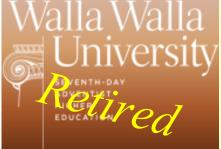




Proud Nerd (Zubar) Generation 1



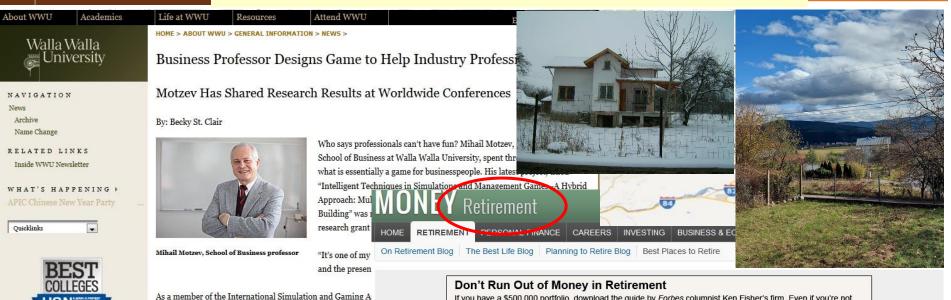




The Best Place to Retire - for Me ...



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If you have a \$500,000 portfolio, download the guide by Forbes columnist Ken Fisher's firm. Even if you're not sure how to start rebuilding your portfolio or who to turn to for help, this must-read guide includes research and analysis you can use right now. Don't miss it! Click Here to Download Your Guide! FISHER INVESTMENTS"

summer

research at many conventions, most recently in Romania, Po

present at the ISAGA/IFIP (International Federation for Inf

Home > Money > Retirement Planning, News, and Advice > Best Places to Retire for Foodies

By EMILY BRANDON | Read Full Story Walla Walla, Wash, Sweet onions and wheat were once Walla Walla's best-known exports. But the city is now speckled with wine tasting rooms featuring acclaimed cabernets, merlots, and syrahs and intimate restaurants that make adept use of the locally





- "Artificial Intelligence" was coined by John McCarthy (Dartmouth College - 1956) to distinguish the field from cybernetics and escape the influence of the cyberneticist Norbert Wiener.
- Artificial general intelligence (AGI) studies GI (the ability to take on any arbitrary problem) exclusively. Most AI research usually produced programs that can solve only one problem (narrow AI).
- "Statistical learning" techniques such as HMM and neural networks gain higher levels of accuracy in many practical domains such as data mining, without necessarily acquiring a semantic
 understanding of the datasets.

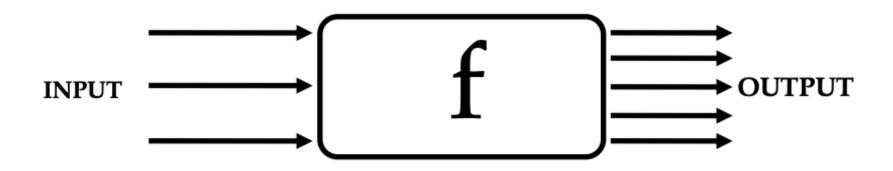


- Artificial general intelligence (AGI, strong AI, full AI etc.) is the hypothetical ability of an intelligent agent to understand or learn any intellectual task that a human being can.
- Narrow AI (weak AI) is limited to the use of software to study or accomplish specific pre-learned problem solving or reasoning tasks (expert systems).
- In the 1990s and early 21st century, mainstream Al achieved great commercial success and academic respectability by focusing on specific sub-problems where they can produce verifiable results and commercial applications, such as artificial neural neural neural neurons and statistical machine learning. © 2023 by M&M



- Supervised learning is the machine learning task of learning a function that maps an input to an output based on example input-output pairs.
- Unsupervised learning looks for previously undetected patterns in a data set with no preexisting labels and with a minimum of human supervision, also known as self-organization.
- Semi-supervised learning an approach to machine learning that combines a small amount of labeled data with a large amount of unlabeled data during training.

Statistical Learning Theory: supervised learning



Given a set of I examples (data)

$$\{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_{\ell}, y_{\ell})\}$$

Question: find function f such that

$$f(x) = \hat{y}$$

is a good predictor of y for a future input x (fitting the data is not enough!) A framework for machine learning drawing from the fields of statistics and functional analysis. © 2023 by M&M



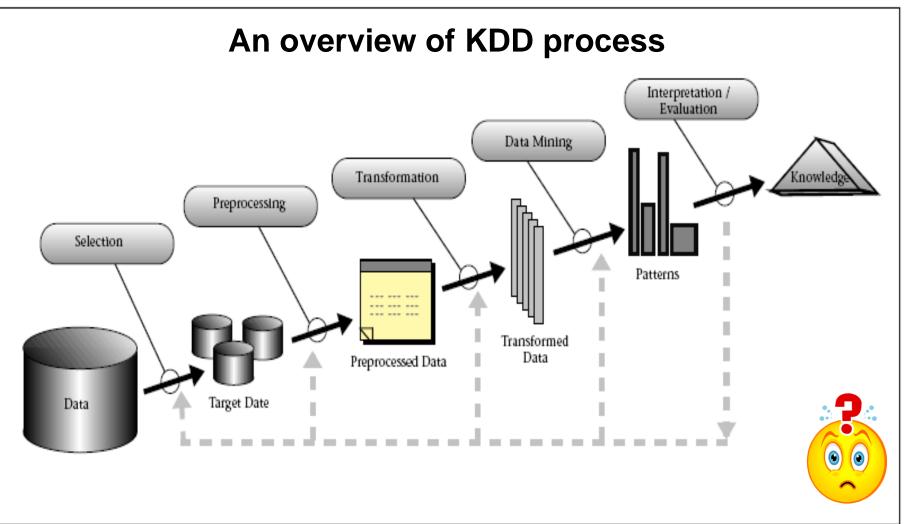
- Network a function (model) represented by the composition of many basic functions (models).
- **Basic function** element, unit, building block, network node, artificial neuron, partial model.
- A Learning Network estimates its function from representative observations of the relevant variables.
- From a data mining perspective, ANNs are just another way of fitting a model to observed historical data in order to be able to make classifications or predictions.

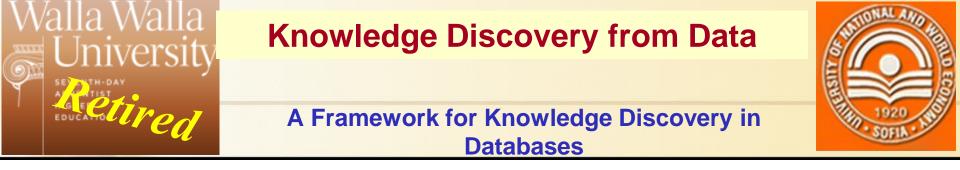


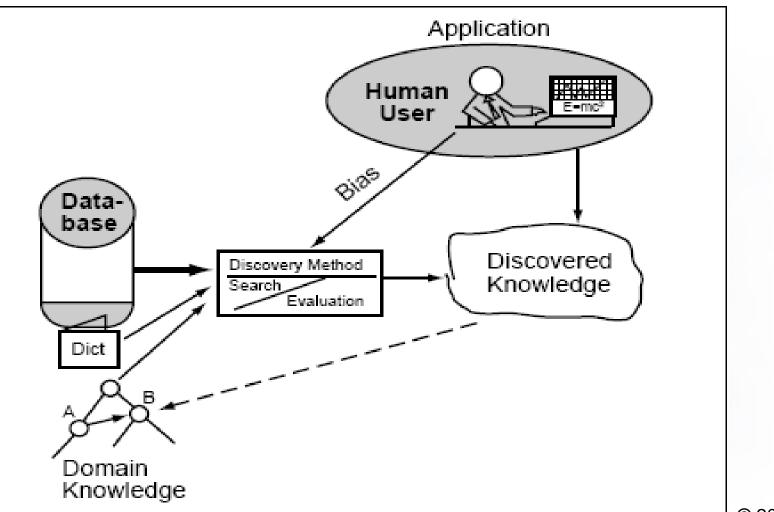
Knowledge Discovery in Databases –

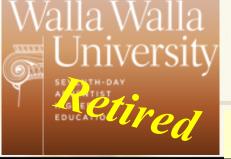
"Identification of underlying patterns, categories, and behaviors in large data sets using techniques such as *neural networks* and *DM*"



