Optimizing Computer Representation and Computer Processing of Epistemic Uncertainty for Risk-Informed Decision Making: Finances etc.

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I. Formulation of the Problem

- Traditionally, most statistical techniques assume that the random variables are normally distributed.
- For such distributions:
 - a natural characteristic of the "average" value is the mean, and
 - a natural characteristic of the deviation from the average is the variance.
- In practice, we encounter *heavy-tailed* distributions, with infinite variance; what are analogs of:
 - "average" and deviation from average?
 - correlation?
 - how to take into account interval uncertainty?



2. Normal Distributions Are Most Widely Used

• Most statistical techniques assume that the random variables are normally distributed:

$$\rho(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \cdot V}} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{(x-m)^2}{2V}\right).$$

- For such distributions:
 - a natural characteristic of the "average" value is the mean $m \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E[x]$, and
 - a natural characteristic of the deviation from the average is the variance $V \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E[(x-m)^2]$.
- It is known that a normal distribution is uniquely determined by m and V.
- Thus, each characteristic (mode, median, etc.) is uniquely determined by m and V.

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3. Estimating the Values of the Characteristics: Case of Normal Distributions

- We have a sample consisting of the values x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- We can use the Maximum Likelihood Method: m and V maximizing

$$L = \rho(x_1) \cdot \dots \cdot \rho(x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \cdot V}} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{(x_i - m)^2}{2V}\right).$$

ullet Maximizing L is equivalent to minimizing

$$\psi \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} -\ln(L) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[\frac{1}{2} \cdot \ln(2\pi \cdot V) + \frac{(x_i - m)^2}{2V} \right].$$

• Equating derivatives to 0, we get:

$$\widehat{m} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i; \quad \widehat{V} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \widehat{m})^2.$$

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4. In Many Practical Situations, We Encounter Heavy-Tailed Distributions

- In the 1960s, Benoit Mandelbrot empirically studied fluctuations.
- He showed that larger-scale fluctuations follow the powerlaw distribution $\rho(x) = A \cdot x^{-\alpha}$, with $\alpha \approx 2.7$.
- For this distribution, variance is infinite.
- Such distributions are called heavy-tailed.
- Similar heavy-tailed laws were empirically discovered in other application areas.
- These result led to the formulation of fractal theory.
- Since then, similar heavy-tailed distributions have been empirically found:
 - in other financial situations and
 - in many other application areas.

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5. First Problem: How to Characterize Such Distributions?

- Usually, *variance* is used to describe deviation from the average.
- For heavy-tailed distributions, variance is *infinite*.
- So, we *cannot* use variance to describe the deviation from the "average".
- Thus, we need to come up with *other* characteristics for describing this deviation.
- We will *describe* such characteristics in the first part of this talk.
- We will also describe how we can estimate these characteristics.



6. How to Describe Deviation from the "Average" for Heavy-Tailed Distributions: Analysis

- A standard way to describe preferences of a decision maker is to use the notion of utility u.
- According to decision theory, a user prefers an alternative for which the expected value

$$\int \rho(x) \cdot u(x) \, dx \to \max.$$

- Alternative, the expected value $\int \rho(x) \cdot U(x) dx$ of the disutility $U \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} -u$ is the smallest possible.
- If we replace $x \to m \approx x$, there is disutility U(x-m).
- So, we choose m s.t. $\int \rho(x) \cdot U(x-m) dx \to \min$.
- The resulting minimum describes the deviation of the values from this "average".

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7. Resulting Definitions

- Let $U: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}_0$ be a function for which:
 - U(0) = 0,
 - U(d) is (non-strictly) increasing for $d \ge 0$, and
 - U(d) is (non-strictly) decreasing for $d \leq 0$.
- For a distribution $\rho(x)$, by a *U-mean*, we mean the value m_U that minimizes $\int \rho(x) \cdot U(x-m) dx$.
- \bullet By a *U-deviation*, we mean

$$V_U \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int \rho(x) \cdot U(x - m_U) \, dx.$$

- When $U(x) = x^2$, m_U is mean, and V_U is variance.
- When U(x) = |x|, m_U is median, and V_U is average absolute deviation $V_U = \int \rho(x) \cdot |x m_U| dx$.

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• In the traditional statistics, a reasonable measure of dependence is the correlation

$$\rho_{xy} = \frac{E[(x - E(x)) \cdot (y - E(y))]}{\sqrt{V_x \cdot V_y}}.$$

- For heavy-tailed distributions, variances are infinite, so this formula cannot be applied.
- Possibility: Kendall's tau, the proportion of pairs (x, y) and (x', y') s.t. x and y change in the same direction:

either
$$(x \le x' \& y \le y')$$
 or $(x' \le x \& y' \le y)$.

