶ To get the best convergence rate one might take  $\lambda = 1/\alpha$ , but then the constant becomes infinite. Take  $\lambda$  CLOSE to  $1/\alpha$ . Then rate is close to  $n^{-\alpha/4}$ .
- ▶ That rate is best possible, given that we use lattice points, (Byrenheid, Kämmerer, Ulrich and Volkmer, 2017).
- ▶ However, the optimal rate in the space  $H$  is  $n^{-\alpha/2}$ .

So now we have, with the  $\mathbf{z}$  constructed by CBC,

$$\|f - A^*(f)\|_{L_2} \leq \frac{\kappa}{n^{1/4\lambda}} \left( 1 + \sum_{\emptyset \neq \mathbf{u} \subseteq \{1:s\}} |\mathbf{u}| \gamma_{\mathbf{u}}^\lambda [2\zeta(\alpha\lambda)]^{|\mathbf{u}|} \right)^{1/2\lambda} \times \|f\|_H.$$

So now we have, with the  $\mathbf{z}$  constructed by CBC,

$$\|f - A^*(f)\|_{L_2} \leq \frac{\kappa}{n^{1/4\lambda}} \left( 1 + \sum_{\emptyset \neq \mathbf{u} \subseteq \{1:s\}} |\mathbf{u}| \gamma_{\mathbf{u}}^\lambda [2\zeta(\alpha\lambda)]^{|\mathbf{u}|} \right)^{1/2\lambda} \times \|f\|_H.$$

How now to choose the weights  $\gamma_{\mathbf{u}}$ ?

**That depends on the application, through  $\|f\|_H$ :**

In principle, **we seek weights that minimise the product.**



## Application: An elliptic PDE with random coefficient

A much-studied model PDE is:

$$\begin{aligned} -\nabla \cdot (a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \nabla u(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) &= g(\mathbf{x}) \quad \mathbf{x} \in D, \\ u(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) &= 0 \quad \text{on} \quad \partial D, \quad \mathbf{y} \in U := \left[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right]^{\mathbb{N}}, \end{aligned}$$

with  $D$  a bounded Lipschitz domain in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $d = 2, 3$ , and

$$a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \bar{a} + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} y_j \psi_j(\mathbf{x}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in D, \quad \mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots) \in U,$$

where  $y_1, y_2, \dots$  are parameters representing independent random variables uniformly distributed on  $[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$ .

And  $\bar{a}$  large enough to ensure strong ellipticity for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ .

## The same PDE with **periodic** random coefficient

$$-\nabla \cdot (a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \nabla u(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = g(\mathbf{x}) \quad \mathbf{x} \in D,$$

$$u(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 0 \quad \text{on} \quad \partial D, \quad \mathbf{y} \in U := \left[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right]^{\mathbb{N}},$$

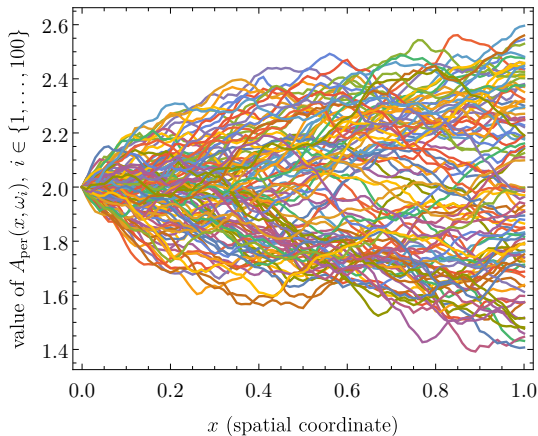
with  $D$  a bounded Lipschitz domain in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $d = 2, 3$ , and

$$a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \bar{a} + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \sin(2\pi y_j) \psi_j(\mathbf{x}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in D, \quad \mathbf{y} \in U,$$

where  $y_1, y_2, \dots$  are parameters representing independent random variables uniformly distributed on  $[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$ , or equivalently on  $[0, 1]$ .

