

From Intervals Through Function Intervals to a General Description of Imprecise Probabilities

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(based on joint work with
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1. Need to Take Uncertainty Into Account When Processing Data

- In practice, we are often interested in a quantity y which is difficult to measure directly.
- *Examples:* distance to a star, amount of oil in the well, tomorrow's weather.
- *Solution:* find easier-to-measure quantities x_1, \dots, x_n related to y by a known dependence $y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.
- Then, we measure x_i and use measurement results \tilde{x}_i to compute an estimate $\tilde{y} = f(\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_n)$.
- Measurements are never absolutely accurate, so even if the model f is exact, $\tilde{x}_i \neq x_i$ leads to $\Delta y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \tilde{y} - y \neq 0$.
- It is important to use information about measurement errors $\Delta x_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \tilde{x}_i - x_i$ to estimate the accuracy Δy .

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2. We Often Have Imprecise Probabilities

- *Usual assumption:* we know the probabilities for Δx_i .
- To find them, we measure the same quantities:
 - with our measuring instrument (MI) and
 - with a much more accurate MI, with $\tilde{x}_i^{\text{st}} \approx x_i$.
- In two important cases, this does not work:
 - state-of-the-art measurements, and
 - measurements on the shop floor.
- Then, we have partial information about probabilities.
- Often, all we know is an upper bound $|\Delta x_i| \leq \Delta_i$.
- Then, we only know that $x_i \in [\tilde{x}_i - \Delta_i, \tilde{x}_i + \Delta_i]$ and
$$y \in [\underline{y}, \overline{y}] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{f(x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in [\tilde{x}_i - \Delta_i, \tilde{x}_i + \Delta_i]\}.$$
- Computing $[\underline{y}, \overline{y}]$ is known as *interval computation*.

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3. How Do We Describe Imprecise Probabilities?

- *Ultimate goal of most estimates:* to make decisions.
- *Known:* a rational decision-maker maximizes expected utility $E[u(y)]$.
- For smooth $u(y)$, $y \approx \tilde{y}$ implies that

$$u(y) = u(\tilde{x}) + (y - \tilde{y}) \cdot u'(\tilde{y}) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (y - \tilde{y})^2 \cdot u''(\tilde{y}).$$

- So, to find $E[u(y)]$, we must know moments $E[(y - \tilde{y})^k]$.
- Often, $u(x)$ abruptly changes: e.g., when pollution level exceeds y_0 ; then $E[u(y)] \sim F(y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{Prob}(y \leq y_0)$.
- From $F(y)$, we can estimate moments, so $F(x)$ is enough.
- Imprecise probabilities mean that we know $F(y)$, we only know bounds (p -box) $\underline{F}(y) \leq F(y) \leq \overline{F}(y)$.

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4. Imprecise Probabilities: What Is Computable?

- Computations with p-boxes are practically important.
- It is thus desirable to come up with efficient algorithms which are as general as possible.
- It is known that too general problems are often *not* computable.
- To avoid wasting time, it is therefore important to find out what *can* be computed.
- At first glance, this question sounds straightforward:
 - to describe a cdf, we can consider a computable function $F(x)$;
 - to describe a p-box, we consider a computable *function interval* $[\underline{F}(x), \overline{F}(x)]$ (à la W. Taha et al.).
- Often, we can do that, but we will show that sometimes, we need to go *beyond* function intervals.

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5. Reminder: What Is Computable?

- A real number x corresponds to a value of a physical quantity.
- We can measure x with higher and higher accuracy.
- So, x is called *computable* if there is an algorithm, that, given k , produces a rational r_k s.t. $|x - r_k| \leq 2^{-k}$.
- A *computable function* computes $f(x)$ from x .
- We can only use approximations to x .
- So, an algorithm for computing a function can, given k , request a 2^{-k} -approximation to x .
- Most usual functions are thus computable.
- *Exception:* step-function $f(x) = 0$ for $x < 0$ and $f(x) = 1$ for $x \geq 0$.
- Indeed, no matter how accurately we know $x \approx 0$, from $r_k = 0$, we cannot tell whether $x < 0$ or $x \geq 0$.

