



Uncertainty

Florent Bourgeois

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Master Class 2020 – LGC

Florent Bourgeois, Prof.

<https://lgc.cnrs.fr/annuaire/florent-bourgeois/>

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"The only certainty is uncertainty"

~ Pliny the Elder (AD 23/24 – 79)

"Gaius Plinius Secundus (AD 23/24–79), called Pliny the Elder (/ˈplɪni/), was a Roman author, a **naturalist** and natural philosopher, a naval and army commander of the early Roman Empire, and a friend of emperor Vespasian. He wrote the encyclopedic *Naturalis Historia* (Natural History), which became an editorial model for encyclopedias. He spent most of his spare time **studying, writing, and investigating natural** and geographic **phenomena** in the field." (Quoted source: Wikipedia)

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A fact of nature

Field observations, i.e. "real data" are uncertain, always !

Scientists and engineers use real data in order to derive working solutions to real-world problems. Uncertainties are therefore inevitable in science and engineering.

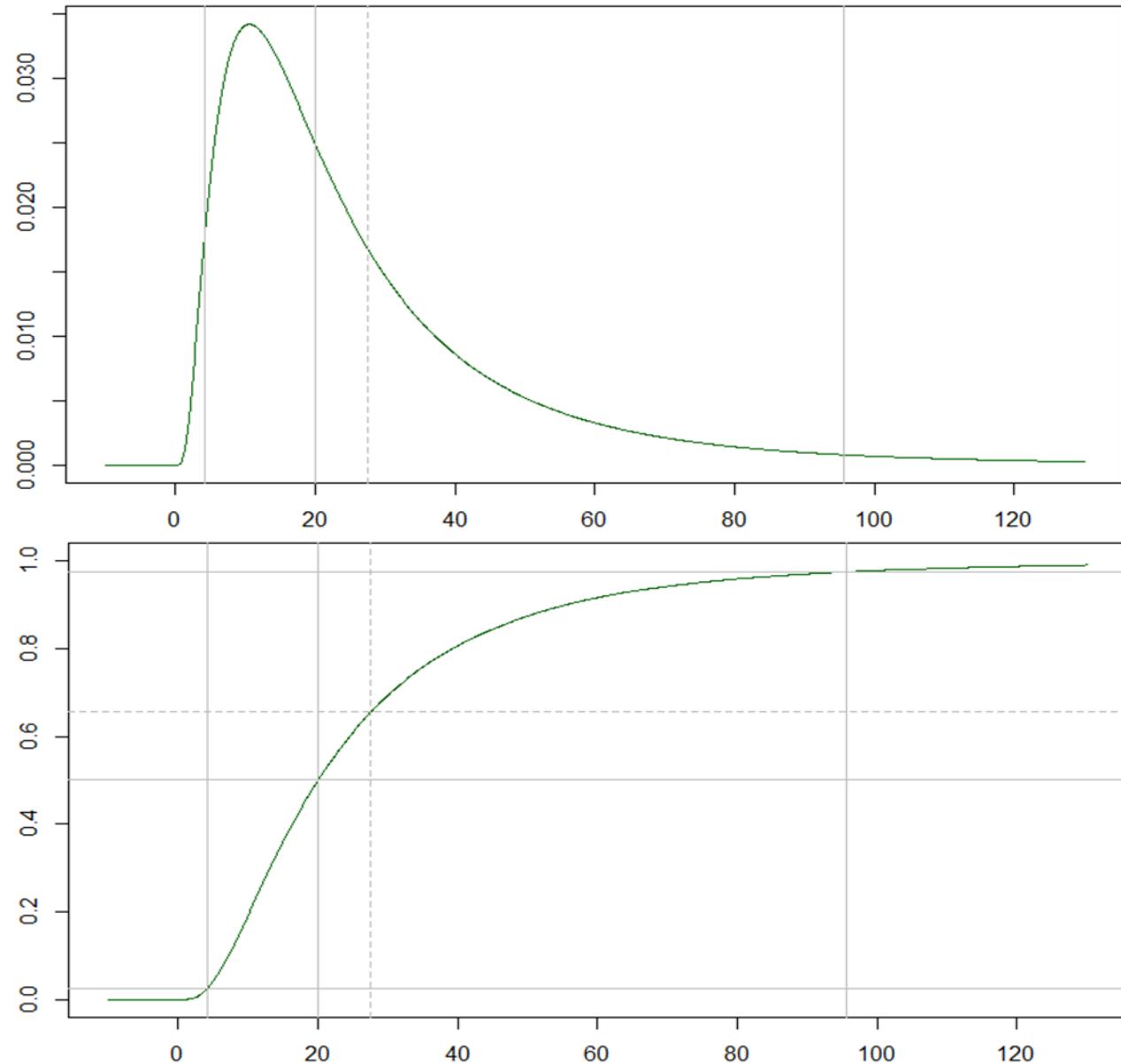
No real data should be trusted nor reported without error bars !

