Real-Time Algorithms for Statistical Analysis of Interval Data

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Abstract

When we have only interval ranges $[\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i]$ of sample values $x_1, \ldots, x_n$, what is the interval $[\underline{V}, \overline{V}]$ of possible values for the variance V of these values? There are quadratic time algorithms for computing the exact lower bound $\underline{V}$ on the variance of interval data, and for computing $\overline{V}$ under reasonable easily verifiable conditions. The problem is that in real life, we often make additional measurements. In traditional statistics, if we have a new measurement result, we can modify the value of variance in constant time. In contrast, previously known algorithms for processing interval data required that, once a new data point is added, we start from the very beginning. In this paper, we describe new algorithms for statistical processing of interval data, algorithms in which adding a data point requires only $O(n)$ computational steps.

1 Introduction: Data Processing – From Computing to Probabilities to Intervals

Why data processing? In many real-life situations, we are interested in the value of a physical quantity y that is difficult or impossible to measure directly. Examples of such quantities are the distance to a star and the amount of oil in a given well. Since we cannot measure y directly, a natural idea is to measure y *indirectly*. Specifically, we find some easier-to-measure quantities $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ which are related to y by a known relation $y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$; this relation may be a simple functional transformation, or complex algorithm (e.g., for the amount of oil, numerical solution to an inverse problem). Then, to estimate y, we first measure the values of the quantities $x_1, \ldots, x_n$, and then we use the results $\widetilde{x}_1, \ldots, \widetilde{x}_n$ of these measurements to to compute an estimate $\widetilde{y}$ for y as $\widetilde{y} = f(\widetilde{x}_1, \ldots, \widetilde{x}_n)$.

For example, to find the resistance R, we measure current I and voltage V, and then use the known relation $R = V/I$ to estimate resistance as $\widetilde{R} = \widetilde{V}/\widetilde{I}$.

Computing an estimate for y based on the results of direct measurements is called *data processing*; data processing is the main reason why computers were invented in the first place, and data processing is still one of the main uses of computers as number crunching devices.

Comment. In this paper, for simplicity, we consider the case when the relation between x_i and y is known exactly; in some practical situations, we only known an approximate relation between x_i and y.

Why interval computations? From computing to probabilities to intervals. Measurement are never 100% accurate, so in reality, the actual value x_i of i-th measured quantity can differ from the measurement result $\widetilde{x}_i$. Because of these *measurement errors* $\Delta x_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \widetilde{x}_i - x_i$, the result $\widetilde{y} = f(\widetilde{x}_1, \ldots, \widetilde{x}_n)$ of data processing is, in general, different from the actual value $y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ of the desired quantity y [16].

It is desirable to describe the error $\Delta y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \widetilde{y} - y$ of the result of data processing. To do that, we must have some information about the errors of direct measurements.

What do we know about the errors Δx_i of direct measurements? First, the manufacturer of the measuring instrument must supply us with an upper bound Δ_i on the measurement error. If no such upper bound is supplied, this means that no accuracy is guaranteed, and the corresponding "measuring instrument" is practically useless. In this case, once we performed a measurement and got a measurement result $\widetilde{x}_i$, we know that the actual (unknown) value x_i of the measured quantity belongs to the interval $\mathbf{x}_i = [\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i]$, where $\underline{x}_i = \widetilde{x}_i - \Delta_i$ and $\overline{x}_i = \widetilde{x}_i + \Delta_i$.

In many practical situations, we not only know the interval $[-\Delta_i, \Delta_i]$ of possible values of the measurement error; we also know the probability of different values Δx_i within this interval. This knowledge underlies the traditional engineering approach to estimating the error of indirect measurement, in which we assume that we know the probability distributions for measurement errors Δx_i.

In practice, we can determine the desired probabilities of different values of Δx_i by comparing the results of measuring with this instrument with the results of measuring the same quantity by a standard (much more accurate) measuring instrument. Since the standard measuring instrument is much more accurate than the one use, the difference between these two measurement results is practically equal to the measurement error; thus, the empirical distribution of this difference is close to the desired probability distribution for measurement error. There are two cases, however, when this determination is not done:

- First is the case of cutting-edge measurements, e.g., measurements in fundamental science. When a Hubble telescope detects the light from a distant galaxy, there is no "standard" (much more accurate) telescope floating nearby that we can use to calibrate the Hubble: the Hubble telescope is the best we have.

