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UNCERTAINTY ANALYSIS AND SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS FOR MULTIDISCIPLINARY SYSTEMS DESIGN

by

JIA GUO

A DISSERTATION

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In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

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Approved by

Dr. Xiaoping Du, Advisor Dr. Frank Liou Dr. K. Chandrashekhara Dr. Serhat Hosder Dr. Xuerong Wen

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this research is to quantify the impact of both aleatory and epistemic uncertainties on performances of multidisciplinary systems. Aleatory uncertainty comes from the inherent uncertain nature and epistemic uncertainty comes from the lack of knowledge. Although intensive research has been conducted on aleatory uncertainty, few studies on epistemic uncertainty have been reported. In this work, the two types of uncertainty are analyzed. Aleatory uncertainty is modeled by probability distributions while epistemic uncertainty is modeled by intervals. Probabilistic analysis (PA) and interval analysis (IA) are integrated to capture the effect of the two types of uncertainty. The First Order Reliability Method is employed for PA while nonlinear optimization is used for IA. The unified uncertainty analysis, which consists of PA and IA, is employed to develop new sensitivity analysis methods for the mixture of the two types of uncertainty. The methods are able to quantify the contribution of each input variable with either epistemic uncertainty or aleatory uncertainty. The analysis results can then help better decision making on how to effectively mitigate the effect of uncertainty. The other major contribution of this research is the extension of the unified uncertainty analysis to the reliability analysis for multidisciplinary systems.

The major findings of this research are as follows. (1) Sensitivity analysis method is an effective tool for reducing the impact of epistemic uncertainty. (2) The proposed new reliability sensitivity indexes can easily measure the changes in output uncertainty with respect to those in input uncertainty. (3) The effect of aleatory uncertainty can be primarily measured by the distribution of a performance; and the effect of epistemic uncertainty can be measured by the bounds of the distribution. (4) The unified uncertainty analysis methods for single-disciplinary systems can be extended to the reliability analysis for multidisciplinary systems. (5) All the proposed methods can be ultimately integrated with multidisciplinary design optimization.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
PUBLICATION THESIS OPTION	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	v
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xi
SECTION	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
PAPER	7
I. SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS WITH THE MIXTURE OF EPISTEMIC AND ALEATORY UNCERTAINTY	7
ABSTRACT	7
I. Introduction	8
II. Sensitivity Analysis with Epistemic Uncertainty	12
A. Sensitivity Analysis	12
B. Evidence Theory	14
C. Unified Uncertainty Analysis	16
D. FORM-Based Unified Uncertainty Analysis	18
III. Proposed Sensitivity Analysis Method	21
IV. Examples	29
A. Example 1: Crank-Slider Mechanism	29
B. Example 2: Crowned Cam Roller-Follower's Contact	37
V. Conclusions	48
Acknowledgements	49
References	49
II. RELIABILITY SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS WITH RANDOM AND INTERVARIABLES	
SUMMARY	55
1. INTRODUCTION	55
2. UNIFIED RELIABILITY ANALYSIS	61

2.1. Reliability analysis	61
2.2. Unified reliability analysis	63
3. RELIABILITY SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS	66
3.1. Type I sensitivity $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_i$	67
3.2. Type II sensitivity $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \delta_i$	71
3.3. Type III sensitivity $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_i$	72
3.4. Type IV sensitivity $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \overline{y}_i$	72
3.5. Type V sensitivity $\partial \delta_p / \partial q_i$	73
3.6. Type VI sensitivity $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial q_i$	73
3.7. Equations of all the sensitivity indices	73
4. NUMERICAL EXAMPLES	77
4.1. Example 1- adhesive bonding example	77
4.2. Example 2- cantilever tube	82
5. CONCLUSIONS	86
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	88
REFEERENCES	88
III. RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR MULTIDISCIPLINARY SYSTEM RANDOM AND INTERVAL VARIABLES	
ABSTRACT	94
I. Introduction	95
II. Methodology and Modeling	98
A. Reliability Analysis	98
B. Unified Reliability Analysis Framework	100
C. FORM-Based URA	101
D. Multidisciplinary Analysis (MDA) with Random and Interval Va	riables . 103
III. Algorithms	106
A. Sequential Double Loops (SDL) Algorithm	107
B. Sequential Single Loops (SSL) Algorithm	111
C. Sequential Single-Single Loops (SSSL) Algorithm	113
IV. Example	116

A. Example 1- A Mathematical Problem [8]	116
B. Example 2 - Aircraft Wing Design	121
V. Conclusion	126
Acknowledgements	128
References	128
SECTION	
2. CONCLUSIONS	132
APPENDICES	
A. COMMON EQUATIONS	136
B. EQUATIONS FOR TYPE I SENSITIVITY $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_i$	140
C. EQUATIONS FOR TYPE II SENSITIVITY $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \delta_i$	144
D. EQUATIONS FOR TYPE III SENSITIVITY $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_i$	148
E. EQUATIONS FOR TYPE IV SENSITIVITY $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \overline{y}_i$	152
F. EQUATIONS FOR TYPE V SENSITIVITY $\partial \delta_p / \partial q_i$	156
G. EQUATIONS FOR TYPE VI SENSITIVITY $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial q_i$	158
BIBLIOGRAPHY	160
VITA	161

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure	Page
INTRODUCTION	
1. Framework of this dissertation.	4
PAPER I	
1. Uncertainty types	9
2. A cantilever beam	10
3. The unified uncertainty analysis framework	16
4. Flowchart of MPP search in <i>Bel</i> calculation	21
5. Effect of epistemic uncertainty and aleatory uncertainty	22
6. KS distance	26
7. Flowchart of the proposed sensitivity analysis	28
8. A crank-slider mechanism	29
9. Joint BPA of <i>Y</i> with 3 intervals	30
10. Initial unified uncertainty analysis for G_1	32
11. Initial unified uncertainty analysis for <i>G</i> ₂	33
12. <i>CBF</i> and <i>CPF</i> from the main effect analysis for <i>Y</i> ₁	34
13. <i>CBF</i> and <i>CPF</i> from the main effect analysis for <i>Y</i> ₂	35
14. CPF and CBF of G_1 after more information on Y_1 is collected	36
15. CPF and CBF of G_1 after more information on Y_2 is collected	37
16. A crowned cam roller-follower under load <i>Q</i>	38
17. Contact patch	38
18. Initial unified uncertainty analysis for <i>G</i>	42
19. CBF and CPF from the main effect analysis for Y_1	43
20. <i>CBF</i> and <i>CPF</i> from the main effect analysis for <i>Y</i> ₂	43
21. <i>CBF</i> and <i>CPF</i> from the main effect analysis for <i>Y</i> ₃	44
22. <i>CBF</i> and <i>CPF</i> from the total effect analysis for <i>Y</i> ₁	
23. <i>CBF</i> and <i>CPF</i> from the total effect analysis for <i>Y</i> ₂	
24. <i>CBF</i> and <i>CPF</i> from the total effect analysis for <i>Y</i> ₃	

25. Comparison of uncertainty effect	47
PAPER II	
1. The unified reliability analysis framework	64
2. Flowchart of sequential single-loop procedure for p_f^L calculation	65
$3. p_f^U, p_f^L, \delta_i$, and \overline{p}_f	71
$4. y_i^L, y_i^U, \delta_i$, and \overline{y}_i	72
5. The procedure to calculate sensitivity indices	76
6. A double-lap joint design of adhesive	77
7. Cantilever tube	83
PAPER III	
1. Unified reliability analysis framework	100
2. Flowchart of the FORM-URA method	103
3. Multidisciplinary systems with random and interval variables	105
4. Outline of proposed algorithms	107
5. SDL algorithm for the lower bound of p_f	108
6. SSL algorithm for the lower bound of p_f	113
7. SSSL algorithm for the lower bound of p_f	114
8. Mathematical example	117
9. The wing structure model	122
10. Coupled aerodynamic and structural subsystems	122

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
PAPER I	
1. Random variables X	29
2. Uncertain variables with epistemic uncertainty	30
3. d_{p_f} for G_1 and G_2	32
4. Results of unified uncertainty analysis for G_1	33
5. Main effect of each epistemic variable	34
6. $ME_{p_f}^i$ and ME^i	36
7. Random variables X	39
8. Uncertain variables with epistemic uncertainty	39
9. Results of unified uncertainty analysis	41
10. Main effect of each epistemic variable	44
11. Total effect of each epistemic variable	46
12. Unified uncertainty analysis for confirmation	47
PAPER II	
1. Six sensitivity indices	67
2. Type I and II sensitivities for intervals	74
3. Type III and IV sensitivities for intervals	75
4. Type V and VI sensitivities for random variables	76
5. Random variables X	78
6. Interval variables	78
7. Bounds of the probability of failure	80
8. Sensitivity with respect to interval variables	81
9. The change of δ_p and \overline{p}_f with 1% increases in δ_i and \overline{y}_i	81
10. Sensitivity with respect to random variables	82
11. Random variables	84

12. Interval variables.	84
13. Bounds of probability of failure	85
14. Sensitivity of interval variables	85
15. The change of δ_p and \overline{p}_f with 1% increases in δ_i and \overline{y}_i	85
16. Sensitivity of random variables	86
PAPER III	
1. Bounds of p_f	121
2. Distributions of random variables	123
3. Interval and deterministic variables	124
4. Two bounds of p_f obtained by different algorithms	125
5. Summary of the three algorithms	127

1. INTRODUCTION

The rising demand for high reliability, robustness and safety of complex engineering systems, such as automobiles and aircrafts, requires engineers to understand and manage various uncertainties during their design process. Such uncertainties include manufacturing variation, imperfect approximation, imprecise estimates of loading, and limited samples. The ignorance of these uncertainties could lead to significant design bias, costly maintenance, even a catastrophic consequence, especially, for multidisciplinary systems. Therefore, it has become imperative to identify the sources of uncertainty and quantify the impact of multiple types of uncertainties in multidisciplinary systems design.

Uncertainty can be classified into two different types: aleatory uncertainty and epistemic uncertainty. Aleatory uncertainty is defined as the randomness or inherent variability of the nature, and it is objective and irreducible. Aleatory uncertainty is usually modeled by probability theory. Examples of this category include the dimensions of manufacturing parts and material properties. On the other hand, epistemic uncertainty is due to the lack of knowledge or the incompleteness of information. It is subjective and reducible. The assumptions made in building models are one example of epistemic uncertainty. Probability theory and non-probability theories such as evidence theory, possibility theory and fuzzy set can be used to model epistemic uncertainty.

In the past decades, much effort has been spent on exploring the effect of aleatory uncertainty on both single-disciplinary systems and multidisciplinary systems, while very few investigations have been reported in studying epistemic uncertainty and the mixture of aleatory and epistemic uncertainties. Aleatory and epistemic uncertainties exist simultaneously in real-world systems. Conventional uncertainty analysis methods are not

capable of handling such a situation. Hence, this research attempts to address this issue and answer the following question:

Given the inputs to a multidisciplinary system with both aleatory and epistemic uncertainties, what will be the uncertain characteristics of outputs?

The challenge to solve this question lies in several aspects:

- 1) A large number of uncertain variables are involved, including input variables with aleatory uncertainty, input variables with epistemic uncertainty, and coupling variables bridging different subsystems. In addition, each subsystem has its own local input variables and also shares system input variables with other subsystems. Solving such a high dimensional problem will need a huge computational cost.
- 2) All the subsystems are often highly coupled together. The output of one subsystem may be the input to other subsystems, and vice versa. This coupling makes the functional relationships between outputs and inputs complicated and highly nonlinear. Besides, uncertainty will be propagated from one subsystem to other subsystems through the interfaces over coupled subsystems. It becomes very difficult to capture the overall effect of accumulated uncertainties from all the subsystems.
- 3) A full range of uncertainty should be taken into account. New approaches are required to capture the effect of mixed aleatory and epistemic uncertainties on the performance of a multidisciplinary system. How to efficiently propagate the mixture of both uncertainties through all the subsystems is a major concern.

This research adopts the following approaches to address these challenges: 1) To model a full range of uncertainty, probability theory is used to model aleatory uncertainty, and evidence theory and intervals are chosen to represent epistemic uncertainty. 2) To

estimate the effect of the mixture of both uncertainties, probabilistic analysis and interval analysis are integrated with a unified uncertainty analysis framework. The First Order Reliability Method (FORM) is employed for probabilistic analysis because FORM has a good balance between accuracy and efficiency. Nonlinear optimization is used for interval analysis to ensure a higher accuracy. 3) To mitigate the effect of epistemic uncertainty, sensitivity analysis method is developed to find the most important input variables with epistemic uncertainty. Collecting more information on these variables instead of all the variables will reduce the effect of epistemic uncertainty in the most efficient way. 4) To efficiently propagate both uncertainties through various subsystems, sequential optimization and single loop strategies are used for integrating probabilistic analysis and interval analysis with multidisciplinary analysis. Expensive Monte Carlo Simulation can therefore be avoided.

The three articles included in this dissertation provide the details and major findings of this research on the above-mentioned issues. The framework of this dissertation is illustrated in Figure 1. The research consists of three research tasks. The first one is sensitivity analysis with the mixture of aleatory and epistemic uncertainty, the second one is reliability sensitivity analysis with random and interval variables, and the third one is reliability analysis for multidisciplinary systems with random and interval variables. The objective of the first research task is to determine the effect of a full range of uncertainty on a single-disciplinary system. This research task is based on the unified uncertainty analysis framework developed by Du [1]. The unified uncertainty analysis framework is shown as initial study in Fig.1. This initial study can calculate the belief and plausibility measures of output. With the help of the initial work, the dissertation

develops an effective sensitivity analysis method (the first paper) for epistemic uncertainty when both aleatory and epistemic uncertainties are involved. This method is able to estimate contributions of independent input variables with epistemic uncertainty to the model output and rank the importance of each variable. Guided by the results from sensitivity analysis, we can collect more information on the most significant variables and reduce the effect of epistemic uncertainty in the most efficient way.

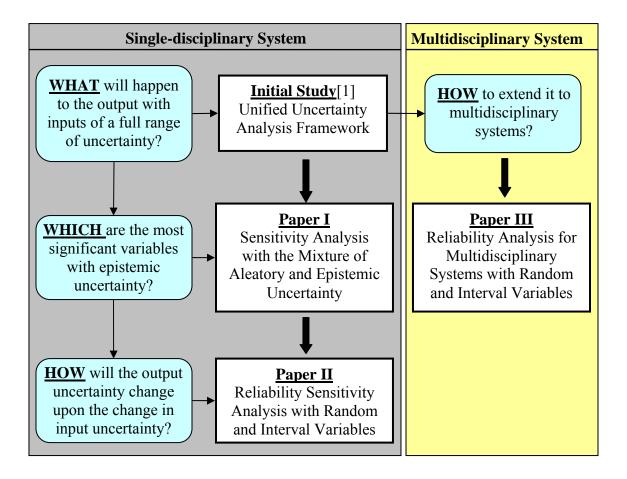


Figure 1. Framework of this dissertation

As shown above, collecting more information on variables with epistemic uncertainty will reduce the impact of input uncertainty. To do it effectively, we need to answer the following question:

How will the characteristics of output uncertainty change when we change the characteristics of input uncertainty?

Answering the above question is the objective of the second research task (the second article). In this task, we study reliability sensitivity analysis with random and interval variables. Here random variables are used for those with aleatory uncertainty, and their probability distributions are known. Interval variables are used for those with epistemic uncertainty when only the lower and upper bounds of those variables are known. Six new sensitivity indices are proposed to evaluate the sensitivities of the width and average of the probability of failure bounds with respect to the width and mean of each input interval variable, as well as the distribution parameters of each input random variable. These indices tell us what exact change will happen to the reliability bounds when we change the characteristics of uncertain variables.

Both of the above research tasks provide the effective tools to quantify the effect of a full range of uncertainty on outputs for single-disciplinary systems. With them as a basis, in research task 3 (the third article), we answer the question:

How to extend methods for single-disciplinary systems to multidisciplinary systems?

A unified reliability analysis is developed for multidisciplinary systems with random and interval variables (paper III). Three algorithms are proposed to get the better computational efficiency for different situations. Using these algorithms, we will be able to calculate the bounds of reliability or the probability of failure of each output from a multidisciplinary system.

To sum up, this research provides a group of effective and efficient analysis tools to deal with a full range of uncertainty in multidisciplinary systems design. With the sensitivity analysis methods, designers will be able to evaluate the effect of each input variable with epistemic uncertainty on the system outputs and determine the most significant input variables. Collecting more information on these most significant variables will efficiently reduce the effect of epistemic uncertainty. The smaller effect will help designers make more reliable decisions. The new reliability sensitivity analysis is a byproduct of reliability analysis where the calculation of sensitivity indexes does not require additional function evaluations. And the proposed sensitivity indexes will provide engineers with more exact understanding of how the uncertainty in the performance will change upon the changes in the input uncertainty. The unified reliability analysis for multidisciplinary systems accommodates a full range of uncertainty and facilitates the application of reliability analysis to a wider range of engineering fields with mixed aleatory and epistemic uncertainty. Designers of multidisciplinary systems are able to propagate a full range of uncertainty through all the coupled subsystems and quantify the effect of overall uncertainty on each output—the bounds of reliability.

Sensitivity Analysis with the Mixture of Epistemic and Aleatory Uncertainties

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Study on epistemic uncertainty due to the lack of knowledge has received increasing attention in risk assessment, reliability analysis, decision-making, and design optimization. Different theories have been applied to model and quantify epistemic uncertainty. Research on sensitivity analysis for epistemic uncertainty has also been initialized. Sensitivity analysis can identify the contributions of individual input variables with epistemic uncertainty to the model output. It then helps guide the collection of more information to reduce the effect of epistemic uncertainty. In this paper, an effective sensitivity analysis method for epistemic uncertainty is proposed when both epistemic and aleatory uncertainties exist in model inputs. This method employs the unified uncertainty analysis framework to calculate the plausibility measure and belief measure. The gap between belief and plausibility measures is used as an indicator of the effect of epistemic uncertainty on the model output. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) distance between the two measures is used to quantify the main effect and total effect of each independent variable with epistemic uncertainty. By the KS distance, the importance of each variable is ranked. The feasibility and effectiveness of the proposed method is demonstrated with two engineering examples.

Nomenclature

Bel = belief

C = subset of intervals

 $d_{ks} = KS$ distance

F = cumulative distribution function (CDF)

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f = probability density function (PDF)
 G = output of a performance function

g = performance function

ME = main effect

 ME_{pf} = main effect on the probability of failure m_Y = basic probability assignment (BPA)

P = probabilityPl = plausibility

 p_f = probability of failure

R = reliabilityTE = total effect

 TE_{pf} = total effect on the probability of failure **U** = vector of standard normal variables

U =standard normal variable

u = realization of U

 \mathbf{u}^* = Most Probable Point in *u*-space (MPP)

X = vector of random variables

X = random variable x = realization of X

 \mathbf{x}^* = Most Probable Point in x-space (MPP)

Y = vector of variables with epistemic uncertainty

Y = variable with epistemic uncertainty

y = realization of Y β = reliability index

 Φ = cumulative distribution function of a standard normal distribution

 Φ^{-1} = inverse function of Φ

 ϕ = probability density function of a standard normal distribution

I. Introduction

UNCERTAINTY is ubiquitous in any engineering system, at any stage of product development, and throughout a product life cycle. Examples of uncertainty are manufacturing imprecision, usage variations, imperfect knowledge, and variability associated with loading, material properties, and geometric dimensions. Such uncertainties have a significant impact on product performance. A small variation in environment or design variables may lead to a significant quality loss. The ignorance of uncertainty may cause erroneous decision-making, low robustness and reliability, costly

warranty, low customer satisfaction, and even catastrophe.¹⁻⁵ With the intensive requirement of high product quality and reliability, understanding, identifying and managing various uncertainties have become imperative.

Uncertainty can be viewed as the difference between the present state of knowledge and the complete knowledge (Fig. 1). It is classified into aleatory and epistemic types.⁶

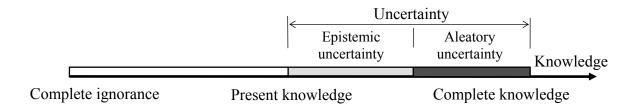


Fig. 1 Uncertainty types.

Aleatory uncertainty, also referred to as irreducible, objective or stochastic uncertainty, describes the inherent variability associated with a physical system or environment. Aleatory uncertainty is modeled by random variables or stochastic processes by probability theory if information is sufficient to estimate probability distributions. For example, for a cantilever beam in Fig. 2, aleatory uncertainty exists in the dimensions b, h, and l (due to manufacturing imprecision), external force Q (due to variations in operation), and material properties (due to the stochastic physical nature). All the above quantities can be modeled as random variables if adequate statistical data are available. Aleatory uncertainty has been intensively researched and dealt with in a wide range of engineering fields.

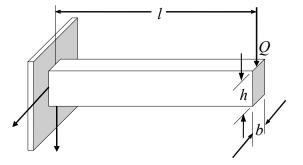


Fig. 2 A cantilever beam.

Epistemic uncertainty, on the other hand, is due to the lack of knowledge about a physical system or environment. $^{10, 11}$ In the above beam example, if we use different theories to calculate the stress and deflection, we may end up with different results. The reason is that each theory relies on various assumptions, which may not be completely valid. Epistemic uncertainty therefore exists in the model structure. Also, if the data of the external force Q is scarce, the distribution of Q may not be precisely known. This indicates that epistemic uncertainty may also exist in a parameter. Epistemic uncertainty is reducible because the collection of more information or an increase of knowledge would help decrease the level of uncertainty. In this work, we only focus on epistemic parameter uncertainty.

Different theories have been used to handle epistemic uncertainty. The theories include probability theory and non-probability theories such as evidence theory, ¹² possibility theory, ^{13,14} and fuzzy set theory. ¹⁵ Evidence theory is widely used to deal with epistemic uncertainty. Intervals with evidence theory interpretation are especially of interest in engineering applications. ⁹ Although there has been a longtime debate on whether probability theory is universal for handling all types of uncertainty, intervals do

exist in many engineering applications, and its use is well justified in a vast amount of literature.⁸ For example, for the above beam problem, the mean of the distribution of the external force Q may be given by a confidence interval with limited samples. Engineers often specify their design variables in the form of nominal value \pm tolerance. More interval examples are given by Du 16 and Du, et al.. 17

Evidence theory is the generalization of probability theory and possibility theory. ^{18, 19} It can handle limited or even conflicting information. Most importantly, it is able to combine aleatory and epistemic uncertainties in a straightforward way. ^{19,20} Exploratory research on epistemic uncertainty by evidence theory has recently been conducted, including studies in risk assessment, decision-making, and design optimization. ^{8, 14, 17~25}

Most of the research focuses on uncertainty quantification and uncertainty analysis. A few investigations^{18, 26, 27} have been conducted to explore sensitivity analysis with epistemic uncertainty. The purpose of such sensitivity analysis is to quantify the contribution of the input epistemic uncertainty to the model output. Bae, et al.^{18, 26} develop a sensitivity analysis method for belief and plausibility measures. The method provides useful information to guide the future acquisition for more accurate reliability analysis and to reveal the most significant contributing factors in a sequential design phase. Helton, et al.²⁷ propose a three-step sampling-based sensitivity analysis for epistemic uncertainty. In their work, an initial exploratory analysis is employed to evaluate the model behavior, and then stepwise analyses are followed to show the incremental effects of uncertain variables on belief and plausibility measures.

The above sensitivity analysis methods deal with only epistemic uncertainty. In practical engineering applications, both aleatory and epistemic uncertainties often occur

simultaneously. Under this situation, a single probability measure (for instance, reliability) will not be available. Instead, its plausibility and belief measures must be used. Both of the measures will be discussed in the next section. The difference between the belief measure and plausibility measure indicates the effect of epistemic uncertainty. If the difference is too large, it will be difficult to make decisions. In this case, more information is needed in order to reduce the effect of epistemic uncertainty. Collecting more information on all the variables with epistemic uncertainty is costly. Collecting additional information on only the most important variables will be more efficient. Identifying variables with epistemic uncertainty that have the highest contribution to the uncertainty effect is the focus of sensitivity analysis in this paper. Since the proposed sensitivity analysis needs to quantify the uncertain characteristics of a model output given aleatory and epistemic uncertainties in model inputs, the unified uncertainty analysis framework¹⁶ is used.

The paper is organized as follows. Brief introductions to sensitivity analysis, evidence theory, and unified uncertainty analysis, are provided in Section 2. The proposed sensitivity analysis method is discussed in Section 3. In Section 4, two examples are used for demonstration. Conclusions and future work are given in Section 5.

II. Sensitivity Analysis with Epistemic Uncertainty

A. Sensitivity Analysis

Sensitivity analysis identifies the input uncertain variables that have the highest contribution to the uncertainty in output variables. So far most of research focuses on sensitivity analysis for aleatory uncertainty, which is mainly modeled by probability theory. Such sensitivity analysis with a probabilistic representation is usually named *probabilistic sensitivity analysis*. Various probabilistic sensitivity analysis methods have been reported in a wide range of literature, including differential analysis, ^{28, 29} variance-based methods, ³⁰ sampling-based methods, ³⁰ and relative entropy based method. ³¹ Among them, the variance-based method is popular, which derives from the decomposition of the total variance of a model output into variances due to different input variables and their combinations. The Fourier Amplitude Sensitivity Test (FAST), ^{32, 33} correlation ratios, ³⁴ importance measures, ³⁵ and Sobol's indices ³⁶ belong to this type of method.

Generally, these methods work well with the probabilistic representation. However, how to apply these methods to obtain the sensitivity information from epistemic uncertainty has not been well studied.

As mentioned in the introduction section, Bae, et al., ^{18, 26} and Helton, et al.²⁷ have conducted exploratory research on sensitivity analysis with epistemic uncertainty. In this work, we are interested in the independent epistemic variables, and our goal is to develop a new sensitivity analysis method for identifying the most important variables with epistemic uncertainty when both aleatory and epistemic uncertainties are present. We employ the unified uncertainty analysis ¹⁶ to quantify both types of uncertainty. We then perform sensitivity analysis to identify the main effect and total effect of each variable with epistemic uncertainty by the once-at-a-time (OAT) strategy^{37, 38} and the two-dimensional Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) distance.³⁹ Next, we provide a brief review of evidence theory and the unified uncertainty analysis.

B. Evidence Theory

Intervals are widely used to characterize epistemic uncertainty. They can be naturally handled by evidence theory.⁸ A good example of intervals is the periodic monitoring.¹⁶ Suppose the status of a system is monitored at discrete time instants t_0, t_1, t_2, \cdots . If a failure is detected at t_{i+1} , then the failure could occur at any time in the interval between t_i and t_{i+1} . In this case, we may not be able to determine the exact distribution of the failure time. But we can collect information to estimate the probability of the failure occurrence over each time interval. The probability assigned to an interval is defined as Basic Probability Assignment (BPA) in evidence theory. For example, for 20 systems, if 2 and 5 failures occurred over $[t_4, t_5]$ and $[t_9, t_{10}]$, respectively, the BPAs of intervals $[t_4, t_5]$ and $[t_9, t_{10}]$ would be 2/20 = 0.1 and 5/20 = 0.4, respectively.

In this paper, we use Y to denote a variable with epistemic uncertainty. For brevity, we will call Y an epistemic variable in the remainder of the paper. We also use this same symbol Y to represent its frame of discernment, which is the sample space containing all the possible values of Y. We use $\mathcal{P}(Y)$ to denote the power set, the set that contains all the possible distinct subsets of Y. We also use A to denote an element of the power set.

