Uncertainty quantification and stochastic optimal control: Applications to booster beam steering

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Accelerator control

- For this talk: use Bmad model to predict beam position in response to operator inputs
	- Can control other quantities (polarization, emittance, luminosity, "figure of merit", ...)
- Actual beam position measured (with error) at 24 BPMs
- Bmad can be used in an optimizer to find inputs that better control the beam
	- If Bmad is an accurate "twin" of the real machine
	- Model accuracy depends on assumed, but unknown characteristics of the machine

Uncertainty in accelerator control

- Objective: Steer the beam (or control other beam properties)
- Problem: Imperfect knowledge of the relationship between system inputs (currents) and outputs (beam position)
	- Magnet misalignments
	- Transfer function between current and magnetization
	- Current set points not identical to realized currents in system
- Imperfect modeling can lead to *incorrect* control policy, but we never have *perfect* knowledge

Parameter estimation (tuning)

- **Controls** *c*: known inputs that the operator specifies (currents, …)
- **Parameters** θ : fixed but *unknown* system properties (misalignments, current biases, ...)
- **Model** $m(c; \theta)$: response of the system to its controls, assuming parameters are known
	- e.g., predicted beam position due to currents, if we knew all machine characteristics
	- Here we use Bmad as a "digital twin"
- **• Measurements** *y*(*c*): observed system response to the control
- Estimate parameters by fitting model to measurements, e.g. by least squares:

 θ = arg min_{θ} \sum_i (y_i – m_i (c ; θ)) 2

Parameter estimation (inference)

- In **parameter fitting**, the goal is to find the best-fitting set of parameters
- In Bayesian **uncertainty quantification** (UQ), the goal is to estimate a probability distribution over the unknown parameters, not just a single point estimate (best fit).
	- Posterior distribution (probability of unknown parameters, conditional on measurements):

- When do you want to go to the trouble of UQ?
	- May be *many* "best fits", with different implications for predicted behavior
	- (in pure science) To put error bars on predictions (e.g,. compare theory and experiment)
	- (in control) Nonlinear response / non-Gaussian errors mean that *best fit parameters* don't correspond to *controller with best average performance*
	- (in control) We might want to know the expected reliability of a control policy

 $p(\theta \, y)$

θ

- Example of a 3-parameter model from climate science
- Could tune these parameters to data
- But rather than a point estimate, we can assign each parameter value a probability weight
	- Weight given by "goodness of fit"
- It is (probabilistic, nonlinear) **regression**

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 $\overline{2}$

1850

1900

 $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$

Bayesian inference (probabilistic parameter estimation)

- Goal: infer parameter probability density functions (PDFs) from data • *Conditional* inference: infer parameter uncertainties from known data
	-

To infer posterior PDF, need to know likelihood function (data-generating Bayesian uncertainty quantifies "ignorance" about the true parameter values.

- Bayes theorem: *p*(parameters|data) = *p*(data|parameters) *p*(parameters) / *p*(data) posterior **∝** likelihood ⨉ prior
- distribution) and prior distribution (beliefs about parameters before seeing the data).

Prior distribution: *p*(parameters)

- What you believe about the parameters before you've seen the data
	- Use outside information (physical predictions, other data sources)
	- Priors must be independent of conditioning data (no double-counting)
	- Can use posterior inferred from other data as prior (sequential Bayesian update)
- Elicit booster prior uncertainties from operators
	- trim current errors $\approx \pm 10^{-3}$ (1- σ)
	- magnet misalignments informed from previous surveys
	- transfer function coefficient ranges harder to elicit (not directly measured)

Likelihood function: *p*(data|parameters)

Assume data is distributed randomly (additively) around an accelerator model (e.g. Bmad):

 $y_i = m(c; \theta) + \varepsilon$

iid), zero mean: $\varepsilon \sim N(0,\sigma^2)$ $y_i \sim N(\mu = m_i)$

-
- **Measurements(***BPM location i***) = Model(***control***;** *parameters***) + Noise**
- Assume noise process is noise process (ε) is normal (independent and identically distributed, or $(c; \theta), \sigma^2)$

 $p(y_i \theta) =$ 1 2*πσ*²

$$
\exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(y_i - m_i(c; \theta))^2}{\sigma^2}\right]
$$

$$
\exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\frac{\sum_i (y_i - m_i(c; \theta))}{\sigma^2}\right]
$$

