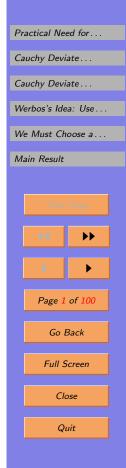
# Towards A Neural-Based Understanding of the Cauchy Deviate Method for Processing Interval and Fuzzy Uncertainty

Vladik Kreinovich<sup>1</sup> and Hung T. Nguyen<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Computer Science University of Texas, El Paso, TX 79968, USA, vladik@utep.edu <sup>2</sup>Department of Mathematical Sciences, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM 88003, USA, hunguyen@nmsu.edu



## 1. Practical Need for Uncertainty Propagation

- Practical problem: we are often interested in the quantity y which is difficult to measure directly.
- Solution:
  - estimate easier-to-measure quantities  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  which are related to y by a known algorithm  $y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ ;
  - compute  $\widetilde{y} = f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n)$  based on the estimates  $\widetilde{x}_i$ .
- Fact: estimates are never absolutely accurate:  $\tilde{x}_i \neq x_i$ .
- Consequence: the estimate  $\widetilde{y} = f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n)$  is different from the actual value  $y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ .
- Problem: estimate the uncertainty  $\Delta y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \widetilde{y} y$ .



## 2. Propagation of Probabilistic Uncertainty

- Fact: often, we know the probabilities of different values of  $\Delta x_i$ .
- Example:  $\Delta x_i$  are independent normally distributed with mean 0 and known st. dev.  $\sigma_i$ .
- Monte-Carlo approach:
  - For k = 1, ..., N times, we:
    - \* simulate the values  $\Delta x_i^{(k)}$  according to the known probability distributions for  $x_i$ ;
    - \* find  $x_i^{(k)} = \widetilde{x}_i \Delta x_i^{(k)}$ ;
    - \* find  $y^{(k)} = f(x_1^{(k)}, \dots, x_n^{(k)});$
    - \* estimate  $\Delta y^{(k)} = y^{(k)} \widetilde{y}$ .
  - Based on the sample  $\Delta y^{(1)}, \ldots, \Delta y^{(N)}$ , we estimate the statistical characteristics of  $\Delta y$ .



## 3. Propagation of Interval Uncertainty

- In practice: we often do not know the probabilities.
- What we know: the upper bounds  $\Delta_i$  on the measurement errors  $\Delta x_i$ :  $|\Delta x_i| \leq \Delta_i$ .
- Enter intervals: once we know  $\tilde{x}_i$ , we conclude that the actual (unknown)  $x_i$  is in the interval

$$\mathbf{x}_i = [\widetilde{x}_i - \Delta_i, \widetilde{x}_i + \Delta_i].$$

• Problem: find the range  $\mathbf{y} = [\underline{y}, \overline{y}]$  of possible values of y when  $x_i \in \mathbf{x}_i$ :

$$\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_1 \in \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbf{x}_n \}.$$

• Fact: this interval computation problem is, in general, NP-hard.



## 4. Propagation of Fuzzy Uncertainty

- In many practical situations, the estimates  $\tilde{x}_i$  come from experts.
- Experts often describe the inaccuracy of their estimates by natural language terms like "approximately 0.1".
- A natural way to formalize such terms is to use membership functions  $\mu_i(x_i)$ .
- For each  $\alpha$ , we can determine the  $\alpha$ -cut

$$\mathbf{x}_i(\alpha) = \{x_i \mid \mu_i(x_i) \ge \alpha\}.$$

• Natural idea: find  $\mu(y)$  for which, for each  $\alpha$ ,

$$\mathbf{y}(\alpha) = f(\mathbf{x}_1(\alpha), \dots, \mathbf{x}_1(\alpha)).$$

• So, the problem of propagating fuzzy uncertainty can be reduced to several interval propagation problems.



# 5. Need for Faster Algorithms for Uncertainty Propagation

- For propagating probabilistic uncertainty, there are efficient algorithms such as Monte-Carlo simulations.
- In contrast, the problems of propagating interval and fuzzy uncertainty are computationally difficult.
- It is therefore desirable to design faster algorithms for propagating interval and fuzzy uncertainty.
- The problem of propagating fuzzy uncertainty can be reduced to the interval case.
- Hence, we mainly concentrate on faster algorithms for propagating interval uncertainty.