In evidence theory, a BPA is a mapping function, $\mathcal{P}(Y) \rightarrow [0,1]$, satisfying the following three axioms:

1)
$$m_{\gamma}(A) \ge 0$$
 for any $A \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$. (1)

$$2) \ m_{v}(\varnothing) = 0 \ . \tag{2}$$

3)
$$\sum_{A \in \mathcal{P}(Y)} m_Y(A) = 1 . \tag{3}$$

For two epistemic variables Y_1 and Y_2 , if the change in Y_1 does not affect Y_2 , and vice versa, Y_1 are Y_2 are said to be independent. Similar to the joint probability in probability theory, for two independent epistemic variables, Y_1 and Y_2 , their joint BPA is also used. The joint BPA is defined by

$$m_{Y}(C) = \begin{cases} m_{Y_1}(A) \cdot m_{Y_2}(B) \text{ when } C = A \times B \\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (4)

where $A \in \mathcal{P}(Y_1)$, $B \in \mathcal{P}(Y_2)$, $\mathbf{Y} = Y_1 \times Y_2$, and $C \in \mathcal{P}(Y)$. $\mathbf{Y} = Y_1 \times Y_2$ denotes the joint space of Y_1 are Y_2 .

Because of the interval nature, a single probability measure is not available. Instead, two measures, belief and plausibility measures, are used in evidence theory. In this paper, we consider that the BPAs of epistemic variables are from non-conflicting items of evidence and that only one BPA exists for one interval of an epistemic variable. Under these conditions, belief and plausibility measures can be considered as the lower and upper bounds of a probability measure⁴⁰. Let a performance G be expressed abstractly by a performance function $G = g(\mathbf{Y})$, where $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{n_Y})$ is the vector of epistemic variables. Let an event E be defined by the performance less than a specific limit state C, namely, $E = \{\mathbf{Y} \mid g(\mathbf{Y}) < C\}$. Also let $m_{\mathbf{Y}}$ be the joint BPA over a frame $\mathbf{Y} = Y_1 \times Y_2 \times \dots \times Y_{n_Y}$. The belief measure Bel and the plausibility measure Pl of the event $E \in \mathbf{Y}$ induced by $m_{\mathbf{Y}}$ are calculated by

$$Bel(E) = \sum_{A \in E} m_{\mathbf{Y}}(A), \qquad (5)$$

and

$$Pl(E) = \sum_{A \cap E \neq \emptyset} m_{\mathbf{Y}}(A). \tag{6}$$

respectively.

Bel(E) is interpreted as the degree of belief the event E would occur. As shown in Eq. (5), it is calculated by adding the BPAs of the subsets entirely within the region $g(\mathbf{Y}) < c$. As indicated in Eq. (6), the degree of plausibility Pl(E) is calculated by adding the BPAs of the subsets that are completely in the region $g(\mathbf{Y}) < c$ and the BPAs of the subsets that intersect with the region. The true probability $Pr\{g(\mathbf{Y}) < c\}$ is bounded by Bel(E) and Pl(E) under the abovementioned condition.

Next, we give a short review of the unified uncertainty analysis, ¹⁶ which integrates probability and evidence theories to deal with the mixture of aleatory and epistemic uncertainties. The proposed sensitivity analysis relies on the unified uncertainty analysis.

C. Unified Uncertainty Analysis

A framework of unified uncertainty analysis is given in Fig. 3.¹⁶ The inputs to the framework are variables \mathbf{X} with aleatory uncertainty defined by probability density functions (PDF) and epistemic variables \mathbf{Y} represented by BPAs. Both types of uncertainty in the model inputs \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} are propagated through the model $g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$ to the model output G. The outcomes of the uncertainty analysis are cumulative belief and plausibility functions (*CBF* and *CPF*).

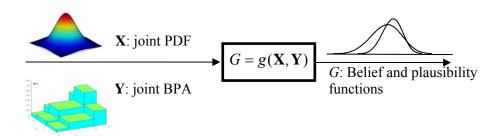


Fig. 3 The unified uncertainty analysis framework.

Let the subsets of **Y** be denoted by $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}i}$ ($i=1,2,\cdots,n$) with the corresponding joint BPA $m_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}i})$. After appropriate information aggregation, $^{9,\,12}$ $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}i}$ ($i=1,2,\cdots,n$) can be disjoint. The entire input space therefore is partitioned into n mutually exclusive subsets $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y}i} = (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}i})$ ($i=1,2,\cdots,n$). In probability theory, the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of G is defined by

$$F(c) = \Pr\{G = g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) < c\}, \tag{7}$$

where F is the CDF of G at c.

Let the product space of $\mathbf{X} = X_1 \times X_2 \times \cdots \times X_{n_X}$ be discretized into k subsets (hypercubes) $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}j}$ $(j=1,2,\cdots,k)$ with $\Delta \mathbf{X} = \Delta X_1 \times \Delta X_2 \times \cdots \times \Delta X_{n_X}$, where ΔX_i $(i=1,2,\cdots,n_X)$ is the step size. Since the joint BPA of $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}j}$ is the probability of \mathbf{X} in $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}j}$, the joint BPA of \mathbf{X} is given by

$$m_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}j}) = f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{X} | \mathbf{X} \in \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}j}) \Delta \mathbf{X},$$
 (8)

where $f_{\mathbf{X}}(\cdot)$ is the joint PDF of \mathbf{X} .

The joint BPA of **X** and **Y** is then derived as

$$m_{\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}i}, \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}j}) = m_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}i}) \sum_{j=1}^{k} m_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}j})$$

$$= m_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}i}) \sum_{j=1}^{k} f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{X} \in \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}j}) \Delta \mathbf{X}$$
(9)

The belief measure of the failure event is then calculated by

$$Bel(c) = \sum_{\substack{i=1\\ (\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_{i}}, \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}_{j}}) \in E}}^{n} m_{\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_{i}}, \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}_{j}}) = \sum_{\substack{i=1\\ (\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_{i}}, \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}_{j}}) \in E}}^{n} \left[m_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_{i}}) \sum_{j=1}^{k} m_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}_{j}}) \right]$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{i=1\\ (\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_{i}}, \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_{i}}) \in E}}^{n} \left[m_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_{i}}) \sum_{j=1}^{k} f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{X} | \mathbf{X} \in \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}_{j}}) \Delta \mathbf{X} \right]$$

$$(10)$$

When k approaches infinity, the equation for the cumulative belief function (*CBF*), the degree of belief that the event G < c would occur, becomes 16

$$Bel(c) = F_G^{\min}(c) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_i}) \Pr\left\{ G_{\max} < c \, \middle| \, \mathbf{Y}_i \in \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_i} \right\}. \tag{11}$$

By analogy, the plausibility measure function (*CPF*), the degree of plausibility that the event G < c would occur, can be computed by

$$Pl(c) = F_G^{\max}(c) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_i}) \Pr\left\{ G_{\min} < c \middle| \mathbf{Y}_i \in \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_i} \right\}, \tag{12}$$

respectively. G_{\min} and G_{\max} are respectively the global minimum and maximum values of G in the subset $C_{\mathbf{Y}_i}$ given the values of \mathbf{X} .

Equations 11 and 12 are derived from evidence theory by dividing the random variables into infinite intervals. The same equation can also be derived from probability theory by using the total probability. See Ref. 16 for details. Equations 11 and 12 indicate that the evaluation of belief and plausibility measures with the mixture of probability distributions and BPAs is essentially the evaluation of the minimum and maximum probabilities of the performance function over the subsets of **Y**. Therefore, traditional probabilistic analysis methods can be used for the unified uncertainty analysis. Hereby, we use the First Order Reliability Method (FORM) based uncertainty analysis method developed in Ref. 16.

D. FORM-Based Unified Uncertainty Analysis

The First Order Reliability Method (FORM) is used to calculate a CDF or the probability of failure when only random variables \mathbf{X} exist. If the joint probability density function (PDF) of \mathbf{X} is $f_{\mathbf{X}}$, the probability of failure p_f is calculated by

$$p_f = F(c) = \Pr\{G = g(\mathbf{X}) < c\} = \int_{g(\mathbf{X}) < c} f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} . \tag{13}$$

FORM involves three steps to approximate the above integral: 1) transforming original random variables \mathbf{X} to standard normal random variables \mathbf{U} , 2) searching the Most Probable Point (MPP), and 3) calculating p_f .

Step 1: Transformation, which is given by

$$u_i = \Phi^{-1} \left\{ F_{X_i}(x_i) \right\}, \ i = 1, 2, ..., n_X$$
 (14)

where F_{X_i} is the CDF of X_i , and Φ^{-1} is the inverse CDF of a standard normal distribution.

Step 2: MPP search, where the MPP \mathbf{u}^* is identified by

$$\min_{\mathbf{U}} \|\mathbf{U}\| |g(\mathbf{U}) = c, \tag{15}$$

where $\|\cdot\|$ stands for the norm (length) of a vector. $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \|\mathbf{u}^*\|$ is termed as a reliability index.

Step 3: Estimation of p_f , which is given by

$$p_f = \Phi(-\beta), \tag{16}$$

where Φ is the CDF of a standard normal distribution.

The key to FORM is the MPP search. The following recursive algorithm is used to search the MPP,

$$\begin{cases}
\beta^{(k)} = \beta^{(k-1)} + \frac{\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)}}{\left\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})\right\|} \\
\mathbf{u}^{(k)} = -\beta^{(k)} \frac{\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})}{\left\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})\right\|}
\end{cases},$$
(17)

where $\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})$ is the gradient of g at $\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)}$ and $\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})\|$ is its magnitude, and k is the iteration counter.

The above process is called *probabilistic analysis* (PA) because only random variables are involved. As shown in Eqs. (11) and (12), we need to find the maximum and minimum values of G when interval variables \mathbf{Y} exist. The process of finding the maximum and minimum G is called *interval analysis* (IA). Solving Eqs. (11) and (12) directly requires a double-loop procedure where PA and IA are nested. Given a set of interval variables \mathbf{Y} , the MPP is searched by the algorithm in Eq. (17). Then interval analysis is performed to find the maximum and minimum performance function values with the random variables fixed at the MPP. This process repeats till convergence is reached. This double-loop procedure is computationally inefficient. To improve computational efficiency, we need to embed IA into the MPP search algorithm. In this work, we focus on black-box performance functions where closed-form functions are not applicable. Since the traditional interval arithmetic is not applicable to a blackbox function, we employ nonlinear optimization to perform IA.

The flowchart for the minimum probability $\Pr\{G_{\max} < c \, | \, \mathbf{Y}_i \in \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_i} \}$ in the *CBF* equation is given in Fig. 4. The solution is the MPP \mathbf{u}^* where G is the maximum. The probability $\Pr\{G_{\max} < c \, | \, \mathbf{Y}_i \in \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_i} \}$ in Eq. (11) is then computed by

$$\Pr\left\{G_{\max} < c \,\middle|\, \mathbf{Y}_i \in \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Y}_i}\right\} = \Phi(-\beta) = \Phi(-\left\|\mathbf{u}^*\right\|). \tag{18}$$

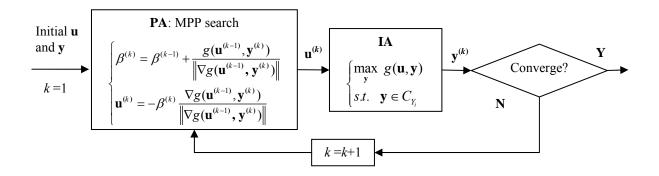


Fig. 4 Flowchart of MPP search in Bel calculation.

For the plausibility calculation, the model of the MPP search is the same as in Fig. 4, and IA becomes a minimization problem.

III. Proposed Sensitivity Analysis Method

With only aleatory uncertainty, a single probability measure of a performance G can be obtained. With both aleatory and epistemic uncertainties, the probability bounds, belief measure and plausibility measure can be obtained as shown in Fig. 5. The difference between belief and plausibility measures represents the effect of epistemic uncertainty. The wider the difference, the greater is the effect. If the difference is too wide, it will be difficult to make decisions.

For example, as shown in Fig. 5, the belief and plausibility are 0.016 and 0.64 at the limit state G=2, respectively. If G<2 is a failure event, then the minimum and maximum probabilities of failure p_f are 0.016 and 0.64, respectively. The large gap between the two bounds makes the decision process too difficult. If one used the belief $(p_f=0.016)$, the design might be highly risky because the true p_f may be much higher

than the minimum value. If one used the plausibility ($p_f = 0.64$), however, the design might be too conservative. In this case, more information about the epistemic variables is needed in order to reduce their effect. How to effectively collect more information is critical. In this work, we develop a sensitivity analysis method to identify the most important epistemic variables that have the highest impact on design performance. With this method, limited resources can be used to collect more information on the identified important epistemic variables.

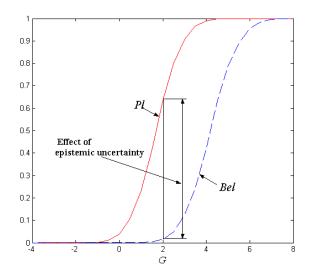


Fig. 5 Effect of epistemic uncertainty and aleatory uncertainty.

We adopt the OAT (one-at-a-time) strategy³⁸ to quantify the effect of each individual epistemic variable. The effect is measured by the difference between belief and plausibility measures. The difference is computed by Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) distance. ³⁹

The OAT strategy belongs to the simplest class of screening methods. The impact of uncertainty in each variable is evaluated one by one.³⁸ The sensitivity analysis is conducted by keeping one epistemic variable uncertain while the other epistemic

variables are fixed at their averages at one time. Then the impact of the varied variable on the performance can be isolated and evaluated. The average of an epistemic variable Y_i $(j = 1, 2, \dots, n_Y)$ is calculated by

$$\overline{Y}_{j} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m(C_{Y_{i}}) \frac{Y_{ij}^{u} + Y_{ij}^{l}}{2}, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$
(19)

where $m(C_{Y_i})$ is the BPA of the *i*-th subset C_{Y_i} , Y_{ij}^u and Y_{ij}^l are the upper and lower bounds of Y_i on C_{Y_i} , respectively.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) distance is a measure used in statistical test ³⁹ and is defined as the maximum difference between the sample CDF and the hypothesized CDF. This distance measures how close the sample CDF to the hypothesized CDF. We adopt herein the same idea to measure the difference between *CPF* and *CBF*.

The proposed sensitivity analysis includes the following two steps:

Step 1 - Uncertainty analysis: the unified uncertainty analysis is performed to calculate CBF and CPF when both aleatory variables \mathbf{X} and epistemic variables \mathbf{Y} exist.

Step 2 - OAT analysis: the main effect and total effect of each epistemic variable are calculated. The main effect explores the impact on the performance from each single epistemic variable while the total effect measures the impact on the performance from the interactions of one epistemic variable with other epistemic variables.

To identify the main effect of the epistemic variable Y_i $(i=1,2,\cdots,n_Y)$, we fix the rest of the epistemic variables Y_j $(j=1,2,\cdots,n_Y,j\neq i)$ at their averages \overline{Y}_j (see Eq. (19)). Only Y_i is allowed to vary. To measure the total effect of the epistemic variable Y_i , we fix Y_i at its average \overline{Y}_i , and keep the rest of epistemic variables Y_j $(j=1,2,\cdots,n_Y,j\neq i)$.

After setting these different scenarios, we conduct the unified uncertainty analysis again to calculate *CBF* and *CPF* for each scenario. We then calculate the difference between *CBF* and *CPF* and rank the importance of epistemic variables by the difference.

In this work, we use sensitivity analysis for two applications, reliability analysis and uncertainty analysis for the entire range of a performance.

Application 1 – Reliability Analysis. Let a failure mode be defined by the event where the performance G is less than a threshold c, namely, G < c. The probability of failure p_f can be calculated by Eq. (13) when only random variables \mathbf{X} exist. When both aleatory and epistemic uncertainties are present, according to Eqs. (11) and (12), the minimum and maximum probabilities of failure are actually the CBF and CPF at c, namely,

$$p_f^{\min} = Bel(c) = F^{\min}(c), \qquad (20)$$

and

$$p_f^{\text{max}} = Pl(c) = F^{\text{max}}(c). \tag{21}$$

The difference between p_f^{max} and p_f^{min} represents the effect of epistemic uncertainty on the probability of failure p_f . The difference is given by

$$d_{p_f} = p_f^{\text{max}} - p_f^{\text{min}} = Pl(c) - Bel(c)$$
. (22)

The main effect of Y_i $(i = 1, 2, \dots, n_Y)$ on the probability of failure is given by

$$ME_{pf}^{i} = d_{p_f}^{i} , \qquad (23)$$

where $d_{p_f}^i$ is the difference between p_f^{\max} and p_f^{\min} when Y_i is kept as an epistemic variable and other variables Y_j ($j=1,\cdots,n_Y,j\neq i$) are fixed at their average \overline{Y}_j . ME_{pf}^i is computed by

$$ME_{pf}^{i} = d_{p_{f}}^{i} = Pl(c \mid Y_{j} = \overline{Y}_{j}, j = 1, \dots, n_{Y}, j \neq i) - Bel(c \mid Y_{j} = \overline{Y}_{j}, j = 1, \dots, n_{Y}, j \neq i)$$
 (24)

The smaller $d_{p_f}^i$ is, the weaker is the impact of Y_i on p_f , and therefore Y_i is less important.

The total effect of Y_i on d_{p_f} is given by

$$TE_{pf}^{i} = d_{p_{f}}^{\sim i}$$
 (25)

where $d_{p_f}^{-i}$ is the difference between p_f^{\max} and p_f^{\min} when Y_i is fixed at its average \overline{Y}_i and the other variables Y_j ($j=1,2,\cdots,n_Y,j\neq i$) are kept as epistemic variables. TE_{pf}^i is computed by

$$TE_{pf}^{i} = d_{p_{f}}^{\sim i} = Pl(c \mid Y_{i} = \overline{Y}_{i}) - Bel(c \mid Y_{i} = \overline{Y}_{i}).$$

$$(26)$$

The smaller $d_{p_f}^{\sim i}$ means the larger influence of Y_i .

Application 2 – Uncertainty analysis over the entire range of the performance G. If we are interested in the effect of an epistemic variable on the entire range of the model output, we can calculate the KS distance between the CBF and CPF as follows,

$$d_{KS} = \max_{c} [Pl(c) - Bel(c)]. \tag{27}$$

The equation implies that the KS distance is the maximum discrepancy between two curves of *CBF* and *CPF* as shown in the Fig. 6.

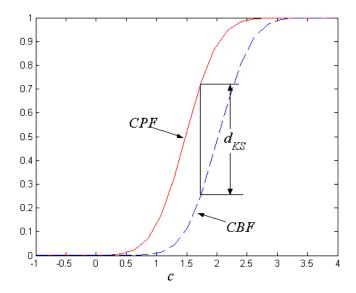


Fig. 6 KS distance.

The main effect of epistemic variable Y_i on CDF is calculated as

$$ME^{i} = d_{p_{f}}^{i}$$

$$= \max_{c} \left[Pl(c \mid Y_{j} = \overline{Y}_{j}, j = 1, 2, \dots, n_{Y}, j \neq i) - Bel(c \mid Y_{j} = \overline{Y}_{j}, j = 1, 2, \dots, n_{Y}, j \neq i) \right], \quad (28)$$

where d_{KS}^i is the KS distance between CPF and CBF when Y_i is kept as an epistemic variable and other variables Y_j ($j=1,2,\cdots,n_Y$, $j\neq i$) are fixed at their average \overline{Y}_j . The smaller d_{KS}^i is, the closer are CBF and CPF; namely, the impact of Y_i is weaker and Y_i is less influential. Therefore, the smaller ME^i is, the less significant is Y_i to the uncertainty of the performance.

The total effect of epistemic variable Y_i on CDF can be calculated as

$$TE^{i} = d_{KS}^{-i} = \max_{c} \left[Pl(c \mid Y_{i} = \overline{Y}_{i}) - Bel(c \mid Y_{i} = \overline{Y}_{i}) \right], \tag{29}$$

where d_{KS}^{-i} is the KS distance when Y_i is fixed at its average \overline{Y}_i and other variables $Y_j(j=1,2,\cdots,n_Y,j\neq i)$ are kept as epistemic variables. In this case, a smaller discrepancy between CPF and CBF implies higher influence of Y_i on G.

The flowchart of the proposed sensitivity analysis method is illustrated in Fig. 7.

From the above discussion, it is seen that one sensitivity analysis needs to call the unified analysis $2n_{\gamma}+1$ times – one analysis is for the case with original uncertain variables, n_{γ} analyses are for the main effects of the n_{γ} epistemic variables, and the other n_{γ} analyses are for the total effects of the n_{γ} epistemic variables. The computation is intensive, and therefore efficiency is critical. To improve efficiency, we use the efficient MPP algorithm as shown in Eq. (17). In many engineering applications, a performance function is monotonic in terms of interval variables. In this case, it is not necessary to conduct nonlinear optimization for interval analysis. However, it is difficult to know whether the performance function is monotonic because of the black-box model. We therefore perform optimization for interval analysis in the first iteration. Thereafter, we check the Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) conditions⁴¹ after the MPP is updated. If the KKT conditions are satisfied, there is no need to perform optimization again. We then proceed to the next iteration.

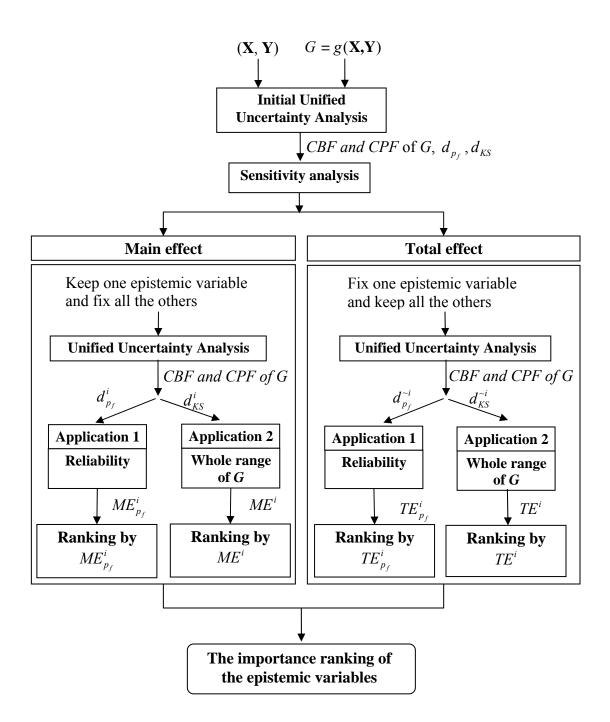


Fig. 7 Flowchart of the proposed sensitivity analysis.

IV. Examples

A. Example 1- Crank-Slider Mechanism

A crank-slider mechanism is used in a construction machine as shown in Fig. 8^{16} The length of the crank AB a, the length of the coupler BC b, the external force Q, the Young's modulus of the material of the coupler E, and the yield strength of the coupler S are random variables. Their distributions are given in Table 1.

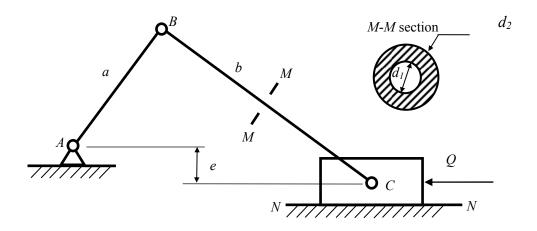


Fig. 8 A crank-slider mechanism.

Table 1. Random variables X

Variables	Symbols in Fig.8	Mean	Standard deviation	Distribution
X_1	а	100 mm	0.01 mm	Normal
X_2	b	300 mm	0.01 mm	Normal
X_3	Q	250 kN	25 kN	Normal
X_4	E	200 GPa	30 GPa	Normal
X_5	S	390 MPa	39 MPa	Normal

Because of the harsh environment of the construction site, a precise distribution of the coefficient of friction μ between the ground NN and the slider C is not available, but its intervals and BPA are available based on the solicitation from experts. Because of the

different installation positions of the slider are required in various construction sites, the intervals and BPA of the offset *e* are assigned based on limited historical data. Their BPAs are provided in Table 2, and the joint BPA is also visualized in Fig. 9.

Table 2. Uncertain variables with epistemic uncertainty

Tubi	c 2. Chect talli varia	bies with episteniie t	incertainty
Variables	Symbols in Fig. 8	Intervals	BPA
		[100, 120]	0.2
Y_I	e (mm)	[120, 140]	0.4
		[140, 150]	0.4
		[0.15, 0.18]	0.3
Y_2	μ	[0.18, 0.23]	0.3
	•	[0.23, 0.25]	0.4

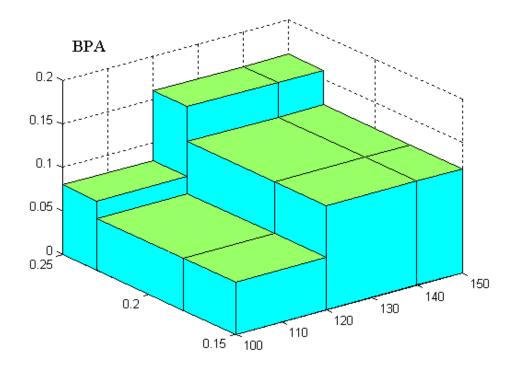


Fig. 9 Joint BPA of Y with 3 Intervals.

The two performance functions are the safety margins for strength and buckling requirements of the coupler, which are defined by the difference between the material strength and the maximum stress, and the difference between the critical load and the axial load, respectively. The equations are obtained at one of the positions when the crank AB and the coupler BC overlap. The functions are given by

$$G_1 = g_1(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = S - \frac{4P(b-a)}{\pi \left(\sqrt{(b-a)^2 - e^2} - \mu e\right) \left(d_2^2 - d_1^2\right)},$$

and

$$G_2 = g_2(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = \frac{\pi^3 E(d_2^4 - d_1^4)}{64b^2} - \frac{P(b-a)}{\sqrt{(b-a)^2 - e^2} - \mu e}.$$

The failure events are defined by $E_1 = \{ \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} | G_1 < 0 \}$ and $E_2 = \{ \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} | G_2 < 0 \}$. Our goal is to find out the most significant epistemic variable (offset e or coefficient of friction μ) which has the most dominant effect on the performance functions G_1 and G_2 .

We first perform the unified uncertainty analysis for the two failure modes. The result is given in Table 3. The difference d_{p_f} between the maximum and minimum probabilities of failure (or Pl and Bel) of G_1 is large, and the difference d_{p_f} of G_2 is almost zero. Therefore, the effect of epistemic uncertainty on failure mode 1 (G_1) cannot be neglected, and the effect of epistemic uncertainty on failure mode 2 (G_2) is negligible. Sensitivity analysis on failure mode 1 is then necessary. Hence we only conduct sensitivity analysis on G_1 .

In order to confirm the accuracy of the united uncertainty analysis, we solve the problem by Monte Carlo simulation (MCS). The result is also provided in Table 3, where N is number of function evaluations. N is used to measure computational efficiency. It is

seen that the unified uncertainty analysis employed in this paper is very accurate and efficient.

