

Diffusion Non-Additive Model for Multi-Fidelity Simulations with Tunable Precision

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Outline

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 - Multi-fidelity data
 - Problem Setup
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Multi-Fidelity Simulations

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- **Computer simulations** numerically solve these models using methods such as finite elements or finite differences.

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 - **Intermediate-fidelity simulation**: between high and low fidelity

Motivating Example: Finite Element Simulations

- Thermal stress in a jet engine turbine blade can be analyzed through a static structural **computer model**.
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- **Input:** $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2) = (\text{pressure, suction})$
- **Output:** $f(\mathbf{x})$: **maximum thermal stress**
- Example: $\mathbf{x} = (0.23, 0.71)$

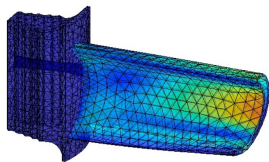
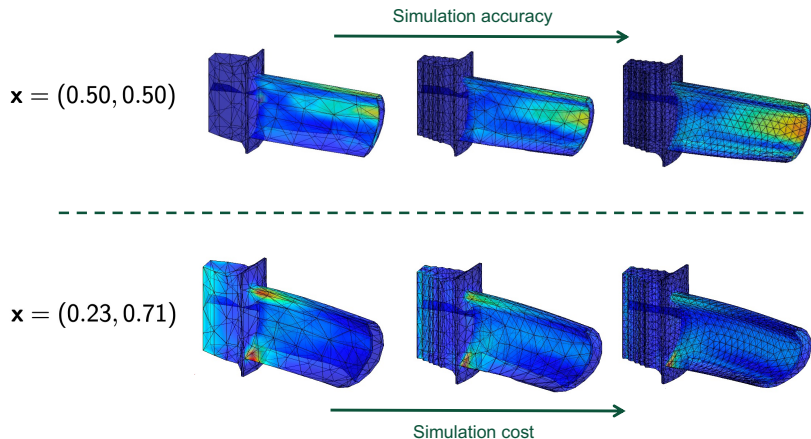


Figure: Thermal stress profile with $f(0.23, 0.71) = 20.3$.

Multi-Fidelity Simulations

less accurate but cheaper

accurate but expensive



Multi-Fidelity Emulation

- Can we leverage both **low-fidelity** and **high-fidelity** simulations to build a statistical emulator?

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- A **statistical emulator**, also known as a **surrogate model**, approximates the output of the high-fidelity simulator:

$$\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{x}),$$

where $f(\mathbf{x})$ is the high-fidelity simulator and \mathbf{x} is the input.



Jet Blade Simulations

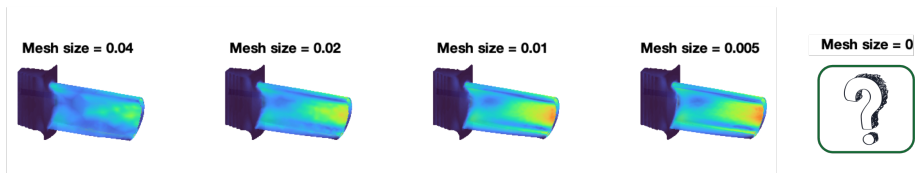


Figure: Jet blade simulations with different mesh configurations

- The fidelity level is controlled by the **mesh size**.

Jet Blade Simulations

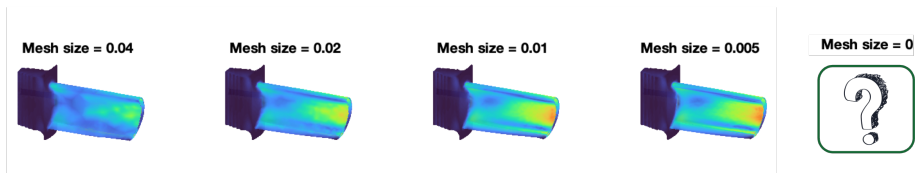


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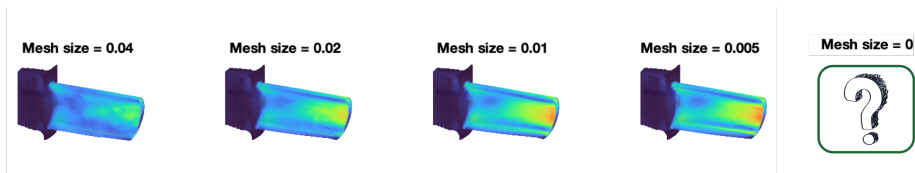