Real data can be abstracted as random variables (r.v.), which are characterized fully by probability distribution functions.

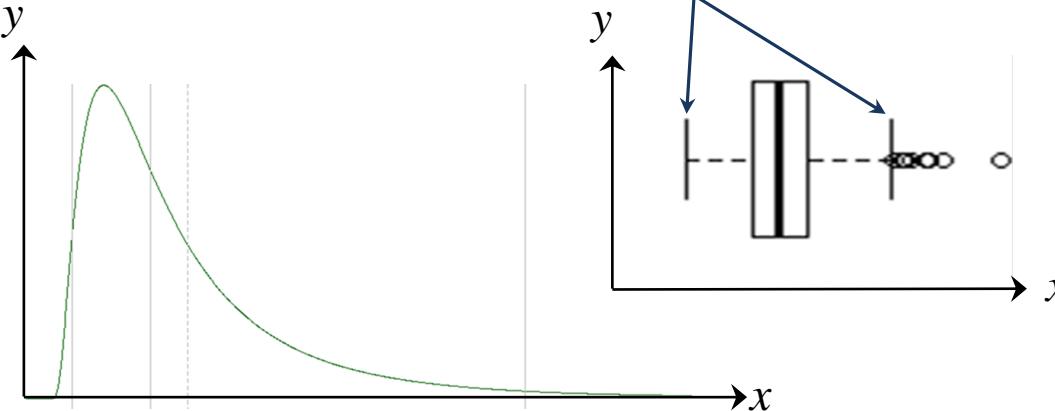
Once a probability distribution function is assigned to a variable of interest, all is known about the said variable.

Error bars are estimated from the r.v.'s probability distribution function

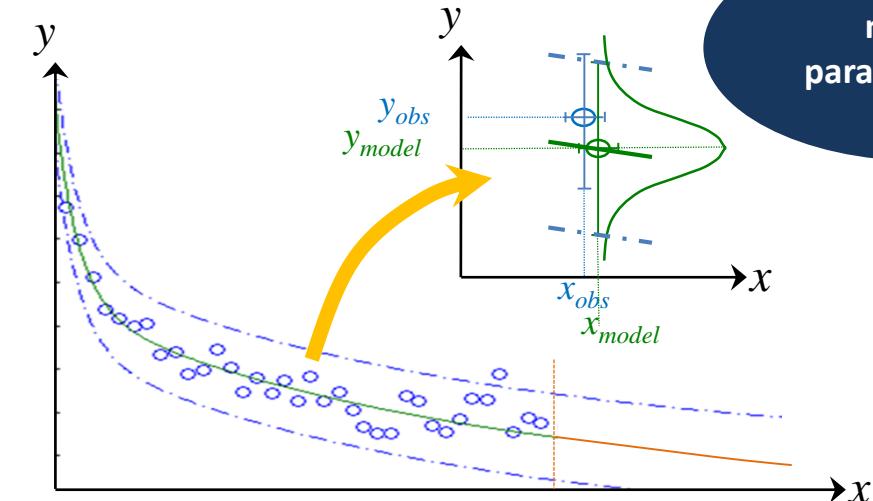
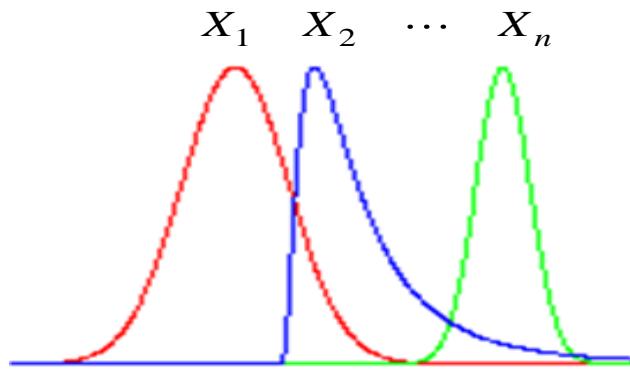
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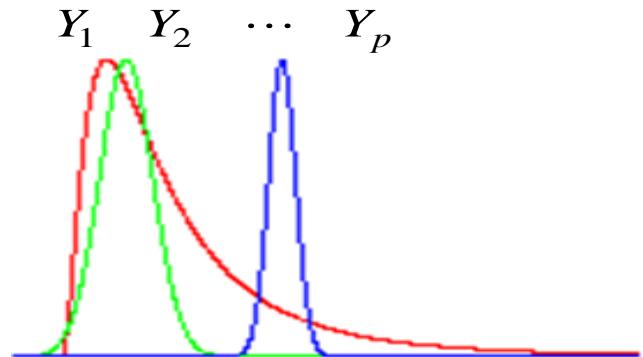
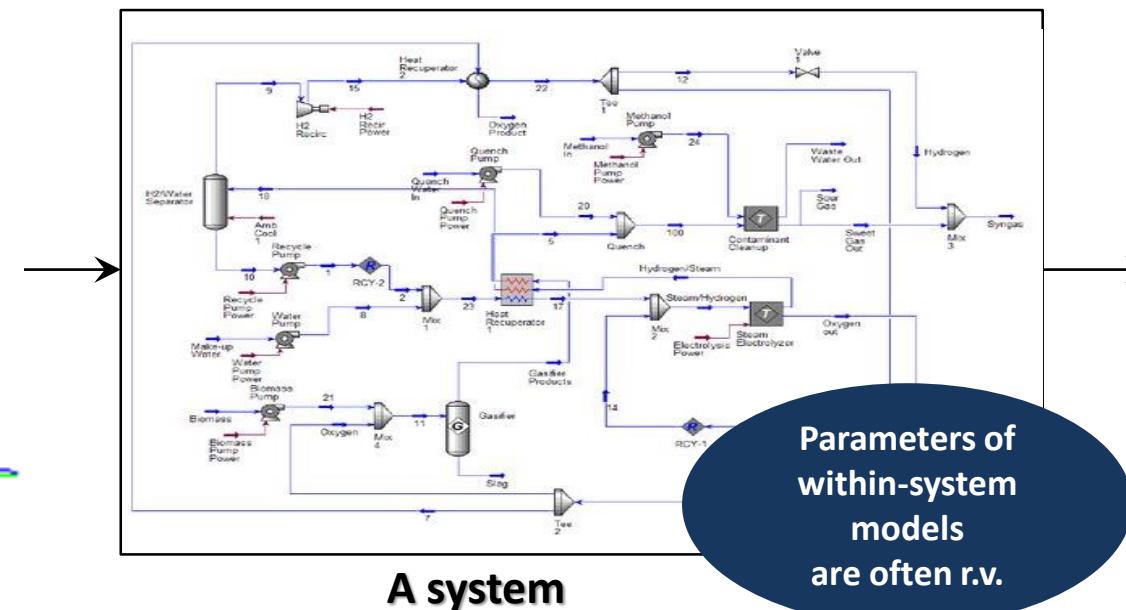
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An observation



