

# How to Take Into Account Model Inaccuracy When Estimating the Uncertainty of the Result of Data Processing

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# 1. Bounds on Unwanted Processes: An Important Part of Engineering Specifications

- An engineering system performs certain tasks.
- However, it also generates undesirable side effects: noise, vibration, heat, stress, etc.
- The size  $q$  of each such effect should not exceed a certain pre-defined threshold  $t$ .
- It is therefore important to check that  $q \leq t$  in all possible situations.
- Let  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  be parameters that describe different situations: wind speed, load, Young module.
- For each of these parameters, we know the interval of possible values  $[\underline{p}_i, \bar{p}_i] = [\tilde{p}_i - \Delta_i, \tilde{p}_i + \Delta_i]$ .

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## 2. Bounds on Unwanted Processes (cont-d)

- We want to make sure that  $q \leq t$  for *all* possible combinations of  $p_i \in [\underline{p}_i, \bar{p}_i]$ .
- Even if we consider extreme cases, when  $p_i = \underline{p}_i$  or  $p_i = \bar{p}_i$ , we get  $2^n$  cases.
- For large  $n$ , it is not feasible to physically check all these cases.
- Thus, we need to rely on computer simulations.

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### 3. Formulation of the Problem

- There exist techniques for checking that  $q \leq t$  for all  $p_i \in [\underline{p}_i, \bar{p}_i]$ .
- However, these techniques assume that we have an *exact* model of the system.
- In many cases, we only have an *approximate* description information of the system.
- We show that in such cases, the existing techniques overestimate uncertainty.
- We also show that a proper modification of these techniques drastically decreases this overestimation.

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## 4. How to Check Specifications When We Have an Exact Model of a System: Reminder

- Let us assume that we know the exact dependence  $q = q(p_1, \dots, p_n)$ .
- Usually, deviations  $\Delta p_i = p_i - \tilde{p}_i$  from nominal values  $\tilde{p}_i$  are reasonably small.
- In such situations, we can linearize the dependence:

$$q(p_1, \dots, p_n) = \tilde{q} + \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \cdot \Delta p_i, \text{ where}$$

$$\tilde{q} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} q(\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_n) \text{ and } c_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\partial q}{\partial p_i}.$$

- The largest value  $\bar{q}$  is attained when  $\Delta p_i = \pm \Delta_i$ :

$$\bar{q} = \tilde{q} + \sum_{i=1}^n |c_i| \cdot \Delta_i.$$

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## 5. What If We Have an Exact Model (cont-d)

- Here,  $\bar{q} = \tilde{q} + \sum_{i=1}^n |c_i| \cdot \Delta_i$ .
- When the expression for  $q(p_i)$  is implicit, we cannot explicitly compute  $c_i$ .

- In this case, we can use numerical differentiation

$$c_i = \frac{q(\tilde{p}_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_{i-1}, \tilde{p}_i + h_i, \tilde{p}_{i+1}, \dots, \tilde{p}_n) - \tilde{q}}{h_i}.$$

- Then, for  $h_i = \Delta_i$ , we get  $\bar{q} = \tilde{q} + \sum_{i=1}^n |q_i - \tilde{q}|$ , where

$$q_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} q(\tilde{p}_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_{i-1}, \tilde{p}_i + \Delta_i, \tilde{p}_{i+1}, \dots, \tilde{p}_n).$$

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## 6. Resulting Algorithm

- *We know:* an algorithm  $q(p_1, \dots, p_n)$ , a threshold  $t$ , and values  $\tilde{p}_i$  and  $\Delta_i$ .
- *We need to check:* whether  $q(p_1, \dots, p_n) \leq t$  for all  $p_i \in [\tilde{p}_i - \Delta_i, \tilde{p}_i + \Delta_i]$ .
- *Algorithm:*
  - 1) first, we compute  $\tilde{q} = q(\tilde{p}_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_n)$ ;
  - 2) then, for each  $i$  from 1 to  $n$ , we compute
$$q_i = q(\tilde{p}_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_{i-1}, \tilde{p}_i + \Delta_i, \tilde{p}_{i+1}, \dots, \tilde{p}_n);$$
  - 3) after that, we compute  $\bar{q} = \tilde{q} + \sum_{i=1}^n |q_i - \tilde{q}|$ ;
  - 4) finally, we check whether  $\bar{q} \leq t$ .

