

Stochastic Structural Dynamics

Lecture-30

Monte Carlo simulation approach-6

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Recall

$$dx(t) = a[x(t), t]dt + b[x(t), t]dB(t); x(t_0) = x_0$$

Sizes:

$$x(t) \sim d \times 1; dB(t) \sim m \times 1; a \sim d \times 1; b \sim d \times m$$

Time discretization:

$$0 = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_N = T \text{ with } \Delta = T / N.$$

$$\text{Notation: } Y_k(n) = x_k(t_n)$$

$$\Delta x^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \Delta t \rightarrow 0$$

1.5 order Strong Taylor scheme

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y_k(n+1) &= Y_k(n) + a_k(n)\Delta + b_k(n)\Delta W + \frac{1}{2}L^1 b_k(n) \left\{ (\Delta W)^2 - \Delta \right\} \\
 &\quad + L^1 a_k(n)\Delta Z + L^0 b_k(n) \left\{ \Delta W \Delta - \Delta Z \right\} + \frac{1}{2}L^0 a_k(n)\Delta^2 + \frac{1}{2}L^1 L^1 b_k(n) \left\{ \frac{1}{3}(\Delta W)^2 - \Delta \right\} \Delta W \\
 L^0 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \sum_{k=1}^d a_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^d \sum_{l=1}^d b_k b_l \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_k \partial x_l}; L^1 = \sum_{k=1}^d b_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \\
 \begin{Bmatrix} \Delta W \\ \Delta Z \end{Bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\Delta} & 0 \\ 0.5\Delta^{1.5} & \frac{0.5\Delta^{1.5}}{\sqrt{3}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} U_1 \\ U_2 \end{Bmatrix}; \begin{Bmatrix} U_1 \\ U_2 \end{Bmatrix} \equiv N \left(\begin{Bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{Bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

Remark

More general versions of the integration schemes are available: see P E Kloeden and E Platen, 1992, Numerical solution of stochastic differential equations, Springer – Verlag, Berlin

Bouc's oscillator under white noise

$$\ddot{x} + 2\eta\omega\dot{x} + \alpha x + (1 - \alpha)z = f(t)$$

$$\dot{z} = -\gamma |\dot{x}| z |z|^{n-1} - \beta \dot{x} |z|^n + A \dot{x}$$

$$x(0) = x_0; \dot{x}(0) = \dot{x}_0; z(0) = z_0$$

$$\langle f(t) \rangle = 0; \langle f(t_1) f(t_2) \rangle = \sigma^2 \delta(t_1 - t_2)$$

$$dx_1(t) = x_2 dt$$

$$dx_2(t) = (-2\eta\omega x_2 - \alpha x_1 - (1 - \alpha)x_3) dt + \sigma dw(t)$$

$$dx_3(t) = \left(-\gamma |\dot{x}_2| x_3 |x_3|^{n-1} - \beta x_2 |x_3|^n + A x_2 \right) dt$$

$$a_1 = x_2$$

$$a_2 = (-2\eta\omega x_2 - \alpha x_1 - (1-\alpha)x_3)$$

$$a_3 = \left(-\gamma |x_2| |x_3|^{n-1} - \beta |x_2| |x_3|^n + Ax_2 \right)$$

$$b_1 = 0; b_2 = \sigma; b_3 = 0$$

$$L^1 a_1 = \sigma; L^1 a_2 = -2\eta\omega; L^1 a_3 = \sigma \left\{ -\text{sgn}(x_2) x_3 |x_3|^{n-1} - \beta |x_3|^n + A \right\}$$

$$L^0 a_1 = a_2; L^0 a_2 = -\alpha a_1 - a_2 2\eta\omega + a_3 (1-\alpha)$$

$$L^0 a_3 = a_2 \left\{ -\gamma \text{sgn}(x_2) x_3 |x_3|^{n-1} - \beta |x_3|^n + A \right\} +$$

$$a_3 \left\{ -\gamma |x_2| |x_3|^{n-1} - \gamma |x_2| |x_3| (n-1) |x_3|^{n-2} \text{sgn}(x_3) - \beta x_2 n |x_3|^{n-1} \text{sgn}(x_3) \right\}$$

1.5 order Strong Taylor scheme

$$Y_k(n+1) = Y_k(n) + a_k(n)\Delta + b_k(n)\Delta W + \frac{1}{2}L^1 b_k(n) \left\{ (\Delta W)^2 - \Delta \right\}$$

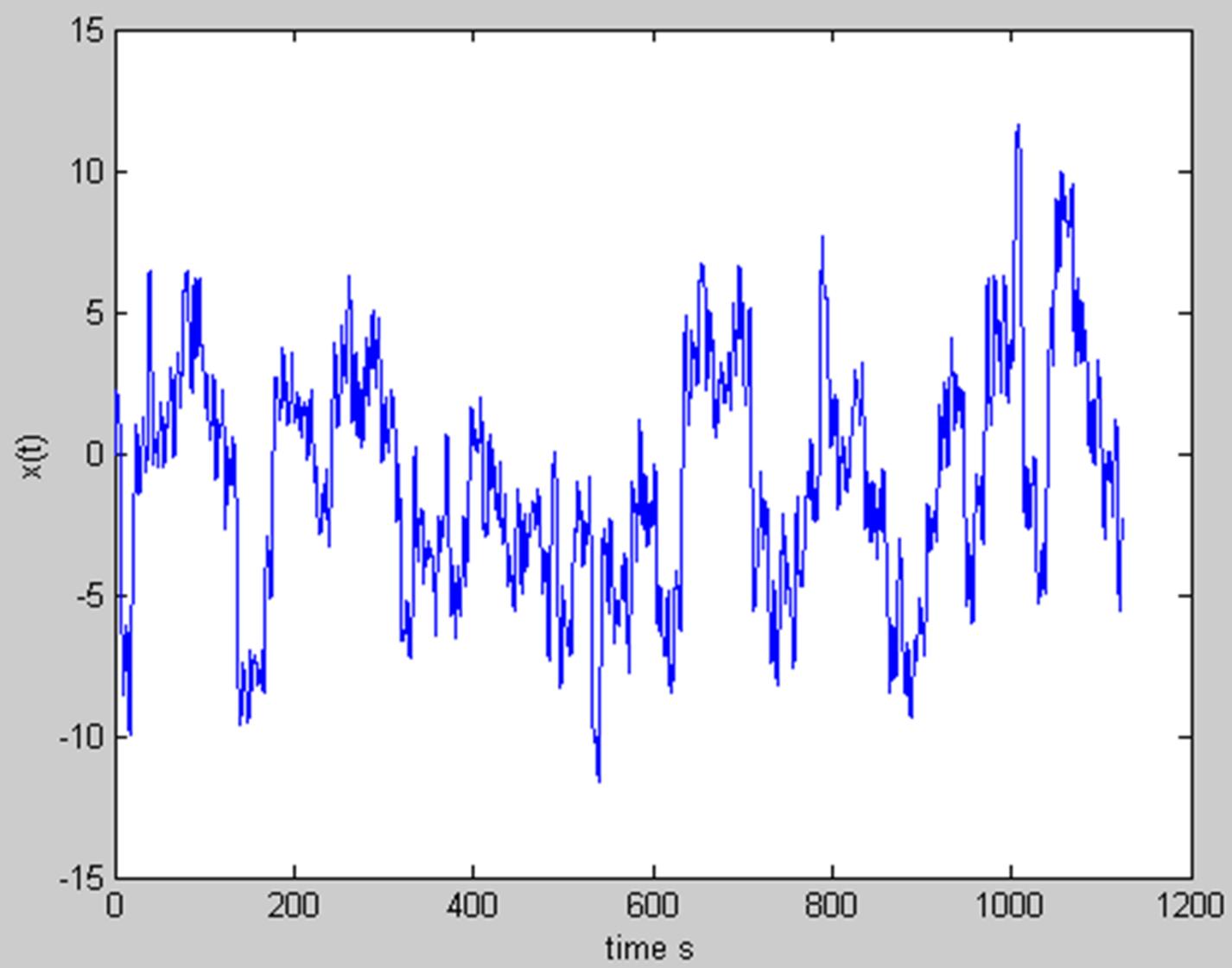
$$+ L^1 a_k(n) \Delta Z + L^0 b_k(n) \left\{ \Delta W \Delta - \Delta Z \right\} + \frac{1}{2} L^0 a_k(n) \Delta^2 + \frac{1}{2} L^1 L^1 b_k(n) \left\{ \frac{1}{3} (\Delta W)^2 - \Delta \right\} \Delta W$$

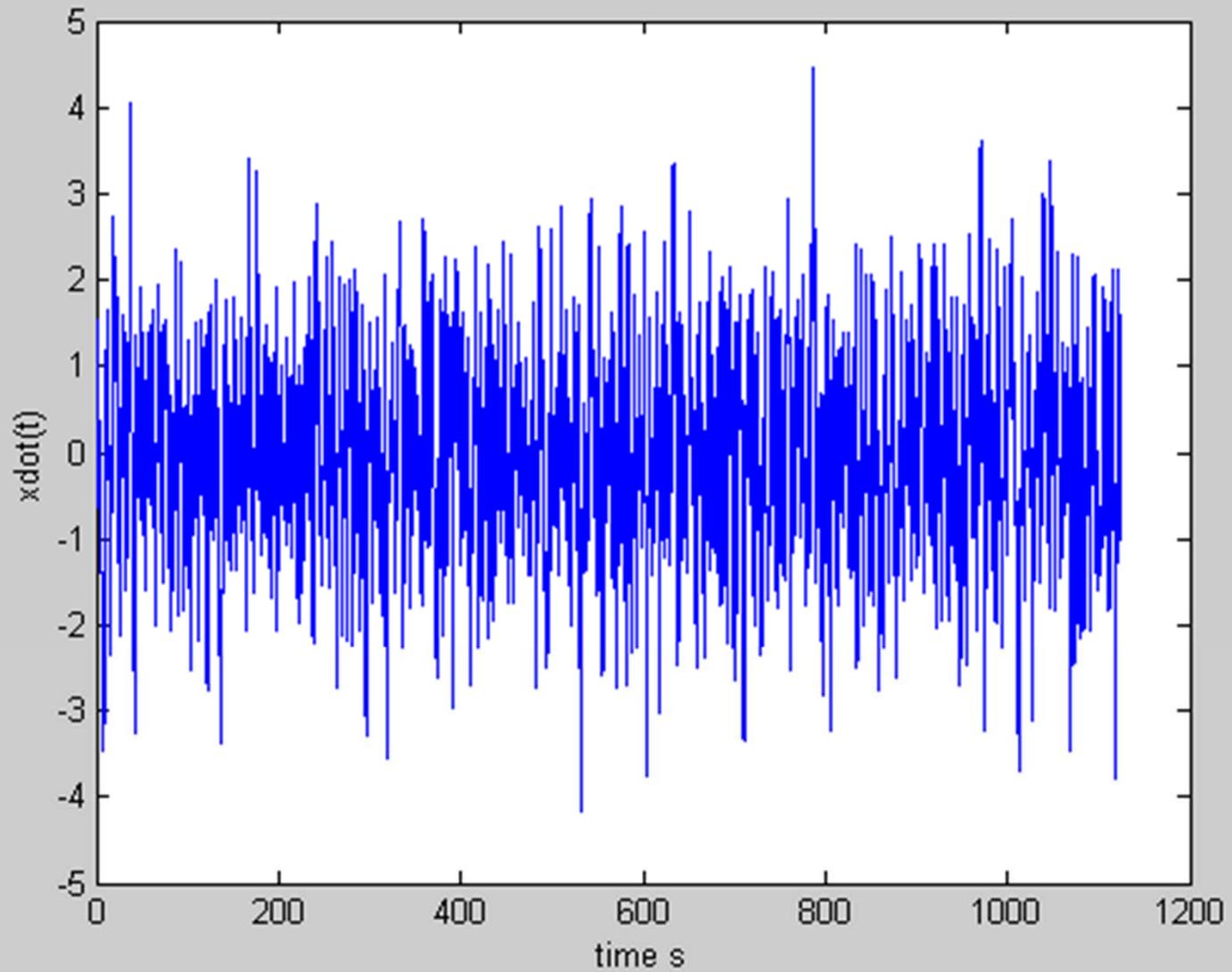
$$L^0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \sum_{k=1}^d a_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^d \sum_{l=1}^d b_k b_l \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_k \partial x_l}; L^1 = \sum_{k=1}^d b_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k}$$