#### 6. Linearization

• In many practical situations, the errors  $\Delta x_i$  are small, so we can ignore quadratic terms:

$$\Delta y = \widetilde{y} - y = f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n) - f(x_1, \dots, x_n) =$$

$$f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n) - f(\widetilde{x}_1 - \Delta x_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n - \Delta x_n) \approx$$

$$c_1 \cdot \Delta x_1 + \dots + c_n \cdot \Delta x_n,$$
where  $c_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n).$ 

• For a linear function, the largest  $\Delta y$  is obtained when each term  $c_i \cdot \Delta x_i$  is the largest:

$$\Delta = |c_1| \cdot \Delta_1 + \ldots + |c_n| \cdot \Delta_n.$$

• Due to the linearization assumption, we can estimate each partial derivative  $c_i$  as

$$c_i \approx \frac{f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_{i-1}, \widetilde{x}_i + h_i, \widetilde{x}_{i+1}, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n) - \widetilde{y}}{h_i}.$$



## 7. Linearization: Algorithm

To compute the range  $\mathbf{y}$  of y, we do the following.

- First, we apply the algorithm f to the original estimates  $\widetilde{x}_1, \ldots, \widetilde{x}_n$ , resulting in the value  $\widetilde{y} = f(\widetilde{x}_1, \ldots, \widetilde{x}_n)$ .
- Second, for all i from 1 to n,
  - we compute  $f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_{i-1}, \widetilde{x}_i + h_i, \widetilde{x}_{i+1}, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n)$  for some small  $h_i$  and then
  - we compute

$$c_i = \frac{f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_{i-1}, \widetilde{x}_i + h_i, \widetilde{x}_{i+1}, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n) - \widetilde{y}}{h_i}.$$

- Finally, we compute  $\Delta = |c_1| \cdot \Delta_1 + \ldots + |c_n| \cdot \Delta_n$  and the desired range  $\mathbf{y} = [\widetilde{y} \Delta, \widetilde{y} + \Delta]$ .
- Problem: we need n+1 calls to f, and this is often too long.



#### 8. Cauchy Deviate Method: Idea

• For large n, we can further reduce the number of calls to f if we Cauchy distributions, w/pdf

$$\rho(z) = \frac{\Delta}{\pi \cdot (z^2 + \Delta^2)}.$$

- Known property of Cauchy transforms:
  - if  $z_1, \ldots, z_n$  are independent Cauchy random variables w/parameters  $\Delta_1, \ldots, \Delta_n$ ,
  - then  $z = c_1 \cdot z_1 + \ldots + c_n \cdot z_n$  is also Cauchy distributed, w/parameter

$$\Delta = |c_1| \cdot \Delta_1 + \ldots + |c_n| \cdot \Delta_n.$$

• This is exactly what we need to estimate interval uncertainty!



# 9. Cauchy Deviate Method: Towards Implementation

- To implement the Cauchy idea, we must answer the following questions:
  - how to simulate the Cauchy distribution; and
  - how to estimate the parameter  $\Delta$  of this distribution from a finite sample.
- Simulation can be based on the functional transformation of uniformly distributed sample values:

$$\delta_i = \Delta_i \cdot \tan(\pi \cdot (r_i - 0.5)), \text{ where } r_i \sim U([0, 1]).$$

• To estimate  $\Delta$ , we can apply the Maximum Likelihood Method  $\rho(\delta^{(1)}) \cdot \rho(\delta^{(2)}) \cdot \ldots \cdot \rho(\delta^{(N)}) \to \text{max}$ , i.e., solve

$$\frac{1}{1+\left(\frac{\delta^{(1)}}{\Delta}\right)^2}+\ldots+\frac{1}{1+\left(\frac{\delta^{(N)}}{\Delta}\right)^2}=\frac{N}{2}.$$



# 10. Cauchy Deviates Method: Algorithm

- Apply f to  $\widetilde{x}_i$ ; we get  $\widetilde{y} := f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n)$ .
- For k = 1, 2, ..., N, repeat the following:
  - use the standard RNG to draw  $r_i^{(k)} \sim U([0,1]),$  i = 1, 2, ..., n;
  - compute Cauchy distributed values  $c_i^{(k)} := \tan(\pi \cdot (r_i^{(k)} 0.5));$
  - compute  $K := \max_i |c_i^{(k)}|$  and normalized errors  $\delta_i^{(k)} := \Delta_i \cdot c_i^{(k)}/K$ ;
  - compute the simulated "actual values"  $x_i^{(k)} := \widetilde{x}_i \delta_i^{(k)};$
  - compute simulated errors of indirect measurement:  $\delta^{(k)} := K \cdot \left( \widetilde{y} f\left(x_1^{(k)}, \dots, x_n^{(k)}\right) \right);$
- Compute  $\Delta$  by applying the bisection method to solve the Maximum Likelihood equation.



