

Robustness as a Criterion for Selecting a Probability Distribution Under Uncertainty

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1. Outline

- Often, we only have partial knowledge about a probability distribution.
- We would like to select a single probability distribution $\rho(x)$ out of all possible ones.
- *Idea:* take into account that the values x of the corresponding quantity are only known with some accuracy.
- It is therefore desirable to select a distribution which is the most robust – in the sense that:
 - x -inaccuracy
 - leads to the smallest possible inaccuracy in the resulting probabilities.
- We describe the most robust probability distributions, and we show that they make computations faster.

2. Need to Make Decisions Under Uncertainty

- One of the main objectives of science is to understand the world,
 - to predict the future state of the world under different possible decisions
 - and to use these predictions to select the decision with the best results.
- When we have the full knowledge of the situations, we get an optimization problem.
- In practice, however, we rarely have the full knowledge.
- Usually, we have some uncertainty about the future situations.
- It is therefore important to make decisions under uncertainty.

3. Traditional Decision Making Assumes That We Know the Probabilities

- There exist many techniques for decision making under uncertainty.
- Most of these techniques assume that we know the probabilities of different outcomes.
- In practice, we often have only partial knowledge about the probabilities.
- In such situations, several different probability distributions are consistent with the available data.
- To apply the existing techniques, we need:
 - to select a *single* probability distribution, and
 - to use this distribution in decision making.

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4. Our Idea

- We have partial knowledge about *probabilities* of different values of the corresponding quantity x .
- We also have imprecise knowledge about the actual *values* of these quantities.
- Indeed, the knowledge about these values comes from measurements.
- There is always a difference between the measurement result \tilde{x} and the actual value x .
- It is therefore reasonable to select a probability distribution which is the most *robust*, i.e., for which
 - the change from \tilde{x} to x
 - has the smallest possible effect on the resulting probabilities.

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5. Robustness: From an Informal Idea to a Precise Description

- Let us start with a 1-D case, when we have a single quantity x .
- In this case, we are interested in the probability of different events related to this quantity.
- In mathematical terms, we are interested in the probabilities of different subsets of the real line.
- In many cases, it makes sense to limit ourselves to connected sets.
- In the 1-D case, the only connected sets are intervals $[\underline{x}, \bar{x}]$ (finite or infinite).

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6. Robustness for Intervals

- This make practical sense: e.g., it corresponds to:
 - checking whether x is larger than or equal to a certain lower threshold \underline{x} and/or
 - checking whether x is smaller than or equal to a certain upper threshold \bar{x} , or
 - to checking whether x belongs to the given tolerance interval $[\underline{x}, \bar{x}]$.
- So, given an interval $[\underline{x}, \bar{x}]$, we want to compute:

$$P = \text{Prob}(X \in [\underline{x}, \bar{x}]) = \int_{\underline{x}}^{\bar{x}} \rho(x) dx.$$

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7. Local Robustness

- Let us consider the effect of uncertainty in \underline{x} on the resulting probability.
- If we replace the value \underline{x} with a slightly different value $\underline{x}' = \underline{x} + \Delta x$, then P changes to:

$$P' = \int_{\underline{x}+\Delta x}^{\bar{x}} \rho(x) dx = \int_{\underline{x}}^{\bar{x}} \rho(x) dx - \int_{\underline{x}}^{\underline{x}+\Delta x} \rho(x) dx =$$
$$P - \int_{\underline{x}}^{\underline{x}+\Delta x} \rho(x) dx.$$

- When Δx is small, $\int_{\underline{x}}^{\underline{x}+\Delta x} \rho(x) dx \approx \rho(\underline{x}) \cdot \Delta x$, so for $\Delta P \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} P' - P$, we have $|\Delta P| \approx \rho(\underline{x}) \cdot |\Delta x|$.
- Similarly, the effect of the uncertainty Δx in \bar{x} on the change in probability P is $|\Delta P| \approx \rho(\bar{x}) \cdot |\Delta x|$.
- In both cases, the value $\rho(x)$ serves as a measure of local robustness at the point x .