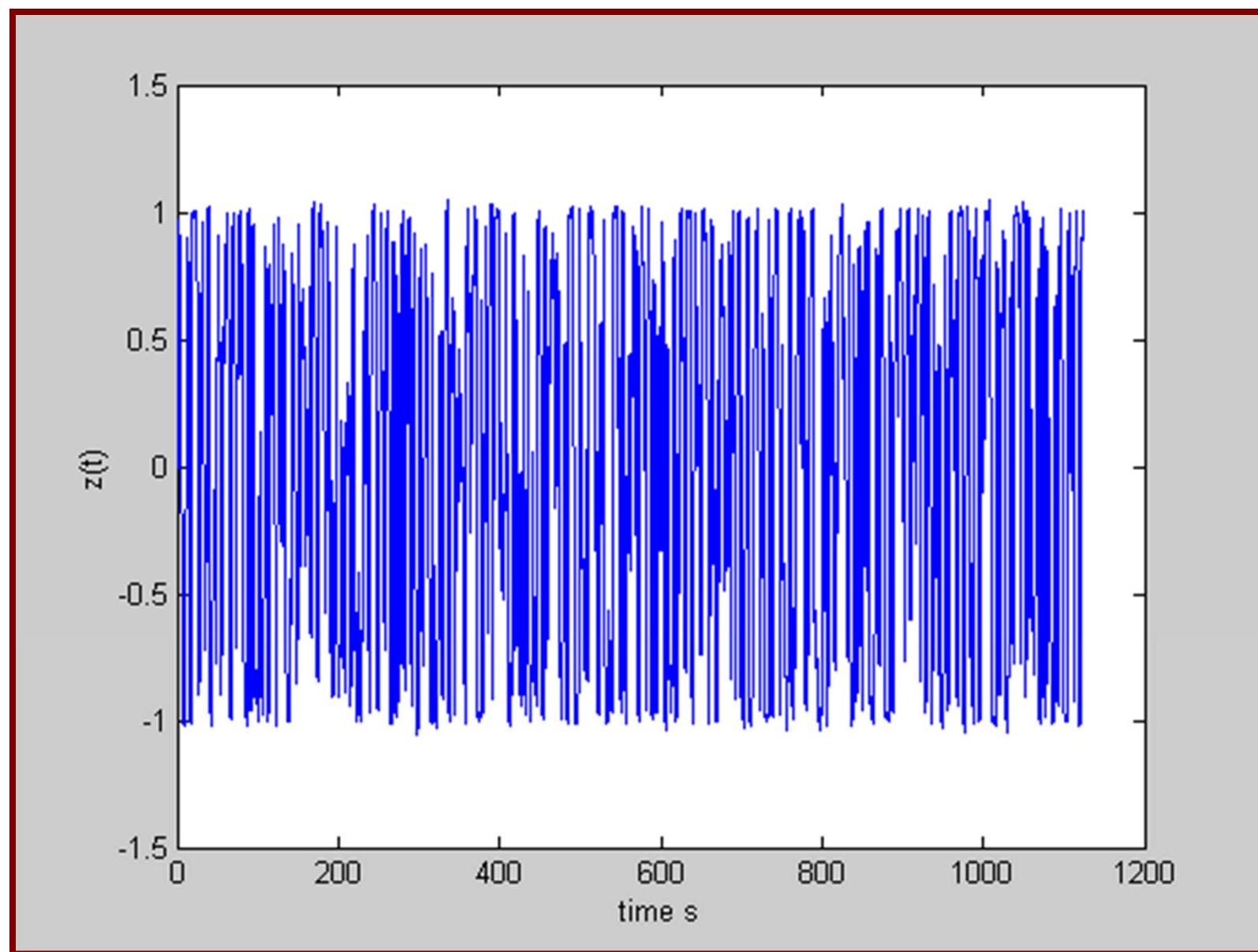
$$\begin{Bmatrix} \Delta W \\ \Delta Z \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\Delta} & 0 \\ 0.5\Delta^{1.5} & \frac{0.5\Delta^{1.5}}{\sqrt{3}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} U_1 \\ U_2 \end{Bmatrix}; \begin{Bmatrix} U_1 \\ U_2 \end{Bmatrix} \equiv N \left(\begin{Bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{Bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

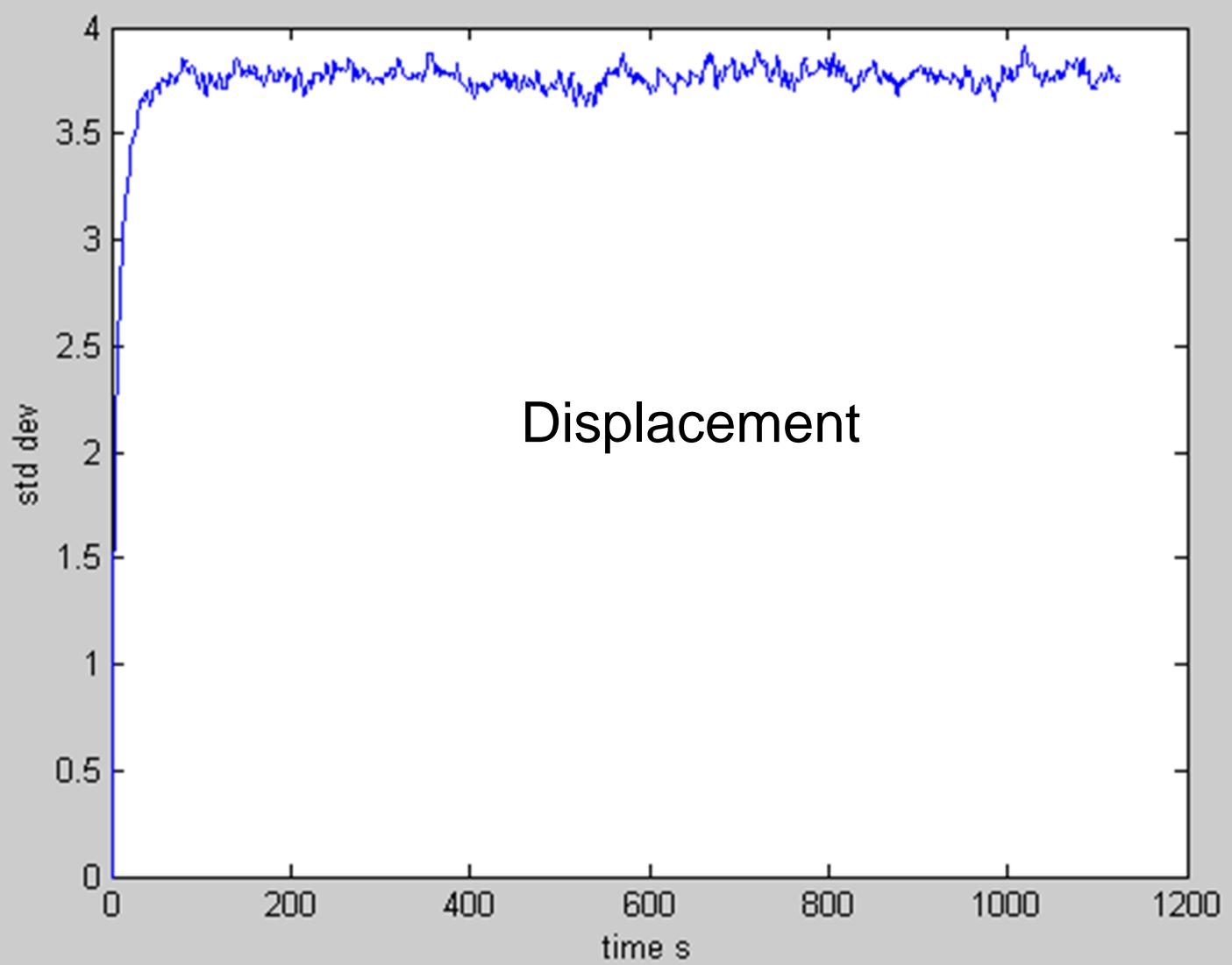
Numerical values

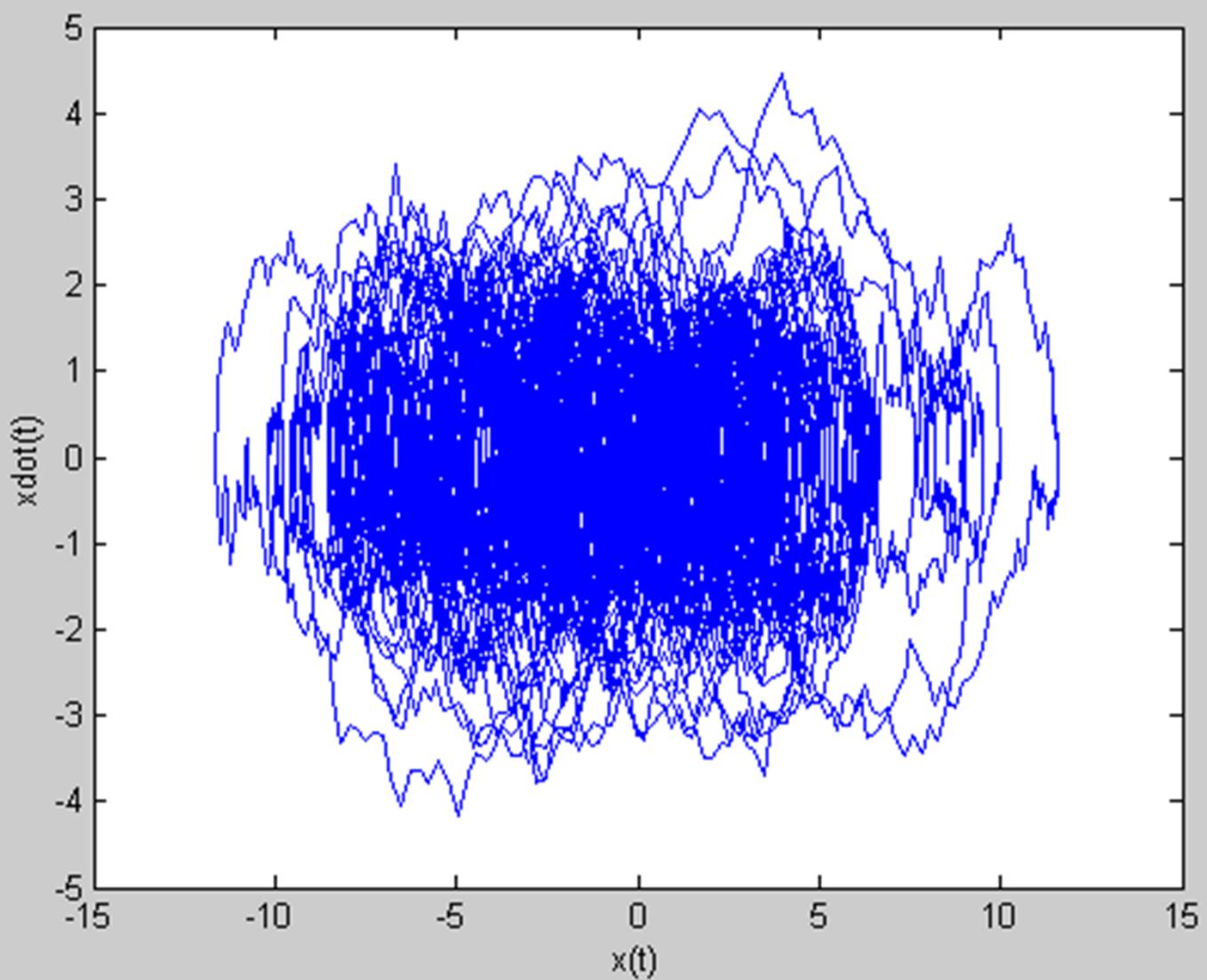
$\eta = 0.05, \alpha = 0.05, \beta = 0.5, \eta\omega = 0.02, A = 1, n = 2$
 $\gamma = 0.5, \sigma = 1.0, T = 35 \text{ s}, 5000 \text{ samples}$