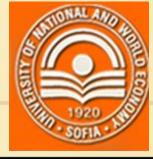








Statistical Learning Networks

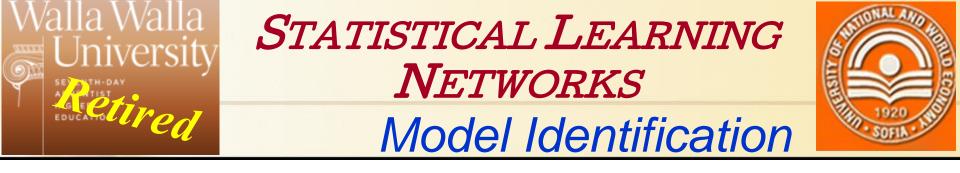


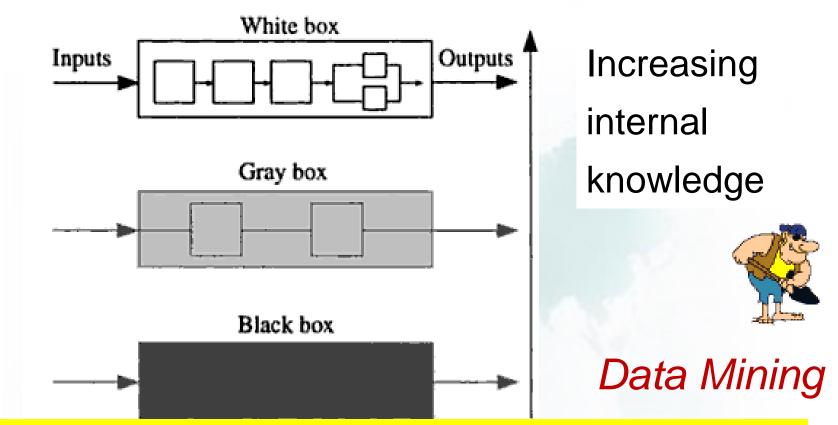
DM and Predictive analytics

- Data mining is the process of exploration and analysis (by automatic or semi- automatic means) of large quantities of data in order to discover meaningful patterns and rules.
- **Predictive analytics** encompasses a variety of techniques from *statistics*, *machine learning* and *data mining* that analyze current and historical facts to make predictions about future or otherwise unknown events - technically, predictive analytics is an area of data mining that deals with extracting information from data and using it to predict
- ¹¹ trends and behavior patterns.



- **Classification:** learning a function that maps (classifies) a data item into one of several predefined classes;
- **Estimation (regression):** learning a function that maps a data item into a real-valued prediction variable, building a model;
- **Prediction (predictive modeling):** building a model which can be used to make reliable forecasts;
- Affinity grouping or association rules: finding a model that describes significant dependencies between variables;
- Clustering: identifying a finite set of categories or clusters to describe the data;
- **Description and visualization (summarization):** finding a compact description for a subset of data.





Computational process of discovering patterns in large data sets involving methods at the intersection of artificial intelligence, machine learning, statistics, and database systems

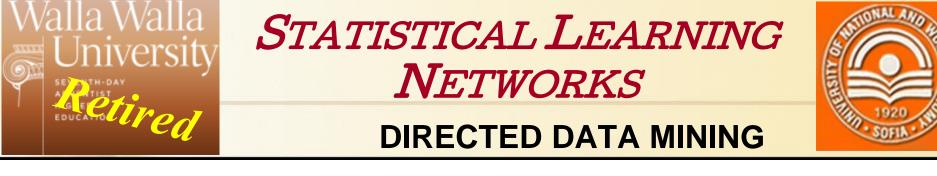
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The goal is to use the available data to build a model that describes one particular variable of interest in terms of the rest of the available data. A top-down approach, used when we know what we are looking for. It often takes the form of predictive modeling. The model is considered as a *black box*.

Data mining activities:

- **Classification:** learning a function that maps (classifies) a data item into one of several predefined classes;
- **Estimation (regression):** learning a function that maps a data item into a real-valued prediction variable, building a model;
- Prediction (predictive modeling): building a model which
 can be used to make reliable forecasts.
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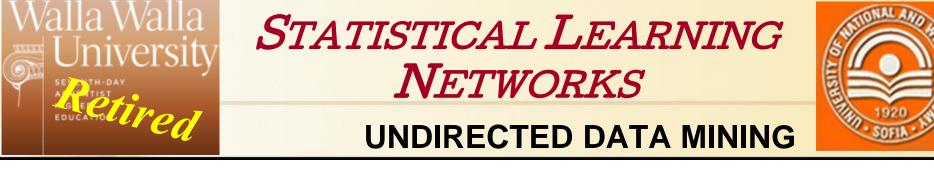
A top-down approach – often takes the form of predictive modeling where we know exactly what we want to predict. In this case the model is considered as a *black box*, i.e., it is not important what the model is doing, we just want the most accurate result possible. GOALS Control **Feedback**+ Output Input



A bottom-up approach that finds patterns in the data and leaves it up to the user to determine whether or not these patterns are important, i.e., it is about discovering new patterns inside the data. The goal is to establish some relationship among all the variables (represented with *semitransparent boxes*).

Data mining activities:

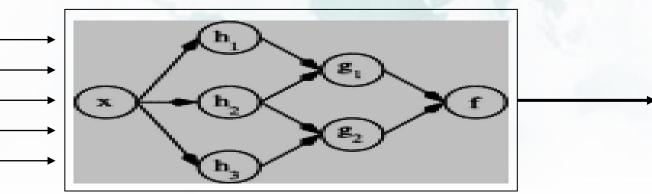
- Affinity grouping or association rules: finding a model that describes significant dependencies between variables;
- **Clustering:** identifying a finite set of categories or clusters to describe the data;
- **Description and visualization (summarization):** finding a compact description for a subset of data.



 A bottom-up approach that finds patterns in the data which provide insights. This form of data mining is represented with semitransparent boxes and unlike directed DM, here users want to know what is going on, how the model is coming up with an answer.

Inputs

Output

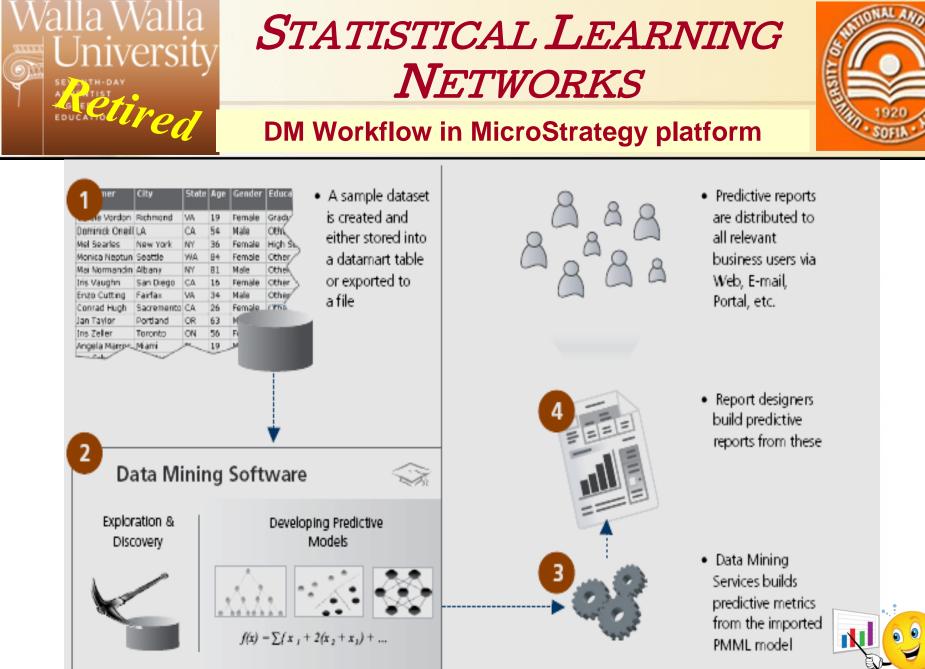




- 1. Create a predictive model from a data sample
- 2. Train the model against datasets with known results
- 3. Apply the model against a new dataset with an unknown outcome (*cross-validation*)

<u>Notes</u>: SAS Institute Inc. developed a five-step data mining cycle process known as **SEMMA**: Sample, explore, modify, model, and assess.