Table 3 d_{p_f} for G_1 and G_2

United Uncertainty Analysis			Mo	onte Carlo S	Simulation			
	$p_f^{\min}(Bel)$	$p_f^{\max}(Pl)$	d_{p_f}	\overline{N}	$p_f^{\min}(Bel)$	$p_f^{\max}(Pl)$	d_{p_f}	N
G_{1}	0.00735	0.0727	0.0654	468	0.0124	0.09424	0.0818	4×10 ⁶
G_2	≈ 0.0	≈ 0.0	≈ 0.0	488	≈ 0.0	≈ 0.0	≈ 0.0	4×10^{6}

We also perform the unified uncertainty analysis for the entire range of the two performance functions. The results of CBF and CPF for both G_1 and G_2 are shown in Table 4 and Figs. 10 and 11. It is also seen that the effect of epistemic uncertainty on G_1 is much larger than that on G_2 because the KS distance for G_1 is much larger than that for G_2 . The numbers of function evaluations also indicate that the unified uncertainty analysis is much efficient than MCS.

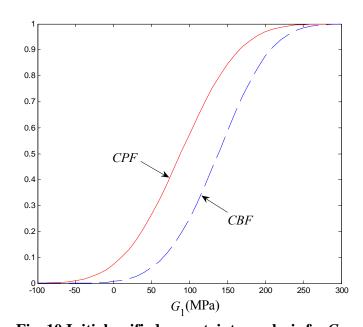


Fig. 10 Initial unified uncertainty analysis for G_1 .

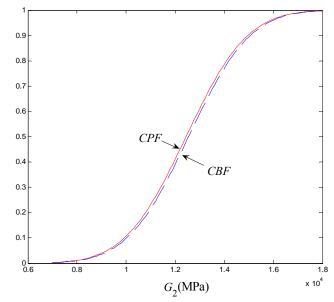


Fig. 11 Initial unified uncertainty analysis for G_2 .

Table 4 Results of unified uncertainty analysis for G_1

G_1	United Uncertainty A	United Uncertainty Analysis		ulation
	CPF – CBF	\overline{N}	CPF – CBF	N
-100	0.0008	468	0.0013	36×10^6
-50	0.0103	468	0.0156	36×10^{6}
0	0.0654	468	0.0818	36×10^{6}
50	0.2042	468	0.2050	36×10^{6}
100	0.3248	468	0.2804	36×10^{6}
150	0.2594	468	0.2322	36×10^{6}
200	0.0946	468	0.1017	36×10^{6}
250	0.0137	468	0.0181	36×10^{6}
300	0.0007	468	0.0011	36×10^{6}
	Total function calls	4212	Total function calls	36×10^{6}
-	KS distance	0.3248	KS distance	0.2804

Next we perform sensitivity analysis on G_1 to find out the most influential epistemic variable. In this example, there are only two epistemic variables Y_1 and Y_2 ; no total effect is therefore needed. Thus we only analyze the main effect of each variable.

Main Effect of Y_1 : Keep Y_1 as an epistemic variable and fix Y_2 at its average. The average of Y_2 is calculated by

$$\overline{Y}_2 = \frac{0.15 + 0.18}{2} \times 0.3 + \frac{0.18 + 0.23}{2} \times 0.3 + \frac{0.23 + 0.25}{2} \times 0.4 = 0.207$$
.

The *CBF* and *CPF* of G_1 are reevaluated by the unified uncertainty and are given in Fig. 12. The difference (main effect) between the maximum and minimum probabilities of failure $ME_{p_f}^1 = d_{p_f}^1$, and the KS distance for the entire distribution $ME^1 = d_{KS}^1$ are given in Table 5.

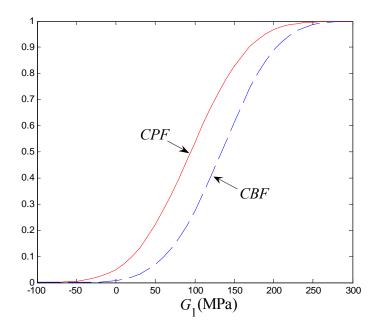


Fig. 12 *CBF* and *CPF* from the main effect analysis for Y_1 .

Table 5 Main effect of each epistemic variable

Main effect	$p_f^{\min}(Bel)$	$p_f^{\max}(Pl)$	ME_{p_f}	ME
Y_1	0.008219	0.049754	0.041535	0.2979
Y_2	0.004638	0.008164	0.003527	0.0761

Main Effect of Y_2 : Keep Y_2 as an epistemic variable and fix Y_1 at its average. The average of Y_1 is calculated by

$$\overline{Y}_1 = \frac{100 + 120}{2} \times 0.2 + \frac{120 + 140}{2} \times 0.4 + \frac{140 + 150}{2} \times 0.4 = 132$$
.

The *CBF* and *CPF* of G_1 are illustrated in Fig. 13, and $ME_{p_f}^2 = d_{p_f}^2$ and $ME^2 = d_{KS}^2$ are also given in Table 5. The difference between the *CBF* and *CPF* is much narrower when Y_1 is fixed. The result indicates that the main effect of Y_1 is much greater than that of Y_2 . Therefore Y_1 is the most influential contributor to the effect of epistemic uncertainty on the probability of failure p_f of G_1 , and it is also true for the entire range of G_1 .

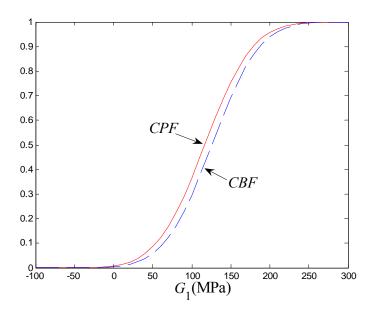


Fig. 13 CBF and CPF from the main effect analysis for Y_2 .

If more information is needed to reduce the effect of epistemic uncertainty, we should collect more information on Y_1 instead of Y_2 . After adequate information was collected on Y_1 , Y_1 would become a random variable with only aleatory uncertainty. Suppose the available distribution of Y_1 is N(125, 8.33) mm. Through the unified uncertainty analysis

again, the gap between CBF and CPF of G_1 becomes much narrower as shown in Fig.14 and Table 6.

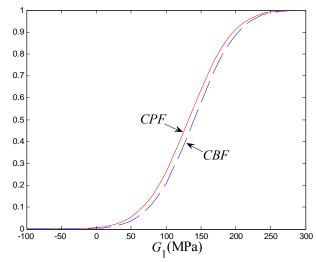


Fig. 14 *CPF* and *CBF* of G_1 after more information on Y_1 is collected.

Table 6 $ME_{p_i}^i$ and ME^i

	P į			
Scenarios	$p_f^{\min}(Bel)$	$p_f^{\max}(Pl)$	$ME_{p_f}^i$	ME^i
Y_1 : 3 intervals, Y_2 : 3 intervals	0.007353	0.072707	0.065354	0.3288
Y_1 : aleatory, Y_2 : 3 intervals	0.003379	0.005881	0.002502	0.0622
Y_1 : 3 intervals, Y_2 : aleatory	0.007507	0.045416	0.037909	0.2625

If we did not conduct sensitivity analysis, we might arbitrarily choose to collect more information on Y_2 . Suppose the distribution of Y_2 is N(0.2, 0.017) after more information is collected. As shown in Fig. 15 and Table 6, the reduced effect of epistemic uncertainty (the gap between the CPF and CBF) is much less significant compared to the situation where the epistemic uncertainty of Y_1 is eliminated (see Fig. 14).

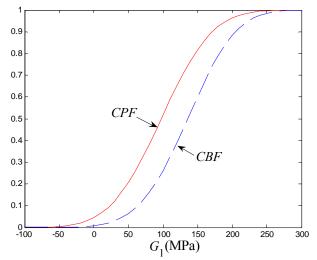


Fig. 15 CPF and CBF of G_1 after collecting more information on Y_2 is collected.

For an easy comparison, all the information is provided in Table 6. The first row is the uncertainty analysis result with the original uncertain variables X and Y. The second row is the result when Y_1 becomes aleatory while the third row is the result when Y_2 becomes aleatory. The table verifies that Y_1 is more important than Y_2 in terms of the effect on G_1 .

B. Example 2 - Crowned Cam Roller-Follower's Contact

A crowned cam roller-follower used in a transmission system is shown in Fig.16.⁴² It has a gentle radius transverse to its rolling direction for eliminating the need for critical alignment of its axis with that of the cam. The roller radius is R_1 with a R'_1 crown radius at 90° to the roller radius. The cam's radius of curvature at the point of maximum load is R_2 and is flat axially so its crown radius R'_2 is infinite. The rotational axes of the cam and roller are parallel. The force is Q, normal to the contact plane. The materials of roller and follower are steel. Their Young's modulus E is 30×10^6 psi, and the Poisson's ratio v is 0.28. Due to the elastic deformation, the contact patch is an ellipse, and the pressure

distribution is a semi-ellipsoid, as illustrated in Fig. 17. R_1 , R_1' , and R_2 are random variables with the distributions listed in Table 7.

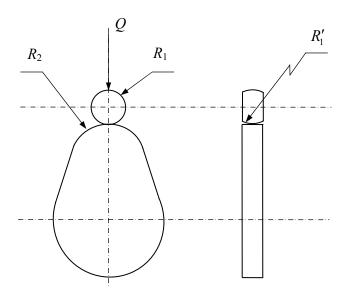


Fig. 16 A crowned cam roller-follower under load Q.

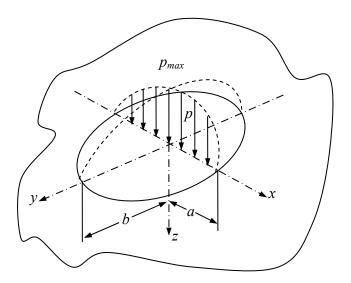


Fig. 17 Contact patch (p denotes the pressure distributed on the contact patch).

Table 7 Random variables X

Variable	Symbols in problem	Mean	Standard deviation	Distribution
X_1	R_1	1 in	0.01 in	Normal
X_2	R_1'	20 in	0.2 in	Normal
X_3	R_2	3.46 in	0.0346 in	Normal
X_4	S	37.5 ksi	0.375 ksi	Normal

Because of limited information, an accurate measure or a distribution of Q is not available. Its intervals and BPA are available based on the solicitation from experts, which is provided in Table 8.

Table 8 Uncertain variables with epistemic uncertainty

Variable	Symbols in problem	Intervals	BPA
Y_1	$k_{ m a}$	[3.50, 3.60]	1
Y_2	$k_{ m b}$	[0.434, 0.440]	1
Y_3	Q(lb)	[246, 254]	1

The half-width of the major axis a and the half-width of the minor axis b are determined by

$$a = k_a \sqrt[3]{\frac{3Q(m_1 + m_2)}{4A}} \,,$$

$$b = k_b \sqrt[3]{\frac{3Q(m_1 + m_2)}{4A}},$$

where

$$m_1 = m_2 = \frac{1 - v^2}{E^2} \,,$$

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_1'} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_2'} \right).$$

The factors k_a and k_b are obtained from a table in Ref. 42 based on the value of ϕ , which is calculated by

$$\phi = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{A}{B}\right),\,$$

$$B = \frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_1'} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{R_2} - \frac{1}{R_2'} \right)^2 + 2 \left(\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_1'} \right) \left(\frac{1}{R_2} - \frac{1}{R_2'} \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}},$$

 ϕ is a random variable due to the randomness in R_1 , R'_1 , and R_2 , and k_a and k_b are tabulated in term of ϕ . The values of k_a and k_b are not precisely known and are estimated within two intervals as shown in Table 8.

The performance function is the safety margin for shear yield strength of the roller and follower, defined by the difference between the shear yield strength and maximum shear stress, which is one-half of the tensile yield strength based on maximum shear-stress theory. The function is given by

$$G = g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = \tau_{max} - S$$
,

where S is the shear yield strength, and τ_{max} is defined by

$$\tau_{max} = \max(\tau_a, \tau_u, \tau_{ma}, \tau_{mi}),$$

where τ_a is the maximum shear stress at the contact surface, τ_u is the largest shear stress under the contact surface, and τ_{ma} and τ_{mi} are the shear stresses at the ends of major and minor axis, respectively, on the contact surface. These stresses are calculated by

$$\tau_a = \left| \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}{2} \right|,$$

where σ_1 , σ_2 , and σ_3 are principal stresses at the contact surface, calculated by

$$\sigma_1 = -\left[2\nu + (1-2\nu)\frac{b}{a+b}\right]p_{max},$$

$$\sigma_2 = -\left[2v + (1-2v)\frac{a}{a+b}\right]p_{max},$$

$$\sigma_3 = -p_{max}$$
, where $p_{max} = \frac{3Q}{2\pi ab}$,

and

$$\tau_{ma} = (1 - 2v) \frac{k_3}{k_4^2} \left(\frac{1}{k_4} \tanh^{-1} k_4 - 1 \right) p_{max}, \text{ where } k_3 = \frac{b}{a},$$

$$\tau_{mi} = (1 - 2v) \frac{k_3}{k_4^2} \left(1 - \frac{k_3}{k_4} \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{k_4}{k_3} \right) \right) p_{max}, \text{ where } k_4 = \frac{1}{a} \sqrt{a^2 - b^2}.$$

The failure event is defined by $E = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} \mid G < 0\}$. The *CBF* and *CPF* are calculated by the unified uncertainty analysis and are shown in the Fig. 18. Also, a comparison with MCS is provided in Table 9. The result indicates that the impact of epistemic uncertainty is large and can not be ignored. In the table, N is the number of function evaluations.

Table 9 Results of unified uncertainty analysis

			· ·		
<i>G</i> (ksi) -	United Uncertainty Ar	nalysis	Monte Carlo Simu	lation	
O (RSI)	CPF-CBF	N	CPF – CBF	N	
-1	0	102	0	88×10 ⁶	
-0.50	0.0018	88	0.0018	88×10^{6}	
0	0.0412	88	0.0407	88×10^{6}	
0.5	0.2890	83	0.2869	88×10^{6}	
1	0.7331	83	0.7309	88×10^{6}	
1.5	0.9627	84	0.9621	88×10^{6}	
2.0	0.9675	84	0.9679	88×10^{6}	
2.5	0.7575	83	0.7593	88×10^{6}	
3.0	0.3205	83	0.3229	88×10^{6}	
3.5	0.0517	88	0.0524	88×10^{6}	
4.0	0.0027	88	0.0027	88×10^{6}	
	Total function calls	954	Total function calls	88×10 ⁶	

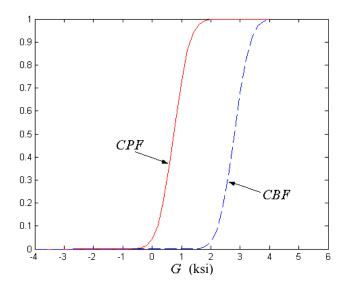


Fig. 18 Initial unified uncertainty analysis of G.

Sensitivity analysis is then conducted to identify the most influential variables. Total effect and main effect of each variable can be obtained respectively.

We conduct the main effect analysis as follows.

Main effect of Y_1 : Keep Y_1 as an epistemic variable, and fix Y_2 and Y_3 at their averages.

Main effect of Y_2 : Keep Y_2 as an epistemic variable, and fix Y_1 and Y_3 at their averages.

Main effect of Y_3 : Keep Y_3 as an epistemic variable, and fix Y_1 and Y_2 at their averages.

The respective results for above three analyses are in Figs. 19, 20 and 21 and Table 10.

As for the difference between the maximum and minimum probabilities of failure, since $ME_{p_f} = d_{p_f}^1$ is the largest, Y_1 therefore has the highest impact on p_f . As for the KS distance between the CBF and CPF, since $ME^1 = d_{KS}^1$ is the largest, Y_1 is also the most influential epistemic variable to the effect of epistemic uncertainty on G.

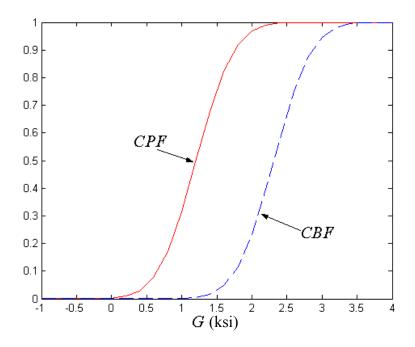


Fig. 19 CBF and CPF from the main effect analysis for Y_1 .

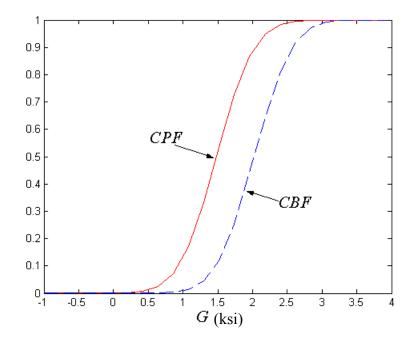


Fig. 20 CBF and CPF from the main effect analysis for Y_2 .

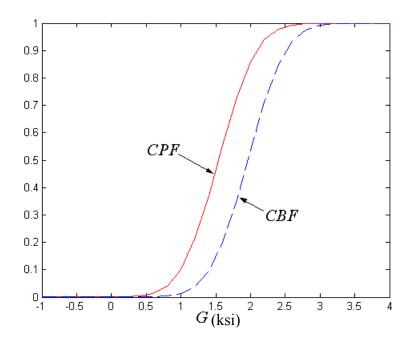


Fig. 21 CBF and CPF from the main effect analysis for Y_3 .

Table 10 Main effect of each epistemic variable

Main effect of	$p_f^{\min}(Bel)$	$p_f^{\max}(Pl)$	ME_{p_f}	ME^i
Y_1	2.91E-08	0.002245	0.002245	0.80278
Y_2	1.01E-06	0.00024	0.000239	0.47207
Y_3	2.08E-06	0.000144	0.000142	0.37393

We next perform the total effect analysis as follows.

Total effect of Y_1 : Keep Y_2 and Y_3 as epistemic variables, and fix Y_1 at its average Total effect of Y_2 : Keep Y_1 and Y_3 as epistemic variables, and fix Y_2 at its average Total effect of Y_3 : Keep Y_1 and Y_2 as epistemic variables, and fix Y_3 at its average The results are given in Figs. 22, 23 and 24 and Table 11. It can be seen that $TE_{p_f}^1 = d_{p_f}^{-1}$ and $TE^1 = d_{kS}^{-1}$ are smallest, and therefore Y_1 is most influential, which is consistent with the conclusion from the main effect analysis.

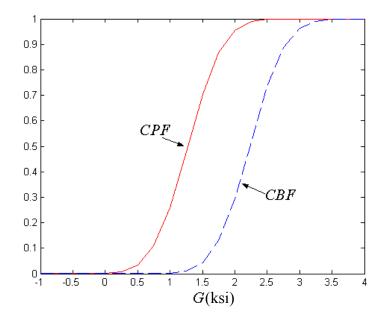


Fig. 22 CBF and CPF from the total effect analysis for Y_1 .

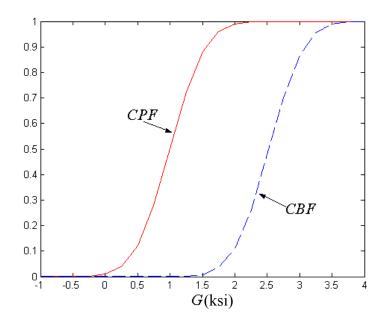


Fig. 23 CBF and CPF from the total effect analysis for Y_2 .

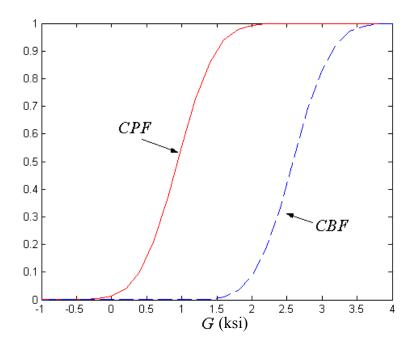


Fig. 24 CBF and CPF from the total effect analysis for Y_3 .

Table 11 Total effect of each epistemic variable

Total effect of	$p_f^{\min}(Bel)$	$p_f^{\max}(Pl)$	TE_{p_f}	TE^i
Y_1	8.08E-08	0.00134	0.00134	0.73815
Y_2	1.66E-09	0.009275	0.009275	0.92589
Y_3	6.65E-10	0.013141	0.013141	0.94513

To confirm the above sensitivity analyses results, we assume that more information could be collected on Y_1 , Y_2 and Y_3 . The distributions of Y_1 , Y_2 and Y_3 after gathering more information are N(3.55, 0.036), N(0.437, 0.0044) and N(250, 2.5), respectively. The unified uncertainty analysis is performed when one epistemic variable becomes aleatory. The CBF and CPF of G are shown in Fig. 25, and ME_{p_f} and ME in each case are provided in Table 12. It is seen that from Fig. 25 the gap between CBF and CPF becomes narrowest after the epistemic uncertainty in Y_1 is eliminated. The result confirms that collecting more information on the most influential variable Y_1 has the highest contribution for reducing the effect of epistemic uncertainty. The second highest

contribution is from gathering more information on Y_2 . Collecting more information on Y_3 has the least contribution.

It is seen that after the epistemic uncertainty of the most important variable Y_1 has been eliminated, the gap between CBF and CPF is still large. The elimination of the epistemic uncertainty of one more variable may be needed. Since Y_2 is more important than Y_3 , more information on Y_2 should be collected if further action needs to be taken.

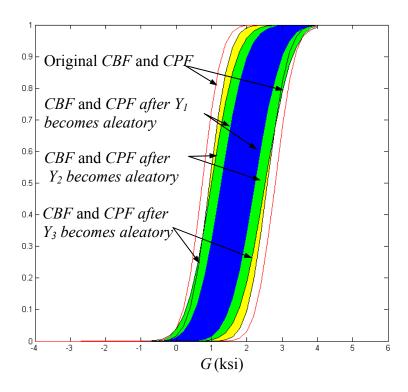


Fig. 25 Comparison of uncertainty effect.

Table 12 Unified uncertainty analysis for confirmation

		J		
Scenarios	$p_f^{\min}(Bel)$	$p_f^{\max}(Pl)$	$ME_{p_f}^i$	ME^i
Y_1 , Y_2 and Y_3 are aleatory	2.74E-11	0.041172	0.041172	0.7836
Y_I is aleatory	5.12E-05	0.012733	0.012682	0.5106
Y_2 is aleatory	5.89E-06	0.039711	0.039705	0.81014
Y_3 is aleatory	3.56E-09	0.0167	0.0167	0.93361

V. Conclusions

An effective sensitivity analysis method is developed to identify the most important input variables with epistemic uncertainty when aleatory uncertainty also exists. The importance of an epistemic variable is measured by its effect on the model output, including its main effect and total effect. These effects are indicated by the difference between belief and plausibility measures of an output variable. After the sensitivity analysis, all the epistemic variables are ranked by their importance. Then by collecting more information on the dominant epistemic variables, the effect of epistemic uncertainty can be reduced in the most efficient way as shown in the paper.

In the proposed sensitivity analysis procedure, an once-at-a-time strategy is used to set up different scenarios for the input epistemic variables in order to study their main effects and total effects. Then plausibility and belief measures of an output variable are calculated under each scenario by the unified uncertainty analysis framework. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov distance is used to quantify the discrepancy between the plausibility measure and belief measure, namely, the effect of epistemic uncertainty on the output. By comparing the main effects and total effects of the epistemic variables, their importance is ranked.

The proposed sensitivity analysis method is based on the First Order Reliability Method. The advantages of the proposed methods are as follows. (1) Engineers are familiar with First Order Reliability Method. (2) It is easy to quantify the contributions of the individual epistemic variables to the reliability or to the probability of failure. (3) Since optimization is used for interval analysis, the result in general is more accurate than that from interval arithmetic. (4) The process is efficient because the double-loop Monte

Carlo simulation is not involved. (5) The proposed method is applicable to black-box models.

When using the proposed method, one should also consider the other features of the method. (1) The method assumes the global optimal solution for the interval analysis. The method may not provide an accurate solution if a global optima is not reached. (2) The efficiency of the method depends on the number of subsets of the epistemic variables because First Order Reliability Method is performed for each subset. The efficiency also depends on the number of aleatory variables because the efficiency of First Order Reliability Method is directly proportional to the number of aleatory (random) variables.

Compared to the traditional probabilistic sensitivity analysis, sensitivity analysis with the mixture of epistemic and aleatory uncertainties is much more computationally expensive. Our future work will be the improvement of computational efficiency. We will also study the sensitivity of aleatory uncertainty and its interaction with epistemic uncertainty.

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PAPER II

Reliability sensitivity analysis with random and interval variables

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SUMMARY

In reliability analysis and reliability-based design, sensitivity analysis identifies the relationship between the change in reliability and the change in the characteristics of uncertain variables. Sensitivity analysis is also used to identify the most significant uncertain variables that have the highest contributions to reliability. Most of the current sensitivity analysis methods are applicable for only random variables. In many engineering applications, however, some of uncertain variables are intervals. In this work, a sensitivity analysis method is proposed for the mixture of random and interval variables. Six sensitivity indices are defined for the sensitivity of the average reliability and reliability bounds with respect to the averages and widths of intervals, as well as with respect to the distribution parameters of random variables. The equations of these sensitivity indices are derived based on the First Order Reliability Method (FORM). The proposed reliability sensitivity analysis is a byproduct of FORM without any extra function calls after reliability is found. Once FORM is performed, the sensitivity information is obtained automatically. Two examples are used for demonstration.

KEY WORDS: sensitivity analysis; random variable; interval variable; sensitivity index

1. INTRODUCTION

In reliability analysis [1~3] and reliability-based design [4~7], sensitivity analysis provides information about the relationship between reliability and the distribution

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parameters of a random variable. Sensitivity analysis can therefore identify the most significant uncertain variables that have the highest contribution to reliability. When only random variables are involved, sensitivity analysis is usually performed for the probabilistic characteristics of a limit-state function, such as its moment, probability density function, and reliability. Such sensitivity analysis is usually named *probabilistic sensitivity analysis* (PSA). Various PSA approaches have been reported in a wide range of literature, including differential analysis [8, 9], variance-based methods [10], and sampling-based methods [10]. These types of probabilistic sensitivity analysis are briefly reviewed below.

(1) Differential analysis (probability sensitivity coefficient)

The probability-based sensitivity measure is defined as the rate of change in a probability (P) (reliability or the probability of failure) due to the change in a distribution parameter (q_i) of a random input, namely $\partial P/\partial q_i$. $\partial P/\partial q_i$ can be calculated by the finite difference method given by [2]:

$$S_{q_i} = \frac{P(q_i + \Delta q_i) - P(q_i)}{\Delta q_i} \tag{1}$$

where q_i is a distribution parameter, such as the mean or the variance of a random variable; Δq_i is a small step size of q_i .

Various probability sensitivity measures have been proposed in literature [11~14]. Wu [11] and Wu and Mohanty [12] propose a normalized *cumulative density function* (CDF)-based sensitivity coefficient for the probability of failure with respect to the distribution parameters of random variables. The sensitivity is defined by:

$$S_{q_i} = \frac{\partial p_f / p_f}{\partial q_i / q_i} = \int \cdots \int_{\Omega} \frac{q_i}{f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{X})} \frac{\partial f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{X})}{\partial q_i} \left[\frac{f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{X})}{p_f} \right] d\mathbf{x} = E \left[\frac{q_i \partial f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{X})}{f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{X}) \partial q_i} \right]_{\Omega}$$
(2)

where $f_{\mathbf{X}}$ is the joint probability density function of all random variables, p_f is the probability of failure, \mathbf{X} is a vector of random variables, and Ω denotes the failure region. The calculation of this sensitivity measure involves evaluating a multidimensional integral. A sampling method is usually used to estimate this integral, which makes this method computationally expensive. Mavris et al. [13] extend Wu's method to evaluate the sensitivity of any probabilistic characteristics, such as the variance and mean of a limit-state function.