A model



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Computational statistics

- **Computational statistics** merges statistics with numerical methods.
- Computational statistics' methods and tools make analysis and manipulation of statistical data possible without mastering the (elitist) art of formal statistical (paper-and-pencil) derivations, i.e. without a formal mathematician training in statistics (up to a point...).
- Statistical analyses and calculations can now be performed using dedicated and easily accessible computing tools.
- Such tools offer powerful capabilities for visualizing statistical data and results. "Graphical statistics" makes statistical concepts (distribution functions, confidence intervals, inference testing,...) easier to understand.

Draw your statistics !

- That said, it remains essential to understand statistical concepts in order to make a sound use of computational statistics and carry out quality analysis of real data.

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Computational statistics tools



- Primary function : statistical data manipulation, analysis, modelling and visualisation
- Now a full-fledged scientific computing tool
- Free, all platforms (<https://www.r-project.org/>)
- Large and growing community of users and developers (<https://www.r-bloggers.com/>) and a myriad of dedicated self-learning websites and textbooks.

- Recommended GUI : RStudio (<http://www.rstudio.com/>)
- Interactive web applications with Shiny (<https://shiny.rstudio.com/>)
- Notebooks
- MSEExcel® interoperability with BERT (<https://oatao.univ-toulouse.fr/24353/>)



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An unworthy illustrative example

$$\text{model: } Y = 48 \frac{X_1 X_2 X_3}{X_4 X_5}$$

i	X_i (obs.)	ΔX_i
1	0.5	0.001
2	0.05	0.0002
3	5.5	0.28
4	0.0544	0.0005
5	18.7	0.28