IBM Corp. has a slightly different interpretation of the data mining process and other companies may have their own view as well.





Three main components in Data Mining process:

- 1. Data The power of data mining is leveraging the data that a company collects to make better informed business decisions.
- 2. Modeling Skills The set of modeling skills needed to build predictive models in data mining in general is the same as in business forecasting process and which is working well for both directed and undirected data mining.
- 3. Data Mining Techniques clustering, decision trees and neural networks.

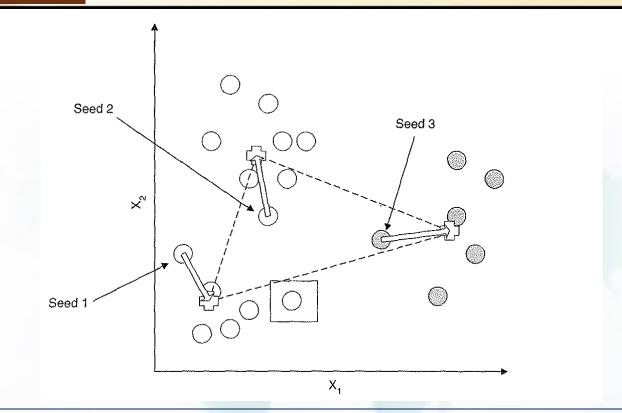


- classification: learning a function that maps (classifies) a data item into one of several predefined classes;
- **regression:** learning a function that maps a data item into a real-valued prediction variable;
- clustering: identifying a finite set of categories or clusters to describe the data;
- *summarization*: finding a compact description for a subset of data;
- *dependency modeling*: finding a model that describes significant dependencies between variables;
- change and deviation detection: discovering the most significant changes in the data from previously measured or normative values.

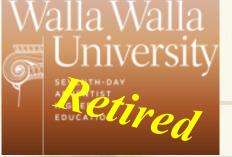


- Automatic Cluster Detection use cluster detection when we suspect that there are natural groupings that may represent groups of customers or products that have a lot in common with each other.
- Decision Trees (Classification & Regression) a good choice when the data mining task is classification of records or prediction of outcomes. We should use decision trees when the goal is to assign each record to one of a few broad categories.
- Artificial Neural Networks (the most widely known and the least understood of the major data mining techniques) a good choice for most classification and prediction tasks when the results of the model are more important than understanding how the model works. ANNs represent complex mathematical equations, with lots of summations, exponential functions, and many parameters.

Automatic Cluster Detection Data Mining Techniques

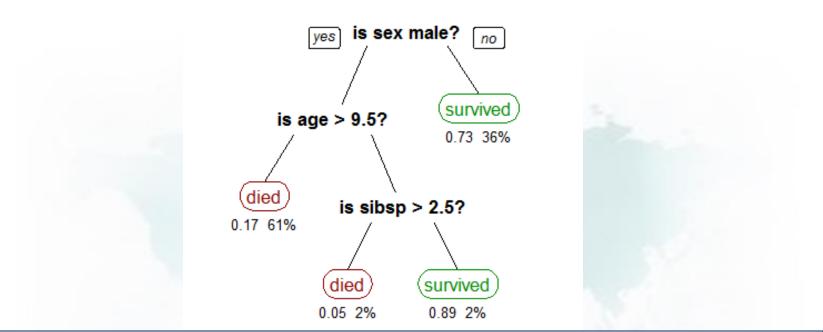


Grouping a set of objects in such a way that objects in the same group (cluster) are more similar (in some sense or another) to each other than to those in other groups (clusters)



Decision Trees

Data Mining Techniques



A tree showing survival of passengers on the Titanic ("sibsp" is the number of spouses or siblings aboard). The figures under the leaves show the probability of survival and the percentage of observations in the leaf

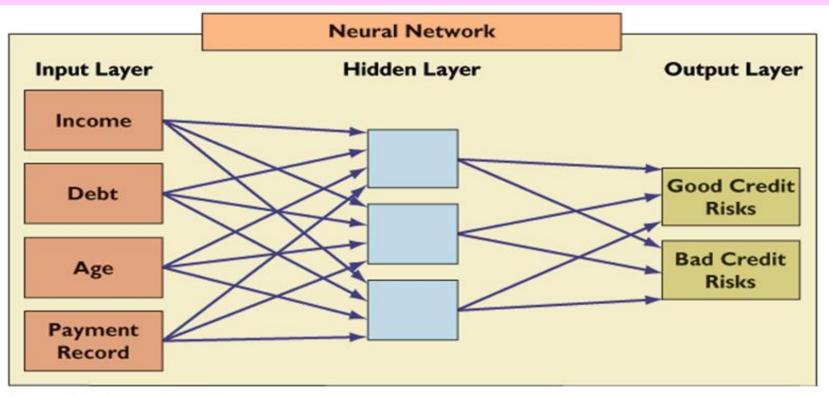


Artificial Neural Networks

Data Mining Techniques

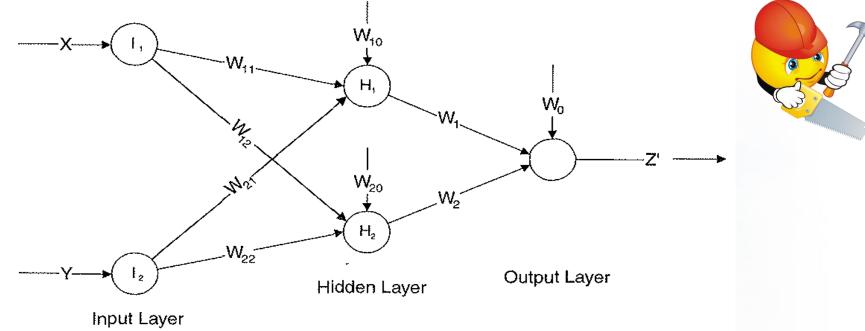


ANN – artificial systems which emulate the processing patterns of the biological brain to discover patterns and relationships in massive amounts of data ("Perceptron" - Ph. Rozenblat)



Source: Herb Edelstein, "Technology How-To: Mining Data Warehouses," InformationWeek, January 8, 1996. Copyright © 1996 CMP Media, Inc., 600 Community Drive, Manhasset, NY 11030. Reprinted with permission.





A neural network with a hidden layer.

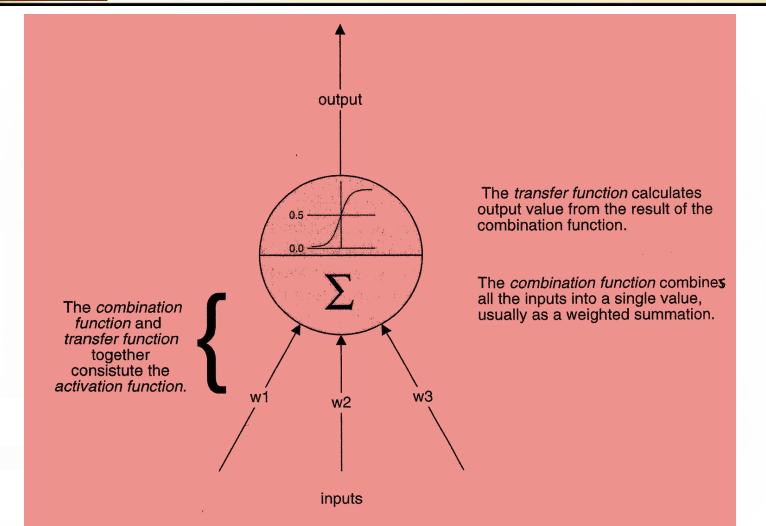
"The most widely known and the least understood of the major data mining techniques."