Another sensitivity measure related to reliability is the Most Probable Point (MPP) based sensitivity coefficients [14], defined as the gradient of a limit-state function at the MPP in the standard normal space, normalized by the reliability index. Let G be a response calculated by a limit-state function $G = g(\mathbf{X})$, where \mathbf{X} is the vector of random variables. After \mathbf{X} is transformed into standard normal random variables \mathbf{U} , the MPP, $\mathbf{u}^* = \left(u_1^*, u_2^*, \dots, u_{nx}^*\right)$, the shortest distance point from the limit state $g(\mathbf{U}) = c$, where c is a limit state, to the origin O is identified. (The equation for the MPP search will be given in Eq. (4).) The sensitivity of reliability with respect to the ith random variables is then calculated by

$$S_i = \frac{\left(u_i^*\right)^2}{\beta^2} \tag{3}$$

where β is the magnitude of \mathbf{u}^* or the reliability index. For the MPP-based reliability analysis, the probability sensitivity coefficient does not require any additional

computational efforts after the MPP is found. The sensitivity coefficient S_i is just a byproduct of reliability analysis.

(2) Variance-based methods

Variance-based sensitivity analysis methods rely on the decomposition of the variance of a response into items contributed by various sources of input variations. These sources can be classified into two types: main effects and total effects. A main effect refers to the effect of only one random variable, while a total effect is used to include both the individual effect of a random variable and the interaction of the random variable with other random variables. Although the methods provide a global sensitivity measure, their major limitation is that a variance is assumed to be sufficient to describe the uncertainties encountered. This type of methods may lose accuracy when the variance is not a good measure of the distribution dispersion, such as in the case where a response distribution has high skewness and kurtosis [15].

(3) Sampling methods

Sampling approaches, such as Monte Carlo sampling for sensitivity analysis, usually involve three steps: (1) generating samples for uncertain input variables; (2) numerically evaluating a limit-state function and then obtaining samples of response variables; (3) statistically analyzing responses and quantifying their uncertainties, and then exploring the effects of the uncertainty of input variables on responses. Sampling methods are easy to use but computationally expensive when reliability is high. Because the probability of failure is low in this case, a large number of samples are required to capture a failure event.

The current PSA methods handle only random variables that are assumed to follow certain probability distributions. However, in many engineering applications, the information or knowledge might be too insufficient to build probability distributions. As discussed in [16, 17], uncertainty is sometimes represented by intervals due to the lack of knowledge. One example is that the true contact resistance in the vehicle crashworthiness design is hard to know; an interval is then used based on the engineers' best judgment [18]. Another example is in a new design. It is difficult to determine the precise distribution of design variables, such as dimensions. Engineers often define their design variables in the form of nominal values plus and minus certain tolerances, like 10 ± 0.01 mm. More examples of intervals can be found in [4, 16]. Sometimes even though a variable is random and follows a non-uniform distribution, only one interval estimate is available due to limited information or sparse samples. In this case, assigning an assumed distribution to the variable may lead to erroneous results [19]. When intervals are involved, the current PSA methods are no longer applicable.

Several methods of dealing with only interval variables have been reported for reliability analysis and reliability-based design [17, 20~34]. A few sensitivity analysis methods [35~38] for epistemic uncertainty (uncertainty due to the lack of knowledge) are potentially capable of dealing with interval variables. These methods use intervals to represent epistemic uncertainty. For example, a sensitivity analysis approach on the basis of belief and plausibility measures is proposed by Bae, et al [35, 36]. The results of this approach can help guide the data collection to improve the accuracy of reliability analysis and distinguish the dominant contributors of uncertainty. A sampling-based sensitivity analysis method is developed by Helton, et al [37]. It consists of three steps: an initial

analysis to explore the model behavior, a stepwise analysis to indicate the effects of uncertain variables on belief and plausibility functions, and a summary analysis to show a series of variance-based sensitivity analysis results. Considering the complexity of the mixture of aleatory and epistemic uncertainties, Guo and Du [38] propose an approach to conduct sensitivity analysis with this mixture. In their method, the most important epistemic variables are captured under the framework of the unified uncertainty analysis.

All of the above methods are capable of identifying the most significant interval variables, but they have some limitations. For example, it is difficult to use them to obtain information about how individual intervals impact reliability, especially how reliability bounds will change after narrowing interval bounds. In this work, we propose a sensitivity analysis method to handle the situation where both interval variables and random variables are involved. The intervals are treated as is without any distribution assumptions. With this method, we attempt to answer the following questions:

- 1) How will the width of the reliability bounds change if the width of an interval is reduced or if the average of the interval is changed?
- 2) How will the average reliability change if the width of an interval is reduced or if the average of the interval is changed?
- 3) How will the width of the reliability bounds change if a distribution parameter of a random variable is changed?
- 4) How will the average reliability change if a distribution parameter of a random variable is changed?

The answers to the above questions will provide useful information about improving reliability and reducing the impact of intervals and random variables on reliability.

Hence, six sensitivity indices are proposed for answering these questions. Equations for the sensitivity indices are then derived and corresponding computational procedures are developed. The calculation of sensitivity indices requires searching the minimum and maximum reliability, or the probabilities of failure, over the intervals. To alleviate the computational burden, we use an efficient FORM-based unified reliability analysis framework [39].

This paper is organized as follows: Sec. 2 provides a brief review of the unified reliability analysis. In Sec. 3, the six sensitivity indices are defined, and the equations for calculating these sensitivity indices are derived. In Sec. 4, two engineering examples are used to illustrate the proposed method. Conclusions and future work are summarized in Sec. 5.

2. UNIFIED RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Reliability analysis is one of the main steps of reliability sensitivity analysis. The proposed sensitivity analysis is based on the First Order Reliability Method (FORM) [40, 41] which is applicable for random variables, and the unified reliability analysis (URA) [39], which is applicable for the mixture of random and interval variables. Both methods are briefly reviewed in this section.

2.1. Reliability analysis

In the reliability analysis where only random variables \mathbf{X} are involved, reliability is defined by

$$R = \Pr\{G = g(\mathbf{X}) \ge c\} = 1 - \Pr\{G = g(\mathbf{X}) < c\} = 1 - p_f \tag{4}$$

where $\Pr\{\cdot\}$ denotes a probability, G is a response, c is a specific limit state, $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_i, \dots, X_{nx})$ is a vector of random variables, g is a performance function, also called a limit-state function [42], and p_f is the probability of failure.

If the joint probability density function (PDF) of \mathbf{X} is $f_{\mathbf{X}}$, the probability of failure p_f is calculated by

$$p_f = \Pr\{G = g(\mathbf{X}) < c\} = \int_{g(\mathbf{X}) < c} f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$
 (5)

The limit-state function $g(\mathbf{X})$ is usually a nonlinear function of \mathbf{X} ; therefore, the integration boundary is nonlinear. Since the number of random variables is usually high, multidimensional integration is involved. There is rarely a closed-form solution to Eq. (5). The First Order Reliability Method (FORM) is widely used to easily evaluate the integral in Eq. (5).

FORM involves three steps to approximate the probability integral: 1) transforming original random variables \mathbf{X} into standard normal random variables \mathbf{U} , 2) searching for the Most Probable Point (MPP), and 3) calculating p_f .

Step 1: Transformation, which is given by

$$u_i = \Phi^{-1} \left\{ F_{X_i}(x_i) \right\} \tag{6}$$

where F_{X_i} is the CDF of X_i , and Φ^{-1} is the inverse CDF of a standard normal distribution.

Step 2: MPP search, where the MPP \mathbf{u}^* is identified by

$$\min_{\mathbf{U}} \|\mathbf{U}\| \\
\text{s.t.} \quad g(\mathbf{U}) = c \tag{7}$$

in which $\|\cdot\|$ stands for the magnitude of a vector. Geometrically, the MPP is the shortest distance point from the limit state $g(\mathbf{U}) = c$ to the origin in U-space. The minimum distance $\beta = \|\mathbf{u}^*\|$ is called the *reliability index*.

Step 3: Estimation of p_f , which is given by

$$p_f = \Phi(-\beta) \tag{8}$$

where Φ is the CDF of a standard normal distribution.

The most computationally intensive work of FORM is the MPP search. The following recursive algorithm [43] is used for the MPP search,

$$\begin{cases}
\beta^{(k)} = \beta^{(k-1)} + \frac{g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})\|} \\
\mathbf{u}^{(k)} = -\beta^{(k)} \frac{\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})\|}
\end{cases} \tag{9}$$

where $\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k)})$ is the gradient of g at $\mathbf{u}^{(k)}$, $\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k)})\|$ is its magnitude, and k is the iteration counter.

2.2. Unified reliability analysis (URA)

When both random and interval variables are present, random variables \mathbf{X} are characterized by probability distributions while interval variables \mathbf{Y} reside on $[\mathbf{y}^l, \mathbf{y}^u]$. The unified uncertainty analysis framework and computational method proposed in [39] is applicable to handle this situation. As shown in [39], the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the response $G = g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$ has its upper and lower bounds, and so does reliability $\Pr\{G \ge c\}$. The unified reliability analysis (URA) [39] is used to find the reliability bounds.

The URA framework is illustrated in Figure 1. The inputs to the framework are random variables **X** defined by a joint PDF and interval variables **Y**. The outputs are CDF bounds and reliability bounds.

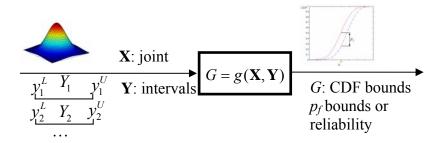


Figure 1. The unified reliability analysis framework.

The set of intervals \mathbf{Y} is denoted by $\Delta_{\mathbf{Y}}$, and the event of failure is defined by $g(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y}) < c$. According to [39], the upper and lower bounds of the probability of failure, p_f^U and p_f^L , are calculated by

$$p_f^L = \Pr \left\{ G_{\max}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) < c \middle| \mathbf{Y} \in \Delta_{\mathbf{Y}} \right\}$$
 (10)

and

$$p_f^U = \Pr\left\{G_{\min}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) < c \middle| \mathbf{Y} \in \Delta_{\mathbf{Y}}\right\}$$
 (11)

respectively. G_{\min} and G_{\max} are the global minimum and maximum values, respectively, of G over $\Delta_{\mathbf{Y}}$.

The evaluation of the upper and lower bounds of the probability of failure is essentially the evaluation of the minimum and maximum CDF of the limit-state function. Therefore, traditional probabilistic analysis methods can be used for the unified reliability analysis (URA). The First Order Reliability Method (FORM) is employed for the URA.

Figure 2 depicts the numerical procedure of the URA method. The procedure involves two types of analysis. The first one is *probabilistic analysis* (PA), which is responsible for the MPP search and the calculation of the probability of failure. The second one is *interval analysis* (IA), which is responsible for the search of the maximum and minimum values of G. The direct combination of PA and IA will involve a double loop procedure, where PA is an outer loop and IA is an inner loop. For example, to find the lower bound of p_f , at every iteration of the MPP search in the outer loop, interval analysis inner loops will be called to find the maximum G in terms of \mathbf{Y} . This method is inefficient due to the double-loop procedure. The efficient computational method is then developed in [44]. The method involves an efficient sequential single-loop procedure, where PA is decoupled from IA. The flowchart of this efficient procedure is shown in Figure 2 for the p_f^L calculation. The solution is the MPP where G is maximized. The MPP for p_f^L is then named $\mathbf{u}^{*,L}$ in this paper. And the MPP for the maximum probability of failure p_f^U is called $\mathbf{u}^{*,U}$.

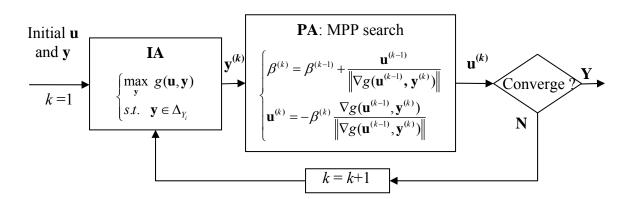


Figure 2. Flowchart of sequential single-loop procedure for p_f^L calculation.

The probability $\Pr\{G_{\max}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) < c | \mathbf{Y} \in \Delta_{\mathbf{Y}} \}$ in Eq. (10) is then computed by

$$\Pr\left\{G_{\max}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) < c \middle| \mathbf{Y} \in \Delta_{\mathbf{Y}}\right\} = \Phi(-\beta) = \Phi(-\left\|\mathbf{u}^*\right\|). \tag{12}$$

For the p_f^U calculation, the model of the MPP search is the same as in Figure 2 except that IA becomes a minimization problem.

3. RELIABILITY SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

When only random variables are involved, reliability sensitivity analysis is used to find the rate of change in the probability of failure (or reliability) due to the changes in distribution parameters (usually means and standard deviations). When both random variables and interval variables are involved, reliability analysis will generate two bounds of reliability or of the probability of failure p_f . The gap between the maximum probability of failure p_f^U and the minimum probability of failure p_f^L represents the effect of interval variables on the probability of failure. In addition to the traditional sensitivity analysis in terms of random variables, sensitivity analysis in terms of interval variables is also needed. In this work, six types of sensitivity are proposed with respect to both random variables and interval variables. The proposed sensitivity indexes are summarized in Table I.

Sensitivity type	Description	Input	
Tyme I 35 / 35	Sensitivity of the width of the p_f bounds, δ_p , with	T. 4 1	
Type I $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_i$	respect to the width of interval variable Y_i , δ_i	Interval	
Type II $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \delta_i$	Sensitivity of the average p_f , \overline{p}_f , with respect to	T4 1	
Type II op_f / oo_i	the width of interval variable Y_i , δ_i	Interval	
Type III 28 / 20	Sensitivity of the width of the p_f bounds, δ_p , with	Interval	
Type III $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_i$	respect to the average of interval variable Y_i , \overline{y}_i		
Type IV $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \overline{y}_i$	Sensitivity of the average p_f , \bar{p}_f , with respect to	Intorval	
Type IV Op_f / Oy_i	the average of interval variable Y_i , \overline{y}_i	Interval	
	Sensitivity of the width of the p_f bounds, δ_p , with		
Type V $\partial \delta_p / \partial q_i$	respect to a distribution parameter, q_i , of random	Random	
	variable X_i		
Tyma VI 2= /2	Sensitivity of the average p_f , \overline{p}_f , with respect to a	Dandam	
Type VI $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial q_i$	distribution parameter, q_i , of random variable X_i	Random	

Table I. Six sensitivity indices

3.1. Type I sensitivity $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_i$

 $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_i$ is the sensitivity of the width of the p_f bounds, δ_p , with respect to the interval width of the ith interval variable Y_i , δ_i . δ_p is defined by

$$\delta_p = p_f^U - p_f^L \tag{13}$$

The width of Y_i is calculated by

$$\delta_i = y_i^U - y_i^L \tag{14}$$

where y_i^L and y_i^U are the lower and upper bounds of y_i , respectively.

To obtain a unique sensitivity index, we define the change of δ_i , $\Delta(\delta_i)$ in such a way that Y_i expands in both directions equally; namely, y_i^L is decreased by $\frac{\Delta(\delta_i)}{2}$ and y_i^U is

increased by $\frac{\Delta(\delta_i)}{2}$. There are infinite ways that Y_i can change by $\Delta(\delta_i)$, for example,

$$[y_i^L, y_i^U]$$
 can change to $\left[y_i^L - \frac{3\Delta(\delta_i)}{4}, y_i^U + \frac{\Delta(\delta_i)}{4}\right]$ or $\left[y_i^L - \frac{\Delta(\delta_i)}{4}, y_i^U + \frac{3\Delta(\delta_i)}{4}\right]$. Our definition makes the change unique.

This type of sensitivity can identify interval variables that have the largest impact on the width of the p_f bounds. If the gap of the p_f bounds is too wide, decisions will be difficult to make. To narrow the width of p_f bounds efficiently, more information about the important interval variables should be collected, and then their widths can be reduced. Sensitivity analysis will provide a useful guidance to the collection of more information.

To derive the equations for $\partial \delta_p/\partial \delta_i$, we consider all the situations where the maximum or minimum p_f occurs on the lower bound, upper bound, or at an interior point of Y_i . Next we demonstrate how to derive $\partial \delta_p/\partial \delta_i$ when the maximum p_f occurs on the upper bound of Y_i and the minimum p_f occurs on the lower bound of Y_i . The derivations of other cases are given in Appendix B, and the common equations used in derivations are given in Appendix A.

The problem can be stated as:

Given:
$$G = g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}), \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{i-1}, Y_{i+1}, \dots Y_{ny}), \ \overline{y}_i = \frac{y_i^L + y_i^U}{2}, \ p_f^L \text{ occurs at } y_i^L,$$
 and p_f^U occurs at y_i^U .

Find: $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_i$.

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left(p_{f}^{U} - p_{f}^{L}\right)}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right) - p_{f}^{L}\left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$

$$= \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]}{\partial \left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}\right)} \frac{\partial \left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}\right)}{\partial \delta_{i}} - \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{L}\left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]}{\partial \left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}\right)} \frac{\partial \left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}\right)}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]}{\partial \left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}\right)} - \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{L}\left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]}{\partial \left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}\right)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\partial p_{f}^{U}}{\partial y_{i}^{U}} + \frac{\partial p_{f}^{L}}{\partial y_{i}^{L}}\right)$$
(15)

 $\frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^U}$ and $\frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^L}$ then need to be calculated. In this case, the MPP's of p_f^L or p_f^U are on

one bound of Y_i . Let h be the bound and p_f be p_f^U or p_f^L . Then,

$$\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial h} = \frac{\partial [\Phi(-\beta)]}{\partial h} = -\phi(-\beta) \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial h} \tag{16}$$

where $\phi(\cdot)$ is the PDF of a standard normal distribution. Next, we will show how to calculate $\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial h}$.

Let the MPP be $\mathbf{u}^* = \left(u_1^*, u_2^*, \cdots, u_{nx}^*\right)$ and the corresponding intervals \mathbf{Y} be \mathbf{y} . In the U-space after \mathbf{X} are transformed into \mathbf{U} , the limit-state function becomes $g(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{Y})$, and at the MPP the limit-state function is $g(\mathbf{u}^*, \mathbf{y})$, where \mathbf{y} is the vector of \mathbf{Y} at the MPP. Let $\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^*)$ be the gradient of $g(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{Y})$ in terms of \mathbf{U} at the MPP; namely, $\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^*) = \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial U_1}\Big|_{\mathbf{u}^*, \mathbf{y}}, \frac{\partial g}{\partial U_2}\Big|_{\mathbf{u}^*, \mathbf{y}}, \cdots, \frac{\partial g}{\partial U_n}\Big|_{\mathbf{u}^*, \mathbf{y}}, \right).$ For brevity, without losing generality, we

will drop \mathbf{Y} or \mathbf{y} in the limit-state function expression in the following derivations. At the MPP, the following equation holds [40, 41],

$$u_i^* = -\beta \frac{\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^*)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^*)\|}$$
 (17)

 $\frac{\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^*)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^*)\|}$ is the unit vector of the gradient, and the gradient is calculated at the MPP,

therefore a constant. Then,

$$\frac{\partial u_{i}}{\partial h} = -\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial h} \frac{\frac{\partial g}{\partial U_{i}} \Big|_{u_{i}^{*}}}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*}) \right\|}$$
(18)

Recall that y_i is on one bound h of the interval variable Y_i at the MPP, where $G = g(\mathbf{u}^*, h)$ reaches the limit state and hereby becomes a constant. Then

$$\frac{\partial G}{\partial h} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_x} \frac{\partial g}{\partial U_i} \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial h} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial h} = 0$$
 (19)

Therefore, Eq. (19) becomes

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n_{x}} \frac{\partial g}{\partial U_{i}} \frac{\partial U_{i}}{\partial h} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial h} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{x}} \frac{\partial g}{\partial U_{i}} \left(-\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial h} \frac{\frac{\partial g}{\partial U_{i}}|_{u_{i}^{*}}}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*})\|} \right) + \frac{\partial g}{\partial h} = -\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial h} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_{x}} \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial U_{i}}|_{u_{i}^{*}} \right)^{2}}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*})\|} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial h} \quad (20)$$

$$= -\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial h} \|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*})\| + \frac{\partial g}{\partial h} = 0$$

We then obtain

$$\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial h} = \frac{\frac{\partial g}{\partial h}}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^*) \right\|}$$
 (21)

Substituting $\partial \beta / \partial h$ in Eq. (16) with Eq. (21) yields

$$\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial h} = -\phi(-\beta) \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial h} = -\phi(-\beta) \frac{\frac{\partial g}{\partial h}}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^*) \right\|} = \frac{-\phi(-\beta)}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^*) \right\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial h}$$
(22)

Using the results from Eqs.(22) and (15), we get the equation of Type I sensitivity when p_f^{max} occurs on the upper bound of Y_i and p_f^{min} occurs on the lower bound of Y_i as follows:

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial p_{f}^{U}}{\partial y_{i}^{U}} + \frac{\partial p_{f}^{L}}{\partial y_{i}^{L}} \right) = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\phi(-\beta^{U})}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U}) \right\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{U}} + \frac{\phi(-\beta^{L})}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L}) \right\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{L}} \right)$$
(23)

where β^U is the reliability index at the maximum p_f , β^L is the reliability index at the minimum p_f , $\mathbf{u}^{*,U}$ is the MPP for the maximum p_f , and $\mathbf{u}^{*,L}$ is the MPP for the minimum p_f . The equations of Type I sensitivity for other situations are given in Appendix B.

3.2. Type II sensitivity $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \delta_i$

 $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \delta_i$ is the sensitivity of the average p_f , \overline{p}_f , with respect to δ_i . \overline{p}_f is defined by

$$\overline{p}_f = \frac{p_f^U + p_f^L}{2} \tag{24}$$

The relationship among p_f^U , p_f^L , δ_p and \overline{p}_f is illustrated in Figure 3. This type of sensitivity quantifies the rate of change of the mean value of p_f due to the change of the interval width of Y_i . The equations of this type of sensitivity are given in Appendix C.

$$p_f^L$$
 \overline{p}_f p_f^U
 δ_p

Figure 3. p_f^U , p_f^L , δ_i , and \overline{p}_f .

3.3. Type III sensitivity $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_i$

 $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_i$ is the sensitivity of the width of the probability of failure δ_p with respect to the average of the *i*th interval variable, \overline{y}_i . \overline{y}_i is defined by

$$\overline{y}_i = \frac{y_i^U + y_i^L}{2} \tag{25}$$

The relationship among y_i^L , y_i^U , δ_i and \overline{y}_i is illustrated in Figure 4. This type of sensitivity is useful when we can control the averages of the interval variables during reliability based-optimization. We can efficiently decrease the reliability gap by shifting averages of interval variables to which the probability of failure is highly sensitive. The equations of this type sensitivity are given in Appendix D.

$$y_i^L$$
 \overline{y}_i y_i^U δ_i

Figure 4. y_i^L, y_i^U, δ_i , and \overline{y}_i .

3.4. Type IV sensitivity $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \overline{y}_i$

 $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \overline{y}_i$ is the sensitivity of the average probability of failure \overline{p}_f with respect to \overline{y}_i . It tells us how much the average probability of failure will change given the change in the midpoint of an interval variable. The equations of this type of sensitivity are given in Appendix E.

3.5. Type V sensitivity $\partial \delta_p / \partial q_i$

 $\partial \delta_p / \partial q_i$ is the sensitivity of the width of the probability of failure δ_p with respect to a distribution parameter, q_i , of random variable X_i . For example, for a normal distribution, q_i would be the mean μ_i or standard deviation σ_i while for uniform distribution, q_i could be one of the interval bounds. As shown previously, the p_f gap δ_p is mainly caused by interval variables [38]. On the other hand, the value of p_f primarily depends on random variables. The equations of this type of sensitivity are given in Appendix F.

3.6. Type VI sensitivity $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial q_i$

 $\partial \overline{p}_f/\partial q_i$ is the sensitivity of the average probability of failure \overline{p}_f with respect to a distribution parameter, q_i , of random variable X_i . The equations of this type of sensitivity are given in Appendix G. The equations of Type V and VI sensitivities for a normal distribution are also given in Appendices F and G, respectively.

3.7. Equations of all the sensitivity indices

The equations for all the above sensitivity indices are summarized in Tables II, III and IV.