- The second case is the case of measurements on the shop floor. In this case, in principle, every sensor can be thoroughly calibrated, but sensor calibration is so costly – usually costing ten times more than the sensor itself – that manufacturers rarely do it.

In both cases, we have no information about the probabilities of Δx_i; the only information we have is the upper bound on the measurement error.

In this case, after we performed a measurement and got a measurement result $\widetilde{x}_i$, the only information that we have about the actual value x_i of the measured quantity is that it belongs to the interval $\mathbf{x}_i = [\widetilde{x}_i - \Delta_i, \widetilde{x}_i + \Delta_i]$. In such situations, the only information that we have about the (unknown) actual value of $y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is that y belongs to the range $\mathbf{y} = [\underline{y}, \overline{y}]$ of the function f over the box $\mathbf{x}_1 \times \ldots \times \mathbf{x}_n$:

$$\mathbf{y} = [\underline{y}, \overline{y}] = \{f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \mid x_1 \in \mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbf{x}_n\}.$$

The process of computing this interval range based on the input intervals $\mathbf{x}_i$ is called *interval computations*; see, e.g., [5, 6, 7, 12].

Interval computations techniques: brief reminder. Historically the first method for computing the enclosure for the range is the method which is sometimes called "straightforward" interval computations. This method is based on the fact that inside the computer, every algorithm consists of elementary operations (arithmetic operations, min, max, etc.). For each elementary operation $f(a, b)$, if we know the intervals $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ for a and b, we can compute

the exact range $f(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$. The corresponding formulas form the so-called *interval arithmetic*. For example,

$$[\underline{a}, \overline{a}] + [\underline{b}, \overline{b}] = [\underline{a} + \underline{b}, \overline{a} + \overline{b}]; \quad [\underline{a}, \overline{a}] - [\underline{b}, \overline{b}] = [\underline{a} - \overline{b}, \overline{a} - \underline{b}];$$

$$[\underline{a}, \overline{a}] \cdot [\underline{b}, \overline{b}] = [\min(\underline{a} \cdot \underline{b}, \underline{a} \cdot \overline{b}, \overline{a} \cdot \underline{b}, \overline{a} \cdot \overline{b}), \max(\underline{a} \cdot \underline{b}, \underline{a} \cdot \overline{b}, \overline{a} \cdot \underline{b}, \overline{a} \cdot \overline{b})].$$

In straightforward interval computations, we repeat the computations forming the program f step-by-step, replacing each operation with real numbers by the corresponding operation of interval arithmetic. It is known that, as a result, we get an enclosure $\mathbf{Y} \supseteq \mathbf{y}$ for the desired range.

In some cases, this enclosure is exact. In more complex cases (see examples below), the enclosure has excess width.

There exist more sophisticated techniques for producing a narrower enclosure, e.g., a centered form method. However, for each of these techniques, there are cases when we get an excess width. Reason: as shown in [9, 17], the problem of computing the exact range is known to be NP-hard even for polynomial functions $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ (actually, even for quadratic functions f).

What we are planning to do? In this paper, we analyze a specific interval computations problem – when we use traditional statistical data processing algorithms $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ to process the results of direct measurements.

2 Error Estimation for Traditional Statistical Data Processing Algorithms under Interval Uncertainty: Known Results

Formulation of the problem. When we have n results $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ of repeated measurement of the same quantity (at different points, or at different moments of time), traditional statistical approach usually starts with computing their sample average $E = (x_1 + \ldots + x_n)/n$ and their (sample) variance

$$V = \frac{(x_1 - E)^2 + \ldots + (x_n - E)^2}{n} \tag{1}$$

(or, equivalently, the sample standard deviation $\sigma = \sqrt{V}$); see, e.g., [16].

In this paper, we consider situations when we do not know the exact values of the quantities $x_1, \ldots, x_n$, we only know the intervals $\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_n$ of possible values of x_i. In such situations, for different possible values $x_i \in \mathbf{x}_i$, we get different values of E and V. The question is: what are the intervals $\mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{V}$ of possible values of E and V?