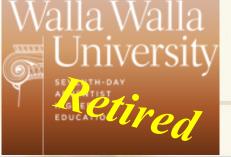


How a Neural Network Works

Linear Transfer Function

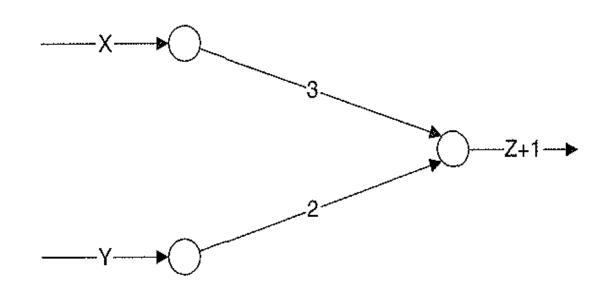
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How a Neural Network Works

Simple ANN – one hidden layer





Input Layer

Output Layer

Neural network representation of z=3x+2y-1.



How a Neural Network Works



When to use Artificial Neural Networks

ANNs are a good choice for most classification and prediction tasks when the results of the model are more important than understanding how the model works. ANN represent complex mathematical equations, with lots of summations, exponential functions, and many parameters. The equations are the rule of the network but are useless for our understanding. Also, ANN does not work well when there is large number of inputs. This makes it more difficult for the network to find patterns and can result in long training phases that never converge to a good solution.

	ANNs	Statistical Learning Networks
Data analysis	universal approximator	structure identificator
Analytical model	indirect by approximation	direct
Architecture	unbounded network structure; experimental selection of adequate architecture demands time and experience	bounded network structure [1]; adaptively synthesised structure
A-priori- Information	without transformation in the world of ANNs not usable	can be used directly to select the reference functions and criteria
Self- organisation	deductive, given number of layers and number of nodes (subjective choice)	inductive, number of layers and of nodes estimated by minimum of external criterion (objective choice)
Parameter estimation	in a recursive way; demands long samples	estimation on training set by means of maximum likelihood techniques, selection on testing set (extremely short)
Feature	result depends on initial solution, time- consuming technique, necessary knowledge about the theory of neural networks	existence of a model of optimal complexity, not time-consuming technique, necessary knowledge about the task (criteria) and class of system (linear, non-linear)

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$$STATISTICAL LEARNING
NETWORKS
General Prediction Model
$$y = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{M} a_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^{M} \sum_{j=1}^{M} a_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^{M} \sum_{j=1}^{M} \sum_{k=1}^{M} a_{ijk} x_i x_j x_k$$
where

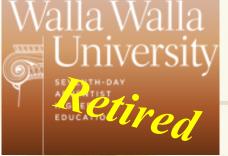
$$-$$
 input variables vector;

$$X(x_1, x_2, ..., x_M)$$

$$A(a_1, a_2, ..., a_M)$$
- vector of coefficients or weights.

$$Y = F(X, e)$$$$

where *F* can be any mathematical function describing the variable *Y* (*the output*) as a function of *input variables X* and the stochastic component *e* (*model error*).



Model Building Problems

A SUFIA - MARKED

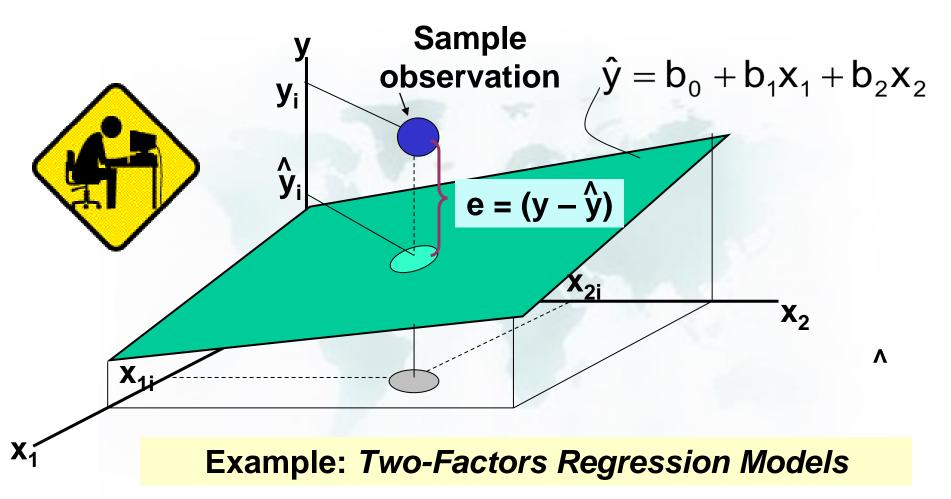
- Model specification;
- Overfitting;
- Autocorrelation;
- Multicollinearity
- ANNs:
 - number of layers;
 - how many input nodes;
 - best activation function;
 - ANN training;
 - lack of transparency (interpretation), etc.

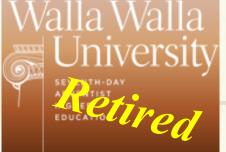




Regression Analysis









Coefficient

005

2010

0.127

t-Statistic*

9.691

.100

.075 .050

.000

Regression Models – Problems:

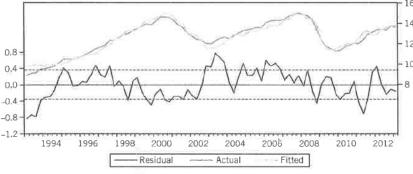
Alan Greenspan (The Map and the Territory: Risk, Human Nature, and the Future of Forecasting):

APPENDICES

Exhibit 4.7

	ime Period: Q1 1993-Q1 2013, 81 abs.) ixed Invst (SAAR, Bil.Chn.2005\$) / Pvt Nonres Fixed Asse	ts (2005 = 100))
Independent Variable(s)	Coefficient	t-Statistic*
S&P 500 (1941-4 (1 quarter ago)	43=10) / Pvt Nonres Fixed Invst Price (SA, 2005 = 100)	0.473	19.044
Nonfarm Operating Rate (SA, % of capacity) (3 quarters ago) Structures' share of nominal Pvt Nonres Fixed Invst		0.165	6.118
		6,332	4.517
Adjusted R-sq	Durbin-Watson		
0.946	0.585		

*t-statistic calculated using Newey-West HAC standard errors and covariance,



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce; Standard and Poor's; Federal Reserve Board; author's calculations.

Exhibit 3.3

Dependent Variable (Time Period: Jan. 1991–Dec. 2005, 180 obs. m/m %∆ in: CoreLogic Home Price Index (Seasonally adjusted

Independent Variable(s)

Freddie Mac 30yr Fixed-Rate Mortgage Rate, % p.a. (3 mo

Adjusted R-sq Durbin-Watso

0,604 0.159
*t-statistic calculated using Newey-West HAC standard errors and covarian

*-Domeslic calculated using Newey-West HAC standard errors and covariance. *-Domeslic holdings of domeslic corporate equilities and foreign corporate equities, at market value.			
٨	4 stt	Â	

Dependent Variable (Time Period: Q1 1975-Q1 2013, 153 obs.)

Personal Consumption Expenditures (***SAAR, Bil.\$) / Disposable Personal Income (SAAR, Bil.\$)

Exhibit 4.4

Independent Variable(s)

Adjusted R-sq

0.419

In [**Corp & Home Equity, Period Avg (1 quarter ago) /

**Corp & Home Equity, Period Avg (5 quarters ago)]

Durbin-Watson

0.364

Independent Variable(s)

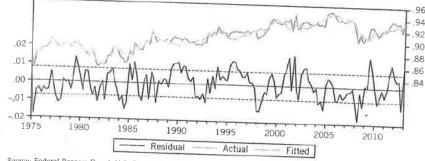
Household (Incl. NPOs) Household (Incl. NPOs) 6-Month Certificates of	Household (incl. NPOs) Stock Net Worth (Period Avg, Bil.\$) / DPI Household (incl. NPOs) Homeowners' Equity (Period Avg, Bil.\$) / DPI Household (incl. NPOs) All Other Net Worth (Period Avg, Bil.\$) / DPI 6-Month Certificates of Deposit (% p.a./100) (3 quarters ago) [**Adjusted PI / DPI] (2 quarters ago)	Coefficient 0.0209 0,0308 0.0188 -0,3752	t-Statistic 9,66 6.35 2.63 →9,56
	(= duarters ago)	0.2666	2,30
Adjusted R-sq	Durbin-Watson		

0,903 1.089

*1-statistic calculated using Newey-West HAC standard errors and covariance,

**Adjusted PI = (0.9*Wages and Safary Disbursements) + (1.0*Personal Current Transfer Receipts) + (0.5*All Other Personal Income).

