

# How Better Are Predictive Models: Analysis on the Practically Important Example of Robust Interval Uncertainty

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## 1. Predictions Are Important

- One of the main applications of science and engineering is to predict what will happen in the future.
- In science, we are most interesting in predicting what will happen “by itself”.
- *Examples:* where the Moon will be a year from now?
- In engineering, we are more interested in what will happen if we apply a certain control strategy.
- *Example:* where a spaceship will be if we apply a certain trajectory correction?
- In both science and engineering, prediction is one of the main objectives.

## 2. Traditional Statistics Approach to Prediction: Estimate then Predict

- In the traditional statistical approach, we first fix a statistical model with unknown parameters.
- For example, we can assume that the dependence of  $y$  on  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  is linear:

$$y = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \cdot x_i + \varepsilon, \quad \varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma).$$

- In this case, the parameters are  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n$ , and  $\sigma$ .
- Then, we use the observations to confirm this model and estimate the values of these parameters.
- After that, we use the model with the estimated parameters to make the corresponding predictions.

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### 3. Traditional Statistical Approach to Prediction: Advantages And Limitations

- In the traditional approach:
  - when we perform estimations,
  - we do not take into account what exactly characteristic we plan to predict.
- Advantage of this approach: a computationally intensive parameter estimation part is performed only once.
- In the past, when computations were much slower than now, this was a big advantage.
- With this advantages, come a potential limitation:
  - hopefully, by tailoring parameter estimation to a specific prediction problem,
  - we may be able to make more accurate predictions.

## 4. Predictive Approach

- In the past, because of the computer limitations, we had to save on computations.
- Thus, the traditional approach was, in most cases, all we could afford.
- However, now computers have become much faster.
- As a result, it has become possible to perform intensive computations in a short period of time.
- So, we can directly solve the prediction problem.
- In other words:
  - on the intermediate step of estimating the parameters,
  - we can take into account what exactly quantities we need to predict.

## 5. What We Do in This Talk

- There are many examples of successful use of the predictive approach.
- However, most of these examples remain anecdotal.
- In this talk:
  - on a practically important simple example of robust interval uncertainty,
  - we prove a general result showing that predictive models indeed lead to more accurate predictions.
- Moreover, we provide a numerical measure of accuracy improvement.

## 6. Measurement Uncertainty: Reminder

- Data processing starts with values that come from measurements.
- Measurement are not 100% accurate:
  - the measurement result  $\tilde{x}$  is, in general, different from
  - the actual (unknown) value  $x$  of the corresponding quantity.
- In other words, in general, we have a non-zero *measurement error*  $\Delta x \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \tilde{x} - x$ .
- In some situations, we know the probability distribution of the measurement error.
- For example, we often that the  $\Delta x$  is normally distributed, with 0 mean and known st. dev.  $\sigma$ .

## 7. Robust Interval Uncertainty

- However, often, the only information that we have about  $\Delta x$  is the upper bound  $\Delta$ :  $|\Delta x| \leq \Delta$ .
- This bound is provided by the manufacturer of the measuring instrument.
- In other words:
  - we only know that the probability distribution of the measurement error  $\Delta x$  is located on  $[-\Delta, \Delta]$ ,
  - but we do not have any other information about the probability distribution.
- Such *interval uncertainty* is a particular case of the general *robust statistics*.
- Why cannot we always get this additional information?
- To get information about  $\Delta x = \tilde{x} - x$ , we need to have information about the actual value  $x$ .

## 8. Robust Interval Uncertainty (cont-d)

- In many practical situations, this is possible; namely:
  - in addition to our measuring instrument (MI),
  - we often also have a much more accurate (“standard”) MI,
  - so much more accurate that the corresponding measurement error can be safely ignored,
  - and thus, the results of using the standard MI can be taken as the actual values.
- We can then find the prob. distribution for  $\Delta x$  if we measure quantities by both our MI and standard MI.
- In many situations, however, our MI is already state-of-the-art, no more-accurate standard MI is possible.

## 9. Robust Interval Uncertainty (cont-d)

- For example, in fundamental science, we use state-of-the-art measuring instruments.
- For a billion-dollar project like space telescope or particle super-collider, the best MI are used.
- Another frequent case when we have to use  $\Delta$  is the case of routine manufacturing.
- In this case:
  - theoretically, we can calibrate every sensor, but
  - sensors are cheap and calibrating them costs a lot
  - since it means using expensive standard MIs.
- In view of the practical importance, in this talk, we consider the case of robust interval uncertainty.