$$\Rightarrow Y = 6.49$$

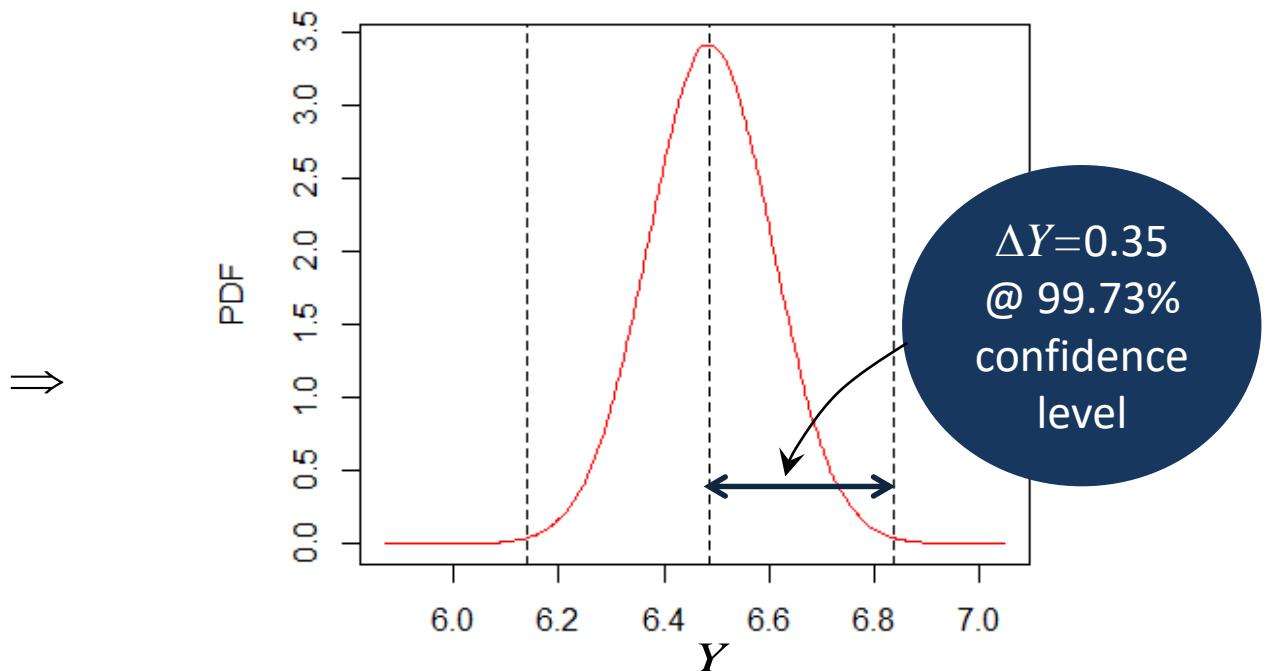
$$\pm \Delta Y$$

Monte-Carlo solution

- Hyp. : X_i 's are normally distributed
- Hyp. : ΔX_i 's are given at the 99.73% confidence level
- Monte-Carlo simulation:
 - Select a sample size, say $n = 10^6$
 - Generate n sets $[X_1, \dots, X_5]$ by random sampling
 - Calculate n values of Y using the model equation
 - Analyse the statistics of the $n \times Y$ values

Paper-and-pencil solution

- By propagation of variance (simple derivation, but derivation nonetheless, just making a point here...)
- $\Delta Y = Y \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^5 \left(\frac{\Delta X_i}{X_i} \right)^2} = 0.35$
- Is this derivation correct? Are there underlying assumptions? Is there a confidence associated?



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- Is this derivation correct? What are the underlying assumptions? Is there a confidence associated?

```
library(mvtnorm)
meanX<-c(0.5,0.05,5.5,0.0544,18.7) #  $X_i$ 
deltaX<-c(1e-3,2e-4,2.8e-1,5e-4,2.8e-1) #  $\Delta X_i$ 
n<-1e6 # Monte-Carlo sample size
prob<-0.9973 # Confidence associated with  $\Delta X$ 
varX<-diag((deltaX/qnorm(1-(1-prob)/2))^2) #  $X \sim \text{Normal}$ 
Xsim<-rmvnorm(n,mu=X,sigma=varX) # generate  $n \times [X_1, \dots, X_5]$ 
Ysim<-48*Xsim[,1]*Xsim[,2]*Xsim[,3]/(Xsim[,4]*Xsim[,5]) # generate  $n \times Y$ 
q <- quantile(ecdf(Ysim), probs=c((1-prob)/2, 1-(1-prob)/2)) # quantiles
Ysimpdf <- density(Ysim) # PDF
print(paste("deltaY=", q[2]-mean(Ysim)))
plot(Ysimpdf$x, Ysimpdf$y, type="l", col="red", ylab="PDF", xlab="Y")
abline(v=c(mean(Ysim), q), lty="dashed")
```