2

 σ^2 |

(Likelihood: one observation)

(Likelihood: all observations)

 $p(y \theta) = \prod_i p(y_i \theta) =$ 1 $\left(\prod_i \sqrt{2\pi\sigma_i^2}\right)$

Likelihood function: *p*(data|parameters)

Note: for an *iid* normal likelihood model, the *maximum likelihood estimate* (MLE) for θ is the same as a *least squares* or *minimum* χ^2 fit.

$$
u = m_i(c; \theta), \sigma^2)
$$

$$
(p(y|\theta)) = \Pi_i p(y_i|\theta) = \frac{1}{\left(\prod_i \sqrt{2\pi\sigma_i^2}\right)} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\frac{\sum_i (y_i - m_i(c;\theta))^2}{\sigma^2}\right] \exp(-\chi^2/2)
$$

iid), zero mean: $\varepsilon \sim N(0,\sigma^2)$

 $y_i \sim N(\mu)$

Assume noise process is noise process (ε) is normal (independent and identically distributed, or

(Likelihood: all observations)

Posterior distribution: *p*(parameters|data)

The posterior is proportional to the product of the likelihood and prior (which we will assume is independent for each parameter).

The log posterior is like a "regularized" least squares fit. If the priors are assumed normal around some typical mean, $\theta_k \thicksim N(\theta_k, \nu_k^\angle)$, then the "maximum a posteriori" (MAP) estimate arises from

$$
p(\theta \ y) \propto p(y \ \theta) p(\theta) = \frac{1}{\left(\prod_i \sqrt{2\pi \sigma_i^2}\right)} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - m_i(c; \theta))^2}{\sigma_i^2}\right] \times \prod_{k=1}^K p(\theta_k)
$$

minimizing a least squares term with an additional "penalty" term on the parameters. $\theta_k \sim N(\bar{\theta}_k, \nu_k^2)$

$$
-\log p(\theta \ y) \propto \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(y_i - m_i(c; \theta))^2}{\sigma^2} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{(\theta_k - \bar{\theta}_k)^2}{\nu^2} + const
$$

Posterior distribution: *p*(parameters|data)

- *However*: These relationships are just to connect to some familiar concepts. *•* In UQ, we usually are not interested in point estimates.
-
-
- (and if we do make a point estimate, it's usually the posterior mean, not MAP) *•* Our real goal is *uncertianty*, which means the full posterior distribution *•* Its mean, variance, and all higher moments
-

$$
p(\theta \ y) \propto p(y \ \theta) p(\theta) = \frac{1}{\left(\prod_i \sqrt{2\pi \sigma_i^2}\right)} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - m_i(c; \theta))^2}{\sigma_i^2}\right] \times \Pi_{k=1}^K p(\theta_k)
$$

Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling

- We want to calculate the posterior distribution. In high dimensions, Monte Carlo sampling works best.
	- sampling converges like $1/\sqrt{N}$, where *N* is # of samples
- How to sample from an arbitrary distribution?
- Approach: importance-biased random walk
	- spend more time sampling high-probability regions
	- (note: samples from a random walk are not independent)

Parameter

Physics note: MCMC

- Sampling from a probability distribution *p*(*x*) is directly analogous to statistical mechanics
	- Sample Boltzmann distribution $p(x) \propto e^{-\beta E(x)}$
	- -log *p*(*x*) is analogous to *potential energy*
- Or lattice gauge theory
	- $p(x) \propto e^{-S[x]}$
	- -log *p*(*x*) is analogous to the *action*
- Advanced Bayesian inference uses *hybrid Monte Carlo* (HMC), just like lattice QCD
	- Requires calculating gradient of *p*(*x*)
	- Which for us means the gradient of the model output (e.g., Bmad beam position) w.r.t. the parameters
	- *Differentiable Bmad* would be very helpful

Metropolis MCMC algorithm

- Let the target distribution $\pi(\theta)$ be the posterior, $p(\theta | y)$
- Construct a random walk as follows:
	- 1. Start at point θ
	- 2. Propose moving to a new point θ' randomly, according to some easy to sample symmetric distribution $t(\theta'|\theta)$ (e.g., a Gaussian perturbation)
	- 3. If this moves us to a higher probability point, $\pi(\theta') > \pi(\theta)$, accept the move to θ'
	- 4. If this moves us to a <u>lower</u> probability point, <u>accept randomly with probability</u> $\pi(\theta')/\pi(\theta)$; else reject and stay at the same point θ
	- 5. Either way, record the point you end up at to construct the Markov chain
	- 6. Repeat

