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# Automatic Determination of Set of Multivariate Basis Polynomials Based on Recursion and Application of LSPCR to High-dimensional Uncertainty Quantification of Multi-conductor Transmission Lines

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ABSTRACT Uncertainty quantification (UQ) in polynomial chaos expansion (PCE) suffers from the curse of dimensionality, which is fundamentally reflected in that the number of the PCE coefficients to be found grows rapidly as the number of random inputs increases, and thus the number of samples required increases dramatically. Regardless of the approach taken to alleviate this disaster, we are usually faced with the technical challenge of automatically and programmatically determining the basis functions during the PCE implementation, which are composed of a large number of multivariate polynomials. To address this problem, this paper proposes an algorithm based on the recursive idea for automatically determining the basis functions, and combines this algorithm with the latest weight-based regression called least squares polynomial chaos regression (LSPCR), proposes the implementation of the LSPCR method in the medium- and high-dimensional cases, and evaluates its performance in the electromagnetic coupling problem of the transmission lines (TLs) in this case. Subsequently, the performance of six algorithms for LSPCR are compared in the medium- and high-dimensional, low-order cases, each algorithm consisting of a sampling strategy selected from asymptotic sampling (AS), standard sampling (SS), and coherence-optimal sampling (COS), paired with a norm problem chosen from either least squares optimization (LSO) or  $\ell_1$ -minimization ( $\ell_1$ -M) problems. Numerical experiments demonstrate the excellence of the proposed algorithm. Furthermore, the results also show that only the algorithms that employ the SS (SSs) and the algorithms based on the COS (COSs) require no more than 1.4% of the total Monte Carlo (MC) computation time when producing similarly accurate results to the MC, regardless of the chosen norm problem.

**INDEX TERMS** uncertainty quantification (UQ), polynomial chaos expansion (PCE), least squares polynomial chaos regression, high dimensionality, transmission lines (TLs).

#### I. INTRODUCTION

Polynomial chaos expansion (PCE), a prominent method for uncertainty quantification (UQ) in various engineering fields [1]-[18], gradually shows a significant decrease in its efficiency as the count of random parameters increases, i.e., the curse of dimensionality.

In recent years, many efficient techniques have been proposed to alleviate dimensionality disasters. A tensor recovery approach to improve efficiency was proposed in [19], which exploits the sparsity and low-rank properties of some higher-order tensors to compress the number of samples required. [20] discussed a combination of a hierarchical approach and the Stochastic Galerkin (SG) method, where the hierarchical approach is introduced to merge the underlying geometric and material uncertainty parameters into the uncertainty quantities of the associated per-unit-length parameters to achieve dimensionality reduction. In [21], a combination of a decoupled perturbative technique with the SG method was presented, where the decoupling technique allows a better scaling of the number of the PCE coefficients and thus a reduction of the dimensional catastrophe. A new polymorphic formulation based on the generalized PC method was developed in [22], where polymorphic variables can lead to a compression of the dimensionality of random inputs by capturing the combined effect of epistemic and aleatory uncertainties in the system. [23] proposed an algorithm combining partial least squares techniques and the generalized PC method, where a nonlinear partial least squares technique is used to convert a group of random variables (RVs) into a smaller number of uncorrelated ones, followed by dimensionality reduction.

All of these approaches focus on two main ways. One approach is to compress the number of samples required



through certain techniques. Another approach is to reduce the dimensionality by compressing the number of random input parameters through certain techniques, which may not work in all high-dimensional UQ problems, or even if they do work in some problems, the dimensionality may still remain high after the reduction. Regardless of the approach taken to alleviate this disaster, we are usually faced with the technical automatically and challenge of programmatically determining the basis functions during the PCE implementation, which are composed of a large number of multivariate polynomials. To address this problem, this paper proposes an algorithm based on the recursive idea for automatically determining the basis functions, and combines this algorithm with the latest weight-based regression called least squares polynomial chaos regression (LSPCR) [24]-[26], proposes the implementation of the LSPCR method in the medium- and high-dimensional cases, and evaluates its performance in the electromagnetic coupling problem of the transmission lines (TLs) in this case. The LSPCR method increases efficiency by compressing the number of samples. It differs from the generally known regression approach. In the latter, the required samples are taken across the entire random space corresponding to the random parameters, and the original stochastic problem is addressed by solving the regression problem without weights over the entire random space. The LSPCR method transforms the original stochastic problem from the entire random space into a suitable subset and solves the weighted regression problem on the subset to obtain the PCE coefficients, where different sampling strategies corresponding to different weights are established, thus obtaining high quality samples to improve efficiency. Six algorithms for LSPCR have been designed and implemented, each consisting of a sampling strategy selected from asymptotic sampling (AS), standard sampling (SS), and coherence-optimal sampling (COS), paired with a norm problem chosen from either least squares optimization (LSO) or  $\ell_1$ -minimization ( $\ell_1$ -M) problems, where the AS and the COS are newly developed sampling strategies based on weights. The six algorithms are then compared in the medium- and high-dimensional, low-order cases.