8. From Local Robustness to Global Robustness

- For different values x , the local robustness degree is, in general, different.
- To select a distribution, we need to combine these values into a single criterion.
- There are two natural ways to combine different approximation errors:
 - we can consider the worst-case error, or
 - we can consider the mean squared error.
- The worst-case means minimizing the largest possible approximation error $\sim \max_x \rho(x)$.
- The mean squared case means minimizing the mean value of the squared error $\sim \rho^2(x)$.

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9. Towards Global Robustness (cont-d)

- In the mean case, we have two possible choices:
 - we can interpret mean as the average $\int (\rho(x))^2 dx$ over all possible values x , or
 - we can interpret mean as averaging over the random variable with pdf $\rho(x)$:

$$\int \rho(x) \cdot (\rho(x))^2 dx = \int (\rho(x))^3 dx.$$

- In this talk, we consider all three options of selecting the distribution $\rho(x)$:
 - $\rho(x)$ for which $\max_x \rho(x)$ is the smallest;
 - $\rho(x)$ for which $\int (\rho(x))^2 dx$ is the smallest, and
 - $\rho(x)$ for which $\int (\rho(x))^3 dx$ is the smallest.

10. Relation to Maximum Entropy Approach

- Traditionally in probability theory:
 - when we only have partial knowledge about the probability distribution,
 - we select a distribution for which the entropy $S \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} - \int \rho(x) \cdot \ln(\rho(x)) dx$ is the largest.
- It is known that:
 - if we assume that the criterion for selecting a probability distribution is scale-invariant,
 - then this criterion is equivalent to optimizing either entropy, or generalized entropy

$$\int \ln(\rho(x)) dx \text{ or } \int \rho^\alpha(x) dx, \text{ for some } \alpha > 0.$$

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11. Relation to Maximum Entropy Approach (cont-d)

- We have either entropy, or generalized entropy $\int \ln(\rho(x)) dx$ or $\int \rho^\alpha(x) dx$ for some $\alpha > 0$.
- The generalized entropy corresponding to $\alpha = 2$ and $\alpha = 3$ describes mean-squared robustness.
- The worst-case criterion is a limit:

$$\max_x \rho(x) = \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \left(\int (\rho(x))^p dx \right)^{1/p}.$$

- Thus, minimizing $\max_x \rho(x)$ is, for large enough p :
 - equivalent to minimizing $(\int (\rho(x))^p dx)^{1/p}$ and hence,
 - equivalent to minimizing $\int (\rho(x))^p dx$.

12. Multi-D Case

- In the multi-D case, the probability density function $\rho(x)$ depends on several variables $x = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$.
- We can also consider general connected sets S .
- If we add, to S , a small neighborhood of x , of volume ΔV , then the change in P is $\Delta P = \rho(x) \cdot \Delta V$.
- Vice versa, if we delete an x -neighborhood of volume ΔV from the set S , then we get $\Delta P = -\rho(x) \cdot \Delta V$.
- In both cases, we have $|\Delta P| = \rho(x) \cdot \Delta V$.
- Thus, in the multi-D case too, the value $\rho(x)$ serves as a measure of local robustness at a point x .
- We can apply the usual techniques for combining local robustness measures into a single global one.
- So, we get one of three above criteria.

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13. What We Do Next

- We know that we have three possible ways of selecting the most robust probability distribution.
- Let us consider these three ways one by one.
- For each way, on simple examples, we explain what exactly probability distribution will be selected.
- *Observation:* a similar idea of selecting the most robust description is actively used in fuzzy logic:
 - we can select the most robust membership functions;
 - we can select the most robust “and”- and “or”-operations.
- While our problem is different, several related formulas are similar.
- This similarity helped us with our results.

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14. Types of Partial Knowledge About the Probability Distribution

- What type of partial knowledge do we have about a random variable?
- We can have lower and upper bounds on the measurement error; we may also know:
 - the mean value, i.e., the first moment of the corresponding random variable,
 - the variance (i.e., equivalently, the second moment),
 - sometimes the skewness (i.e., equivalently, the third moment) that characterizes asymmetry,
 - the excess (i.e., equivalently, the fourth moment) that describes heavy tails.
- In general, we will therefore consider the cases when we know the bounds and some moments (maybe none).