***Seasonally adjusted annual rate.



Source: Federal Reserve Board; U.S. Department of Commerce,

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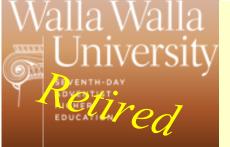
Machine Learning - Interpretations

Simple numerical example

Consider the following data set :

y	а	b	С
9	1	8	1
9	2	7	2
9	3	6	3
9	4	5	4
9	5	4	5
9	6	3	6
9	7	2	7
6	99	1	5

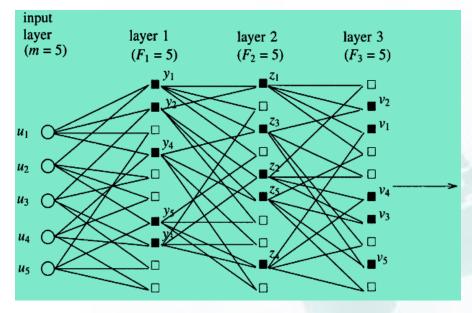
Model: Y = F(a,b,c)Solutions: y = 9.3- 0.033a-0.033by = 0.00001 + b + c y = 9 - 0.0319a + 0.0319c

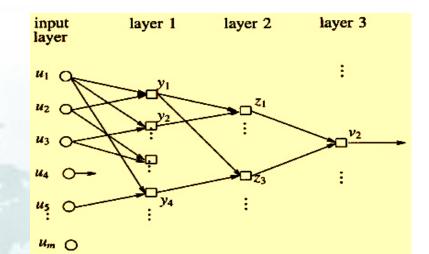


Multilayered Nets of Active Neurons

SUFIA-1920

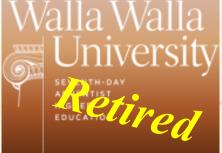
Multilayered network structure with five input arguments and selected nodes:





Multilayered network structure representing the output flow to unit 2 of layer 3

Source: ISAGA 2014 - Predictive Analytics in Business Games and Simulations



"The first general, working learning algorithm for supervised, deep, feedforward, multilayer perceptron(s) was published by Alexey Ivakhnenko and Lapa in 1967" (Wikipedia).



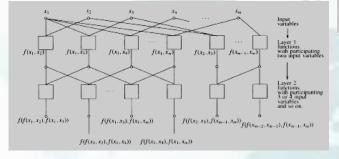
GMDH



Alexey G. Ivakhnenko. (1913-2007) Two State Prizes of the USSR, Medal "For Labor", Order of Friendship of Peoples ...

Gödel's incompleteness theorems

Genetic selection of pairwise features



Gabor's principle of "freedom of decisions choice"

Knowledge extraction from experimental data, Self-Organization etc...

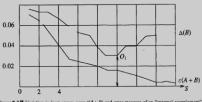


Figure 4.3.4. Variation in least square error c(A + B) and error measure of an "external complement" $\Delta(B)$ for a regression equation of increasing complexity S; O_1 is the model of optimal complexity



Dennis Gabor (1900-1978)

Numerous (>20) awards:

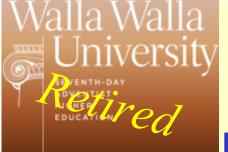
- Nobel Prize in Physics (1971)
- Honorary Doctorate, Delft University of Technology (1971)



Kurt Gödel (1906-1978)

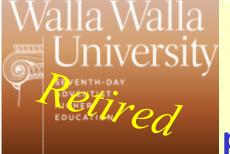
Notable awards:

- Albert Einstein
 Award (1951)
- National Medal of Science (USA) in Mathematical, Statistical, and Computational Sciences (1974)
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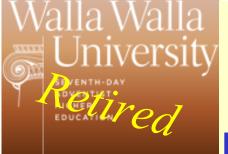


- First Incompleteness Theorem: "Any consistent formal system F within which a certain amount of elementary arithmetic can be carried out is incomplete; i.e., there are statements of the language of F which can neither be proved nor disproved in F."
- The unprovable statement G(F) referred to by the theorem is often referred to as "the Gödel sentence" for the system F. The proof constructs a particular Gödel sentence for the system F, but there are infinitely many statements in the language of the system that share the same properties.
- Each effectively generated system has its own Gödel sentence. It is possible to define a larger system F' that contains the whole of F plus GF as an additional axiom.
- This will not result in a complete system, because Gödel's theorem will also apply to F', and thus F' also cannot be complete. In this case, GF is indeed a theorem in F', because it is an axiom. Because GF states only that it is not provable in F, no contradiction is presented by its provability within F'. However, because the incompleteness theorem applies to F', there will be a new Gödel statement GF' for F', showing that F' is also incomplete. GF' will differ from GF in that GF' will refer to F', rather than F.



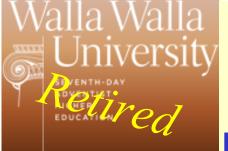


- The first incompleteness theorem shows that the Gödel sentence GF of an appropriate formal theory F is unprovable in F. Because, when interpreted as a statement about arithmetic, this unprovability is exactly what the sentence (indirectly) asserts, the Gödel sentence is, in fact, true. For this reason, the sentence GF is often said to be "true but unprovable." However, since the Gödel sentence cannot itself formally specify its intended interpretation, <u>the truth of the sentence GF may only be arrived at via a meta-analysis from outside the system.</u>
- Compared to the theorems stated in Gödel's 1931 paper, many contemporary statements of the incompleteness theorems are more general in two ways. These generalized statements are phrased to apply to a broader class of systems, and they are phrased to incorporate weaker consistency assumptions.
- Gödel demonstrated the incompleteness of the system of Principia Mathematica (particular system of arithmetic) but a parallel demonstration could be given for any effective system of a certain expressiveness. Gödel commented on this fact in the introduction to his paper but restricted the proof to one system for concreteness. In modern statements of the theorem, it is common to state the effectiveness and expressiveness conditions as hypotheses for the incompleteness theorem, so that it is not limited to any particular formal system.





- The first incompleteness theorem states that no consistent system of axioms whose theorems can be listed by an effective procedure (i.e., an algorithm) is capable of proving all truths about the arithmetic of natural numbers. For any such consistent formal system, there will always be statements about natural numbers that are true, but that are unprovable within the system. The second incompleteness theorem, an extension of the first, shows that the system cannot demonstrate its own consistency. A consistent theory is one that does not lead to a logical contradiction.
- The semantic definition states that a theory is consistent if it has a model, i.e., there exists an interpretation under which all formulas in the theory are true. The syntactic definition states a theory {T} is consistent if there is no formula (f) and its negation {not f} are elements of the set of consequences of {T}.
- For each formal system F containing basic arithmetic, it is possible to canonically define a formula Cons(F) expressing the consistency of F. Gödel's second incompleteness theorem shows that, under general assumptions, this canonical consistency statement Cons(F) will not be provable in F.

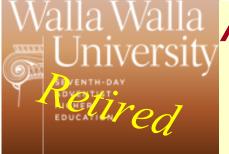




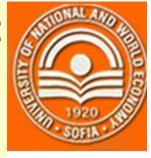
- The second incompleteness theorem does not rule out altogether the possibility of proving the consistency of some theory T, only doing so in a theory that T itself can prove to be consistent. For example, Gerhard Gentzen proved the consistency of Peano arithmetic in a different system that includes an axiom asserting that the ordinal called ε0 is wellfounded.
- Gentzen's consistency proof is a result of proof theory in mathematical logic, published by Gerhard Gentzen in 1936. <u>It shows that the Peano axioms of first-order arithmetic do not</u> <u>contain a contradiction (i.e., are "consistent"), if a certain other system used in the proof</u> <u>does not contain any contradictions either.</u> This other system, today called "primitive recursive arithmetic with the additional principle of quantifier-free transfinite induction up to the ordinal ε0", is neither weaker nor stronger than the system of Peano axioms. Gentzen argued that it avoids the questionable modes of inference contained in Peano arithmetic and that its consistency is therefore less controversial.







Artificial neural networks (ANNs): Over-training arises in over-specified systems when the network capacity exceeds the needed free parameters.