The results of these comparisons will be the most up-todate. This is because the difference in performance of these six algorithms is related to the dimensionality of the random input parameters and the highest order of the basis function. Moreover, the comparison of the six algorithms in the loworder, medium-dimensional case, the comparison of the LSObased algorithms in the low-order, high-dimensional case, and the comparison of the  $\ell_1$ -M-based algorithms in the loworder, high-dimensional case are not considered in [24][25], and [26] only considers the six algorithms in the low-order, low-dimensional case for comparison.

The organization of this paper is as follows: Section II presents the LSPCR implementation scheme for medium- and high-dimensional cases. Section III introduces the application of the LSPCR method to medium- and high-dimensional TL problems. Finally, a conclusion is drawn in Section IV.

#### II. LSPCR IMPLEMENTATION SCHEME FOR MEDIUM AND HIGH DIMENSIONAL CASES

#### A. Review of the LSPCR method

Consider the stochastic differential equation

$$\mathcal{L}(\zeta, x, t, w) = \mathcal{H}(\zeta, x, t), \qquad x \in D, \tag{1}$$

)

where  $\mathcal{L}$  is a differential operator,  $x \in D \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ , m = 1, 2, 3,  $\zeta = (\zeta_1, \dots, \zeta_d)$  is a random vector, and its probability density function (pdf) is  $\rho$  with the support  $\Gamma$ . If the components of  $\zeta$ are independent of each other and all in Askey-scheme [27], and equation (1) has a unique solution  $w = w(\zeta, x, t)$  whose variance is bounded, then  $w(\zeta, x, t)$  can be approximated as

$$w(\zeta, x, t) \approx \sum_{k=1}^{p} c_k(x, t) \Psi_k(\zeta), \qquad (2)$$

with

$$\mathbb{E}[\Psi_m(\zeta) \ \Psi_n(\zeta)] = h_m^2 \delta_{mn},$$

where *P* is the number of the basis functions  $\{\Psi_k(\zeta)\}_{k=1}^p$ , E denotes the expectation operator,  $h_m^2 = \int_{\Gamma} \Psi_m^2 \rho(\zeta) d\zeta$ ,  $\delta_{mn}$  is the Kronecker function. If the highest order of basis functions is *p*, then  $P = {p+d \choose d}$ .

To obtain the coefficients  $c := (c_1, \dots, c_P)^T$  in (2), the LSPCR method is used. Once the PCE coefficients are obtained, the first two moments of  $w(\zeta, x, t)$  can be expressed according to the coefficients c.

# 1) PRINCIPLE OF THE LSPCR METHOD

We take *N* samples  $\{\eta^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^{N}$  by some kind of sampling strategies, and the corresponding solutions of (1) are denoted as  $\{w(\eta^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^{N}$ , where *N* is the number of independent samples. Two different weight-based norm problems, including the LSO problem [24], i.e.,

$$\underset{\mathbf{argmin}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \| \mathbf{V} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{V} \boldsymbol{\Phi} \hat{\boldsymbol{c}} \|_2, \qquad (3)$$

and the  $\ell_1$ -M problem [25], i.e.,

$$\operatorname{rgmin} \| \hat{\boldsymbol{c}} \|_{1} \quad \text{subject to} \| \boldsymbol{V} \boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{V} \boldsymbol{\Phi} \hat{\boldsymbol{c}} \|_{2} \le \delta \qquad (4)$$

are used to obtain the coefficient  $\hat{\boldsymbol{c}}$  in (2), where  $\boldsymbol{V}(i,i) = \varphi(\eta^{(i)}), \boldsymbol{w} \coloneqq \left(w(\eta^{(1)}), \cdots, w(\eta^{(N)})\right)^{\mathrm{T}}, \boldsymbol{\Phi}(i,j) \coloneqq \Psi_j(\eta^{(i)}),$ 

and  $\delta$  is a tolerance for solution imprecision,  $\varphi$  is named the weight function.