The factor  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}$  ensures the (co)variance of  $a(\mathbf{x}, \cdot)$  is unchanged.  
See Kaarnioja, Kuo and IHS, SINUM 2020

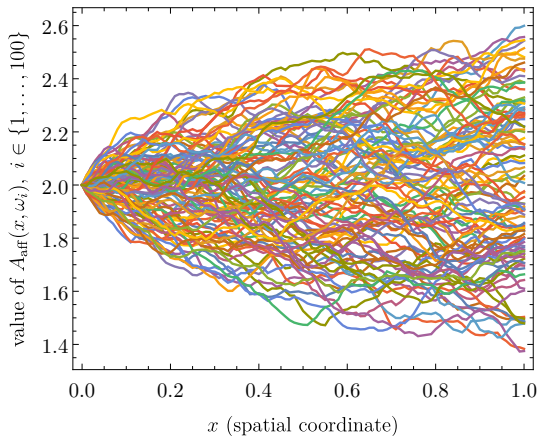
## 100 realisations of a univariate **periodic** random field



Here

$$a(x, \mathbf{y}) = 2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \sin(2\pi y_j) \psi_j(x), \quad \psi_j(x) = j^{-\frac{3}{2}} \sin\left((j - \frac{1}{2})\pi x\right).$$

## 100 realisations of a univariate **affine** random field



Here

$$a(x, \mathbf{y}) = 2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} y_j \psi_j(x), \quad \psi_j(x) = j^{-\frac{3}{2}} \sin \left( \left( j - \frac{1}{2} \right) \pi x \right).$$

Is it allowed to change the random field model?

**Generalized polynomial chaos (GPC) in any of its versions also changes the model!**

(GPC takes as the approximation, products of univariate orthogonal polynomials with chosen integrable weight functions.

The model [but not the approximation] is the same as ours if the weight function is Chebyshev of the first kind.)

Truncate to a finite number of dimensions:

$$-\nabla \cdot (a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \nabla u(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = g(\mathbf{x}) \quad \mathbf{x} \in D,$$

$$u(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 0 \quad \text{on} \quad \partial D, \quad \mathbf{y} \in U_s = [0, 1]^s,$$

with  $D$  a bounded Lipschitz domain in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $d = 2, 3$ , and

$$a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \bar{a} + \sum_{j=1}^s \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \sin(2\pi y_j) \psi_j(\mathbf{x}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in D, \quad \mathbf{y} \in U_s,$$

where  $y_1, y_2, \dots$  are parameters representing independent random variables uniformly distributed on  $[0, 1]$ .

Truncation introduces a manageable error, not discussed here.

## How to handle $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ dependence?

For  $\mathbf{x} \in D$ : use Finite Element Method. (Another manageable source of error, not discussed.)

For  $\mathbf{y} \in U_s = [0, 1]^s$ , use kernel interpolation, that is

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{y}) &:= f_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y}) := u(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in D, \mathbf{y} \in U_s \\ f_n(\mathbf{y}) &:= f_{\mathbf{x},n}(\mathbf{y}) := A^*(u(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})), \quad \mathbf{x} \in D, \mathbf{y} \in U_s, \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Error}_n := \left[ \int_D \int_{U_s} |f - f_n|^2 d\mathbf{y} d\mathbf{x} \right]^{1/2}.$$

## Weights $\gamma_{\mathbf{u}}$ ?

It can shown that

$$\|(\|f\|_{H(U_s)})\|_{L_2(D)} \leq \dots,$$

leading to weights  $\gamma_{\mathbf{u}} = \dots$  that give an error bound

$$\text{Error}_n \leq \frac{C(\lambda)}{n^{1/4\lambda}}, \quad \forall \lambda \in (1/\alpha, 1],$$

with  $C(\lambda)$  an explicit constant that is **independent of  $s$** .



