Averaging Quantiles, Variance Shrinkage and Overconfidence

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Abstract: Averaging quantiles as a way of combining experts' judgments is studied both mathematically and empirically. Quantile averaging is equivalent to taking the harmonic mean of densities evaluated at quantile points. A variance shrinkage law is established between equal and harmonic weighting. Data from 49 post 2006 studies is extended to include harmonic weighting in addition to equal and performance based weighting. It emerges that harmonic weighting has the highest average information and degraded statistical accuracy. The hypothesis that the quantile average is statistically accurate would be rejected at the 5% level on 28 studies and at the 0.1% level on 15 studies. For performance weighting these numbers are 3 and 1, for equal weighting 2 and 1.

Key words: Combing experts, expert judgment, variance shrinkage, averaging distributions, averaging quantiles, variance shrinkage, over-confidence.

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1. Introduction

Suppose one elicits cumulative distribution functions (cdf's) $F_1,...F_n$ and/or probability density functions (pdf's) $f_1,...f_n$ from n experts. What should one do with this information? Some argue against combining the distributions unless necessary for policy (Morgan 2009, 2014). The equally weighted combination of cdfs, $EW(x) = (F_1(x) + ...F_n(x))/n$ is the legacy method. Geometric averaging, or Geometric Weighting $GW(x) = \int_{z \le x} \Pi f_i(z)^{1/n} dz / \int \Pi f_i(u)^{1/n} du$ has been advocated as being "independence preserving" (Laddaga 1977) and "externally Bayesian" (Genest and Zidek 1986). Geometric averaging tends to concentrate mass in regions where the experts agree. This tendency is more pronounced with harmonic averaging or Harmonic Weighting (HW). HW has found recent adherents who propose quantile averaging as an alternative to EW. As shown below, averaging quantiles is equivalent to harmonically averaging densities at the quantile points.

These solutions all require the complete cdf's. When only fixed percentiles, or quantiles, of each distribution, say 5, 50 and 95 percentiles, are given, the above solutions require imputing distribution functions based on the elicited quantiles. Popular approaches are fitting a parametric distribution (O'Hagen et al 2006) or minimizing information subject to quantile constraints relative to a background support (Cooke 1991). Averaging quantiles is much simpler; one simply averages the 5 percentiles, the 50 percentiles and the 95 percentiles. There is no need to impute a distribution. Although not attested in any guidance of which the author is aware, it is often employed as a way of summarizing data without introducing additional assumptions. It has been adopted by the COVID-19 ForecastHub (https://covid19forecasthub.org/doc/ensemble/) (Ray et al 2020. Cremer et al 2021). Examples of others using quantile averaging include (Christensen et al 2018, De Gooijer and Zerom 2019, De Vries and de Wal 2015, Flandoli et

al 2011, Sayedi et al 2020, Kim et al 2021). It has been promoted as an alternative to equal weighting as horizontal averaging as opposed to vertical averaging (Lichtendahl et al 2013).

Here, mathematical and empirical properties of quantile averaging are examined. The next section, shows that quantile averaging of distributions is equivalent to harmonically averaging their densities at the quantile points (taken from Bamber et al 2016, Colson and Cooke 2017) . and derives a variance shrinkage law: Defining $Ave\ Var = (1/n)\Sigma\ Var(F_i)$, simple calculations show:

 $Var\ EW = Var\ of\ means + Ave\ Var\ \geq Ave\ Var\ \geq Var\ HW.$

The conditions for equality are different for the two inequalities.