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15. Minimizing $\int (\rho(x))^2 dx$: Simplest Case When We Only Know the Bounds

- Let us start with the simplest case, when we only know the bounds \underline{a} and \bar{a} on the values of x .
- In this case, we minimize $\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} (\rho(x))^2 dx$ under the constraints that $\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} \rho(x) dx = 1$ and $\rho(x) \geq 0$ for all x .
- Lagrange multiplier method reduces this problem to an easier-to-solve unconstrained optimization problem:

$$\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} (\rho(x))^2 dx + \lambda \cdot \left(\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} \rho(x) dx - 1 \right) \rightarrow \min_{\rho(x)}$$

- Differentiating with respect to $\rho(x)$ and equating derivative to 0, we get $2\rho(x) + \lambda = 0$.
- So, $\rho(x) = c$ - a uniform distribution.
- *Comment:* in this case, maximum entropy method leads to the exact same uniform distribution.

16. What If We Also Know the Mean?

- What if we know the bounds \underline{a} and \bar{a} and mean μ ?
- Then, we minimize $\int (\rho(x))^2 dx$ under the constraints $\int \rho(x) dx = 1$, $\int x \cdot \rho(x) dx = \mu$, and $\rho(x) \geq 0$.

- Lagrange multiplier method leads to

$$J \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} (\rho(x))^2 dx + \lambda \cdot \left(\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} \rho(x) dx - 1 \right) + \lambda_1 \cdot \left(\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} x \cdot \rho(x) dx - \mu \right) \rightarrow \min.$$

- When $\rho(x) > 0$, the derivative of J relative to $\rho(x)$ is 0 hence $\rho(x) = p_0 + q \cdot x$.
- Thus, $\rho(x) = \max(0, p_0 + q \cdot x)$.
- When $\rho(x) > 0$ for all $x \in [\underline{a}, \bar{a}]$, then $p_0 = 1/(\bar{a} - \underline{a})$ (same as for uniform distribution), $q = \frac{12 \cdot (\mu - \tilde{a})}{(\bar{a} - \underline{a})^3}$.

17. What If We Also Know the Mean (cont-d)

- The condition $\rho(x) \geq 0$ holds when $|\mu - \tilde{a}| \leq \frac{1}{6} \cdot (\bar{a} - \underline{a})$, i.e., when

$$\tilde{a} - \frac{1}{6} \cdot (\bar{a} - \underline{a}) \leq \mu \leq \tilde{a} + \frac{1}{6} \cdot (\bar{a} - \underline{a}).$$

- When μ is smaller, $\rho(x)$ is concentrated on a narrower interval containing $x = \bar{a}$.
- When μ is larger, $\rho(x)$ is concentrated on a narrower interval containing $x = \underline{a}$.
- *Comment:* in this case, maximum entropy leads to

$$-\ln(\rho(x)) - 1 + \lambda + \lambda_1 \cdot x = 0, \text{ so}$$

$$\rho(x) = \exp(a + b \cdot x).$$

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18. What If We Know the First Two Moments?

- Sometimes, in addition to the bounds \underline{a} and \bar{a} and the mean μ , we also know the second moment M_2 .
- Knowing M_2 is equivalent to knowing the variance

$$V = \sigma^2 = M_2 - \mu^2.$$

- In this case, similar arguments lead to

$$\rho(x) = \max(0, p_0 + q \cdot x + r \cdot x^2).$$

- *Comment:* in this case, maximum entropy leads to Gaussian distribution.
- When $r < 0$, we get a bell-shaped distribution – i.e., somewhat similar in shape to the truncated Gaussian.

19. Advantages of the New Approach

- First, the new distribution is more robust – it is actually the most robust.
- Second, the new probability distribution function $\rho(x)$ is continuous on the entire real line.
- In contrast, the truncated Gaussian distribution is discontinuous at the endpoints.
- Third, the new distribution is computationally easier:
 - computation with polynomials (e.g., computing probabilities over intervals or moments)
 - is much easier than computation with the Gaussian pdf.
- When the variance is sufficiently high, we get $r > 0$, which corresponds to a *bimodal distribution*.