Code for Bayesian regression

```
function metropolis(lpdf, num_iter, x<sub>0</sub>, step)
    D = \text{length}(x_0)In [ ]:
    chain = zeros(num\_iter, D)chain[1,:] = x_0In [217]:
    x, lp = x_0, lpdf(x_0)num\_accept = 0for i = 2:num\_iterx' = x + step.* randn(D) # proposal
        lp' = lpdf(x'))if log(rand()) < 1p' - 1p \# <i>Metropolis</i>x, lp = x', lp'num\_accept = num\_accept + 1end
        chain[i, :] = xend
    return (chain, num_accept/num_iter)
end
```

```
A = 2CLO(L)<br>Acros is included this has an uncertain parameter, to see what \sqrt{D}sensitivity uncertainty.
metropolis (geneC = 4184000 * d # heat capacity/area [J/K/m^2]return (chaiunction model(p)
          end
         # log lik = -le
                              \lambda, d, \alpha, T<sub>0</sub> = p
                              \Delta t = 31557600. # year [s]
                               F = forcing non aerosol + \alpha* forcing aerosol
                               T = zero(F)for i in 1: length (F)-1T[i+1] = T[i] + (F[i] - \lambda * T[i]) / C * \Delta t end
                              return T.+ To
                          end
```

```
function log_pombasion(pheric function with 2 methods)
   \lambda, d, \alpha, T<sub>0</sub> = p
    log post = -Infif \lambda > 0 && d > 0 && \alpha > 0 # parameters in range
F2xCO2 <del>Eeqidu#lforcYng FAY doubled</del> PD[midxh2]
        lpri \lambda = logpdf(LogNormal(log(3), log(2)/2), F2xCO2/\lambda)
+ log(F2xCO2/\lambda^2) # ECS prior + Jacobian (ECS = F2xCO2/\lambda)
lpri_d = Pogpdf(Normal(100, "25), d)
        lpri \alpha = logpdf(LogNormal(log(1), log(1.5)/2), \alpha)
        lpri T<sub>0</sub> = 0log pri = lpri_\lambda + lpri_d + lpri_α + lpri_To # prior
        \sigma = 0.1 # observational noise standard deviation [K]
        r = temp obs - model(p)[mid]# data-model residual
        log lik = sum(logpdf.(Normal(0,σ), r)) # likelihood
     \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}Inri d Fesidual (generic function with 1 method)
                midx = time_obs .- time_forcing[1] .+ 1 \# model out
```

```
log\_post = log\_lik + log\_pri # posterior
```
end

return log_post

Optimizing control inputs

- **Control** *c*: currents or other inputs that the operator can specify
- **Model** *m*(*c*): the modeled system response to inputs (e.g., beam position)
- **Objective**: a metric of system performance (e.g., a loss function) to optimize
	- $\mathscr{L}(m(c)) = \sum_i (\bar{z}_i m_i(c))^2$ (deviation of beam position from target position at BPMs) 2

• Find control that optimizes objective:

 c^{\star} = arg min *c* $\mathscr{L}(m(c))$

$$
\bullet \ \ (\mathbf{e}.\mathbf{g}.,\,\bar{z_i}=0)
$$

• Solve using standard optimization algorithms (quasi-Newton, gradient descent, …)

Stochastic optimization for control inputs

- **Control** *c*: inputs that the operator can specify
- **Parameters** θ : unknown system characteristics
	- Assume we have inferred a distribution $p(\theta)$ representing parameter uncertainty (e.g. a posterior $p(\theta|y)$)
- **Model** $m(c;\theta)$: the modeled system response to inputs (e.g., beam position)
- **Objective**: a metric of system performance (e.g., a loss function) to optimize
	- $\mathscr{L}(m(c; \theta \ y)) = \sum_i (\bar{z}_i m_i(c; \theta))^2$ (deviation of beam position from target position at BPMs)
- Stochastic control aims to be *robust to uncertainties* in quantities we can't estimate perfectly

• Find control that optimizes *expected* objective (average over Monte Carlo parameter samples { *^j*}):

• Solve with a *stochastic* optimizer (designed to handle noisy objective functions)

≈

- c^* = arg min_c \mathbb{E}_{θ} \int $\mathscr{L}(m(c; \theta))$]
	- ∑ *j*=1 *N* ∑ *i*=1 $(\bar{z}_i - m_i(c; \theta_j))^2$