## 10. Analysis of the Problem

- Let  $y$  denote the quantity that we would like to predict.
- To predict the desired quantity  $y$ , we need to know the relation between  $y$  and easier-to-estimate quantities  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ .
- Then, to predict  $y$ , we:
  - compute estimates  $\tilde{x}_i$  for  $x_i$  based on the measurement results, and then
  - use these estimates  $\tilde{x}_i$  and the known relation between  $y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  to get a prediction for  $y$ :

$$\tilde{y} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_n).$$

- Let  $v_1, \dots, v_N$  denote all the quantities whose measurement results are used to estimate the quantities  $x_i$ .
- The estimation of  $x_i$  is based on the known relation between  $x_i$  and  $v_j$ :  $x_i = g_i(v_1, \dots, v_N)$ .

## 11. Analysis of the Problem (cont-d)

- The estimation of  $x_i$  is based on the known relation between  $x_i$  and  $v_j$ :  $x_i = g_i(v_1, \dots, v_N)$ .
- So,  $\tilde{x}_i = g_i(\tilde{v}_1, \dots, \tilde{v}_N)$ .
- Overall, the traditional approach takes the following form:
  - first, we measure the quantities  $v_1, \dots, v_N$ ;
  - then, the results  $\tilde{v}_1, \dots, \tilde{v}_N$  of measuring these quantities are used to produce the estimates  $\tilde{x}_i = g_i(\tilde{v}_1, \dots, \tilde{v}_N)$ ;
  - finally, we use the estimates  $\tilde{x}_i$  to compute the corresponding prediction

$$\tilde{y} = f(\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_n).$$

## 12. How Will Predictive Approach Look in These Terms

- The predictive approach means that:
  - instead of first estimating the parameters  $x_i$  and then using these parameters to predict  $y$ ,
  - we predict  $y$  based directly on the measurement results  $v_j$ :  $x_i = g_i(v_1, \dots, v_N)$ , where

$$F(v_1, \dots, v_N) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(g_1(v_1, \dots, v_N), \dots, g_n(v_1, \dots, v_N)).$$

- In these terms, the predictive approach to statistics takes the following form:
  - first, we measure the quantities  $v_1, \dots, v_N$ ;
  - then, the results  $\tilde{v}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_N$  of measuring these quantities are used to produce the prediction

$$\tilde{y} = F(\tilde{v}_1, \dots, \tilde{v}_N).$$

### 13. How Accurate Are These Estimates?

- Measurements are usually reasonably accurate, so the measurement errors  $\Delta v_j$  are reasonably small.
- Thus, we ignore terms quadratic in  $\Delta v_j$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta x_i &= g_i(\tilde{v}_1, \dots, \tilde{v}_N) - g_i(v_1, \dots, v_N) = \\ &g_i(\tilde{v}_1, \dots, \tilde{v}_N) - g_i(\tilde{v}_1 - \Delta v_1, \dots, \tilde{v}_N - \Delta v_N) \approx \\ &\sum_{j=1}^N g_{ij} \cdot \Delta v_j, \text{ where } g_{ij} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial v_j}. \end{aligned}$$

- This sum attains its largest possible value when each of the terms attains its largest value.
- When  $g_{ij} \geq 0$ , the term  $g_{ij} \cdot \Delta v_j$  is an increasing function of  $\Delta v_j$ .
- So, its maximum is attained when  $\Delta v_j$  is the largest:  $\Delta v_j = \Delta_j$ .

## 14. How Accurate Are These Estimates (cont-d)

- The resulting largest value of this term is  $g_{ij} \cdot \Delta_j$ .
- When  $g_{ij} < 0$ , the term  $g_{ij} \cdot \Delta v_j$  is a decreasing function of  $\Delta v_j$ .
- So, its maximum is attained when  $\Delta v_j$  is the smallest:  
 $\Delta v_j = -\Delta_j$ .
- The resulting largest value of this term is  $-g_{ij} \cdot \Delta_j$ .
- In both cases, the largest possible value of the term is equal to  $|g_{ij}| \cdot \Delta_j$ .
- Thus, the largest possible value  $\Delta_i^x$  of  $\Delta x_i$  is equal to

$$\Delta_i^x = \sum_{j=1}^N |g_{ij}| \cdot \Delta_j.$$

## 15. How Accurate Are These Estimates (cont-d)

- One can easily check that the smallest possible value of  $\Delta x_i$  is equal to  $-\Delta_i^x$ .
- Thus, possible values of  $\Delta x_i$  form an interval  $[-\Delta_i^x, \Delta_i^x]$ .
- Similarly, we can conclude that the possible values of the prediction error lie in the interval  $[-\Delta, \Delta]$ , where

$$\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^n |f_i| \cdot \Delta_i^x, \text{ where } f_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}.$$

