Probabilistic Numerical Methods for Non-Linear Partial Differential Equations: Strong Form Solutions

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Introduction: What is a "Probabilistic Numerical Method"?

Roots in Diaconis [1988].

Recent interest in:

- Quadrature (Briol et al. [2015])
- Optimization (Snoek et al. [2012])
- ODEs and PDEs (Conrad et al. [2015], Schober et al. [2014])

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ProbNum attempts to give probabilistic answers to 'deterministic' problems.

Deterministic method \Rightarrow accurate solution.

- 1 Motivation
- 2 Linear Problems

Example: Canonical Elliptic PDE

3 Nonlinear Problems

Example: Steady-State Allen-Cahn Equation

4 Summary

Motivation

PDEs

We wish to solve problems of the form:

$$Au(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{x})$$
 $\mathbf{x} \in D$
 $Bu(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ $\mathbf{x} \in \partial D$

 \mathcal{A} , \mathcal{B} are differential operators. Think of this as a system of operator equations:

$$\mathcal{O}u := \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{A} \\ \mathcal{B} \end{bmatrix} u = \begin{bmatrix} g \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: Poisson's Equation with Dirichlet BCs

$$\mathcal{A}u := \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_2^2}$$
$$\mathcal{B}u := u$$

Why ProbNum?

Finite Element method constructs the solution over elements of a mesh.

"Gridding away" discretisation error is often computationally infeasible:

- Complex, high-dimensional domain.
- Complex, nonlinear, parabolic PDE.

Instead try to capture it.

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Instead try to capture it.

However... probabilistic approach may make already costly methods more costly. Why bother?

- Inverse Problems:
 - Incorporate covariance into likelihood.
 - Posterior distribution reflects numerical error.

Linear Problems

Linear PDEs: Theory I

$$Au(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{x})$$
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- A, B linear (for now). We build a Gaussian Process model for u.
- Prior: $u \sim GP(0, k)$ for some kernel k.

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- For subsets $X = \{x_i\}$, $Y = \{y_j\}$ of \bar{D} :

$$K(X,Y) = [k(x_i, y_j)]_{ij}$$
 $\mathcal{A}K(X,Y) = [\mathcal{A}k(x_i, y_j)]_{ij}$ etc.

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• $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$ denotes the adjoint of \mathcal{A} :

$$Ak(x, y)$$
 $\bar{A}k(x, y)$

Linear PDEs: Theory II

Choose design points $X_0 = X_0^{\mathcal{A}} \cup X_0^{\mathcal{B}}$ & observations $\mathbf{v} = \{v_i\}$...

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Posterior Measure for u

$$u(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{v} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$$

where:

$$\mu := \bar{\mathcal{O}}K(\mathbf{x}, X_0) \big[\mathcal{O}\bar{\mathcal{O}}K(X_0, X_0) \big]^{-1} \mathbf{v}$$

$$\Sigma := K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) - \bar{\mathcal{O}}K(\mathbf{x}, X_0) \big[\mathcal{O}\bar{\mathcal{O}}K(X_0, X_0) \big]^{-1} \mathcal{O}K(X_0, \mathbf{x})$$

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$$\mathcal{O}K(X_0, \mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{A}K(X_0^{\mathcal{A}}, \mathbf{x}) \\ \mathcal{B}K(X_0^{\mathcal{B}}, \mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}
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Canonical Elliptic PDE

Linear Example

$$\nabla \cdot \kappa(\mathbf{x}; \theta) \nabla u(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \qquad \text{in } [0, 1]^2$$

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = x_1 \qquad \text{at } x_2 = 0$$

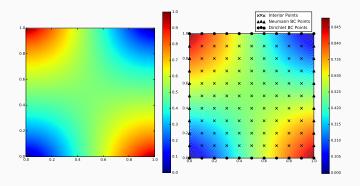
$$u(\mathbf{x}) = 1 - x_1 \qquad \text{at } x_2 = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1} = 0 \qquad \text{at } x_1 = 0, 1$$