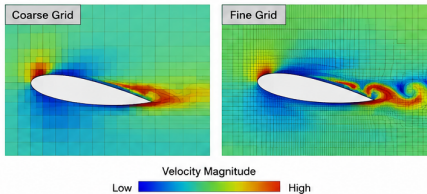
Figure: Jet blade simulations with different mesh configurations

- The fidelity level is controlled by the **mesh size**.
- **Q1:** Can we account for the mesh size and **extrapolate** to the **exact finite element solution** (**mesh size = 0**)?
- **Q2:** How should we choose both the **input locations** and the **mesh sizes** when running simulations?

Other Applications

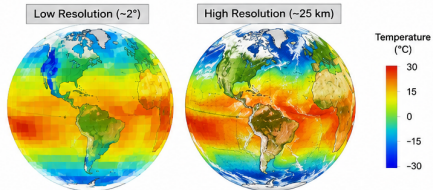
Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD)

coarse-grid vs. fine-grid simulations



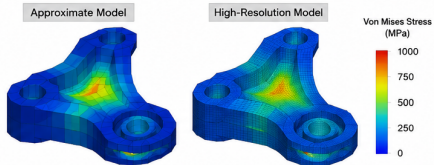
Climate Modeling

low-resolution vs. high-resolution models



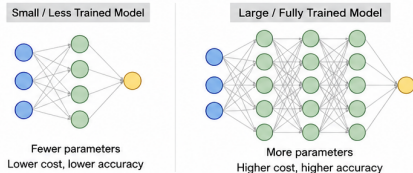
Materials and Manufacturing

approximate vs. high-resolution simulations



Machine Learning / AI

small models vs. fully trained systems



Common theme: combine **cheap approximate** information with **expensive accurate** information.

Problem Setup

Let $f(t_l, \mathbf{x})$ denote the scalar output of a simulator with input $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and tuning parameter t_l .

- Simulations are available at L fidelity levels:

$$t_1 > t_2 > \cdots > t_L > 0.$$

- Smaller t_l corresponds to higher fidelity but higher computational cost.
- **Goal:** build an emulator for the exact solution

$$f(0, \mathbf{x}),$$

which is typically infeasible to evaluate directly.

Training Data

At fidelity level l , simulations are run at design points

$$\mathcal{X}_l = \{\mathbf{x}_i^{[l]}\}_{i=1}^{n_l} \subset \Omega.$$

The corresponding outputs are

$$\mathbf{y}_l = \{f(t_l, \mathbf{x})\}_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}_l}, \quad y_i^{[l]} = f(t_l, \mathbf{x}_i^{[l]}).$$

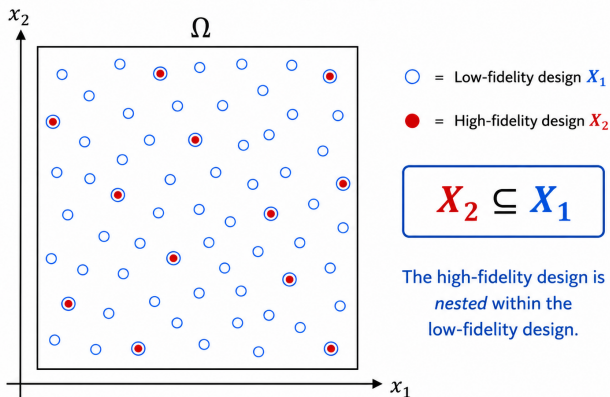
- \mathcal{X}_l : design points at fidelity level l .
- \mathbf{y}_l : simulation outputs at fidelity level l .
- The emulator learns from all fidelity levels jointly.

Nested Multi-Fidelity Design

We first assume a sequentially nested design:

$$\mathcal{X}_L \subseteq \mathcal{X}_{L-1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \mathcal{X}_1 \subseteq \Omega.$$

Nested Multi-Fidelity Design (Two Levels)



Existing Methods: Discrete Fidelity Levels

- The canonical approach is the **auto-regressive** (AR) model (Kennedy and O'Hagan, 2000):

$$\begin{aligned}f_1(\mathbf{x}) &= Z_1(\mathbf{x}), \\f_l(\mathbf{x}) &= \rho_{l-1}f_{l-1}(\mathbf{x}) + Z_l(\mathbf{x}), \quad 2 \leq l \leq L,\end{aligned}$$

where $f_l(\mathbf{x})$ is the scalar simulation output at fidelity level l , and each Z_l is modeled as a Gaussian process (GP).