Sensitivity analysis of hypotheses

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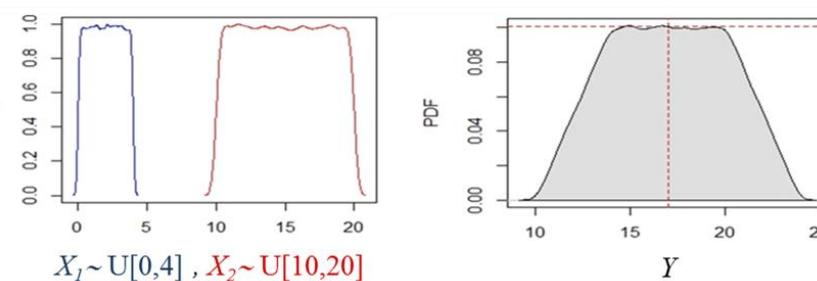
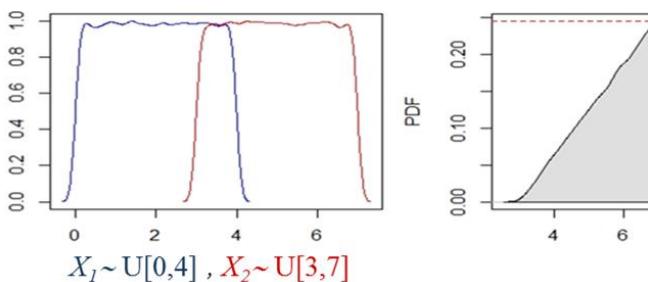
A worthier illustrative example

X_1 and X_2 are uniform random variables.

What is the uncertainty ΔY of $Y = X_1 + X_2$?

What is the distribution of Y ?

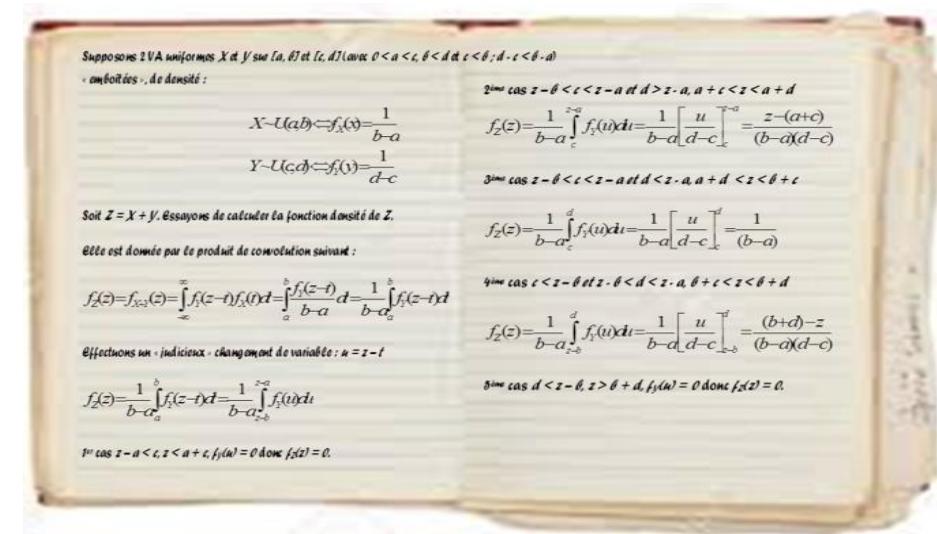
Monte-Carlo solution



Quantiles, uncertainties and distribution function parameters can be estimated numerically from a **Monte-Carlo sample**. Here, trapezoid[10,13,22,24].

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Paper-and-pencil solution



Supposons 2 VA uniformes X et Y sur $[a, b]$ et $[c, d]$ avec $a < c < b < d$ et $c < b$; $d < a$.

- combinaisons - de densité :

$$X \sim U(a,b) \Rightarrow f_X(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}$$

$$Y \sim U(c,d) \Rightarrow f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{d-c}$$

2ème cas : $c < b < z < a$ et $d > z$: $a < a + c < z < a + d$

$$f_Z(z) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^z f_X(u) du = \frac{1}{b-a} \left[\frac{u}{d-c} \right]_a^z = \frac{z-(a+c)}{(b-a)(d-c)}$$

3ème cas : $c < b < z < a$ et $d < z$: $a < a + d < z < b + c$

$$f_Z(z) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^d f_X(u) du = \frac{1}{b-a} \left[\frac{u}{d-c} \right]_a^d = \frac{1}{(b-a)}$$

Soit $Z = X + Y$. Essayons de calculer la fonction densité de Z .

Elle est donnée par le produit de convolution suivant :

$$f_Z(z) = f_{X+Y}(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(z-t) f_Y(t) dt = \int_a^b f_X(z-t) dt = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f_X(z-t) dt$$

Effectuons un « judicieux » changement de variable : $u = z-t$

$$f_Z(z) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f_X(z-t) dt = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_{z-b}^{z-a} f_X(u) du$$

4ème cas : $c < z - b$ et $z - b < d < z$: $b + c < z < b + d$

$$f_Z(z) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_c^d f_X(u) du = \frac{1}{b-a} \left[\frac{u}{d-c} \right]_c^d = \frac{(b+d)-z}{(b-a)(d-c)}$$

5ème cas : $d < z - b$, $z > b + d$, $f_X(u) = 0$ donc $f_Z(z) = 0$.