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20. Bimodal Distributions (cont-d)

- Bimodal distributions are common in measuring instruments, for two reasons.
- The first is the effect of the sinusoid signal $\sin(\omega \cdot t)$ (at a random time t) in the electric grid;
- The second reason is related to the very process of manufacturing the corresponding measuring instrument.
- Indeed, usually, we have a desired upper bound on the measurement error.
- At first, the measurement error of the newly manufactured measuring instrument is normally distributed.
- Many independent factors contribute to this original measurement error.
- Thus, due to the Central Limit Theorem, we the overall effect of these factors is approximately normal.

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21. Bimodal Distributions (cont-d)

- However, the range of the corresponding errors Δx is usually much wider than the desired tolerance bounds.
- Thus, the manufacturers start tuning the instrument until it fits into the bounds.
- This tuning stops as soon as we get into the desired intervals $[-\Delta, \Delta]$; as a result:
 - all the cases when originally, we had $\Delta x \leq -\Delta$ are converted to $-\Delta$ and
 - all the cases when originally, we had $\Delta x \geq \Delta$ are converted to Δ .
- Hence, the extreme values $-\Delta$ and Δ get high values of pdf $\rho(x)$.
- So, we get a distribution which is either bimodal or even tri-modal (with a smaller original peak).

22. Advantages of Our Approach: Case of Bimodal Distributions

- In our robust approach:
 - we cover bimodal distributions
 - by using the same easy-to-process quadratic formulas as the more usual unimodal ones.
- This is an advantage over the more traditional approach, when
 - bimodal distributions are modeled
 - by using much more computationally complex expressions.

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23. What If We Also Know Higher Moments?

- In many cases, we also know higher moments.
- For example, often, we know third and/or fourth moments, i.e., equivalently, skewness and excess.
- For such situations, traditionally, there are no easy-to-use expression.
- However, in our case, we do get such an expression.
- If we know the first m moments, then we get

$$\rho(x) = \max \left(0, p_0 + \sum_{k=1}^m q_k \cdot x^k \right).$$

- This polynomial expression is easy to process.
- In contrast, the usual approaches like skew normal are not so computationally easy.

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24. Multi-D Case: Good News

- What if we want to analyze a joint distribution of several variables? Similarly to the 1-D case:
 - if we know several moments,
 - then the most robust pdf $\rho(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ on a given box $[\underline{a}_1, \bar{a}_1] \times \dots \times [\underline{a}_d, \bar{a}_d]$
 - is $\rho(x_1, \dots, x_d) = \max(0, P(x_1, \dots, x_d))$ for some polynomial $P(x_1, \dots, x_d)$.
- The degree of this polynomial depends on what moments we know.
- If we do not know any moments, then $P(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ is a constant, and thus, we get a uniform distribution.
- This is similar to what we get if we use the maximum entropy approach.
- If we only know the means $E[x_i]$, then $P(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ is a linear function.

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25. Multi-D Case (cont-d)

- If we also know $E[(x_i)^2]$ and $E[x_i \cdot x_j]$ (equivalently, the covariance matrix), $P(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ is quadratic.
- If we also know third (and fourth) order moments, then $P(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ is a cubic (quartic) polynomial, etc.
- These polynomial pdf's are the most robust.
- They are also much easier to process than Gaussian or other usually used pdf's.
- But maybe we are missing something?
- Not really, since, as it is well known, polynomials are *universal approximators* – in the sense that
 - any arbitrary continuous function on a given box can be, with any desired accuracy,
 - approximated by a polynomial.

26. Multi-D Case: Remaining Challenge

- Suppose that we only know the marginal distributions $\rho_1(x_1)$ and $\rho_2(x_2)$.
- We need to reconstruct the original 2-D distribution $\rho(x_1, x_2)$.
- In the maximum entropy approach, the corresponding optimization leads to the independence-related formula

$$\rho(x_1, x_2) = \rho_1(x_1) \cdot \rho_2(x_2).$$

- This makes perfect sense:
 - if we know nothing about the relation between two random variables,
 - it is reasonable to assume that they are independent.
- For our robust approach, however, the situation is less intuitive.

27. Multi-D Challenge (cont-d)

- We want to find $\rho(x_1, x_2) \geq 0$ on the box $A = [\underline{a}_1, \bar{a}_1] \times [\underline{a}_2, \bar{a}_2]$ for which $\int_A \rho(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 = 1$,
 - $\int_{\underline{a}_2}^{\bar{a}_2} \rho(x_1, x_2) dx_2 = \rho_1(x_1)$ for all x_1 , and
 - $\int_{\underline{a}_1}^{\bar{a}_1} \rho(x_1, x_2) dx_1 = \rho_2(x_2)$ for all x_2 .
- Here, the first condition follows from the second one if we integrate over x_1 .

