

Robust Prediction Interval Estimation for Gaussian Processes by Cross-Validation Method

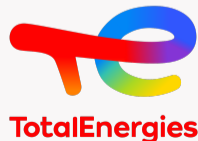
MASCOT-NUM annual meeting, Clermont-Ferrand, France.

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Context

Uncertainty Quantification plays an essential role in risk assessment and decision-making.

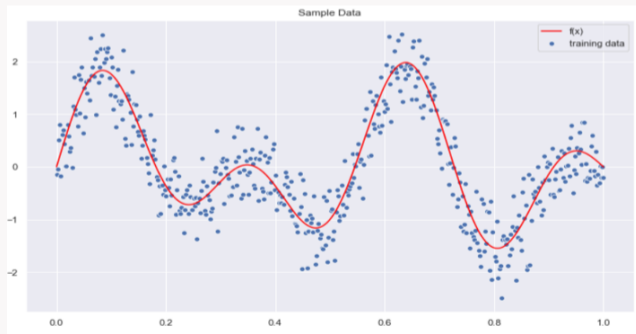
Example: While estimating natural gas reserves, companies should comply with Securities and Exchange Commission rules.

1P	2P	3P
90% wells produce more than 1P predictions (proven)	50% wells produce more than 2P predictions (probable)	10% wells produce more than 3P predictions (possible)

However, many approaches and ML models do not fit or may require huge amount of data to predict uncertainty (e.g. jackknife, bootstrap).

Introduction

Consider a standard problem of Kriging with Gaussian Processes [Rasmussen and Williams, 2005]: d -dimensional input dataset $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)})$ containing n observations with an output vector $\mathbf{y} = (y^{(1)}, \dots, y^{(n)})$.



Modelling with Gaussian Processes

Ingredients: A training set $(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = \{(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^n$, a family of covariance function $\{\mathbf{k}_{\sigma^2, \theta}\}$ with $\dim(\theta) = d$ and a new point to predict \mathbf{x}_{new} .

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Assumption: Assumption of the Gaussian Processes prior.

$$\left(Y(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \right)_{i=1}^n | \beta, \sigma^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \sigma_\epsilon^2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{F}\beta, \mathbf{K}),$$

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where $\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{F}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is the trend and $\mathbf{K} = \left(\mathbf{k}_{\sigma^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(j)}) \right)_{i,j=1}^n + \sigma_\epsilon^2 \mathbf{I}_n$ is the covariance matrix.

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Theorem: The *posterior* predictive distribution is Gaussian

$$Y(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}) | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}, \beta, \sigma^2, \theta, \sigma_\epsilon^2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\tilde{y}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}), \tilde{\sigma}^2(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}))$$

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Result: Uncertainties are fully characterized

$$\mathcal{PI}_{1-\alpha}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}) = [\tilde{y}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}) + q_{\alpha/2} \tilde{\sigma}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}); \tilde{y}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}) + q_{1-\alpha/2} \tilde{\sigma}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}})]$$

Learning Gaussian Processes model i

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- The **Maximum Likelihood (ML)** that maximizes the likelihood so that the optimized model produces observed data with the highest probability.

$$(\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{ML}) \in \operatorname{argmin}_{\sigma^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}} \ell(\sigma^2, \boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y}^\top \bar{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{y} + \log(\det \mathbf{K}).$$

where $\bar{\mathbf{K}} = \mathbf{K}^{-1} - \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{F} (\mathbf{F}^\top \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{F})^{-1} \mathbf{F}^\top \mathbf{K}^{-1}$.

