Solving High-Dimensional Inverse Problems with Auxiliary Uncertainty via Operator Learning with Limited Data

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Source Inversion / Identification in Climate Systems

- ▶ The identification of sources in climate systems is vital for **attribution** and prediction, which inform policy decisions.
- ▶ Inability to isolate sources while observing the climate, and the cost of simulating computational models is high.
- Surrogate models enable the many-query algorithms required for source identification, but challenges arise due to:
 - ▶ High dimensionality of the state and source;
 - ▶ Limited ensembles of costly model simulations to train a surrogate model, and
 - Few and potentially noisy state observations for inversion due to measurement limitations.
- The influence of **auxiliary processes** adds an additional layer of uncertainty that further confounds source identification.
- ▶ Inversion for a source is an ill-posed problem. It is natural to state the problem in a probabilistic way.
- We develop a **Bayesian method** that predicts the most probable source and quantifies uncertainty in the predicted source.



Summary of Method, Exemplar, and Results

- ▶ We introduce a framework based on
 - 1. Calibrating **deep neural network** surrogates to the flow maps provided by an ensemble of simulations obtained by varying sources, then
 - 2. Using these surrogates in a Bayesian framework to identify sources from observations via **optimization**.
- ▶ We focus on an **atmospheric dispersion exemplar** in which the source represents injection of SO₂ and we observe concentratation.
- ► The expressive and computationally efficient nature of the deep neural network operator surrogates in **reduced dimension** allows for source identification with uncertainty quantification using limited data.
- ▶ To stress the algorithm, we then introduce a variable wind field as an auxiliary process that **confounds** source inversion.
- ▶ A Bayesian approximation error (BAE) approach becomes essential for reliable inversion.
- Derivative-based optimization and sampling algorithms leverage algorithmic differentiation tools to efficiently generate approximate samples from the posterior.



Problem Formulation and Solution Outline

▶ We consider time-dependent models of the form

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \mathcal{A}(u, z, w) = f(z, w) \qquad \qquad \text{on } \Omega \times (0, \infty) \tag{1}$$

$$\mathcal{B}(u, z, w) = 0$$
 on $\partial \Omega \times (0, \infty)$ (2)

$$u = u_0 \qquad \qquad \text{on } \Omega \times \{0\} \tag{3}$$

where $u: \Omega \times [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ represents a state defined for time $t \ge 0$ on a domain Ω .

- We seek to estimate z by solving an inverse problem which combines the computational model (1) with sparse and noisy observations of the state variable u.
- ▶ The other parameter *w*, sometimes referred to as a **nuisance parameter**, is also assumed to be uncertain but is not of primary interest; it represents an auxiliary process.
- We assume that the computational model (1) may be solved for any z and w, and that we have access to an **ensemble** of such simulations.
- We utilize a DNN approximation of the **flow map** operator of the model (1), mapping the state and parameters at time t to the state at time $t + \Delta t$.



Flow Map & Ensemble of Simulation Data for Training and Validation

▶ We work with a **discretization** of the PDE model (1). Let

$$t_n, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N$$
 (4)

denote increasing points in time, with $t_0 = 0$ and $t_N = T$.

▶ We seek to build a surrogate for the flow map, defined as the function

 $\mathcal{F}: \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^s \times \mathbb{R}^q \to \mathbb{R}^m$

which evolves the state from time t_n to t_{n+1} , i.e.

$$\mathbf{u}_{n+1} = \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{u}_n, \mathbf{z}_n, \mathbf{w}_n). \tag{5}$$

 \blacktriangleright Assume that M samples of **z** and **w** are given. Denote them as

$$\mathbf{z}_n^i \in \mathbb{R}^s, \quad \mathbf{w}_n^i \in \mathbb{R}^q, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, M, \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, N.$$

• Integrating the model (1) with these parameters yields a set of M trajectories

$$\left\{\mathbf{u}_{n}^{i}\right\}_{n=0}^{N} \subset \mathbb{R}^{m}, \quad i=1,2,\ldots,M.$$