• Remaining problem: what if we are interested only in linear dependencies?



9. Proposed Definition

• Idea: c describes how much disutility decreases when we use x to help predict y:

$$c \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{V_U(y) - V_{U,\mathcal{F}}(y|x)}{V_U(y)},$$

where

$$V_U(y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min_m \int \rho(x,y) \cdot U(y-m) \, dx \, dy$$

and

$$V_{U,\mathcal{F}}(y|x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \int \rho(x,y) \cdot U(y-f(x)) \, dx \, dy.$$

- The function f at which the minimum is attained is called \mathcal{F} -regression.
- When $U(d) = d^2$ and \mathcal{F} is the class of all linear functions, $c = \rho^2$.

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10. Discussion

- For normal distributions and linear functions, correlation is symmetric:
 - if we can reconstruct y from x,
 - then we can reconstruct x from y.
- Our definition is, in general, not symmetric.
- This asymmetry make perfect sense.
- For example, suppose that $y = x^2$:
 - then, if we know x, then we can uniquely reconstruct y;
 - however, if we know y, we can only reconstruct x modulo sign.



11. How to Estimate the New Characteristics from Observations

- In the above text: we defined the desired characteristics in terms of the probability density function (pdf) $\rho(x)$.
- In practice: we often do not know the distribution.
- *Instead:* we know the sample values x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- A natural idea: use the "histogram" distribution, in which each x_i appears with equal probability $\frac{1}{n}$.
- Example: for $\rho(x) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta(x x_i)$, the mean $E = \int \rho(x) \cdot x \, dx$ turns into $\widehat{E} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$.
- Similarly: we get $\widehat{V} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i \widehat{V})^2$.

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12. Resulting Estimates for m_U and V_U

- For each sample x_1, \ldots, x_n , by a U-estimate, we mean the value \widehat{m}_U that minimizes $\frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n U(x_i m)$.
- \bullet By an estimate for *U*-deviation, we mean

$$\widehat{V}_U \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n U(x_i - \widehat{m}_U).$$

- When $U(x) = x^2$, \widehat{m}_U is arithmetic mean, and \widehat{V}_U is sample variance.
- When U(x) = |x|, \widehat{m}_U is sample median, and \widehat{V}_U is average absolute deviation $\widehat{V}_U = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i \widehat{m}_U|$.

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13. How to Estimate m_U and V_U

• Once we compute \widehat{m}_U , the computation of

$$\widehat{V}_U = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n U(x_i - \widehat{m}_U)$$
 is straightforward.

- Estimating \widehat{m}_U means optimizing a function of a single variable $\frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} U(x_i m) \to \min$.
- This optimization problem is equivalent to the Maximum Likelihood (ML): for $U(x) = -\ln(\rho_0(x))$,

$$L = \rho_0(x_1 - m) \cdot \ldots \cdot \rho_0(x_n - m) \to \max \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\psi \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} -\ln(L) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} U(x_i - m) \to \min.$$

• Similar algorithms are used in *robust statistics*, as *M-methods*, which are mathematically equivalent to ML.

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14. Estimates for *U*-Correlation

• *Idea*: \hat{c} describes how much disutility decreases when we use x_i to help predict y_i :

$$\widehat{c} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\widehat{V}_U(y) - \widehat{V}_{U,\mathcal{F}}(y|x)}{\widehat{V}_U(y)},$$

where

$$\widehat{V}_U(y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min_{m} \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} U(y_i - m)$$

and

$$\widehat{V}_{U,\mathcal{F}}(y|x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} U(y_i - f(x_i)).$$

- The function \hat{f} at which the minimum is attained is called sample \mathcal{F} -regression.
- When $U(d) = d^2$ and \mathcal{F} is the class of all linear functions, $\hat{c} = \hat{\rho}^2$.

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15. Need to Take into Account Interval Uncertainty

- In practice, we often know approximate values $\tilde{x}_i \approx x_i$.
- Sometimes, we know the probabilities of different values of the approximation error $\Delta x_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \widetilde{x}_i x_i$.
- Often, we only know the upper bound Δ_i : $|\Delta x_i| \leq \Delta_i$.
- So, we only know that $x_i \in \mathbf{x}_i = [\widetilde{x}_i \Delta_i, \widetilde{x}_i + \Delta_i].$
- For each estimator $C(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, different $x_i \in \mathbf{x}_i$ lead, in general, to different values $C(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$.
- Thus, we must find the range:

$$\mathbf{C} = [\underline{C}, \overline{C}] = \{C(x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_1 \in \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbf{x}_n\}.$$

• This *interval computations* problem is, in general, NP-hard.