Learning Gaussian Processes model ii

- **The Mean Squared Error Cross-Validation (MSE-CV)** [Bachoc, 2013] that minimizes the MSE when predicting $y^{(i)}$ using all other points $(\mathbf{X}_{-i}, \mathbf{y}_{-i})$ (Leave-One-Out)

$$(\hat{\sigma}_{MSE}^2, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{MSE}) \in \operatorname{argmin}_{\sigma^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y^{(i)} - \tilde{y}_i \right)^2 = \mathbf{y}^\top \bar{\mathbf{K}} \operatorname{Diag}(\bar{\mathbf{K}})^{-2} \bar{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{y}.$$

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The regression coefficients $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ are estimated by **Generalized Least Squares** method

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{F}^\top \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{F})^{-1} \mathbf{F}^\top \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

once the hyperparameters $(\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{ML})$ or $(\hat{\sigma}_{MSE}^2, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{MSE})$ are obtained.

Well-specified vs misspecified models

Formal definition of a well-specified model: The model is said to be *well-specified* if there exists a couple of hyperparameters $(\hat{\sigma}_0^2, \hat{\theta}_0)$ such that \mathbf{y} is considered as a realization of a GP model with covariance function $\mathbf{k}_{\hat{\sigma}_0^2, \hat{\theta}_0}$.

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Informal definition of a well-specified model: The model is said to be *well-specified* if \mathbf{y} satisfies the normality given the obtained hyperparameters by MLE method $(\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2, \hat{\theta}_{ML})$. *This result can be verified only empirically (e.g. graphically or using Shapiro test on the predictive distribution).*

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Misspecified model: when the model is not well-specified.

Challenges

In some cases, the model or the data may not honour all assumptions, hence no guarantees that Prediction intervals are well estimated by the **Maximum Likelihood** method [Bachoc, 2013].

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The **MSE-CV** method is more efficient when the model is misspecified and adapted for point-wise prediction [Bachoc, 2013] but the predictive variance may not be well estimated.

The main ideas of the paper

- Consider the estimation of covariance hyperparameters in a misspecified model setting.
- Propose a CV-based approach for a robust estimation of the model hyperparameters.
- Improve the quality of the estimated Predictive Intervals to achieve a nominal confidence level.

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For given hyperparameters (σ^2, θ) , "build" n GP models where each model has been trained on $(\mathbf{X}_{-i}, \mathbf{y}_{-i})$ to predict, at each point $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$,

$\tilde{y}_i = \tilde{y}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$ the predictive mean,

$\tilde{\sigma}_i^2 = \tilde{\sigma}^2(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$ the predictive variance,

$\tilde{y}_i^a = \tilde{y}_i + q_a \times \tilde{\sigma}_i$ the PI bound for a given rate a .

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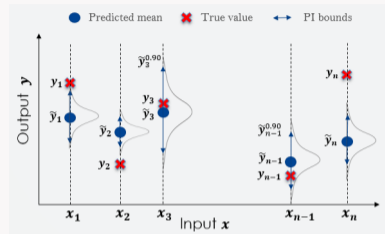
$\tilde{\sigma}_i^2 = \tilde{\sigma}^2(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$ the predictive variance,

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In reality, we do not "build" n models, we have direct formulas [Dubrule, 1983] to estimate \tilde{y}_i and $\tilde{\sigma}_i^2$.

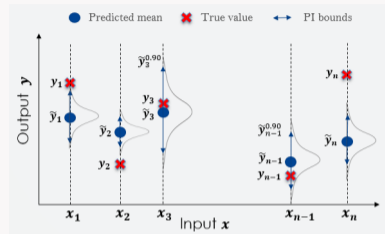
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How to insure that the PI bound $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}^a = (\tilde{y}_i^a)_{i=1}^n$ covers exactly $a \times 100\%$ (e.g. 95%) of true values ?



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By modifying the predictive distribution at each point.

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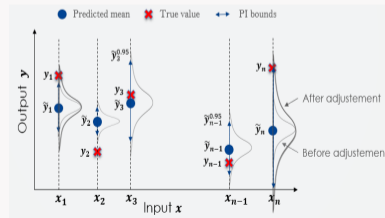
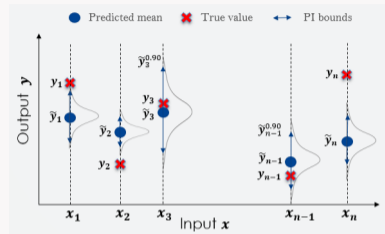
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i.e. By optimizing model's hyperparameters with respect to a special metric ψ_a .