- For this constraint optimization problem, the Lagrange multiplier technique means minimizing the functional

$$\int_A (\rho(x_1, x_2))^2 dx_1 dx_2 + \int_{\underline{a}_1}^{\bar{a}_1} dx_1 \lambda_1(x_1) \cdot \left(\int_{\underline{a}_2}^{\bar{a}_2} \rho(x_1, x_2) dx_2 \right) + \int_{\underline{a}_2}^{\bar{a}_2} dx_2 \lambda_2(x_2) \cdot \left(\int_{\underline{a}_1}^{\bar{a}_1} \rho(x_1, x_2) dx_1 \right)$$

- When $\rho(x_1, x_2) > 0$, equating derivative to 0 leads to $\rho(x_1, x_2) = a_1(x_1) + a_2(x_2)$, where $a_i(x_i) = -\lambda_i(x_i)/2$.

28. Multi-D Challenge (cont-d)

- Integrating over x_2 , we get $\rho_1(x_1) = (\bar{a}_2 - \underline{a}_2) \cdot a_1(x_1) + C_1$, hence $a_1(x_1) = \frac{1}{\bar{a}_2 - \underline{a}_2} \cdot \rho_1(x_1) + C_1$ and

$$\rho(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{\bar{a}_2 - \underline{a}_2} \cdot \rho_1(x_1) + \frac{1}{\bar{a}_1 - \underline{a}_1} \cdot \rho_2(x_2) + C.$$

- When both x_1 and x_2 are uniformly distributed, the result is the uniform distribution on the box.
- This is similar to the maximum entropy approach.
- However, in general, this is *not* independence, it is a *mixture* of the two distributions.
- It is not very clear what is the intuitive meaning of this mixture.
- In general, we get $\rho(x_1, x_2) = \max(a_1(x_1) + a_2(x_2), 0)$.

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29. A Distribution that $\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} (\rho(x))^3 dx \rightarrow \min$

- If we only know the bounds, we minimize $\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} (\rho(x))^3 dx$ under the constraints $\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} \rho(x) dx = 1$ and $\forall x \rho(x) \geq 0$.
- Lagrange multiplier methods leads to:

$$\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} (\rho(x))^3 dx + \lambda \cdot \left(\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} \rho(x) dx - 1 \right) \rightarrow \min_{\rho(x)}.$$

- The solution is a uniform distribution.
- If we also know moments, we minimize $\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} (\rho(x))^3 dx$ under the constraints $\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} \rho(x) dx = 1$, and

$$\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} x^k \cdot \rho(x) dx = M_k \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, m.$$

30. A Distribution that $\int(\rho(x))^3 dx \rightarrow \min$ (cont-d)

$$\text{So } \int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} (\rho(x))^3 dx + \lambda \cdot \left(\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} \rho(x) dx - 1 \right) + \sum_{k=1}^m \lambda_k \cdot \left(\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} x^k \cdot \rho(x) dx - M_k \right) \rightarrow \min.$$

- When $\rho(x) > 0$, differentiation leads to

$$(\rho(x))^2 = p_0 + \sum_{k=1}^m q_k \cdot x^k.$$

- So, $\rho(x) = \sqrt{\max\left(0, p_0 + \sum_{k=1}^m q_k \cdot x^k\right)}$.

- Similarly, in the multi-D case, for an appropriate polynomial $P(x_1, \dots, x_d)$, we get:

$$\rho(x_1, \dots, x_d) = \sqrt{\max(0, P(x_1, \dots, x_d))}.$$

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31. Limitations of This Approach

- From the computational viewpoint:
 - integrating polynomials is easy, but
 - integrating square roots of polynomials is not easy.
- From this viewpoint, the first robustness criterion is more computationally advantageous.
- Square roots also lead to less accurate approximations.
- Let us illustrate it on the example of approximating a Gaussian $N(0, 1)$:

$$f(x) = \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{8} + \dots$$

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32. Limitations (cont-d)