## Numerical example

$$\begin{aligned} -\nabla \left( a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \nabla u(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \right) &= \mathbf{x}_2, \quad \mathbf{x} \in D, \mathbf{y} \in U, \\ u(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) &= 0, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \partial D, \mathbf{y} \in U, \end{aligned}$$

in the domain  $D = (0, 1)^2$ , with

$$a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) := \mathbf{1} + \sum_{j=1}^s \frac{\sin(2\pi y_j)}{\sqrt{6}} \psi_j(\mathbf{x}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in D, \mathbf{y} \in U,$$

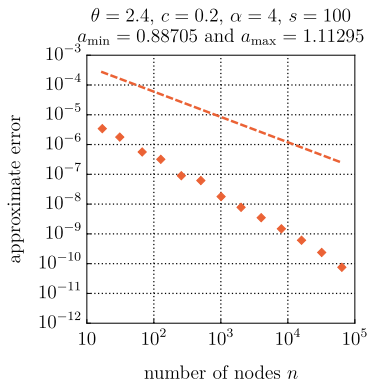
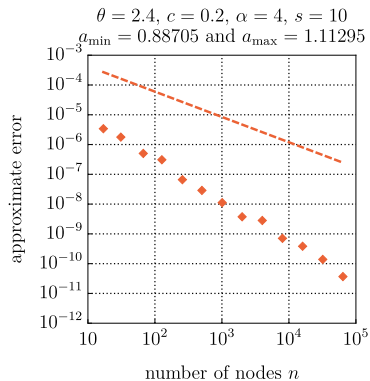
where

$$\psi_j(\mathbf{x}) = c j^{-\theta} \sin(j\pi x_1) \sin(j\pi x_2),$$

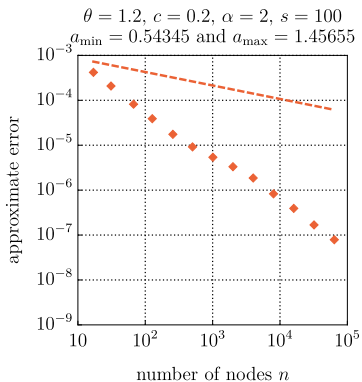
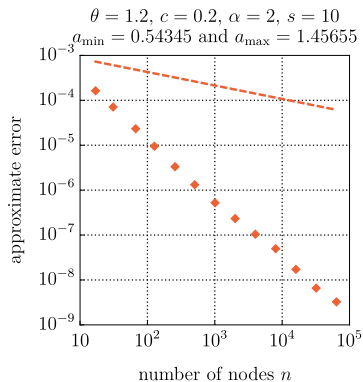
with  $\theta > 1$  and  $c > 0$  variable,  
and with  $s = 10$  or  $100$ .

V Kaarnioja, Y Kazashi, F Kuo, F Nobile, IHS, Numer. Math., Jan, '22

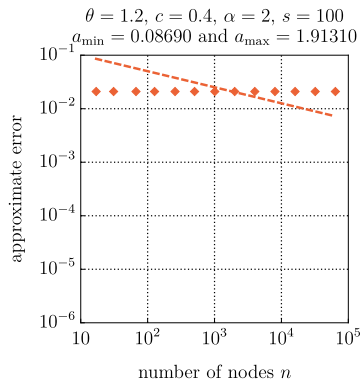
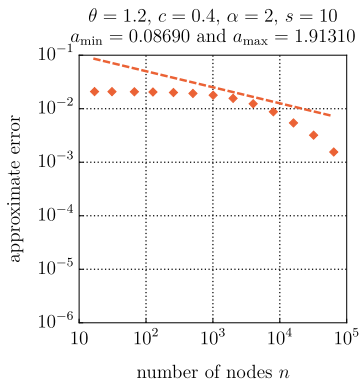
# Numerical results for $\theta = 2.4, c = 0.2, \alpha = 4$



# Numerical results for $\theta = 1.2, c = 0.2, \alpha = 2$



# Numerical results for $\theta = 1.2, c = 0.4, \alpha = 2$



But the weights used above were not product weights!

They were more complicated (“SPOD”) weights:

$$\gamma_{\mathbf{u}} := \sum_{\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{u}} \in \{1,2\}^{|\mathbf{u}|}} (|\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{u}}|!)^{17/11} \prod_{j \in \mathbf{u}} \left( \frac{(cj^{-2.4}/\sqrt{6})^{m_j}}{\sqrt{2e^{1/e}\zeta(20/17)}} \right)^{17/11}.$$

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For these weights the cost (Cools, Kuo, Nuyens, IHS 2019(2)) is

$$O(Tn + n \ln n + s^2 nm);$$

and the cost for computing  $\mathbf{z}$  is  $O(sn \ln n + s^3 n)$ .