#### 2) THREE SAMPLING STRATEGIES

Here we introduce the SS, the AS, and the COS. The AS and the COS have recently been developed based on weights and are unique in that they do not sample based on the pdf  $\rho(\eta)$  of  $\zeta$  in (1), but on a newly constructed distribution. Furthermore, they do not sample over the entire random space  $\Gamma$  as usual, but over a subset of it.

# (a) Standard sampling

The SS is to draw samples according to the pdf  $\rho(\eta)$  of  $\zeta$  in (1), and its weight function is  $\varphi(\eta) = 1$ .



# (b) Asymptotic sampling

If  $\zeta$  in (1) is a *d*-dimensional standard normal random vector, then the AS is to take samples from the uniform distribution supported on a *d*-dimensional sphere whose radius is  $r = \sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{2p + 1}$ . Its samples can be generated by the following algorithm. First, draw samples of  $Z := (z_1, \dots, z_d)$ , where  $z_1, \dots, z_d$  independently follow normal distributions with zero mean and the same variance. Second, take samples of *U*, which is uniformly distributed on [0,1]. Third, take samples of  $X = \frac{z}{\|Z\|_2} \cdot r \cdot U^{\frac{1}{d}}$ , which is a uniform distribution of radius *r* on a *d*-dimensional sphere. In this case, the weight function is  $\varphi(\eta) = \exp(-\|\eta\|_2^2/4)$ .

### (c) Coherence-optimal sampling

The COS uses  $f_X(\eta) := a^2 \rho(\eta) B^2(\eta)$  for sampling, and the weight function is  $\varphi(\eta) = \frac{1}{B(\eta)}$ , where  $B(\eta) := \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^p |\Psi_k(\eta)|^2}$ . The procedure for sampling from  $f_X$  can be seen in algorithm 1 in [26], which requires a candidate distribution. If  $\zeta$  in (1) is a standard normally distributed random vector, then the candidate is selected as the standard normal distribution when  $p \leq d$ , and the uniform distribution on a d-dimensional sphere is selected when p > d.

The three sampling strategies combined with the two norm problems result in six algorithms. For simplicity of expression, we refer to the algorithm using the SS combined with the LSO technique as SS&LSO, and the others are defined similarly. In addition, COS&LSO and COS&  $\ell_1$ -M are collectively referred to as COSs, while ASs and SSs are similarly named.

# B. Automatic determination of the set of basis functions based on recursive ideas

Consider the set consisting of all p-order basis polynomials with d elements, denoted by A. Each element of the set can be expressed as

$$F_p(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_d) = f_1(x_1) \cdot f_2(x_2) \cdot \cdots \cdot f_d(x_d)$$

with

$$0(f_1(x_1)) + 0(f_2(x_2)) + \dots + 0(f_d(x_d)) \le p,$$

where  $O(f_i(x_i))$  ( $i = 1, \dots, d$ ) denotes the order of the monic polynomial  $f_i(x_i)$  with respect to the *i*th element  $x_i$ .

We already know that the cardinal number of A is

$$\bar{A} = \frac{(d+p)!}{d!\,p!}.$$

It can be seen that as d and p increase,  $\overline{A}$  also increases rapidly. For example, d = 26, p = 4 results in  $\overline{A} = 27405$ . Therefore, to implement the LSPCR method in the highdimensional, high-order case, it is necessary to design an algorithm that can be universally applied to automatically generate all the elements of A when d and p take arbitrary values.

Denote  $p_i = O(f_i(x_i))$ , then we have

$$p_1+p_2+\dots+p_d\leq p$$

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**FIGURE 1.** Recursive relationship between GetMultiIndex results for different (d, p).

where  $p_i$  is a non-negative integer. The main point of the above algorithm is to find all sequences  $(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_d)$  that satisfy the above inequality.

One possible way to implement the algorithm is to automatically generate all possible  $p^d$  sequences satisfying  $0 \le p_i \le p$  ( $i = 1, \dots, d$ ) in the first step, and then to remove those sequences for which  $p_1 + p_2 + \dots + p_d > p$  according to the inequality constraints in the second step. However, the first step of this approach leads directly to the curse of dimensionality, which is practically infeasible in the high-dimensional, high-order case.