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## 7. Possibility of a Further Speed-Up

- The above algorithm requires  $n+1$  calls to the program that computes  $q$ .
- In many practical situations, this is too long.
- We can speed up computations if we Cauchy distribution  $\rho(x) = \frac{1}{\pi \cdot \Delta} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x}{\Delta}\right)^2}$ .
- If  $\eta_i$  are independent Cauchy distributed with parameters  $\Delta_i$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^n c_i \cdot \eta_i$  is also Cauchy distributed, with

$$\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^n |c_i| \cdot \Delta_i.$$

- Thus, we can find  $\Delta$  by using the following algorithm.

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## 8. Faster Algorithm

- *Algorithm:*

- 1) first, for  $k = 1, \dots, N$ , we simulate  $\eta_i^{(k)}$  Cauchy-distributed with parameters  $\Delta_i$ ;

- 2) for each  $k$ , we estimate  $\Delta y^{(k)} = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \cdot \eta_i^{(k)}$  as

$$\Delta y^{(k)} = q(\tilde{p}_1 + \eta_1^{(k)}, \dots, \tilde{p}_n + \eta_n^{(k)}) - \tilde{y};$$

- 3) based on  $N$  values  $\Delta y^{(1)}, \dots, \Delta y^{(N)}$  which are Cauchy-distributed with parameter  $\Delta$ , we find  $\Delta$ ;

- 4) finally, we compute  $\bar{q} = \tilde{q} + \Delta$ .

- In this algorithm, we need  $N + 1$  computations of  $q$ .
- The accuracy depends only on the sample size  $N$  and *not* on the number of inputs  $n$ .
- *Example:*  $N = 100$  leads to 20% accuracy.
- So, for  $n \gg 200$ , this method is much faster.

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## 9. For Many Practical Problems, We Can Achieve an Even Faster Speed-Up

- Often, once we have  $\tilde{q} = q(\tilde{p}_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_n)$ , we can compute  $q(\tilde{p}_1 + \eta_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_n + \eta_n)$  faster than by applying  $q$ .
- For example, often,  $q(p_1, \dots, p_n)$  comes from solving a system of nonlinear equations

$$F_j(q_1, \dots, q_k, p_1, \dots, p_n) = 0.$$

- Since  $\Delta p_i = \eta_i \ll p_i$ , we can linearize, solve the resulting easy-to-solve linear system, and get

$$\Delta q = q(\tilde{p}_1 + \eta_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_n + \eta_n) - \tilde{q}.$$

- A similar simplifying linearization is possible when  $q$  comes from solving a system of nonlinear diff. eqs.
- This idea – known as *local sensitivity analysis* – is successfully used in many practical applications.

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## 10. Taking Model Inaccuracy into Account

- We rarely know the exact dependence  $q(p_1, \dots, p_n)$ .
- Usually, we have an approximate model  $Q(p_1, \dots, p_n)$  with known accuracy  $\varepsilon$ :

$$|Q(p_1, \dots, p_n) - q(p_1, \dots, p_n)| \leq \varepsilon.$$

- *We know:* an algorithm  $Q(p_1, \dots, p_n)$ , accuracy  $\varepsilon$ , threshold  $t$ , values  $\tilde{p}_i$  and  $\Delta_i$ .
- *We want:* to check whether  $q(p_1, \dots, p_n) \leq t$  for all  $p_i \in [\tilde{p}_i - \Delta_i, \tilde{p}_i + \Delta_i]$ .
- If we use this approximate model in our estimate, we get  $\overline{Q} = \tilde{Q} + \sum_{i=1}^n |Q_i - \tilde{Q}|$ .
- Here,  $|\tilde{Q} - \tilde{q}| \leq \varepsilon$  and  $|Q_i - q_i| \leq \varepsilon$ , so  $|\tilde{q} - \overline{Q}| \leq (2n + 1) \cdot \varepsilon$ .
- Thus, we arrive at the following algorithm.

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## 11. Resulting Algorithm

- *We know:* an algorithm  $Q(p_1, \dots, p_n)$ , accuracy  $\varepsilon$ , threshold  $t$ , values  $\tilde{p}_i$  and  $\Delta_i$ .
- *We want:* to check whether  $q(p_1, \dots, p_n) \leq t$  for all  $p_i \in [\tilde{p}_i - \Delta_i, \tilde{p}_i + \Delta_i]$ .