6ème cas : $z - a < c$, $z < a + c$, $f_Y(u) = 0$ donc $f_Z(z) = 0$.

- Let us now consider the situation where the r.v. have different distributions? What would the uncertainty ΔY be in this case ? The distribution of Y ?

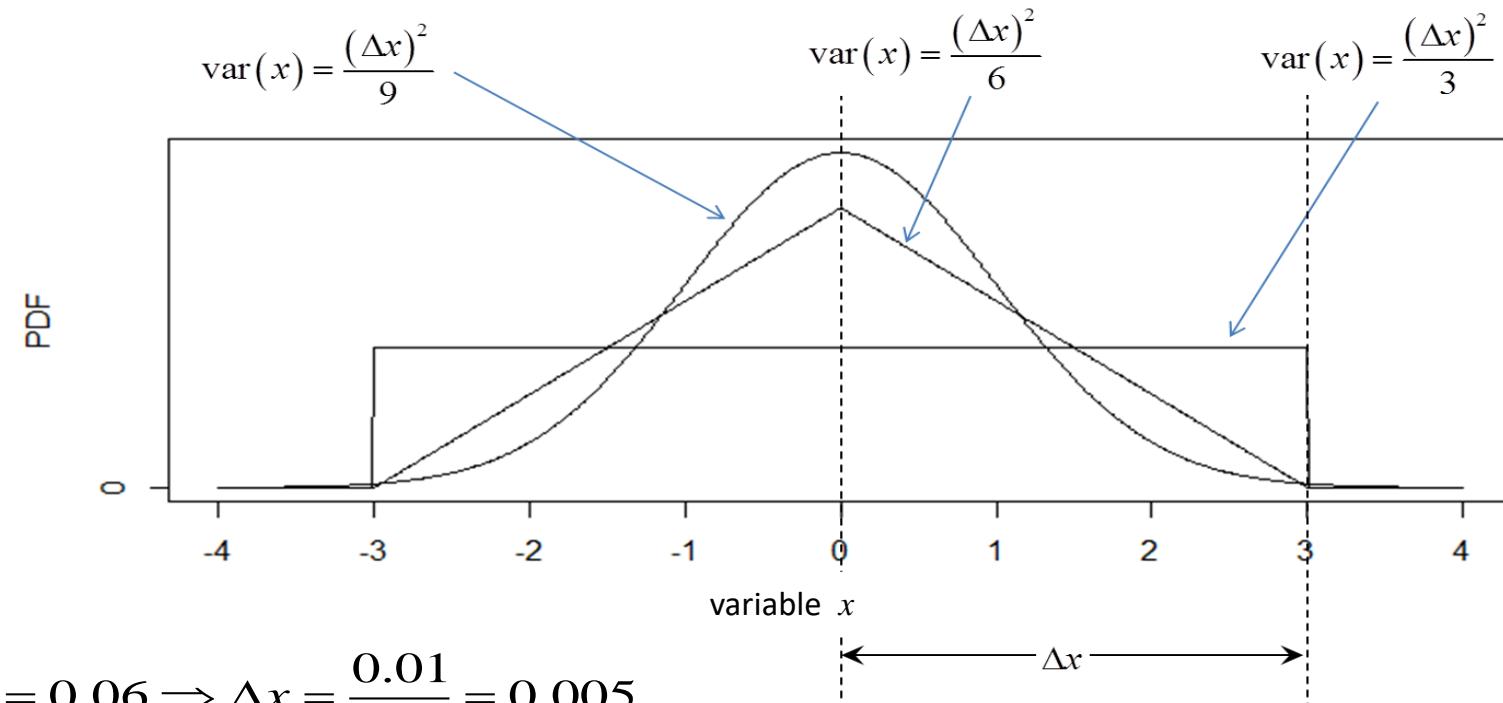
model: $Y = 48 \frac{X_1 X_2 X_3}{X_4 X_5}$

Which pathway would you rather walk ?

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Standards

Ref. : Guide for Uncertainty Measurement (norme ISO GUM) / Guide pour l'expression de l'incertitude de mesure - Annex F: Practical guidance on evaluating uncertainty components. (2008 versions: [EN](#) / [FR](#))



- Significant figures : $x = 0.06 \Rightarrow \Delta x = \frac{0.01}{2} = 0.005$
- A prudent solution when one does not know the statistical distribution from which an observation is drawn is to use the triangular isosceles distribution.

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Generation of correlated random variables

Model parameters are always correlated !