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6. Consequences for Representing a cdf $F(x)$

- We would like to represent a general probability distribution by its cdf $F(x)$.
- From the purely mathematical viewpoint, this is indeed the most general representation.
- At first glance, it makes sense to consider computable functions $F(x)$.
- For many distributions, e.g., for Gaussian, $F(x)$ is computable.
- However, when $x = 0$ with probability 1, the cdf $F(x)$ is exactly the step-function.
- And we already know that the step-function is not computable.
- Thus, we need to find an alternative way to represent cdf's – beyond computable functions.

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7. Back to the Drawing Board

- Each value $F(x)$ is the probability that $X \leq x$.
- We cannot empirically find exact probabilities p .
- We can only estimate *frequencies* f based on a sample of size N .
- For large N , the difference $d \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} p - f$ is asymptotically normal, with $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{p \cdot (1 - p)}{N}}$.
- Situations when $|d - \mu| < 6\sigma$ are negligibly rare, so we conclude that $|f - p| \leq 6\sigma$.
- For large N , we can get $6\sigma \leq \delta$ for any accuracy $\delta > 0$.
- We get a sample X_1, \dots, X_N .
- We don't know the exact values X_i , only measured values \tilde{X}_i s.t. $|\tilde{X}_i - X_i| \leq \varepsilon$ for some accuracy ε .
- So, what we have is a frequency $f = \text{Freq}(\tilde{X}_i \leq x)$.

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8. Resulting Definition

- Here, $X_i \leq x - \varepsilon \Rightarrow \tilde{X}_i \leq x \Rightarrow X_i \leq x + \varepsilon$, so
$$\text{Freq}(X_i \leq x - \varepsilon) \leq f = \text{Freq}(\tilde{X}_i \leq x) \leq \text{Freq}(X_i \leq x + \varepsilon).$$
- Frequencies are δ -close to probabilities, so we arrive at the following:
- *For every x , $\varepsilon > 0$, and $\delta > 0$, we get a rational number f such that $F(x - \varepsilon) - \delta \leq f \leq F(x + \varepsilon) + \delta$.*
- This is how we define a computable cdf $F(x)$.
- In the computer, to describe a distribution on an interval $[\underline{T}, \overline{T}]$:
 - we select a grid $x_1 = \underline{T}$, $x_2 = \underline{T} + \varepsilon$, \dots , and
 - we store the corr. frequencies f_i with accuracy δ .
- A class of possible distribution is represented, for each ε and δ , by a finite list of such approximations.

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9. First Equivalent Definition

- *Original:* $\forall x \forall \varepsilon_{>0} \forall \delta_{>0}$, we get a rational f such that

$$F(x - \varepsilon) - \delta \leq f \leq F(x + \varepsilon) + \delta.$$

- *Equivalent:* $\forall x \forall \varepsilon_{>0} \forall \delta_{>0}$, we get a rational f which is δ -close to $F(x')$ for some x' such that $|x' - x| \leq \varepsilon$.

- *Proof of equivalence:*

– We know that $F(x + \varepsilon) - F(x + \varepsilon/3) \rightarrow 0$ as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$.

– So, for $\varepsilon = 2^{-k}$, $k = 1, 2, \dots$, we take f and f' s.t.

$$F(x + \varepsilon/3) - \delta/4 \leq f \leq F(x + (2/3) \cdot \varepsilon) + \delta/4$$

$$F(x + (2/3) \cdot \varepsilon) - \delta/4 \leq f' \leq F(x + \varepsilon) + \delta/4.$$

– We stop when f and f' are sufficiently close:

$$|f - f'| \leq \delta.$$

– Thus, we get the desired f .