16. Estimating the Heavy-Tailed-Related Deviation Characteristics under Interval Uncertainty

- When we know the exact values of x_i , we know how to compute $\widehat{V}_U = \min_{m} \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} U(x_i m)$.
- In practice, the values x_i are often only known with interval uncertainty.
- We only know the intervals $\mathbf{x}_i = [\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i]$ that contain the unknown values x_i .
- In this case, it is desirable to compute the range $[\widehat{V}_U, \overline{\widehat{V}_U}]$ of possible values of \widehat{V}_U when $x_i \in \mathbf{x}_i$. Here:
 - The value \widehat{V}_U is the minimum of the function $\widehat{V}_U(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ when $x_i \in \mathbf{x}_i$.
 - The value \widehat{V}_U is the maximum of the function $\widehat{V}_U(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ when $x_i \in \mathbf{x}_i$.

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- First, sort all 2n endpoints \underline{x}_i and \overline{x}_i into an increasing sequence $x_{(1)} \leq x_{(2)} \leq \ldots \leq x_{(2n)}$.
- These values, with $x_{(0)} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} -\infty$ and $x_{(2n+1)} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} +\infty$, divide the real line into zones $[x_{(k)}, x_{(k+1)}], k = 0, 1, \dots, 2n$.
- For each zone z, we select the values x_1, \ldots, x_n as follows: for some value m (to be determined),
 - if $\overline{x}_i \leq r_{(k)}$, then we select $x_i = \overline{x}_i$;
 - if $r_{(k+1)} \leq \underline{x}_i$, then we select $x_i = \underline{x}_i$;
 - for all other i, we select $x_i = m$.
- Then, we take only the values for which $x_i \neq m$, and find their *U*-estimate \widehat{m}_U ; if $m_U \in z$, we compute \widehat{V}_U .
- The smallest of thus computed U-deviations is the desired value \widehat{V}_U .

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18. Computation Time for This Algorithm

- Sorting takes $O(n \cdot \log(n))$ steps.
- After that, for each of 2n = O(n) zones, we need:
 - \bullet O(n) steps to perform the computations and
 - the time that we will denote by T_{exact} to compute the U-estimate and U-deviation.
- Thus, the total computation time is equal to $O(n \cdot \log(n)) + O(n^2) + O(n) \cdot T_{\text{exact}} = O(n^2) + O(n) \cdot T_{\text{exact}}.$
- Conclusion:
 - if we can compute \hat{V}_U for exactly known x_i in polynomial time (e.g., linear), then
 - we can compute \hat{V}_U under interval uncertainty also in polynomial time (e.g., quadratic).

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- Fact: the maximum $\overline{\widehat{V}_U}$ is attained:
 - $\text{ if } \overline{x}_i \leq m, \text{ for } x_i = \underline{x}_i;$
 - $\text{ if } m \leq \underline{x}_i, \text{ for } x_i = \overline{x}_i;$
 - if $\underline{x}_i \leq m \leq \overline{x}_i$, for $x_i = \underline{x}_i$ or $x_i = \overline{x}_i$.
- Resulting algorithm:
 - try all possible combinations of endpoints that satisfy the above conditions, and
 - select the largest of the resulting values \widehat{V}_U .
- Problem: we may need 2^n combinations, too long already for $n \approx 300$.
- Explanation: even for $U(d) = d^2$, the problem of computing $\overline{\widehat{V}_U}$ is NP-hard.

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- $\text{ if } \overline{x}_i \leq m, \text{ for } x_i = \underline{x}_i;$
- $\text{ if } m \leq \underline{x}_i, \text{ for } x_i = \overline{x}_i;$
- if $\underline{x}_i \leq m \leq \overline{x}_i$, for $x_i = \underline{x}_i$ or $x_i = \overline{x}_i$.
- Situation. For some C, every group of > C intervals has an empty intersection.
- Algorithm: for each zone z, we consider case $m \in z$.
- For each zone, there are $\leq C$ intervals for which

$$\underline{x}_i \le m \le \overline{x}_i.$$

- So we need to check $\leq 2^C$ combinations for each zone.
- Since C is a constant, $2^C = O(1)$.