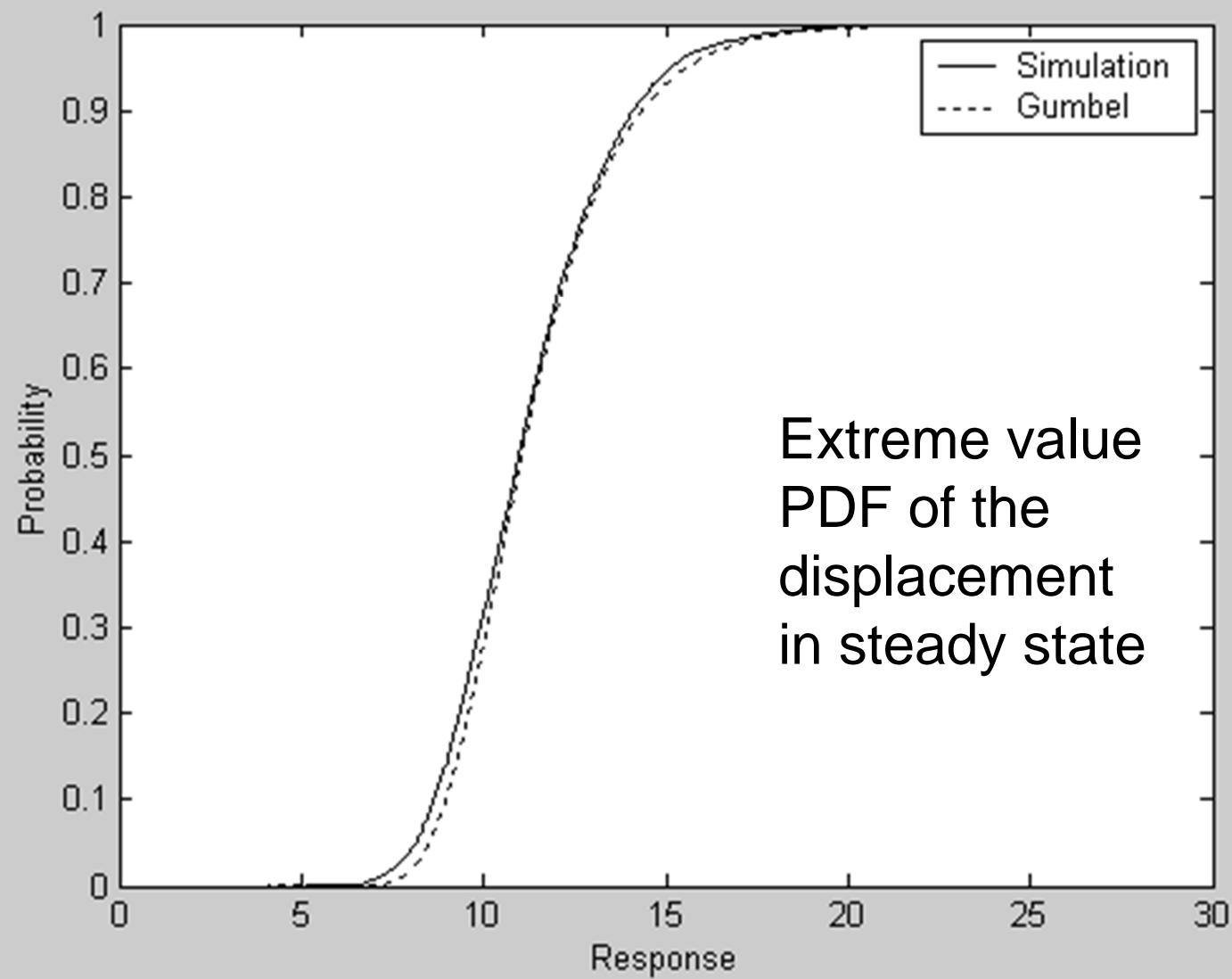




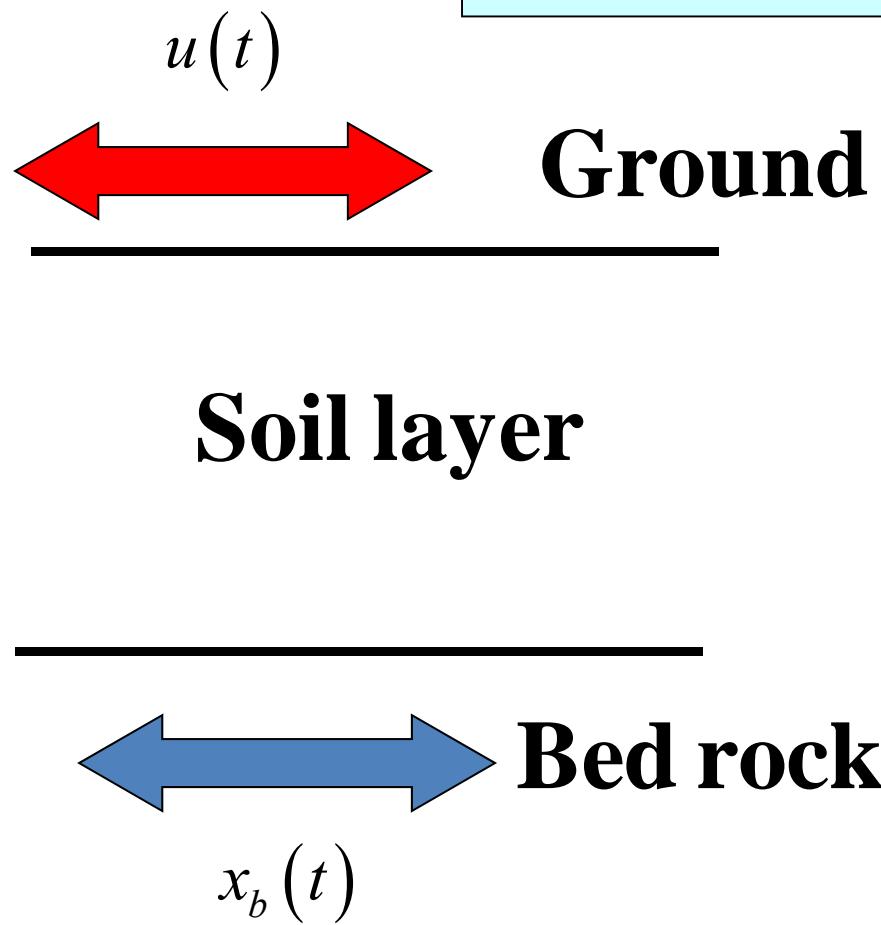








Kanai – Tajimi & Clough and Penzien
Power spectral density function models
for free field earthquake ground acceleration



$$m_g \ddot{u} + c_g (\dot{u} - \dot{x}_b) + k_g (u - x_b) = 0$$

$$\ddot{u} = -2\eta_g \omega_g (\dot{u} - \dot{x}_b) - \omega_g^2 (u - x_b)$$

$$\text{Let } v = u - x_b$$

$$\Rightarrow \ddot{v} + 2\eta_g \omega_g \dot{v} + \omega_g^2 v = -\ddot{x}_b$$

$$\ddot{u} = -2\eta_g \omega_g \dot{v} - \omega_g^2 v$$

$$\ddot{U}_T(\omega) = -\left(i2\eta_g \omega_g \omega + \omega_g^2\right) V_T(\omega)$$

$$= \left(i2\eta_g \omega_g + \omega_g^2\right) \frac{\ddot{X}_{bT}(\omega)}{\left(\omega_g^2 - \omega^2\right) + i\left(2\eta_g \omega_g \omega\right)}$$

$$S(\omega) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \left\langle \left| \ddot{U}_T(\omega) \right|^2 \right\rangle$$

$$\rightarrow S(\omega) = I \frac{\left(\omega_g^4 + 4\eta_g^2 \omega_g^2 \omega^2\right)}{\left(\omega^2 - \omega_g^2\right)^2 + 4\eta_g^2 \omega_g^2 \omega^2}$$

$$S(\omega) = I \frac{(\omega_g^4 + 4\eta_g^2 \omega_g^2 \omega^2)}{(\omega^2 - \omega_g^2)^2 + 4\eta_g^2 \omega_g^2 \omega^2}$$

Clough and Penzien model

$$\begin{aligned} S(\omega) &= I \frac{(\omega_g^4 + 4\eta_g^2 \omega_g^2 \omega^2)}{(\omega^2 - \omega_g^2)^2 + 4\eta_g^2 \omega_g^2 \omega^2} \underbrace{|H_f(\omega)|^2}_{\text{High pass filter}} \\ &= I \frac{(\omega_g^4 + 4\eta_g^2 \omega_g^2 \omega^2)}{(\omega^2 - \omega_g^2)^2 + 4\eta_g^2 \omega_g^2 \omega^2} \frac{(\omega / \omega_f)^4}{\underbrace{\left[1 - (\omega / \omega_f)^2\right]^2 + 4\zeta_f^2 (\omega / \omega_f)^2}_{\text{High pass filter}}} \end{aligned}$$

What is the role played by $|H_f(\omega)|^2$?

$$|H_f(\omega)|^2 = \frac{(\omega/\omega_f)^4}{\left[1 - (\omega/\omega_f)^2\right]^2 + 4\zeta_f^2(\omega/\omega_f)^2}$$

An artefact to remove singularity at $\omega=0$ in the support displacement.

