

Randomness in reduced order modeling

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We'll consider three examples of this in ROM:

- RBM for elliptic PDE's
- Sparse approximation
- Measure atomization/discretization

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Why is randomness helpful?

Intuition is straightforward and simplistic: Let X be a random variable.

Let $(X_m)_{m \geq 1}$ be iid copies of X . Law of large numbers:

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Furthermore, this convergence is quantitative through the Central limit theorem:

$$S(M) - \mathbb{E}[X] \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \frac{\sigma^2(X)}{M}\right).$$

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This statement is quite powerful:

- S provides an estimator for $\mathbb{E}[X]$, without knowing $\mathbb{E}[X]$.
- Convergence is essentially *independent* of distribution of X .
- Convergence rate is *independent* of *dimension* of X .

Examples of concentration

Concentration in general plays an important role in computing estimates:

- Monte Carlo (CLT) estimates
- Chebyshev inequalities (bounds on mass away from the mean)
- Hoeffding inequalities (bounds on deviation of iid sums from the mean)
- Chernoff bounds (bounds on deviation of spectrum)
- Concentration of measure (bounds on deviation of random functions)

Today: We'll see a particular **Chernoff bound** in action.

Chernoff bound applications

We will see how randomization and Chernoff bounds can be applied to:

- RBM for elliptic PDE's
- Sparse approximation
- Measure atomization/discretization

Before discussing ROM, let's present the Chernoff bound.

Matrix law of large numbers

Let $\mathbf{G} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ be a Gramian matrix that is an iid sum of symmetric rank-1 matrices.

I.e., let $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ have distribution μ on \mathbb{R}^N , and define

$$\mathbf{G} := \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \mathbf{X}_m \mathbf{X}_m^T,$$

where $\{\mathbf{X}_m\}_{m \geq 1}$ are iid copies of \mathbf{X} .

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For simplicity, in all that follows we assume that the components of \mathbf{X} are

- uncorrelated,
- of unit variance,

so that

$$\mathbf{G} \xrightarrow{M \uparrow \infty} \mathbf{I}$$

Matrix Chernoff bounds

The proximity of \mathbf{G} to \mathbf{I} , as a function of M , is determined by

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Theorem ([Cohen, Davenport, Leviatan 2012])

Assume that

$$\frac{M}{\log M} \gtrsim \frac{K}{\delta^2} \log \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \right).$$

Then,

$$\Pr \left[(\sigma_{\min}(\mathbf{G}) < 1 - \delta) \cup (\sigma_{\max}(\mathbf{G}) > 1 + \delta) \right] \leq \epsilon.$$

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What can we do with \mathbf{G} ? Form least-squares approximations using \mathbf{X} .

Remarks:

- The δ^{-2} dependence is “CLT-like”.
- K is the only thing that depends on the distribution of X .

The induced distribution

It turns out that K can be quite large (or infinite) for practical situations.

A fix for this utilizes *importance sampling*. In particular, define

$$d\rho(x) := \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 \right) d\mu(x),$$

where μ is the distribution of \mathbf{X} .

ρ is a probability measure on \mathbb{R}^N , and is frequently called the *induced distribution*.

A (more) optimal Chernoff bound

In practical scenarios, the induced distribution ρ can also be sampled from without too much effort.

More importantly, we can get a (much) better Chernoff bound here.

Let $(\mathbf{Y}_m)_{m \geq 1} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ be iid samples from ρ . We need to weight the Gramian so that we produce an unbiased estimate:

$$\mathbf{F} := \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M w_m \mathbf{Y}_m \mathbf{Y}_m^T, \quad w_m := \frac{d\mu}{d\rho}(\mathbf{Y}_m)$$

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This results in the (better) Chernoff bound

$$\Pr \left[(\sigma_{\min}(\mathbf{F}) < 1 - \delta) \cup (\sigma_{\min}(\mathbf{F}) > 1 + \delta) \right] \leq \epsilon,$$

with the much more reasonable assumption

$$\frac{M}{\log M} \gtrsim \frac{N}{\delta^2} \log \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \right).$$

This Chernoff bound will be a seed for achieving model reduction.

Example 1: RBM (for elliptic problems)

Reduced basis methods

For the parameterized problem,

$$-\nabla \cdot \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu_j a_j(x) \nabla u \right) = b,$$

with $\mu \in [-1, 1]^{\infty}$, recall that RBM (essentially) iteratively computes

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$$\arg \max_{\mu} \|u(\mu) - \mathcal{P}_{j-1}(u(\mu))\|,$$

If (any truncation of) μ is high-dimensional, this is an expensive optimization, even if the objective is easy to evaluate.

There's a bigger problem: the $\arg \max$ is typically taken over a discrete μ grid. If μ is high-dimensional, how can we certify error without densely sampling?

Reduction feasibility

Some analysis gives us a strategy to proceed: if the $\{a_j\}_{j=1}^d$ satisfies an ℓ^p **summability condition**,

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \|a_j\|_{L^\infty}^p < \infty, \quad p < 1,$$

then there is an N -dimensional *downward-closed* polynomial space P_N in the variable μ such that

$$\sup_{\mu} \|u(\mu) - \text{Proj}_{P_N} u(\mu)\| \leq N^{-s}, \quad s := \frac{1}{p} - \frac{1}{2}.$$

There are constructive algorithms to essentially identify P_N , [Cohen, Devore, Schwab 2011].