Robust Prediction Intervals Estimation i

Consider

$$\psi_a(\sigma^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1} \left\{ \frac{y^{(i)} - \tilde{y}_i}{\tilde{\sigma}_i} \leq q_a \right\} \quad (\text{i.e. the number of predictions falling below } q_a).$$

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If $\psi_a(\sigma^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = a$ for some hyperparameters $(\sigma^2, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ **then** your model has learned to estimate the PI bound $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}^a$ such that $a \times 100\%$ of true values \mathbf{y} are below $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}^a$.

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Solution: Reduce the dimension of the search space \mathcal{H} by applying *the relaxation* method i.e. fix $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0 \in (\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{ML}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{MSE})$, $\lambda \in (0, +\infty)$ and solve for σ^2

$$\psi_a^{(\delta)}(\sigma^2, \lambda \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) = a$$

Robust Prediction Intervals Estimation iii

- Take the smallest variance $\sigma_{\text{opt}}^2(\lambda)$ that satisfies $\psi_a^{(\delta)}(\sigma^2, \lambda\theta_0) = a$.
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- Update the model by considering the hyperparameters $(\sigma_{\text{opt}}^2(\lambda), \lambda^*\theta_0)$ and $\hat{\beta}_{\text{opt}}^*$ (with GLS formulas).

General comments on the method

Comment 1: When there is no nugget effect, the proposition does not hold for Matérn kernels with $\nu > 2$.

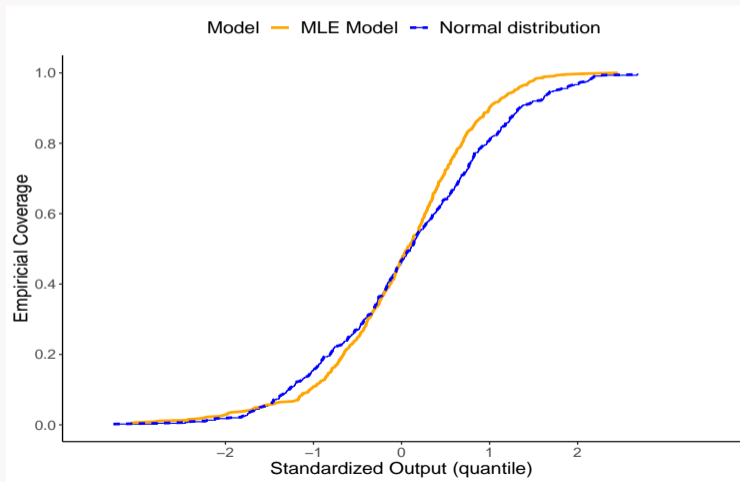
We can justify it by the fact that Matérn kernels with $\nu > 2$ are less robust for uncertainty quantification.

Comment 2: The function $\mathcal{L}(\lambda) = d^2((\sigma_{\text{opt}}^2(\lambda), \lambda\boldsymbol{\theta}_0), (\sigma_0^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}_0))$ is continuous and coercive, thus, a minimize λ^* exists.

Comment 3: The problem can be solved numerically using the golden-section search method.