1

J

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On optimal control methods

- There are many optimization methods floating around
	- Bayesian optimization, gradient descent, quasi-Newton methods, …
- There are many ways to formulate beam control as an optimization problem
	- Nonlinear loss minimization, expected utility maximization (with chance constraints), robust optimization/control, classical control theory, reinforcement learning
- Probably a digression to discuss pros/cons in this talk, but we should discuss in the project
- The methods discussed here are adapted for this setting:
	- There is a physical system model, which is much cheaper than real experiments
	- We can solve control policies offline using the physical model (digital twin)
	- The model is imperfect, but imperfections are learnable via data-model comparisons
	- There are many variables to control; maybe many uncertain system parameters
	- Decisions are one-off / non-sequential (if sequential, can extend to RL-like approaches)

Model emulation

- where many evaluations are required
-
- **4/2021 Suriace Gaudian Processes** Alexandria Processes-Conditional Processes-Co

- A Gaussian processes is a probability distribution on a space of *functions* • Can be used for *probabilistic* interpolation / regression
-
- Draw, say, 1000 Gaussian random samples and plot them over "space":

Y_i ∼ *N*(0,1)

= $[0^2 * exp(-((x1-x2))/\lambda)^2)$ for x1 in xp, x2 in xp]

 ${\tt plot(xp,~rand(MvNormal(\mu, \Sigma))}$, lw=3, label="", tickfontsize=12, ylim=(-3,3)) p \ge c! (xp, ratid (MvNormaloul, 2) t. dirt 3), algotin "o rigit fontoit (ni) • Draw 1000 random variables, put *correl gig de signed* with each other; here are 3 draws:

Gaussian process regression as emulation

- A Gaussian processes is a probability distribution on a space of *functions*
- Ω ohilietia in \mathbb{F} • Can be used for *probabilistic in*terpolation / regression $\Sigma = \Sigma + 1e-10I$
-

$$
Y \sim N(0, \Sigma), \qquad \Sigma_{ij} = \text{Cov}(Y_i, Y_j)
$$

$$
\text{Cov}(Y_i, Y_j) = \sigma^2 \exp\left[-\left(\frac{X_i - X_j}{\lambda}\right)^2\right]
$$

 $\Sigma = [\sigma^2 + \exp(-((x1-x2)/λ)^2)]$ for x1 in xp, x2 in xp]

• Draw 1000 random variables, put *correl igted* with each other; here are 3 draws: plot(xp, rand(MvNormal(μ,Σ)), lw=3, label="" , tickfontsize=12, ylim=(-3,3)) p 200! (xp, pard (MvNormalou, 2) f, dv=3, laved=1-" "o rigkfontsife-12) p lot! $\chi_{\rm X}$ p, Yand(MvNormal(μ, Σ) , \sim lw=3, Mabel="", Mekfontsize=12)

Gaussian process regression as emulation

- A Gaussian processes is a probability distribution on a space of functions
- Can be used for *probabilistic in*terpolation / regression μ \blacksquare \texttt{kerd} (xp) $+ 1e-10T$
-

$$
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$$

$$
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$$

- A Gaussian processes is a probability distribution on a space of functions
- Can be used for *probabilistic* interpolation / regression μ = $\text{ker}\theta$ (xp) Σ = Σ + 1e-10I
-

$$
Y \sim N(0, \Sigma), \qquad \Sigma_{ij} = \text{Cov}(Y_i, Y_j)
$$

$$
\text{Cov}(Y_i, Y_j) = \sigma^2 \exp\left[-\left(\frac{X_i - X_j}{\lambda}\right)^2\right]
$$

* $exp(-(x1-x2)/\lambda)^2)$ for x1 in xp, x2 in xp]

• Draw 1000 random variables, but *correlated* with each other; here are 3 draws: plot(xp, rand(MvNormal(μ,Σ)), lw=3, label="" , tickfontsize=12, ylim=(-3,3)) p Δ ve!(xp, rand(MvNormal), at ovt3, arist h""oriekfontsit (nio) p lot $\mathfrak{p}(\text{xp}, \text{Yand}(\text{Mvnormal}(\mu, \Sigma), \text{y}) \rightarrow 1 \text{w=3}, \text{Yaldel=}}$ "", Yiekfontsize=12)