Spatial Dimension Reduction of State and Parameters

- ▶ The high dimensionality of $\mathbf{u}_n^i \in \mathbb{R}^m$ poses significant challenges to learning \mathcal{F} .
- ► We obtain a lower-dimensional linear subspace using the PCA/POD/EOF method. We compute the singular value decomposition $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^{\top}$ of the matrix

▶ The idea of our approach is that if the state trajectory $\{\mathbf{u}_n\}_{n=0}^N$ is approximately contained in the range of \mathbf{U}_r then the following diagram approximately commutes:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{u}_n & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\cdot, \mathbf{z}_n, \mathbf{w}_n)} & \mathbf{u}_{n+1} \\ \text{PCA projection} = \mathbf{U}_r^\top & & \uparrow \text{PCA reconstruction} = \mathbf{U}_r \\ \mathbf{c}_n & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}_r(\cdot, \mathbf{z}_n, \mathbf{w}_n)} & \mathbf{c}_{n+1} \end{array}$$

▶ We seek to learn a DNN approximation of \mathcal{F}_r using the MN training data pairs

$$\{(\mathbf{c}_{n}^{i}, \mathbf{z}_{n}^{i}, \mathbf{w}_{n}^{i}), \mathbf{c}_{n+1}^{i}\}$$
 $n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, M,$



Flow Map Approximation Architecture and Training

▶ Consider DNN approximations $\mathcal{N} \approx \mathcal{F}_r$ of the form

$$\mathcal{N}: (\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}; \xi) \mapsto \mathbf{c} + \Delta t \mathcal{E}(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}; \xi)$$

where $\mathcal{E}(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}; \xi)$ is a **dense feedforward DNN** with weights and biases $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^{\ell}$.

- ▶ The surrogate must provide stable and accurate evolution of the state starting from **u**₀, through many timesteps.
- We train with the loss function that includes repeated compositions of \mathcal{N} :

$$\mathcal{L}(\xi) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sum_{p=1}^{P(n)} \|\mathbf{c}_{n+p}^{i} - \mathcal{N}^{[p]}(\mathbf{c}_{n}^{i}, \{\mathbf{z}_{j}^{i}, \mathbf{w}_{j}^{i}\}_{j=n}^{n+p-1}, \xi)\|_{\ell^{2}}^{2}$$
(6)

where $\mathcal{N}^{[p]}(\mathbf{c}_n^i, \{\mathbf{z}_j^i, \mathbf{w}_j^i\}_{j=n}^{n+p-1}, \xi)$ denotes the composition of \mathcal{N} with itself p times.





The Inverse Problem



- Our ultimate goal is solving an inverse problem to estimate z given sparse and noisy measurements of u.
- Let $\mathbf{d}_n \in \mathbb{R}^L$, n = 1, 2, ..., N, denote observations of the state u at L spatial locations at each n^{th} time step.
- Let $\mathcal{O}: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^L$ denote the observation operator where $\mathbf{d}_n = \mathcal{O}(\mathbf{u}_n) + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_n$, for noise vectors $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_n, n = 1, 2, \dots, N$.
- We model $\{\epsilon_n\}_{n=1}^N$ as independent identically distributed random vectors which follow a mean zero Gaussian distribution.



Bayesian Posterior Distribution

- We assume some prior knowledge of possible z's in the form of a Gaussian prior distribution π_{prior}(z) with mean z̄ and covariance Γ_{prior}.
- \blacktriangleright With the assumption of additive Gaussian noise ϵ contaminating the observed data

$$\mathbf{d} = (\mathbf{d}_1, \mathbf{d}_2, \dots, \mathbf{d}_N) \in \mathbb{R}^{LN},\tag{7}$$

we have a Gaussian likelihood $\pi_{\text{like}}(\mathbf{d}|\mathbf{z})$.

▶ Bayes' Theorem gives the **posterior distribution** of **z** as

$$\pi_{\text{post}}(\mathbf{z}) \propto \pi_{\text{prior}}(\mathbf{z}) \pi_{\text{like}}(\mathbf{d}|\mathbf{z}).$$
 (8)

- ▶ The point of greatest posterior probability is called the maximum a posteriori probably (MAP) point and gives a **best estimate** of **z**.
- Drawing samples from the posterior distribution quantifies uncertainty about the MAP due to limitations on data availability and quality.