Introduction of non-stationarity
and a time domain analysis

Digital simulation of earthquake ground motion using SDE approach

Filter from bed rock to ground level

$$m_1 \ddot{z}_1 + c_1 (\dot{z}_1 - \dot{x}_b) + k_1 (z_1 - x_b) = 0$$

$$y_1 = z_1 - x_b$$

$$m_1 \ddot{y}_1 + c_1 \dot{y}_1 + k_1 y_1 = -m_1 \ddot{x}_b$$

$$\ddot{y}_1 + 2\eta_1\omega_1\dot{y}_1 + \omega_1^2 y_1 = -\ddot{x}_b = e(t)s(t)$$

$$\langle s(t) \rangle = 0; \langle s(t)s(t+\tau) \rangle = I\delta(\tau)$$

$e(t)$ = deterministic modulating function

$$\ddot{z}_1 = -2\eta_1\omega_1\dot{y}_1 - \omega_1^2 y_1$$

High pass filter

$$\ddot{y}_2 + 2\eta_2\omega_2\dot{y}_2 + \omega_2^2 y_2 = 2\eta_1\omega_1\dot{y}_1 + \omega_1^2 y_1$$

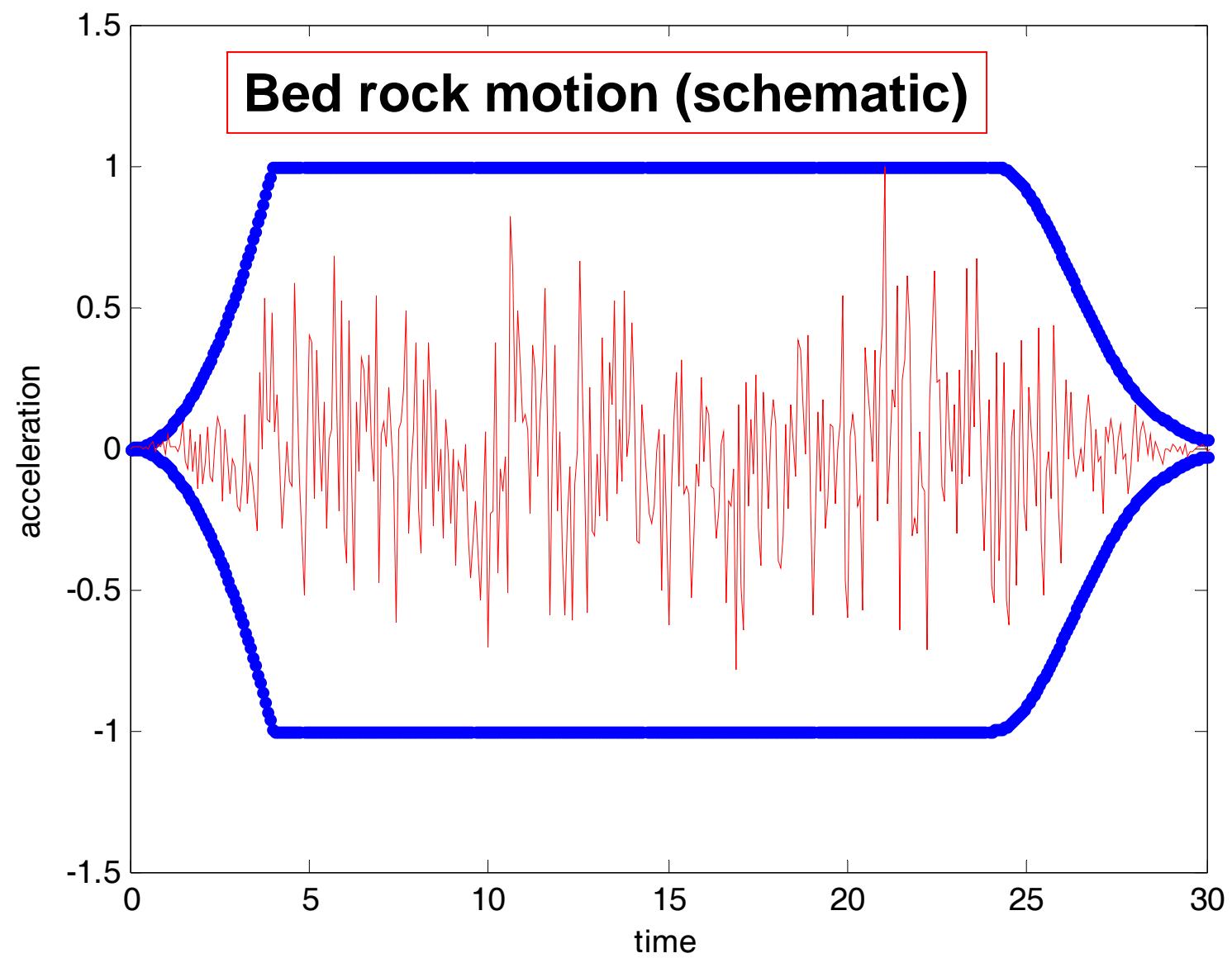
Examples for envelope function

$$e(t) = \left(\frac{t}{4} \right)^2 \text{ for } 0 < t < 4\text{s}$$

$$= 1 \text{ for } 4 < t < 24\text{s}$$

$$= \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (t - 24)^2 \right] \text{ for } t > 24 \text{ s}$$

$$e(t) = a \left[\exp(-\alpha t) - \exp(-\beta t) \right]$$



$$\ddot{y}_1 + 2\eta_1\omega_1\dot{y}_1 + \omega_1^2 y_1 = e(t)s(t)$$

$$\ddot{y}_2 + 2\eta_2\omega_2\dot{y}_2 + \omega_2^2 y_2 = 2\eta_1\omega_1\dot{y}_1 + \omega_1^2 y_1$$

$$\begin{Bmatrix} \text{Ground displacement} \\ \text{Ground velocity} \\ \text{Ground acceleration} \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} y_2(t) \\ \dot{y}_2(t) \\ \ddot{y}_2(t) \end{Bmatrix}$$

Introduce

$$\begin{Bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} y_1 \\ \dot{y}_1 \\ y_2 \\ \dot{y}_2 \end{Bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{Bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \\ \dot{x}_3 \\ \dot{x}_4 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\omega_1^2 & -2\eta_1\omega_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \omega_1^2 & 2\eta_1\omega_1 & -\omega_2^2 & -2\eta_2\omega_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{Bmatrix} + \begin{Bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{Bmatrix} e(t)s(t)$$

$$\begin{Bmatrix} dx_1 \\ dx_2 \\ dx_3 \\ dx_4 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\omega_1^2 & -2\eta_1\omega_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \omega_1^2 & 2\eta_1\omega_1 & -\omega_2^2 & -2\eta_2\omega_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{Bmatrix} dt + \begin{Bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{Bmatrix} e(t) dB(t)$$

$$\begin{Bmatrix} \text{Ground displacement} \\ \text{Ground velocity} \\ \text{Ground acceleration} \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} x_3(t) \\ x_4(t) \\ a(t) \end{Bmatrix}$$

$$a(t) = -2\eta_2\omega_2x_4 - \omega_1^2x_3 + 2\eta_1\omega_1x_2 + \omega_1^2x_1$$

1.5 order Strong Taylor scheme

$$\begin{aligned}
Y_k(n+1) &= Y_k(n) + a_k(n)\Delta + b_k(n)\Delta W + \frac{1}{2}L^1 b_k(n) \left\{ (\Delta W)^2 - \Delta \right\} \\
&\quad + L^1 a_k(n)\Delta Z + L^0 b_k(n) \left\{ \Delta W \Delta - \Delta Z \right\} + \frac{1}{2}L^0 a_k(n)\Delta^2 + \frac{1}{2}L^1 L^1 b_k(n) \left\{ \frac{1}{3}(\Delta W)^2 - \Delta \right\} \Delta W \\
L^0 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \sum_{k=1}^d a_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^d \sum_{l=1}^d b_k b_l \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_k \partial x_l}; L^1 = \sum_{k=1}^d b_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \\
\begin{Bmatrix} \Delta W \\ \Delta Z \end{Bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\Delta} & 0 \\ 0.5\Delta^{1.5} & \frac{0.5\Delta^{1.5}}{\sqrt{3}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} U_1 \\ U_2 \end{Bmatrix}; \begin{Bmatrix} U_1 \\ U_2 \end{Bmatrix} \equiv N \left(\begin{Bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{Bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
L^0 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \sum_{k=1}^d a_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^d \sum_{l=1}^d b_k b_l \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_k \partial x_l} \\
&= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + x_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} + (-2\eta_1 \omega_1 x_2 - \omega_1^2 x_1) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} + x_4 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_3} + \\
&\quad + (-2\eta_2 \omega_2 x_4 - \omega_2^2 x_3 + 2\eta_1 \omega_1 x_2 + \omega_1^2 x_1) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_4} \\
L^0 a_1 &= -2\eta_1 \omega_1 x_2 - \omega_1^2 x_1 \\
L^0 a_2 &= x_2 (-\omega_1^2) + (-2\eta_1 \omega_1 x_2 - \omega_1^2 x_1) (-2\eta_1 \omega_1) \\
L^0 a_3 &= (-2\eta_2 \omega_2 x_4 - \omega_2^2 x_3 + 2\eta_1 \omega_1 x_2 + \omega_1^2 x_1) \\
L^0 a_4 &= x_2 (\omega_1^2) + (-2\eta_1 \omega_1 x_2 - \omega_1^2 x_1) (2\eta_1 \omega_1) \\
&\quad + x_4 (-\omega_2^2) + (-2\eta_2 \omega_2 x_4 - \omega_2^2 x_3 + 2\eta_1 \omega_1 x_2 + \omega_1^2 x_1) (-2\eta_2 \omega_2) \\
L^0 b_2 &= \frac{\partial e}{\partial t} S_0; L^0 b_j = 0; j = 1, 3, 4
\end{aligned}$$

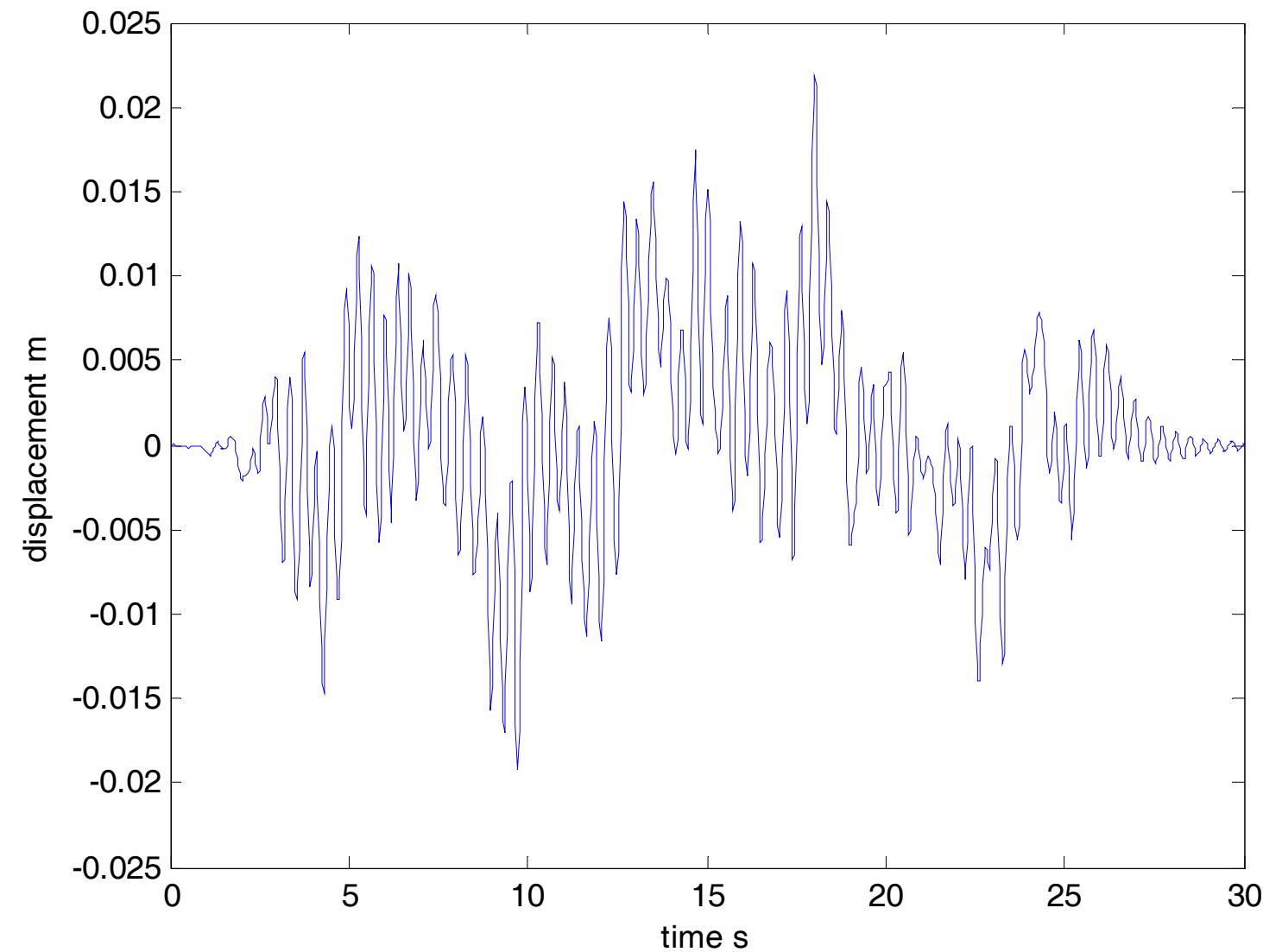
$$L^1 = \sum_{k=1}^d b_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} = S_0 e(t) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2}$$