For this reason, we use a recursive approach to implement this algorithm, denoted by GetMultiIndex(d, p). Fig. 1 demonstrates the recursive relationship between the results of GetMultiIndex for different (d, p).

From Fig. 1, we can easily derive

GetMultiIndex(3,4) =  $\bigcup_{i=0}^{p}$  (GetMultiIndex(d - 1, p - i), i).

By induction, a general relationship can be obtained as follows

GetMultiIndex
$$(d,p) = \bigcup_{i=0}^{p} (\text{GetMultiIndex}(d-1,p-i),i).$$

Denoting all sequences  $(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_d)$  corresponding to basis functions as multiIndex, and summarizing the above, we obtain Algorithm 1 as follows.

Algorithm 1 Summary of the generation of multiIndex.
Function multiIndex = GetMultiIndex $(d, p)$ .
if $p == 0$
multiIndex = $(0, 0,, 0)$ ; return;
end
if $d == 1$
multiIndex = $(0, 1,, p)$ ; return;
end
for $i = 0: p$
multiIndex = multiIndex $\cup$ (GetMultiIndex( $d$ -1, $p$ - $i$ ), $i$ );
end
end function





FIGURE 2. N-conductor TL model under consideration.

#### III. APPLICATION OF THE LSPCR METHOD TO MEDIUM AND HIGH DIMENSIONAL TL PROBLEMS A. PROBLEM STATEMENT

In this paper, a stochastic analysis of a lossless n-conductor (n=10) TL system on an ideal ground, as shown in Fig. 2, is performed using the LSPCR method. The nominal values of its parameters are as follows: the length  $L = 10^{-1}$  m, the radius  $r = 3 \times 10^{-4}$  m, the height  $h = 1.27 \times 10^{-3}$  m, the conductor distance  $D = 1.27 \times 10^{-3}$  m, all left terminal load  $R_1 = 50 \Omega$ , all right terminal load  $R_2 = 100 \Omega$ . This TL system is illuminated by a plane wave with the incidence angle  $\theta$ , the azimuth angle  $\varphi$  and the polarization angle  $\theta_E$ , the waveform  $E(t) = E_0 e^{-((t-t_0)/T)^2}$ , where  $E_0 = 1$  kV/m,  $t_0 = 1$  ns, T = 50 ps. We consider two cases, one for medium random input dimensions and another for high dimensions. Specifically,

Case 1: Assume that the field amplitude  $E_0$ , the incidence angle  $\theta$ , the azimuth angle  $\varphi$ , the polarization angle  $\theta_E$ , the height *h*, and the TL radius *r* (containing 10 parameters) make a total of d = 15 random input parameters, which independently follow the normal distribution with the standard deviation  $0.2 * \mu$ , where the means of  $\theta$  and  $\varphi$ , and  $\theta_E$  are  $\mu_{\theta} = 30^\circ$ , and  $\mu_{\varphi} = -45^\circ$ ,  $\mu_{\theta_E} = 45^\circ$ , respectively.

Case 2: Assume that the 15 random parameters in case 1 plus the loads at both ends of the TL (which contain 20 parameters) make a total of d = 35 random parameters that are mutually independent normal RVs with the standard deviation  $0.2 * \mu$ , where the mean of the incidence angle  $\theta$  and the azimuth angle  $\varphi$ , and the polarization angle  $\theta_E$  are  $\mu_{\theta} = 60^{\circ}$ , and  $\mu_{\varphi} = -30^{\circ}$ ,  $\mu_{\theta_E} = 60^{\circ}$ , respectively.

In the time domain, the voltage  $V_i^T$  and current  $I_i$  on the *i*th conductor follow the following stochastic equation [28], which are

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} [V_i^s(z,t,\zeta)] + [L_{ij}(\zeta)] \frac{\partial}{\partial t} [I_i(z,t,\zeta)] 
= [E_{z_i}^i(z,t,\zeta,h) - E_{z_0}^i(z,t,\zeta,0)],$$
(5a)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z}[I_i(z,t,\zeta)] + [C_{ij}(\zeta)]\frac{\partial}{\partial t}[V_i^s(z,t,\zeta)] = 0, \quad (5b)$$

$$V_i^T(z,t,\zeta) = V_i^s(z,t,\zeta) + V_i^i(z,t,\zeta),$$
(5c)