Parameter-to-Observable Map and Bayesian Approximation Error

 Our surrogate model for the mapping from (z, w) to the observations of the state at time step t_n given u₀ is

$$\mathbf{F}_{n}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{O}\left(\mathbf{U}_{r} \mathcal{N}^{[n]}(\mathbf{U}_{r}^{\top} \mathbf{u}_{0}, \{\mathbf{z}_{j}, \mathbf{w}_{j}\}_{j=0}^{n}, \xi)\right).$$
(9)

• The **parameter-to-observable map** is defined by concatenating $\mathbf{F}_n(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w})$ for all time steps,

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{z},\mathbf{w}) = [\mathbf{F}_1(\mathbf{z},\mathbf{w}), \mathbf{F}_2(\mathbf{z},\mathbf{w}), \dots, \mathbf{F}_N(\mathbf{z},\mathbf{w})] \in \mathbb{R}^{LN}$$

- ▶ The Bayesian posterior implicitly depends on **w** which is uncertain. We assume that a probabilistic model (for which samples may be computed) for **w** is given.
- ► Merely fixing w = w to its best estimate and solving the inverse problem for z using F(z, w) fails to incorporate uncertainty in w and may provide poor UQ.
- ► In the Bayesian approximation error (BAE) approach, we model error about F(z, true w) from both noise and misspecification of w using an empirical Gaussian.
- Rather than a noise model with mean zero and covariance Γ_{noise} , we use the noise model ν with mean $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ and covariance $\Gamma_{\text{BAE}} = \Gamma_{\text{noise}} + \Gamma_{\mathbf{e}}$.



Maximum a Posteriori (MAP) Point Estimation and Posterior Sampling

• To determine the MAP point, we formulate an optimization problem to maximize the posterior PDF given observations:

$$\min_{\mathbf{z}} \left\{ J(\mathbf{z}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \|\mathbf{F}_{n}(\mathbf{z}) + \overline{\mathbf{e}} - \mathbf{d}_{n}\|_{\mathbf{\Gamma}_{\text{BAE}}^{-1}}^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{z} - \overline{\mathbf{z}}\|_{\mathbf{\Gamma}_{\text{prior}}^{-1}}^{2} \right\}.$$
(10)

- ▶ We utilized **derivative-based algorithms** in the Rapid Optimization Library (**ROL**), part of the Trilinos package provided by Sandia National Laboratories.
- ▶ To obtain required derivatives, we leveraged algorithmic, or automatic, differentiation at each time step when evaluating the flow map approximation.
- ▶ To rapidly quantify uncertainty, we compute samples from a Laplace approximation of the posterior.
- ▶ This assumes that $\mathbf{F}_n(\mathbf{z})$ is linear in \mathbf{z} , which is valid in a neighborhood of the MAP point.



Numerical Example: Atmospheric Aerosol (SO₂) Dispersion Model

▶ Data is generated from the advection-diffusion-reaction PDE

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} - \kappa \nabla^2 u + \mathbf{v}(w) \cdot \nabla u - S \mathbf{e}_y \cdot \nabla u = \mathcal{R}(u) + f(z) \qquad \text{on } \Omega \times (0, \infty) \qquad (11)$$

$$\nabla u \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0 \qquad \qquad \text{on } \partial\Omega \times (0, \infty)$$

$$u = 0 \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{on } \Omega \times \{0\}$$

▶ The source is defined as f(z) = z(t)F(x, y) where $z : [0, T] \to \mathbb{R}$ is the time varying source magnitude being inferred and

$$F(x,y) = \exp\left(-100(x-5)^2\right)\exp\left(-0.1(y-9)^2\right).$$

 \triangleright **z** is a vector with length being the number of time steps N in the discretized data.



Training & Test Data Generation: 4 Source Magnitudes \times 4 Wind Fields



Figure 1: We generate a dataset by solving the model for M = 16 combinations. The discretized data has N = 120 time nodes and m = 101101 spatial nodes.