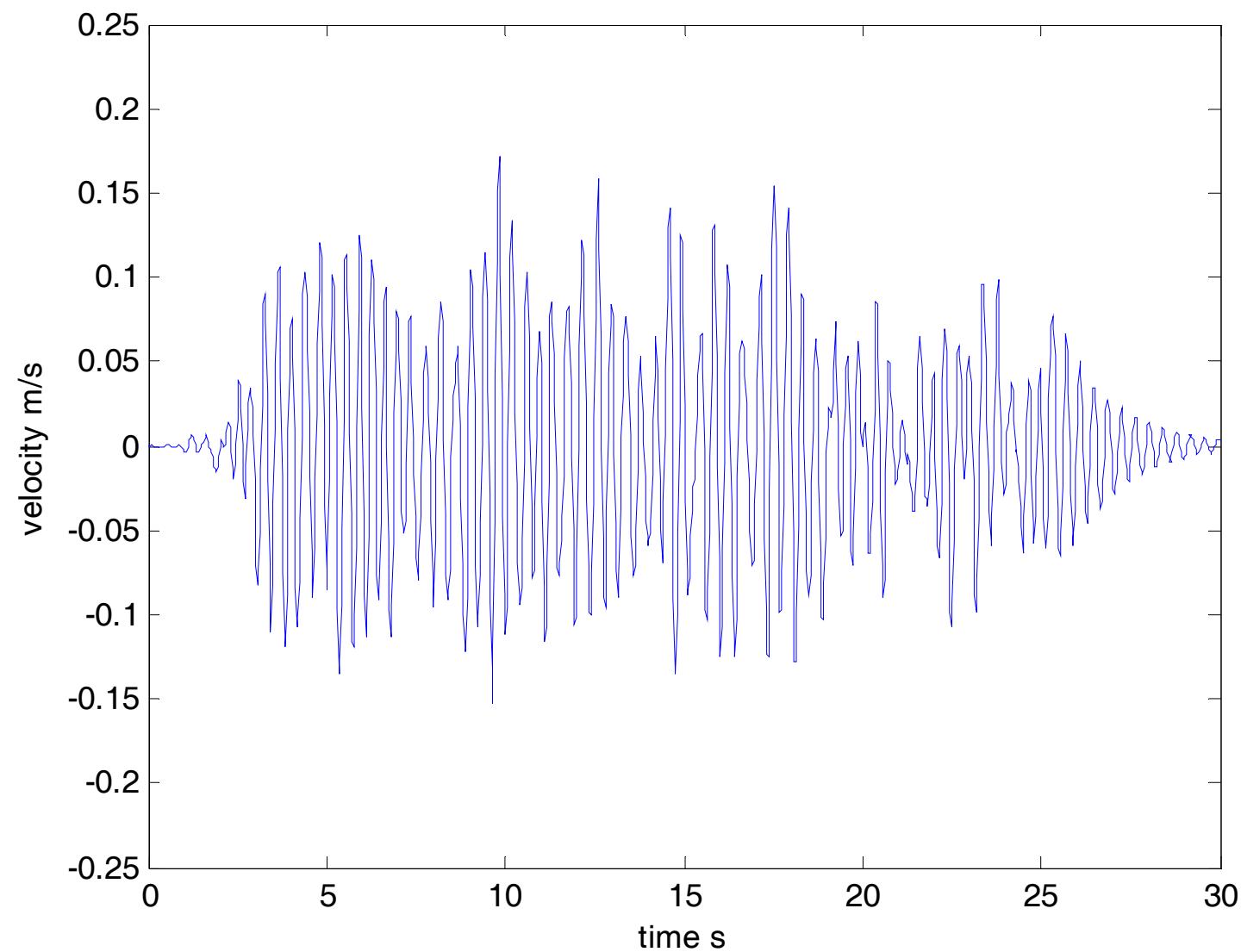
$$L^1 a_1 = S_0 e(t)$$

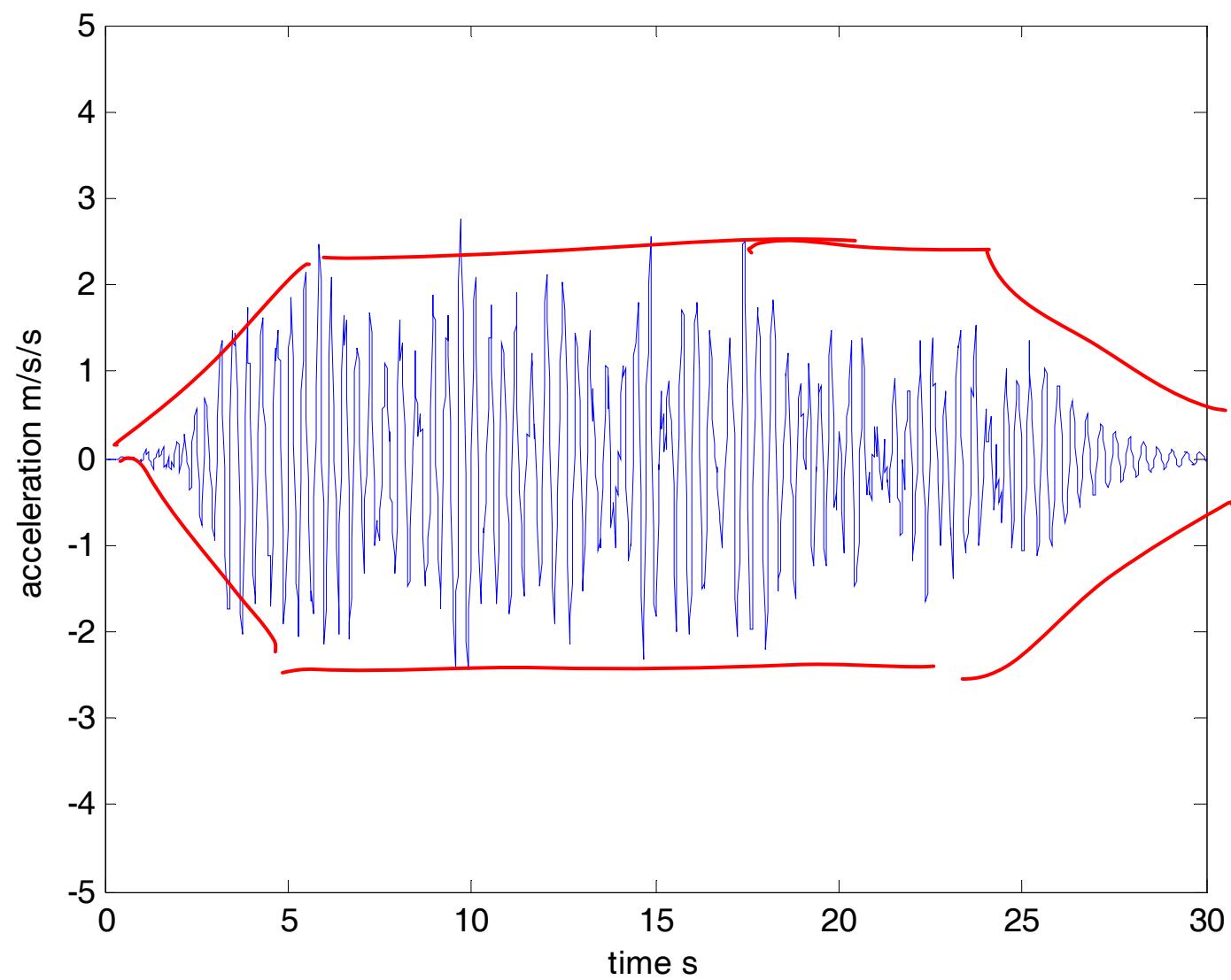
$$L^1 a_2 = (-2\eta_1\omega_1) S_0 e(t)$$