Variance shrinkage raises the question whether *HW* invites overconfidence. A database of 49 post 2006 studies (Cooke et al 2021) has been extended to include *HW* combinations for each study. Section 3 contains a comparison of *PW* (item specific performance based weighting), *EW* and *HW* at the study level. The following picture emerges: Whereas *PW* and *EW* as statistical hypotheses would be rejected at the 5% level on 3 resp 2 of the 49 studies, *HW* is rejected on 28 (57%) studies. On 15 (31%) studies rejection is at the 0.1% level. *HW*'s informativeness on average exceeds that of *EW* and is comparable to that of *PW*. Section 3 gives results and examines whether study parameters could predict the poor statistical performance of *HW*. Section 4 shows that *HW* is appropriate when interpolating, as opposed to combining, distributions. A final section gathers conclusions. Supplementary information gives mathematical details. All data and code are available from the author on request.

2. *Methods*

$$HW^{1}(r) = \frac{1}{2} (F^{-1}(r) + G^{-1}(r)). \tag{1}$$

A good intuitive interpretation (Andrea Bevilacqua, personal communication) notes that *HW* takes the average of the experts' median values and a confidence interval whose width is the average of the experts' confidence intervals. The position of the median within the confidence interval depends on the distributions.

To gain further insight into eqn 1, take derivatives of both sides:

$$1/hw(HW^{-1}(r)) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{f}(F^{-1}(r)) + \frac{1}{g}(G^{-1}(r)) \right), \tag{2}$$

$$hw(HW^{I}(r)) = \frac{2}{1/f(F^{I}(r)) + 1/g(G^{I}(r))}.$$
 (3)

Eqn 3 says that hw is the harmonic mean of f and g, evaluated at points corresponding to the r-th quantile of each distribution. The harmonic mean of n numbers strongly favors the smallest of these numbers: the harmonic mean of 0.01 and 0.99 is 0.0198, the geometric mean is 0.099 and

the average is 0.5. To appreciate the effect of this, consider a flexible and tractable class of distributions on the unit interval:

$$F(x) = 1 - a^{-\frac{x^b}{1 - x^b}}; \ F^{-1}(r) = \left(-\frac{\ln(1 - r)}{\ln(a)} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\ln(1 - r)}{\ln(a)}\right)^{-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{b}}$$
 $a > 1; b > 0$ (4)

Figure 1 shows two expert distributions from this class, *F* and *G*, and also shows *HW*, *EW* and *GW*.

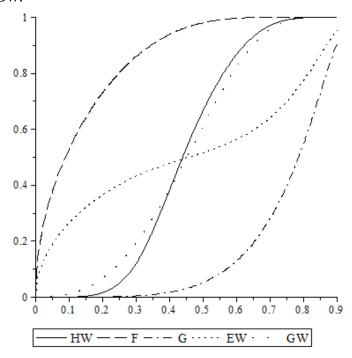


Figure 1: F(a=5, b=0.5), G(a=5, b=5), HW = quantile average, EW = Arithmetic average of distributions, GW = geometric average of distributions.

For each x on the horizontal axis, the slope of HW(x) is close to the smaller of the slopes of F(x) and G(x); causing HW(x) to grow slowly for small and large x, resulting in a concentrated distribution. EW in contrast has a much wider confidence interval. Note that HW is more concentrated than GW.

Variance shrinkage is based on the Cauchy Schwarz inequality: for any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $(\Sigma x_i^2)(\Sigma y_i^2) \ge (\Sigma x_i y_i)^2$ with equality if and only the x_i and y_i are proportional. Putting $y_i = I$, this says

$$n\Sigma x_i^2 \ge (\Sigma x_i)^2 = \Sigma_{ij} x_i x_j \tag{5}$$

with equality if and only if the x_i are equal.

The cdf of the quantile average of random variables $Y_1,...Y_n$ with continuous invertible cdf's is the cdf of $HW = (1/n)\Sigma X_i$ when the X_i has the same cdf as Y_i and all X_i have rank or Spearman correlation $r(X_i, X_j) = I$. The joint distribution of $(X_1,...X_n)$ is such that if values $x_1,...x_n$ are

sampled and if x_l realizes the q^{th} quantile of X_l , them, since all variables are completely rank correlated x_i realizes the q^{th} quantile of X_i , i = 2,...n. Hence HW averages the quantiles of $Y_l,...Y_n$.