- Their correlation comes from the model equation itself.

$$\text{Example: } \hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X + \hat{\beta}_2 X^2$$

- Model parameters are correlated through a **variance-covariance matrix**

- Taking the correlation of model parameters into account, with their variance-covariance matrix, is critical when using a model in a **sensitivity analysis**.

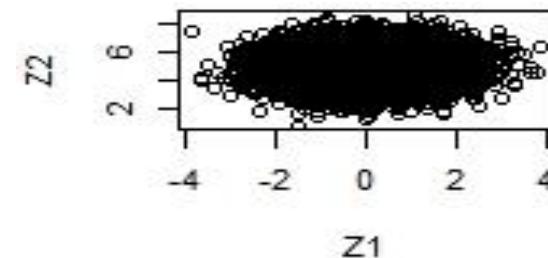
- Example shows the output of a **Monte-Carlo simulation** (sample size = 10,000) for 3 normally distributed r.v., with and without correlation.

$$X_1 \sim N(0, \sqrt{3}); X_2 \sim N(5, \sqrt{2}); X_3 \sim N(10, 1)$$

- This can be done with any type of r.v.

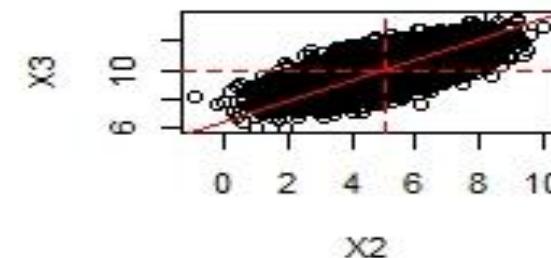
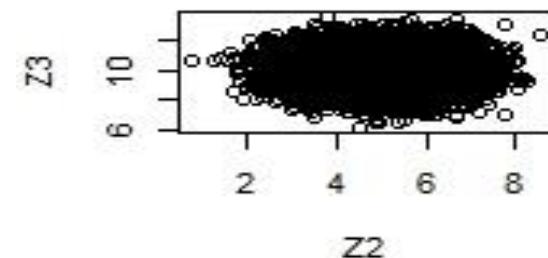
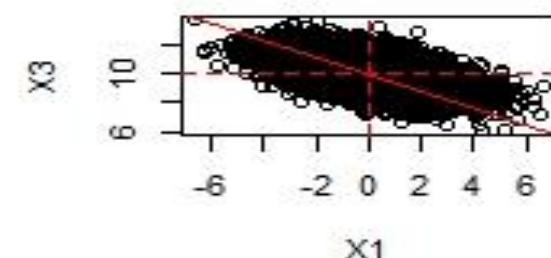
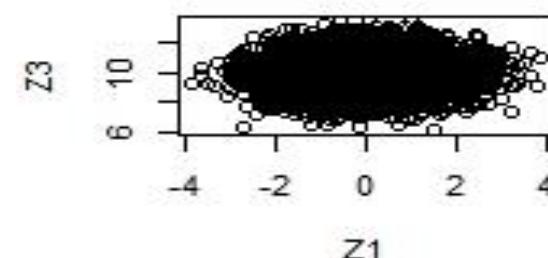
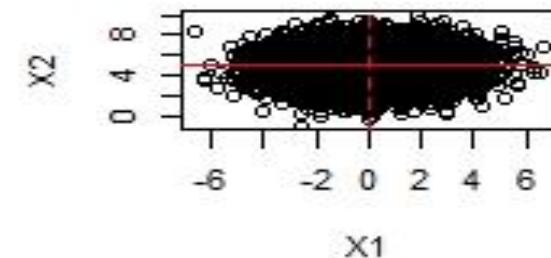
Uncorrelated r.v.

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Correlated r.v.