The practical importance of this question was emphasized, e.g., in [13, 14] on the example of processing geophysical data.

Bounds on E. For E, the straightforward interval computations leads to the exact range:

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{\mathbf{x}_1 + \ldots + \mathbf{x}_n}{n}, \text{ i.e., } \underline{E} = \frac{\underline{x}_1 + \ldots + \underline{x}_n}{n}, \text{ and } \overline{E} = \frac{\overline{x}_1 + \ldots + \overline{x}_n}{n}.$$

For variance, the problem is difficult. For V, straightforward interval computations lead to an excess width. For example, for $\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_2 = [0,1]$, the variance is $V = (x_1 - x_2)^2/4$ and hence, the actual range $\mathbf{V} = [0, 0.25]$. On the other hand, $\mathbf{E} = [0,1]$, hence

$$\frac{(\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{E})^2 + (\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{E})^2}{2} = [0,1] \supset [0, 0.25].$$

More sophisticated methods of interval computations also sometimes lead to an excess width.

Reason: in the formula for the average E, each variable only occurs once, and it is known that for such formulas, straightforward interval computations lead to the exact range (see, e.g., [4]). In the expression for variance, each variable x_i occurs several times: explicitly, in $(x_i - E)^2$, and explicitly, in the expression for E. In such cases, often, dependence between intermediate computation results leads to excess width of the results of straightforward interval computations. Not surprisingly, we do get excess width when applying straightforward interval computations to the formula (1).

For variance, it is known that computing $\overline{V}$ is NP-hard [2]. The very fact that computing the range of a quadratic function is NP-hard was first proven by Vavasis [17] (see also [9]). We have shown that this difficulty happens even for very simple quadratic functions frequently used in data processing.

A natural question is: maybe the difficulty comes from the requirement that the range be computed exactly? In practice, it is often sufficient to compute, in a reasonable amount of time, a usefully accurate estimate $\widetilde{\overline{V}}$ for $\overline{V}$, i.e., an estimate $\widetilde{\overline{V}}$ which is accurate with a given accuracy $\varepsilon > 0$: $\left|\widetilde{\overline{V}} - \overline{V}\right| \le \varepsilon$. Alas, it can be shown (see, e.g., [2]), that for any ε, such computations are also NP-hard.

It is worth mentioning that $\overline{V}$ can be computed exactly in exponential time $O(2^n)$: it is sufficient to try all 2^n possible combinations of values $\underline{x}_i$ and $\overline{x}_i$ [2].

Feasible algorithm for computing $\underline{V}$. For computing $\underline{V}$, there exists a feasible algorithm [2]: specifically, our algorithm is *quadratic-time*, i.e., it requires $O(n^2)$ computational steps (arithmetic operations or comparisons) for n interval data points $\mathbf{x}_i = [\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i]$.

This algorithm $\underline{\mathcal{A}}$ is as follows:

- First, we sort all $2n$ values $\underline{x}_i$, $\overline{x}_i$ into a sequence $x_{(1)} \le x_{(2)} \le \ldots \le x_{(2n)}$.

- Second, we compute $\underline{E}$ and $\overline{E}$ and select all "zones" $[x_{(k)}, x_{(k+1)}]$ that intersect with $[\underline{E}, \overline{E}]$.

- For each of the selected zones $[x_{(k)}, x_{(k+1)}]$, we compute the ratio $r_k = S_k/N_k$, where
$$S_k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i:\underline{x}_i \geq x_{(k+1)}} \underline{x}_i + \sum_{j:\overline{x}_j \leq x_{(k)}} \overline{x}_j, \tag{2}$$
and N_k is the total number of such is and js . If $r_k \in [x_{(k)}, x_{(k+1)}]$, then we compute
$$V_k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left(\sum_{i:\underline{x}_i \geq x_{(k+1)}} (\underline{x}_i - r_k)^2 + \sum_{j:\overline{x}_j \leq x_{(k)}} (\overline{x}_j - r_k)^2 \right). \tag{3}$$
If $N_k = 0$, we take $V_k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 0$.