- ▶ **z** is represented by a vector in \mathbb{R}^{120} and **u**, **w** are represented by a matrix in $\mathbb{R}^{101101 \times 120}$.
- ▶ To test inversion, we generated a test dataset "in the middle" of the training data.
- The relative ℓ^2 distance between the test and mean wind field is 3.6% and the relative ℓ^2 distances between the test and training wind fields ranges from 4.7% to 6.5%.
- ▶ We contaminate the state data with multiplicative Gaussian noise whose mean is 1 and standard deviation is 0.02, i.e. 2% of the data magnitude.
- ▶ To mimic realistic uncertainties, we invert with the mean wind field $\overline{\mathbf{w}}$ as our best estimate of the wind despite test data being generated with the testing wind field \mathbf{w}^* .



Building the Surrogate Model: Hyperparameters, Training, and Tuning

- We compress the state with a rank r = 70 PCA representation, with maximum relative ℓ_2 reconstruction error on the validation set of 0.6%.
- ▶ We also compress the wind fields using r = 10 modes with 0.7% reconstruction error.
- Since the source magnitude is scalar, the **reduced flow map** \mathcal{F}_r maps \mathbb{R}^{81} into \mathbb{R}^{70} .
- ▶ We divided our ensemble into a **training dataset** consisting of data from 12 PDE solves and a **validation dataset** consisting of 4 PDE solves.
- ▶ The validation set is used to **tune the flow map architecture**. For all experiments, we used the ADAM optimizer and ELU nonlinear activation layers.
- We examined the impact of increasing P, the number of DNN compositions used in the loss function (6) which increases the network accuracy as well as **stability**, and selected P = 25
- ► A hyperparameter study suggested optimal width 200, depth 2, and learning rate 0.0008.



Inversion Results: Improvement over Prior, and Importance of BAE



- ▶ We observe that the posterior in the traditional Bayesian approach has oscillations due to modeling error which is not characteristic of the testing data.
- It also has a small variance about this solution indicating confidence in an erroneous MAP point.
- ▶ This highlights the importance of **BAE formulation**, which largely avoided the oscillations and overconfidence seen in the traditional posterior.
- ▶ This also highlights the utility of **incorporating the wind**, the auxiliary source of uncertainty, into our flow map training so it could be properly handed in inversion.



Testing with Greater Wind Variability

- ▶ In a second study, the **wind field variability** (or range of uncertainty) is **increased** to understand limitations of the proposed approach.
- ▶ The relative ℓ_2 differences between the training samples and mean wind range from 9.7% to 10.8% (recall a range of 3.3% to 3.7% in the lesser wind variability case).
- ▶ With increased wind variability, we observe **greater error** in the flow map approximation and inversion, as is expected.
- The quality of the result as the posterior shown in Figure 16 is based on using only M = 16 PDE solves to generate training data for this more difficult scenario.





Comparing BAE vs Traditional Posterior using Relative ℓ^2 and Mahalanobis Metrics

- ▶ The Mahalanobis distance between the posterior distribution and the test source is a commonly used metric to measure distance between a **distribution** and a **point**.
- ► The much larger Mahalanobis distance for the traditional posterior demonstrates the **significant advantage of BAE** to provide uncertainty quantification.
- ▶ This is crucial in **limited data settings**.



Figure 2: Bar plots comparing the error estimating the test data source. Left panel: the relative ℓ^2 error between the MAP point and the test data source. Right panel: the Mahalanobis distance between the posterior and the test data source.



Conclusions

- Our approach combines learning **data-driven surrogate operators** parametrized by DNNs with **Bayesian approximation error** for inversion.
- ▶ We leveraged **algorithmic differentiation** to enable optimization and approximate posterior sampling without the need for extensive tuning to achieve convergence.
- ▶ Rapid source inversion with **UQ** when **confounded** by auxiliary unobserved processes, high state dimension, and small ensembles of training data.
- ▶ We do not require intrusion to obtain derivative information.
- Method was tested and analyzed in a setting that mimics the challenges faced when working with earth system model (ESM) and satellite observation data.



Figure 3: This work was supported by **CLDERA** (**CL**imate impact: **D**etermining **E**tiology th**R**ough p**A**thways) GC LDRD at Sandia National Laboratories. It will be published in a forthcoming article in the Journal of Machine Learning for Modeling and Computing.