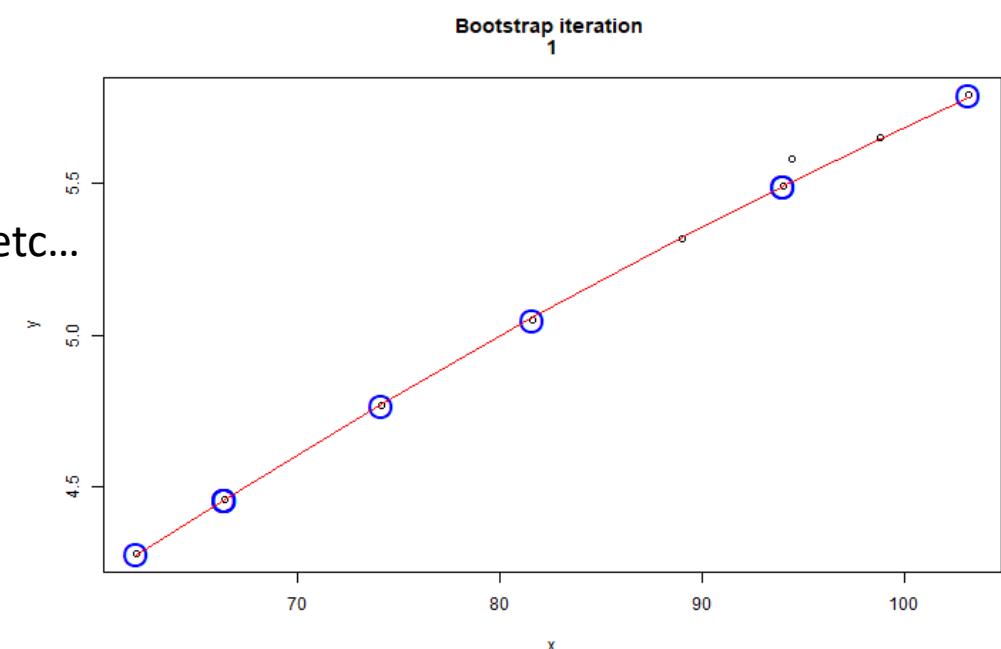
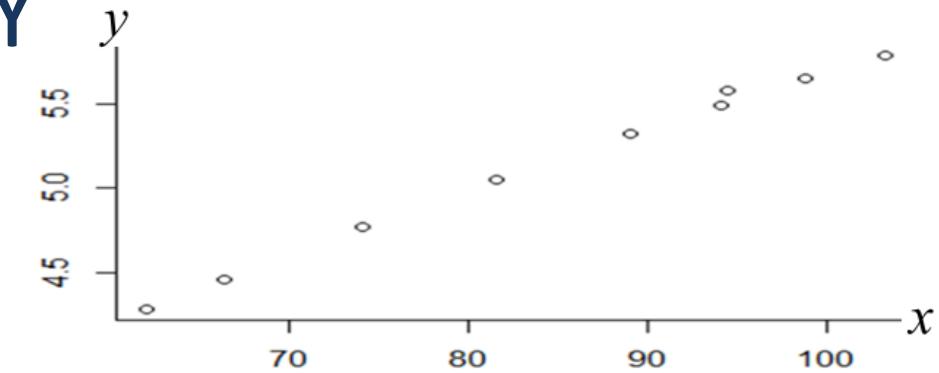
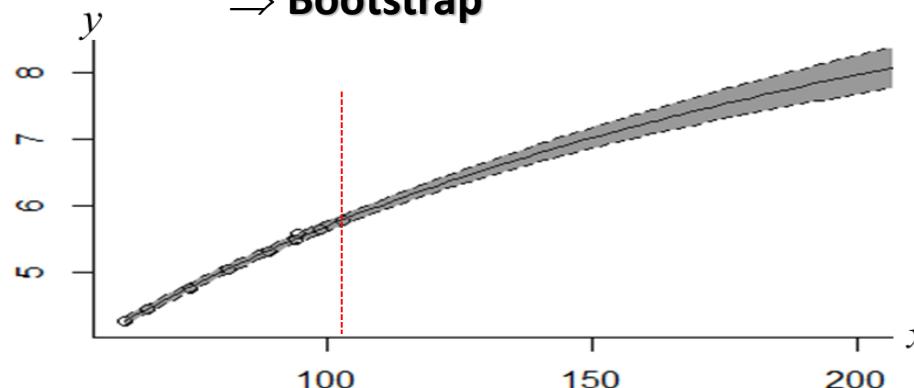
$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



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Modelling

- One set of observations (x, y)
- Consider the simplest of cases, i.e. independent identically distributed (i.i.d.) Normal r.v. \Rightarrow estimation of model parameters (expected values and uncertainties) and model confidence/prediction intervals by least-squares estimation.
 - Linear models with errors in Y only
 \Rightarrow analytical solutions exist
 - Linear models with errors in X and Y , non-linear models
 \Rightarrow numerical solutions only
 \Rightarrow Levenberg-Marquardt, Simulated annealing, etc...
 \Rightarrow **Bootstrap**



- Broad applicability of the **bootstrap method** to estimation problems in engineering systems' analysis
- <http://lgc.cnrs.fr>

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Wrap-up

- Uncertainty is a fact of life, and uncertainties are inevitable in science and engineering.
- Computational statistics brings analysis of real data at your fingertips, **with uncertainties !**
- **Today's keywords :** Uncertainty; Random variable; Probability distribution function; Monte-Carlo method; Sensitivity analysis; Bootstrap; Variance-covariance matrix; Computational statistics; **R**

Last words

- **Quality data are priceless !**
- With data analysis, and particularly with computational statistics, **take nothing for granted !** Always question hypotheses and test them.
- **Outliers are your worst foes !**
 - Detection of outliers / Sampling, data collection and manipulation
- **Small number of observations (sample size)**

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