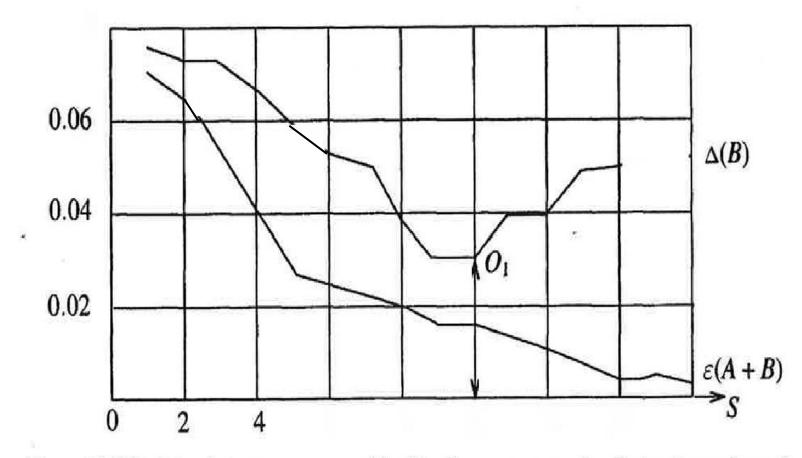


- The first approach to address this is to use *cross-validation* to check for the presence of over-training and to select hyperparameters to minimize the generalization error.
- The second is to use some form of *regularization*. This concept emerges in a probabilistic (Bayesian) framework but also in statistical learning theory, where the goal is to minimize over two quantities: the 'empirical risk' and the 'structural risk', which roughly corresponds to the error over the training set and the predicted error in unseen data due to overfitting.
- Supervised ANNs that use a mean squared error (MSE) cost function can use formal statistical methods to determine the confidence of the trained model. The MSE <u>on a validation set</u> can be used as an estimate for variance. This value can then be used to calculate the confidence interval of network output, assuming a normal distribution.
- By assigning a softmax activation function, a generalization of the logistic function, on the output layer of the neural network for categorical target variables, the outputs can be interpreted as posterior probabilities.



Overfitting – Internal vs External (Cross) Validation





Variation in least square error $\epsilon(A + B)$ and error measure of an "external complement" $\Delta(B)$ for a regression equation of increasing complexity S; O₁ is the model of optimal complexity

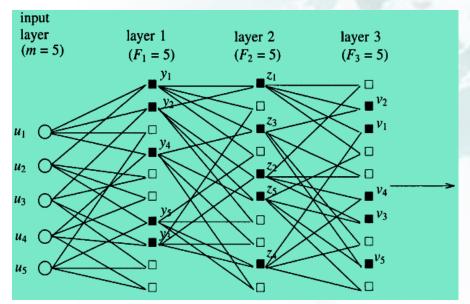


Statistical Learning Networks of Active Neurons

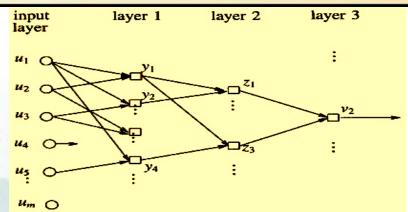
Multilayered Net of Active Neurons (MLNAN)



In this approach, neither the number of neurons and the number of layers in the network, nor the actual behavior of each created neuron is predefined. The modeling process is self-organizing because all of them (the number of neurons, the number of layers, and the actual behavior of each created neuron) are adjusting during the process of self-organization.

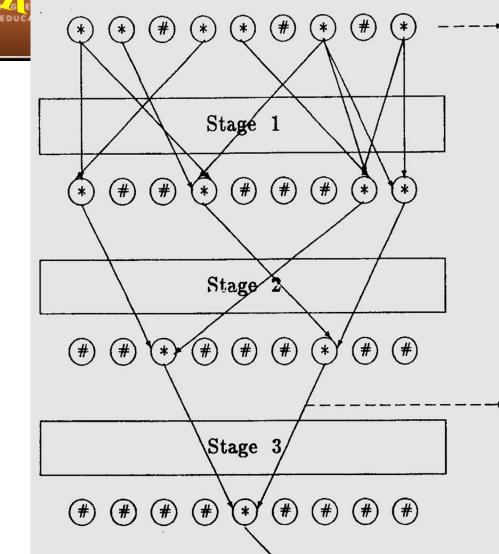


Multilayer network structure with five input arguments and selected nodes:



Multilayer network structure representing the output flow to unit 2 of layer 3 This method grows a tree-like network out of data of input and output variables in a pairwise combination and competitive selection from a simple single unit to a desired final solution that does not have a predefined model. The basic idea is that first the elements on a lower level are estimated and the corresponding intermediate outputs are computed and then the parameters of the elements of the next level are estimated. © 2023 by M&M





Walla

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 Hypotheses not participating in the given model

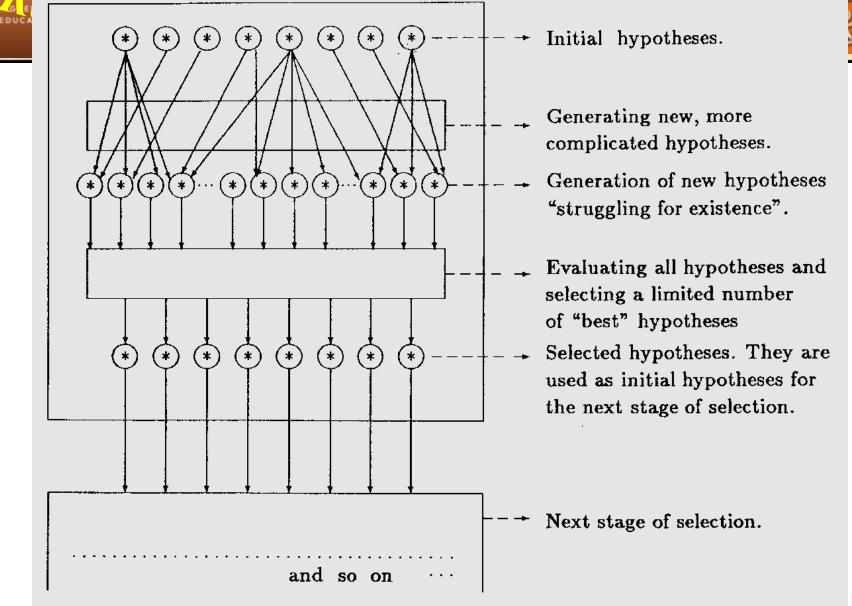
* Hypotheses taking part in the given model

"Generation tree" of the given model

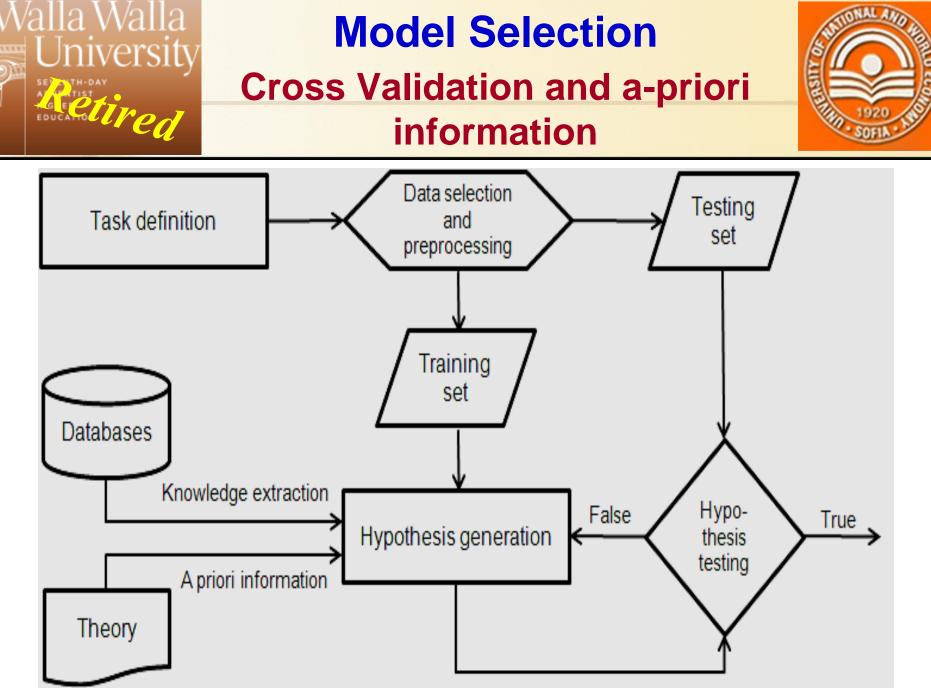
Initial hypotheses.