Table II. Type I and II sensitivities for intervals

		Type I $\partial \delta_{p} / \partial \delta_{i}$	Type II $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \delta_i$
	Case	(Appendix B)	(Appendix C)
		Г	_
1	p_f^U occurs at y_i^U ;	$-\frac{1}{2}\bigg \frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U})}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\right\ }\frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}}\bigg _{y_{i}^{U}}+$	$-\frac{1}{4}\Bigg\lfloor\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U})}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\right\ }\frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}}\bigg _{y_{i}^{U}}-$
1	p_f^L occurs at y_i^L	$\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \bigg _{y_i^L} \Bigg]$	$\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}\bigg _{y_i^L} \bigg]$
2	p_f^U occurs at y_i^L ;	$\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U})}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U}) \right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big _{y_{i}^{L}} + \right]$	$\frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U})}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U}) \right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big _{y_{i}^{L}} - \right]$
2	p_f^L occurs at y_i^U	$\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \bigg _{y_i^U} \bigg]$	$\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}\Big _{y_i^U} \Bigg]$
3	p_f^U occurs at y_i^U ; p_f^L occurs at	$-\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\scriptscriptstyle U})}{\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\boldsymbol{\mathrm{u}}^{*,\scriptscriptstyle U})\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big _{y_i^{\scriptscriptstyle U}} \right]$	$-\frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^U)}{\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\boldsymbol{\mathbf{u}}^{*,U})\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big _{y_i^U} \right]$
	an interior point	$2\lfloor \ \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{\gamma,o})\ \partial Y_i^{\gamma,i} \rfloor$	$4\lfloor \ \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{\cdot,o})\ \partial Y_i^{- y_i } \rfloor$
4	p_f^U occurs at y_i^L ; p_f^L occurs at an interior point	$-\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\phi(\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U})}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\boldsymbol{\mathbf{u}}^{*,U}) \right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big _{y_{i}^{L}} \right]$	$\frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U})}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U}) \right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big _{y_{i}^{L}} \right]$
5	p_f^L occurs at y_i^U ; p_f^U occurs at an interior point	$\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L}) \right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big _{y_i^U} \right]$	$-\frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L}) \right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big _{y_i^U} \right]$
6	p_f^L occurs at y_i^L ; p_f^U occurs at an interior point	$-\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{L})}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\boldsymbol{\mathbf{u}}^{*,L}) \right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big _{y_{i}^{L}} \right]$	$\frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L}) \right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big _{y_i^L} \right]$
7	p_f^U and p_f^L both occurs at interior points	0	0

Table III. Type III and IV sensitivities for intervals

	Case	Type III $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_i$	Type IV $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \overline{y}_i$
		(Appendix D)	(Appendix E)
1	p_f^U occurs at y_i^U ;	$\frac{-\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U})}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla}g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\right\ }\frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}}\Big _{y_{i}^{U}}+$	$-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U})}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla}g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\right\ }\frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}}\Big _{y_{i}^{U}}+\right.$
1	p_f^L occurs at y_i^L	$\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla}g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\right\ }\frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}\bigg _{y_i^L}$	$\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\right\ }\frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}\bigg _{y_i^L}\Bigg]$
2	p_f^U occurs at y_i^L ;	$\frac{-\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U})}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big _{y_{i}^{L}} +$	$-\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U})}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U}) \right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big _{y_{i}^{L}} + \right.$
2	p_f^L occurs at y_i^U	$\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big _{y_i^U}$	$\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\boldsymbol{\mathbf{u}}^{*,L})\right\ }\frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}\bigg _{y_i^U}\Bigg]$
2	p_f^U occurs at y_i^U ;	$-\phi(-oldsymbol{eta}^U)$ ∂g	$1 \left[\begin{array}{cc} \phi(-oldsymbol{eta}^U) & \partial g \mid \end{array} \right]$
3	p_f^L occurs at an interior point	$\frac{-\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\scriptscriptstyle U})}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\boldsymbol{\mathbf{u}}^{*,\scriptscriptstyle U})\right\ }\frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}\bigg _{y_i^{\scriptscriptstyle U}}$	$-\frac{1}{2}\Bigg\lfloor\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U})}{\left\lVert\boldsymbol{\nabla}g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\right\rVert}\frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}}\Big\rvert_{y_{i}^{U}}\Bigg\rfloor$
	p_f^U occurs at y_i^L ;	$\phi(-\beta^U)$ $\partial \sigma$	1 4 00 2
4	p_f^L occurs at	$rac{-oldsymbol{\phi}(-oldsymbol{eta}^{\scriptscriptstyle U})}{\left\ oldsymbol{ abla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,\scriptscriptstyle U}) ight\ }rac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}igg _{y_i^L}$	$-rac{1}{2}igg rac{\phi(-oldsymbol{eta}^U)}{ig\ oldsymbol{ abla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})ig\ }rac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}igg _{y_i^L}$
	an interior point		<u> </u>
_	p_f^L occurs at y_i^U ;	$\frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\boldsymbol{\mathbf{u}}^{*,L})\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}\bigg _{y_i^U}$	$1 \left[\begin{array}{cc} \phi(-\beta^L) & \partial g \mid \end{array} \right]$
5	p_f^U occurs at an interior point	$\left\ \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L}) \right\ \partial Y_i^{\mid y_i^U}$	$-\frac{1}{2} \Bigg\lfloor \frac{\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^L)}{\left\ \boldsymbol{\nabla} g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\right\ } \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big _{y_i^U} \Bigg\rfloor$
	p_f^L occurs at y_i^L ;	1(oL) 2	1
6	p_f^U occurs at	$rac{\phi(-eta^L)}{\left\ oldsymbol{ abla}g(oldsymbol{\mathbf{u}}^{*,L}) ight\ }rac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}igg _{y_i^L}$	$-rac{1}{2}igg rac{oldsymbol{\phi}(-oldsymbol{eta}^L)}{\ oldsymbol{ abla}oldsymbol{g}(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\ }rac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}igg _{y_i^L}$
	an interior point		
	p_f^U and p_f^L both		
7	occurs at	0	0
	interior points		

Case	Type V $\partial \delta_p / \partial q$	Type VI $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial q$
Case	(Appendix F)	(Appendix G)
Conoral	$-\phi(-\beta^U)\frac{u_i^{*,U}}{\beta^U}\frac{\partial w}{\partial q_i}$	$-\frac{1}{2}\Bigg[\phi(-\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U})\frac{u_{i}^{*,L}}{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{U}}\frac{\partial w}{\partial q_{i}}$
General	$+\phi(-eta^L)rac{u_i^{*,L}}{eta^L}rac{\partial w}{\partial q_i}$	$+\phi(-eta^L)rac{u_i^{*,L}}{eta^L}rac{\partial w}{\partial q_i} \Bigg]$

Table IV. Type V and VI sensitivities for random variables

In the above table, w is given in Equation (A11) in Appendix A.

The procedure to calculate the sensitivity indices is illustrated in Figure 5. First, unified reliability analysis is conducted to obtain MPP's and interval variables at p_f^U and p_f^L . Then depending on the location of the interval variables, either interior or on a bound, at the MPP, the corresponding equations from Table II, III, and IV are used to calculate the sensitivity indices.

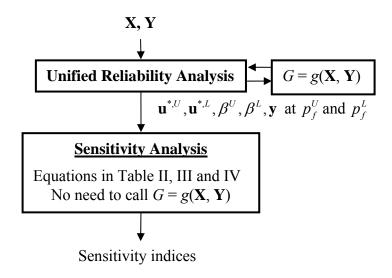


Figure 5. The procedure to calculate sensitivity indices.

4. NUMERICAL EXAMPLES

Two examples are used to demonstrate our proposed sensitivity measures with random and interval variables. The first example deals with normally distributed variables while the second example handles random variables with non-normal distributions.

4.1. Example 1- adhesive bonding example

A double-lap joint design of a rubber-modified epoxy based adhesive [45] is illustrated in Figure 6. The design consists of aluminum outer adherends and an inner steel adherend. The assembly is cured at 250 °F and is stress-free at temperature T_1 . The completed bond is subjected to an axial load P at a service temperature T_2 . The coefficients of thermal expansion for the outer and inner adherend α_o and α_i are 6×10^{-6} and 13×10^{-6} in/(in·°F), respectively. The modulus E_o and the thickness t_o , of the outer adherend, and the modulus E_i and the thickness t_i , of the inner adherend, are random variables. The shear modulus G, width G, length G, of the adhesive, and the lap-shear strength of adhesive G0 are also random variables. Their distributions are given in Table G1.

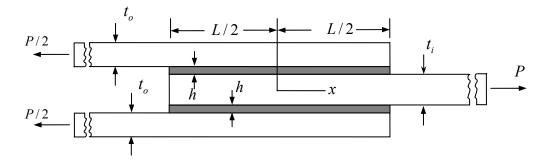


Figure 6. A double-lap joint design of adhesive

Table V. Random variables X

Variable	Mean	Standard deviation	Distribution
$X_1(E_o)$	10×10 ⁶ psi	$0.1 \times 10^6 \text{psi}$	Normal
$X_2(E_i)$	$30 \times 10^6 \text{psi}$	0.3×10^6 psi	Normal
$X_3(t_o)$	0.15 in	0.0015 in	Normal
$X_4(t_i)$	0.10 in	0.001 in	Normal
$X_5(G)$	$0.2 \times 10^6 \text{psi}$	$0.002 \times 10^{6} \text{psi}$	Normal
$X_6(b)$	1 in	0.01 in	Normal
$X_7(L)$	1.1 in	0.011 in	Normal
$X_8(P)$	2000 psi	20 psi	Normal
$X_9(S_a)$	4100 psi	41 psi	Normal

Because it is difficult to spread the adhesive uniformly over the surface, the thickness of the adhesive is estimated to be in an interval shown in Table VI. The temperature change, $\Delta T = T_2 - T_1$, is difficult to fit into some probability distribution since the temperature field is unknown. An interval is therefore assigned for ΔT as listed in Table VI.

Table VI. Interval variables

Variable	Lower bound	Upper bound
$Y_{1}(h)$	0.0195 in	0.0205 in
$Y_2(\Delta T)$	-131.0 °F	-129.0 °F

The limit-state function is the safety margin for strength requirement of the joint, which is defined by the difference between the lap-shear strength of adhesive and the maximum shear stress $\tau_{\rm max}$. The equation is obtained at x=0.5 where the maximum shear stress occurs. The function is given by

$$G = g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = S_a - \tau_{\text{max}}$$

where $\tau_{\text{max}} = \tau(0.5)$, and

$$\tau(x) = \frac{P\omega}{4b \sinh(\omega L/2)} \cosh(\omega x) + \left[\frac{P\omega}{4b \cosh(\omega L/2)} \left(\frac{2E_o t_o - E_i t_i}{2E_o t_o + E_i t_i} \right) + \frac{(\alpha_i - \alpha_o)\Delta T\omega}{(1/E_o t_o + 2/E_i t_i) \cosh(\omega L/2)} \right] \sinh(\omega x)$$

and
$$\omega = \sqrt{\frac{G}{h} \left(\frac{1}{E_o t_o} + \frac{2}{E_i t_i} \right)}$$
.

The failure event is defined by $F = \{ \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} | g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) < 0 \}$.

The analysis results are listed in Tables VII, VIII, IX and X. To verify the proposed method, additional reliability analyses are also conducted. The results are shown as "Numerical verification" in Table VIII (for interval variables) and Table X (for random variables). Each parameter (the average or width of an interval variable, or a distribution parameter of a random variable), with respect to which a sensitivity index would be calculated, is increased by a small step size. An additional reliability analysis for that parameter is then performed. The rate of change in the reliability analysis results with respect to the parameter was computed. The rate should be very close to the sensitivity index calculated from the proposed method. Both Tables VIII and X show good consistency and verify the accuracy of the proposed method.

The sign of a sensitivity index gives a possible direction for improvement. For example, in Table VIII $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_1$ and $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_2$ are both positive while $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_1$ and $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_2$ are both negative. Therefore, if we wish to reduce the bounds of p_f , we could narrow the intervals of thickness of adhesive (δ_1) and the temperature change (δ_2) or increase their averages of them $(\overline{y}_1 \text{ and } \overline{y}_2)$. A similar conclusion can be drawn for $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_i$ and $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \overline{y}_i$.

To better interpret the sensitivity analysis results, the percentage change in Table IX is also included. $\Delta_{y_i}^{+1\%}$ indicates the change in δ_p or \overline{p}_f corresponding to the 1% increase in δ_i or \overline{y}_i , respectively. For instance, if δ_1 increased by 1%, or δ_1 increased by $(y_1^U - y_1^L) \times 1\% = (0.0205 - 0.0195) \times 1\% = 1.0 \times 10^{-5}$ inch, the width of the probability of failure bounds δ_p would increase by $(5.009 \times 10^{-2}) \times (1.0 \times 10^{-5}) = 5.009 \times 10^{-7}$, where the multiplier is the change in δ_1 while the multiplicand is the Type I sensitivity index. average of failure \overline{p}_f probability would Similarly, the change by $\left(-2.494\times10^{-2}\right)\times\left(1.0\times10^{-5}\right)=-2.494\times10^{-7}$. Since the sign is negative, \overline{p}_f would actually decrease. This example indicates how the change in input uncertainty impacts reliability or the probability of failure. A sensitivity index also tells us the relative importance of uncertain variables. For example, Y_I has higher $\Delta^{+1\%}$ of Type I ~ IV sensitivity indices than those of Y_2 ; Y_1 is therefore more significant than Y_2 in terms of its impact on δ_p and \overline{p}_f .

Table VII. Bounds of the probability of failure

Probability of Failure	p_f^L	p_f^U	\overline{p}_f	δ_p
p_f	7.797×10 ⁻⁵	1.067×10 ⁻²	5.338×10 ⁻³	1.059×10 ⁻²

Table VIII. Sensitivity with respect to interval variables

Type of sensitivity	Proposed	Proposed method		Numerical verification	
Type of sensitivity	Y_1	Y_2	Y_I	Y_2	
Type I $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_i$	5.009×10 ⁻²	9.309×10 ⁻⁶	5.071×10 ⁻²	9.379×10 ⁻⁶	
Type II $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \delta_i$	-2.494×10^{-2}	-4.655×10^{-6}	-2.525×10^{-2}	-4.669×10 ⁻⁶	
Type III $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_i$	-9.978×10 ⁻²	-1.862×10^{-5}	-1.001×10^{-1}	-1.868×10^{-5}	
Type IV $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \overline{y}_i$	5.009×10^{-2}	9.309×10 ⁻⁶	5.071×10^{-2}	9.379×10 ⁻⁶	

Table IX. The change of δ_p and \overline{p}_f with 1% increases in δ_i and \overline{y}_i

Type of sensitivity	$\Delta_{l}^{+1\%}$	$\Delta_2^{+1\%}$
Type I $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_i$	5.009×10^{-7}	1.862×10 ⁻⁷
Type II $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \delta_i$	-2.494×10^{-7}	-9.310×10 ⁻⁸
Type III $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_i$	-1.996×10^{-3}	2.241×10^{-5}
Type IV $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \overline{y}_i$	1.002×10^{-3}	-1.210×10 ⁻⁵

Table X shows sensitivities in terms of the mean and standard deviation of random variables. The positive signs of $\partial \delta_p/\partial q$ and $\partial \overline{p}_f/\partial q$ imply that the distribution parameters need to be lowered to reduce δ_p and \overline{p}_f . And the negative ones suggest that distribution parameters need to be increased to reduce δ_p and \overline{p}_f . From this table, it can be concluded that X_7 has the highest impact on δ_p and \overline{p}_f because it has the highest sensitivity index values. Given the positive signs of Type V and VI sensitivity indices of X_7 , reducing the mean and variance of X_7 would be more efficient than adjusting other random variables in order to lower δ_p and \overline{p}_f .

Table X. Sensitivity with respect to random variables

	Proposed method		Numerica	l validation
	Type $V \partial \delta_p / \partial q$	Type VI $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial q$	Type $V \partial \delta_p / \partial q$	Type $VI \partial \overline{p}_f / \partial q$
$X_1(\mu_1)$	1.091×10 ⁻¹⁰	5.475×10 ⁻¹¹	1.097×10 ⁻¹⁰	5.509×10 ⁻¹¹
$X_1(\sigma_1)$	4.566×10^{-11}	2.295×10^{-11}	4.631×10^{-11}	2.328×10^{-11}
$X_2(\mu_2)$	-2.097×10 ⁻¹¹	-1.054×10^{-11}	-2.083×10^{-11}	-1.046×10 ⁻¹¹
$X_2(\sigma_2)$	5.066×10^{-12}	2.550×10^{-12}	4.997×10^{-12}	2.515×10^{-12}
$X_3(\mu_3)$	7.270×10^{-3}	3.650×10^{-3}	7.315×10^{-3}	3.673×10^{-3}
$X_3(\sigma_3)$	3.044×10^{-3}	1.530×10^{-3}	3.087×10^{-3}	1.552×10^{-3}
$X_4(\mu_4)$	-6.292×10^{-3}	-3.161×10^{-3}	-6.250×10^{-3}	-3.139×10^{-3}
$X_4(\sigma_4)$	1.520×10^{-3}	7.650×10^{-4}	1.499×10^{-3}	7.546×10 ⁻⁴
$X_5(\mu_5)$	9.818×10 ⁻⁹	4.931×10 ⁻⁹	9.780×10 ⁻⁹	4.911×10 ⁻⁹
$X_5(\sigma_5)$	7.402×10 ⁻⁹	3.723×10^{-9}	7.330×10 ⁻⁹	3.687×10 ⁻⁹
$X_6(\mu_6)$	-1.913×10^{-3}	-9.608×10 ⁻⁴	-1.912×10^{-3}	-9.601×10 ⁻⁴
$X_6(\sigma_6)$	1.405×10^{-3}	7.068×10^{-4}	1.404×10^{-3}	7.060×10^{-4}
$X_7(\mu_7)$	-8.018×10^{-3}	-4.026×10^{-3}	-8.011×10^{-3}	-4.022×10^{-3}
$X_7(\sigma_7)$	2.715×10 ⁻²	1.365×10^{-2}	2.731×10^{-2}	1.373×10 ⁻²
$X_8(\mu_8)$	9.421×10^{-7}	4.731×10^{-7}	9.428×10^{-7}	4.735×10 ⁻⁷
$X_8(\sigma_8)$	6.815×10 ⁻⁷	3.428×10^{-7}	6.817×10^{-7}	3.429×10^{-7}
$X_9(\mu_9)$	-1.079×10 ⁻⁶	-5.417×10 ⁻⁷	-1.078×10 ⁻⁶	-5.411×10^{-7}
$X_9(\sigma_9)$	1.832×10^{-6}	9.213×10 ⁻⁷	1.831×10 ⁻⁶	9.210×10 ⁻⁷

4.2. Example 2- cantilever tube

In Example 1, all random variables are normally distributed. In this example, some random variables follow non-normal distributions. The cantilever tube shown in Figure 7 is subject to external forces F_1 , F_2 , and P, and torsion T [44]. The limit-state function is defined as the difference between the yield strength S and the maximum stress $\sigma_{\rm max}$, namely,

$$G = g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = S - \sigma_{\text{max}}$$

where σ_{\max} is the maximum von Mises stress on the top surface of the tube at the origin and is given by

$$\sigma_{\text{max}} = \sqrt{\sigma_x^2 + 3\tau_{zx}^2} \ .$$

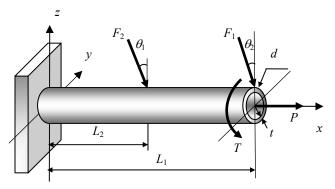


Figure 7. Cantilever tube.

The normal stress σ_x is calculated by

$$\sigma_x = \frac{P + F_1 \sin \theta_1 + F_2 \sin \theta_2}{4} + \frac{Mc}{I}$$

where the first term is the normal stress due to the axial forces, and the second term is the normal stress due to the bending moment M, which is given by

$$M = F_1 L_1 \cos \theta_1 + F_2 L_2 \cos \theta_2$$

and

$$A = \frac{\pi}{4} \left[d^2 - \left(d - 2t \right)^2 \right]$$

$$c = d/2$$

$$I = \frac{\pi}{64} \left[d^4 - \left(d - 2t \right)^4 \right]$$

The torsional stress τ_{zx} at the same point is calculated by

$$\tau_{zx} = \frac{Td}{2J}$$

where J = 2I.

The random and interval variables are given in Tables XI and XII, respectively.

Table XI. Random variables

_				
_	Variable	Parameter 1	Parameter 2	Distribution
	$X_1(t)$	5 mm (mean)	$0.1 \text{ mm (std}^*)$	Normal
	$X_2(d)$	42 mm (mean)	0.5 mm (std)	Normal
	$X_3(L_1)$	119.75 mm (lb**)	120.25 mm (ub***)	Uniform
	$X_4(L_2)$	59.75 mm (lb)	60.25 mm (ub)	Uniform
	$X_5(F_1)$	3.0 kN (mean)	0.3 kN (std)	Normal
	$X_6(F_2)$	3.0 kN (mean)	0.3 kN (std)	Normal
	$X_7(P)$	12.0 kN (mean)	1.2 kN (std)	Gumbel
	$X_8(T)$	90.0 N·m (mean)	9.0 N·m (std)	Normal
	$X_9(S_y)$	220.0 MPa (mean)	22.0 MPa (std)	Normal

^{*:} std – standard deviation

Table XII. Interval variables

Variable	Lower bound	Upper bound
$Y_1(\theta_1)$	0°	10°
$Y_2(\theta_2)$	5°	15°

The results of reliability analysis and sensitivity are listed in Table XIII, XIV, and XV. It is noted that sensitivity indices of $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_i$, and $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_i$ are all positive while sensitivity indices of $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \delta_i$ and $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \overline{y}_i$ are all negative. In this case, the direction of the change in δ_p will be opposite to the direction of change in \overline{p}_f whenever we adjust δ_i and \overline{y}_i . For instance, decreasing δ_1 will result in a lower δ_p and a higher \overline{p}_f .

^{**:} lb – the lower bound of a uniform distribution

^{***:} ub – the upper bound of a uniform distribution

Table XIII. Bounds of probability of failure

Probability of Failure	p_f^L	$p_f^{\scriptscriptstyle U}$	\overline{p}_f	$\delta_{_p}$
p_f	1.437×10 ⁻⁴	1.631×10 ⁻⁴	1.530×10 ⁻⁴	1.940×10 ⁻⁵

Table XIV. Sensitivity of interval variables

Type of sensitivity -	Proposed Method		Numerical Validation	
	$\overline{Y_1}$	$\overline{Y_2}$	Y_I	$\overline{Y_2}$
Type I $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_i$	1.038×10 ⁻⁴	5.861×10 ⁻⁵	1.034×10 ⁻⁴	5.837×10 ⁻⁵
Type II $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \delta_i$	-5.192×10 ⁻⁵	-2.930×10 ⁻⁵	-5.170×10 ⁻⁵	-2.919×10 ⁻⁵
Type III $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_i$	2.077×10^{-4}	1.172×10^{-4}	2.068×10 ⁻⁴	1.167×10^{-4}
Type IV $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \overline{y}_i$	-1.038×10 ⁻⁴	-5.861×10^{-5}	-1.034×10 ⁻⁴	-5.837×10 ⁻⁵

Table XV. The change of δ_p and \overline{p}_f with 1% increases in δ_i and \overline{y}_i

Type of sensitivity	$\Delta_{y_1}^{+1\%}$	$\Delta^{+1\%}_{y_2}$
Type I $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_i$	1.038×10^{-5}	5.861×10^{-6}
Type II $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \delta_i$	-5.192×10 ⁻⁶	-2.930×10 ⁻⁶
Type III $\partial \delta_p / \partial \overline{y}_i$	1.039×10^{-5}	5.860×10^{-6}
Type IV $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial \overline{y}_i$	-5.190×10 ⁻⁶	-2.931×10 ⁻⁶

In this example, uniform distributions and a Gumbel distribution are involved. In Table XVI, the sensitivities in terms of the parameters of these two distributions are also calculated. It is indicated that Type V and VI sensitivities of uniformly distributed variables, X_3 and X_4 , are all positive. Hence, if we raise or lower the bounds of X_3 and X_4 , the change of δ_p and \overline{p}_f will follow the same direction.

Table XVI. Sensitivity of random variables

-	Proposed Method		Numerical Validation		
	Type $V \partial \delta_p / \partial q$	Type VI $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial q$	Type $V \partial \delta_p / \partial q$	Type VI $\partial \overline{p}_f / \partial q$	
$X_1(\mu_1)$	-5.822×10 ⁻²	-4.886×10 ⁻¹	-5.820×10 ⁻²	-4.886×10 ⁻¹	
$X_1(\sigma_1)$	1.614×10^{-2}	1.457×10^{-1}	1.615×10^{-2}	1.458×10 ⁻¹	
$X_2(\mu_2)$	-2.413×10^{-2}	-1.888×10 ⁻¹	-2.413×10 ⁻²	-1.888×10^{-1}	
$X_2(\sigma_2)$	1.393×10 ⁻²	1.088×10 ⁻¹	1.394×10^{-2}	1.089×10 ⁻¹	
$X_3(a_3)$	1.093×10^{-3}	8.412×10^{-3}	1.093×10^{-3}	8.413×10^{-3}	
$X_3(b_3)$	1.130×10^{-3}	8.697×10^{-3}	1.137×10^{-3}	8.742×10^{-3}	
$X_4(a_4)$	1.123×10 ⁻³	7.893×10^{-3}	1.124×10^{-3}	7.894×10^{-3}	
$X_4(b_4)$	1.162×10^{-3}	8.143×10^{-3}	1.167×10^{-3}	8.163×10^{-3}	
$X_5(\mu_5)$	7.630×10^{-8}	6.197×10 ⁻⁷	7.631×10^{-8}	6.197×10^{-7}	
$X_5(\sigma_5)$	8.347×10^{-8}	7.033×10^{-7}	8.355×10^{-8}	7.040×10^{-7}	
$X_6(\mu_6)$	3.908×10^{-8}	3.117×10^{-7}	3.908×10^{-8}	3.117×10 ⁻⁷	
$X_6(\sigma_6)$	2.192×10^{-8}	1.779×10 ⁻⁷	2.193×10^{-8}	1.780×10 ⁻⁷	
$X_7(\mu_7)$	5.002×10 ⁻⁹	4.256×10 ⁻⁸	5.002×10 ⁻⁹	4.256×10^{-8}	
$X_7(\sigma_7)$	5.139×10^{-10}	5.670×10 ⁻⁹	5.143×10 ⁻¹⁰	5.674×10 ⁻⁹	
$X_8(\mu_8)$	5.678×10^{-8}	5.050×10^{-7}	5.688×10^{-8}	5.049×10 ⁻⁷	
$X_8(\sigma_8)$	1.363×10 ⁻⁹	1.402×10^{-8}	1.363×10 ⁻⁹	1.402×10^{-8}	
$X_9(\mu_9)$	-2.887×10 ⁻¹²	-2.457×10 ⁻¹¹	-2.886×10^{-12}	-2.457×10 ⁻¹¹	
$X_9(\sigma_9)$	8.708×10 ⁻¹²	8.108×10 ⁻¹¹	8.740×10^{-12}	8.146×10 ⁻¹¹	

5. CONCLUSIONS

When information or knowledge is not adequate to build probability distributions, interval variables may be used. In this case, probabilistic sensitivity analysis approaches are no longer applicable. An effective sensitivity analysis method is proposed to handle the mixture of random variables and interval variables.

With the presence of both random and interval variables, reliability and the probability of failure resides between their lower and upper bounds. In this work, based on the unified uncertainty analysis framework [39], we have explored various sensitivity indices with respect to both random and interval variables. Four new types of sensitivity for interval variables include the sensitivities of the width and average of the probability of failure bounds with respect to the interval width and with respect to the mean of each interval variable. Two new types of sensitivity for random variables include the sensitivities of the width and average of the probability of failure with respect to the distribution parameters of each random variable. Equations for the six sensitivity indices are derived. Through the unified reliability analysis and the First Order Reliability Method (FORM), the sensitivity indices are calculated after reliability analysis is completed without calling the limit-state function again. The sensitivity indices are therefore a byproduct of reliability analysis.

The advantages of the proposed methods are as follows: (1) The method is easy to use because it employs the First Order Reliability Method (FORM), which is widely used in industry. (2) Sensitivity information is just a byproduct of reliability analysis. (3) Both random and interval variables can be handled by reliability analysis at the same time. And (4) the computation is efficient without a double-loop procedure or Monte Carlo simulation involved.

The method has some limitations. Since it is based on only the First Order Reliability Method (FORM), the method cannot be directly extended to the Second Order Reliability Method (SORM). The method assumes the global optimal solution if optimization is used for interval analysis. The method may not provide an accurate solution if a global optima is not reached. It is well known that FORM may not be accurate when multiple

MPPs exist. The proposed method exhibits the same behavior for the multiple MPP's situation.

Future work would be the further improvement of efficiency and the inclusion of more sensitivity indices. For higher efficiency, the efficient interval arithmetic could be used for interval analysis. Other sensitivity methods, such as those suggested in [45], could also be incorporated.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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PAPER III

Reliability Analysis for Multidisciplinary Systems with Random and Interval variables

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Tremendous efforts have been devoted to developing efficient approaches to reliability analysis for multidisciplinary systems. Most of the approaches, however, are only capable of dealing with random variables modeled by probability distributions. Both random and interval variables may exist in multidisciplinary systems. Their propagation through coupled subsystems makes reliability analysis computationally expensive. A unified reliability analysis framework with both random and interval variables is proposed for multidisciplinary systems in this work. The framework is an extension of the existing unified uncertainty analysis framework for singledisciplinary problems. The new framework involves probabilistic analysis (PA) and interval analysis (IA). Both PA and IA are decoupled from each other and are performed sequentially. Three supporting algorithms are developed. The effectiveness of these algorithms is demonstrated by a mathematical example and an engineering application.