- *Algorithm:*

1) compute  $\tilde{Q} = Q(\tilde{p}_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_n)$  and

$$Q_i = Q(\tilde{p}_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_{i-1}, \tilde{p}_i + \Delta_i, \tilde{p}_{i+1}, \dots, \tilde{p}_n).$$

2) compute  $B = \tilde{Q} + \sum_{i=1}^n |Q_i - \tilde{Q}| + (2n + 1) \cdot \varepsilon$ ;

3) check whether  $B \leq t$ .

- *Problem:* when  $n$  is large, then, even for reasonably small inaccuracy  $\varepsilon$ , the value  $(2n + 1) \cdot \varepsilon$  is large.
- *What we do:* we show how we can get better estimates for  $\tilde{q}$ .

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## 12. How to Get Better Estimates: Idea

- One possible source of model inaccuracy is discretization (e.g., FEM).
- When we select a different combination of parameters, we get an *unrelated* value of inaccuracy.
- So, let's consider approx. errors  $\Delta q \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} Q(p_1, \dots, p_n) - q(p_1, \dots, p_n)$  as *independent* random variables.
- What is a probability distribution for these random variables? We know that  $\Delta q \in [-\varepsilon, \varepsilon]$ .
- We do not have any reason to assume that some values from this interval are more probable than others.
- So, it is reasonable to assume that all the values are equally probable: a uniform distribution.
- For this uniform distribution, the mean is 0, and the standard deviation is  $\sigma = \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{3}}$ .

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### 13. How to Get a Better Estimate for $\tilde{q}$

- In our main algorithm, we apply the computational model  $Q$  to  $n + 1$  different tuples.
- Let's also compute  $M \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} Q(\tilde{p}_1 - \Delta_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_n - \Delta_n)$ .

- In linearized case,  $\tilde{q} + \sum_{i=1}^n q_i + m = (n + 2) \cdot \tilde{q}$ , so  $\tilde{q} = \frac{1}{n + 2} \cdot \left( \tilde{q} + \sum_{i=1}^n q_i + m \right)$ , and we can estimate  $\tilde{q}$  as

$$\tilde{Q}_{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{n + 2} \cdot \left( \tilde{Q} + \sum_{i=1}^n Q_i + m \right).$$

- Here,  $\Delta \tilde{q}_{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{n + 2} \cdot \left( \Delta \tilde{q} + \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta q_i + \Delta m \right)$ , so its variance is  $\sigma^2 \left[ \tilde{Q}_{\text{new}} \right] = \frac{\varepsilon^2}{3 \cdot (n + 2)} \ll \frac{\varepsilon^2}{3} = \sigma^2 \left[ \tilde{Q} \right]$ .

## 14. Let Us Use $\tilde{Q}_{\text{new}}$ When Estimating $\bar{q}$

- Let us compute  $\bar{Q}_{\text{new}} = \tilde{Q}_{\text{new}} + \sum_{i=1}^n |Q_i - \tilde{Q}_{\text{new}}|$ .
- Here, when  $s_i \in \{-1, 1\}$  are the signs of  $q_i - \tilde{q}$ , we get:

$$\bar{q} = \tilde{q} + \sum_{i=1}^n s_i \cdot (q_i - \tilde{q}) = \left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^n s_i\right) \cdot \tilde{q} + \sum_{i=1}^n s_i \cdot q_i.$$

- Thus,  $\Delta \bar{q}_{\text{new}} = \left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^n s_i\right) \cdot \Delta \tilde{q}_{\text{new}} + \sum_{i=1}^n s_i \cdot \Delta q_i$ , so

$$\sigma^2 = \left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^n s_i\right)^2 \cdot \frac{\varepsilon^2}{3 \cdot (n+2)} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\varepsilon^2}{3}.$$

- Here,  $|s_i| \leq 1$ , so  $\left|1 - \sum_{i=1}^n s_i\right| \leq n+1$ , and

$$\sigma^2 \leq \frac{\varepsilon^2}{3} \cdot (2n+1).$$

## 15. Using $\tilde{Q}_{\text{new}}$ (cont-d)

- We have  $\Delta \bar{q}_{\text{new}} = \left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^n s_i\right) \cdot \Delta \tilde{q}_{\text{new}} + \sum_{i=1}^n s_i \cdot \Delta q_i$ .
- Due to the Central Limit Theorem,  $\Delta \bar{q}_{\text{new}}$  is  $\approx$  normal.
- We know that  $\sigma^2 \leq \frac{\varepsilon^2}{3} \cdot (2n + 1)$ .
- Thus, with certainty depending on  $k_0$ , we have

$$\bar{q} \leq \bar{Q}_{\text{new}} + k_0 \cdot \sigma \leq \bar{Q}_{\text{new}} + k_0 \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{3}} \cdot \sqrt{2n + 1} :$$

- with certainty 95% for  $k_0 = 2$ ,
- with certainty 99.9% for  $k_0 = 3$ , etc.
- Here, inaccuracy grows as  $\sqrt{2n + 1}$ .
- This is much better than in the traditional approach, where it grows  $\sim 2n + 1$ .

