Optimal Uncertainty Quantification for Hypervelocity Impact

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Joint work with everyone (!) at the Caltech PSAAP Center, but in particular the core UQ team of Paul-Hervé Kamga, Michael McKerns, Lan Huong Nguyen, Michael Ortiz, Houman Owhadi and Clint Scovel.

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Prototypical UQ Problem: Reliability Certification

- $g^{\dagger} : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y}$ is a system of interest, with random inputs X distributed according to a probability measure μ^{\dagger} on \mathbb{X} .
- For some subset $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathbb{Y}$, the event $[g^{\dagger}(X) \in \mathcal{F}]$ constitutes failure; we want to know the probability of failure

$$\mathbb{P}_{\mu^{\dagger}}[g^{\dagger}(X) \in \mathcal{F}] \equiv \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mu^{\dagger}}\left[\mathbb{1}\left[g^{\dagger}(X) \in \mathcal{F}\right]\right]}_{\substack{\text{``just'' an integral}\\\text{to be evaluated}\\-- \text{directly?}\\-- \text{by MC?}\\-- \text{by quadrature?}},$$

or at least to know that it is acceptably small (or unacceptably large!).

• **Problem:** In practical applications, one does not know the Universe's g^{\dagger} and μ^{\dagger} exactly!

Other Quantities of Interest

 For some quantity of interest (measurable function) q: X × Y → R, we want to know



or at least to know that it is acceptably small (or unacceptably large!).

- For example:
 - failure probability: $q(x, y) = \mathbb{1}[y \in \mathcal{F}]$,
 - mean performance: q(x, y) = y,
 - variance about a nominal output value: $q(x, y) = |y y_0|^2$.
- Our interest lies in understanding $\mathbb{E}_{\mu^{\dagger}}[q(X, g^{\dagger}(X))]$ when g^{\dagger} and μ^{\dagger} are only imperfectly known (i.e. epistemic uncertainty), and to obtain bounds that are optimal with respect to the known information.

The Optimal UQ Framework

- General Idea
- Reduction Theorems

Example Applications

- Optimal Concentration Inequalities
- Legacy Data and No Model
- Legacy Data and a Model
- Seismic Safety Certification

Closing Remarks

• Conclusions and References





General Idea

Reduction Theorems

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Optimal UQ

• The initial step in the Optimal Uncertainty Quantification approach is

• The initial step in the Optimal Uncertainty Quantification approach is specifying a feasible set of admissible scenarios (g, μ) that could be $(g^{\dagger}, \mu^{\dagger})$ according to the available information:

$$\mathcal{A} = \left\{ \left. (g, \mu)
ight| egin{array}{c} (g, \mu) \ ext{ information about } (g^{\dagger}, \mu^{\dagger}) \ ext{ (e.g. legacy data, models, theory, expert judgement)} \end{array}
ight.$$

- A priori, all we know about reality is that $(g^{\dagger}, \mu^{\dagger}) \in \mathcal{A}$; we have no idea exactly which (g, μ) in \mathcal{A} is actually $(g^{\dagger}, \mu^{\dagger})$.
 - ▶ No $(g, \mu) \in \mathcal{A}$ is "more likely" or "less likely" to be $(g^{\dagger}, \mu^{\dagger})$.
 - Particularly in high-consequence settings, it makes sense to adopt a posture of healthy conservatism and determine the best and worst outcomes consistent with the information encoded in A.
- Dialogue between UQ practitioners and the domain experts is essential in formulating and revising A.