Nomenclature

c = limit state

 F_X = cumulative distribution function of X

 f_X = joint probability function of X

G = response

 G_{max} = maximum value of G G_{min} = minimum value of G g = limit state function h = equality constraint

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Pr = probability

 p_f = probability of failure

 p_f = lower bound of probability of failure

 p_f° = upper bound of probability of failure

R = reliability

 \mathbf{U} = vector of standard normal random variables transformed from \mathbf{X}

u* = Most Probable Point

 \mathbf{W}_i = vector of interval input variables to *i*th discipline

 \mathbf{w}^{L} = vector of lower bounds of \mathbf{W} \mathbf{w}^{U} = vector of upper bounds of \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X} = vector of random variables

 \mathbf{X}_i = vector of random input variables to the *i*th discipline

 Y_{ij} = vector of coupling variables from the *i*th discipline to the jth discipline

 \mathbf{Z}_i = vector of outputs from the *i*th discipline

 β = reliability index

 Φ = cumulative distribution function of a standard normal variable

 Φ^{-1} = inverse function of Φ

I. Introduction

COMPARED with single-disciplinary reliability analysis, multidisciplinary reliability analysis is much more complicated. A multidisciplinary system consists of a number of disciplines (subsystems), which are often highly coupled with each other. The output of one subsystem may be the input to other subsystems, and vice versa. Uncertainty in one discipline will be propagated to other disciplines through the interdisciplinary interfaces. The other complexity is that a large number of uncertain variables may be involved in a multidisciplinary system.

Due to these complexities, computationally efficient strategies and algorithms of reliability analysis become essential. Several multidisciplinary reliability analysis methods have been reported [1~11]. Sues et al. [1] use response surface models to replace the computationally expensive simulation models in reliability analysis for multidisciplinary optimization (MDO). A multi-stage, parallel implementation strategy is

developed to integrate reliability analysis and an MDO framework [2]. The reliability analysis methods proposed in [3, 4] use the concurrent subspace optimization framework. A similar approach, the collaborative reliability analysis [5], performs reliability analysis and multidisciplinary analysis (MDA) concurrently. Ahn et al. [6] employ a sequential approach to reliability analysis with MDA. They also develop a strategy to associate single-level reliability-based design with the bi-level integrated system synthesis; and in their method sequential single loops of reliability analysis and optimization are conducted based on the approximation of limit state functions [7]. To avoid the tremendous computational burden caused by the direct integration of reliability-based design (RBD) with MDO, a method of Sequential Optimization and Reliability Assessment (SORA) for MDO is developed in [8]. The strategy of SORA is to decouple reliability analysis from MDO.

Analytical Target Cascading (ATC) is reformulated for design optimization under uncertainty for hierarchically decomposed multilevel systems [9]. In this work, the advanced mean value (AMV)-based technique and a bottom-to-top coordination are used. ATC is also used in [10]. The method decomposes reliability-based MDO into several individual RBD problems at a sub-system level, and then SORA is used to solve the individual RBD problems. The study in [11] focuses on the tradeoff between the failure probabilities of subsystems and the tradeoff between system performance and subsystem failure probabilities. The study involves First Order Reliability Method (FORM) and multiobjective optimization with an all-in-one approach to the coupled analysis. A methodology for non-deterministic design optimization of hierarchically coupled

structural systems is proposed in [12], where parameter uncertainties are considered with modified deterministic multilevel decomposition formulations.

The aforementioned methods use probability distributions for uncertain variables, and those variables are hence treated as random variables. In many engineering applications, however, information or knowledge might not be sufficient to build probability distributions. Intervals are usually suitable to describe those uncertain variables, about which we may have too limited information to form distributions. Examples of using intervals in multidisciplinary systems are given in [13, 14], where epistemic uncertainty (due to lack of knowledge) is modeled by intervals and the evidence theory.

As indicated in [15], random variables and interval variables may present in a system simultaneously. A framework of Unified Reliability Analysis is developed to quantify the effect of random variables and intervals variables [15]. In this work, we extend the strategy in [15] to reliability analysis for multidisciplinary systems, where both random and interval variables are involved. In Section II, the Unified Reliability Analysis (URA) framework for a single disciplinary system and the First Order Reliability Method (FORM) are briefly reviewed. A multidisciplinary system model with random and interval input variables is also provided. In Section III, three algorithms, which support the extension of URA to multidisciplinary systems, are presented. These algorithms are demonstrated by a mathematical example and an aircraft wing design application in Section IV. Conclusions are given in Section V.

II. Methodology and Modeling

A. Reliability Analysis

In a single-disciplinary system, where only random variables \mathbf{X} are involved, reliability is defined by

$$R = \Pr\{G = g(\mathbf{X}) \ge 0\} \tag{1}$$

where $\Pr\{\cdot\}$ denotes a probability, G is a response, and $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_i, \dots, X_{n_X})$ is a vector of random variables (n_X is the number of random variables), g is a limit-state function [16]. In this paper, we assume that X_i ($i=1,2,...,n_X$) are independent.

If the joint probability density function (PDF) of \mathbf{X} is $f_{\mathbf{X}}$, the probability of failure p_f is calculated by

$$p_f = \Pr\{G = g(\mathbf{X}) < 0\} = \int_{g(\mathbf{X}) < 0} f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$
 (2)

It is obvious that $p_f = 1 - R$.

The limit state function $g(\mathbf{X})$ is usually a nonlinear function of \mathbf{X} ; the integration boundary, $g(\mathbf{X}) = c$, therefore, is nonlinear. The probability integration in Eq. (2) is also multidimensional. There is rarely a close-form solution to Eq. (2). Even a numerical integration method is computationally expensive or even impossible when the dimension is high. To this end, the efficient First Order Reliability Method (FORM) is widely used to obtain an approximate solution to Eq. (2).

FORM uses the following three steps.

Step 1: Transform random variables \mathbf{X} into standard normal random variables \mathbf{U} . The ith random variable X_i is transformed by

$$u_i = \Phi^{-1} \left[F_{X_i}(x_i) \right] \tag{3}$$

where F_{X_i} is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of X_i , and Φ^{-1} is the inverse CDF of a standard normal distribution.

Step 2: Search the Most Probable Point (MPP). The MPP \mathbf{u}^* is found by

$$\begin{cases} \min_{\mathbf{u}} \|\mathbf{u}\| \\ s.t. \ g(\mathbf{u}) = 0 \end{cases} \tag{4}$$

in which $\|\cdot\|$ stands for the norm (length) of a vector. Geometrically, the MPP is the shortest distance point from the limit state $g(\mathbf{U}) = 0$ to the origin in U-space. The minimum distance $\beta = \|\mathbf{u}^*\|$ is called a *reliability index*.

Step 3: Compute the probability of failure. p_f is obtained by

$$p_f = \Phi(-\beta) \tag{5}$$

where Φ is the CDF of a standard normal distribution.

The most computation-intensive work of FORM is the MPP search. The following recursive algorithm [17] is commonly used for the MPP search,

$$\begin{cases}
\beta^{(k)} = \beta^{(k-1)} + \frac{g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})}{\left\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})\right\|} \\
\mathbf{u}^{(k)} = -\beta^{(k)} \frac{\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})}{\left\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k-1)})\right\|}
\end{cases} (6)$$

where $\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k)})$ is the gradient of g at $\mathbf{u}^{(k)}$, $\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{(k)})\|$ is its magnitude, and k is the iteration counter.

B. Unified Reliability Analysis Framework

The purpose of this work is to establish a Unified Reliability Analysis (URA) framework that can handle both random and interval variables in multidisciplinary systems. For this purpose, we employ the URA framework that has been developed for single-disciplinary systems [15]. The framework is illustrated in Fig.1. The input to the framework is random variables \mathbf{X} characterized by probability distributions and interval variables \mathbf{W} represented by their bounds $[\mathbf{w}^L, \mathbf{w}^U]$. It is obvious that the uncertain output (response) $G = g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})$ is also characterized by two bounds of its probability distributions [15]. Thus the reliability of the system will also be bounded within its maximum and minimum values.

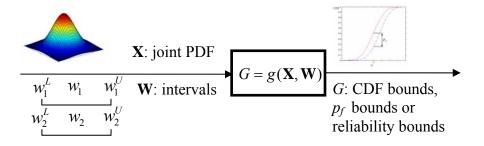


Fig. 1 Unified reliability analysis framework.

Reliability analysis calls the limit-state function $G = g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W})$ a number of times. So does multidisciplinary analysis (MDA), which is responsible for solving the linking variables between subsystems. Various ways of integrating reliability analysis and MDA form various computational algorithms. In Section III, we present three computational algorithms that support the URA framework.

C. FORM-Based URA

Let $\Delta_{\mathbf{w}}$ denote the set of intervals \mathbf{W} and $g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W}) < 0$ denote a failure event. The lower and upper bounds of the probability of failure, p_f^L and p_f^U , can then be calculated by

$$p_f^L = \Pr\left\{G_{\max} = \max g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W}) < 0 \middle| \mathbf{W} \in \Delta_{\mathbf{w}}\right\}$$
 (7)

and

$$p_f^U = \Pr\left\{G_{\min} = \min g(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W}) < 0 \middle| \mathbf{W} \in \Delta_{\mathbf{w}}\right\}$$
 (8)

respectively [15]. G_{\max} and G_{\min} are respectively the global maximum and minimum values of G over $\Delta_{\mathbf{w}}$.

According to Eqs. (7) and (8), the procedure to calculate p_f^L and p_f^U consists of two loops: one is interval analysis (IA) to search G_{\min} and G_{\max} , and the other is probabilistic analysis (PA) to calculate the probabilities $\Pr\left\{G_{\min} < 0 \middle| \mathbf{W} \in \Delta_{\mathbf{w}}\right\}$ and $\Pr\left\{G_{\max} < 0 \middle| \mathbf{W} \in \Delta_{\mathbf{w}}\right\}$. If FORM is used for PA, the Most Probable Point (MPP) must be identified by solving the following model

$$\begin{cases} \min_{\mathbf{u}} \|\mathbf{u}\| \\ s.t. \quad g(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}) = 0 \end{cases} \tag{9}$$

where ${\bf w}$ is treated as a constant vector. For IA, an optimization problem can be formulated for G_{\max} :

$$\begin{cases} \max_{\mathbf{w}} \ g(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}) \\ s.t. \ \mathbf{w} \in \Delta_{\mathbf{w}} \end{cases}$$
 (10)

where \mathbf{u} is treated as a constant vector.

For G_{\min} , Eq. (10) becomes a minimization problem.

To solve \mathbf{u} in the PA problem in Eq. (9), \mathbf{w} should be given; and to solve \mathbf{w} in the IA problem in Eq. (10), \mathbf{u} should be given. This indicates that both PA and IA are fully coupled. To reduce the computational cost, a FORM-based URA (FORM-URA) framework is proposed [15]. Under this framework, PA and IA are decoupled and are performed sequentially. This FORM-URA framework for the calculation of p_f^L is illustrated in Fig.2. IA is performed after PA. After PA, the KKT conditions of IA are checked at the solution of PA. If the KKT conditions are satisfied, IA will be skipped. Skipping the IA loop will save the computational time dramatically.

The efficiency and robustness of an MPP search algorithm are very important for the FORM-URA method. The most commonly used MPP search algorithm HLRF [18, 19] may not converge for a nonlinear function. The improved version of HLRF algorithm [20], denoted by iHLRF, can be used. iHLRF is computationally efficient and guarantees to converge to a local MPP. We also use optimization for IA. Both FORM and optimization are capable of handling black-box performance functions, and therefore so is FORM-URA.

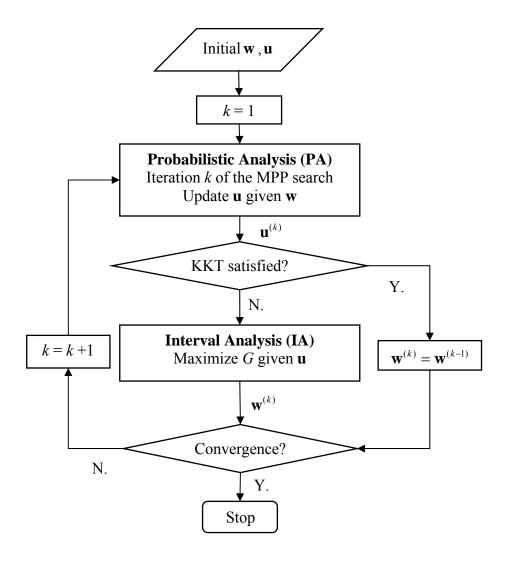


Fig. 2 Flowchart of the FORM-URA method.

D. Multidisciplinary Analysis (MDA) with Random and Interval Variables

To integrate URA with MDA, we need to look at the relationship among random variables, interval variables, and coupling variables in a multidisciplinary system. A three-discipline system in Fig.3 illustrates such relationship. The notations are given below.

 \mathbf{X}_{s} : sharing random input variables;

 \mathbf{X}_i : local random input variables of discipline i;

 \mathbf{W}_{s} : sharing interval input variables;

 \mathbf{W}_{i} : local interval input variables of discipline i;

 \mathbf{Z}_i : outputs of discipline i;

 \mathbf{Y}_{ij} : coupling (linking) variables from discipline i to discipline j.

 \mathbf{Z}_i and \mathbf{Y}_{ij} are functions of random, interval and other coupling variables from each discipline. Multidisciplinary analysis (MDA) is responsible for solving output \mathbf{Z}_i given all the input variables. Since \mathbf{Z}_i depends on coupling variables, MDA must solve coupling variables \mathbf{Y}_{ij} first. A complete set of coupling variables from the *i*th discipline is formulated as

$$\mathbf{Y}_{i \cdot} = (\mathbf{Y}_{ii}, j = 1, 2, \dots, n; j \neq i) = \mathbf{Y}_{i \cdot} (\mathbf{X}_{s}, \mathbf{X}_{i}, \mathbf{W}_{s}, \mathbf{W}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{s})$$

$$(11)$$

where n is the number of disciplines, and \mathbf{Y}_{i} represents dependent variables as on the left-hand side of Eq. (11) and also the functional relationships between dependent variables and independent variables. $\mathbf{Y}_{\cdot i}$ is the vector of coupling variables, which are the inputs to discipline i and the outputs from other disciplines. $\mathbf{Y}_{\cdot i} = (\mathbf{Y}_{ji}, j = 1, 2, \dots, n, j \neq i)$.

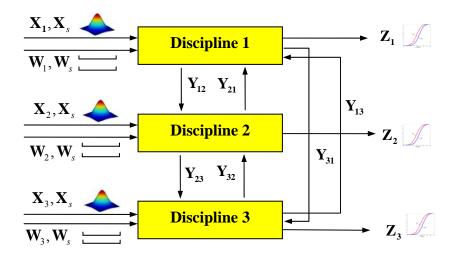


Fig. 3 Multidisciplinary systems with random and interval variables.

The system of simultaneous equations in Eq. (11) determines the system consistency over the interfaces among coupled disciplines. Expanding Eq. (11) over all disciplines, we obtain

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{Y}_{12} = \mathbf{Y}_{12}(\mathbf{X}_{1}, \mathbf{X}_{s}, \mathbf{W}_{1}, \mathbf{W}_{s}, \mathbf{Y}_{1}) \\ \mathbf{Y}_{13} = \mathbf{Y}_{13}(\mathbf{X}_{1}, \mathbf{X}_{s}, \mathbf{W}_{1}, \mathbf{W}_{s}, \mathbf{Y}_{1}) \\ \mathbf{Y}_{21} = \mathbf{Y}_{21}(\mathbf{X}_{2}, \mathbf{X}_{s}, \mathbf{W}_{2}, \mathbf{W}_{s}, \mathbf{Y}_{2}) \\ \mathbf{Y}_{23} = \mathbf{Y}_{23}(\mathbf{X}_{2}, \mathbf{X}_{s}, \mathbf{W}_{2}, \mathbf{W}_{s}, \mathbf{Y}_{2}) \\ \mathbf{Y}_{31} = \mathbf{Y}_{31}(\mathbf{X}_{3}, \mathbf{X}_{s}, \mathbf{W}_{3}, \mathbf{W}_{s}, \mathbf{Y}_{3}) \\ \mathbf{Y}_{32} = \mathbf{Y}_{32}(\mathbf{X}_{3}, \mathbf{X}_{s}, \mathbf{W}_{3}, \mathbf{W}_{s}, \mathbf{Y}_{3}) \end{cases}$$

$$(12)$$

Solving the above system of equations is the task of multidisciplinary analysis (MDA).

Suppose G_i is part of the outputs \mathbf{Z}_i from discipline i and the corresponding function is g_i . The function is given by

$$G_i = g_i(\mathbf{X}_s, \mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{W}_s, \mathbf{W}_i, \mathbf{Y}_i)$$
 (13)

If the failure event is defined as $G_i < 0$, then the task of reliability analysis is to find the probability $\Pr\{G_i < 0\}$. As describe in Sec.II.C, we need to quantify the lower and upper bounds: $\Pr\{G_i^{\text{max}} < 0\}$ and $\Pr\{G_i^{\text{min}} < 0\}$. It is apparent that the computational cost of reliability analysis (PA, IA, and MDO) for solving this problem will be very high. Hence, efficient computational tools are essential and desired. Next, we propose three algorithms based on different strategies.

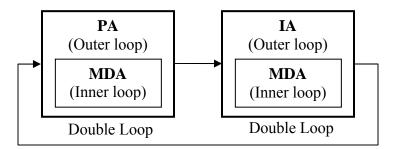
III. Algorithms

The key to this work is to extend the existing unified reliability analysis framework (URA) [15] to MDA. For this purpose, we propose three algorithms to integrate URA with MDA. In all the three algorithms, PA and IA are decoupled and are performed sequentially. PA is performed first while the interval variables are fixed, and then IA is performed while the random variables are fixed. The process of one PA and one IA is referred to as a *cycle*. After the first cycle, PA and IA are performed again in the second cycle. This process continues cycle by cycle till convergence.

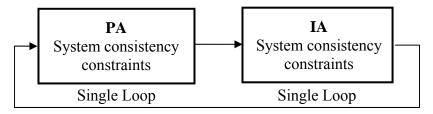
The three algorithms differ from each other in the ways of how they call MDA. The first algorithm is the Sequential Double Loops (SDL) algorithm where PA and IA call MDA independently, and each of them therefore forms a double loop. The second one is the Sequential Single Loops (SSL) algorithm, which transforms the system consistency requirement in MDA into equality constraints in PA and IA and therefore eliminates the MDA loop. Each of PA and IA then forms a single loop. The last one is the Sequential Single-Single Loops (SSSL) algorithm. In this algorithm, IA is the same as in SSL and involves a single loop. In the PA loop, the MPP search and MDA are performed

sequentially. The three algorithms are outlined in Fig.4. The details are given in the following subsections.

SDL – Sequential Double Loops algorithm



SSL – Sequential Single Loops algorithm



SSSL - Sequential Single-Single Loops algorithm

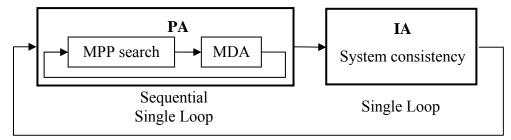


Fig. 4 Outline of proposed algorithms.

A. Sequential Double Loops (SDL) Algorithm

In the SDL algorithm, the double-loop strategy is adopted to integrate the URA framework with MDA. SDL consists of the PA loop and IA loop, and each of them

involves a double-loop procedure with the MDA inner loop. At every iteration, both PA and IA call MDA independently, and these two double loops are performed sequentially. In both the PA and IA double loops, MDA is an inner loop for maintaining the system consistency. In this work, FORM is used for PA. The flowchart of this algorithm for searching the lower bound of probability of failure is given in Fig.5.

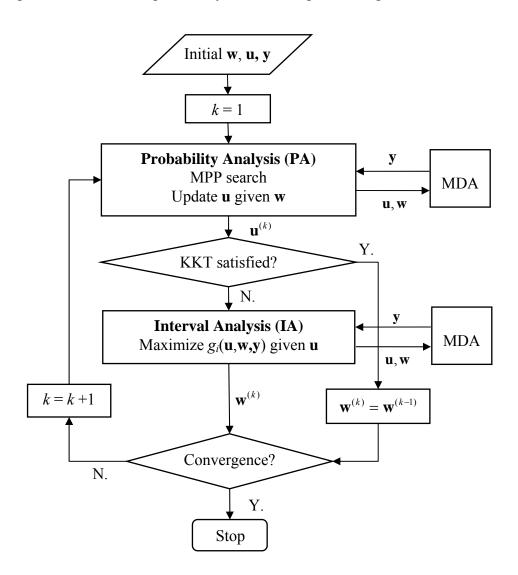


Fig. 5 SDL algorithm for the lower bound of p_f

Specifically, in PA the MPP search is the outer loop, which is modeled as an optimization problem and takes only random variables as design variables. The interval and coupling variables are treated as constant. Their values are from previous cycle. Suppose the current cycle of the overall reliability analysis is cycle k. The optimization problem is expressed by

$$\begin{cases} \min_{\mathbf{u}} \|\mathbf{u}\| \\ s.t. \quad g_i(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{.i}) = 0 \\ \mathbf{y}_{.i} \text{ is solved by MDA} \end{cases}$$
 (14)

In the above model, g_i is a limit-state function in the *i*th subsystem. Design variables \mathbf{u} consist of not only the random input variables to the *i*th discipline, but also all the random input variables to other disciplines, namely, $\mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{u}_s, \mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n)$. All the interval variables $\mathbf{w}^{(k-1)} = (\mathbf{w}_s^{k-1}, \mathbf{w}_1^{k-1}, \mathbf{w}_2^{k-1}, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n^{k-1})$ are fixed, and they are from the IA in the last cycle. The MDA inner loop is used to solve coupling variables $\mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}$. In this work, we use FORM for PA, and the algorithm in Eq. (6) is used. With the interval and coupling variables, the algorithm becomes

$$\begin{cases}
\beta^{(j)} = \beta^{(j-1)} + \frac{g_i(\mathbf{u}^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{.i})}{\|\nabla g_i(\mathbf{u}^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{.i})\|} \\
\mathbf{u}^{(j)} = -\beta^{(j)} \frac{\nabla g_i(\mathbf{u}^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{.i})}{\|\nabla g_i(\mathbf{u}^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{.i})\|}
\end{cases} (15)$$

where j is the iteration counter of the PA loop, interval variables $\mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}$ are kept constant and are from the previous cycle of the overall reliability analysis. The coupling variables $\mathbf{y}_{\cdot j}$ are obtained from the following inner MDA loop.

$$\mathbf{y}_{q.} = (\mathbf{y}_{qm}, q = 1, 2, \dots, n; m = 1, 2, \dots, n; m \neq q) = \mathbf{Y}_{q.}(\mathbf{u}_{s}^{(j)}, \mathbf{u}_{q}^{(j)}, \mathbf{w}_{s}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{w}_{q}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{.q})$$
(16)

Then in IA, the minimization or maximization problem is an outer loop, which deals with only interval variables given random and coupling variables from PA. The MDA inner loop is also used to solve coupling variables $\mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}$. For the lower bound of p_f , IA is a maximization problem with the following formulation

$$\begin{cases} \max_{\mathbf{w}} \ g_{i}(\mathbf{u}^{(k)}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{y}_{.i}) \\ s.t. \quad \mathbf{w} \in \Delta_{\mathbf{w}} \\ \mathbf{y}_{.i} \text{ is solved by MDA} \end{cases}$$
 (17)

where design variables are $\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n, \mathbf{w}_s)$. Random input variables $\mathbf{u}^{(k)}$ are obtained from the MPP search and are kept constant herein. Coupling variables $\mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}$ are solved by the following inner MDA loop.

$$\mathbf{y}_{q} = (\mathbf{y}_{qm}, q = 1, 2, \dots, n; m = 1, 2, \dots, n; m \neq q) = \mathbf{Y}_{q} \cdot (\mathbf{u}_{s}^{(k)}, \mathbf{u}_{q}^{(k)}, \mathbf{w}_{s}, \mathbf{w}_{q}, \mathbf{y}_{q})$$
 (18)

This algorithm integrates both PA and IA with MDA in a straightforward manner. It is therefore more robust than the other two algorithms that are presented next. Since the algorithm involves the direct combination of PA and MDA and the direct combination of IA and MDA, it requires calling MDA many times and may be computationally expensive. For instance, at the *j*th iteration of the MPP search in Eq. (14), MDA is performed whenever MPP is updated. When $\mathbf{u}^{(j)}$ is obtained, MDA is called to get $\mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}$ in order to calculate $g_i(\mathbf{u}^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{\cdot i})$. ($\mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}$ is from IA of the previous cycle and is kept constant in the MPP search.) Besides, as shown in Eq. (15), MDA is also needed when the finite difference method is used to calculate the partial derivatives of g_i . The equation of the derivatives of g_i with respect to a particular random variable u_q (q-th element of \mathbf{u}) is given by

$$\frac{\partial g_i}{\partial u_q} = \frac{g_i(\mathbf{u}', \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{i}') - g_i(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{i})}{\Delta}$$
(19)

where $\mathbf{u}' = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_q + \Delta, \dots, u_{nu})$, nu is length of \mathbf{u} , and Δ is a step size. $\mathbf{y}'_{.i}$ is the new values of coupling variables associated with the new random variables \mathbf{u}' . MDA must be called again to obtain $\mathbf{y}'_{.i}$.

The SDL algorithm suits the systems where the disciplinary analyses and MDA are computationally cheaper. In this work, PA is conducted by FORM. The general PA, however, is open to more methods, such as the Second Order Reliability Method (SORM) and the saddlepoint approximation method [21]. A nonlinear optimization can also be used for PA. For IA, a nonlinear optimization method or the interval arithmetic can be used. In this paper, we use the Sequential Quadratic Programming, which is one of the most popular nonlinear optimization methods.

B. Sequential Single Loops (SSL) Algorithm

As described above, when MDA is expensive, the SDL algorithm may not be efficient. To alleviate the computational demand from MDA, we use a single-loop strategy. The algorithm is then termed as the Sequential Single Loops (SSL) algorithm. As shown in Fig.5, the algorithm reformulates the optimization problems of both PA and IA by including the interdisciplinary equilibrium (consistency) as part of constraints. The constraints of the equilibrium are formulated by maintaining the simultaneous equations in Eq. (11) of coupling variables as the following equality constraints.

$$\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{Y}_{i} - \mathbf{Y}_{i}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{y}_{i}) = \mathbf{0}, \ i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$
 (20)

where **v** contains all the coupling variables.

The model for the PA loop in the *k*th cycle of the overall reliability analysis is then reformulated as

$$\begin{cases}
\min_{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}} & \|\mathbf{u}\| \\
s.t. & g_i(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{.i}) = 0 \\
& \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}) = 0
\end{cases}$$
(21)

where g_i is a limit-state function of subsystem i, interval variables $\mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}$ are given from the IA loop in the last cycle, and random variables \mathbf{u} and coupling variables \mathbf{y} are regarded as design variables and are solved by optimization. The solution is $\mathbf{u}^{(k)}$.

The optimization for the minimum probability of failure in the IA loop (see Eq.(7)) is modeled by

$$\begin{cases} \max_{\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{y}} \ g_i(\mathbf{u}^{(k)}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{y}_{.i}) \\ s.t. \quad \mathbf{w} \in \Delta_{\mathbf{w}} \\ \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{u}^{(k)}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{y}) = 0 \end{cases}$$
(22)

where random variables $\mathbf{u}^{(k)}$ is obtained from the PA loop and are constant. Interval variables \mathbf{w} and coupling variables \mathbf{y} are taken as design variables.