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## 16. Resulting Algorithm

- *We know:*  $Q(p_1, \dots, p_n)$ ,  $\varepsilon$ ,  $t$ ,  $\tilde{p}_i$  and  $\Delta_i$ .
- *We want:* to check that  $q(p_1, \dots, p_n) \leq t$  for all  $p_i \in [\tilde{p}_i - \Delta_i, \tilde{p}_i + \Delta_i]$ .
- *Algorithm:*

1) compute  $\tilde{Q} = Q(\tilde{p}_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_n)$ ,

$$M = Q(\tilde{p}_1 - \Delta_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_n - \Delta_n), \text{ and}$$

$$Q_i = Q(\tilde{p}_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_{i-1}, \tilde{p}_i + \Delta_i, \tilde{p}_{i+1}, \dots, \tilde{p}_n);$$

2) compute  $\tilde{Q}_{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{n+2} \cdot \left( \tilde{Q} + \sum_{i=1}^n Q_i + M \right)$  and

$$b = \tilde{Q}_{\text{new}} + \sum_{i=1}^n \left| Q_i - \tilde{Q}_{\text{new}} \right| + k_0 \cdot \sqrt{2n+1} \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{3}};$$

3) check whether  $b \leq t$ .

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## 17. A Similar Improvement Is Possible for the Cauchy Method

- In the Cauchy method, we compute  $\tilde{Q}$  and the values

$$Y^{(k)} = Q(\tilde{p}_1 + \eta_1^{(k)}, \dots, \tilde{p}_n + \eta_n^{(k)}).$$

- We can then compute the improved estimate for  $\tilde{q}$ , as:

$$\tilde{Q}_{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{N+1} \cdot \left( \tilde{Q} + \sum_{k=1}^N Y^{(k)} \right).$$

- We can now use this improved estimate when estimating the differences  $\Delta y^{(k)}$ : namely, we compute

$$Y^{(k)} - \tilde{Q}_{\text{new}}.$$

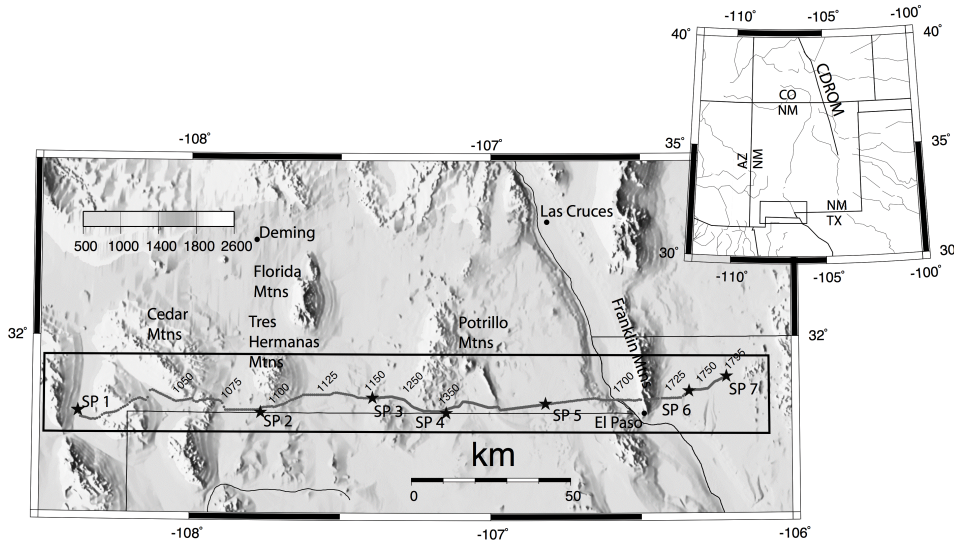
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## 18. Experimental Testing: Seismic Inverse Problem in Geophysics

- *Problem:* reconstruct the velocity of sound  $v_i$  at different spatial locations and at different depths.
- *What we know:* the travel-times  $t_j$  of a seismic signal from the set-up explosion to seismic stations.
- *Hole's iterative algorithm:*
  - we start with geology-motivated values  $v_i^{(1)}$ ;
  - based on the current approximation  $v_i^{(k)}$ , we estimate the travel times  $t_j^{(k)}$ ;
  - update  $v_i$ : 
$$\frac{1}{v_i^{(k+1)}} = \frac{1}{v_i^{(k)}} + \frac{1}{n_i} \cdot \sum_j \frac{t_j - t_j^{(k)}}{L_j}.$$
- Using  $\tilde{Q}_{\text{new}}$  decreased the inaccuracy  $\sigma$ , on average, by 15%;  $\sigma$  increased only in one case (only by 7%).