Optimal UQ

 $\mathcal{A} = \left\{ (g, \mu) \middle| \begin{array}{c} (g, \mu) \text{ is consistent with the current} \\ \text{information about (i.e. could be) } (g^{\dagger}, \mu^{\dagger}) \end{array} \right\}$

Optimal bounds (w.r.t. the information encoded in A) on the quantity of interest E_{μ[†]}[q(X, g[†](X))] are found by minimizing/maximizing E_μ[q(X, g(X))] over all admissible scenarios (g, μ) ∈ A:

 $\underline{Q}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \mathbb{E}_{\mu^\dagger}[q(X,g^\dagger(X))] \leq \overline{Q}(\mathcal{A}),$

where $\underline{Q}(\mathcal{A})$ and $\overline{Q}(\mathcal{A})$ are defined by the optimization problems

$$\underline{Q}(\mathcal{A}) := \inf_{(g,\mu)\in\mathcal{A}} \mathbb{E}_{\mu}[q(X,g(X))],$$

$$\overline{Q}(\mathcal{A}) := \sup_{(g,\mu)\in\mathcal{A}} \mathbb{E}_{\mu}[q(X,g(X))].$$

• Cf. generalized Chebyshev inequalities in decision analysis (**Smith** (1995)), imprecise probability (**Boole** (1854)), distributionally robust optimization, robust Bayesian inference (surv. **Berger** (1984)).



• Reduction Theorems

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The Optimal UQ Framework Reduction Theorems Reduction of OUQ Problems — LP Analogy

Dimensional Reduction

- A priori, OUQ problems are infinite-dimensional, non-convex*, highly-constrained, global optimization problems.
- However, they can be reduced to equivalent finite-dimensional problems in which the optimization is over the extremal scenarios of A.
- The dimension of the reduced problem is proportional to the number of probabilistic inequalities that describe A.



Figure : A linear functional on a convex domain in \mathbb{R}^n finds its extreme value at the extremal points of the domain; similarly, OUQ problems reduce to searches over finite-dimensional families of extremal scenarios.

*But see e.g. Bertsimas & Popescu (2005) and Smith (1995) for convex special cases.

Reduction of OUQ Problems — Heuristic

Heuristic

If you have N_k pieces of information relevant to the random variable X_k , then just pretend that X_k takes at most $N_k + 1$ values in X_k .

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- To make this heuristic rigorous, we restrict attention to Radon spaces, "nice" spaces on which every Borel probability measure is inner regular.
- Our theorem builds on now-classical results by von Weizsäcker & Winkler (1980) and Winkler (1988) characterizing the extremal measures in moment classes, and "nice" linear/affine functionals on such classes.
- Important point: the extremal measures of a moment class

$$\left\{\mu \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{X}) \, \middle| \, \mathbb{E}_{\mu}[\varphi_1] \leq 0, \dots, \mathbb{E}_{\mu}[\varphi_n] \leq n \right\}$$

are the discrete measures that have support on at most n + 1 distinct points of X, which we denote by $\Delta_n(X)$.

Reduction of OUQ Problems — Theorem

Heuristic

If you have N_k pieces of information relevant to the random variable X_k , then just pretend that X_k takes at most $N_k + 1$ values in X_k .

Theorem (Generalized moment and indep. constraints) Suppose that $X := X_1 \times \cdots \times X_K$ is a product of Radon spaces. Let

$$\mathcal{A} := \left\{ \left(g, \mu\right) \middle| \begin{array}{l} g: \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R} \text{ is measurable, } \mu = \mu_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes \mu_K \in \bigotimes_{k=1}^K \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{X}_k); \\ \langle \text{ conditions on } g \text{ alone} \rangle; \text{ and, for each } g, \\ \text{for some measurable functions } \varphi_i : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R} \text{ and } \varphi_i^{(k)} : \mathbb{X}_k \to \mathbb{R}, \\ \mathbb{E}_{\mu}[\varphi_i] \leq 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n_0, \\ \mathbb{E}_{\mu_k}[\varphi_i^{(k)}] \leq 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n_k \text{ and } k = 1, \dots, K \\ \mathcal{A}_{\Delta} := \left\{ (g, \mu) \in \mathcal{A} \middle| \begin{array}{c} \mu_k \in \Delta_{N_k}(\mathbb{X}_k) \\ \text{where } N_k := n_0 + n_k \end{array} \right\} \subseteq \mathcal{A}. \\ \text{Then} \qquad \underline{Q}(\mathcal{A}) = \underline{Q}(\mathcal{A}_{\Delta}) \text{ and } \overline{Q}(\mathcal{A}) = \overline{Q}(\mathcal{A}_{\Delta}). \end{array}$$

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Reduction of OUQ Problems - Consequence

Heuristic

If you have N_k pieces of information relevant to the random variable X_k , then just pretend that X_k takes at most $N_k + 1$ values in X_k .