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**FIGURE 3.** Plots for, (a) moments of the six LSPCR and MC solutions, and (b) zoom-in results for d = 15.

where

$$V_i^i(z,t,\zeta) = \int_0^h E_{\eta_i}^i(\eta_i,z,t,\zeta) d\eta_i,$$

 $V_i^s$  is the scattered (induced) voltage on the *i*th conductor,  $E_{z_i}^i$  is the z-component of the total electric field (line axis) on the *i*th conductor,  $[L_{ij}]$  is the inductance-per-unit-length matrix,  $[C_{ij}]$  is the capacitance-per-unit-length matrix of the multi-conductor line,  $V_i^i$  is the incident voltage on the *i*th conductor,  $\xi$  is a random vector.

#### **B. NUMERICAL REALIZATION**

In the six algorithms for solving stochastic multi-conductor TLs, all numerical experiments were carried out on a workstation with two Intel Xeon Gold 6226R CPUs and 192GB of memory. When implementing the six algorithms, the highest order of the basis functions p = 2 is chosen. This implies the number of basis functions P = 136 for d = 15, P = 666 for d = 35. A common  $\delta = 10^{-4}$  is selected for the  $\ell_1$ -Ms. The Hermite polynomials are chosen as the basis functions because the random parameters all follow a normal distribution. In the numerical experiment, independent replicate experiments were carried out for each sample *N* and the experimental results were averaged to eliminate the evaluation errors associated with the randomness of the PCE coefficients resulting from the stochastic nature of the samples generated each time.

It is worth noting that once the stochastic problem is given, all the factors that can influence the numerical solution of the LSPCR are: the highest order p which determines the number of the basis functions, the number of samples N, the randomness of the samples that has been essentially eliminated by independent replicate experiments, the choice of sampling strategy and the norm problem, respectively. In fact, the aim of this paper is to explore the differences in accuracy and efficiency of the six different algorithms formed by the combination of three sampling strategies with two types of norm problems in the medium-dimensional, low-order cases.

1) IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SIX LSPCR ALGORITHMS

The six algorithms are designed to calculate the coefficients in (2), and generate the first two moments of random voltage responses from these coefficients. Fig. 3 shows the timedomain voltage response moments at the right-terminal termination point of the sixth TL for d = 15 random parameters derived between the reference and six algorithms, using the moments of the MC solution for  $N = 10^5$  samples as the reference. This is because when N is greater than  $10^5$ , the MC moments hardly show changes, but any decrease in N causes changes. Fig. 4 shows the counterparts for d = 35. Similarly, for d = 35, the moments of the MC solution for  $N = 2 \times 10^5$  samples are chosen to serve as the reference. For the six algorithms, we take N = 300 samples for d = 15, and N = 1400 samples for d = 35.

It can be seen from Figs. 3 and 4 that the moments of the SSs, the COSs agree very well with the reference, while the means of the ASs agree better with the reference, but with a greater difference in the standard deviation (SD).

It is worth noting that in the low-order, low-dimensional case, as with the other four algorithms, the ASs also obtain



**FIGURE 4.** Plots for, (a) moments of the six LSPCR and MC solutions, and (b) zoom-in results for d = 35.

high accuracy in the solution moments [26]. A similar situation can be seen in Fig. 5, which is obtained by solving the model in Fig. 2 with d = 3 random input parameters, where the incidence angle  $\theta$ , the azimuth angle  $\varphi$  and the





**FIGURE 5.** Plots for, (a) moments of the six LSPCR and MC solutions, and (b) zoom-in results for d = 3.



FIGURE 6. Computed  $\hat{\epsilon}$  of the moments derived between the reference and six algorithms with d = 15 as a function of *N*. TABLE I

COMPUTING COST COMPARISON FOR THE SIX ALGORITHMS WITH D=15

Time (s)	SS	AS	COS
LSO	3511	3582	3701
$\ell_1$ -M	3674	3691	3955

polarization angle  $\theta_E$  vary randomly.

It can be seen from [26] and Fig. 5 that the AS performs almost as excellently as the COS in the low-dimensional case, while Figs. 3 and 4 show that it performs poorly in the high-dimensional case. If attempting to increase p to achieve a high accuracy solution in this case, it would suffer from the extremely enormous curse of dimensionality. Therefore, the AS is better suited to solving low-dimensional problems.