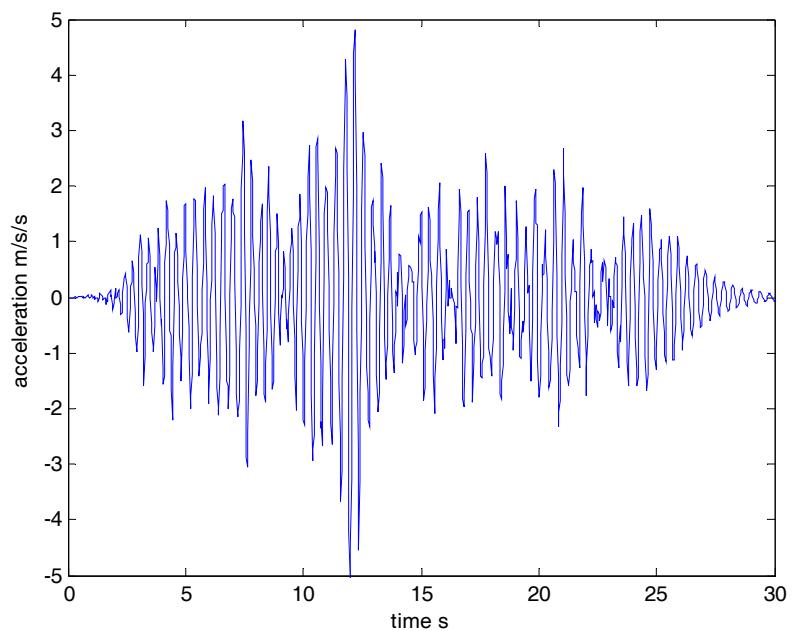
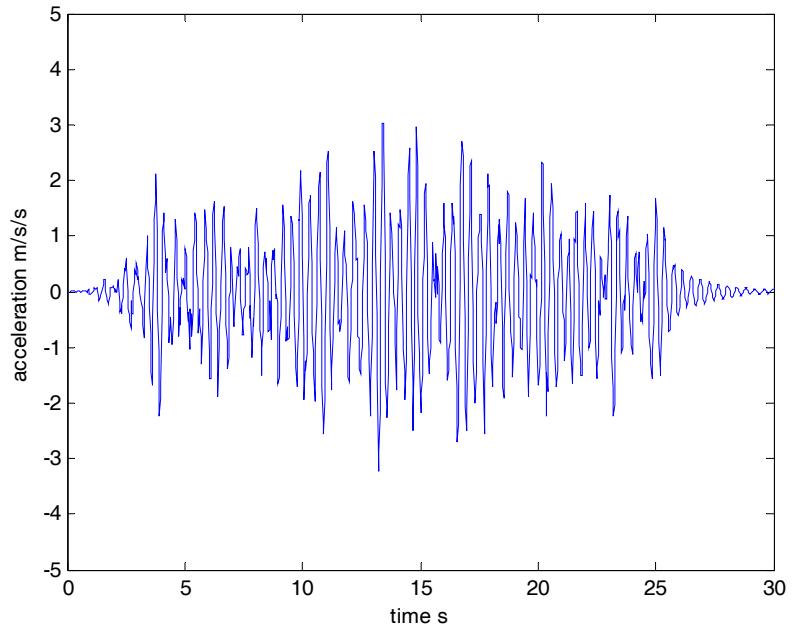
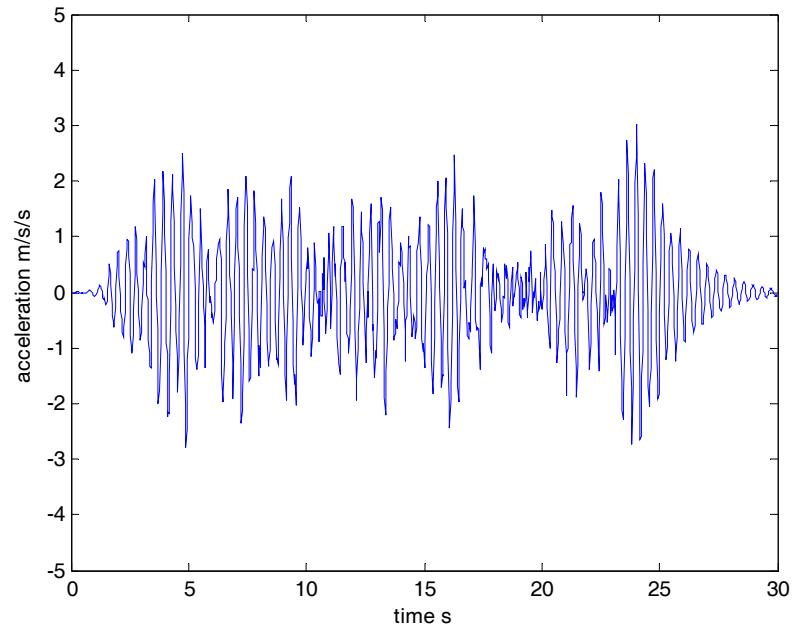
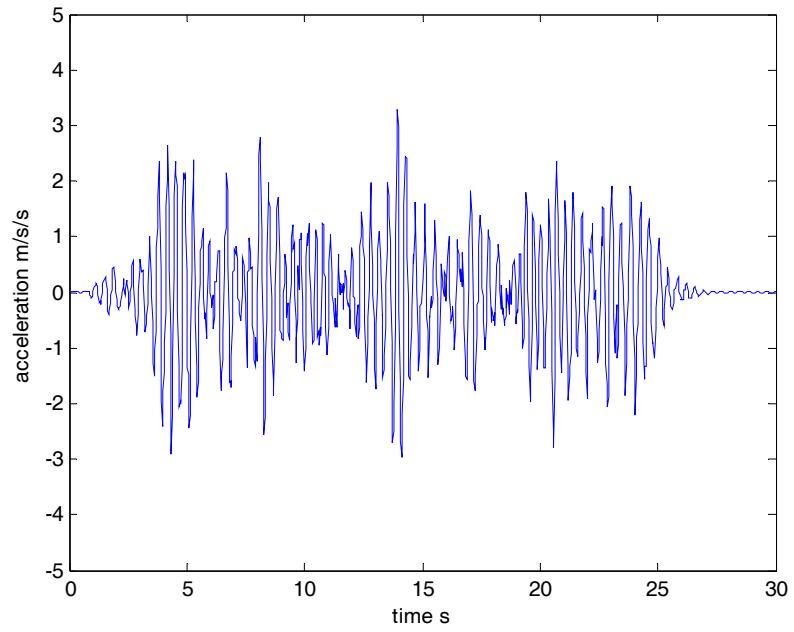
$$L^1 a_3 = 0$$

$$L^1 a_4 = (2\eta_1\omega_1) S_0 e(t)$$









Remarks

Consider the nonstationary random process model

$$\ddot{x}_g(t) = e(t)s(t)$$

with

$e(t)$ =deterministic envelope and

$s(t)$ =zero mean, stationary, Gaussian random process with prescribed PSD function $S(\omega)$.

One could simulate samples of $s(t)$ by using

$$s(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N a_n \sin(\omega_n t) + b_n \cos(\omega_n t)$$

where $a_n, b_n \sim N(0, \sigma_n^2)$, $a_n \perp a_k \forall n \neq k, b_n \perp b_k \forall n \neq k$, &

$$a_n \perp b_k \forall n, k \in [1, N]; \int_{\omega_n}^{\omega_{n+1}} S(\omega) d\omega = 2\pi\sigma_n^2$$

It is not obvious in this approach on how to simulate

$$\text{samples of } [x_g(t) \quad \dot{x}_g(t) \quad \ddot{x}_g(t)]^t.$$

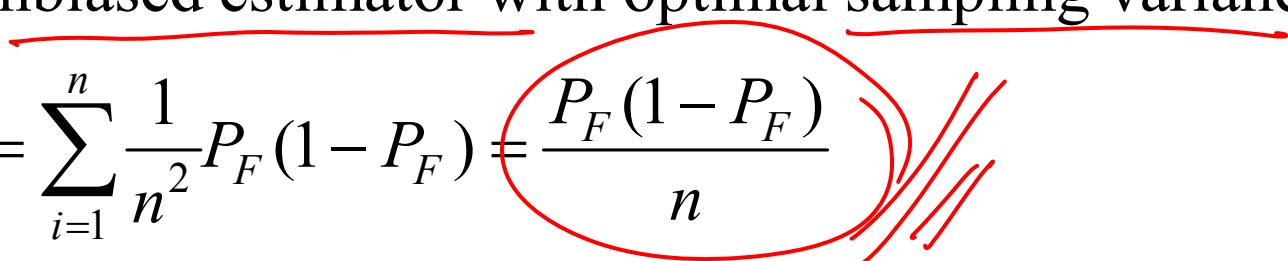
VARIANCE REDUCTION

$$P_f = \int_{g(x) < 0} p_X(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} I[g(x)] p_X(x) dx = \langle I[g(X)] \rangle$$

$$\Theta = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} I[g(X_i)] \quad \checkmark$$

$$\langle \Theta \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \langle I[g(X_i)] \rangle = P_F \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$$

Θ is an unbiased estimator with optimal sampling variance

$$\text{Var}(\Theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n^2} P_F (1 - P_F) = \frac{P_F (1 - P_F)}{n}$$


Illustration

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{P_F(1-P_F)}{n}} \Rightarrow$$

$$\text{Coefficient of variation } \zeta = \frac{\sigma}{m} = \frac{1}{P_F} \sqrt{\frac{P_F(1-P_F)}{n}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \zeta = \sqrt{\frac{(1-P_F)}{P_F n}} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{P_F n}} \text{ (for small } P_F)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Suppose } \zeta = 0.10 \& P_F \approx 10^{-5}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Number of samples needed } n \approx 10^7.$$

$$\text{Similarly, for } \zeta = 0.01, P_F \approx 10^{-5}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Number of samples needed } n \approx 10^9.$$

Remarks

- (1) Variance of estimator $\left(= \frac{P_F(1 - P_F)}{n} \right)$ is independent of size of basic random variable vector X .
- (2) If this variance is large, the utility of estimator becomes questionable.
- (3) It appears that, in order to reduce the variance of the estimator we need to increase sample size n .
- (4) Question: Can we reduce the variance of the estimator without increasing n ?

⇒ **Variance reduction techniques.**

Problem of variance reduction : how to reduce $\text{Var}(\Theta)$ without increasing sample size?

$$P_F = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} I\{g(x) \leq 0\} p_X(x) dx$$

This is re-written as

$$P_F = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{I\{g(x) \leq 0\} p_X(x)}{h_V(x)} h_V(x) dx$$

where $h_V(x)$ is a valid pdf and satisfies the condition

$$p_X(x) > 0 \Rightarrow h_V(x) > 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow P_F = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(x) h_V(x) dx \text{ where}$$

$$F(x) = \frac{I\{g(x) \leq 0\} p_X(x)}{h_V(x)}.$$

$$\Rightarrow P_F = \langle F(X) \rangle_h$$

$\langle \bullet \rangle_h$ = Expectation defined with respect to the pdf $h_V(x)$.

Note: at this stage the function $h_V(x)$ is yet undefined and needs to be suitably selected.

Let $J = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N F(V_i)$ where $\{V_i\}_{i=1}^N$ are drawn from $h_V(x)$.

We have shown that J is an unbiased estimator for P_F which minimizes the sampling variance with the lowest sampling variance being

$$\text{Var}(J) = \frac{\text{Var}[F(V)]}{N}.$$

$$\text{Var}[F(V)] = \left\langle \left\{ \frac{I[g(V) \leq 0] p_X(V)}{h_V(V)} - P_F \right\}^2 \right\rangle$$

We now select $h_V(v)$ such that $\text{Var}[F(V)]$ is minimized. Clearly if we select

$$h_V(v) = \frac{I[g(v) \leq 0] p_X(v)}{P_F} //$$

it follows $\text{Var}[F(V)] = 0$.

This would mean that even with one sample we will get the exact estimate of P_F .

The pdf $h_V(v)$ is called the **ideal importance sampling density function (ispdf)**.

Remarks

- The construction of the ideal ispdf requires the knowledge of probability of failure – the very quantity being sought in the first place.
- The ideal ispdf cannot be realized in practice.
- However, the fact that it is guaranteed to exist itself is an assuring idea: one could look for suboptimal solutions. Here the sampling variance may not be reduced to zero but one could attempt to reduce it.

Evaluation of $I = \int_0^1 x^2 dx$ revisited.

$$\langle x^2 \rangle_{\pi(0,1)}$$

$$I = \int_0^1 x^2 dx = \int_0^1 \frac{x^2}{\pi(x)} \pi(x) dx = \left\langle \frac{X^2}{\pi(X)} \right\rangle_{\pi}$$

Here $\pi(x)$ = a valid pdf defined over 0 to 1.

$\hat{I} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{X_i^2}{\pi(X_i)}$ where $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^N$ are samples drawn from $\pi(x)$.