- Finally, we return the smallest of the values V_k as $\underline{V}$.

Feasible algorithm for computing $\overline{V}$. NP-hardness of computing $\overline{V}$ means, crudely speaking, that there are no general ways for solving all particular cases of this problem (i.e., computing $\overline{V}$) in reasonable time.

However, there are algorithms for computing $\overline{V}$ for many reasonable situations. Namely, there exists an efficient algorithm [2] that computes $\overline{V}$ for the case when all the interval midpoints ("measured values") $\widetilde{x}_i = (\underline{x}_i + \overline{x}_i)/2$ are definitely different from each other, in the sense that the "narrowed" intervals $[\widetilde{x}_i - \Delta_i/n, \widetilde{x}_i + \Delta_i/n]$ – where $\Delta_i = (\underline{x}_i - \overline{x}_i)/2$ is the interval's half-width – do not intersect with each other.

This algorithm $\overline{\mathcal{A}}$ is as follows:

- First, we sort all $2n$ endpoints of the narrowed intervals $\widetilde{x}_i - \Delta_i/n$ and $\widetilde{x}_i + \Delta_i/n$ into a sequence $x_{(1)} \leq x_{(2)} \leq \ldots \leq x_{(2n)}$. This enables us to divide the real line into $2n+1$ segments ("zones") $[x_{(k)}, x_{(k+1)}]$, where we denoted $x_{(0)} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} -\infty$ and $x_{(2n+1)} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} +\infty$.

- Second, we compute $\underline{E}$ and $\overline{E}$ and pick all "zones" $[x_{(k)}, x_{(k+1)}]$ that intersect with $[\underline{E}, \overline{E}]$.

- For each of remaining zones $[x_{(k)}, x_{(k+1)}]$, for each i from 1 to n, we pick the following value of x_i:
  - if $x_{(k+1)} < \widetilde{x}_i - \Delta_i/n$, then we pick $x_i = \overline{x}_i$;
  - if $x_{(k)} > \widetilde{x}_i + \Delta_i/n$, then we pick $x_i = \underline{x}_i$;
  - for all other i, we consider both possible values $x_i = \overline{x}_i$ and $x_i = \underline{x}_i$.

As a result, we get one or several sequences of x_i. For each of these sequences, we check whether the average E of the selected values $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ is indeed within this zone, and if it is, compute the variance by using the formula (2).

- Finally, we return the largest of the computed variances as $\overline{V}$.

This algorithm also works when, for some fixed k, no more than k "narrowed" intervals can have a common point:

3 Real-Time Statistical Analysis: Problem and Results

Formulation of the problem. In practice, the measurement results arrive one after another. To save time, it is desirable to start processing them as they come, without waiting for all of them to arrive. For traditional statistical methods, this can be easily accomplished: once we know the average E of n values $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ and the corresponding variance V, and a new measurement result x_{n+1} arrives, we can compute the new values E' and V' as follows:

$$E' = \frac{n \cdot E + x_{n+1}}{n+1};$$

$$M = V + E^2;$$

$$M' = \frac{n \cdot M + x_{n+1}^2}{n+1};$$

$$V' = M' - (E')^2,$$

where

$$M \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{x_1^2 + \ldots + x_n^2}{n}$$

is a (sample) second moment. In other words, if we have a new measurement result, we can modify the value of the variance in constant time.

This is also important because often, as a result of the statistical analysis of the existing measurement results, we conclude that we do not have enough measurements; hence, we make additional measurements. The above formulas enables us to easily update the statistical characteristics once the new measurement results are available.

Similar algorithms can be described for computing $\underline{E}$ and $\overline{E}$:

$$\underline{E}' = \frac{n \cdot \underline{E} + \underline{x}_{n+1}}{n+1}; \tag{4}$$

$$\overline{E}' = \frac{n \cdot \overline{E} + x_{n+1}}{n+1}. \tag{5}$$

However, the above algorithms for computing $\underline{V}$ and $\overline{V}$ start with sorting the values $\underline{x}_i$ and $\overline{x}_i$. Thus, we cannot even start these algorithms unless we already know all the (interval) values $\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_n$ before we start computations.