- Computation of the OUQ bounds $\underline{Q}(A)$ and $\overline{Q}(A)$ is equivalent to finite-dimensional problems in which the optimization variables are
 - the positions of the support points $x_i \in X$ of the discrete measure μ ;
 - the weights $w_i \in [0, 1]$ of the points x_i ; and
 - the response values $y_i \in \mathbb{Y}$ corresponding to $g(x_i)$.

with objective function

$$\sum_{i=(0,...,0)}^{(N_1,...,N_K)} w_i q(x_i, y_i)$$

and similar finite sums for the constraints.

 Implementation in the general-purpose open-source Mystic optimization framework, written in Python.

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Optimal Concentration Inequalities

Classical inequalities of probability theory can be seen as OUQ statements:

Example: Markov's Inequality in OUQ Form

$$\mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{M}} := \{\mu \in \mathcal{P}([0,\infty)) \, | \, \mathbb{E}_{\mu}[X] \leq m\}$$

Suppose 'failure' is $X \ge t$, for $t \ge m$. Then

$$\overline{P}(\mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{M}}) = \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{M}}} \mathbb{P}_{\mu}[X \ge t]$$
$$= \sup \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{1} w_i \mathbb{1}[x_i \ge t] \middle| w_i, x_i \ge 0, \sum_{i=0}^{1} w_i = 1, \sum_{i=0}^{1} w_i x_i \le m \right\}$$
$$= 1 - \frac{m}{t}.$$

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Suppose 'failure' is $X \ge t$, for $t \ge m$. Then

$$\overline{P}(\mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{M}}) = \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{M}}} \mathbb{P}_{\mu}[X \geq t] = 1 - rac{m}{t}.$$

How about other deviation/concentration-of-measure inequalities?

- McDiarmid's inequality: deviations from the mean of bounded-differences functions of independent random variables.
- Hoeffding's inequality: deviations from the mean of sums of independent random variables.

McDiarmid's (a.k.a. Bounded Differences) Inequality

$$\mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{McD}} := \begin{cases} g: \mathbb{X} := \mathbb{X}_1 \times \cdots \times \mathbb{X}_K \to \mathbb{R}, \\ \mu = \bigotimes_{k=1}^K \mu_k, \text{ (i.e. } X_1, \dots, X_K \text{ independent)} \\ \mathbb{E}_{\mu}[g(X)] \ge m \ge 0, \\ \operatorname{osc}_k(g) \le D_k \text{ for each } k \in \{1, \dots, K\} \end{cases}$$

with componentwise oscillations/global sensitivities defined by

$$\operatorname{osc}_k(g) := \sup \left\{ |g(x) - g(x')| \left| egin{array}{c} x, x' \in \mathbb{X}_1 imes \cdots imes \mathbb{X}_K, \ x_i = x'_i ext{ for } i
eq k \end{array}
ight\}$$

Theorem (McDiarmid's Inequality, 1988)

$$\overline{P}(\mathcal{A}_{McD}) := \sup_{(g,\mu) \in \mathcal{A}_{McD}} \mathbb{P}_{\mu}[g(X) \le 0] \stackrel{!!!}{\le} \exp\left(-\frac{2m^2}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} D_k^2}\right)$$

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Optimal McDiarmid and Screening Effects

Theorem (Optimal McDiarmid for K = 1, 2**)** For K = 1. $\overline{P}(\mathcal{A}_{McD}) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } D_1 \leq m, \\ 1 - \frac{m}{D}, & \text{if } 0 \leq m \leq D_1. \end{cases}$ For K = 2. $\overline{P}(\mathcal{A}_{McD}) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } D_1 + D_2 \le m, \\ \frac{(D_1 + D_2 - m)^2}{4D_1D_2}, & \text{if } |D_1 - D_2| \le m \le D_1 + D_2, \\ 1 - \frac{m}{\max\{D_1, D_2\}}, & \text{if } 0 \le m \le |D_1 - D_2|. \end{cases}$

In the highlighted case, $\min\{D_1, D_2\}$ carries no information — not in the sense of 0 bits, but the sense of being a non-binding constraint.