Although the X_i are completely rank correlated, their product moment correlation ρ need not be I. If $r(X_i, X_j) = I$ then $X_i = \phi(X_j)$ for some strictly monotonic transformation ϕ , whereas $\rho(X_i, X_j) = I$ if and only if $X_i = aX_j + b$ for some positive a and some $b \in \mathbb{R}$. If U is uniform on (0, I), then $r(U, U^{I0}) = I$ but $\rho(U, U^{I0}) = 0.66$. From the Pearson formula relating rank and product normal correlations for two normal variables we infer that $\rho(X_i, X_j) = I$ if and only if $r(X_i, X_j) = I$ for normal variables X_i , X_i .

If the X_i have means μ_i and variance σ_i^2 it follows that

$$Var(HW) = (1/n^2)[\Sigma \sigma_i^2 + \Sigma_{i \neq i} C_{ii}]; C_{ii} = Cov(x_i, x_i)$$
(6)

Eqn 6 entails that Var(HW) does not depend on the means and therefore is invariant under adding arbitrary location parameters to the variables. Pithily put, the uncertainty of HW does not depend on how near or far apart the variables are.

Proposition 1: $(1/n)\Sigma\sigma_i^2 \ge Var(HW)$ with equality if and only if the σ_i^2 are all equal and $\rho(X_i, X_i) = 1$.

pf: $(1/n)\Sigma\sigma_i^2 - Var(HW) =$

$$(1/n) \Sigma \sigma_i^2 - (1/n^2) [\Sigma \sigma_i^2 + \Sigma_{i \neq i} C_{ii}] = [(n-1)\Sigma \sigma_i^2 - \Sigma_{i \neq i} C_{ii}] / n^2 = [n\Sigma \sigma_i^2 - \Sigma_{ij} C_{ij}] / n^2$$
 (7)

where $C_{ii} = \sigma_i^2$. $\rho(X_i, X_j) = C_{ij} / \sigma_i \sigma_j \le 1$ with equality if and only if $X_i = aX_j + b$, $A_i > 0$, $A_i > 0$. Therefore, with (5)

$$\Sigma_{i,j} C_{ij} \leq \Sigma_{i,j} \sigma_i \sigma_j \leq n \Sigma \sigma_i^2$$
(8)

so that the shrinkage $[n\Sigma\sigma_i^2 - \Sigma_{ij}C_{ij}]/n^2$ is non-negative. The first inequality in (8) holds with equality if and only if $\rho(X_i, X_j) = 1$ while the second holds if and only if the σ_i are equal

For variables with unit product moment correlation the first inequality always holds with equality in (8), but not the second. Standardizing a variable by dividing by its standard deviation gives the variable unit variance. Standardized versions of U and U^{10} are completely rank correlated but the shrinkage is 17% (see Fig 2 left panel).

A similar shrinkage formula based on the means characterizes the difference between the variance of an equally weighted combination of distributions and the average variance. For

¹ For normal variables $\rho = 2 \times \sin(r \times \pi/6)$.

variables $X_1,...X_n$, with densities $f_1,...f_n$, variances σ_i^2 and means μ_i let EW denote the distribution with density $(1/n)\Sigma f_i$. We have

Proposition 2: $Var(EW) - (1/n)\Sigma \sigma_i^2 = [n\Sigma \mu_i^2 - \Sigma_{ij} \mu_i \mu_j]/n^2 \ge 0.$

Pf: $Var(EW) = \int x^2 (\Sigma f_i(x)/n) dx - \Sigma \mu_i^2/n + \Sigma \mu_i^2/n - (\Sigma \mu_i/n)^2$

$$= (1/n)\Sigma\sigma_i^2 + (1/n)\Sigma\mu_i^2 - \Sigma_{ij} \mu_i\mu_j/n^2 = (1/n)\Sigma\sigma_i^2 + [n\Sigma\mu_i^2 - \Sigma_{ij} \mu_i\mu_j]/n^2. (9)$$