So, if we have a new measurement result, and we want to recompute the bounds on V, we must start from scratch and again apply $O(n^2)$ computational steps. Thus, if we add measurement results one by one, we need $O(1^2 + 2^2 + \ldots + n^2) = O(n^3)$ computational steps.

A natural question is: if we simply add a new (interval) value $\mathbf{x}_{n+1}$, can we use the previous computations to re-compute $\mathbf{V}$ faster? In this paper, we show that such a speed-up is indeed possible. Specifically, we will show that for both problems, it is possible to modify the algorithms in such a way that each algorithm requires only $O(n)$ steps after a new data point x_{n+1} is added. In these new algorithms, to process n measurement results one after another, we need $O(1+2+\ldots+n) = O(n^2)$ computational steps – same as before, but now we do not have to wait until all the measurement results are available.

New algorithm for computing $\underline{V}$. This new algorithm is a modification of the above described algorithm $\underline{\mathcal{A}}$. Let us first describe the main three differences between the new algorithm and the previous one.

The first difference is that, in contrast to $\underline{\mathcal{A}}$, we will compute the values S_k, N_k, r_k, and V_k for *all* zones $[x_{(k)}, x_{k+1)}]$, not just for the zones that intersect with $[\underline{E}, \overline{E}]$ and/or for which r_k belongs to the zone. (Of course, when we compute $\underline{V}$, we compute only the smallest of the values V_k corresponding to the zones that intersect with $\mathbf{E}$ and for which r_k belongs to the zone.)

Second, instead of computing V_k by using formula (3), we use the following equivalent formula:

$$V_k = \frac{M_k - 2S_k \cdot r_k + N_k \cdot r_k^2}{n}, \tag{6}$$

where

$$M_k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i:\underline{x}_i \geq x_{(k+1)}} \underline{x}_i^2 + \sum_{j:\overline{x}_j \leq x_{(k)}} \overline{x}_j^2. \tag{7}$$

This formula is similar to the know relation $V = M - E^2$ between the variance V, the second moment M, and the average E.

The third difference is that at the end of this algorithm, we keep not only the final value $\underline{V}$, but we also keep all the intermediate computational results: the sequence $x_{(i)}$, the values $\underline{E}$ and $\overline{E}$, and the values S_k, N_k, r_k, M_k, and V_k.

Let us now describe how this new algorithm works. Suppose that we have already finished applying the algorithm to n intervals $\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_n$, and a new interval $\mathbf{x}_{n+1} = [\underline{x}_{n+1}, \overline{x}_{n+1}]$ arrives.

First, we recompute the values $\underline{E}$ and $\overline{E}$ by applying the formulas (4) and (5). This requires a constant number of computational steps.

Then, we find the place for the new bounds $\underline{x}_{n+1}$ and $\overline{x}_{n+1}$ in the sorted sequence $x_{(1)} \leq x_{(2)} \leq \ldots \leq x_{(2n)}$. Since the sequence $x_{(i)}$ is sorted, finding

a place for each of the bounds within this sequence can be done by bisection (binary search), i.e., in $O(\log(n))$ steps (see, e.g., [1]).

Each of the added bounds is either within one of the previous zone – in which case this zone splits into two new smaller zones, or it is before or after all the previous zones – in which case a single new zone is added. In both cases, adding one bound adds at most two new zones, so adding two bounds means that we have at most 4 new zones.

To proceed, we must update the values S_k, N_k, r_k, M_k, and V_k corresponding to the old zones, and compute the values corresponding to the new zones.

For each old zone $[x_{(k)}, x_{k+1)}]$, the value of S_k will only change if we either $\underline{x}_{n+1} \geq x_{(k+1)}$ or $\overline{x}_{n+1} \geq x_{(k)}$. In the first case, we add $\underline{x}_{n+1}$ to S_k; in the second case, we add $\overline{x}_{n+1}$ to S_k. In both cases, we add 1 to N_k.

Similarly, the value of M_k will only change if we either $\underline{x}_{n+1} \geq x_{(k+1)}$ or $\overline{x}_{n+1} \geq x_{(k)}$. In the first case, we add $\underline{x}^2_{n+1}$ to M_k; in the second case, we add $\overline{x}^2_{n+1}$ to S_k.