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where $f_l(\mathbf{x})$ is the scalar simulation output at fidelity level l , and each Z_l is modeled as a Gaussian process (GP).

- The **recursive non-additive** (RNA) model (Heo and Sung, 2025) generalizes the AR structure:

$$f_l(\mathbf{x}) = W_l(\mathbf{x}, f_{l-1}(\mathbf{x})), \quad 2 \leq l \leq L,$$

where $W_l(\cdot, \cdot)$ is modeled as a GP over the augmented input $(\mathbf{x}, f_{l-1}(\mathbf{x}))$, allowing a flexible nonlinear relationship between adjacent fidelity levels.

Existing Methods: Continuous Fidelity Level

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- Tuo et al. (2014) decomposes the simulator as

$$f(\mathbf{x}, t) = \underbrace{\varphi(\mathbf{x})}_{\text{exact solution } f(\mathbf{x}, 0)} + \underbrace{\delta(\mathbf{x}, t)}_{\text{numerical error}},$$

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- Boutelet and Sung (2025) extends this framework with an **adaptive nonstationary kernel** inspired by fractional Brownian motion, together with **active learning** for selecting both \mathbf{x} and t .



Heo, J., Boutelet, R., Wang, W. and **Sung, C.-L.** (2025)

Diffusion non-additive model for multi-fidelity simulations with tunable precision, [arXiv:2506.08328](https://arxiv.org/abs/2506.08328).

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Diffusion Non-Additive (DNA) Model

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The response variable at input location $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}$ with mesh size $t_l \in \mathcal{T}$ is assumed to be:

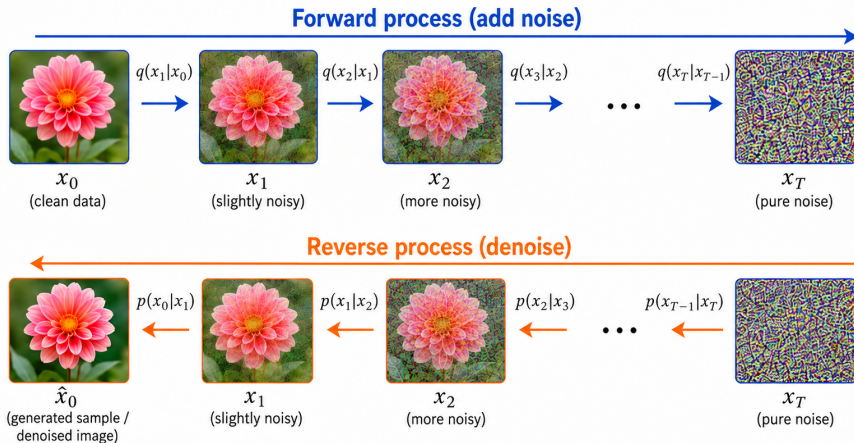
$$f(\mathbf{x}, t_l) = W(t_l, \mathbf{x}, f(\mathbf{x}, t_{l-1})), \quad l = 2, \dots, L.$$

where $t_1 > t_2 > \dots > t_L > 0$ and W is a realization of a GP.

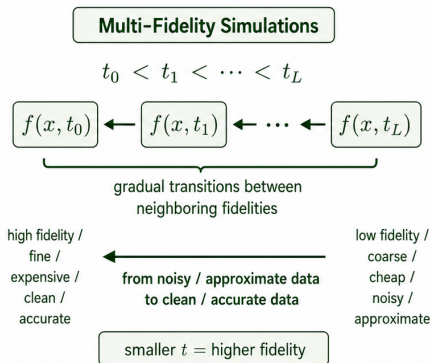
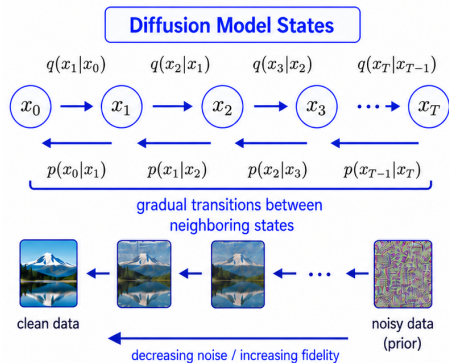
Remark 1: The relationships between fidelity levels are no longer additive.