The last term is non-negative by the Cauchy Schwarz inequality and equals θ if and only if the μ_i are equal. \square

We recognize eq(9) as the mean of the variances of the F_i plus the variance of the means of the F_i . For the special case n = 2, eqn(9) becomes

$$Var(EW) = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2) + \frac{1}{4}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^2$$
(10)

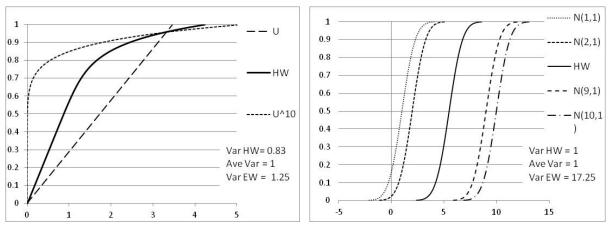


Figure 2: Left panel, *cdf*'s of powers of uniform variables standardized to have unit variance; Right panel, normal variables $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with unit variance. The Quantile average HW is shown on both panels

Figure 2 compares powers of uniforms with unit variance (left panel) and normals with unit variance (right panel). The shrinkage $Ave\ Var - Var\ HW$ on the left is due to the differences between rank and product moment correlation, while that of $Var\ EW - Ave\ Var$ on the right is due to differences in means. The conditions for equality are different for the above propositions, but we can put them together to define a *total shrinkage*

total shrinkage =
$$Var(EW) - Var(HW) = [n\Sigma\mu_i^2 - \Sigma_{ij} \mu_i\mu_j + n\Sigma\sigma_i^2 - \Sigma_{ij} C_{ij}]/n^2$$
. (11)

Figure 2 suggests that when experts' central masses have little overlap, the shrinkage from (9) can be quite severe.

3. Results

The TU Delft expert judgment data base contains the 49 studies since 2006 involving 530 experts assessing, in addition to the variables of interest, 580 calibration variables from their field to which true values were known. Of these, 140 experts (26%) would not be rejected as statistical hypotheses at the traditional 5% level. The study compares EW and performance weighted combinations (PW) in which experts' distributions are weighted according to their statistical accuracy and informativeness (see Cooke 1991, an updated exposition is in Colson and Cooke 2017, for references see Cooke et al 2021 and supplementary online information). For the present study the HW combinations have been added for each study. Four studies (with asterisks in Table 1) involved experts who did not answer all calibration variables. These experts were dropped, causing the numbers in those studies to differ somewhat from those in (Cooke et al 2021). For comparing the three combination schemes PW, EW and HW this is immaterial.

The mean statistical accuracy scores of all three combinations are above the traditional 5% rejection threshold for simple hypothesis testing (for the geomean or geometrical average this holds only for *PW* and *EW*). On *28* of the *49* studies *(57%) HW* would be rejected at the *5%* level, and on *15 (31%)*, rejection would be at the 0.1% level. This contrasts with *EW* and *PW* where *2* resp. *3* combinations would be rejected at the 5% level. On average, *HW's* informativeness was substantially greater than *EW's* and slightly better than *PW's*. *PW* has the highest combined score (the product of statistical score and informativeness) in *40* studies, *EW* on *5* studies and *HW* on *4* studies (this is an in-sample comparison with PW, for out-of-sample comparisons see Colson and Cooke 2017, Cooke et al 2021 and supplementary online information). The combined score is an asymptotic strictly proper scoring rule for average probabilities.