In particular, once P_N is identified, this approximation can be obtained by μ -least-squares approximation.

Polynomial meshes

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Let μ be a random variable with distribution ν . Let $\mathbf{X} = (X_n(\nu))_{n=1}^N$ denote a $d\nu$ -orthonormal basis for P_N . Define the induced distribution $\rho = \rho(\nu, \mathbf{X})$ based on this, sample $\{\mathbf{Y}_m\}_{m \geq 1}^M$ from ρ , and use this to discretize the $\arg \max$ procedure in RBM.

Let $u_N(\mu)$ denote the resulting N -degree of freedom RBM surrogate.

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If

$$\frac{M}{\log M} \gtrsim \frac{N}{\delta^2} \log \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \right),$$

then the least-squares P_N -polynomial approximation $v_N(\mu) \in P_N$ to u_N satisfies

$$\mathbb{E} [v_N(\mu) - u(\mu)]^2 \lesssim N^{-2s} + U^2 \epsilon \frac{1 + \delta}{1 - \delta},$$

where U is the uniform bound $U = \sup_{\mu} \|u(\mu)\|$.

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where U is the uniform bound $U = \sup_{\mu} \|u(\mu)\|$. Without randomization, such a rigorous bound is practically infeasible.

Example 2: Sparse (polynomial) approximation

Underdetermined systems

Let \mathbf{x}_0 be a signal (vector) in \mathbb{R}^N . If we have $M \geq N$ linear measurements of \mathbf{x}_0 :

$$\mathbf{b} := \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_0,$$

then there is (usually) a unique solution \mathbf{x}^* that minimizes the ℓ^2 discrepancy:

$$\mathbf{x}^* := \arg \min_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^N} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{b}\|_2.$$

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And (usually), $\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{x}_0$. The situation is (far) more complicated if $M < N$.

This is a particularly salient concern for MOR: \mathbf{x} may be a high-dimensional model, but we may only have a small number of measurements.

Compressive sampling

How can we make this problem well-posed?

Suppose that x_0 is s -sparse, i.e., the number of non-zero terms is at most $s \ll N$.

We can consider the optimization problem,

$$\min \|z\|_0 \quad \text{such that} \quad Az = b.$$

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If x_0 is sparse, does the ℓ^1 minimization problem recover the sparse solution?

Null space and restricted isometry properties

The matrix \mathbf{A} satisfies the (robust) *null space property* (NSP) with constant c and sparsity s if

$$\|\mathbf{k}_S\|_1 \leq c \|\mathbf{k}_{S^c}\|_1, \quad (1)$$

holds for every $\mathbf{k} \in \ker(\mathbf{A})$, and every subset $S \subset [N]$ with cardinality at most s .

Needless to say this is a rather difficult condition to verify directly.

But: (1) is a necessary and sufficient condition so that ℓ^1 minimization and ℓ^0 minimization are equivalent. [[Cohen, Devore 2009](#)]

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There is a stronger condition to ensure that ℓ^1 minimization can compute sparse solutions, the *restricted isometry property* (RIP).

\mathbf{A} satisfies the RIP with constant ϵ and sparsity s if

$$(1 - \epsilon)\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 \leq \|\mathbf{Ax}\|_2 \leq (1 + \epsilon)\|\mathbf{x}\|_2,$$

for every s -sparse vector \mathbf{x} .

This condition may also seem difficult to verify, but it contains ℓ^2 norms!

RIP and sparse approximation

The virtue of the RIP is that:

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and the RIP is much easier to verify. [Candes, Tao 2005]

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In particular, suppose that $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{P \times N}$ with $P \geq N$ satisfies

$$1 - \delta \leq \sigma_{\min}(\mathbf{B}), \quad \sigma_{\max}(\mathbf{B}) \leq 1 + \delta.$$

Now, form \mathbf{A} from \mathbf{B} by uniformly at random subsampling M rows from \mathbf{B} .

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Then \mathbf{A} satisfies the (s, ϵ) RIP “with high probability” if

$$M \gtrsim K \log \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \right) \frac{1}{1 - \delta^2} s \log^3(s) \log N,$$

where K is the maximum row norm of \mathbf{B} . [Rauhut 2010]

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The problems: (i) K can be very large, and (ii) sometimes P must be (extremely) large before δ is small.

The major point

If B is a matrix with “nearly” orthonormal columns, and maximum row norm K , then forming A with

$$M \sim Ks$$

subsampling rows yields an RIP matrix.

Hence, if b contains measurements from a sparse vector x_0 , then (with high probability) the solution to

$$\min \|z\|_1 \quad \text{such that} \quad Az = b,$$

is the sparse vector x_0 .

The major point (optimized)

From the Chernoff bound: Forming \mathbf{A} with

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subsampled rows yields an RIP matrix, if:

- we form \mathbf{B} by taking $P \sim N \log N$ samples from the induced distribution
- we use the appropriate biasing weights to rescale \mathbf{A} .

Hence with $M \sim s$ samples, we can guarantee recovery of sparse vectors with sparse measurements. [\[Adcock, Brugiapaglia, Razi, N 2020\]](#)

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There are *many* more examples.