10. Second Equivalent Definition

- We start with pairs $(x_1, f_1), (x_2, f_2), \dots$
- When $f_{i+1} - f_i > \delta$, we add intermediate pairs
$$(x_i, f_i + \delta), (x_i, f_i + 2\delta), \dots, (x_i, f_{i+1}).$$
- The resulting set of pairs is (ε, δ) -close to the graph $\{(x, y) : F(x - 0) \leq y \leq F(x)\}$ in Hausdorff metric d_H .
- (x, y) and (x', y') are (ε, δ) -close if $|x - x'| \leq \varepsilon$ and $|y - y'| \leq \delta$.
- The sets S and S' are (ε, δ) -close if:
 - for every $s \in S$, there is a (ε, δ) -close point $s' \in S'$;
 - for every $s' \in S'$, there is a (ε, δ) -close point $s \in S$.
- Compacts with metric d_H form a computable compact.
- So, $F(x)$ is a monotonic computable object in this compact.

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11. What Can Be Computed: A Positive Result for the 1D Case

- *Reminder:* we are interested in $F(x)$ and $E_{F(x)}[u(x)]$ for smooth $u(x)$.
- *Reminder:* estimate for $F(x)$ is part of the definition.
- *Question:* computing $E_{F(x)}[u(x)]$ for smooth $u(x)$.
- *Our result:* there is an algorithm that:
 - given a computable cdf $F(x)$,
 - given a computable function $u(x)$, and
 - given accuracy $\delta > 0$,
 - computes $E_{F(x)}[u(x)]$ with accuracy δ .
- For computable classes \mathcal{F} of cdfs, a similar algorithm computes the range of possible values

$$[\underline{u}, \bar{u}] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{E_{F(x)}[u(x)] : F(x) \in \mathcal{F}\}.$$

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12. Proof: Main Idea

- Computable functions are computably continuous: for every $\delta > 0$, we can compute $\varepsilon > 0$ s.t.

$$|x - x'| \leq \varepsilon \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(x')| \leq \delta.$$

- We select ε corr. to $\delta/4$, and take a grid with step $\varepsilon/4$.
- For each x_i , the value f_i is $(\delta/4)$ -close to $F(x'_i)$ for some x'_i which is $(\varepsilon/4)$ -close to x_i .
- The function $u(x)$ is $(\delta/2)$ -close to a piece-wise constant function $u'(x) = u(x_i)$ for $x \in [x'_i, x'_{i+1})$.
- Thus, $|E[u(x)] - E[u'(x)]| \leq \delta/2$.
- Here, $E[u'(x)] = \sum_i u(x_i) \cdot (F(x'_{i+1}) - F(x'_i))$.
- Here, $F(x'_i)$ is close to f_i and $F(x'_{i+1})$ is close to f_{i+1} .
- Thus, $E[u'(x)]$ (and hence, $E[u(x)]$) is computably close to a computable sum $\sum_i u(x_i) \cdot (f_{i+1} - f_i)$.

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13. What to Do in a Multi-D Case?

- For each $g(x)$, y , $\varepsilon > 0$, and $\delta > 0$, we can find a frequency f such that:

$$|P(g(x) \leq y') - f| \leq \varepsilon \text{ for some } y' \text{ s.t. } |y - y'| \leq \delta.$$

- We select an ε -net x_1, \dots, x_n for X . Then,

$$X = \bigcup_i B_\varepsilon(x_i), \text{ where } B_\varepsilon(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x' : d(x, x') \leq \varepsilon\}.$$

- We select f_1 which is close to $P(B_{\varepsilon'}(x_1))$ for all ε' from some interval $[\underline{\varepsilon}, \bar{\varepsilon}]$ which is close to ε .
- We then select f_2 which is close to $P(B_{\varepsilon'}(x_1) \cup B_{\varepsilon'}(x_2))$ for all ε' from some subinterval of $[\underline{\varepsilon}, \bar{\varepsilon}]$, etc.
- Then, we get approximations to probabilities of the sets $B_\varepsilon(x_i) - (B_\varepsilon(x_1) \cup \dots \cup B_\varepsilon(x_{i-1}))$.
- This lets us compute the desired values $E[u(x)]$.

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