		PW			EW			HW			
	SA	inf	comb	SA	inf	comb	SA	inf	comb	#calib vbls	#exprts
Arkansas	0.50	0.34	0.17	0.39	0.20	0.08	5.55E-02	0.64	3.55E-02	10	4
Arsenic D-R	0.04	2.74	0.10	0.06	1.10	0.07	7.99E-04	1.32	1.06E-03	10	9
ATCEP Error	0.68	0.23	0.16	0.12	0.25	0.03	5.99E-04	1.07	6.38E-04	10	5
Biol agents	0.68	0.61	0.41	0.41	0.24	0.10	3.60E-02	0.88	3.18E-02	12	12
CDC ROI	0.72	2.31	1.66	0.23	1.23	0.29	7.56E-01	1.57	1.18E+00	10	20
CoveringKids	0.72	0.43	0.31	0.63	0.27	0.17	9.03E-01	0.60	5.38E-01	10	5
CREATE	0.39	0.28	0.11	0.06	0.21	0.01	2.77E-04	0.52	1.44E-04	10	7
CWD	0.49	1.22	0.60	0.47	0.93	0.44	7.07E-01	1.49	1.06E+00	10	14
Daniela	0.55	0.63	0.35	0.53	0.17	0.09	1.82E-01	0.52	9.48E-02	7	4
dcpn_fistula	0.12	1.31	0.16	0.06	0.62	0.04	8.78E-08	1.13	9.88E-08	10	8
eBBP	0.83	1.41	1.17	0.36	0.32	0.11	8.04E-02	0.95	7.67E-02	15	14
EffusiveErupt	0.66	1.12	0.75	0.29	0.80	0.23	2.65E-02	1.51	3.99E-02	8	14
Erie Carps*	0.66	0.86	0.57	0.18	0.28	0.05	3.87E-01	0.75	2.92E-01	15	10
FCEP Error	0.66	0.57	0.38	0.22	0.10	0.02	1.75E-05	0.77	1.35E-05	8	5
Florida	0.76	1.13	0.86	0.76	0.46	0.34	6.98E-02	0.88	6.15E-02	10	7
GL-NIS	0.93	0.21	0.19	0.04	0.31	0.01	5.53E-02	0.84	4.66E-02	13	9
Gerstenberger	0.93	1.10	1.02	0.64	0.48	0.31	8.10E-02	0.97	7.82E-02	14	12