#### 11. Important Comment

- To avoid confusion, we should emphasize that:
  - in contrast to the Monte-Carlo solution for the probabilistic case,
  - the use of Cauchy distribution in the interval case is a computational trick,
  - it is not a truthful simulation of the actual measurement error  $\Delta x_i$ .

#### • Indeed:

- we know that the actual value of  $\Delta x_i$  is always inside the interval  $[-\Delta_i, \Delta_i]$ , but
- a Cauchy distributed random attains values outside this interval as well.



# 12. Cauchy Deviate Method: Need for Intuitive Explanation

- Fact: the Cauchy deviate method is mathematically valid.
- *Problem:* this method is somewhat counterintuitive:
  - we want to analyze errors which are located *instead* a given interval  $[-\Delta, \Delta]$ , but
  - this analysis use Cauchy simulated errors which are located *outside* this interval.
- It is therefore desirable to come up with an intuitive explanation for this technique.
- In this talk, we show that such an explanation can be obtained from neural networks.



#### 13. Werbos's Idea: Use Neurons

- Traditionally: neural networks are used to simulate a deterministic dependence.
- Paul Werbos suggested that the same neural networks can be used to describe stochastic dependencies as well.
- How: as one of the inputs, we take a random number  $r \sim U([0,1])$ .
- Simplest case: a single neuron.
- In this case: we apply the activation (input-output) function f(y) to the random number r.
- What we do: let us analyze the resulting distribution of f(r).
- Question: which f(y) should we use?



# 14. We Must Choose a Family of Functions, Not a Single Function

- Changing units: if  $f \in F$ , then  $k \cdot f \in F$ .
- Conclusion: in mathematical terms, we choose a family F of functions f.
- Changing starting point: if  $f \in F$ , then  $f + c \in F$ .
- Non-linear changes: since NN are useful in non-linear case, we consider  $f(y) \to g(f(y))$  for non-linear  $g \in G$ .
- Natural requirement: G is closed under composition and depends on finitely many parameters.
- Result: any finite-D group G containing all linear f-s has fractional-linear ones.
- Conclusion:  $F = \{g(f(x)) : g \in G\}.$



#### 15. Which Family is the Best?

- Optimality criterion is not necessary numerical:
  - we can choose F with smallest approximation error,
  - among such F, the fastest to compute.
- General idea: a partial (pre-)order.
- Shift-invariance: if F > G, then  $T_a(F) > T_a(G)$ , where  $T_a(F) = \{ f(x+a) \mid f \in F \}.$
- Finality:
  - if several families are optimal w.r.t. some criterion,
  - we can use this non-uniqueness to select the one with some additional good qualities;
  - in effect, we this change a criterion to a new one in which the optimal family is unique;
  - thus, in the *final* criterion, there is only one optimal family.



#### 16. Main Result

#### Theorem.

- Let a F be optimal in the sense of some optimality criterion that is final and shift-invariant.
- Then  $f \in F$  has the form  $a + b \cdot s_0(K \cdot y + l)$  for some a, b, K and l, where  $s_0(y)$  is
  - either a linear or fractional-linear function,
  - $or s_0(y) = \exp(y),$
  - or the logistic function  $s_0(y) = 1/(1 + \exp(-y))$ ,
  - $or s_0(y) = \tan(y).$

#### Comments.

- The logistic function is indeed the most popular activation in NN, but others are also used.
- $\bullet$  tan(r) leads to the desired Cauchy distribution.



#### 17. Acknowledgments

This work was supported in part:

- by NSF grant HRD-0734825 and
- by Grant 1 T36 GM078000-01 from the National Institutes of Health.

Practical Need for...

Cauchy Deviate...

Cauchy Deviate...

Werbos's Idea: Use...

We Must Choose a...

Main Result