Remark 2: The term “diffusion” is inspired by its analogy in generative models.

Diffusion Model: Forward and Reverse Processes



Inspiration from Diffusion Models



Gaussian Process Emulator

Key idea

A Gaussian process defines a probability model over an unknown function:

$$g(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(\alpha, K_\theta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')).$$

- For observed outputs at design points $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$,

$$\mathbf{y} = (g(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, g(\mathbf{x}_n))^T \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\alpha \mathbf{1}_n, \mathbf{K}),$$

where $\mathbf{K}_{ij} = K_\theta(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$.

- After observing data, the posterior predictive distribution $g(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{y}$ is Gaussian, giving closed-form prediction and uncertainty quantification.

In our setting, GP priors are placed on transition functions between fidelity levels.

DNA Model

Diffusion Non-Additive Model

$$\begin{cases} f_1(\mathbf{x}) = W_1(\mathbf{x}), \\ f_l(\mathbf{x}) = W(t_l, \mathbf{x}, f_{l-1}(\mathbf{x})), \quad \text{for } l = 2, \dots, L, \end{cases}$$

where

$$W_1(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(\alpha_1, \tau_1^2 K_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')), \quad \text{and}$$

$$W(t, \mathbf{x}, y) \sim \mathcal{GP}\left(\alpha, \tau^2 K\left((t, \mathbf{x}, y), (t', \mathbf{x}', y')\right)\right).$$

- W : unknown transition function from one fidelity level to the next.
- The GP prior on W gives both prediction and uncertainty quantification.

Diffusion Representation

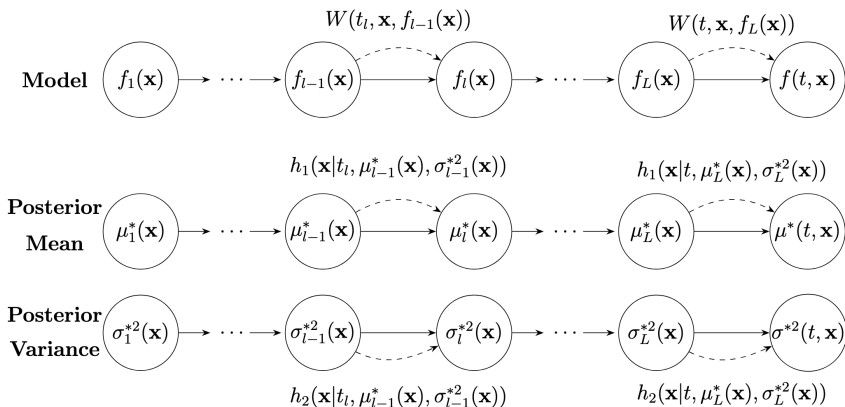


Figure: The Markov chain representation of the hierarchical modeling structure.

Likelihood Construction

The lowest-fidelity output is modeled as

$$\mathbf{y}_1 \sim \mathcal{N}_{n_1} \left(\alpha_1 \mathbf{1}_{n_1}, \tau_1^2 \mathbf{K}_1 \right),$$

and for the remaining fidelity levels,

$$Y_{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{y}_L \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}_{N_{-1}} \left(\alpha \mathbf{1}_{N_{-1}}, \tau^2 \mathbf{K} \right), \quad N_{-1} = \sum_{l=2}^L n_l.$$

where \mathbf{K} is an $N_{-1} \times N_{-1}$ matrix with elements

$$\mathbf{K}_{ij} = K \left(((\mathbf{t}_{-1})_i, (\mathbf{X}_{-1})_i, (Y_{-L})_i), ((\mathbf{t}_{-1})_j, (\mathbf{X}_{-1})_j, (Y_{-L})_j) \right),$$

and $Y_{-L} = (\mathbf{y}_1[1 : n_2]^T, \mathbf{y}_2[1 : n_3]^T, \dots, \mathbf{y}_{L-1}[1 : n_L]^T)^T$.