Goodheart	0.71	0.96	0.68	0.55	0.28	0.15	6.83E-01	0.89	6.07E-01	10	6
Hemophilia	0.31	0.49	0.15	0.25	0.20	0.05	3.12E-01	0.78	2.43E-01	8	18
IceSheet2012	0.40	1.55	0.62	0.49	0.52	0.25	7.96E-02	1.20	9.56E-02	11	10
Illinois	0.34	0.65	0.22	0.62	0.26	0.16	2.37E-03	0.79	1.88E-03	10	5
Liander	0.23	0.52	0.12	0.23	0.48	0.11	2.81E-03	1.20	3.36E-03	10	11
Nebraska	0.03	1.45	0.05	0.37	0.70	0.26	2.40E-05	1.19	2.86E-05	10	4
Obesity	0.44	0.51	0.22	0.07	0.24	0.02	6.68E-04	0.74	4.98E-04	10	4
PHAC T4	0.18	0.35	0.06	0.30	0.21	0.06	2.02E-02	0.70	1.41E-02	13	10
San Diego*	0.15	0.76	0.12	0.15	1.01	0.15	3.02E-03	1.58	3.32E-02	10	8
Sheep Scab	0.64	1.31	0.84	0.66	0.78	0.52	1.15E-02	1.41	1.63E-02	15	14
SPEED	0.68	0.78	0.53	0.52	0.75	0.39	2.97E-02	1.17	3.46E-02	16	14
TdC	0.99	1.26	1.24	0.17	0.36	0.06	1.24E-02	1.08	1.34E-02	17	18
Tobacco	0.69	1.06	0.73	0.20	0.45	0.09	2.11E-01	0.71	1.49E-01	10	7
Topaz	0.41	1.46	0.60	0.63	0.92	0.58	8.66E-05	1.53	1.32E-04	16	21
umd_nremoval	0.71	1.99	1.40	0.07	0.80	0.05	2.40E-03	1.22	2.93E-03	11	9
Washington	0.20	0.72	0.14	0.15	0.53	0.08	4.21E-01	0.86	3.63E-01	10	5
GeoPol	0.42	1.15	0.49	0.20	0.56	0.11	5.02E-06	1.28	6.43E-05	16	9
BFIQ	0.69	0.57	0.40	0.42	0.29	0.12	1.15E-02	0.67	7.78E-03	11	7
IQEarn	0.70	0.62	0.44	0.70	0.57	0.41	4.54E-01	0.90	4.09E-01	11	8
USGS	0.51	1.51	0.77	0.06	0.80	0.05	4.49E-04	1.54	6.90E-04	18	32
UK	0.22	0.66	0.14	0.13	0.33	0.04	1.19E-01	0.78	9.31E-02	10	6
Spain	3.59E-05	0.69	0.00	1.22E-05	0.23	0.00	1.96E-08	0.80	1.56E-08	10	5
Italy	0.45	0.47	0.21	0.22	0.20	0.04	1.25E-01	0.49	6.11E-02	10	4
France	0.65	1.96	1.28	0.08	0.43	0.03	2.66E-02	0.92	2.44E-02	10	5
all_CDC	0.97	2.54	2.46	0.25	1.08	0.27	2.06E-04	1.74	3.58E-04	14	48
Puig-GDP	0.93	0.99	0.92	0.06	0.43	0.03	5.41E-04	1.25	6.75E-04	13	9
Puig-oil*	0.13	0.61	0.08	0.88	0.20	0.18	2.23E-10	1.07	2.38E-10	20	6
PoliticalViolence*	0.13	1.82	0.23	0.44	1.05	0.46	1.73E-07	1.73	8.19E-16	21	16
Brexit food	0.55	0.84	0.46	0.11	0.27	0.03	7.07E-01	1.26	8.88E-01	10	10
Tadini Quito	0.93	0.85	0.79	0.42	0.23	0.10	2.02E-02	0.95	1.92E-02	13	8
Tadini Clermont	0.75	1.14	0.86	0.33	0.28	0.09	9.28E-01	0.28	2.63E-01	13	12
ICE_2018	0.94	0.93	0.87	0.13	0.55	0.07	8.97E-02	1.22	0.11	16	20
Ave	0.54	1.01	0.55	0.31	0.49	0.15	0.16	1.03	0.14		
Geomean	0.37			0.19			5.1E-03				
#SA< 0.05	3			2			28				
#SA < 0.001	1			1			15				
# Best			40			5			4		

Table 1: Results from 49 post 2006 structured expert judgment studies. "SA" denotes statistical accuracy, "Inf" denotes informativeness, "comb" denotes the product of these two. Statistical accuracy is the P-value at which the hypothesis of statistical accuracy would be falsely rejected. Informativeness is Shannon relative information with respect to a background measure. The product of these two is an asymptotic strictly proper scoring rule for average probabilities. Details for scoring are in (Cooke et al 2021, Colson and Cooke 2017). Numbers of experts and calibration variables are shown. Asterisks denote studies in which one or more

expert did not assess all calibration variables. Studies with bolded names were the 33 studies analyzed in detail in (Colson and Cooke 2017).

Statistical accuracy and informativeness are metrics for measuring performance as uncertainty assessors. Forecast accuracy based on medians is also important. The relative forecast error of various combination schemes was extensively studied in (Cooke et al 2021) from which the following information is extracted. The variations of performance weighted combinations are explained in the supplementary online information.