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## 19. Case Study: Seismic Inverse Problem in the Geosciences



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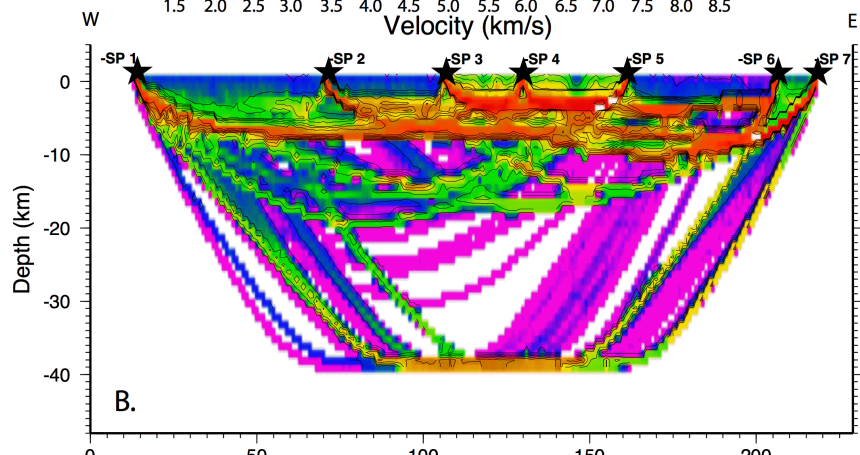
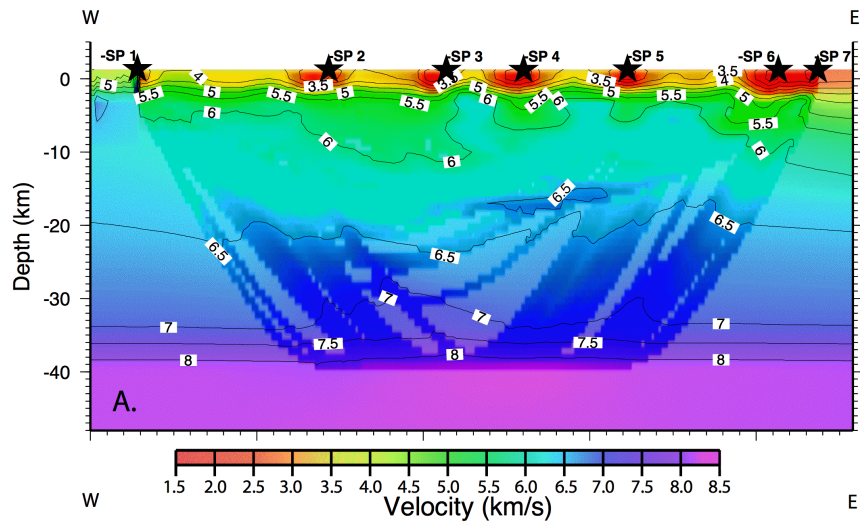
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## 20. Can We Further Improve the Accuracy?

- The inaccuracy  $Q \neq q$  is caused by using elements of finite size  $h$ .
- This inaccuracy is proportional to  $h$ .
- If we decrease  $h$  to  $h'$ , we thus need  $K \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{h^3}{(h')^3}$  more cells, so we need  $K$  times more computations.
- Thus, the accuracy decreases as  $\sqrt[3]{K}$ .
- *New idea:* select  $K$  small vectors  $(\Delta_1^{(k)}, \dots, \Delta_n^{(k)})$  which add up to 0, and estimate  $\tilde{q}$  as

$$Q_K(p_1, \dots, p_n) = \frac{1}{K} \cdot \sum_{k=1}^K Q(p_1 + \Delta_1^{(k)}, \dots, p_n + \Delta_n^{(k)}).$$

- Averaging  $K$  independent random errors decreases the inaccuracy by a factor of  $\sqrt{K}$ , much faster than  $\sqrt[3]{K}$ .

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