As shown in Fig. 6, there is no need to conduct separate MDA, but coupling variables become additional design variables that are solved in PA and IA. For example, in IA the interval and coupling variables become design variables and are solved given the random variables from the PA loop. The procedure is depicted in Fig.6. These two single loops are performed sequentially.

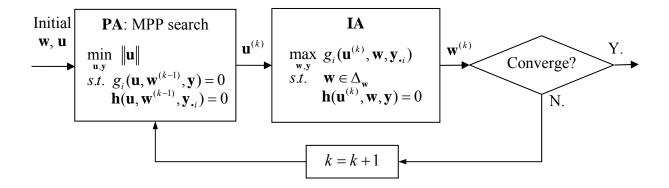


Fig. 6 SSL algorithm for the lower bound of p_f .

Compared to the first algorithm, the SSL algorithm does not call MDA directly. The task of MDA is implicitly embedded in the PA and IA loops. The algorithm is suitable for the situation when it is easy to perform disciplinary analyses concurrently. It is efficient for the systems that contain fewer coupling variables. However, when the number of coupling variables is large, this algorithm will contain a large number of design variables since the coupling variables are treated as design variables. This might diminish the efficiency of the SSL algorithm. The other disadvantage of the algorithm is the inclusion of equality constraints for the system consistency. Equality constraints make optimization hard to converge. Since additional constraints are added to the MPP search in PA, the existing MPP search algorithms are no longer applicable.

C. Sequential Single-Single Loops (SSSL) Algorithm

In the first algorithm, the SDL algorithm, an efficient MPP search method can be used for PA, while in the second algorithm, the SSL algorithm, only nonlinear optimization can be used for PA. Nonlinear optimization is usually not as efficient as specialized MPP search algorithms. To take advantage of the MPP search algorithms, we combine both of

the above two algorithms. The combination comes from the PA loop of the SDL algorithm and the IA loop of the SSL algorithm. An MPP search algorithm can then be used for PA. To save computational resources further, for PA, we change the double-loop procedure to a sequential single loop procedure where the MPP search and MDA are performed sequentially. The same double loop procedure for IA is used as in the SSL algorithm. The algorithm is illustrated in Fig. 7.

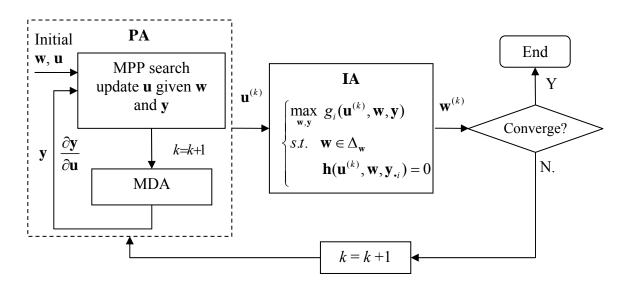


Fig. 7 SSSL algorithm for the lower bound of p_f .

In PA, only random variables are solved in the MPP search, and then the MDA loop is conducted to update the coupling variables. The MPP search and MDA are performed in a sequential manner till convergence is reached. In IA, the system consistency is part of constraints. Interval and coupling variables are solved simultaneously given the random variables from the PA loop. IA includes system consistency constraints and involves a

single-loop procedure. The overall reliability analysis is performed sequentially with the sequential single-loop PA and the single-loop IA.

The MPP search algorithm in the SDL algorithm in Eq. (15) is modified as

$$\begin{cases}
\beta^{(j)} = \beta^{(j-1)} + \frac{g_{i}(\mathbf{u}^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{.i}^{(q-1)})}{\|\nabla g_{i}(\mathbf{u}^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{.i}^{(q-1)})\|} \\
\mathbf{u}^{(j)} = -\beta^{(j)} \frac{\nabla g_{i}(\mathbf{u}^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{.i}^{(q-1)})}{\|\nabla g_{i}(\mathbf{u}^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{.i}^{(q-1)})\|}
\end{cases} (23)$$

The above equation is for the *j*th iteration of the MPP search in the *q*th iteration of the PA loop and the *k*th cycle of the overall reliability analysis. The interval variables $\mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}$ are from the previous cycle (cycle *k*-1) of the overall reliability analysis and are kept constant. The coupling variables $\mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}^{(q-1)}$ are from the last iteration (iteration *q*-1) of the PA loop and are also kept constant. The solution is the MPP $\mathbf{u}^{(q)}$.

After the MPP loop is completed, MDA is performed. The coupling variables $\mathbf{y}_{i}^{(q)}$ are obtained from the following model.

$$\mathbf{y}_{p.} = (\mathbf{y}_{pm}, p = 1, 2, \dots, n; m = 1, 2, \dots, n; m \neq p) = \mathbf{Y}_{p.} (\mathbf{u}_{s}^{(q)}, \mathbf{u}_{p}^{(q)}, \mathbf{w}_{s}^{k-1}, \mathbf{w}_{p}^{k-1}, \mathbf{y}_{.p})$$
 (24)

If analytical derivatives are not available for the gradient $\nabla g_i(\mathbf{u}^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}^{(q-1)})$ in Eq. (23), the finite difference method in Eq. (19) can be used to estimate gradients $\partial g_i / \partial u_p$, where u_p is the pth element of \mathbf{u} . The equation is written below.

$$\frac{\partial g_i}{\partial u_p} = \frac{g_i(\mathbf{u}^{(j-1)'}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}') - g_i(\mathbf{u}^{(j-1)}, \mathbf{w}^{(k-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{\cdot i})}{\Delta}$$
(25)

where $\mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}$ is the new values of coupling variables associated with the new random variable $\mathbf{u}' = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n + \Delta, \dots, u_{nu})$.

It is noted that the coupling variables $\mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}$ are not constant. They are functions of \mathbf{u} . $\mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}^{\prime}$ should therefore be re-calculated. However, $\mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}^{\prime}$ cannot be obtained from the MPP search since it is decoupled from MDA. A first order Taylor's series expansion is used to estimate $\mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}^{\prime}$, and the equation is given by

$$\mathbf{y}_{\cdot i} = \mathbf{y}_{\cdot i} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}_{\cdot i}}{\partial u_{p}} \Delta \tag{26}$$

where $\frac{\partial \mathbf{y}_{.i}}{\partial u_p}$ is obtained from the MDA loop in the previous iteration (iteration *j*-1) of PA and is kept constant in the MPP search.

This algorithm is suitable for problems where PA is relatively expensive and IA is relatively cheap. One may also choose this method when the number of random variables is large and the number of interval variables is small.

IV. Examples

For demonstration, two examples are provided. The first one is a mathematical problem with two subsystems. Although the probabilistic constraints are simple and the number of variables is small, it is effective to show the formulations and procedures of the three algorithms. The second example is a wing design problem involving more complicated probabilistic constraints and more coupling variables and random variables. It indicates the potential use of the algorithms to real engineering applications.

A. Example 1 – A Mathematical Problem [8]

In this example the system consists of two subsystems. For demonstration, two local interval variables and one sharing interval variable are introduced to the original problem

in [8] where only random variables are involved. The new problem is demonstrated in Fig. 8 and is formulated as follows.

Subsystem 1:

$$G_1 = X_1 - (W_s + X_s + 2W_1 + 2Y_{21})$$

$$Y_{12} = W_s + X_s + W_1 + Y_{21}$$

Subsystem 2:

$$G_2 = (5W_s + 5X_s + 3W_2 - 4Y_{12}) - X_2$$

$$Y_{21} = W_s + X_s + W_2 - Y_{12}$$

where W_s is a shared interval variable; W_1 and W_2 are local interval variables. X_s is a sharing random variable; and X_1 and X_2 are local random variables. $X_s \sim N(0,0.3)$, $X_1 \sim N(5,0.5)$, and $X_2 \sim N(1,0.1)$, where $N(\bullet,\bullet)$ stands for a normal distribution, and its first and second variables are mean and standard deviation, respectively. All the interval variables have the same bounds, and $W_s, W_1, W_2 \in [2.245, 2.255]$. The probabilities of failure are defined by $p_f = \Pr\{G_i < 0\}$ (i = 1, 2).

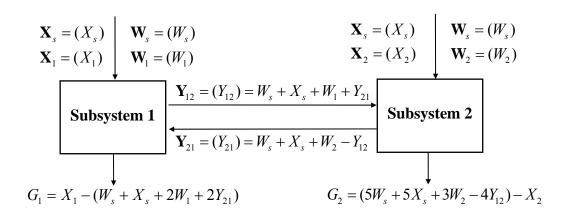


Fig. 8 Mathematical example.

To demonstrate the procedure of each algorithm, we provide the equations of the three algorithms for the lower bound of p_f for G_1 at the kth cycle as follows. Recall that a cycle is a sequential process of PA and IA; in other word, it is one iteration of the overall reliability analysis.

- 1. SDL algorithm
- 1) PA loop

The MPP search is modeled by

$$\begin{cases} \min_{\mathbf{u}=(u_s,u_1,u_2)} \sqrt{u_s^2 + u_1^2 + u_2^2} \\ s.t. \qquad G_1 = (\mu_1 + u_1\sigma_1) - \left[w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s\sigma_s) + 2w_1^{(k-1)} + 2y_{21} \right] = 0 \end{cases}$$

where the design variables are $\mathbf{u} = (u_s, u_1, u_2)$, $w_s^{(k-1)}$ and $w_1^{(k-1)}$ are the interval variables from the (k-1)th cycle, and y_{21} is the coupling variable solved from MDA, which is solved by

$$\begin{cases} y_{12} = w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s \sigma_s) + w_1^{(k-1)} + y_{21} \\ y_{21} = w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s \sigma_s) + w_2^{(k-1)} - y_{12} \end{cases}$$

where interval variable $w_2^{(k-1)}$ is also from the (k-1)th cycle.

The above MPP search and MDA are nested and form a single-loop PA. The solution of the PA loop is the MPP $\mathbf{u}^{*,(k)} = \left(u_s^{*,(k)}, u_1^{*,(k)}, u_2^{*,(k)}\right)$. It is noted that in the above equations all the random variables are transformed into standard normal variables.

2) IA loop

The optimization model is given by

$$\begin{cases} \max_{\mathbf{w}=(w_s,w_1,w_2)} G_1 = (\mu_1 + u_1^{*,(k)}\sigma_1) - \left[w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s^{*,(k)}\sigma_s) + 2w_1^{(k-1)} + 2y_{21}\right] \\ s.t. \quad w_s, w_1, w_2 \in [2.245, 2.255] \end{cases}$$

where the design variables are $\mathbf{w} = (w_s, w_1, w_2)$, and y_{21} is the coupling variable obtained by the following MDA.

$$\begin{cases} y_{12} = w_s + (\mu_s + u_s^{*,(k)} \sigma_s) + w_1 + y_{21} \\ y_{21} = w_s + (\mu_s + u_s^{*,(k)} \sigma_s) + w_2 - y_{12} \end{cases}$$

The above MDA and the optimization problem are nested; and they form a single-loop IA. The solution of the IA loop is the interval variables $\mathbf{w}^{(k)} = \left(w_s^{(k)}, w_1^{(k)}, w_2^{(k)}\right)$.

- 2. SSL algorithm
- 1) PA loop

The MPP search and MDA are formulated together as a single-loop procedure. The formulation is given below.

$$\begin{cases}
\min_{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}} \sqrt{u_s^2 + u_1^2 + u_2^2} \\
s.t. \quad G_1 = (\mu_1 + u_1 \sigma_1) - \left[w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s \sigma_s) + 2w_1^{(k-1)} + 2y_{21} \right] = 0 \\
h_1 = y_{12} - \left[w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s \sigma_s) + w_1^{(k-1)} + y_{21} \right] = 0 \\
h_2 = y_{21} - \left[w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s \sigma_s) + w_2^{(k-1)} - y_{12} \right] = 0
\end{cases}$$

where the design variables are $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_{12}, y_{21})$.

2) IA loop

$$\begin{cases} \max_{\mathbf{w},\mathbf{y}} G_1 = (\mu_1 + u_1^{*,(k)}\sigma_1) - \left[w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s^{*,(k)}\sigma_s) + 2w_1^{(k-1)} + 2y_{21}\right] \\ s.t. \quad h_1 = y_{12} - \left[w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s\sigma_s) + w_1^{(k-1)} + y_{21}\right] = 0 \\ h_2 = y_{21} - \left[w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s\sigma_s) + w_2^{(k-1)} - y_{12}\right] = 0 \\ w_s, w_1, w_2 \in [2.245, 2.255] \end{cases}$$

where the design variables are $\mathbf{w} = (w_s, w_1, w_2)$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_{12}, y_{21})$.

3. SSSL algorithm

1) PA loop

The MPP search and MDA are conducted sequentially. In the *j*th iteration of PA, the MPP search is formulated as

$$\min_{\mathbf{u}} \sqrt{u_s^2 + u_1^2 + u_2^2}$$
s.t. $G_1 = (\mu_1 + u_1 \sigma_1) - \left[w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s \sigma_s) + 2w_1^{(k-1)} + 2y_{21}^{(j-1)} \right] = 0$

where the design variables are $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$. The interval variables $w_s^{(k-1)}$ and $w_1^{(k-1)}$ are from the (k-1)th cycle of the overall reliability analysis. (Recall the current cycle is the kth cycle.) The coupling variable $y_{21}^{(j-1)}$ is obtained from the previous MDA in the (j-1)th iteration. After the MPP search, MDA is performed to solve the coupling variable $y_{21}^{(j)}$ and is formulated by

$$\begin{cases} y_{12} - \left[w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s \sigma_s) + w_1^{(k-1)} + y_{21} \right] = 0 \\ y_{21} - \left[w_s^{(k-1)} + (\mu_s + u_s \sigma_s) + w_2^{(k-1)} - y_{12} \right] = 0 \end{cases}$$

2) IA loop

The IA loop is the same as in the SSL algorithm.

The comparison of the reliability analysis results for probabilistic constraint G_1 and G_2 from the three algorithms are summarized in Table 1. The comparison is done with the same convergence criteria applied to each algorithm. Monte Carlo Simulation (MCS), as a sampling-based verification method, is also conducted. Latin Hypercube sampling is used to get the samples of the interval variables. The result from MCS is also listed in Table 1. The computational cost of all the methods is measured by the number of function evaluations (analyses at the subsystem level).

SDL SSSL SSL **MCS** Constraint **Bound** p_f^{max} 1.412×10^{-3} 1.463×10^{-3} 1.463×10^{-3} 1.463×10^{-3} 10^{9} 406 Funcall^a 1330 1210 370 370 358 G_1 p_f^{min} 1.235×10^{-3} 1.235×10^{-3} 1.235×10^{-3} 1.202×10^{-3} 10^{9} Funcall 1330 1210 370 370 406 358 p_f^{\max} 9.709×10^{-4} 9.709×10^{-4} 9.709×10^{-4} 9.200×10^{-4} 10^{8} 2210 310 438 Funcall 2430 310 502 G_2 6.288×10^{-4} 6.288×10^{-4} 6.288×10^{-4} 6.401×10^{-4} 10^{8} 2370 310 438 Funcall 2606 310 502

Table 1 Bounds of p_f

It is noted that the results obtained from SDL, SSL and SSSL are identical. The results are also very close to the MCS solutions. All the algorithms therefore converge to an accurate solution. For this simple problem, SSL algorithm outperforms the rest in terms of efficiency since it calls subsystem analyses with the least number of times.

B. Example 2 - Aircraft Wing Design

A wing design problem for a light aircraft [22] involves aerodynamic design and structural design. Aerodynamic design is responsible for selecting the external shape of the wing while structural design determines the structural size. The two disciplines are coupled with each other. A structural model is depicted in Fig. 9 [22], and the coupled subsystems are illustrated in Fig. 10.

a. Funcall: the numbers of function evaluations, which are the numbers of analyses in subsystems 1 and 2, respectively.

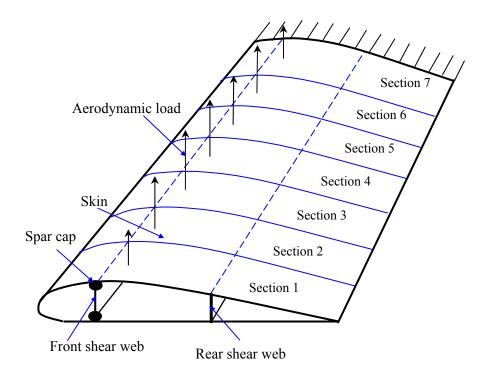


Fig. 9 The wing structure model.

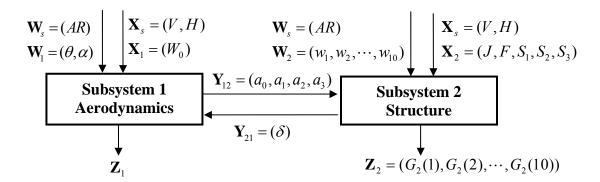


Fig. 10 Coupled aerodynamic and structural subsystems

The reliability associated with each of the following constraints in Subsystem 2 is to be evaluated. The probabilities of failure are given by

$$\begin{split} & \Pr \left\{ G_{2}(i) \leq 0 \right\} = \Pr \left\{ \sigma_{i} - S_{1} \leq 0 \right\} \qquad (i = 1, 2, \ldots, 7) \\ & \Pr \left\{ G_{2}(8) \leq 0 \right\} = \Pr \left\{ \tau_{skin} - S_{2} \leq 0 \right\} \\ & \Pr \left\{ G_{2}(9) \leq 0 \right\} = \Pr \left\{ \tau_{wf} - S_{3} \leq 0 \right\} \\ & \Pr \left\{ G_{2}(10) \leq 0 \right\} = \Pr \left\{ \tau_{wr} - S_{3} \leq 0 \right\} \end{split}$$

where σ_i (i = 1, 2, ..., 7) are the bending stresses in the spar cap for each section, τ_{skin} is the maximum shear stress in the skin, τ_{wf} is the shear stress in the web, τ_{wr} is the shear stress in the rear web, and S_1 , S_2 and S_3 are the bending strength of the material of the spar caps, the shear strength of the skin, and the shear strength of the spar web, respectively. S_1 , S_2 and S_3 are normally distributed, and their distribution parameters are given in Table 2 along with other random variables.

Table 2 Distributions of random variables

Variables	Mean	Standard deviation	Distribution		
Flight altitude <i>H</i>	3000 m	300 m	Normal		
Flight speed V	200 km/h	20 km/h	Normal		
Wing area S	10 m^2	0.5 m^2	Normal		
Take-off weight W_0	700 kg	70 kg	Normal		
Shear modulus J	$2.7 \times 10^{10} \text{ N/ mm}^2$	$2.7 \times 10^9 \text{ N/ mm}^2$	Normal		
Gust load factor F	4.0	0.4	Normal		
Bending strength S_I	450 N/mm^2	45 N/mm^2	Normal		
Shear strength of the skin S_2	200 N/mm^2	$20N/mm^2$	Normal		
Shear strength of the web S_3	250 N/mm^2	25 N/mm ²	Normal		

The aspect ratio (AR), twist angle (θ) , areas (w_1-w_{10}) are considered as interval variables. Their nominal values and widths are provided in Table 3.

Table 3 Interval and deterministic variables

Design variables	Nominal values	Width	Disciplines
Aspect ratio	5.7823	0.40	Aerodynamics
Twist angle	0.80406 (deg)	0.2 (deg)	Aerodynamics
Angle of attack, α	5.0877 (deg)	0.05 (deg)	Aerodynamics
Area of spar cap in section 1, w_1	$50.0 (\text{mm}^2)$	$1.0 (\text{mm}^2)$	Structure
Area of spar cap in section 2, w_2	54.81 (mm ²)	$1.0 (\text{mm}^2)$	Structure
Area of spar cap in section 3, w_3	$122.07 (\text{mm}^2)$	$2.0 (\text{mm}^2)$	Structure
Area of spar cap in section 4, w_4	215.23 (mm ²)	$2.0 (\text{mm}^2)$	Structure
Area of spar cap in section 5, w_5	$333.13 (\text{mm}^2)$	$3.0 (\text{mm}^2)$	Structure
Area of spar cap in section $6, w_6$	472.83 (mm ²)	$5.0 (\text{mm}^2)$	Structure
Area of spar cap in section 7, w_7	$628.42 (\text{mm}^2)$	$6.0 (\text{mm}^2)$	Structure
Thickness of the skin, w_8	1.0 (mm)	0.01 (mm)	Structure
Thickness of the front web, w_9	1.0 (mm)	0.01 (mm)	Structure
Thickness of the rear web, w_{10}	1.0 (mm)	0.01 (mm)	Structure

A comparison of the analysis results from the three algorithms for limit-state functions $G_1 \sim G_{10}$ are summarized in Table 4. MCS is also conducted to confirm the accuracy of the results. Due to the high computational cost of evaluating the constraint functions in this example, MPP-based importance sampling [23, 24] is used in MCS. This method generates samples around the MPPs rather than over the whole random space, and therefore the number of simulations is much less than that of the general MCS. The results show that the three algorithms produce the same solutions, which are all close to the result from MCS. In this case, SSL algorithm requires the least disciplinary analyses.

Table 4 Two bounds of p_f obtained by different algorithms

Cons	traints	SDL	SSL	SSSL	Monte Carlo
_	p_f^{max}	≈ 0	pprox 0	pprox 0	≈ 0
$G_2(1)$		15759 16221	1966 1966	4838 5963	10^4
$O_2(1)$	p_f^{min}	pprox 0	pprox 0	pprox 0	pprox 0
	Funcall	16048 16519	976 976	4816 5932	10^4
	$p_f^{ m max}$	5.614×10 ⁻³	5.614×10 ⁻³	5.614×10 ⁻³	5.363×10 ⁻³
$G_{2}(2)$	Funcall	12228 12586	1088 1088	3915 4509	10^4
$O_2(2)$	p_f^{max}	1.800×10^{-3}	1.800×10^{-3}	1.800×10^{-3}	1.812×10^{-3}
	Funcall	10948 11269	1172 1172	3898 4528	10^4
	$p_f^{ m max}$	5.622×10 ⁻³	5.622×10 ⁻³	5.622×10 ⁻³	5.549×10 ⁻³
C(2)	Funcall		1088 1088		10^4
$G_2(3)$	$p_{f}^{ ext{min}}$	1.802×10^{-3}	1.802×10^{-3}	1.802×10^{-3}	1.808×10^{-3}
	Funcall	10957 11278	1172 1172	3898 4528	10^4
	$p_f^{ m max}$	5.635×10 ⁻³	5.635×10 ⁻³	5.635×10 ⁻³	5.646×10 ⁻³
C(A)	Funcall	11373 11706		3915 4518	10^4
$G_2(4)$	$p_{f}^{ ext{min}}$		1.801×10^{-3}	1.801×10^{-3}	
	Funcall	12478 12844	1172 1172	3898 4528	10^4
	$p_f^{ m max}$	5.658×10 ⁻³	5.658×10 ⁻³	5.658×10 ⁻³	5.498×10 ⁻³
	Funcall	13515 13911			10^{4}
G (=)	$p_f^{ m min}$	1.800×10^{-3}	1.800×10^{-3}	1.800×10^{-3}	1.741×10^{-3}
$G_2(5)$	Funcall	11356 11689	1172 1172	3898 4528	10^4
	$p_f^{ m max}$	5.680×10 ⁻³	5.680×10 ⁻³	5.680×10 ⁻³	5.403×10 ⁻³
C(G)	Funcall		1088 1088		10^4
$G_2(6)$	$p_f^{ m min}$			1.797×10^{-3}	1.742×10^{-3}
			1172 1172		
	$p_f^{ m max}$	5.451×10 ⁻³	5.451×10 ⁻³	5.451×10 ⁻³	5.703×10 ⁻³
C(7)	Funcall	10761 11076		3915 4536	10^4
$G_2(7)$	p_f^{min}		1.794×10^{-3}	1.794×10^{-3}	1.777×10^{-3}
	Funcall	12070 12424	1158 1158	3898 4537	10^4
	$p_f^{ ext{max}}$	pprox 0	pprox 0	pprox 0	pprox 0
$G_{2}(8)$	Funcall	14229 14646	1591 1591	4833 5787	10^4
2 (-)	$oldsymbol{p}_f^{min}$	pprox 0	pprox 0	pprox 0	pprox 0
	Funcall	13804 14209	920 920	4816 5734	104

Const	raints	SI)L	S	SL	SS	SL	Monte Carlo
	p_f^{\max}	\approx	0	\approx	0	\approx	0	≈ 0
$G_2(9)$	Funcall	16303	16781	1256	1256	5445	6597	10^{4}
$G_2(\mathcal{I})$	p_f^{min}	≈ 0		pprox 0		pprox 0		≈ 0
	Funcall	14739	15171	1273	1273	4833	5949	10^4
	p_f^{max}	\approx	0	≈	0	≈	0	≈ 0
$G_2(10)$	Funcall	12597	12966	906	906	4527	5346	10^4
	p_f^{min}	pprox 0		pprox 0		pprox 0		pprox 0
	Funcall	12580	12949	1778	1778	3898	4645	10^4

V. Conclusion

A unified reliability analysis framework for multidisciplinary systems with both random and interval variables is developed. Given random and interval variables as inputs, the output of this framework is the bounds of reliability or the probability of failure. The framework consists of probabilistic analysis (PA) and interval analysis (IA). The framework requires integrating PA and IA with multidisciplinary analysis (MDA). Since the overall reliability analysis involves PA, IA and MDA, the computation is intensive. The direct integration of PA, IA, and MDA would require a triple loop procedure and would make the computational efficiency extremely low. To reduce the number of nested loops, PA and IA are performed sequentially. Three algorithms are designed based on how PA and IA loops call the MDA loop. In Table 5, the three algorithms are summarized in terms of their features, the possible algorithms that can be used for PA and IA, and when the three algorithms can be used.

Table 5 Summary of the three algorithms

Table 5 Summary of the time algorithms						
Algorithm	Features	PA and IA methods	When to use it			
SDL: Sequential Double Loops	The MDA inner loop is nested with the PA and IA outer loops; PA and IA involve a double-loop procedure.	PA: any reliability analysis methods, including any MPP search algorithms. IA: nonlinear optimization, interval arithmetic, or other IA methods.	MDA is not computational expensive.			
SSL: Sequential Single Loops	MDA is embedded as equality constraints within the PA and IA loop; All the coupling variables are treated as additional design variables in the PA or IA single loop.	PA: FORM with nonlinear optimization for the MPP search IA: nonlinear optimization	The number of coupling variables is small; concurrent subsystem analyses can be performed.			
SSSL: Sequential Single-Single Loops	PA involves a sequence of MPP search and MDA and therefore forms a sequential single-loops procedure. IA requires a single-loop procedure as in SSL.	PA: any reliability analysis methods, including any MPP search algorithms. IA: nonlinear optimization	PA is relatively expensive and IA is relative cheap; concurrent subsystem analyses can be performed; the number of interval variables is small.			

As demonstrated in the two examples, the three algorithms are capable of producing identical solutions. But their efficiency differs from problem to problem. The efficiency depends on many factors, such as the number of disciplines, the number of random variables, the number of interval variables, the number of sharing variables, and the efficiency of analyses at the disciplinary level. When to use a specific algorithm is provided in Table 5.

Other algorithm variants can also be developed using the similar strategies of the proposed three algorithms. For example, the IA loop of the SSSL algorithm is a single-

loop procedure. It can be changed to a sequential single-loops procedure, where the search of the extreme values of the limit-state function and MDA are conducted sequentially. All the algorithms discussed in this paper are only for reliability analysis. Our future work will be their application in reliability based multidisciplinary design optimization.