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Optimal Hoeffding and the Effects of Nonlinearity

 Similarly, one can consider A_{Hfd} "⊆" A_{McD} corresponding to the assumptions of Hoeffding's inequality, which bounds deviation probabilities of sums of independent bounded random variables:

$$\mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{Hfd}} := \begin{cases} (g, \mu) & g \colon \mathbb{R}^K \to \mathbb{R} \text{ given by} \\ g(x_1, \dots, x_K) \coloneqq x_1 + \dots + x_K, \\ \mu = \mu_1 \otimes \dots \otimes \mu_K \text{ supported on a cuboid of} \\ \text{side lengths } D_1, \dots, D_K, \text{ and } \mathbb{E}_{\mu}[g(X)] \ge m \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

• Hoeffding's inequality is the bound

$$\overline{P}(\mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{Hfd}}) := \sup_{(g,\mu)\in\mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{Hfd}}} \mathbb{P}_{\mu}[g(X) \leq 0] \leq \exp\left(-rac{2m^2}{\sum_{k=1}^K D_k^2}
ight).$$

• Interestingly, $\overline{P}(A_{Hfd}) = \overline{P}(A_{McD})$ for K = 1 and K = 2, but $\overline{P}(A_{Hfd}) \leq \overline{P}(A_{McD})$ for K = 3, and the inequality can be strict. Thus, sometimes linearity is binding information, sometimes not.

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OUQ with Legacy Data

• An interesting class of admissible function-measure pairs arises in the case of partially observed smooth enough functions, e.g.

$$\mathcal{A} = \begin{cases} (g, \mu) & g \colon \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{Y} \text{ has prescribed smoothness,} \\ g = g^{\dagger} \text{ on } \mathcal{O} \subseteq \mathbb{X} \text{ (i.e. some legacy data),} \\ \mu \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{X}), \mathbb{E}_{\mu}[\varphi_i] \leq 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

- Note that O need not be statistically representative.
- Simple examples of "smooth enough": Lipschitz constants or Hölder conditions.
- Mathematically interesting interactions between the measure-theoretic constraints and the metric geometry of the space X, e.g. the fact that any parially-defined Lipschitz function can be extended to the whole space without changing the Lipschitz constant (McShane (1934)).

Example Reduction: 1 Random Variable, 1 Constraint

The original problem entails optimizing over an infinite-dimensional collection of (g, μ) that could be $(g^{\dagger}, \mu^{\dagger})$. In the reduced problem, we only have to move around and re-weight two Dirac measures (point masses) and the values of g over those two points.

infinite-dimensional problem \rightsquigarrow equivalent 5-dimensional problem!



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Example Applications Legacy Data and No Model Explicit Solution: 1 Random Variable, 1 Data Point

- The case of a single observation in 1d can be solved explicitly.
- Suppose that you have one observation (z, g[†](z)) ∈ [0, ¹/₂] × ℝ of a function g[†]: [0, 1] → ℝ with Lipschitz constant L ≥ 0.
- Explicit piecewise and discontinuous least upper bound on $\mathbb{P}_{\mu^{\dagger}}[g^{\dagger}(X) \leq 0]$ given L, $(z, g^{\dagger}(z))$, and that $\mathbb{E}_{\mu^{\dagger}}[g^{\dagger}(X)] \geq m$:



Figure : Surface plot of the least upper bound \overline{P} on $\mathbb{P}_{\mu^{\dagger}}[g^{\dagger}(X) \leq 0]$, as a function of the observed data point $(z, g^{\dagger}(z))$.