Recall: product weights

$$O\left( \underbrace{Tn}_{f(t_k) \forall k} + \underbrace{n \ln n}_{\text{lin. sys.}} + \underbrace{snm}_{\text{kernel evals.}} \right),$$

and the cost for computing  $\mathbf{z}$  is  $O(sn \ln n)$ .

## Can we get good results with product weights?

YES WE CAN! We use **serendipitous weights**.

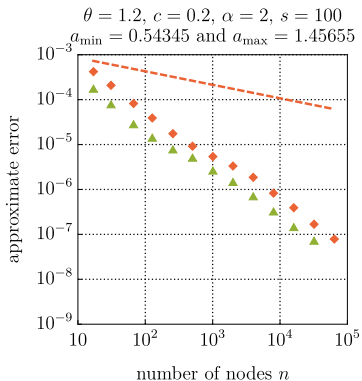
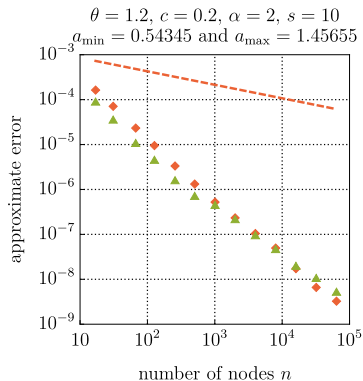
V Kaarnioja, F Kuo, IHS, in progress

[“Serendipity” – happy discovery by accident]

$$\gamma_{\mathbf{u}} := \sum_{\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{u}} \in \{1,2\}^{|\mathbf{u}|}} \underbrace{(|\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{u}}|!)^{17/11}}_{\text{OMIT!}} \prod_{j \in \mathbf{u}} \left( \frac{(cj^{-2.4}/\sqrt{6})^{m_j}}{\sqrt{2e^{1/e}\zeta(20/17)}} \right)^{17/11}.$$
$$\implies \gamma_{\mathbf{u}} = \prod_{j \in \mathbf{u}} \sum_{m_j=1}^2 \left( \frac{(cj^{-2.4}/\sqrt{6})^{m_j}}{\sqrt{2e^{1/e}\zeta(20/17)}} \right)^{17/11},$$

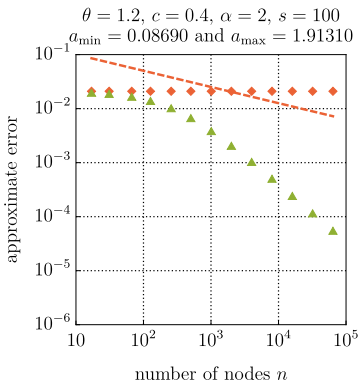
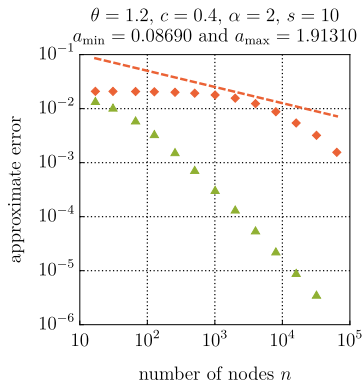
leading to the same error bound, but a different (bigger!) constant.

# Numerical results for $\theta = 1.2, c = 0.2, \alpha = 2$





# NUmerical results for $\theta = 1.2, c = 0.4, \alpha = 2$



# Summary

From **integration** of periodic functions on the unit cube  $[0, 1]^s$ .

to high-dimensional **approximation** in a realistic application

- ▶ Approximation can be both mathematically rigorous and feasible for large dimensionality and large number of points.
- ▶ The cost is merely linear in  $s$  IF we use **periodic random variables and serendipitous weights**.
- ▶ Serendipitous weights are seen to give excellent results even for **hard** high-dimensional problems – better than we presently understand.