- Alternatively, if we use the function  $F(v_1, \dots, v_N)$  to directly predict  $y$ , we get  $\Delta y \in [-\delta, \delta]$ , where

$$\delta = \sum_{j=1}^N |F_j| \cdot \Delta_j, \text{ and } F_j \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\partial F}{\partial v_j}.$$

## 16. Comparison of Two Approaches

- *Traditional:*  $\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^n |f_i| \cdot \Delta_i^x$ , where  $\Delta_i^x = \sum_{j=1}^N |g_{ij}| \cdot \Delta_j$ ,

$$\text{so } \Delta = \sum_{j=1}^n C_j, \text{ where } C_j = \sum_{i=1}^n |f_i| \cdot |g_{ij}| \cdot \Delta_j.$$

- *Predictive:*  $\delta = \sum_{j=1}^N |F_j| \cdot \Delta_j$ , where  $F_j = \sum_{i=1}^n f_i \cdot g_{ij}$ , so

$$\delta = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j, \text{ where } c_j \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n f_i \cdot g_{ij} \right| \cdot \Delta_j.$$

- So,  $\Delta = \sum_{j=1}^n C_j$  and  $\delta = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j$ , where  $C_j = \sum_{i=1}^n |c_{ij}|$  and

$$c_j = \left| \sum_{i=1}^N c_{ij} \right|.$$

- $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ , so  $c_j = \left| \sum_{i=1}^N c_{ij} \right| \leq \sum_{i=1}^N |c_{ij}| = C_j$ :  
predictive approach is more accurate.



## 17. How More Accurate?

- In principle, each term  $c_{ij} = f_i \cdot g_{ij} \cdot \Delta_j$  can take any real value, positive and negative.
- We do not have any reason to believe that positive values will be more frequent than negative ones.
- So, it is reasonable to assume that the mean value of each such term is 0.
- Again, there is no reason to assume that the distributions of  $c_{ij}$  are different.
- So, it makes sense to assume that all these values are identically distributed.
- Finally, there is no reason to believe that there is correlation between different values.
- So, it makes to consider them to be independent.

## 18. How More Accurate (cont-d)

- Under these assumptions, for large  $n$ ,
  - the sum  $\sum_{i=1}^n c_{ij}$  is normally distributed,
  - with 0 mean and variance which is  $n$  times larger than  $\sigma^2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} V[c_{ij}]$ .
- Thus, the mean value of the absolute value  $c_j$  of this sum is proportional to its standard deviation  $\sigma \cdot \sqrt{n}$ .
- On the other hand, the expected value  $\mu$  of each term  $|c_{ij}|$  is positive.
- Thus, the expected value of the sum  $C_j = \sum_{i=1}^n |c_{ij}|$  of  $n$  such independent terms is equal to  $\mu \cdot n$ .
- For large  $n$ , we have  $\mu \cdot n \gg \sigma \cdot \sqrt{n}$ .
- Thus, the predictive approach is  $\sqrt{n}$  times more accurate.

## 19. What We Did: Summary

- In this talk, we compare:
  - the traditional statistical approach, in which:
    - \* we first use the observations to estimate the values of the parameters
    - \* and then we use these estimates for prediction,
  - and the predictive approach to statistics, in which we make predictions directly from observations.
- We make this comparison on the example of the practically important case of interval uncertainty, when:
  - the only information that we have about the corresponding measurement error is
  - the upper bound provided by the manufacturer of the corresponding measurement instrument.

## 20. Conclusion

- Predictive techniques require more computations.
- However, result in much more accurate estimates:
  - asymptotically,  $\sqrt{n}$  times more accurate,
  - where  $n$  is the total number of parameters estimated in the traditional approach.

## 21. Acknowledgments

- We acknowledge the support of the Center of Excellence in Econometrics, Chiang Mai Univ., Thailand.
- This work was also supported in part:
  - by the National Science Foundation grants HRD-0734825, HRD-1242122, and DUE-0926721, and
  - by an award from Prudential Foundation.

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