For each old zone k, once we updated the values of S_k, N_k, and M_k, we can compute r_k and V_k in finitely many steps.

Thus, for each old zone, we need a constant number of computational steps for the update.

For each new zone, explicit computation of S_k and M_k requires that we go over all n intervals, i.e., it requires linear time $O(n)$.

Thus, the update of all intermediate values requires a constant time $O(1)$ for each of $O(n)$ old zones and a linear time $O(n)$ for each of constantly many $O(1)$ new zones. Therefore, the total number of computational steps needed for an update is equal to $O(1) \cdot O(n) + O(n) \cdot O(1) = O(n)$. In other words, we do need linear time to update.

Finally, we compute $\underline{V}$ as the smallest of $\leq n$ values V_k; this also requires linear time. We have therefore proven that our algorithm indeed requires linear time to update the lower bound $\underline{V}$ on the variance V.

New algorithm for computing $\overline{V}$. Let us now describe how we can modify the above algorithm $\overline{\mathcal{A}}$ so that it will require linear time to update.

Similarly to the above algorithm, let us first describe the main difference between this modification and the original algorithm.

The first difference is that, in contrast to $\underline{\mathcal{A}}$, we will perform the computations for *all* zones $[x_{(k)}, x_{k+1)}]$, not just for the zones that intersect with $[\underline{E}, \overline{E}]$. (Of course, when we compute $\overline{V}$, we compute only the smallest of the values V corresponding to the zones that intersect with $\mathbf{E}$.)

Second, at the end of this algorithm, we keep not only the final value $\overline{V}$, but we also keep all the intermediate computational results: the sequence $x_{(i)}$, and, for each zone, all selected sequences $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ and the values E and V corresponding to these sequences.

Let us now describe how this new algorithm works. Suppose that we have

already finished applying the algorithm to n intervals $\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_n$, and a new interval $\mathbf{x}_{n+1} = [\underline{x}_{n+1}, \overline{x}_{n+1}]$ arrives.

First, we recompute the values $\underline{E}$ and $\overline{E}$ by applying the formulas (4) and (5). This requires a constant number of computational steps.

Then, we find the place for the new bounds $\underline{x}_{n+1}$ and $\overline{x}_{n+1}$ in the sorted sequence $x_{(1)} \le x_{(2)} \le \ldots \le x_{(2n)}$. Since the sequence $x_{(i)}$ is sorted, finding a place for each of the bounds within this sequence can be done by bisection (binary search), i.e., in $O(\log(n))$ steps (see, e.g., [1]).

Similarly to the previous modified algorithm, each of the added bounds is either within one of the previous zone – in which case this zone splits into two new smaller zones, or it is before or after all the previous zones – in which case a single new zone is added. In both cases, adding one bound adds at most two new zones, so adding two bounds means that we have at most 4 new zones.

To proceed, we must update the sequences and the corresponding values E and V corresponding to the old zones, and compute the values corresponding to the new zones.

For each old zone, and for each corresponding sequence, we must update this sequence by adding the corresponding value of x_{n+1}, and then re-compute E and V. Since no more than k narrowed intervals can have a common point, for each zone, there are no more than 2^k corresponding sequences. When k is fixed, this means that we have a constant number $O(1)$ of such sequences. For each sequence, updating E and V can be done (as we have already mentioned) in finitely many steps.

For each new zone, we need to fin all the sequences and compute the corresponding values E and V. Finding all the sequences requires $\le 2^k \cdot n = O(n)$ steps, and computing E and V for each of these sequences also requires linear time.

Thus, the update of all intermediate values requires a constant time $O(1)$ for each of $O(n)$ old zones and a linear time $O(n)$ for each of constantly many $O(1)$ new zones. Therefore, the total number of computational steps needed for an update is equal to $O(1) \cdot O(n) + O(n) \cdot O(1) = O(n)$. In other words, we do need linear time to update.

Finally, we compute $\overline{V}$ as the largest of $\le n$ values V; this also requires linear time. We have therefore proven that our algorithm indeed requires linear time to update the lower bound $\overline{V}$ on the variance V.

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