Approximate κ with a truncated Karhunen-Loève expansion:

$$\kappa(\mathbf{x};\theta) = \exp\left(\sum_{k=1}^{6} \frac{\theta_k}{k^2} \cos(2\pi(s_k x_1 + r_k x_2))\right)$$

Canonical Elliptic PDE: Solution

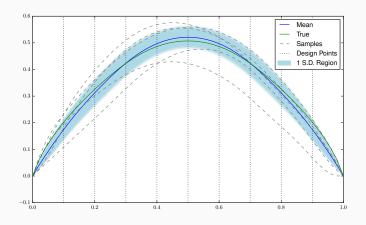


Left: Model solution (generated with FEM, 100×100 mesh).

Right: Mean function of PN solution, design points annotated.

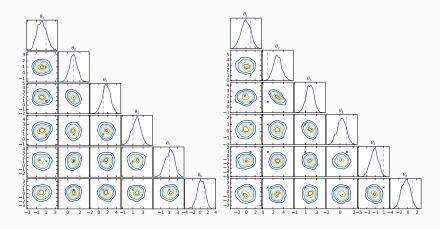
PN solution uses a squared exponential kernel: $k = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x-y\|_2^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$

Forward Sample Paths



Samples drawn from posterior on a 10×10 grid, along $x_1 = x_2$.

Inverse Problem



Posterior distributions of coefficients of κ , using the PN forward model (left) vs. FEM (right)

Dashed lines / black crosses reflect the true values.

Nonlinear Problems

Nonlinear Case: Theory I

$$Au(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{x})$$
 $\mathbf{x} \in D$
 $Bu(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ $\mathbf{x} \in \partial D$

- ullet $\mathcal A$ and/or $\mathcal B$ nonlinear. No more nice closed form posterior!
- Think about a class of PDEs which decompose as:

$$(\mathcal{L} + \mathcal{A}) u = g$$

 \mathcal{L} linear, \mathcal{A} invertible.

Nonlinear Case: Theory II

- Introduce a 'dummy variable' z
- Construct a new system:

$$\mathcal{L}u = (g - z)$$
$$u = \mathcal{A}^{-1}z$$
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- Integrate out z:
 - Generate an approximate solution \hat{u} (eg. using FEM on a coarse mesh)
 - Guess $z = A\hat{u}$.
 - Place an importance distribution over z.
- Exact likelihood becomes approximate.

Steady-State Allen-Cahn Equation

$$-\delta \nabla^2 u + \delta^{-1}(u^3 - u) = 0 \qquad (x, y) \in (0, 1)^2$$

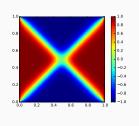
$$u = 1 \qquad x = 0, x = 1, y \in (0, 1)$$

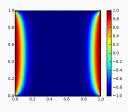
$$u = -1 \qquad y = 0, y = 1$$

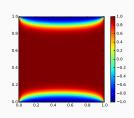
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Three solutions!







Inverse Problem

We want to infer δ .

Multiple solutions makes the inverse problem very hard!

However...in the PN setting we can place a mixture distribution over z.

Inverse Problem

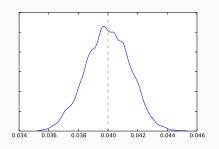
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Right: Inference of δ using PN.

- Prior: $\delta \sim U(0.02, 1)$.
- Deflation [Farrell et al., 2014] used to generate the multiple \hat{u} at each δ .



Summary

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- With PN we can capture and propagate uncertainty from numerical error.
- This helps us to make sound inferences!
- Many sampling challenges with nonlinear problems.

Next Steps

Lots still to be done...

- Computation very expensive compared to FEM
- Development needed on the weak form [Conrad et al., 2015].
- Optimal choices of kernel / RKHS [Owhadi, 2014].
- Experimental design how should we place X₀ to minimise posterior uncertainty?
- Applications to physical problems of interest.

Thanks!

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