Parameter Estimation

- The model parameters are estimated by maximum likelihood.
- The closed-form estimates include

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{Y_{-1}^T \mathbf{K}^{-1} Y_{-1}}{\mathbf{1}_{N_{-1}}^T \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{1}_{N_{-1}}},$$

and

$$\hat{\tau}^2 = \frac{(Y_{-1} - \hat{\alpha} \mathbf{1}_{N_{-1}})^T \mathbf{K}^{-1} (Y_{-1} - \hat{\alpha} \mathbf{1}_{N_{-1}})}{N_{-1}}.$$

- Kernel parameters are estimated by maximizing the profile likelihood.
- Closed-form gradients improve optimization stability and speed.

Kernel Functions: Lowest-Fidelity Layer

- For the lowest-fidelity layer, K_1 can be chosen from standard GP kernels, such as the squared exponential or Matérn kernel.
- For example, the squared exponential kernel is

$$K_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \prod_{j=1}^d \exp \left\{ -\frac{(x_j - x'_j)^2}{\theta_{1j}} \right\}.$$

- This kernel models the spatial dependence of the lowest-fidelity simulator output.

Kernel Functions: Transition Layer

- For the transition function $W(t, \mathbf{x}, y)$, we use a **nonseparable kernel**:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & K((t, \mathbf{x}, y), (t', \mathbf{x}', y')) \\
 &= \left(\frac{(t - t')^2}{\theta_t} + 1 \right)^{-\left(\frac{\beta(d+1)}{2} + \delta\right)} \\
 & \times \exp \left[- \left(\frac{(t - t')^2}{\theta_t} + 1 \right)^{-\beta} \left\{ \frac{(y - y')^2}{\theta_y} + \sum_{j=1}^d \frac{(x_j - x'_j)^2}{\theta_j} \right\} \right].
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- The parameter $0 \leq \beta \leq 1$ controls the interaction between the fidelity parameter t and the augmented input (\mathbf{x}, y) .
- When $\beta = 0$, the kernel becomes separable.

Posterior Prediction: The Challenge

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- Conditional on the previous fidelity output, the GP model gives

$$f_l(\mathbf{x}) \mid Y_N, f_{l-1}(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\mu_l(\mathbf{x}, f_{l-1}(\mathbf{x})), \sigma_l^2(\mathbf{x}, f_{l-1}(\mathbf{x})) \right),$$

for $l = 2, \dots, L$.

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- To predict the exact solution, for $0 \leq t < t_L$,

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- The marginal posterior $p(f(t, \mathbf{x}) \mid Y_N)$ requires integrating over the unknown intermediate outputs.
- A direct Monte Carlo approximation is possible, but can be **computationally demanding**.

Closed-Form Recursive Prediction

Key Result

Suppose the design points are nested. For $0 \leq t < t_L$, the posterior mean and variance of the exact-solution emulator can be computed recursively:

$$\mu^*(t, \mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}\{f(t, \mathbf{x}) \mid Y_N\} = h_1(\mathbf{x} \mid t, \mu_L^*(\mathbf{x}), \sigma_L^{*2}(\mathbf{x})),$$

$$\sigma^{*2}(t, \mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{V}\{f(t, \mathbf{x}) \mid Y_N\} = h_2(\mathbf{x} \mid t, \mu_L^*(\mathbf{x}), \sigma_L^{*2}(\mathbf{x})).$$

For $l = 2, \dots, L$,

$$\mu_l^*(\mathbf{x}) = h_1(\mathbf{x} \mid t_l, \mu_{l-1}^*(\mathbf{x}), \sigma_{l-1}^{*2}(\mathbf{x})),$$

$$\sigma_l^{*2}(\mathbf{x}) = h_2(\mathbf{x} \mid t_l, \mu_{l-1}^*(\mathbf{x}), \sigma_{l-1}^{*2}(\mathbf{x})).$$

h_1 and h_2 have closed-form expressions, avoiding expensive MC integration.