`The given model (as a result of a number of hypotheses)

Pair-Wise Selection Using External Criteria

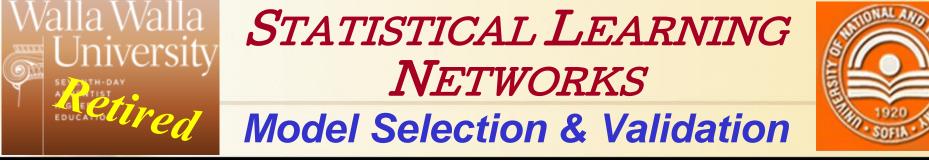


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- The concept of Cross Validation, also called rotation estimation, out-of-sample testing, predictive sample reuse, reuse of the sample etc. is an old one:
 - (1951). Symposium: The need and means of crossvalidation:
 - I. Problem and designs of cross-validation.
 - II. Approximate linear restraints and best predictor weights.
 - III. Cross-validation of item analyses.



- Cross Validation also called rotation estimation or out-of-sample testing, is a model validation technique for assessing how the results of a statistical analysis will generalize to an independent data set.
- Involves partitioning a sample of data into complementary subsets, performing the analysis on one subset (called the *training set*), and validating the analysis on the other subset (called the *validation set* or *testing set*).
- Two types of cross-validation can be distinguished: *exhaustive* and *non-exhaustive cross-validation.*



 Exhaustive cross-validation - learn and test on all possible ways to divide the original sample into a training and a validation set.

- Leave-p-out cross-validation - involves using p observations as the validation set and the remaining observations as the training set. This is repeated on all ways to cut the original sample on a validation set of p observations and a training set.

- Leave-one-out cross-validation - a particular case
 of leave-p-out cross-validation with p = 1.



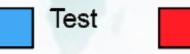
• Leave-one-out cross-validation:

1. Select (it could be random) observation i for the testing set and use the remaining observations in the training set. Compute the error on the test observation.

2. Repeat the above step for i = 1, 2, ... N-1, where N is the total number of observations.

3. Compute the forecast accuracy measures based on all errors obtained.

A total of 8 models *n* = 8 will be trained and tested: Model 1



Train



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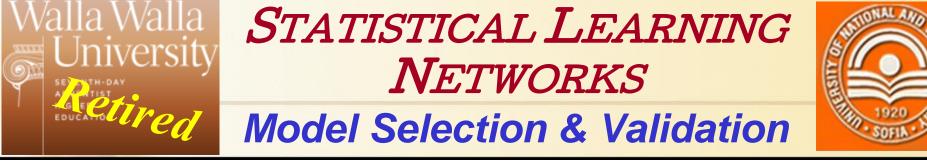


 Non-exhaustive cross-validation - do not compute all ways of splitting the original sample. Those methods are approximations of *leave-p-out cross-validation*.

- *k*-fold cross-validation - the sample is randomly partitioned into k equal sized subsamples. When k = n (the number of observations), *k*-fold cross-validation is equivalent to leave-one-out cross-validation.

- holdout method - randomly assign data points to two sets A and B (training set and test set).

- repeated random sub-sampling validation or
 Monte Carlo cross-validation creates multiple random
 splits of the dataset into training and validation data
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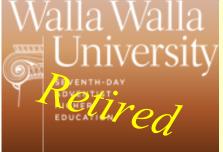
 Nested cross-validation - cross-validation is used simultaneously for selection of the best set of hyperparameters and for error estimation.

- *k***I*-fold cross-validation - contains an outer loop of k folds and an inner loop of I folds. One by one, a set is selected as (outer) test set and the k - 1 other sets are combined into the corresponding outer training set.

k-fold cross-validation with validation and test
 set - k*l-fold cross-validation when I = k - 1. One by one, a
 set is selected as a test set. Then, one by one, one of the
 remaining sets is used as a validation set and the other k - 2
 sets are used as training sets until all possible combinations
 have been evaluated.



- **Rolling forecasting origin** since it is not possible to get a reliable forecast based on a very small training set, the earliest observations *n* are not considered as testing sets.
- 1. We select the observation at time (n+i) for the testing set and use the observations at times t= $\{1, 2, ..., (n+i-1)\}$ to estimate the forecasting model. Then we compute the error on the forecast for the time (n+i).
- 2. The above step should be done for all $i = \{1, 2, ..., (T-n)\}$, where T is the total number of observations and the forecast error should be measured on each (n+i) period accordingly.
- 3. In the end, we compute the forecast accuracy measures based on all errors obtained.



Accuracy, Trueness and Precision



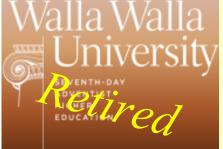




A) Low accuracy due to poor precision.

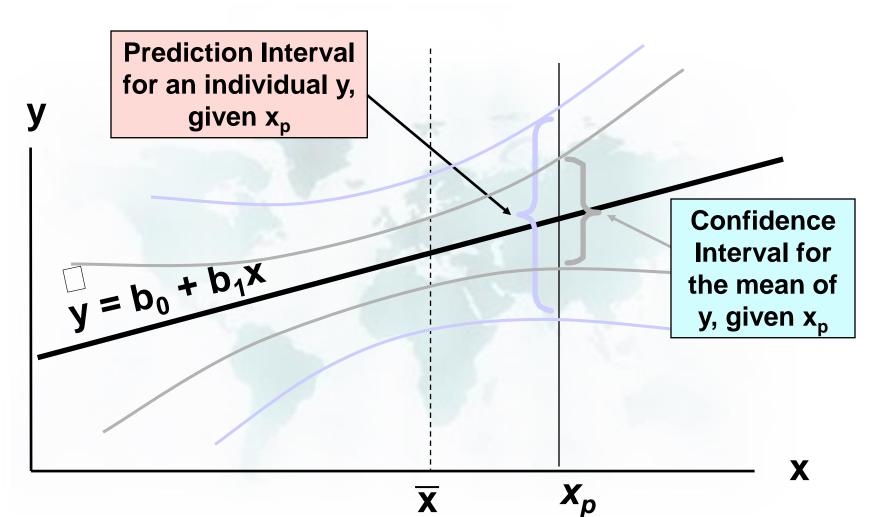
B) Low accuracy due to poor trueness.

ISO 5725 (1994) Accuracy – trueness and precision



Model Selection & Validation - Accuracy







Prediction (simulation) error:

$$\mathbf{e}_{t} = y_{t} - F_{t}$$

where **e**_t is the error at period **t** (**t**={**1**, **2**, **3**...**N**});

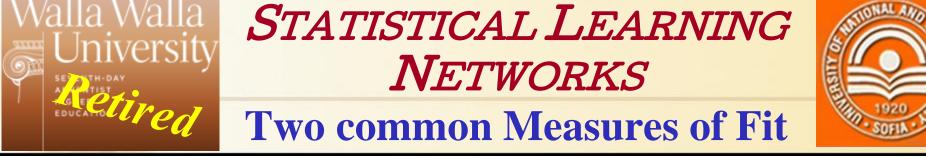
N is the prediction interval (or the size of the dataset);

yt is the actual value at period t and

F_t is the forecast for period *t*.

Mean Forecast Error (forecast bias):

$$\text{MFE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} e_t$$



• Measures of fit are used to gauge how well the forecasts match the actual values

MSE (mean squared error)

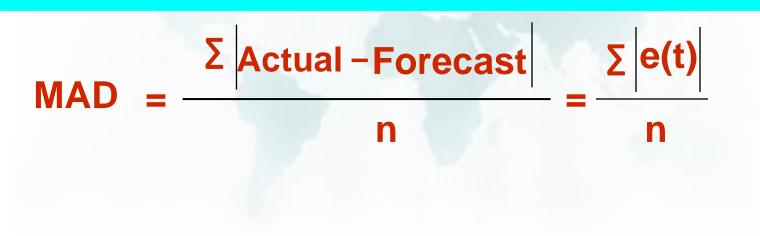
– Average squared difference between y_t and F_t

MAD (mean absolute deviation)

- Average absolute value of difference between \boldsymbol{y}_t and \boldsymbol{F}_t
- Less sensitive to extreme values



- Mean Absolute Deviation (MAD)
 - Average absolute error most useful to measure the forecast error in the same units as the original series.