	(PWi - rls)/rls	PWg - rls /rls	PWn - rls /rls	(EW - rls)/rls	PWQ - rls /rls	(EWQ - rls)/rls
Ave	2.2	2.7	2.3	3.8	278.6	1472.3
Stdev	11.8	16.0	14.7	45.2	5646.8	33299.8
Geomean	0.38	0.40	0.37	0.43	0.42	0.63

Table 2: Average and standard deviation of absolute dimensionless forecast errors for item specific performance weights (PWi), global performance weights (PWg), non-optimized global performance weights (PWn), equal weights (EW), performance weighted average of medians (PWQ) and equal weighted average of medians (EWQ) and corresponds to *HW*. "rls" denotes "realization", the true values of the random variables.

As quantile averaging is often used without calibration variables, it could be of interest to anticipate poor statistical performance of quantile averaging based only on study characteristics without reference to the true values. The variance shrinkage laws are suggestive but when variables are measured in different physical units, scale invariant tools are required. The Spearman rank correlation matrix of HW statistical accuracy with study characteristics (Table 3) does not show strong relationships. The number of experts and number of calibration variables are rank correlated in this data set at 0.53; indeed, studies with modest budgets tend to follow the guidance of 10 calibration variables and at least 4, preferably 6 experts. Better resourced studies can afford to raise both numbers.

Spearman Rank Correlation matrix HW							
#calib vbls #experts Max							
HW Stat. accuracy	-0.15	-0.09	-0.25				
#calib vbls		0.53	0.38				
#experts			0.62				

Table 3 Rank correlation matrix for Harmonic Weighting. Max Inf is the maximal information score of an expert in a panel.

From Table 3, neither the number of calibration variables nor the number of experts exerts a strong influence on the statistical accuracy of the quantile average. However, each tends to have a negative impact on HW's statistical accuracy. A possible explanation is that harmonic averaging leans heavily towards the smallest value of the densities. This would explain the negative correlation with Max Inf as this concentrates the mass of HW in a smaller region. Adding more experts increases the chance that one will have very high information and that will shrink the bands of HW. Both Max Inf and #experts correlate positively with # calib vbls.

To appreciate the problems, Figures 3 and 4 show range graphs for two studies. For each calibration variable, the experts' 90% confidence intervals are shown as horizontal lines and the medians as dots. The bottom confidence intervals are those of *HW*. The realization

is shown as a red vertical line. *IQearn* has one of the best performances for *HWSA* whereas *puig-oil* has one of the poorest. In both studies the *PW* and *EW* have good statistical accuracy (see captions). Both studies have non-overlapping confidence bounds. This has the effect of increasing the support of the uniform background measures relative to the size of the confidence intervals and thus increasing the average informativeness of the experts. Indeed, a confidence interval of *[5, 6]* looks more informative against a background of *[1, 100]* than against *[1, 10]*. The average information for *IQearn* is *1.29* while that of *puig-oil* experts is *1.25*. The key difference is the placement of the realization (vertical red line) relative to the experts' assessments. That, of course, cannot be inferred from study characteristics. Without knowing the realizations, it is impossible to anticipate the poor performance of *HW* for *puig-oil*.

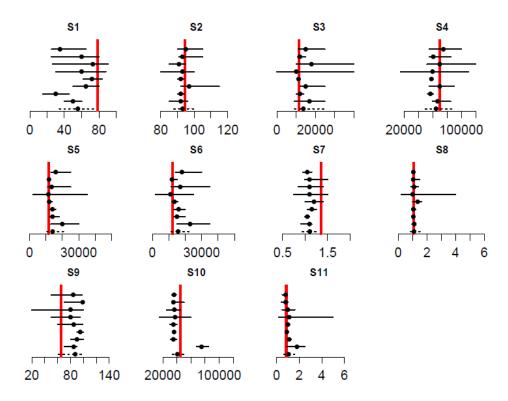


Figure 3: Range graphs for the case *IQearn*. Experts' [5%, 95%] confidence intervals are given as horizontal lines, medians as dots, the realization is given as a red vertical line. HW is added as 9^{th} expert at the bottom of each graph. In this case the statistical accuracies are: PW = 0.7 EW = 0.7 HW = 0.45. The experts' average information with respect to the uniform background is 1.29.