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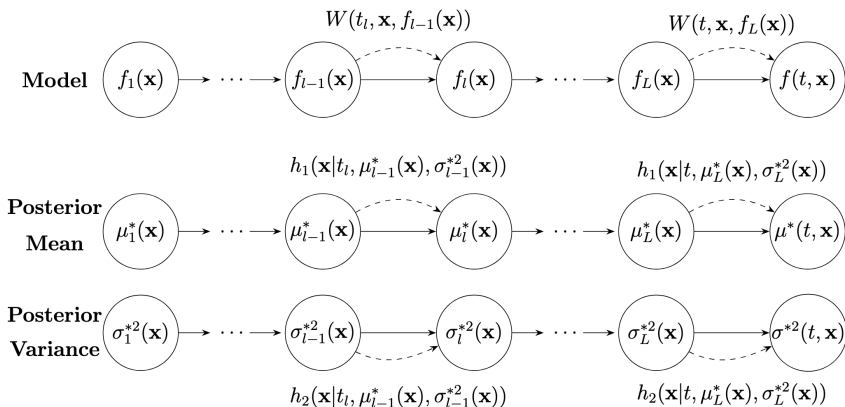
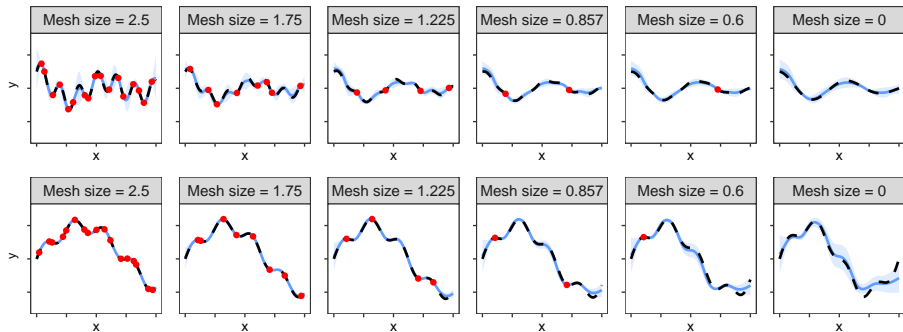


Figure: The Markov chain representation of the hierarchical modeling structure.

A Toy Example

Example 1: $f_1(x, t) = \exp(-1.4x) \cos(3.5\pi x) + \frac{t^2}{10} \sin(40x)$, $x \in [0, 1]$,

Example 2: $f_2(x, t) = \sin\left(\frac{10\pi x}{5+t}\right) + 0.2 \sin(8\pi x)$, $x \in [0, 1]$.



Red dots: observed runs; **dashed black:** true function; **blue curve:** posterior mean.

Theoretical Question

- The DNA model recursively propagates information across fidelity levels:

$$f_1(\mathbf{x}) \longrightarrow f_2(\mathbf{x}) \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow f_L(\mathbf{x}) \longrightarrow f(0, \mathbf{x}).$$

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How does the prediction error depend on the design and the fidelity levels?

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How does the prediction error depend on the design and the fidelity levels?

- The theory decomposes the error into two parts:
 - **extrapolation error**: due to predicting from t_L to $t = 0$;
 - **interpolation error**: due to finite samples at each fidelity level.

Main Error Bound

Error decomposition

For all $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 |f(0, \mathbf{x}) - \hat{f}(0, \mathbf{x})| &\leq \underbrace{(B_t + \Lambda_{L+1})t_L}_{\text{extrapolation error}} \\
 &+ \underbrace{\sum_{l=2}^L A_l n_l^{-\eta/d} + A_1 n_1^{-\eta/d}}_{\text{interpolation errors across fidelity levels}},
 \end{aligned}$$

where A_l depends on the kernel, Lipschitz constants, and RKHS norms.

- Smaller t_L reduces the extrapolation error.
- Larger n_l reduces the interpolation error at fidelity level l .
- The rate depends on dimension d and kernel smoothness η .

From Error Bound to Sample Allocation

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- Solving the first-order optimality conditions gives

$$n_l = \frac{C_{\text{total}}}{\sum_{k=1}^L \lambda_{\max}^{\frac{(L-k+1)d}{\eta+d}} C_k^{\frac{\eta}{\eta+d}}} \left(\frac{\lambda_{\max}^{L-l+1}}{C_l} \right)^{\frac{d}{\eta+d}}, \quad l = 1, \dots, L.$$

Experimental Design Construction

- In practice, the coarsest and finest tuning parameters are often prespecified:

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- Intermediate tuning parameters are chosen geometrically:

$$t_l = t_1 T^{-(l-1)}, \quad T = \left(\frac{t_1}{t_L} \right)^{1/(L-1)}.$$

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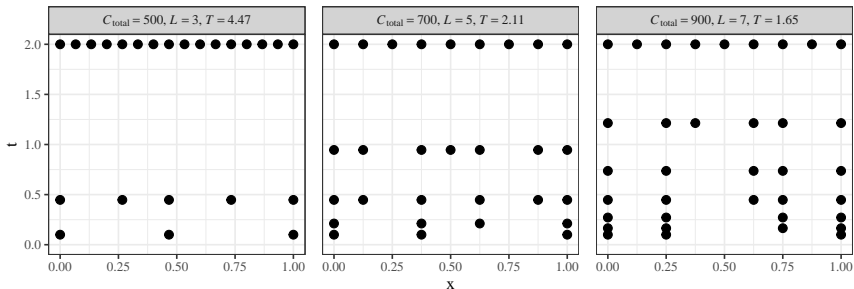
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- Given C_{total} , we choose both:
 - the number of fidelity levels L ;
 - the sample sizes n_1, \dots, n_L .

Designs Under Increasing Budget



As C_{total} increases, the design selects more fidelity levels and places tuning parameters more densely between t_1 and t_L .

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- The design points are generated using nested space-filling designs.
- Performance is evaluated using RMSE and CRPS over 100 test points and 100 repetitions.

Competing Methods

We compare DNAmf with five existing approaches.

Methods targeting the highest observed fidelity $f(t_L, \mathbf{x})$

- CoKriging: auto-regressive co-kriging model.
- NARGP: nonlinear auto-regressive GP model.
- RNAmf: recursive non-additive emulator.

Methods targeting the exact solution $f(0, \mathbf{x})$

- BM: nonstationary GP with Brownian motion kernel.
- FBM: extension with fractional Brownian motion kernel.
- DNAmf: proposed diffusion non-additive model.

Three Case Studies

- Poisson's Equation

A two-dimensional elliptic PDE on $\Omega = [0, 1]^2$ with one input parameter $x \in [-1, 1]$.

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- Heat Equation

A one-dimensional time-dependent parabolic PDE.

The tuning parameter is $t = S - s$, measuring temporal distance from the target time.

Simulation Setup

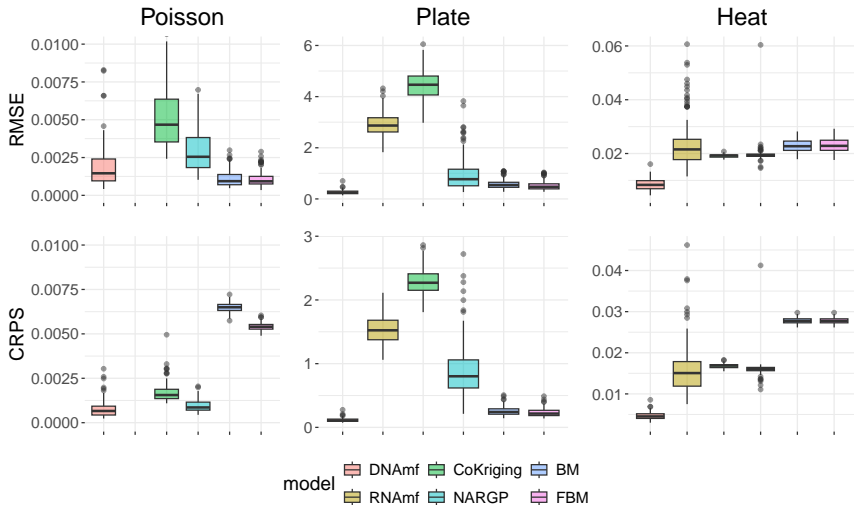
Case	n_1	n_2	n_3	n_4	n_5	d	t_1	T^{-1}
Poisson	17	11	7	5	3	1	0.1	0.65
Plate	28	21	15	11	8	3	0.55	0.9
Heat	25	15	9	5	3	1	0.5	0.7

- The tuning parameters follow

$$t_l = T^{-1}t_{l-1}.$$

- Smaller t_l corresponds to higher fidelity.
- The sample size decreases as fidelity increases.

Predictive Performance



Comparison of RMSE and CRPS across 100 repetitions for the three real case studies.

Conclusion

- Developed the **DNA model** for continuous-fidelity emulation and extrapolation to the exact solution $f(0, \mathbf{x})$.
- Introduced a flexible **non-additive transition model** across fidelity levels.
- Derived **closed-form recursive prediction** for posterior mean and uncertainty.
- Established **error bounds** and **cost-aware sample allocation** strategies.



Thank You!

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