Statistical Learning Networks



- Mean Squared Error (MSE)
 - Average of squared error provides a penalty for large forecasting errors (it squares each)





Mean Squared Error

$$MSE = \frac{\sum (y_t - F_t)^2}{n - 1}$$

Mean Absolute Deviation

$$MAD = \frac{\sum |y_t - F_t|}{n}$$

where:

 $y_t = Actual value at time t$

F_t = Predicted value at time t

n = Number of time periods

MSE

- Squares errors
- More weight to large errors

- Easy to compute

MAD

- Weights errors linearly

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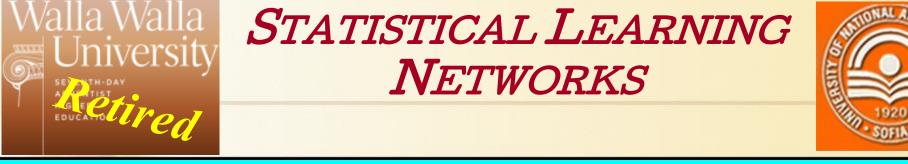


Statistical Learning Networks



- Mean Percentage Error (MPE)
 - Average percentage error useful when it is necessary to determine whether a forecasting method is biased. If the forecast is unbiased MPE will produce a % that is close to 0. Large –% means overestimating. Large +% - the method is consistently underestimating.

$MPE = \frac{\sum (Actual - Forecast) / Actual}{n} \times 100$



 Coefficient of variation of the Root Mean Squared Error, CV(RMSE): The RMSE serves to aggregate the magnitudes of the errors in predictions for various times into a single measure of predictive power and CV(RMSE) helps to compare forecasting errors of different models.

 $CV(RMSE) = RMSE/\overline{y}$

 $RMSE = \sqrt{MSE}$



Measures of Trueness (Systematic error, Statistical Bias):

Mean Percentage Error (MPE)

MPE (%) =
$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} (e_t / y_t) \times 100$$

Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE)

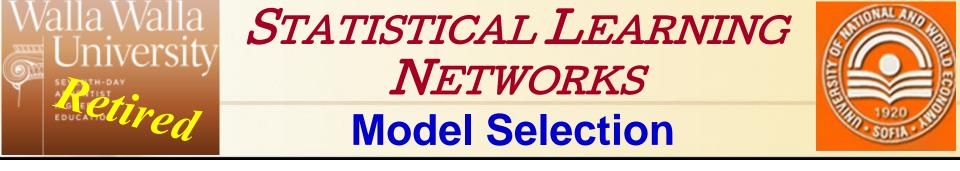
$$RMSE = \sqrt{MSE}$$
 $MSE = \sum (e_t)^2 / (n-1)$



-Mean Absolute Percent Error (MAPE) - Puts errors in perspective:

 Average absolute percent error – useful when the size of the forecast variable is important in evaluating. It provides an indication of how large the forecast errors are in comparison to the actual values of the series. It is also useful to compare the accuracy of different techniques on same/different series.

$$MAPE = \sum_{i=1}^{i} Actual - forecast) / Actual*100$$



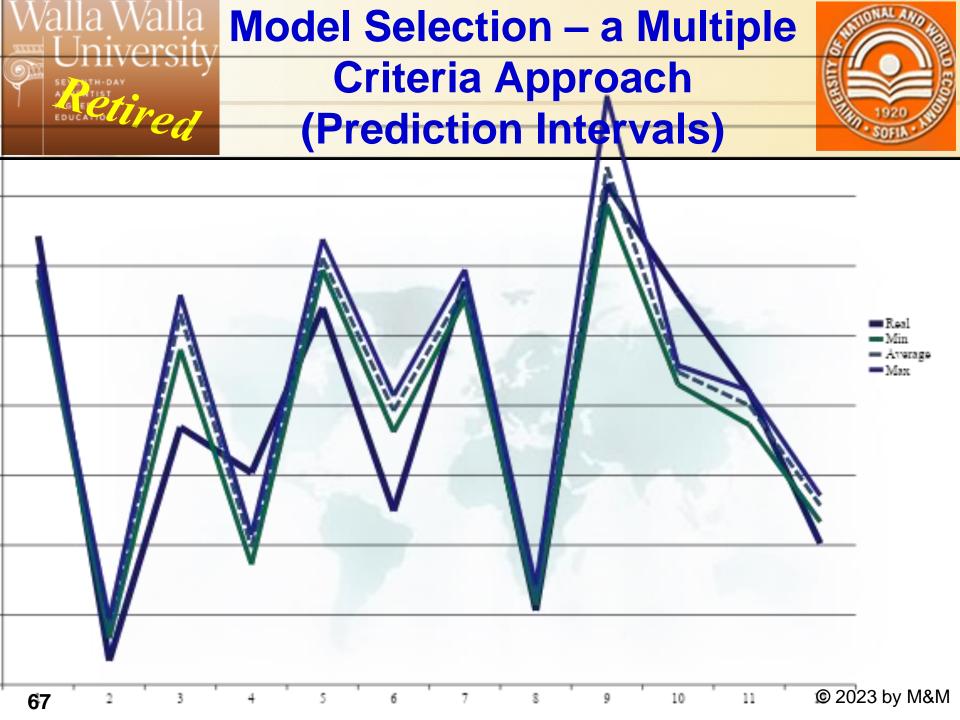
Measures of Precision (Random Error):

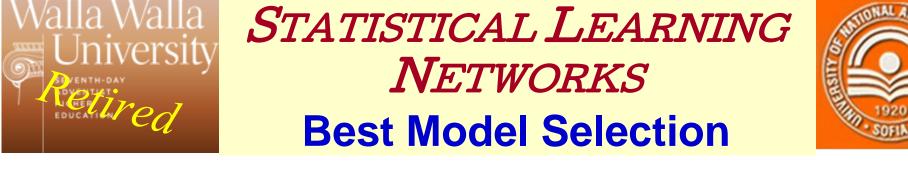
Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE)

MAPE (%) =
$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} (|e_t| / y_t) \ge 100$$

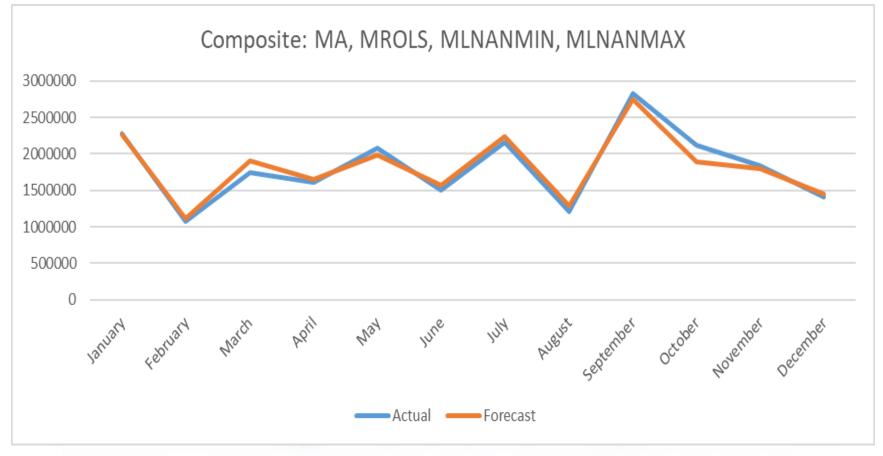
Coefficient of Variation of the RMSE, CV(RMSE)

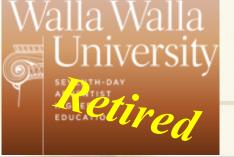
$CV(RMSE) = RMSE/\overline{y}$





Experimental Test Results – 2021, WWU





Thank You!



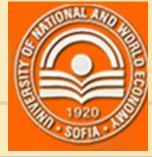
Questions?



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Thank You!



and I'll

See You again...



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