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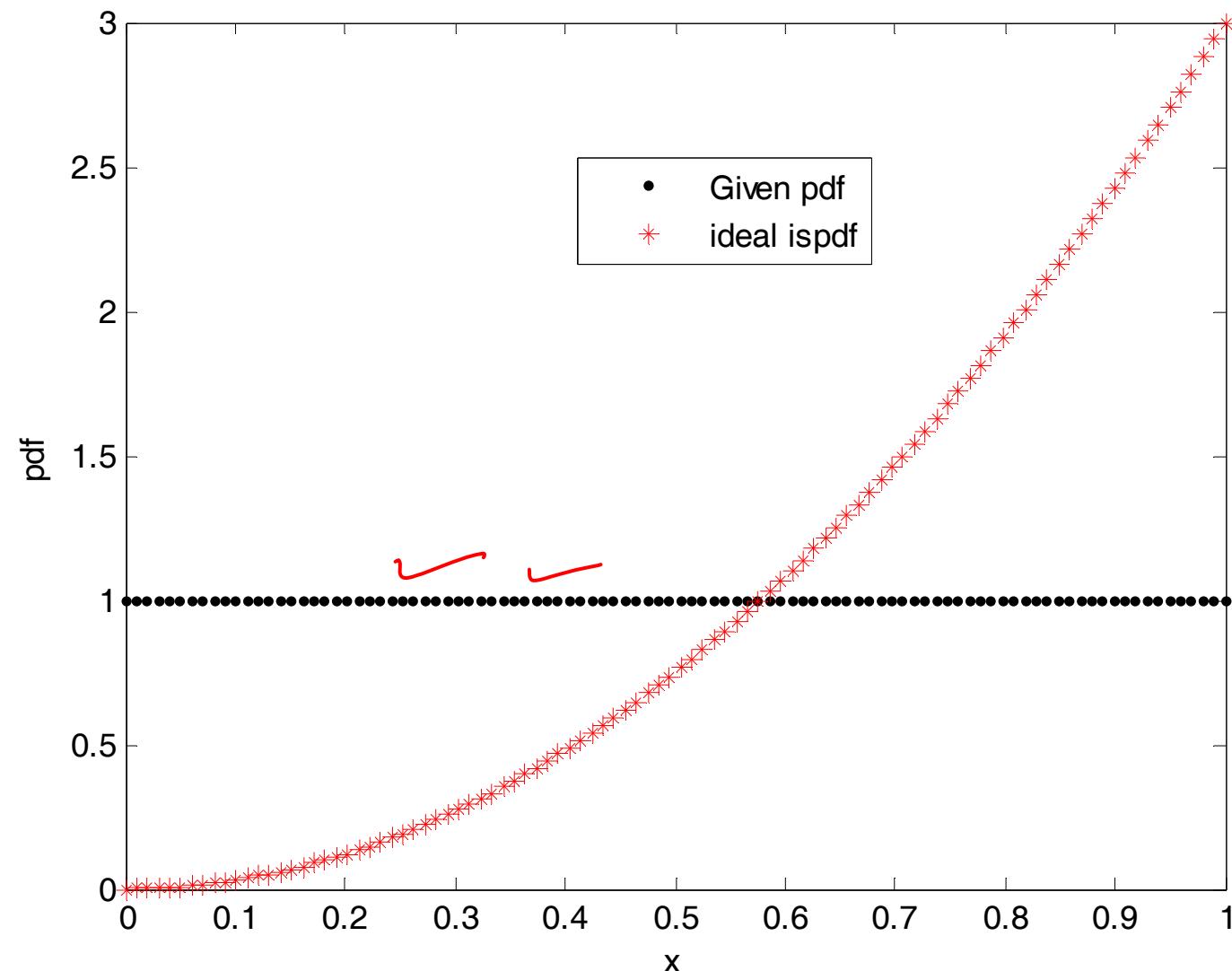
Let $\pi(x) = 3x^2; 0 < x \leq 1$.

$$I = \int_0^1 \frac{x^2}{3x^2} \pi(x) dx$$

$$\hat{I} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{X_i^2}{3X_i^2} = \frac{1}{3} \quad \text{for any value of } N \text{ and hence for } N=1.$$

$\pi(x) = 3x^2; 0 < x \leq 1$ is the ideal ispdf.

Catch: the definition of this ispdf requires the knowledge of I being evaluated.



$$\pi(x) = \alpha x^2; 0 < x < 1$$

$$\int_0^1 \pi(x) dx = 1 \Rightarrow \int_0^1 \alpha x^2 dx = 1 \Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{1}{\int_0^1 x^2 dx} = 3.$$

$$\int_0^1 x^2 dx$$

Remarks :

- (a) Variance reduction can be viewed as a means to use known information about the problem.
 - (b) If nothing is known about the problem, variance reduction is not achievable.
 - (c) At the other extreme, that is, when everything about the problem is known, variance reduces to zero but then simulation itself is not needed.
 - (d) How do we get information about the problem?
 - Perform a few cycles of brute force simulations and learn something about the problem.

Let $X \sim N(0,1)$

Consider the evaluation of

$$\underline{I = P(X > \beta)} = \int_{\beta}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{u^2}{2}\right) du$$

Let $\beta = 3$.

$$I_{exact} = \underline{\underline{0.00134989803163}}.$$

$$\hat{I} \text{ using } \underline{\underline{296318}} \text{ samples (cov} = 0.05) = \underline{\underline{0.00134989803163}}$$

Model -1

While running the simulation in the above step, we collected samples lying in the region $X > \beta$. The mean and standard deviation of this sample set was found, a normal pdf was fitted using these moments and this pdf was used as the ispdf.

With this, $\hat{I} = \underline{\underline{0.01339970654285}}$ (1000 samples).

Model 2

The ispdf was taken here as $N(m,s)$ with

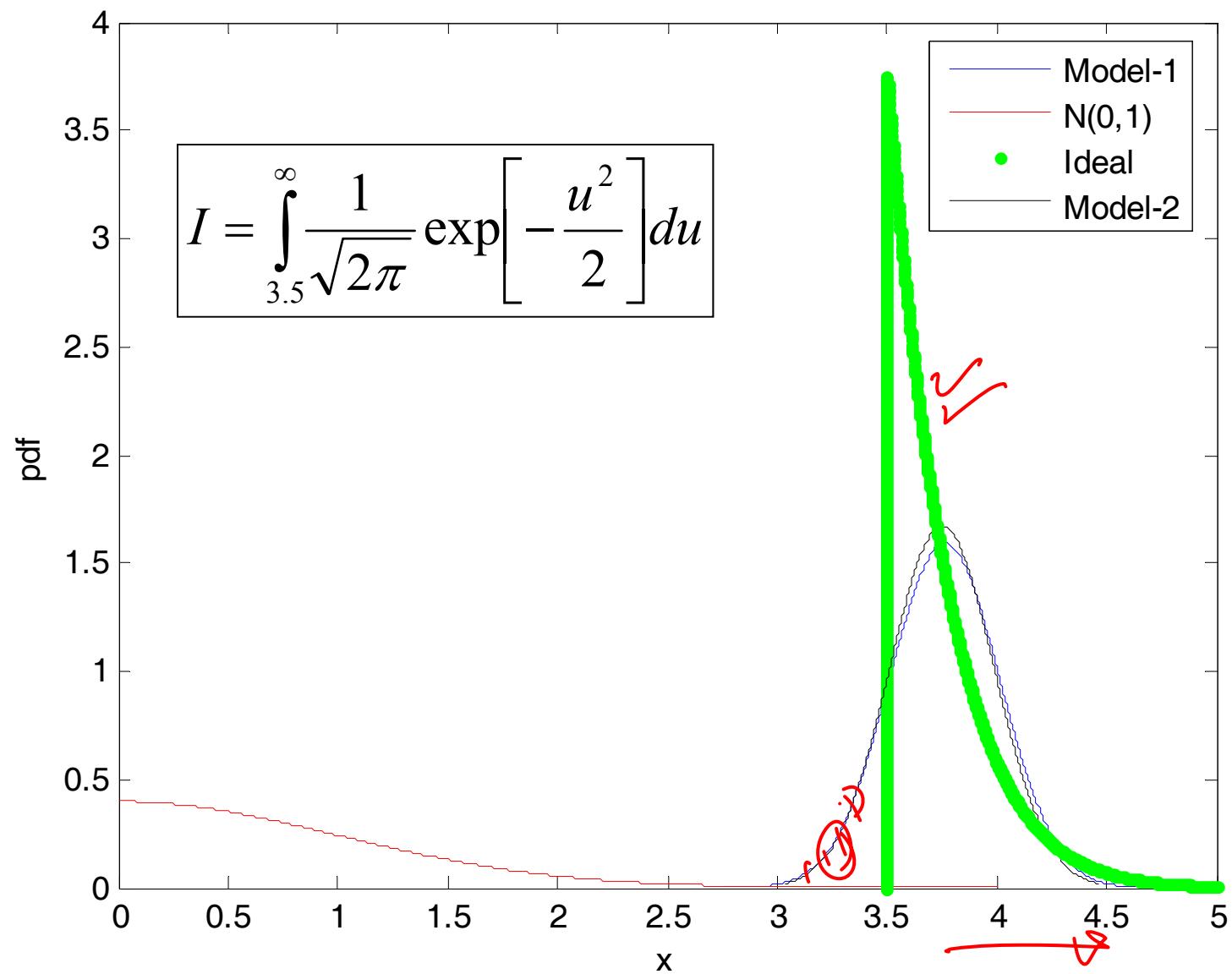
$$m = \langle X | X > \beta \rangle = \frac{\exp\left[-\left(\frac{\beta^2}{2}\right)\right]}{\sqrt{2\pi}\Phi(-\beta)}$$

$$s = \langle (X - m)^2 | X > \beta \rangle = 1 + \beta m - m^2.$$

With this, $\hat{I} = \underline{\underline{0.01436317152000}}$ (1000 samples)

The ideal ispdf

$$h_V^{\text{ideal}}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\Phi(-\beta)} \exp\left[-\frac{x^2}{2}\right] U(x - \beta); \beta < x < \infty$$



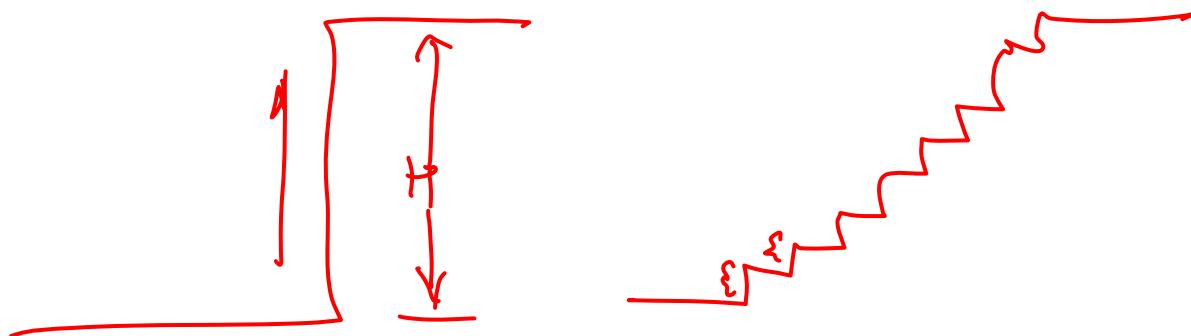
Sub-set simulations using Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

- S K Au and J L Beck, 2001, Estimation of small failure probabilities in high dimension by subset simulation, Probabilistic Engineering Mechanics, 16, 263-277
- J S Liu, 2001, Monte Carlo strategies in scientific computing, Springer, NY.



Basic idea

- Small failure probability can be expressed as a product of larger conditional failure probabilities.
- These larger conditional failure probabilities can be estimated with lesser computational effort.
- The method is applicable to a wide class of problems



Overview of MCMC simulation method

Let X be a $d \times 1$ vector of random variables with jpdf $p_X(x) = \pi(x)$.

This pdf could be specified as $\pi(x) = k\tilde{\pi}(x)$ where k could be unknown.

Objective

To simulate samples of X and to evaluate $E[f(X)]$.

According to MCMC,

$$E[f(X)] \approx \frac{1}{n-m} \sum_{i=m}^n f[X(t_i)] //$$

where $t_0 < t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n$ and $X(t_0), X(t_1), \dots, X(t_n)$ form a Markov Chain with stationary pdf $\pi(x) = k\tilde{\pi}(x)$.

Question

How to form a Markov chain whose stationary pdf $\pi(x) = k\tilde{\pi}(x)$ is specified?

Recall

Markov Property

A scalar random process $X(t)$ is said to possess Markov property if

$$P[X(t_n) \leq x_n | X(t_{n-1}) \leq x_{n-1}, X(t_{n-2}) \leq x_{n-2}, \dots, X(t_1) \leq x_1] \\ = P[X(t_n) \leq x_n | X(t_{n-1}) \leq x_{n-1}]$$

for any n and any choice of $0 < t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n$.

$$\underbrace{p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n; t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)}_{\text{Multi-dimensional jpdf}} = \underbrace{p(x_1; t_1)}_{\text{Initial pdf}} \prod_{v=2}^n \underbrace{p(x_v; t_v | x_{v-1}; t_{v-1})}_{\text{Product of transitional pdfs}}$$

Consistency condition for a vector Markov process (CKS equation)

$$p(x_2; t_2 | x_1; t_1) = \int p(x_2; t_2 | x; \tau) p(x; \tau | x_1; t_1) dx$$

$$t_1 = t_0, t_2 \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow \overbrace{p(x_2; t_2 | x_1; t_1)}^{\equiv} \rightarrow p(x_2; t_2)$$

\Rightarrow

$$p(x_2; t_2) = \int \underbrace{p(x_2; t_2 | x; \tau)}_{\text{KERNEL}} p(x; \tau) dx //$$

This can be written in the form

$$\pi(y) = \int \underbrace{A(x, y)}_{\text{KERNEL}} \pi(x) dx //$$

Metropolis - Hastings algorithm

1. Initialize x_0 ; set $t = t_0$.

2. Define a d -dimensional pdf $\underline{q(\bullet|X_t=x_t)}$ called the proposal pdf.

Draw a sample y from $\underline{q(\bullet|X_t=x_t)}$.