# 2) COMPARISON OF SIX ALGORITHMS WITH DIFFERENT NUMBER OF SAMPLES

In order to more accurately and easily compare the differences between the six algorithms for different *N*, we define relative mean square error of the mean (RMSEM)  $\hat{\varepsilon}_{\mu}$  and relative mean square error of the standard deviation (RMSESD)  $\hat{\varepsilon}_{\sigma}$  to describe the accuracy of the mean and the standard deviation,

$$\hat{\varepsilon}_{\mu} := \frac{\int_{T} E\left(\mu(t) - \mu_{\text{Ref}}(t)\right)^{2} dt}{\int_{T} E\left(\mu_{\text{Ref}}^{2}(t)\right) dt},$$
(6a)

$$\hat{\varepsilon}_{\sigma} := \frac{\int_{T} E(\sigma(t) - \sigma_{\text{Ref}}(t))^2 dt}{\int_{T} E(\sigma_{\text{Ref}}^2(t)) dt},$$
(6b)

where *T* is the observation time, *E* denotes the expectation operator,  $\mu(t)$  and  $\sigma(t)$  are the mean and the standard deviation derived from the LSPCR method,  $\mu_{\text{Ref}}(t)$  and  $\sigma_{\text{Ref}}(t)$  are the reference. We still choose the moments of the MC solution in section 1) as the reference.

Fig. 6 plots the computed  $\hat{\varepsilon}$  of the moments derived between the reference and six algorithms with d = 15 as a function of *N*, and Fig. 7 shows the counterparts for d = 35.

It can be seen from Figs. 6 and 7 that the moment accuracies gradually increase as *N* increases because the computed  $\hat{\varepsilon}$  values corresponding to the six algorithms gradually decrease. Furthermore, we find that when  $N/P \ge 2.1$  (i.e.,  $N \ge 300$  for d = 15,  $N \ge 1400$  for d = 35), both the SSs and the COSs recover moments with high accuracy because their  $\hat{\varepsilon}$  values are very small, while the ASs recover moments with low accuracy because their  $\hat{\varepsilon}$  values are large. In addition, there are no noticeable differences between the  $\ell_1$ -Ms and the LSOs, as well as between the SSs and the COSs, since their  $\hat{\varepsilon}$  values are not significantly different.

To compare the efficiency, N=300 samples for d = 15 and N=1400 samples for d = 35 are taken. The average computation time is shown in TABLE I and II.

Note that the computation time for the reference is 616493 s for d = 15 and 1243669 s for d = 35. Compared to TABLE I and II, this implies that the LSPCR method requires no more than 0.7% of the MC calculation time for d=15, and no more than 1.4% of the MC calculation time for d=35. Compared to the reference, the SSs and the COSs show a great improvement in efficiency with similar accuracy of the moments. Furthermore, TABLE I and II also show that the LSOs have a significant speed advantage over the  $\ell_1$ -Ms. In addition, the SSs and the ASs are obviously faster than the COSs, and there are small differences between the SSs and the ASs.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

This paper proposes an algorithm based on the recursive idea to solve the problem of automatically determining the basis function composed of a large number of multivariate polynomials, which is usually faced in the implementation of PCE programs in the high-dimensional case, and combines this algorithm with the latest weight-based regression called LSPCR, and then proposes the implementation of the LSPCR method in the medium- and high-dimensional cases, and evaluates its performance in the electromagnetic coupling problem of the TL in this case. Six algorithms for LSPCR have been designed and implemented and are then compared with the MC method and with each other.

Numerical experiments demonstrate the excellence of the proposed algorithm. Furthermore, the results also show that for the medium- or high-dimensional, low-order problems, compared to the MC, only the SSs, and the COSs show a great improvement in efficiency with similar accuracy of the moments. Moreover, the SSs and the COSs outperform the ASs, and there is almost no difference between the  $\ell_1$ -Ms and the LSOs, as well as between the SSs and the COSs. In



FIGURE 7. Computed  $\hat{\epsilon}$  of the moments derived between the reference and six algorithms with d = 35 as a function of *N*. TABLE II

COMPUTING COST COMPARISON FOR THE SIX ALGORITHMS WITH D=35

Time (s)	SS	AS	COS
LSO	13916	13808	17321
$\ell_1$ -M	14656	14580	17663

addition, the  $\ell_1$ -Ms are obviously slower than the LSOs. The SSs and the ASs are obviously faster than the COSs, and there are small differences between the SSs and the ASs.

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