- imposing a correlation over space (nearer points are more correlated) In [92]: plot(xp, yp.+100, xlim=[0,15], ylim=[-3,3], legend=false, xlabel="Model inp $p1$ ot! $(Y_xp, Y_p1, Y_1w=2)$
- A Gaussian process is the continuum limit of this idea to *random functions* plot!(xp, yp2, lw=2) \mathbf{S} Sot!(xp, red. α p3)
- We can be Bayesian, and *condition* on "observed" data to get a *posterior*:

• We have seen that we can draw *random yectors* that have smooth behavior by

- imposing a correlation over space (nearer points are more correlated)
- A Gaussian process is the continuum limit of this idea to *random functions* plot!(xp, yp2, lw=2) p pcoticxet, lyp3, dvt? $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$
- We can be Bayesian, and *condition* on "observed" data to get a *posterior*: scatter!(xt, yt, color="red", markersize=8)

• We have seen that we can draw *candom* yectors that have smooth behavior by

Errors in variables

- We have assumed that the controls (e.g., currents) are perfectly known, because we set them • But what if the true control is unknown (currents fluctuate randomly, or there is a persistent but unknown bias
- between set point and realized current)?
	- The model has noisy inputs in addition to noisy outputs
- We can treat the "true" controls as *parameters* to infer ("latent variables")
	- Probability model for set current as random perturbation of true current: $\tilde{c}_d \sim N(c_d, \varsigma_d^2)$
	- Find joint posterior for parameters and true currents $p(\theta, c, y, \tilde{c})$

 $p(\theta, c \ y, \tilde{c}) \propto p(y \ \theta) p(c \ \tilde{c}) p(\theta) p(c)$

$$
\propto \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N}(y_i - m_i(c; \theta))^2}{\sigma_i^2}\right] \times \prod_{k=1}^{K} \frac{(\theta_k - \bar{\theta}_k)^2}{\nu_i^2} \times \prod_{d=1}^{D} \frac{(\tilde{c}_d - c_d)^2}{\varsigma_d^2}
$$

Obtain parameter posterior by integrating out ("marginalizing over") latent variables: $p(\theta \, \ y, \tilde{c}) = \int p(\theta, c \, \ y, \tilde{c}) \, dc$

Do any of these uncertainties matter?

- So far we've been proceeding under the assumption that we know which parameters are responsible for beam positioning, or Bmad model misfit
	- We just have to quantify their effects
- What if we don't know what matters?
	- Magnet misalignments, transfer function, trim currents
- Can we go through a list of suspects, and identify or quantify their importance?
	- In terms of influence on model prediction, or data-model misfit
- Characterizing the response of outputs to inputs is known as **sensitivity analysis**
- Traditional approach: "one-at-a-time" (OAT) parameter scan
	- Pick a parameter, change its value over a range (fixing all other parameters at nominal)
	- Doesn't pick up any interactions between parameters
	- Can be sample-inefficient (most of the time you aren't learning about most parameters)
	- Be aware of overconfidence: exploring parameters and stopping when one shows an effect

Accounting for uncertainty in sensitivity analysis

- OAT: change one parameter, holding all others fixed
- -

• Alternative: change one parameter, *sampling randomly* over all other parameters (given a distribution) • Accounts for uncertainty in the response of one parameter, due to variability in other parameters

Variance-based global sensitivity analysis (GSA)

- Sobol' decomposition: **Analysis-of-variance (ANOVA) to construct a model's "uncertainty budget"** • Requires user to specify a probability distribution over uncertain inputs
-
- **How much of the output uncertainty can be attributed to the uncertainty in a particular input?**
	- Or, how much could we reduce output uncertainty if we learned the true value of an input?
- **How much does an input contribute directly, and indirectly through correlations with other inputs?** • Quantifies importance of (2-way, 3-way, …) interactions between input variables
-
- **Contrast with "one-at-a-time" parameter scans**
	- Don't identify contributions to output uncertainty, or detect interactions
- **Specific advantages when GSA is coupled with an emulator:**
	- Fast, closed-form analytic solutions for sensitivity metrics
	- Change assumptions about input uncertainties without new simulations

Global sensitivity analysis, quantitatively

• Expected output uncertainty after learning true input, averaged over input uncertainty = **E***i***(Var~***i***(***Y|Xi***))**

• Normalizing by the output variance gives the **first-order sensitivity index**, *Si =* **Var***i***(E~***i***(***Y|Xi***)) / Var(Y)**