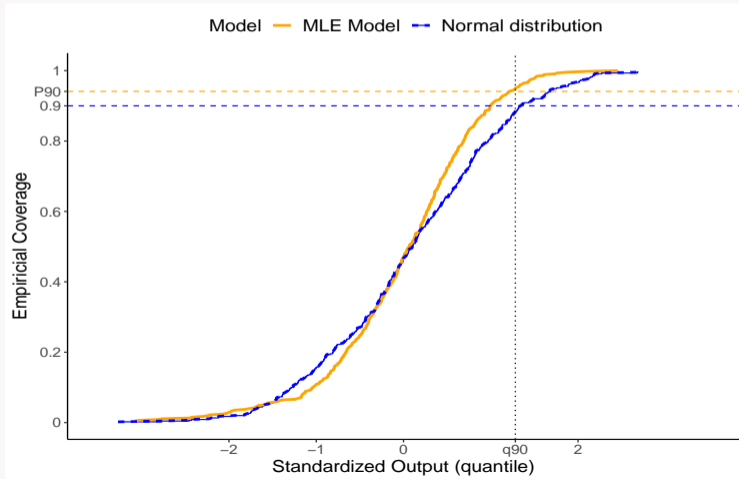
What happens exactly to the predictive distribution? i

Consider the LOO standardized predictive distribution of $\tilde{\mathbf{y}} = ((y^{(i)} - \tilde{y}_i)/\tilde{\sigma}_i)_{i=1}^n$.



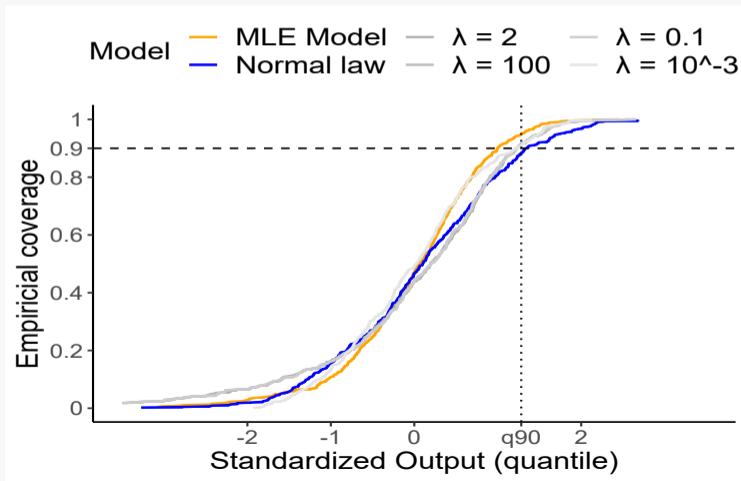
What happens exactly to the predictive distribution? ii

The ML model overestimates the PI bound of level 90% (here the empirical coverage $P90 = 94\%$).



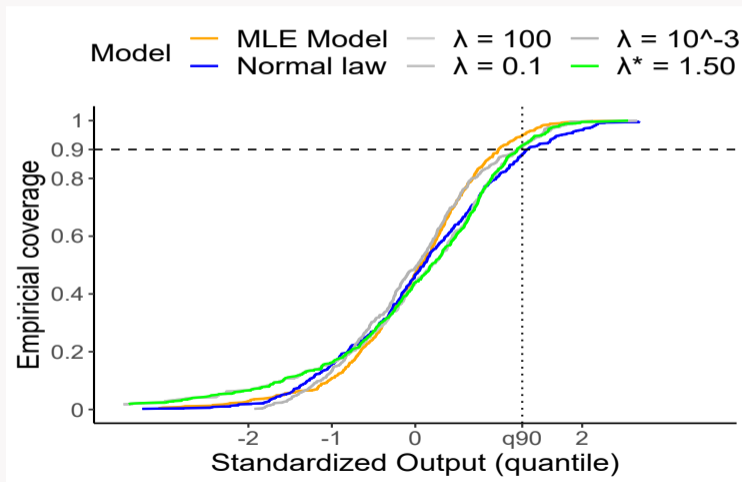
What happens exactly to the predictive distribution? iii

Target the *true* PI bound of level 90%. Infinite distributions that coincide with the standard normal distribution on point $(q_a, a) = (1.28, 0.90)$ are possible.