Caltech's Hypervelocity Impact Setup



Figure : Caltech's Small Particle Hypervelocity Impact Range (SPHIR): a twostage light gas gun that launches 1–50 mg projectiles at speeds of 2–10 km \cdot s⁻¹.

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Optimal UQ for Hypervelocity Impact

Caltech's Hypervelocity Impact Setup



Figure : Caltech's Small Particle Hypervelocity Impact Range (SPHIR): a twostage light gas gun that launches 1–50 mg projectiles at speeds of 2–10 km \cdot s⁻¹.

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Optimal UQ for Hypervelocity Impact

3-Variable Hypervelocity Impact Example

• Legacy data = 32 data points (steel-on-aluminium shots A48–A81, less two mis-fires) from summer 2010 at Caltech's SPHIR facility:

 $X = (h, \alpha, v) \in \mathbb{X} := [0.062, 0.125] \text{ in } \times [0, 30] \deg \times [2300, 3200] \text{ m/s}.$

Output $g^{\dagger}(h, \alpha, v) =$ the induced perforation area in mm²; the data set contains results between 6.31 mm² and 15.36 mm².

- Failure event is $[g^{\dagger}(h, \alpha, v) \leq \theta]$, for various values of θ .
- Constrain the mean perf. area: $\mathbb{E}_{\mu^{\dagger}}[g^{\dagger}(h, \alpha, v)] \ge m := 11.0 \text{ mm}^2$.
- Modified Lipschitz constraint (multi-valued data):

$$L = \left(\frac{175.0}{\text{in}}, \frac{0.075}{\text{deg}}, \frac{0.1}{\text{m/s}}\right) \text{mm}^2$$
$$|y - y'| \le \sum_{k=1}^{3} L_k |x_k - x'_k| + 1.0 \text{ mm}^2$$

.

Example Applications Legacy Data and No Model

3-Parameter Hypervelocity Impact Example: Results



Figure : Maximum probability that perforation area is $\leq \theta$, for various θ , with the data and assumptions of the previous slide, including mean perforation area $\mathbb{E}[g^{\dagger}(h, \alpha, v)] \geq 11.0 \text{ mm}^2$. For $\theta \geq 2 \text{ mm}^2$, the results are within 10^{-6} of Markov's bound, which indicates that 2 binding data points are those that constrain the maximum of the response function; the other 30 are non-binding.

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Models and Neighbourhoods

- One can consider feasible sets in which the constraints on g are of the form d(g, F) ≤ C for some model function F.
- There are good and bad choices for the distance function *d*:



Figure : Assuming that reality g^{\dagger} is uniformly close to the model F means assuming that the model has approximately the right cliffs in exactly the right places; Hausdorff (graphical) closeness is a much looser assumption.

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Hypervelocity Impact Application

- System is characterized by three input parameters: target plate thickness h, obliquity α, and impact velocity ν, with assumed ranges h ∈ X_h := {0.5, 1.5, 3.0} mm, α ∈ X_α := [0, 60]°, and v ∈ X_ν := [4.5, 7.0] km ⋅ s⁻¹. Input space is X := X_h × X_α × X_ν.
- Perforation area is the main performance measure of the system, which is expected to lie in the output space Y := [0, 39.73] mm². We want to bound P[g[†](h, α, ν) ≤ θ] for threshold area values θ.
- The model function *F* is the Optimal Transportation Meshfree method. (A lot swept under the carpet here!)
- Model-reality mismatch quantified as $d(g^{\dagger}, F) \leq \delta$. In practice, we fix a confidence level $0 < \eta < 1$, and use legacy data points to find $\delta(\eta)$ such that $d(g^{\dagger}, F) \leq \delta(\eta)$ with probability $\geq \eta$.