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2.CONCLUSIONS

This research attempts to explore the impact of aleatory and epistemic uncertainties on the performances of complex engineering systems. Both types of uncertainty occur simultaneously in many applications. However, most of current uncertainty analysis and sensitivity analysis methods are not applicable to analyze the effect of epistemic uncertainty or the joint effect of both types of uncertainty. This work investigates how to quantify the effect of both types of uncertainty. Probability theory is used to model aleatory uncertainty and evidence theory and intervals are employed to model epistemic uncertainty. Probabilistic analysis for aleatory uncertainty and interval analysis for epistemic uncertainty are integrated in a unified uncertainty analysis framework to propagate the mixed uncertainties and calculate the belief and plausibility measures of outputs. The First Order Reliability Method (FORM) is adopted for probabilistic analysis and nonlinear optimization is used for interval analysis.

A family of new uncertainty analysis and sensitivity analysis approaches are established in this dissertation:

An effective sensitivity analysis framework is established in the first paper to estimate the contributions of individual input variables with epistemic uncertainty to the model outputs and identify the most significant epistemic variables. The contribution of an epistemic variable is measured by its effect on the output, including main effect and total effect. And these effects are indicated by the discrepancy between belief and plausibility measures of the output (the lower and upper probability bounds).

Paper II aims to obtain more exact understanding of how the uncertain characteristics of outputs are related to both types of uncertainty in the inputs. Six new

types of sensitivity indexes are proposed and the equations associated with each sensitivity index for different scenarios are derived. Four of them are used to quantify the sensitivities of the width and average of the probability of failure bounds with respect to the characteristics of interval variables and the other two types are defined for random variables to evaluate the sensitivities of the width and average of the probability of failure bounds with respect to the parameters of probability distributions.

The third paper extends all the above methods from single-disciplinary systems to multidisciplinary systems. A unified reliability analysis framework for multidisciplinary systems with both random and interval variables is developed. The framework integrates probabilistic analysis and interval analysis with multidisciplinary analysis (MDA). In order to lower the computational burden of direct integration, three algorithms are designed by applying different strategies to call MDA in probabilistic analysis and interval analysis loops.

The major findings of this research include:

- (1) Both uncertainties have a great impact on the system performance. The effect of aleatory uncertainty can be measured by the Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) or Probability Distribution Function (PDF), while the effect of epistemic uncertainty can be measured by the gap between the lower and upper bounds of CDF or PDF.
- (2) Both types of uncertainty can be quantified by the unified uncertainty analysis framework for both single-disciplinary and multidisciplinary systems.
- (3) The proposed sensitivity analysis framework for epistemic uncertainty with the mixture of aleatory and epistemic uncertainties is an effective method for reducing the impact of epistemic uncertainty. This method identifies the most important input

variables with epistemic uncertainty. Collecting more data on those variables will mitigate the effect of epistemic uncertainty in the most efficient way.

- (4) In different cases, the width and mean value of the probability bounds of an output have different relationships with the width and average of input interval variables and the distribution parameters of input random variables. And the six new sensitivity indexes are capable of quantifying these relationships.
- (5) The calculation of these sensitivity indexes is just a byproduct of reliability analysis and does not require any additional evaluation of a performance function.
- (6) Unified uncertainty analysis and sensitivity analysis methods can be integrated with Multidisciplinary Analysis (MDA) and then be extended to multidisciplinary systems design.
- (7) All the methods can be used in design. The sensitivity analysis framework can be used to lower the overall uncertainty in the outputs and help designers to make more reliable judgments and decisions. The new sensitivity indexes will tell engineers what will happen to the output uncertainty if they change the input uncertainty. The unified reliability analysis for multidisciplinary systems provides an effective tool for industry to evaluate the reliability information of system performance in the development of complex products with a full range of uncertainty.

The effectiveness of the proposed methods has been demonstrated by mathematical examples and engineering applications. But some features of these methods could be improved in the future work:

(1) The computational cost of the sensitivity analysis methods will grow with the increasing number of aleatory variables and the subsets of epistemic variables. And

interval analysis uses nonlinear optimization, which is more accurate but less efficient than interval arithmetic. Efficient computational algorithms are desired to solve these issues.

- (2) The computational efficiency of the algorithms in the unified reliability analysis for multidisciplinary systems varies from problem to problem. It also depends on the number of coupling variables, uncertainty variables and disciplines, as well as the efficiency of disciplinary analysis. The further investigation might discover more factors that have influence on the efficiency. Based on such discovery, more strategies could be developed to improve the performance of the algorithms and design more algorithm variants.
- (3) Probabilistic analysis in this research is conducted by FORM. More accurate methods like the Second Order Reliability Method (SORM) and Saddlepoint Approximation method [2] might be considered for the purpose of higher accuracy.
- (4) The ultimate goal of this research is to provide analysis tools for reliability-based multidisciplinary systems design. The major future research work is the integration of the proposed unified reliability analysis with multidisciplinary design optimization.
- (5) This research only considers both aleatory and epistemic uncertainties in model input parameters. Model structure uncertainty is not included in this work. Model structure uncertainty is a special type of epistemic uncertainty. To take a full advantage of reliability-based multidisciplinary design optimization, model structure uncertainty should be incorporated.

APPENDIX A.

COMMON EQUATIONS

1. Derivative of p_f with respect to one bound of an interval variable Y_i

 $\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial h}$ is given in Eq. (22) and is rewritten below.

$$\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial h} = \frac{-\phi(-\beta)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^*)\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial h}$$
(A1)

where p_f could be p_f^L or p_f^U , and β could be β^L and β^U .

2. Derivative of p_f with respect to the width of an interval, δ_i

If p_f occurs at y_i^U ,

$$\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{\partial p_f \left(y_i^U, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right)}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{\partial p_f \left(\overline{y}_i + \frac{1}{2} \delta_i, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right)}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{\partial p_f \left(\overline{y}_i + \frac{1}{2} \delta_i, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right)}{\partial (\overline{y}_i + \frac{1}{2} \delta_i)} \frac{\partial (\overline{y}_i + \frac{1}{2} \delta_i)}{\partial \delta_i} \tag{A2}$$

Eq. (A2) can then be simplified to

$$\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f \left(\overline{y}_i + \frac{1}{2} \delta_i, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right)}{\partial (\overline{y}_i + \frac{1}{2} \delta_i)} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f}{\partial y_i^U}$$
(A3)

Similarly, if p_f occurs at y_i^L , the equation becomes

$$\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial \delta_i} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f \left(\overline{y}_i - \frac{1}{2} \delta_i, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right)}{\partial (\overline{y}_i - \frac{1}{2} \delta_i)} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f}{\partial y_i^L}$$
(A4)

If p_f occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i , which is not a function of δ_i , it can then be shown that

$$\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{\partial p_f(\hat{y}_i, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i})}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{\partial p_f(\hat{y}_i, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i})}{\partial \hat{y}_i} \frac{\partial \hat{y}_i}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{\partial p_f(\hat{y}_i, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i})}{\partial \hat{y}_i} \cdot 0 = 0$$
 (A5)

3. Derivative of p_f with respect to the average of an interval, \overline{y}_i

If p_f occurs at y_i^U , one can obtain

$$\frac{\partial p_{f}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial p_{f}\left(y_{i}^{U}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial p_{f}\left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial p_{f}\left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)}{\partial \left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}\right)} \frac{\partial \left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} \tag{A6}$$

and therefore

$$\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{\partial p_f \left(\overline{y}_i + \frac{1}{2} \delta_i, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right)}{\partial \left(\overline{y}_i + \frac{1}{2} \delta_i \right)} = \frac{\partial p_f}{\partial y_i^U}$$
(A7)

Similarly, if p_f occurs at y_i^L ,

$$\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{\partial p_f \left(\overline{y}_i - \frac{1}{2} \delta_i, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right)}{\partial \left(\overline{y}_i - \frac{1}{2} \delta_i \right)} = \frac{\partial p_f}{\partial y_i^L}$$
(A8)

If p_f occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i ,

$$\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{\partial p_f(\widehat{y}_i, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i})}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{\partial p_f(\widehat{y}_i, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i})}{\partial \widehat{y}_i} \frac{\partial \widehat{y}_i}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{\partial p_f(\widehat{y}_i, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i})}{\partial \widehat{y}_i} \cdot 0 = 0$$
 (A9)

4. Derivative of p_f bound with respect to a distribution parameter q_i

$$\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial q_i} = \frac{\partial \Phi(-\beta)}{\partial q_i} = -\phi(-\beta) \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial u_i^*} \frac{\partial u_i^*}{\partial q_i}$$
(A10)

If the CDF of X_i is $F_{X_i}(x_i)$, then

$$u_i^* = \Phi^{-1} \left[F_{X_i} \left(x_i^* \right) \right] = w(q_1, q_2, \dots, q_i, \dots, q_n)$$
 (A11)

where n is the number of distribution parameters.

Then from $\beta = \|\mathbf{u}_i^*\|$, one obtains

$$\frac{\partial p_f}{\partial q_i} = -\phi(-\beta) \frac{u_i^*}{\beta} \frac{\partial w}{\partial q_i}$$
 (A12)

APPENDIX B.

EQUATIONS FOR TYPE I SENSITIVITY $\partial \delta_p / \partial \delta_i$

Case 1: p_f^L occurs at y_i^L and p_f^U occurs at y_i^U (see Paper II Section 3).

Case 2: p_f^L occurs at y_i^U and p_f^U occurs at y_i^L .

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U} \left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, y_{\sim i} \right) - p_{f}^{L} \left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, y_{\sim i} \right) \right]}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$
(B1)

Using Eqs. (A3) and (A4) gives

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \delta_i} = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^L} + \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^U} \right)$$
 (B2)

Then from Eq. (A1),

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial p_{f}^{U}}{\partial y_{i}^{L}} + \frac{\partial p_{f}^{L}}{\partial y_{i}^{U}} \right) = -\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{-\phi(-\beta^{U})}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U}) \right\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{L}} + \frac{-\phi(-\beta^{L})}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L}) \right\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{U}} \right]$$
(B3)

Case 3: p_f^L occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i and p_f^U occurs at y_i^U .

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U} \left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) - p_{f}^{L} \left(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) \right]}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$
(B4)

Using Eqs. (A3) and (A5), one obtains

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^U}.$$
 (B5)

Applying the results from Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_{f}^{U}}{\partial y_{i}^{U}} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{-\phi(-\beta^{U})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{U}} \right]$$
(B6)

Case 4: p_f^L occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i and p_f^U occurs at y_i^L .

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U} \left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) - p_{f}^{L} \left(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) \right]}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$
(B7)

Using Eqs. (A4) and (A5) yields

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \delta_i} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^L} \tag{B8}$$

Applying Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = -\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{-\phi(-\beta^{U})}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U}) \right\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{L}} \right]$$
(B9)

Case 5: p_f^L occurs at y_i^U and p_f^U occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i .

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U}(\hat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) - p_{f}^{L} \left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) \right]}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$
(B10)

Using Eqs. (A3) and (A5), one obtains

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \delta_i} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^U} \tag{B11}$$

Using Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = -\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{-\phi(-\beta^{L})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{U}} \right]$$
(B12)

Case 6: p_f^L occurs at y_i^L and p_f^U occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i .

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U}(\hat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) - p_{f}^{L} \left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) \right]}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$
(B13)

Using Eqs. (A4) and (A5) gives

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{S}_{p}}{\partial \mathcal{S}_{i}} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_{f}^{L}}{\partial y_{i}^{L}} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{-\phi(-\beta^{L})}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L}) \right\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{L}} \right]$$
(B14)

Using Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{-\phi(-\beta^{L})}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L}) \right\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{L}} \right]$$
(B15)

Case 7: p_f^L and p_f^U occur at two interior points \hat{y}_{i1} and \hat{y}_{i2} , respectively.

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U}(\hat{y}_{i1}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) - p_{f}^{L}(\hat{y}_{i2}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) \right]}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$
(B16)

Using Eq. (A5) yields

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \delta_i} = 0. {(B17)}$$

APPENDIX C.

EQUATIONS FOR TYPE II SENSITIVITY $\partial \overline{p}_f \, / \, \partial \delta_i$

Case 1: p_f^L occurs at y_i^L and p_f^U occurs at y_i^U .

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[p_{f}^{U} \left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) + p_{f}^{L} \left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) \right] \right\}}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$
(C1)

Using Eqs. (A3) and (A4) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^U} - \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^L} \right) \tag{C2}$$

From Eq. (A1)

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{-\phi(-\beta^{U})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{U}} - \frac{-\phi(-\beta^{L})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{L}} \right)$$
(C3)

Case 2: p_f^L occurs at y_i^U and p_f^U occurs at y_i^L .

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[p_{f}^{U} \left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) + p_{f}^{L} \left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) \right] \right\}}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$
(C4)

Using Eqs. (A3) and (A4) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{1}{4} \left(-\frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^L} + \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^U} \right) \tag{C5}$$

From Eq. (A1)

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{1}{4} \left[-\frac{-\phi(-\beta^{U})}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U}) \right\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{L}} + \frac{-\phi(-\beta^{L})}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L}) \right\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{U}} \right]$$
(C6)

Case 3: p_f^L occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i and p_f^U occurs at y_i^U .

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[p_{f}^{U} \left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) + p_{f}^{L} (\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) \right] \right\}}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$
(C7)

Using Eqs. (A3) and (A5) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{1}{4} \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^U} \tag{C8}$$

From Eq. (A1)

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{-\phi(-\beta^U)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big|_{y_i^U} \right]$$
(C9)

Case 4: p_f^L occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i and p_f^U occurs at y_i^L .

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[p_{f}^{U} \left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) + p_{f}^{L} \left(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) \right] \right\}}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$
(C10)

Using Eqs.(A4) and (A5) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \delta_i} = -\frac{1}{4} \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^L} \tag{C11}$$

Applying Eq. (A1), one obtains

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \delta_i} = -\frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{-\phi(-\beta^U)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big|_{y_i^L} \right]$$
(C12)

Case 5: p_f^L occurs at y_i^U and p_f^U occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[p_{f}^{U}(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) + p_{f}^{L}(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) \right] \right\}}{\partial (\delta_{i})}$$
(C13)

Using Eqs. (A3) and (A5) gives

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{1}{4} \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^U} \tag{C14}$$

Applying Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \delta_i} = \frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{-\phi(-\beta^L)}{\left\| \nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L}) \right\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big|_{y_i^U} \right]$$
(C15)

Case 6: p_f^L occurs at y_i^L and p_f^U occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i .

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[p_{f}^{U}(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) + p_{f}^{L}(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) \right] \right\}}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$
(C16)

Using Eqs. (A4) and (A5) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \delta_i} = -\frac{1}{4} \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^L} \tag{C17}$$

From Eq. (A1)

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \delta_i} = -\frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{-\phi(-\beta^L)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big|_{y_i^L} \right]$$
(C18)

Case 7: p_f^L and p_f^U occur at two interior points \hat{y}_{i1} and \hat{y}_{i2} , respectively.

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \delta_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[p_{f}^{U}(\hat{y}_{i1}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) + p_{f}^{L}(\hat{y}_{i2}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) \right] \right\}}{\partial \delta_{i}}$$
(C19)

Using Eq. (A5) yields

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \delta_i} = 0 \tag{C20}$$

APPENDIX D.

EQUATIONS FOR TYPE III SENSITIVITY $\partial \mathcal{S}_{_{p}} \, / \, \partial \overline{y}_{_{i}}$

Case 1: p_f^L occurs at y_i^L and p_f^U occurs at y_i^U .

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left(p_{f}^{U} - p_{f}^{L}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right) - p_{f}^{L}\left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} \tag{D1}$$

Using Eqs. (A7) and (A8) yields

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial \overline{y}_i} - \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^U} - \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^L}$$
(D2)

From Eq. (A1)

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{-\phi(-\beta^{U})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{U}} - \frac{-\phi(-\beta^{L})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{L}}$$
(D3)

Case 2: p_f^L occurs at y_i^U and p_f^U occurs at y_i^L .

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left(p_{f}^{U} - p_{f}^{L}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right) - p_{f}^{L}\left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} \tag{D4}$$

Using Eqs. (A7) and (A8) gives

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial p_{f}^{U}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} - \frac{\partial p_{f}^{L}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial p_{f}^{U}}{\partial y_{i}^{L}} - \frac{\partial p_{f}^{L}}{\partial y_{i}^{U}}$$
(D5)

Applying the results of Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{-\phi(-\beta^{U})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{L}} - \frac{-\phi(-\beta^{L})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{U}}$$
(D6)

Case 3: p_f^L occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i and p_f^U occurs at y_i^U .

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial (p_{f}^{U} - p_{f}^{L})}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U} \left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2} \delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) - p_{f}^{L} \left(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i} \right) \right]}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}}$$
(D7)

Using Eqs. (A7) and (A9), one obtains

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^U}$$
(D8)

By Eq. (A1)

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{-\phi(-\beta^{U})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}}\Big|_{y_{i}^{U}}$$
(D9)

Case 4: p_f^L occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i and p_f^U occurs at y_i^L .

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left(p_{f}^{U} - p_{f}^{L}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right) - p_{f}^{L}\left(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}}$$
(D10)

Using Eqs. (A8) and (A9) gives

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^L}$$
 (D11)

By Eq. (A1)

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{-\phi(-\beta^{U})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}}\Big|_{y_{i}^{L}}$$
(D12)

Case 5: p_f^L occurs at y_i^U and p_f^U occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i .

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left(p_{f}^{U} - p_{f}^{L}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right) - p_{f}^{L}\left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}}$$
(D13)

Using Eqs. (A7) and (A9) gives

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = -\frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = -\frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^U} \tag{D14}$$

Using Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = -\frac{-\phi(-\beta^L)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}\Big|_{y_i^U}$$
(D15)

Case 6: p_f^L occurs at y_i^L and p_f^U occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i .

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left(p_{f}^{U} - p_{f}^{L}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right) - p_{f}^{L}\left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}}$$
(D16)

Using Eqs. (A8) and (A9) gives

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = -\frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = -\frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^L} \tag{D17}$$

Using Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = -\frac{-\phi(-\beta^{L})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}}\Big|_{y_{i}^{L}}$$
(D18)

Case 7: p_f^L and p_f^U occur at two interior points \hat{y}_{i1} and \hat{y}_{i2} , respectively.

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{S}_{p}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left[p_{f}^{U}(\widehat{y}_{i1}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) - p_{f}^{L}(\widehat{y}_{i2}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) \right]}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}}$$
(D19)

Using Eq. (A9) yields

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = 0 \tag{D20}$$

APPENDIX E.

EQUATIONS FOR TYPE IV SENSITIVITY $\partial \overline{p}_f \, / \, \partial \overline{y}_i$

Case 1: p_f^L occurs at y_i^L and p_f^U occurs at y_i^U .

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left(\frac{p_{f}^{U} + p_{f}^{L}}{2}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right) + p_{f}^{L}\left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]\right\}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} \tag{E1}$$

Using Eqs. (A7) and (A9) gives

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial \overline{y}_i} + \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial \overline{y}_i} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^U} + \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^L} \right)$$
(E2)

Using Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{-\phi(-\beta^U)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big|_{y_i^U} + \frac{-\phi(-\beta^L)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big|_{y_i^L} \right].$$
(E3)

Case 2: p_f^L occurs at y_i^U and p_f^U occurs at y_i^L .

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left(\frac{p_{f}^{U} + p_{f}^{L}}{2}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right) + p_{f}^{L}\left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]\right\}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}}$$
(E4)

Using Eqs. (A7) and (A8) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial \overline{y}_i} + \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial \overline{y}_i} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^L} + \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^U} \right)$$
(E5)

Using Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{-\phi(-\beta^{U})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{L}} + \frac{-\phi(-\beta^{L})}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_{i}} \Big|_{y_{i}^{U}} \right]$$
(E6)

Case 3: p_f^L occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i and p_f^U occurs at y_i^U .

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left(\frac{p_{f}^{U} + p_{f}^{L}}{2}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right) + p_{f}^{L}\left(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]\right\}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} \tag{E7}$$

Using Eqs. (A7) and (A9) gives

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^U}$$
 (E8)

Using Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{-\phi(-\beta^U)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}\Big|_{y_i^U}$$
(E9)

Case 4: p_f^L occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i and p_f^U occurs at y_i^L .

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left(\frac{p_{f}^{U} + p_{f}^{L}}{2}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right) + p_{f}^{L}\left(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]\right\}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} \tag{E10}$$

Using Eqs. (A8) and (A9) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial y_i^L}$$
 (E11)

Using Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{-\phi(-\beta^U)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,U})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i}\Big|_{y_i^L}$$
(E12)

Case 5: p_f^L occurs at y_i^U and p_f^U occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i .

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left(\frac{p_{f}^{U} + p_{f}^{L}}{2}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right) + p_{f}^{L}\left(\overline{y}_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]\right\}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} \tag{E13}$$

Using Eqs. (A7) and (A9) gives

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^U}$$
 (E14)

Using Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{-\phi(-\beta^L)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big|_{y_i^U}$$
(E15)

Case 6: p_f^L occurs at y_i^L and p_f^U occurs at an interior point \hat{y}_i .

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left(\frac{p_{f}^{U} + p_{f}^{L}}{2}\right)}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[p_{f}^{U}\left(\widehat{y}_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right) + p_{f}^{L}\left(\overline{y}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta_{i}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}\right)\right]\right\}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} \tag{E16}$$

Using Eq. (A8) and (A9), one obtains

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial y_i^L}$$
 (E17)

Applying Eq. (A1) yields

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{-\phi(-\beta^L)}{\|\nabla g(\mathbf{u}^{*,L})\|} \frac{\partial g}{\partial Y_i} \Big|_{y_i^L}$$
(E18)

Case 7: p_f^L and p_f^U occur at two interior points \hat{y}_{i1} and \hat{y}_{i2} , respectively.

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[p_{f}^{U}(\widehat{y}_{i1}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) + p_{f}^{L}(\widehat{y}_{i2}, \mathbf{Y}_{\sim i}) \right] \right\}}{\partial \overline{y}_{i}}$$
(E19)

Using Eq. (A9) gives

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial \overline{y}_i} = 0 \tag{E20}$$

APPENDIX F.

EQUATIONS FOR TYPE V SENSITIVITY $\partial \mathcal{\delta}_{_{p}} \, / \, \partial q_{_{i}}$

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial q_i} = \frac{\partial (p_f^U - p_f^L)}{\partial q_i} = \frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial q_i} - \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial q_i}$$
 (F1)

Using Eq. (A12) gives

$$\frac{\partial \delta_p}{\partial q_i} = -\phi(-\beta^U) \frac{u_i^{*,U}}{\beta^U} \frac{\partial w}{\partial q_i} + \phi(-\beta^L) \frac{u_i^{*,L}}{\beta^L} \frac{\partial w}{\partial q_i}$$
 (F2)

where $u_i^{*,U}$ is the MPP at p_f^U and $u_i^{*,L}$ is the MPP at p_f^L .

Specifically, for a normal distributed random variable $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i)$,

$$w(\mu_i, \sigma_i) = \Phi^{-1} \left[F_{X_i} \left(x_i^* \right) \right] = \Phi^{-1} \left[\Phi \left(\frac{x_i^* - \mu_i}{\sigma_i} \right) \right] = \frac{x_i^* - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}, \tag{F3}$$

so it can be obtained that

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial \mu_i} = -\frac{1}{\sigma_i}, \frac{\partial w}{\partial \sigma_i} = -\frac{x_i^* - \mu_i}{\sigma_i^2} = -\frac{u_i^*}{\sigma_i}.$$
 (F4)

Therefore, from Eq. (F2), we can obtain the following sensitivities.

1)
$$q_i = \mu_i$$

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \mu_{i}} = -\phi(-\beta^{U}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,U}}{\beta^{U}} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \mu_{i}} + \phi(-\beta^{L}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,L}}{\beta^{L}} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \mu_{i}} = \phi(-\beta^{U}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,U}}{\beta^{U} \sigma_{i}} - \phi(-\beta^{L}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,L}}{\beta^{L} \sigma_{i}}$$
(F5)

2)
$$q_i = \sigma_i$$

$$\frac{\partial \delta_{p}}{\partial \sigma_{i}} = -\phi(-\beta^{U}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,U}}{\beta^{U}} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \sigma_{i}} + \phi(-\beta^{L}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,L}}{\beta^{L}} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \sigma_{i}}$$

$$= \phi(-\beta^{U}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,U}}{\beta^{U}} \frac{u_{i}^{*,U}}{\sigma_{i}} - \phi(-\beta^{L}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,L}}{\beta^{L}} \frac{u_{i}^{*,L}}{\sigma_{i}} = \phi(-\beta^{L}) \frac{(u_{i}^{*,U})^{2}}{\beta^{L}\sigma_{i}} - \phi(-\beta^{L}) \frac{(u_{i}^{*,L})^{2}}{\beta^{L}\sigma_{i}}$$
(F6)

APPENDIX G.

EQUATIONS FOR TYPE VI SENSITIVITY $\partial \overline{p}_f \, / \, \partial q_i$

$$\frac{\partial(\overline{p}_f)}{\partial q_i} = \frac{\partial\left(\frac{p_f^U + p_f^L}{2}\right)}{\partial q_i} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial p_f^U}{\partial q_i} + \frac{\partial p_f^L}{\partial q_i}\right)$$
(G1)

Using Eq. (A12), it can be easily shown that

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_f}{\partial q_i} = -\frac{1}{2} \left[\phi(-\beta^U) \frac{u_i^{*,L}}{\beta^U} \frac{\partial w}{\partial q_i} + \phi(-\beta^L) \frac{u_i^{*,L}}{\beta^L} \frac{\partial w}{\partial q_i} \right]$$
 (G2)

Applying the results from Eq. (F4) for a normal distributed random variable $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i)$, the following sensitivities are obtained.

1)
$$q_{i} = \mu_{i}$$

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \mu_{i}} = -\frac{1}{2} \left[\phi(-\beta^{U}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,U}}{\beta^{U}} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \mu_{i}} + \phi(-\beta^{L}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,L}}{\beta^{L}} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \mu_{i}} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\phi(-\beta^{U}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,U}}{\beta^{U} \sigma_{i}} + \phi(-\beta^{U}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,L}}{\beta^{U} \sigma_{i}} \right] \tag{G3}$$

2)
$$q_i = \sigma_i$$

$$\frac{\partial \overline{p}_{f}}{\partial \sigma_{i}} = -\frac{1}{2} \left[\phi(-\beta^{U}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,U}}{\beta^{U}} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \sigma_{i}} + \phi(-\beta^{L}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,L}}{\beta^{L}} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \sigma_{i}} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\phi(-\beta^{U}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,U}}{\beta^{U}} \frac{u_{i}^{*,U}}{\sigma_{i}} + \phi(-\beta^{L}) \frac{u_{i}^{*,L}}{\beta^{L}} \frac{u_{i}^{*,L}}{\sigma_{i}} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\phi(-\beta^{U}) \frac{(u_{i}^{*,U})^{2}}{\beta^{U} \sigma_{i}} + \phi(-\beta^{L}) \frac{(u_{i}^{*,L})^{2}}{\beta^{L} \sigma_{i}} \right]$$
(G4)

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VITA

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