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• First, we sort all endpoints \underline{x}_i and \overline{x}_i into an increasing sequence, and add $x_{(0)} = -\infty$ and $x_{(2n+1)} = +\infty$:

$$-\infty = x_{(0)} \le x_{(1)} \le x_{(2)} \le \dots \le x_{(2n)} \le x_{(2n+1)} = +\infty.$$

- For each zone $[x_{(k)}, x_{(k+1)}]$, we do the following:
 - if $\overline{x}_i \leq r_{(k)}$, then we select $x_i = \underline{x}_i$;
 - if $r_{(k+1)} \leq \underline{x}_i$, then we select $x_i = \overline{x}_i$;
 - for all other i, we select either $x_i = \underline{x}_i$ or $x_i = \overline{x}_i$.
- For each zone, we have $\leq C$ indices i that allow two selections, so we thus get $\leq 2^C$ selections.
- \bullet For each of these selections, we compute the U-deviation.
- The largest of these \widehat{V}_U is the desired value $\overline{\widehat{V}_U}$.
- This algorithm requires time $O(n^2) + O(n) \cdot T_{\text{exact}}$.

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- 2nd case: no interval is a proper subinterval of another: $[\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i] \not\subseteq (\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i)$ for all i and j.
- Example: measurements made by the same instrument.
- \bullet Under this property, lexicographic order

$$[\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i] \leq [\underline{x}_j, \overline{x}_j] \Leftrightarrow ((\underline{x}_i < \underline{x}_j) \lor (\underline{x}_i = \underline{x}_j \& \overline{x}_i < \overline{x}_j))$$

sorts the intervals by both endpoints:

$$\underline{x}_1 \le \underline{x}_2 \le \ldots \le \underline{x}_n; \quad \overline{x}_1 \le \overline{x}_2 \le \ldots \le \overline{x}_n.$$

- One can prove that, for some k, the maximum is attained at a tuple $(\underline{x}_1, \ldots, \underline{x}_k, \overline{x}_{k+1}, \ldots, \overline{x}_n)$.
- There are n + 1 such tuples, so we have a polynomial-time algorithm.
- Similar arguments can be made when the intervals can be divided into m groups with this property.

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- Applicable: when $[\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i] \not\subseteq (\underline{x}_j, \overline{x}_j)$ for all i and j.
- First, we sort all the intervals in lexicographic order

$$[\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i] \leq [\underline{x}_j, \overline{x}_j] \Leftrightarrow ((\underline{x}_i < \underline{x}_j) \lor (\underline{x}_i = \underline{x}_j \& \overline{x}_i < \overline{x}_j)).$$

- Then, we compute V_U for all n+1 tuples of the form $(\underline{x}_1, \ldots, \underline{x}_k, \overline{x}_{k+1}, \ldots, \overline{x}_n)$, with $k=0,1,\ldots,n$.
- The largest of thus computed U-deviations is the desired value $\overline{\widehat{V}_U}$.
- This algorithm requires time

$$O(n \cdot \log(n)) + O(n) \cdot T_{\text{exact}}.$$

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- Applicable: all intervals can be divided into m groups each of which satisfies the no-subinterval property.
- We sort all intervals within each group in lexicographic order.
- For each group j = 1, ..., m, with $n_j \le n$ elements, we consider $n_j + 1 \le n + 1$ tuples of the form

$$(\underline{x}_1,\ldots,\underline{x}_{k_i},\overline{x}_{k_j+1},\ldots,\overline{x}_n).$$

- We consider all possible combinations of such tuples corresponding to all possible vectors (k_1, \ldots, k_m) .
- For each of these $\leq n^m$ vectors, we compute \widehat{V}_U .
- The largest of these \widehat{V}_U is the desired value $\overline{\widehat{V}_U}$.
- This algorithm requires time

$$O(n \cdot \log(n)) + O(n^m) \cdot T_{\text{exact}}.$$

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25. Conclusion

- Uncertainty is usually gauged by using standard statistical characteristics: mean, variance, correlation, etc.
- Then, we use the known values of these characteristics to select a decision.
- Sometimes, we only know bounds, then we use these bounds in decision making.
- Sometimes, it becomes clear that the selected characteristics do not always describe a situation well.
- Then other known (or new) characteristics are proposed.
- A good example is description of volatility in finance:
 - it started with variance, and
 - now many descriptions are competing, all with their own advantages and limitations.



26. Conclusion (cont-d)

- Reminder: sometimes, the traditional statistical characteristics do not work well.
- In such situations, a natural idea is to come up with characteristics tailored to specific application areas.
- E.g., a characteristic that maximizes the expected utility of the resulting risk-informed decision making.
- How to estimate these characteristics when the sample values are only known with interval uncertainty?
- We show that:
 - algorithms originally developed for estimating traditional characteristics
 - can often be modified to cover new characteristics.



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