Mean Constraints on Outputs



Figure : OUQ least upper bounds on perforation area probabilities given $d(g^{\dagger}, F) \leq \delta$ and bounds on $\mathbb{E}_{\mu}[g^{\dagger}]$. Note the relative insensitivity (for $\theta \geq 2 \text{ mm}^2$) to both δ and the choice of d as the uniform or Hausdorff distance. Note also that the closeness to the Markov bounds (solid curves), indicating that the binding information is the implied maximum perforation area.

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Mean Constraints on Inputs



Figure : OUQ least upper bounds on perforation area probabilities given $d(g^{\dagger}, F) \leq \delta$ and bounds on $\mathbb{E}_{\mu}[h]$, $\mathbb{E}_{\mu}[\alpha]$, $\mathbb{E}_{\mu}[v]$. Note the strong sensitivity to both δ and the choice of d as the uniform (solid curves) or Hausdorff (dashed curves) distance.

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Seismic Safety Certification

- Consider the survivability of a truss structure under an random earthquake of known intensity drawn from an incompletely specified probability distribution.
- Consider a random ground motion u, with the constraint that the mean power spectrum is the Matsuda–Asano shape function s_{MA}:

$$\mathsf{E}_{u\sim\mu}\left[|\hat{u}(\omega)|^2
ight] = s_{\mathsf{MA}}(\omega) \propto rac{\omega_{\mathsf{g}}^2 \omega^2 e^{M_{\mathsf{L}}}}{(\omega_{\mathsf{g}}^2 - \omega^2)^2 + 4\xi_{\mathsf{g}}^2 \omega_{\mathsf{g}}^2 \omega^2}.$$

- Such shape functions are a common tool in the seismological community, but usually *u* is generated by filtering white noise through *s*.
- We used 200 3d Fourier modes, leading to a 1200-dimensional OUQ problem.







Figure : One mean constraint on each independent random Fourier mode $\hat{u}(\omega)$ (i.e. that $\mathbb{E}_{u\sim\mu}[|\hat{u}(\omega)|^2] = s_{MA}(\omega)) \implies$ we get to pretend that $u(\omega)$ takes at most two distinct values which together satisfy this mean constraint.



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Numerical Vulnerability Curves (CDF Envelopes)



Figure : The minimum and maximum probability of failure as a function of Richter magnitude, M_L , where the ground motion u is constrained to have $\mathbb{E}_{\mu}[|\hat{u}|^2] =$ the Matsuda–Asano shape function s_{MA} with natural frequency ω_g and natural damping ξ_g taken from the 24 Jan. 1980 Livermore earthquake. Each data point required ≈ 1 day on 44+44 AMD Opterons (*shc* and *foxtrot* at Caltech). The forward model used 200 Fourier modes for a 3-dimensional ground motion u.



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When and How to Use OUQ

- Use OUQ if you are strongly risk-averse, have unavoidable epistemic uncertainties, and have enough time to compute your way through the problem.
- Conversely, for real-time applications with simple and well-understood uncertainties, OUQ is impractical and overkill.
- Good features to include in your optimizer:
 - keep the functional parts of your optimizer as swappable modules, and pay attention to enforcing constraints;
 - cache past function evaluations;
 - look out for convex sub-problems in the non-convex OUQ problem;
 - ▶ look out for numerical 'collapse' of the discrete measure (dimension reduction ⇒ huge cost savings).
- Personal rules of thumb: Differential Evolution works well with pop. size ≈ 40 , 200 to 400 generations convergence criterion, run problems with 10s of support points and a fast model on a laptop overnight.

Conclusions

- By posing UQ as an optimization problem we
 - ▶ place the available information (≅ constraints) about the input uncertainties at the centre of the problem;
 - obtain optimal bounds on output uncertainties w.r.t. that information;
 - get natural notions of information content in optimization-theoretic terms about constraints: active/inactive, binding/non-binding, ...
- We have theoretical (closed-form pen-and-paper) and real (high-dimensional engineering systems) examples in hand showing these phenomena at work.
- Growing computational resources make large OUQ-type problems increasingly tractable, cf. Bayesian methods in 20th Century.
- Many research questions, especially concerning the inclusion of random sample data, algorithmic properties of OUQ, &c.

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