What happens exactly to the predictive distribution? iv

Pick the optimal distribution (obtained from λ^*) that is close to MLE wrt Wasserstein distance .



Robust Prediction Intervals Estimation iv

The main interest of the **Robust Prediction Interval Estimation (RPIE)** method:

- A GP model $\mathbf{GP}_{\alpha/2}$ able to predict the bound $\tilde{Y}_{\alpha/2}$ such that $\alpha/2 \times 100\%$ of true values are below $\tilde{Y}_{\alpha/2}$.
- A GP model $\mathbf{GP}_{1-\alpha/2}$ able to predict the bound $\tilde{Y}_{1-\alpha/2}$ such that $(1 - \alpha/2) \times 100\%$ of true values are below $\tilde{Y}_{1-\alpha/2}$.

Result: Prediction Intervals respecting as best as possible the optimal coverage rate $1 - \alpha$.

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$$p(y_{\text{new}} | \mathbf{y}) = \iint p(y_{\text{new}} | \mathbf{y}, \sigma^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\sigma^2, \boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{y}) d\sigma^2 d\boldsymbol{\theta},$$

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The predictive distribution is estimated as

$$p(y_{\text{new}} | \mathbf{y}) \simeq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N p(y_{\text{new}} | \mathbf{y}, \sigma_i^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i),$$

where $(\sigma_i^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i)$ is the i -th sample drawn from the posterior distribution $p(\sigma^2, \boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{y})$ by MCMC.

$\mathcal{PI}_{1-\alpha}$ are obtained from the empirical $\alpha/2$ - and $1 - \alpha/2$ -quantiles of the sample $(Y_i(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}))_{i=1}^N$.

Numerical results: evaluation metrics

The Leave-One-Out Coverage Probability $\tilde{\mathbb{P}}_{1-\alpha}$ on training set and CP on testing set :

$$\tilde{\mathbb{P}}_{1-\alpha} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}\{y^{(i)} \in \mathcal{PI}_{1-\alpha}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})\},$$

$$\text{CP}_{1-\alpha} = \frac{1}{n_{\text{test}}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\text{test}}} \mathbf{1}\{y_{\text{test}}^{(i)} \in \mathcal{PI}_{1-\alpha}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{test}}^{(i)})\}$$

The mean (MPIW) and standard-deviation (SdPIW) of Prediction Intervals widths:

$$\text{MPIW}_{1-\alpha} = \frac{1}{n_{\text{test}}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\text{test}}} \left| \mathcal{PI}_{1-\alpha}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{test}}^{(i)}) \right|$$

$$\text{SdPIW}_{1-\alpha} = \left(\frac{1}{n_{\text{test}}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\text{test}}} \left[\left| \mathcal{PI}_{1-\alpha}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{test}}^{(i)}) \right| - \text{MPIW}_{1-\alpha} \right]^2 \right)^{1/2}.$$

Toy example: the Morokoff & Caflisch function **i**

We consider the Morokoff and Caflisch [1995] function defined on $[0, 1]^d$ by

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{d}\right)^d \prod_{i=1}^d (x_i)^{1/d}.$$

\mathbf{X} has $n = 600$ observations and $d = 10$ variables, with a train-test split rate of 75-25%.

\mathbf{y} is generated as $y^{(i)} = f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) + \epsilon^{(i)}$ where $\epsilon^{(i)}$ are sampled i.i.d. over $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2 = 10^{-4})$.

Covariance model family \mathbf{k} : Matérn 5/2 anisotropic geometric correlation model.

Targeted confidence level: $1 - \alpha = 90\%$.