[For example $\underline{q(\bullet|X_t=x_t)} \sim N\{\bullet, \underline{x_t}, \sigma^2 \Sigma\}$]

3. Let $U \sim \mathbf{U}[0,1]$. Simulate a sample \underline{u} from $U \sim \mathbf{U}[0,1]$.

4. Define $\underline{\alpha(x,y)} = \min \left[1, \frac{\pi(y)q(x|y)}{\pi(x)q(y|x)} \right]$.

5. If $\underline{u} < \underline{\alpha(x,y)}$, set $X_{t+1} = \underline{y}$; else $X_{t+1} = \underline{x_t}$.

6. Increment $t \rightarrow t + 1$. If $t = T_{\max}$, exit; else go to 2.

Explanation

We need to show that the stationary pdf of X_t
[simulated as per the algorithm outlined in the previous slide]
is $\pi(x)$.

We have $X_{t+1} = Y$ if $U \leq \alpha(x, y)$
 $= X_t$ otherwise

$$\Rightarrow p_{X_{t+1}}(x_{t+1} | X_t = x_t) = q(y | X_t = x_t) \alpha(x_t, y) + \delta_{x_{t+1}}(x_t) \left[1 - \int q(y | X_t = x_t) \alpha(x_t, y) dy \right]$$

where

$$\delta_{x_{t+1}}(x_t) = I[x_{t+1} = x_t] \text{ with } I[\bullet] \text{ being the indicator function.}$$

Alternative notation

$$p(y | x) = q(y | x) \alpha(x, y) + \delta_y(x) \left[1 - \int q(y | x) \alpha(x, y) dy \right] = A(x, y)$$

We have

$$\int \pi(x) A(x, y) dx = \pi(y) \quad \checkmark$$

Condition of detailed balance

$$\pi(x) A(x, y) = \pi(y) A(y, x) \quad -$$

If this condition is satisfied we get

$$\int \pi(x) A(x, y) dx = \int \pi(y) A(y, x) dx = \pi(y) \int A(y, x) dx = \pi(y)$$

Question:

Does the function

$$p(y|x) = q(y|x) \alpha(x, y) + \delta_y(x) \left[1 - \int q(y|x) \alpha(x, y) dy \right] = A(x, y)$$

satisfy the condition of detailed balance?

$$p(y|x) = \underbrace{q(y|x)\alpha(x,y)}_{\text{red}} + \delta_y(x) \left[1 - \int q(y|x)\alpha(x,y) dy \right]$$

Let us consider the two terms separately for checking the condition of detailed balance.

$$A(x,y) = \underbrace{q(y|x)\alpha(x,y)}_{\text{red}} = q(y|x) \min \left[1, \frac{\pi(y)q(x|y)}{\pi(x)q(y|x)} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{A(x,y)\pi(x)}_{\text{red}} = \min \left[\pi(x)q(y|x), \pi(y)q(x|y) \right] \quad \text{←}$$

Similarly,

$$A(y,x) = q(x|y)\alpha(y,x) = q(x|y) \min \left[1, \frac{\pi(x)q(y|x)}{\pi(y)q(x|y)} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{A(y,x)\pi(y)}_{\text{red}} = \min \left[\pi(x)q(y|x), \pi(y)q(x|y) \right] \quad \text{✗}$$

$$\Rightarrow A(x,y)\pi(x) = A(y,x)\pi(y) \quad \text{✗}$$

\Rightarrow The first term satisfies the condition of detailed balance.

How about the second term?

$$A(x, y) = \delta_y(x) \left[1 - \int q(y|x) \alpha(x, y) dy \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \pi(x) A(x, y) = \delta_y(x) \left[\pi(x) - \int q(y|x) \pi(x) \alpha(x, y) dy \right]$$

$$= \delta_y(x) \left[\pi(x) - \int q(y|x) \pi(x) \min \left[1, \frac{\pi(y) q(x|y)}{\pi(x) q(y|x)} \right] dy \right]$$

$$= \delta_y(x) \left[\pi(x) - \int \min \left[\pi(x) q(y|x), \pi(y) q(x|y) \right] dy \right]$$

Similarly, $A(y, x) = \delta_x(y) \left[1 - \int q(x|y) \alpha(y, x) dx \right]$

$$\pi(y) A(y, x) = \delta_x(y) \left[\pi(y) - \int q(x|y) \pi(y) \alpha(y, x) dx \right]$$

$$= \delta_x(y) \left[\pi(y) - \int \min \left[\pi(y) q(x|y), \pi(x) q(y|x) \right] dx \right]$$

Notice: for the non-zero terms inside the bracket, $x = y$.

\Rightarrow Detailed balance is satisfied by the second term also.

Subset simulation : motivation

$$\underline{m\ddot{y} + c\dot{y} + ky + f[y, \dot{y}, t]} = q(t); y(0), \dot{y}(0) \text{ specified}$$

$q(t)$: zero mean, stationary Gaussian random process.

$$q(t) = \sum_{n=1}^{N_0} \underline{a_n} \cos(\omega_n t) + \underline{b_n} \sin(\omega_n t) //$$

where $a_n, b_n \sim N(0, \sigma_n^2)$, $a_n \perp a_k \forall n \neq k, b_n \perp b_k \forall n \neq k$, &

$$a_n \perp b_k \forall n, k \in [1, N]; \int_{\omega_n}^{\omega_{n+1}} S_{qq}(\omega) d\omega = 2\pi\sigma_n^2$$

Let $\underline{z(t)} = h[y(t), \dot{y}(t), t]$ a metric of system performance.

We are interested in estimating $P[z(t) \leq z^* \forall t \in [0, T]]$.

Note : The system parameters could also be random (θ)

$$1 - P_F = P \left[z(t) \leq z^* \forall t \in [0, T] \right]$$

$$= P \left[\max_{t \in [0, T]} z(t) \leq z^* \right]$$

$$= P \left[\underbrace{Z_m(X)}_{\text{---}} - z^* \leq 0 \right]$$

$$= P \left[g(X) > 0 \right]$$

$$Z_m(X) = \max_{t \in [0, T]} z(t) \cancel{\text{---}}$$

$$g(X) = z^* - Z_m(X) \cancel{\text{---}}$$

$$X = \left\{ \left(a_n, b_n \right)_{n=1}^{N_0}, \theta, z^* \right\}$$

$$P_F = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} I[g(x) \leq 0] p_X(x) dx$$

$$P_F = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} I[g(x) \leq 0] p_X(x) dx //$$

$$\hat{P}_F = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N I[g(X^{(i)}) \leq 0] //$$

Remark

- \hat{P}_F is an unbiased and consistent estimator of P_F with minimum variance. The optimal variance is given by

$$\sigma_{\hat{P}_F}^2 = \frac{P_F(1-P_F)}{n}. //$$

Illustration

$$\sigma_{\hat{P}_F} = \sqrt{\frac{P_F(1-P_F)}{n}} \Rightarrow$$

Coefficient of variation $\zeta = \frac{\sigma}{m} = \frac{1}{P_F} \sqrt{\frac{P_F(1-P_F)}{n}}$

$$\Rightarrow \zeta = \sqrt{\frac{(1-P_F)}{P_F n}} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{P_F n}} \text{ (for small } P_F \text{)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Suppose } \zeta = 0.10 \& P_F \approx 10^{-5}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Number of samples needed } n \approx 10^7.$$

$$\text{Similarly, for } \zeta = 0.01, P_F \approx 10^{-5}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Number of samples needed } n \approx 10^9.$$

Subset simulations

$F = [g(X) \leq 0]$ = Failure event

Define

$F_1 \supset F_2 \supset \dots \supset F_m = F$ such that

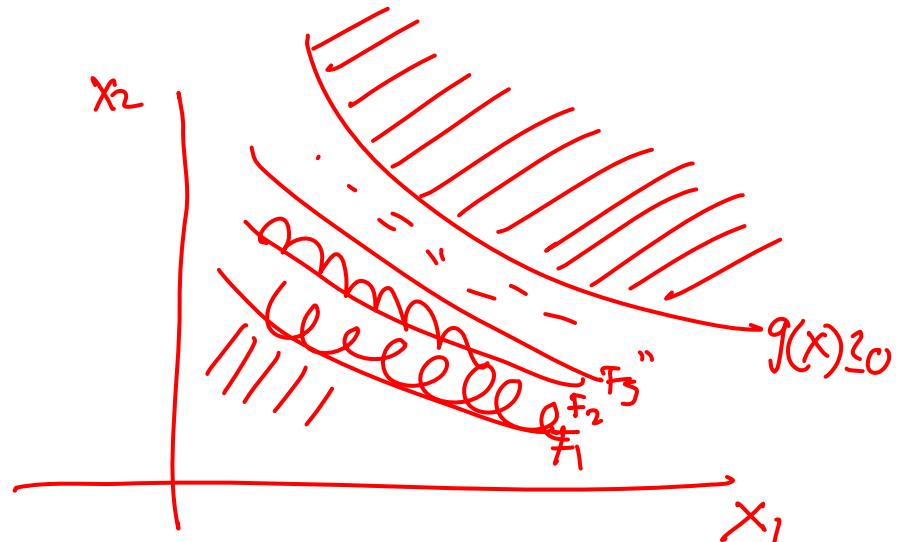
$$\underline{F_k = \bigcap_{i=1}^k F_i, k = 1, 2, \dots, m}$$

$$\underline{P_F = P(F_m)} = P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^m F_i\right)$$

$$= P\left(F_m \mid \bigcap_{i=1}^{m-1} F_i\right) P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{m-1} F_i\right)$$

$$= P\left(F_m \mid F_{m-1}\right) P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{m-1} F_i\right)$$

$$= P(F_1) \prod_{i=1}^{m-1} P\left(\underline{F_{i+1} \mid F_i}\right) //$$



$$P_F = \frac{6}{10}$$

$$= P_{F_1} \cdot P_{F_2} \cdot P_{F_3} \cdots P_{F_m}$$

Remarks

$$P_F = P(F_1) \prod_{i=1}^{m-1} P(F_{i+1} | F_i)$$

If F_i -s are configured such that $P(F_{i+1} | F_i)$ and $P(F_1)$ are much larger than $\underline{P_F}$, then we will be able to estimate P_F in terms of product of "large" probabilities.

Suppose, $\underline{P_F} \sim 10^{-6}$, then we could obtain an estimate of P_F as $\underline{\underline{P_F}} \sim (10^{-1}) \times (10^{-1}) \times (10^{-1}) \times (10^{-1}) \times (10^{-1}) \times (10^{-1})$.

Estimation of probability of failure of the order of $\underline{0.1}$ can be easily done using MCS because the failure events here are more frequent.

Remarks (continued)

$$P_F = P(F_1) \prod_{\underline{i=1}}^{m-1} P(F_{i+1} | F_i)$$

$P(F_1)$ can be estimated using a "brute force" Monte Carlo.

$P(F_{i+1} | F_i), i = 1, 2, \dots, m-1$ can be estimated using MCMC.