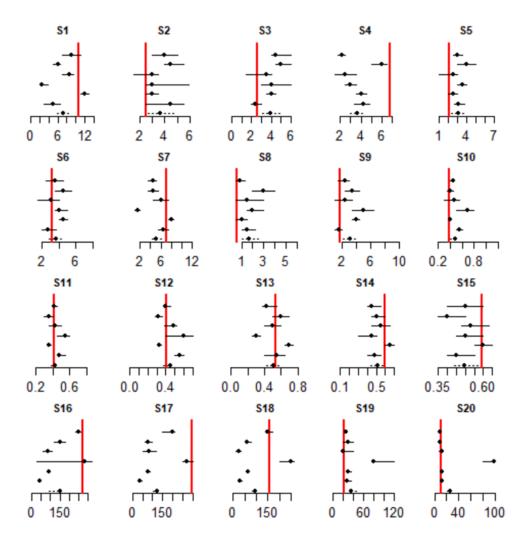


Figure 4: Range graphs for the case *puig-oil*. Experts' [5%, 95%] confidence intervals are given as horizontal lines, medians as dots, the realization is given as a red vertical line. HW is added as 7^{th} expert at the bottom of each graph. In this case the statistical accuracies were: PW = 0.13 EW = 0.88 HW = 2.23E-10. The experts' average information with respect to the uniform background is 1.25.

4. When quantile averaging is appropriate: interpolating versus combining.

Rather than combining distributions over a single uncertain variable, we are often confronted with situations in which we must interpolate distributions at different values of some underlying parameter. Oppenheimer et al (2016) discuss an application in which experts quantify uncertainty in crosswind dispersion of an airborne pollutant for different downwind distances. According to the standard Gaussian plume model, the crosswind standard deviation of the time integrated concentration at downwind distance x is $\sigma_c(x) = ax^b$ for (poorly constrained) constants a, b, (a, b > 0). Suppose experts quantify their uncertainty in $\sigma_c(x)$ for x=10km, and 20km. Barring exceptional circumstances, the uncertainty $\sigma_c(x)$ increases with x.

Suppose we want the distribution for $\sigma_c(15)$. If we take an equal weight combination of the distributions of $\sigma(10)$ and $\sigma(20)$ we may well find that the result has greater variance than that of $\sigma(20)$. The variance shrinkage laws allow us to see exactly when that happens. Put n = 2, $Var(\sigma(10)) = V_1$, $Var(\sigma(20)) = V_2$, with means μ_1 , μ_2 . For the equal weight combination of the uncertainties in $\sigma(10)$ and $\sigma(20)$ eqn 10 says:

$$Var(EW) = \frac{1}{2}(V_1 + V_2) + \frac{1}{4}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^2 > V_2 \Leftrightarrow V_1 + \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^2 > V_2$$
 (12)

Such an outcome would be unacceptable. By the same token, eqn 7 says that the variance of HW is always less than or equal to the average of the variances of $\sigma_c(10)$ and $\sigma_c(20)$ with equality holding in case these distributions are normal with the same variance. These remarks apply mutatis mutandis when interpolating at other distances between 10km and 20km. In cases of interpolation like the above, quantile averaging provides a reasonable solution, whereas equal weighting of distributions does not.

5. Conclusion

If all experts say the same thing, then the three schemes considered here are all equivalent. Data show, however, that there is a great deal of variation in experts' assessments and in their performance. Accordingly, there is great variation in performance of expert combinations. Cherry picked studies can produce very different conclusions. Reliable conclusions should therefore be based on a large set of studies of known provenance. With regard to HW we may conclude that it achieves higher informativeness at the expense of statistical accuracy. In 57% of the studies this results in overconfidence, in 31% the overconfidence is severe.. The forecast error of averaging medians is, in aggregate, much larger than that of EW or PW. However, when we are interpolating between distributions, rather than combining them, quantile averaging would seem appropriate.

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