Toy example: the Morokoff & Cafilich function ii

	Before RPIE		After RPIE		Full-Bayesian
	MLE	MSE-CV	MLE	MSE-CV	-
$\tilde{\mathbb{P}}_{1-\alpha}$	93.6	98.3	90.0	90.0	93.8
$\text{CP}_{1-\alpha}$	94.0	98.0	92.6	87.3	93.3
$\text{MPIW}_{1-\alpha}$	$1.68 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.81 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$5.51 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$5.78 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.66 \cdot 10^{-1}$
$\text{SdPIW}_{1-\alpha}$	$9.61 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$4.16 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.29 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.41 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$9.27 \cdot 10^{-3}$
Ct	1min 16s	24min 18s	3min 55s	27min 43s	4h 43min 38s

$\tilde{\mathbb{P}}_{1-\alpha}$: The Leave-One-Out CP in % on the training set; $\text{CP}_{1-\alpha}$: CP in % on the testing set; MPIW: Mean of Prediction Interval widths; SdPIW: standard deviation of Prediction Interval widths and Ct: computational time.

Industrial case: Predicting uncertainty for gas production i

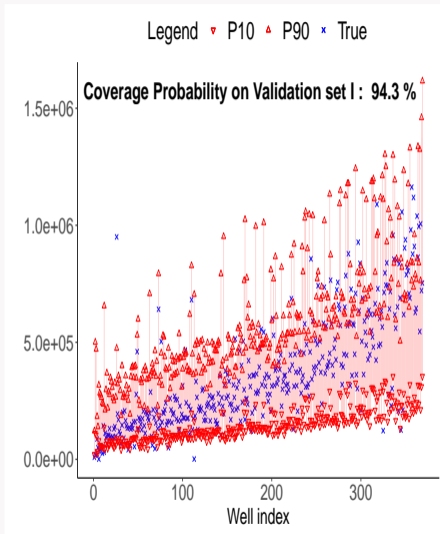
A field dataset containing $n = 1850$ wells with $d = 11$ dimensional inputs \mathbf{X} , the output \mathbf{y} is the Cumulative Production of natural gas over 12 months.

Targeted confidence level $1 - \alpha = 80\%$

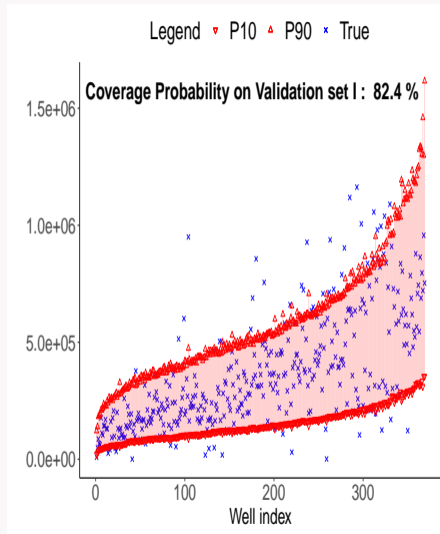
	MLE before RPIE	MLE after RPIE
$\tilde{\mathbb{P}}_{1-\alpha}$	91.1	79.9
$\text{CP}_{1-\alpha}$	94.3	83.2
$\text{MPIW}_{1-\alpha}$	1.53	1.40
$\text{SdPIW}_{1-\alpha}$	$2.20 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.40 \cdot 10^{-2}$
Ct	17min 47s	53min 21s

$\tilde{\mathbb{P}}_{1-\alpha}$: The Leave-One-Out CP in % on the training set; $\text{CP}_{1-\alpha}$: CP in % on Validation set; $\text{MPIW}_{1-\alpha}$: Mean of Prediction Interval widths; $\text{SdPIW}_{1-\alpha}$: standard deviation of Prediction Interval widths and Ct: computational time.

Industrial case: Predicting uncertainty for gas production ii



(a) Before the RPIE on log output



(b) After the RPIE on log output

Conclusion

- Consider the estimation of covariance hyperparameters in a misspecified model setting to improve Prediction Intervals.
- The RPIE method gives better Prediction Intervals estimation if compared to Maximum Likelihood or Full-Bayesian approaches.
- Categorical inputs should be considered in a future work with group kernels [Roustant et al., 2020]

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