- If we approximate this expression in the vicinity of 0, then:
 - the best quadratic approximation takes the first two terms in the Taylor expansion
$$f_1(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2};$$
 - the approximation accuracy $\delta_1 = |f_1(x) - f(x)|$ is determined by the first ignored term: $\delta_1 \approx \frac{x^4}{8}$.
- What if we use square roots of quadratic polynomials?
- The problem is symmetric with respect to $x \rightarrow -x$.
- So, we have to use symmetric quadratic polynomials

$$a \cdot (1 + b \cdot x^2).$$

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33. Limitations (cont-d)

- For this polynomial $a \cdot (1 + b \cdot x^2)$, we have:

$$\sqrt{a \cdot (1 + b \cdot x^2)} = \sqrt{a} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{b \cdot x^2}{2}\right) + \dots$$

- For these terms to coincide with the first two terms in the Taylor expansion of $f(x)$, we must take

$$a = 1 \text{ and } b = -1.$$

- For the resulting approximating function $f_2(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$, we have

$$f_2(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^4}{8} + \dots$$

- Here, the approximation accuracy is equal to

$$f_2(x) - f(x) = -\frac{x^4}{8} + \dots$$

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34. Limitations (final)

- So asymptotically:

- if we use the criterion $\int(\rho(x))^3 dx \rightarrow \min$,
- then the approximation error has the form

$$\delta_2 = |f_2(x) - f(x)| \approx \frac{x^4}{4}.$$

- This is twice larger than when we use the first robustness criterion $\int(\rho(x))^2 dx \rightarrow \min$.

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35. A Distribution for which $\max_x \rho(x) \rightarrow \min$

- In this case, whatever moments conditions we impose:
 - if there is a point x_0 in the vicinity of which $0 < \rho(x_0) < \max_x \rho(x)$,
 - then we can decrease all the value $\rho(x)$ for which $\rho(x) = \max$ by some small amount,
 - compensating it with an appropriate increase in the vicinity of x_0 , and so
 - satisfying the same criteria while decreasing the value $\max_x \rho(x)$.
- Thus, when the desired criterion $\max_x \rho(x)$ is the smallest possible, then:
 - for every x ,
 - we either have $\rho(x) = 0$ or $\rho(x)$ is equal to this maximum.

36. Case of $\max_x \rho(x) \rightarrow \min$ (cont-d)

- This argument can be formally confirmed.
- Indeed, the worst-case criterion is a limit, when $p \rightarrow \infty$, of $\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} (\rho(x))^p dx \rightarrow \min$.
- Let's minimize $\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} (\rho(x))^p dx$ under the constraints $\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} \rho(x) dx = 1$, and

$$\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} x^k \cdot \rho(x) dx = M_k \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, m.$$

- Lagrange multiplier method leads to:

$$\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} (\rho(x))^p dx + \lambda \cdot \left(\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} \rho(x) dx - 1 \right) + \sum_{k=1}^m \lambda_k \cdot \left(\int_{\underline{a}}^{\bar{a}} x^k \cdot \rho(x) dx - M_k \right) \rightarrow \min.$$

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37. Case of $\max_x \rho(x) \rightarrow \min$ (final)

- When $\rho(x) > 0$, equating derivative to 0 leads to

$$(\rho(x))^{p-1} = p_0 + \sum_{k=1}^m q_k \cdot x^k.$$

- So $\rho(x) = \text{const} \cdot (P(x))^{1/(p-1)}$ for some polynomial $P(x)$.
- When $p \rightarrow \infty$, we have $1/(p-1) \rightarrow 0$, and the 0-th power of a positive number is always 1.
- Thus, we indeed have $\rho(x) = \text{const}$ whenever $\rho(x) > 0$.
- A similar conclusion can be made in the multi-D case.
- So: $\rho(x) = 0$ when $P(x) \leq 0$, $\rho(x) = c$ when $P(x) > 0$.

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38. Shall We Recommend This Approach?

- It depends on what we want.
- If the goal is to get a good approximation to the original cdf, then clearly no.
- In contrast to polynomials, these functions do not have a universal approximation property.
- On the other hand,
 - in critical situations, when we want to minimize worst-case dependence on the input's uncertainty,
 - these are the distributions that we should use.

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