- How much would we reduce uncertainty in output *Y*, if we learned the value of the *i*th input, *Xi*?
	- Difficulty: we don't know the true value of *Xi*
- Uncertainty in output due to uncertainty in all inputs = **Var(***Y***)**
- Uncertainty in output, after learning the true value *x* of input $X_i = \text{Var}_{-i}(Y|X_i=x)$
-
- Expected reduction in uncertainty after learning input $i = \text{Var}(Y) E_i(\text{Var}_{-i}(Y|X_i))$
	- Also equal to **Var***i***(E~***i***(***Y|Xi***))**, via law of total variance
-
- Nested expectations calculated by sampling, or (sometimes) analytically with an emulator of *Y*(*X*)
- We can define similar indices for *interactions* between pairs of variables, *Sij*
-
- A large first-order sensitivity means it would be valuable to reduce uncertainty in that variable
- A small total sensitivity means that variable's uncertainty is negligible (it does not influence output uncertainty either directly, or indirectly through its interactions with other variables)

• The sum of first-order and interaction sensitivities is the **total sensitivity index**, *Ti* = **E***~i***(Var***i***(***Y|X~i***)) / Var(Y)**

Code for global sensitivity analysis function random ra $x = rand.(d)$ $X[i] = Xi$ **x** end

conditional draw on x*ᵢ* rand $i(d, i, xi) = [j==i ? xi : rand(d[j]) for j=1:length(d)]$ # conditional draw on $X - i$ rand! $i(d, i, x!i) = [j == i ? rand(d[i]) : x!i[j]$ for $j = 1: length(d)]$

randi (generic function with 1 method)

Sobol' first-order sensitivity index $S(m, d, i, N) = var(mean(m(randi(d, i, xi)) for k=1:N) for xi in rand(d[i], N))$ / $var(m(rand.(d))$ for $j=1:N^2)$

Sobol' total sensitivity index / $var(m(rand.(d))$ for $j=1:N^2)$

T (generic function with 2 methods)

 $(0.33040334405407973, 0.39325921115615553)$ S(model, d, 2, 10000, 10000), T(model, d, 2, 10000, 10000)

-
-

```
T(m, d, i, N) = mean(var(m(rand.i(d,i,x'i)) for k=1:N) for xi in (randi(d,i,NaN) for j=1:N))
```


Global sensitivity analysis example

- Sensitivity of flooding to sea level rise and hurricane direction, speed, and intensity
- This does not mean these two inputs are correlated with each other (though they can be)
- Rather, nonlinear variations in the output may occur when two variables change together
- These effects would be invisible if the inputs were varied one-at-a-time

Optimal experimental design

- Which experiments would give us the information we need to help us control the beam?
- Choose experiments whose data would reduce uncertainties the most?
	- Or rather, most reduce the objective to the stochastic optimal control problem

Optimal experimental design: Mathematics

- Uncertainty about parameter distribution $p(\theta)$ given by $\mathsf{entropy}\ H[\theta] = \mathbb{E}_{\theta}[\log p(\theta)]$
- What experiment d would most reduce the entropy (maximize *information gain*)
	- Possible experimental outcomes are random, with probability distribution *p*(*y θ*, *d*)
	- Observing an outcome y gives a new distribution $p(\theta | y)$ with entropy $H[\theta | y]$.
	- We want to maximize information gain (entropy reduction) *H*[*θ*] − *H*[*θ y*]
- The problem is, we don't know which outcome y we will measure
- Choose d to maximize expected information gain (EIG), averaged over possible outcomes

• $EIG = \mathbb{E}_y \rho_{d} H[\theta] - H[\theta] y]$

• Are results Gaussian? Correlated? May inform approximations we make in the future

What next?

- We need to identify controls (and their ranges) that matter to the beam position
	- More expert elicitation, sensitivity analysis / parameter screening, ...
- Perform UQ
	-
- Stochastic optimization
	- Minimize expected loss via BFGS, gradient descent, BO, …
- Optimal experimental design
- How important are Bmad structural errors (biases, missing physics, ...?)
	- Keep adding things to Bmad? Some other approach
- Sequential / realtime decision making?
	-
	- Reinforcement learning (accounting for future decisions in present actions)
		-

• Amortized myopic optimization (precompute policy: optimal solution conditional on state)

• RL with UQ: all state variables become *belief states* (infinite-dimensional distributions)

